

1	Title page
2	Title: Elevated [CO ₂] alleviates the impacts of water deficit on xylem anatomy and
3	hydraulic properties of maize stems
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23 Abstract:

Plants can modify xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties to adjust to water status. 24 25 Elevated [CO₂] can increase plant water potential via reduced stomatal conductance and water loss. This raises the question of whether elevated $[CO_2]$, which thus 26 improves plant water status, will reduce the impacts of soil water deficit on xylem 27 anatomy and hydraulic properties of plants? To analyze the impacts of water and 28 29 $[CO_2]$ on maize stem xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties, we exposed potted maize plants to varying [CO₂] levels (400, 700, 900, 1200 ppm) and water levels (full 30 31 irrigation, deficit irrigation). Results showed that at current $[CO_2]$, vessel diameter, 32 vessel roundness, stem cross-section area, specific hydraulic conductivity and 33 vulnerability to embolism decreased under deficit irrigation; yet, these impacts of 34 deficit irrigation were reduced at elevated [CO2]. Across all treatments, midday stem water potential was tightly correlated with xylem traits and displayed similar 35 responses. A distinct trade-off between efficiency and safety in stem xylem water 36 37 transportation in response to water deficit was observed at current $[CO_2]$, but not observed at elevated [CO2]. The results of this study enhance our knowledge of 38 39 plant hydraulic acclimation under future climate environments and provide insights 40 into trade-offs in xylem structure and function.

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42 Keywords: Xylem anatomy; hydraulic property; elevated [CO2]; water deficit;
43 embolism; maize.

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52 Elevated [CO₂] alleviates water deficit effects on xylem anatomy and 53 hydraulic properties of maize stems

54

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Plants can modify xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties to adjust to water status. 56 57 Elevated [CO₂] can increase plant water potential via reduced stomatal conductance 58 and water loss. This raises the question of whether elevated [CO₂], which thus improves plant water status, will reduce the impacts of soil water deficit on xylem 59 anatomy and hydraulic properties of plants? To analyze the impacts of water and 60 [CO₂] on maize stem xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties, we exposed potted 61 62 maize plants to varying [CO₂] levels (400, 700, 900, 1200 ppm) and water levels (full 63 irrigation, deficit irrigation). Results showed that at current [CO2], vessel diameter, vessel roundness, stem cross-section area, specific hydraulic conductivity and 64 65 vulnerability to embolism decreased under deficit irrigation; yet, these impacts of 66 deficit irrigation were reduced at elevated [CO₂]. Across all treatments, midday stem water potential was tightly correlated with xylem traits and displayed similar 67 responses. A distinct trade-off between efficiency and safety in stem xylem water 68 69 transportation in response to water deficit was observed at current [CO₂], but not 70 observed at elevated [CO2]. The results of this study enhance our knowledge of plant hydraulic acclimation under future climate environments and provide insights 71 72 into trade-offs in xylem structure and function.

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77 Introduction

As the long-distance, low-resistance water transport pathway in terrestrial plants, 78 79 xylem allows rapid and substantial movement of water from roots to leaves and is 80 necessary to sustain gas exchange by leaves in a comparatively dry atmospheric environment. Xylem hydraulic characteristics have a primary control effect on the 81 82 survival and productivity of plants (Brodribb 2009). These hydraulic properties are determined by the anatomical structure of the conduit units (vessel or tracheid) in 83 xylem. According to the Hagen-Poiseuille law, xylem hydraulic conductivity (i.e., the 84 85 water transport efficiency) is related to the vessel number and the fourth power of the vessel diameter (Tyree and Zimmermann 2002). The pore structure of the 86 87 conduit and the negative pressure on the conduit walls means that the water 88 transport in the xylem faces the threat of embolism caused by cavitation of water columns and wall collapse, which increases water transport resistance and can even 89 lead to hydraulic failure (Zimmermann 1983; De Guzman et al. 2016). 90

Xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties in plants are strongly regulated by
genetic control and show considerable variation across different species (Maherali
et al. 2004; Choat et al. 2012). In addition, recent work has demonstrated xylem
plasticity within single species, beyond genetic control (Stiller 2009; Plavcová and
Hacke 2012; Hacke 2015; Wang et al. 2016). Soil drying is the most frequent and

96 primary environmental stress that plants face. Experiments conducted under natural conditions across climatic and environmental gradients indicate that xylem 97 conduit diameter, conduit length, hydraulic conductivity, and vulnerability to 98 embolism of tree branches were positively correlated with local precipitation or soil 99 water availability (Villar-Salvador et al. 1997; Choat et al. 2012; Schreiber et al. 100 2015). Similar findings have been recorded in experiments under controlled 101 102 environment conditions. Trees and crops, in dryland environments, often have smaller stem diameter, conduit size, hydraulic conductivity, and less vulnerability to 103 embolism. Increases in the thickness of xylem cell walls and the density of conduits 104 have also been reported (Stiller 2009; Awad at al. 2010; Hudson et al. 2018). These 105 reports have additionally shown that the more severe the drought is, the higher the 106 107 impacts.

Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration ([CO₂]) and related climate 108 109 changes are critical environmental problems in many parts of the world, mainly 110 stemming from the rapid growth of population and increased manufacturing capacity since the industrial revolution (IPCC 2007). If the current high emission 111 trend continues, [CO₂] is predicted to exceed 1000 ppm by the year 2100 (IPCC 112 113 2014). Associated climate changes such as increased atmospheric vapour pressure deficit will likely increase water use in agriculture, thereby increasing soil drying 114 leading to more severe regional or global drought and food shortage (IPCC 2014). As 115 the most important substrate for photosynthesis, elevated [CO₂] has a profound 116 impact on plant growth. There is little consensus on the impact of elevated [CO₂] on 117

stem xylem in woody plants. One perspective is that elevated [CO₂] significantly 118 increases the diameter of the xylem vessel, hydraulic conductivity, and vulnerability 119 to embolism (Atkinson & Taylor 1996; Kostiainen et al. 2014; Kim et al. 2015); yet, 120 121 some researchers have found that elevated $[CO_2]$ had no impact on these characters or that their impact is insignificant (Kostiainen et al. 2004; Kilpeläinen et al. 2007; 122 123 Vaz et al. 2012). Hydraulic failure at severe drought has been associated with forest mortality worldwide (McDowell et al. 2008; Allen et al. 2010). In addition, species 124 125 diversity of trees is more suitable for research on long-distance transport. Woody plants have received more attention than crop plants in the literature. Xylem 126 hydraulics also play an essential role in modifying crop growth (Sperry et al. 2003; 127 Stiller et al. 2003), and crops are sensitive to embolism by drought stress because of 128 129 the relatively low cost of xylem construction (Neufeld et al. 1992; Holloway-Phillips and Brodribb 2011). Researches on the impacts of $[CO_2]$ on crop stem xylem are 130 limited and results are often disputed (Medeiros & Ward 2013; Rico et al. 2013), 131 therefore further study is necessary to investigate the response of crop stem xylem 132 to elevated [CO₂], and the interaction with soil water status should be taken into 133 consideration. 134

There are many comprehensive reviews focused on the influence of [CO₂] on crops (e.g., Lawlor and Mitchell 1991; Drake et al. 1997; Long et al. 2004; Leakey et al. 2009). In general, crops show increased photosynthetic rate, growth rate, yield, and water use efficiency under elevated [CO₂]. In recent years, several studies have emphasized the interactive impacts of [CO₂] and water availability on crops. Deficit 140 irrigation (DI), in particular, provokes more pronounced responses to elevated [CO₂] when compared with sufficient irrigation (Kang et al. 2002; Wall et al. 2006; Qiao et 141 al. 2010; Li et al. 2018). Drought stress, as a major abiotic stress, has negative 142 impacts on the growth of crops, but elevated [CO₂] may relieve this stress by 143 increasing water use efficiency (Meng et al. 2014; Frank et al. 2015) and may 144 alleviate the negative impacts of soil water deficit on crops partially or wholly 145 (Robredo et al. 2007). However, conflicting views indicate the stimulation of yield by 146 elevated [CO₂] on soybean decreased as drought intensified (Gray et al. 2016). 147

To further assess these possibilities, we evaluated the capacity of elevated 148 [CO₂] to alleviate the impacts of soil water deficit on xylem anatomy and hydraulic 149 function of maize stems. If these were to be the case, elevated [CO₂] might have a 150 151 direct impact on stem xylem development as the increasing of assimilate availability plays a critical role in cell expansion and growth (Steppe et al. 2015). Besides, 152 elevated [CO₂] might have an indirect impact on stem xylem development 153 154 especially in plants under soil water deficit, as elevated [CO₂] might significantly improve plant water status which has a regulatory effect on cell expansion and 155 growth (Hsiao and Acevedo 1974; Sheriff and Whitehead 1984). These contrasting 156 157 responses might explain the conflicting effects of elevated [CO2] on stem xylem in woody plants mentioned earlier. 158

Based on the effects of elevated [CO₂] on plant water status, we hypothesized that the impact of soil water deficiencies on xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties of plant stem would be alleviated by elevated [CO₂]. A previous review

summarized the effects of atmospheric carbon dioxide enrichment on plant 162 hydraulics (Domec et al. 2017), but the effects of elevated [CO₂] under different 163 moisture conditions were not compared in this review. Previous studies on the 164 impact of elevated [CO₂], particularly to stem xylem, were selected from the review 165 (Domec et al. 2017) and other publications, and we analyzed these studies to more 166 thoroughly assess the hypothesis (Table 1). In most of these studies, xylem anatomy 167 and hydraulic properties of woody plants in well water conditions were not 168 significantly influenced by [CO₂], and the plants that showed significant responses 169 170 to elevated [CO₂] suffered water stress, which provides additional support to our hypothesis above. In this study, we evaluated the impacts of [CO₂] and water 171 availability on the xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties of a plant stem. Maize, a 172 173 staple crop across the globe, was used in this study.

174

175 Materials and methods

176 **Plant material and growth conditions**

The experiment was performed from April to August in 2016 and 2017, in a climate phytotron at Shiyanghe Experimental Station of China Agricultural University, located in Wuwei City, Gansu Province in Northwest China (N 37°52', E 102°50'; altitude 1581 m). Maize (Zea mays L. cultivar Qiangsheng 51) was grown from seeds in 15-L (26.5 cm height, 21 cm bottom diameter and 33 cm top diameter) plastic pots, to achieve the precise control of soil water; each pot was filled with local sandy loam (formed by 12% clay, 60% silt, and 28% sand; soil bulk density,

1.55g/cm3; soil water holding capacity, 28% (m³/m³)), with little stones and fine 184 sand spread over the bottom to act as a filtration layer, the surface of the soil was 185 mixed with nutritive soil to reduce the impact of irrigation and avoid soil 186 compacting. We chose local soil to enhance the relevance to field conditions. The 187 local soil had been air-dried, crushed and sieved before use, to make the soil 188 uniform and eliminate spatial differences. A wire-netting (8mm mesh size) was used 189 190 to sieve to remove the small stones and residual plant roots and leaves, which should not have changed the composition and physical properties of the soil. The 191 same fertilization scheme was applied in each pot, which was 0.86 g urea, 0.11 g 192 KH_2PO_4 , and 0.65 g Ca $(H_2PO4)_2$ with water every time at the 1st, 4th, 8th, and 13th 193 week after sowing. 194

195 For the first six weeks (seedling stage), all pots were placed in a greenhouse without water deficit (about 80% field water capacity), one plant from each pot was 196 197 selected to remain in the greenhouse at the four-leaf stage during this time. The 198 maize started to elongate at the 7th week after sowing, then they were moved into the climate phytotron which was supplied with natural light (the average of the 199 photosynthetically active radiation in maize growth period is 459.2 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in 200 2016 and 461.7 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in 2017), the [CO₂] and moisture treatments 201 202 commenced. The rooms in climate phytotron were set to 400 ppm and 700 ppm in 2016, 400ppm, 700ppm, 900 ppm and 1200 ppm in 2017; the temperature was 203 maintained at 27°C/18°C (day (8:00-18:00) / night (18:00-8:00)), and the humidity 204 to 50%/80%. In each room, two soil moisture treatments were created: full 205

206 irrigation (FI, 95%-65% field water capacity) and deficit irrigation (DI, 75%-55% field water capacity in 2016, 65%-45% field water capacity in 2017). The experimental 207 208 pots were weighed every one to five days by high precision weighing scales for the 209 basis of the irrigation amount, plants in each soil moisture treatment were irrigated once those in 400 ppm room reached the lowest limit. Measuring cylinders were 210 211 used for measuring the irrigation water manually. The variety of soil water content 212 in the maize jointing stage was recorded (supporting information Fig. S1). The tops of the experimental pots in 2017 were covered with plastic film to prevent soil 213 214 evaporation, so that we can calculate the water consumption by plant transpiration. Maize in different two water treatments was placed adjacent in each room. The 215 equipment and the controls of the climate phytotron are given in detail by Li et al. 216 217 (2018).

218 Plant growth

Three plants representative of each treatment were randomly selected to measure 219 220 the plant growth. Leaf length, maximum leaf width, plant height (cm), and stem basal diameter (D_{stem}, mm) were assessed with measuring tapes and callipers every five or 221 222 ten days after the treatments (both water and $[CO_2]$ began). The total leaf area (total 223 A_{leaf}, m²) was calculated by summing the leaf length multiplied by the maximum leaf 224 width and then multiplied by a conversion factor of 0.74 (Li et al., 2008). Supported leaf area (supported A_{leaf}, m²) is the leaf area of foliage located downstream from the 225 stem segment for hydraulic measurement, and it was measured before the harvest 226 for hydraulic measurement. 227

228 Leaf gas exchange

Gas exchange measurements were made twice (the 10th week and 14th week after 229 sowing) during the jointing stage in 2017 with a photosynthesis system (Li 6400; 230 231 LI-COR, USA). The third leaves of three representative plants undergoing the same treatment were randomly selected for measurement. The incoming air stream was 232 233 not conditioned, and the environmental parameters in the gas exchange cuvette 234 were recorded (see Table S1). The daily variations of the parameters, including net photosynthetic rate (P_n , μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹), stomatal conductance (g_s , mol m⁻² s⁻¹), and 235 236 transpiration rate (T_r , mmol m⁻² s⁻¹), were recorded at two-hourly intervals from 8:00 to 18:00, then we calculated the average value. 237

238 Water potential measurements

239 The midday (12:00-13:00) stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , MPa) was measured twice (the 10th week and 14th week after sowing) on typically sunny days during the 240 241 jointing stage in 2017, three or four plants per treatments were randomly selected in 242 each measurement. Stem water potential was estimated by measuring the water potential of a non-transpiring (bagged) leaf (Begg and Turner 1970; Sack et al. 2003; 243 Hillabrand et al. 2016). An aluminium bag was used to wrap the sample leaf (the 244 245 nearest leaf under the ear of maize, close to the segment for anatomical 246 measurement) 2 hours before harvest. We sample small round pieces from the leaves with a leaf punch and sealed them in sample cuvettes before brought back to 247 the laboratory. A dew-point water potential meter (WP4-C; Decagon, USA) was used 248 for the measurement of plant water status. 249

250 Hydraulic measurements

After 6 weeks in the greenhouse and 10-12 weeks under different irrigation and 251 [CO₂] of treatment, five plants representative of each treatment were randomly 252 253 harvested at the silking stage (the 16-17th weeks after sowing in 2016; the 18th week after sowing in 2017); each plant was cut at the base of the stem and taken 254 255 back to the laboratory. Stem segments were prepared from the parts under the 256 ears, and cut to a length of 27.5cm with razor blades under boiled-degassed water, making sure the cut face was smooth. Segments were typically 14-20 mm in 257 258 diameter. We use 20mM KCl solution (vacuum degassed and 0.22µm filtered) to flush segments for 30 min under 100kPa to remove any possible native embolisms. 259 Maximum hydraulic conductivity (K_{max}, mg mm kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹) was measured after 260 261 flushing by the gravity method outlined in Sperry et al. (1988). The hydraulic head pressure was supplied by a raised glass bottle and maintained at 6 kPa. The 262 computer connected to the balance automatically recorded the weigh every 15s 263 264 and calculated the K_{max}. In order to prevent water leakage caused by asymmetrical stem cross-sections, we referenced the operation of Li et al. (2009) to filling the 265 cavity at one end of the stem with poster mud and wrapping with Teflon tape, 266 267 making sure a close combination between stem and silicone tube. Stem specific 268 hydraulic conductivity (K_s, mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹) was subsequently calculated as the K_{max} of a stem segment divided by the corresponding stem cross-section area. 269

The centrifuge method was first and widely used to determine the stem xylem cavitation vulnerability curve (Alder et al., 1997) and also reliable for non-woody 272 plants (e.g., Maize, Li et al. 2009; Sunflower, Rico et al. 2013; Phaseolus, Medeiros & Ward 2013; Arabidopsis, Tixier et al. 2013). We used a centrifuge (H2050R-1; 273 274 Xiangyi, China) and a custom-built rotor modified to suit maize stem segments 275 based the design the website of on on Sperry lab (http://sperry.biology.utah.edu/methods.html) in 2016. The centrifuge (H2100R; 276 277 Xiangyi, China) and rotor modified based on Chinatron (Wang et al. 2014) were 278 used in 2017. Segments were secured in the rotor and spun on the centrifuge, after spinning to induce the desired negative pressure at the stem centre for 3 min, the 279 stems were removed, and hydraulic conductivity was again measured. The process 280 was repeated at progressively higher spinning speeds (more negative pressure) until 281 282 more than 90% of the K_{max} was lost, and most of the xylem had been cavitated. 283 Stem xylem vulnerability curves were expressed by plotting percentage loss of conductivity vs xylem pressure. The vulnerability curve was fitted using a cubic 284 function ($r^2 > 0.9$), and we calculated the water potential inducing 50% loss of 285 286 hydraulic conductivity (P50, MPa). The laboratory was maintained at approximately 25°C to reduce the influence of water viscosity change on conductance. 287

288 Anatomical measurements

The stem cross-sections between internodes were obtained from hydraulic samples, stained with safranin and then photographed by a digital optical microscope (BA210; Motic, China). In maize stem, xylem vessels are grown scattered in vascular bundles and distributed in the whole stem cross section. In general, every matured maize vascular bundle has two metaxylem vessels and one protoxylem vessel, but the

protoxylem vessel is considered to be damaged and lost its function during the 294 elongation of stem (Lucas et al. 2013). The stem cross-section area (Astem, mm²) and 295 the total number of vascular bundles (N) in this cross-section were measured and 296 counted from the photographs. Metaxylem vessel diameter (D, μ m) and roundness 297 (R, $\mu m \mu m^{-1}$) based on a random selection of 24 vascular bundles were measured 298 from the photograph by ImageJ software (NIH Image, Bethesda, MD, USA). The 299 300 longest diameter and the shortest diameter of each vessel were recorded, D = (longest diameter + shortest diameter)/2, R = shortest diameter/longest diameter. 301 Vascular bundle density (p , mm⁻²) was calculated as N/A_{stem}. Vascular bundles were 302 divided into central vascular bundles (subscript C) and peripheral vascular bundles 303 304 (subscript P) according to their morphology and position.

305 We calculated a theoretic hydraulic conductivity (K_{hp}, mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹) of the stem using the Hagen-Poisueille formula. This Hagen-Poiseuille conductivity was 306 expressed per stem cross-sectional area for comparison with measured 307 308 conductivity of the same stems. For this calculation, the vessel cross section was generally simplified into a circle as calculated in formula (1) (see Calkin et al. 1985; 309 Li et al. 2009), and the resistance of perforation plate between vessels was ignored. 310 311 We measured vessel roundness, not only to reveal the response of the vessel shape 312 to water and [CO₂] treatments but also to attempt to capture a more accurate theoretical value of K_{hp}, as most of the xylem vessels are not regular circles but 313 approximate to ellipses. We used formula (2) to calculate K_{hp} with an elliptical 314 correction. 315

316
$$K_{\rm hp} = (\pi / 128\eta) \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_i^4 / A_{stem}$$
 (1)

317
$$K_{\rm hp} = (\pi / 128\eta) \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_i^4 (2 / (R_i + 1 / R_i)) / A_{stem}$$
 (2)

318 Where η is the viscosity of water (Pa·s), and n is the number of vessels.

319 Statistical analysis

SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for statistical analysis. A one-way ANOVA was applied to test the differences in means of treatments. Two-way ANOVA was also performed for all measured traits using [CO₂] and irrigation level as two factors (results see supporting information Table. S2). The figures and the analysis of correlations between parameters were prepared with SigmaPlot 12.5 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

326

327 **Result**

328 Plant growth

We selected the maximum value of total Aleaf, height, and basal Dstem during the 329 330 growth period of each plant to compare the growth of maize under different treatments. Elevated [CO₂] stimulated the growth of maize plants, and water deficit 331 had a negative impact on growth (Table 2). The total leaf area of maize increased at 332 333 elevated [CO₂]. In contrast, water deficit led to a significant reduction in total leaf 334 area especially at 400 ppm, from 0.55 \pm 0.01 m² to 0.47 \pm 0.03 m² in 2016 and 0.65 \pm 0.03 m² to 0.51 \pm 0.03 m² in 2017. The negative impact of water deficit decreased 335 at elevated $[CO_2]$. Plant height showed similar responses to water and $[CO_2]$, 336 ranging from 196 ± 6 cm to 279 ± 2 cm in 400 ppm DI and 1200 ppm FI plants, 337

respectively. Basal stem diameter was smallest in 400 ppm DI (19.1 \pm 0.6 mm) and largest in 1200 ppm FI (23.4 \pm 0.3 mm).

340 Leaf gas exchange

For all [CO₂] treatments, net photosynthetic rate (P_n; Fig. 1a) was reduced in 341 response to water deficit and significantly under 400 ppm and 900 ppm. At 400 342 ppm, P_n was 19.5 ± 6.0 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 11.1 ± 4.3 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ under FI and DI, 343 respectively. 700 ppm [CO₂] significantly increased P_n under DI but not FI, and with 344 [CO₂] supplementation to 900 ppm and 1200 ppm, the variations of P_n under DI or 345 FI were not significant. $[CO_2]$ supplementation and water deficit both led to 346 347 decreases in stomatal conductance (g_s ; Fig. 1b), ranging from 0.162 ± 0.093 mol m⁻² s^{-1} in 400 ppm FI plants to 0.029 ± 0.007 mol m⁻² s^{-1} in 1200 ppm DI plants. Similarly, 348 transpiration rate (T_r; Fig. 1c) was largest in 400 ppm FI (2.28 \pm 0.96 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹) 349 and smallest in 1200 ppm DI (0.76 \pm 0.17 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹). The decreases in P_n, g_s, and 350 Tr under water deficit were smaller for plants grown at 700, 900, and 1200 ppm, 351 352 when compared with those grown at 400 ppm [CO₂]. Increases in P_n and the decreases in Tr resulted in significant increases in leaf water use efficiency (WUE_{leaf}, 353 P_n/T_r ; Fig. 1d) at elevated [CO₂]. 354

355 Plant water relations

Because of the lower transpiration rate, most of the plants under elevated $[CO_2]$ were irrigated at the level close to but did not reach the lowest limit of soil water content when those undrt 400 ppm $[CO_2]$ reached. Thus the averages of soil water content under elevated $[CO_2]$ were close to or non-significantly higher than those

360 under 400 ppm conditions during the jointing stage (Fig. S1). Maize midday stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , Table 2) at jointing stage was sensitive to soil water content 361 at the current 400 ppm [CO₂], and Ψ_{stem} significantly decreased from -1.07 ± 0.09 362 MPa under FI to -1.55 ± 0.14 MPa under DI. With [CO₂] rising to 700 and 900 ppm, 363 Ψ_{stem} increased under both FI and DI. Then Ψ_{stem} had a slight and non-significant 364 decrease at 1200 ppm [CO₂] under FI, and a significant decrease under DI when 365 compare with 900ppm [CO₂] plants. Elevated [CO₂] reduced the difference in Ψ_{stem} 366 between FI and DI, and Ψ_{stem} under DI treatment at elevated [CO₂] was increased 367 and showed no significant difference with Ψ_{stem} under 400 ppm FI treatment. 368

369 Xylem anatomy

The impacts of water and [CO₂] treatments on xylem vessel shape and vascular bundle distribution are shown in Table 3. Among the two types of vascular bundles, central vascular bundles have larger diameter vessels and were found in greater numbers, suggesting that central vascular bundles are more critical in the xylem water transportation when compared with periphery vascular bundles.

For the central vascular bundles, water deficit significantly reduced vessel diameter (D_c) at 400 ppm [CO₂], from 53.3 ± 5.3 µm under FI to 47.6 ± 2.8 µm under DI in 2016, and from 57.1 ± 2.6 µm under FI to 48.4 ± 1.7 µm under DI in 2017. Elevated [CO₂] significantly increased D_c under DI but not significant under FI. Similarly, vessel roundness (R_c) was 0.76 ± 0.03 µm µm⁻¹ under FI and 0.67 ± 0.03 µm µm⁻¹ under DI at 400 ppm [CO₂] in 2016, and 0.82 ± 0.01 µm µm⁻¹ under FI and 0.77 ± 0.01 µm µm⁻¹ under DI at 400 ppm [CO₂] in 2017. Elevated [CO₂] had significantly increased R_c, especially under DI. Moreover, R_c showed no significant
 difference between water treatments at a specific elevated [CO₂]. Peripheral
 vascular bundles either showed similar responses with central vascular bundles or
 were little affected by water and [CO₂] treatments.

Stem segment cross-section area (Astem) significantly decreased under water 386 deficit, and A_{stem} increased with [CO₂] rising under both FI and DI. The number of 387 central vascular bundles (N_c) also significantly increased with 388 $[CO_2]$ supplementation, but water deficit had no impact on this variable, with the 389 result that their density (pc) showed no significant difference between [CO2] 390 treatments but an increase in response to water deficit in 2017. Similar responses 391 were found in the number and the density of peripheral vascular bundles. 392

³⁹³ D_c was significantly correlated with Ψ_{stem} (Fig. 2a; r²=0.70, P=0.009), and R_c ³⁹⁴ was also significantly correlated with Ψ_{stem} (Fig. 2b; r²=0.71, P=0.009), moreover, ³⁹⁵ A_{stem} was significantly correlated with Ψ_{stem} (Fig. 2c; r²=0.67, P=0.013).

396 Xylem hydraulic properties

At the current 400 ppm [CO₂], water deficit significantly reduced stem specific hydraulic conductivity (K_s; Fig. 3a) from 0.59 \pm 0.10 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under FI to 0.51 \pm 0.09 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under DI in 2016, and significantly reduced K_s from 0.74 \pm 0.07 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under FI to 0.52 \pm 0.05 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under DI in 2017. Similarly, theoretical Hagen-Poiseuille hydraulic conductivity (K_{hp}; Fig. 3b) was 0.87 \pm 0.34 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under FI and 0.55 \pm 0.10 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under DI in 2016, and 1.10 \pm 0.17 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹ under FI and 0.75 \pm 0.14 mg mm⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ s⁻¹

404 under DI in 2017. Elevated [CO₂] increased K_s and K_{hp} under DI, but not under FI. At elevated [CO2], the drops in Ks or Khp under water deficit were smaller when 405 compared with plants at 400 ppm [CO₂]. Differences between these assessments 406 can mainly be attributed to the fact that the Hagen-Poiseuille formula ignores the 407 resistance caused by the unsmooth inner wall surface and the perforation plate 408 between vessels, K_{hp} showed similar responses with K_s to water and [CO₂] 409 410 treatments but with more substantial values. K_s was also tightly correlated with D_c (Fig. 4; r^2 =0.96, P < 0.001). K_{hp} with ellipses corrected was 1.2%-4.4% lower than the 411 results provided by formula (1) and was closer to the values of K_s (data not shown). 412 However, the error generated by simplifying the ellipse into a circle was limited and 413 can be ignored. 414

415 The supported A_{leaf} scaled linearly with stem's capacity to transport water, 416 including A_{stem} (Fig. 5a; r^2 =0.54, P=0.007) and K_{max} (Fig. 5b; r^2 =0.87, P<0.001).

Under FI treatment, elevated [CO₂] slightly increased the stem xylem 417 418 vulnerability to embolism (Fig. 6). Under the DI treatment, maize showed the lowest vulnerability at 400 ppm [CO₂] and showed an increase in vulnerability at 419 700 ppm and 900 ppm [CO₂] but slightly decreased at 1200 ppm [CO₂]. We 420 421 compared the water potential inducing 50% loss of conductivity (P50, Table 4) 422 calculated from the vulnerable curves between treatments. At 400 ppm [CO₂], P50 dropped from -0.87 ± 0.26 MPa under FI to -1.21 ± 0.16 MPa under DI in 2016, and 423 from -1.83 ± 0.19 MPa under FI to -2.56 ± 0.22 MPa under DI in 2017. At elevated 424 [CO₂], P50 under DI significantly increased, and there was no significant difference 425

426 between water treatments.

There was a strong correlation between P50 and Ψ_{stem} under different treatments in 2017 (Fig. 7a; r²=0.84, P<0.001). There was a very weak correlation between P50 and K_s in 2017 (Fig. 7b; r₁²=0.42, P=0.08), if we analyze the data apart from 400 ppm DI plants, there was no correlation between P50 and K_s (Fig. 7b; r₂²=0.06, P=0.58).

432

433 **Discussion**

Xylem facilitates the rapid movement of substantial volumes of water from roots to transpiring leaves, which have a primary control effect on plant water status and photosynthetic capacity of plants (Brodribb 2009). Until now, however, the effects of elevated [CO₂] on xylem anatomy and hydraulic traits have not been adequately addressed. We hypothesized that the impact of soil water deficiencies on xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties of the plant stem would be alleviated by elevated [CO₂], due to the effects of elevated [CO₂] on plant water status.

441 Xylem anatomy

At the current atmosphere [CO₂], xylem anatomy showed a significant response to water deficit in maize stems, with decreases in vessel diameter (D_c), vessel roundness (R_c), and stem cross-section area (A_{stem}) (Table 3). Studies of many trees and crops report similar long-term response to water stress (Arend and Fromm 2007; Stiller 2009; Awad at al. 2010; Plavcová and Hacke 2012; Schreiber et al. 2015; Hudson et al. 2018). Photosynthetic capacity is associated with xylem formation

because assimilation is crucial not only for the synthesis of cell-wall products but 448 also for maintaining turgor pressure in the enlarging cells (Ray et al. 1972; Larcher 449 2003; Steppe et al. 2015). Elevated [CO₂] can stimulate plant photosynthetic rate 450 and which was observed in our study (Figure 1). However, this direct impact of 451 elevated [CO2] (increasing assimilate) on xylem anatomy was not obvious, as the 452 increases of D_c, R_c, A_{stem} under FI were not significant in our study. Besides 453 454 increased photosynthetic rate, stomatal conductance is also the direct impacts of elevated [CO2] on plants (Morison 1998). Plants can improve their internal water 455 status and maintain high water potential and turgor pressure when face with water 456 deficiency (e.g. Robredo et al. 2007). An indirect impact of elevated [CO₂] on xylem 457 anatomy by stomatal control was observed in this study. In this study, elevated [CO₂] 458 459 alleviates the impacts of deficit irrigation on xylem anatomy, due to the indirect impact of elevated [CO₂]. The data in 2017 showed that at 400 ppm [CO₂], D_c under 460 DI was 16.8% lower than FI, and with [CO₂] supplementation, D_c under DI was 461 462 11.8%, 12.4%, and 11.9% lower than FI, at 700, 900, 1200 ppm [CO₂] respectively; DI treatment significantly reduced R_c at 400 ppm [CO₂], and R_c was not significantly 463 different between water treatments at elevated [CO2]; Astem under DI was 24.8%, 464 22.7%, 20.1%, 18.0% lower than FI at 400, 700, 900, 1200 ppm respectively (Table 465 3). The drops of D_c, R_c, and A_{stem} by DI were also less dramatic for plants at elevated 466 [CO₂] in 2016. Water deficit can significantly decrease D_c, R_c, and A_{stem}, but these 467 impacts of water deficit were relieved at elevated [CO2], which support our 468 hypothesis. 469

In our study, maize stems grew rapidly during the jointing stage, and xylem 470 conduit cells were differentiated during this process, through a complex process 471 encompassing cell-type determination, cell division, cell differentiation, cell 472 expansion and programmed cell death (Ye 2002). Plant water status and assimilate 473 availability play a critical role in cell expansion and growth (Hsiao and Acevedo 1974; 474 Steppe et al. 2015). Xylem anatomy traits, including D_c, R_c, and A_{stem}, were 475 significantly correlated with the midday stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , Fig. 2). Ψ_{stem} 476 was measured at jointing stage on the leaves that were close to the segments for 477 later anatomical measurements; thus we use Ψ_{stem} to characterize the water status 478 of differentiated stem xylem. Turgor pressure is the driving force of cell expansion 479 during xylem differentiation, and it irreversibly stretches the plasticized cell wall 480 481 because of the water potential gradient drawing water into the cell (Lockhart 1965, Hacke et al. 2017). It is difficult for cells to absorb water from the surroundings to 482 maintain turgor and expand when plant tissue becomes dehydrated under low 483 484 water potential (Hsiao and Acevedo 1974; Sheriff and Whitehead 1984). We have not measured the turgor pressure of differentiated xylem, but we can estimate it 485 from Ψ_{stem} . Because unless it is altered by an osmotic adjustment, the turgor 486 487 pressure of cells in vascular meristems will decline proportionally with xylem water potential (Fereres et al. 1978; Boyer and Silk 2004). So 400 ppm DI plants 488 experienced significant water stress with reduced Ψ_{stem} presumably decreasing the 489 turgor pressure, resulting in a significant decrease in D_c . At the jointing stage, the 490 increases of P_n and the decreases of T_r result in a significant increase of WUE_{leaf} at 491

elevated [CO₂] (Fig. 1) and increased Ψ_{stem} under DI (Table 2), but the saturated 492 water conditions under FI limited the increases of Ψ_{stem} and reduced the 493 differences between water treatments at elevated [CO₂]. Ψ_{stem} of DI plants had 494 more significant increases with [CO₂] supplementation when compared with FI 495 plants, presumably accompanied by an increase in the turgor pressure, which 496 diminished the differences in vessel diameter under two water treatments at 497 498 elevated $[CO_2]$. Maize stem is composed of many single cells where cell size is regulated by turgor pressure, so A_{stem} had similar responses to Ψ_{stem} . R_c might also 499 500 be regulated by turgor pressure; however, it is difficult for a cell to maintain a full and round shape with low turgor pressure under water stress. Previous studies have 501 also indicated that xylem anatomy and hydraulic traits of plants were associated 502 503 with the plant water potential they have experienced (Woodruff et al. 2008; Blackman et al. 2010; Vinya et al. 2013). It is worth noting here that the chemical 504 signals (e.g. hormone and Ion concentration) are also involved in the xylem 505 506 differentiation (Sorce et al. 2013; Smet & Rybel 2016; Takahashi & Shinozaki 2018). 507

508 Hydraulic traits

509 Similarly, at the current atmosphere [CO₂], maize stem water transport efficiency K_s 510 showed a significant decrease to respond to water deficit (Fig. 3a). The direct 511 impact of elevated [CO₂] on K_s was not observed, as K_s showed no significant 512 difference respond to elevated [CO₂] under full irrigation in our study. However, K_s 513 under DI was 29.1%, 19.6%, 23.0 %, and 16.7% lower than FI at 400, 700, 900, and 1200 ppm [CO₂], respectively. The drop of K_s by DI was also less dramatic for plants at elevated [CO₂] in 2016. Taking into consideration the Hagen-Poiseuille law, it is not hard to understand why K_s was proportional to D_c, with a very high correlation (Fig. 4). So due to the indirect impact of elevated [CO₂] on D_c, elevated [CO₂] alleviated the impact of water deficiency on K_s.

The decrease of K_s under DI was significant under the current [CO₂] but not 519 under elevated [CO₂], so that we can get the conclusion that the impact of soil 520 water deficiencies on K_s was alleviated by elevated [CO₂]. However, there was no 521 significant interactive effect between [CO₂] and irrigation on K_s according to the 522 analysis of two-way ANOVA (Table S2). Most of the gas exchange, xylem anatomy 523 and hydraulic parameters were in the similar situations, so the information we can 524 get from two-way ANOVA was limited. In that case, our analysis and conclusion 525 primarily based on one-way ANOVA. 526

We observed that Astem and also Kmax was correlated with the supported Aleaf 527 528 across all treatments (Fig. 5). Water transport through the stem xylem is essential for replacing water loss during leaf transpiration, so it is often assumed that greater 529 530 leaf area as a result of environmental change can increase the transport capacity of 531 the xylem to meet water demand (Atkinson & Taylor 1996; Gebauer & BassiriRad, 2011; Plavcová & Hacke 2012; Medeiros & Ward 2013). Conversely, assimilation 532 can drive leaf development until a limitation on stem development limits further 533 leaf area development. In addition, as Astem represents not only the principal 534 anatomical basis of a stem's capacity to transport water but also the capacity to 535

provide physical support for the leaves, hence the size of a stem determines the leaf area it can support (Brodribb & Field 2010). Elevated [CO₂] significantly increased maize leaf area, but not the water demand, actually plant water consumption decreased at elevated [CO₂] (Table 2) due to the decrease of g_s. In this case, the hydraulic system tends to be more redundant at elevated [CO₂].

Besides efficiency, the safety of the conducting system is also essential for 541 crop survival. DI treatment decreased stem xylem vulnerability to embolism at 400 542 ppm [CO₂] with a significant decrease in P50, and elevated [CO₂] significantly 543 increased the P50 of DI plants to a level with no significant difference from FI (Fig. 6; 544 Table 4). Thus, elevated [CO₂] also alleviated the impact of water deficiency on 545 embolism vulnerability. Numerous studies have demonstrated that cavitation 546 resistance was associated with the plant water potential that plants experience 547 (Hacke et al. 2000; Sperry and Hacke 2002; Blackman et al. 2010; Vinya et al. 2013), 548 and we observed a tight correlation between P50 and Ψ_{stem} (Fig. 7a). In general, 549 550 small conduits are more resistant to cavitation than large ones. Because the probability of large pores in a small conduit decreases as pit-surface-area was 551 552 reduced (Cai and Tyree 2010). Besides, a smaller diameter also increases the cell 553 wall structural strength to prevent collapse (Cochard et al. 2004). Both scenarios 554 make xylem with small conduits have a low probability of embolism. Our result showed that lower D_c significantly decreased P50 at the current atmospheric [CO₂], 555 but elevated $[CO_2]$ alleviated the impact of water deficit by decreasing D_c and 556 permitting P50 to increase. 557

There is often assumed to be a distinct trade-off between efficiency and safety 558 in the xylem water transportation between or within species. Decreases in the 559 average diameter of xylem vessels lower xylem hydraulic conductivity but may 560 prevent embolism, as smaller vessels are less susceptible to cavitation 561 (Zimmermann 1983). However, several previous works do not unequivocally 562 support this trade-off (Martinez-Vilalta et al. 2009; Award et al. 2010; Plavcová and 563 564 Hacke 2012). Our results showed that at the current [CO₂], maize suffered water stress with a decrease in hydraulic conductivity and an increase in embolism 565 resistance, indicating that a clear trade-off between safety and efficiency was 566 established. However, at elevated [CO2], maize stems under the DI treatment have 567 smaller conduits and lower hydraulic conductivity, but similar embolism resistance 568 when compared with FI treatment. There seems to be a very weak correlation 569 between P50 and K_s (Fig. 7b; r_1^2 =0.39, P=0.098). P50 of maize under 400 ppm DI 570 was significantly lower than other treatments, and if we only analyze the data 571 572 without 400 ppm DI, there was no correlation between P50 and K_s (Fig. 7b; r_2^2 =0.06, P=0.592). A distinct trade-off between efficiency and safety in the xylem water 573 transportation under soil water and [CO₂] changes were not observed. 574

575

576 **Conclusion**

577 Our study revealed maize stem hydraulic acclimation under future climate 578 environments. Elevated [CO₂] alleviated the negative impact of water deficit to 579 decrease water transport efficiency, with our maize showing lower resistance to

580 long-distance water transport, which is beneficial to the growth of maize due to the close correspondence between assimilation rate and hydraulic conductance 581 (Brodribb 2009). On the other hand, elevated $[CO_2]$ alleviated the impact of water 582 deficit to decrease vulnerability to embolism and our maize plants under DI showed 583 lower resistance to embolism at elevated [CO₂]. It might be disadvantageous to the 584 growth of maize, since xylem embolism vulnerability may be related to drought 585 resistance of plants (Cochard et al. 2008; Li et al. 2009). However, maize stems at 586 elevated [CO₂] usually maintain relatively high water potential potentially can avoid 587 the formation of embolism and showed a redundant hydraulic system which can 588 ensure water supply. The use of deficit irrigation is a promising approach to both 589 590 save water and induce plant physiological regulations (Du et al. 2015), our results 591 showed that deficit irrigation might benefit crops more in future agriculture under climate change as elevated [CO₂] will reduce some negative impacts of soil water 592 deficit on photosynthesis and growth of plants. A limitation of our study is that our 593 594 maize was planted in pots in glasshouse conditions, but not in the field. Large-scale studies particularly free-air CO_2 enrichment (FACE) studies (Ainsworth & Long 595 2005) are under natural conditions without enclosure, which could make the result 596 597 more reliable.

Here, we showed that elevated [CO₂] alleviated the impacts of water deficiency on xylem anatomy and hydraulic properties; moreover, we also demonstrated that these impacts of elevated [CO₂] were not direct but indirect. The hypothesis and results are logical and based on well-known phenomena, yet different species may have different adjustment strategies in the face of elevated [CO₂] (Domec et al. 2017), and the magnitudes of responses may vary in other maize cultivars or soil types, which require further exploration. However, our results provide another perspective to assess the impact of elevated [CO₂] to plant xylem anatomy and hydraulics, that soil water status and other environmental factors must be taken into consideration.

608

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Species	[CO ₂]	[CO2] Description of water conditions Impact of elevated [CO2] to stem xylem				
Quercus and	250, 700 ppm	Acclimated to lower humidities	The vessel lumen diameter, total vessel lumen cross-sectional area and	Atkinson &		
Prunus	550, 700 ppm	in covered micropropagators	branch hydraulic conductivity significantly increased at elevated [CO ₂].	Taylor 1996		
Ponderosa pine	350, 550, 750, 1100 ppm	Watered to field capacity every 2d	Υ Elevated [CO ₂] had minimal effects on K _S and K _L .			
Norway spruce	360, 720 ppm	nonlimiting soil water	Elevated [CO ₂] had only minor effects on tracheid lumen diameter, tracheid length and cell wall thickness.	Kostiainen et al. 2004		
Scotts pine	present [CO ₂], 700 ppm	Mean annual precipitation is 740 mm	Elevated [CO ₂] had little impact on xylem anatomy.	Kilpeläinen et al. 2007		
Quercus and Alnus	360, 720 ppm	Pots were kept in trays with water to avoid desiccation.	Total vessel area, mean vessel area and hydraulic mean vessel diameter were not significantly influenced by [CO ₂].	Watanabe et al. 2008		
Cork oak trees	350, 700 ppm	First 12 months watered twice a week until field capacity, then subjected to a water stress	No significant changes in stem diameter, vessel lumen diameter, or vulnerability to embolism at different [CO ₂].	Vaz et al. 2012		
Phaseolus vulgaris	180, 380, 700 ppm	Four water regimes ranging from high to low	Elevated [CO ₂] significantly increased vessel diameter and decreased embolism resistance under both water deficit and good water conditions. The hydraulic traits decreased under elevated [CO ₂].	Medeiros & Ward 2013		
Helianthus annuus	290, 390, 480 ppm	Watered daily to saturation	Elevated [CO ₂] significantly decreased vessel diameter and vulnerability to embolism under good water conditions.	Rico et al. 2013		
Populus and Betula	present [CO ₂], + 200 ppm	Different annual precipitation in 10 years	Vessel diameter and wall thickness increased at elevated [CO ₂], and significant differences occurred in the years with relatively less precipitation.	Kostiainen et al. 2014		
Six broad-leaved tree species	400, 600 ppm	Received deionized water to saturation to avoid soil drying	Stem hydraulic efficiency either increased or showed no consistent pattern of change to elevated [CO ₂]. The vulnerability to drought-induced embolism did not respond to elevated [CO ₂].	Hao et al. 2018		

Table. 1 Previous studies on the impact of elevated [CO₂] to stem xylem.

Table. 2 Plant growth and water relations under different water and [CO₂] treatments in 2016 and 2017. A_{leaf}, leaf area; D_{stem}, stem basal

846 diameter; Ψ_{stem}, midday stem water potential; Transpiration, maize transpiration in 47 days (7th-15th weeks) during jointing stage; FI, full

847 irrigation; DI, deficit irrigation.

Voor	[CO ₂]	Water	Height	Totle A _{leaf}	D _{stem}	Ψ_{stem}	Transpiration
real		treatment	(cm)	(m²)	(mm)	(MPa)	(kg)
2016	400 ppm	FI	263±8b	0.553±0.012b	20.4±0.4	-	-
	400 ppm	DI	235±3c	0.466±0.032c	19.5±0.8	-	-
	700 ppm	FI	276±5a	0.644±0.026a	21.5±1.1	-	-
	700 ppm	DI	271±5ab	0.651±0.027a	20.5±1.2	-	-
2017	400 ppm	FI	256±3b	0.651±0.027cd	20.8±0.1cd	-1.07±0.08cd	14.2±0.6a
		DI	196±6d	0.513±0.034f	19.1±0.6e	-1.55±0.14e	6.6±0.4d
	700 ppm	FI	271±3a	0.675±0.068bcd	21.6±0.3bc	-0.90±0.10a	13.1±0.6b
		DI	240±2c	0.587±0.030de	19.7±0.6e	-1.15±0.07d	5.7±0.7d
	900 ppm	FI	273±1a	0.737±0.021ab	22.8±0.2a	-0.81±0.09a	11.0±0.5c
		DI	243±6c	0.626±0.019de	20.2±0.6ed	-1.01±0.06bc	4.9±0.4e
	1200 ppm	FI	279±2a	0.790±0.031a	23.4±0.3a	-0.92±0.09ab	11.6±0.7c
		DI	248±3bc	0.704±0.024bc	22.6±0.7ab	-1.16±0.05d	6.0±0.5d

Mean ± SD is shown. Plant growth, n=3; Ψ_{stem} , n=7=n₁+n₂, n₁=3 (samples in the 10th week), n₂=4 (samples in the 14th week); Transpiration,

n=7. Values on each line and in the same year followed by the different letters are significantly different at the level of P<0.05 (one-way

850 ANOVA).

Table. 3 Xylem conduit shape, vascular bundle distribution, and stem cross-section area under different water and [CO₂] treatments in 2016

and 2017. VB, vascular bundles; subscript C, central vascular bundles; subscript P, peripheral vascular bundles; Astem, stem cross-section area; FI,

853 full irrigation; DI, deficit irrigation.

Year	2016			2017								
CO_2 concentration	400 ppm		700 ppm		400 ppm		700 ppm		900 ppm		1200 ppm	
Water treatment	FI	DI	FI	DI								
Vessel diameter (µm)												
Central VB (D _c)	53.3±5.3ab	47.6±2.8b	54.8±3.3a	54.0±4.0a	57.1±2.6a	48.4±1.7c	56.8±2.0a	52.7±1.3b	57.0±1.7a	51.3±0.8b	58.5±2.4a	53.0±2.0b
Peripheral VB (D _P)	35.2±1.0	34.6±2.4	34.3±1.9	34.9±2.2	34.4±2.4ab	31.7±2.3b	34.6±3.2ab	33.5±0.7ab	34.3±2.8ab	32.3±3.0b	35.5±2.3a	32.8±1.8ab
Vessel roundness (µm µm ⁻¹)												
Central VB(R _c)	0.76±0.03a	0.67±0.03b	0.76±0.03a	0.74±0.04a	0.82±0.01a	0.77±0.01b	0.82±0.01a	0.82±0.01a	0.83±0.01a	0.82±0.02a	0.83±0.02a	0.83±0.02a
Peripheral VB (R _P)	0.79±0.01a	0.75±0.03b	0.82±0.03a	0.79±0.03a	0.85±0.02	0.83±0.03	0.85±0.01	0.85±0.04	0.85±0.02	0.86±0.03	0.85±0.03	0.84±0.02
VB number												
Central VB (N _c)	334±15bc	319±16c	372±16a	355±18ab	336±8c	337±22c	341±16bc	349±12abc	360±8a	355±7ab	366±7a	366±19a
Peripheral VB(N _P)	165±11	159±16	160±17	150±7	116±7b	119±15b	120±4b	125±9ab	140±5a	131±4ab	136±8a	137±8a
Cross-section area (mm ²)												
Stem (A _{stem})	251±12ab	230±26b	269±31a	255±20ab	189±10b	149±9e	190±6b	171±18cd	197±9b	163±10d	211±7a	184±17bc
VB density(mm ⁻²)												
Central VB (d _c)	1.33±0.09	1.41±0.15	1.40±0.14	1.40±0.10	1.77±0.04c	2.23±0.19a	1.80±0.06c	2.14±0.2ab	1.81±0.07c	2.18±0.12ab	1.70±0.08c	2.03±0.18b
Peripheral VB (d _P)	0.66±0.05	0.70±0.15	0.60±0.13	0.59±0.05	0.61±0.03b	0.79±0.09a	0.64±0.03b	0.79±0.05a	0.67±0.05b	0.80±0.04a	0.64±0.05b	0.78±0.10a

Mean ± SD is shown. 2016, n=5; 2017, n=6-7. Values on each line and in the same year followed by the different letters are significantly

different at the level of P<0.05 (one-way ANOVA).

Table. 4 The water potential inducing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity (P50) under
different water and [CO₂] treatments in 2016 and 2017. FI, full irrigation; DI, deficit
irrigation.

Voar	[[[]]]	Water	P50 (MPa)		
Tear	[002]	treatment			
	400nnm	FI	-0.80±0.16a		
2016	400ppm	DI	-1.30±0.09b		
2010	700000	FI	-0.78±0.28a		
	700ppm	DI	-0.77±0.15a		
	400ppm	FI	-1.83±0.19ab		
	400ppm	DI	-2.56±0.22c		
	700000	FI	-1.61±0.20a		
2017	700ppm	DI	-1.72±0.20ab		
2017	000000	FI	-1.62±0.15a		
	900ppm	DI	-1.73±0.10ab		
	1200ppm	FI	-1.81±0.10ab		
	ιΖυυρριτι	DI	-1.91±0.18b		

Mean ± SD is shown. 2016, n=3-4; 2017, n=5. Values in the same year followed by the

860 different letters are significantly different at the level of P<0.05 (one-way ANOVA).

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Figure 1. Leaf-level gas exchange of maize grown under different water and $[CO_2]$ treatments in 2017, including net assimilation (P_n) (a), stomatal conductance (g_s) (b), transpiration rate (T_r) (c), and leaf water-use efficiency (WUE_{leaf}) (d). Mean ± SD is shown (n=6=n₁+n₂, n₁=3 (samples in the 10th week), n₂=3 (samples in the 14th week)). Boxes followed by the different letters are significantly different at the level of P<0.05 (one-way ANOVA). FI, full irrigation; DI, deficit irrigation.

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Figure 2. The relationship between midday stem water potential (Ψ_s) and conduit diameter (D_c) (a), conduit roundness (R_c) (b), and stem cross-section area (A_{stem}) (c) of maize grown under different water and [CO_2] treatments in 2017. Mean ± SD is shown. Significant effects, *, 0.01<P<0.05; **, 0.001<P<0.01.

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Figure 3. (a) Stem specific hydraulic conductivity (K_S) and (b) stem theoretical Hagen-Poiseuille hydraulic conductivity (K_{HP}) of maize under different water and [CO_2] treatments in 2016 and 2017. Mean ± SD is shown (2016, n=3-4; 2017, n=5). Boxes followed by the different letters are significantly different at the level of P<0.05 (one-way ANOVA). FI, full irrigation; DI, deficit irrigation.

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Figure 4. Relationship between stem specific hydraulic conductivity (K_s) and vessel diameter (D_c) of maize grown under different water and [CO_2] treatments in 2016 and 2017. Mean ± SD is shown. Significant effects, ***, p<0.001.

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Figure 5. Relationship between supported leaf area (supported A_{leaf}) and stem water transport capacity measured as (a) stem cross-sectional area (A_{stem}), and (b) maximum hydraulic conductivity (K_{max}) of maize grown under different water and [CO₂] treatments. Mean ± SD is shown. Significant effects, **, 0.01<p<0.001; ***, p<0.001.

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Figure 6. Maize stem xylem vulnerability curves under different water and $[CO_2]$ treatments in 2016 and 2017. Curves show percentage loss of hydraulic conductivity (PLC) with decreasing xylem pressure. (a) Curves in 2016; (b) curves under full irrigation in 2017; (c) curves under deficit irrigation in 2017. Means ± SD is shown. 2016, n=3-4; 2017, n=5.

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Figure 7. Relationship between the water potential inducing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity (P50) and (a) midday stem water potential (Ψ_{stem}), and (b) stem specific hydraulic conductivity (K_S) of maize grown under different water and [CO₂] treatments in 2017. Mean ± SD is shown. Significant effects, ***, p<0.001.