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1 **Scots pines colonizing the harsh environment of volcano slopes increased**

2 **their hydraulic safety margin**

3

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27 **Abstract**

28 The ability of trees to survive and naturally regenerate under increasing drought
29 conditions will depend on their capacity to vary key hydraulic and morphological traits that
30 increase drought tolerance. Yet, there has been limited investigation into this variability under
31 recurrent severe drought conditions since the establishment phase. We investigated the
32 hydraulic and leaf trait adjustments of Scots pine trees settled in an abandoned slag quarry by
33 comparing them across three topographic positions inducing contrasted effects on growth. We
34 measured xylem and foliar traits to compare the water status of trees according to tree location
35 and to evaluate the respective risk for xylem hydraulic failure using the soil-plant hydraulic
36 model *SurEau*. Compared to upslope and downslope trees, slope trees exhibited lower growth,
37 photosynthetic pigment contents, vulnerability to embolism and specific hydraulic conductivity
38 as well as higher water potential at turgor loss point and midday water potentials. As a
39 consequence, slope trees showed an increase in the hydraulic safety margin and a low level of
40 embolism, compared to downslope and to upslope trees.. Additionally, these adjustments
41 induced an increase in the time to hydraulic failure in slope trees compared to downslope and
42 upslope trees under similar drought conditions simulated using the *SurEau* model. These results
43 suggest a prioritization of hydraulic safety over growth in Scots pine developed in a harsh
44 environment, resulting in a dwarf phenotype.

45

46 **Key words:** Acclimation, embolism, mortality, *Pinus sylvestris* L., pioneer species, water stress

47 **Key message:** Scots pines developed for several years on volcano slopes showed a dwarf
48 phenotype and a larger hydraulic safety margin than downslope trees, such that hydraulic safety
49 was prioritized over growth.

50

51 **Introduction**

52 Tree species with a wide distribution area or living in contrasting habitats, and pioneer
53 species, must display variability for traits that allow them to cope with various environmental
54 conditions. Especially, the soil water availability is critical in seedling establishment, plant
55 growth and survival. Successful seedling and sapling development is a prerequisite for forest
56 regeneration as well as for pioneer colonization (Lloret et al. 2009). Impeding these stages under
57 climate change would hamper forest establishment and regeneration (Anderson-Teixeira et al.
58 2013).

59 A wide range of structural and physiological adjustments based on phenotypic plasticity
60 and genetic variability is a key feature for tree species adaptation to environmental changes,
61 especially for pioneer species (Sultan et al. 2000; Nicotra et al. 2010). Indeed, species with
62 greater plasticity may be more likely to survive climate change that occurs too rapidly to allow
63 for a population migration or an evolutionary response. Moreover, plasticity allows pioneer
64 species to colonize environmentally diverse sites without the lag time required for local
65 adaptation. Studying variations of traits related to drought resistance is necessary to improve
66 the predictions of tree responses to climate change (Anderegg 2015).

67 Resistance to drought is conferred by a set of interacting traits, in which hydraulic traits
68 have a key role (Martínez-Vilalta et al. 2002; Chaves et al. 2003; Choat et al. 2012). Indeed,
69 drought-induced tree mortality is mainly due to xylem hydraulic failure caused by embolism
70 (Barigah et al. 2013; Anderegg et al. 2016), even if functional evidence remains to be found to
71 link hydraulic failure and tree death (Mantova et al. 2022). Much is known about the variability
72 of these hydraulic traits across species (Maherali et al. 2004; Jacobsen et al. 2007; Choat et al.
73 2012), and about their intraspecific variability (e.g. in Martínez-Vilalta et al. 2009; Herbette et
74 al. 2010; Bartlett et al. 2014; González-Muñoz et al. 2018). Within species variations in
75 hydraulic traits have been reported for many species grown under natural conditions (Martínez-

76 Vilalta et al. 2009; González-Muñoz et al. 2018), in common gardens (Wortemann et al. 2011;
77 Lamy et al. 2011; Pritzkow et al. 2020) or under controlled experimental conditions (Awad et
78 al. 2010; Lemaire et al. 2021). Yet, little is known about the physiological adjustment capacities
79 of pioneer trees establishing in bare sites under severe water deficit conditions. Studies
80 comparing hydraulic properties along wide environmental gradients for a given species provide
81 information on the extent of trait variations in mature trees and within the species' range, but
82 this did not consider the tree settlement phase for pioneer species and did not reflect the effects
83 of predicted more severe droughts than those undergone in their present niche. Conversely,
84 most studies based on drought manipulation experiments submitted trees to severe drought but
85 they were typically short-term or did not consider the tree settlement phase (Cotrufo et al. 2011;
86 MacKay et al. 2012; Herbette et al. 2021; Moreno et al. 2021). Yet, acclimation processes and
87 long-term mechanisms could occur to adjust tree responses to changes in water availability on
88 longer time scales (Leuzinger et al. 2011; Barbeta et al. 2013; Feichtinger et al. 2014). For a
89 full understanding of the drought resistance strategy of pioneer species, the leaf traits need also
90 to be considered, as they reflect the tree strategy regarding the water losses as well as the use
91 of other resources (Wright et al. 2004; Bartlett et al. 2012). Moreover, trees can adjust their
92 water consumption and hydraulic safety through the coordination of stomatal regulation and
93 modification of the hydraulic system (Choat et al. 2012; Martínez-Vilalta et al. 2009; Rosas et
94 al. 2019). The leaf water potential at turgor loss (Ψ_{tlp}) and its related parameters have been
95 proposed as powerful indicators of the drought tolerance of plants (McDowell 2011; Bartlett et
96 al. 2012). Indeed, plants with lower Ψ_{tlp} are more efficient to maintain stomatal conductance,
97 photosynthesis, hydraulic conductance, and growth under water stress (Bartlett et al. 2012).
98 Despite stomatal closure, water loss continues through the cuticle and incompletely closed
99 stomata, and this is measured as the leaf minimum conductance (g_{min}). Recent studies showed
100 this trait to be critical, especially for severe droughts (Duursma et al. 2019; Brodribb et al. 2020).

101 Under long-term drought conditions, tight coordination between hydraulic and leaf traits should
102 allow plants to balance between safety (avoiding hydraulic failure) and efficiency, in terms of
103 resource use to ensure growth and maintenance (Brodribb et al. 2014). Therefore, to better
104 understand pioneer settlement in harsh habitats and to predict forest development under climate
105 change, investigations are needed on the impact of drought on hydraulic and leaf traits over a
106 longer period starting from seedling establishment.

107 Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) spans a vast climatic gradient from Eastern Siberia to
108 Southern Spain (Poyatos et al. 2007). It is a pioneer tree establishing on wet or dry sites, on
109 poor, sandy soils, rocky outcrops, peat bogs and other various harsh ecosystems (Richardson
110 and Rundel 1998). Although this species is considered to be drought resistant, more than one-
111 third of the drought-induced forest diebacks reported by Allen et al. (2010) are linked to Scots
112 pine forests. These features make this species relevant for the study of the variability in drought-
113 resistant traits, in addition to economic reasons and its importance in successional dynamics of
114 temperate forests and thus their sustainability. That is why trait variability has been studied in
115 Scots pine, especially for hydraulic traits (Poyatos et al. 2007; Martinez-Vilalta et al. 2009;
116 Zang et al. 2012; Feichtinger et al. 2015; Seidel and Menzel 2016; Rosas et al. 2019), and for
117 other traits related to cambial activity (Fernández-de-Uña et al. 2018) or leaf area/sapwood area
118 ratio (Mencuchini and Bonosi 2001). However, more comprehensive investigations on
119 hydraulic traits variability and their interactions during the settlement phase are also needed
120 under extremely dry conditions to complete the picture of physiological and structural hydraulic
121 plasticity in this pioneer species. This will contribute to improve our understanding of the
122 colonization mechanisms of pioneer trees and help predict how climate change will affect this
123 species.

124 We identified an abandoned quarry that had been exclusively colonized by Scots pines for 20
125 years, with no other vegetation able to settle, allowing to investigate adjustments mechanisms

126 (throughout selection and/or acclimation) over many years under very constraining
127 environmental conditions (Figure 1). The trees established at slope position displayed greatly
128 reduced dimensions of plants, annual shoots and needles and yellowing of needles when
129 compared to individuals established downslope or upslope. In this study, we compared water
130 relations of trees located in these different positions and we evaluated morphological and
131 hydraulic traits at needle and stem levels that allowed this species to establish within such a
132 harsh environment. We hypothesized that 1) Scots pine shows large difference between
133 topographic conditions for both leaf and stem hydraulic traits including vulnerability to
134 embolism, hydraulic conductivity, turgor loss point 2) the subsequent hydraulic adjustments in
135 slope trees allow Scots pine trees to operate with a narrow hydraulic safety margin and at higher
136 risk of mortality, 3) the slope trees display a higher native embolism level and a lower growth
137 than at the other positions due to hydraulic limitations.

138 **Materials and methods**

139 **Site and trees**

140 The site was located aside the East hillside of the volcano “Puy de la Vache”, (Saint-
141 Genès-Champanelle, France), at an altitude of 962 to 973 m (45°42' N, 2°58' E), in a scoria
142 quarry abandoned in the 1980's. The soil substratum is scoria, a dark colored basaltic or
143 andesitic volcanic rock. The site was characterized by loose substratum, low field capacity,
144 nutrient poverty, high solar irradiation and temperature, recurrent summer droughts and cold
145 winters (Frain 1991). It was a former reserve of scoria and the company that operated the quarry
146 shaped the landscape (Figure 1) removing soil, exposing slag substrate and shaping the relief
147 over a short distance into terraces, foothills and hillslopes.

148 On the site, Scots pines developed in a large open patch free of plant as the ground was
149 left bare (Figure 1). We divided the studied trees in three groups regarding their location in the
150 landscape and their statures. The slope trees were shrubby and small with reduced needle size,

151 while the downslope trees were vigorous and tall with larger needles and the upslope ones were
152 intermediate (figure 1). We selected trees far from the border between two positions. Moreover,
153 we also checked that the selected trees showed the morphological differences that distinguish
154 the three groups, especially between slope and downslope trees. We selected trees of
155 homogeneous ages, from 17 to 23 years old, and an average of 18.8 years' old over all groups.
156 Most measurements were carried out during the spring and summer of 2013. Some additional
157 measurement such as the chlorophyll, carotenoids and mineral contents were performed during
158 the summer 2018.

159 **Branch age and growth**

160 The age of the sampled branches was assessed by the number of wood rings.

161 Annual ring growth was measured on the branches collected for measurements of hydraulic
162 traits and needle parameters. Mean annual ring growth was calculated as the total wood
163 diameter over the number of rings for 31, 39 and 25 branches from downslope, upslope and
164 slope trees, respectively.

165 **Needle chemical nutrient, chlorophyll and carotenoid content assays**

166 We determined the contents of nitrogen (N), calcium (Ca), potassium (K), magnesium
167 (Mg), sodium (Na), iron (Fe), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and plumb (Pb) on newly-developed
168 needles sampled from three to five trees per location. The needles were taken from branches at
169 the top of the trees and exposed to sunlight. Needles were dried in a forced-air oven for 48 h at
170 80°C. Then, we determined the total N content using the Kjeldahl method (Kjeldahl 1883),
171 while we quantified Ca, K, Mg, Na, Fe, Cu, Zn and Pb by atomic spectrometric absorption
172 method, as described in Paula et al. (2014). First, we mineralized the samples of 20 mg of dried
173 needle material in 35% nitric acid and evaporated to dryness on a hotplate. We then dissolved
174 the minerals in 0.1 N HCl solution. Afterward, we filtrated the solution on Whatman paper N°1.
175 Finally, we measured the ion concentrations with an atomic absorption spectrometer (Avanta

176 GBC spectrometer, Australia), using an air-acetylene flame. We reproduced this process thrice
177 to evaluate a mean value for each sampled tree.

178 To assay the chlorophyll (Chl) and carotenoid contents of the needles, we relied on a
179 procedure adapted from Minocha et al. (2009) and sampled newly developed needles from 8 to
180 15 individual trees for each location and put them immediately in a cooler that contained
181 crushed ice and brought them back to the laboratory. We transferred the samples in liquid
182 nitrogen and stored them at -80 °C until analysis.

183 **Needle xylem water potentials**

184 Six to eight trees per location were used for measurements of needle midday needle
185 water potential (Ψ_{md}) during the season of 2013, and five trees for daily time course of needle
186 water potentials (Ψ_{needle}) on August 21st, 2013. We completed the Ψ_{md} measurements between
187 11.00 am and 1.00 pm solar time. We processed the shoots on the field with a Scholander-type
188 pressure chamber (PMS, Corvallis, Oregon, USA) on covered small shoot tips sampled from
189 sunlight exposed south-facing shoots.

190 **Foliar traits**

191 The specific needle area (SLA) was calculated as the needle area divided by its dry
192 weight. The needle area was evaluated using the length and diameters and considering the
193 needle shape as an ellipse. We measured the SLA on 10 newly-developed needles per tree and
194 on five trees from each location.

195 The Huber value (H_v) is the ratio of cross-sectional sapwood area to subtended leaf area,
196 and it can therefore be analyzed as the ratio of hydraulic and mechanical investment costs over
197 the expected gains obtained by leaf display. The whole needles from terminal branches were
198 oven-dried and weighed, and SLA was used to convert the total dry weight of the distal needles
199 of each branch into total branch needle area. Sapwood area was estimated by measuring the

200 total xylem area on digital images of scanned cross-sections of the collected branches using
201 ImageJ software (Wayne Rasband-National Institute of Health).

202 The needle-cell turgor features were computed using pressure-volume curves (p-v
203 curves). The bench dehydration method was used (Tyree and Hammel 1972; Sack and Pasquet-
204 Kok 2010). We cut 50 cm long shoot samples located at the top of trees and exposed to sunlight
205 from eleven to thirteen trees per location and immediately placed them in plastic bags with wet
206 paper towels to bring them in the laboratory. The samples were rehydrated at full turgor by
207 putting the cut end in water at room temperature overnight in a sealed bag and in a dark room.
208 Then, shoots bearing needles were allowed to dehydrate while periodically being weighed and
209 measured for water potential (Ψ) using a pressure chamber (1505D, PMS Instrument). To
210 prevent rapid water loss, the shoot samples could be kept in plastic bags between measurements.
211 When Ψ was lower than -4 MPa, we measured the needle area, and the entire shoots were
212 dehydrated in an oven at 70 °C during 72 h to reach the needle dry weight. The p-v curve was
213 plotted using the inverse values of needle water potential versus the relative water content
214 (RWC) which was obtained from repeated determinations of fresh mass during dehydration of
215 the shoot tips. Several parameters can be extracted from the p-v curves (Tyree and Hammel
216 1972; Sack and Pasquet-Kok 2010) : the osmotic potential at full turgor (π_0) and the water
217 potential at turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}), the water content at full turgor (WC_0) calculated as the
218 mass of water per needle dry mass, the relative water content at turgor loss point (RWC_{TLP}) and
219 the bulk modulus of tissue elasticity (ϵ_0).

220 The minimal needle conductance (g_{min}) was also determined using data from p-v curves
221 (detailed above). The g_{min} was determined from the slope of the linear part of the curve after
222 stomatal closure, and adjusted for needle area of the sample and for temperature and humidity
223 regularly scored during measurements.

224 **Hydraulic traits**

225 To visualize xylem embolism, we relied on X-ray microtomograph observations, which
226 is a reference method (Cochard et al. 2015). We excised 0.3m-long xylem segments from
227 branches located at the top of the trees and exposed to sunlight from two trees per location,
228 wrapped them in humid paper and plastic bag, brought to the laboratory for analyses on the
229 same day. We removed the needles under water and sealed them in liquid paraffin wax in order
230 to prevent dehydration during the X-ray scans. We placed the samples in an X-ray
231 microtomograph (Nanotom 180 XS, GE, Wunstorf, Germany). The field of view was $5 \times 5 \times 5$
232 mm and covered the full cross section of the samples. The X-ray source settings were 50 kV
233 and 275 μ A. For every 40-min scan, we recorded 1000 images during the 360° rotation of the
234 sample. After 3D reconstruction, the spatial resolution of the image was $2.5 \times 2.5 \times 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ per
235 voxel. We extracted the transverse 2D slice from the middle of the volume and used ImageJ
236 software for visualization and image analysis.

237 Vulnerability to embolism was measured on branches located at the top of the trees and
238 exposed to sunlight. Branches of 0.4–0.5 m long were harvested from at least five individuals
239 per location, wrapped in humid paper and plastic bag, brought to the laboratory and stored at
240 4°C until measurements in the following days, up to one week after sampling. We cut stem
241 segments of 0.28 m-long just before the measurement of their vulnerability to cavitation with
242 the Cavitron technique (Cochard et al. 2005). We measured the loss of hydraulic conductance
243 of the stem segment while the centrifugal force generated an increasing negative xylem pressure.
244 The plot of the percent loss of xylem conductance (PLC) versus the xylem pressure represents
245 the vulnerability curve. First, we set the xylem pressure to a reference pressure (-0.5 or -1.0
246 MPa) and we determined the maximal conductance (k_{max}) of the sample. Then, we set the xylem
247 pressure to a more negative pressure for 2 min, and we determined the new conductance (k).
248 The procedure was repeated for more negative pressures (with -0.50 MPa increments) until

249 PLC reached at least 90%. We generated vulnerability curves for each branch by fitting the data
250 with exponential–sigmoidal function (Pammenter and Willigen 1998):

$$251 \quad \text{PLC} = \left[\frac{100}{1 + e^{\{s / 25(P - P_{50})\}}} \right] \quad (6)$$

252 Where P_{50} is the pressure causing 50% loss of conductance and s is the slope value at
253 this point.

254 Specific hydraulic conductivity (K_s) was measured on branches collected from the top
255 of trees and exposed to sunlight from six individual trees per location. The day after sampling,
256 branch segments were recut underwater using a razor blade and their length (L_{stem}) was
257 measured. The apical end of the sample was plugged to an embolism meter (Xyl'em,
258 Bronkhorst, Montigny les Cormeilles, France). The total conductance (K) was then measured
259 under low pressure (2–7 kPa) using a solution of 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl₂. The xylem area
260 A_x was measured as the mean area of the both ends of the sample on digital images of scanned
261 cross-sections in ImageJ. The K_s was defined as follows:

$$262 \quad K_s = K \times L_{\text{stem}} / A_x. \quad (7)$$

263 Leaf specific conductivity (LSC) was measured on the same samples and was
264 determined by replacing A_x to the subtended leaf area. This leaf area was measured as
265 previously described.

266 ***SurEau* model simulations**

267 The *SurEau* model is a mechanistic discrete-time soil–plant–atmosphere hydraulic
268 model that predicts plant hydraulic and hydric properties under simulations of water stress
269 (Martin St Paul et al. 2017; Cochard et al. 2021). It is used to simulate the time to hydraulic
270 failure under drought considering that this time is reached with high embolism level, i.e. 90 %
271 (e.g. Lemaire et al. 2021). In this work, we used the *SurEau* model to understand how the
272 combination of tree traits measured in the 3 quarry ecological conditions impacted their time to

273 reach hydraulic failure. We parameterized the trees of each condition in the model by taking
274 into account their average size, estimated in the field, and the physiological parameters that we
275 measured (see Table S1 available as Supplementary Data at *Trees* Online for an exhaustive list
276 of variables). For the soil, we considered that the surface explored by the roots was the same as
277 the surface of the crowns and that the ratio between the volume of water available in the soil
278 and the leaf surface was constant. This defined the soil depth in each condition. The hydric and
279 hydraulic properties of the soil were described by pedotransfer functions according to the model
280 of van Genuchten (1980) adapted to scoria (Wallach et al 1992). We considered stomatal
281 conductance to be a linear function of needle turgor pressure calculated from the pressure-
282 volume curve parameters. The water potential at stomatal closure was assumed to coincide with
283 the turgor loss point. The bark conductance was assumed to be equal to the minimum
284 conductance measured on leaves. The exhaustive list of variables can be found in the table S1
285 at *Trees* Online. The model was run under constant climate conditions set to match the climate
286 conditions in the field at noon on a typical sunny day in June, with the atmospheric temperature
287 set at 28 °C, the atmospheric relative humidity set at 25% and the PAR set at 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
288 s^{-1} . The wind speed was set at 1 m s^{-1} . In a first case, simulations are made for each type of tree
289 in their respective environments. The combined effects of morphological and physiological
290 parameters on hydraulic failure are then taken into account. In the next two cases, we simulated
291 trees in a downslope and slope position but applied the physiological traits measured under the
292 other site conditions. Here, the morphological differences between the conditions are ignored.
293 The results of the simulations are given in terms of the temporal dynamics of PLC of the
294 branches.

295 **Statistical analysis**

296 We subjected measured and derived data to statistical analysis using a software package
297 (XLSTAT 19.4.46926, Addinsoft, Paris, France) for ANOVA. We compared the mean values
298 with Tukey's multiple range tests at 0.05 levels when effects were significant.

299 **Results**

300 To measure foliar and hydraulic traits, we had to collect branch samples of
301 homogeneous dimensions. The samples showed therefore differences in age, especially
302 between downslope and upslope trees (figure 2). The slope trees showed a significantly lower
303 annual ring growth rate over years ($P < 0.001$) compared to downslope and the upslope trees. To
304 test if slope, even upslope, trees suffered from nutrient deficiency, we measured the main
305 chemical elements of the needles (table 1). Except for nitrogen, there was no difference in
306 needle nutrient contents between the locations. Both upslope and slope trees displayed similar
307 nitrogen content (8.54 ± 0.35 and 7.16 ± 0.49 mg g⁻¹ DW), contrary to the downslope trees that
308 had higher content of nitrogen (12.85 ± 1.03 mg g⁻¹ DW). The total needle chlorophyll and
309 carotenoid contents were also variable regarding the tree locations (table 2), They were
310 significantly higher in the downslope trees compared to the slope and upslope trees. To compare
311 the water status of trees according to their position, we monitored the evolution of needle
312 midday water potential (Ψ_{md}) over the growing season (figure 3A). At the onset of the
313 experiment, we found no significant difference in Ψ_{md} between locations. Then, the Ψ_{md}
314 decreased over the season but stabilized earlier for the slope trees than for the upslope and
315 downslope ones. Consequently, the slope trees had a significantly higher Ψ_{md} (about -1.0 MPa)
316 compared to the upslope and downslope ones (up to -1.5 MPa). The Ψ_{md} were similar for both
317 upslope and downslope trees (figure 3A). On day 233, sunniest and driest day in late summer
318 of the year, we carried out a survey of needle water potentials (Ψ , figure 3B). At predawn (i.e.
319 before 7 am), no significant difference in Ψ was found between trees from the three locations.
320 Then, the Ψ decreased over time but stabilized earlier for the slope trees than for the upslope

321 and downslope ones. Consequently, the slope trees had a significantly higher Ψ compared to
322 the upslope and downslope ones, during this day (figure 3B). We found similar results for day
323 214, which was another almost cloudless and very dry day in the same summertime (data not
324 shown).

325 To investigate the drought resistance strategy according to the trees' location, we
326 measured hydraulic and foliar traits. We measured the xylem vulnerability to embolism on
327 branches (figure 4 A). The slope trees were more resistant to embolism than downslope trees
328 with branch P_{50} values of -3.70 MPa and -3.25 MPa, respectively, while the upslope trees
329 displayed an intermediate P_{50} value of -3.49 MPa (table 3). The X-ray microtomography
330 observation revealed that the native embolism in the tested trees was rather low (less than 5 %)
331 regardless their location, and no embolism did occur over the last years (figure 5). This excludes
332 possible effect of native embolism on the measured P_{50} . The branches from slope trees showed
333 also a significantly lower mean value for K_s and LSC compared to upslope and downslope trees
334 (table 3).

335 At the needle level, the SLA showed significant differences according to the tree
336 location, the SLA being significantly higher in slope trees compared to downslope and upslope
337 trees. The bulk leaf parameters drawn from the p-v curves revealed a lower Ψ_{TLP} for slope trees
338 compared to downslope trees (table 3), whereas other related parameters including WC_0 ,
339 RWC_{TLP} , π_0 and ϵ_0 showed no significant differences. The g_{min} values were the greatest for
340 upslope trees (table3). Although, there were large differences in needle dimensions (figure 1)
341 according to the tree locations, the H_v were similar between tree groups (table 3).

342 The risk for xylem hydraulic failure according to the location was evaluated in two
343 ways: i) by calculating the hydraulic safety margin, ii) by simulating the impact of a drought
344 on the dynamics of xylem embolism with the *SurEau* model. We calculated the hydraulic safety
345 margin as the difference between P_{50} and the Ψ_{TLP} . The former is considered as a threshold in

346 hydraulic failure for conifers, while the latter is a proxy of the water potential inducing stomatal
347 closure delaying embolism occurrence. The figure 4B shows that this safety margin was
348 significantly higher for slope trees (mean of 1.92 MPa) compared to downslope trees (1.18
349 MPa), upslope trees having an intermediate mean value (1.53 MPa). Using the experimental
350 trait values and the pedo-climatic conditions, the computations of the *SurEau* model revealed
351 that the PLC dynamics showed differences between tree locations (figure 6). Xylem embolism
352 increased later in downslope trees comparing to slope and upslope trees (figure 6A). Finally,
353 there was no difference in xylem embolism dynamic between slope and upslope trees. However,
354 when trees were submitted to similar drought conditions, i.e. drought at downslope or slope
355 position (Figure 6B and C, respectively), hydraulic failure was delayed in trees grown at slope
356 position compared to trees grown on upslope or on downslope.

357 **Discussion**

358 Scots pines settled and developed on the slopes were subject to the most severe stress
359 conditions as they have a dwarf phenotype associated with severe reductions in growth, needle
360 dimensions and chlorophyll content. These slope trees showed the greatest hydraulic safety
361 margin and were operating with the highest water potentials to avoid embolism events. This
362 hydraulic safety seems to be prioritized over growth. These trees also presented reduced
363 photosynthetic properties as they had a reduced hydraulic conductivity, a low quantity of
364 photosynthetic pigments, and bulk leaf parameters such as π_0 , Ψ_{TLP} , and ϵ_0 unfavorable to gas
365 exchange. Scots pines developed under intermediate stress conditions, i.e. on upper slope,
366 showed intermediate hydraulic adjustments.

367 The physiological and morphological adjustments in Scots pines settled and developed under
368 very stressful conditions were quite different from those observed for the same species between
369 populations located along environmental gradients throughout Europe (Martinez-Vilalta et al.
370 2009; Rosas et al. 2019). For instance, we observed a decrease in stem conductivity and

371 vulnerability to embolism, no change in H_v and an increase in SLA for slope trees, whereas
372 populations developed on drier sites at the European scale showed no change in stem hydraulic
373 traits, an increase in H_v and a decrease in SLA (Martinez-vilalta et al. 2009; Rosas et al. 2019).
374 This confirms the interest in investigating the tree response over long periods of time and under
375 more constraining conditions, in particular drier and hotter than those encountered in the current
376 range of the species.

377 **Responses of Scots pines to the harsh conditions of slag slopes**

378 All the slope trees are homogeneous in height and age, indicating that they germinated
379 at the same time, probably when conditions allowed seedlings to settle. The observed response
380 of the studied trees could be explained by both a selection process of the most resistant genotype
381 and having a phenotypic plasticity adapted to this environment. In support of this assumption,
382 greatest plasticity induced by water-limited conditions was found for genotypes originated from
383 a warm dry site, with enhanced drought tolerance compared with the genotype from a cool-wet
384 site (Challis et al. 2022).

385 The weak growth in slope trees, and to a lesser extent in upslope trees (figure 2), resulted
386 in a dwarf phenotype (figure 1). This phenotype would be related to a decrease in parameters
387 related to photosynthetic capacities, such as photosynthetic pigment contents, N content and
388 needle dimensions (table 2 and 3). Since the three conditions are a few meters apart (a dozen at
389 most), the slope factor would mainly affect water availability and nutrient content (Frain 1991).
390 According to the results on the nutrient assays (table 1), Scots pines did not suffer from any
391 deficiency for the nutrient assayed, except for N that was at lower content in both slope and
392 upslope trees. This lower N content was already reported as correlated with a decrease in
393 chlorophyll and carotenoids contents and an increase in the chlorophyll a/b ratio (Mu and Chen
394 2021). These changes in pigment contents and ratio have also been reported for Scots pines
395 under prolonged drought conditions (Zlobin et al. 2019). This was attributed to a limited

396 capacity to absorb nitrogen (Salazar-Tortosa et al. 2018; Zlobin et al. 2019). Under prolonged
397 drought conditions, Scots pines would be trapped in a feedback cycle of nutrient deficit that
398 would exacerbate the detrimental impacts of drought on growth (Salazar-Tortosa et al. 2018).
399 It is thus difficult to dissociate nutritional effect from drought effects, especially on long-term
400 responses. The vulnerability to embolism is known to decrease under drier conditions (Awad
401 et al. 2010; Lemaire et al. 2021), but the effect of nitrogen availability on the hydraulic traits
402 are contradictory among studies (e.g. Hacke et al. 2010; Plavcová et al. 2012; Borghetti et al.
403 2017). It is thus difficult to analyze the cause of the phenotypic responses in our study.
404 However, some parameters such as growth and photosynthetic pigment contents indicated that
405 slope trees were more stressed than upslope trees, while they showed the same nitrogen content.
406 This suggests that the phenotype of slope trees would be more associated with a water
407 deficiency though it was not recorded during our sampling time.

408 **Prioritizing hydraulic safety in slope trees**

409 Slope trees showed lower vulnerability to embolism than the downslope trees. Several
410 studies have shown that vulnerability to embolism decreases when plants grow under drier
411 conditions; this trait being designed according to the water potential experienced by the plant
412 at the time of xylem formation (Awad et al. 2010; Lemaire et al. 2021). Yet, Scots pine
413 populations growing under very dry conditions do not show changes in their vulnerability to
414 embolism, but rather acclimation of other traits such as H_v , K_s and Ψ_{TLP} (Martinez-Vilalta et al.
415 2009; Rosas et al. 2019). Studies on other species concluded the same lack of relationship
416 between climate dryness and vulnerability to embolism (e.g. Herbette et al. 2010; Wortemman
417 et al. 2011; Hajek et al. 2016). A reduction in the vulnerability to embolism would only be
418 possible for the most marginal populations (Stojnic et al. 2017). This is consistent with the fact
419 that slope pines in this study were in conditions at the limit of their ecological niche. It remains

420 to determine if this results from acclimation or from selection of individuals having the lowest
421 vulnerability to embolism.

422 Slope pines had also a higher Ψ_{TLP} compared to downslope trees, limiting water loss
423 through early stomatal closure. This is consistent with a stabilization of Ψ_{md} at higher values
424 during the season and on a dry day for slope trees, compared to other conditions (Figure 3).
425 This appears contradictory to the results from Rosas et al (2019) showing a lower Ψ_{TLP} for Scots
426 pine populations growing on very dry sites. As for vulnerability to embolism, such discrepancy
427 could be related to the fact that the slope pines were in very stressful conditions, and they should
428 ensure their survival rather than an efficient growth. The resulting safety margin is significantly
429 increased in these slope pines. The simulated dynamics of xylem embolism support this
430 improved safety margin for slope trees since the increase in xylem embolism was delayed for
431 slope trees compared to other trees when they were submitted to similar drought conditions
432 (Figure 6B and C). Moreover, the slope trees maintained the lowest g_{min} value, whereas g_{min}
433 was the highest in upslope trees (table 3). This hydraulic safety showed its effectiveness by very
434 low levels of embolism accumulated over the previous years (figure 5). Moreover, the most
435 surprising point is that these trees do not seem to be in a more constrained water status, as
436 revealed by the 2 years of monitoring of water potentials (figure 3). A recent study on grapevine
437 based on model-assisted ideotyping demonstrated that, among the various trait combinations
438 tested, the most drought-tolerant plants had generally a larger hydraulic safety margin (Dayer
439 et al. 2022). In our study, the harsh conditions imposed by the slag slopes favored the
440 development of a large hydraulic safety margin.

441 This greater hydraulic safety in slope pines would be ensured at the expense of growth,
442 and thus contributes to the dwarf phenotype of the slope pines. First, there is a carbon cost
443 associated with the development of embolism-resistant xylem (Hacke et al. 2001). In a previous
444 study, we demonstrated that a decrease in vulnerability to embolism was prioritized over the

445 growth for beech recovering from a severe drought (Herbette et al. 2021). Accordingly, we
446 observed a higher wood density for slope pines (data not shown), a trait that is usually correlated
447 with vulnerability to embolism and requires an energy cost (Hacke et al. 2001). The earlier
448 closure of stomata deduced from ψ_{TLP} led to a reduction in carbon assimilation which would
449 further explain the poor growth of slope pines, in addition to reductions in chlorophyll and
450 nitrogen contents and needle size. The needles of these slope pines also showed an increase in
451 π_0 and an increase in ε_0 which could be associated with decreases in soluble sugar content and
452 wall thickness, related to a lower photosynthetic activity in these pines.

453 **Conclusions**

454 Scots pines that had grown for several years under stressful conditions showed
455 physiological adjustments that increased their hydraulic safety at the expense of their growth.
456 Contrary to our initial hypotheses, the slope trees did not operate with a higher hydraulic risk
457 and a sub-lethal embolism threshold, but with a lower hydraulic risk than the upslope and
458 downslope pines having a higher growth rate. On the long term, hydraulic safety is prioritized
459 over growth that just barely allowed for renewal of structures.

460 This study helps to improve our forecasts on the response of Scots pine populations to
461 climate change that will be accompanied by intense and recurrent droughts over several years.
462 Of course, such a study does not integrate the interactions between species in the response to
463 climate change, and in particular the competition by more xerophilic species. The next step of
464 this work will be to distinguish the role of plasticity from that of a selection effect on these
465 physiological adjustments.

466

467 **Supplementary data.**

468 Table S1. Exhaustive list of variables used for *SurEau* simulations.

469 **Conflict of Interest.**

470 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
471 or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

472 **Authors' contributions**

473 HC, SH and STB contributed to developing the question and experimental design. DSFF,
474 DMSP, HC, JN, PH, SH and STB performed ecophysiological analyses. ME and SH handled
475 experiments dealing with nutrient, chlorophyll and carotenoid contents. EB and PC conducted
476 microCT experiments. STB, HC and SH wrote the manuscript with contributions from all
477 authors.

478

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679

680 **List of figures**

681 **Figure 1: Study site and morphology of the studied trees.** The study site is located on a
682 former quarry of the volcano "Puy de la Vache". The site is organized in terraces of slag
683 separated by slopes. The vegetation present on these slopes and terraces has developed without
684 any human intervention. On the slopes, the only vascular species to develop is the Scots pine.
685 The site is split into 3 areas: the slope, the upslope (corresponding to a terrace) and the
686 downslope (corresponding to the bottom of the quarry). The box shows the morphology of
687 branches developed by slope, upslope and downslope trees, from left to right, respectively.

688 **Figure 2: Annual ring growth of branch samples from Scots pines developed under the**
689 **three conditions.** Branches were sampled on trees located on the downslope (square), the
690 upslope (circle) or the slope (cross). Their annual ring growth were measured and plotted versus
691 their age. Each point represents one branch from one individual tree. Points showing error bars
692 (\pm SD) are mean values, and different uppercase and lowercase letters indicate significant
693 differences between conditions for annual ring growth and sample age, respectively ($P < 0.05$).

694 **Figure 3: Seasonal variations (A) and daily time course (B) in xylem water potential of**
695 **Scots pines developed under the three conditions.** A, Midday water potentials were measured
696 on tips of branches sampled from five trees located on the downslope (white), the upslope (grey)
697 or the slope (dark), during sunny days preceded by a period of several days without rain. B,
698 Water potentials were measured regularly from predawn (4 am) to the end (5 pm) of the day
699 233 on branches sampled from 5 trees located on the downslope (square), the upslope (circle)
700 or the slope (cross). Symbols are mean values, bars represent standard errors, and different
701 letters indicate significant differences between the conditions for each time ($P < 0.05$).

702 **Figure 4: Xylem vulnerability to embolism (A) and hydraulic safety margin (B) of**
703 **branches from Scots pines developed under the three conditions.** A, vulnerability curves
704 were performed from measurements on branches sampled from 6 trees located on the

705 downslope (solid line), on the upslope (dashed line) or on the slope (dotted line). For each curve,
706 the mean water potential at 50% loss of hydraulic conductance (P_{50}) is indicated by the open
707 symbol and the error bar is the standard error. B, the hydraulic safety margin was calculated for
708 each tree from the difference between Ψ_{TLP} and P_{50} values. Mean values and standard errors
709 are represented. Different letters indicate significant differences between the conditions ($P <$
710 0.01).

711 **Figure 5: Transverse X-ray microtomography images of branches from Scots pines**
712 **developed under the three conditions.** Branches were sampled from trees developed at the
713 downslope (A, D), at the upslope (B, E) or at the slope (C, F). Embolized tracheids are as
714 depicted by black color while the fully saturated tissues are depicted as bright color. Embolized
715 conduits were mainly found for the oldest wood rings. No embolism (or few) was observed in
716 the rings of the last two years.

717 **Figure 6: Simulated (*SurEau* model) time courses of the loss of xylem hydraulic**
718 **conductance in the branches during a virtual drought event.** Drought simulations were
719 performed using experimental traits values from trees developing on the downslope (solid lines),
720 on the upslope (dashed lines) or on the slope (dotted lines), while considering three conditions:
721 trees in their respective locations (A), all trees on the downslope (B) and all trees on the slope
722 (C).

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Element content (mg.g ⁻¹ DW)	Downslope	Upslope	Slope
Nitrogen	12.85(± 1.03) ^a	8.54 (± 0.35) ^b	7.16 (± 0.49) ^b
Potassium	7.64 (± 0.55)	6.89 (± 0.29)	7.50 (± 0.38)
Calcium	14.3 (± 0.79)	13.4 (± 0.76)	14.7 (± 0.39)
Magnesium	4.65 (± 0.22)	4.87 (± 0.12)	5.49 (± 0.33)
Iron	0.451 (± 0.027)	0.514 (± 0.062)	0.494 (± 0.042)
Copper	0.0492 (± 0.0026)	0.0415 (± 0.0054)	0.0416 (± 0.0033)
Zinc	0.0552 (± 0.0021)	0.0450 (± 0.0058)	0.0407 (± 0.0030)

725

726 **Table 1: Nutrient content in needle from Scots pines developed under the three conditions.** Data are mean
727 values (± SE) from three branches per tree sampled from three to five trees developed on the downslope, the
728 upslope and the slope, respectively. Different letters indicate significant differences between the conditions for
729 each element ($P < 0.05$).

Pigment content	Downslope	Upslope	Slope
Total chlorophyll (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)	1.98 (± 0.20) ^a	0.99 (± 0.08) ^b	0.58 (± 0.04) ^c
Chlorophyll a/b ratio	2.18 (± 0.09) ^a	2.28(± 0.06) ^a	2.55(± 0.03) ^b
Total carotenoids (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)	0.511 (± 0.049) ^a	0.261 (± 0.021) ^b	0.190 (± 0.010) ^c

730

731 **Table 2: Photosynthetic pigment content in needle from Scots pines developed under the three conditions.**

732 Data are means values (± SE) from 11, 8 and 15 individual trees developed on the downslope, the upslope and the

733 slope, respectively. Different letters indicate significant differences between the conditions for each pigment

734 content ($P < 0.01$).

Traits (units)	Downslope	Upslope	Slope
$P_{50 \text{ stem}}$ (MPa)	-3.25 (\pm 0.05) ^a	-3.49 (\pm 0.11) ^{ab}	-3.70 (\pm 0.07) ^b
K_s (mol m ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ MPa ⁻¹)	23.3 (\pm 2.41) ^a	24.4 (\pm 2.11) ^a	11.5 (\pm 1.06) ^b
LSC (mmol m ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ MPa ⁻¹)	5.29 (\pm 0.38) ^a	5.96 (\pm 0.49) ^a	3.14 (\pm 0.41) ^b
SLA (m ² g ⁻¹)	80.79 (\pm 1.14) ^a	67.75 (\pm 1.48) ^b	108.94 (\pm 10.24) ^c
H_v (cm ² .m ⁻²)	2.62 (\pm 0.18)	2.70 (\pm 0.14)	2.64 (\pm 0.11)
g_{min} (mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	1.91 (\pm 0.23) ^a	2.79 (\pm 0.17) ^b	1.64 (\pm 0.19) ^a
Ψ_{TLP} (MPa)	-2.07 (\pm 0.11) ^a	-1.87 (\pm 0.15) ^{ab}	-1.78 (\pm 0.10) ^b
WC_0	2.04 (\pm 0.44)	1.67 (\pm 0.30)	1.57 (\pm 0.24)
RWC_{TLP}	70.76 (\pm 5.91)	75.21(\pm 4.18)	76.14 (\pm 3.84)
π_0 (MPa)	-1.36 (\pm 0.10)	-1.32 (\pm 0.11)	-1.21 (\pm 0.08)
ε_0 (MPa)	6.28 (\pm 1.65)	5.68 (\pm 1.12)	5.11 (\pm 1.01)

735

736 **Table 3: Functional traits for Scots pines developed under the three conditions.** Data are the mean values

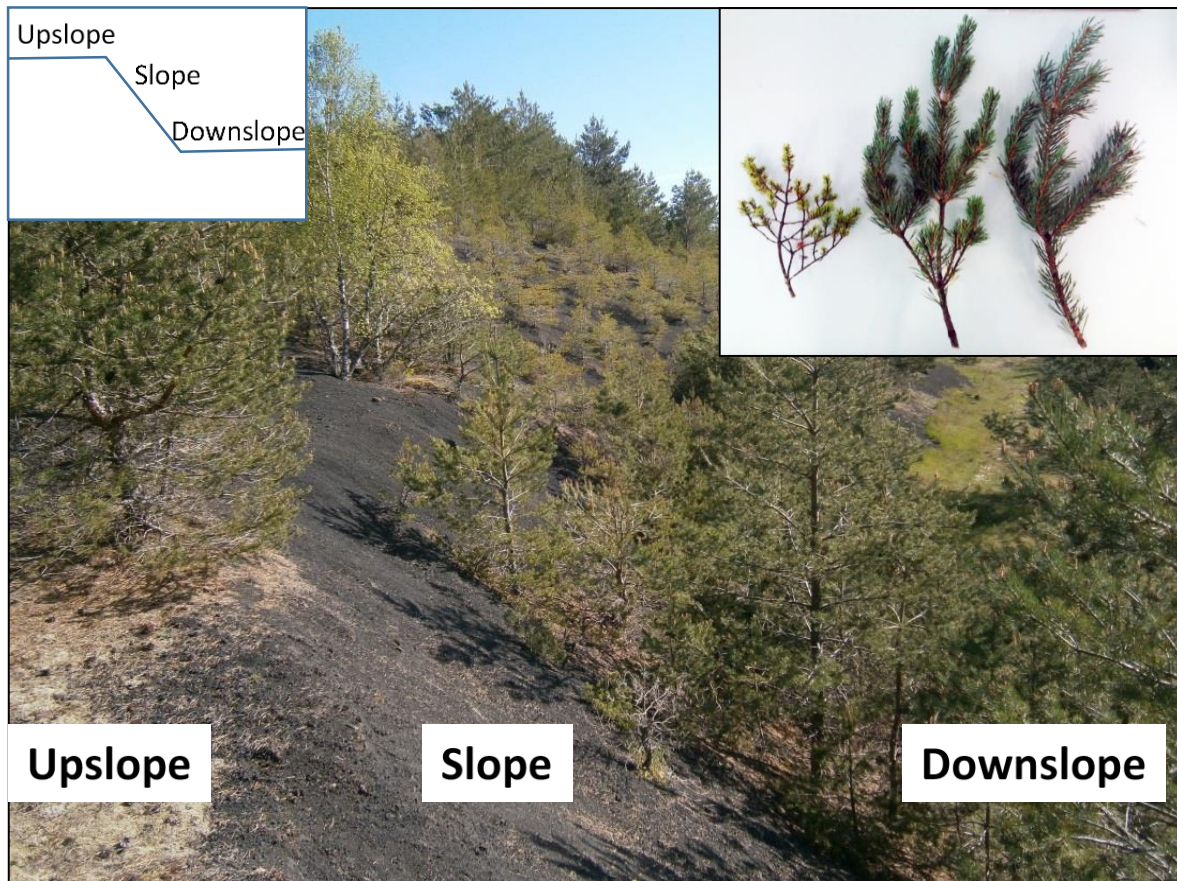
737 (\pm SE) and different letters indicate significant difference between the conditions for each trait ($P < 0.05$). ε_0 , bulk

738 modulus of tissue elasticity; g_{min} , minimal needle conductance; H_v , Huber value ; K_s , specific hydraulic

739 conductivity of the branch ; LSC , leaf specific conductivity of the branch; P_{50} , pressure inducing 50 % loss of

740 hydraulic conductance; Ψ_{TLP} , water potential at turgor loss point; π_0 , osmotic potential at full turgor; RWC_{TLP} ,

741 relative water content at turgor loss point SLA , specific leaf area ; WC_0 , water content at full turgor.

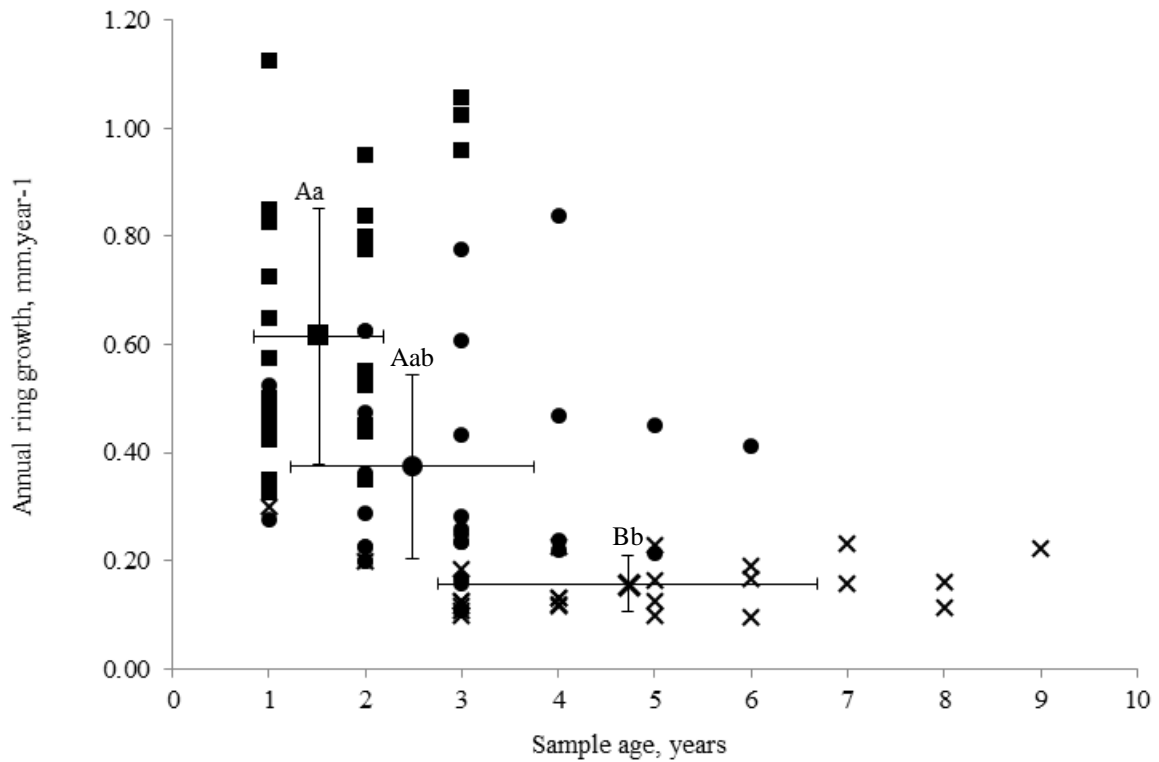


742

743 **Figure 1: Study site and morphology of the studied trees.** The study site is located on a former quarry of the
 744 volcano "Puy de la Vache". The site is organized in terraces of slag separated by slopes. The vegetation present on
 745 these slopes and terraces has developed without any human intervention. On the slopes, the only vascular species
 746 that develops is the Scots pine. The site is split into 3 areas: the slope, the upslope (corresponding to a terrace) and
 747 the downslope (corresponding to the bottom of the quarry). The box shows the morphology of branches developed
 748 by slope, upslope and downslope trees, from left to right, respectively. We also used this morphological differences
 749 to clearly distinguish between the three conditions.

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753 **Figure 2: Annual ring growth of branch samples from Scots pines developed under the three conditions.**

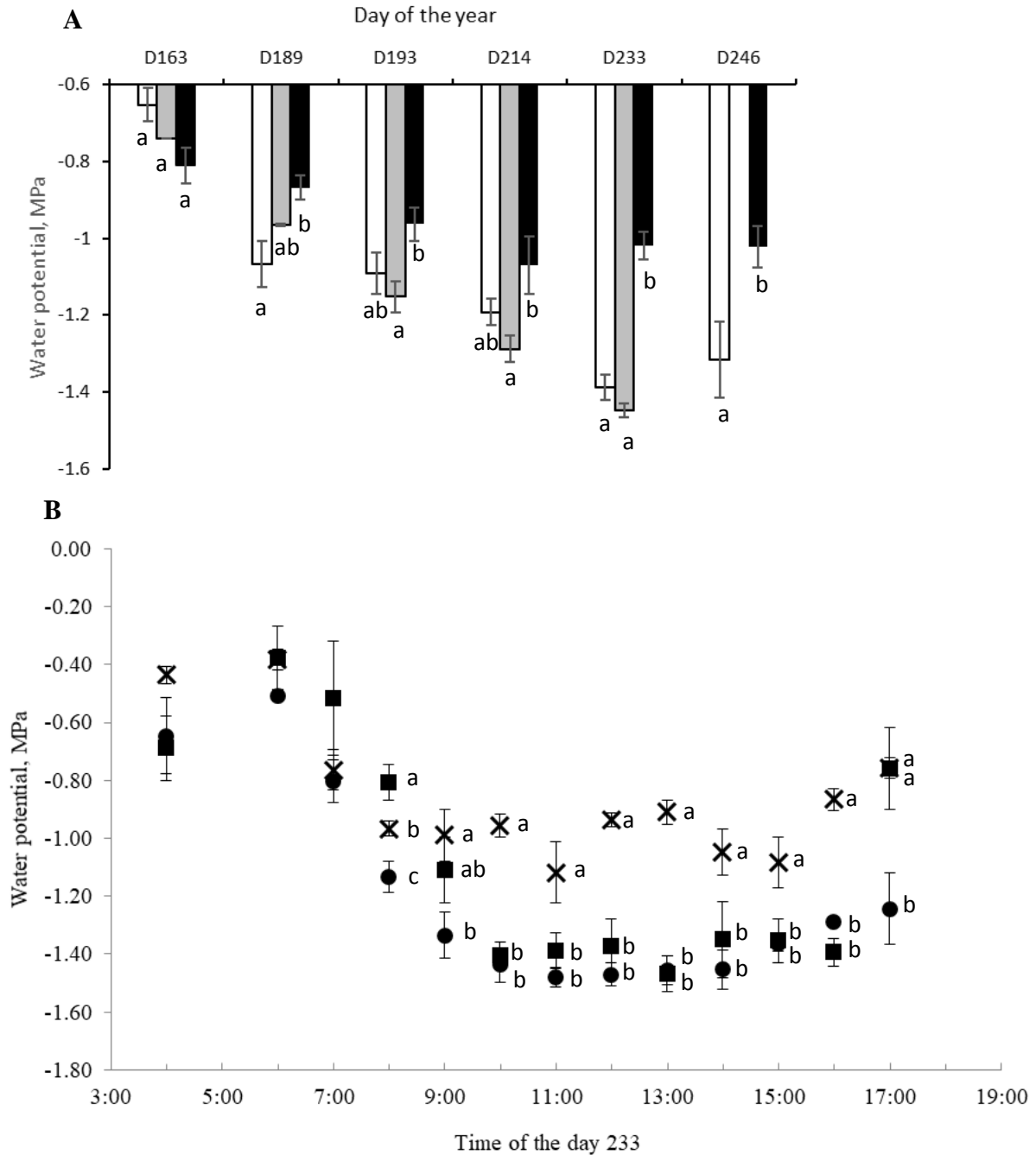
754 Branches were sampled on trees located on the downslope (square), the upslope (circle) or the slope (cross). Their

755 annual ring growth were measured and plotted versus their age. Each point represents one branch from one

756 individual tree. Points showing error bars (\pm SD) are mean values, and different uppercase and lowercase letters

757 indicate significant differences between conditions for annual ring growth and sample age, respectively ($P < 0.05$).

758

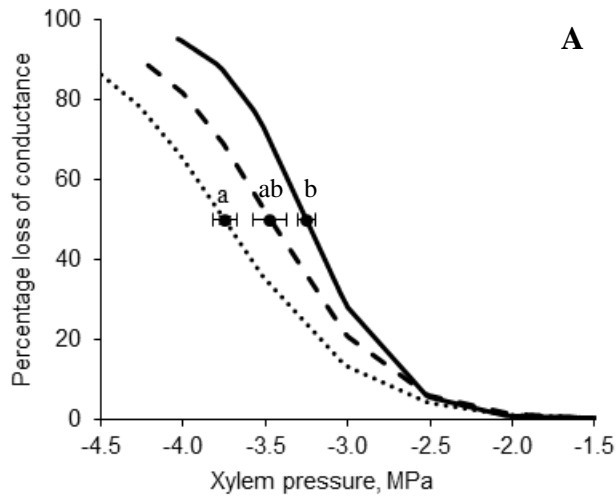


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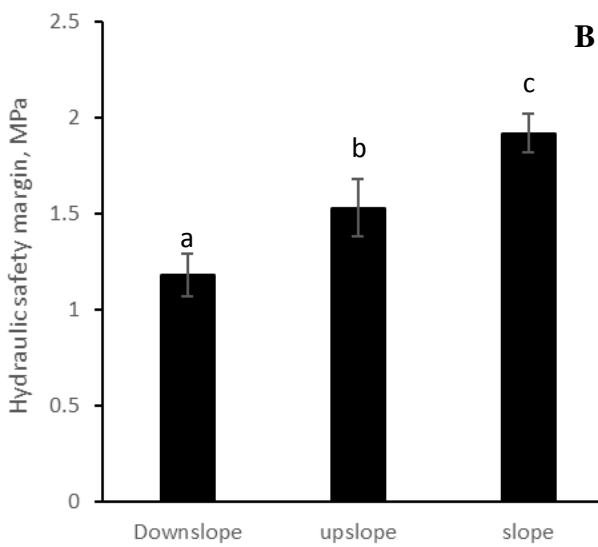
761

762 **Figure 3: Seasonal variations (A) and daily time course (B) of xylem water potential of Scots pines developed**
 763 **under the three conditions.** A, Midday water potentials were measured on tips of branches sampled from five
 764 trees located on the downslope (white), the upslope (grey) or the slope (dark), during sunny days preceded by a
 765 period of several days without rain. B, Water potentials were measured regularly from predawn (4 am) to the end
 766 (5 pm) of the day 233 on branches sampled from 5 trees located on the downslope (square), the upslope (circle) or
 767 the slope (cross). Symbols are mean values, bars represent standard errors, and different letters indicate significant
 768 differences between the conditions for each time ($P < 0.05$).

769

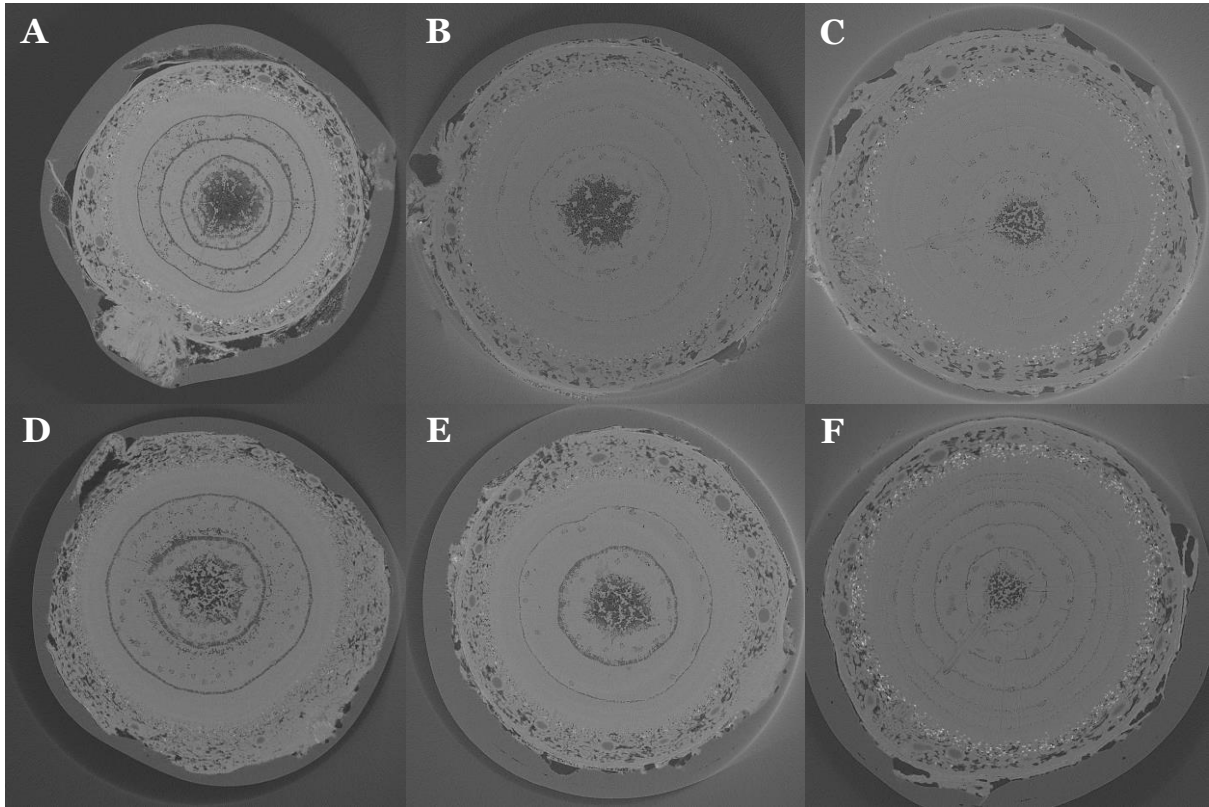


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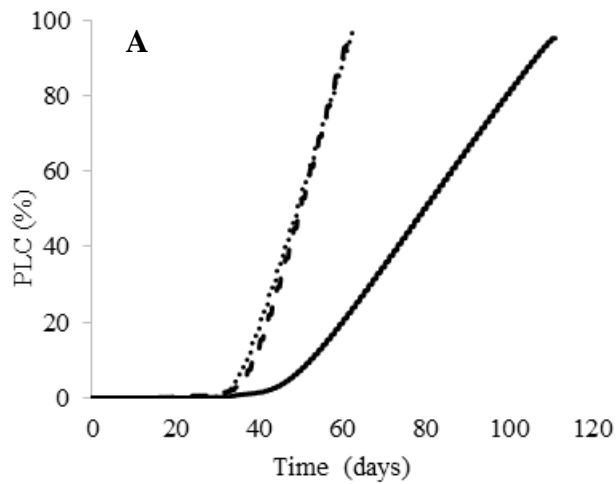
771

772 **Figure 4: Xylem vulnerability to embolism (A) and hydraulic safety margin (B) of branches from Scots pines**
 773 **developed under the three conditions.** A, vulnerability curves were performed from measurements on branches
 774 sampled from 6 trees located on the downslope (solid line), on the upslope (dashed line) or on the slope (dotted
 775 line). For each curve, the mean water potential at 50% loss of hydraulic conductance (P_{50}) is indicated by the open
 776 symbol and the error bar is the standard error. B, the hydraulic safety margin was calculated for each tree from the
 777 difference between and Ψ_{TLP} and P_{50} values. Mean values and standard errors are represented. Different letters
 778 indicate significant differences between the conditions ($P < 0.01$).

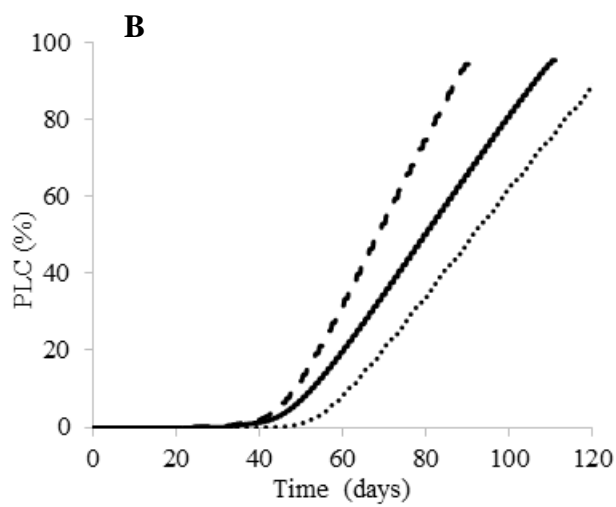


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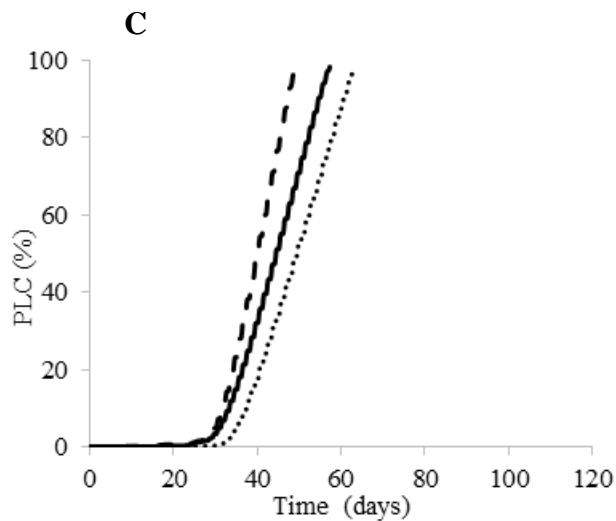
781 **Figure 5: Transverse X-ray microtomography images of branches from Scots pines developed under the**
 782 **three conditions.** Branches were sampled from trees developed at the downslope (A, D), at the upslope (B, E) or
 783 at the slope (C, F). Embolized tracheids are seen in black while the fully saturated tissues are seen in bright color.
 784 Embolized conduits were mainly found for the oldest wood rings. No embolism (or few) was observed in the rings
 785 of the last two years.



786



787



788

789 **Figure 6: Simulated (*SurEau* model) time courses of the loss of xylem hydraulic conductance in the branches**
 790 **during a virtual drought event.** Drought simulations were performed using experimental traits values from trees
 791 developing on the downslope (solid lines), on the upslope (dashed lines) or on the slope (dotted lines), while
 792 considering three conditions: trees in their respective locations (A), all trees on the downslope (B) and all trees on
 793 the slope (C).