

Effects of pre-mature harvest and heat exposure on physical and mechanical properties of *Pandanus tectorius* leaves

John A Toman ^{Corresp.} ¹

¹ Integrative Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, United States

Corresponding Author: John A Toman
Email address: jtoman@berkeley.edu

Plant materials have long been utilized for human use because of their wide range of physical properties and incredible mechanical efficiency as eco-friendly structures. One example of their use today is the practice of using the sturdy leaves of *Pandanus tectorius* for thatching purposes. An increase in modern demand for *P. tectorius* is pressuring farmers to deviate from traditional harvesting methods in an attempt to increase leaf yield. With little knowledge of the repercussions of their new practice, modern farmers are pre-maturely harvesting leaves through heat-induced leaf drying while the leaves remain on the tree. In this study, life-history characteristics, physical and mechanical properties of *P. tectorius* leaves on Mo'orea, French Polynesia are examined to determine whether or not this deviation from traditional harvest methods reduces leaf efficacy as a thatching material. Quantitative measures of *P. tectorius* leaves suggest that pre-mature harvest does not alter the size of collected leaves for thatch because most leaves on a tree have already reached maximum growth. Heat-induced leaf drying, however, reduces the tensile strength of *P. tectorius* leaves by about 25%. Further research may find that this loss in leaf tensile strength may correlate to less robust roofing structures, hindered longevity and ultimately an increase in energy cost to repair and rebuild such structures.

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2 **and mechanical properties of *Pandanus tectorius* leaves**

3 John Albert Toman

4 Integrative Biology, University of California, Berkeley, U.S.A.

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6 Corresponding Author:

7 John Toman

8 13954 Orange Blossom Rd, Oakdale, California, 95361, United States of America

9 Email address: jtoman@berkeley.edu

10 Abstract

11 Plant materials have long been utilized for human use because of their wide range of physical
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14 An increase in modern demand for *P. tectorius* is pressuring farmers to deviate from traditional
15 harvesting methods in an attempt to increase leaf yield. With little knowledge of the
16 repercussions of their new practice, modern farmers are pre-maturely harvesting leaves through
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19 Polynesia are examined to determine whether or not this deviation from traditional harvest
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21 leaves suggest that pre-mature harvest does not alter the size of collected leaves for thatch
22 because most leaves on a tree have already reached maximum growth. Heat-induced leaf drying,
23 however, reduces the tensile strength of *P. tectorius* leaves by about 25%. Further research may
24 find that this loss in leaf tensile strength may correlate to less robust roofing structures, hindered
25 longevity and ultimately an increase in energy cost to repair and rebuild such structures.

27 Introduction

28 Human beings of all cultures and ancestry have developed a profoundly important ethnobotanical
29 relationship with plants. Evidence suggests this human-plant relationship began in the New
30 World Tropics about 4,000 to 11,000 years ago when indigenous neotropical people began
31 cultivating and domesticating a seemingly inexhaustible source of plant materials (Piperno
32 2011). For example, Pacific Islanders have long thatched their roofs with Pili Grass and Palm
33 Fronds, wove their sandals out of banana leaves and reached Tahiti, French Polynesia in Canoes
34 made of planks (Krauss 1974). Utilization of local plant materials for construction has many
35 advantages over modern approaches to development. Such advantages include a reduced energy
36 cost for its transport and reduced environmental impact because the material eventually degrades
37 (Barreca 2012). As research uncovers life history characteristics, morphologies, and properties of
38 ethnobotanical plant materials, agriculturalists, farmers, and engineers are informed how to better
39 utilize, harvest and manage materials in order to maximize quality and efficiency. Consequently,
40 humans benefit from these advancements, especially in areas where people rely on ethnobotany
41 for their well-being.

42 Pacific Island culture and tradition has long used *Pandanus tectorius* (Pandanales), a
43 monocotyledon native to Polynesia, for its nutritious edible fruits, poles and branches for
44 construction, and even the leaves for weaving, garlands, and thatching (Thompson 2006;
45 Gallaher *et al.* 2015). On the island of Mo'orea, French Polynesia, the practice of using *P.*
46 *tectorius* leaves for thatching purposes is still a popular practice for many citizens (T.H. Murphy,
47 pers. comm.). However, acquiring a sufficient supply of *P. tectorius* leaves often proves an
48 expensive and time consuming task. At present, Mo'orean citizens are required to make the 87
49 km long boat journey from Mo'orea to the island Mai'ao where wild *P. tectorius* produces
50 substantial leaf yields. Traditionally, only leaves that died and fell naturally from the tree were
51 deemed worthy to be used for thatching (T.H. Murphy, pers. comm.). Recently, however,
52 residents have become so opposed to making the trek from Mo'orea to Mai'ao that they have
53 begun manipulating the natural rate by which leaves fall from the tree. They set fires underneath
54 the branches of living trees in order to dry out the leaves more quickly; this causes them to die
55 and drop off sooner than they originally would have (T.H. Murphy, pers. comm.). Skeptical

56 locals have coined this method the “cheaters harvest”. It is not known whether or not this non-
57 traditional harvest method affects the leaves efficacy as a thatching material. This paper aims to
58 reveal the deleterious effects of the “cheater’s harvest” by investigating if pre-mature leaf death
59 via fire results in leaves that are smaller, thinner and weaker when compared to leaves harvested
60 via traditional methods.

61

62 **Materials & Methods**

63 Study site and species

64 This study was conducted on the island of Mo’orea in French Polynesia through the months of
65 September and November 2016. Mo’orea is a small (134 km²) island created through volcanism
66 1.5 – 2.5 mya. *Pandanus tectorius* (Pandanaeae) leaves were collected from four mature plants
67 between the ages of 15 and 30 years, as estimated by the methods proposed by Ash (1987).

68 These trees were evenly distributed between two different study sites; one site was across the
69 street from the Atitia Center on the coast of Cook’s Bay (17°29'34.41"S 149°49'34.91"W) and
70 the other was located on a hillside in the village of Atiha on the southern tip of the island

71 (17°35'26.32"S 149°50'20.07"W).

72 Experimental design

73 This study tested two working hypothesis through two different experiments: (1) tracing leaf life-
74 history morphology and (2) effect of heat treatment on tensile strength. All leaves were randomly
75 collected from branch diameters between 4-7 cm. Leaf size in this study ranged from 1-3 m at
76 maturity. All experiments were performed within 24 hours of collection to avoid differences
77 associated with drying between sampling.

78 *Tracing leaf life-history morphology*

79 *Pandanus tectorius* leaf growth occurs in a highly organized and spirally-arranged fashion at
80 branch apices. Since each branch contains a single apical meristem, leaves are born one at a time
81 at the tip of the branch. Consequently, the innermost leaves of a branch are the youngest and
82 relative age increases as one moves away from the branch apex. This distinctive growth pattern
83 of *P. tectorius* allows one to measure and track growth as a function of relative age by taking
84 various leaf morphology measurements and noting the particular order of leaves as they are
85 removed. All leaves from three different branches were collected by removing the oldest,
86 outermost leaves first and working towards the branch apex and meristem. Leaves were removed
87 one at a time and numbered in the particular order by which they were removed in order to keep
88 precise relative age estimates intact. Leaf length was measured to the nearest tenth of a
89 centimeter using a transect measuring tape, width to the nearest millimeter using a ruler, and
90 thickness to the nearest hundredth of a millimeter using a Mitutoyo Digimatic Caliper. Simple
91 linear regression analyses were applied on a scatterplot of leaf length, width, and thickness as a
92 function of number of leaves from the apical meristem by using R (R Core Development Team,
93 2013) to investigate plant life-history correlates and growth patterns.

94 *Effect of heat treatment on tensile strength*

95 This experiment investigated the effects of exposure of *P. tectorius* leaves to heat on their tensile
96 strength. This was tested by collecting about 50 mature green leaves from two trees at the
97 collection site across the street from the Atitia Center. Leaves were carefully selected to include
98 only symmetrical and undamaged leaves. To control for inter-leaf variance, leaves were split
99 down the midrib producing 50 pairs of nearly identical leaf strips. One leaf strip of each pair was
100 randomly assigned to either the heat treatment or traditional method of sun-drying. Heat-treated
101 strips were placed in a conventional propane oven set to “broil” at 90 °C. To avoid burning the

102 leaves, they were removed after one hour of treatment and set out to air-dry the fractional
103 remainder of water content still apparently remaining. Leaves selected for sun-drying were
104 placed outside in broad daylight with a fan to supply a constant breeze. To prevent leaf curling
105 during the drying process, leaves of both treatments were weaved through an oven rack. Once
106 leaves were dry, tensile strengths were measured via the pulling force required to break leaf
107 strips. This was achieved by placing weights seven inches apart on each end of the leaf strips. A
108 luggage scale with a flat hook was placed directly in the middle of these weights. The upwards
109 pulling force required to break the leaf strips was recorded in kilograms. A paired t-test was
110 performed to analyze the difference in mean leaf tensile strength between drying methods using
111 R (R Core Development Team, 2013).

112

113 **Results**

114 Tracing leaf life-history morphology

115 Leaf thickness increased linearly from 0.17 mm to 1.24 mm with little variance across all
116 branches (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df = 37, $R^2 = 0.94$) until the 16th leaf from
117 the meristem was reached. However, beyond the 16th leaf the correlation appeared to cease
118 completely (Linear regression analysis, p-value > 0.1, df = 67 $R^2 = 0.016$). The average leaf
119 thickness of all branches sampled beyond the 16th leaf was 1.29 mm. A total of 106 leaves were
120 measured for thickness (*Figure 1*). The same general outcome for leaf length and width was
121 observed, although max length and width differed between branches. The first 10 leaves from the
122 meristem on each branch increased linearly in width from about 2.59 to 76.0mm (Linear
123 regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df = 25, $R^2 = 0.88$). Although max width ranged from 64 to
124 88 mm between branches, the correlation was lost completely on all branches sampled for width
125 beyond about the 10th leaf from the meristem. A total of 102 leaves were measured for width
126 (*Figure 2*). The first 14 leaves from the meristem on all branches also increased linearly in length
127 from 11.4 to 217.0 cm (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df = 33, $R^2 = 0.88$). Beyond
128 the 14th leaf the correlation between length and number of leaves from the meristem again
129 disappeared (*Figure 3*). Of the 110 leaf length measurements that were recorded, 18 leaf length
130 measurements were omitted due to a fruiting event that had occurred on one of the branches. The
131 fruiting body was observed between the 36th and 35th leaf from the meristem. The length of the
132 36th leaf was 183.4 cm and the length of the 35th leaf decreased drastically to 23.3 cm. These two
133 leaves were separated only by the remnants of a fruiting body. Length measurements of leaves
134 further from the fruiting body increased linearly until the average maximum height of about
135 226.4 cm was reached once again (*Figure 4*). All aspects of leaf morphology are related in a
136 positive and linear manner. Leaf length and width were the most closely correlated variables
137 (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df = 92, $R^2 = 0.93$, slope = 0.37) (*Figure 5*).
138 Thickness is also correlated with length (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df = 92, R^2
139 = 0.68, slope = 0.005mm) (*Figure 6*) and width (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001, df =
140 102, $R^2 = 0.7$, slope = 0.013mm) (*Figure 7*).

141 Leaf tensile strength and drying method

142 The tensile strength of sun-dried leaves ranged from 4.4 to 20.6 kilograms; where-as, heat-dried
143 leaf tensile strength ranged from 3.8 to 16.3 kilograms (*Figure 8*). The mean tensile strength of
144 sun-dried leaves was approximately 11.2 kilograms, but only about 8.4 kilograms for heat-dried
145 leaves, a difference of about 2.8 kilograms (*Figure 8*). The mean tensile strength of sun-dried
146 leaves was greater than heat-dried leaves (Paired t-test, t = 5.18, df = 51, p-value < 0.001).

147

148 Discussion

149 This study began by investigating the effects of pre-mature leaf harvest on leaf size. Leaf life-
150 history morphology measurements provided evidence that the youngest leaves on any given
151 branch grow quickly and at a nearly identical rate in thickness, width and length (*Figures 1, 2 &*
152 *3*). This growth is abruptly halted when leaves reach their maximum size at maturity. Maximum
153 leaf width and length varied by branch because leaf size depends on stem diameter ('Corner's
154 Rule, Hall *et al.* 1978). Leaf thickness, however, varied very little by the branches sampled in
155 this study. The point at which leaves stopped growing also varied by branch. In all cases, the
156 outermost leaves on the tree were fully mature, showed no evidence of continued growth and
157 constituted more than half of the total number of leaves on the branch. This implies that leaves
158 do not grow continuously throughout the entire duration of their life and that the outermost
159 leaves on any given branch are roughly the same size.

160 The "cheater's harvest" has earned a poor reputation with locals for the non-traditional
161 pre-mature harvesting of leaves via fire. However, inner leaves and meristems are so well
162 protected by the outermost leaves that they are able to survive moderate fire (Ash 1987). In other
163 words, only the outermost leaves of branches are scorched and collected during the "cheater's
164 harvest." Considering that the outermost leaves on any given branch were found to all roughly be
165 the same size, it is unlikely that pre-mature leaf harvest would result in smaller leaves. However,
166 the long term-effects of this practice may be a greater threat. For example, photosynthesis is vital
167 for growth and survival of virtually all plants (Lambers 2008). The "cheater's harvest" is robbing
168 *P. tectorius* of photosynthetically viable organelles through the pre-mature harvesting of living
169 leaves. The long-term effects of such organelle loss on the health of *P. tectorius* individuals
170 should be examined as it may lead to the long-term decline of average leaf size as the plant
171 becomes progressively less photosynthetically viable. Nonetheless, no evidence of any
172 immediate decrease in leaf size due to pre-mature harvesting was observed. If there is an
173 unforeseen deleterious outcome associated with this method that is leading to the decreased
174 longevity of roofs as observed by locals, something else must be causing it.

175 In an attempt to quantify any immediate and negative impacts on *P. tectorius* leaf tensile
176 strength that could be attributed to the "cheaters harvest", a closer look at the physical factors
177 associated with fires used during this method were investigated. This investigation suggested that
178 even a modest and short term exposure to heat negatively impacts the tensile strength of *P.*
179 *tectorius* leaves by about 2.8 kilograms of pulling force (*Figure 8*). This accounts for nearly a
180 25% decrease in leaf tensile strength. The geometry of a deformed cell wall is a major
181 determinant of its tensile strength (Gibson 2012). It is therefore possible that exposure of *P.*
182 *tectorius* leaves to heat is inducing deformation of the cell wall within the heat-treated leaves that
183 is not occurring in the sun-dried leaves. Further microscopy analysis may find an increased
184 number of cell wall abnormalities among heat-treated leaves providing a potential mechanism to
185 explain their reduced tensile strength.

186 The quality of the thatching material used for construction is a good estimation of the
187 quality of the roof as a whole (Barreca 2012). With evidence to suggest the "cheater's harvest"
188 produces weaker leaves, roofs made with this thatching material will likely sacrifice structural
189 integrity and longevity when compared to traditionally thatched roofs. A long-term study of
190 roofs made with leaves collected from each of these harvest methods is recommended to quantify
191 this difference. Nonetheless, this decrease in overall strength as a roofing structure may be the
192 reason behind the decreased roof longevity observed by locals.

193

194 Conclusion

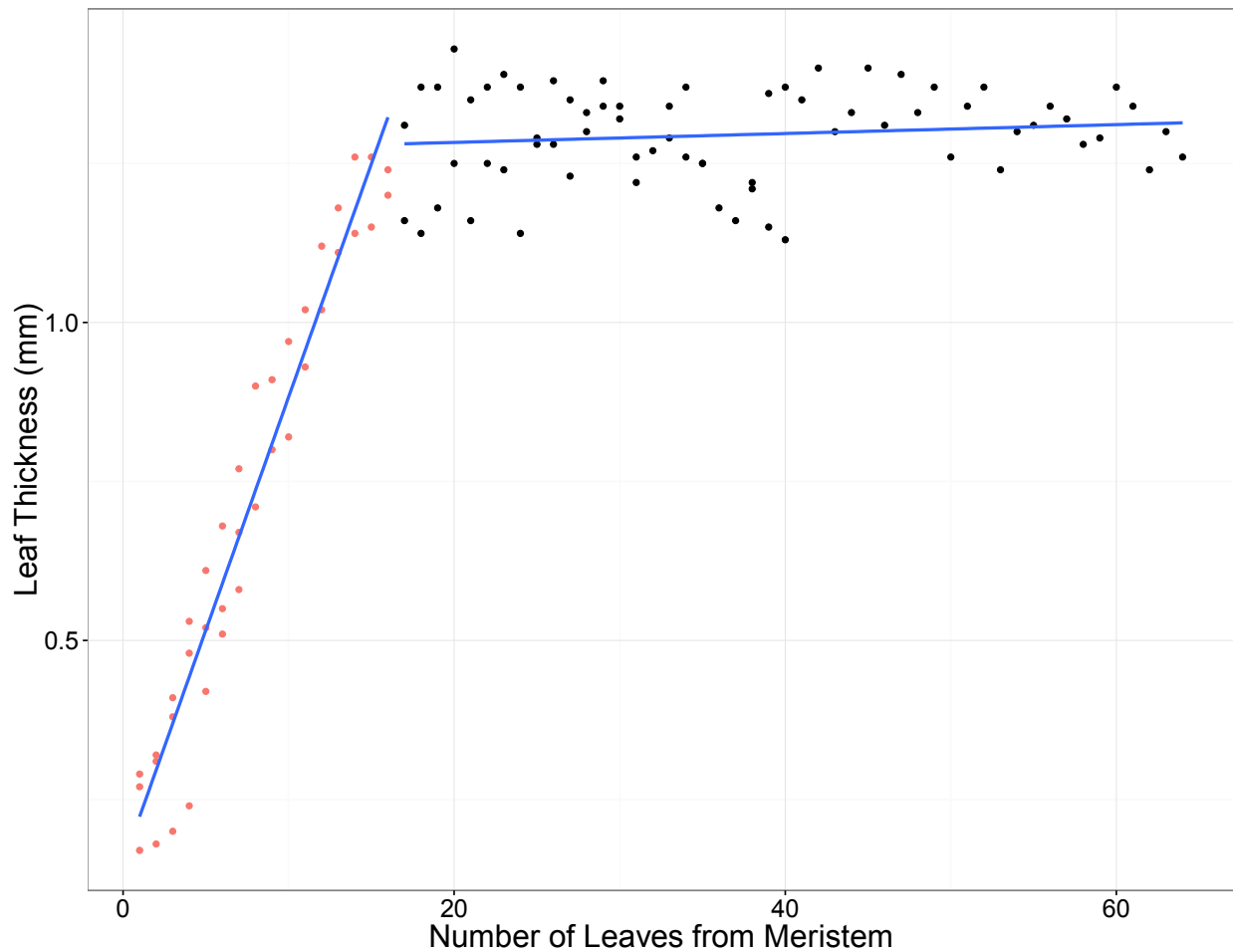
195 The short term effects of pre-mature *Pandanus tectorius* leaf harvest on leaf morphology
196 is virtually undetectable because most leaves on a tree have already stopped growing. Modest
197 and short application of heat upon leaves, however, has deleterious effects on their tensile
198 strength. Traditional *P. tectorius* leaf harvest methods produce thatching material that is stronger
199 than more modern approaches because the leaves are never exposed to heat. It should therefore
200 be recommended that *P. tectorius* farmers physically remove the outermost leaves of each branch
201 and lay the leaves out to dry in the sun, rather than using fire. It is imperative we practice the
202 correct utilization of the most suitable natural building materials because it will increase the time
203 before roof repair and replacement are required. A renewed interest in bioconstruction materials
204 and techniques can prove to be a prudent starting place for the search for eco-friendly technical
205 solutions or the advancement of modern engineering. This will ultimately lead to less energy cost
206 for the transport of new building materials and reduce environmental impacts by reducing
207 addition of materials to the waste stream. These results demonstrate the need for further research
208 when deviating from methods practiced by traditional ethnobotanists because their methods have
209 worked and been trusted for centuries, lending to their apparent wealth of knowledge in the
210 subject.

211

212 References

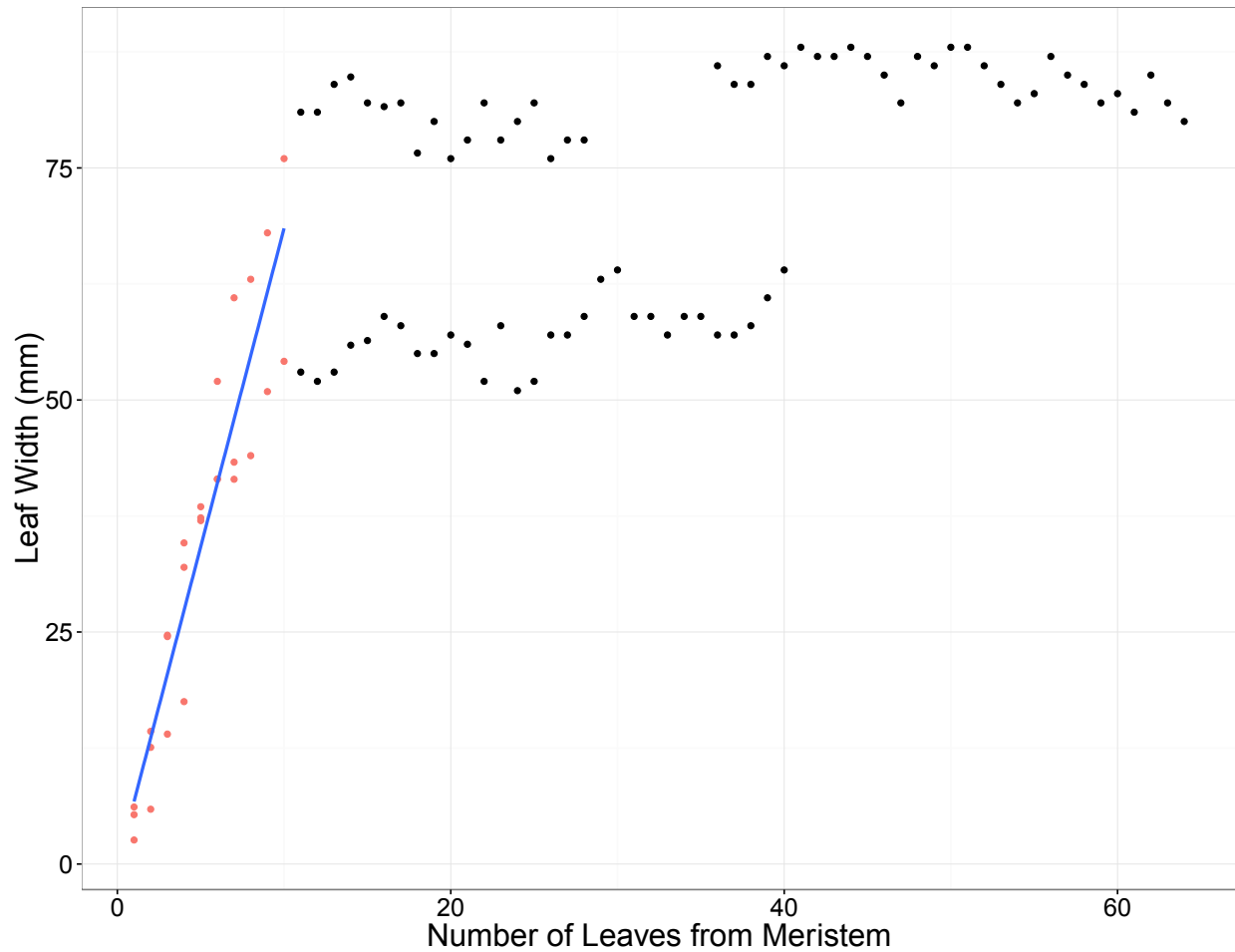
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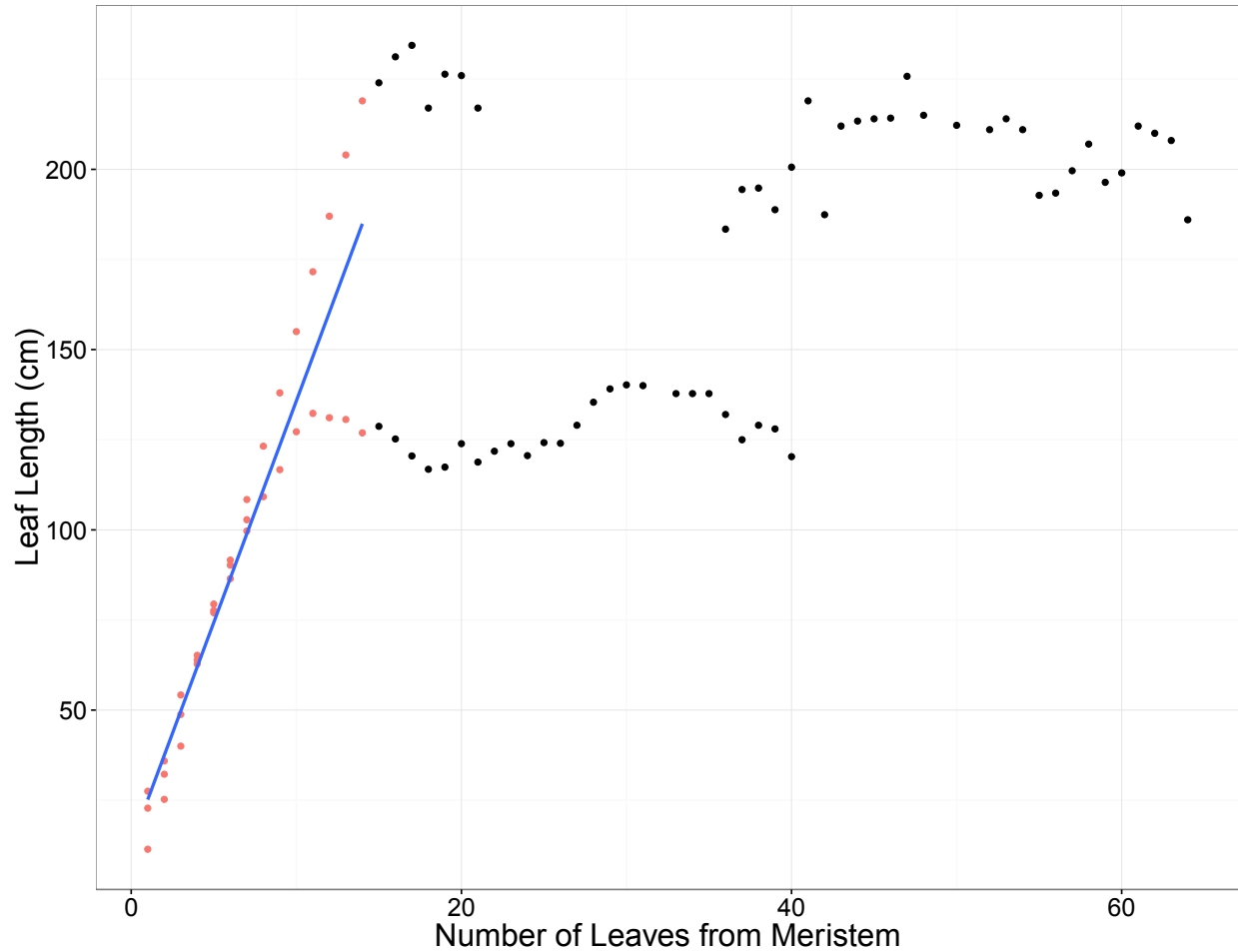
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238 *Figure 1.* Scatterplot of leaf thickness (y-axis, mm) versus relative leaf age (x-axis), as measured
 239 by the number of leaves from the meristem in *Pandanus tectorius*. The red data points represent
 240 the first 16 leaves from the meristem on three different branches; where-as, black data points
 241 represent leaves found at least 16 leaves from the meristem. The blue lines represent the line of
 242 best fit for their respective datasets. The rightmost blue line represents best fit for the 16
 243 youngest leaves of the branches sampled ((Linear regression analysis, $p < 0.001$, $df = 37$, $R^2 =$
 244 0.94). The leftmost blue line represents the best fit for those leaves beyond the 16th (Linear
 245 regression analysis, p -value > 0.1 , $df = 67$ $R^2 = 0.016$). The grey clouds surrounding these lines
 246 represents their respective 95% confidence intervals.

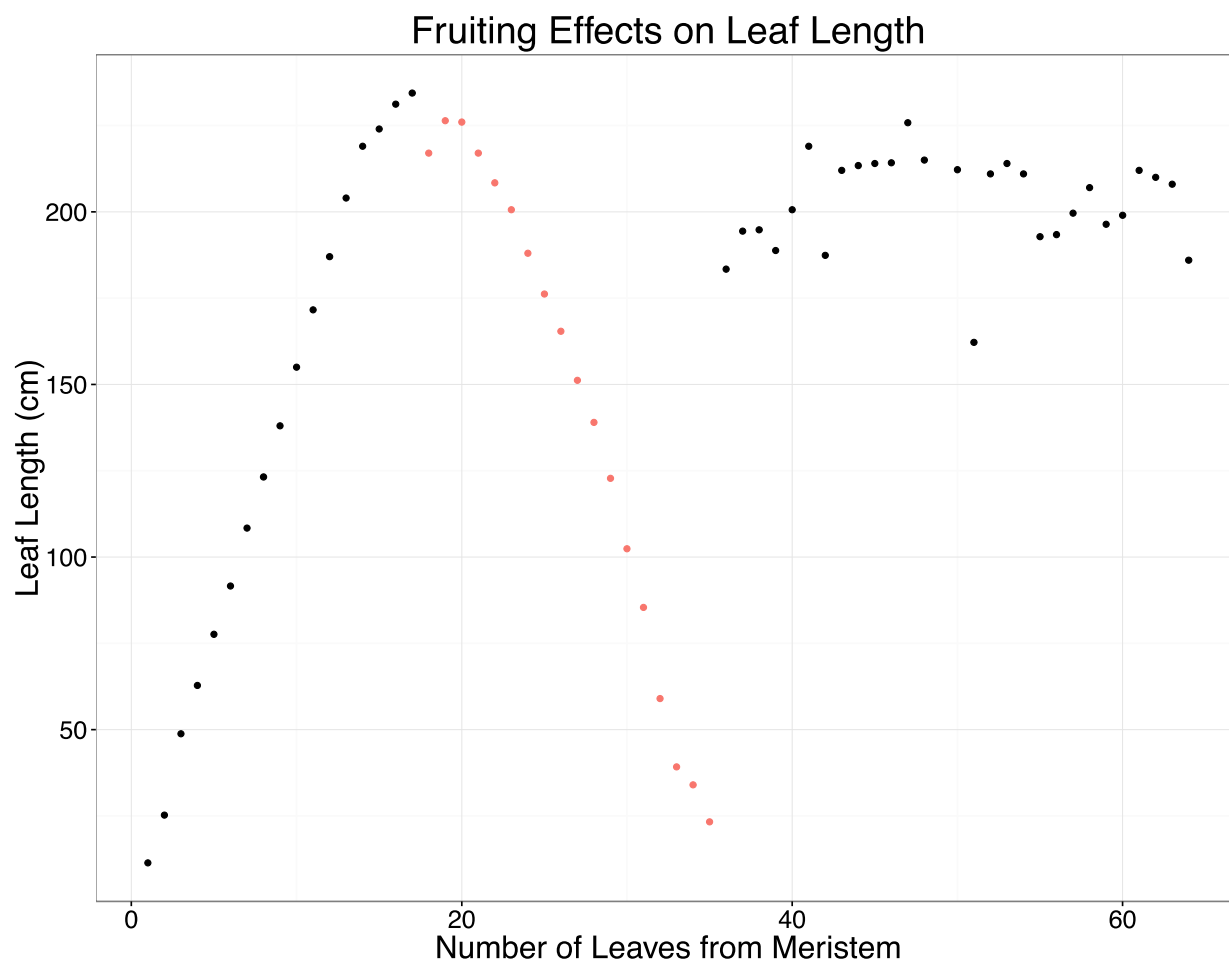


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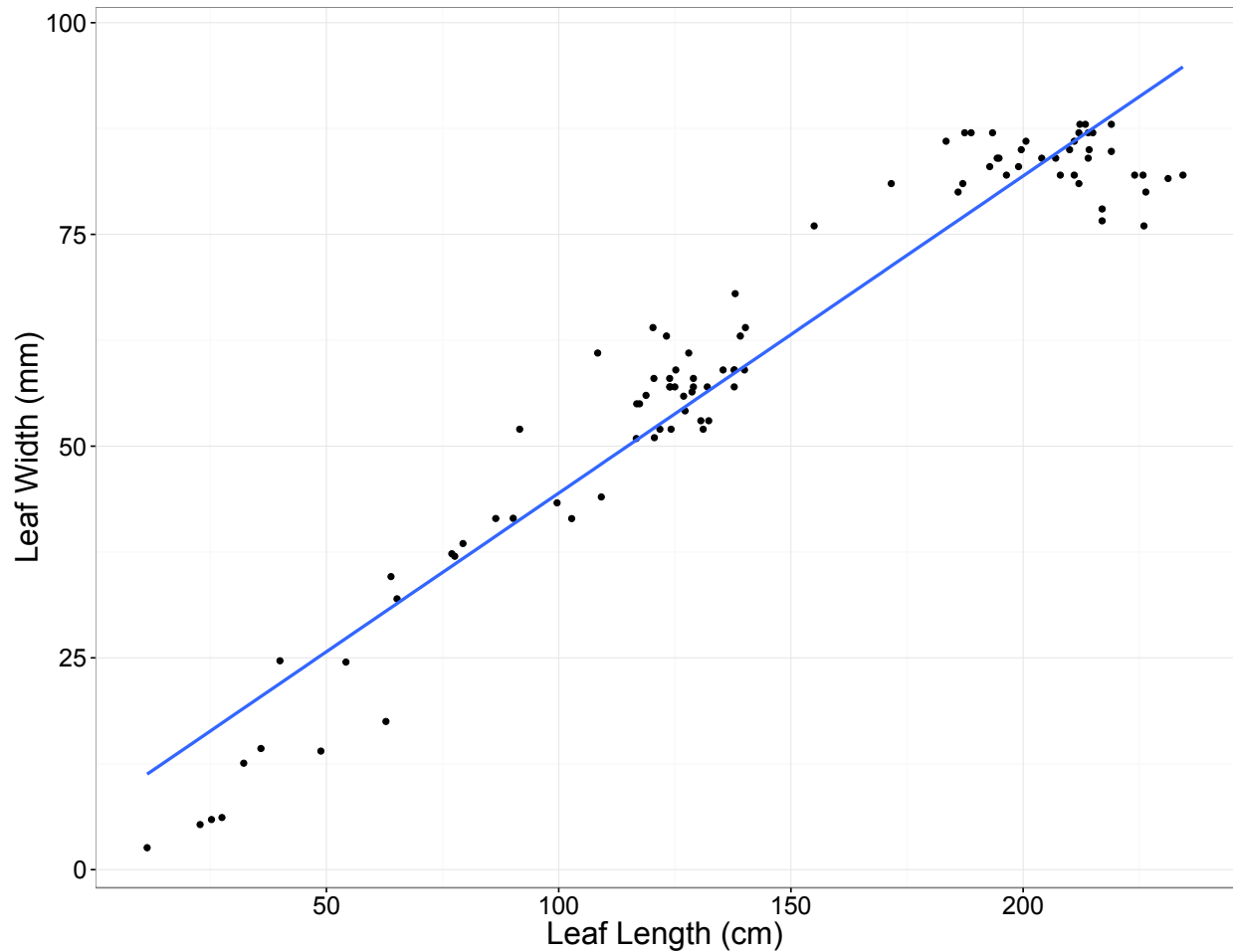
248 *Figure 2.* Scatterplot of leaf width (y-axis, mm) versus relative leaf age (x-axis), as measured by
249 the number of leaves from the meristem in *Pandanus tectorius*. The red data points represent the
250 first 10 leaves from the meristem on three different branches; where-as, black data points
251 represent leaves found at least 10 leaves from the meristem. The blue line represents the line of
252 best fit for the 10 youngest leaves of the three branches sampled ((Linear regression analysis, $p <$
253 0.001 , $df = 25$, $R^2 \approx 0.88$). The grey cloud surrounding this line represents the 95% confidence
254 interval for the line of best fit.



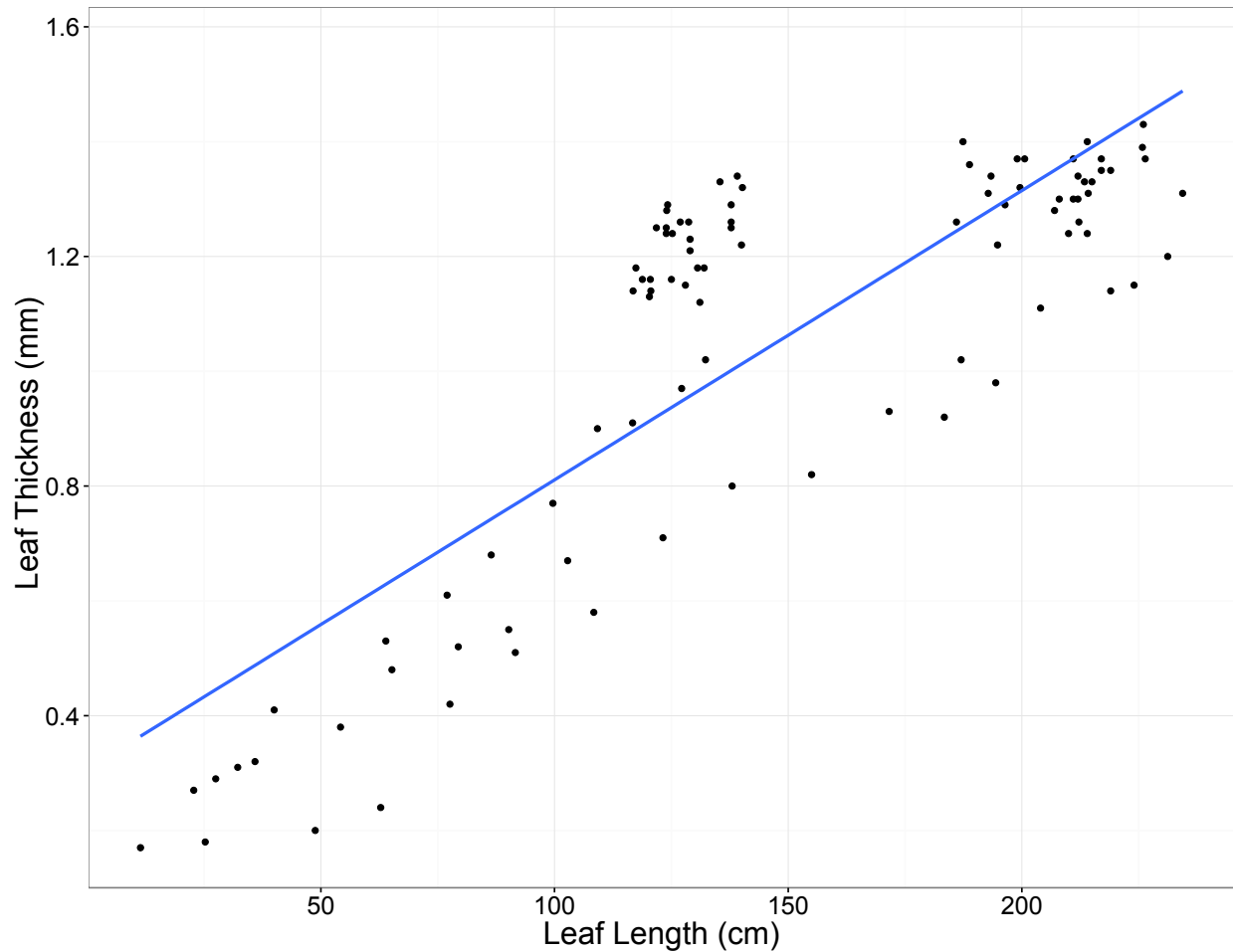
255
256 *Figure 3.* Scatterplot of leaf length (y-axis, cm) versus relative leaf age (x-axis), as measured by
257 the number of leaves from the meristem in *Pandanus tectorius*. The red data points represent the
258 first 14 leaves from the meristem on three different branches; where-as, black data points
259 represent leaves found at least 14 leaves from the meristem. The blue line represents the line of
260 best fit for the 14 youngest leaves of the three branches sampled ((Linear regression analysis, $p <$
261 0.001 , $df = 33$, $R^2 \approx 0.88$). The grey cloud surrounding this line represents the 95% confidence
262 interval for the line of best fit.



263
264 *Figure 4.* Scatterplot of leaf length (y-axis, cm) versus relative leaf age (x-axis), as measured by
265 the number of leaves from the meristem in *Pandanus tectorius*. All of the data points on this
266 graph represent leaf lengths acquired from one fruiting tree branch. The red data points represent
267 the leaves affected by the fruiting event, which consisted of leaves 18 – 35. The fruiting body
268 was located between leaves 35 & 36. Leaf length dropped immediately upon commensal of the
269 fruiting event and gradually increased as the fruit grew.



270
271 *Figure 5.* Scatterplot showing the relationship between *P. tectorius* leaf width and length. The
272 two variables are related in a linear manner where approximately each increase of 1 cm in leaf
273 length is associated with an increase of 0.37 mm in width, as represented by the blue line of best
274 fit and its respective 95% confidence interval. (Linear Regression Analysis, p-value < 0.001, df =
275 92, $R^2 = 0.93$, slope = 0.37)



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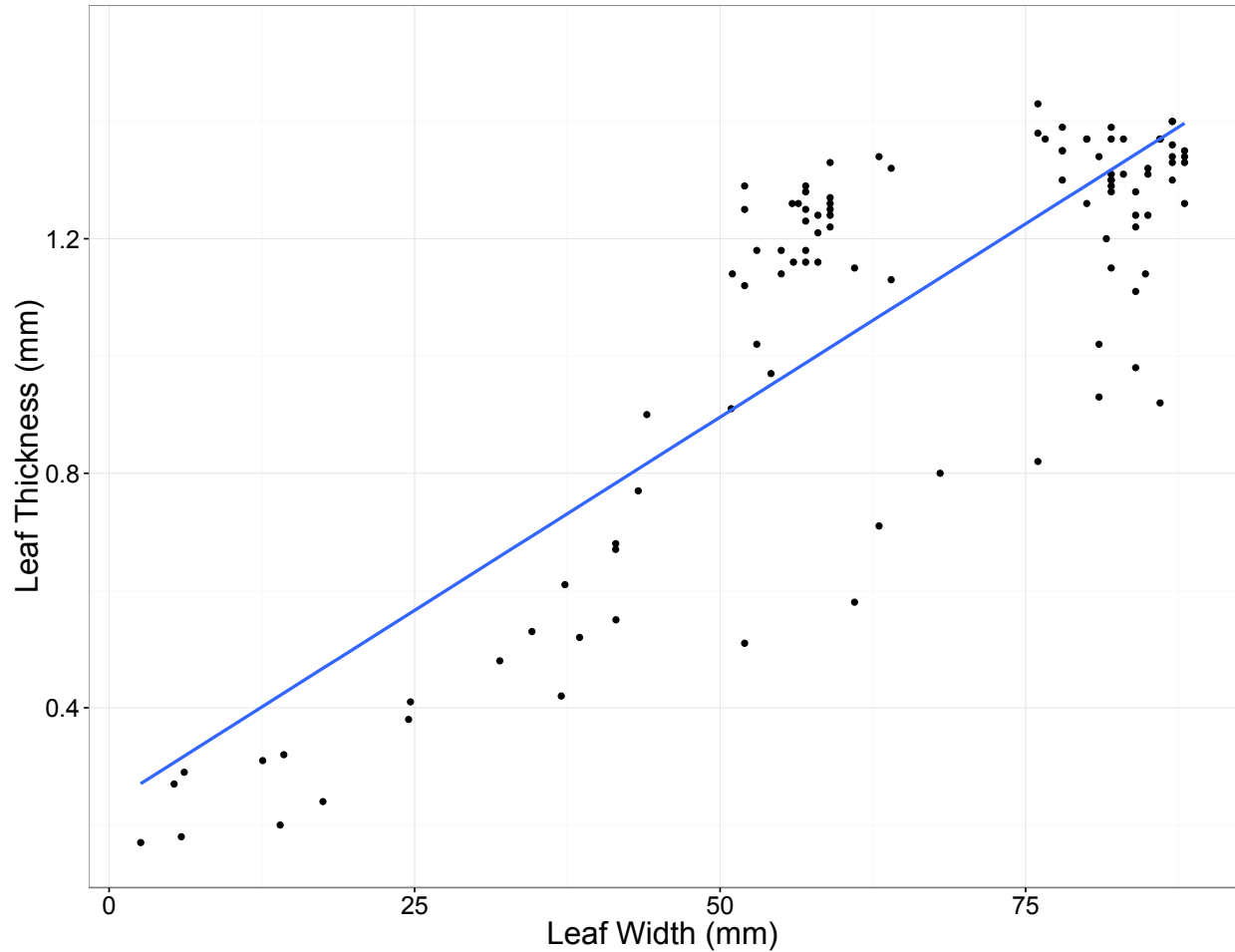
277 *Figure 6.* Scatterplot showing the relationship between *P. tectorius* leaf thickness and length.

278 The two variables are related in a linear manner where approximately each increase of 1 cm in

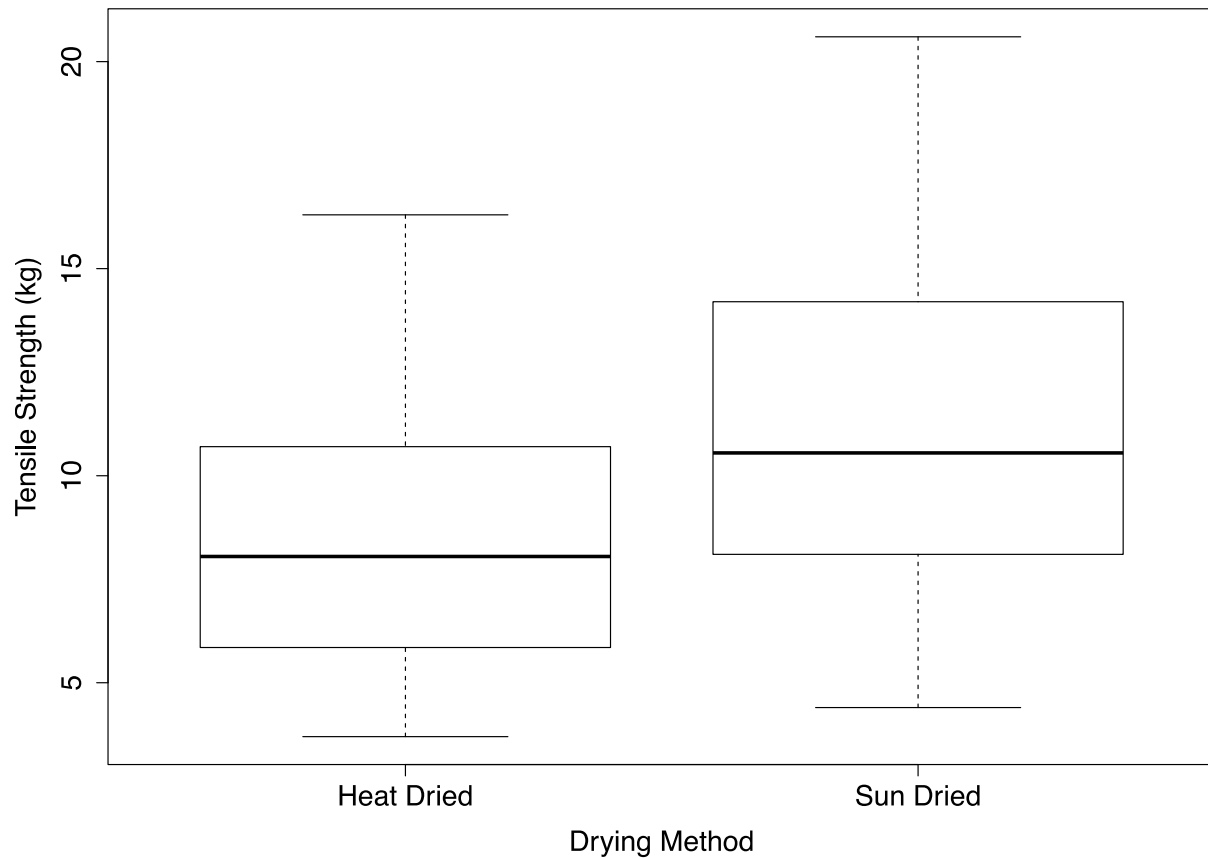
279 leaf length is associated with an increase of 0.005 mm in length, as represented by the blue line

280 of best fit and its respective 95% confidence interval. (Linear regression analysis, p-value <

281 0.001, df = 92, $R^2 = 0.68$, slope = 0.005mm).



282
283 *Figure 7.* Scatterplot showing the relationship between *P. tectorius* leaf thickness and width. The
284 two variables are related in a linear manner where approximately each increase of 1 mm in leaf
285 width is associated with an increase of 0.013 mm in thickness as represented by the blue line of
286 best fit and its respective 95% confidence interval. (Linear regression analysis, p-value < 0.001,
287 df = 102, $R^2 = 0.7$, slope = 0.013mm)



288
289 *Figure 8.* Boxplot showing the tensile strengths of *Pandanus tectorius* leaves after being dried
290 using two different methods. The dark line represents the mean tensile strength. The horizontal
291 walls of the box represent the first and third tensile strength quartiles. The outermost “whiskers”
292 illustrate the minimum and maximum tensile strength of their respective drying method (Paired t-
293 test, $t = 5.18$, $df = 51$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$).