Chapter 9 Morphology and Anatomy of Leaves

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Abstract Leaves are among the most important organs of a plant, and they are indicators of the condition of a tree. Their morphology and anatomy shows adaptations and their functional traits reflect to some extent the constraints of the environments where the plants typically grow. However, despite the big differences in flooding intensity and nutrient availability, leaves of Amazonian floodplain trees are similar in their morphoanatomy and exhibit traits which are generally considered as xeromorph, just as the leaves of upland species. The xeromorphic leaf structure may represent a pre-adaptation resulting from the dry habitats most tree species originate from. It also helps to cope with insufficient water supply to the tree crowns

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University of Hamburg, Biozentrum Klein, Flottbek Systematik der Pflanzen, Hamburg, Germany e-mail: pparolin@botanik.uni-hamburg.de during the aquatic phase which is caused by a decrease of root functioning due to waterlogging and submergence. The assimilation organs perform perfectly well despite the long periods of waterlogging or complete submergence in darkness. Leaf structure does not reflect the extreme environmental conditions to which trees in Amazonian floodplains are subjected. No patterns could be detected of a relationship of leaf functional traits with flooding intensity and nutrient availability.

9.1 Introduction

Long lasting inundations affect the physicochemical conditions in the soil, with oxygen deficiency in the rhizosphere and resulting stresses (Haase and Rätsch 2010) which have a strong influence on the whole metabolism of the trees. Continuous investigations of the rhizosphere are extremely difficult and hardly feasible for the entire yearly cycle in adult trees due to the high periodic water level fluctuations. Therefore other parameters have to be taken as indicators for the reactions of the trees to waterlogging. Clear indicators of the condition of a tree are its assimilation organs (Medina 1984). Several parameters can be easily measured directly on the living leaves, such as size and mass, water, chlorophyll and nitrogen contents, and anatomical characteristics for example of the surface structure, cuticle, parenchyma and stomata. Investigations from Parolin (2002c), indicate for Amazonian floodplain trees a periodicity in physiological leaf traits which changes with leaf phenology and consequently with leaf age. The phenological behaviour is linked to the flooding periodicity (Wittmann and Parolin 1999; Schöngart et al. 2002), and typical regular changes occur during the annual cycle. Many species shed their leaves in the first weeks to months of waterlogging or submergence, but the waterlogged trees resprout new leaves several weeks to months before the end of the high water period. Other species maintain all their leaves, also when completely submerged. Under experimental conditions, saplings were even able to produce new leaves under water (Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003) but in the field measurements to this respect are lacking.

The different parameters defining leaves may change in specific recurring patterns during the annual cycle. Since photosynthesis and the leaves' conditions are crucial for the energy balance of the trees, it is supposed that these parameters make statements possible about the physiological condition of the trees in situ.

Another striking feature when observing the leaves of Amazonian floodplain trees is that in many species at least some of the leaves are not shed when submerged, e.g. *Tabernaemontana juruana* (Fig. 9.1). Not only, but these leaves retain their structure and functional capability throughout the submerged period which can last as long as 7 months and leaves then can be in complete darkness for several weeks. Surprisingly, some of the plants do not display scotomorphogenesis induced by the lack of light during the flood periods (Fernandes-Corrêa and Furch 1992): their habitus, inner structures, metabolism and movements with respect to the ambient environment – called photomorphogenesis in light – are not optimized or changed with respect to the long period of darkness under water.

Fig. 9.1 Submerged *Tabernaemontana juruana* in Manacapuru Lake (Parolin, August 1994)



Thus, the aim of this chapter is to describe the leaf characteristics of Amazonian floodplain trees, to analyse the reactions to flooding of parameters related to the assimilation organs and to discuss the variation in response to flooding. In the whole chapter we deal with leaves which were not newly developed under water but which were already present at the start of the flooding event.

9.2 Leaf Lifespan and Age

Leaf age appears to play a major role for changes of leaf characteristics in the annual cycle. Leaf lifespan varies between the species, ranging from few months in *Senna reticulata* to probably 2 years in *Nectandra amazonum* (Fig. 9.2) or even more (up to 5 years; Waldhoff, pers. comm.) in *Symmeria paniculata*. Most species have leaf lifespans of about 1 year. New leaves are commonly flushed towards the end of the flooded period, and leaf senescence occurs almost exclusively in the first waterlogged months. Therefore average leaf age is higher in the aquatic than in the terrestrial period, and might be responsible for higher average specific leaf mass. It was especially high in the months prior to leaf shedding. The same was due concerning leaf water content, which in new leaves was higher than in adult and senescent leaves.

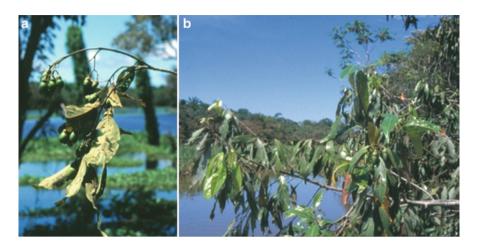


Fig. 9.2 Branch of *Nectandra amazonum*: Leaf shedding and replacement occurs continuously, but a period with clearly senescent leaves (**a**) and fruit maturation dominates in the beginning of the aquatic period, whereas new leaves are flushed (**b**) at the highest water peak and towards the end of the aquatic phase

9.3 Xeromorphism

The leaves of Amazonian floodplain trees exhibit traits which are generally considered as xeromorph (Medina 1983; Roth 1984; Bolhàr-Nordenkampf and Draxler 1993; Waldhoff et al. 2002; Waldhoff 2003): large epidermal cells (*Hevea spruceana, Eugenia inundata*, Fig. 9.3a), thick outer epidermis walls (*Rheedia brasiliensis* Fig. 9.3b, *Himatanthus sucuuba*), thick cuticle (*Eschweilera tenuifolia, Simaba guianensis*), compact spongy parenchyma with only few and small intercellular spaces (*Senna reticulata* Fig. 9.3c, *Licania apetala*), sunken stomata (*Vitex cymosa, Pouteria glomerata*), and transcurrent vascular bundles with a strong sclerenchymatous bundle sheath (*Nectandra amazonum, Eugenia inundata*).

Xeromorphic characters may be associated to high efficiency mechanisms for nutrient cycling that compensates for low soil nutrient contents (Medina 1984) which is surely not the case in nutrient-rich Amazonian white-water floodplains. Xeromorphic characters also can be a result of defense responses against herbivores. Pressure of herbivores is severe in tropical systems, and supposedly also in the floodplains (Turner 1994).

Xeromorphism can also be a response to drought (Medina 1983; Medina et al. 1990). Xeromorphic characters of all leaf types indicate that the trees experience drought stress in their floodplain habitats, independent of leaf-fall behaviour. This at a first glance is astonishing, because the trees grow during several months in flooded or waterlogged soils and during the remaining time drought stress seems to be moderate because of a high groundwater table in the floodplain and/or sporadic rainfall. However, the significance of xeromorphism as an adaptation to drought and/or nutrient deficiency

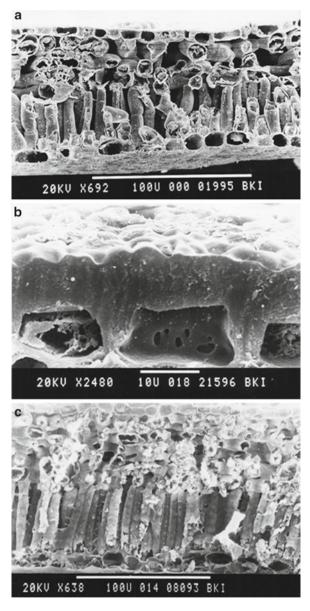


Fig. 9.3 Leaf anatomy: (a) *Eugenia inundata* cross section with large epidermal cells; (b) *Rheedia brasiliensis* thick outer epidermis walls; (c) *Senna reticulata* compact spongy parenchyma with only few and small intercellular spaces

in central Amazonian floodplains remains elusive. Xeromorphic leaves are reported to be a general feature in tropical forests (Roth 1984). Worbes (1986, 1997) reported on water deficit in the canopy of central Amazonian floodplain forests during the inundation period similar to the one found in trees on terra firme during the dry season.

The xeromorphic leaf structure may represent a pre-adaptation resulting from the dry habitats most tree species originate from (Kubitzki 1989a). It helps to cope with insufficient water supply to the tree crowns during the aquatic phase which is caused by a decrease of root functioning due to waterlogging and submergence. It also is an adaptation against the periods of drought which occur occasionally in the terrestrial phase. Secretory canals in leaves of *Rheedia brasiliensis* and *Hevea spruceana* represent peculiarities of the families, Clusiaceae and Euphorbiaceae, respectively, and do not seem to be related to xeromorphism (Roth 1984; Waldhoff and Furch 2002).

9.4 Anatomy of Leaves

When analysing cell sizes in different leaf components (Table 9.1) Waldhoff and Furch (2002) found that several species that keep submerged leaves showed a very thick cuticula and outer wall on the upper leaf side (e.g. *Eschweilera tenuifolia, Rheedia brasiliensis*). On the contrary, other species that shed submerged leaves showed an upper epidermis with a thin outer wall/cuticula (e.g. *Senna reticulata, Simaba guianensis, Vitex cymosa*). Others presented either medium (*Licania apetala, Nectandra amazonum*) or thick (*Eugenia inundata, Hevea spruceana, v sucuuba, Pouteria glomerata*) cuticula and outer walls. The outer walls and cuticula of the lower epidermis tended to be rather thin in all analysed species. With the exception of *Pouteria glomerata* all species showed medium, large or even very large upper epidermis cells, long palisade parenchyma cells, and medium to small spongy parenchyma cells.

All species that shed submerged leaves showed only one layer of palisade parenchyma except for *Vitex cymosa*. Those that do not shed submerged leaves showed more than one layer of palisade parenchyma at the lower leaf side, with the exception of *Pouteria glomerata* (Table 9.2). In leaves with multiple palisade parenchyma layers cell length decreased towards the inner layers (Table 9.1).

The compactness of the spongy parenchyma ranged from loose in *Rheedia brasiliensis* and *Simaba guianensis*, regular in *Eugenia inundata*, and compact to very compact in other species (Table 9.2). The spongy parenchyma was completely missing in *Couepia paraensis*, *Nectandra amazonum*, *Salix martiana* and *Vitex cymosa* (Waldhoff 2003). Neither the spongy parenchyma was associated with leaf-fall behaviour or fate of submerged leaves nor the extension of the vascular bundles as well as the form of the sclerenchymatous sheath (Waldhoff 2003). Both the extension of the vascular bundles and the form of the sclerenchymatous sheath varied between species in different combinations (Table 9.2) (Waldhoff and Furch 2002).

9.5 Stomata

Stomatal density at the lower leaf side of 34 analysed tree species varied between 25 and 2,339 mm⁻² (Table 9.3) and did not differ significantly between species that keep or shed submerged leaves (Waldhoff 2003). Species with higher stomatal

Table 9.1 Cell size in different leaf components (all measures in µm). Epidermis cells, width x length, small: <10 x 5, medium: >10 \times 5, large: >15 \times 10, very large: >30 \times 15. Thickness of cuticula including outer cell wall, thin: <2, medium: >2, thick: >3, very thick: >9. Length of palisade parenchyma cells, small: <30, medium: >30, long: >40, very long: >70. Width of spongy parenchyma cells, small: <10, medium: >10, large: >15 (From Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003)

	Enidermis cell size	l size	Outer wall – cuticula	cuticula	Palisade	Spongy
					parenchyma	parenchyma cell
Species	ne	le	ne	le	cell size	size
Aldina latifolia	Large	Large	Medium	Thick	Medium	Medium
Alchornea sp.	Small	Small	Medium	Medium	Long/small	Medium
Alibertia sp.	Large	Small	Thick	Thin	Medium/small	Medium
Bactris bidentula	Small	Small	Thick	Thick	Medium	Small
Bactris maraja	Medium+	Medium	Thick	Medium	Not existing	Medium
Calliandra amazonica	Medium	Medium	Thick	Thick	Very long/small	Small
Crateva benthami	Large	Small	Medium	Thick	Small	Small
Cecropia latiloba	Large	*	Thin	*	*	*
Cassia leiandra	Medium	Medium	Thin	Thin	Small	Small
Couepia paraensis	Large	Medium	Thick	Medium	Medium/small	Not existing
Eugenia inundata	Large	Small	Thick	Thin	Medium	Medium
Eschweilera tenuifolia	Medium	Small	Very thick	Thick	Long/small/small	Medium
Hevea spruceana	Very large	Large	Thick	Thin	Very long	Medium
Himatanthus sucuuba	Large		Thick	Thin		
Ilex inundata	Medium	Small	Thick	Thick	Very long/small	Small
Licania apetala	Large	(Papilla)	Medium	(Papilla)	Long/small/small	Medium
Macrolobium acaciifolium	Large	Medium	Thick	Thin	*	Medium
Maprounea guianensis	Medium	Large	Thick	Thin	Long	Small
Mouriri guianensis	Small	Small	Thick	Thin	Small	Large
Nectandra amazonum	Large	Large	Medium	Medium	Long/small/small	Not existing
Nectandra sp.	Large	Large	Thick	Thick	Medium/small	Large

(continued)

Table 9.1 (continued)

	Epidermis cell size	1 size	Outer wall – cuticula	cuticula	Palisade	Spongy
					parenchyma	parenchyma cell
Species	ne	le	ne	le	cell size	size
Ouratea hexasperma	Large	Medium	Very thick	Medium	Very long	Medium
Psidium acutangulum	Large +	Small	Thick	Thin	Medium/small	Medium
Pouteria glomerata	Small	Small	Thick		Medium	Small
Pseudobombax munguba	Large	Medium	Thin	Medium	Long/small	Small
Quiinia rhytidopus	Medium	Small	Thick	Thin	Medium	Medium
Rheedia brasiliensis	Large	Large	Very thick	Thick	Medium/small	Medium
Simaba guianensis	Large	Small	Thin	Thick	Medium	Small
Salix humboldtiana	Medium+	Medium	Thin	Thin	Small/small etc.	Not existing
Senna reticulata	Medium	Medium	Thin	Thin	Long	Medium
Tabebuia barbata	Medium+	Large	Thin	Thin	Long-very long	Medium
Tabernaemontana	Large	Large	Thick	Thick	Small	Large
juruana						
Tovomita macrophylla	Large	Large	Thick	Thick	Small	Small
Vitex cymosa	Large	Large	Thin	Thin	Long/small/small	Not existing

le, lower epidermis; ue, upper epidermis; *, missing data: cells not visible (see text).

Table 9.2 Parenchyma characteristics (From Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003)

	No of lavers of	Compactness of		Vascular bundles	
Species	palisade parenchyma	spongy parenchyma	Canals	Extension	Sclerenchyma
Aldina latifolia	1	Very compact		Some transcurrent	Weekly developed
Alchornea sp.	1 up, 1 low	Very compact		Some transcurrent	Weekly developed
Alibertia sp.	2	Compact		Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
Bactris bidentula	1	Compact		Not transcurrent	Sheath surrounding the bundle, fibres
Bactris maraja	Not existing	Compact		Not transcurrent	Sheath surrounding the bundle, fibres
Calliandra amazonica	1 up, 1 low	Loose		Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
Crateva benthami	1–2	Loose		Not transcurrent	No sclerenhyma
Cecropia latiloba	*	*		*	*
Cassia leiandra	1	Compact		Transcurrent	Strong sheath surrounding the bundle
Couepia paraensis	4	ı		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Eugenia inundata	1	Regular		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Eschweilera tenuifolia	1 up, 1 low	Very compact		Mostly transcurrent	Sheath surrounding the bundle
Hevea spruceana	1	Compact	Laticifirous	Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
Himatanthus sucuuba	*	*		*	*
Ilex inundata	2	Regular		Not transcurrent	Capping bundles on one site
Licania apetala	2	Very compact		Not transcurrent	Strong sheath surrounding the bundle
Macrolobium acaciifolium	*	Regular		*	*
Maprounea guianensis	1	Regular		Transcurrent	Strong sheath surrounding the bundle
Mouriri guianensis	1	Regular		Not transcurrent	Strong sheath surrounding the bundle

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	No. of layers of	Compactness of		Vascular bundles	
Species	palisade parenchyma	spongy parenchyma	Canals	Extension	Sclerenchyma
Nectandra amazonum	2 up, 1 low	Not existing		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Nectandra sp.	1 up, 1 low	Compact		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Ouratea hexasperma	1	Very compact		Not transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Psidium acutangulum	1–3	Compact		Not transcurrent	Sheath surrounding the bundle
Pouteria glomerata	1	Very compact		*	*
Pseudobombax munguba	2	Loose		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Quiinia rhytidopus	1	Regular		*	*
Rheedia brasiliensis	2	Loose	Resin	Mostly transcurrent	Strong sheath surrounding the bundle
Simaba guianensis	1	Very loose	Oil cells	Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
Salix humboldtiana	5-6	Not existing		Transcurrent	Weekly developed
Senna reticulata	1	Compact		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Tabebuia barbata	1	Regular		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites
Tabernaemontana	1	Loose		Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
juruana					
Tovomita macrophylla	1–2	Regular		Not transcurrent	Weekly developed
Vitex cymosa	2–3	Not existing		Transcurrent	Capping bundles on both sites

up, upper side of leaf; low, lower side of leaf; *, missing data.

 Table 9.3 Density and form of stomata (from Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003)

	Density (1	number mm ⁻²)	
Species	ue	le	Form
Aldina latifolia		25	Sunken in thick cuticula
Alchornea sp.	309	233	Not sunken
Alibertia sp.		696	Not sunken
Bactris bidentula		nv	Completely sunken in cuticular folds
Bactris maraja	63	248	Sunken
Calliandra amazonica		643	Sunken in thick cuticula
Crateva benthami		582	Not sunken
Cecropia latiloba	69	?	Not sunken
Cassia leiandra		814	Sunken
Couepia paraensis		nv	Sunken in cuticular folds, hidden by hairs
Eugenia inundata		620	Sunken in cavity formed by the raised stomatal rim
Eschweilera tenuifolia		nv	Sunken in very thick cuticula
Hevea spruceana		369	Sunken
Himatanthus sucuuba		675	Sunken, with raised stomatal rim
Ilex inundata		601	Sunken with raised stomatal rim
Licania apetala		nv	Sunken in deep pit formed by papillose subsidiary cells
Macrolobium acaciifolium	nv	nv	le: sunken between elevations of wax
Maprounea guianensis		nv	Sunken in cuticular folds
Mouriri guianensis		1,952	Sunken in holes formed by cuticular folds
Nectandra amazonum		1,188	Sunken
Nectandra sp.		318	Sunken in cuticula
Ouratea hexasperma		913	Sunken in cavity formed by the raised stomatal rim
Psidium acutangulum	149	837	Sunken in cavity formed by the raised stomatal rim
Pouteria glomerata	177	449	ue: not sunken, le: sunken with raised stomatal rim and long, narrow aperture
Pseudobombax munguba	nv	284	Sunken with raised stomatal rim
Quiinia rhytidopus		2,339	Sunken in deep pit formed by papillose subsidiary cells
Rheedia brasiliensis	nv	178	Sunken in pit formed by very thick cuticula
Simaba guianensis		4	Sunken
Salix humboldtiana	393	343	Sunken with raised stomatal rim
Senna reticulata	141	84	Sunken
Tabebuia barbata		287	Sunken with raised stomatal rim
Tabernaemontana juruana		716	Not sunken
Tovomita macrophylla		201	Not sunken
Vitex cymosa		176	Sunken in cavity formed by the raised stomatal rim

le, lower epidermis; nv, not visible; ue, upper epidermis

densities tended to show small epidermal cells (e.g. *Mouriri guianensis, Ouratea hexasperma, Quiinia rhytidopus*) and vice versa (e.g. *Acmanthera latifolia, Tabernaemontana juruana, Tovomita macrophylla*). Stomatal densities were apparently not associated with a certain type of leaf-fall behaviour, which corresponds with the literature on the relation of stomatal density with xeromorphism (Wilkinson 1979; Roth 1984; Bolhàr-Nordenkampf and Draxler 1993; Cao 2000; Dong and Zhang 2000). While hypostomatic leaves represent the usual pattern among dicotyledonous trees, additional stomata at the upper leaf side may have emerged as an adaptation to dry habitats in some species (Bolhàr-Nordenkampf and Draxler 1993), e.g. *Rheedia brasiliensis* (Fig. 9.4a), *Bactris maraja, Pouteria glomerata*, and *Psidium acutangulum* (Fig. 9.5). Amphistomatic leaves are commonly found in members of the family Caesalpiniaceae (Roth 1984; Metcalfe and Chalk 1950).

Most of the analysed species had sunken stomata at the lower side of the leaf (Fig. 9.4b; Waldhoff 2003), some even had stomata that are not visible because they

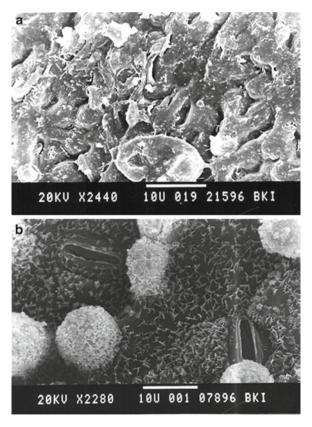


Fig. 9.4 *Rheedia brasiliensis* stomata on the upper leaf side (**a**); sunken stomata on the lower side of the leaf in *Cassia leiandra*, with wax crystals (**b**)

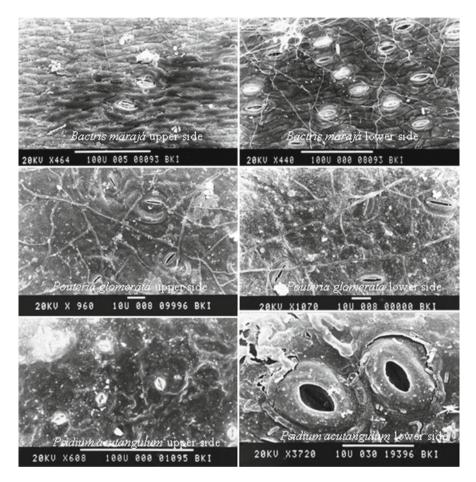


Fig. 9.5 Upper (left) and lower (right) leaf side of Bactris maraja, Pouteria glomerata, and Psidium acutangulum

are buried in a cavity or pit-like hole, sunken between waxy elevation or cuticular folds (Table 9.3).

Waldhoff et al. (2002), Fernandes-Corrêa and Furch (1992), and Schlüter and Furch (1992) also described sunken stomata in several tree species that do not shed submerged leaves. The latter two studies ascribed this structure to a postulated function they called "reverse plastron respiration" which would enable a "plastron photosynthesis".

Sunken stomata are common in xeromorphic leaves (Roth 1984; Bolhàr-Nordenkampf and Draxler 1993). On the other hand Fahn and Cutler (1992) reported that only 34% of xeromorphic species (35 dicotyledons, 33 monocotyledons, 3 gymnosperms) from arid and semi-arid environments possess sunken stomata. Lindorf (1993) studied 17 tree species from Venezuelan tropical rainforests and found no species with sunken stomata. From this perspective the presence of sunken stomata in 27 out of 34 species studied seems remarkable.

9.6 Surface Structures

Glandular and non-glandular hairs were found in leaves from several species studied in the floodplain forests, e.g. *Cassia leiandra*, *Nectandra amazonum*, and *Pouteria glomerata* (Fig. 9.6, Table 9.4; Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003). The lower leaf surface of *Licania apetala*, *Senna reticulata*, *Cassia leiandra*, and *Quiinia shytidopus* is covered with papillae (Fig. 9.6a). Roth (1984) reported that both hair types and papillae are scarce in the humid tropics.

Ten analysed species exhibited wax deposits (Fig. 9.7), twenty showed cuticular ornamentations, mostly on the lower leaf side (see Table 9.4). These ornamenta-

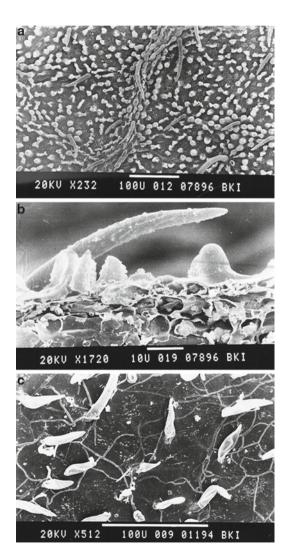


Fig. 9.6 Leaf surface structures: hairs and papillae (a, cross section b) on lower leaf surface of *Cassia leiandra*, hairs on upper (c) and lower (d) leaf side of *Nectandra amazonum*, and lower leaf side (e) of *Pouteria glomerata*

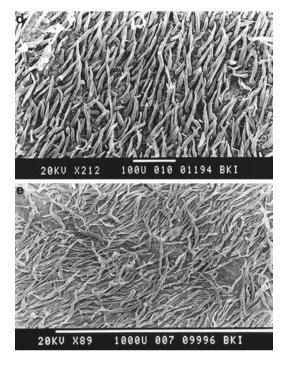


Fig. 9.6 (continued)

tions are reported to be quite common in leaves of trees from tropical rainforests (Roth 1984). These have been interpreted in the literature as assisting water to channel off the leaf surface (Barthlott 1990). The sculpturing of *Hevea spruceana* is very similar to that of *Hevea brasiliensis* from terra firme uplands (Wilkinson 1979; Sena Gomes and Kozlowski 1988).

In analogy to the sunken stomata ascribed to the postulated function called "reverse plastron respiration" mentioned above which would enable a "plastron photosynthesis" the existence of wax layers may be interpreted as an adaptation to avoid water influx in submerged leaves (Fernandes-Corrêa and Furch 1992; Schlüter and Furch 1992).

9.7 Chloroplasts

In the palm *Bactris bidentula*, palisade parenchyma cells are densely filled with chloroplasts (Waldhoff 2003). Such a high density of chloroplasts in palisade parenchyma had not been described hitherto. It might be helpful for a possible photosynthesis under water when light is the limiting factor (Furch et al. 1985). Although light can be an important limiting factor under water, presumably CO₂ is

scales

Table 9.4 Occurrence and characteristics of epidermal and cuticular structures: hairs, papillas, wax layer, and cuticular ornamentations (From Waldhoff and Furch 2002; Waldhoff 2003)

and I aren 2002, Maranen	(2007)				
	Hairs				
Species	Not glandular	Glandular	Papillae	Wax layer	Cuticular ornamentation
Aldina latifolia	le				le: rough surface with irregular elevations
Alchornea sp. Alibertia sp					ue: radiating striae around stomata
Bactris bidentula				le	ue, le: the whole surface is structured by many cuticular
Bactris maraja	le				folds ue, le: the whole surface is structured by some cuticular
Calliandra amazonica	ell				folds
Crateva benthami	3				ue, le: the whole surface is
					structured by many cuticular folds
Cecropia latiloba	ue; le: filamentous hairs	ne			
Cassia leiandra	le		le: simple, corn-like	ue, le: upright scales	
Couepia paraensis	le				le: cuticular folds; ue: very large cuticular folds
Eugenia inundata		ue, le: glandular scales			le: concentric rings of striae around stomata and radiating
					striae around concentric rings
					ue: stnae random and very dense
Eschweilera tenuifolia		ue, le: glandular			

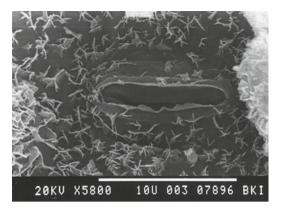
Hevea spruceana			le	ue, le: reticulum of crests and buttressed ridges around stomata
Himatanthus sucuuba				le: concentric rings of striae around stomata
Ilex inundata			ne	le: concentric rings of striae around the stoma
Licania apetala		le: with dense pappilose hairs		
Macrolobium acaciifolium	ne		ue: many elevations	
Maprounea guianensis			ue: many elevations	le: dense network of radiating striae around the stoma and between them
Mouriri guianensis				le: dense network of cuticular folds
Nectandra amazonum ue, le Nectandra sp.			le: rods of wax	
Ouratea hexasperma			ue, le	le: elevations formed by cuticula
Psidium acutangulum le				ue, le: cuticula forms puzzle like structures
Pouteria glomerata le				le: dense and complex network of undulate striae
Pseudobombax munguba	le: nectaries			le: concentric rings of striae around the stoma, and radiating striae around concentric rings
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	Hairs				
Species	Not glandular	Glandular	Papillae	Wax layer	Cuticular ornamentation
Quiinia rhytidopus			le: with dense papillose hairs		
Rheedia brasiliensis		le			le: concentric rings of striae around stomata and radiating striae around concentric rings
Simaba guianensis		ue, le glandular scales			le: concentric rings of striae around stomata and radiating striae around concentric rings, ue: striae random and very dense
Salix humboldtiana					le: concentric rings of striae around the stoma, and radiating striae around concentric rings
Senna reticulata	ue, le		ue, le: simple, cone-like ue, le: upright scales	ue, le: upright scales	
Tabebuia barbata Tabernaemontana juruana Tovomita macrophylla		<u>ə</u>			le: radiating striae around stomata ue: dense network of cuticular elevations
Vitex cymosa	le	le, flattened glandular scales		le	le: rough surface of bulbous-like elevations

Fig. 9.7 Leaf surface structures: wax crystals and stoma on lower leaf surface of *Cassia leiandra*



much more limiting (Mommer and Visser 2005), but no studies are available to this respect in Amazonian floodplain trees.

Transmission electron microscope (TEM) analyses of leaves from *Symmeria paniculata* at 1 m depth showed that short-term submergence did not affect neither chloroplast shape nor the interior structures of chloroplasts with thylakoids, stacks, and starch grains (Waldhoff et al. 2002). The leaves have big epidermis cells with thick outer walls followed by the first row of palisade parenchyma, which show chloroplasts along the cell walls filled with stroma and grana thylakoid-forming stacks and starch grains (Fig. 9.8). These stacks are responsible for the tolerance of extreme low light in this species. On the other hand, chloroplast shape and starch content may change with long-term submergence as was found in *Laetia corymbulosa* and *Pouteria glomerata* (Waldhoff et al. 2002).

9.8 Specific Leaf Mass

Specific leaf mass was higher in waterlogged months in many species, e.g. *Cecropia latiloba*, *Nectandra amazonum*, *Senna reticulata*, *Tabebuia barbata*, and *Vitex cymosa*, in adult trees in the field as well as in seedlings under experimental conditions (Parolin 2002d). Specific leaf mass in the non-flooded period varied between 48.8 gm⁻² for the pioneer *Senna reticulata* and 118.9 gm⁻² for the evergreen non-pioneer *Nectandra amazonum* (Table 9.5). In waterlogged months, specific leaf mass in an average was 5–33% higher than in non-flooded months. Only *Crateva benthami* had significantly lower specific leaf mass with waterlogging. This was due to the fact that the new leaves – which were mainly produced in the aquatic period – had higher specific leaf mass than older leaves. In *Cecropia latiloba*, *Crateva benthami*, *Tabebuia barbata* and *Vitex cymosa* there was a constant increase of specific leaf mass in the first months after leaf expansion, which occurs in the last months of the flooded period.

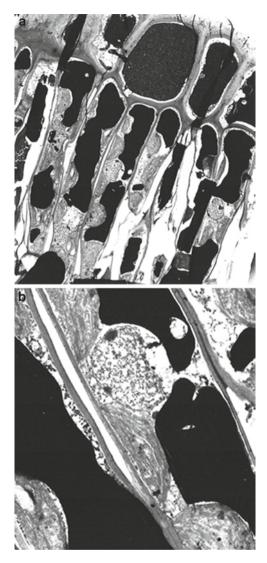


Fig. 9.8 Cross-sections from a leaf of *Symmeria paniculata* submerged at 1m depth: (a) Epidermis cells (upper row) and palysade parenchyma (lower row; starch grain); (b) chloroplast (upper organelle) and nucleus (middle organelle) from palisade parenchyma cell (transmission electron microscopy photographs, from Waldhoff et al. 2002)

9.9 Leaf Size

The size of single leaves varied between few cm² for *Salix* and more than 2,380 cm² for *Cecropia latiloba* (Table 9.5). The pioneer *Senna reticulata* and two deciduous non-pioneers (*Crateva benthami*, *Tabebuia barbata*) had highly significant

Table 9.5 Specific leaf mass and leaf area of six species in the non-flooded and waterlogged months (From Parolin

2002c): minimum and rr measurements in the ac	naximum measured va quatic phase, with sta	2002c): minimum and maximum measured values, average of the measurements in the terrestrial phase, average of the measurements in the aquatic phase, with standard deviations, difference between terrestrial (= 100%) and aquatic	rements in the terrestrial p	ohase, average of the 100%) and aquatic
phase				
	Specific leaf mass			
		Terrestrial phase		
Species	Min-max (gm ⁻²)	(gm^{-2})	Aquatic phase (gm ⁻²)	Difference (%)
Cecropia latiloba	43.8–112.7	74.6 ± 16	78.0 ± 17	4.6
Senna reticulata	25.3–86.7	48.8 ± 11	64.8 ± 12	32.7
Nectandra amazonum	95.0–163.9	118.9 ± 14	140.1 ± 17	17.7
Crateva benthami	38.2–126.9	94.3 ± 24	80.5 ± 28	-14.6
Tabebuia barbata	33.4–133.5	76.3 ± 19	96.5 ± 23	26.4
Vitex cymosa	50.8-143.4	83.3 ± 19	106.9 ± 20	28.4
	Leaf area			
	Min-max (cm ²)	Terrestrial phase (cm ²)	Aquatic phase (cm ²)	Difference (%)
Cecropia latiloba	605-2,380	$1,051.9 \pm 113$	$1,090.3 \pm 122$	3.7
Senna reticulata	660-1,588	805.4 ± 218	504.3 ± 262	-37.0
Nectandra amazonum	12–101	42.0 ± 12	52.3 ± 18	24.6
Crateva benthami	49–531	209.0 ± 81	131.7 ± 47	-37.4
Tabebuia barbata	029-68	371.1 ± 105	278.9 ± 122	-24.9
Vitex cymosa	88–663	262.1 ± 133	232.9 ± 93	11.1

reductions of leaf area (25–37%) in the aquatic period, compared to the terrestrial period (Table 9.5). *Cecropia latiloba* and *Nectandra amazonum* produced leaves with a more or less constant size throughout the year.

Reductions of leaf size were caused by leaf senescence and a subsequent loss of leaflets. Only in *Senna reticulata* leaf size reduction was a direct response to water stress: in waterlogged months, the newly produced leaves and leaflets were smaller than in the terrestrial period (Parolin 2001c) (Fig. 9.9). Data in this study indicate a periodicity in several leaf traits which changes parallel to the flooding periodicity, but which is determined primarily by leaf age and senescence and only indirectly by flooding. The timing of the changes of specific leaf mass and leaf size was similar between species and was concentrated in the aquatic period, but the degree of changes differed among the species. Leaves of pioneer and non-pioneer species, and leaves of deciduous and evergreen species did not show a uniform trend, characteristic for certain growth strategies, as response to flooding. Apparently differences were closely linked to leaf age and cannot be considered as adaptive to the changing hydrological conditions.

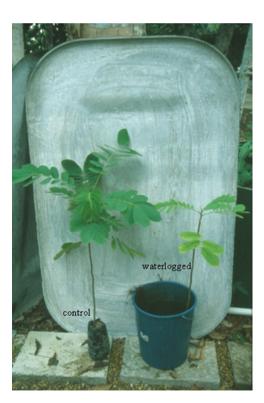


Fig. 9.9 Senna reticulata with different leaf size in non-waterlogged (control) and waterlogged conditions

Table 9.6 Leaf water content of six species in the non-flooded and waterlogged months (from Parolin 2002c): minimum and maximum measured values, average of the measurements in the terrestrial phase, average of the measurements in the aquatic phase, with standard deviations, difference between terrestrial (= 100%) and aquatic phase, and statistical probability p

Species	Min-max (g m ⁻²)	Terrestrial phase (g m ⁻²)	Aquatic phase (g m ⁻²)	Difference (%)	P
C. latiloba	55.2–83.3	73.6 ± 5	71.8 ± 5	-2.6	n.s.
S. reticulata	57.0-84.4	71.0 ± 5	64.5 ± 4	-9.2	***
N. amazonum	30.9-59.0	48.6 ± 4	48.5 ± 4	-0.2	n.s.
C. benthami	49.4-81.4	67.6 ± 5	61.5 ± 6	-9.1	***
T. barbata	30.3-80.8	62.7 ± 5	54.7 ± 11	-12.8	***
V. cymosa	44.8-90.8	62.7 ± 9	55.0 ± 7	-12.3	***

^{*} $p \ge 0.05$; ** $p \ge 0.01$; *** $p \ge 0.001$; n.s. not significant

9.10 Leaf Water Content

Leaf water content varies between 49% and 74% (Parolin 2002c). Evergreen pioneer species had the highest water contents, and evergreen non-pioneer *Nectandra amazonum* the lowest (Table 9.6). In the flooded period, leaf water content was lower in all analysed species, probably as a result of new leaf expansion during this time. While differences were neglectable in *Cecropia latiloba* and *Nectandra amazonum*, where leaf water content was rather constant throughout the year, it changed significantly in the deciduous species and in the pioneer *Senna reticulata*. In all species, the new leaves had higher water contents than the adult and senescent leaves in the subsequent months. The absolute highest water contents were measured in newly developed leaves during the flooded period, but overall means were lower in this period.

9.11 Discussion and Conclusions

Most measured parameters and their changes in the annual cycle do not reflect the extreme environmental conditions to which trees in Amazonian floodplains are subjected. The hydrological conditions in the floodplains are unfavourable for tree growth for several months every year, as indicated by regular growth reductions in the wood (Worbes 1989). A relationship between leaf parameters and flooding periodicity was not found in the study species, and the measured variations, e.g. in leaf mass and size, are not understood as adaptations against flooding. If we take for example leaf size, we find that it has evolved to regulate leaf temperature, keeping it near an optimum for photosynthesis when the leaf is active and preventing thermal damage or death when the leaf is under stress (Givnish and Vermeij 1976). The reduction of the transpirational surface, i.e. leaf size, in periods of unfavorable hydric conditions could be an adaptation to the reduced tree water status induced by flooding (Borchert 1994a). It enables the plant to maintain high photosynthetic activity despite prolonged waterlogging. Only in *Senna reticulata* the reductions of 37% were a direct response to water stress: in the

waterlogged months, the newly produced leaves and leaflets were smaller than those produced in the terrestrial period. Evidence for a reaction to waterlogging with the production of smaller leaves was given in an experiment with seedlings of *Senna reticulata* (Parolin 2001c). Since this species constantly produces new leaves, the production of smaller leaves under unfavourable conditions can be seen as adaptation against waterlogging. In other species, leaf production was not as fast as in *Senna reticulata*, and the newly produced leaves were not smaller. On the contrary, in *Nectandra amazonum*, and to a lesser extent in *Cecropia latiloba* and *Vitex cymosa*, in the flooded period a higher average leaf area was measured. This can be typical for highly flood tolerant species which have other physiological, morphological and anatomical adaptations to waterlogging than the regulation of leaf size (Angelov et al. 1996). A reduction of mean size of the single leaves in *Crateva benthami* and *Tabebuia barbata* was also related to leaf senescence and a consequent loss of leaflets in old leaves.

Concluding, leaf parameters make statements possible about the physiological condition of the trees in situ but the reactions to flooding are not as astonishing as could have been expected given the extreme flooding conditions the trees are subjected to. Most parameters indicate that the assimilation organs perform perfectly well despite the long periods of waterlogging or complete submergence in darkness. The high diversity of species is reflected in a high diversity of life strategies (evergreen/deciduous, fast-/slow-growing, high/low annual wood increments, high/low wood specific gravity, etc.) to cope with flooding, and leaf types differ to a certain extent (perhaps also due to taxonomic differences). However, the reactions of the leaves' functions are not as manifold as the extreme environment could suggest. Leaf anatomy is not particularly divergent between species. Common to most species are a xeromorphic character, large upper epidermis cells, long palisade parenchyma cells, small spongy parenchyma cells, sunken stomata, hairs and wax layers on the leaf surface.

Amazonian floodplains show all characteristics of extreme sites. A very long uninterruted period of flooding with a high amplitude, rapid changes of water level, anoxic conditions in the rhizosphere, high sedimentation in várzea, lack of nutrients in sediment-poor igapó, high mechanical stress and even drought lead to difficult conditions for growth of all organisms living in this ecosystem. Nevertheless, the high diversity of species and life strategies may result from the fact that this extreme site has only a reduced number of factors representing stress for the trees, and the regular disturbances may even represent a driving force for resistance and adaptive evolution. The high complexity of the system and the short but regular occurrence of factors enhancing tree growth allow the formation of highly diverse survival strategies. The species are seldom highly specialized – most have high ecological amplitudes. In these floodplains, specialization is low enough to allow the trees to react to changing environmental conditions, and is high enough to allow a high diversity along the hydric and edaphic gradient.