

Valeria Paloma Ferrario Bazalar

Efeitos do déficit hídrico na fisiologia, bioquímica e morfologia de protocormos da orquídea epífita *Laelia lobata* Lindl.

Effects of water deficit on the physiology, biochemistry and morphology of the protocorms of the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* Lindl.

São Paulo

2019

Valeria Paloma Ferrario Bazalar

Efeitos do déficit hídrico na fisiologia, bioquímica e morfologia de protocormos da orquídea epífita *Laelia lobata* Lindl.

Effects of water deficit on the physiology, biochemistry and morphology of the protocorms of the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* Lindl.

Dissertação apresentada ao Instituto de Biociências da Universidade de São Paulo, para a obtenção de Título de Mestre em Ciências na Área da Botânica.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Gilberto Barbante Kerbauy

São Paulo

2019

Ficha catalográfica elaborada pelo Serviço de Biblioteca do Instituto de Biociências da USP, com os dados fornecidos pelo autor no formulário: <http://www.ib.usp.br/biblioteca/ficha-catalografica/ficha.php>

Ferrario Bazalar, Valeria Paloma

Effects of water deficit on the physiology, biochemistry and morphology of the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* (Lindl.) / Valeria Paloma Ferrario Bazalar; orientador Gilberto Barbante Kerbauy. -- São Paulo, 2019.

67 f.

Dissertação (Mestrado) - Instituto de Biociências da Universidade de São Paulo, Departamento de Botânica.

1. Water deficit. 2. Epiphytic orchid. 3. Tolerance mechanisms. 4. *Laelia lobata*. I. Barbante Kerbauy, Gilberto, orient. II. Título.

Bibliotecária responsável pela estrutura da catalogação da publicação: Elisabete da Cruz Neves – CRB – 8/6228

Judging committee

Prof. (a). Dr (a).

Prof. (a). Dr (a).

Prof. (a). Dr (a).Orientador



A todos aquellos que por temor a las críticas y a lo desconocido no se atreven a salir al mundo a luchar por un sueño por el que pocos apuestan.

“Science, my boy, is made up of mistakes, but they are mistakes which it is useful to make, because they lead little by little to the truth.”

— *Jules Verne, Journey to the Center of the Earth.*

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A la Fundação de Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) por la bolsa de estudios desde el período 2017-II hasta el período 2019-I .

A mi familia, mi hermano y mis queridos padres, Julio Ferrario y Aurora Bazalar, quienes siempre inspiraron e instauraron en mí una gran curiosidad y amor por la naturaleza. Gracias por su amor y apoyo incondicional.

Agradezco igualmente a mi estimado orientador el Profesor Gilberto B. Kerbauy, quien ha sido un modelo de inspiración y ha cultivado mi amor por las orquídeas. Para él mi eterno reconocimiento.

Agradezco a todos los profesores y estudiantes que apostaron por este proyecto y colaboraron con su tiempo, disponibilidad y conocimiento para que pudiese ser llevado a cabo.

A los profesores Dra. Helenice Mercier, Dr. Danilo de la Cruz Centeno y Dr. Rogério Mamoru Suzuki por sus contribuciones en mi examen de calificación.

A los profesores que han colaborado directamente con este proyecto. Al equipo del laboratorio de LAFIECO, a mi querida profesora Dra. Aline Cavalari, al Dr. Marcos Silvieira Buckeridge y a la Dra. Adriana Grandis. A los técnicos y alumnos, con especial cariño a la técnica Eglee Gonçalves Igarashi y a la Md. Débora Pagliuso.

A la Dra, Deborah Yara y al Md. Lucas Paradizo Roma del área de fitoquímica del IBUSP, gracias por el conocimiento compartido y la paciencia.

Al Dr. Diego Demarco y alumnas del laboratorio de Anatomía de Plantas Vasculares del IBUSP, en especial a la Md. María Camila Medina, gracias por ser una gran amiga.

A la Dra. Marília Gaspar y su alumno el Dr. Athos Poli por recibirnos cordialmente en el Jardín Botánico de São Paulo.

A la Dra. Gladys Flávia Melo de Pina por ser una gran profesora y amiga.

A la Dra. Fungyi Choo, por su amistad y su gran apoyo en el análisis de datos de este trabajo.

A los técnicos del laboratorio de Fisiología Vegetal: Ana María Rodrigues, William Oliveira y Aline Bertinatto, quienes fueron mis guías y soporte dentro del laboratorio.

A todos mis colegas del laboratorio de Fisiología Vegetal, en especial a Paulo Marcelo Rayner, por su colaboración constante y enseñanzas desde mi llegada a la universidad. A Ana Zangirolame, Marta Ruiz, Renata Callegari, Marcos Marchesi y Antonio Coutinho por ser mis mejores amigos y compañeros en esta aventura. Gracias por hacerme sentir un poco más en casa.

A André Monroy por su amor y apoyo incondicional durante toda la travesía que ha significado hacer mi primer post-grado en el exterior.

ABSTRACT

Epiphytic orchids are important components of the tropical and subtropical forests. In the epiphytic environment these are subjected to many stressful conditions, among which stand out intermittent rainfall or even drought. The strategies these orchids employ to survive and develop in such conditions are of great interest between researchers. In the present study we investigated some of the effects of water deficit on the physiology, biochemistry and morphology of protocorms of the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* Lindl. The protocorm is a post-embryonic stage of the orchids, considered a simple and unique structure which is particularly unprotected but with a high ability to survive in a highly constrained environment. To mimic water shortage conditions, we used three different osmotic treatments adding polyethylene glycol (PEG) 6000 to a previously selected culture medium. It was observed that the decrease in water potential increased the survival of the protocorms, their photosynthetic activity, dry matter, and induced both a large accumulation of cuticle waxes as well as deep changes in the waxes composition. Moreover, it was also observed that *L.lobata* protocorms have stomata on the whole surface and present values of δ^{13} (-15‰ ~ -14‰) which indicated that they putatively display crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM). On the other hand, the osmotic treatments provoked a marked reduction in the protocorms growth, in total soluble sugars content, cell wall monosaccharides, polyols and other carbohydrates, which are thought to be accumulated to act as osmoprotectants. The data contributes to a better understanding of the effects of water shortage on the protocorms of *L.lobata* and some of the tolerance mechanisms they display to cope with such stressful condition, highlighting that some responses differed from what was expected according to literature.

RESUMO

As orquídeas epífitas são componentes importantes das florestas tropicais e subtropicais. No ambiente epifítico estas estão sujeitas a várias condições estressantes, dentre as quais destacam-se as chuvas intermitentes ou até a seca. As estratégias empregadas por estas orquídeas para sua sobrevivência e desenvolvimento nessas condições são de grande interesse entre os pesquisadores. No presente estudo, investigamos os efeitos do déficit hídrico na fisiologia, bioquímica e morfologia de protocormos da orquídea epífita *Laelia lobata* Lindl. O protocormo trata-se de um estágio pós-embrionário do desenvolvimento das orquídeas, considerado como estrutura peculiar e que a despeito da sua simplicidade estrutural apresenta uma elevada capacidade de sobrevivência em um ambiente altamente restritivo. Para imitar as condições experimentais de restrição hídrica, foram empregados três tratamentos osmóticos diferentes, obtidos por meio da adição de polietilenoglicol (PEG) 6000 a um meio de cultura previamente selecionado. Foi observada que a diminuição do potencial hídrico aumentou a sobrevivência dos protocormos, sua atividade fotossintética, matéria seca e induziu um grande acúmulo de ceras de cutícula, além de profundas alterações nos componentes destas. Também foi observado que os protocormos de *L. lobata* possuem estômatos em toda a superfície e apresentam valores de δ^{13} (-15 ‰ ~ -14 ‰) o que putativamente indicaria um metabolismo ácido das crassuláceas (CAM). No entanto, foi observado que os tratamentos osmóticos causaram decréscimos no crescimento dos protocormos, assim como nos teores de açúcares solúveis totais, monossacarídeos da parede celular, polióis e outros carboidratos, sendo que estes normalmente são acumulados para atuarem como osmoprotetores. Os dados obtidos contribuem para uma melhor compreensão dos efeitos da escassez de água sobre os protocormos de *L.lobata* e alguns dos mecanismos de tolerância que eles exibem para lidar com essa condição estressante, destacando que algumas das respostas diferem das esperadas segundo a literatura.

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Protocorm of <i>Laelia lobata</i>	22
Figure 2.A. Water content of protocorms submitted to the osmotic treatments.....	33
B. Dry weight of the protocorms.....	33
Figure 3. Protocorms size variations after treatments.....	34
Figure 4. Mannitol, sorbitol, trehalose and raffinose concentrations of treated protocorms.....	36
Figure 5. Photographs of the histological slides of control and T1 <i>Laelia lobata</i> protocorms.....	38
Figure 6. Photographs of the histological slides of T2 and T3 <i>Laelia lobata</i> protocorms.....	39
Figure 7. Total load of cuticular waxes.....	40
Figure 8. Relative percentages of the cuticular wax compound classes.....	41
Figure 9. Cuticle wax biosynthesis with embedded heatmaps of the main accumulated classes.....	42
Figure 10. Pigments content.....	43
Figure 11. Operating efficiency (OE, F_q' / F_m') of the photosystem II (PSII).....	44
Figure 12. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of protocorm surface.....	45
Figure 13. A. SEM of the basal part of the protocorm.....	46
B. SEM of abaxial side of young leaf.....	46
Figure 14. SEM of adaxial side of young leaf.....	47
Figure 15. Carbon isotope (δ^{13}) values of <i>Laelia lobata</i>	48
Figure 16. Clustered heatmap of total data obtained.....	49

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Osmotic potentials of the culture medium and plant tissue extracts.....	32
Table 2. Mean values of surface area measurements and percentage of protocorms survival in each treatment.....	35
Table 3. Total soluble sugars, starch and glucomannans content.....	36
Table 4. Quantification of cell wall monosaccharides.....	37

CONTENTS

1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	13
1.1. Epiphytes main characteristics.....	14
1.2. Adaptations and mechanisms for tolerance to water deficit.....	15
1.3. Epiphytic orchids.....	18
1.3.1. <i>Laelia lobata</i> Lindl.....	18
1.3.2. Characteristics of a protocorm.....	19
2. HYPOTHESIS AND OBJECTIVES.....	21
3. MATERIAL AND METHODS.....	22
3.1. Plant material and growth conditions.....	22
3.2. Osmotic stress treatments	23
3.3. Water content determination	23
3.4. Medium osmotic potential and plant tissue osmotic potential	24
3.5. Survival	24
3.6. Size measurement	24
3.7. Carbohydrates analysis	25
3.8. Extraction, quantification and identification of cuticular waxes	28
3.9. Photosynthetic pigments	29
3.10. Chlorophyll Fluorescence analysis: Operating Efficiency of the photosystem II (PSII)	30
3.11. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	30
3.12. Carbon isotope discrimination ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)	31
3.13. Statistical analysis	31
4. RESULTS	32
4.1. Water content and osmotic potential	32
4.2. Survival and size analysis	34
4.3. Carbohydrates analysis	35
4.4. Cuticular waxes	40
4.5. Photosynthetic pigments	43
4.6. Operating efficiency (OE)	44
4.7. SEM	45
4.8. Carbon isotope discrimination	47
4.9. Data set analysis	48
5. DISCUSSION	50
6. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS	55
7. BIBLIOGRAPHY	5656

1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The importance of water is undeniable; it is one of the most important substances on earth and indispensable for the development of life. The variety and amount of vegetation throughout the planet depends on water availability more than any other single environmental factor (Kramer & Boyer, 1995). The water shortage limits the growth and normal development of plants as a consequence of internal imbalances. However, the severity of the impact on the plant depends on the stress degree and time, the species and the developmental stage (Demirevska *et al.*, 2009).

Water scarcity triggers a cascade of responses which affect both the physiological and biochemical processes of plants development, such as the plasmatic membrane, water potential, enzymatic activities, stomata closure, chlorophyll synthesis and photosynthetic activity, hormone levels, respiration ratio, etc. (Wang *et al.*, 2002; Silva *et al.*, 2009; Samarah *et al.*, 2009; Fujita *et al.*, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2016).

Epiphytic plants inhabit an environment subjected to multiple abiotic stressful conditions, in particular the intermittence of water availability. The declining of epiphytes diversity along geographic rainfall gradients compared to other plants is an evident proof of that limitation (Gentry & Dodson, 1987). These plants have evolved, adapted and survived under such circumstances and among all of them the Orchidaceae family stands out by their prevalence, features and beauty.

The scope of this investigation is to find out which are the physiological, biochemical and morphological effects of water deficit in the protocorms (pro-embryos) of the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* (Lindl.) and the presumable tolerance mechanisms; starting from those who have been seen in previous research in other plants. Since our study model, the protocorm is a tiny nude pro-embryo without neither cotyledon nor endosperm that manages to survive in nature under stressful conditions emphasizing the intermittence of water availability.

1.1. Epiphytes main characteristics

An epiphyte is a plant that grows on other plants, using them as mechanical support and not parasitizing them. Their botanical hosts are called phorophytes and lacking of a ground to access to nutrients and water, they draw these with less conventional alternatives (Benzing, 2004; Zotz, 2016).

Their existence, according to fossils, date from the Carboniferous and many modern species yet present some ancient patterns. Overtime, these plants evolved into a peculiar habitat growing far from the ground and instead living above the trees and other plants under a constrained environment, adapting to adverse conditions which make them a great group for studies related to water balance, nutrition, reproduction and evolution (Benzing, 2004).

They are responsible for much of the biodiversity that makes humid tropical forests the most complex of all the world's terrestrial ecosystems (Gentry & Dodson, 1987). As Lüttge (2012) said, environmental factors imposing stress are not only considered as the forces driving evolution but also as parameters underlying ecophysiological diversity.

There are few vascular types found in mid or higher latitudes (Hsu *et al.* 2002), some of them occur in dry sites such as the cactus/shrub forests in Mexico and Peru. Temperatures below freezing limit the geographical distribution of most epiphytes; therefore, with the exception of lichens and bryophytes, relatively few species are found outside the tropics (Benzing, 2008).

To cope with the stressful conditions, epiphytes exhibit well-developed structures and physiological mechanisms to tolerate drought and avoid photo-injury that are rather distinctive or more common among vascular epiphytes when compared to soil-rooted flora (Benzing, 1998). For example, the foliage of the epiphytes has some expected traits, Orchidaceae (Dressler, 1981), Bromeliaceae (Benzing & Bennett, 2000) and Melastomataceae (Reginato *et al.*, 2009) exhibit leaf succulence because of their water-rich parenchyma cells.

Among the 28,000 species of vascular epiphytes (Zotz, 2013), there are two distinct groups especially dominant among epiphytes, Bromeliaceae and Orchidaceae (Benzing, 1987).

Bromeliads have impounding tanks and leaf scales (Zotz, 2016). The leaf scales also known as trichomes reflect infrared radiation reducing the heat load of leaves exposed to sunlight. Among atmospheric (a peculiar bromeliad stage of development), has been observed a correlation between the amount and dimension of leaf scales that and the moisture of the environment. It is thought that they serve to reduce transpiration by increasing boundary layer thickness (Benzing, 1976).

Epiphytic orchids form pseudobulbs unlike terrestrial, what matches the idea of the pseudobulbs as a representation of the shift from a terrestrial to epiphytic habit (Freudenstein & Chase, 2015). They are utterly associated to water and mineral nutrients storage (Hew, 1996; Ng & Hew., 2000). They also have huge tangle aerial roots, as in *Catasetum* species (Oliveira, 2019) in addition to the presence of the velamen radicum which are adaptations of the roots in orchids (Zotz & Winkler, 2013).

Another so called adaption of epiphytes is the seeds size. Approximately 75% of the genera have seeds that are less than 1 mm in length, favouring them to be dispersed by wind or transported by rain drops, besides they can easily accommodate in tiny spaces like cracks on barks to germinate and grow (Baskin & Baskin, 1998).

1.2. Adaptations and mechanisms for tolerance to water deficit

Tolerance water limitation involves numerous changes, including a reduction in growth, the activation/increased expression of tolerance related genes, the increasing of abscisic acid levels, the accumulation of osmolytes and antioxidants among others (Bartels & Sunkar, 2005). Certainly, the type of response depends on the species, the intensity and length of the stressful condition, the developmental stage and the presence/absence of reserve organs.

As the flow of water into the plants is a matter of great significance, plants look forward to preserve the internal water and minimize its loss. Therefore, their initial response is to accumulate organic and inorganic solutes to maintain cell turgor. This is known as osmotic

adjustment or osmoregulation and consists of an accumulation of compatible solutes; they accumulate in the cytoplasm without prejudicing the cells even in great concentrations and neither interact with other compounds (Yancey *et al.*, 1982). The most common osmoprotectants are the aminoacid proline, nonstructural carbohydrates as sugar alcohols, raffinose series oligosaccharides, trehalose, sucrose and hexoses (Stancato *et al.*, 2001; Bartels & Sunkar, 2005; Gupta & Kaur, 2005; Anjum, 2011).

While the stress is prolonged may cause oxidative stress which gives rise to the appearance of reactive oxygen species (ROS). The accumulation of ROS can provoke both negative consequences in the plant but also triggers tolerance mechanisms to neutralize the negative effects (Bailey-Serres & Mittler, 2006).

The accumulation of the phytohormone abscisic acid (ABA) is one of the tolerance responses induced by ROS, and this in turn controls downstream stress responses (Wang *et al.* 2002; Bernacchia & Furini, 2004; Vishwakarma *et al.* 2017). ABA promotes stomatal closure hence reducing internal water loss. However, this affects carbon dioxide (CO₂) uptake promoting a reduction in the photosynthesis rate (Cornic, 2000; Seki *et al.* 2007; Osakabe *et al.* 2014).

To counter osmotic stress some plants accumulate polysaccharides in the form of mucilages inside some particular cells called idioblasts. They are usually much larger than the surrounding cells and are present in many genera including orchids, where the mucilage is composed by glucomannans associated to oxalate raphides (Meier & Reid, 1982). These glucomannans are water-soluble polysaccharides that represent a major reserve of carbohydrates in epiphytic orchids (Stancato *et al.*, 2001; Sezik, 2002; Sailo *et al.*, 2014

Structural carbohydrates related to cell wall composition may also play a role in drought tolerance. This is in behalf of the cell wall elasticity (CWE); the increase of CWE has been correlated to plant drought tolerance, contributing to the maintenance of cell turgor.

Martínez *et al.* (2007) studied six cultivars of common bean under drought stress and observed a higher CWE in the most drought resistant cultivars which may reflect differences in the wall structure that could contribute to a higher resistance to water stress.

A physiological adaptation largely found in vascular epiphytes (Zotz, 2004) is the Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM); this pathway permits some plants to survive in semiarid habitats or habitats with low or infrequent water availability.

CAM is one of the three modes of photosynthesis and implies a temporal separation where the CO₂ uptake occurs at night and its fixation at daytime (Cushman, 2001). As the carbon dioxide is taken during the night, water loss by transpiration is reduced (Zotz, 2004). In some bromeliad the photosynthesis can be facultative under drought conditions (Maxwell *et al.*, 1994; Mito & Mercier, 2013; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2013) however this changeable photosynthetic pathway has not been seen in epiphytic orchid species so far.

Water loss in plants as a consequence of water scarcity in the environment, not only occurs through stomata but also across the cuticle. The development of a water-resistant cuticle was fundamental since the colonization of plants in land; it constituted the first barrier among the hostile environment and the plant (Edwards *et al.*, 1996).

Plants possess waxy cuticles, whose nature is hydrophobic and are composite by biopolymers, cutin and cuticular lipids. These vary in composition and structure depending on the species (Bargel *et al.*, 2006; Shepherd & Griffiths, 2006).

The cuticular waxes are accumulated rapidly under water stress (Premachandra *et al.* 1991). Kim *et al.* (2007) observed in sesame plants leaves submitted to drought, an increased deposition of waxes (especially in the amount of alkanes). Cominelli *et al.* (2008) studied the gene AtMYB41 in *Arabidopsis* which encodes the transcription factor R2R3-MYB. This gene turned out to be greatly expressed in response to drought, salt high concentrations or ABA treatments. Transgenic lines overexpressing MYB41 demonstrated to induce wax accumulation and cell expansion (a role related to cell wall modification), cuticle synthesis and deposition. Oliveira *et al.* (2003) observed differences between the constitution and thickness of waxes of caatinga species and cerrado species wherein the components promoted a reduction in water permeability resulting in a greater resistance to water evaporation.

1.3. Epiphytic orchids

Among many plant species, orchids have evolved exceptional adaptations due to adverse environmental conditions, particularly because of a limited access and conservation of water (Pridgeon *et al.*, 2001). They were originated as terrestrial forest understory herbs approximately 76-85 million years ago (Ramírez *et al.*, 2007) and were widely extended in many different habitats (Zotz, 2013, 2016) by adapting and modifying their stems, leaves, reproductive structures, seeds and roots (Arditti, 1980; Benzing, 2004)

Some of their most important features are the roots. In addition to serve as anchor to trees or rocks and absorb water and nutrients, they are photosynthetic and act as a link between the orchid and mycorrhizal fungus. These roots have a spongy layer of cells consisting of multiple epidermis known as velamen radicum. It is assumed to rapidly uptake water and nutrients and retaining them (Zotz & Winkler, 2013). Moreover, according to Pridgeon (1987) the fact that the velamen is whitey makes it reflect solar radiation in exposed roots protecting them from overheating.

Another interesting peculiarity is the modification of their stems, which have enlarged portions that form the so-called pseudobulbs whose function is the storage of water, nutrients and carbohydrates and also have photosynthetic activity. The pseudobulbs as well as the leaves have thick cuticles to diminish moisture loss (Benzing, 2004).

1.3.1. *Laelia lobata* Lindl.

Orchidaceae is one of the two largest families of flowering plants. Chase *et al.* (2015) recognized 736 genera in Orchidaceae. The epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* (Lindl.) belongs to the subfamily Epidendroideae which is one of the five subfamilies that constitute Orchidaceae which comprises the largest number of orchids, approximately 21.160 species (Freudenstein & Chase, 2015).

L.lobata is endemic to Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) and known to occur on inselbergs, a peculiar habitat that consists on rock formations that arise within a humid tropical forest (Constantino & Fraga, 2005). They are considered epiphytes but also lithophytes, this plasticity is fairly common between orchid species, increasing their options to colonize adjacent microenvironment (Barros, 1990).

This species has a recognized ornamental value because of the size and color of their flowers, which has led to its indiscriminate extraction from nature; for that reason, currently CITES considers *L. lobata* as an endangered species.

1.3.2. Characteristics of a protocorm

Epiphytic orchid as the majority of epiphytic plants, have very peculiar seeds.

An orchid seed pod contains millions of tiny seeds inside (Gregg 1991; Arditti & Pridgeon 2013). These are so small that are called “dust-like seeds”, their size allow them to be transported by the wind. Their length goes from 0.05 mm to 6 mm, and have a loose thin-textured seed coat that make them very light (Arditti & Ghani, 2000; Benzing, 2004; Arditti & Pridgeon, 2013).

Orchids need a mandatory symbiotic association with mycorrhizal fungi to germinate. However, Knudson (1946) demonstrated that the majority or epiphytic orchids can germinate asymbiotically in suitable culture medium supplemented with a carbon source (sugar).

The orchid embryos lack of endosperm and cotyledon, so the nutrient reserves are stored directly in their cells (Baskin & Baskin, 1998). These reserves are mostly lipids (Richardson *et al.*, 1992) but also protein bodies (Arditti, 1980).

The endosperm is absent because it fails to develop during the embryo development. In other plants this normally results in the embryo abortion (Lester & Kang, 1998) and even though the orchid embryos manage to survive, this restricts them further histodifferentiation

beyond the globular stage. In other words, the orchid embryo doesn't pass through all the development stages; it passes from the globular stage to becoming a protocorm (Yeung, 2017).

Unfortunately there is still no clear and outright definition of the term "protocorm". In the midst of the definition controversy some authors have describe it as a group of parenchymatic cells delimited by a unistratified epidermis without cotyledon nor endosperm, a stage of development right before the appearance of the first adventitious root which takes place after the differentiation of the first leaves (Alvarez and Sagawa, 1965; Kraus *et al.*, 2006; Pereira *et al.*, 2015). On that basis, the present study was carried out.

2. HYPOTHESIS AND OBJECTIVES

From the literature and previous research, we have come to know how water deficit affects the plants development and some of their tolerance mechanisms. Since epiphytic orchids are highly exposed to water shortage and they arise as a peculiar and sensitive “nude” pro- embryo in the nature, we wondered how this tiny protocorm manages to survive in such adverse conditions. For this reason, we choose the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* Lindl. as biological model, being the main goal of the present investigation to determine how water deficit affects them physiologically, biochemically and morphologically, and identify some putative tolerance mechanisms using as a baseline the results seen in other vascular plants.

For this purpose, we outline the following specific objectives:

- Induce osmotic stress in *Laelia lobata* Lindl. protocorms using polyethylene glycol 6000 (PEG-6000) in three different concentrations (10%, 15% and 30%).
- Determine the changes that occur in the protocorms due to different levels the osmotic stress, such as:
 - a. Water content.
 - b. Osmotic potential.
 - c. Survival.
 - d. Growth.
 - e. Non-structural and structural carbohydrates.
 - f. Cuticle wax.
 - g. Photosynthetic pigments and chlorophyll fluorescence.
- Determine the *L. lobata* photosynthetic pathway through the carbon isotope discrimination and describe its superficial anatomy through the observation under a scanning electron microscope.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1. Plant material and growth conditions

Laelia lobata Lindl. seeds were germinated in Vacin and Went (1949) modified medium with Phytigel 2.3% as gelling agent. The capsules of the orchid were disinfected with commercial sodium hypochlorite 30% and some drops of commercial liquid detergent for 30 minutes. Subsequently, they were rinsed three times with sterilized distilled water and then transferred to the culture medium.

The seeds were then incubated at $20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ of light intensity emitted LED lamps, temperature $25^\circ\text{C} \pm 2$, and 12 hours of photoperiod. They were kept under the described conditions for four months (time needed to germinate and turn into a protocorm in this species).



Figure1. Protocorm of *Laelia lobata* after four months in growth culture medium, displaying the presence of the first two leaves and no roots.

3.2. Osmotic stress treatments

The protocorms were transferred into a liquid culture medium consisting of Vacin & Went solution (without Phytagel) and three different concentrations of polyethylene glycol-6000(PEG). PEG was used as osmopriming agent; in other words, it was used to imitate water stress conditions in plants, decreasing the water potential of the medium without penetrating plant cells.

The treatments used the next PEG concentrations: 10%PEG (T1), 15%PEG (T2), 30%PEG (T3); and our control group was kept in Vacin & Went liquid medium without PEG (T0).

Each treatment consisted of five biological replicas adding a total of twenty flasks. We used 15 mL of medium per flask, volume necessary to cover the mass of protocorms. These flasks were daily agitated under the same incubation conditions as previously described for seeds germination and the protocorms kept in the osmotic treatments for forty days.

It is important to emphasize that due to the small size of the protocorms each biological replica was represented by the total mass of protocorms of each flask, which was composed by several protocorms, not individuals.

In view of their size it was imperative to germinate a large amount of seeds to reach the amount of mass required for all the schemed experiments.

After the treatments, the protocorms were harvested and stored at -20 °C unless they were needed to be used fresh for any of the experiments.

3.3. Water content determination

Representative aliquots were weighed before and after being lyophilized, and then the following formula was used to determine the percentages of water content:

$$\% \text{ Water content} = \frac{(\text{Fresh weight} - \text{Dry weight})}{\text{Fresh weight}} \times 100\%$$

3.4. Medium osmotic potential and plant tissue osmotic potential

Samples of liquid Vacin & Went medium with the different PEG concentrations were analyzed in an osmometer as well as the plant extracts obtained from freshly collected protocorms submitted to the treatments.

To obtain the plant extracts, the protocorms were crushed and centrifuged for five minutes at 2400 rpm. The supernatants were extracted and filtered with Millipore filter (0.22 μm) and then stored at -40°C .

The measurement of the osmotic potential was made with the vapor pressure Osmometer 5520 (Wescor Vapro ®, USA) facilitated by the Ecophysiology Laboratory of the Botany Institute of São Paulo.

3.5. Survival

To determine the percentage of survival of the *Laelia lobata* Lindl. protocorms, we picked one hundred individuals in good conditions, i.e. turgid and green, and submitted them into the osmotic stress treatment as described beforehand.

After the treatment period, the dead and surviving protocorms of each sample population were counted meticulously. We considered as dead those who turned brown and flaccid, and alive those who remained turgid and green.

3.6. Size measurement

To determine how the treatments affect the growth of the protocorms we measured the surface area of the protocorms. Ad hoc, fresh protocorms were harvested and placed into the Chlorophyll Fluorescence Imager CF0040 (Technologica Ltd., UK) to be photographed. These photos were seized for this experiment since the equipment was mainly used to determine chlorophyll fluorescence.

The ImageJ 1.50i software was used for the analysis of the photos and the measurement of the surface area of each protocorm.

3.7. Carbohydrates analysis

For the following experiments we used lyophilized and grounded plant material.

Total soluble sugars

The extraction of soluble sugars was made according to the Colorimetric method using phenol- sulfuric acid by Dubois *et al.* (1956). It starts with a sequence of extractions with ethanol 80% at 80 °C until the total extraction of the soluble sugars. The extracts were collected and read in a cuvette UV Vis spectrophotometer Ultrospec 3000 (Pharmacia Biotech, UK) to obtain the absorbance values. With these data and a glucose standard curve we determined the concentration of total soluble sugars in each sample.

Sugars from the ethanolic extract

One ml of each ethanolic extract was dried in a CentriVap Concentrator Vacuum (LABCONCO©, USA). The dried samples were resuspended in 100µL of methanol and derivatized with 50µL of pyridine and 50 µL of N, O-Bis (trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) in dry bath at 75°C for one hour. The samples were analyzed with a gas chromatograph-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) GCMS-QP2010 SE (SHIMADZU©, Japan). The chromatograph was equipped with a fused-silica capillary column (30m, ID 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm thick internal film) DB-5 MS (Agilent Technologies, USA) stationary phase using helium as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 24 mL min⁻¹. The injection volume was 1µL and the heating ramp of the column followed the next programming: initial temperature of 100 °C to 300 °C in at a rate of 6°C x min⁻¹, and final temperature maintained for ten minutes.

The identification and quantification of the sugars was made by corresponding peaks of standards and calibration curves.

Starch dosage

After the extraction of the soluble sugars, the leftover pellets were processed according to Amaral *et al.* (2007). Then, aliquots were taken and Glucose PAP Liquiform reagent was added. This gives a reddish coloration to the solution allowing the determination of the concentration of glucose by colorimetry. The absorbance values were determined in a Multiskan FC® Microplate Photometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) at 490nm. The concentrations were determined with a standard curve.

Glucomannans

The leftover pellets from the starch extraction were rinsed with ethanol 80% and then dried and grounded. From these pellets 1mg of each was aliquoted and solubilized with 47.9µL Ammonium Acetate buffer solution (pH 5.0). They were left overnight in gentle continuous agitation at 30°C.

When totally solubilized, 1.25µL of mannanase was added and the samples incubated in agitation at 40 °C for 24 hours. After the enzymatic digestion, they were boiled for 5 minutes to finish up the enzymatic reaction. Once the samples were cooled down, were centrifuged and filtered with Millipore filters (PVDF 0, 22 µm).

The quantitative analysis was performed by high-performance anion exchange chromatography (HPAEC-PAD) equipped with a CarbonPac PA-100 (ICS-3000 system, Dionex- Thermo®) eluted with 88mM sodium hydroxide and 200mM sodium acetate (0.9 ml x min⁻¹) for 45 min.

This experiment was made in collaboration with the Laboratory of Ecological Physiology of Plants (LAFIECO) in the Institute of Biosciences of the University of São Paulo.

Cell wall monosaccharides

Aliquots consisting of 2 mg from the leftover pellets of the starch extraction were taken and 1ml of Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) 2M was added, incubated at 100°C for 1 hour at 1250 rpm of agitation and totally dried in an Acid Resistant CentriVap Concentrator Vacuum (LABCONCO®, USA).

The samples were resuspended by adding 1 ml of MilliQ water and filtered with Millipore filters (PVDF 0, 22 µm). The quantitative and qualitative analysis was made with the HPAEC- PAD of the LAFIECO in the Institute of Biosciences of the University of São Paulo. The volume of injection was 10µL and the analysis was made through the injection of hydrolysate into a CarboPac SA10 column (ICS 5.000, Dionex-Thermo®). The column was eluted isocratically with 99.2% of water and 0.8% sodium hydroxide (1mL x min⁻¹). To identify the monosaccharides we used a post-column containing 500 mM of NaOH (0.5 mL x min⁻¹) and standard solutions of fucose, arabinose, galactose, rhamnose, glucose, xylose, and mannose.

Histological analysis for the determination of mucilaginous idioblasts

The protocorms were fixed with Karnovsky's fixative under vacuum for 24 hours and washed with phosphate buffer (0.1M). Then dehydrated with an ethanol and embedded into a mixture of 95% ethanol and pure resin 1:1 (Historesin Leica, prepared according to manufacturer's instructions) for eight hours. For the infiltration we used pure resin and placed the samples into a desiccator under vacuum, this resin was renewed every 24 hours for three days. Later, the protocorms were embedded with a mixture of resin and a polymer.

The blocks were sectioned with a rotary Microtome HM 340E (Thermo Scientific™, USA) and the sections stained with toluidine blue (O'Brien *et al.*, 1964). For the analysis and photographic documentation was used a Leica DM LB light microscope coupled to a digital Leica DFC320 camera (Leica Microsystems, Germany).

This experiment was made in collaboration with the Laboratory of Plant Anatomy of the Institute of Biosciences of the University of São Paulo.

3.8. Extraction, quantification and identification of epicuticular waxes

For the extraction of cuticular waxes we used dichloromethane (CH_2Cl_2) as solvent. To ensure no contamination, all the glassware used was previously rinsed with the very same solvent.

The protocorms were weighed and then the extraction was made by successive immersions in dichloromethane three times during 30 seconds each (modified from Fernandes *et al.*, 1964). The solvent was evaporated, and the concentrated wax resuspended in dichloromethane and transferred to new vials with known weight. The extracts were taken to evaporation and maintained within a desiccator until reaching a constant mass. The total wax was calculated (μg) and the values expressed on fresh mass basis.

The waxes were resuspended in dichloromethane and derivatized with a solution of 50:50 μL of N, O-Bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) and pyridine at 80°C for 40 minutes in dry bath (modified from Jetter *et al.*, 2000). The analysis was made by GC-MS with a System Agilent 6850/Agilent 5975C equipped with a capillary column Agilent HP5-MS (30m x 250 μm x 0.25 μm). The injection volume was 1 μL and helium was used as carrier gas with a flux of 1mL x min⁻¹. The injector temperature was adjusted to 300°C and the heating ramp of the column followed the next setting up: initial temperature of 100°C for 5 minutes, and 5°C per minute until reaching 320°C (final temperature) held for 8 minutes. The total time employed for the analysis was of 57 minutes. Temperatures of MS source and quadrupole were adjusted to 230°C and 150°C , respectively. The electron

impact ionization was 70 eV. MS spectra obtained in full scan, with mass range of 50 to 800 with 1.99 scans per second and threshold of 50. The wax compounds were identified by comparison of MS fragmentation patterns using NIST digital library (v2.0, 2008), retention time of authentication standards.

All these procedures were made in collaboration with the Laboratory of Phytochemistry of the Institute of Biosciences in the University of São Paulo.

3.9. Photosynthetic pigments

Chlorophylls *a* and *b*, and carotenoids were determined by the method established by Porra *et al.* (1989) with modifications according to Wellburn (1994) and Minocha *et al.* (2009).

Stored samples (at 4°C) were grounded in liquid nitrogen and aliquots of 10 mg were transferred to 1.5 ml microtubes. For the extraction, it was used 1mL of N, N-Dimetilformamida (DMF) and the samples were kept in darkness and constant agitation for 24 h.

The extracts were centrifuged at °4C for 10 minutes at 13000 rpm and the absorbance was determined using the UV-Vis spectrophotometer Ultrospec 3000 (Pharmacia Biotech, UK) at the following wavelengths: 664nm, 647nm, and 480 nm. To calculate the concentration of the pigments the following formulas were used:

$$\text{Chlorophyll } a \text{ } (\mu\text{g. } FW^{-1}) = (12 \times A_{664}) - (3.11 \times A_{647})$$

$$\text{Chlorophyll } b \text{ } (\mu\text{g. } FW^{-1}) = (20.78 \times A_{647}) - (4.88 \times A_{664})$$

$$\text{Total Chlorophylls } (\mu\text{g. } FW^{-1}) = \text{Chlorophyll } a + \text{Chlorophyll } b$$

$$\text{Carotenoids } (\mu\text{g. } FW^{-1}) = \frac{(1000 \times A_{480}) - (1.12 \times \text{Chlorophyll } a) - (34.07 \times \text{Chlorophyll } b)}{245}$$

3.10. Chlorophyll Fluorescence analysis: Operating Efficiency of the photosystem II (PSII)

Chlorophyll fluorescence imaging is a rapid and noninvasive technique that permits to monitor the fluorescence parameters of numerous plants at the same time under equal conditions. It is a sensitive method for assessing the PSII fluorescence activity in response to abiotic factors (Murchie & Lawson, 2013).

The operating efficiency (F_q'/F_m' or ϕ_{PSII}) gives the proportion of absorbed light (quantum efficiency) that is actually used in PSII photochemistry in a light-adapted state (Genty *et al.*, 1989; Maxwell & Johnson, 2000; Baker, 2008).

For this experiment we used 30 protocorms as representatives of each biological replica and measured the operating PSII efficiency with the Chlorophyll Fluorescence Imager CF0040 (Technologica Ltd., UK) following the next programming: (i) 2s of actinic light PPF 20 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, (ii) 2 minutes of pulse (1 cycle) PPF 6120 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$.

3.11. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

The protocorms were fixed in FAA (18:1:1 of 50% ethanol, acetic acid and formalin), for 24 hours, dehydrated in a grades ethanol series and dried by critical point using Balzers critical point dryer 030 (Balzers, Germany). Subsequently, the material was mounted on aluminum stubs and sputter coated with gold with a Balzers SCD-050 sputter coater (ONLINK Technologies GmbH, Germany).

The samples were observed and photographed with a Zeiss DSM 940 scanning electron microscope (Carl Zeiss, Germany).

3.12. Carbon isotope discrimination ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)

Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) is one of three metabolic pathways found in vascular plants. This photosynthetic via is considered an adaptation to environments with low water supply. In this experiment it was pretended to investigate whether the epiphytic orchid *Laelia lobata* Lindl. was a CAM plant, based in the analysis of its $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

Several studies have demonstrated that plant $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is related to different photosynthetic pathways and to leaf gas exchange characteristics. Because of differential enzyme-mediated discrimination against $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ during photosynthetic carbon assimilation between CAM and other photosynthetic pathways (Bender, 1968) it is possible to determine whether a plant is CAM, C_4 or C_3 (Silvera *et al.* 2005).

For the experiment we used two groups of samples: one composed of three replicas of an only leaf of an adult *Laelia lobata* Lindl. grown and raised in the green house of Department of Botany of the Biosciences Institute under normal conditions (no stress imposed); the second group was constituted by three replicas of the control group of protocorms grown in vitro.

All samples were weighed, macerated and grounded in liquid nitrogen as soon as they were collected. The analyses were performed in the UC Davis Stable Isotope facility of the Department of Plant Sciences of the University of California (USA).

3.13. Statistical analysis

All the data were analyzed with the STATSOFT STATISTICA software. Results with $p < 0.05$ were considered significantly different.

The number of replicas varies in each analysis and is detailed afterwards in the results of this document as well as the tests used.

The graphics were generated with the software GraphPad Prism 5.00.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Water content and osmotic potential

Table 1 shows the values of osmotic potential of the Vacin & Went (1949) culture medium with PEG added and of the tissue osmotic potential of *L. lobata* protocorms submitted to the osmotic treatments. To the extent that the concentrations of PEG were higher, it was observed statistical differences in the osmotic potential among all the treatments. As a whole, these results appear to follow the largely known rule, according to which the tissue osmotic potential is more negative than osmotic potential of the substrate solution, which is a crucial factor for water uptake by plants. However, in T3 the osmotic potential of the plant extracts was less negative than the media culture.

Table 1. Mean values of osmotic potentials. Data averaged with three biological replicas \pm SD. Different superscript letters denote significant difference between the control and osmotic stress treatments, according to Tukey's test.

Treatment	Osmotic potential (MPa) of media culture	Osmotic potential (MPa) of plant extracts
Control(T0)	- 0.882 \pm 0.019 ^a	- 1.046 \pm 0.011 ^a
10%PEG(T1)	- 1.024 \pm 0.012 ^b	- 1.193 \pm 0.014 ^b
15%PEG(T2)	- 1.175 \pm 0.016 ^c	- 1.265 \pm 0.013 ^c
30%PEG(T3)	- 2.050 \pm 0.020 ^d	- 1.759 \pm 0.039 ^d

As the protocorms were submitted to the treatments they lost water as observable in figure 2A. All of the treatments clearly provoked a decrease in water content, but was in T3 where the loss was nearly of 14% compared to the control.

On the other hand, the treatments T1 and T2 showed similar responses to the treatments, displaying not statistical differences between them.

In order to determine the water content, we weighed the fresh mass and the dry mass of the protocorms before and after the treatments; this yielded some interesting results

presented in figure 2B. As described, they lost water but despite that, the dry weight ($\text{g DW}_x \text{FW}^{-1}$) increased considerably in all the treatments especially in T3 where it displayed nearly fourfold the weight of the control group. T1 and T2 dry weights were also higher than T0 but similar among them.

Figures 2A and B showcase inverse responses but follow the same trend in their statistical responses. This could mean that most of the weight in T0 consisted in water but regarding to the treatments it brings an intriguing query about what they could be possibly accumulating to weigh more.

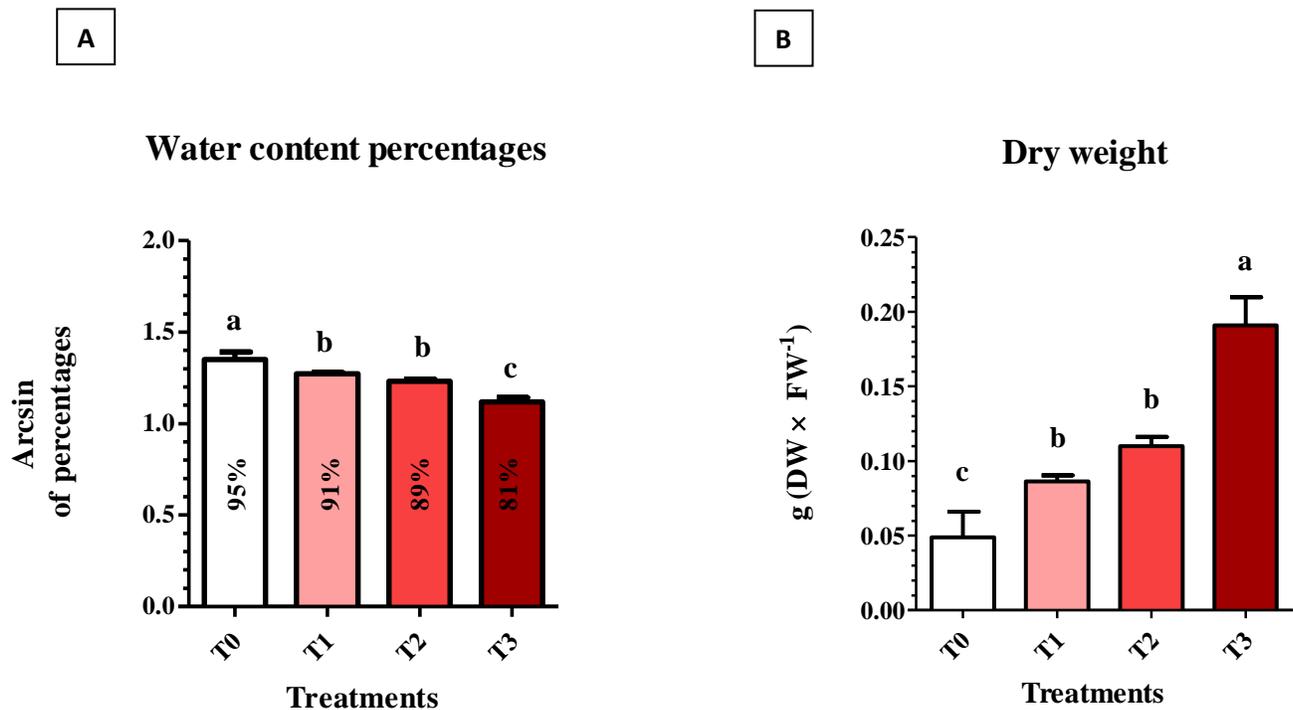


Figure 2. **A** Percentages of water content **B.** Dry weight (DW) on fresh weight basis ($\text{g DW}_x \text{FW}^{-1}$). Means obtained with 5 biological replicas. Data analyzed with ANOVA one way and Tukey's test. Bars represent standard deviation and letters represent whether the treatments are or are not statistically different.

4.2. Survival and size analysis

Water restriction causes a limitation on growth and development of plants and when that condition becomes critical may conduce to death. Figure3 shows photographically the effect of the treatments on the size of the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* Lindl. Table 2 displays the mean values of the surface area (mm^2) of the protocorms. The decrease in each treatment is clear, highlighting that the average of the protocorm size in the T3 treatment (4.20 ± 1.307) is approximately one third of the respective control (12.96 ± 1.427).

Regarding to the survival experiment, it was observed, surprisingly, that all the osmotic treatments enhanced the survival of the protocorms; in such way that we found that the T3 treatment has almost 100% of survival (Table 2).

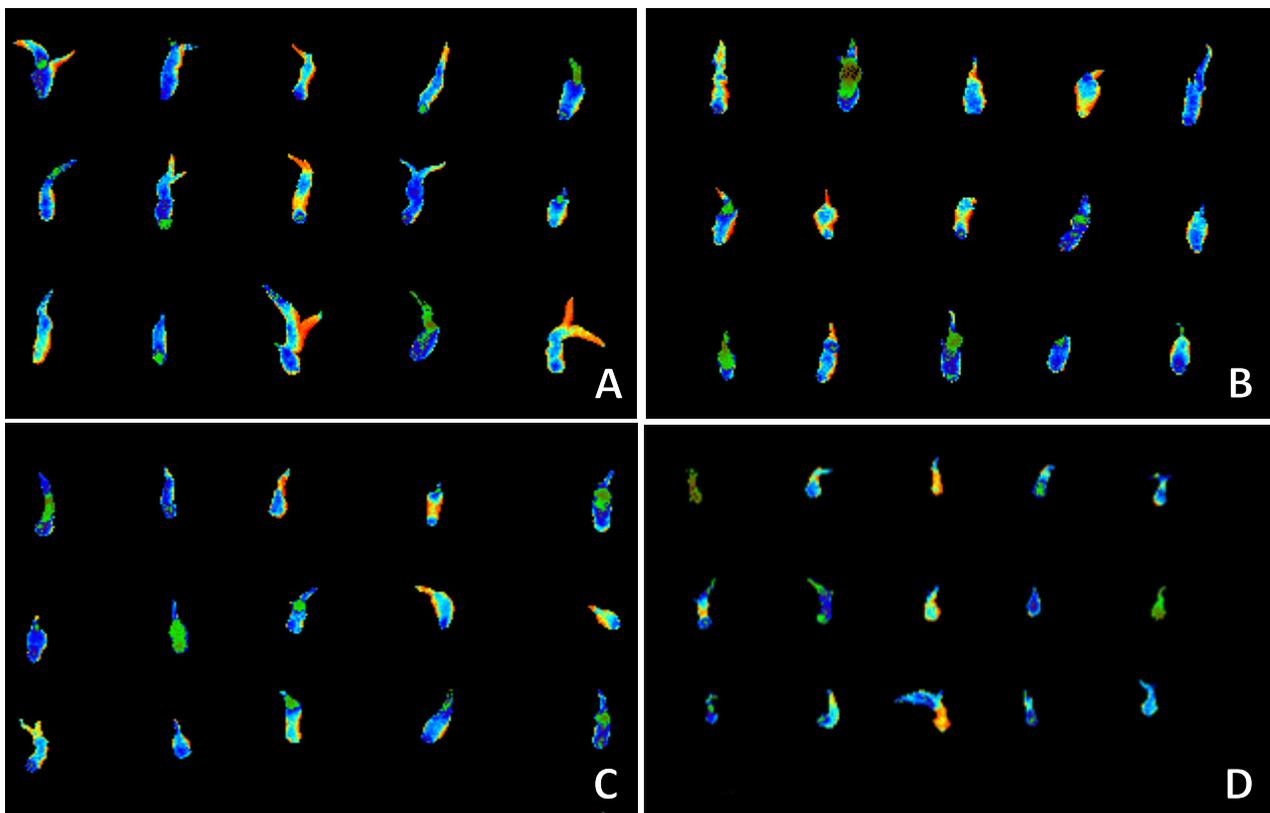


Figure 3. Protocorms size variations of protocorms after treatments. **A.** Control group; **B,** T1; **C,** T2; and **D,** T3.

Table 2. Surface area measurements and percentages of survival of protocorms in each treatment. Mean values obtained from 5 biological replicas \pm SD. Different superscript letters denote significant difference according to Tukey's test.

Treatment	Size (mm ²)	% of surviving protocorms
Control (T0)	12.96 \pm 1.427 ^a	62.8 \pm 8.729 ^c
10%PEG (T1)	7.59 \pm 1.030 ^b	87.2 \pm 4.970 ^b
15%PEG (T2)	6.35 \pm 1.568 ^{bc}	97.8 \pm 1.304 ^a
30%PEG (T3)	4.20 \pm 1.307 ^c	99.2 \pm 0.837 ^a

4.3. Carbohydrates analysis

In order to determine the content of endogenous carbohydrates, both structural and non-structural, a series of extractions and dosages were performed.

In respect of the total soluble sugars they gradually decreased in the protocorms submitted to the treatments but declined abruptly in T3 having less than a quarter the concentration found in control; in case of the starch content, there were no statistical differences between the treatments (Table3).

The ethanolic extract was used to determine the total concentration of soluble sugars, but also to quantify some polyols as mannitol and sorbitol, a disaccharide (trehalose) and a trisaccharide (raffinose), which have been frequently related to plant responses to water deficit. Despite of what was expected, none of these sugars appeared to increase with the treatments as shown in figure 4.

Mannitol and sorbitol are represented together in the same graph because of limitations of the equipment. It can be seen from figure 4 that their concentrations decline with the treatments, remarkably in T2 and T3. Trehalose content is apparently unaffected by the treatments and concerning to raffinose it decreases from T0 to T2 but slightly increases in T3 where the response is statistically similar to T1. The variations are so reduced that seems difficult to outline a trend in these results.

Considering the role of glucomannans in orchids as mentioned previously, we extracted this polysaccharide and determined its approximate concentration using the mannose: glucose ratio expressed in μg per milligram of dry weight. Regardless of what was expected, glucomannans content did not increase under water deficit conditions, being the control group the one with the higher value and significantly decreasing in T1, with no statistical differences between any of the treatments.

Table 3. Weight of total soluble sugars, starch and glucomannans. Means averaged with 5 biological replicas \pm SD. Different superscript letters denote significant difference according to Tukey's test.

Treatment	Total soluble sugars ($\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}\text{DW}$)	Starch ($\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}\text{DW}$)	Glucomannans ($\mu\text{g} \times \text{mg}^{-1}\text{DW}$)
Control (T0)	592.62 \pm 81.858 ^a	215.98 \pm 58.459	0.37 \pm 0.136 ^a
10%PEG (T1)	351.98 \pm 90.303 ^b	313.63 \pm 76.633	0.11 \pm 0.036 ^b
15%PEG (T2)	348.43 \pm 85.583 ^b	311.04 \pm 85.005	0.17 \pm 0.030 ^b
30%PEG (T3)	141.07 \pm 20.415 ^c	243.52 \pm 79.794	0.16 \pm 0.059 ^b

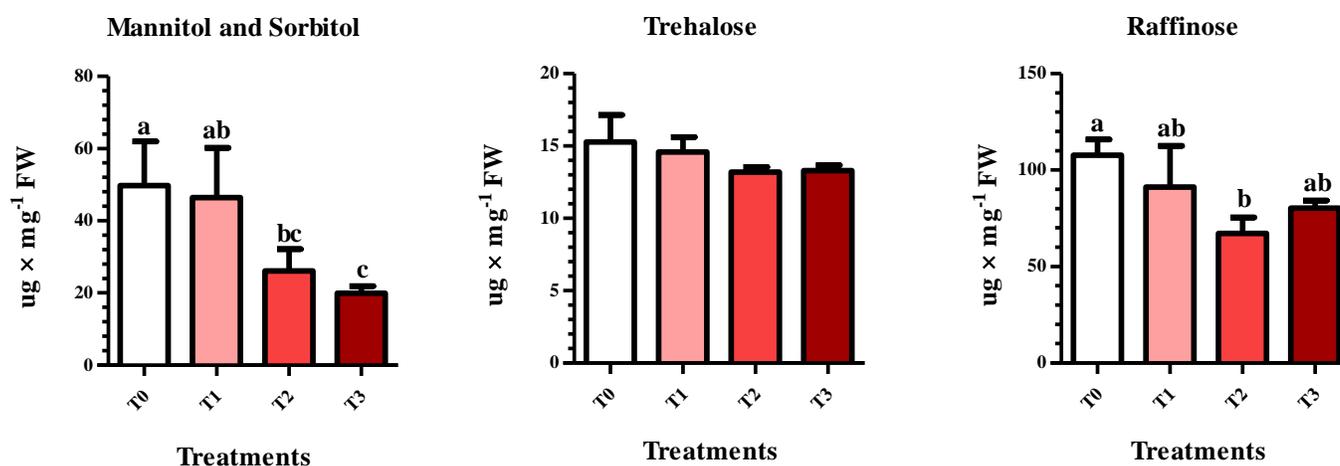


Figure 4. Content of mannitol, sorbitol, trehalose and raffinose in the ethanolic extract of protocorms ($\mu\text{g} \times \text{mg}^{-1}\text{FW}$). Means averaged with 4 biological replicas. Bars represent standard deviation and different letters represent significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's test.

Structural monosaccharides from cell walls were also studied in order to elucidate if any of them varied as a result of the water deficit. The monosaccharides analyzed were fucose, arabinose, galactose, rhamnose, glucose, xylose and mannose and the concentration of each one was calculated in microgram per milligram of dry weight.

As Table 4 shows none of these carbohydrates increased with the treatments, in fact all of them have a slight decrease because of the treatments; yet some of them are not statistically different from the mean concentration of the monosaccharide in the control group like in arabinose, rhamnose, glucose and mannose. These results show that the cell walls appear to have very little variations in the structural carbohydrates that compose them owing to the treatments.

Table 4. Quantification of monosaccharides of the cell walls. Mean values averaged with 5 biological replicas \pm SD. Different superscript letters denote significant difference between treatments according to Tukey's test.

Sugars ($\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}\text{DW}$)	Treatments			
	T0	T1	T2	T3
Fucose	2.37 \pm 0.48 ^a	1.92 \pm 0.30 ^{ab}	1.69 \pm 0.27 ^b	2.06 \pm 0.19 ^{ab}
Arabinose	17.74 \pm 3.49	14.45 \pm 2.84	13.39 \pm 2.17	14.88 \pm 1.07
Galactose	23.26 \pm 3.87 ^{ab}	23.70 \pm 3.19 ^a	19.87 \pm 3.33 ^{ab}	17.73 \pm 1.86 ^b
Rhamnose	2.00 \pm 0.34	1.86 \pm 0.37	1.79 \pm 0.34	1.86 \pm 0.27
Glucose	6.89 \pm 0.79	7.06 \pm 1.28	7.07 \pm 1.59	5.42 \pm 1.11
Xylose	10.62 \pm 2.02 ^a	8.11 \pm 1.84 ^{ab}	7.56 \pm 1.37 ^b	8.83 \pm 0.88 ^{ab}
Mannose	7.40 \pm 1.72	7.98 \pm 2.07	8.89 \pm 2.27	5.98 \pm 1.64

Aiming to evaluate if the protocorms of *L. lobata* accumulated mucilages (another storage product to counter water deficit), a histological analysis was performed. This was made instead of a quantitative analysis because would help us to determine whether their presence in the protocorms was relevant or not since it was needed large amounts of fresh mass for their quantification.

The presence of the mucilage idioblasts was corroborated. They appeared like big cells with a yellowish or slimy substance (mucilage) associated with raphides (figures 5 and 6). We did not find any relationship between idioblasts incidence and the PEG treatments as can be observed in the next figures.

The cells of the protocorms of T1 appear as turgid as the control protocorm cells; however figures 6B and D show undulations in their cell walls which mean plasmolysis.

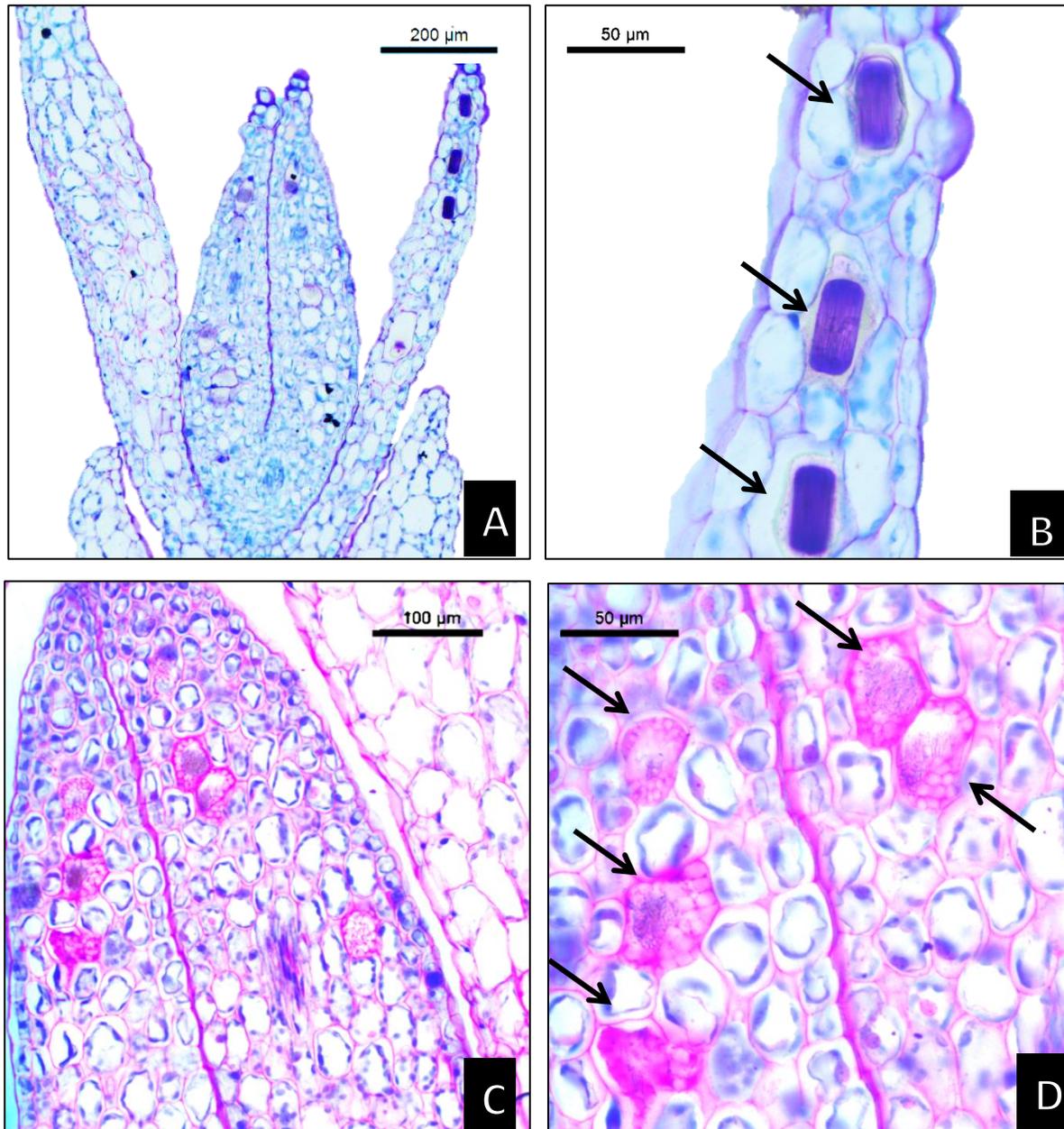


Figure 5. Histological slides of the *L.lobata* protocorms highlighting the presence of the mucilage idioblasts with black arrows. A and B (control group), C and D (T1).

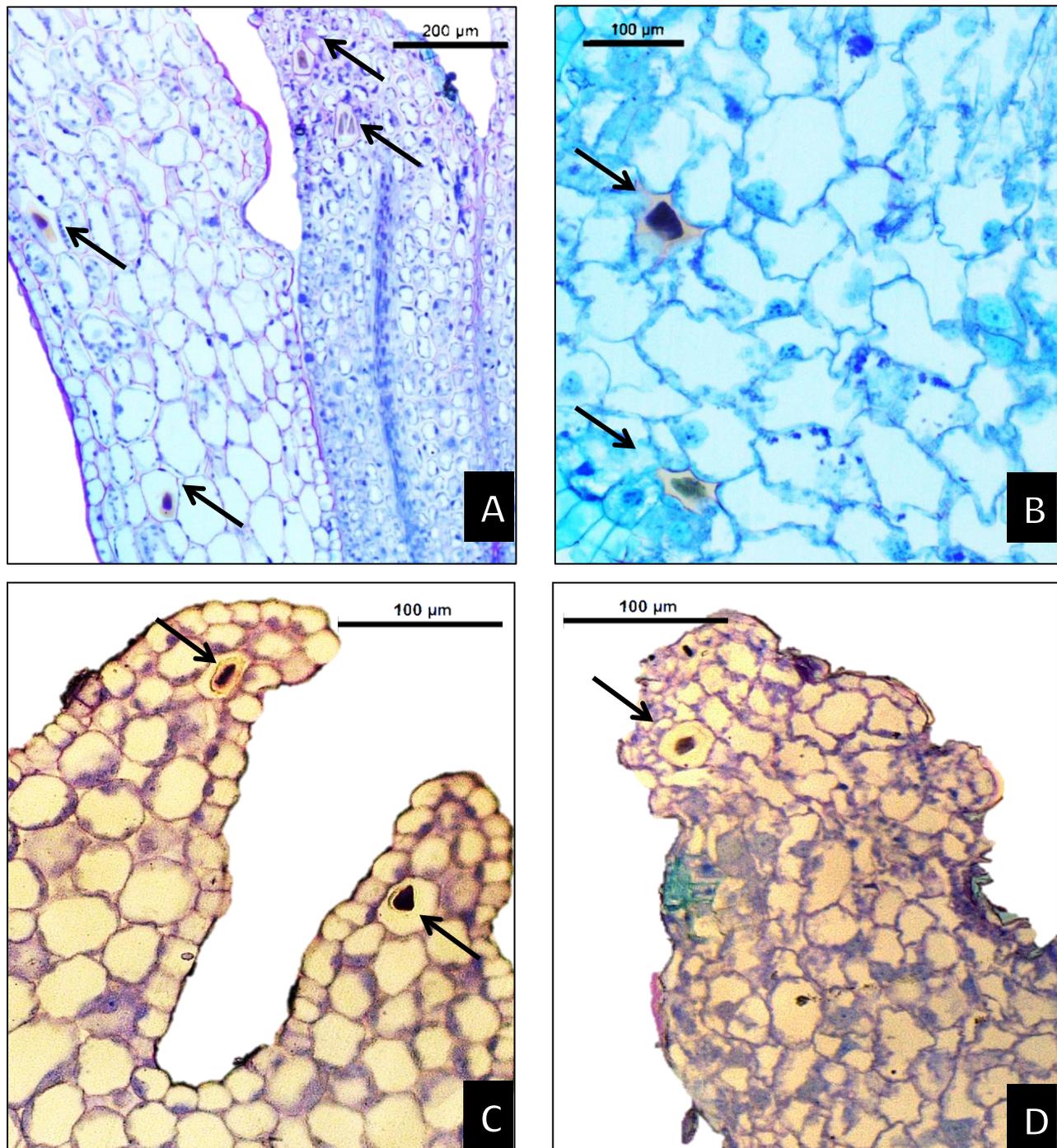


Figure 6. Histological slides of the *L.lobata* protocorms highlighting the presence of the mucilage idioblasts with black arrows. A and B (T2), C and D (T3).

The color difference in the figures (5A-B, 5C-D, 6 A-B and 6 C-D) is due to small differences during the staining of the slides.

4.4. Cuticular waxes

The analysis of the cuticular waxes of the protocorms of *L.lobata* was made in three levels. As a general view, the total load of waxes in each group protocorms under osmotic stress is graphically depicted in figure 7. The treatments enhanced gradual and conspicuously the cuticle wax content as the water deficit got more intense, reaching in T3 more than 70 fold the concentration of the control group. These results seem to point out a significant relationship between the production of cuticular waxes and water deficit.

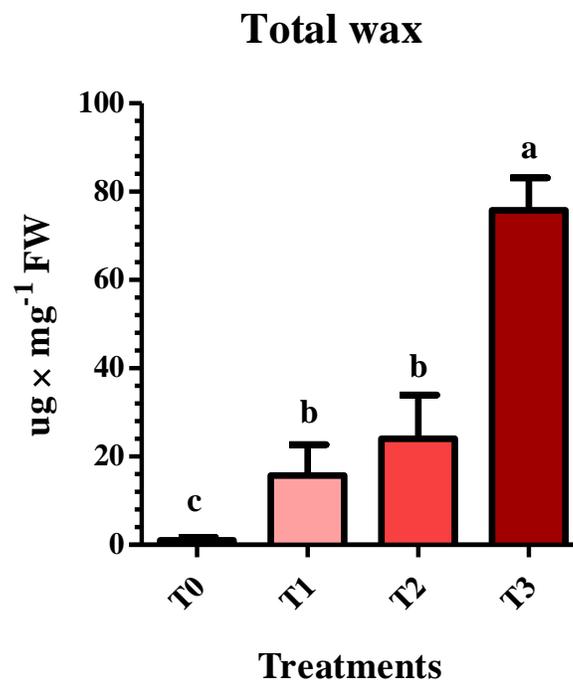


Figure 7. Total load of cuticular waxes of the protocorms submitted to water deficit. Mean values determined with 3 biological replicas. Bars represent standard deviation and letters denote significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's test.

As cuticular waxes are composed of a complex mixture of different chemical compounds such as cyclic and long-chain aliphatic components, we identified and grouped them by classes (figure 8).

Broadly speaking, the alkanes and the steroids declined from the first osmotic treatment (T1); on the other hand, fatty acids seemed to increase; the primary alcohols, just as much as the triterpenes and the esters decreased gradually in each treatment until appear unquantifiable in T3. It is important to elucidate that some compounds are in such low quantities that are considered traces and that a great percentage of the accumulated substances could not be identified (Shown as Not id., brown portion of the bars in figure 8).

Relative percentages of classes of the cuticle wax

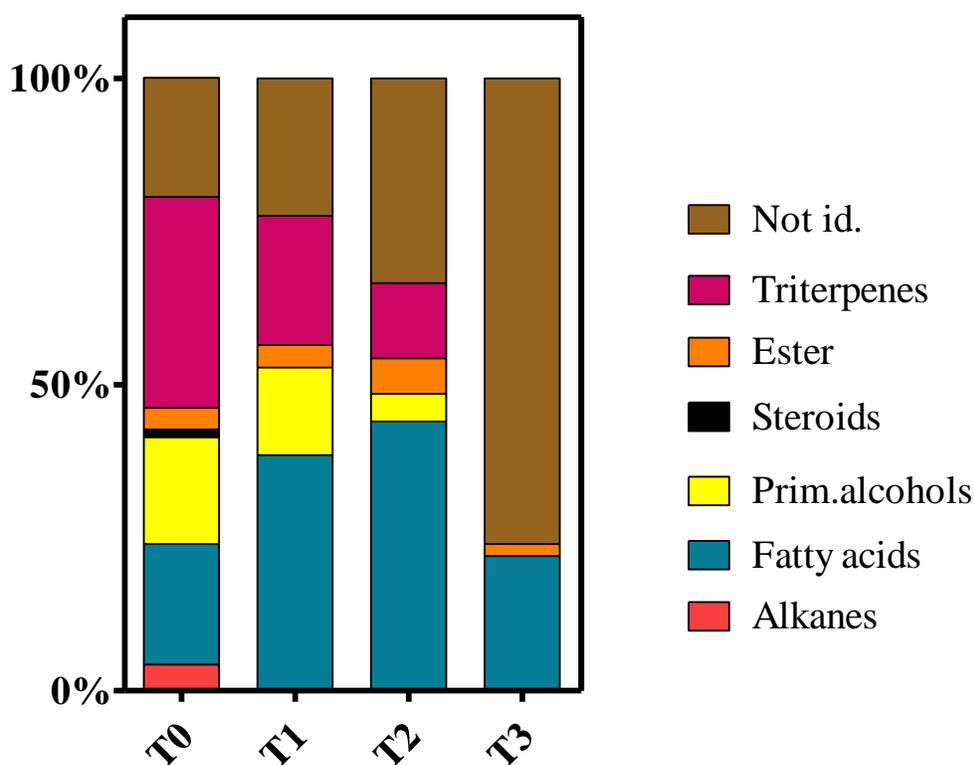


Figure 8. Stacked column chart representing the relative percentages of the classes constituting the wax cuticle of the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* Lindl. after treatments.

Figure 9 displays more an in-depth view of the cuticle waxes. It represents briefly the biosynthesis of the cuticular wax in plants but also, in the form of heatmaps, the variations of some of the homologues identified.

The biosynthesis of the cuticular waxes initiates in the plastids where short-carbon chain molecules (C_{16} , C_{18}) continue to be elongated and modified ($C_{>20}$) in the endoplasmic reticulum constituting different components (primary alcohols, esters, etc.)

The interesting aspect of these results is that apparently the Acyl-ACP elongation is interrupted at some point during the treatments causing the decline in the production of alkanes and primary alcohols; moreover, the variety of fatty acids is lost and only few homologues are highly produced: the hexadecanoic and octadecanoic acids.

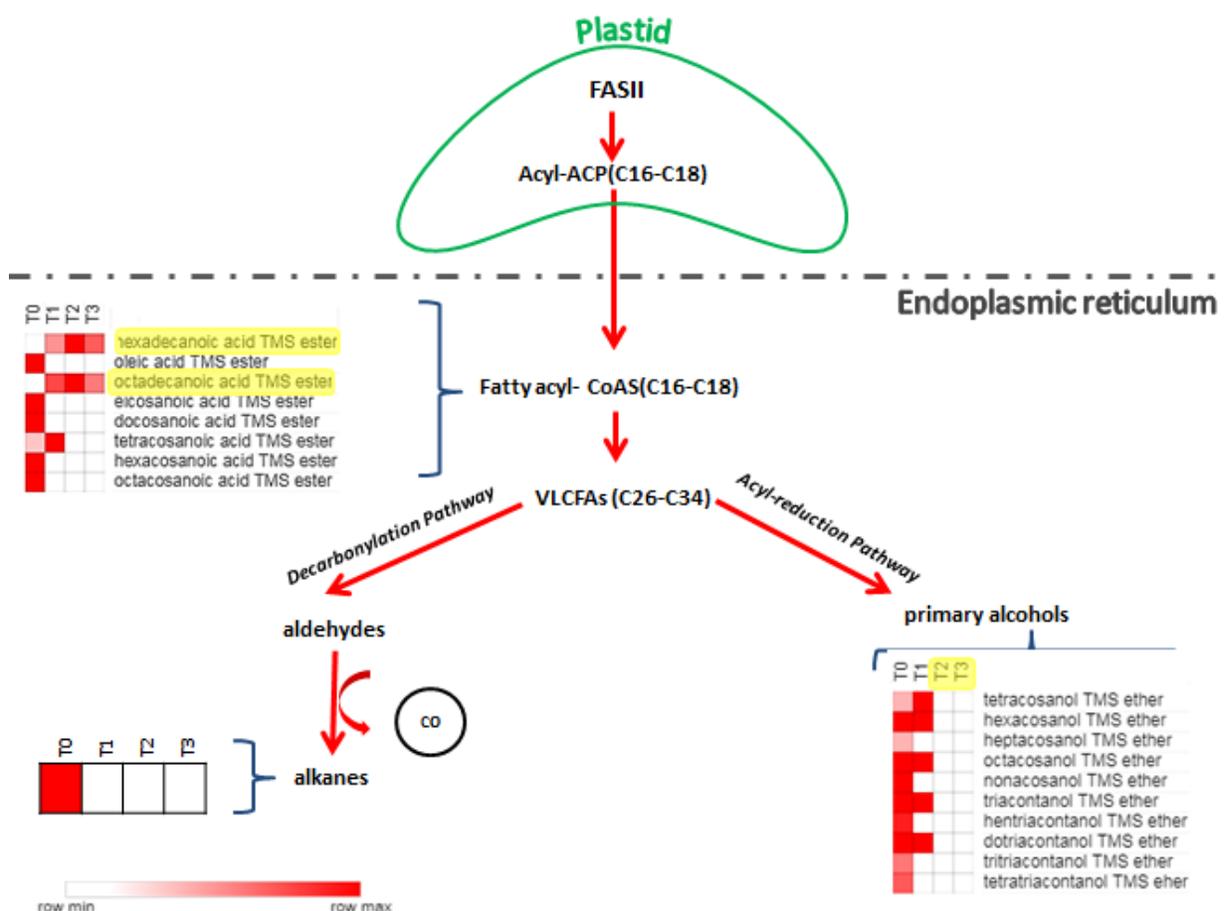


Figure 9. Cuticle wax biosynthesis: elongation of fatty acids under the effects of the osmotic treatments over some of their components. FAS: fatty acid synthase II; VLCFAs: very long chain fatty acid.

4.5. Photosynthetic pigments

The photosynthetic pigments of the protocorms displayed significant differences when submitted to water deficit treatments (figure 10). All the pigments quantified increased markedly in all the treatments, registering their higher concentrations in T3.

Both chlorophyll a and b registered different statistical responses, increasingly having higher values since the T1. Regarding to the carotenoids, they remained very similar to control in T1 and T2 but increased almost threefold the control in T3.

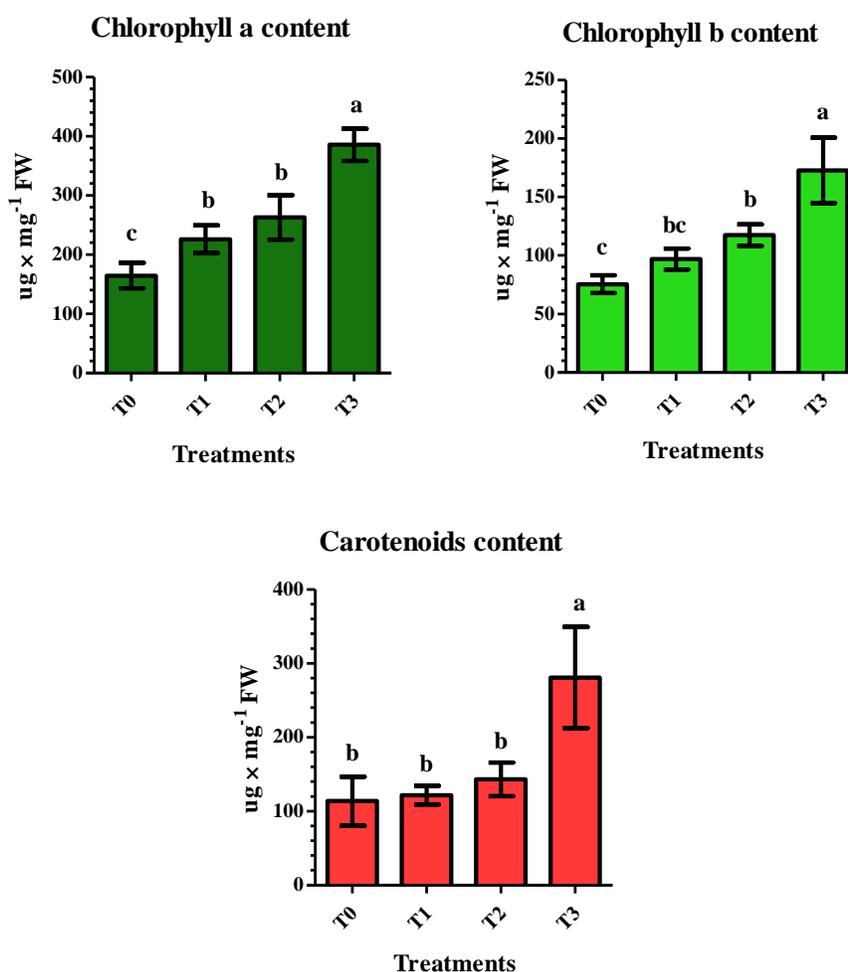


Figure 10. Pigments content represented on fresh weight basis ($\mu\text{g} \times \text{g FW}^{-1}$). Means obtained with 5 replicates. Bars represent standard deviation, and different letters represent significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's test

4.6. Operating Efficiency (OE)

These results are shown below (figure 11) in two forms, one representing the values obtained directly from the fluorometer and other that considers the superficial area (mm^2) of the protocorms. The reason for this is the great heterogeneity in the size of the protocorms especially in those under water deficit.

Chlorophyll Fluorescence

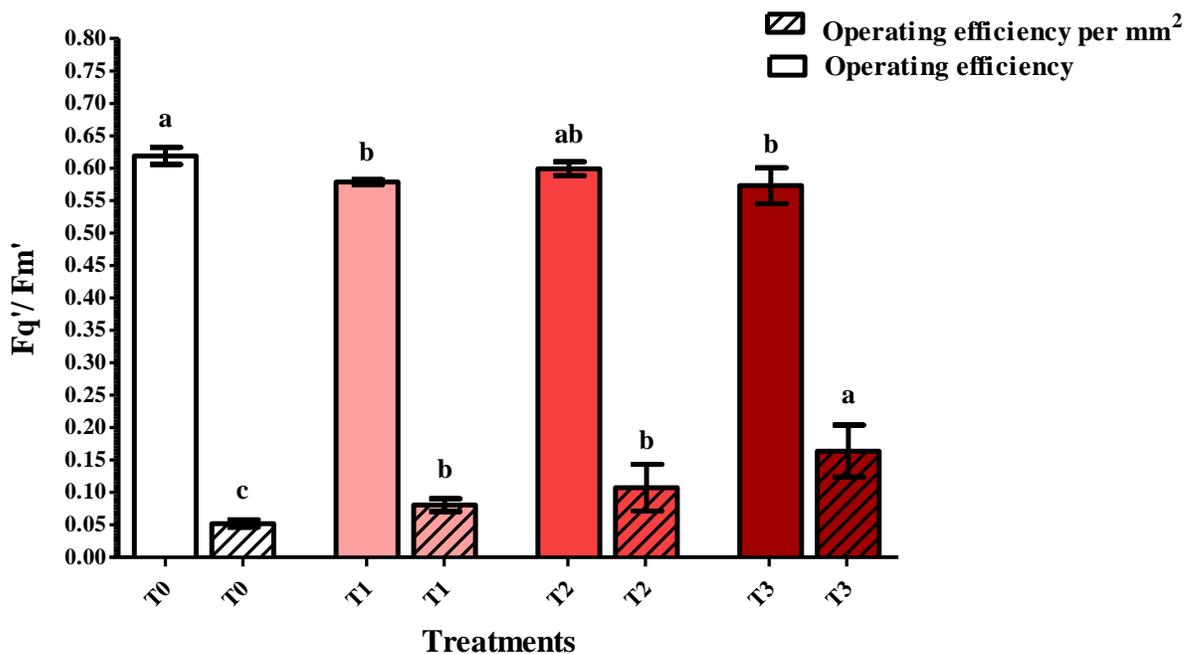


Figure 11. Operating efficiency (Fq' / Fm') of the PSII of the protocorms. Bars represent deviation and different letters represent significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's test.

The net means of operating efficiency in each treatment are: 0.62(control), 0.58 (T1), 0.60 (T2), and 0.57 (T3), these values fluctuate slightly among them and the treatments T1 and T3 had the lowest OE.

Regarding to the proportion OE: size, the results denote an increase in the OE in each one of the treatments (dashed lines bars in Fig 11). This could mean that while more intense the osmotic treatment is the better the performance of the OE of the PSII.

4.7. SEM

The SEM photos of the surface of the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* Lindl. highlighted very interesting details about some of their anatomical features.

Several rhizoids were observed all over the basal part of the protocorm (Fig 12); we also noticed the presence of stomata through all the epidermis of the protocorm (Fig 13A, B, and C).

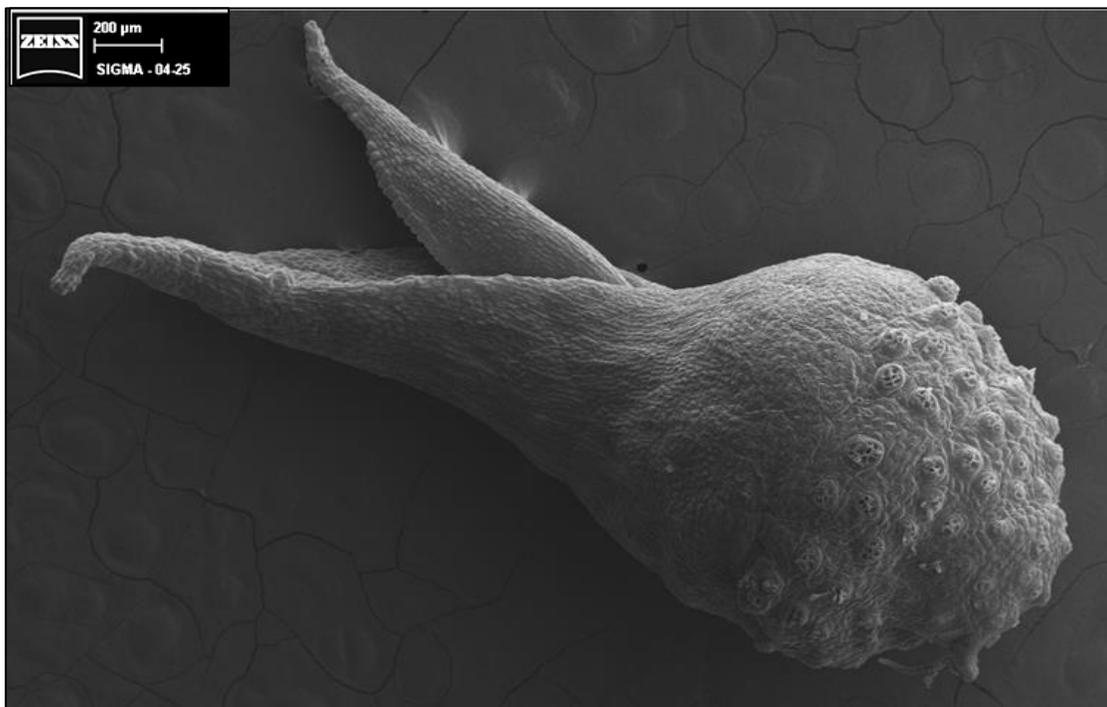


Figure 12. Scanning electron microscopy of an entire protocorm.

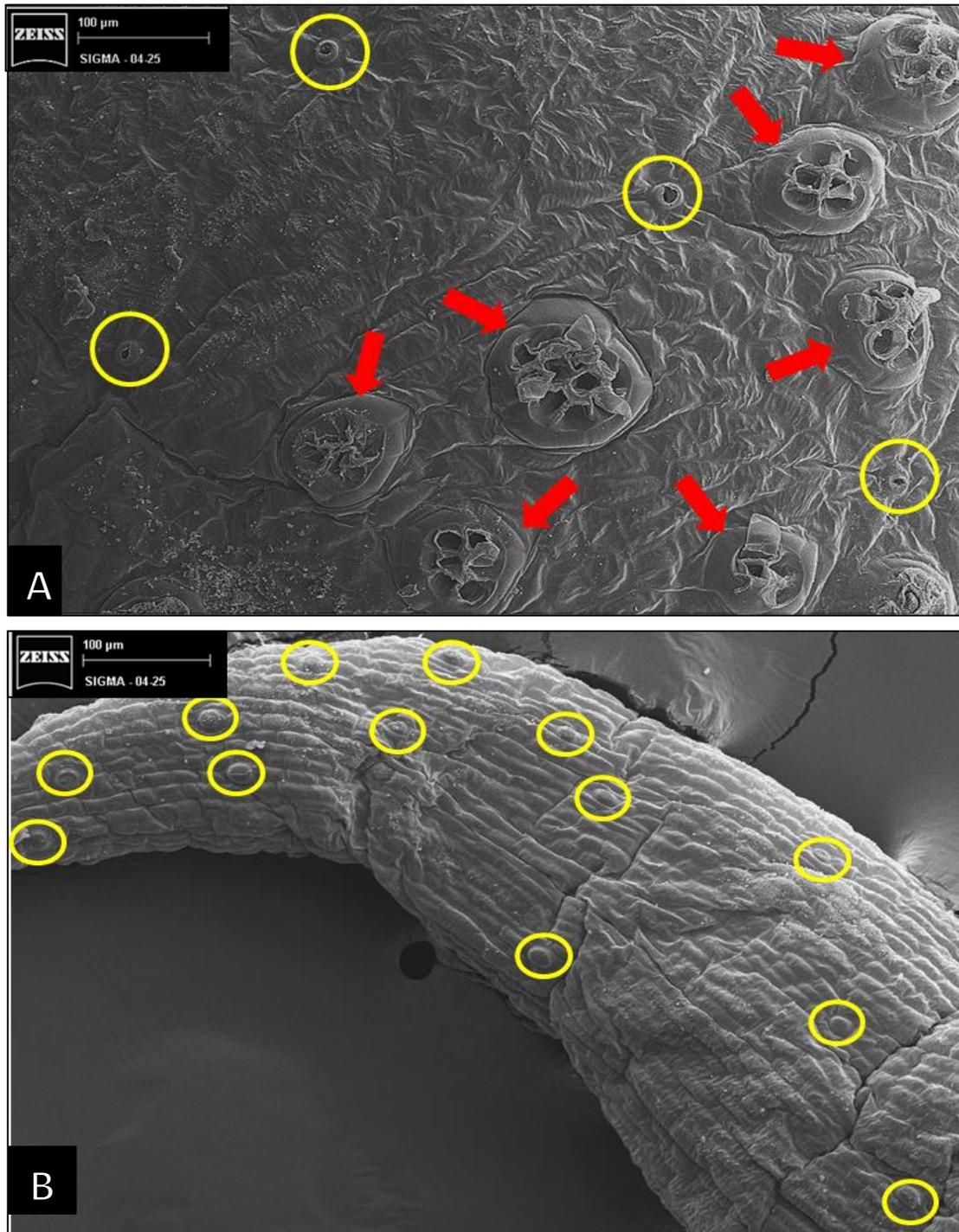


Figure 13A. Basal part of the protocorm emphasizing the basal cells of the rhizoids (signaled with red arrows) and stomata (circled in yellow circles). Only the basal cells of the rhizoids are present because they were lost during the preparation of the plant material for the SEM. **B.** Abaxial part of young leaf.

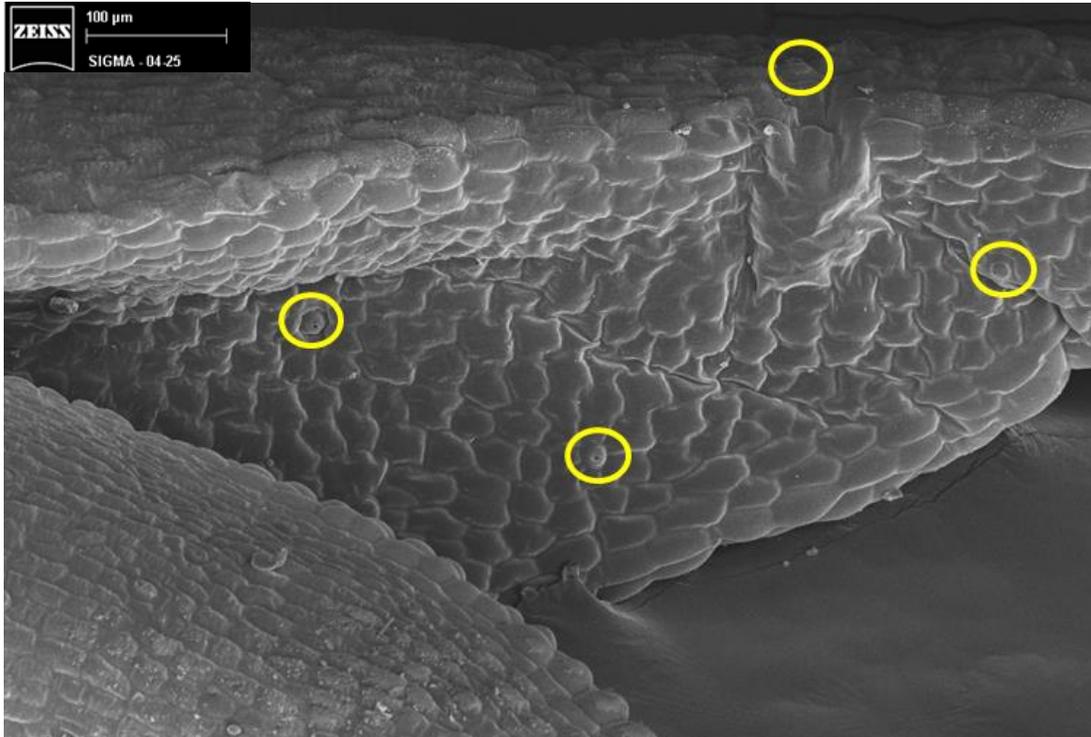


Figure 14. Adaxial part young leaf. Stomata circled in yellow.

4.8. Carbon isotope discrimination

This experiment was made in order to determine which photosynthetic pathway is performed by *Laelia lobata* Lindl. both for the adult plant as much as the protocorms. Figure 15 exhibits the δ^{13} values of each sample, where the δ^{13} of the adult plant leaves is more negative (-15.79‰) than the δ^{13} of the protocorms (-14.36‰). These values indicate that they could be whether CAM or C4; this will be discussed afterwards.

Carbon isotope ratio

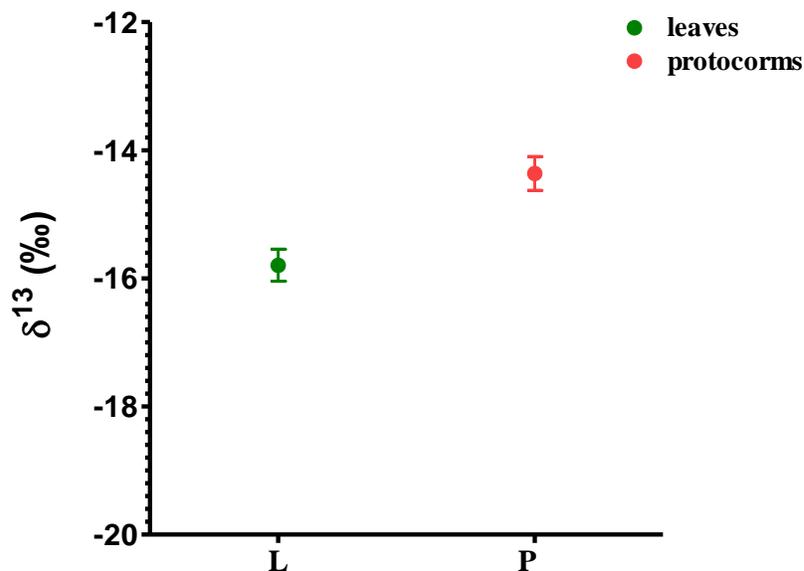


Figure 15. Carbon isotope discrimination of leaves of an adult plant and the protocorms of *L.lobata*. Means averaged with four replicas (represented by dots) \pm standard deviation (represented by bars). T-test ($p=0.002$).

4.9. Data set analysis

In order visualize simultaneously all the data, a double dendrogram also known as clustered heatmap was made. According to the organization of the clusters displayed in the columns of figure 16, the treatments and the control have distant responses while the treatments are all grouped, being T1 and T2 in the same cluster due to their similarities in the responses throughout the majority of experiments.

It appears very clear in the heatmap as in the dendrogram two blocks of responses, one that goes from the first row (glucose from glucomannans) to starch, where are grouped together all the responses that had increased concentrations of the analyzed compound; from that point downwards, all the compounds that had slightly (some even considered not statistically different) and substantial reductions. Most of the carbohydrates are in the second big branch of the dendrogram except for glucose (from glucomannans) and starch,

which were grouped with the compounds that increased even when the effect of the treatments on them were not statistically significant. This might be because the glucose according to the heatmap has a very similar trend as the rest of the cluster it was grouped in. In the case of the starch (from the ethanolic extract), due to the length of its branch and the heatmap color gradient, it appears to be forming a single group.

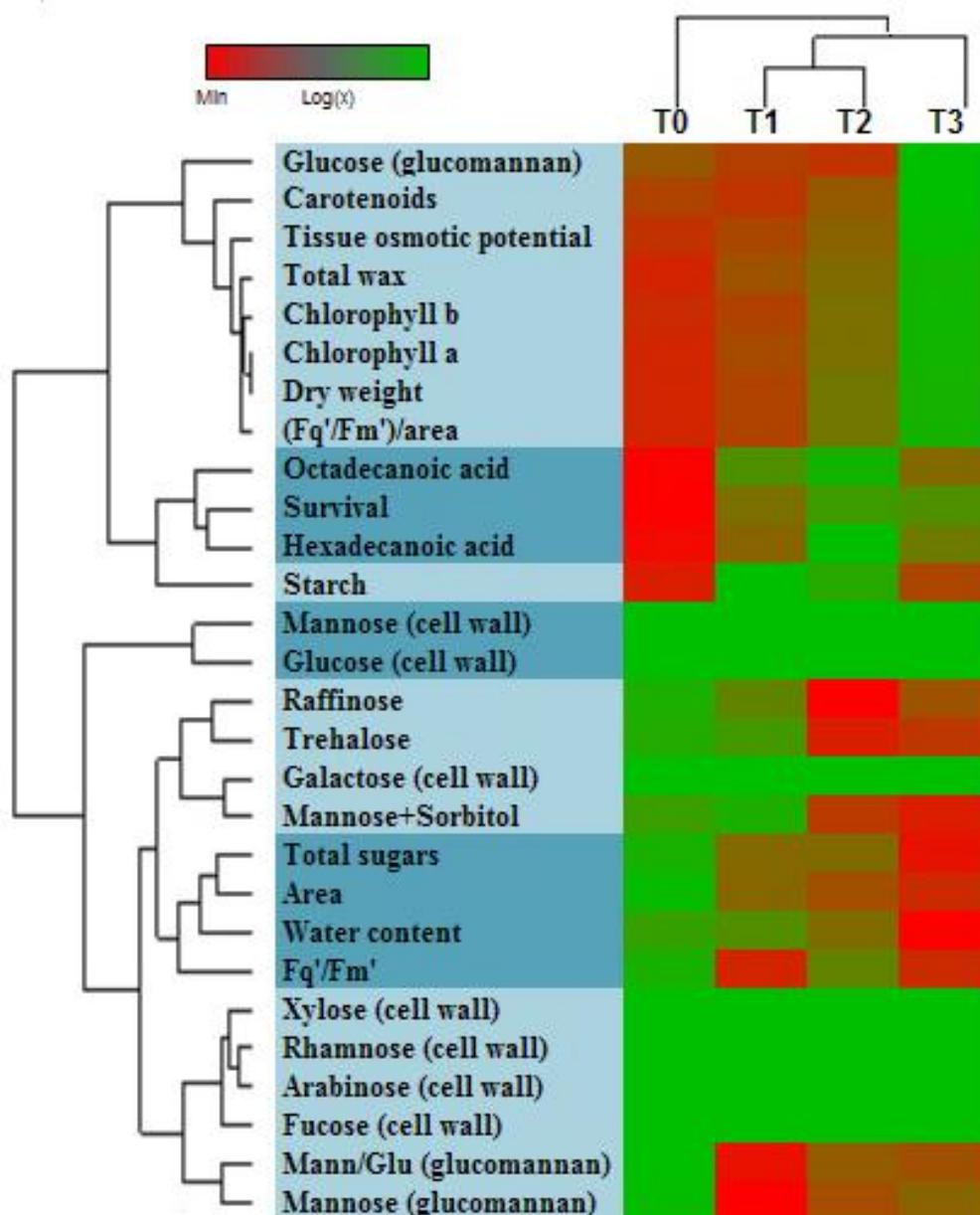


Figure 16. Clustered Heatmap. the dendrograms display hierarchical aggrupation (Euclidean analysis) of the data obtained in each experiment and treatment. The color scale of the heatmap represents higher values in green and lower values in red.

5. DISCUSSION

Although the Atlantic forest is generally humid, the epiphytes that inhabit it are subjected to an environment with intermittence of water (Madison, 1977; Benzing, 1990; Zotz, 2016). Therefore, it is not surprising that many epiphytes are thought to be considerably tolerant to drought stress (Coutinho 1964, 1969; Lambers *et al.*, 1998).

Similarly to other plant groups, the water shortage even in epiphytes leads to higher mortality rates in seedlings and juvenile phases (Ackerman *et al.*, 1996; Zotz & Hietz, 2001). The protocorms of *Laelia lobata*, as described above, are at an early stage of development and quite unprotected. However, curiously the results showed a rise in the survival percentage of the protocorms submitted to the water shortage treatments. Probably, the PEG treatments were not intense enough to provoke their mortality but to enhance their survival as reported by Skirycz *et al.* (2011) who analyzed *Arabidopsis* responses to osmotic stress using mannitol and found that severe drought conditions enhanced the survival of the resistant lines was because of the activation of water-saving mechanisms.

According to Martin *et al.* (2004) there are two types of responses that epiphytes may display under drought conditions that are closely interrelated. First, to possess a highly negative tissue osmotic potential allows the plant to uptake water from the substrate. Second, having a less negative tissue osmotic potential would help the plant to avoid plasmolysis in case of a longer period of drought.

As the protocorms were exposed to an increasing osmotic stress, the osmotic potential of control, T1 and T2 plants were more negative than the medium culture, thereby inducing the entrance of water into the protocorms; however, plants under T3 treatment, with twice as much the stress of T2, registered an opposite response having a higher tissue osmotic potential. Thus, as suggested by Martin *et al.* (2004), this process may take place to avoid the cell lysis since the external osmotic potential was too intense.

The maintenance of the cell turgor not only depends on the fluctuations of water potential and osmotic adjustments by the accumulation of osmoprotectants (Murakeözy *et al.*, 2003; Seki *et al.*, 2007; Lambers *et al.* 2008), but also on the elasticity of the cell walls.

The elasticity depends on the cell-walls components, while thicker or just rigid they have high elastic modulus (ϵ) which means they are less elastic; in its turn, flexible cell walls have low elastic modulus. This prevents cells from shrinking during long periods of water shortage and allows them storing greater amounts of water when water sources are available (Fan *et al.*, 1994; Lambers *et al.*, 1998; Saito & Terashima, 2004; Martinez *et al.*, 2007; Moore *et al.*, 2008).

CAM plants typically have elastic cell walls (Ryggol *et al.*, 1989; Ogburn & Edwards, 2010) and according to the obtained carbon isotope discrimination results, *Laelia lobata* is most likely a CAM plant. On that basis we could propose that the cell walls of this orchid are elastic too, and when submitted to water deficit their components may vary to avoid damage in the cytoplasm. For instance, Balsamo *et al.* (2006) found a correlation between the cell wall biochemical composition and drought resistance in resurrection grasses (*Eragrostis*) which are largely known to be extremely tolerant to desiccation.

The plant cell walls are made up of cellulose, hemicellulose, proteins and carbohydrate polymers. Hemicelluloses constitute a large part of the polysaccharides of the cell walls and are composed mainly by xylans, arabinoxylans, mannans, galactomannans, glucomannans and arabinogalactan II; and pectic substances such as rhamnogalacturonan I, rhamnogalacturonan II, arabinan, galactan, arabinogalactan I and D-galacturonan (Heredia *et al.*, 1995).

Several of the polysaccharides aforementioned are constituted by the monosaccharides found in the protocorms of *Laelia lobata*. The decrease of these saccharides, as a result of the osmotic stress, may have resulted in a reduction of the cell wall thickness, then less rigidity. This elasticity of the cell wall is only an assumption since we did not estimate the ϵ module and according to Cosgrove (2015) the assembly of the components of the cell walls to make them extensible still remains an enigma.

Also regarding to polysaccharides, many taxa (*e.g.* cacti, orchids, etc.) have shown to accumulate mucilages to enhance their water storage capacity (Meier & Reid, 1982; Nobel *et al.*, 1992; Ogburn & Edwards, 2010). However, the quantification of glucomannans (main component in orchid's mucilages), as well as the presence of mucilaginous idioblasts

of the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* did not showed any clear effect of the treatments on their prevalence.

It is well reported in the literature the occurrence of shifts in the concentration of non-structural carbohydrates in plants under drought stress. For instance, Muller *et al.* (2011) reviewed many cases of carbohydrates accumulation; Mohammadkhani & Heidari (2008), induced osmotic stress using different concentrations of PEG in two maize varieties and observed an accumulation of soluble sugars and a decline in starch content; Griffin *et al.* (2004) obtained similar responses in two ecotypes of the leguminous Eastern redbud *Cercis canadensis*, being D-pinitol the most accumulated carbohydrate. Nevertheless, other authors have found divergent responses, where soluble sugar content decreased or remained invariable (Morgan, 1992; Stancato *et al.*, 2001) such as our own results.

It is known that carbohydrates metabolism is deeply associated with photosynthesis and both are affected by water shortage. Decreased chlorophylls, carotenoids and chlorophyll fluorescence of the PSII under water stress conditions have been reported in many species (Munné-Bosch & Alegre, 2000; Colom & Vazzana, 2003; Manivannan, 2007) and considered as a symptom of oxidative stress and a putative result of pigment photo-oxidation and degradation (Anjum *et al.*, 2011) and disturbances in the photosynthetic apparatus.

Sapeta *et al.* (2013) observed an abrupt reduction of the PSII operating efficiency in *Jatropha curcas* under drought conditions. Same responses had Iqbal *et al.* (2019) with *Glycine max* in water deficit conditions using PEG-6000 in concentrations less harsh than the ones we used (6% as its highest concentration). According to the results of chlorophyll fluorescence in the protocorms of *L.lobata*, we manage two possible interpretations. One comes from the operating efficiency (F_q' / F_m') values obtained directly from the fluorometer, where the values fluctuate slightly from treatment to treatment. The other, regarding to the measurements of the operating efficiency considering the size of the protocorms (in mm^2), showed a very contrasting response, with an increase in the OE/mm^2 since the treatment T1. The ratio OE/area was calculated since the protocorms show large size variations which could lead us to misjudgments of the data.

Keeping that in mind, the non-accumulation of carbohydrates in the protocorms is not a consequence of a disruption in the photosynthetic activity. In fact, the increased values of OE such as the increase in photosynthetic pigments indicate that the photosynthetic apparatus kept its integrity and functionality probably because the intensity and duration of the osmotic treatments were not enough to provoke a destabilization of the photosystem or because it constitutes as such a tolerance mechanism of the *Laelia lobata* protocorms.

One other important factor that affects photosynthetic activity is the reduction in the stomatal conductance in water deficit conditions to avoid water transpiration. In this study we did not measure the stomatal conductance but was confirmed the presence of stomata in the protocorms which sheds the possibility of conducting this experiment further on.

The number of stomata found in the protocorms of *Laelia lobata* was limited but still a nice feature to find out considering that the protocorms are in such an early stage of development; however, their existence per se does not appear to be a sine qua non condition for CAM orchids. According to Winter *et al.* (1985) who studied CAM metabolism in the leafless orchid *Campylocentrum tyrridion* and Cockburn *et al.* (1985) who investigated the photosynthetic carbon assimilation in shootless orchid *Chiloschista usneoides*, the absence of stomata does not affect the CO₂ uptake in some epiphytic orchids.

Some of the main components that could affect the overall isotope discrimination during photosynthesis are the CO₂ diffusion, interconversion (CO₂ to HCO₃⁻), the assimilation by PEP carboxylase and RuBP carboxylase, and respiration (O'Leary, 1980). As the isotopic values seem to have a linear relation to the carbon dioxide uptake by the plants, e.g. the CO₂ incorporation in C₃ plants is limited and have more negative $\delta_{13}\text{C}$ values, we presume that the higher values of $\delta_{13}\text{C}$ of the protocorms compared to the adult leaves might be associated to a higher efficiency of CO₂ fixation.

The carbon (C) supply, which accomplishes many roles in plants, is obtained by photosynthesis. If the photosynthetic activity is affected by water restriction, accordingly, the plant growth would be also affected. However, according to Muller *et al.* (2011) the limitation of plants growth not necessarily has to do with limitations of C source but more with the employment of these C molecules to generate tolerance responses. As seen in our results, there was a significant limitation in the protocorm growth while the biomass

increased greatly. On that basis, we could hypothesize that the C molecules and energy obtained from the high photosynthetic activity could be being invested in the formation of complex molecules in order to increase the water deficit tolerance of the protocorms.

The cuticle waxes of the protocorms were specially affected by the osmotic treatments. This was reflected through a significant wax accumulation and large variations in their components. Indeed, the accumulation of cuticular waxes during water deficit has been largely reported, considering alkanes as the most accumulated and most effective barrier against water loss (Oliveira *et al.* 2003; Kim *et al.*, 2007; Bi *et al.*, 2017).

Yet in our results, the most accumulated substances were the fatty acids. We ponder that this might be because of the reduction/interruption of the fatty acids elongation through their pathway to conform alkanes and primary alcohols since these two classes decreased to become traces from the very first treatment; instead, the short chain fatty acids were repeatedly synthesized particularly the hexadecanoic and octadecanoic acids.

Unfortunately, the most accumulated substance could not be identified; a profound investigation of this is still pending since it represents a great percentage of the total load of cuticle waxes of the treated protocorms.

We got to analyze the cuticle waxes of leaves of non-stressed adult plants of *L. lobata* (data not included in this work), and the composition of the waxes turned out to be very similar to the results of the control group of protocorms.

Although there is no correlation between the chemical composition of the cuticular wax deposition and phylogeny, we found some interesting similarities among our findings and the results obtained by Pansarin *et al.* (2008). They analyzed the cuticular waxes of leaves of adult plants of 13 species of *Cleisthes* (Orchidaceae) and found a predominance of either fatty acids or primary alcohols highlighting that most of the species are characterized by having as main fatty acids the hexadecanoic and octadecanoic acids.

6. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

The present study rose up some interesting aspects regarding to the effects of water deficit in the protocorms of *Laelia lobata*. Despite their small size and fragile appearance, they proved otherwise, showing to be extremely tolerant to the osmotic treatments due to nothing more than internal mechanisms.

Some of the results obtained differed in several grades of what was expected. The enhancement of survival, the non-increased polyols known as osmoprotectans, the stability (and even increased activity) of the photosynthetic apparatus and augmentation of the photosynthetic pigments, the decrease of alkanes and increased fatty acids and unknown substances in the cuticle waxes and so.

One of the remained questions was in regard to the osmoprotectans; from all the putative substances analyzed, none of them resulted to be accumulated in the treatments so we can conclude that they are not acting as such. Probably, the nature of their osmoprotectants is very different from the ones we analyzed (e.g. amino acids as proline, glycinebetaine).

By the succulence of their leaves and the analysis of the carbon isotopes we could determine that *Laelia lobata* most likely a CAM orchid; an analysis of titratable acidity would be needed to confirm this result.

Further studies are needed to elucidate which other biochemical and physiological mechanisms these protocorms display to cope with water deficit. We propose the analysis of proteins (even in a molecular level), phytohormones and a deeper analysis of the wax cuticle.

7. **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Ackerman, J. D., Sabat, A., & Zimmerman, J. K. (1996). Seedling establishment in an epiphytic orchid: an experimental study of seed limitation. *Oecologia*, *106*(2), 192-198.

Alvarez, M. R., & Sagawa, Y. (1965). A histochemical study of embryo development in *Vanda* (Orchidaceae). *Caryologia*, *18*(2), 251-261.

Amaral, L. D., Gaspar, M., Costa, P. M. F., Aidar, M. P. M., & Buckeridge, M. S. (2007). A new rapid and sensitive enzymatic method for extraction and quantification of starch in plant material. *Hoehnea*, *34*, 425-431.

Anjum, S. A., Xie, X. Y., Wang, L. C., Saleem, M. F., Man, C., & Lei, W. (2011). Morphological, physiological and biochemical responses of plants to drought stress. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*, *6*(9), 2026-2032.

Arditti, J. (1980). Aspects of the physiology of orchids. In *Advances in botanical research* (Vol. 7, pp. 421-655). Academic Press.

Arditti, J., & Ghani, A. K. A. (2000). Tansley Review No. 110. Numerical and physical properties of orchid seeds and their biological implications. *The New Phytologist*, *145*(3), 367-421.

Arditti, J., & Pridgeon, A. M. (Eds.). (2013). *Orchid biology: Reviews and perspectives, VII*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Bailey-Serres, J. & Mittler, R. (2006). The roles of reactive oxygen species in plant cells. *Plant Physiology*, *141*:311

Balsamo, R. A., Willigen, C. V., Bauer, A. M., & Farrant, J. (2006). Drought tolerance of selected *Eragrostis* species correlates with leaf tensile properties. *Annals of botany*, *97*(6), 985-991.

Baker, N. R. (2008). Chlorophyll fluorescence: a probe of photosynthesis in vivo. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.*, *59*, 89-113.

- Bargel, H., Koch, K., Cerman, Z., & Neinhuis, C. (2006). Evans Review No. 3: Structure–function relationships of the plant cuticle and cuticular waxes—a smart material? *Functional Plant Biology*, 33(10), 893-910.
- Barros, F. D. (1990). Diversidade taxonômica e distribuição geográfica das Orchidaceae brasileiras. *Acta botanica brasílica*, 4(1), 177-187.
- Bartels, D., & Sunkar, R. (2005). Drought and salt tolerance in plants. Critical reviews in plant sciences, 24(1), 23-58.
- Baskin, C. C., & Baskin, J. M. (1998). Seeds: ecology, biogeography, and, evolution of dormancy and germination. *Elsevier*.
- Bender, M. M. (1968). Mass spectrometric studies of carbon 13 variations in corn and other grasses. *Radiocarbon*, 10(2), 468-472.
- Benzing, D. H. (1976). Bromeliad trichomes: structure, function, and ecological significance. *Selbyana*, 1(4), 330-348
- Benzing, D. H. (1987). Vascular epiphytism: taxonomic participation and adaptive diversity. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden*, 183-204.
- Benzing, D. H. (1998). Vulnerabilities of tropical forests to climate change: the significance of resident epiphytes. In Potential impacts of climate change on tropical forest ecosystems (pp. 379-400). *Springer*, Dordrecht.
- Benzing, D. H. (2004). Vascular epiphytes. *Forest canopies*, 2, 175-211.
- Benzing, D. H. (2008). Vascular epiphytes: general biology and related biota. *Cambridge University Press*.
- Benzing, D. H., & Bennett, B. (2000). Bromeliaceae: profile of an adaptive radiation. *Cambridge University Press*.
- Bernacchia, G., & Furini, A. (2004). Biochemical and molecular responses to water stress in resurrection plants. *Physiologia plantarum*, 121(2), 175-181.

Bi, H., Kovalchuk, N., Langridge, P., Tricker, P. J., Lopato, S., & Borisjuk, N. (2017). The impact of drought on wheat leaf cuticle properties. *BMC plant biology*, *17*(1), 85.

Lambers, H., Chapin, F. S., & Pons, T. L. (1998). Plant physiological ecology. *Springer*, New York.

Colom, M. R., & Vazzana, C. (2003). Photosynthesis and PSII functionality of drought-resistant and drought-sensitive weeping lovegrass plants. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, *49*(2), 135-144.

Cockburn, W., Goh, C. J., & Avadhani, P. N. (1985). Photosynthetic carbon assimilation in a shootless orchid, *Chiloschista usneoides* (DON) LDL: a variant on crassulacean acid metabolism. *Plant Physiology*, *77*(1), 83-86.

Cominelli, E., Sala, T., Calvi, D., Gusmaroli, G., & Tonelli, C. (2008). Over-expression of the *Arabidopsis* AtMYB41 gene alters cell expansion and leaf surface permeability. *The Plant Journal*, *53*(1), 53-64.

Cornic, G. (2000). Drought stress inhibits photosynthesis by decreasing stomatal aperture—not by affecting ATP synthesis. *Trends in plant science*, *5*(5), 187-188.

Cosgrove, D. J. (2015). Plant cell wall extensibility: connecting plant cell growth with cell wall structure, mechanics, and the action of wall-modifying enzymes. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, *67*(2), 463-476.

Coutinho, L. M. (1964). Untersuchungen über die Lage des Lichtkompensationspunktes einiger Pflanzen zu verschiedenen Tageszeiten mit besonderer Berücksichtigung des “de Saussure Effektes” bei Sukkulente. *Beiträge zur Physiologie. Ulmer, Stuttgart*, 1-8.

Coutinho, L. M. (1969). Novas observações sobre a ocorrência do “efeito de Saussure” e suas relações com a suculência, a temperatura folhear e os movimentos estomáticos. *Botânica*, *24*, 44-102.

Cushman, J. C. (2001). Crassulacean acid metabolism. A plastic photosynthetic adaptation to arid environments. *Plant Physiology*, *127*(4), 1439-1448.

De Araujo Lima Constantino, P., & de Fraga, C. N. (2005). Conservation strategy for *Laelia lobata* (Lindl.) HJ Veitch: the most endangered orchid of Rio de Janeiro. *Selbyana*, 85-88.

Demirevska, K., Zasheva, D., Dimitrov, R., Simova-Stoilova, L., Stamenova, M., & Feller, U. (2009). Drought stress effects on Rubisco in wheat: changes in the Rubisco large subunit. *Acta Physiologiae Plantarum*, 31(6), 1129.

Dressler, R. L. (1981). The orchids: natural history and classification Harvard Univ. Press. Cambridge, Mass.

Dubois, M., Gilles, K. A., Hamilton, J. K., Rebers, P. T., & Smith, F. (1956). Colorimetric method for determination of sugars and related substances. *Analytical chemistry*, 28(3), 350-356.

Edwards, D., Abbott, G. D., & Raven, J. A. (1996). Cuticles of early land plants: a palaeoecophysiological evaluation. Plant Cuticles an integrated functional approach. Oxford: Bios Scientific Publishers, 1-32.

Fan, S., Blake, T. J., & Blumwald, E. (1994). The relative contribution of elastic and osmotic adjustments to turgor maintenance of woody species. *Physiologia Plantarum*, 90(2), 408-413.

Fernandes, A. S., Baker, E. A., & Martin, J. T. (1964). Studies on plant cuticle: VI. The isolation and fractionation of cuticular waxes. *Annals of Applied Biology*, 53(1), 43-58.

Freudenstein, J. V., & Chase, M. W. (2015). Phylogenetic relationships in *Epidendroideae* (Orchidaceae), one of the great flowering plant radiations: progressive specialization and diversification. *Annals of Botany*, 115(4), 665-681.

Fujita, Y., Fujita, M., Shinozaki, K., & Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, K. (2011). ABA-mediated transcriptional regulation in response to osmotic stress in plants. *Journal of plant research*, 124(4), 509-525.

Gentry, A. H., & Dodson, C. (1987). Contribution of non-trees to species richness of a tropical rainforest. *Biotropica*, 19(2), 149-156.

- Genty, B., Briantais, J. M., & Baker, N. R. (1989). The relationship between the quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport and quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-General Subjects*, 990(1), 87-92.
- Gregg, K. B. (1991). Reproductive strategy of *Cleistes divaricata* (Orchidaceae). *American Journal of Botany*, 78(3), 350-360.
- Griffin, J. J., Ranney, T. G., & Pharr, D. M. (2004). Heat and drought influence photosynthesis, water relations, and soluble carbohydrates of two ecotypes of redbud (*Cercis canadensis*). *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, 129(4), 497-502.
- Gupta, A. K., & Kaur, N. (2005). Sugar signaling and gene expression in relation to carbohydrate metabolism under abiotic stresses in plants. *Journal of biosciences*, 30(5), 761-776.
- Heredia, A., Jiménez, A., & Guillén, R. (1995). Composition of plant cell walls. *Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und Forschung*, 200(1), 24-31.
- Hew, C. S. (1996). Changes in mineral and carbohydrate content in pseudobulbs of the C3 epiphytic orchid hybrid *Oncidium goldiana* at different growth stages. *Lindleyana*, 11, 125-134.
- Hsu, C. C., Horng, F. W., & Kuo, C. M. (2002). Epiphyte biomass and nutrient capital of a moist subtropical forest in north-eastern Taiwan. *Journal of Tropical Ecology*, 18(5), 659-670.
- Iqbal, N., Hussain, S., Raza, M. A., Yang, C., Safdar, M. E., Brestic, M., & Liu, J. (2019). Drought tolerance of soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr.) by improved photosynthetic characteristics and an efficient antioxidant enzyme system under a split-root system. *Frontiers in physiology*, 10, 786.
- Jetter, R., Schäffer, S., & Riederer, M. (2000). Leaf cuticular waxes are arranged in chemically and mechanically distinct layers: evidence from *Prunus laurocerasus* L. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 23(6), 619-628.

- Kim, K. S., Park, S. H., & Jenks, M. A. (2007). Changes in leaf cuticular waxes of sesame (*Sesamum indicum* L.) plants exposed to water deficit. *Journal of plant physiology*, 164(9), 1134-1143.
- Knudson, L. (1946). A new nutrient solution for the germination of orchid seed. *Amer. Orchid Soc. Bull.* 15, 214-217.
- Kramer, P. J., & Boyer, J. S. (1995). *Water relations of plants and soils*. Academic press.
- Kraus, J. E., Kerbauy, G. B., & Monteiro, W. R. (2006). Desenvolvimento de protocormos de *Catasetum pileatum* Rchb. f. in vitro: aspectos estruturais e conceituais. *Hoehnea*, 33(2), 177-184.
- Lester, R. N., & Kang, J. H. (1998). Embryo and Endosperm Function and Failure in *Solanum* Species and Hybrids. *Annals of Botany*, 82(4), 445-453.
- Lüttge, U. (Ed.). (2012). Vascular plants as epiphytes: evolution and ecophysiology (Vol. 76). *Springer Science & Business Media*.
- Madison, M. (1977). Vascular epiphytes: their systematic occurrence and salient features. *Selbyana*, 2(1), 1-13.
- Manivannan, P., Jaleel, C. A., Sankar, B., Kishorekumar, A., Somasundaram, R., Lakshmanan, G. A., & Panneerselvam, R. (2007). Growth, biochemical modifications and proline metabolism in *Helianthus annuus* L. as induced by drought stress. *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 59(2), 141-149.
- Martin, C. E., Lin, T. C., Lin, K. C., Hsu, C. C., & Chiou, W. L. (2004). Causes and consequences of high osmotic potentials in epiphytic higher plants. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 161(10), 1119-1124.
- Martínez, J. P., Silva, H. F. L. J., Ledent, J. F., & Pinto, M. (2007). Effect of drought stress on the osmotic adjustment, cell wall elasticity and cell volume of six cultivars of common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). *European Journal of Agronomy*, 26(1), 30-38.

Maxwell, C., Griffiths, H., & Young, A. J. (1994). Photosynthetic acclimation to light regime and water stress by the C3-CAM epiphyte *Guzmania monostachia*: gas-exchange characteristics, photochemical efficiency and the xanthophyll cycle. *Functional Ecology*, 746-754.

Maxwell, K., & Johnson, G. N. (2000). Chlorophyll fluorescence—a practical guide. *Journal of experimental botany*, 51(345), 659-668

Meier, H. and Reid, J.S.G. (1982) Reserve polysaccharides other than starch in higher plants. In *Encyclopedia of Plant Physiology*, Vol. 13A (F.A. Loewus and W. Tanner, eds). Berlin: Springer, 418– 471.

Minocha, R., Martinez, G., Lyons, B., & Long, S. (2009). Development of a standardized methodology for quantifying total chlorophyll and carotenoids from foliage of hardwood and conifer tree species. *Canadian journal of forest research*, 39(4), 849-861.

Mioto, P. T., & Mercier, H. (2013). Abscisic acid and nitric oxide signaling in two different portions of detached leaves of *Guzmania monostachia* with CAM up-regulated by drought. *Journal of plant physiology*, 170(11), 996-1002.

Mohammadkhani, N., & Heidari, R. (2008). Drought-induced accumulation of soluble sugars and proline in two maize varieties. *World Appl. Sci. J*, 3(3), 448-453.

Moore, J. P., Vitré-Gibouin, M., Farrant, J. M., & Driouich, A. (2008). Adaptations of higher plant cell walls to water loss: drought vs desiccation. *Physiologia plantarum*, 134(2), 237-245.

Morgan, J. M. (1992). Osmotic components and properties associated with genotypic differences in osmoregulation in wheat. *Functional Plant Biology*, 19(1), 67-76.

Murakeözy, É. P., Nagy, Z., Duhazé, C., Bouchereau, A., & Tuba, Z. (2003). Seasonal changes in the levels of compatible osmolytes in three halophytic species of inland saline vegetation in Hungary. *Journal of plant physiology*, 160(4), 395-401.

Muller, B., Pantin, F., Génard, M., Turc, O., Freixes, S., Piques, M., & Gibon, Y. (2011). Water deficits uncouple growth from photosynthesis, increase C content, and modify the relationships between C and growth in sink organs. *Journal of experimental botany*, *62*(6), 1715-1729.

Munné-Bosch, S., & Alegre, L. (2000). Changes in carotenoids, tocopherols and diterpenes during drought and recovery, and the biological significance of chlorophyll loss in *Rosmarinus officinalis* plants. *Planta*, *210*(6), 925-931.

Murchie, E. H., & Lawson, T. (2013). Chlorophyll fluorescence analysis: a guide to good practice and understanding some new applications. *Journal of experimental botany*, *64*(13), 3983-3998.

Ng, C. K. Y., & Hew, C. S. (2000). Orchid pseudobulbs—false bulbs with a genuine importance in orchid growth and survival! *Scientia Horticulturae*, *83*(3-4), 165-172.

Nobel, P. S., Cavelier, J., & Andrade, J. L. (1992). Mucilage in cacti: its apoplastic capacitance, associated solutes, and influence on tissue 5. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, *43*(5), 641-648.

Ogburn, R. M., & Edwards, E. J. (2010). The ecological water-use strategies of succulent plants. In *Advances in botanical research* (Vol. 55, pp. 179-225). Academic Press.

Oliveira, A. F., Meirelles, S. T., & Salatino, A. (2003). Epicuticular waxes from caatinga and cerrado species and their efficiency against water loss. *Anais da Academia Brasileira de Ciências*, *75*(4), 431-439.

Oliveira, P. M. R., Rodrigues, M. A., Gonçalves, A. Z., & Kerbauy, G. B. (2019). Exposure of *Catsetum fimbriatum* aerial roots to light coordinates carbon partitioning between source and sink organs in an auxin dependent manner. *Plant physiology and biochemistry*, *135*, 341-347.

Osakabe, Y., Osakabe, K., Shinozaki, K., & Tran, L. S. P. (2014). Response of plants to water stress. *Frontiers in plant science*, *5*, 86.

- Pansarin, E. R., Salatino, A. & Pereira, A. S. (2008). Micromorphological and chemical characteristics of cuticular waxes of *Cleistes* (Orchidaceae, Pogonieae). *Bol Bot Univ São Paulo*, 26, 79-91.
- Pereira, M. C., Rocha, D. I., Veloso, T. G. R., Pereira, O. L., Francino, D. M. T., Meira, R. M. S. A., & Kasuya, M. C. M. (2015). Characterization of seed germination and protocorm development of *Cyrtopodium glutiniferum* (Orchidaceae) promoted by mycorrhizal fungi *Epulorhiza* spp. *Acta Botanica Brasilica*, 29(4), 567-574.
- Porra, R. J., Thompson, W. A., & Kriedemann, P. E. (1989). Determination of accurate extinction coefficients and simultaneous equations for assaying chlorophylls a and b extracted with four different solvents: verification of the concentration of chlorophyll standards by atomic absorption spectroscopy. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Bioenergetics*, 975(3), 384-394.
- Premachandra, G. S., Saneoka, H., Kanaya, M., & Ogata, S. (1991). Cell membrane stability and leaf surface wax content as affected by increasing water deficits in maize. *Journal of experimental botany*, 42(2), 167-171
- Pridgeon, A. M. (1987). The velamen and exodermis of orchid roots. *Orchid biology: reviews and perspectives*, 4, 141-192.
- Pridgeon, A. M., Cribb, P. J., Chase, M. W., & Rasmussen, F. N. (2001). *Genera Orchidacearum. Volume 2. Orchidoideae (part 1)*. Oxford University Press.
- Ramírez, S. R., Gravendeel, B., Singer, R. B., Marshall, C. R., & Pierce, N. E. (2007). Dating the origin of the Orchidaceae from a fossil orchid with its pollinator. *Nature*, 448(7157), 1042.
- Reginato, M., Boeger, M. R. T., & Goldenberg, R. (2009). Comparative anatomy of the vegetative organs in *Pleiochiton* A. Gray (Melastomataceae), with emphasis on adaptations to epiphytism. *Flora-Morphology, Distribution, Functional Ecology of Plants*, 204(10), 782-790.

- Richardson, K. A., Peterson, R. L., & Currah, R. S. (1992). Seed reserves and early symbiotic protocorm development of *Platanthera hyperborea* (Orchidaceae). *Canadian Journal of Botany*, 70(2), 291-300.
- Rodrigues, M. A., Matiz, A., Cruz, A. B., Matsumura, A. T., Takahashi, C. A., Hamachi, L., & Demarco, D. (2013). Spatial patterns of photosynthesis in thin-and thick-leaved epiphytic orchids: unravelling C3–CAM plasticity in an organ-compartmented way. *Annals of botany*, 112(1), 17-29.
- Rybol, J., Zimmermann, U., & Balling, A. (1989). Water relations of individual leaf cells of *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum* plants grown at low and high salinity. *The Journal of Membrane Biology*, 107(3), 203-212.
- Sailo, N., Rai, D., & De, L. C. (2014). Physiology of temperate and tropical orchids- an overview. *Int. J. Sci. Res*, 3, 3-8.
- Saito, T., & Terashima, I. (2004). Reversible decreases in the bulk elastic modulus of mature leaves of deciduous *Quercus* species subjected to two drought treatments. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 27(7), 863-875.
- Samarah, N. H., Alqudah, A. M., Amayreh, J. A., & McAndrews, G. M. (2009). The effect of late-terminal drought stress on yield components of four barley cultivars. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science*, 195(6), 427-441.
- Sapeta, H., Costa, J. M., Lourenco, T., Maroco, J., Van der Linde, P., & Oliveira, M. M. (2013). Drought stress response in *Jatropha curcas*: growth and physiology. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, 85, 76-84.
- Seki, M., Umezawa, T., Urano, K., & Shinozaki, K. (2007). Regulatory metabolic networks in drought stress responses. *Current opinion in plant biology*, 10(3), 296-302.
- Sezik, E. (2002). Turkish orchids and salep. *Acta Pharmaceutica Turcica*, 44, 151-157.
- Shepherd, T., & Wynne Griffiths, D. (2006). The effects of stress on plant cuticular waxes. *New Phytologist*, 171(3), 469-499.

- Silva, E. C., Nogueira, R. J., Vale, F. H., Araújo, F. P. D., & Pimenta, M. A. (2009). Stomatal changes induced by intermittent drought in four umbu tree genotypes. *Brazilian Journal of Plant Physiology*, *21*(1), 33-42.
- Silvera, K., Santiago, L. S., & Winter, K. (2005). Distribution of crassulacean acid metabolism in orchids of Panama: evidence of selection for weak and strong modes. *Functional Plant Biology*, *32*(5), 397-407.
- Skirycz, A., Vandenbroucke, K., Clauw, P., Maleux, K., De Meyer, B., Dhondt, S. & Galbiati, M. (2011). Survival and growth of *Arabidopsis* plants given limited water are not equal. *Nature biotechnology*, *29*(3), 212.
- Stancato, G. C., Mazzafera, P., & Buckeridge, M. S. (2001). Effect of a drought period on the mobilisation of non-structural carbohydrates, photosynthetic efficiency and water status in an epiphytic orchid. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*, *39*(11), 1009-1016.
- Vacin, E. F., & Went, F. W. (1949). Some pH changes in nutrient solutions. *Botanical Gazette*, *110*(4), 605-613.
- Vishwakarma, K., Upadhyay, N., Kumar, N., Yadav, G., Singh, J., Mishra, R. K., Kumar, V., Verma, R., Upadhyay, R. G., Pandey, M. & Sharma, S. (2017). Abscisic acid signaling and abiotic stress tolerance in plants: a review on current knowledge and future prospects. *Frontiers in plant science*, *8*, 161.
- Wang, X. J., Loh, C. S., Yeoh, H. H., & Sun, W. Q. (2002). Drying rate and dehydrin synthesis associated with abscisic acid-induced dehydration tolerance in *Spathoglottis plicata* (Orchidaceae) protocorms. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, *53*(368), 551-558.
- Wellburn, A. R. (1994). The spectral determination of chlorophylls a and b, as well as total carotenoids, using various solvents with spectrophotometers of different resolution. *Journal of plant physiology*, *144*(3), 307-313.
- Winter, K., Medina, E., Garcia, V., Mayoral, M. L., & Muniz, R. (1985). Crassulacean Acid Metabolism in Roots of a Leafless Orchid, *Campylocentrum tyrridion* Garay & Dunsterv. *Journal of plant physiology*, *118*(1), 73-78.

- Yancey, P. H., Clark, M. E., Hand, S. C., Bowlus, R. D., & Somero, G. N. (1982). Living with water stress: evolution of osmolyte systems. *Science*, 217(4566), 1214-1222.
- Yang, S. J., Sun, M., Yang, Q. Y., Ma, R. Y., Zhang, J. L., & Zhang, S. B. (2016). Two strategies by epiphytic orchids for maintaining water balance: thick cuticles in leaves and water storage in pseudobulbs. *AoB Plants*, 8.
- Yeung, E. C. (2017). A perspective on orchid seed and protocorm development. *Botanical Studies*, 58(1), 33.
- Zotz, G., & Hietz, P. (2001). The physiological ecology of vascular epiphytes: current knowledge, open questions. *Journal of experimental botany*, 52(364), 2067-2078.
- Zotz, G. (2004). How prevalent is crassulacean acid metabolism among vascular epiphytes?. *Oecologia*, 138(2), 184-192.
- Zotz, G. (2013). The systematic distribution of vascular epiphytes—a critical update. *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society*, 171(3), 453-481.
- Zotz, G. (2016). *Plants on plants: The biology of vascular epiphytes*. Berlin: Springer.
- Zotz, G., & Winkler, U. (2013). Aerial roots of epiphytic orchids: the velamen radicum and its role in water and nutrient uptake. *Oecologia*, 171(3), 733-741.