

1 **Soil water-holding capacity mediates hydraulic and hormonal signals of**
2 **near-isohydric and near-anisohydric *Vitis* cultivars in potted grapevines.**

3 **Abridged title:** Soil and genotype influence on grapevine response to drought.

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14 **Summary Text for the Table of Contents.**

15 The ecophysiological behaviour of grapevine cultivars in response to drought is
16 influenced by the soil conditions and by the plant genotype. These two components
17 interact through a complex of hydraulic and hormonal signal exchanges occurring
18 between roots and leaves. Our work highlights the differences in these signals observed
19 in a near-isohydric and a near-anisohydric grapevine cultivars on two soil substrates
20 with different textures, causing different dynamics of water deprivation during an
21 imposed increasing water stress.

22 **Abstract**

23 Grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.) expresses different responses to water stress, not only
24 depending from genotype, but also from the influence of vineyard growing conditions
25 or seasonality. We aimed to analyze the effects on drought response of two grapevine
26 cultivars growing on two soils, one water draining (WD) containing sand 80% vol. and
27 the other water retaining (WR), with no sand. Under these two different water-holding
28 capacities Syrah, displaying a near-anisohydric response to water stress, and Cabernet

29 Sauvignon (on the contrary, near-isohydric) were submitted to water stress in a pot trial.
30 Xylem embolism contributed to plant adaptation to soil water deprivation: in both
31 cultivars during late phases of water stress, however, in Syrah, already at moderate early
32 stress levels. By contrast, Syrah showed a less effective stomatal control of drought than
33 Cabernet Sauvignon. The abscisic acid (ABA) influenced tightly the stomatal
34 conductance of Cabernet Sauvignon on both pot soils. In the near-anisohydric variety
35 Syrah an ABA-related stomatal closure was induced in WR soil to maintain high levels
36 of water potential, showing that a soil-related hormonal root-to-shoot signal causing
37 stomatal closure superimposes on the putatively variety-induced anisohydric response to
38 water stress.

39 **Key words:** abscisic acid (ABA), cavitation, embolism, hydraulic conductance, water
40 potential.

41 **Introduction**

42 Grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.) is a species expressing both isohydric and anisohydric
43 behaviours, not only depending from genotype (Schultz 2003), but also from the
44 influence of growing conditions or seasonality (Chaves *et al.* 2010, de Souza *et al.*
45 2003) or from the environmental conditions to which the plant was exposed (Collins *et*
46 *al.* 2010; Lovisolo *et al.* 2010; Pou *et al.* 2012; Tramontini *et al.* 2013a).

47 Although the genotype itself is not sufficient to preview the physiological behaviour of
48 grapevine plants, some cultivars have been more frequently observed expressing
49 consistent results than others. One of these is Syrah. This cultivar, of mesic origin, has
50 been mainly categorized as anisohydric, either from observations of plants under field
51 conditions (Schultz 2003; Rogiers *et al.* 2009; Soar *et al.* 2009) or in pots (Soar *et al.*
52 2006). Cabernet Sauvignon, on the other hand, has been more frequently observed to
53 display a response to water deprivation nearer to isohydric type (Hochberg *et al.* 2013).
54 Owing to the differential response observed on these two cultivars under the same water
55 conditions, Cabernet Sauvignon and Syrah have already been coupled in comparative
56 experiments (Chalmers 2007; Petrie and Sadras 2008; Rogiers *et al.* 2009; Hochberg *et*
57 *al.* 2013) and can therefore be selected as efficient models for representing iso- and
58 anisohydric behaviours.

59 The stomatal control, which is an endogenous, but highly variable character, was
60 considered in combination with the soil effect. Soil is in fact another crucial component
61 in grape and wine production, not only because it determines the water and nutrients
62 availability for the plant and therefore its productive performances, but also for its
63 specific implication in the “*terroir* effect” in viticulture (Bodin and Morlat 2006; van
64 Leeuwen *et al.* 2009). In spite of the acknowledged importance on grape and wine
65 production, not many studies attempted to quantify its effects with comparative trials.
66 For this reason, in the presented work, we decided to focus the attention only on the
67 differences produced by two soils in terms of soil texture and related water availability
68 provided to the plant: one single aspect which is, however, strongly influenced by
69 physical, chemical, and biological properties of the substrate. When a soil dries, in fact,
70 the increasing drought affects the plant in multiple and complex ways (Whitmore and
71 Whalley 2009).

72 Cavitation of the xylem vessels is a very relevant consequence of the limited soil
73 moisture, as it can produce dramatic consequences by reducing the hydraulic
74 conductivity of the vascular tissues and impairing the possibility for the plant to replace
75 transpired water (Brodersen *et al.* 2013). It is also one of the most studied effects of
76 drought in grapevine, in combination with loss in hydraulic conductance (Lovisolo and
77 Tramontini 2010). In leaves, cavitation and consequent embolism formation affect
78 mainly the leaf midrib (Blackman *et al.* 2010), with a conductivity loss in grapevine
79 petioles of 50% at Ψ_{stem} of -0.95 MPa and of more than 90% at -1.5MPa (Zufferey *et al.*
80 2011). On the other hand, the entity of damage produced by cavitation and the break
81 against its propagation are modulated by the speed and intensity of stomata reaction and
82 by its effect on transpiration (Domec and Johnson 2012) approximating leaves to
83 hydraulic fuses of the plant (Zufferey *et al.* 2011).

84 Embolism formation and repair is controlled by a likely hydraulic mediation at the leaf
85 level (Pantin *et al.* 2013) and via chemical signals (Salleo *et al.* 1996; Lovisolo and
86 Schubert 2006) among which abscisic acid (ABA) has a crucial role. ABA is in fact the
87 hormone devoted to drive the stomatal response to drought: when the soil water
88 potential declines, ABA acts as a messenger indicating water stress from the roots, via
89 the xylem sap, to the guard cells in the leaves and inducing the stomata closure
90 (Hartung *et al.* 2002), limiting in such a way the potential consequences of embolism

91 formation (Chitarra et al. 2014). When the water availability is recovered to an adequate
92 level, the roots stop releasing the hormone and the stomata re-open. The delayed
93 interruption of the signal, much more gradual than the initial release, suggests a further
94 action of the hormone on the embolisms repair (Lovisolo *et al.* 2008; Perrone *et al.*
95 2012).

96 Furthermore, in grapevine metabolic and hydraulic behaviour have shown to be related,
97 according to the observations recently published by Hochberg *et al.* (2013) from a study
98 conducted on Cabernet Sauvignon and Syrah plants too. In this work the more
99 anisohydric grapevine cultivar showed higher water uptake and higher g_s than the near-
100 isohydric cultivar.

101 The aim of the present work is to analyze the effect of two types of drying soil, differing
102 in water retaining properties, on two grapevines genotypes, characterized by different
103 ecophysiological behaviour, from the point of view of the hydraulic balance of the plant
104 (i.e. water potential, stomatal control, embolism formation), and its hormonal(ABA)
105 control of water losses.

106 **Materials and Methods**

107 *Plant material and growing conditions*

108 The trial was conducted in August 2012 at Hochschule Geisenheim University
109 (Geisenheim, Germany) on 16 three-year-old plants of *Vitis vinifera* L. of two
110 genotypes: 8 plants of ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and 8 of ‘Syrah’. Both were grafted on
111 hybrids of *Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis riparia* (‘161-49 Couderc’ for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’
112 and ‘420A Millardet Et De Grasset’ for ‘Syrah’) of comparable characteristics (Whiting
113 2004), especially in controlling the interrelationship between leaf or stem water
114 potential and stomatal conductance (Tramontini *et al.* 2013b). The plants were
115 maintained under glasshouse conditions with no supplementary light or heating in 9 L
116 (24 cm average diameter) plastic pots filled (20 cm depth) with two different substrates,
117 one water draining (WD soil) and the other water retaining (WR soil). The WD
118 substrate was composed of 80 % vol. of sand and 20 % vol. of ED 73 (Einheitserde
119 Classic, Einheitserde-Einheitserde- und Humuswerke Gebr. Patzer GmbH & Co.KG,
120 Sinntal, Germany; consisting of 55% white peat, 30% clay, 15% sod peat; chemical

121 properties pH (CaCl₂) 5.8, salt content 2.5 g L⁻¹) including nutrient salt (14+16+18, 1 kg
 122 m⁻³) and a slow-release fertilizer (Gepac LZD 20+10+15, 2 kg m⁻³), the WR substrate
 123 consisted entirely of ED 73.

124 Plants were watered to container capacity at the beginning of the experiment
 125 (Tramontini *et al.* 2013b) and fertilized in order to bring them to the same level of
 126 nitrogen availability. Soil nitrogen content after the fertilization was estimated
 127 according to Robinson recommendations (1988), confirming that at the beginning of the
 128 experiment the two different substrates had approximately the same amount of available
 129 nitrogen. Data collection started when the plants had reached a mild water stress (Ψ_{stem}
 130 ≤ -0.5 MPa), such as four days after interruption of irrigation. In that moment plants had
 131 14.4 ± 2.8 leaves with no significant differences between cultivars or soils. Each plant
 132 was excluded from the trial when wilting was observed.

133 Soil water content (θ , %), soil water potential (Ψ_{soil} , MPa), stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} ,
 134 MPa), xylem embolism extent and stomatal conductance (g_s , mmol m⁻² s⁻¹) were
 135 assessed during the whole duration of the experiment. All measurements were taken
 136 daily between 9:30-12:00 and 14:00-17:00 in order to standardize putative control of
 137 circadian expression in cell water channels (Uehlein and Kaldenhoff 2006).

138 *Water relations*

139 Soil water content (θ) was gravimetrically determined by collecting daily approximately
 140 10 ml of soil from three different points and depths in each pot (5, 10, 15 cm depth at
 141 the half of rays 120° distant one from the other). The soil was weighed, oven-dried at
 142 100 °C for 24 h and then re-weighed to assess water content. At the same time, the
 143 water retention curves for the two soils were assessed with pressure plate measurements
 144 of the potting substrate (Richards 1965), obtaining two equations:

145 WR soil $-\Psi_{\text{soil}} = 53.791 * e^{-0.127 * \theta}$

146 WD soil $-\Psi_{\text{soil}} = 1.3423 * e^{-0.264 * \theta}$

147 The obtained relationships allowed for the calculation of Ψ_{soil} based on θ .

148 Ψ_{stem} was measured on mature, undamaged and non-senescent leaves using a pressure
149 chamber (Soilmoisture Corp., Santa Barbara, CA, USA) (Scholander *et al.* 1965) at
150 midday according to Turner (1988). Prior to the measurements leaves were bagged with
151 a plastic sheet and covered with aluminium foil to stop transpiration at least 1 h before
152 measurements were taken.

153 *Xylem embolism*

154 Daily determination of xylem embolisms in leaf petioles, induced by the presence of air
155 bubbles in xylem vessels, was carried out around midday using a high-pressure
156 flowmeter (HPFM, Dynamax Inc., Houston, TX, USA) (Tyree *et al.* 1995). As the
157 assessment of embolism extent is a destructive analysis, leaf petioles were used as a
158 proxy of the plant behaviour (Lovisolo *et al.* 2008; Perrone *et al.* 2012). During the
159 whole duration of the experiment macro- and microbubbles were regularly flushed out
160 of the system according to the manufacturer's instruction manual and the mismatch
161 between the two pressure transducers was controlled daily by running the 'Set Zero'
162 routine before measuring.

163 For each determination of percent loss of conductivity (PLC), the petioles and leaves
164 were cut under water from the shoots and immediately attached to the HPFM tubing
165 under water preventing air bubbles to enter the system. The leaves were cut ~1 cm
166 above the petiole insertion a few seconds after starting the measurement. The initial
167 hydraulic conductance K_{hi} was determined applying an initial pressure of ~20 kPa for 3
168 min. Distilled and degassed water with an addition of 10 mmol L⁻¹ KCl was used as
169 perfusion liquid. Petioles were then flushed for 3 min applying a transient increase of
170 pressure until a pressure of ~550 kPa was reached. This pressure was kept constant for 3
171 min. To determine the final hydraulic conductance K_{hf} the pressure was downregulated
172 to ~20 kPa and held constant for 3 min. To calculate K_{hi} and K_{hf} average values of the
173 hydraulic conductance of the respective timespans were used.

174 Data were displayed and stored using the software HPFM95-XP Version 1.12
175 (Dynamax Inc.) and exported and processed using Microsoft Excel.

176 The percent loss of conductivity (PLC) was determined as follows:

$$177 \text{ PLC [\%]} = \frac{(K_{\text{hf}} - K_{\text{hi}})}{K_{\text{hf}}} * 100$$

178 After the embolism determination the length and the maximum and minimum diameter
179 of the petioles was assessed.

180 *Stomatal conductance*

181 Measurements of g_s were carried out on adult, non-senescent leaves that were well-
182 exposed to direct sunlight. G_s was measured using a porometer (AP4, Delta-T Devices
183 Ltd, Cambridge, UK). Measurements on three leaves per plant were taken for every
184 measuring cycle and the g_s values of the three leaves were averaged.

185 *Analysis of abscisic acid (ABA) in leaves*

186 ABA was extracted from leaves where stomatal conductance was assessed applying the
187 method described by Materán *et al.* (2009) with some adaptations: 2 g of frozen tissue
188 were grounded to powder under liquid nitrogen, 5 ml of 80 % Methanol were added and
189 the samples were extracted at 4 °C overnight. Samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for
190 5 min, the supernatant was transferred to a flask and methanol was evaporated. The pH
191 was adjusted to values between 8-9 with a phosphate buffer; 1 ml of ethyl acetate was
192 added and samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 5 min; after discarding the
193 supernatant, the pH was adjusted to 2-3 (with 1N HCl), 2 ml of ethyl acetate were added
194 and the samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was removed
195 and the ethyl acetate fraction was evaporated. The dry residue was re-suspended in
196 methanol, filtered in brown vials and injected into a 1260 Infinity HPLC-DAD System
197 (Agilent Technologies, Cernusco sul Naviglio, Milano, Italy). ABA was separated on a
198 Purosphere® STAR RP-18, 5 µm, LiChroCART (250-4) (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany)
199 column thermostated at 35 °C. The solvent gradient used was 100 % A (94.9 % H₂O: 5
200 % CH₃CN: 0.1 % HCOOH) to 100 % B (5 % H₂O: 94.9 % CH₃CN: 0.1 % HCOOH)
201 over 20 min. Solvent B was held at 100 % for 10 min then the solvent returned to 100 %
202 A (Forcat *et al.* 2008). The flow rate into the column was set at 0.5 ml/min. DAD
203 detection was performed at 262 nm, acquiring spectra in the range 190/700 nm.

204 To quantify ABA concentration in leaf samples the external standard method was used
205 by building a calibration curve with (\pm)- Abscisic acid, $\geq 98.5\%$ (Sigma Aldrich SRL,
206 Milan, Italy) concentration ranging from 13.5 to 54.0 mg L⁻¹; ABA identification was
207 performed on the basis of retention times and of DAD spectrum comparison respect to
208 the standard solution.

209 *Statistical analysis*

210 Regression coefficients were obtained using Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA),
211 and statistical analysis was performed with univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA)
212 and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to reveal differences among cultivars
213 and soils, by using IBM SPSS statistics 20.0 software package (SPSS, Chicago, IL).
214 Differences between means were revealed by Tukey test ($p < 0.05$).

215

216 **Results**

217 *Interrelationships between stomatal conductance and soil and stem water potential in* 218 *different soils and cultivars*

219 Our observations excluded the initial phase of optimal water availability and focused on
220 the dynamics of water relations evolving from mild (day 1 of measurements) to extreme
221 drought, as shown in Fig. 1. The soil water content between WR and WD soils was very
222 different from the beginning, however, the dynamics of the daily averages of Ψ_{stem} and
223 g_s did not express constant differences between soils and cultivars along the period of
224 the trial. The proportion of embolized vessels at petiole level (PLC) was higher on WD
225 soil than on WR for most of the trial, but not constantly along the trial.

226 In spite of that, the relationship between Ψ_{stem} and θ highlights how the two substrates
227 are distinct for their effect on plant water status (Fig. 2). These differences are already
228 evident at mild water stress conditions (Ψ_{stem} around -0.5 MPa) and while on WR soil
229 the two cultivars show a linear relationship with Ψ_{stem} decreasing with decreasing θ
230 (expressed as small, negative slope of regression lines), on WD the θ is so reduced that

231 Ψ_{stem} changes substantially for any small variation of θ (expressed as higher, negative
232 slope of regression lines).

233 The measured Ψ_{stem} was then combined with the calculated soil water potential (Ψ_{soil})
234 (Fig. 3). The obtained curves show that during water stress Ψ_{stem} declined following a
235 decrease in Ψ_{soil} . In Cabernet Sauvignon this plant adaptation was evident at mild stress
236 conditions, and apparently delayed (and/or less effective) in Syrah.

237 The response of g_s to Ψ_{stem} was maximum at the beginning of the trial with an overlap
238 of the two curves representing the two cultivars at around -1.4 MPa (Fig. 4a). In
239 comparison to Syrah Cabernet Sauvignon showed lower g_s under mild water stress
240 conditions without strong changes under severe water stress conditions characterising
241 its isohydric behaviour. Our experiment focuses on results obtained under stress, but
242 hypothetical relationships preceding limiting conditions can be drafted: in these
243 conditions Cabernet Sauvignon would probably have shown a steep adaptation to water
244 stress, while Syrah progressively coupled stomatal function with decreasing plant water
245 status (Fig. 4a). When splitting the two curves for the soil plots, further observations can
246 be collected (Fig. 4b). The two cultivars on WD soil maximize their differences,
247 whereas on WR soil they become minimized. Syrah maintains generally higher g_s
248 values than Cabernet Sauvignon, but, while, at a given Ψ_{stem} , in Syrah g_s is higher on
249 WD than on WR soil, the opposite happens in Cabernet Sauvignon.

250 When these results are presented in form of average values, as illustrated in Fig. 5, all
251 these differences in g_s of the two cultivars appear significantly valid at Ψ_{stem} not lower
252 than -1 MPa, whereas no significant differences between g_s of the different cultivars
253 occur at Ψ_{stem} lower than -1 MPa.

254 By sorting all measurements of stomatal conductance and stem water potential in three
255 homogenous groups according to decreasing levels of soil water potential, it is possible
256 to run a statistical analysis of results collected at comparable level of soil water
257 availability (Table 1). At highest levels of soil water potential (mild water stress) the
258 cultivar and not the soil significantly drives stomatal conductance, buffering stem water
259 potential adjustments. When water availability in soil further decreases (intermediate
260 water stress) soil properties significantly influence stomatal response. In such

261 conditions, in WR soils a stomatal closure is induced to maintain high levels of stem
262 water potential. In Cabernet Sauvignon the putative isohydric control on water potential
263 is not so effective, as in parallel to a not significant stomatal closure, plants respond to
264 water deprivation with a decrease in water potential. Under severe water stress ,
265 however, stomatal control does not avoid decrease on water potential. At these severe
266 levels of water deprivation, soil properties do not influence g_s/Ψ_{stem} response.

267 *Embolism-related and hormone-driven plant adaptations to water stress*

268 While observations concerning g_s are relevant for level of stress not higher than -1MPa,
269 the level of embolism quantified as percent loss of hydraulic conductivity (PLC)
270 provides relevant results also at more extreme conditions (Fig. 6). The differences
271 observed between the two soils are statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) with the vines on
272 WD substrates showing a significantly higher PLC compared to WR substrates at Ψ_{stem}
273 < -1 MPa.

274 The analysis of the ABA content in leaves showed that the relationship between ABA
275 concentration and g_s was consistently dependent on soil type for Syrah but not for
276 Cabernet Sauvignon (Fig. 7a), variety where stomatal control was tighter (Fig. 7b). In
277 both varieties, significantly in Syrah, the WR soil induces an increase of ABA content
278 in leaf (Fig. 7b).

279 **Discussion**

280 The aim of this study was to investigate how soil water-holding capacity could
281 influence hydraulic and hormone-driven reactions of two cultivars putatively recognised
282 as different in their stomatal response to water stress: Cabernet Sauvignon and Syrah.

283 *Hydraulic control of water stress*

284 Water stress effects were already apparent at mild water stress conditions (Ψ_{stem} around
285 -0.5 MPa), when plants started to experience different shrinking capacities of the two
286 substrates. According to Whitmore and Whalley (2009), in fact, when a shrinking soil
287 dries, as WR substrate of our pots, its degree of saturation is kept small in comparison
288 with a drying rigid soil, such as the WD soil of this experiment (Fig. 1). In WD soils,

289 the matric potential becomes negative much faster, lowering the level of saturation after
290 a much smaller amount of water is removed by roots

291 In addition to the soil effect, with $\Delta\Psi$ between soil and stem higher for Cabernet
292 Sauvignon than for Syrah, the two cultivars expressed a different capacity of water
293 extraction from the substrate (Fig. 3), requiring to the former a higher energy in order to
294 keep the water flow under increasing stress conditions. Furthermore, and probably
295 related to the above-mentioned reason, Syrah displays higher g_s values than Cabernet
296 Sauvignon, especially during early phases of water stress (mild water stress) (Fig. 4).
297 On the other hand, Cabernet Sauvignon would preserve soil moisture more efficiently
298 than Syrah, imposing at the same time a sensitive control to Ψ_{stem} while Ψ_{soil} decreases
299 (Fig. 3). This result is consistent with putative near-anisohydric behaviour for Syrah and
300 near-isohydric behaviour for Cabernet Sauvignon and with results recently obtained in
301 an experiment by Hochberg *et al.* (2013). Also a lower leaf area of the canopy could
302 preserve soil moisture, but our pot plants have been uniformed to have not different leaf
303 area. The curves obtained from the four combinations soil/cultivar (Fig. 4b) could be
304 thus explained by the fact that in water-stress conditions near-anisohydric varieties do
305 not promptly regulate their stomatal conductance and therefore their transpiration rate
306 (which was the case of WD substrate, Fig. 2). On the contrary, near-isohydric varieties,
307 by tightly regulating the stomatal aperture, limit more the waste of water resources.
308 Furthermore, it can be observed how the two curves on WR substrate are closer between
309 each other than to the respective cultivar-correspondent on WD. As already observed
310 under field conditions (Tramontini *et al.* 2013a), the expression of plant reactions to
311 water stress seems to be buffered on clay soils. This could be due to the higher capacity
312 of this kind of soils to hold water and release it gradually to the plant. It could be
313 hypothesized that WR substrate produces an effect similar to that of clay soil,
314 submitting the potted roots to transient drought conditions (produced by the daily
315 fluctuations of dehydration during the day and rehydration during the night) able to
316 interfere with the physical and hormonal signalling between roots and stem. However,
317 as illustrated in Fig. 5, all these differences in g_s are significantly valid at Ψ_{stem} not
318 lower than -1 MPa. When water stress becomes more severe, stomatal regulation is
319 hydraulically controlled and a feedback on stomatal function derives from the metabolic
320 plant control. Under increasing water stress, the limitations to photosynthesis pass

321 gradually from a stomatal control to a metabolic control (Flexas *et al.* 2004 and 2006).
322 Due to this, the differences between iso- and anisohydric behaviours are evident
323 between mild and moderate water stress, where the expression of the limitations
324 imposed at stomatal level are maximised. In our results, at these conditions, the average
325 g_s is significantly different between varieties but not between substrates (under each
326 variety), although on WD the differences remain evident. Concerning the consequent
327 risk of cavitation, Syrah on both soils and Cabernet Sauvignon on WD have an increase
328 in embolism formation, expressed in terms of xylem conductivity losses, of 32–36%,
329 moving from $\Psi_{\text{stem}} > -1$ MPa to $\Psi_{\text{stem}} < -1$ MPa. Only Cabernet Sauvignon on WR soil
330 shows higher embolism formation at $\Psi_{\text{stem}} > -1$ MPa than at $\Psi_{\text{stem}} < -1$ MPa. An
331 explanation of this phenomenon would require the support of further data concerning,
332 for example, the implication of the chemical signalling (in particular ABA) in the
333 transpiration control. Soar *et al.* (2006) have in fact demonstrated the contribution of
334 ABA to the differential response of g_s in iso- and anisohydric cultivars.

335 *Abscisic-acid control on stomatal conductance*

336 On the near-isohydric cultivar, Cabernet Sauvignon, expressing very similar level of
337 cavitation on the two soils at $\Psi_{\text{stem}} > -1$ MPa, we could observe a more stable ABA
338 signal, independently from the soil (Fig. 7), similarly to observations by Puértolas *et al.*
339 (2013) using *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. In contrast, in Syrah, showing two levels of
340 cavitation on the two soils both at moderate and at higher stress level, also the curves of
341 ABA concentration in leaves were clearly distinguished, between the leaves of plants on
342 WR soil richer on the hormone than those on WD soil, showing a substrate-dependant
343 ABA concentration, as observed by Dodd *et al.* (2010) on *Helianthus annuus* L. In
344 order to analyze better this result we suggest comparing it with that on Fig. 4b: contrary
345 to initial expectations, Syrah has generally higher g_s on WD than on WR soil, and this
346 may be due to the specific circumstances produced by the WR soil, as above-mentioned,
347 favouring the release of the hormone (ABA) in the leaf. As recently observed by
348 Brodribb and McAdam (2013) on two conifer species, the isohydric stomatal regulation
349 can be identified as an ABA-driven stomatal closure, while the anisohydric is at least
350 initially water potential-driven. The same appears to be true on our two grapevine
351 cultivars: ABA control on g_s is tight in Cabernet Sauvignon and it is independent to soil
352 properties. In Syrah plants potted on WD soil a similar ABA control on stomatal

353 conductance subsists. However, when the anisohydric Syrah grows onto the WR soil, an
354 additional ABA leaf biosynthesis or accumulation is recordable. The WR-induced raise
355 in ABA allows stomatal control limiting the anisohydric response, as it happens when
356 anisohydric grapevines are deficit-irrigated upon partial root zone drying (Stoll *et al.*
357 2000; Romero *et al.* 2012).

358 *Hints for future research and speculations*

359 Our results are in line with those recently presented by Hochberg *et al.* (2013) on a
360 similar work done on the same two varieties and with the general consideration on the
361 differential photoprotective response to stress in iso- and anisohydric cultivars (Pou *et*
362 *al.* 2012). We would expect that plant productivity of Cabernet Sauvignon, due to the
363 ABA-driven stomatal closure and its putatively stronger downregulation of
364 photosynthesis, is less influenced by the soil characteristics than Syrah.

365 The results of our current study combined with the ecological and oenological
366 characteristics of the two genotypes, seem to find coherence: Cabernet Sauvignon, the
367 more isohydric variety, thanks to a tight stomatal control, conserves varietal
368 characteristics on the grape independently from the growing conditions. From a
369 viticultural point of view, the avoidance of extreme conditions (and of the consequent
370 recovery phases) to which Syrah is more prone, allows this variety to buffer vintage
371 differences. Hence, the more anisohydric variety, seems to base its stomatal control
372 more on hydraulic signals. This could be hypothesized as the effect of a higher
373 involvement of long term adaptation mechanisms, such as anatomic modifications, and
374 the development of a product which strongly varies according to the characteristics of
375 the substrate. Both are expressions of the *terroir* concept favouring different
376 components and mechanisms to adapt.

377 Although our results have been obtained on potted plants, where the nature of the
378 substrate and the available volume for root development are a limiting projection of the
379 edaphic condition of a vineyard, nevertheless they could be of support in the
380 interpretation of *terroir* expression previously introduced by the same authors
381 (Tramontini *et al.* 2013a). The isohydric Cabernet Sauvignon can adapt to a variety of
382 climates and soils and, in spite of that, maintain certain organoleptic traits in the final

383 product. It is considered extremely capable to express the characteristics of a given
384 *terroir* and, due to that, has been for a long time the world's most widely planted
385 premium red wine grape (Robinson 2006). The anisohydric Syrah, on the other hand, is
386 a very common commercial variety (the world's 7th most grown grape in 2004, still
387 according to Robinson 2006) particularly distributed in warmer regions, from which
388 very diverse wines can be produced.

389 Furthermore, ABA plays a key role by stimulating the activation of the anthocyanin and
390 flavonoids biosynthesis pathway (Davies and Böttcher 2009; Ferrandino and Lovisolo
391 2014). Both, its impact on water relations and on berry metabolism may contribute to a
392 differential berry quality. This hypothesis could represent a relevant topic for further
393 studies in field conditions, where also long terms mechanisms of adaptation and more
394 complex dynamics of hormonal signalling (Dodd 2013) can be observed, and extended
395 to other varieties, considering the main mechanisms involved in the *terroir* expression.

396 **Conclusions**

397 In conclusion, we reported a hydraulic control of stomatal responses at the base of the
398 near-anisohydric Syrah adaptations to water stress, in contrast to an ABA-induced
399 stomatal control in the near-isohydric Cabernet Sauvignon. Also in Syrah, however, the
400 hormone-related response could be effective when soil properties allowed for higher
401 water storage buffering hydraulic adaptations.

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554 **Figure legends**

555 Figure 1. (a) Dynamics of soil moisture (θ , %), (b) stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , MPa),
 556 (c) stomatal conductance (g_s , $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), and percent loss of (d) conductivity due to
 557 embolisms (PLC, %), during the days of the trial. Measurements were conducted on
 558 plants of Cabernet Sauvignon (*circles*) and Syrah (*triangles*) on water draining (WD,
 559 *white*) and water retaining (WR, *black*) soils. Means \pm std err. *Diamonds* in frame (d)
 560 represent the mean value of the day for both cultivars grouped.

561 Figure 2. Relationship between stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , MPa) and soil moisture (θ ,
 562 %) measured on plants of Cabernet Sauvignon (*circles*) and Syrah (*triangles*) on water
 563 draining (WD, *white*) and water retaining (WR, *black*) soils. Arrows on the x axis point
 564 to maximum water-holding capacity of the two soils (% water at -0.01 MPa).

565 Figure 3. Relationship between stem water potential (Ψ_{stem} , MPa) and soil water
 566 potential (Ψ_{soil} , MPa) measured on plants of Cabernet Sauvignon (*circles*) and Syrah
 567 (*triangles*) on water draining (WD, *white*) and water retaining (WR, *black*) soils. Ψ_{stem}
 568 was obtained from direct measures while Ψ_{soil} from the derived equations of Ψ_{soil} and θ .

569 Figure 4. Interrelationship between stomatal conductance (g_s , $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and stem
 570 water potential (Ψ_{stem} , MPa) measured on plants of Cabernet Sauvignon (*circles*) and
 571 Syrah (*triangles*) on water draining (WD, *white*) and water retaining (WR, *black*) soils.
 572 The two figures present the same data clustered only for varieties (a) and for the
 573 varieties on each soil (b). In addition, in Fig. 4a, an arbitrary hypothetical curve
 574 preceding water stress has been identified with a dashed line.

575 Figure 5. Average values of leaf stomatal conductance (g_s , $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) measured on
 576 plants of Cabernet Sauvignon on water retaining soil (WR, *black*) and on water draining
 577 soil (WD, *light grey*) and on Syrah plants on WR (*dark grey*) and on WD (*white*). Data
 578 have been clustered for those collected between mild and moderate water stress ($\Psi_{\text{stem}} >$
 579 -1 MPa) and high water stress ($\Psi_{\text{stem}} < -1$ MPa). Values of bars topped by common
 580 letters are not significantly different, while different letters identify significantly
 581 different groups ($P < 0.05$ (*), $P < 0.01$ (**); Tukey Test).

582 Figure 6. Average values of percent loss of conductivity (PLC, %) due to embolism
 583 formation, measured on leaf petioles of Cabernet Sauvignon on water retaining soil
 584 (WR, *black*) and on water draining soil (WD, *light grey*) and on Syrah plants on WR
 585 (*dark grey*) and on WD (*white*). Data have been clustered for those collected between
 586 mild and moderate water stress ($\Psi_{\text{stem}} > -1$ MPa) and high water stress ($\Psi_{\text{stem}} < -1$ MPa).
 587 Values of bars topped by common letters are not significantly different, while different
 588 letters identify significantly different groups ($P < 0.05$ (*), $P < 0.01$ (**); Tukey Test).

589 Figure 7 a and b. Relationship between stomatal conductance (g_s , $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and
 590 abscisic acid (ABA) concentration ($\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{fw}$) in leaf samples on plants of Cabernet
 591 Sauvignon (*circles*) and Syrah (*triangles*) on water draining (WD, *white*) and water
 592 retaining (WR, *black*) soils. In frame (a), continuous lines represent the two curves
 593 obtained for Cabernet Sauvignon and dashed lines for Syrah. In frame (b), means \pm std
 594 errors are displayed.

595

| Water stress | | Ψ_{stem} | | g_s | |
|--|----------------------------------|----------------------|------|-------|------|
| | | | | | |
| Mild ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.083$) | Cabernet Sauvignon | -0.972 | n.s. | 36.1 | b |
| | Syrah | -0.764 | n.s. | 75.2 | a |
| Intermediate ($-0.083 > \Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.212$) | Cabernet Sauvignon | -1.189 | b | 33.4 | n.s. |
| | Syrah | -0.875 | a | 55.3 | n.s. |
| Severe ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} < -0.212$) | Cabernet Sauvignon | -1.780 | b | 14.7 | b |
| | Syrah | -1.087 | a | 35.2 | a |
| Mild ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.083$) | water retaining soil (WR) | -0.964 | n.s. | 41.9 | n.s. |
| | water draining soil (WD) | -0.745 | n.s. | 60.9 | n.s. |
| Intermediate ($-0.083 > \Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.212$) | water retaining soil (WR) | -1.196 | n.s. | 27.9 | b |
| | water draining soil (WD) | -0.867 | n.s. | 60.8 | a |
| Severe | water retaining soil (WR) | -0.994 | n.s. | 19.5 | n.s. |

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|------|------|------|
| $(\Psi_{\text{soil}} < -0.212)$ | water draining soil (WD) | -1.498 | n.s. | 22.3 | n.s. |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|------|------|------|

596

597 Table 1: influence of cultivar and soil water-holding capacity on stem water potential
598 (Ψ_{stem}) and stomatal conductance (g_s). Data were divided in three classes of soil water
599 potential (Ψ_{soil}) values: mild ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.083$), intermediate ($-0.083 > \Psi_{\text{soil}} > -0.212$) and
600 severe water stress ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} < -0.212$), and processed separately for the two effects of
601 cultivar and soil. Different letters indicate significant differences among means, F -test,
602 $P < 0.05$, post hoc Tukey's test.

603













