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1 **Title**

2 Wood density variability in successive breeding populations of maritime pine.

3

4

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24

1 **Abstract**

2

3 Growth and form are the two main traits used for genetic improvement of maritime pine
4 (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.) in the Southwest of France. In this paper, we studied ring wood density
5 to answer two main questions: Is there a general trend for density variability throughout tree
6 development? Has selection indirectly reduced wood density variability over breeding
7 populations due to genetic unfavourable correlation with growth? Wood density and its
8 components were studied in three polycross tests, each representative of one of the successive
9 breeding populations. Density was measured with an X-ray densitometer on about 50 families
10 per test with more than 1900 trees.

11 A preliminary study showed that bark-to-pith ring indexing allows for a better estimation of
12 genetic effects than pith-to-bark indexing. Genetic variability of wood density appears highly
13 dependent on the year considered and no general pattern can be detected over years. Whereas
14 variability of selected traits is known to have decreased over breeding populations, no
15 significant change was found for variability of wood density.

16

17 ***Pinus pinaster* Ait. / wood density / genetic variability / breeding populations**

18

1 **Résumé**

2

3 La croissance et la rectitude sont les deux principaux critères utilisés pour l'amélioration
4 génétique du Pin maritime (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.) dans le sud-ouest de la France. Dans cet
5 article, la densité du bois a été étudiée pour répondre à deux questions principales : La
6 variabilité de la densité du bois montre-t-elle une tendance générale au cours du
7 développement de l'arbre ? La variabilité de la densité a-t-elle été modifiée indirectement par
8 la sélection en raison d'une corrélation défavorable entre la densité du bois et la croissance ?
9 La densité du bois et ses composantes ont été analysées dans trois tests polycross représentant
10 les populations d'amélioration successives. Au total environ 50 familles par test, soit plus de
11 1 900 arbres, ont été mesurées par microdensitométrie.

12 Une étude préliminaire a permis de montrer que l'annotation des cernes de l'écorce vers le
13 cœur de l'arbre permet une meilleure estimation des effets génétiques par rapport à une
14 annotation du cœur de l'arbre vers l'écorce. La variabilité génétique de la densité du bois
15 apparaît fortement dépendante de l'année considérée mais notre étude ne révèle aucune
16 tendance générale au cours des années. De plus, alors que la variabilité génétique des
17 caractères sélectionnés a diminué au cours des populations d'amélioration, aucune évolution
18 significative n'a été mise en évidence pour la variabilité de la densité du bois.

19

20 ***Pinus pinaster* Ait. / densité du bois / variabilité génétique / populations d'amélioration**

21

1 **Introduction**

2

3 Maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.) is cultivated in artificial plantations throughout the
4 southwestern part of France (Aquitaine region). Overall the cultivated area amounts today to
5 one million hectares. Every year about 20 000 ha are planted mostly with reproductive
6 material coming from second generation seed orchards. For these seed orchards, gain
7 expectations reach 30% on volume and stem straightness (GIS 2002). The maritime pine
8 breeding programme consists in a recurrent selection scheme developed since the 1960's
9 (Durel 1992; GIS 2002) to steadily maintain genetic gain and preserve diversity in the
10 breeding population. This programme has reached today its third generation including the
11 original selection of plus trees. The third generation seed orchards are now being planted.

12

13 Wood density was not taken into account in the first two generations of the breeding
14 programme, where selection was based on volume and stem straightness only. However wood
15 quality has received more and more attention (Pot et al. 2002). Among many traits involved in
16 wood quality, wood density is a trait of interest because it is positively correlated with pulp
17 yield, pulp quality and timber strength (Zobel and Jett 1995; Amstrong et al. 1984; Hatton and
18 Cook 1992).

19 Consequences of directional selection for growth on wood density can be investigated at two
20 levels: either through the successive commercial varieties or through the breeding populations
21 (a variety is constituted with the best genotypes of a breeding population). Changes in wood
22 density mean should rather be studied through the varieties because they may lead to different
23 economic benefits. On the contrary, evolution of wood density variability relates mainly to
24 breeding strategies. Therefore, it must be studied throughout the breeding populations.

1 Bouffier et al. (2008*b* submitted) foresaw a decrease up to 6 % of the average wood density in
2 the commercial varieties in comparison to unimproved varieties as a result of two main
3 causes. First, the selection on growth rate can indirectly induce a reduction of wood density if
4 those two traits are unfavourably correlated. This was observed on maritime pine even if the
5 magnitude of this correlation was found to be weak (Bouffier et al. 2008*b* submitted). Second,
6 growth rate improvement leads to the shortening of rotation age, thus increasing the juvenile
7 wood proportion in the final product (Bendtsen 1978). As juvenile wood is less dense than
8 mature wood (Zobel and Van Buijtenen 1989), whole-tree density is expected to be lower.

9

10 In this paper, we will focus on the change of genetic variability of wood density over
11 the first three breeding populations (P0, G0 and G1). For the sake of clarity, we will name:

12 (i) P0 population (the number “0” indicated the generation considered): the original
13 unimproved population (namely the Aquitaine maritime pine forest) where the
14 plus tree were initially selected.

15 (ii) G0 population: the subset of 635 “plus” trees, phenotypically selected during the
16 sixties in the P0 population. P0 and G0 belong to the same generation but G0 is a
17 subpopulation of P0 whose members follow a normally shaped distribution
18 placed to the right of the P0 distribution curve.

19 (iii) G1 population: the new breeding population of about 2 600 trees individually selected
20 within the progenies of G0 trees based on their genetic value.

21

22 Wood density variability can be described according to three references: “cambial
23 age” (cambial age at time of ring formation), “calendar year” (year of ring formation) or “tree
24 age” (age of the tree at the time of ring formation). These references are not strictly equivalent
25 because samples are always collected at breast height whereas growth rate varies among trees.

1 Most genetic studies on wood density have been done so far using cambial age as a reference
2 (Louzada and Fronseca 2002; Dungey et al. 2006; Li and Wu 2005; Hylén 1999; Kumar and
3 Lee 2002; Rozenberg and Cahalan 1997). In this contribution, we will compare the three
4 references in regards to the estimation of genetic variability.

5

6 The three main objectives of this paper are:

7 1/ to determine the best suited reference to study variability of ring density

8 2/ to describe the development of variability of ring density traits across years

9 3/ to study evolution of variability of wood density across successive breeding

10 populations.

11

1 **Materials and methods**

2

3 *Plant material*

4 Three maritime pine experimental tests were studied: Rousset, Hermitage and Pissos
5 corresponding to the progeny of three successive populations of the breeding programme,
6 respectively P0, G0 and G1. Rousset is a 30-year-old progeny test comprising 74-open-
7 pollinated families collected all over the Aquitaine forest (P0 population). The plantation at
8 Hermitage is a 29-year-old polycross test of plus trees (G0 population). The 261 mother trees
9 were crossed with a pollen mix collected on 28 trees of the G0 population. Pissos is a 12-year-
10 old polycross test of G1 trees established with 129 families; the mix of pollen was collected
11 on 20 G0 trees.

12 These three tests are arranged in randomized complete blocks design with a mean of ten-tree
13 row plots per family. Rousset and Hermitage plantations were established on a humid sandy
14 moor site and are geographically close (less than 5 km). There is only a 1 year difference
15 between the plantation dates in both sites. The Pissos plantation is more distant (about 50 km
16 far from the two other tests), and is located on dryer sandy soil. The plantation is also younger
17 and there were some differences in spacing and seedling installation (Table 1).

18

19 *Tree measurements*

20 All the trees of the three studied tests were measured at about 11 years old (10, 12 and
21 11 years old for, respectively Rousset, Hermitage and Pissos) which is about the selection
22 age. Two growth traits - total height (H) and girth at breast height (D) – and stem deviation to
23 verticality (S) were measured.

24

25

1 *Wood density measurements*

2 A random sub-sample of the trees from each test was measured for wood density.
3 From 44 to 51 families, chosen at random, were sampled per test with a mean of 14 trees per
4 family (Table 1). In winter 2004, one increment core was collected in each tree at breast
5 height from pith to bark with a 5 mm diameter increment borer. In fact we often sampled
6 several times the same tree to collect a core including the pith or close to it. Samples were cut
7 to a constant thickness of 2 mm using a double blade saw and then resins were removed by
8 soaking the core into pentane during 24 hours. The wood density was measured using an
9 indirect-reading X-ray densitometer (Polge 1966). The radial density profile was then
10 obtained by analysing the scanned images (one density measurement is collected every
11 25.4 μm) with Windendro (Guay et al. 1992). Ring limits were automatically determined,
12 then manually checked and corrected using this software.

13
14 From the density profile, we calculated the following traits of interest per ring:

- 15 - ring width (RW)
- 16 - ring density (RD)
- 17 - earlywood density (EWD)
- 18 - latewood density (LWD)
- 19 - latewood proportion (LWP)

20 The criterion used to separate earlywood from latewood was calculated for each ring as the
21 average between maximum and minimum ring density (Nicholls et al. 1980; Vargas-
22 Hernandez and Adams 1992; Kumar and Lee 2002).

23 The analyses were first performed based on annual ring data and then on cumulative data. As
24 rings near the bark represent a higher volume than those closer to the pith, RD was obtained

1 with a weighted mean: each density data was weighted by its respective cross-sectional area
2 (Louzada 2003).

3

4 *Statistic model*

5 Genetic analyses of Rousset, Hermitage and Pissos tests allowed us to estimate the
6 genetic parameters of populations P0, G0 and G1 respectively. The following linear mixed
7 model was used for estimation of genetic parameters:

8
$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + B_i + F_j + B \times F_{ij} + e_{ijk}$$

9 where Y_{ijk} is the phenotypic individual observation, μ the general mean, B_i the block effect
10 and F_j the family effect. B was considered as fixed effect, while F and $B \times F$ were treated as
11 random effects.

12 A variance is fitted for each random effect: σ_F^2 the additive variance, $\sigma_{B \times F}^2$ the variance for
13 bloc \times family interactions and σ_e^2 the residual variance.

14 Estimates of phenotypic variance ($\hat{\sigma}_p^2$) and additive genetic variance ($\hat{\sigma}_A^2$) were obtained
15 from:

16
$$\hat{\sigma}_p^2 = \hat{\sigma}_F^2 + \hat{\sigma}_{B \times F}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_e^2$$

17
$$\hat{\sigma}_A^2 = 4 \times \hat{\sigma}_F^2$$
 because families are maternal half-sibs

18

19 Annual ring data can be considered as “longitudinal data” as each year’s density
20 record is a new measurement of the same tree (Apiolaza et al. 2000; Apiolaza and Garrick
21 2001). A longitudinal analysis was thus first performed with the annual ring density values.
22 Several structures of covariance were considered for random effects. Indeed the most
23 parameterised model is not necessarily the most appropriate: the accuracy of the parameter
24 estimates decreases with the number of covariance components considered. We modelled

1 different covariance structures (Apiolaza and Garrick 2001) and the best model was
2 determined with the Akaike's Information Criterion (Wada and Kashiwagi 1990). A banded
3 correlation structure for additive genetic effects was found to be the more appropriate (data
4 not shown). Nevertheless, in our case, these longitudinal analyses can hardly be applied to
5 long time series, as convergence of the likelihood is seldom attained when the number of
6 variables exceeds 5. This prevented us from studying the yearly variation of genetic variation
7 over long periods of time. Furthermore, we compared univariate analyses with longitudinal
8 analyses and found that estimates of genetic variances were of similar magnitude. Finally,
9 although longitudinal analysis were done for each test, but using only the data of 5 years, we
10 will present exclusively the results of univariate analyses, as they allowed to cover the whole
11 time range (from 4 to 30 years).

12

13 All analyses were conducted with the restricted maximum-likelihood method and
14 standard errors estimating by a standard Taylor series approximation using the software
15 ASReml (Gilmour et al. 2002).

16

17 *Variability parameters*

18 Variability of growth and wood density traits were first estimated ring by ring and then
19 on cumulative data. We considered the additive genetic and phenotypic coefficients of
20 variation (\hat{CV}_A and \hat{CV}_P) and individual heritability (\hat{h}^2), defined as follow:

$$21 \quad \hat{CV}_A = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_A(X)}{\bar{X}} \quad \hat{CV}_P = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_P(X)}{\bar{X}} \quad \hat{h}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_A^2}{\hat{\sigma}_P^2}$$

22 where \bar{X} is the mean of the studied trait for the test considered.

23 The comparison of the variability between years or between populations makes sense because
24 the parameters considered are standardized estimates of variability.

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Ring indexing

Rings were first numbered according to three references (Figure 1):

- from pith to bark which corresponds to the “cambial age” reference (cambial age = 1 for the first ring from the pith)
- from bark to pith which corresponds either to the “calendar year” reference (calendar year = 2004 for the first ring from the bark) or “tree age” reference (tree age = 12 for the first ring from the bark on the example of Figure 1).

In this article, ring indexing refers to the way rings are numbered (“bark-to-pith” or “pith-to-bark”) and the reference (“cambial age”, “calendar year” or “tree age”) is the label chosen for the year of ring formation.

The first ring from the pith was systematically removed from the analysis because it was often incomplete.

In a preliminary study we attempted to identify the most suitable reference in regards to the objective of the study. We consider that the reference most suitable for our study is the one which minimizes the residual coefficient of variation \hat{CV}_R :

$$\hat{CV}_R = \frac{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_P^2 - \hat{\sigma}_A^2}}{\bar{X}}$$

CV_R of RD has been estimated, ring by ring, in each test, considering bark-to-pith and pith-to-bark indexing. Differences between annual estimations obtained with each index were tested with an analysis of variance performed on the three tests. Prior to performing these analyses, normality distribution of CV_R was verified with the Shapiro-Wilk test ($W = 0.99$, p -value = 0.53).

1 **Results**

2

3 *1/ Comparison of genetic variation according to ring indexing*

4 Mean ring density was plotted versus “cambial age” (Figure 2a), “calendar year”
5 (Figure 2b) and “tree age” (Figure 2c) for the three tests analysed. The yearly variation of
6 wood density is lower when indexing from pith to bark (“cambial age” reference) compared
7 to the bark-to-pith indexing (references “calendar year” and “tree age”). Furthermore annual
8 density curves exhibit exactly the same pattern whether indexed by “calendar year” or “tree
9 age”; the only difference is their relative position. Indeed as the ring numbering was done
10 here in the same way (from bark to pith), the annual data gather the same rings for a given
11 test, and for a single-test analysis will result in exactly the same genetic parameters.

12 We further analysed the data to identify the most reliable indexing method for
13 estimating genetic variation and heritability. The analysis of variance displays a significant
14 “index” effect on CV_R (p-value = 0.01). Annual CV_R of RD is thus significantly lower when
15 considering bark-to-pith indexing rather than pith-to-bark indexing (7.7 % vs. 8.5 %). Table 2
16 shows that, regardless of the test considered, the lower residual variation for bark-to-pith
17 indexing contributes to higher heritability values. However this difference is not significant
18 considering the standard errors of the estimates.

19 Thus the comparison of ring indexing based on CV_R analysis suggests to favour bark-
20 to-pith indexing. In this case, two references are still possible: “calendar year” or “tree age”.
21 The reference “calendar year” would be most appropriate when the research question has to
22 do with climatic factors. For example, one could investigate climate data for the years 1994
23 and 1995 where respectively, a sharp increase in density followed by a sharp decrease in
24 density were observed at Rousset and Hermitage (Figure 2b). In this study, the question has to
25 do with genetic variation in different populations at the same stage of development. For

1 example, we wish to compare patterns observed through age 12 at Pissos (G1) with the
2 patterns observed at Rousset (P0) and Hermitage (G1). The reference “tree age” (Figure 2c) is
3 then more appropriate here.

4

5 *2/ Annual variation of genetic parameters of wood density components*

6 Wood density variability was first studied within each test considering annual ring
7 data based on the “tree age” reference.

8 Heritability of RD (Figure 3) and its components (Figure 4) were estimated for each
9 tree age. Whatever the test considered, annual heritabilities for RD are moderate to high: the
10 mean values are 0.47, 0.21 and 0.43 respectively for Rousset, Hermitage and Pissos. EWD
11 shows higher heritability values than LWD and but similar values to RD. LWP shows
12 moderate heritabilities (between 0.1 and 0.4). Standard errors of heritability estimates range
13 from 0.11 to 0.18.

14 To study more precisely the variability of wood density, the phenotypic and additive
15 genetic variability was also investigated. Variance components were expressed in terms of
16 coefficients of variation to avoid confounding scale effects (Vargas-Hernandez et Adams
17 1992; Kumar and Lee 2002). The mean annual CV_P of RD is 10.2 %, 9.6 %, 8.9 % and the
18 mean annual CV_A is 6.2 %, 4.2 % and 5.7 % for Rousset, Hermitage and Pissos, respectively.
19 Mean standard error of genetic coefficient of variation is 1.6%.

20 High inter annual variations can be observed within a test whatever the parameter
21 considered. For example, heritability of RD estimated at Rousset varies from 0.18 at tree age
22 11 to 0.82 at tree age 20. No general pattern across tree development arises from the analysis
23 of annual variability of wood density and its components.

24

25 *3/ Variability of wood density and growth between successive breeding populations*

1 Variability between breeding populations was compared based on cumulative traits
2 (Figure 5 and Table 3).

3 The variability parameters for cumulative RD and RW (Figure 5) are much more
4 stable from one year to another compared to those based on annual data and described
5 previously. RD heritability tends to increase during the first years and then stabilizes; at
6 Hermitage a slight decrease is observed from tree age 10 to 15. RW heritability appears stable
7 over tree age. Phenotypic variability of RW and RD is similar among tests, except Pissos
8 which displays a lower CV_P for RW. Genetic variability estimated with h^2 and CV_A shows
9 differences between tests.

10

11 Additive genetic variability can be compared between Rousset and Hermitage until
12 tree age 29. Rousset exhibits higher genetic variability for both RW and RD. The comparison
13 of the three tests can be done only until tree age 12. We thus summarized the variability
14 values estimated on cumulative data at tree age 12 in Table 3. Rousset displays the highest
15 CV_A for RW followed by Pissos then Hermitage. For RD, Rousset and Pissos have the same
16 level of genetic variability ($CV_A = 5.5\%$) which is higher than the one at Hermitage
17 ($CV_A = 4.2\%$). Nevertheless, based on the standard errors, differences for genetic variability
18 between tests are not significant ($p > 0.05$ with Z-test).

19

1 **Discussion**

2

3 *1/ Comparison of genetic variation according to ring indexing*

4

5 Ring indexing is an important issue for wood density analyses as the annual ring
6 population considered for analyses depends on the choice of the index.

7 Bark-to-pith ring indexing appears to be more appropriated to study genetic variability
8 than pith-to-bark indexing as residuals of genetic analyses are significantly reduced. Similar
9 results were found in other softwood species (Rozenberg, unpublished data). The standard
10 errors of the mean heritability per test are high because very different annual values are
11 mixed. As a consequence, even if the mean heritability is higher with bark-to-pith indexing
12 compared to pith-to-bark indexing, this difference is not significant. In this article, we will
13 thus index rings from bark to pith.

14 Two references can be considered when indexing from bark to pith: “calendar year” or
15 “tree age”. When all trees have the same age, these references are equivalent: a specific
16 “calendar year” corresponds to a specific “tree age”. When data comprises tests established at
17 different years, the choice of the reference is important. If the study focuses on the year effect,
18 the “calendar year” reference has to be considered in order to compare ring populations
19 gathered depending on the year. In this study, the “tree age” reference is more suitable as we
20 aim to compare variability depending on tree development and on the breeding population.
21 For example, a comparison of wood density, between the three tests studied at tree age 12, is
22 equivalent to a comparison realized with increment cores collected when the tests were 12.

23

24 To best understand the difference between pith-to-bark and bark-to-pith indexing,
25 Figure 6a displays the different calendar years obtained for the cambial age 2; and Figure 6b

1 the different cambial ages obtained for the calendar year 2004. The growth recorded for one
2 particular cambial age (Figure 6a) has been achieved by trees in 3 different calendar years at
3 Rousset and Hermitage (corresponding to respectively 91% and 86% of the samples) and in 2
4 calendar years at Pissos (corresponding to 99% of the samples). Figure 6a and Figure 6b are
5 symmetric, except that some samples have no 2004 ring (the last ring before the bark) because
6 it was incomplete and thus removed from the analysis. Nevertheless, calendar age can be
7 attributed to these samples since some years show a very specific density profile.

8 The cambial age has a “smooth effect” on wood density (meaning not very different for very
9 close cambial ages) whereas year effect can be completely different from year to year
10 depending on the annual climate. This can be clearly visualised, for example, on rings 1994
11 and 1995 at Rousset and Pissos (Figure 2b): the high density difference between these two
12 rings cannot be explained by the cambial age effect, since this effect is minimum between two
13 successive rings, but rather by the year effect i.e. climatic conditions. As a consequence, bark-
14 to-pith indexing mixes rings with similar density (because of neighbouring cambial ages)
15 whereas pith-to-bark indexing mixes rings with highly different density (because of different
16 years). Thus, genetic analyses with pith-to-bark indexing display higher residuals as they
17 contain high variability due to year effect.

18 When analysing plantations where all trees were established at the same time, cambial age
19 and calendar year effects can not be considered together in a statistical model because they
20 would be partially confounded and the data highly unbalanced. The only way to obtain
21 balanced data aiming to correctly separate and estimate these two effects would be to sample
22 trees in a genetic design in which trees have been planted at different times. This kind of
23 experimental design is very cumbersome to establish and to manage over several years as
24 competition for light would be generated by the age differences of trees.

25

1 Bark-to-pith indexing is also more suitable for a technical reason. As it is very difficult
2 to sample the pith while collecting a core with an increment borer, the cambial age of the
3 most internal ring has often to be estimated, while the year of the most external ring (the ring
4 immediately under the bark) is precisely defined by the collection date. This difficulty is
5 generally increased with the asymmetry of the rings due to lack of stem straightness (a
6 common defect of Landes maritime pine), and also with tree age. 10 to 20 % of the increment
7 cores from the two older tests (Rousset and Hermitage) did not sample the pith whereas
8 almost all cores from Pissos did. As a consequence, Figure 6a displays, for cambial age 2,
9 eight calendar years at Rousset and Hermitage against four at Pissos.

10

11 Although “cambial year” reference is more often used in the literature (see
12 introduction), bark-to-pith indexing has also been chosen in several papers (Vargas-
13 Hernandez and Adams 1992; Costa e Silva et al. 1994; Fries and Ericsson 2006; Fujimoto et
14 al. 2006). Authors never clearly justified their choice. Our results demonstrate the relevancy
15 of choosing bark-to-pith indexing for variability studies. When several tests are considered,
16 reference has to be chosen depending on the goal of the study: “calendar year” to focus on
17 climate year effect or “tree age” to focus on tree development effect.

18

19 *2/ Estimation of genetic variability of wood density over tree age*

20

21 *Variability estimated with annual data*

22 Louzada and Fronseca (2002), also working on maritime pine, found higher annual
23 heritabilities for ring density (between 0.53 and 0.74) than in our study. Nevertheless a similar
24 trend was observed between the wood components; indeed, earlywood is much more heritable
25 than latewood and latewood proportion shows intermediate values.

1 Genetic variability of wood density and its components shows no particular trend over
2 age and appears highly variable depending on the year. Phenotypic variability is less variable
3 but still no pattern arises. The important variation displayed by annual estimates can be
4 explained by annual climate differences. As Rousset and Pissos are two tests very close, they
5 have identical climate influence. We thus expected the same trend if ring traits were studied
6 with the calendar year reference. We effectively found a significant positive correlation for
7 phenotypic variability whatever the trait considered: the Pearson coefficient between the CV_P
8 of Rousset and Hermitage is 0.51 (p-value = 0.01), 0.71 (p-value < 0.001) and 0.67 (p-
9 value < 0.001) for RD, EWD and LWD, respectively (Figure 7). On the contrary, annual
10 coefficients of genetic variation were not correlated between these two tests

11 The absence of annual trend found in the literature on various conifer species also highlights
12 the major role of the environmental influence rather than tree age influence. For example,
13 Fries and Ericsson (2006) found no age trend for heritability on the 10 outer annual rings in a
14 30-year-old progeny test of Scots pine analysed with an individual tree model. This study was
15 performed on rings indexed from bark to pith; the references cited hereafter, and conducted
16 using pith-to-bark indexing, present similar results.

17 Zamudio et al. (2002), Li and Wu (2005) and Dungey et al. (2006) estimated heritability of
18 density components across successive cambial ages in radiata pine: no congruent trend was
19 found among these studies, neither for the level of heritability nor for the yearly trend of
20 heritability variation.

21 In *Pinus elliotti* (slash pine), Hodge and Purnell (1993) estimated moderate heritability values
22 ($h^2 \approx 0.2$) for the rings near the pith (rings 3-4) and for the rings composed of mature wood
23 (rings 11-13) while intermediate rings showed slightly lower heritabilities ($h^2 \approx 0.10 - 0.15$).

24 Hysten (1999) found large differences of heritability values of RD (from non significant to
25 0.49) between cambial ages in *Picea abies* (Norway spruce) with no particular trend.

1

2 *Variability estimated with cumulative data*

3 Wood density variability of maritime pine was first studied using basic density:
4 estimations of heritability on several rings of young trees varied from 0.40 to 0.75 (Keller
5 1973; Polge and Illy 1968; Nepveu 1973). More recently, Pot et al. (2002) studied X-ray
6 density and found a heritability of 0.30 on several rings of 14 years old maritime pines. Our
7 values fall within this range.

8 Variability analyses based on cumulative data show less variation over age. The main trend
9 observed is an increase of wood density heritability in juvenile wood despite a slight decrease
10 between tree age 10 and 15 at Hermitage. No major trend for genetic variability of density
11 over years was found. Two previous studies, carried out on cumulative density data based on
12 bark-to-pith indexing, showed an increase of overall wood density heritability with age
13 (Fujimoto et al. 2006; Vargas-Hernandez and Adams 1992). The trend was explained by a
14 decrease of environmental variability while additive variance remained stable over ages.
15 Studies indexing rings from pith-to-bark also found an increase of wood density heritability
16 (Hysten 1999; Kumar and Lee 2002) whereas for others no obvious trend was highlighted (Li
17 and Wu 2005; Gwaze et al. 2002).

18

19 *3/ Comparison of genetic parameters of wood density and growth between successive*
20 *breeding populations*

21

22 Bouffier et al. (2008a submitted) studied variability for growth traits in three
23 populations of the French maritime pine programme: P0 (the Aquitaine forest), G0 (the plus
24 trees) and G1 (the selected trees in the G0 progenies). Based on several tests per population,
25 they found a significant reduction of genetic variability in G0 compared to the unimproved P0

1 population as a consequence of selection on growth traits. In the two successive improved
2 populations, G0 and G1, no significant evolution was observed, most likely because the
3 accuracy of the estimates was not sufficient to detect slight changes. Similarly, King et al.
4 (1998) reported no evolution of variability between two breeding populations of *Pinus radiata*
5 equivalent to the ones we referred to as G0 and G1.

6 In this study, the three tests analysed for wood density allow to compare estimates of
7 genetic variability among these three breeding populations. Indeed, genetic parameters of P0
8 were estimated with Rousset, a progeny test from random trees of the Aquitaine forest.
9 Hermitage is a progeny test of G0 trees and Pissos of G1 trees, thus the analyses of these tests
10 estimate the genetic variability for G0 and G1 populations.

11 Comparisons between wood density means over breeding populations could be
12 hazardous in our present study because only one test per population was studied, hence
13 confounding both test effect and population effect. Genetic variability can be more easily
14 compared because we used standardized parameters (heritability and coefficients of
15 variation). For comparative purposes, genetic variance is more appropriately standardized by
16 trait mean than by phenotypic variance (Houle 1992); we will thus focus our analysis on
17 coefficient of additive variation rather than heritability.

18 As expected, the genetic variability of growth traits is lower for selected populations
19 (G0 and G1 estimated with tests Hermitage and Pissos) than for the unimproved P0
20 population (estimated with Rousset), based on cumulative RW analysis. Nevertheless, the
21 increase of genetic variability for RW between G0 and G1 is unexpected as it has been shown
22 on a large data set (Bouffier et al. 2008a submitted) that variability is stable for growth traits
23 between these populations. Regarding wood density, the genetic variability is more similar
24 between tests, suggesting no strong evolution throughout breeding populations. However, due
25 to large standard errors, the evolution of genetic variability must be analysed cautiously.

1 Genetic variability of a trait can be modified in breeding population undergoing
2 selection in two different ways: through indirect selection if this trait is negatively correlated
3 with a selected trait or through population size reduction.
4 It has been shown that correlations between wood density and selected traits (even weak
5 compared to the standard errors, see Table 4) have significantly decreased wood density in the
6 commercial varieties (Bouffier et al. 2008b submitted). These correlations did probably not
7 change the variability of wood density throughout the breeding populations because the
8 selection intensity is lower in breeding populations than in varieties. Moreover the status
9 number of the G1 population is about 100, which is assumed to be high enough to maintain
10 variability (White 1992).

11

12 4/ Conclusion

13

14 Our analysis of three maritime pine progeny tests, gathering nearly 2 000 trees,
15 provides answer the questions addressed in the introduction.

16 - The genetic variability of wood density is better estimated when the rings are
17 indexed from bark to pith rather than from pith to bark.

18 - No general pattern arises over years for annual genetic variability of wood density. It
19 appears that the climatic year plays a greater role to explain the magnitude of genetic
20 variability compared to the tree development stage.

21 - Directional selection on growth had no detectable effect on genetic variability of
22 wood density throughout the breeding populations. This is of first concern as wood quality
23 gets more and more importance. Wood density can thus be improved in the future without
24 changing the current composition of the breeding population.

25

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2

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