

1 **Short Title: Looking Inside the Esca Symptomatic Leaf**

2

3 **Exploring the Hydraulic Failure Hypothesis of Esca Leaf Symptom Formation**

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27 **One sentence summary:** Leaf scorch symptom development is associated with the
28 disruption of vessel integrity.

29

30 **Author Contributions**

31 C.E.L.D., G.A.G., G.B., and S. Delzon designed experiments and analysed the data; A.K.,
32 E.B., F.L., G.A.G., G.B., G.C., H.C., J.M.T.R., L.J.L., R.B., S. Dayer, S. Delzon, and S.J.
33 participated in synchrotron campaigns; C.E.L.D. and G.B. conducted the histological
34 observation; P.L. provided data on disease history of the plants used in this study; J.P.
35 conducted the pathogen detection; G.B. analysed the micro CT images; C.E.L.D., G.A.G.,
36 and G.B. wrote the manuscript; All authors edited and agreed on the last version of the
37 manuscript.

38

39 **ABSTRACT**

40

41 Vascular pathogens cause disease in a large spectrum of perennial plants, with leaf scorch
42 being one of the most conspicuous symptoms. Esca in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) is a vascular
43 disease with huge negative effects on grape yield and the wine industry. One prominent
44 hypothesis suggests that vascular disease leaf scorch is caused by fungal pathogen-derived
45 elicitors and toxins. Another hypothesis suggests that leaf scorch is caused by hydraulic
46 failure due to air-embolism, the pathogen itself, and/or plant-derived tyloses and gels. In this
47 study we transplanted mature, naturally infected esca symptomatic vines from the field into
48 pots, allowing us to explore xylem integrity in leaves (*i.e.* leaf mid-veins and petioles) using
49 synchrotron-based *in vivo* X-ray micro-computed tomography and light microscopy. Our
50 results demonstrated that symptomatic leaves are not associated with air embolism. In
51 contrast, symptomatic leaves presented significantly more non-functional vessels resulting
52 from the presence of non-gaseous embolisms (*i.e.* tyloses and gels) than control leaves, but
53 there was no significant correlation with disease severity. Using quantitative PCR, we
54 determined that two vascular pathogen species associated with esca necrosis in the trunk were
55 not found in leaves where occlusions were observed. Together these results demonstrate that
56 symptom development is associated with the disruption of vessel integrity and suggest that
57 symptoms are elicited at a distance from the trunk where fungal infections occur. These
58 findings open new perspectives on esca symptom expression where the hydraulic failure and
59 elicitor/toxin hypotheses are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

60 INTRODUCTION

61

62 Maintaining the integrity of the plant vascular system is crucial for plant health and
63 productivity. Xylem tissue transports water and mineral nutrients and forms a complex
64 reticulate network of many interconnected vessels (Zimmermann 1983). This complex
65 network of vessels hosts a large breadth of endophytic microorganisms, most of which live
66 harmlessly within the plant (Fisher et al. 1993; Oses et al. 2008; Qi et al. 2012, among
67 others). However, some organisms in the vessel lumina can be (or become) pathogenic, and
68 this class of pathogens is referred to as vascular pathogens (Pearce et al. 1996). Vascular
69 pathogens are highly diverse, and their pathologies depend on the specific pathogen-host
70 interaction. They cause diseases in a wide taxonomic range of plant species.

71

72 Plant vascular disorders are sometimes identified by conspicuous leaf scorch symptoms,
73 which are strikingly similar and typically begin with necrosis at the leaf margin. The exact
74 mechanisms driving these leaf symptoms remain largely unknown, and there are two long-
75 standing and unresolved working hypotheses (Fradin and Thomma 2006; Surico et al. 2006;
76 McElrone et al. 2010; Sun et al. 2013; Yadeta and Thomma 2013; Oliva et al. 2014;
77 Pouzoulet et al. 2014). The first hypothesis proposes symptoms result from the transport of
78 pathogen-derived elicitors or toxins through the transpiration stream. The second proposes
79 symptoms result from hydraulic failure resulting from any combination of air embolism,
80 occlusion of xylem vessels from the pathogen itself, and/or occlusion of xylem vessels by
81 plant-derived tyloses and gels.

82

83 Esca disease in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) is one case where the conflict between these two
84 hypotheses of leaf symptom formation remains unresolved (Surico 2006; Pouzoulet et al.
85 2014). Esca is characterized by three main symptoms: leaf scorch, trunk necrosis, and a
86 colored stripe along the vasculature (Lecomte et al. 2012). Esca belongs to a complex of
87 diseases referred to as grapevine trunk diseases (GTDs), which cause defoliation, berry loss,
88 and vine death (Bertsch et al. 2013; Mondello et al. 2018). This disease has been recognized
89 for thousands of years and has been increasingly the focus of research over the past two
90 decades as it is believed to be one of the main causes of grape production decline, especially
91 in Europe, USA (California), and South Africa (Cloete et al. 2015; Guerin-Dubrana et al.
92 2019). The fungi most strongly associated with esca wood necrosis in the trunk have been
93 identified (Larignon and Dubos 1997; Mugnai et al. 1999; Fischer 2006; White et al. 2011;

94 Bruez et al. 2014, Morales-Cruz et al. 2018). While the disease was formerly associated with
95 the presence of soft rot (caused by basidiomycetes such as *Fomitiporia mediterranea*),
96 studies have identified two vascular pathogens, *Phaeoconiella chlamydospora* and
97 *Phaeoacremonium minimum*, which are detected in trunk necrotic tissues of esca
98 symptomatic vines (Feliciano et al. 2004; Massonnet et al. 2018; Morales-Cruz et al. 2018).
99 Esca leaf symptoms are only observed on mature vines (>7 years-old) in the field (Mondello
100 et al. 2018) and cannot be reliably reproduced by inoculating vines with the causal fungi
101 (Surico et al. 2006, but see Bruno et al. 2007) despite testing various methodologies (Reis et
102 al. 2019). This suggests leaf scorch symptoms are the result of complex host-pathogen-
103 environment interactions (Fischer and Peighami Ashnaei 2019). Neither the elicitor/toxin nor
104 the hydraulic failure hypothesis of esca pathogenesis has been experimentally confirmed. It is
105 generally accepted that the fungi responsible for esca wood necrosis are not present in leaves
106 and that leaf symptoms are a consequence of fungal activities in the perennial organs (i.e.
107 trunk). However, to our knowledge, leaves and current-year stems have never been
108 investigated in detail to see if the key pathogens detected in necrotic regions of the perennial
109 wood also occur in these organs.

110

111 In the current study we created an experimental system for the study of esca disease by
112 transplanting mature, naturally infected esca symptomatic vines from the field into large pots.
113 This allowed us to test the hydraulic failure hypothesis by exploring vessel integrity
114 (presence of air-embolism, occlusion, pathogens themselves) in leaves using non-invasive, *in*
115 *vivo* imaging via X-ray micro-computed tomography (microCT), light microscopy, and
116 qPCR. MicroCT avoids artifacts caused by traditional invasive techniques (Torres-Ruiz et al.
117 2015) and allows for the visualization of vessel content and functionality in esca symptomatic
118 leaf petioles and midribs. We assessed the presence of two of the main pathogens associated
119 with esca, *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum*, using qPCR in annual stems, leaves, and
120 multi-year branches. These two species are tracheomycotic agents and could thus, in theory,
121 disperse systemically via the sap flow from the trunk (Pouzoulet et al. 2014). This study
122 provides new perspectives regarding the pathogenesis of esca leaf symptom formation.

123

124 **RESULTS**

125

126 **Vessel Occlusion and the Percentage Loss of Conductivity in Symptomatic and** 127 **Asymptomatic Leaves**

128

129 Midrib and petiole vascular bundles of symptomatic and asymptomatic leaves were imaged in
130 3D using microCT (Figure 1; Supplemental Figures S1-S2). These analyses allowed for the
131 identification of embolized and occluded xylem vessels and the quantification of the
132 percentage loss of theoretical hydraulic conductivity (PLC). The level of native air embolism
133 was very low, ranging from 2.8% to 9.7%, for both asymptomatic and symptomatic midribs
134 (Figure 1 A,C) and petioles (Supplemental Figure S1 A,D). There were no significant
135 differences in the levels of native air embolism between symptomatic and asymptomatic
136 leaves in petioles or midribs (Table 1, Figure 2).

137

138 After exposing the xylem vessels to air by cutting the leaf or petiole just above (< 2mm) the
139 scanned area, some proportion of vessels did not embolize immediately and apparently
140 remained water-filled (Figure 1 B,D; Supplemental Figure S1 B,E red arrows; Supplemental
141 Figure S2 C,D). These vessels were considered occluded. The average PLC in asymptomatic
142 midribs due to occluded vessels was 12.4% (\pm 3.2), while symptomatic midribs showed
143 significantly higher values, 68.8% (\pm 6.4) (Table 1, Figure 3). This is also the case for
144 petioles where asymptomatic leaves exhibited a PLC of only 1.9% (\pm 1.8) while PLC in
145 symptomatic leaves was 55.3% (\pm 9) (Table 1, Figure 3). Detailed information on the
146 contributions of different kinds of vessels to the theoretical hydraulic conductivity are
147 presented in Supplemental Table S1.

148

149 **The Nature of the Xylem Vessel Occlusions**

150

151 We investigated the nature of the vessel occlusions causing the high percentage of non-
152 functional vessels in esca symptomatic leaves using microCT and light microscopy. MicroCT
153 was conducted both with and without the contrasting agent iohexol, which has been utilized
154 previously to track the transpiration pathway and determine vessel functionality (as described
155 by Pratt and Jacobsen, 2018). The subsequent robust (examining >200 cross sections per
156 microCT volume) and detailed (examining both cross and longitudinal sections) examinations
157 of the microCT volumes in symptomatic leaves revealed that the nature of the vessel
158 occlusions is complex (Figure 4). Occlusions can be larger, spanning the entire diameter of
159 the vessel (Figure 4A, red arrows) or smaller occupying only a portion of the vessel (Figure
160 4A, yellow arrows). Longitudinal sections of iohexol-fed symptomatic leaves revealed the
161 transpiration pathway can pass in between occlusions and through vessel connections (Figure
162 4A, white arrow) but never diffuse in surrounding tissues. In asymptomatic samples fed with

163 iohexol, occlusions expanding in iohexol-filled vessels were not observed (Supplemental
164 Figure S3). Some partially-occluded vessels did not become air-filled upon cutting (compare
165 Figures 4B with 4C) and occlusions were also visible (although they were more obscure) in
166 entirely occluded, non-functional vessels that did not fill with air after cutting (Figure 4D, red
167 arrows). When partially-occluded vessels embolized after cutting, occlusions were easily
168 visualized (Figure 4E, red arrows). In these cases the contact angle between these occlusions
169 and the vessel wall was quantified and was always higher than 100° with the highest
170 frequency between 120° and 150° (Figure 4F). Partially-occluded vessels made up a small
171 percentage of the total calculated PLC representing $8.1\% \pm 3.7$ for symptomatic midribs and
172 $1.3\% \pm 0.6$ for symptomatic petioles, while in asymptomatic leaves partially-occluded vessels
173 were never observed (Supplemental Table S1). A negligible percentage of partially-occluded
174 vessels was observed within the native embolized vessels (i.e. air-filled prior to cutting the
175 samples) corresponding to $0.3\% \pm 0.2$ in symptomatic midribs and $0.4\% \pm 0.2$ in
176 symptomatic petioles (Supplemental Table S1).

177

178 The presence of these occlusions was likewise identified by light microscopy observations on
179 symptomatic leaves (Figure 5). To identify the chemical nature of the occlusions, cross
180 sections were stained with four different dyes: toluidine blue O (Figure 5A) in blue and
181 periodic acid-Schiff's reaction (Figure 5B) in red indicate the presence of polysaccharides
182 and polyphenols. Ruthenium red (Figure 5C) staining in pink for non- methyl-esterified
183 pectins and lacmoid blue (Figure 5D) showing the presence of callose in grey-pink shades.
184 Quantifying the number of occluded vessels in histology cross sections of midribs, we found
185 an average of 19.7% (± 11.6) of vessels with occlusions in symptomatic leaves, while just
186 0.4% (± 0.1) of vessels contained occlusions in asymptomatic leaves (Supplemental Table S2,
187 Supplemental Figure S4).

188

189 **Relationship Between Leaf Symptoms and Occlusion**

190

191 Leaf symptom severity, quantified by the percentage of green tissue (in pixels) of each leaf,
192 ranged from 6.1% to 93.9% for symptomatic leaves. In asymptomatic leaves, green tissue
193 always accounted for 100%. We found no significant relationship between the percentage of
194 green tissue (i.e. symptom severity) and PLC due to occluded vessels in symptomatic leaves
195 ($F_{1,17} = 1.43$, P -value = 0.25; Figure 6). Additionally, there was no significant relationship

196 between percentage of green tissue and PLC when analyzed by plant or by organ ($F_{3,17} =$
197 0.31 , P -value = 0.81 ; $F_{1,17} = 0.80$, P -value = 0.38 , respectively).

198

199 **Fungi Detection**

200

201 The two vascular pathogens, *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum*, were not detected in leaves
202 or lignified shoots. In 2-year-old cordons, their presence was detected in some samples but
203 not others, regardless of whether the vines were symptomatic or asymptomatic (Table 2).
204 However, *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum* DNA was detected in 100% of trunks (from 23
205 vines) sampled in the same field plot. Average quantity of *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum*
206 DNA in the trunks was 3.6 ± 0.7 and 3.7 ± 0.9 (log (fg / ng of dry tissue))), respectively.

207

208

209 **DISCUSSION**

210

211 To date, no study has investigated leaf xylem water transport and vessel integrity during
212 vascular pathogenesis using real time, non-invasive visualizations. Transplanting esca
213 symptomatic vines (identified from years of survey) from the field to pots allowed the
214 transport of the plants, enabling the use of synchrotron-based microCT to explore the
215 relationship between vessel integrity and esca leaf symptom formation in intact vines at high
216 resolution and in 3-dimensions. We demonstrate that gaseous embolism was not associated
217 with esca leaf symptoms. Instead, most of the vessels in symptomatic leaves contained non-
218 gaseous embolisms formed by gels and/or tyloses, hindering water transport and possibly
219 leading to hydraulic failure. Nevertheless, there was no positive correlation between the
220 severity of esca leaf symptoms and the loss of theoretical hydraulic conductivity resulting
221 from these vascular occlusions. The two common vascular pathogens related to esca were
222 undetected in the vine's distal organs (*i.e.* annual stems and leaves), confirming the
223 symptoms and vascular occlusions occur at a distance from the pathogen niche localized in
224 the trunk. Overall, these observations generate new perspectives regarding the nature and
225 cause of esca leaf symptoms.

226

227 **Native Embolism in Leaves**

228

229 Vascular wilt diseases have been associated with significant levels of air embolism at the leaf
230 level during oak bacterial leaf scorch (McElrone et al. 2008) and at the stem level during pine

231 wilt and Pierce's disease (Umebayashi et al. 2011; Kuroda 2012; Perez-Donoso et al. 2016).
232 In these cases the formation of air embolism was speculated to result from the cell-wall
233 degrading enzymatic activity of the pathogens (presumably to facilitate pathogen colonization
234 through the vascular network). In our study there were extremely low levels of native gaseous
235 embolism in both esca symptomatic and asymptomatic leaves (petioles and midribs),
236 demonstrating symptom formation was not associated with the presence of air-filled vessels.

237

238 **Leaf Xylem Occlusion: the Presence of Tyloses and Gels in Symptomatic Leaves**

239

240 Under certain circumstances xylem vessels can be occluded by tyloses (outgrowths from
241 adjacent parenchyma cells through vessel pits; Zimmermann 1979, De Micco et al. 2016),
242 and/or gels (i.e. gums) composed of polysaccharides and pectins, which are secreted by
243 parenchyma cells or directly by tyloses (Rioux et al. 1998). Tylose and/or gel formation is a
244 general defense response of the plant against different biotic or abiotic stresses (Bonsen and
245 Kučera 1990; Beckmann and Roberts 1995; Sun et al. 2008). In this study, microCT imaging
246 of leaf xylem vessels (both in petioles and midribs) revealed all symptomatic leaves had
247 occluded vessels, although the loss of theoretical hydraulic conductance resulting from these
248 occlusions was highly variable between leaves. Using reconstructions of 3D microCT
249 volumes (Figure 4) and light microscopy (Figure 5), we determined the occlusions in esca
250 symptomatic leaves were due to both tyloses and gels. Numerous studies investigating
251 vascular diseases have utilized artificial inoculation of the causal pathogen and observed the
252 presence of vessel occlusions associated with decreases in hydraulic conductivity in either
253 leaves or stems (Newbanks 1983; Choat et al. 2009; Collins et al. 2009; Pouzoulet et al.
254 2017). The artificial inoculation in these studies resulted in high levels of the pathogen at the
255 same location as the observed vascular occlusions. During esca pathogenesis in naturally
256 infected vines, xylem occlusions were observed in two-year old symptomatic branches and in
257 roots, and the pathogens were detected at the same locations (Gómez et al. 2016). In the
258 current study the two vascular pathogen species associated with esca trunk necroses, *P.*
259 *chlamydospora* and *P. minimum*, were not detected in current year stems and leaves by a
260 highly sensitive qPCR assay. This result was expected but had never been formally tested in
261 the past according to the published literature. Thus, the vascular occlusions observed in
262 leaves appeared to occur at some distance from the trunk where the necroses are usually
263 observed and both of the fungal species were detected (Bruez et al. 2014, 2016; Morales-Cruz

264 et al. 2017; Massonnet et al. 2018), suggesting that vascular occlusions are caused by
265 something else other than the fungi themselves.

266

267 Light microscopy and histochemical analyses showed occlusions are associated with the
268 production of different compounds in symptomatic leaves: polysaccharides, including pectins
269 and callose. Grapevine is known to accumulate polyphenolic compounds during *P.*
270 *chlamydospora* and *Phaeoacremonium* spp. infections (Del Rio et al. 2001; Martin et al.
271 2009) and in esca symptomatic leaves (Valtaud et al. 2009; Valtaud et al. 2011; Martín et al.
272 2019). Also, it is well documented that gels are composed of pectins (Rioux et al. 1998), and
273 that parenchyma cells and tyloses accumulate pectin during vessel occlusion (Clérivet et al.
274 2000). In their review, Beckmann and Roberts (1995) proposed a strong role of callose in
275 tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) resistance to *Verticillium* spp., whereby callose xylem
276 occlusions limit the spread of the pathogen. In the current study, the presence of tyloses and
277 gels (of any chemical nature) not colocalized with pathogens suggests parenchyma cells play
278 an important and active role during esca pathogenesis, expanding into the vessel lumen,
279 secreting extracellular compounds, and eventually occluding the vessel.

280

281 Occlusions were clearly visible in partially-occluded vessels that embolized after cutting, and
282 the contact angle between the outside wall of occlusions and the inner vessel wall ranged
283 mostly from 120° to 150° (Figure 4E, 4F). This result suggests these occlusions are tyloses,
284 as water droplets expanding into the vessels present lower contact angles (McCully et al.
285 2014).

286

287 **Leaf Xylem Occlusion Occurs in Water-Filled Vessels**

288

289 There are two main theories regarding the underlying mechanisms triggering vascular
290 occlusion. Some studies have hypothesized the occlusions are always initiated by gaseous
291 embolism and require the presence of air inside the vessel to stimulate the expansion of
292 tyloses and/or the synthesis of gels (Zimmerman 1978; Canny 1997). Other studies suggest
293 gaseous embolism is not required and instead occlusion formation is stimulated by the plant
294 hormone ethylene (Perez-Donoso et al. 2006; Sun et al. 2007). Observations of samples fed
295 with iohexol (Figure 4A) demonstrated occlusions were formed in water-filled vessels,
296 suggesting gaseous embolism is not necessary to induce occlusion formation in esca
297 symptomatic leaves. In grapevine, similar occlusions in water-filled vessels were identified

298 via microCT in grape berry pedicels associated with the onset of ripening (Knipfer et al.
299 2015).

300

301 The reconstruction of longitudinal sections of these vessels also demonstrated the flow
302 pathway can be extremely reticulate, moving between adjacent vessels and around occluded
303 portions. Complex flow pathways such as these have been suggested previously by microCT-
304 based flow modeling in grape (Lee et al. 2013), but this is the first direct empirical evidence
305 supporting these models. In grape berry pedicels partial occlusions are formed at the onset of
306 ripening, yet despite a loss of conduit functionality, the pedicel hydraulic conductivity
307 remained significantly high, suggesting a similar reticulate flow pathway in that context
308 (Knipfer et al. 2015). The presence of partially-occluded vessels that still conduct water
309 around occluded portions confirms occlusions were formed in functional water-filled vessels
310 but creates difficulties with regards to interpreting images in cross section to determine vessel
311 functionality. However, partially occluded vessels were found in very low percentage (1% in
312 petioles and 8% in midribs, Supplemental Table S1) so they would not affect the loss of
313 hydraulic conductivity estimated using microCT. In the current study we show examples of
314 vessels that, when observed in a single cross section, appeared to be fully functional because
315 of the clear iohexol signal (Figure 4 B,C). However, when more comprehensive analyses of
316 the volume are made (e.g. here with >200 cross sections per microCT volume), it became
317 apparent that the iohexol signal was sometimes found in between occlusions (Figure 4A).
318 Therefore, quantifying occlusions from a limited number of cross sectional images could lead
319 to an underestimation of the number of occluded vessels (as in Perez-Donoso et al. 2016).
320 This is well-illustrated in our study where the percentage of occluded vessels in midribs of
321 symptomatic leaves was underestimated (only 19.7%) when examining a limited number of
322 light microscopy images compared to microCT image analyses. Even more problematic for
323 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and microCT studies without the use of a mobile
324 contrasting agent like iohexol, neither imaging technology appears capable of clearly
325 distinguishing between functional, water-filled vessels and non-functional vessels filled by
326 tyloses and/or gels. Only the use of robust volume analyses, in conjunction with contrasting
327 agents, such as iohexol, can identify occlusions in apparently water-filled vessels. The
328 presence of visible occlusions after cutting the sample (Figure 4E) complicates the
329 interpretation regarding the effective functionality of the vessels. These partially-occluded
330 vessels represented only a maximum of 8% of the total conductivity (Table S1) and should
331 not significantly impact the overall PLC calculation. However, we can speculate embolisms

332 form even in these partially occluded vessels because: (i) the vessel was still partially
333 functional with space between the visible occlusion and the vessel wall (e.g. in Figure 4E) yet
334 the resolution of the scan was not sufficient enough to visualize this space, (ii) the water flow
335 can “avoid” occlusions by passing through pits between vessels, or (iii) grapevine leaves are
336 able to secrete gels and tyloses in a very short period, i.e. during the few minutes between the
337 cut and the end of the scan. Since we never observed occlusions remaining in air-filled
338 vessels in asymptomatic samples, this third possibility also implies symptomatic leaves are
339 significantly more susceptible to occlusion than asymptomatic ones.

340

341 **Leaf Symptoms, Occlusion, and Hypotheses on the Pathogenesis of Esca**

342

343 Our results showed there was no significant correlation between the level of leaf necrosis and
344 the level of occluded vessels in symptomatic leaf midribs and petioles. Similarly, it has been
345 shown that during Pierce’s disease in grapevine, leaf symptoms are not correlated with the
346 presence of the bacterial pathogen (Gambetta et al. 2007). Although many symptomatic
347 leaves exhibited high levels of occlusion, many did not, and even leaves with high levels of
348 scorched area can exhibit low levels of occlusion. The absence of any relationship between
349 these variables could suggest there is no causal relationship between xylem occlusions and
350 esca leaf symptoms. However, it could have equally resulted because of the positions of our
351 observations in relation to the way leaf necrosis proceeds. The current study may have missed
352 even more significant levels of vascular occlusion localized just at the front of the leaf
353 necrosis (secondary order veins). In addition, we demonstrated *P. chlamydospora* and *P.*
354 *minimum* were not detected in the tissues of current year petioles and stems, but only in some
355 of the 2-year old branches sampled and always in the trunks of symptomatic plants. All
356 together these results demonstrate symptom development was associated with vascular
357 occlusion that are likely elicited at a distance from the pathogen niche localised in the trunk.

358

359 Hypotheses on the pathogenesis of esca largely fall into two broad categories: 1) the
360 hydraulic failure hypothesis where air embolism or vessel occlusion would disrupt the flow
361 of sap in the xylem and lead to leaf desiccation, and 2) the elicitor-toxin hypothesis where
362 elicitors/toxins produced by the pathogenic fungi or plant-derived signals move into the
363 vine’s transpiration stream inducing symptoms at a distance. The hydraulic failure hypothesis
364 has never been properly tested, but observed decreases in stomatal conductance and
365 photosynthesis in esca symptomatic leaves have been interpreted as supporting this

366 hypothesis (Petit et al. 2006; Andreini et al. 2009; Magnin-Robert et al. 2011). Some studies
367 call this into question because water-stress related genes are not overexpressed during esca
368 symptom formation (Letousey et al. 2010; Fontaine et al. 2016). The elicitor/toxin hypothesis
369 is supported by numerous works that aimed to identify phytotoxins and effectors secreted by
370 fungal pathogens associated with esca and their potential contributions in disease etiology
371 (Abou-Mansour et al. 2004; Bruno et al. 2007; Bruno and Sparapano 2006; Luini et al. 2010;
372 Masi et al. 2018). Other evidence is provided by the accumulation of antioxidant compounds
373 prior to symptom expression in leaves (Valtaud et al. 2009; Magnin-Robert et al. 2011;
374 Magnin-Robert et al. 2016). Esca pathogenesis could also involve plant-derived signals (e.g.
375 hormones, defense molecules, etc.) triggering and/or accelerating leaf senescence (Haffner et
376 al. 2015). Although esca leaf symptoms often take a form that differs from natural
377 senescence, the role of the senescence program in esca pathogenesis should be more
378 thoroughly studied in the future. Natural leaf senescence includes many of the same changes
379 (e.g. Salleo et al. 2002; Brodribb and Holbrook 2003) that occur in esca symptomatic leaves:
380 xylem vessel occlusion, decreases in stomatal conductance and photosynthesis, chlorosis, and
381 eventually shedding. Authors have also suggested a role for the senescence program in
382 Pierce's disease pathogenesis (Choat et al. 2009).

383

384 The results presented here are consistent with the hypothesis that esca pathogens are
385 restricted to the trunk and/or multi-year branches and that elicitors and/or toxins (reviewed in
386 Andolfi et al. 2011) become systematic in the plant via the transpiration stream, accumulate
387 in the canopy, and trigger a cascade of events that lead to visual symptoms. These events
388 include the production of tyloses and gels by the plant that occlude vessels, suggesting the
389 elicitor/toxin and hydraulic failure hypotheses are not necessarily mutually exclusive. This is
390 also congruent with the observation of necrosis/oxidation along the vasculature that is
391 spatially associated with leaf symptoms (Lecomte et al. 2012). The precise timing and direct
392 impact of vessel occlusion relative to symptom formation remains unclear so the current
393 study cannot determine whether occlusions lead to hydraulic failure and symptom formation,
394 or whether the observed vessel occlusion is simply a result of an early induced senescence
395 process. Future research should be aimed at exploring this sequence of events leading to leaf
396 scorch symptoms in naturally infected esca symptomatic vines in the field.

397

398 **MATERIALS and METHODS**

399

400 **Plant Material**

401

402 Grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* cv. Sauvignon blanc) plants aged 27 years old were transplanted
403 from the field into pots from a vineyard at INRA Aquitaine (44°47'24.8"N, 0°34'35.1"W).
404 The transplantation was the only method allowing the study of natural esca symptom
405 development on mature plants outside the field (greenhouse and synchrotron) and to bring the
406 plants from Bordeaux (INRA) to Paris (synchrotron SOLEIL). The experimental plot
407 included 343 plants organized in 8 rows surveyed each season before transplantation for esca
408 leaf symptom expression during the previous 5 to 6 years following Lecomte et al. (2012)
409 leaf scorch symptom description. Esca incidence in this vineyard was very high as 77% of the
410 plants (n=343 plants) presented trunks and/or leaf symptoms the summer before the plants
411 were uprooted. The presence of two vascular fungi associated with esca (*Phaeoconiella*
412 *chlamydospora* and *Phaeoacremonium minimum*) in this plot was confirmed by using qPCR
413 on the trunk of 23 symptomatic vines randomly sampled (methodology described below). To
414 reduce stressful events the plants were excavated during dormancy before bud burst in late
415 winter from the field by digging around the woody root system and attempting to preserve as
416 many of the large woody roots as possible. Following excavation the root system was
417 immersed under water overnight, and then powdered with acid indol-3-butyric to promote
418 rooting. To equilibrate the vigor of the plants and their leaf/root ratio, three to five buds per
419 arm (one per side) were left. The plants were potted in 20-l pots in fine clay medium
420 (Klasmann Deilmann substrat 4: 264) and placed indoors for two months on heating plates
421 (30°) to encourage root development before they were transferred to a greenhouse and
422 irrigated to capacity every other day under natural light. Plants were irrigated with nutritive
423 solution [0.1 mM NH₄H₂PO₄, 0.187 mM NH₄NO₃, 0.255 mM KNO₃, 0.025 mM MgSO₄,
424 0.002 mM Fe, and oligo-elements (B, Zn, Mn, Cu, and Mo)] to prevent mineral deficiencies.
425 Plants were grown in a greenhouse and exposed to natural light. Temperature and air relative
426 humidity were monitored every 30 min: average daily values corresponded to 26 ± 4 (SE) °C,
427 and 64 ± 13% (SE), respectively. Leaf predawn water potential (Ψ_{PD}) was monitored
428 regularly to ensure the plants were never water-stressed (Ψ_{PD} close to 0 MPa). The plants
429 were surveyed weekly for esca leaf symptom development from May to September. The
430 plants were noted as symptomatic when at least 50% of the canopy was presenting the tiger-
431 stripe leaf symptom, characteristic for esca (see examples of leaf symptoms in Supplemental
432 Figure S5A and entire plants in Supplemental Figure S5B). Six plants were selected (Table 3)
433 and transferred to the microCT PSICHE beamline (SOLEIL synchrotron facility, Saclay,

434 France): two control asymptomatic plants that had never expressed symptoms either during
435 the year of the experiment or the past five years, and four symptomatic plants with
436 differences in the timing of the first leaf symptom expression (6, 5, 4, and 2 weeks before the
437 experiment). Leaf symptoms (Supplemental Figure S5) were typical esca leaf symptoms for
438 Sauvignon blanc and were similar to the symptoms we observed in the experimental vineyard
439 from which the plants came. All symptomatic plants had expressed esca symptoms for at
440 least three different seasons in the past (Table 3). Asymptomatic leaves were always sampled
441 only from the control plants A1 and A2.

442

443 **MicroCT**

444

445 Synchrotron-based X-ray micro-computed tomography (microCT) was used to visualize the
446 contents of vessels in the esca symptomatic and asymptomatic leaf midribs and petioles. The
447 PSICHE beamline (Pressure Structure Imaging by Contrast at High Energy) at SOLEIL
448 synchrotron facility (Saclay, France) that is dedicated to x-ray diffraction under extreme
449 conditions (pressure-temperature) and to high energy absorption contrast tomography (20-50
450 keV) was used (King et al. 2016). During the first campaign in September 2017, one 26-year-
451 old plant presenting characteristic tiger-stripe leaf symptoms was scanned with the microCT
452 PSICHE beamline (King et al. 2016). In the second campaign, in September 2018, 5 different
453 plants of the same age (2 asymptomatic and 3 symptomatic) were brought to the same
454 facility. Intact shoots (>1.5m in length) were cut at the base under water and leaves, at least
455 1m away from the scanned leaves and scanned using a high-flux (3×10^{11} photons mm^{-2}) 25-
456 keV monochromatic X-ray beam. Midribs (n=21) and petioles (n=15) were scanned in
457 symptomatic and asymptomatic leaves (from 1 to 5 leaves per plant), then cut just above the
458 scanned area and scanned again. The projections were recorded with a Hamamatsu Orca
459 Flash sCMOS camera equipped with a 250- μm -thick LuAG scintillator for petioles and with
460 a 90- μm -thick LuAG scintillator for midribs. The complete tomographic scan included 1500
461 projections, and each projection lasted 50 ms for petioles and 200 ms for midribs. Thus, the
462 total exposure time was 75 s for petioles and 300 s for midribs. Tomographic reconstructions
463 were performed using PyHST2 software (Mirone et al., 2014) using the Paganin method
464 (Paganin et al., 2002), resulting in 32-bit volume reconstructions of 2048 x 2048 x 1024
465 voxels for petioles and 2048 x 2048 x 2048 voxels for midribs. The final spatial resolution
466 was $2.8769^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ per voxel for petioles and $0.8601^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ for midribs.

467

468 **Iohexol Contrasting Agent**

469

470 A subset of ten shoots were fed with the contrasting agent iohexol. Five symptomatic (from
471 two plants: S1 and S2 described in Table 3) and five asymptomatic shoots (from two plants:
472 A1 and A2 described in Table 3) were cut at the base under water and immediately
473 transferred to a solution containing the contrasting agent iohexol [150mM] to visualize
474 functional (*i.e.* vessels that were effectively transporting sap; Pratt and Jacobsen 2018). In
475 asymptomatic plants 5 midribs (from 3 different shoots) and 3 petioles (from 2 different
476 shoots) and in symptomatic plants, 5 midribs (from 3 different shoots) and 4 petioles (from 3
477 different shoots) were scanned. These shoots were exposed to sunlight outdoors for at least
478 half a day to permit the contrast agent to reach the leaves through transpiration. The capacity
479 and rapidity of iohexol to move was first checked by cutting leaves under water, submerging
480 them directly in iohexol solution and scanning several times each 10 min. Its capacity to
481 move up to the shoots was then checked by scanning leaves at the top. These results were not
482 coupled with the ones from intact leaf scans. In this case scans were performed at two
483 different energies, just below and just above the iodine K-edge of 33.2 keV. At 33.1 keV the
484 contrast agent presents little contrast while it presents strong contrast at 33.3 keV. The leaves
485 (17 of 35 total samples) were then analyzed in the beamline as described for the other
486 samples above.

487

488 **Image Analysis**

489

490 *Leaf Symptoms*

491

492 Scanned leaves were photographed, and the green area was calculated using G. Landini plug-
493 in threshold_color v1.15 (<http://www.mecourse.com/landinig/software/software.html>) in
494 ImageJ software (<http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij>), differentiating four color regions: red, yellow,
495 pale green, and green. The number of pixels for each region was summed to determine the
496 leaf area corresponding to each color region. To obtain a scale of symptom severity, the
497 percentage of green leaf area (relative to total leaf area) was calculated for each leaf.

498

499 *Analysis of microCT Images*

500

501 All samples (including those stained with iohexol) were analyzed in the following manner.
 502 The geometrical diameter of air- and non-air-filled vessels were measured on cross sections
 503 taken from the central slice of the microCT scanned volume using ImageJ software. For
 504 iohexol-fed samples an example of vessel identification is included in Supplemental Figure
 505 S6. The theoretical hydraulic conductivity of each vessel was calculated using the Hagen-
 506 Poiseuille equation.

507

$$[1] Kh = (\pi * \varnothing^4 * \rho) / (128 * \eta)$$

508

509 Where Kh is the theoretical hydraulic conductivity ($m^4 MPa^{-1} s^{-1}$), \varnothing is the geometrical
 510 diameter of the vessel (m), ρ is the density of water ($Kg m^{-3}$), and η the viscosity of water
 511 ($1.002 mPa s^{-1}$ at $20^\circ C$). The percentage of native embolism was calculated in the first scan,
 512 before cutting the leaf, using the following equation:

513

$$[2] Native PLC (\%) = 100 * (\Sigma Kh_{air\ filled\ vessels}) / (\Sigma Kh_{all\ vessels})$$

514

515 After a first scan the samples were cut with a clean razor blade just above the scanned area
 516 and scanned again. Cut open vessels will embolize because the xylem sap is under negative
 517 pressure. Leaf water potential (Ψ_L) measured on an adjacent leaf just after the scan indicated
 518 sufficient tension in the xylem sap to embolize in all leaves measured ($n=17$ leaves, $\Psi_L=-0.46$
 519 MPa on average). Under control conditions nearly all the xylem vessels became air-filled
 520 upon cutting (*e.g.* black vessels in Figure 1B, Supplemental Figure S1B). To estimate the loss
 521 of conductivity caused by occluded vessels (equation 3 below), the Kh of apparent water-
 522 filled vessels was calculated in the central cross section of the entire microCT volume after
 523 cutting. Vessels that did not become completely air-filled after cutting were considered
 524 occluded (*i.e.* having the same grey level after cutting as water-filled conduit before cutting).
 525 To adjust PLC (equation[3] presented below) by those vessels that appeared water-filled or
 526 air-filled only at specific points along the length of the vessel, the presence of apparent water-
 527 filled vessels and droplets was checked in at least 200 cross sectional slices in each volume;
 528 corresponding to $160 \mu m$ for midribs and $570 \mu m$ for petioles. If a particular vessel appeared
 529 water-filled in any of the 200 slices examined, this vessel was classified as partially-occluded
 530 and added to the PLC given by occlusions.

531

$$[3] Occlusion PLC (\%) = 100 * (\Sigma Kh_{occluded\ vessels} + \Sigma Kh_{partially\ occluded\ vessels}) / (\Sigma Kh_{all\ vessels})$$

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Contact Angles

To gain insight into the nature of occlusion, the contact angle between each droplet and the inner vessel wall was measured using ImageJ following McCully et al. (2014). First longitudinal slices were reconstructed from each microCT volume. Then the contact angles between each observed droplet and the vessel wall were measured in partially-occluded, air-filled vessels (n = 190 droplets from 65 partially-occluded vessels in 2 different samples).

Light Microscopy

Ten millimeter sections from midribs and petioles of 3 esca symptomatic and 3 asymptomatic leaves were cut and fixed in a solution containing 0.64% (v/v) paraformaldehyde, 50% (v/v) ethanol, 5% (v/v) acetic acid, and 44.36% (v/v) water. Samples were then dehydrated using a graded series of ethanol (50%, 70%, 85%, 95%, 100%, 100%, and 100% (v/v) for 30 min each) and embedded using a graded series of LR White resin (Agar scientific, Stansted, UK) (33%, 50%, 66% (v/v) L.R. White in ethanol solutions for 120 min. each, and 100% (v/v) LR White three times overnight). Two to 2.5 μm thick transverse sections were cut using an Ultracut S microtome (Reichert, Vienna, Austria) equipped with a glass knife. As described in Neghliz et al. (2016), the cross section was stained with different dyes. To investigate anatomical features, lignin, phenolic compounds, and polysaccharides cross sections were stained with 0.05% (w/v) toluidine blue O. Sections to be examined for polysaccharides were stained with periodic acid-Schiff's reagent. Pectins were detected by staining sections overnight with 1% (w/v) ruthenium red. Callose was revealed by staining sections overnight with 1% (w/v) lacmoid blue in 3% (v/v) acetic acid. Stained sections were dried and photographed with a RTKE camera (Spot, Sterling Heights, MI, USA) mounted on an Axiophot microscope (Zeiss, Jena, Germany) at the Bordeaux Imaging Center, member of the France Bio Imaging national infrastructure (ANR-10-INBS-04). In midribs, the image of the entire cross section was analyzed to quantify the percentage of occluded vessels (by tyloses, gels, or both) in 55 sections for symptomatic and 56 for asymptomatic midribs obtained from 6 different leaves (3 symptomatic and 3 asymptomatic). Occlusions were classified as tyloses if tylose cell walls (formed during tylosis development) were visualized within the vessel lumen (e.g. Fig. 5B) or gels if cell walls were not visualized and the vessel lumen appeared

567 totally filled (*e.g.* Fig 5A red arrows). Tyloses and gels can also be observed within the same
568 vessel (*e.g.* Fig. 5D). In some cases tyloses and gels can be difficult to distinguish if tyloses
569 filled the entire vessel lumen with a wall closely attached to the inner vessel wall, or if the
570 tyloses wall is lignified. However this uncertainty would not change the total number of
571 occluded vessels observed in the present study.

572

573 **Fungal Detection**

574

575 Presence of *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum* was assessed in different parts of
576 asymptomatic and symptomatic plants. Plants were sampled directly from the same field plot
577 as described above. In mid-august of 2018, a survey of leaf esca symptoms was conducted
578 and 6 asymptomatic and 6 symptomatic vines were selected at random. Four different
579 samples were collected for each plant: (i) petioles of three leaves located in the first 50 cm of
580 the shoot, sections of the (ii) first and (iii) fifth internodes of the third shoot on the two year-
581 old cane, and (iv) a section of the two-year old branch just basal to the third shoot (*i.e.* canes
582 trained across in the “Guyot” system). These organs were focused on as they are typically not
583 used to detect esca pathogens, which have mainly been observed in the trunk. However, to
584 control the presence of these fungi in the trunk, 23 symptomatic plants were randomly
585 sampled from the same plot by drilling 1cm at the same height in each trunk. All samples
586 were collected using ethyl-alcohol sterilized pruning shears and placed immediately in liquid
587 nitrogen. DNA extraction and qPCR analysis were conducted as previously described by
588 Pouzoulet et al. 2013, 2017, using the primer sets PchQF/R and PalQF/R. Briefly, samples
589 were lyophilized for 48h. After the bark and pith were removed from the samples (except for
590 petioles) using a sterile scalpel, samples were ground, and DNA was extracted as described
591 by Pouzoulet et al. 2013. Quantification of *P. chlamydospora* and *P. minimum* DNA by
592 qPCR (SYBR-Green assays) was conducted as described by Pouzoulet et al. 2017. Pathogen
593 DNA quantity was normalized by the amount of total DNA used as template, and the mean of
594 three technical replicates was used for further analysis.

595

596 **Statistical Analysis**

597

598 The effects of leaf symptom (A: asymptomatic, S: symptomatic), organ (midrib or petiole),
599 and their interaction on the calculated native percentage loss of hydraulic conductivity (*i.e.*
600 native PLC, %) and on the percentage loss of theoretical hydraulic conductivity due to

601 occluded vessels (*i.e.* occlusion PLC, %) was tested using PROC GLIMMIX in SAS software
602 (SAS 9.4; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). The plant was entered into models as a random
603 effect since different leaves were sometimes scanned from the same plant (from 1 to 5 per
604 plant). Proportional data (ranging from 0 to 1, dividing all PLC data by 100) was analyzed to
605 fit a logit link function and binomial distribution as appropriate. We computed pairwise least
606 squares means differences of fixed effects. The effect of symptom severity (expressed as the
607 percentage of green tissue) among symptomatic leaves on PLC was tested as described above
608 including the plant and organ as covariables (fixed effects) in the model.

609

610 SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

611

612 **Supplemental Figure S1.** Two-dimensional reconstructions of cross sections from microCT
613 volumes and optical microscopy cross sections of *V. vinifera* leaf petioles.

614

615 **Supplemental Figure S2.** Two-dimensional reconstructions of longitudinal and cross
616 sections from microCT volumes of *V. vinifera* leaf midribs.

617

618 **Supplemental Figure S3.** Two-dimensional reconstructions of longitudinal and cross
619 sections from microCT volumes for esca asymptomatic leaf midribs scanned on iohexol-fed
620 *V. vinifera* shoots.

621

622 **Supplemental Figure S4.** Light microscopy images of cross sections of esca asymptomatic
623 midribs of *V. vinifera*.

624

625 **Supplemental Figure S5.** Pictures of asymptomatic control and esca symptomatic plants of
626 *V. vinifera* cv. Sauvignon blanc.

627

628 **Supplemental Figure S6.** Method used for vessel segmentation in iohexol-fed *V. vinifera*
629 petioles.

630

631 **Supplemental Table S1** Calculated theoretical conductivity (% Kh) from microCT volumes.

632

633 **Supplemental Table S2** Quantification of not-filled and occluded vessels in histological
634 photomicrograph of *V. vinifera* midribs.

635

636

637 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

638 We thank the experimental teams of UMR SAVE and UMR EGFV (Bord'O platform, INRA,
639 Bordeaux, France) and the SOLEIL synchrotron facility (HRCT beamline PSICHE) for
640 providing the materials and logistics. We thank J. Jolivet for providing technical knowledge
641 and support for plant transplantation and B. Batailler from the Bordeaux Imaging Center for

642 providing technical support for the light microscopy sample preparation. This study was
643 conducted with financial support from the French Ministry of Agriculture (FranceAgriMer
644 and CNIV) within the PHYSIOPATH project (program “Plan National issement du
645 Vignoble”), the Cluster of Excellence COTE (ANR-10-LABX-45, within the VIVALDI and
646 DEFI projects), the programme ‘Investments for the Future’ (ANR-10-EQPX-16,
647 XYLOFOREST), and the AgreeSkills Fellowship program, which has received funding
648 from the European Union’s Seventh Framework Program under grant agreement no. FP7
649 26719 (AgreeSkills contract 688 for G.C.).

650

651

652

653 **TABLES**

654

655 **Table 1.** Effects of esca leaf symptom (asymptomatic or symptomatic), organ (midrib or
656 petiole), and their interaction on the calculated native percentage loss of hydraulic
657 conductivity due to native embolism (Native PLC, %) and on the calculated percentage loss
658 of hydraulic conductivity due to occlusions (Occlusion PLC, %). The plant was entered as a
659 random effect in the models. Statistically significant results (P -value < 0.05) are shown in
660 bold. See the text for the model specificity for each trait.

661

Response variable	Explanatory variables	F -value	P -value
Native PLC (%) n=35	Leaf symptom	1.06	0.36
	Organ	0.37	0.61
	Interaction	2.53	0.25
Occlusion PLC (%) n=35	Leaf symptom	14.32	0.02
	Organ	1.99	0.29
	Interaction	0.61	0.52

662

663

664

665 **Table 2.** Quantification by qPCR of *Phaeoconiella chlamydospore* (*P.ch*) and
 666 *Phaeoacremonium minimum* (*P.min*) (log (fg of pathogen DNA / ng of dry tissue)). High
 667 quantity of the DNA of the two pathogens was confirmed in 100% of the trunks of
 668 symptomatic plants sampled from the same vineyard (n=23, see text for details). Values
 669 represent means \pm standard error in different organs, n=sample size, Esca leaf symptom:
 670 S=symptomatic A=asymptomatic.

671

Pathogen	n	Esca	Petiole	1st internode	5th internode	Multi-year branches
<i>P.ch</i>	6	S	0	0	0	1.05 \pm 0.58 (3/6)*
<i>P.ch</i>	6	A	0	0	0	1.13 \pm 0.38 (4/6)*
<i>P.min</i>	6	S	0	0	0	1.48 \pm 0.75 (3/6)*
<i>P.min</i>	6	A	0	0	0	0.59 \pm 0.37 (2/6)*

672

*Number of samples positive for the pathogen

673

674

675

676 **Table 3** Disease history of the *V. vinifera* cv. Sauvignon blanc plants used in this study.
677 Symptom frequency over time indicates the number of years with symptoms over the 6 or 5
678 years before transplantation.
679

Plant	Year of transplantation	Symptom frequency over time (number of years)	Duration of leaf symptoms (weeks) prior to the moment of the experiment
A1	2018	0/6	0
A2	2018	0/6	0
S1	2018	4/6	2
S2	2018	6/6	4
S3	2018	5/6	6
S4	2017	5/5	5

680

681 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

682

683 **Figure 1.** Two-dimensional reconstructions of cross sections from microCT volumes of *V.*
684 *vinifera* leaves. Esca asymptomatic (**A, B**) and esca symptomatic (**C, D**) leaf midribs of *V.*
685 *vinifera* plants. After a first scan on intact leaves (**A, C**) the samples were cut (**B, D**) just
686 above the scanned area to embolize the vessels and then scanned again. Air-filled (e.g. black
687 arrows), water-filled (e.g. white arrows), and occluded (e.g. red arrows) vessels were counted
688 and their cross-sectional diameters quantified to determine the percentage loss of
689 conductivity (PLC). The PLC represented by either native embolism (**A, C**) or occluded
690 vessels (**B, D**) is given in parentheses. Scale bar = 100 μ m.

691

692 **Figure 2.** Mean native PLC in midribs and petioles of esca asymptomatic (blue) and esca
693 symptomatic (red) leaves of *V. vinifera* plants using microCT imaging. PLC was calculated
694 from the diameter of air-filled vessels in intact leaves, based on the total theoretical hydraulic
695 conductivity of each sample. Error bars represent \pm standard errors and different letters
696 represent statistically significant differences (least squares means differences of fixed effects,
697 P -value < 0.05, n=sample size).

698

699 **Figure 3.** Mean occlusion PLC in midribs and petioles of esca asymptomatic (blue) and esca
700 symptomatic (red) leaves of *V. vinifera* plants using microCT imaging. PLC was calculated
701 from the diameter of occluded vessels, based on the total theoretical hydraulic conductivity of
702 each sample. Error bars represent \pm standard errors and different letters represent statistically
703 significant differences (least squares means differences of fixed effects, P -value < 0.05,
704 n=sample size).

705

706 **Figure 4.** Two-dimensional reconstructions from microCT volumes of esca symptomatic
707 leaves of *V. vinifera*. (**A-C**) Iohexol-fed midrib viewed in a longitudinal (**A**) and cross
708 sections (**B, C**). For clarity and orientation the same three vessels are color coded and dotted
709 lines represent the location of the sections relative to each other. The contrasting agent
710 iohexol appears bright white and allows for the identification of the water transport pathway.
711 The iohexol signal can even be seen in partially-occluded vessels (e.g. white arrow).
712 Occlusions (i.e. gels or tyloses) can span the entire diameter of the vessel (red arrows) or only
713 a portion (yellow arrows). After a first scan on intact leaves (**A, B**), the sample was cut (**C**)
714 just above the scanned area and scanned again. (**D**) Longitudinal-section of a midrib with

715 completely occluded vessels; the presence of occlusions are visible (although obscure) inside
716 the vessel lumen (red arrows). (E) Longitudinal-section of an air-filled midrib (after cutting)
717 with clearly visible occlusions (red arrows). (F) Frequency distribution of the contact angles
718 between the occlusions and the vessel wall (sample size=190). Scale bars=100 μ m.

719

720 **Figure 5.** Light microscopy images of cross sections of esca symptomatic midribs of *V.*
721 *vinifera*. Cross-sections were stained with toluidine blue O (A), periodic-acid Schiff's
722 reactive (B), ruthenium red (C), and lacmoid blue (D). Red arrows indicate the presence of
723 gels filling entirely the vessel lumen while black arrows indicate the presence of tyloses in
724 vessel lumina. Scale bars = 100 μ m.

725

726 **Figure 6.** Relationship between the esca symptom severity (expressed as % green tissue per
727 leaf) and the theoretical loss of hydraulic conductivity due to occluded vessels (occlusion
728 PLC) in midribs and petioles of *V. vinifera*. Points are grouped by plant: A1, A2 (blue,
729 asymptomatic), S1-S4 (red, symptomatic). The relationship between PLC and green tissue is
730 not significant among symptomatic samples (red points, P -value=0.25).

731

732

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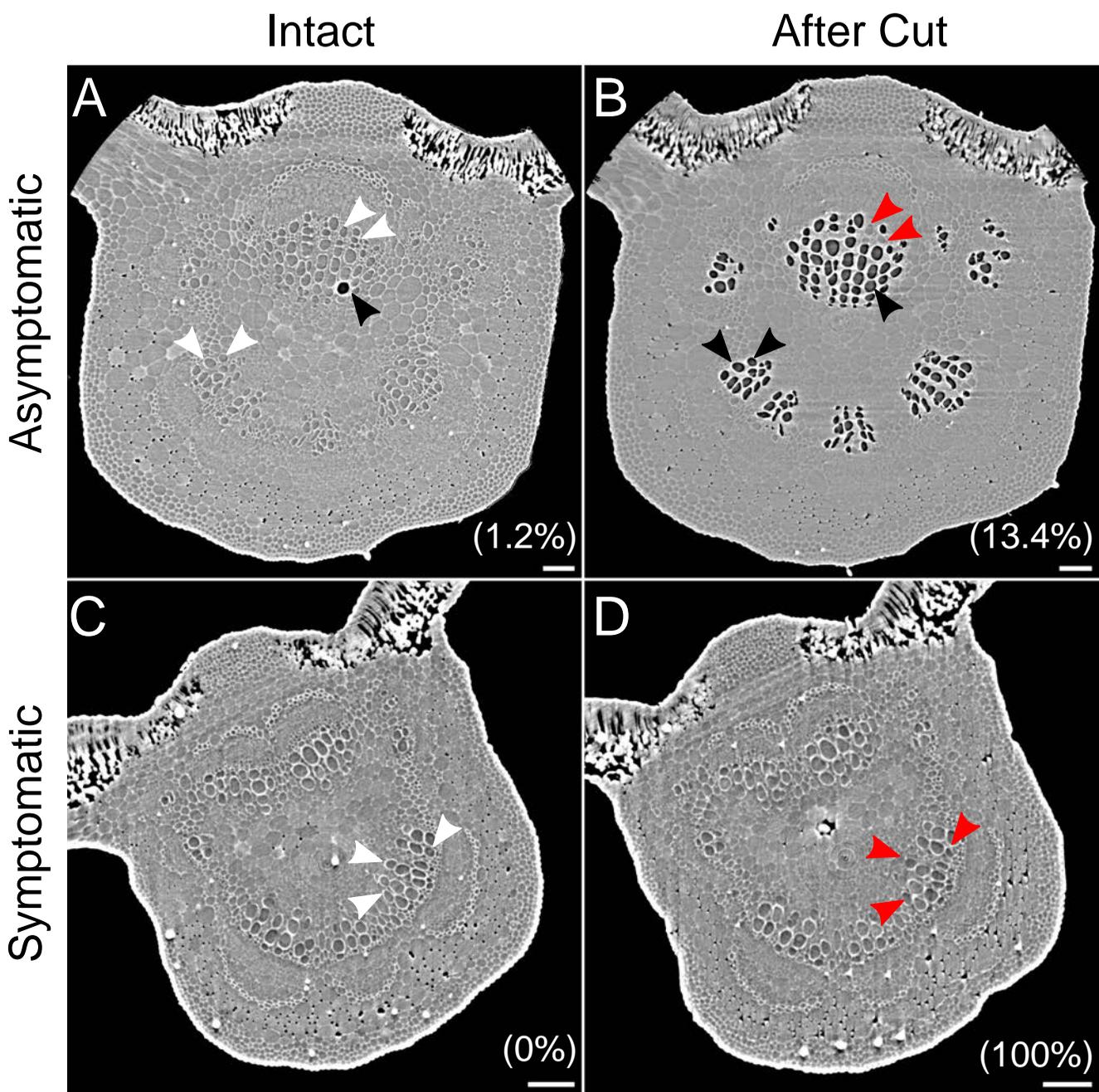


Figure 1. Two-dimensional reconstructions of cross sections from microCT volumes of *V. vinifera* leaves. Esca asymptomatic (**A**, **B**) and esca symptomatic (**C**, **D**) leaf midribs of *V. vinifera* plants. After a first scan on intact leaves (**A**, **C**) the samples were cut (**B**, **D**) just above the scanned area to embolize the vessels and then scanned again. Air-filled (e.g. black arrows), water-filled (e.g. white arrows), and occluded (e.g. red arrows) vessels were counted and their cross-sectional diameters quantified to determine the percentage loss of conductivity (PLC). The PLC represented by either native embolism (**A**, **C**) or occluded vessels (**B**, **D**) is given in parentheses. Scale bar = 100 μ m.

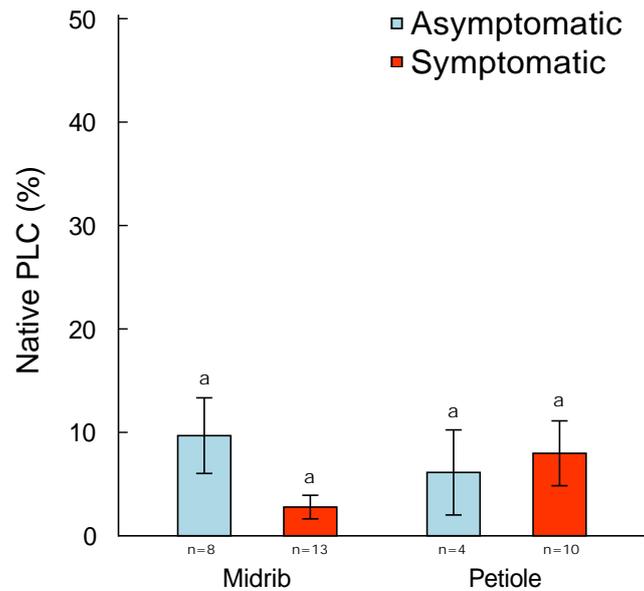


Figure 2. Mean native PLC in midribs and petioles of esca asymptomatic (blue) and esca symptomatic (red) leaves of *V. vinifera* plants using microCT imaging. PLC was calculated from the diameter of air-filled vessels in intact leaves, based on the total theoretical hydraulic conductivity of each sample. Error bars represent \pm standard errors and different letters represent statistically significant differences (least squares means differences of fixed effects, P -value $<$ 0.05, n =sample size).

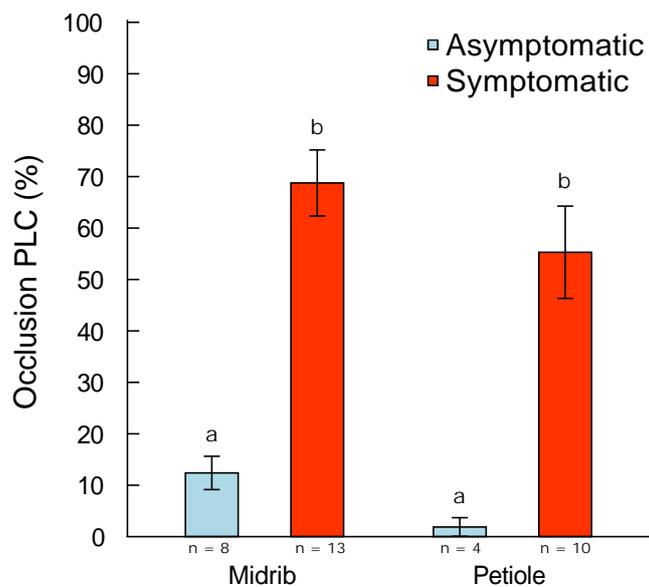


Figure 3. Mean occlusion PLC in midribs and petioles of esca asymptomatic (blue) and esca symptomatic (red) leaves of *V. vinifera* plants using microCT imaging. PLC was calculated from the diameter of occluded vessels, based on the total theoretical hydraulic conductivity of each sample. Error bars represent \pm standard errors and different letters represent statistically significant differences (least squares means differences of fixed effects, P -value $<$ 0.05, n =sample size).

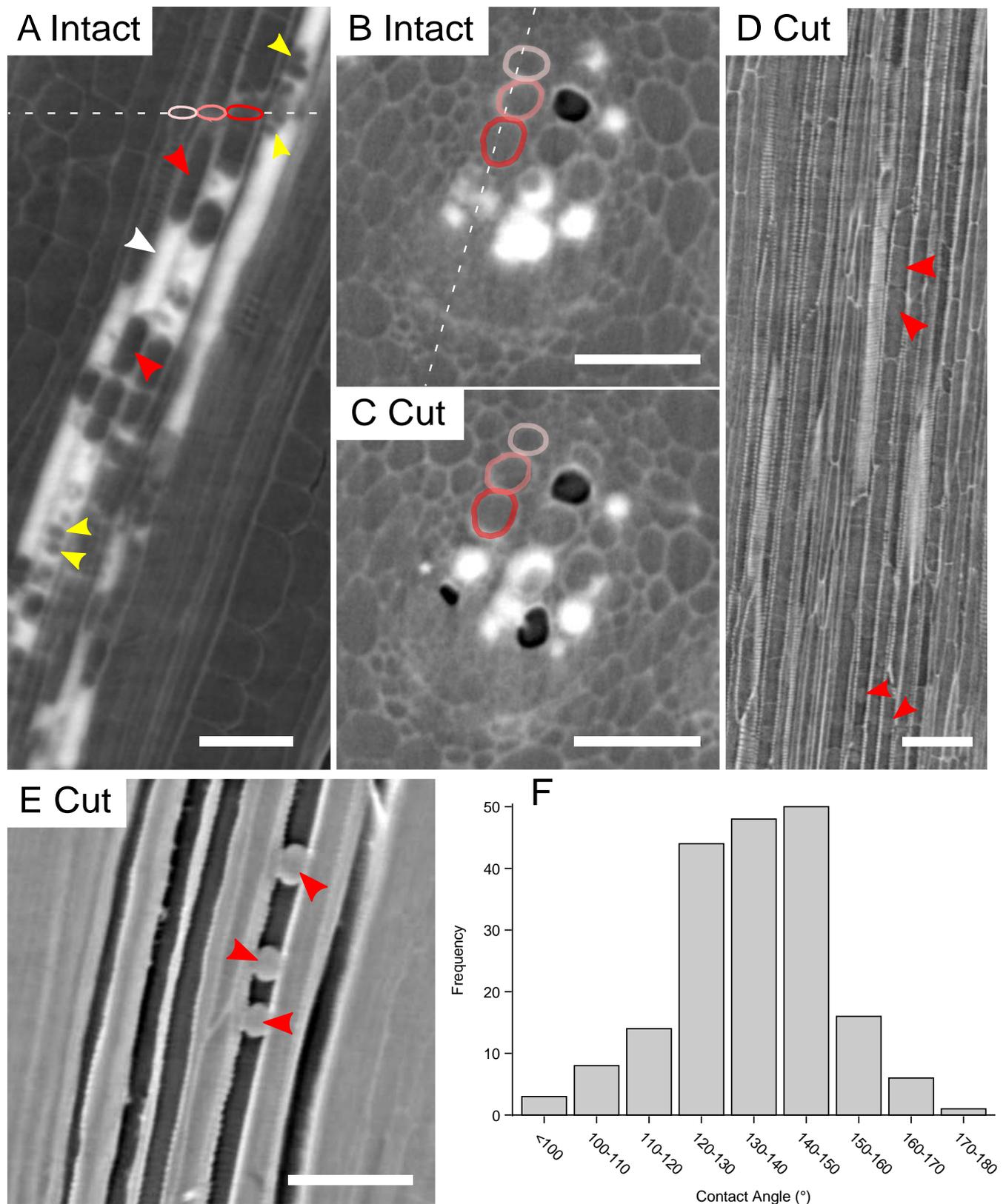


Figure 4. Two-dimensional reconstructions from microCT volumes of esca symptomatic leaves of *V. vinifera*. (A-C) Iohexol-fed midrib viewed in a longitudinal (A) and cross sections (B, C). For clarity and orientation the same three vessels are color coded and dotted lines represent the location of the sections relative to each other. The contrasting agent iohexol appears bright white and allows for the identification of the water transport pathway. The iohexol signal can even be seen in partially-occluded vessels (e.g. white arrow). Occlusions (i.e. gels or tyloses) can span the entire diameter of the vessel (red arrows) or only a portion (yellow arrows). After a first scan on intact leaves (A, B), the sample was cut (C) just above the scanned area and scanned again. (D) Longitudinal-section of a midrib with completely occluded vessels; the presence of occlusions are visible (although obscure) inside the vessel lumen (red arrows). (E) Longitudinal-section of an air-filled midrib (after cutting) with clearly visible occlusions (red arrows). (F) Frequency distribution of the contact angles between the occlusions and the vessel wall (sample size=190). Scale bars=100 μ m.

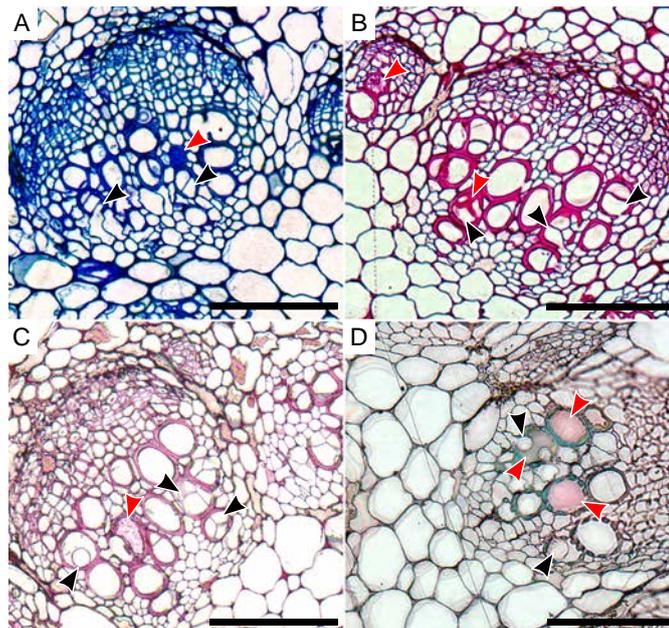


Figure 5. Light microscopy images of cross sections of esca symptomatic midribs of *V. vinifera*. Cross-sections were stained with toluidine blue O (**A**), periodic-acid Schiff's reactive (**B**), ruthenium red (**C**), and lacmoid blue (**D**). Red arrows indicate the presence of gels filling entirely the vessel lumen while black arrows indicate the presence of tyloses in vessel lumina. Scale bars = 100 μ m.

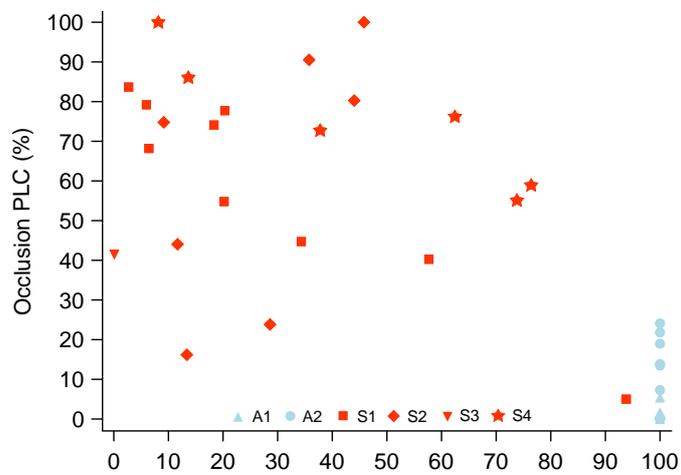


Figure 6. Relationship between the esca symptom severity (expressed as % green tissue per leaf) and the theoretical loss of hydraulic conductivity due to occluded vessels (occlusion PLC) in midribs and petioles of *V. vinifera*. Points are grouped by plant: A1, A2 (blue, asymptomatic), S1-S4 (red, symptomatic). The relationship between PLC and green tissue is not significant among symptomatic samples (red points, P-value=0.25).

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