

WATER
IN THE
PHYSIOLOGY
OF
PLANTS

BY

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PREFACE

In writing a modern scientific monograph, the writers must choose between a detailed treatment of the literature and a brief exposition of the facts and principles of the subject. In this volume, we have attempted to cite most of the relevant literature; in Chapter 1, the broader reviews; within the subsequent chapters, the more specialized papers. From these, we have repeated the minimum of material essential to a connected discourse on the subject, feeling that interested students will refer back to the original papers for details.

Thus, whereas this is intended as a reference work, it is hoped that its reading will not be so tedious as to preclude its use in the classroom. If any part seems needlessly long, it is because we deem the material of particular concern to certain workers in the field, or because it pertains to our own research. For this, our only excuse is that one usually reports most accurately that subject in which he is personally interested.

One further choice that must be made in treating so broad a subject is that of vocabulary. One could use the loose and rather indefinite terminology of two or three decades ago; or he may employ the more accurate wording of the modern plant physiologist; or he might adopt the highly technical language of the physical chemist. Again we have compromised. This volume has been written for use by present day botanists and plant physiologists; hence, we have used their language. At the same time, we have cited several recent treatises that employ, almost entirely, the vocabulary of physical chemistry. We realize the need for more accuracy in the definition and use of technical terms; also the desirability of a universal language for all scientists. On the other hand, the writing of a monograph for a certain group in a language with which they are not familiar is futile.

If the language of physical chemistry is to be adopted by physiologists, and most modern students will agree that it should be, two changes must be made. First, physical chemistry must become a required course for all undergraduates in physiology, and its terminology should be introduced and used relatively early in their careers. Second, physical chemists must develop a deeper appreciation for certain fields of physiology which, up to the present, have been somewhat or even totally neglected. Although many of the living systems with which the physiologist deals may be so complex as to offer little hope for thermodynamical analysis by present methods, their tremendous importance with respect to the well being of man, both through his own physiology, as well as that of the plants and animals upon which he depends for food and clothing, demands constant and sympathetic study. And the exact vocabulary of physical chemistry must be adapted to these complex functions if it is to be of use in their study. Though the thermodynamicist may be content to treat only the initial and final states of a system, the physiologist is interested in every mechanical detail of its

operation, and his studies must deal with the description as well as the mathematical aspects of its functioning. Ultimately, all these problems must submit to analysis in terms of the molecular mechanics of the systems involved.

With regard to the above problem, we hope that this volume will serve two purposes. For plant workers, we trust that it will develop an appreciation for the exact analytical methods of the physical sciences. Much of the progress in the field of water relations has resulted from use of such methods. For the physical chemist, on the other hand, we hope to have presented a challenge to broaden, if need be, his view of the physical universe to encompass those many living systems upon which his very existence depends. There should be some common ground where these two may meet to work out their common problems for the mutual benefit of all. And if such cooperation between fundamental and applied scientists will lead to a warmer feeling of appreciation by both for their common interests, much good will have been done. The field of plant water relations presents many problems upon which such cooperative effort may be profitably spent. We hope that our volume may present these problems in such a way that many workers will be stimulated in their study.

In conclusion, we would like to express our appreciation to our many friends who have contributed to the writing of this monograph. Through conferences, discussions, and, in some instances, almost daily contacts, they have helped clarify some of the intricate problems involved in plant water relations. For reading parts of the manuscript we are especially indebted to Dr. L. E. DAVIS; for use of manuscripts, which at the time of writing were not yet published, we thank Dr. B. S. MEYER and Mr. T. C. BROYER; for counsel and advice in the development of the concepts of osmosis and osmotic pressure we express our appreciation to Drs. N. E. EDLEFSEN, F. A. BROOKS, MAX KLEIBER, H. A. YOUNG, H. G. REIBER and R. B. DEAN. Translations of many foreign papers were kindly put at our disposal by Dr. F. J. VEIHMEYER and Mr. T. C. BROYER. For encouragement throughout the preparation of the manuscript and aid in its final organization we are grateful to Dr. W. W. ROBBINS.

* * *

This book has been produced during troubled times. Because publication has been delayed, many current papers are not cited in the text. Some of these we are reporting here in an effort to bring our Bibliography up-to-date.

Workers on the properties of liquids and solutions are in general agreement that the unusual behavior of water results from coordination of its molecules by hydrogen bonding. Assuming a bonding energy of 4.25 K cal. per mole, TAFT and SISLER (1947) calculate that, of the energy absorbed upon heating, 11 per cent is utilized in breaking bonds during melting of ice, 16 per cent is used raising the temperature from the melting to the boiling point, and 73 per cent goes in the vaporization process. WEISSLER (1949), using the velocity of sound at different temperatures to determine coordination, concludes that water undergoes a decrease in association of about 7.2 per cent between 0°C. and 100° C. Sound waves will detect molecular aggregates that are stable for 10^{-6} seconds. A previous value of 13.2 per cent was found using Raman spectrum analysis. The difference is due to the fact that the latter method detects aggregates that are stable for only 10^{-14} seconds.

In contrast to TAFT and SISLER, SEARCY (1949) calculates a value of 6.4 ± 0.5 K cal. for the H-bond energy in water. He concludes that repulsive as well as attractive forces contribute to the dipole energy.

Using a new formula to determine an index of association in liquids, PARSHAD (1947) has calculated values between 240 and 325 for a series of non-polar compounds;

values of 403 to 745 for some common associated organic liquids; and a value of 5010 for water. The theory that liquids contain points of abnormal coordination (holes) within their structure is receiving continued support and many calculations are being made on the activation energy required for movement of molecules from position to position (flow). Studying thermal conductivity of liquids, PALMER (1948) finds that in associated liquids H-bonds assist in the collisional transfer of heat. This is brought about by (1) causing orientation of the molecules in the direction of flow, and (2) assisting transfer by rupture of bonds at the high-temperature end and reforming them at the low-temperature end. If the entropy of vaporization can be considered a measure of H-bonding, then in water 80 per cent of heat transfer is by this mechanism.

As the picture of water structure becomes clearer, many of the anomalous properties of solutions are being elucidated. Swinging from early assumptions, based on studies of dilute solutions, that all solutions are perfect and that apparent deviations result from association or compound formation, physical chemists went to the other extreme and proposed that all solutes are completely ionized with abnormal behavior resulting from the interaction of force fields (DEBYE and HÜCKEL). Now a middle course wherein ionic and molecular interaction as well as chemical bonds are given due consideration seems best. With the introduction of spectrum analysis distinctions can be made and the type of bonding identified. Gradually the relations between the thermodynamic properties and the molecular structure of solutions are being studied, and concentrated as well as dilute solutions are being given consideration (REDLICH, 1949). The literature on the properties of solutions is too large to consider here and the reader is referred to the *Journal of Chemical Physics*, the *Journal of Physical Chemistry* and *Chemical Reviews* as fertile sources.

Coordination of water is reflected in the high internal pressure or cohesive force which this compound exhibits. TEMPERLEY (1947) has shown that liquid water can support tensions up to 60 atmospheres in glass tubes. Using air-free water in Berthelot tubes SCOTT *et al.* (1948) could develop a tension of only 32 atm. Though these values differ appreciably, the latter is sufficient to explain the flow of sap to the tops of the tallest trees. Hydration phenomena have also received attention. For example, СИМНА and ROWEN (1948) conclude that, in systems containing moist cellulose, silk, and wool, behavior at low moisture levels can be explained in terms of adsorption theory; at high moisture levels the systems can be analysed in terms of a theory of polymer-liquid mixtures; in between the two extremes a transition occurs.

Although osmotic pressure measurements continue to serve in the determination of the molecular weight of large molecules, little change has occurred in the theoretical aspects. BURSTRÖM (1948) has attempted an evaluation of the significance of turgor of the living cell. Departing from the classical definition "turgor is the pressure acting from inside the cell on the cell wall" (p. 58, last line), BURSTRÖM by devious analysis arrives at the expression $T = O - E$ where T = turgor pressure; O = osmotic value of the cell sap; and E = osmotic value of the external medium. To us this T is simply a net or corrected osmotic pressure. It is shown as such in BURSTRÖM's Fig. 2 (page 61). It could equal our turgor pressure only when the cell is in equilibrium with the external solution of concentration E . As in several previous cases (CRAFTS, 1943), we feel that this redefinition of terms is not justified. It leads to such confused statements as—"T increases as the cell loses water—" (page 62, lines 1 and 2), "turgor—expresses a pressure realized in the cell—," "This deduction of turgor pressure—exactly shows the pressure actually exerted from within the cell on the cell wall" (p. 63), and "The turgor pressure must decrease when a cell absorbs water and the wall pressure increases" (p. 64).

This dilemma seems to arise from a failure to appreciate that (in our symbols) when $OP = DPD$, $T = 0$, when $OP = TP$, $DPD = 0$, and at all other states $OP = DPD + TP$. While these relations are most easily examined at equilibrium, a state of flux does not invalidate them. And the definitions which they imply are simple, clear, and in accord with classical considerations of osmotic pressure.

In the field of cell water relations a number of valuable contributions have appeared. In a general discussion of swelling and shrinking (Trans. Faraday Soc., 1946) water-holding forces in biological systems received critical consideration. The nature of vacuolation of protoplasm following certain types of swelling is made more clear by FAURÉ-FRÉMIET. SEIFRIZ presents convincing arguments for a distinction between osmotic pressure and imbibition, and discusses swelling and shrinking phenomena in the light of known protoplasmic structure.

In a subsequent general discussion on interaction of water and porous materials (Faraday Soc. Discussion, 1948), BENNET-CLARK restates his belief that water secre-

tion from the cytoplasm into the vacuole of the plant cell actually occurs. In considering LEVITT's (1947) claim that secretion values reported are thermodynamically unsound, BENNET-CLARK casts doubt on the validity of the value used by LEVITT to represent water permeability in calculation of water velocity.

LUNDEGÅRDH further identifies an active water mechanism in roots with the absorption of salts from the culture medium. As in previous work, he assumes that "anion respiration" provides the energy.

Recent findings have added to our understanding of auxin-induced water uptake by cells. In an important paper LEVITT (1948) offers convincing evidence that auxin-enhanced water absorption by potato discs is not active water uptake, as suggested by several investigators, but rather a result of altered plasticity of the cell wall. The manner in which auxin may increase wall plasticity is not understood but KELLY (1947) has shown that it is an aerobic process in *Avena* coleoptile segments. AUDUS has critically reviewed the problem of cell elongation (Biol. Rev., 1949).

Studies on water secretion and transport by *Nitella* cells have been extended by OSTERHOUT (1949). That the pumping mechanism demonstrated in *Nitella* under somewhat arbitrary conditions could operate in certain kinds of cells seems validated by a theoretical consideration by FRANCK and MAYER (1947) of an osmotic diffusion pump.

The absorption of water by root systems is being given detailed consideration by KRAMER, whose book on the subject is in press. FREY-WYSSLING (1941) has demonstrated guttation under conditions of high water absorption and low transpiration in several woody species, and DANIEL (1949) observed xylem exudation from excised roots of several coniferous species. Studies on the effect of certain salts on increasing root pressure and tissue resistance to infiltration in sunflower, tomato, and dahlia were made by VOLK (1944).

HAGAN (1949), by measuring water intake by excised root systems of sunflowers growing in moisture-deficient soil, has verified the autonomic diurnal cycle of root activity studied by GROSSENBACHER (1938). The diurnal cycles continued for about 6 days but were terminated if the roots were aerated with N_2 or CO_2 . Similar cycles observed in roots washed free of soil indicate that the activity is a function of the root and not of its environment. Such roots in water exuded water during the day and withdrew it during the night. HAGAN attributes this activity to changing hydration of the cytoplasm.

MITSCHERLICH (1947) has pointed out that water requirements of plants follow the law of plant growth. Water requirements are high for plants having short vegetative periods and they decrease with increasing nutrient supply. More specific data on the effects of potassium and calcium on the water relations of plants were given by WOESTMANN (1942). Potassium induced water storage, water uptake, and transpiration, probably through its effect of promoting hydration of the protoplasm. Calcium diminished protoplasmic hydration and consequently lowered protoplasmic permeability and hence water absorption. Water storage and transpiration were reduced. Plants deficient in nitrogen showed decreased transpiration, a failure of guard cells to function normally, and an increase in cold resistance and protoplasmic viscosity (GESSNER and SCHUMANN, 1948).

WADLEIGH (1945) has made a new approach to the problem of plant-soil water relations. He devised a method for integrating the variables that account for the total soil-moisture stress against which the plant absorbs water. When leaf elongation of cotton plants was expressed empirically as a second degree function of soil-moisture stress, values close to 15 atmospheres for the stress inhibiting leaf growth were calculated (WADLEIGH and GAUCH, 1948). Additional data indicating that under good conditions of soil aeration and fertility the rate of vegetative growth increases with increasing soil moisture within the range from near the permanent wilting percentage to near soil saturation have been presented by HAYNES (1948). He concludes that corn plants subjected to daily periods of temporary wilting produce small vegetative growth when under humid conditions. On the other hand, WILSON (1948b) has shown that tomato stem tips can maintain their highly hydrated state at the expense of older mature tissues. Thus they can increase steadily in length throughout the day and night even when the plant as a whole passes through a diurnal cycle with the water balance on the negative side during the day.

MORTON and WATSON (1948) conclude that the rate of leaf production by apical meristem is unaffected by water supply. The number and size of cells per leaf increased with increasing water supply. Net assimilation was greatly reduced by water deficit.

Reviewing plant-water relations, TAGEEVA (1946) found that wheat plants have reduced water content as they mature; upper leaves dehydrate more than lower ones. Nevertheless, the upper leaves have a greater rate of photosynthesis than lower ones. Low water supply results in an increase in soluble carbohydrates leading to decrease in photosynthesis. EATON and EGGLE (1948) find that in certain plants such as cotton, water deficit may depress carbohydrate utilization to a greater extent than it does photosynthesis leading to an increased sugar content.

In the discussion mentioned above (Faraday Soc. Discussion, 1948) papers by VAN DEN HONERT, LEWIS, FOGG, and CRAFTS deal with water and food movement in plants and the relations of leaf cell walls and leaf surfaces. VAN DEN HONERT, considering the role of living root cells, xylem conductors, living leaf cells and the "gaseous part" (intercellular spaces, stomata, and air layer around the leaf) concludes that the greatest resistance to water movement is the "gaseous part." He agrees with GRADMANN's (1928) views that this phase may exert limiting influence on water transport.

LEWIS presents further data on the hydrophobic nature of the outer walls of leaf mesophyll, while FOGG pictures the effects of varying water conditions of underlying tissues on the nature of the leaf surface.

CRAFTS, in an analysis of the physical nature of sieve-tube protoplasm, and sieve tube walls, concludes that the mature, functioning sieve tube is a highly specialized structure. The optical nature of the walls and their high water content suggest that they have a loose open structure. The degradation of the sieve-tube cytoplasm attending maturation of these elements results in a loss of their semipermeability. It is concluded that this also denotes an open mesh structure. It is suggested that the open structure of sieve-tube walls and cytoplasm constitute specialization favoring a mass flow of the assimilate stream. WENT and HULL (1949) present evidence for a temperature coefficient of less than 1 for both rate and intensity of sugar transport in the tomato plant.

The perplexing problem of stomatal behavior was reviewed critically by WILSON (1948a). Theories proposing that stomatal action can be accounted for by changes in permeability, changes in enzyme activity, or variation in colloidal hydration were not considered adequate as an explanation for the observed effects of light, temperature, and humidity on stomatal aperture.

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THE AUTHORS

CONTENTS

Preface	vii
Acknowledgements	xiii
Contents	xv
List of Text Illustrations	xviii
List of Tables	xx

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION	1
------------------------	---

Chapter II

STRUCTURE OF WATER:—INTRODUCTION—STRUCTURE— EARLY THEORIES—THE HYDROLS—THE FARADAY SYMPOSIUM—LATER WORK ON THE HYDROL THEORY—"NORMAL" AND "POLAR" LIQUIDS— MOLECULAR CONCENTRATION—MODERN STUDIES—X-RAY ANALYSIS— THE SECOND FARADAY SYMPOSIUM—CURRENT RESEARCH—SUMMARY OF WATER STRUCTURE	3
---	---

Chapter III

PROPERTIES OF SOLUTIONS:—INTRODUCTION—THE IN- TERRELATION OF THE PROPERTIES OF SOLUTIONS—THE FORCES BETWEEN ATOMS AND MOLECULES—MOLECULAR INTERACTION AND WATER BIND- ING—HYDRATION—MOBILITY OF IONS—SUMMARY	18
---	----

Chapter IV

OSMOSIS AND OSMOTIC PRESSURE:—INTRODUCTION— REFINEMENT OF THE OSMOTIC PRESSURE LAW—CAUSES FOR NON-IDEAL BEHAVIOR OF SOLUTIONS—SUMMARY	32
---	----

Chapter V

THE MECHANISM OF OSMOSIS:—INTRODUCTION (Osmosis —Osmotic pressure—Diffusion—Diffusion pressure—Diffusion pres- sure deficit—Turgor—Turgor pressure)—THE KINETIC BASIS OF OSMOSIS—OSMOSIS IN LIQUID SYSTEMS—THE MECHANICS OF OSMOSIS —THE "SOLVENT" AND "SOLUTE" PRESSURE THEORIES—CALCULATION BY INDIRECT METHODS—EVALUATION OF DIFFUSION PRESSURE—THE DIFFUSION PRESSURE OF THE SOLVENT—SUMMARY	43
--	----

Chapter VI

WATER AS A PLANT COMPONENT—INTRACELLULAR DISTRIBUTION OF WATER:—INTRODUCTION—ANATOMY OF CELLS—WATER CONTENT—BINDING FORCES—WATER OF CELL WALLS—PROTOPLASMIC WATER—WATER IN VACUOLES—METHODS FOR DETERMINING WATER PARTITION—EQUILIBRIUM BETWEEN PHASES—SUMMARY 59

Chapter VII

THE OSMOTIC QUANTITIES OF PLANT CELLS:—A DESCRIPTION OF THE QUANTITIES AND OF THEIR INTERRELATIONS—MEMBRANES AND PERMEABILITY—PERMEABILITY TO SOLUTES—PERMEABILITY TO WATER—PERMEABILITY OF CELL WALLS—OSMOTIC PRESSURE. METHODS OF MEASURING OSMOTIC PRESSURE IN PLANTS. THE PLASMOLYTIC METHOD—LIMITATIONS OF THE PLASMOLYTIC METHOD—PLASMOLYTIC METHOD, EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE—FURTHER USES OF PLASMOLYSIS—THE PLASMOMETRIC METHOD—CRYOSCOPY—EXPRESSION OF SAP—THE CRYOSCOPE—PHYSICAL PRINCIPLES—FREEZING-POINT DETERMINATION—VAPOR PRESSURE METHODS—OSMOMETRIC METHODS—OTHER METHODS FOR OSMOTIC PRESSURE—THE MAGNITUDE AND VARIATION OF OSMOTIC PRESSURE IN PLANTS—DIFFUSION PRESSURE DEFICIT. METHODS OF MEASURING DPD—THE CELL METHOD—STRIP OR SIMPLIFIED METHOD—THE WEIGHT METHOD—OTHER METHODS FOR DPD—THE MAGNITUDE AND FLUCTUATION OF DPD VALUES—TURGOR OF PLANT CELLS—MEASUREMENT OF TURGOR—INTERCELLULAR MOVEMENT OF WATER—SUMMARY 73

Chapter VIII

ACTIVE CELL WATER RELATIONS:—INTRODUCTION—EVIDENCE FROM PLASMOLYTIC AND CRYOSCOPIC MEASUREMENTS—INTERPRETATION OF SAP EXPRESSION DATA—PLASMOLYTIC BEHAVIOR OF CELLS—CRYOSCOPY OF TISSUES AND THEIR EQUILIBRIUM BATHING SOLUTIONS—AUXIN AND WATER UPTAKE—MEASUREMENT OF DIFFUSION PRESSURE DEFICITS—EVIDENCE FROM STUDIES OF FROST AND DROUGHT RESISTANCE—EVIDENCE FROM ANIMAL PHYSIOLOGY—RELATION TO SOLUTE ACCUMULATION—RELATION TO OTHER PLANT FUNCTIONS—MECHANISMS—SUMMARY 111

Chapter IX

UPTAKE AND MOVEMENT OF WATER IN PLANTS:—INTRODUCTION—WATER ABSORPTION—ACTIVE ABSORPTION—PASSIVE ABSORPTION—METHODS OF ESTIMATING THE AVAILABILITY OF WATER—WATER MOVEMENT—COHESION THEORY—COHESION AND ADHESION—LIQUID CONTINUITY IN THE XYLEM—DYE PENETRATION—FREEZING OF STEMS—TRANSPIRATION EXPERIMENTS—DIRECT OBSERVATION OF XYLEM—TENSIONS DEVELOPED IN THE XYLEM, DIRECT MEASUREMENTS—POTOMETER EXPERIMENTS—"SUCTION TENSION" MEASUREMENTS—NEWER METHODS OF ESTIMATING TENSIONS IN XYLEM—RATE OF WATER MOVEMENT THROUGH PLANTS—QUANTITY OF MATERIAL MOVED AND AREA OF TRANSPORT—INDICATORS (Salts—Dyes—Radioactive tracers—Heat)—VARIATIONS IN THE RATE OF SAP FLOW—WATER BALANCE AND REDISTRIBUTION—TRANSLOCATION OF SOLUTES—SUMMARY . 148

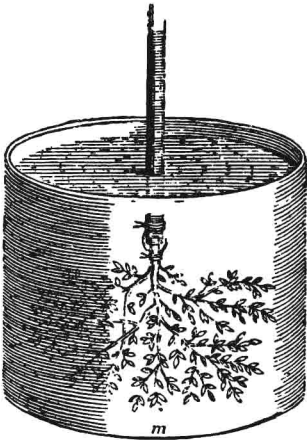
Chapter X

WATER LOSS AND WATER RETENTION: — INTRODUCTION
— LAWS OF EVAPORATION — EVAPORATION FROM A FREE WATER SURFACE
— EVAPORATION FROM TUBES — FACTORS AFFECTING EVAPORATION FROM
FREE WATER SURFACES OF UNIFORM SHAPE AND AREA (Solutes — Tem-
perature — Dryness of the air — Atmospheric pressure — Wind velocity)
— TRANSPIRATION — METHODS OF MEASURING TRANSPIRATION — EX-
PRESSION OF RESULTS — CUTICULAR TRANSPIRATION — FLUCTUATIONS IN
THE RATE OF TRANSPIRATION — INTERNAL FACTORS AFFECTING TRANS-
PIRATION — WALL STRUCTURE — PHYSICAL RESISTANCE TO WATER MOVE-
MENT — OSMOTIC PROPERTIES — INTERNAL SURFACE — STOMATAL NUM-
BER AND DISTRIBUTION — METHODS OF MEASURING STOMATAL OPENINGS
— GENETIC FACTORS — STOMATAL REGULATION OF TRANSPIRATION —
EFFECT OF MINERAL NUTRIENTS ON TRANSPIRATION — INFLUENCE OF
DISEASE, SPRAYS, DUSTS, AND WAXES ON TRANSPIRATION RATE — PHYS-
IOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF WATER DEFICITS — SUBAQUEOUS TRANSPIRATION
— CONCLUSIONS — SUMMARY 179

Bibliography 209

Author Index 228

Subject Index 233



LIST OF TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS

FIGURE 1.—Trihydrol molecule as pictured by SUTHERLAND	4
FIGURE 2.—The tetrahedral water molecule of PENNYCUICK	8
FIGURE 3.—The polar water chain	9
FIGURE 4.—The hexagonal ring structure of water, comparable with the crystal structure of ice	9
FIGURE 5.—Diagram indicating the self-ionization of a water chain	10
FIGURE 6.—Electronic distribution in the simple water molecule	11
FIGURE 7.—The crystal lattice of ice as pictured by BERNAL and FOWLER	12
FIGURE 8.—Diagrammatic illustration of the shift from the hexagonal lattice of ice to a closer packed structure for water	15
FIGURE 9.—Typical vapor pressure-water content curves for sand and clay showing the values of the permanent wilting percentage and field capacity for each	23
FIGURE 10.—Curves showing the relation between moisture content and relative humidity of the atmosphere surrounding cotton, and spruce wood	24
FIGURE 11.—Apparatus for demonstrating differential diffusion of gases	45
FIGURE 12.—Diagram showing the relations between attractive and repulsive forces between molecules	47
FIGURE 13.—Diagram showing the relations of partial and total vapor pressures of solutions according to Raoult's Law	48
FIGURE 14.—Apparatus useful in analysing problems of osmosis	49
FIGURE 15.—Relations among osmotic pressure, diffusion pressure deficit, and turgor pressure for an ideal osmometer	50
FIGURE 16.—Calculated and observed values of osmotic pressures of cane sugar solutions	54
FIGURE 17.—Several types of parenchyma cells found in plants	60
FIGURE 18.—Protein structure pictured by FREY-WYSSLING	67
FIGURE 19.—A diagrammatic presentation of the relations among osmotic pressure, diffusion pressure deficit, and turgor pressure as applied to plant cells	73
FIGURE 20.—Three forms of TP-volume curves for plant cells	74
FIGURE 21.—The relation between concentration of plasmolyzing solution and degree of plasmolysis	86
FIGURE 22.—Plasmolysis types as illustrated by STRUGGER	87
FIGURE 23.—Onion epidermal cell showing cap plasmolysis	88
FIGURE 24.—Tonoplast plasmolysis of onion epidermis	88
FIGURE 25.—Vacuole contraction in a cell of the fruit flesh of <i>Ligustrum vulgare</i>	89
FIGURE 26.—Vacuole contraction in an onion epidermal cell having the vacuole strongly stained with neutral red	89
FIGURE 27.—Vacuole contraction as shown by leaf cells of <i>Elodea canadensis</i> after staining with neutral red	90
FIGURE 28.—Press cylinder outfit used to express small amounts of sap from plant tissue	91
FIGURE 29.—Construction of cryoscopic apparatus	92
FIGURE 30.—Calibration curve for the apparatus shown in figure 29	94
FIGURE 31.—Freezing curve constructed according to recommendations of MAIR, GLASGOW, and ROSSINI	95
FIGURE 32.—The Barger Halket method for determining the osmotic pressure of plant sap	96
FIGURE 33.—Osmotic pressure determination by the method of URSPRUNG and BLUM	96
FIGURE 34 A.—Diffusion pressure deficit values determined by the volume method	102
FIGURE 34 B.—Diffusion pressure deficit values determined by the weight method	103
FIGURE 35.—Diagrammatic illustration of water movement along a gradient of DPD	109
FIGURE 36.—Osmotic pressure values of leaf cells of <i>Bergenia cordifolia</i>	114
FIGURE 37.—Seasonal variations in the dry matter content, inexpressible water, and water expressed as sap after different treatment of leaves of <i>Pinus rigida</i>	121

- FIGURE 38.—The effect of 0.2 M sucrose, 0.2 M sucrose plus 10 mgm. of indole-3-acetic acid per liter, these concentrations of sucrose and auxin plus 10^{-8} M. KCl, these concentrations of sucrose and auxin plus 10^{-4} M. K fumarate, on changes in the wet weight of aerated potato slices 128
- FIGURE 39.—Effect of auxins on water uptake of potato tissue under sterile and non-sterile conditions 130
- FIGURE 40.—Apparatus for demonstrating "anaphoresis" 141
- FIGURE 41.—Diagrammatic representation of two membranes, one permeable to cations only, the other, anion permeable 142
- FIGURE 42.—Electroosmotic flow according to BENNET-CLARK and BEXON . . . 143
- FIGURE 43.—DPD gradient from the root up the stem of *Arthrophytum haloxylon* 164
- FIGURE 44.—Diurnal fluctuation in transpiration and in DPD at different heights on the stem of *Arthrophytum haloxylon* 165
- FIGURE 45.—DPD measurements on the petioles of squash plants 166
- FIGURE 46.—DPD values of solutions in the petioles of a squash plant in the laboratory 167
- FIGURE 47.—Arrangement of heating element and thermocouples used by HUBER and SCHMIDT for measuring slow rates of movement of sap streams 170
- FIGURE 48.—Diurnal variation in rate of sap movement in *Larix*, *Picea*, and *Fagus* 171
- FIGURE 49.—Potometer with growing plant for study of water absorption and loss 186
- FIGURE 50.—Diurnal fluctuation in the wettability of leaf cuticle as shown by change in contact angle of water drops 188
- FIGURE 51.—DPD of the atmosphere at 20°C as related to relative humidity . . 189
- FIGURE 52.—Relation between atmospheric temperature and relative humidity for an atmosphere containing .004 pounds of water per pound of dry air 190
- FIGURE 53.—Diurnal fluctuations in DPD of the atmosphere at a station in Washington, D.C., during a 10-day period in June 1932 191
- FIGURE 54.—Diurnal fluctuations in water loss from rooted *Coleus* leaves under controlled conditions 192
- FIGURE 55.—The effect of DPD of *Chlorella* cells upon photosynthesis 201
- FIGURE 56.—Experimental conditions for demonstrating subaqueous transpiration 204

Plate illustrating HALES' "Experiments, whereby to find out the force with which trees imbibe moisture."—From his "Vegetable Staticks" (ed. 3, 1738) iv

DUTROCHET's apparatus "pour mesurer la force de l'endosmose."—Plate 1 from his "Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire Anatomique et Physiologique des Végétaux et des Animaux" (1837) xxii

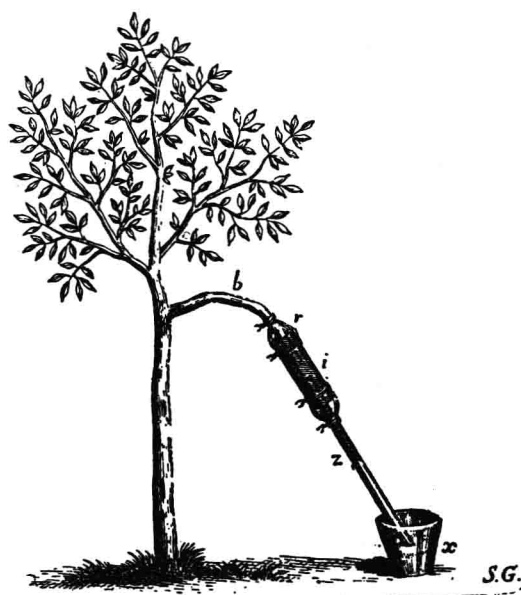
PFEFFER's original apparatus to determine the osmotic pressure of solutions.—From his "Osmotischen Untersuchungen" (1877) . . . 242

Vignettes on pages xvii, xxi and 227 and 232
from HALES' "Vegetable Staticks".

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1.—Some thermal properties of water and several elements and compounds . . .	4
TABLE 2.—Physical properties of water and some other common liquids . . .	4
TABLE 3.—Characteristics of molecular interaction	20
TABLE 4.—Contributions of the three constituents of the van der Waals forces to intermolecular forces in the liquid state	21
TABLE 5.—Osmotic pressures of sucrose solutions at constant temperature . . .	32
TABLE 6.—Influence of temperature on osmotic pressure	32
TABLE 7.—Comparison of osmotic and gas pressures	33
TABLE 8.—Observed and calculated osmotic pressure values for sucrose solutions at 30° C	34
TABLE 9.—Osmotic pressure of cane-sugar solutions at 20°C; observed and cal- culated values	35
TABLE 10.—Calculated hydration numbers for sucrose solutions at various tempera- tures and concentrations	36
TABLE 11.—Osmotic pressure of solutions of cane sugar at 30°C	37
TABLE 12.—Osmotic pressure of sucrose solutions at 0°C	37
TABLE 13.—Observed and calculated osmotic pressure values for sucrose solutions at 30°C	38
TABLE 14.—Observed and calculated values of the osmotic pressure of sucrose solutions	38
TABLE 15.—Observed and calculated values of the osmotic pressure of α -methyl glucoside solutions	39
TABLE 16.—Observed and calculated values of the osmotic pressure of calcium ferrocyanide solutions at 0°C	39
TABLE 17.—Volume of weight-normal solutions of cane sugar at 0°C	47
TABLE 18.—Relation between relative humidity, vapor pressure, and diffusion pres- sure deficit of atmospheric moisture at 20°C	56
TABLE 19.—Water content, in per cent of fresh weight, of some common food materials	62
TABLE 20.—Walls of the phloem of potato stolon expressed as percentage of total cross section of the phloem	65
TABLE 21.—Measurement of adhesion pressure in <i>Beta vulgaris</i> root	84
TABLE 22.—Longitudinal strips of beetroot (Futterröbe) 14 cm. long, soaked for various times in water, then overnight in 0.5M KNO ₃	84
TABLE 23.—Effect of water saturation on Og values	84
TABLE 24.—Isotonic coefficients of various salts calculated on a weight molar basis .	86
TABLE 25.—Change in volume of potato tuber tissue cylinders immersed 8 hours in sucrose solutions of varying concentration at 20°-22°C. Values are based on normal volume	98
TABLE 26.—Changes in surface dimensions of epidermal strips from <i>Sedum nicaense</i> leaves. Values are arbitrary units	98
TABLE 27.—Osmotic pressure of various tissues determined plasmolytically, expressed as mols of KNO ₃ per liter of solution	100
TABLE 28.—Effect of varying soil moisture supply upon the DPD of plant tissues .	106
TABLE 29.—Osmotic quantities in the hypocotyl of <i>Helianthus annuus</i> seedlings, determined at normal volume	106
TABLE 30.—Cryoscopic and plasmolytic measurement of osmotic pressure in vari- ous plants	112
TABLE 31.—Description of beets employed in PCD determinations, and periods dur- ing which tests were made	115
TABLE 32.—Summarized results of plasmolytic and cryoscopic tests on various lots of beets	116
TABLE 33.—Results of deplasmolysis and replasmolysis tests on beetroot tissue. Atmospheres at 22.5°C	116
TABLE 34.—Comparison of osmotic pressure values determined plasmolytically and those determined cryoscopically on various fractions of expressed leaf sap . . .	118

TABLE 35.—Effect of killing tissue on the osmotic pressure of expressed sap . . .	119
TABLE 36.—Comparison of saps expressed from living and killed tissue . . .	120
TABLE 37.—Osmotic pressure of sap expressed from living vs. killed (by heat) leaves . . .	120
TABLE 38.—Osmotic pressure of sap expressed from living as against dead (frozen) tissue, comparing two types of beets. Values in atmospheres at 22.5°C . . .	122
TABLE 39.—Plasmolysis of beet cells in their own sap . . .	123
TABLE 40.—Osmotic pressure determinations of tissue cylinders and of their equilibrium bathing solutions. Atmospheres at 22.5°C . . .	126
TABLE 41.—Cryoscopy of sap expressed from several marine algae and of the surrounding sea water. Atmospheres at 20°C . . .	127
TABLE 42.—Osmotic pressures of cell sap from cotton seeds of three ages before and after immersion in sucrose solutions . . .	132
TABLE 43.—Freezing points of living tissue, dead tissue, and expressed sap. Atmospheres at 22.5°C . . .	134
TABLE 44.—Summary of investigations on rate of sap movement in plants . . .	169
TABLE 45.—Transpiration of <i>Solidago virga aurea</i> in milligrams per gram fresh weight per minute. Cut surface renewed hourly . . .	185
TABLE 46.—Ratios between internally exposed cell walls and external leaf surface . . .	195
TABLE 47.—Water requirement in <i>Zea</i> as affected by nutrition . . .	198
TABLE 48.—The effect of decrease in water content on the amylolytic activity and starch dissolution of sunflower leaves kept in the dark for 18 hours . . .	202
TABLE 49.—Influence of water absorption on meiosis in <i>Oenothera</i> . . .	203



Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The relation of water to plant cells is at the same time one of the oldest and one of the most modern of physiological problems. MALPIGHI, HALES, KNIGHT, and a host of early plant scientists recognized this important field of study. Survey of modern literature proves that water relations still claim the attention of leading plant physiologists. Viewpoints change; methods improve; still the underlying principles of water absorption and utilization challenge the researcher. Almost all plant functions involve water relations in some form or other; provision of adequate water for maximum growth of plants is the basis of successful agriculture in many parts of the world.

Writing a concise monograph on water relations is a difficult task for it involves selecting from an immense literature material relevant to modern concepts and problems. To be of value, furthermore, such a monograph should contain original work by the authors or it should involve synthesis of new concepts from previous publications. Availability of modern abstracting and reviewing agencies renders almost useless a mere compilation or uncritical review of published articles.

This volume aims to attain both of the above objectives; it also attempts to aid students in becoming familiar with contemporary literature in the field. A balanced treatment of the subject involves a description of the structure of water and aqueous solutions, a review of the concepts of the mechanism of osmosis, consideration of the water relations of individual cells, and finally, analysis of the functions of absorption, movement, retention, and loss of water by organized plants. It is obvious that space cannot be devoted to a detailed historical review. Mainly as an aid to students, the following introduction to source materials is included.

Works of MALPIGHI (1675), HALES (1738), and KNIGHT (1801) are of historical interest only. Ideas in their time were confused by failure to clearly distinguish between the water relations of plants and animals.

Discovery of the microscope stimulated interest in plant structure. The earlier works on conducting systems are thoroughly covered by STRASBURGER (1891) and HABERLANDT (1914). Meanwhile DUTROCHET (1827), PFEFFER (1877), VAN'T HOFF (1887 and 1888), and DE VRIES (1918) laid the foundations for a physical analysis of cell water relations through their studies on osmosis and osmotic pressure. Work by BERKELEY and HARTLEY (1906), MORSE (1914), FRAZER and MYRICK (1916), and BERKELEY, HARTLEY, and BURTON (1919) provides a quantitative basis for such analysis.

Theoretical treatment of osmotic systems by LEWIS (1908), HALDANE (1918), BANCROFT and DAVIS (1928), and others has materially broadened our concepts while reviews by FINDLAY (1919), MEYER (1938), and URSPRUNG (1938) have marked progress in this field. Of treatments in physico-chemical texts, those of WASHBURN (1921), LEWIS and RANDALL (1923), GLASSTONE (1940), and GETMAN and DANIELS (1943) are noteworthy.

Application of physical principles to the problems of water conduction in trees led to the cohesion theories of DIXON (1914) and RENNER (1915). Measurements by MACDOUGAL (1926) have largely substantiated the theoretical considerations involved as have biophysical studies by BODE (1923).

The general field of plant water relations has been covered by the works of LIVINGSTON (1903), MAXIMOV (1929a), and WALTER (1931b). URSPRUNG (1938) has presented a detailed review of most of the early work including his own and that of his collaborators. Ecological aspects of water relations are stressed by MAXIMOV (1929a), WALTER (1931b), and MONTEMARTINI (1943). Applications of the principles of soil

physics and plant physiology to problems of water utilization by plants have been made by BRIGGS and SHANTZ (1912) and MAXIMOV (1929a); and more recently by VEIHMEYER and HENDRICKSON and their associates (see papers from 1927 to 1946). The relations of soil salinity to plant growth have been investigated at the U.S.D.A. Salinity Laboratory. This and other works on soil salinity have been reviewed by MAGISTAD (1945).

Thermodynamic treatments of plant and soil water relations are given by EDLEFSEN and ANDERSON (1943) and BROYER (1946), and also by STERN (1933).

Specialized aspects of water relations involve the binding of water by cellular constituents including cellulose, proteins, and the living protoplasm. Hydration of cellulose is treated by STAMM (1936), HEUSER (1944), and WISE (1944). Protein hydration is discussed by GORTNER (1938), SCHMIDT (1938), and SPONSLER, BATH, and ELLIS (1940). SPONSLER (1940) and FREY-WYSSLING (1938) have studied hydration phenomena of the living protoplasm.

Problems of permeability are reviewed periodically in the Annual Review of Physiology. In 1945 this topic was covered by S. C. BROOKS. Work on the uptake and exchange of solutes is described by HOAGLAND (1944) and KROGH (1946). Theories of membrane permeability are extensively treated in the works of BROOKS and BROOKS (1941), DAVSON and DANIELLI (1943), and HÖBER (1945).

Osmotic quantities of cells and their interrelations have received detailed attention by THODAY (1918), HÖFLER (1920), BECK (1928), and MEYER (1938, 1945). Cryoscopic determination of osmotic pressure values has been stressed by WALTER (1931a) and his associates. URSPRUNG (1938) has compiled much of the work on the plasmolytic method. HARRIS (1934) has accumulated an abundance of data on freezing point lowering of plant saps, particularly as related to distribution of the plants.

BENNET-CLARK, GREENWOOD, and BARKER (1936) have renewed the interest in active cell water relations. Papers by BENNET-CLARK and BEXON (1940, 1943, 1946), MASON and PHILLIS (1939), VAN OVERBEEK (1942, 1944), and LYON (1942) treat various aspects of the same subject.

Water relations are intimately involved in frost and drought resistance. Reviews by LEVITT (1941) and SCARTH (1944) report work on frost resistance. MAXIMOV (1929a, 1929b, 1941), TUMANOV (1929), VASSILIEV and VASSILIEV (1936), MARTIN (1930), and AAMODT and JOHNSTON (1936) have covered drought resistance.

The role of water in the physiology of plant cells has been studied in detail in recent years. KÜSTER (1935), URSPRUNG (1938), and GUILLIERMOND (1941) have provided monographs covering this subject, while BRAUNER (1932) and STRUGGER (1935) describe methods for studying the physiology of cells. The AAAS' monograph "The Cell and Protoplasm" (1940) covers many aspects of cell physiology as does also the monograph of the American Society of Plant Physiologists, "The Structure of Protoplasm" edited by SEIFRIZ (1942).

Finally, REED (1942) gives a historical view of plant water relations with additional reference material; two recent books covering the field of physical biochemistry by BULL (1943) and HÖBER (1945) provide a wealth of information for the student of cell physiology.

Chapter II

STRUCTURE OF WATER

Introduction:—Most cells originate in a highly aqueous medium; they use water in growth and other vital processes; in most instances, they consist largely of water throughout their life span. Logically there should be an intimate relation between the functions of cells and the properties of water and dilute aqueous solutions. A study of plant water relations impresses one that this is true.

Water enters into the composition of carbohydrates, proteins, and other compounds making up the walls and protoplasts of plant cells; it is combined with various colloidal constituents of cells as water of hydration; it is involved in many metabolic processes in the plant; and it exists as a liquid in the solutions occupying the vacuoles of living cells and the lumina of conducting elements. Due to the many forces tending to reduce the activity of water molecules, it may be difficult to distinguish between the various states in which water exists within the plant.

Combining the elements hydrogen and oxygen, water in its simplest form corresponds to the formula H_2O . Many more complicated forms have been proposed to explain its various properties. Most of these involve association or polymerization.

Water boils at $100^\circ C$. and freezes at $0^\circ C$. when under one atmosphere pressure; it is liquid throughout the temperature range at which plants thrive. Many plants can survive freezing temperatures; certain spores can stand boiling; photosynthesis and transpiration may take place through a range from near freezing to the thermal death temperature around 40° to $50^\circ C$. Many plant functions, however, find their optimum within the range from approximately 20° to $30^\circ C$. The occurrence over a large portion of the earth's surface of temperatures within these narrow limits depends, among other things, upon the large latent heats of vaporization and freezing of water, and upon its heat capacity and conductivity. HENDERSON (1924), discussing the fitness of the environment, points out the many unusual properties of water, most of which apparently contribute in some way to the well-being of plants. It is interesting to note the exceedingly narrow range of temperature and moisture within which our important economic plants thrive, and to point out the role played by water in maintaining these conditions.

Structure:—Water has long been recognized as a compound of unusual character. TABLES 1 and 2 list some of the physical properties of common elements and liquids. Water stands out, having a very high heat of vaporization and a fairly high heat of fusion. (For further data of this type, *see* BERNAL and FOWLER, 1933, Table III). Of the compounds listed, water has the greatest surface tension, internal pressure, and dielectric constant. These latter properties indicate the interatomic forces present in the molecule.

Formed from hydrogen which boils at $-253^\circ C$. under atmospheric pressure, and oxygen which boils at $-180^\circ C$., water boils at $100^\circ C$. If normal in its properties water should boil at a very low temperature variously estimated at from $-65^\circ C$. to $-100^\circ C$. Its freezing point should

TABLE 1.—Some thermal properties of water and several elements and compounds:—

SUBSTANCES	HEAT CAPACITY PER GRAM FORMULA WEIGHT		HEAT OF FUSION CALORIES PER GRAM		HEAT OF VAPORIZATION CALORIES PER GRAM	
	Calories	Temp. ° C.	Calories	Temp. ° C.	Calories	Temp. ° C.
Hydrogen	3.4	0	15.0	108.0	—252.8
Oxygen	3.5	0	3.3	—219.0	50.9	—182.9
Nitrogen	3.5	0	6.1	—210.0	47.6	—195.5
Sulfur	5.3	0	10.4	119.0	66.3	444.6
Water, liquid	18.1	0	539.0	100.0
Water, solid	9.1	0	80.0	0
Carbon dioxide	8.7	0	45.4	— 56.2	87.0	— 60.0
Ammonia	8.8	0	108.0	— 75.0	327.0	— 33.4
Hydrogen sulfide	4.6	10	132.0	— 61.4
Sulfur dioxide	15.4	10	95.0	— 10.0

TABLE 2.—Physical properties of water and some other common liquids:—

SUBSTANCES	SURFACE TENSION		INTERNAL PRESSURE Atmospheres	DIELECTRIC CONSTANT	
	Dynes/cm.	Temp.		E	Temp. ° C.
Water	75.6	0	16,400	81.000	17
Mercury	47.6	20	13,050
Carbon disulfide	35.3	0	5,400	2.600	0
Benzene	31.6	0	4,050	1.002	100
Carbon tetrachloride	29.0	0	3,640	1.003	110
Hexane	20.5	0	2,020	1.874	20
Ethyl alcohol	24.0	0	7,200	1.006	100

be around -100°C. to -150°C. In comparison H_2S , containing sulfur that boils at 444°C. , is a gas boiling around -61°C.

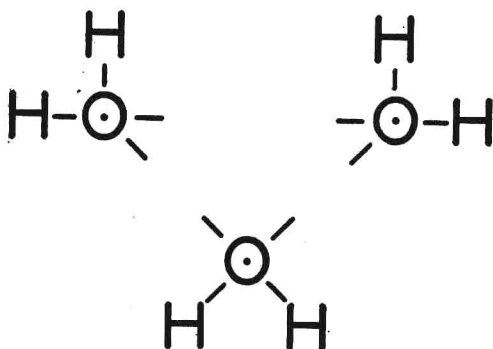


FIG. 1.—Trihydrol molecule as pictured by SUTHERLAND (1900).

Other anomalous properties of water include its minimum specific heat at 37.5°C. , its maximum density at 4.0°C. , and its great expansion upon solidification. This latter property has played an important part in all attempted explanations of the structure of water.

Early Theories:—The earliest concepts of the liquid structure of water pictured it as composed of spheroid molecules, heterogeneously arranged, and having the un-ordered motion of a very dense gas. As early as 1884, however, WHITING visualized liquid water as a solution of ice particles and RAOULT (1885) pictured association of water molecules into groups of four. VERNON (1891) explained the maximum density of water by association of the molecules from $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$ above 4°C. to $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4$ below that temperature. In 1892 RÖNTGEN independently proposed that liquid water is made up of a saturated solution of ice in some other form of water. He pictured ice molecules as complex, but less dense than water; when ice melts the volume is decreased.