



**Alkaline, saline and mixed saline-alkaline stresses induce physiological and morfo-anatomical changes in *Lotus tenuis* shoots.**

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Keyword:	salinity, alkalinity, shoot anatomy, proline, osmotic potential, transpiration

1 Alkaline, saline and mixed saline-alkaline stresses induce physiological and morfo-anatomical  
2 changes in *Lotus tenuis* shoots.

3  
4 Abridged title: Long term responses to neutral and alkaline stress

5  
6 Abstract

7 Saline, alkaline and mixed, saline-alkaline conditions frequently co-occur in soil. In this work, we  
8 compared these plant stresses sources on the legume species *Lotus tenuis*, regarding their effects on  
9 shoot growth, and leaf and stem anatomy. In addition, we aimed at gaining insight on the plant  
10 physiological status of stressed plants. We performed pot experiments with four treatments, control  
11 without salt addition (pH=5.8; EC=1,2 dS m<sup>-1</sup>) and three stress conditions: saline (100 mM NaCl,  
12 pH=5.8; EC=11 dS m<sup>-1</sup>), alkaline (10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, pH=8.0, EC= 1.9 dS m<sup>-1</sup>), and mixed salt-  
13 alkaline (10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> plus 100 mM NaCl, pH=8.0, EC= 11 dS m<sup>-1</sup>). Neutral and alkaline salts  
14 produced a similar level of growth inhibition on *L. tenuis* shoots, whereas their mixture exacerbated  
15 their detrimental effects. Our results showed that none of the analyzed morpho-anatomical  
16 parameters categorically differentiated one stress from the other. However, NaCl and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>-  
17 derived stresses could be discriminated by different extents and/or directions of changes in some of  
18 the anatomical traits. For example, alkalinity led to increased ostiolar opening area, conversely to  
19 NaCl-treated plants, where a stomatal aperture reduction was observed. Likewise, plants from the  
20 mixed saline-alkaline treatment characteristically lacked of a palisade mesophyll in their leaves.  
21 The stem cross-section and vessels areas, as well as the number of vascular bundles in the sectioned  
22 stem were reduced in all treatments. A rise in the number of vessel elements in the xylem was  
23 registered in NaCl-treated plants, but not in those treated exclusively with NaHCO<sub>3</sub>.

24  
25 Keywords: salinity, alkalinity, shoot anatomy, proline, osmotic potential, transpiration

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## Introduction

Saline stress refers to the presence of neutral salts such as NaCl or Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> in soil, whereas alkaline stress is only related to the occurrence of alkaline salts (Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> or NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, Yang *et al.*, 2007). Saline and alkaline stresses affect more than 10% of world arable lands, limiting agricultural production (Lauchli and Luttge, 2002). Both conditions often co-occur in nature, with variable neutral to alkaline salt proportions according to the soil (Shi and Wang, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2010).

Saline soils affect plant growth by inducing osmotic inhibition of water absorption (Munns 2002). Therefore, cells need to adjust osmotically and reestablish the ion balance (Li *et al.* 2003). Saline stress also induces ion injury in plants, inhibiting the activity of several enzymes, and hampering protein synthesis, photosynthesis and energetic metabolism (Tester and Davenport, 2003). Alkalinity can disrupt the balance of ions (Shi and Zhao 1997), cause micronutrient deficiency due to alteration of micronutrients availability in soil (Alam, *et al.*, 1999) and change antioxidant enzymes, amino acids and carbohydrate composition (Zhang *et al.*, 2012; Kukavika *et al.*, 2013).

At the morphological level, NaCl alters morphological and anatomical characteristics of leaves and stems such as leaf thickness, stem cross section area or size and number of xylem vessel (Kiliç *et al.*, 2007; Boughalleb *et al.*, 2009; Dolatabadian *et al.*, 2011). Whereas the relationship between salinity and morpho-anatomical plant responses has been explored to some extent, reports on the effects of alkaline or mixed salt-alkaline stresses are limited to few plant species such as aspen (Mandre *et al.*, 2012), *Pisum sativum* (Gharsalli *et al.* 2001), *Catharanthus roseus* (Cartmill *et al.* 2008), and *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Valdez-Aguilar and Reed 2008).

*Lotus tenuis* (Waldst. and Kit., syn. *L. glaber*) is a glycophytic forage legume, well adapted to the lowlands of the Buenos Aires Province (the most important cattle production region in Argentina). This region is characterized by the presence of soil Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (Costa and García, 1998), the main sources of high soil alkalinity (pH > 9.0). In a previous work, the response

98 of *L. tenuis* plants to saline, alkaline and mixed saline-alkaline stresses were compared in relation to  
99 plant growth, key nutrients accumulation, and root architecture and anatomy (Paz *et al.*, 2012).  
100 However, the morpho-anatomical responses of *L. tenuis* shoots to these stresses remained  
101 unexplored.

102 With the purpose of increasing current knowledge on differences and similarities between  
103 the above mentioned stresses, in this work we proposed to compare saline, alkaline and mixed  
104 saline-alkaline stresses on *L. tenuis*, regarding their effects on shoot growth, and leaf and stem  
105 anatomy. In addition, we have prospected leaf proline content, gas exchange, transpiration and  
106 osmotic potential in order to gain insight on the plant physiological status of *L. tenuis* plants grown  
107 under these stress conditions.

108

## 109 **Materials and Methods**

110

111 Plant growth conditions.

112 Seeds of *L. tenuis* cv. Esmeralda were scarified with sulphur acid (100%), washed in  
113 distilled water and sown in Petri plates containing water-agar (0.8%). Plates were incubated during  
114 7 days in a growth chamber, with a 16/8 h photoperiod at (day/night) 24°C/19°C and 60/80±5 %  
115 relative humidity. Light intensity ( $200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) was provided by daylight and GroLux  
116 fluorescent lamps (F 40W). One seedling was transferred to each 5.8 cm (diam) × 20 cm (length)  
117 cylindrical pot (one replicate, n=1)) containing washed sand (pH 7.0 and EC= 0.05 dS.m<sup>-1</sup>) and  
118 irrigated with 0.5 × Hoagland's nutrient solution containing 3 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>; 2 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>•4H<sub>2</sub>O; 1  
119 mM SO<sub>4</sub>Mg•7H<sub>2</sub>O; 0.5 mM NH<sub>4</sub>H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>; 0.5 EDTA NaFeO<sub>8</sub>•2H<sub>2</sub>O and 0.5 mM of each of the  
120 following micronutrients sources: MnCl<sub>2</sub>•4H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, CuSO<sub>4</sub>•5H<sub>2</sub>O, ZnSO<sub>4</sub>•7H<sub>2</sub>O and  
121 MoO<sub>4</sub>Na<sub>2</sub>•2H<sub>2</sub>O. Sand was kept at container capacity during the time-lapse experiment. A drip  
122 irrigation system (9001 Digital Watering Timer Weekly Program, ELGO®, www.elgo.co.il) was

123 used in order to avoid variations in pH and salt accumulation due to water evaporation throughout  
124 the experiment. This system allowed a homogeneous distribution of nutrients within the pot and a  
125 daily replacement, by percolation, of an amount of nutrient solution equivalent to  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the substrate  
126 field capacity.

127

128 Experimental design and stress treatment.

129 Experiments were performed according to a completely randomized design of one factor  
130 (stress) and four levels: control, saline, alkaline and mixed salt-alkaline. The alkaline condition in  
131 the pot was created by adding 10 mM  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  to  $0.5 \times$  Hoagland's solution, whereas for the saline  
132 condition, 100 mM  $\text{NaCl}$  were used as the salt stress source. For the mixed saline-alkaline  
133 treatment, we employed the same  $0.5 \times$  Hoagland's solution additioned with 90 mM  $\text{NaCl}$  plus 10  
134 mM  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , thus obtaining a stress solution with the same  $\text{Na}^+$ -derived EC, but a higher alkalinity  
135 than that of the saline stress treatment. Control treatment consisted of plants irrigated with  $0.5 \times$   
136 Hoagland's solution without  $\text{NaCl}$  or  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  addition. The pH and EC of irrigation solutions were  
137 monitored every 3 days with a combined pH meter/conductimeter (HI 255, Hanna Instrument) and  
138 maintained at pH-EC ( $\text{dS m}^{-1}$ ) 5.8-1.2; 5.8-11; 8.0-1.9 and 8.0-11, for control, saline, alkaline and  
139 mixed saline-alkaline treatments, respectively. In order to avoid any osmotic shock in the saline and  
140 mixed saline-alkaline treatments, 8-day-old seedlings initially received 30 and 20 mM  $\text{NaCl}$  plus 10  
141 mM  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  concentrations, respectively. Salt concentrations were then stepwise increased during  
142 one week (acclimatation) until reaching final concentrations. In the alkaline treatment, 8-day-old  
143 plants received the final  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  concentration. After acclimation, plants were further grown under  
144 their respective treatments during 20 days longer.

145

146 Growth and morphological parameters

147 Ten plants per treatment were used for dry matter, length and number of stem nodes and leaf  
148 area determinations (n=10). For dry matter, plants were dried at 60°C until constant weight. For leaf  
149 area, fully extended leaves were scanned with a 600 ppi resolution (HP PSC 1510 Hewlett Packard  
150 Development Company, LP, USA). Leaf area was measured on digitalized images with the Image-  
151 ProPlus V 4.1 software.

152

### 153 Analysis of leaf and stem anatomy

154 Anatomical variations caused by the three different stresses were analyzed in tissues  
155 developed at the end of the experiment in eight plants per treatment (n=8). A 1 cm long stem  
156 sample was sectioned from the internode immediately below the apical bud, whereas the leaf from  
157 the basal portion of this internode was dissected. The micro morphology of leaf epidermis was  
158 analyzed according to D'Ambrogio de Argüeso (1986). Briefly, FAA  
159 (Formaldehyde:Alcohol:Acetic Acid, 10%:50%:5% + 35% water) fixed leaves were incubated in  
160 5% KOH at 35°C, overnight and then stained with 5% Safranin. Abaxial and adaxial epidermis  
161 were removed from mesophyll with dissecting needles, mounted on slides with water-glycerin (1:1),  
162 and observed at 400× (Nikon-Eclipse E-600 microscope attached to a computer and a digital camera  
163 Nikon DS Qi1Mc). The ostiolar opening area (or stomatal aperture) and the number of stomata and  
164 ordinary epidermal cells per mm<sup>2</sup> were registered in the central leaflets. Data from abaxial and  
165 adaxial faces were averaged. The stomatal index was calculated according to Salisbury (1927): SI  
166 (%) = stomatal density / (stomatal density + epidermal cell density) x 100. Leaf and internode  
167 samples were fixed with FAA, dehydrated and embedded according to the procedures outlined in  
168 Johansen (1940). A series of transversal cross sections 10 µm thick were obtained from the sample  
169 blocks using a Minot rotary microtome. Cross sections were observed under the microscope and  
170 photographed. Digitalized images were analyzed with the Image-ProPlus V 4.1 software. The  
171 cuticle-epidermis height in both leaf faces, and the morphology and thickness of each mesophyll

172 (spongy and palisade) were measured on digitalized images of leaf transversal cross sections. The  
173 cross-section areas of stem, cortex, bundle xylem and phloem, vessel elements and pith, as well as  
174 the stem epidermal thickness and number of bundles, were also measured on digitalized images.

175

176 Analytical determinations

177 Leaf proline content was estimated spectrophotometrically by the ninhydrin reaction method (Troll  
178 and Lindsley, 1955) with modifications (Magné and Larher, 1992). Data was collected from six  
179 plants for each treatment (n=6).

180

181 Gas-exchange measurement

182 Fifteen days after the stress treatment was initiated, transpiration rate ( $E$ ,  $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and mean  
183 stomatal conductance ( $g$ ) were measured in intact, fully expanded leaves, which were basal to the  
184 internode immediately below the apical bud. This measurement was performed with an infrared gas  
185 analyzers built into a leaf cuvette in an open-flow gas exchange system (LiCor 6400, USA).  
186 Measurement conditions were: PPFD,  $1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; airstreams,  $350 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{mol}^{-1}$ ; leaf  
187 temperature,  $27^\circ\text{C}$ ; leaf-to-air vapor pressure deficit:  $1.6 \text{ kPa}$  was also measured with a LI-6400.  
188 Data was collected at mid-day, from ten plants for each treatment (n=10).

189

190 Osmotic potential ( $\psi_{\pi}^{100}$ ) measurement.

191 At the en of the experiment, leaves from the same region as above were re-hydrated to  
192 constant fresh weight by placing them in a beaker of distilled water under controlled environmental  
193 conditions. Fully hydrated leaves were then introduced in a syringe, frozen in liquid  $\text{N}_2$  and kept at -  
194  $80^\circ\text{C}$ , pending for further analysis. Syringes were thawed until samples reached room temperature,  
195 and the  $\psi_{\pi}^{100}$  of leaked sap was measured with a C-52 thermocouple. Data was collected from three  
196 plants for each treatment (n=3).

197

198 Statistical analysis.

199 Data was subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and comparisons using

200 Duncan's test. A  $y=\log_{10}x$  transformation was used to correct the lack of normality in biomass data.

201

## 202 **Results**

203

### 204 Plant growth and morphology

205 The three stress treatments substantially reduced total plant biomass, stem length and  
 206 number of nodes (Fig 1A, B and C). The amount of growth reduction induced by NaCl or NaHCO<sub>3</sub>  
 207 as a sole stress source was similar, whereas the combination of both salts led to a maximum growth  
 208 reduction.

209 Our results also showed that leaf area was negatively affected by alkalinity, in either  
 210 presence or absence of the neutral salt (Fig 1D). In contrast, the leaf area did not change in plants  
 211 treated exclusively with NaCl.

212

### 213 Effect of salt treatments on leaf anatomy.

214 The leaf epidermal cells density was drastically reduced by soil alkalinity (Table 1),  
 215 indicating an enlargement of the epidermal cell size. Opposite to the former result, this parameter  
 216 did not change in NaCl-treated plants. Alkalinity also led to reduced stomatal density, being this  
 217 reduction more obvious in the mixed salts treatment. However, the SI was not affected by any  
 218 stress. On other hand, plants treated with NaCl (either alone or mixed with the alkaline salt),  
 219 showed reduced ostiolar opening area compared with control plants. Interestingly, plants treated  
 220 with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> as a sole stress source presented a higher ostiolar opening area than control plants.

*L. tenuis* leaves have a dorsiventral mesophyll, consisting of one layer of palisade and one layer of spongy tissue (Fig 2). Leaf thickness was increased by NaCl treatment, as result of augmented cuticle thickness, higher epidermal height and increased thickness of mesophyll cells (Table 1, Fig 2). Alkalinity also led to augmented leaf thickness derived from increments in cuticle and spongy parenchyma thickness, and in epidermal cells heights. However, the most striking effect of alkalinity on leaf anatomy was the dorsiventral mesophyll loss, because palisade parenchyma cells became more isodiametric and larger, losing their shape, and preventing the differentiation between palisade and spongy parenchyma. This phenomenon was observed in 50% and 100% of analyzed leaves in the alkaline and mixed saline-alkaline treatments, respectively (data not shown), and whenever palisade parenchyma was recognizable in the alkaline treatment, their cells were highly vacuolated and thicker, compared with the control.

#### Effect of salt treatments on stem anatomy.

The stem cross-section area was reduced in all cases, because of decreased pith, phloem and xylem cross-section areas, and reduced epidermal height (Table 2). In plants treated exclusively with the alkaline salt, a diminution of the cortex cross-section area was also observed, in addition to the above-mentioned effects, leading to a maximal stem cross-section area contraction in this treatment (Table 2).

The number of vascular bundles in the sectioned stem was also reduced by the three saline treatments, although the effect was more obvious under elevated alkalinity (Table 2). On other hand, a noteworthy rise in the number of vessel elements in the xylem was registered in NaCl-treated plants, but not in those treated exclusively with  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ . In contrast, the area of each vessel element was diminished in all cases. Moreover, both salts showed a synergistic effect on vessel cross-section area when applied simultaneously.

246

247 Effect of salt treatments on leaf proline content, gas exchange, transpiration and osmotic  
248 potential.

249 The leaf proline content was increased in leaves of NaCl-treated plants, whereas NaHCO<sub>3</sub>  
250 did not affect this content (Fig 3).

251 Reductions of *g* and *E* were observed in *L. tenuis* plants treated with NaCl regardless the  
252 alkalinity level (Fig 4). Contrarily, there were not changes in *g* or *E* in plants confronted exclusively  
253 with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (Fig 4).

254 At the time of harvest, the leaf  $\psi_{\pi}^{100}$  was not significantly altered by separately applied NaCl  
255 or NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, but in plants treated with the mixture of the neutral and alkaline salts, the  $\psi_{\pi}^{100}$  was  
256 significantly augmented (Fig 5).

257

## 258 Discussion

259

260 The present work was aimed at exploring and comparing the morpho-anatomical responses  
261 of *L. tenuis* shoots to alkaline, saline and mixed saline-alkaline stresses. Our results showing that  
262 separately applied NaCl and NaHCO<sub>3</sub> salts induced similar growth reductions (Fig 1) is in contrast  
263 with previous studies where alkaline salts created a significantly higher level of plant toxicity than  
264 neutral salts (Shi and Wang 2005; Shi and Sheng 2005; Wang *et al.* 2008; Yang *et al.* 2008). Such  
265 seeming disparity may be explained by the fact that at the NaHCO<sub>3</sub> concentration used in our work  
266 (10 mM, a several-fold lower concentration than those used by other authors), the ionic and osmotic  
267 components of saline stress are avoided and the growth reduction effect can be fundamentally  
268 attributable to alkalinity (Yang *et al.*, 2008). Whereas neutral and alkaline salts produced a similar  
269 level of growth inhibition on *L. tenuis* shoots, their mixture exacerbated their detrimental effects.

270 Such synergism is in line with previous observations reported for other glycophytes (Shi and Wang  
271 2005; Shi and Sheng 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2008).

272

273 Salt treatments effects on leaf and stem anatomy.

274 The anatomical analysis revealed that leaves and stems exhibited a plastic response to the  
275 three evaluated stress conditions (Tables 1 and 2). Interestingly, an enlargement of the epidermal  
276 cell size was found in plants grown under alkaline conditions. To our knowledge, there are no  
277 previous reports showing an alkalinity-induced enlarging effect on plant cells, beyond the  
278 documented relationship between alkalinity and cell extension in growing lily pollen tube (Lovy-  
279 Wheeler *et al.*, 2006), and therefore, additional specific experimentation in this regard would be  
280 worthwhile of further attention.

281 The fact that the NaCl addition (regardless the alkalinity level) reduced the ostiolar opening  
282 area of *L. tenuis* leaves is in accordance with the concept that osmotic stress (either elicited by water  
283 deficit or high salt concentration) leads to stomatal closure. Similarly, our finding that NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, as  
284 sole stress source, induced higher ostiolar opening area is compatible with previous results  
285 indicating that the stomatal aperture of isolated abaxial epidermis (incubated on simple buffers)  
286 increased with the external alkalinity (Wilkinson and Davies, 1997).

287 On other hand, despite the cell size augmentation observed in plants treated with NaHCO<sub>3</sub>,  
288 leaf area was reduced, suggesting that alkalinity decreased new cells production by leaf meristem.  
289 The reduced leaf area evidenced in our alkalinized *L. tenuis* plants (either in presence or absence of  
290 NaCl) is in accordance with previous results obtained from several ornamental species such as rose,  
291 vinca, chrysanthemum and hibiscus treated with bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Valdez-Aguilar, 2004,  
292 Cartmill *et al.*, 2007, 2008). In addition, the neutral effect of NaCl, as sole stress source, observed  
293 on the *L. tenuis* leaf area agrees with former results obtained on soybean (Dolatabadian *et al.*,  
294 2011).

295 Our finding that plants treated with NaCl presented thicker leaves is in line with descriptions  
296 in several other plant species (e.g.: Qadir and Shams, 1997; De Vos *et al.*, 2010), suggesting the  
297 occurrence of osmolytes accumulation and osmotic adjustment. Plants treated exclusively with  
298 NaHCO<sub>3</sub> also presented thickened leaves, although in a much lower extent compared with NaCl  
299 addition, but this effect should not be assigned to an osmotic effect, since a low salt concentration  
300 (10 mM) was used in this treatment.

301 The observed loss of leaf mesophyll dorsiventrality in plants grown under high alkalinity  
302 highlights a different stress sensitivity between palisade and spongy parenchyma mesophylls. As far  
303 as we know, mesophyll dorsiventral loss has been reported formerly only in plants subjected to low  
304 temperature stress (Kadohama *et al.*, 2013). It has been postulated that since palisade mesophyll is  
305 the site for most of the plant photosynthetic activity, an increased palisade: spongy mesophyll ratio  
306 positively increases photosynthesis (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2008). Thus, our results showing the absence of  
307 palisade mesophyll in most of the analyzed leaves of NaHCO<sub>3</sub>-treated plants could have possibly  
308 contributed with the noticeable growth diminution registered in these plants.

309 The reduction in the stem cross-section area observed in *L. tenuis* plants stressed exclusively  
310 with NaCl, is in line with previous studies performed on diverse plant species subjected to this  
311 saline condition (Qadir and Shams, 1997; Habba *et al.*, 2013; Guo *et al.*, 2013; dos Santos *et al.*,  
312 2013; Soltekin *et al.*, 2012). In the case of plants treated with the mixed salts, the registered smaller  
313 leaf area could have led to further reduction of the stem cross-section area. However, maximal stem  
314 cross-section reduction was registered in *L. tenuis* plants treated exclusively with NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. In these  
315 plants, the observed reduction could be related to other sources of growth constraint not measured  
316 in this work, such as diminished cell division and expansion, besides a smaller leaf area. In turn,  
317 slender stems could affect bending, tensile and shearing properties of *L. tenuis* plants. These  
318 properties could be significant from the economical viewpoint, given the importance of *L. tenuis* as  
319 forage species, in several cattle production areas worldwide.

320 Fewer vascular bundles, along with smaller vessel cross-section area was observed in salt-  
321 treated *L. tenuis* plants. These anatomical changes may lead to hampered water and solutes transport  
322 capacity. Therefore, our result displaying a rise in the number of vessel elements due to NaCl  
323 treatment could be interpreted as an adaptive response of *L. tenuis* plants to withstand the osmotic  
324 constraint imposed by NaCl, as it was shown for other crop species (Cachorro *et al.*, 1993; Nawaz  
325 *et al.*, 2013).

326 Effect of salt treatments on leaf proline content, gas exchange, transpiration and osmotic  
327 potential.

328 The amino acid proline is one of the compatible osmolytes that most commonly build up in  
329 the cytoplasm as response to osmotic imbalance (Hasegawa *et al.* 2000). The increased leaf proline  
330 content detected in plants treated with NaCl (Fig 3), put forward that they had experienced some  
331 extent of osmotic stress. Furthermore, the fact that the proline level was not affected in plants  
332 treated exclusively with 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> indicates that no salt-derived osmotic effect intervened  
333 and hence, the observed growth and morphological detrimental effects should be assigned to  
334 alkalinity itself. This result helps to explain the apparent incongruence between our finding (no  
335 difference between alkaline and neutral salts in their effect on plant growth) and those obtained by  
336 other authors, who used a several-fold higher NaHCO<sub>3</sub> concentration, and reported a higher level of  
337 plant toxicity in plants treated with the alkaline, compared with the neutral salt (Shi and Wang  
338 2005; Shi and Sheng 2005; Wang *et al.* 2008; Yang *et al.* 2008).

339 Diminutions in *g* and *E* parameters noted in NaCl-treated plants (Fig 4) are congruent with  
340 the observed decrease in the ostiolar opening area and could have accounted for the decline in plant  
341 growth registered in both NaCl treatments (Table 1; Fig 1). Since enhanced transpirational volume  
342 flow tends to augmentate salt accumulation and hence, cell damage (Munns, 1985), the observed  
343 contracted ostiolar opening area may be interpreted as an adaptive *L. tenuis* response to the osmotic  
344 component of saline stress. On other hand, our results from plants treated exclusively with NaHCO<sub>3</sub>

showed no changes in  $g$  or  $E$ . This result would advocate a possible compensation effect between an increase in the ostiolar opening area and a reduction in the stomata density in these plants. A similar salinity-induced reduction in stomata density was recently reported for the halophyte species *Chenopodium quinoa* (Orsini *et al.*, 2011; Shabala *et al.*, 2012) and was interpreted as a fundamental mechanism by which quinoa plants may improve water use efficiency under saline conditions. Since the waxy cuticle of leaves allows water and small amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$  to pass through (Scott, 1964, 1966; Norris and Bukovac, 1968; Leon and Bukovac, 1978; Boyer *et al.*, 1997), one may also hypothesize that the increase in cuticle thickness observed in plants from this treatment could have contributed to the  $E$  balance.

Another outcome of our work was the increased leaf  $\psi_{\pi}^{100}$  observed in *L. tenuis* plants subjected to the mixed saline-alkaline treatment (Fig 5). However, the proline level reached by plants in this treatment ( $0.4 \mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}$  fresh weight, Fig 3) seems to be too low to act as osmolyte, compared with those needed for conventional osmotic adjustment (Marcum, 2006). On other hand, adverse environmental factors may induce a rapid production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), leading to oxidative burst and cell damage (Mittler, 2002). In turn, proline may significantly reduce ROS-induced  $\text{K}^+$  effluxes (Cuien and Shabala, 2005, 2007). It has been postulated that a number of functions played by proline could come into the effect of reducing the extent of the ROS-induced  $\text{K}^+$  efflux, such as free radicals scavenging (Smirnoff and Cumbes, 1989), reduction of ROS generation (Hong *et al.*, 2000), osmoprotection (Delauney and Verma, 1993) and protein stabilization (Shah and Dubey, 1998). Therefore, it is possible that the increased proline level could have indirectly contributed to the osmotic adjustment of *L. tenuis* leaves in the mixed saline-alkaline treatment.

367

## 368 Conclusions

Neutral and alkaline salts produced a similar level of growth inhibition on *L. tenuis* shoots, whereas their mixture exacerbated their detrimental effects. On other hand, common and distinct effects of the three stresses on *L. tenuis* shoot growth and anatomy were evidenced, according to the analyzed parameter. Our results showed that none of the analyzed parameters categorically differentiated the three types of stress from each other. However, NaCl and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>-derived stresses could be discriminated by different extents and/or directions of changes in some of the anatomical traits. For example, alkalinity itself presented increased ostiolar opening area, conversely to NaCl-treated plants, where a reduction of the stomatal aperture was observed. Likewise, plants from the mixed saline-alkaline treatment may be recognized by the lack of a palisade mesophyll in their leaves. The conspicuous lack of information regarding the effect of alkalinity on plant cell growth prevents us from further discussing our results related with high pH conditions, while invites to conduct research in this direction. Further studies are required to ascertain the unambiguous cause-and-effect relationships between the observed anatomical traits changes in *L. tenuis* and each of the factors intervening in the three studied stresses (e.g.: osmotic, toxicity, pH homeostasis, etc.). Such studies could help to design mechanistic models for predicting the whole-plant response to stresses derived from different salt sources.

385

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393

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## 549 Legends

550

551 Figure 1. Total dry weight (A), stem length (B), number of nodes in the stem (C) and leaf area (D)  
552 of *L. tenuis*. Fifteen-day-old plants were watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt  
553 addition over 20 days. For saline and alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>  
554 respectively, were added to 0.5 × Hoagland's solution. For the mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment,  
555 this solution contained 90 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. Average data (±SE; n = 10) with the  
556 same letter are not significantly different (Duncan, P<0.001).

557

558 Figure 2. Leaf anatomical response of *L. tenuis*. A) Control; B) Alkaline; C) Saline and D) Mixed  
559 saline-alkaline. Scale bars = 200 μm. *pp*, palisade parenchyma; *sp*, spongy parenchyma; *ea*, abaxial  
560 epidermis; *x*, xylem; *p*, phloem. Transversal cross-section of *L. tenuis* leaves. Fifteen-day-old plants  
561 were watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For saline and  
562 alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> respectively, were added to 0.5 ×

563 Hoagland's solution. For the mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90 mM  
564 NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>.

565

566 Figure 3. Leaf proline contents ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$  fresh weight) in *L. tenuis*. Fifteen-day-old plants were  
567 watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For saline and  
568 alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, were added to  $0.5 \times$   
569 Hoagland's solution. For the mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90 mM  
570 NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. Average data ( $\pm\text{SE}$ ;  $n = 6$ ) with the same letter are not significantly  
571 different (Duncan,  $P < 0.01$ ).

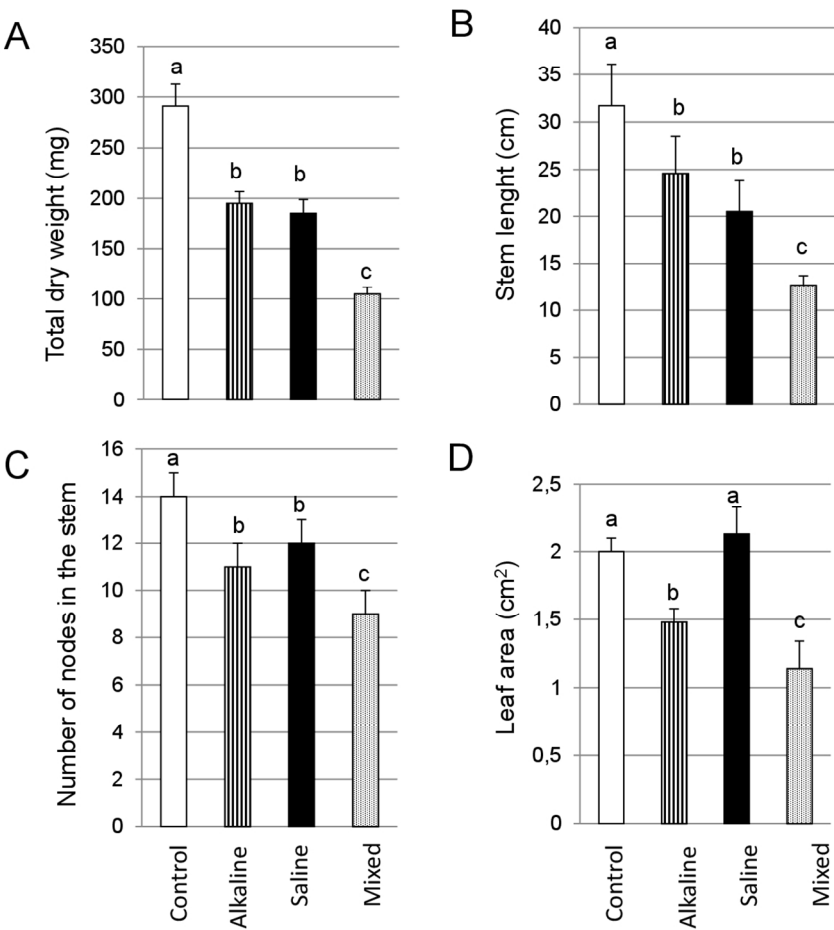
572

573 Figure 4. Mean stomatal conductance (A) and transpiration rate (B) in *L. tenuis*. Fifteen-day-old  
574 plants were watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For  
575 saline and alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, were added  
576 to  $0.5 \times$  Hoagland's solution. For the mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90  
577 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. Average data ( $\pm\text{SE}$ ;  $n = 10$ ) with the same letter are not  
578 significantly different (Duncan,  $P < 0.01$ ).

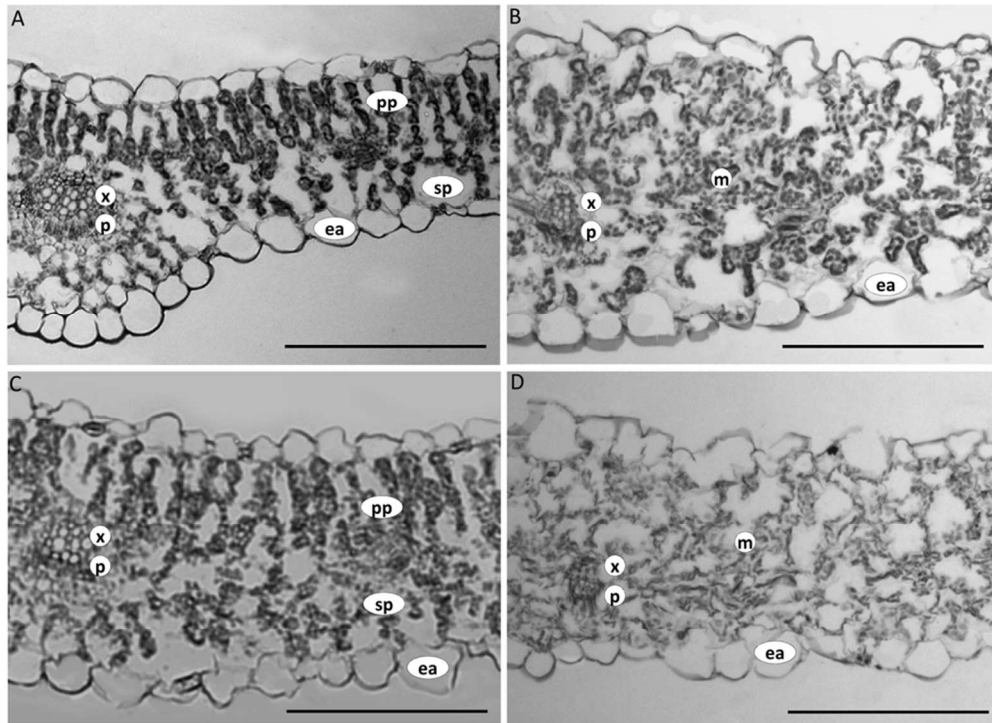
579

580 Figure 5. Leaf osmotic potential ( $\Psi_{\pi}^{100}$  MPa). Fifteen-day-old plants were watered with nutrient  
581 solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For saline and alkaline stress treatments,  
582 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, were added to  $0.5 \times$  Hoagland's solution. For the  
583 mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>.  
584 Average data ( $\pm\text{SE}$ ;  $n = 3$ ) with the same letter are not significantly different (Duncan,  $P < 0.01$ ).

585

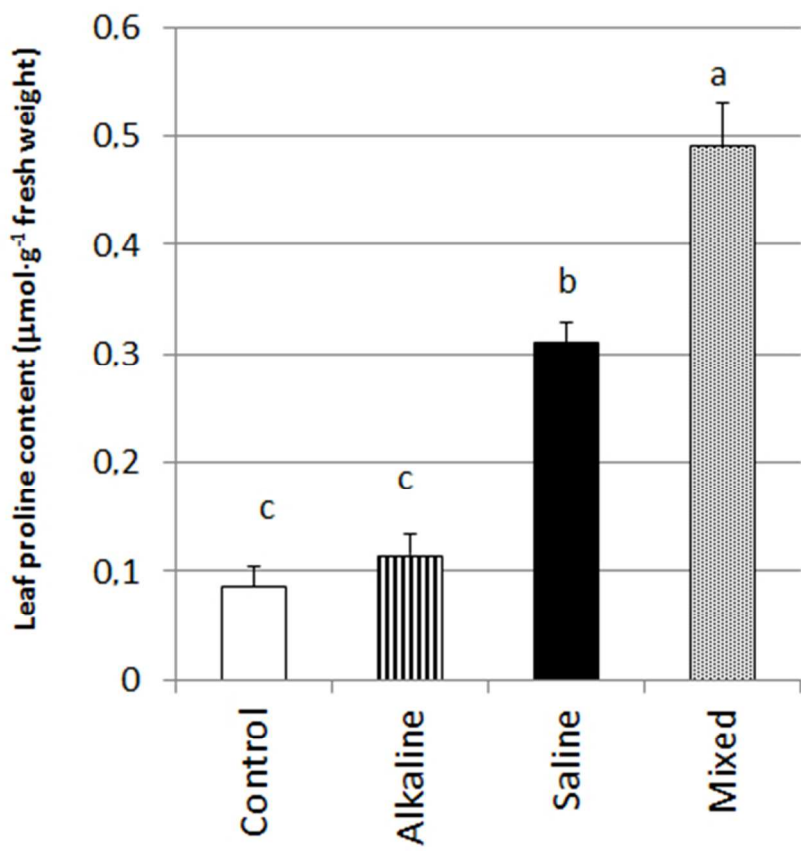


215x279mm (150 x 150 DPI)

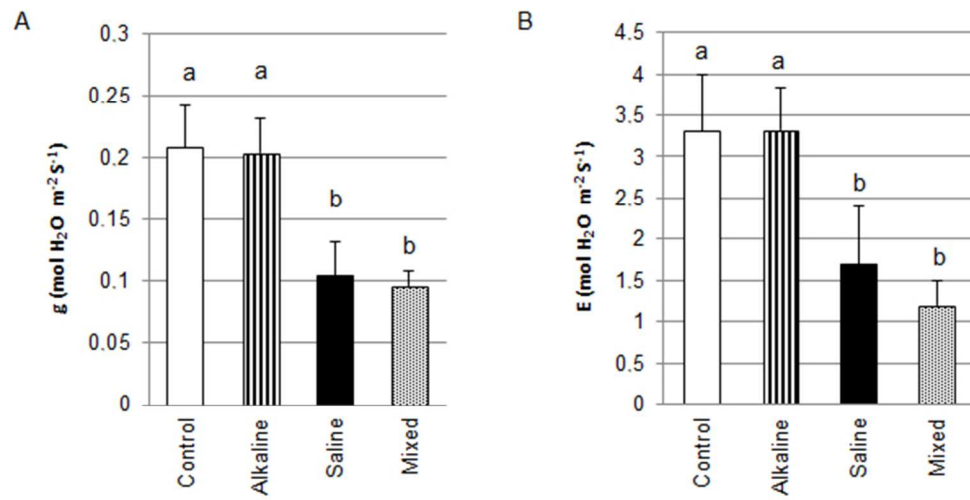


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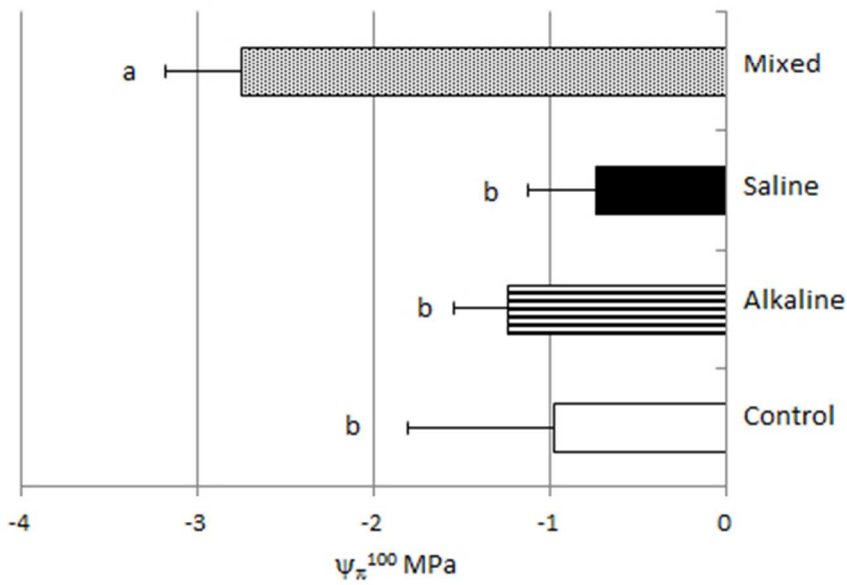
Review



148x153mm (72 x 72 DPI)



216x110mm (72 x 72 DPI)



170x114mm (72 x 72 DPI)

Table 1. Leaf micromorphological and anatomical parameters measured in *L. tenuis*. Fifteen-day-old plants were watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For saline and alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, were added to 0.5x Hoagland's solution. For the mixed salt-alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. Average data ( $\pm$ SE; n = 8) with the same letter are not significantly different (Duncan, P<0.01).

Variable	Control		Alkaline		Saline		Mixed
Epidermal cells density (number of cells mm <sup>2</sup> )	30.8	$\pm$ 0.9 <b>a</b>	24.9	$\pm$ 0.9 <b>b</b>	29.5	$\pm$ 0.9 <b>a</b>	20.7 $\pm$ 0.8 <b>c</b>
Stomata density (stomata number mm <sup>2</sup> )	115	$\pm$ 6 <b>a</b>	93	$\pm$ 6 <b>b</b>	108	$\pm$ 6 <b>a,b</b>	75 $\pm$ 5 <b>c</b>
Stomatal index (SI %)	29	$\pm$ 3 <b>a b</b>	30	$\pm$ 1 <b>a</b>	29	$\pm$ 3 <b>b</b>	28 $\pm$ 1 <b>b</b>
Ostiolar opening area ( $\mu$ m <sup>2</sup> )	15	$\pm$ 1 <b>b</b>	20	$\pm$ 1 <b>a</b>	12	$\pm$ 1 <b>c</b>	13 $\pm$ 1 <b>c</b>
Leaf thickness ( $\mu$ m)	99	$\pm$ 12 <b>b</b>	156	$\pm$ 11 <b>a</b>	178	$\pm$ 15 <b>a</b>	173 $\pm$ 16 <b>a</b>
Cuticle thickness ( $\mu$ m)	0.9	$\pm$ 0.0 <b>b</b>	1.6	$\pm$ 0.1 <b>a</b>	1.7	$\pm$ 0.1 <b>a</b>	1.8 $\pm$ 0.1 <b>a</b>
Adaxial epidermis height ( $\mu$ m)	9	$\pm$ 1.0 <b>c</b>	16	$\pm$ 1.0 <b>b</b>	21	$\pm$ 2.0 <b>a</b>	22 $\pm$ 2.0 <b>a</b>
Abaxial epidermis height ( $\mu$ m)	15	$\pm$ 2.0 <b>c</b>	24	$\pm$ 1.0 <b>b</b>	31	$\pm$ 2.0 <b>a</b>	36 $\pm$ 1.0 <b>a</b>
Thickness of palisade parenchyma ( $\mu$ m)	47	$\pm$ 4 <b>c</b>	69	$\pm$ 6 <b>b</b>	94	$\pm$ 6 <b>a</b>	-
Thickness of spongy parenchyma ( $\mu$ m)	52	$\pm$ 7 <b>b</b>	66	$\pm$ 9 <b>a</b>	92	$\pm$ 9 <b>a</b>	82 $\pm$ 4.0 <b>a</b>

Table 2. Stem anatomical parameters measured in *L. tenuis*. Fifteen-day-old plants were watered with nutrient solution containing or lacking salt addition over 20 days. For saline and alkaline stress treatments, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, were added to 0.5x Hoagland’s solution. For the mixed salt–alkaline stress treatment, this solution contained 90 mM NaCl and 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. Average data (±SE; n = 8) with the same letter are not significantly different (Duncan, P<0.01).

Variable	Control	Alkaline	Saline	Mixed
Stem cross-section area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	0.8 ± 0.01 <b>a</b>	0.3 ± 0.03 <b>c</b>	0.51 ± 0.02 <b>b</b>	0.53± 0.02 <b>b</b>
Epidermis thickness (µm)	25.7 ± 0.3 <b>a</b>	18.1 ± 1.0 <b>c</b>	22.4 ± 0.5 <b>b</b>	21.2± 0.7 <b>b</b>
Pith cross-section area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	0.19 ± 0.01 <b>a</b>	0.05 ± 0.01 <b>d</b>	0.08 ± 0.01 <b>c</b>	0.11± 0.01 <b>b</b>
Cortex thickness (µm)	119 ± 2 <b>a</b>	90 ± 5 <b>b</b>	119 ± 3 <b>a</b>	79± 4 <b>c</b>
Phloem cross-section area (×100 mm <sup>2</sup> )	4.31 ± 0.04 <b>a</b>	1.55 ± 0.19 <b>b</b>	1.96 ± 0.24 <b>b</b>	0.23± 0.01 <b>c</b>
Xylem cross-section area (×100 mm <sup>2</sup> )	1.22 ± 0.01 <b>a</b>	0.49 ± 0.09 <b>b</b>	1.04 ± 0.08 <b>b</b>	0.41± 0.02 <b>c</b>
Number of vascular bundles	10.0 ± 0.0 <b>a</b>	8.0 ± 0.0 <b>c</b>	9.0 ± 0.0 <b>b</b>	8± 0.1 <b>c</b>
Total number of vessels in xylem	97 ± 1 <b>b</b>	82 ± 13 <b>b</b>	147 ± 8 <b>a</b>	146± 5 <b>a</b>
Vessel cross-section area (µm <sup>2</sup> )	126 ± 2 <b>a</b>	62 ± 5 <b>b</b>	62 ± 6 <b>b</b>	28± 1 <b>c</b>