



## 2 **Histological Study of Leaf Galls Induced by Phylloxera in *Vitis*** 3 **(*Vitaceae*) Leaves**

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8 **Abstract** The galls induced by hemipterans generally  
9 show hypertrophy of the phloem; these insects usually feed  
10 on the sap in the sieve tube elements, occasioning phloem  
11 bundle hypertrophy. However, there are some exceptions;  
12 for example, the phylloxerids feed on the gall wall par-  
13 enchyma. It has remained unknown, however, whether  
14 *Daktulosphaira vitifoliae* (the vine phylloxera) also causes  
15 hypertrophy of the phloem bundles. The galls induced by  
16 *D. vitifoliae* in leaves of the rootstock variety Richter-110

(*Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis rupestris*) were examined 17  
microscopically. *D. vitifoliae* was found capable of 18  
inducing vascular bundle hypertrophy, as well as the 19  
nutritional enrichment of the gall wall parenchyma cells 20  
upon which the insect feeds. The hypertrophy of the 21  
phloem bundles commonly seen in hemipteran-induced 22  
leaf galls also occurs in those induced by *D. vitifoliae*, even 23  
though these do not feed on the phloem contents, but rather 24  
on the gall wall parenchyma. The appearance of phloem 25  
bundle hypertrophy in hemipteran-induced leaf galls 26  
requires the remobilization of photoassimilates that might 27  
affect the productivity of the affected plant. 28

A1 **Significance Statement** Even though *D. Vitifoliae* do not feed on  
A2 vascular bundles, they are capable of inducing their hypertrophy,  
A3 indicating that direct feeding activity is not the only stimulus  
A4 responsible for alterations in host plant development. The  
A5 hypertrophy of vascular bundles means a major flow of  
A6 photoassimilates to hemipteran-induced leaf galls, which are  
A7 competitive sinks, affecting the growth and productivity of affected  
vines.

29  
30 **Keywords** *Daktulosphaira vitifoliae* · Galls ·  
31 Phylloxeridae · Hemiptera · Richter-110

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## 32 Introduction

33 Some organisms, including bacteria, viruses, fungi, nema- 83  
 34 todes, mites and insects [1] are able to alter the growth of 84  
 35 plant tissues to induce galls. Galls originate via the redif- 85  
 36 ferentiation of distinct cell types and/or the hypertrophy 86  
 37 and hyperplasia of the host organs [1]. The most complex 87  
 38 galls are produced by insects, and show constant morpho- 88  
 39 logical characteristics depending on the inducing species;  
 40 indeed, galls are used in their taxonomic study [2]. The  
 41 adaptive value of galls is mainly associated with the  
 42 feeding of the inducing organism, although the shelter they  
 43 provide from both the environment and natural enemies  
 44 may also be important [3–5]

45 The feeding behaviour of gall-inducing insects is a  
 46 determining factor in the neoformations induced in the host  
 47 tissue [6]. For example, the galls induced by phloem-  
 48 sucking insects are different from all others. The phloem  
 49 sap is a common food source for gall-inducing hemipter-  
 50 ans, and the galls they produce show hypertrophy of the  
 51 phloem bundles [6–8]. In contrast, insects that feed by  
 52 chewing and scraping plant material induce the differen-  
 53 tiation of typical nutritive cells in their galls, upon which  
 54 they actively feed [6, 9]. The nutritive cells of these galls  
 55 typically have a dense cytoplasm, one or more small vac-  
 56 uoles, one or more prominent nuclei, and they accumulate  
 57 nutritive substances such as lipids, soluble sugars and/or  
 58 proteins [9] but they do not usually possess amyloplasts.  
 59 “Nutritive-like tissues” containing starch may, however,  
 60 be observed in hemipteran-induced galls, although these  
 61 are not the direct food source sought [6].

62 Amongst the hemipterans, the superfamilies Psylloidea  
 63 and Aphidoidea are very diverse [1]. The galls they induce  
 64 form through leaf rolling, folding of the leaf margin, and  
 65 the appearance of globose structures on the leaf blade  
 66 [2, 10, 11], involving an organization of the tissues dif-  
 67 ferent to that seen in the gall-free areas of leaves  
 68 [2, 7, 10–13]. However, the galls induced are structurally  
 69 similar and show hypertrophy of entire vascular bundles  
 70 with accumulations of soluble sugars in the phloem cells  
 71 and those close to the gall chamber [6, 14]. The members  
 72 of Adelgidae and Phylloxeridae, however, feed on the gall  
 73 wall parenchyma [15–18]. Raman et al. [19] indicate that  
 74 during the early stages of the growth of galls produced by  
 75 *Daktulosphaira vitifoliae* (vine phylloxera), cells with  
 76 cytological features of nutritive cells differentiate. These  
 77 authors also reported them to show increased concentra-  
 78 tions of starch and lipids.

79 It has remained unsure, however, whether, in addition to  
 80 inducing the differentiation of nutritive tissues, phylloxera  
 81 also causes the hypertrophy of the phloem bundles seen in  
 82 other hemipteran-induced galls. The fact that phylloxera

83 does not feed directly from the sieve tubes suggests such  
 84 hypertrophy may not occur. The present work reports a  
 85 histological examination of the leaf galls induced by this  
 86 organism in Richter-110 (*Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis rupes-*  
 87 *tris*) rootstock leaves and compares them with those made  
 88 by sap-feeding insects.

## 89 Material and Methods

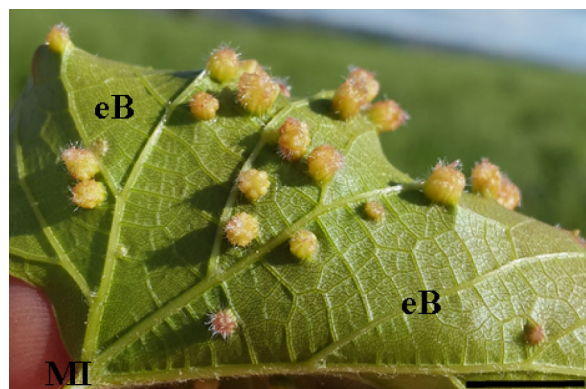
### 90 Plant Material and Plot Characteristics

91 Leaves ( $n = 4$ ) of Richter-110 rootstock plants ( $n = 4$ )  
 92 showing galls induced by *D. vitifoliae* (Fig. 1) were col-  
 93 lected in the summer of 2015 from the La Rioja wine-  
 94 producing region in Spain. Control leaves ( $n = 4$ ) without  
 95 galls were obtained from the same plants.

### 96 Sampling Methods and Variables Measured

97 Fragments of plant material were fixed in formaldehyde-  
 98 acetic acid-ethyl alcohol (1:1:18), embedded in paraffin  
 99 wax, and the blocks transversally sectioned to 12  $\mu\text{m}$  in a  
 100 rotary microtome. Sections were stained with safranin  
 101 O/fast green for general viewing, or with lugol for the  
 102 detection of starch. Yet others were mounted unstained for  
 103 epifluorescence microscopy. All slides were examined  
 104 using a Nikon E600 microscope in light field, polarizing or  
 105 epifluorescence mode. Samples were also prepared for  
 106 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) by dehydration in an  
 107 increasing alcohol series followed by air-drying and gold  
 108 coating. Observations were made using a JEOL JSM-  
 109 6480LV SEM.

110 Images were taken of the different preparations.  
 111 AxioVision<sup>®</sup> software was used to measure the diameter of



eB - abaxial epidermis; MI - midrib (Scale bar = 1 cm).

**Fig. 1** Galls induced by phylloxera on the abaxial face of the leaf of a Richter-100 rootstock leaf

112 the phloem and xylem bundles at least four times per gall  
 113 and 4–5 times per control sample.

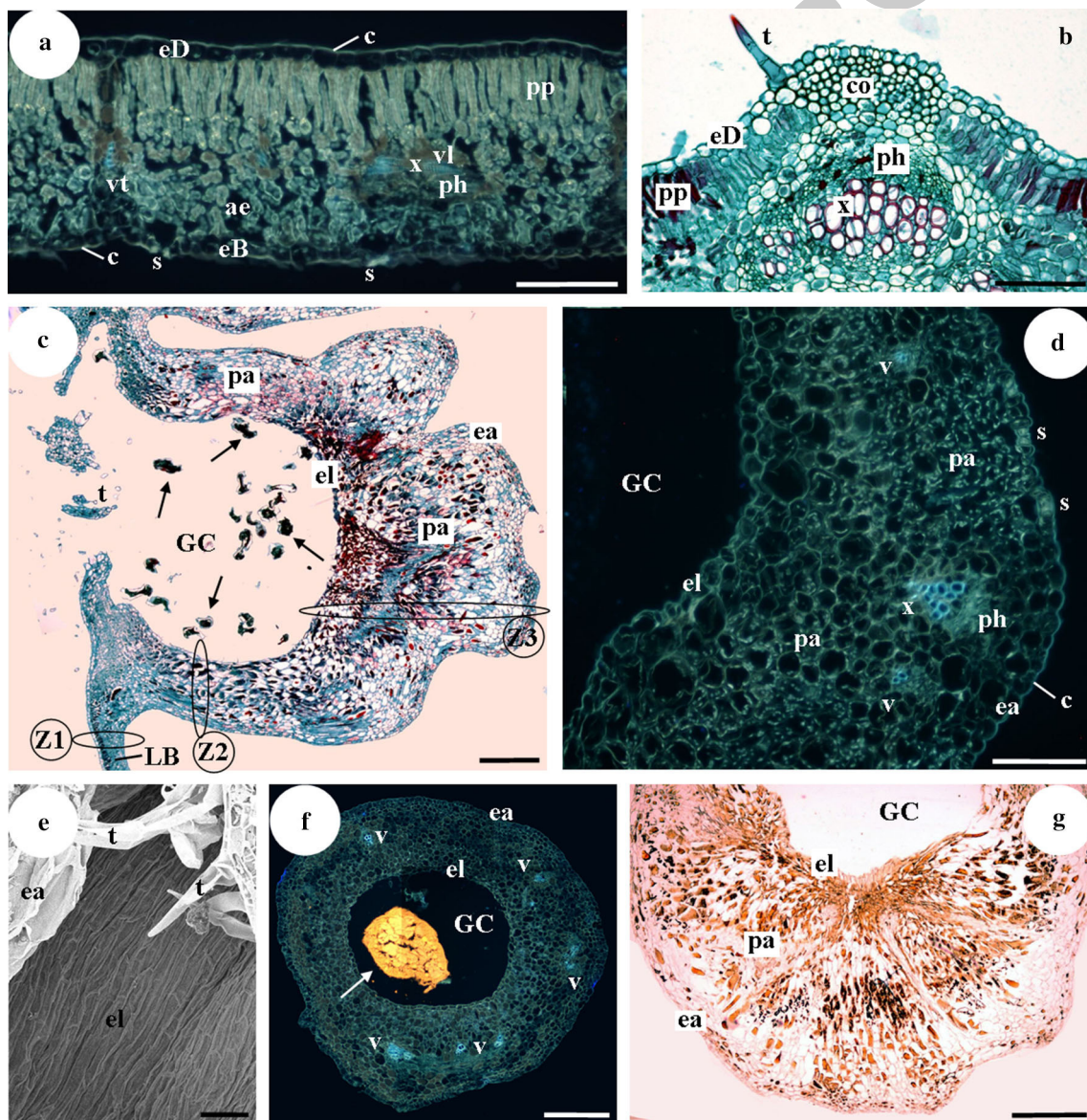
114 **Statistical Analysis**

115 Differences were compared using the Student t-test,  
 116 employing SigmaStat® software. Significance was set at  
 117  $P < 0.05$ .

**Results and Discussion**

**Control Leaves**

Figure 2a shows a cross-section of a control leaf. The adaxial surface shows a single layer of large, cuboid cells with a thin cuticle. No stomata or trichomes are visible. Below the adaxial epidermis, the mesophyll is dorsoventral and divided into palisade and spongy chloroplast-containing parenchyma. Two layers of palisade parenchyma cells can be seen, the upper one showing tannin inclusions. These layers are followed by six layers of spongy parenchyma cells, either aeriferous with small spaces between



**Fig. 2** Histological observations of the leaf galls induced by phylloxera in Richter-110 rootstock leaves

129 them, or homogeneous with no spaces. All these cells show  
 130 chloroplasts. Isolated cells in the palisade and spongy  
 131 mesophyll show large accumulations of raphides, espe-  
 132 cially in the adaxial parenchyma. Druses appear in some  
 133 abaxial cells, sometimes with styloids. The abaxial surface  
 134 is composed of small, cuboid cells with a thin cuticle. No  
 135 trichomes are present. Stomata are present and show con-  
 136 spicuous substomatal chambers.

137 The leaf veins (Fig. 2b) show an upper, single-layered  
 138 epidermis with a cuticle, and sparse multicellular, non-  
 139 glandular trichomes. Annular collenchyma lies subjacent,  
 140 followed by storage parenchyma. Four or five vascular  
 141 bundles are arranged concentrically in the veins, with the  
 142 xylem in the interior and the phloem towards both epi-  
 143 dermal surfaces. Some phloem parenchyma cells contain  
 144 small druses. Storage parenchyma and collenchyma are  
 145 also observed in the abaxial layers, coated by an abaxial  
 146 epidermis similar to the adaxial one.

### 147 **Phylloxera Galls**

148 *D. vitifoliae* induces globose galls on the leaf abaxial sur-  
 149 face. These galls are open on the adaxial surface, and their  
 150 ostioles covered by living, multicellular trichomes  
 151 (Fig. 2c). From the outside inward, the wall of the gall  
 152 (Fig. 2d) shows a single-layered external epidermis with a  
 153 thin cuticle, stomata, and sparse, living, multicellular tri-  
 154 chomes. The region of the gall near the gall-free mesophyll  
 155 (Z2 in Fig. 2c) shows 16 layers of chloroplast-containing  
 156 parenchyma cells. The distal region of the galls (Z3 in  
 157 Fig. 2c) shows many more cells than the previous area,  
 158 with some 30 layers of parenchyma cells, in which amy-  
 159 loplasts are observed (Fig. 2g). This parenchyma is more or  
 160 less homogeneous, composed of polyhedral cells, with no  
 161 spaces, and few raphides or druses. The gall as a whole  
 162 shows abundant vascular bundles, arranged with a certain  
 163 periodicity (Fig. 2f). Their xylem is orientated towards the  
 164 gall chamber (Fig. 2d). The chamber is lined with a single-  
 165 layer internal epidermis, with an indistinct cuticle in the  
 166 part of the gall furthest from the ostiole. No stomata or  
 167 hollows are visible (Fig. 2e).

### 168 **Histometric Comparison of the Vascular Bundles**

169 The phloem bundles of the galls were found to be signifi-  
 170 cantly hypertrophied compared to those of the leaf veins  
 171 ( $82.68 \pm 13.56$  vs.  $42.96 \pm 9.55 \mu\text{m}^2$ ). No significant dif-  
 172 ferences were seen between the cross-sectional area of the  
 173 gall xylem bundle compared to those of control leaf veins  
 174 ( $109.54 \pm 24.80$  vs.  $85.21 \pm 17.55 \mu\text{m}^2$ ) (Table 1).

175 The majority of the features observed in the present  
 176 hemipteran-induced galls were similar to those seen in galls  
 177 induced by arthropods in general [1, 6, 20]. These include

**Table 1** Diameter of the phloem and xylem in the vascular bundles of Richter-110 (*Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis rupestris*) leaves, and galls induced by phylloxera

	Leaf	Gall
Xylem	$85.21 \pm 17.55^a$	$109.54 \pm 24.80^a$
Phloem	$42.96 \pm 9.55^b$	$82.68 \pm 13.56^a$

All values are in  $\mu\text{m}$ . Different letters in the same row indicate a significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ )

178 parenchyma homogenization, cell hypertrophy, and hyper-  
 179 plasia (an increase in the number of cell layers). However,  
 180 the phloem in the vascular bundles of the inspected galls  
 181 showed significant hypertrophy compared to the control leaf  
 182 sections. Hypertrophy of the phloem is associated with galls  
 183 induced by phloem-sucking hemipterans [2, 6, 8, 10, 11, 14],  
 184 but gall-inducing phylloxerids feed by sucking the contents  
 185 of nutritive parenchyma cells, as reported by Sterling [15]  
 186 and Raman et al. [19]. The vascular bundle hypertrophy  
 187 observed in the present work was therefore unexpected, but  
 188 the results suggest that it may be a common feature of all  
 189 hemipteran-induced galls. The observed accumulation of  
 190 starch in the parenchyma of the phylloxera-induced galls  
 191 agrees with that reported by Sterling [15] and Raman et al.  
 192 [19], who observed larger numbers of amyloplasts in gall  
 193 nutritive tissues.

194 Phylloxera-induced galls form on the underside of vine  
 195 leaves, which determines that the xylem is closer to the gall  
 196 chamber than the phloem. If the inhabitants of these galls fed  
 197 on phloem contents, they would have to find a way around the  
 198 xylem. This, plus the fact that the vascular cells lay at six or  
 199 more cells' distance from the chamber, tends to confirm that  
 200 phylloxera feeds on gall parenchyma cells; indeed, the sty-  
 201 lets of *D. vitifoliae* nymphs are 60–65  $\mu\text{m}$  long and can easily  
 202 reach the 5th of 6th parenchyma layer, but no further [17, 19].

203 The internal epidermis of the inspected galls showed a  
 204 lack of hollows, a feature commonly seen, however, in  
 205 aphid-induced galls. In general, aphids (including gall-in-  
 206 ducing aphids) feed on the phloem contents, which enter at  
 207 pressure into their gut, and, following the absorption of  
 208 nutrients, flow out as sugary faeces [21]. To prevent the  
 209 inhabitants of globose galls drowning in these faeces, the  
 210 internal epidermis of the gall has hollows via which these  
 211 faeces are evacuated towards the plant's vascular tissues  
 212 [22]. In the present work, however, no such arrangement was  
 213 seen.

214 Some studies report the presence of starch in galls induced  
 215 by phloem-sucking hemipterans. These starch grains are  
 216 reserves that guarantee the gall tissues' energy requirements  
 217 are met [8, 10]. In these galls, these starch-storing tissues are  
 218 called "nutritive-like tissues" since they have a dense  
 219 cytoplasm and a voluminous nucleus – similar to the typical  
 220 nutritive cells seen in nematode-, mite-, and chewing insect-

221 induced galls [6], but they bear no direct relationship with the  
 222 feeding of the gall-inducing insect. In phylloxera-induced  
 223 galls, typical nutritive tissues are observed that contain  
 224 starch—whereas the nutritive tissues of galls induced by  
 225 chewing insects, nematodes and mites do not contain amy-  
 226 loplasts [9, 10]. Galls generally behave physiologically as  
 227 sinks for photoassimilates [23, 24], and the accumulation of  
 228 amyloplasts would appear related to the energy balance and  
 229 metabolism of the structure [6, 9]. In summary, the hyper-  
 230 trophy seen in the vascular bundles of galls induced by the  
 231 phloem-sucking members of Aphididae and Psyllidae is also  
 232 seen in the galls induced by phylloxera in *Vitis*. This  
 233 hypertrophy suggests that the gall-inducers go about forming  
 234 strong sinks for photoassimilates. The latter are then used in  
 235 gall growth and in the accumulation of reserves in the  
 236 nutritive tissue fed on by the insects.

## 237 Conclusion

238 The hypertrophy of the vascular bundles of hemipteran-  
 239 induced galls is a general characteristic also seen in galls  
 240 produced by phylloxera, even though it is not a phloem-  
 241 sucking gall inducer; rather, it feeds on gall parenchyma  
 242 cells. The hypertrophy of the phloem bundles in hemi-  
 243 pteran-induced galls may not be solely related to the sap-  
 244 feeding habit, but provide an additional supply of pho-  
 245 toassimilates used in gall growth, development and energy  
 246 storage. Evidently, this must affect the productivity of the  
 247 host plant.

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