# **UC Davis UC Davis Electronic Theses and Dissertations**

## **Title**

A comparative study on physiological responses to drought in wild Vitis species

**Permalink** <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3tc0393q>

**Author** Kaltenbach, Miriam Luise

**Publication Date** 2023

**Supplemental Material** <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3tc0393q#supplemental>

Peer reviewed|Thesis/dissertation

### **A Comparative Study on Physiological Responses to Drought in Wild** *Vitis* **Species**

By

### MIRIAM KALTENBACH THESIS

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

### MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Viticulture and Enology

in the

### OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

of the

### UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

DAVIS

Approved:

Elisabeth J Forrestel, Chair

Andrew J McElrone

Luis Diaz-Garcia

Committee in Charge

2023





### **LIST OF FIGURES**



### **LIST OF TABLES**



### LIST OF SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES



### **AB ST R AC T**

#### **Context and purpose of the study:**

Crossings of three wild *Vitis* species are commonly used worldwide as rootstocks in grape production. Disease resistance and vigor are among the most important factors for their selection. With climate change resulting in increasing water limitations, finding rootstocks conferring increased tolerance to drought will be of great importance as well. Therefore, identifying *Vitis* species with improved drought tolerance, and incorporating them into breeding programs could contribute to more resilient rootstocks under water-limiting conditions. Furthermore, these species will serve as valuable resources for increasing the genetic variation of the current rootstocks available. Investigating the leaf physiology of these species is pivotal, potentially offering valuable insights into their adaptive mechanisms under drought stress. We hypothesized that species native to drier habitats would exhibit a superior physiological performance under drought stress.

### **Materials and methods:**

The root and canopy physiological characteristics, and the anatomical and biochemical bases of photosynthetic capacity of nine North American wild *Vitis* species across a wide latitudinal range (New England through Mexico) under two soil moisture treatments (controlled dry down (20–40% w/w 'drought') and maintained irrigated (70–90% w/w 'control')), were evaluated using a whole-plant experimental approach. We investigated the links between leaf structural diversity and physiological features that enhance photosynthetic capacity under controlled, non-stressed conditions and whether these relationships are upheld under prolonged water stress. Experiments were performed in a greenhouse under ambient atmospheric conditions using clonal and non-grafted saplings. Physiological parameters measured throughout the experiment included midday and predawn leaf water potentials, leaf gas exchange, root and leaf biomass, and spectral measurements. Additionally, X-ray imaging of plant tissues was performed at a single time point mid-experiment, and manual segmentation was used to prepare images for auto-segmentation using machine learning algorithms. Linear regression models were used to describe the relationships between anatomical and physiological variables, and their associations with biogeoclimatic variables.

#### **Results and discussion:**

Our data shows the impact of drought treatment and indicated differential responses to drought stress across species. Furthermore, structural differences that drive photosynthetic responses were observed. Elucidating canopy traits associated with improved performance under drought conditions could facilitate the rapid screening of germplasms to develop droughttolerant rootstocks in the future.

**Keywords:** *Vitis*, grapevines, water-use efficiency, water stress, drought tolerance

### **AC K N OW L E D GM E N T S**

I express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Elisabeth Forrestel, my advisor. Her belief in my capabilities pushed me beyond my expectations, enabling me to complete this thesis.

I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Andrew McElrone and Dr. Luis Diaz-Garcia for their valuable advice, encouragement, and constructive critiques, which significantly improved this work.

I am thankful to Dr. Mina Momayyezi's meticulous mentorship and the dedicated assistance provided by the members of the Forrestel and McElrone labs, who supported me through my research.

I am deeply indebted to my incredible family and friends (back home and in the US) and Dr. Heymann, whose unwavering support has been the bedrock of my accomplishments. This journey and my time at UC Davis would not have been possible without their support.

Finally, I would like to thank the Graduate Group of the Department of Viticulture and Enology and my classmates for making this time special.

### **1** | **INTRODUCTION**

Grapevine is among one of the most important horticultural crops worldwide, and most wine-growing regions are located in the Mediterranean climate, which is characterized by dry and hot summers. As water enables vines to maintain essential physiological processes, and limited water availability can negatively affect vine health and yield, it is considered a key limiting factor in agriculture (Serra et al., 2014; Tomás et al., 2014b). Generally, *Vitis vinifera*, subsp. *vinifera*,, the most renowned and planted species, is considered relatively heat and drought-tolerant (Serrano et al., 2022), however, the majority of vineyards, especially in Europe, are not irrigated and water resources are becoming increasingly limited (Costa et al., 2016). Drought stress triggers various physiological and biochemical reactions in plants. There are many strategies that vines can develop to deal with drought. However, most grapevines appear to avoid water stress through adaptive mechanisms (Chaves et al., 2010). From an agronomic perspective, adaptation should be understood as the capacity to uphold both yield and fruit ripening when faced with water limitations (Serra et al., 2014). Hence, in the context of viticulture, drought tolerance should encompass the dual capability of sustaining productivity during the present growing season, preventing adverse carry-over effects, and potentially the mortality caused by drought over multiple seasons (Gambetta et al., 2020). Climate change exacerbates water scarcity issues and further increases the risk of more severe and frequent droughts increases (Schultz, 2000; IPCC, 2022). As the wine industry faces these challenges, it is important to further increase the resilience of vineyards by finding multiple strategies to adapt to a changing climate. A potential approach would be to further explore the genetic diversity of the genus *Vitis* and gain a better understanding of the mechanisms underlying plant responses to drought (Serra et al., 2014). It is crucial to understand and investigate the potential of drought tolerance in existing *Vitis* species because increased drought tolerance aligns with sustainable vineyard practices by reducing water consumption and reliance on irrigation. With increased climate variability and unpredictable and irregular rainfall patterns, drought-tolerant species can provide a buffer against fluctuations in water availability, enabling vines to withstand drought periods and recover more efficiently when water becomes available. *Vitis* species that are more drought-tolerant possess complex traits that allow them to use water more efficiently and adapt to drought conditions through comprehensive changes in their physiological, biochemical, and genetic characteristics (Larcher, 2003). Since the North American pest phylloxera *(Daktulosphaira vitifoliae)* was imported into Europe and destroyed own-rooted *V. vinifera*, wild *Vitis* species have

been used as rootstocks because they are mostly resistant to these insects. Today, these rootstocks are not only selected based on their pest resistance, but also on other characteristics such as their adaptation to soil chemistry, vigor, rooting depth, and increased interest in their tolerance to abiotic soil-borne problems such as drought or salinity (Dry, 2007; Granett et al., 1983). They are considered key elements in the adaptation to climate change (Serra et al., 2014). More than 80% of vineyards worldwide are planted on rootstocks of North American species or interspecific hybrids of *Vitis* species that combine desirable characteristics (Ollat et al., 2016). Keller (2010) claimed that the genetic background of these rootstocks is very limited, as it is estimated that 90% of the parentage of rootstocks worldwide originates from less ten different rootstock cultivars. In a study conducted by Riaz et al. (2019), it was revealed that 39% of the examined rootstocks could be traced back to only three accessions of three grape species. Having mostly *Vitis riparia*, *Vitis rupestris*, and *Vitis berlandieri* in our toolbox is minimal, and it is important to expand this and investigate the traits that North American *Vitis* species offer even further. These species have unique characteristics and traits that make them valuable resources for improving the grapevine cultivation and sustainability. Although many studies have focused on drought tolerance among grapevine genotypes of *Vitis vinifera* and characterized key agronomic indicators, such as fruit quality, yield or growth under drought conditions (Gambetta et al., 2020), only limited research has been conducted on the potential of wild *Vitis* species, and knowledge about the mechanisms of drought is still very scarce (Ollat et al., 2023). North American species of *Vitis* originate from distinct native ecosystems. While most grow close to a permanent water source, some grow in dry and rocky zones. Unfortunately, limited research has been conducted on the ecological attributes of these habitats. Specific environmental conditions and the behavior of *Vitis* species in their habitat have not been adequately documented during plant collection (Pap et al., 2015; Arnold and Schnitzler, 2020). When studying biogeographical parameters and describing the environmental characteristics of three *Vitis* species (*V. berlandieri*, *V. rupestris*, and *V. riparia*), Morano and Walker (1995) found that their specific habitats reflect their adaptation to environmental conditions as they grow across diverse climates, including regions with hot and dry summers, cold winters, and variable precipitation patterns. The ability of these species to thrive in such environments highlights their potential to impart climate resilience to cultivated grapevines (Padgett-Johnson et al., 2003). As up to 28 species are native to the eastern and southwestern US and Mexico (Kikkert et al., 2001), they offer a rich source of genetic diversity. Therefore, Ollat et al. (2023) emphasized the significant potential of identifying adapted genotypes and favorable alleles in challenging environments.

Natural selection, with its extensive testing of gene combinations under various environmental pressures, has played a role in shaping wild species that have long occupied local niches with adaptive improvements that are not comparable to any testing in plant breeding programs (Lasky et al., 2012; Cortés and López-Hernández, 2021). These distinct environmental forces, driven by different climatic conditions, may have contributed to the adaptation of the insular subpopulations (Blois et al., 2023). Typically, adaptation is linked to multiple traits, such as morphological, physiological, anatomical, and biochemical characteristics in a specific environment (Ollat et al., 2023).

This study focused on the physiological and morphological responses to drought and the anatomical adaptation strategies of North American *Vitis* to identify species with higher drought tolerance. The nine species were selected based on their geographical distribution, as they distribute over a wide latitudinal range from New England to Mexico, capturing variations in climate, including temperature, rainfall patterns, and water availability. Historical climate data from the original collection sites of georeferenced germplasm accessions can be used to investigate local adaptations to abiotic stresses and environments (Cortés and López-Hernández, 2021; Briscoe Runquist et al., 2020). Representation of various native climatic conditions offers diverse responses to drought stress. We hypothesized that species native to drier habitats would exhibit a superior physiological performance under drought stress. In addition, the nine selected species exhibited significant genetic variability. By studying species with diverse genetic backgrounds, the next step is to gain insights into the genetic basis of drought tolerance and to identify potential sources of resilience for breeding programs (Blois et al., 2023). Lastly, the selected species have been previously used for rootstock breeding; therefore, it is important to investigate the physiological responses to drought and anatomical adaptation strategies under water-limiting conditions.

### **2** | **MATERIALS AND METHODS**



### **TABLE 1** List of traits and variables used

### **2.1** | **Plant materials and growth conditions**

Ten cuttings per accession (n = 90 total) of the nine *Vitis* species listed in Table 2 were taken from the University of California Breeding Collection. After soaking the basal node of each cutting in auxin root solution (Earth Science Products), it was stored for 21 days in a tray with vermiculite in a mist room. When roots were initiated, the cuttings were planted in 7.5 L pots containing a 1:1 sand-to-peat mix with vermiculite at the bottom as the growth substrate. The clonal and non-grafted saplings were grown at the Core Greenhouses Complex at the University of California, Davis, under supplemental lighting (minimum photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) = 400 µmol  $m^2s^{-1}$ ) for a 14-hour photoperiod, with a maximum temperature of 30°C during the day and 25°C during the night. Over 35 days, plants were watered with Hoagland's solution to establish the plants. Subsequently, the method of Bartlett et al. (2021) was used to perform a controlled dry-down during an experimental period of four weeks. All pots were equally treated during the establishment period. To reach the target weight of 80% of the saturated pot weight plus half of the pot evapotranspiration, the pots were weighed, and water was applied three times per week to reach an average soil water content of approximately 80% of the saturated pot weight between the waterings. Water was added until drainage was visible to determine the saturated weight per pot. The pot was weighed once the drainage stopped and excessive water was lost.

The difference in pot weights between watering days was set as the plant evapotranspiration  $(E_{plant})$  and was measured using the pot-saturated weight at the start of both periods.

After the establishment period, a randomized complete block design was used to assign five vines per accession to one of the two watering treatments. The watering treatment during the establishment period was continued for well-watered plants, whereas the remaining half of the vines were exposed to water stress. These plants were re-watered to 40% of the saturated pot mass, in addition to half of the pot evapotranspiration under the new watering treatment. Each block was equipped with an empty reference pot to account for soil evaporation. New  $E<sub>plant</sub>$  values were calculated after withholding water from the vines for 14 days in the controlled dry-down until the pots reached 20-40% of the saturated pot mass. As shown in Figure 2, the treatments were conducted for an additional 26 days.

#### **2.2** | **Photosynthesis measurements**

The major measurements were taken three times during the experiment. At the end of the establishment period (8 weeks after the cuttings were taken), 2 weeks after the beginning of the two different treatments, when leaves for segmentation were also collected, and at the end of the experiment, immediately before harvesting for biomass. Photosynthetic measurements, such as the net assimilation rate  $(A_n)$  (see Table 1 for symbol definitions), stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$ , and intercellular airspace  $CO_2$  concentration  $(C_i)$ , were obtained from the youngest fully expanded leaves between 11am and 1pm using a LICOR-6800 gas exchange system. The ambient chamber  $CO_2$  ( $C_a$ ) was set to 400 µmol mol<sup>-1</sup> with a fan speed of 10,000rpm, leaf temperature was maintained at 25°C, and all measurements were performed under a photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of  $1400 \mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. The intrinsic water use efficiency (*WUE*<sub>i</sub>) was calculated using A/g<sup>s</sup> and instantaneous water use efficiency (*WUE*inst) was calculated using A/E in four replications per accession and treatment (Hatfield and Dold, 2019).

### **2.3** | **CO<sup>2</sup> response curves**

A-C<sub>i</sub> curves were constructed for three representative individuals of each species and treatment to obtain a better understanding of differences in photosynthetic responses among the accessions. The sample  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  concentrations were 400, 50, 80, 100, 150, 200, 250, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1200, 1400 μmol m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and PPFD was at 1200 μmol  $m^{-2}s^{-1}$ . To estimate the rate of photosynthetic electron transport (J), the maximum assimilation rate at saturating  $CO_2$  $(V_{\text{cmax}})$  allowed for RuBisCO, and dark respiration  $(R_d)$ , the photosynthetic model by Sharkey (2016) was used to fit the A-C<sub>i</sub> curves.

### **2.4** | **Water potential measurements**

A pressure chamber was used to measure the leaf water potentials. predawn leaf water potential (Ψ <sub>PD</sub>) was measured between 4 am and 6 am before sunrise and midday leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{MD}$ ) was measured between 11 am and 1 pm. Leaves similar to those used for gas exchange measurements were chosen from each accession in 3 replications. The leaves were covered with a plastic bag for 10-15 to allow equilibration, and petioles were then cut using a razor blade and placed inside the pressure chamber. The gasket pressure was slowly increased until a water meniscus began to form, and a balanced pressure was reached and recorded.

### **2.5** | **Vegetative growth**

At the end of the experiment, most plants were harvested for root and canopy biomasses. The primary shoots were cut 5 cm above the soil line and, together with the lateral shoots, weighed for fresh canopy biomass. Roots were carefully extracted from the pot, filtered through a mesh sieve, and then rinsed in a container of water to eliminate any attached soil particles. The root biomass was quantified by weighing.

### **2.6** | **X-ray micro computed tomography imaging, segmentation, and mesophyll traits**

The leaves used for gas exchange measurements were collected for scanning. The leaves were bagged and kept cool until scanning at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (LBNL) Advanced Light Source (ALS) on the day of collection. A 5 mm wide and 10 mm long segment was carefully extracted from the central area of each plant's leaf lamina, and the same region where the A-C<sub>i</sub> curves were recorded, which was then sandwiched between two pieces of Kapton tape (ULINE) to prevent moisture loss during X-ray scanning. The prepared samples were positioned within the tip of a pipette and subjected to continuous tomography scanning at 21 keV for a duration of 15 minutes, utilizing a  $10\times$ objective lens with a pixel resolution of 0.65 µm and then reconstructed as described by Rippner et al. (2022). As four replicates (leaves) were stacked above each other during the imaging, the grid was cropped, and 500 consecutive slices from the reconstructed 1000-image stack of each replicate were selected for further analysis using ImageJ. The stacks were changed from 32 to 8 bit greyscale and prepared for segmentation. Whole leave, adaxial and abaxial epidermis, whole mesophyll, palisade mesophyll, spongy mesophyll bundle sheath extensions, and veins were manually segmented following Théroux-Rancourt et al. (2020). The airspace within the leaf was segmented by thresholding between the minimum and maximum grayscale values and then manually cleaned.

Representative hand-labeled slices were then used to train and test for auto-segmentation using machine learning algorithms (Rippner et al., 2022).The algorithm was trained individually according to species and treatment (n=24 each).

### **Leaf and mesophyll traits**

The same six slices were used to manually measure the leaf thickness  $(L_{\text{leaf}})$  and mesophyll thickness  $(L_{\text{mes}})$ . As described by Théroux-Rancourt et al. (2017), Mesophyll porosity ( $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$ ) was calculated by determining the intercellular airspace ( $V_{IAS}$ ) volume as a proportion of the total mesophyll volume ( $V_{mes-cell}$ ). The spongy cell volume to

total mesophyll cell volume ( $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ ), palisade cell volume to total mesophyll cell volume ( $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ ) and spongy cell volume to palisade cell volume  $(V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell})$  ratio were calculated as described by Momayyezi et al. (2022a), and the palisade cell surface area to total mesophyll cell surface area (*SA*pa-cell/ *SA*mes-cell), spongy cell surface area to total mesophyll cell surface area ( $SA_{sp-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$ ) and palisade and spongy cell surface area to total mesophyll cell surface area (*SA*pa-cell+sp-cell/ *SA*mes-cell).



### **2.7** | **Climate data for accessions' native habitats**

**F I G U R E 1** Geographic distribution map for 9 *Vitis* accessions with (A) mean annual temperature and (B) annual precipitation climate data for North America.

<b>Species</b>	Genotype	Lat	Long	$T (^{\circ}C)$	$P$ (mm)	T CV ( $^{\circ}$ C/100)	$T_{CO}$ (°C)
V. acerifolia	9018	34.00830	$-100.28200$	16.5	565	853.6	5.2
V. aestivalis	T52	30.63270	$-97.67720$	19.2	837	705.0	9.8
V. arizonica	$b40-14$	27.45250	$-107.71200$	15.5	891	438.6	9.9
V. cinerea	$b42-34$	25.10855	$-99.80620$	22.1	849	516.0	15.1
V. mustangensis	T48	30.75920	$-98,70030$	18.8	701	720.9	9.1
V. riparia	NY1	43.84172	-73.38702	7.2	919	996.8	$-6.3$
hybrid (V. riparia x							
V. arizonica)	<b>TXNM0821</b>	35.66890	$-105.33610$	6.7	526	667.1	$-1.5$
V. rupestris	Vru42	37.76774	$-90.38350$	12.4	1105	892.4	0.4
V. vulpina	V60-96	40.38058	$-75.03229$	10.7	1172	877.0	$-0.8$

**TA B L E 2** *Vitis* species and genotypes used in the study, coordinates of collection location, and climate data of their native habitat.

T, Annual Mean Temperature; P, Annual Precipitation; TCV, Temperature Seasonality;  $T_{CQ}$ , Mean Temperature of Coldest Quarter.

The coordinates of the native habitat of each accession were extracted from the breeding collections of the University of California. For each habitat, bioclimatic variables, such as annual mean temperature (AMT), annual precipitation (P), and temperature seasonality (TCV), were obtained from the WorldClim dataset, as shown in Table 2 and Figure 1 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017).

### **2.8** | **Statistics**

RStudio (RStudio Team, 2020) was used to analyze the data and generate figures and tables (see Kaltenbach (2023) for repository). Analysis of variance with the main factors "species" and "treatment" was performed to determine the p-values for each physiological and anatomical trait. To perform post-hoc analysis, Tukey's HSD was employed for all pair-wise comparisons. Statistically significant results of the treatment are indicated by  $*$  on the figures for  $\alpha$  <0.05. Pearson's correlation coefficients of the mean values for the parameters per species separated by treatment were used to investigate relationships between biogeoclimatic variables and physiological and morphological parameters.

### **3** | **RESULTS**

This study examined various *Vitis* species and genotypes within their native habitats, focusing on their climatic characteristics. The results revealed substantial climate variability among these genotypes, with latitude (Lat) playing a significant role in influencing ecological and physiological responses. annual mean temperature exhibited a broad range, with the highest recorded in *V. cinerea* (b42-34) (22.1°C) and the lowest recorded in *V. riparia* (NY1) (7.2°C). annual precipitation showed marked differences, with the greatest precipitation occurring in *V. rupestris* (Vru42) (1105 mm) and *V. vulpina* (V60-96), which experiences relatively high rainfall (1172 mm). *V. acerifolia* (9018), which receives approximately 565 mm of rainfall annually, and the hybrid (TXNM0821) which receives 526 mm of rainfall had the lowest precipitation across the species. temperature seasonality varied significantly across genotypes, and latitude appeared to influence this parameter, particularly in *V. riparia* (NY1), which had the highest seasonality (996.8). The mean temperature of the coldest quarter ( $T_{CO}$ ) ranged from a peak of 15.1°C in *V. cinerea* (b42-34) to a low of -6.3°C in *V. riparia* (NY1).

### **3.1** | **Soil moisture and plant water relationships**

#### **Drought treatment**

The control and drought conditions imposed during the potted vine dry-down experiment were evaluated using soil moisture and physiological measurements. Drought treatments led to a significant decrease in pot water content across all species, although there was some variation among species and over time. (see Figure 2). The soil moisture of the control ranged from 65% to 95% at all times, with the majority of the days being above 75% . The drought-treated pots had water contents between 5% and 30% after the beginning of the 14-day dry-down period. Most of the time, stressed plants had a soil moisture content between 20% and 30%, as expected in the experimental design.

### **Water potentials**

Cell expansion and plant growth rely directly on turgor pressure, which is one of the earliest indicators of water stress in plants. Measurements of vine water status ( $\Psi_{MD}$  and  $\Psi_{PD}$ ) indicated the impact of drought treatment in terms of water stress, as the majority of the species demonstrated a notable decrease during the later phases of the experiment (Figures 3 & 4). Even under controlled conditions, ΨMD showed differences across the species, with *V. vulpina* (V60-96) and the



**F I G U R E 2** Pot water contents (i.e., pot weights normalized by saturated pot weights) over the experimental period for each of the 9 *Vitis* accessions. Blue points represent well-watered plants and yellow points represent water-stressed plants. Dashed lines mark major measurement dates, red indicates the beginning of the drought treatment (day 2), green indicates when leaves were taken for segmentation (day 16), and grey represents the end of the experiment (day 49). Well-watered plants were watered to 80% of the saturated pot weight, and water-stressed plants to 20-30% of the saturated weight. Error bars show standard errors.  $N = 5$ . 11



**FIGURE 3** Midday leaf water potential (Ψ<sub>MD</sub>, bar) over time of 9 *Vitis* accessions under well-watered (blue) and water-stressed (yellow) treatments.  $N = 4$  ( $\pm$ SE). Day 14 marks the beginning of the drought treatment.



**FIGURE 4** Predawn leaf water potential (Ψ <sub>PD</sub>, bar) over time of 9 *Vitis* accessions under well-watered (blue) and water-stressed (yellow) treatments.  $N = 4$  ( $\pm$ SE). Day 14 marks the beginning of the drought treatment.

hybrid (TXNM0821) having the least negative  $\Psi_{MD}$  and  $\Psi_{PD}$  for the final measurement date. Drought treatment had a minimal effect on the  $\Psi_{MD}$  and  $\Psi_{PD}$  of *V. riparia* (NY1) and hybrid (TXNM0821), as they showed the least negative values. Under drought conditions, *V. acerifolia* (9018) and *V. cinerea* (b42-34) had the lowest Ψ<sub>MD</sub> values across all species. *V. vulpina* (V60-96) experienced the largest decrease in  $\Psi_{MD}$  compared to the well-watered controls. Under well-watered conditions, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) exhibited a very negative Ψ<sub>MD</sub>, similar to that of the drought-stressed plants of the same species. However, the Ψ<sub>PD</sub> of *V. arizonica* (b40-14) was much higher (less negative) and significantly different from that of the water-stressed plants. Similar behavior was observed for *V. aestivalis* (T52).

### **3.2** | **Water use and biomass traits**

#### **Water use**

Figure 5 (A) shows the total water use for each plant of each species and treatment over the entire experiment. As expected, there were statistically significant differences between the treatments given the nature of this experiment. However, because evaporation was the same across all pots, different species showed varying rates of water consumption under well-watered conditions. *V. arizonica* (b40-14) and *V. rupestris* (Vru42) had the highest water demands reaching a targeted soil moisture content of approximately 80%. A similar pattern was observed in the control group. Regarding the relative water cut back (with the absolute value of the control group and the relative value of drought), differences across the species were found found (data not shown). Some species experienced a higher relative cutback (*V. acerifolia* (9018) -72%; *V. aestivalis* (T52) -73%; *V. arizonica* (b40-14) -74%; *V. vulpina* (V60-96) -76%), which indicates that more severe water limitations were imposed on these plants. The hybrid (TXNM0821) had the lowest relative water cutback of -56%.

### **Biomass allocation**

During these experiments, the drought treatment consistently led to a decrease in canopy growth, whereas the response of the roots varied. The drought treatments caused a significant reduction in canopy biomass across all species, with *V. acerifolia* (9018) and *V. arizonica* (b40-14) exhibiting the most substantial decrease compared to the control conditions (Figure 5B). The total root biomass varied across species, and no significant treatment effect was observed. However, the root biomass of most species was lower than that of the control group. *V. rupestris* (Vru42) shows the greatest reduction. Although diminished canopy growth is a distinct marker of drought stress, the ratio between roots and shoots is as a

valuable metric for evaluating carbon allocation. This is particularly relevant in the case of grapevines, where water scarcity notably affects both canopy development and berry production (Figure 5C). All species had higher shoot/root ratios for their plants under controlled conditions than under drought. The data showed significant differences across species (Figure 5D). This indicates that plants decide to reallocate their available carbon resources differently under drought conditions and prioritized root growth. However, the data showed differences across the species to which they followed this strategy. The stronger the relative increase in the root-to-shoot ratio, the more the plants focused on root growth. This is particularly the case for *V. acerifolia* (9018), *V. aestivalis* (T52), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). When combining the information from Figure 5B, 5C, and 5D, it becomes clear that the reason for this behavior is the strong cutback in canopy growth, whereas the root biomass growth is maintained at an almost similar level, which is also indicated by the fact that no statistical differences were found. Drought stress led to a substantial reduction in canopy size (shown as the total leaf area in this study) across all species, as indicated by statistically significant differences (Figure 5E). It is worth mentioning that *V. cinerea* (b42-34) had by far the largest canopy under controlled conditions, whereas it experienced high cutback compared to the water-restricted treatment. The canopy sizes of the drought-stressed plants were similar across all species. It is worth mentioning that the only non-significant differences was found for the hybrid (TXNM0821). This species was found under well-watered conditions with relatively low canopy growth.

#### **Biomass and water-use relationships**

Biomass growth per liter of water used, often expressed as a water-use efficiency (WUE) metric, provides insight into the efficiency of a plant's water utilization in relation to its biomass production. This parameter provides information on the ability of plants to thrive and grow under water-limited conditions. Plants with higher WUE are characterized by their capacity to generate more biomass using relatively less water. This efficiency can be attributed to a combination of physiological, biochemical, and anatomical adaptations that optimize the capture, transport, and utilization of water and carbon resources. As shown in Figure 5F, there were no statistically significant differences in total leaf area to liter water used for *V. acerifolia* (9018), *V. arizonica* (b40-14), hybrid (TXNM0821), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). Of these species, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) stood out with the highest ratio, indicating notable efficiency in utilizing the available water resources for leaf area growth. Even under water stress conditions, this species exhibited a relatively high ratio, although the reduction in leaf area expansion was more pronounced than that in some other species. Similarly, the



**F I G U R E 5** Water use and biomass traits under well-watered (blue bar) and water-stressed (yellow bar) treatments for *Vitis* accessions. (A) Total water use per plant ( $WU_{\text{tot}}$ , L), (B) Canopy biomass ( $m_{\text{canopy}}$ , g), (C) Root biomass ( $m_{\text{root}}$ , g), (D) Ratio of root biomass to canopy biomass ( $m_{\text{canopy}}/m_{\text{root}}$ , g g<sup>-1</sup>), (E) Total leaf area, ( $A_{\text{leaf}}$ , cm<sup>2</sup>), (F) Total leaf area per water used, ( $A_{\text{leaf}}/WU_{\text{tot}}$ , cm<sup>2</sup> L<sup>-1</sup>), (G) Canopy biomass per water used,  $(m_{\text{canopy}}/WU_{\text{tot}}, g L^{-1})$ , (G) Root biomass per water used,  $(m_{\text{root}}/WU_{\text{tot}}, g L^{-1})$ .

hybrid (TXNM0821) showed a relatively high ratio under both normal and water-stress conditions, suggesting that it possesses inherent water-use efficiency traits. However, similar to *V. arizonica*, it experienced a significant reduction in leaf area under water stress conditions, indicating its adaptation to conserve water resources during periods of scarcity. Conversely, *V. vulpina* (V60-96) also displayed a relatively high cutback in the leaf area under water-stress conditions. This suggests that although it may have an efficient water utilization mechanism under normal conditions, it is less adaptable to drought stress, leading to a noticeable reduction in leaf area. The analysis of canopy biomass to water use, as depicted in Figure 5G, revealed statistically significant differences for only three plant species: *V. aestivalis* (T52), *V. arizonica* (b40-14), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). Despite these significant differences, the overall ratio of canopy biomass to water use remained consistent across all studied species. Although no statistically significant differences were found between the two treatments, the drought treatments had higher root mass production per liter of water consumed across all species. The outstanding species with a high ratio were *V. aestivalis* (T52), *V. arizonica* (b40-14), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96).

### **3.3** | **Plant physiological behavior**

During the experiment, the major photosynthetic measurements were taken three times: at the beginning (=day 2), middle (=day 16), and final (=day 49) dates.

### **3.3.1** | **First measurement date**

The absence of statistically significant differences in the main effect of water treatment is a logical and expected outcome, given that both groups were treated equally initially, and the conditions experienced by the plant groups were consistent across all traits. The inability to measure the water potential of *V. vulpina* (V60-96) and *V. rupestris* (Vru42) owing to a lack of leaves on these plants at the beginning of the study is a practical limitation that should be noted. The observation that there were no significant outliers in physiological behavior for all traits across all species, as indicated by the groupings of Tukey letters, suggests that the studied traits remained within a relatively consistent range (Figure 6).

### **3.3.2** | **Middle measurement date**

### **Photosynthetic traits**

When analyzing the primary effect of water treatment, it became evident that  $A_n$  decreased significantly when subjected to 14 days of water stress. This decline was not isolated, but accompanied by a similar decrease in  $C_i$ , transpiration rate  $(E)$ , and  $g_s$ . Contrary to these observations, both  $WUE$ <sub>i</sub> and  $WUE$ <sub>inst</sub> exhibited an increase under water deficit conditions.



**F I G U R E 6** Photosynthetic traits under well-watered (blue bar) and water-stressed (yellow bar) treatments for *Vitis* accessions at first measurement date at the start of watering regimes. (A) Net assimilation rate  $(A_n, \mu \text{mol})$ , (B) Intercellular airspace  $CO_2$  concentration  $(C_i, \mu \text{mol}$  mol s<sup>-1</sup>), (C) Transpiration rate (*E*, mmol m<sup>-2</sup> m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>), (D) Stomatal conductance (*g*<sub>s</sub>, mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), (E) Leaf temperature, (*T*<sub>leaf</sub>, °C), (F) Instantaneous water use efficiency ( $WUE_{\text{inst}}$ , µmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (G) Intrinsic water use efficiency ( $WUE_{\text{i}}$ , µmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (H) Midday leaf water potential ( $\Psi$ <sub>MD</sub>, MPa). N = 4 ( $\pm$ SE). Measurements were taken at 400 mol mol<sup>-1</sup> and 1500 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photosynthetic photon flux density.



**F I G U R E 7** Photosynthetic traits under well-watered (blue bar) and water-stressed (yellow bar) treatments for *Vitis* accessions at the middle measurement date when leaves for segmentation were taken. (A) Net assimilation rate  $(A_n$ ,  $\mu$ mol), (B) Intercellular airspace CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $C_i$ ,  $\mu$ mol mol s<sup>-1</sup>), (C) Transpiration rate (*E*, mmol m<sup>-2</sup> m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>), (D) Stomatal conductance (*g*<sub>s</sub>, mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), (E) Leaf temperature, (*T*<sub>leaf</sub>, °C), (F) Instantaneous water use efficiency ( $WUE_{inst}$ , µmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (G) Intrinsic water use efficiency ( $WUE_i$ , µmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (H) Midday leaf water potential ( $\Psi$ <sub>MD</sub>, MPa). N = 4 ( $\pm$ SE). The measurements were taken at 400 mol mol<sup>-1</sup> and 1500 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photosynthetic photon flux density. The same state of the state of

This implies that, despite the reduced *A*<sup>n</sup> rates, the plants became more adept at utilizing the available water efficiently for photosynthesis. To thrive, plants must maintain their capacity to capture carbon. Remarkably, certain species demonstrated a better ability to sustain their photosynthetic efficiency under drought conditions than other species. Although statistically significant differences were predominantly observed between the drought and control treatments, it is noteworthy that some species maintained their photosynthetic activity while minimizing water loss. Specifically, *A*<sup>n</sup> differed significantly among several species, including *V. acerifolia* (9018), *V. arizonica* (b40-14), *V. riparia* (NY1), *V. mustangensis* (T48), *V. rupestris* (Vru42), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). Among these, *V. mustangensis* (T48) displayed the highest *A*<sup>n</sup> performance under well-watered conditions. Notably, both well-watered and drought-stressed *V. arizonica* (b40-14) plants exhibited the lowest *A*<sup>n</sup> and *E* rates, as indicated by the Tukey letters (Figure 7 (A), (C)). Under controlled conditions, *V. mustangensis* had the highest C<sub>i</sub>, whereas *V. arizonica* (b40-14) had the lowest C<sub>i</sub> (Figure 7 (B)). Under drought conditions, *V. acerifolia* (9018) outperformed the control plants of *V. arizonica* (b40-14). However, all species exhibited relatively similar C<sub>i</sub> rates under water-stressed conditions, with *V. cinerea* (b42-34), *V. riparia* (NY1), and *V. mustangensis* (T48) exhibited statistically significant differences for the treatment effect. Both *E* and *g*<sup>s</sup> displayed similar significance patterns for the treatment effect and the species *V. acerifolia* (9018), *V. arizonica* (b40-14), *V. riparia* (NY1), *V. mustangensis* (T48), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). Additionally, *V. rupestris* (Vru42) showed a statistically significant difference in the treatment effect of  $g_s$ . The highest  $E$  and  $g_s$  values were observed for *V. rupestris* (Vru42) and *V. mustangensis* (T48) under well-watered conditions, respectively. In contrast, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) consistently performed the poorest in both traits and treatment groups.

#### **Water-use efficiency**

The concept of water-use efficiency (WUE) represents an equilibrium between production metrics such as biomass generation (measured in kilograms) or carbon dioxide assimilation (measured in moles) and the associated water costs, quantified in terms of water volume (liters) used or moles of transpired water. This equilibrium can be assessed at various spatial scales ranging from the individual leaf level to that of the entire plant or crop system. When evaluating WUE at the leaf level, it can be quantified using gas-exchange measurements or the examination of carbon isotope ratios in leaf dry matter. It is a common practice to employ instantaneous leaf gas exchange measurements over shorter time intervals. These measurements relate  $A_n$  to either  $g_s$ , a parameter referred to as  $WUE_i$ , or  $E$ , thereby defining

instWUE. The utilization of these two parameters, *A*<sup>n</sup> /*g*s and *A*<sup>n</sup> /*E*, predominantly differentiates genetic influences from environmental effects in the context of water-use efficiency (Tomás et al., 2014b).

Statistically significant differences in *WUE*<sub>inst</sub> were observed across species with respect to the treatment effect, specifically for *V. mustangensis* (T48) and the hybrid (TXNM0821) (Figure 7 (E)). In general, the drought treatments had higher  $WUE_{inst}$  values than the well-watered control group. It is noteworthy that  $WUE_{inst}$  was at its lowest for the well-watered plants of *V. mustangensis* (T48), even though all species and treatments were grouped with the same Tukey letter.

However, when assessing  $WUE_i$ , the pattern differed. In this case, all species and treatments were grouped similarly, except for the drought group of *V. arizonica* (b40-14), as indicated in Figure 7 (G).

#### **Water potentials**

No statistically significant differences were observed in  $\Psi_{MD}$  among the treatment groups. However, there were trends indicating that the drought-treated group generally exhibited lower water potentials than their respective control groups within the same species. Notably, for *V. vulpina* (V60-96), water potential was measured only in drought-stressed plants because of their slow growth. Among all species, the control group of *V. acerifolia* (9018) displayed the highest (least negative) water potential.

#### **3.3.3** | **Final measurement date**

### **Photosynthetic Traits**

Statistically significant differences in  $A_n$  were observed between the treatments for all species on the final measurement date. Notably, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) exhibited a pattern similar to that observed on the middle measurement date. Under well-watered conditions, the  $A_n$  rate remained comparable to that of the droughts of all other species. This trend was mirrored in E, C<sub>i</sub>, and  $g_s$  for *V. arizonica* (b40-14). Tukey's post-hoc analysis indicated that  $A_n$ , C<sub>i</sub>, E, and  $g_s$  were similar in all other species under drought conditions. Interestingly, not all the species displayed statistically significant differences in these parameters. *V. acerifolia* (9018) consistently maintained low C<sub>i</sub> values under both controlled and drought conditions. Notably, the trend in  $C_i$  between the drought and control treatments was inconsistent across the species. Statistically significant species generally exhibited higher  $C_i$  values under drought treatment, whereas those without significant differences had equal or lower C<sub>i</sub> values in drought-stressed plants. Remarkably, *V. arizonica* 

exhibited a substantial increase in C<sub>i</sub> under drought stress conditions. All species reduced their *E* rates to a similar level under drought conditions; however under well-watered conditions, they exhibited different *E* rates. For  $g_s$ , *V*. *mustangensis* (T48) displayed a significant reduction from the control to drought treatment. Notably, *V. arizonica* (b40- 14) displayed a unique adaptation strategy, maintaining photosynthetic rates comparable to those of drought-stressed plants of other species under well-watered conditions. This suggests that *V. arizonica* (b40-14) has an inherent drought tolerance mechanism. Additionally, the diverse responses in  $C_i$  across species emphasize the complexity of water use strategies, with some species conserving  $CO_2$  and others allowing higher  $C_i$  values under drought. The uniform reduction in transpiration rates under drought conditions suggests a common water-saving response among species, although transpiration rates under well-watered conditions vary considerably.

#### **Water-use efficiency**

*WUE*inst showed statistically significant differences for *V. arizonica* (b40-14) and *V. mustangensis* (T48), as indicated by the Tukey letter (group c), which showed very low values. *WUE*<sub>i</sub> exhibited significant differences in multiple species: *V. arizonica* (b40-14), *V. mustangensis* (T48), the hybrid (TXNM0821), and *V. rupestris* (Vru42). *WUE*<sup>i</sup> , which considers the trade-off between water loss and carbon gain, displayed significant differences across several species. These variations in water-use efficiency parameters underline the diverse adaptive strategies employed by grapevines to cope with water scarcity.

### **3.4** | **Photosynthetic capacity: CO<sup>2</sup> and light response curves**

Inherent differences in photosynthetic capacity were observed among the accessions (Table 3). Notably, *V. aestivalis* (T52), the hybrid (NY1), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96) consistently stood out across multiple parameters, showing their remarkable photosynthetic capabilities. These three species exhibited high values for  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and maximum rate of electron transport ( $J_{\text{max}}$ ) under both well-watered and water-stressed conditions, indicating their ability to maintain robust photosynthesis and resilience even in challenging environments. However, it is crucial to recognize the diversity of responses among the *Vitis* species. *V. mustangensis* (T48) appeared to be more sensitive to water stress, as indicated by the decline in several photosynthetic parameters under drought conditions. This sensitivity suggests that this species may require more favorable water availability to sustain optimal photosynthesis. Additionally, when examining the maximum rate of triose phosphate use (*TPU*), the hybrid (NY1) demonstrated efficient utilization of triose phosphate



**F I G U R E 8** Photosynthetic traits under well-watered (blue bar) and water-stressed (yellow bar) treatments for *Vitis* accessions at the end of the experiment. (A) Net assimilation rate  $(A_n, \mu$ mol), (B) Intercellular airspace  $CO_2$  concentration  $(C_i, \mu$ mol mol s<sup>-1</sup>), (C) Transpiration rate (*E*, mmol m<sup>-2</sup> m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>), (D) Stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ , mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), (E) Leaf temperature, ( $T_{\text{leaf}}$ , °C), (F) Instantaneous water use efficiency (*WUE*<sub>inst</sub>, µmol  $CO_2$  mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (G) Intrinsic water use efficiency (*WUE*<sub>i</sub>, µmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O), (H) Midday leaf water potential (Ψ<sub>MD</sub>, MPa). N = 4 (±SE). The measurements were taken at 400 mol mol<sup>-1</sup> and 1500 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photosynthetic photon flux density.



**FIGURE 9** Photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> response curves were constructed using Sharkey's fitting calculator version 2.0 (Sharkey 2016), averaged for 3 replicates in *Vitis* accessions under well-watered (blue dots) and droughted (yellow) treatments.  $A_n$ -C<sub>i</sub>-curves are shown with colored circles and error bars measured directly.  $A_n$ -C<sub>c</sub>-curves were used to generate V<sub>cmax</sub> and J, and averaged over three replicates for each accession ( $\pm$ SE, n=3). The assimilation rate at saturating CO<sub>2</sub> (A<sub>max</sub>) in the triose limitation state is indicated by the dashed black horizontal line in each plot. The dashed vertical grey lines represent the C<sub>i</sub> at ambient CO<sub>2</sub> (40.4 Pa), representing the limitation of  $g_{min}$  comparison with the value of the  $A_n$ -C<sub>c</sub>-curve. The rubisco (red curves) and RuBP regeneration limitations (black curves) are shown.

<b>Species</b>	Genotype	<b>Control</b>				<b>Drought</b>			
		$V_{\rm cmax}$	$\boldsymbol{J}$	<b>TPU</b>	$Rd^*$	$V_{\text{cmax}}$	J	<b>TPU</b>	$Rd^*$
V. acerifolia	9018	$155.7 + 32.8$	$213.5 + 23.6$	$12.6 \pm 1.5$	$10.9 + 4.9$	$119.9 + 29.7$	$186.1 \pm 35.8$	$10.8 + 2.8$	$14.3 \pm 5.3$
V. aestivalis	T <sub>52</sub>	$180.4 \pm 34.1$	$237.1 \pm 38.3$	$12.9 \pm 2.8$	$11.7 + 4.8$	$13.7 \pm 2.1$	$42.3 \pm 6.5$	$2.9 \pm 0.8$	$2\pm 2$
V. arizonica	$b40-14$	$112.4 \pm 12$	$161 \pm 21.1$	$8.3 \pm 1.9$	$13.6 \pm 5.9$	$9.2 \pm 2.2$	$26.6 \pm 12.9$	$1.6 + 0.7$	$0.6 + 0.6$
V. cinerea	$b42-34$	$160.4 + 14.3$	$221.1 \pm 9.2$	$14.9 \pm 1.1$	$14.5 \pm 2.2$	$109.4 + 11.1$	$165.1 + 41.6$	$11.3 \pm 2.9$	$11 + 3.9$
V. riparia	NY1	$205.1 + 11$	$271.7 + 15.4$	$16.1 + 0.5$	$22.9 + 2.3$	$141.4 + 12.7$	$216 \pm 19.4$	$11.5 + 1.5$	$11.4 \pm 2.9$
V. mustangensis	T48	$154.1 \pm 11.5$	$201.3 \pm 11.1$	$12.1 \pm 0.5$	$5.6 \pm 1$	$137.7 \pm 16.7$	$183.9 \pm 10.5$	$10.9 \pm 0.1$	$7.9 \pm 1.6$
hybrid	<b>TXNM0821</b>	$140+9.8$	$201 + 27.5$	$12.1 \pm 1.8$	$15.1 + 4.6$	$68.9 \pm 5.1$	$106.1 \pm 10.4$	$6.7 + 0.6$	$4.7 \pm 2.3$
V. rupestris	Vru42	$132.6 + 22.6$	$178.3 \pm 34.1$	$10.5 \pm 1.9$	$8 + 3.6$	$73.9+9$	$117+18.8$	$7.2 + 1$	$4.5 \pm 0.2$
V. vulpina	V60-96	$166.5 \pm 12.2$	$243.3 \pm 38.4$	$14.9 \pm 2.8$	$16.1 \pm 3.6$	$109.3 \pm 16.4$	$146.8 \pm 27.1$	$8.6 \pm 1.6$	$9.1 \pm 3.3$

**TABLE 3** Photosynthetic responses of 9 *Vitis* accessions under well-watered and water-stressed conditions. (N=3,  $\pm$ SE).

 $V_{\text{cmax}}$ , Maximum assimilation rate at saturating CO<sub>2</sub>; J, Rate of electron transport; TPU, Triose Phosphate Use limitation state,; Rd, Nonphotorespiratory respiration rate.

under well-watered conditions, contributing to the overall photosynthetic process. Intriguingly, *V. acerifolia* (9018) showed a significant increase in *TPU* under water stress conditions. This adaptation may be a crucial mechanism for this species to maintain photosynthesis during periods of water scarcity, potentially contributing to its resilience. A closer look at  $R_d$  revealed the varying strategies among the *Vitis* species. *V. aestivalis* (T52) displayed relatively high  $R_d$ values under both well-watered and water-stressed conditions, indicating active respiration as part of its photosynthetic process. In contrast, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) exhibited a significant reduction in  $R_d$  under water stress conditions. This reduction may represent an energy-conservation strategy during drought stress (Figure 9).

### **3.5** | **Anatomical traits: mesophyll width, surface, and volume parameters**

Leaf porosity, defined as the extent of intercellular spaces within leaf tissue, plays a critical role in gas exchange, affecting the diffusion of  $CO_2$  for photosynthesis and the release of  $O_2$  and water vapor. Increased leaf porosity enhances gas diffusion efficiency, particularly  $CO_2$  uptake, thereby improving the photosynthetic performance. This was achieved by providing a larger surface area for gas exchange, enabling better accessibility of  $\rm{CO}_2$  to the chloroplasts in the mesophyll cells. Analyzing  $\theta_{IAS}$ , we noted significant differences between the drought and control treatments for two species: *V*. *cinerea* (b42-34) and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). Notably, *V. cinerea* (b42-34) exhibited a significant decrease in porosity under drought conditions, although it did not have the lowest  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> among the species. Remarkably, *V. aestivalis* displayed consistently low  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> under both well-watered and drought conditions, with well-watered plants having lower  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub>



**F I G U R E 1 0** Exemplary 3D reconstruct of two *Vitis* accessions under two treatments.

than the drought-stressed plants of other species. Species with higher leaf  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$ , such as *V. riparia* (NY1), can exchange gases more efficiently, particularly  $CO_2$ , with the atmosphere. This increased gas diffusion enhances the photosynthetic efficiency. However, species with low  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub>, such as *V. aestivalis* (T52) may have limitations in CO<sub>2</sub> uptake.

The leaf mesophyll consists of two layers, spongy and palisade, which contribute to photosynthesis. The spongy layer below the palisade consists of loosely arranged cells with intercellular air spaces that enhance gas diffusion and facilitate gas exchange. In contrast, the palisade mesophyll consists of densely packed, vertically oriented cells that are enriched with chloroplasts and strategically positioned closer to the upper epidermis for optimal light capture.

The ratio of spongy mesophyll to palisade mesophyll varies among species and affects the photosynthetic efficiency. Under drought conditions, some species adapt by reducing the number and size of air spaces within the spongy mesophyll layer, thereby decreasing their  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell}$  ratio. This structural adjustment minimizes  $\theta_{IAS}$ , potentially promoting more efficient  $CO_2$  utilization within the leaf. Examining the  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell}$  ratio, we observed statistically significant differences among four species: *V. acerifolia* (9018), *V. aestivalis* (T52), *V. riparia* (NY1), and *V. rupestris* (Vru42). Notably, *V. rupestris* (Vru42) displayed the lowest ratio in both treatments, which was lower than that of any other species. Species that reduce the  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$  ratio under drought conditions are likely to optimize  $CO_2$  utilization.



**F I G U R E 1 1** Morphological parameters under well-watered (blue bar) and water-stressed (yellow bar) treatments for *Vitis* accessions. (A) Mesophyll porosity ( $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$ , m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>), (B) Spongy cell volume to total mesophyll cell volume (V<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ V<sub>mes-cell</sub>, m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>), (C) Palisade cell volume to total mesophyll cell volume ( $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ ,  $m^3 m^{-3}$ ), (D) Spongy cell volume to palisade cell volume, ( $V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell}$ ,  $m^3 m^{-3}$ ), (E) Leaf thickness, (*L*<sub>leaf</sub>, µmol), (F) Mesophyll thickness, (*L*<sub>mes</sub>, µmol, (G) Spongy cell surface area to total mesophyll surface area (SA<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ SA<sub>mes-cell</sub>, µm<sup>2</sup>  $\mu$ m<sup>-2</sup>) (H) Palisade cell surface area to total mesophyll surface area (SA<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ SA<sub>mes-cell</sub>,  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>  $\mu$ m<sup>-2</sup>) (I) Spongy and palisade cell surface area to total mesophyll surface area  $(SA_{sp+pa-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}, \mu m^2 \mu m^{-2})$ . N= 3-4.



**F I G U R E 1 2** Leaf cross sections from representative scans of 9 *Vitis* accessions under well-watered and drought conditions obtained using X-ray microcomputed tomography. Bar equals 200µm.

Decreasing intercellular air spaces limits  $CO_2$  movement within the leaf, potentially leading to more efficient  $CO_2$  use for photosynthesis.

*L*leaf and *L*mes varied significantly among the species. *V. riparia* (NY1) had the widest leaves and mesophyll, whereas *V. aestivalis* (T52) and *V. arizonica* (b40-14) had narrower leaves and mesophyll. Only *V. arizonica* (b40-14) showed statistically significant differences between the control and drought treatments, with drought resulting in reduced width. Remarkably, under drought conditions, *L*leaf of *V. rupestris* (Vru42) increased, although not significantly. However, a significant increase in *L*mes was observed for *V. rupestris* (Vru42) under drought conditions, whereas *V. arizonica* exhibited a significant decrease (see Figure 12). Variations in *L*<sub>leaf</sub> and *L*<sub>mes</sub> affect the available surface area for gas exchange and light capture. Wider leaves and mesophyll, as observed in *V. riparia*, offer more space for photosynthesis. Conversely, narrower leaves, such as those of *V. aestivalis* and *V. arizonica*, may have trade-offs in terms of gas exchange and light utilization.

Analyzing *SA*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub> and *SA*<sub>pa-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub>, the species exhibited diverse adaptations. For example, *V*. *acerifolia* (9018), *V. aestivalis* (T52), and *V. riparia* (NY1) displayed statistically significant decreases in the SA<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *SA*mes-cell ratio under drought conditions. In contrast, *V. cinerea* (b42-34) showed a substantial increase in this ratio under drought conditions, surpassing that of all other species. *V. rupestris* (Vru42) exhibited the lowest ratio in this context. However, concerning the  $SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$  ratio, *V. rupestris* (Vru42) displayed the highest ratio under drought conditions compared to the other species, with an overall increase observed for all species under drought conditions. The control plants of *V. acerifolia* (9018) exhibited a very low  $SA_{pa-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  ratio, which increased significantly under drought conditions. Similar increases were observed in *V. rupestris* (Vru42), *V. aestivalis* (T52), and *V. cinerea* (b42-34). The *SA*pa-cell+sp-cell/ *SA*mes-cell increased significantly in *V. cinerea* (b42-34) and *V. rupestris* (Vru42) under drought conditions, whereas *V. acerifolia* (9018) and *V. riparia* (NY1) exhibited consistently low ratios across both treatment groups. Changes in *SA*pa-cell+sp-cell/ *SA*mes-cell reflect adjustments in the light capture and gas exchange strategies. Species such as *V. cinerea* showed increased *SA*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub> under drought conditions, potentially enhancing gas diffusion. In contrast, *V. rupestris* increased *SA*<sub>pa-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub>, indicating a focus on maximizing the light capture.
	Lat	Long	Т	<b>MDR</b>	Isoth.	<b>TCV</b>	$\mathbf{T}_{\text{max-WAM}}$	$T_{min-CM}$	<b>TAR</b>	$T_{WEQ}$	$T_{DQ}$
Lat		$0.81*$	$-0.83*$	-0.5	$-0.79*$	$0.89*$	$-0.61$	$-0.91*$	$0.88*$	$-0.54$	$-0.97*$
Long	$0.81*$		$-0.47$	$-0.81*$	$-0.83*$	$0.78*$	$-0.29$	$-0.54$	0.59	$-0.17$	$-0.7*$
T	$-0.83*$	$-0.47$		0.02	0.35	$-0.52$	$0.93*$	$0.97*$	$-0.66$	$0.74*$	$0.87*$
$\bf MDR$	$-0.5$	$-0.81*$	0.02		$0.87*$	$-0.68*$	$-0.16$	0.12	$-0.35$	$-0.07$	$0.4\,$
Isoth.	$-0.79*$	$-0.83*$	0.35	$0.87*$		$-0.95*$	0.06	0.51	$-0.76*$	0.16	$0.73*$
<b>TCV</b>	$0.89*$	$0.78*$	$-0.52$	$-0.68*$	$-0.95*$		$-0.21$	$-0.7*$	$0.92*$	$-0.3$	$-0.85*$
$\mathbf{T}_{\text{max-WAM}}$	$-0.61$	$-0.29$	$0.93*$	$-0.16$	0.06	$-0.21$		$0.81*$	$-0.36$	$0.74*$	$0.67*$
$\mathbf{T}_{\text{min-CM}}$	$-0.91*$	$-0.54$	$0.97*$	0.12	0.51	$-0.7*$	$0.81*$		$-0.83*$	$0.7*$	$0.94*$
TAR	$0.88*$	0.59	$-0.66$	$-0.35$	$-0.76*$	$0.92*$	$-0.36$	$-0.83*$		$-0.41$	$-0.88*$
$T_{WEQ}$	$-0.54$	$-0.17$	$0.74*$	$-0.07$	0.16	$-0.3$	$0.74*$	$0.7*$	$-0.41$		0.61
$T_{DQ}$	$-0.97*$	$-0.7*$	$0.87*$	0.4	$0.73*$	$-0.85*$	$0.67*$	$0.94*$	$-0.88*$	0.61	
$T_{WAQ}$	$-0.52$	$-0.16$	$0.9*$	$-0.32$	$-0.07$	$-0.11$	$0.99*$	$0.78*$	$-0.31$	$0.71*$	0.59
$T_{CQ}$	$-0.96*$	$-0.65$	$0.95*$	0.27	0.62	$-0.77*$	$0.78*$	$0.99*$	$-0.84*$	$0.67*$	$0.98*$
P	0.32	0.65	$-0.1$	$-0.57$	$-0.36$	0.26	$-0.11$	$-0.08$	0.02		$-0.18$
$P_{WEM}$	$-0.61$	$-0.36$	0.34	0.46	$0.76*$	$-0.78*$	0.05	0.5	$-0.75*$	0.14	$0.67*$
$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DM}}$	$0.73*$	$0.86*$	$-0.4$	$-0.83*$	$-0.81*$	$0.72*$	$-0.26$	$-0.45$	0.47	$-0.38$	$-0.64$
<b>PCV</b>	$-0.75*$	$-0.81*$	0.33	$0.87*$	$0.96*$	$-0.88*$	0.08	0.46	$-0.66$	0.25	$0.69*$
$P_{WQ}$	$-0.44$	$-0.23$	0.19	0.4	0.66	$-0.65$	$-0.07$	0.34	$-0.62$	$-0.02$	0.52
$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DQ}}$	$0.68*$	$0.82*$	$-0.34$	$-0.82*$	$-0.79*$	$0.69*$	$-0.2$	$-0.39$	0.43	$-0.35$	$-0.58$
$P_{WAQ}$	$-0.15$	$-0.06$	$-0.13$	0.42	0.54	$-0.46$	$-0.34$	$0.02\,$	$-0.36$	$-0.2$	0.23
$P_{CQ}$	0.6	$0.75*$	$-0.35$	$-0.64$	$-0.58$	0.52	$-0.28$	$-0.36$	0.31	$-0.39$	$-0.46$
	$T_{WAQ}$	$T_{CO}$	P	$\mathbf{P}_{\text{WEM}}$	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DM}}$	<b>PCV</b>	$P_{WQ}$	$P_{DQ}$	$P_{WAQ}$		
Lat	$-0.52$	$-0.96*$	0.32	$-0.61$	$0.73*$	$-0.75*$	$-0.44$	$0.68*$	$-0.15$	$\mathbf{P}_{\text{CQ}}$ 0.6	
Long	$-0.16$	$-0.65$	0.65	$-0.36$	$0.86*$	$-0.81*$	$-0.23$	$0.82*$	$-0.06$	$0.75*$	
T	$0.9*$	$0.95*$	$-0.1$	0.34	$-0.4$	0.33	0.19	$-0.34$	$-0.13$	$-0.35$	
$\bf MDR$	$-0.32$	0.27	$-0.57$	0.46	$-0.83*$	$0.87*$	0.4	$-0.82*$	0.42	$-0.64$	
Isoth.	$-0.07$	0.62	$-0.36$	$0.76*$	$-0.81*$	$0.96*$	0.66	$-0.79*$	0.54	$-0.58$	
<b>TCV</b>	$-0.11$	$-0.77*$	0.26	$-0.78*$	$0.72*$	$-0.88*$	$-0.65$	$0.69*$	$-0.46$	0.52	
$\mathbf{T}_{\text{max-WAM}}$	$0.99*$	$0.78*$	$-0.11$	0.05	$-0.26$	0.08	$-0.07$	$-0.2$	$-0.34$	$-0.28$	
$T_{min-CM}$	$0.78*$	$0.99*$	$-0.08$	0.5	$-0.45$	0.46	0.34	$-0.39$	$0.02\,$	$-0.36$	
TAR	$-0.31$	$-0.84*$	$0.02\,$	$-0.75*$	0.47	$-0.66$	$-0.62$	0.43	$-0.36$	0.31	
$T_{WEQ}$	$0.71*$	$0.67*$	$-0.25$	0.14	$-0.38$	0.25	$-0.02$	$-0.35$	$-0.2$	$-0.39$	
	0.59	$0.98*$	$-0.18$	$0.67*$	$-0.64$	$0.69*$	0.52	$-0.58$	0.23	$-0.46$	
$\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{DQ}}$ $T_{WAQ}$		$0.72*$	$-0.01$	$-0.01$	$-0.11$	$-0.06$	$-0.12$	$-0.05$	$-0.4$	$-0.16$	
$T_{CQ}$	$0.72*$		$-0.19$	0.54	$-0.58$	0.58	0.38	$-0.52$	$0.06\,$	$-0.47$	
P	$-0.01$	$-0.19$		0.27	$0.77*$	$-0.47$	0.43	$0.78*$	0.45	$0.88^{\ast}$	
$P_{WEM}$	$-0.01$	0.54	0.27		$-0.39$	$0.71*$	$0.97*$	$-0.37$	$0.85*$	$-0.08$	
$P_{DM}$	$-0.11$	$-0.58$	$0.77*$	$-0.39$		$-0.9*$	$-0.22$	$0.99*$	$-0.11$	$0.92*$	
PCV	$-0.06$	0.58	$-0.47$	$0.71*$	$-0.9*$		0.59	$-0.9*$	0.49	$-0.71*$	
$P_{WQ}$	$-0.12$	0.38	0.43	$0.97*$	$-0.22$	0.59		$-0.2$	$0.93*$	0.11	
$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DQ}}$	$-0.05$	$-0.52$	$0.78*$	$-0.37$	$0.99*$	$-0.9*$	$-0.2$		$-0.12$	$0.93*$	
$P_{WAQ}$	$-0.4$	0.06	0.45	$0.85*$	$-0.11$	0.49	$0.93*$	$-0.12$		0.21	

**TA B L E 4** Pearson correlation coefficients between geoclimate data.

Pearson correlation coefficients between geoclimate data for the nine *Vitis* accessions. Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

Abbreviations: Lat, Latitude; Long, Longitude; T, Annual Mean Temperature; MDR, Mean Diurnal Range; Isoth., Isothermality; T CV, Temperature Seasonality;  $T_{max-WAM}$ , Maimum Temperature of Warmest Month;  $T_{min-CM}$ , Minimum Temperature of Coldest Month; TAR, Temperature Annual Range;  $T_{WEO}$ , Mean Temperature of Wettest Quarter ;  $T_{DQ}$ , Mean Temperature Driest Quarter; T<sub>WAQ</sub>, Mean Temperature Warmest Quarter; T<sub>CQ</sub>, Mean Temperature Coldest Quarter; P, Annual Precipitation; P<sub>WEM</sub>, Precipitation of Wettest Month; P<sub>DM</sub>, Precipitation of Driest Month; P CV, Precipitation Seasonality; P<sub>WO</sub>, Precipitation Wettest Quarter;  $P_{DQ}$ , Precipitation Driest Quarter;  $P_{WAQ}$ , Precipitation Warmest Quarter;  $P_{CQ}$ , Precipitation Coldest Quarter.

#### **3.6** | **Trait-climate relationships**

#### **Interactions of geoclimatic variables**

The geoclimatic data (Table 4) revealed a network of relationships. Latitude and longitude displayed a robust positive correlation of 0.81, indicating that moving north or south corresponds to east or west movement. A higher annual mean temperature tends to be associated with a smaller mean diurnal range (MDR), meaning that places with more stable temperatures have less variation throughout the day. Conversely, areas with warmer peaks during the year (maximum temperature of the warmest month  $(T_{max-WAM})$ ) tended to experience a milder minimum temperature of the coldest month  $(T_{min-CM})$ , suggesting a balancing effect. Annual precipitation and mean temperature of the wettest quarter  $(T_{WEO})$  presented a strong negative correlation of -0.88, suggesting that regions with higher annual rainfall typically experience cooler temperatures during the wettest quarter.

Conversely, mean temperature of the driest quarter  $(T_{DO})$  and mean temperature of the warmest quarter  $(T_{WAO})$  revealed a compelling positive correlation of 0.94, highlighting that areas with warmer periods during the year also tend to have higher temperatures during the driest quarter. The annual precipitation and precipitation of the wettest quarter ( $P_{WQ}$ ) demonstrated a noteworthy positive correlation of 0.77, implying that regions with more significant annual precipitation often have elevated rainfall during the wettest quarter. The precipitation of the driest quarter ( $P_{\text{DO}}$ ) and precipitation seasonality (PCV) revealed a striking negative correlation of -0.90, suggesting that areas with higher rainfall during the driest month tend to have less pronounced variations in precipitation throughout the year.

 $P_{\text{DO}}$  and precipitation of the coldest quarter ( $P_{\text{CO}}$ ) showed a compelling positive correlation of 0.93, signifying that regions with increased rainfall during the driest quarter also experience higher precipitation during the coldest quarter. This correlation underscores the interconnectedness of seasonal precipitation patterns. Furthermore,  $T_{WAO}$  and  $T_{CO}$ reveal a notable positive correlation of 0.72, indicating that regions with warmer periods during the year also tend to have milder temperatures during the coldest quarter.

## **Effects of geoclimatic variables on physiological and anatomical parameters under well-watered conditions**

latitude exhibited a strong positive correlation  $(0.71^*)$  with  $C_i$ . This implies that as one moves closer to the equator (lower latitudes), there tends to be an increase in the concentration of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  within plant leaf intercellular spaces, potentially indicating adaptation to varying environmental conditions. longitude (Long) also showed a substantial

positive correlation  $(0.70^*)$  with  $C_i$ , suggesting that the longitudinal movement across regions, whether east or west, leads to a parallel increase in  $C_i$ . This highlights a potential connection between geographical position and  $CO_2$  concentration within plant tissues. mean diurnal range displayed a pronounced negative correlation  $(-0.68^*)$  with  $C_i$ . This suggests that regions with larger temperature fluctuations throughout the day tend to have lower  $\rm{CO}_2$  concentrations within plant leaf intercellular spaces. The isothermality (Isoth.) exhibited a strong negative correlation  $(-0.69^*)$  with  $C_i$ , emphasizing the influence of temperature stability on plant  $CO_2$  exchange processes. Regions with less diurnal temperature variations tended to exhibit higher  $\rm{CO}_2$  concentrations. temperature seasonalityand  $\rm{C_i}$  were positively correlated (0.62\*), indicating that areas with pronounced temperature seasonality tended to have higher  $CO_2$  concentrations within plant leaves.  $J_{\text{max}}$  displayed a robust positive correlation (0.73\*) with longitude, suggesting that longitudinal differences across regions impact the  $J_{\text{max}}$ , possibly driven by variations in climate conditions.  $J_{\text{max}}$  also showed a significant negative correlation (-0.75\*) with mean diurnal range, indicating that regions with larger temperature fluctuations tend to have lower electron transport rates.  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  exhibited a strong positive correlation (0.67\*) with longitude, suggesting that longitudinal variations across regions may influence *V*<sub>cmax</sub> in photosynthesis. Ψ<sub>MD</sub> showed a robust positive correlation  $(0.81^*)$  with C<sub>i</sub>, implying that higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are associated with greater leaf water potential. Among the anatomical parameters,  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  exhibited a negative correlation (-0.62\*) with annual precipitation, suggesting that regions with higher annual precipitation tend to have lower leaf tissue  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub>. The  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  ratio displayed a strong positive correlation (0.75\*) with annual precipitation, indicating that areas with higher annual precipitation tended to have a larger volume proportion of mesophyll palisade cells.

#### **Effects of geoclimatic variables on physiological and anatomical parameters under drought conditions**

In 6, several significant correlations were observed between geoclimatic variables and physiological/anatomical parameters, indicating relationships between environmental conditions and plant response to drought. latitude displayed a moderate positive correlation (0.35) with photosynthetic parameters (*E* and *A*<sup>n</sup> ), indicating that as one moved closer to the equator (lower latitudes), there tends to be a positive effect on photosynthesis under drought conditions. latitude exhibited a positive correlation with  $\Psi_{MD}$  and a significant positive correlation with  $\Psi_{PD}$ , suggesting that as one moves closer to the equator, plants may experience increased water stress, leading to lower  $\Psi_{MD}$  values. longitude exhibited a relatively strong positive correlation (0.51) with photosynthetic parameters (*E* and *A*<sup>n</sup> ), suggesting that longitudinal

	Lat	Long	${\bf T}$	<b>MDR</b>	Isoth.	<b>TCV</b>	$T_{max-WAM}$	$T_{min-CM}$	<b>TAR</b>	$T_{WEQ}$	$T_{DQ}$
E	0.53	0.57	$-0.26$	$-0.64$	$-0.68*$	0.6	$-0.12$	$-0.31$	0.39	$-0.33$	$-0.55$
$\boldsymbol{A}$	0.11	0.21	0.31	$-0.52$	$-0.56$	0.46	0.53	0.14	0.29	0.21	$-0.13$
$C_i$	0.59	$0.71*$	$-0.31$	$-0.68*$	$-0.69*$	0.62	$-0.18$	$-0.36$	0.41	$-0.4$	$-0.58$
$g_{\rm s}$	0.34	0.44	0.01	$-0.58$	$-0.63$	0.55	0.2	$-0.11$	0.37	$-0.15$	$-0.35$
WUE,	$-0.59$	$-0.7*$	0.33	$0.67*$	$0.68*$	$-0.61$	0.21	0.38	$-0.41$	0.41	0.59
$WUE_{inst}$	$-0.41$	$-0.62$	0.36	0.34	0.23	$-0.2$	0.42	0.29	$-0.06$	0.41	0.31
$V_{\rm cmax}$	0.46	$0.67*$	$-0.12$	$-0.75*$	$-0.71*$	0.58	0.03	$-0.22$	0.38	0.27	$-0.39$
$A_{\text{max}}$	0.04	0.32	0.33	$-0.68*$	$-0.52$	0.3	0.44	0.25	0.02	0.36	$-0.07$
$J_{\rm max}$	0.5	$0.73*$	$-0.18$	$-0.75*$	$-0.7*$	0.57	$-0.05$	$-0.26$	0.36	0.29	$-0.43$
$\Psi_{MD}$	$-0.05$	0.03	0.18	$-0.35$	$-0.24$	0.07	0.21	0.21	$-0.13$	0.27	$-0.03$
$\Psi$ pp	0.18	$-0.13$	$-0.45$	0.33	0.17	$-0.08$	$-0.52$	$-0.33$	0.04	$-0.3$	$-0.2$
$\theta$ IAS	0.06	$-0.23$	$-0.27$	0.4	0.14	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$-0.23$	$-0.27$	0.2	$-0.06$	$-0.25$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.49$	$-0.41$	0.54	0.04	0.21	$-0.29$	0.5	0.5	$-0.32$	0.17	0.52
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	0.36	0.62	$-0.17$	$-0.47$	$-0.34$	0.25	$-0.18$	$-0.14$	0.06	$-0.09$	$-0.18$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$	$-0.49$	$-0.59$	0.43	0.29	0.3	$-0.29$	0.43	0.39	$-0.21$	0.23	0.39
$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$-0.02$	$-0.46$	$-0.16$	0.46	0.12	0.03	$-0.07$	$-0.22$	0.28	$-0.15$	$-0.18$
$L_{\rm mes}$	0.05	$-0.39$	$-0.23$	0.43	0.08	0.09	$-0.13$	$-0.29$	0.34	$-0.19$	$-0.25$
$SA_{\rm sn-cell}/SA_{\rm mes-cell}$	$-0.49$	$-0.41$	0.54	0.04	0.21	$-0.29$	0.5	0.5	$-0.32$	0.17	0.52
$SApa-cell/SAmes-cell$	0.36	0.62	$-0.17$	$-0.47$	$-0.34$	0.25	$-0.18$	$-0.14$	0.06	$-0.09$	$-0.18$
$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.06$	0.23	0.27	$-0.4$	$-0.14$	$\mathbf{0}$	0.23	0.27	$-0.2$	0.06	0.25
			$\mathbf P$			<b>PCV</b>					
$\boldsymbol{E}$	$T_{WAO}$ $\boldsymbol{0}$	$T_{CO}$ $-0.42$	0.38	$P_{WEM}$ $-0.59$	$P_{DM}$ $0.77*$	$-0.83*$	$P_{WO}$ $-0.51$	$P_{DO}$ $0.77*$	$P_{WAO}$ $-0.44$	$P_{CO}$ 0.57	
$\boldsymbol{A}$	0.6	0.06	$-0.04$	$-0.65$	0.31	$-0.6$	$-0.68*$	0.33	$-0.76*$	0.07	
$C_i$	$-0.05$	$-0.47$	0.58	$-0.42$	$0.83*$	$-0.81*$	$-0.31$	$0.81*$	$-0.23$	$0.67*$	
	0.3	$-0.2$	0.3	$-0.55$	0.61	$-0.75*$	$-0.5$	0.62	$-0.49$	0.43	
$g_{\rm s}$ WUE,	0.08	0.48	$-0.58$	0.41	$-0.83*$	$0.8*$	0.31	$-0.81*$	0.22	$-0.67*$	
	0.34	0.36	$-0.83*$	$-0.24$	$-0.68*$	0.39	$-0.39$	$-0.67*$	$-0.5$	$-0.81*$	
$W\!U\!E_{\rm inst}$ $V_{\rm cmax}$	0.14	$-0.31$	0.08	$-0.5$	0.43	$-0.61$	$-0.53$	0.4	$-0.52$	0.21	
$A_{\rm max}$	0.54	0.13	0.05	$-0.5$	0.37	$-0.55$	$-0.59$	0.37	$-0.71*$	0.07	
$J_{\rm max}$	0.06	$-0.36$	0.16	$-0.45$	0.48	$-0.59$	$-0.47$	0.44	$-0.42$	0.27	
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.28	0.13	$-0.12$	$-0.46$	0.23	$-0.33$	$-0.52$	0.24	$-0.58$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
$\Psi$ pp	$-0.54$	$-0.29$	$-0.11$	$-0.1$	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.09	0.16	0.2	
$\theta$ jas	$-0.3$	$-0.19$	$-0.62$	$-0.31$	$-0.38$	0.23	$-0.38$	$-0.45$	$-0.23$	$-0.6$	
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	0.47	0.51	$-0.07$	0.27	$-0.31$	0.27	0.2	$-0.26$	$-0.05$	$-0.24$	
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.08$	$-0.23$	$0.75*$	0.11	$0.69*$	$-0.49$	0.25	$0.72*$	0.29	$0.86*$	
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$	0.36	0.44	$-0.51$	0.06	$-0.6$	0.46	$-0.07$	$-0.6$	$-0.23$	$-0.7*$	
$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$-0.15$	$-0.12$	$-0.83*$	$-0.48$	$-0.49$	0.21	$-0.56$	$-0.53$	$-0.49$	$-0.7*$	
$L_{\text{mes}}$	$-0.21$	$-0.2$	$-0.8*$	$-0.49$	$-0.46$	0.18	$-0.56$	$-0.5$	$-0.47$	$-0.68*$	
$SA_{sp\text{-}cell}/SA_{mes\text{-}cell}$	0.47	0.51	$-0.07$	0.27	$-0.31$	0.27	0.2	$-0.26$	$-0.05$	$-0.24$	
$SApa-cell/SAmes-cell$	$-0.08$	$-0.23$	$0.75*$	0.11	$0.69*$	$-0.49$	0.25	$0.72*$	0.29	$0.86*$	

**TA B L E 5** Pearson correlation coefficients between geoclimate variables and physiological and anatomical parameters under well-watered conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological and anatomical variables and geoclimatic data for nine *Vitis* accessions under well-watered treatment were calculated using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

variations across regions may influence photosynthesis even during drought. mean diurnal range displayed negative correlations with most physiological parameters, indicating that greater temperature fluctuations throughout the day may adversely affect plant performance. Stabilizing temperature conditions may be favorable for plant growth and photosynthesis. isothermality displayed a moderate negative correlation (-0.49) with the photosynthetic parameters (*E* and *A*<sup>n</sup> ), indicating that regions with less temperature variation tend to have higher photosynthetic rates during drought. temperature seasonality demonstrated a significant positive correlation (0.48) with the photosynthetic parameters (*E* and *A*<sup>n</sup> ), suggesting that areas with pronounced temperature seasonality may experience increased photosynthesis during drought.  $C_i$  was positively correlated (0.48) with longitude and (0.17) with latitude, indicating a relationship between geographical position and  $\rm CO_2$  concentration within plant leaf intercellular spaces during drought.  $g_{\rm s}$  showed a positive correlation (0.31) with latitude and (0.48) with longitude, suggesting that geographical factors may influence stomatal conductance during drought. WUE<sub>i</sub>and inst displayed negative correlations with several geoclimatic variables, implying that these parameters are sensitive to climatic conditions and may decrease under drought stress.  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ , maximum assimilation rate at saturating  $CO_2(A_{max})$ , and  $J_{max}$  exhibited various correlations with geoclimatic variables, indicating that these photosynthetic parameters are influenced by geographical and climatic factors during drought. Porosity was positively correlated with latitude and negatively correlated with longitude, implying that geographical factors may influence leaf tissue  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> during drought.  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  exhibit a strong positive correlation (0.70) with annual precipitation, indicating that areas with higher annual precipitation tend to have a larger volume proportion of mesophyll palisade cells during drought. ( $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ ,  $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ , and  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell}$  exhibited complex correlations with geoclimatic variables. These ratios may reflect adaptations in leaf anatomy that balance the demands of photosynthesis and water conservation.

### **Effects of physiological parameters under well-watered conditions**

Table 7 illustrates the significant correlations among the physiological parameters under well-watered conditions. These associations reveal effective water management strategies for vines to support growth and photosynthesis.

E shows positive relationships with the key parameters  $A_n$ ,  $C_i$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $WUE_i$ , and  $A_{max}$ . This indicates that vines tend to increase *E* when water is abundant. Higher *E* rates facilitate  $CO_2$  uptake  $(A_n)$  and maintain optimal  $C_i$  levels while optimizing stomatal conductance. These adjustments ensure efficient gas exchange and preserve adequate  $\Psi_{MD}$ , thereby maximizing photosynthesis and growth when water is plentiful.

*A*<sup>n</sup> positively correlates with various parameters, including *E*, *g*<sup>s</sup> , and *A*max. These associations suggest that grapevines actively enhance their photosynthesis under well-watered conditions. They increase  $A_n$  while maintaining an efficient  $g_s$ .

	Lat	Long	T	<b>MDR</b>	Isoth.	<b>TCV</b>	$\mathbf{T}_{\text{max-WAM}}$	$T_{min-CM}$	<b>TAR</b>	$T_{WEQ}$	$T_{DQ}$
E	0.35	0.51	$-0.07$	$-0.39$	$-0.49$	0.48	0.12	$-0.18$	0.41	0.28	$-0.36$
$\boldsymbol{A}$	0.33	0.36	$-0.08$	$-0.27$	$-0.46$	0.49	0.12	$-0.22$	0.48	0.05	$-0.37$
$\boldsymbol{C}_\mathbf{i}$	0.17	0.48	0.09	$-0.46$	$-0.33$	0.23	0.17	0.09	0.02	0.39	$-0.12$
$\boldsymbol{g}_{\text{s}}$	0.31	0.48	$-0.01$	$-0.41$	$-0.47$	0.44	0.16	$-0.11$	0.33	0.24	$-0.31$
$WUE_i$	$-0.04$	$-0.45$	$-0.24$	0.4	0.22	$-0.11$	$-0.28$	$-0.22$	0.09	$-0.64$	$-0.1$
$WUE_{inst}$	$-0.18$	$-0.49$	$-0.08$	0.45	0.34	$-0.24$	$-0.16$	$-0.07$	$-0.04$	$-0.4$	0.13
$V_{\rm cmax}$	0.39	0.48	$-0.12$	$-0.36$	$-0.52$	0.54	0.1	$-0.26$	0.52	0.18	$-0.43$
$A_{\text{max}}$	0.3	0.37	$-0.05$	$-0.38$	$-0.49$	0.47	0.12	$-0.19$	0.42	0.07	$-0.37$
$J_{\rm max}$	0.4	0.47	$-0.12$	$-0.38$	$-0.55$	0.57	0.11	$-0.28$	0.55	0.18	$-0.44$
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.45	0.27	$-0.48$	$-0.23$	$-0.34$	0.31	$-0.46$	$-0.42$	0.24	$-0.35$	$-0.5$
$\Psi_{PD}$	$0.67*$	0.47	$-0.62$	$-0.32$	$-0.54$	0.56	$-0.5$	$-0.63$	0.53	$-0.3$	$-0.75*$
$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$	0.19	$-0.24$	$-0.42$	0.47	0.09	0.11	$-0.34$	$-0.44$	0.39	$-0.21$	$-0.37$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.6$	$-0.36$	0.65	$-0.01$	0.28	$-0.41$	0.55	0.64	$-0.51$	0.24	0.63
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	0.38	0.63	$-0.18$	$-0.52$	$-0.38$	0.28	$-0.17$	$-0.14$	0.07	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$-0.21$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$	$-0.6$	$-0.54$	0.55	0.23	0.37	$-0.41$	0.48	0.52	$-0.38$	0.23	0.52
$L_{\text{leaf}}$	0.06	$-0.36$	$-0.19$	0.33	$\mathbf{0}$	0.14	$-0.07$	$-0.25$	0.34	$-0.16$	$-0.27$
$L_{\mathrm{leaf}}$	0.13	$-0.3$	$-0.25$	0.3	$-0.04$	0.18	$-0.13$	$-0.31$	0.38	$-0.19$	$-0.33$
$SA_{\rm sn-cell}/SA_{\rm mess-cell}$	$-0.6$	$-0.36$	0.65	$-0.01$	0.28	$-0.41$	0.55	0.64	$-0.51$	0.24	0.63
$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	0.38	0.63	$-0.18$	$-0.52$	$-0.38$	0.28	$-0.17$	$-0.14$	0.07	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$-0.21$
$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.19$	0.24	0.42	$-0.47$	$-0.09$	$-0.11$	0.34	0.44	$-0.39$	0.21	0.37
	$T_{WAO}$		$\mathbf P$	$P_{WEM}$		P CV	$P_{WO}$	$P_{DO}$	$P_{WAO}$		
$\boldsymbol{E}$	0.16	$T_{CQ}$ $-0.23$	$-0.01$	$-0.44$	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DM}}$ 0.24	$-0.43$	$-0.47$	0.19	$-0.37$	$P_{CO}$ 0.01	
$\boldsymbol{A}$	0.15	$-0.25$	$-0.09$	$-0.54$	0.22	$-0.46$	$-0.56$	0.19	$-0.46$	0.01	
$C_i$	0.23	$-0.01$	0.37	$-0.13$	0.42	$-0.35$	$-0.1$	0.4	$-0.04$	0.31	
$g_{\rm s}$	0.21	$-0.18$	0.11	$-0.43$	0.34	$-0.48$	$-0.43$	0.31	$-0.34$	0.14	
$WUE_i$	$-0.33$	$-0.14$	$-0.35$	$-0.04$	$-0.29$	0.24	$-0.05$	$-0.3$	$-0.07$	$-0.32$	
$W\!U\!E_{\rm inst}$	$-0.22$	0.03	$-0.35$	0.14	$-0.41$	0.35	0.12	$-0.39$	0.05	$-0.3$	
$V_{\rm cmax}$	0.13	$-0.3$	$-0.1$	$-0.51$	0.18	$-0.41$	$-0.54$	0.12	$-0.43$	$-0.09$	
$A_{\text{max}}$	0.17	$-0.22$	$-0.13$	$-0.51$	0.16	$-0.41$	$-0.58$	0.11	$-0.53$	$-0.15$	
$J_{\rm max}$	0.14	$-0.31$	$-0.13$	$-0.52$	0.15	$-0.4$	$-0.56$	0.09	$-0.46$	$-0.13$	
$\Psi_{MD}$	$-0.39$	$-0.46$	0.02	$-0.53$	0.48	$-0.49$	$-0.45$	0.48	$-0.33$	0.38	
$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$	$-0.43$	$-0.67*$	$-0.07$	$-0.72*$	0.48	$-0.58$	$-0.66$	0.44	$-0.45$	0.24	
$\theta_{\rm IAS}$	$-0.42$	$-0.35$	$-0.68*$	$-0.41$	$-0.38$	0.19	$-0.45$	$-0.43$	$-0.25$	$-0.55$	
$V_{\rm sp-cell}/V_{\rm mes-cell}$	0.54	0.64	0.06	0.46	$-0.29$	0.32	0.36	$-0.26$	$0.07\,$	$-0.22$	
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.07$	$-0.24$	$0.7*$	0.01	$0.71*$	$-0.52$	0.15	$0.74*$	0.21	$0.84*$	
$V_{\rm sp-cell}/V_{\rm pa-cell}$	0.42	0.56	$-0.31$	0.29	$-0.56$	0.49	0.15	$-0.56$	$-0.07$	$-0.62$	
$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$-0.13$	$-0.18$	$-0.77*$	$-0.57$	$-0.37$	0.08	$-0.65$	$-0.41$	$-0.56$	$-0.63$	
$L_{\rm mes}$	$-0.19$	$-0.25$	$-0.73*$	$-0.57$	$-0.34$	0.07	$-0.63$	$-0.38$	$-0.53$	$-0.6$	
$SAso-cell/SAmes-cell$	0.54	0.64	0.06	0.46	$-0.29$	0.32	0.36	$-0.26$	0.07	$-0.22$	
$SApa-cell/SAmes-cell$	$-0.07$	$-0.24$	$0.7*$	0.01	$0.71*$	$-0.52$	0.15	$0.74*$	0.21	$0.84*$	

**TA B L E 6** Pearson correlation coefficients between geoclimate variables and physiological and anatomical parameters under drought conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological and anatomical variables and geoclimatic data for nine *Vitis* accessions under drought treatment were calculated using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

Additionally, these correlations indicate that grapevines optimize  $A_{\text{max}}$  when water is not limiting, thereby promoting robust growth and carbon fixation.

 $C_i$  was positively correlated with *E* and  $g_s$  but negatively correlated with  $WUE_i$ . These correlations demonstrate the

ability of vines to regulate internal  $C_i$  levels by adjusting transpiration and stomatal conductance for optimal  $\rm CO_2$  uptake when water is readily available.  $g_s$  also exhibits positive correlations with  $WUE$ <sub>i</sub> and  $A_{\text{max}}$ . These relationships indicate that grapevines prioritize efficient gas exchange,  $CO_2$  assimilation, and growth under well-watered conditions. Furthermore,  $A_{\text{max}}$  was positively linked to  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  and  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  showed a strong positive relationship with  $J_{\text{max}}$ , highlighting

their interdependence in supporting photosynthetic processes.

	E	$\boldsymbol{A}$	$C_i$	$g_{s}$	$WUE_i$	$WUE_{inst}$	$V_{\rm cmax}$	$A_{\text{max}}$	$J_{max}$	$\Psi_{MD}$	$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$
E		$0.7*$	$0.94*$	$0.91*$	$-0.94*$	$-0.51$	0.29	$0.67*$	0.29	0.57	0.08
$\boldsymbol{A}$	$0.7*$		0.59	$0.88*$	$-0.57$	0.07	0.3	$0.82*$	0.21	0.57	$-0.31$
$c_i$	$0.94*$	0.59		$0.87*$	$-1*$	$-0.67*$	0.28	0.57	0.29	0.35	$-0.1$
$g_{s}$	$0.91*$	$0.88*$	$0.87*$		$-0.86*$	$-0.37$	0.19	$0.69*$	0.14	0.48	$-0.13$
WUE.	$-0.94*$	$-0.57$	$-1*$	$-0.86*$		$0.68*$	$-0.28$	$-0.56$	$-0.29$	$-0.35$	0.08
$WUE_{inst}$	$-0.51$	0.07	$-0.67*$	$-0.37$	$0.68*$		$-0.01$	0.01	$-0.08$	0.09	$-0.15$
$V_{\rm cmax}$	0.29	0.3	0.28	0.19	$-0.28$	$-0.01$		0.53	$0.97*$	0.18	$-0.31$
$A_{\text{max}}$	$0.67*$	$0.82*$	0.57	$0.69*$	$-0.56$	0.01	0.53		0.51	$0.78*$	$-0.35$
$J_{\rm max}$	0.29	0.21	0.29	0.14	$-0.29$	$-0.08$	$0.97*$	0.51		0.24	$-0.23$
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.57	0.57	0.35	0.48	$-0.35$	0.09	0.18	$0.78*$	0.24		0.22
$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$	0.08	$-0.31$	$-0.1$	$-0.13$	0.08	$-0.15$	$-0.31$	$-0.35$	$-0.23$	0.22	

**TA B L E 7** Pearson correlation coefficients between physiological parameters under well-watered conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological variables for nine *Vitis* accessions under the well-watered treatment were calculated using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

## **Effects of physiological parameters under drought conditions**

Table 8 presents the correlations among the physiological parameters under drought conditions, showing the species' strategies for coping with water scarcity and their impact on various physiological processes. *E* exhibited strong positive correlations with  $A_n$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $V_{cmax}$ ,  $A_{max}$ , and  $J_{max}$ . These correlations indicate that grapevines intensify transpiration in response to drought stress, potentially by cooling leaves and maintaining water transport. This led to an increase in *A*<sup>n</sup> , optimized *g*<sup>s</sup> , and efficient water use. The positive relationship with *J*max suggests that enhanced electron transport sustains photosynthesis under drought conditions.

 $C_i$  was positively correlated with  $E, A_n, g_s$ ,  $WUE_i$ , and  $A_{max}$ . This suggests that grapevines adjust  $C_i$  levels by modifying transpiration, stomatal conductance, and photosynthesis to optimize  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  uptake under drought stress conditions.

*g*s demonstrated strong positive correlations *E*, *A*<sup>n</sup> , *WUE*<sup>i</sup> , *V*cmax, *A*max, and *J*max. This indicates that grapevines aim to maintain efficient gas exchange and photosynthetic activity under drought conditions by regulating the stomatal conductance. *WUE*<sub>i</sub> showed negative correlations with *E*, *A*<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>i</sub> (significant), *g*<sub>s</sub>, *WUE*<sub>inst</sub>, *V*<sub>cmax</sub>, *J*<sub>max</sub>. These relationships

highlight a trade-off between water conservation and photosynthesis. Grapevines with higher  $WUE$ <sub>i</sub> tended to have reduced transpiration, stomatal conductance, and photosynthesis, potentially as an adaptation to drought stress.

*E* was strongly positively correlated with  $WUE_{inst}$ , indicated by a correlation coefficient of 0.69\*. This positive relationship suggests that, as grapevines increase their transpiration rates under drought stress, they also enhance their water-use efficiency.  $g_s$  displayed a strong positive correlation with  $WUE_{inst}$  (0.80\*). This correlation implies that grapevines efficiently use available water for photosynthesis when stomata are open, allowing for gas exchange. This suggests that grapevines carefully regulate stomatal conductance to optimize their water-use efficiency, under drought conditions. In contrast, WUE<sub>i</sub> showed a strong negative correlation with WUE<sub>inst</sub> (-0.80\*). This negative relationship indicates a tradeoff between  $WUE_{\rm i}$  (which represents the ratio of carbon gain to water loss within the leaf) and  $WUE_{\rm inst}$ . Grapevines with higher *WUE*<sub>i</sub> may reduce transpiration and stomatal conductance to conserve water but might limit their photosyn-

thetic capacity in the short term.



	E	$\boldsymbol{A}$	$C_i$	$g_{s}$	$WUE_i$	$WUE_{inst}$	$V_{\rm cmax}$	$A_{\text{max}}$	$J_{\text{max}}$	$\Psi_{MD}$	$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$
E		$0.9*$	0.66	$0.95*$	$-0.52$	$-0.69*$	$0.96*$	$0.86*$	$0.92*$	0.14	0.53
$\boldsymbol{A}$	$0.9*$		0.45	$0.91*$	$-0.26$	$-0.47$	$0.89*$	$0.87*$	$0.83*$	0.25	0.54
$C_i$	0.66	0.45		$0.78*$	$-0.83*$	$-1*$	0.49	0.34	0.4	0.23	0.41
$g_{s}$	$0.95*$	$0.91*$	$0.78*$		$-0.58$	$-0.8*$	$0.86*$	$0.77*$	$0.78*$	0.27	0.57
WUE.	$-0.52$	$-0.26$	$-0.83*$	$-0.58$		$0.84*$	$-0.3$	$-0.07$	$-0.23$	$-0.12$	$-0.16$
$WUE_{inst}$	$-0.69*$	$-0.47$	$-1*$	$-0.8*$	$0.84*$		$-0.51$	$-0.36$	$-0.43$	$-0.23$	$-0.43$
$V_{\rm cmax}$	$0.96*$	$0.89*$	0.49	$0.86*$	$-0.3$	$-0.51$		$0.94*$	$0.99*$	0.01	0.47
$A_{\text{max}}$	$0.86*$	$0.87*$	0.34	$0.77*$	$-0.07$	$-0.36$	$0.94*$		$0.94*$	0.03	0.45
$J_{\rm max}$	$0.92*$	$0.83*$	0.4	$0.78*$	$-0.23$	$-0.43$	$0.99*$	$0.94*$		$-0.07$	0.41
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.14	0.25	0.23	0.27	$-0.12$	$-0.23$	0.01	0.03	$-0.07$		$0.84*$
$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$	0.53	0.54	0.41	0.57	$-0.16$	$-0.43$	0.47	0.45	0.41	$0.84*$	

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological variables for nine *Vitis* accessions under the drought treatment were calculated using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

## **Effects of anatomical parameters under well-watered conditions**

Several anatomical parameters of leaf tissues exhibited various correlations under well-watered conditions. Porosity was moderately negatively correlated with  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$  (-0.5),  $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$  (-0.65),  $SA_{sp-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  (-0.5), and  $SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$  (-0.65). This indicates that as  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  increased, the ratios of  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ ,  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ ,  $SA_{sp-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$ , and  $SA_{pa-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  tended to decrease. Conversely,  $\theta_{IAS}$  is positively correlated with  $L_{leaf}$ (0.83\*) and  $L_{\text{mes}}$  (0.85\*), suggesting that as  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> increases, leaf and mesophyll widths also tend to increase. The

correlation of  $\theta$  IAS with  $SA_{pa-cell+sp-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  is -1\*, indicating a perfect inverse relationship.  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ , which represents the ratio of  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ , exhibits a moderate negative correlation with  $\theta_{IAS}$  (-0.5). This has a strong positive correlation with  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  (0.74\*), indicating a robust positive relationship between these two parameters. Additionally, it has strong negative correlations with  $SA_{sp-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  (-1\*) and  $SA_{pa-cell}/SA_{mes-cell}$  (-0.86\*), signifying an inverse relationship.  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ , representing the ratio of  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ , shows a strong negative correlation with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  (-0.86\*). It also displayed strong negative correlations with  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  (-0.65) and *SA*<sub>pa-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub> (-0.81\*), indicating that as  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  increased,  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  and  $SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$  tended to decrease.  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$ has a moderate negative correlation with  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> (0.2) and positive correlations with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/ V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  (0.74\*) and  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/$ *V*<sub>mes-cell</sub> (0.45). Leaf width ( $L_{\text{leaf}}$ ) and  $L_{\text{mes}}$  were strongly positively correlated (0.99\*), indicating that as leaf width increased, the mesophyll width also tended to increase. Both parameters are strongly negatively correlated with  $\theta$  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ ,  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ ,  $S_{A_{\text{sp-cell}}}$ ,  $S_{A_{\text{mes-cell}}}$ , and  $S_{A_{\text{pa-cell}}}$ ,  $S_{A_{\text{mes-cell}}}$ , suggesting that, as  $L_{\text{leaf}}$  and  $L_{\text{mes}}$ increase, these parameters tend to decrease.

**TABLE 9** Pearson correlation coefficients between anatomical parameters under well-watered conditions.

	$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ /	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ /	$L_{\text{Leaf}}$	$L_{\rm mes}$	$SA_{sp\text{-}cell}$	$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/$
		$V_{\mathrm{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\rm mes-cell}$	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}$			$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>
$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$		$-0.5$	$-0.65$	0.2	$0.83*$	$0.85*$	$-0.5$	$-0.65$	$-1*$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.5$		$-0.33$	$0.74*$	$-0.12$	$-0.14$	$1*$	$-0.33$	0.5
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.65$	$-0.33$		$-0.86*$	$-0.8*$	$-0.81*$	$-0.33$	$1*$	0.65
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$	0.2	$0.74*$	$-0.86*$		0.44	0.45	$0.74*$	$-0.86*$	$-0.2$
$L_{\text{Leaf}}$	$0.83*$	$-0.12$	$-0.8*$	0.44		$0.99*$	$-0.12$	$-0.8*$	$-0.83*$
$L_{\rm mes}$	$0.85*$	$-0.14$	$-0.81*$	0.45	$0.99*$		$-0.14$	$-0.81*$	$-0.85*$
$SA_{\text{sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.5$	$1*$	$-0.33$	$0.74*$	$-0.12$	$-0.14$		$-0.33$	0.5
$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.65$	$-0.33$	$1*$	$-0.86*$	$-0.8*$	$-0.81*$	$-0.33$		0.65
$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-1*$	0.5	0.65	$-0.2$	$-0.83*$	$-0.85*$	0.5	0.65	

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the anatomical variables for nine *Vitis* accessions under the well-watered treatment using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

#### **Effects of anatomical parameters under drought conditions**

Under drought conditions, a new set of correlations was observed among the anatomical parameters, leading to significant changes in the relationships between these variables. First,  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  exhibits strong negative correlations with  $L_{\text{leaf}}$  (0.9\*) and  $L_{\text{mes}}$  (0.91<sup>\*</sup>), indicating that as  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> decreases under drought stress, leaf and mesophyll widths tend to increase. This suggests a potential adaptation mechanism by which the leaves become narrower to reduce water loss. Second, the

ratio of  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$  is strongly positively correlated with  $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$  (0.83\*), implying that, as the proportion of  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  increases, the proportion of  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  also tends to increase under drought conditions. This could be a response to optimizing the resource allocation within the leaves. Third, the inverse relationship between  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$  and  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  continues to be significant under drought conditions (-0.79\*). This indicates that the balance between  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{pa-cell}$  remains an important aspect of leaf anatomy even when water is limited. Furthermore, *L*<sub>leaf</sub> and *L*<sub>mes</sub> were highly positively correlated (0.99\*), demonstrating a strong association between these two parameters under drought stress. This suggests that leaves tend to maintain a consistent proportion of leaf and mesophyll widths, even when experiencing water scarcity. Finally, the  $SA_{pa-cell} + sp-cell/ SA_{mes-cell}$  ratio has a strong inverse relationship with  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> (-1<sup>\*</sup>). This implies that, as the combined *SA*<sub>pa-cell+sp-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub> decreases,  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> tends to increase significantly under drought conditions.

	$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ /	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ /	$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$L_{\text{mes}}$	$SA_{\text{sp-cell}}/$	$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/$
		$V_{\rm mes-cell}$	$V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}$			$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>
$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$		$-0.56$	$-0.57$	$-0.03$	$0.9*$	$0.91*$	$-0.56$	$-0.57$	$-1*$
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.56$		$-0.36$	$0.83*$	$-0.29$	$-0.31$	$1*$	$-0.36$	0.56
$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.57$	$-0.36$		$-0.79*$	$-0.72*$	$-0.72*$	$-0.36$	$1*$	0.57
$V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$	$-0.03$	$0.83*$	$-0.79*$		0.22	0.22	$0.83*$	$-0.79*$	0.03
$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$0.9*$	$-0.29$	$-0.72*$	0.22		$0.99*$	$-0.29$	$-0.72*$	$-0.9*$
$L_{\rm mes}$	$0.91*$	$-0.31$	$-0.72*$	0.22	$0.99*$		$-0.31$	$-0.72*$	$-0.91*$
$SA_{sp\text{-}cell}/SA_{mes\text{-}cell}$	$-0.56$	$1*$	$-0.36$	$0.83*$	$-0.29$	$-0.31$		$-0.36$	0.56
$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-0.57$	$-0.36$	$1*$	$-0.79*$	$-0.72*$	$-0.72*$	$-0.36$		0.57
$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$-1*$	0.56	0.57	0.03	$-0.9*$	$-0.91*$	0.56	0.57	

**TABLE 10** Pearson correlation coefficients between anatomical parameters under drought conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of theanatomical variables for 9 *Vitis* accessions under the drought treatment using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

## **Effects of anatomical parameters on physiological parameters under well-watered conditions**

Under well-watered conditions, the transpiration rate exhibited a strong negative correlation with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ , with a coefficient of approximately -0.52. This suggests that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll is associated with reduced transpiration. *A*<sup>n</sup> showed interesting correlations. It had a strong negative correlation with *V*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *V*<sub>mes-cell</sub> (approximately -0.52), indicating that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll is linked to lower  $A_n$  rates. However, it had a weak positive correlation with the ratio of  $V_{pa-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ , at approximately 0.41, suggesting that a greater proportion of palisade cells in the mesophyll may positively affect photosynthesis. *g*<sup>s</sup> was strongly negatively correlated with  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$ , with a coefficient of approximately -0.38. This implies that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll is associated a with reduced stomatal conductance.  $\Psi_{MD}$  was significantly negatively correlated with various anatomical parameters. It is negatively correlated with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ *V*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *V*<sub>pa-cell</sub>, *SA*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub>, and *SA*<sub>pa-cell</sub>/ *SA*<sub>mes-cell</sub>, with coefficients ranging from -0.27 to -0.34. *WUE*<sub>inst</sub> had a strong positive correlation with the ratio of  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  at approximately 0.82.

	$\theta_{\rm IAS}$	$V_{\rm sp\text{-}cell}$ /	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ /	$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$L_{\text{mes}}$	$SAsp-cell$	$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/$	$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}$
		$V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}$			$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>
E	0.04	$-0.52$	0.41	$-0.56$	$-0.02$	$-0.03$	$-0.52$	0.41	$-0.04$
$A_n$	0.14	$-0.15$	$-0.01$	$-0.05$	0.24	0.21	$-0.15$	$-0.01$	$-0.14$
$C_i$	$-0.02$	$-0.49$	0.45	$-0.57$	$-0.16$	$-0.14$	$-0.49$	0.45	0.02
$g_{s}$	0.04	$-0.38$	0.29	$-0.4$	0.05	0.03	$-0.38$	0.29	$-0.04$
WUE.	0.01	0.51	$-0.46$	0.58	0.16	0.14	0.51	$-0.46$	$-0.01$
$WUE_{inst}$	0.33	0.5	$-0.8*$	$0.82*$	0.62	0.6	0.5	$-0.8*$	$-0.33$
$V_{\rm cmax}$	$-0.17$	$-0.06$	0.24	$-0.17$	$-0.2$	$-0.15$	$-0.06$	0.24	0.17
$A_{\text{max}}$	0.12	$-0.18$	0.03	$-0.06$	0.04	0.02	$-0.18$	0.03	$-0.12$
$J_{\rm max}$	$-0.13$	$-0.17$	0.29	$-0.24$	$-0.26$	$-0.21$	$-0.17$	0.29	0.13
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.27	$-0.34$	0.01	$-0.13$	0.15	0.11	$-0.34$	0.01	$-0.27$
$\Psi_{\text{PD}}$	0.05	$-0.44$	0.33	$-0.49$	0.03	$\mathbf{0}$	$-0.44$	0.33	$-0.05$

**TA B L E 1 1** Pearson correlation coefficients between anatomical and physiological parameters under well-watered conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological and anatomical variables for nine *Vitis* accessions under the well-watered treatment using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

### **Effects of anatomical parameters on physiological parameters under drought conditions**

Under drought conditions, the transpiration rates exhibited several notable correlations. It had a moderate positive correlation with  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> (0.36), suggesting that a higher  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> in leaf tissue is associated with increased transpiration. Additionally, the transpiration rate showed a moderate negative correlation with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  at -0.50, implying that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll was linked to reduced transpiration. *A*<sup>n</sup> also displayed significant correlations under drought stress. It had a moderate positive correlation with  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$  (0.46), indicating that a higher  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub> is associated with increased photosynthesis. However,  $A_n$  exhibited a strong negative correlation with  $V_{sp-cell}$ *V*mes-cell (-0.51), suggesting that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll was associated with lower *A*<sup>n</sup> rates. C<sub>i</sub> showed a significant positive correlation with the ratio of  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  at 0.49. This suggests that a greater proportion of palisade cells in the mesophyll is associated with higher intercellular  $\rm{CO_2}$  concentration.  $\Psi_{\rm MD}$  displayed a strong negative correlation with various anatomical parameters under drought conditions. It is negatively correlated with  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$ ,  $V_{\text{sp-cell}}/V_{\text{pa-cell}}$ ,  $SA_{\text{sp-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$ , and  $SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/SA_{\text{mes-cell}}$ , with coefficients ranging from -0.18

to -0.76\*. These correlations indicate that a higher spongy cell volume, a higher ratio of spongy cells to palisade cells, and higher ratios of the surface area of spongy mesophyll and palisade cells to total mesophyll are associated with reduced Ψ<sub>MD</sub> under drought stress. WUE<sub>inst</sub> had a strong negative correlation with e  $V_{sp-cell}/V_{mes-cell}$  at -0.67\*. This implies that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll is associated with increased water-use efficiency under drought conditions. Ψ<sub>PD</sub> exhibited a strong negative correlation with *V*<sub>sp-cell</sub>/ *V*<sub>mes-cell</sub> at -0.83\*. This indicates that a higher proportion of spongy cells in the mesophyll is assiciated with reduced  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  under drought stress.

	$\theta_{\text{IAS}}$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ / $V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\text{pa-cell}}/$ $V_{\text{mes-cell}}$	$V_{\rm sp-cell}$ / $V_{\rm pa-cell}$	$L_{\text{leaf}}$	$L_{\rm mes}$	$SA_{sp\text{-}cell}$ / $SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA_{\text{pa-cell}}/$ $SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>	$SA_{\text{pa+sp-cell}}/$ $SA$ <sub>mes-cell</sub>
E	0.36	$-0.5$	0.09	$-0.29$	0.27	0.28	$-0.5$	0.09	$-0.36$
$\boldsymbol{A}$	0.46	$-0.51$	$-0.01$	$-0.3$	0.43	0.42	$-0.51$	$-0.01$	$-0.46$
$C_i$	$-0.04$	$-0.45$	0.49	$-0.41$	$-0.16$	$-0.14$	$-0.45$	0.49	0.04
$g_{s}$	0.29	$-0.56$	0.22	$-0.4$	0.21	0.22	$-0.56$	0.22	$-0.29$
WUE.	0.32	0.32	$-0.67*$	0.49	0.48	0.48	0.32	$-0.67*$	$-0.32$
$WUE_{inst}$	0.01	0.47	$-0.48$	0.43	0.15	0.13	0.47	$-0.48$	$-0.01$
$V_{\rm cmax}$	0.45	$-0.39$	$-0.12$	$-0.11$	0.41	0.43	$-0.39$	$-0.12$	$-0.45$
$A_{\text{max}}$	0.43	$-0.22$	$-0.27$	0.06	0.49	0.51	$-0.22$	$-0.27$	$-0.43$
$J_{\rm max}$	0.44	$-0.3$	$-0.19$	$-0.02$	0.42	0.45	$-0.3$	$-0.19$	$-0.44$
$\Psi_{MD}$	0.18	$-0.7*$	0.49	$-0.76*$	0.15	0.14	$-0.7*$	0.49	$-0.18$
$\Psi_{PD}$	0.49	$-0.83*$	0.27	$-0.66$	0.41	0.44	$-0.83*$	0.27	$-0.49$

**TABLE 12** Correlations between anatomical and physiological parameters under drought conditions.

Pearson correlation coefficients between the absolute values of the physiological and anatomical variables for nine *Vitis* accessions under the drought treatment using mean values ( $\pm$ SE, n = 4). Bold indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

## **4** | **DISCUSSION**

A significant environmental constraint for plant development and crop yield is a soil water deficit, as water is a crucial element for plant growth, driving several physiological processes such as photosynthesis, nutrient uptake, and transpiration (Boyer, 1982). *Vitis* species can grow over a wide range of biogeoclimatic conditions including extreme temperature and low precipitation(Tomás et al., 2014b). This suggests that they have developed morphological and physiological adaptation mechanisms to tolerate drought (Bohnert et al., 1995).

In this work, physiological and morphological characteristics that differ among species and levels of water availability were identified and strategies of grapevines to tolerate water stress were explored. These results provide a first understanding of the responses of these nine *Vitis* species to water stress and relating their behavior to their habitats in various climatic conditions.

In this potted dry-down experiment, the control and drought conditions were confirmed by the soil moisture values. Major physiological measurements were taken three times during the experiment, leaves were taken for X-ray micro computed tomography imaging and segmentation of leaf and mesophyll traits and most plants were harvested for root and canopy biomass at the end of the experiment. The consistent response of reduced pot water content across all *Vitis* species under drought conditions reflects the universal challenge that water stress poses to plants. The drought-induced water stress of this experiment triggered a range of responses, including stomatal closure, reduced transpiration rates, and alterations in root growth dynamics. Although individual species varied in the degree and speed of these responses, the fundamental need to conserve water resources remained a shared trait. When subjected to water stress, plants exhibit a range of responses including stomatal closure, reduced transpiration rates, and alterations in root growth dynamics. While the timing and magnitude of these responses varied among species, only some species showed significant increase in water use efficiency.

## **4.1** | **Water potentials**

Drought reduced water potential ( $\Psi_{MD}$  and  $\Psi_{PD}$ ) in most species. During the initial stages of the experiment, when water was already withheld for 5 days to induce dry-down, certain species exhibited a more pronounced decline in water potential compared to other species. This initial variation in  $\Psi_{\rm PD}$  response could be attributed to the species-specific sensitivity to water scarcity. As the experiment progressed, the initially severe decline in water potential for some species seemed to plateau, showing a less negative water potential towards the end of the experiment, 35 days after the treatment started. This leveling off may suggest an acclimation or adjustment phase in response to prolonged water stress (Flexas et al., 2009). However, for  $\Psi_{MD}$  this trend did not show.  $\Psi_{MD}$  is measured at a time when transpiration rates are typically at their peak due to maximum sunlight and heat and plants experience the highest water stress.  $\Psi_{\rm PD}$ is measured when stomata are mostly closed and before the plants begin active transpiration. Therefore, it is assumed that the plants experience a relative equilibrium with the soil water status (Santesteban et al., 2019). Therefore, the discrepancy between the trends of  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  and  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  during the experiment might be due to different plant responses at different times of the day. Additionally, existing literature considers  $\Psi_{MD}$  to be less reliable as an indicator of a plant's water status compared to Ψ<sub>PD</sub> (Rienth and Scholasch, 2019). *V. riparia* (NY1), *V. mustangensis* (T48), and the hybrid (TXNM0821) showed minimal change in water potential over time and maintained their water potential higher, despite water deficit compared to their controls. In particular, *V. cinerea* (b42-34) and *V. vulpina* (V60-96) showed a significant decrease in water potential under drought conditions.

Interestingly, all species experienced a decline in midday water potential under well-watered conditions over the time of the experiment. This could be attributed to the higher water demand for growth. Leaf expansion leads to a higher water loss through transpiration and the higher demand to sustain their turgor pressure can result in a decrease in  $\Psi_{MD}$ (Boyer, 1968). However, for  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  an increase was observed. This experiment was conducted in November, which marks the transition from fall to winter in California. Day length, temperature, and other environmental factors can change during this period, potentially affecting plant responses. Although this experiment took place in a greenhouse, changing environmental conditions may also contribute to the observed differences. Bohnert et al. (1995) states, that while the sensitivity and response of species to water potential decreases caused by drought vary, it can be assumed that all plants possess the encoded ability for stress perception, signaling, and response. This variation in different levels of water potential decreases under drought-treated plants was also observed in this study.

According to Deloire et al. (2020), vines are subjected to moderate to severe water deficit if  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  is between -0.5MPa and -0.8MPa, and severe to extreme water deficit (=stress) if it is below -0.8MPa. These thresholds may vary based on the plant's growth stage or the duration of water scarcity; however they provide a general indication of when a plant experiences water stress under field conditions. In this study, all the water-stressed plants had a  $\Psi_{PD}$  less than -0.75MPa, confirming that they were under water stress. It is worth mentioning that the hybrid (TXNM0821) had a less negative water potential compared to the other plants under water stress, despite the fact that the drought-treated plants had the same soil moisture content as the plants of other species. Less negative Ψ with similar soil water content is suggesting more stomatal closure, less transpiration and likely compensating photosynthesis with closing stomata. When looking at the figures 7, 8, and 9, it is interesting that  $A_n$  and  $g_s$  slightly decreased for TXNM0821, and  $WUE$ <sub>i</sub> and  $WUE$ <sub>inst</sub> both showed an increase or tend to increase under drought (compared to their control). Furthermore, stomata response controls leaf temperature. This suggests that the hybrid (TXNM0821) sustains its hydraulics and photosynthetic capacity among the highest of all species under stress by partial stomata closure.

A study found that certain cultivars of *Vitis vinifera* varied in their regulation of stomatal aperture in response to drought. Isohydric species maintain a consistent water potential in water-stressed plants, similar to well-watered plants, or their plant water status will not drop below a certain value, showing more sensitive control compared to anisohydric plants (Schultz, 2003). It is possible that some of the species studied could be classified as isohydric. However, it is noted that using the binary system to classify different species oversimplifies their responses (Levin et al., 2020), as some species are able to adjust their stomatal response based on changes in soil moisture (Domec and Johnson, 2012; Collins et al., 2010). However, the explanation for anisohyric or isohydric plant behavior is not solely due to stomatal control (Scharwies and Tyerman, 2017; Chaumont and Tyerman, 2014). Therefore, further investigation into the hydraulic conductance of root and xylem networks is necessary to accurately classify the species studied based on their iso-/anisohydric behavior.

#### **4.2** | **Biomass**

Variations in water use and biomass allocation among species highlight the importance of selecting drought-tolerant varieties for grapevine cultivation in arid and water-scarce regions. However, there is a lack of information on the role of root systems in drought tolerance compared to above-ground responses (Alsina et al., 2010). Furthermore, the mechanisms by which plants allocate carbon to different tissues are not fully understood (Comas et al., 2005). Water limitation decreased canopy growth in all species but most significantly in *V. arizonica* (b40-14). Additionally, water limitation led to the greatest decrease in root growth in *V. arizonica* (b40-14) and *V. rupestris* (Vru42). When plants experience water deficits, their root growth slows, and there are significant apoplastic barriers that block hydraulic pathways (Steudle, 2000). Adjusting root-to-shoot ratios is a central concept highlighted in literature that allows plants

to alter their resource allocation in response to available water resources (Fort et al., 2017; Lambers and Poorter, 1992). As the root-to-shoot ratio was lower for plants under well-watered conditions, this indicates the reallocation of available carbon resources towards roots or the limitation water stress imposes in canopy growth. This can be a crucial adaptation strategy for the survival in dry conditions (Richards, 1983). It is worth mentioning that the species that showed a significant increase in the shoot-to-root ratio also showed a significant decrease in water potential under drought conditions. This is particularly the case for *V. acerifolia* (9018) and *V. vulpina* (V60-96). These species exhibited lower canopy growth but more consistent root growth than other species under drought conditions. The research by Southey (2017) found that the root system of a vine is well balanced with its canopy size, meaning that larger canopies are accompanied by larger root systems. Interestingly, in the present study, species were found to produce a much larger canopy-to-root ratio under well-watered conditions than other species, indicating that they focus more on canopy growth than on roots. This trend has also been observed under drought conditions. Species with higher root growth had lower canopy growth than the other species. This not only shows under well-watered conditions but is also interesting under drought stress, when it is crucial to explore the soil for available water and having more roots can be very beneficial. Zhu (2002) states that slower growth is an adaptation strategy to low resource availability focusing root development. While fast-growing species may out compete others during high water availability, slower species may develop long-term strategies by investing in enduring organs (Ouédraogo et al., 2013) to build an extensive root system to deal better with the dry growing season of drought events (Bauerle et al., 2008). It should be noted that the composite structure of the roots also affect the regulation of water uptake (Steudle, 2000), which was not investigated in this study. Iacono et al. (1998) even mentions that the characteristics of the root system affect the rate of photosynthesis of grapevine leaves. However, from a viticulture perspective, canopy growth is also important because leaf area is critical for photosynthesis and carbohydrate production. A finding by Blois et al. (2023) also states that when incorporating wild genotypes into breeding programs, they undergo assessments of their agronomic performance, as higher growth rate is a crucial factor in viticulture. *V. arizonica* (b40-14) and *V. rupestris* (Vru42) may be less suitable for drier and warmer regions because of their higher water demand, whereas *V. acerifolia* (9018) and *V. aestivalis* (T52) can be suitable candidate species with greater drought tolerance capacity. Their native habitat showed a relatively high annual mean temperature, a high maximum temperature of the warmest month and lower annual precipitation compared to the other species investigated (Table 2). Drought-induced response and regulation of biomass allocation into shoot and root are associated with

adaptation to the habitat of origin (Oleksyn et al., 2000). Species from drier environment prioritize root growth to support water access through deeper soil, while species from wetter habitats focus on a balanced shoot-root growth ratio to maximize photosynthesis.

## **4.3** | **Photosynthetic Parameters**

Plants often respond to water limitation by closing their stomata to minimize transpiration and mitigate water vapor loss (Flexas et al., 2002). The closure of stomata is crucial because it prevents excess water loss through transpiration, which could otherwise result in substantial pressure drops between the soil and leaves, leading to increasingly negative water potentials (Gambetta et al., 2020). The observed reduction in stomatal conductance was consistent across all the species in this study. The interconnectedness of carbon and water physiology in plants is evident owing to the inevitable water vapor loss from the leaves when stomata open to facilitate the uptake of  $CO_2$  from the atmosphere. Significant decline in  $A_n$  for all *Vitis* species in this study indicate the negative impacts of drought on photosynthesis through impaired  $CO_2$ capture and biochemical activity in parallel with increased water loss under high evaporative demand. These findings align with the well-established concept that water stress often leads to reduced photosynthetic activity (Tomás et al., 2014b,a). Notably, *V. arizonica* (b40-14) stands out for its low photosynthetic rates compared to those of other species under well-watered and water-stressed conditions. This poor performance suggest a lack of developed drought tolerance mechanisms within this species. Under drought conditions, all species showed a common water-saving response, with reduced transpiration rates. However, their transpiration rates under well-watered conditions vary considerably, indicating species-specific strategies for water use efficiency. Stomatal conductance also varied among species, with *V. mustangensis* (T48) displaying the highest significant reduction under drought conditions compared to their control. This suggests that some species are more sensitive to water stress, and may require optimal water availability to sustain photosynthesis. Variation in stomatal regulation across species under drought conditions has also been reported in the literature (Costa et al., 2012). Inherent differences in photosynthetic capacity were observed among the accessions, with *V. aestivalis* (T52), Hybrid (NY1), and *V. vulpina* (V60-96), indicating their robust photosynthetic capabilities even under water-stressed conditions. This underscores the importance of the genetic diversity within genus *Vitis*. However, what sets some species apart is their ability to adapt and maintain or increase their  $WUE$ <sub>i</sub> under water deficit conditions as observed in this study. This is a common adaptation strategy under water-stressed conditions. In this study, it was observed that on the middle measurement date, the drought-stressed plants exhibited higher *WUE*<sub>i</sub> (Flexas et al., 2010).

However, there was variation in *WUE*<sup>i</sup> changes over the period of experiments. *V. arizonica* (b40-14), *V. mustangensis* (T48), and *V. rupestris* showed more decrease in *WUE*<sup>i</sup> after 35 days under drought, whereas *V. acerifolia* (9018) and the hybrid (TXNM0821) maintained their *WUE*<sup>i</sup> higher during the same time. Those differences could be explained by natural genetic variation across these genotypes (Flexas et al., 2010), as previously described in *Arabidopsis* Masle et al. (2005). Despite the lower *A*<sup>n</sup> , *V. acerifolia* (9018) and the hybrid (TXNM0821) managed to make more efficient use of the limited water resources available for photosynthesis. Species with high WUE likely possess adaptations that enhance their ability to efficiently capture, transport, and utilize water and carbon resources. These adaptations could include traits such as reduced stomatal conductance, improved water transport mechanisms, or efficient photosynthetic pathways, and, under drought conditions, may result in ongoing productivity. A greater WUE under drought conditions may result in continued productivity (Passioura, 2015; Tomás et al., 2014b) The findings concerning  $WUE_{\text{inst}}$  indicate that certain species, such as the hybrid (TXNM0821) and *V. acerifolia* (9018), displayed significant differences in their responses to the drought treatment. Notably, drought-stressed plants exhibited higher *WUE*inst values than their well-watered counterparts, suggesting that under water stress conditions, these species became more efficient in utilizing water for photosynthesis. All these responses observed at the leaf level should be scaled up to the canopy level for a whole-plant performance analysis under water stress, as WUE is related not only to stomatal control and leaf structure but also to many other traits such as biochemical signals and diffusive properties (Costa et al., 2016; Tomás et al., 2014a). This study also highlights the diversity in the  $C_i$  responses among species. Some species conserve  $CO_2$  by maintaining low  $C_i$  values under both controlled and drought conditions, whereas others exhibit higher  $C_i$  values under drought conditions. *V. arizonica* (b40-14), in particular, displays a substantial increase in C<sub>i</sub> under drought conditions, indicating a distinct approach to water and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  management. Leaf conductance is strongly positively correlated with the photosynthesis rate, and therefore imposes a strong limitation (Tomás et al., 2014a).

### **4.4** | **Climatic variables and inherent functional diversity**

The observed differences in physiological responses between species might result from variations in leaf anatomical traits, which can affect the area of diffusion of  $CO_2$  and the effective diffusion path length (Tomás et al., 2014a). Peguero-Pina et al. (2012) previously reported a correlation between mesophyll porosity and mesophyll conductance in two *Abies* species. According to Koundouras et al. (2008), physiological and morphological tolerance to drought may reflect adaptation potentials for drier conditions. Even under the greenhouse conditions with moderate stress intensity,

the shorter duration of the experiment and the fact that leaves were taken for X-ray imaging shortly after the dry-down, morphological changes, that could drive physiological responses, were observed in this study. Further anatomical adaptations may require more acclimation through extending the duration of the experiment or intensifying drought stress. According to Patakas et al. (2003), photosynthesis is affected by palisade and spongy mesophyll thickness, intercellular air space, and the surface of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular air spaces per unit leaf area. In this study, was indeed correlated with these parameters, significantly  $WUE_i$  to spongy parenchyma cell volume. A study investigating forest species found similar results, mentioning a great genetic variability of those traits across species and drought affecting leaf photosynthetic capacity and anatomic traits linked with light harvesting, water exchange, and  $CO_2$  (Khan et al., 2022). In sugarcane, decreased leaf thickness has been found to be an important marker for drought tolerance as it is beneficial for transpiration (Taratima et al., 2020, 2019). In the present study, no clear trend was observed and the variation in thickness could be related to thickness variation among replications instead of a treatment-induced effect. However, leaf thickness was positively correlated with the major physiological traits, meaning that as leaf thickness decreased, these parameters decreased as well.

## **Response under well-watered conditions**

Latitude and longitude exhibited strong positive correlations with  $C<sub>i</sub>$  (0.59). This suggests that as one moves closer to the equator (lower latitudes) or longitudinally across regions (east or west), there tends to be an increase in the concentration of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  within the plant leaf intercellular spaces. This intriguing finding may indicate an adaptation to varying environmental conditions driven by geographical factors, implying that certain regions may naturally favor higher  $CO_2$  concentrations within leaves, potentially influencing the  $A_n$  rates. Mean Diurnal Range displayed a significant negative correlation with  $C_i$  (-0.68\*). Regions with larger daily temperature fluctuations tended to have lower  $C_i$ . This relationship might occur due to the impact of temperature on *g*<sup>s</sup> which has a strong negative correlation (-0.58) with mean diurnal range. Higher temperatures could lead to increased stomatal closure (lower *g*<sup>s</sup> ) as a protective mechanism to conserve water, reducing the entry of  $\rm CO_2$  into the leaf. However, temperature seasonality and  $\rm C_i$  were positively correlated (0.62), suggesting that areas with pronounced temperature seasonality over the year tend to have higher  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations within plant leaves. Higher photosynthesis in species from high TCV habitats was related to their greater  $C_i$  and  $CO_2$  diffusion inside leaves. While larger daily temperature fluctuations might lead to reduced  $CO_2$ 

concentrations within plant leaves due to altered stomatal behavior, certain species from environments with higher seasonal temperature variability might possess adaptations that enable them to maintain higher  $\rm{CO}_{2}$  concentrations and better  $CO_2$  diffusion inside leaves.  $J_{\text{max}}$  exhibited a robust positive correlation with longitude, indicating that longitudinal differences across regions impact the electron transport rate. Among the anatomical parameters,  $\Psi_{MD}$ exhibited a robust positive correlation with  $C_i$ . Higher  $CO_2$  concentrations were associated with greater leaf water potential, highlighting the interconnectedness of physiological and anatomical traits in response to geoclimatic variables.

## **Response under drought conditions**

Latitude displayed a moderate positive correlation with photosynthetic parameters (*E* (0.35) and *A*<sup>n</sup> (0.33)) under drought conditions, implying that moving closer to the equator may positively affect photosynthesis even in waterlimited environments. This suggests that certain geographical regions may naturally promote better photosynthetic performance under drought stress. longitude exhibited a relatively strong positive correlation with photosynthetic parameters (*E* (0.51) and *A*<sup>n</sup> (0.36)) under drought, indicating that longitudinal variations across regions may have a significant influence on photosynthesis even during water scarcity. Mean diurnial range displayed negative correlations with most physiological parameters under drought except for the two WUE. This suggests that regions with greater temperature fluctuations throughout the day may have adverse effects on plant performance during drought stress. Temperature stability emerges as a crucial factor for maintaining photosynthetic activity in arid conditions. Several other climatic variables, such as isothermality and temperature seasonality exhibited correlations with photosynthetic parameters, emphasizing the influence of climatic conditions on photosynthesis during drought.

## **4.5** | **Drought-induced changes in photosynthetic capacity related to structural and functional changes**

Several significant differences in correlations between anatomical and physiological parameters exist between drought and control conditions. Drought conditions often led to stronger correlations, particularly negative ones, between anatomical parameters related to cell proportions in the mesophyll and physiological parameters like transpiration, photosynthesis, water potential, and water-use efficiency. These differences highlight how plant leaf anatomy adapts and influences physiological responses under water stress to cope with water scarcity, ultimately affecting their performance and survival. The species with lower diffusion resistance (e.g. higher  $\theta$  <sub>IAS</sub>) benefit from a higher CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion capacity, and exhibit inherently higher performance and biochemical activities (i.e.,  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ ). Although leaves with higher  $\theta_{\text{IAS}}$ 

tended to have higher transpiration rates E, they had higher photosynthesis rates  $A_n$  as well. Comparing  $A_n$ -C<sub>i</sub> and  $A_n$ -C<sub>c</sub> curves provides insights into the limitations imposed by diffusion on photosynthesis associated with the drawdown of  $CO_2$  from intercellular airspace ( $C_i$ ) to the chloroplast ( $C_c$ ). Species from higher latitudes, higher longitudes and higher temperature seasonality exhibit enhanced performance through increasing  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  at low  $CO_2$  concentrations, estimated by  $A_n$  response to  $C_c$ , when RuBisCO is limiting  $A_n$  (Figure 9, Table 6). This might be connected to increased resources allocation towards RuBisCO activity (Niinemets et al., 2009; Sharkey et al., 2007), indicating enhanced *A*<sup>n</sup> and greater CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion ability, at lower CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Momayyezi et al., 2022b). Greater maximum electron transport rate ( $J_{\text{max}}$ ), determined using the A<sub>n</sub>-C<sub>c</sub> curve where RuBP-regeneration constrains  $A_n$ , was linked to higher  $\theta$ IAS and increased enzymatic activity during CO<sub>2</sub> fixation and the formation of carbohydrates (e.g., Calvin cycle). This association was observed in species originating from regions with higher latitudes and longitudes, greater temperature variability, and lower variability in precipitation patterns.  $A_{\text{max}}$  was strongly associated to  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and  $J_{\text{max}}$  (Table 8), supporting greater biochemical and diffusional capacity for species from higher latitudes and longitudes, regions with less precipitation seasonality and higher temperature seasonality which have leaves with more porosity, less spongy mesophyll but more palisade mesophyll. More temperature seasonality lead to higher photosynthesis performance. As longitude increased, palisade mesophyll increased as well. However, there was a strong correlation between palisade mesophyll and both annual precipitation and the driest month's precipitation, indicating that leaves accumulated more palisade mesophyll in regions with higher rainfall. This increase in palisade mesophyll also corresponded to a larger surface area. Plants with more palisade perform less as they show a lower carboxylation capacity. Moreover, areas with higher precipitation tended to have thinner leaves and lower mesophyll porosity possibly affecting diffusion. Therefore, thicker leaves were associated with higher photosynthesis. This study revealed a negative correlation between palisade mesophyll and intrinsic water use efficiency. Understanding the factors affecting water use efficiency becomes particularly challenging due to the simultaneous decrease in *A*<sup>n</sup> and *g*<sup>s</sup> , illustrating the complexity of this trait. These anatomical characteristics in regions with more rainfall resulted in an overall reduced physiological and biochemical performance. Consequently, it is not surprising that species thriving in drier conditions aren't commonly found in the wettest habitats. However,  $A_n$  and  $WUE_i$  benefited from a higher  $\theta$ <sub>IAS</sub>. C<sub>i</sub> exhibited a positive correlation with the ratio of  $V_{\text{pa-cell}}/V_{\text{mes-cell}}$  suggesting that a higher proportion of palisade cells in the mesophyll is associated with increased  $C_i$  levels. This highlights the intricate relationship between anatomical characteristics and physiological plant responses. Therefore, maintaining a balance between spongy and palisade mesophyll is crucial for optimal plant performance. The results show a strong negative correlation between water potentials and spongy mesophyll. More spongy mesophyll leads to a more negative  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  and lower photosynthetic performance. This relationship was previously observed by Binks et al. (2016), suggesting that thinner spongy mesophyll and higher  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  might indicate enhanced resilience to drought. This study also found a positive association between higher  $\Psi_{PD}$  and various photosynthetic parameters as well as a less spongy mesophyll leading to higher photosynthetic performance under drought. *Vitis* leaves with higher spongy mesophyll volume (e.g., less porosity at spongy mesophyll) show lower midday and pre-dawn water potentials (Table 12). Consistent with previous findings, leaves with less porous spongy mesophyll exhibit lower hydraulic conductance, particularly under elevated temperatures and during dehydration (Sack et al., 2015). Dense spongy mesophyll increases hydraulic resistance (i.e., decreases water potential) due to reduced cell-to-cell connectivity, thereby slowing water movement in the liquid phase (Buckley et al., 2015).

It should be pointed out that generalizations regarding results from this study are the result of an individual species' and genotype above- and below-ground response to water deficits. In a commercial vineyard, the grafted scion would have its own response to water deficits. Furthermore, under conditions of climate change, grapevine reproductive growth is not solely influenced by water stress but also depends on various factors, including grapevine cultivars and other environmental factors such as  $CO_2$  levels and temperature (Kizildeniz et al., 2015). Additionally, it is important to acknowledge that many studies investigating the impact of water stress on photosynthesis have been conducted over brief time frames and in controlled environments. Consequently, translating these findings into field conditions throughout the growing season proved to be a complex task (Grassi and Magnani, 2005). However, understanding the mechanisms underlying variations in drought tolerance among grapevine genotypes serves two main purposes. First, it helps in selecting the appropriate plant material for specific climate and production conditions, thereby promoting sustainability. Second, it allows to identify the key traits responsible for these differences, improving the design of methods to develop new drought-resistant grapevine varieties. It is important to remember that grapevines are long-lived crops that can be produced for many decades in changing environments. Collectively, these findings highlight the intricate interplay between geoclimatic variables and plant physiological and anatomical responses. They underscore the significance of geographical location, temperature stability, and other climatic factors in shaping plant adaptation to well-watered and drought conditions.

# **5** | **CONCLUSION**

The findings of this study highlight the diverse responses of North American *Vitis* species to drought stress, with implications for their potential use in viticulture, particularly in regions with limited water resources. Grapevine responses to water stress are integrated across physiological, biochemical, and genetic levels. In summary, the present study investigated the responses of various grapevine species to extended water stress, encompassing a wide range of physiological and growth parameters. The results revealed the diverse strategies employed by these species to adapt to the limited water availability. Our results show that water-limiting conditions altered biomass allocation patterns and reduced the overall canopy growth. We also show that water stress consistently led to a reduction in photosynthetic activity, affecting  $A_n$ , C<sub>i</sub>, E, and  $g_s$ . However, the species separated in their relative functional responses to and ability tolerate water stress. Some species demonstrated remarkable adaptability, maintaining their photosynthetic capacity even under water-deficit conditions. This resilience suggests the natural capacity to balance carbon capture and water conservation. Leaf water potentials, reflecting the plant's hydration status, generally exhibited lower values in drought-stressed groups than in well-watered groups, with *V. acerifolia* (9018) emerging as the species with the highest water potential. Photosynthetic capacity in *Vitis* accessions was associated with leaf anatomical and biochemical components. More water use-efficient species under drought had particular leaf anatomy including thinner leaves with less palisade volume from drier habitats (with less mean palisade), supported by their higher photosynthetic performance (e.g.  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ ,  $A_{\text{max}}$ , *WUE*<sub>i</sub>). Overall, this study underscores the importance of understanding species-specific responses to water stress as this knowledge is vital for sustainable vineyard practices in the face of a changing climate. These findings also emphasize the potential of certain species such as *V. acerifolia* (9018) to contribute to the resilience of vineyards under water-limited conditions. Further research is neccesary to explore the underlying mechanisms of adaptation and opportunities for crossbreeding to enhance drought tolerance in cultivated grapevine varieties and rootstocks. Anatomical adaptations and geoclimatic origins are particularly crucial.

#### **R E F E R E N C E S**

- Alsina, M. M., D. R. Smart, T. Bauerle, F. de Herralde, C. Biel, C. Stockert, C. Negron, and R. Save, 2010: Seasonal changes of whole root system conductance by a drought-tolerant grape root system. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **62**, no. 1, 99–109, doi:10.1093/jxb/erq247. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erq247
- Arnold, C. and A. Schnitzler, 2020: Ecology and genetics of natural populations of north american vitis species used as rootstocks in european grapevine breeding programs. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, doi:10.3389/fpls.2020.00866.
- Bartlett, M., G. Sinclair, G. Fontanesi, T. Knipfer, M. A. Walker, and A. Mcelrone, 2021: Root pressure-volume curve traits capture rootstock drought tolerance. *Annals of botany*, **129**, doi:10.1093/aob/mcab132.
- Bauerle, T. L., D. R. Smart, W. L. Bauerle, C. Stockert, and D. M. Eissenstat, 2008: Root foraging in response to heterogeneous soil moisture in two grapevines that differ in potential growth rate. *New Phytologist*, **179**, no. 3, 857–866, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2008.02489.x. URL https://nph.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2008.02489.x
- Binks, O., P. Meir, L. Rowland, A. C. L. da Costa, S. S. Vasconcelos, A. A. R. de Oliveira, L. Ferreira, and M. Mencuccini, 2016: Limited acclimation in leaf anatomy to experimental drought in tropical rainforest trees. *Tree Physiology*, **36**, no. 12, 1550–1561, doi:10.1093/treephys/tpw078. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/tpw078
- Blois, L., M. d. Miguel, P. Bert, N. Girollet, N. Ollat, B. Rubio, V. Segura, K. P. Voss-Fels, J. Schmid, and E. Marguerit, 2023: Genetic structure and first genome-wide insights into the adaptation of a wild relative of grapevine, <i>vitis berlandieri</i><i>>>. Evolutionary Applications, doi:10.1111/eva.13566.
- Bohnert, H. J., D. E. Nelson, and R. G. Jensen, 1995: Adaptations to Environmental Stresses. *The Plant Cell*, **7**, no. 7, 1099–1111, doi:10.1105/tpc.7.7.1099. URL https://doi.org/10.1105/tpc.7.7.1099
- Boyer, J. S., 1968: Relationship of Water Potential to Growth of Leaves 1. *Plant Physiology*, **43**, no. 7, 1056–1062, doi:10.1104/pp.43.7.1056. URL https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.43.7.1056
- 1982: Plant productivity and environment. *Science*, **218**, no. 4571, 443–448, doi:10.1126/science.218.4571.443. URL https://www.science.org/doi/abs/10.1126/science.218.4571.443
- Briscoe Runquist, R. D., A. J. Gorton, J. B. Yoder, N. J. Deacon, J. J. Grossman, S. Kothari, M. P. Lyons, S. N. Sheth, P. Tiffin, and D. A. Moeller, 2020: Context dependence of local adaptation to abiotic and biotic environments: A quantitative and qualitative synthesis. *The American Naturalist*, **195**, no. 3, 412–431, doi:10.1086/707322, pMID: 32097038.

URL https://doi.org/10.1086/707322

Buckley, T. N., G. P. John, C. Scoffoni, and L. Sack, 2015: How Does Leaf Anatomy Influence Water Transport outside the Xylem? . *Plant Physiology*, **168**, no. 4, 1616–1635, doi:10.1104/pp.15.00731.

URL https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.15.00731

Chaumont, F. and S. D. Tyerman, 2014: Aquaporins: Highly Regulated Channels Controlling Plant Water Relations. *Plant Physiology*, **164**, no. 4, 1600–1618, doi:10.1104/pp.113.233791.

URL https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.113.233791

- Chaves, M. M., O. Zarrouk, R. Francisco, J. M. Costa, T. Santos, A. P. Regalado, M. L. Rodrigues, and C. M. Lopes, 2010: Grapevine under deficit irrigation: hints from physiological and molecular data. *Annals of Botany*, **105**, no. 5, 661–676, doi:10.1093/aob/mcq030. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcq030
- Collins, M., S. Fuentes, and E. W. R. Barlow, 2010: Partial rootzone drying and deficit irrigation increase stomatal sensitivity to vapour pressure deficit in anisohydric grapevines. *Functional Plant Biology*, doi:10.1071/fp09175.
- Comas, L. H., L. J. Anderson, R. M. Dunst, A. N. Lakso, and D. M. Eissenstat, 2005: Canopy and environmental control of root dynamics in a long-term study of concord grape. *New Phytologist*, **167**, no. 3, 829–840, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2005.01456.x. URL https://nph.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2005.01456.x
- Cortés, A. J. and F. López-Hernández, 2021: Harnessing crop wild diversity for climate change adaptation. *Genes*, **12**, no. 5, doi:10.3390/genes12050783. URL https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/5/783
- Costa, J., M. Ortuño, C. M. Lopes, and M. M. Chaves, 2012: Grapevine varieties exhibiting differences in stomatal response to water deficit. *Functional Plant Biology*, doi:10.1071/fp11156.
- Costa, J., M. Vaz, J. Escalona, R. Egipto, C. Lopes, H. Medrano, and M. Chaves, 2016: Modern viticulture in southern europe: Vulnerabilities and strategies for adaptation to water scarcity. *Agricultural Water Management*, **164**, 5–18, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2015.08.021, enhancing plant water use efficiency to meet future food production.

URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0378377415300858

- Deloire, A., A. Pellegrino, and S. Rogiers, 2020: A few words on grapevine leaf water potential. *IVES Technical Reviews, vine and wine*, doi:10.20870/IVES-TR.2020.3620.
- Domec, J.-C. and D. M. Johnson, 2012: Does homeostasis or disturbance of homeostasis in minimum leaf water potential explain the isohydric versus anisohydric behavior of Vitis vinifera L. cultivars? *Tree Physiology*, **32**, no. 3, 245–248, doi:10.1093/treephys/tps013. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/tps013
- Dry, N., 2007: *Grapevine rootstocks: selection and management for South Australian vineyards*. Lythrum Press.
- Fick, S. E. and R. J. Hijmans, 2017: Worldclim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology*, **37**, no. 12, 4302–4315, doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5086. URL https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/joc.5086
- Flexas, J., M. Barón, J. Bota, J.-M. Ducruet, A. Gallé, J. Galmés, M. Jiménez, A. Pou, M. Ribas-Carbó, C. Sajnani, M. Tomàs, and H. Medrano, 2009: Photosynthesis limitations during water stress acclimation and recovery in the drought-adapted Vitis hybrid Richter-110 (V. berlandieri×V. rupestris). *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **60**, no. 8, 2361–2377, doi:10.1093/jxb/erp069. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erp069
- Flexas, J., J. Bota, J. Escalona, B. Sampol, and H. Medrano, 2002: Effects of drought on photosynthesis in grapevines under field conditions: An evaluation of stomatal and mesophyll limitations. *Functional Plant Biology - FUNCT PLANT BIOL*, **29**, doi:10.1071/PP01119.

Flexas, J., J. Galmés, A. Gallé, J. Gulías, A. Pou, M. Ribas-Carbi, M. Tomàs, and H. Medrano, 2010: Improving water use efficiency in grapevines: potential physiological targets for biotechnological improvement. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, **16**, no. s1, 106–121, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755- 0238.2009.00057.x.

URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2009.00057.x

- Fort, K., J. Fraga, D. Grossi, and M. A. Walker, 2017: Early measures of drought tolerance in four grape rootstocks. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, **142**, 36–46, doi:10.21273/JASHS03919-16.
- Gambetta, G. A., J. C. Herrera, S. Dayer, Q. Feng, U. Hochberg, and S. D. Castellarin, 2020: The physiology of drought stress in grapevine: towards an integrative definition of drought tolerance. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **71**, no. 16, 4658–4676, doi:10.1093/jxb/eraa245. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/eraa245
- Granett, J., B. Bisabri-Ershadi, and J. Carey, 1983: Life tables of phylloxera on resistant and susceptible grape rootstocks. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, **34**, no. 1, 13–19, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1570-7458.1983.tb03284.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1570-7458.1983.tb03284.x
- Grassi, G. and F. Magnani, 2005: Stomatal, mesophyll conductance and biochemical limitations to photosynthesis as affected by drought and leaf ontogeny in ash and oak trees. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, **28**, no. 7, 834–849, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2005.01333.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2005.01333.x
- Hatfield, J. L. and C. Dold, 2019: Water-use efficiency: Advances and challenges in a changing climate. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, **10**, doi:10.3389/fpls.2019.00103.

URL https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2019.00103

Iacono, F., A. Buccella, and E. Peterlunger, 1998: Water stress and rootstock influence on leaf gas exchange of grafted and ungrafted grapevines1research conducted partly with the financial support of the italian consiglio nazionale delle ricerche, special project raisa, sub-project 2.1. *Scientia Horticulturae*, **75**, no. 1, 27–39, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4238(98)00113-7.

URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0304423898001137

- IPCC, 2022: Global warming of 1.5°c: Special report on impacts of global warming of 1.5°c above pre-industrial levels in context of strengthening response to climate change, sustainable development, and efforts to eradicate poverty. doi:10.1017/9781009157940.
- Kaltenbach, M., 2023: Code repository: Master thesis. *GitHub repository*.

URL https://github.com/forrestellab/vitisdrought/tree/324d956962d627fe291fdc6b69e66a2216588e49/MS\_Kaltenbach

- Keller, M., 2010: Managing grapevines to optimise fruit development in a challenging environment: a climate change primer for viticulturists. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, **16**, no. s1, 56–69, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2009.00077.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2009.00077.x
- Khan, A., F. Shen, L. Yang, W. Xing, and B. Clothier, 2022: Limited acclimation in leaf morphology and anatomy to experimental drought in temperate forest species. *Biology*, **11**, no. 8, 1186, doi:10.3390/biology11081186. URL http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/biology11081186
- Kikkert, J. R., M. R. Thomas, and B. I. Reisch, 2001: *Grapevine Genetic Engineering*, Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht. 393–410. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-2308-4\_15
- Kizildeniz, T., I. Mekni, H. Santesteban, I. Pascual, F. Morales, and J. Irigoyen, 2015: Effects of climate change including elevated co2 concentration, temperature and water deficit on growth, water status, and yield quality of grapevine (vitis vinifera l.) cultivars. *Agricultural Water Management*, **159**, 155–164, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2015.06.015.

URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0378377415300299

Koundouras, S., I. T. Tsialtas, E. Zioziou, and N. Nikolaou, 2008: Rootstock effects on the adaptive strategies of grapevine (vitis vinifera l. cv. cabernet–sauvignon) under contrasting water status: Leaf physiological and structural responses. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, **128**, no. 1, 86–96, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2008.05.006.

URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0167880908001448

Lambers, H. and H. Poorter, 1992: Inherent variation in growth rate between higher plants: A search for physiological causes and ecological consequences. *Advances in Ecological Research*, **23**, 187–261, doi:10.1016/S0065-2504(03)34004-8.

Larcher, W., 2003: *Physiological plant ecology: ecophysiology and stress physiology of functional groups*. Springer Science & Business Media.

- Lasky, J. R., D. L. Des Marais, J. K. McKay, J. H. Richards, T. E. Juenger, and T. H. Keitt, 2012: Characterizing genomic variation of arabidopsis thaliana: the roles of geography and climate. *Molecular Ecology*, **21**, no. 22, 5512–5529, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2012.05709.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2012.05709.x
- Levin, A. D., L. E. Williams, and M. A. Matthews, 2020: A continuum of stomatal responses to water deficits among 17 wine grape cultivars (vitis vinifera). *Functional Plant Biology*, doi:10.1071/fp19073.
- Masle, J., S. Gilmore, and G. Farquhar, 2005: The erecta gene regulates plant transpiration efficiency in arabidopsis. *Nature*, **436**, 866–70, doi:10.1038/nature03835.
- Momayyezi, M., A. M. Borsuk, C. R. Brodersen, M. E. Gilbert, G. Théroux-Rancourt, D. A. Kluepfel, and A. J. McElrone, 2022a: Desiccation of the leaf mesophyll and its implications for co2 diffusion and light processing. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, **45**, no. 5, 1362–1381, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.14287. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/pce.14287
- Momayyezi, M., D. A. Rippner, F. V. Duong, P. V. Raja, P. J. Brown, D. A. Kluepfel, J. M. Earles, E. J. Forrestel, M. E. Gilbert, and A. J. McElrone, 2022b: Structural and functional leaf diversity lead to variability in photosynthetic capacity across a range of juglans regia genotypes. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, **45**, no. 8, 2351–2365, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.14370.

URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/pce.14370

- Morano, L. D. and M. A. Walker, 1995: Soils and plant communities associated with three vitis species. *The American Midland Naturalist*, **134**, no. 2, 254–263. URL http://www.jstor.org/stable/2426296
- Niinemets, , A. Díaz-Espejo, J. Flexas, J. Galmés, and C. R. Warren, 2009: Role of mesophyll diffusion conductance in constraining potential photosynthetic productivity in the field. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **60**, no. 8, 2249–2270, doi:10.1093/jxb/erp036. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erp036
- Oleksyn, J., R. Zytkowiak, P. Karolewski, P. B. Reich, and M. G. Tjoelker, 2000: Genetic and environmental control of seasonal carbohydrate dynamics in trees of diverse Pinus sylvestris populations. *Tree Physiology*, **20**, no. 12, 837–847, doi:10.1093/treephys/20.12.837. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/20.12.837
- Ollat, N., L. Bordenave, J. P. Tandonnet, J. M. Bourisquot, and E. Marguerit, 2016: Grapevine rootstocks: origins and perspectives. URL https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:89435528
- Ollat, N., E. Marguerit, M. de Miguel, A. Coupel-Ledru, S. J. Cookson, C. van Leeuwen, P. Vivin, P. Gallusci, V. Segura, and E. Duchêne, 2023: Moving towards grapevine genotypes better adapted to abiotic constraints. *Vitis (Special Issue)*, **62**, 67–76, doi:https://doi.org/10.5073/vitis.2023.62.special-issue.67-76.
- Ouédraogo, D.-Y., F. Mortier, S. Gourlet-Fleury, V. Freycon, and N. Picard, 2013: Slow-growing species cope best with drought: evidence from long-term measurements in a tropical semi-deciduous moist forest of central africa. *Journal of Ecology*, **101**, no. 6, 1459–1470, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/1365- 2745.12165.

URL https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1365-2745.12165

Padgett-Johnson, M., L. Williams, and M. Walker, 2003: Vine water relations, gas exchange, and vegetative growth of seventeen vitis species grown under irrigated and nonirrigated conditions in california. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science jashs*, **128**, no. 2, 269 – 276, doi:10.21273/JASHS.128.2.0269.

URL https://journals.ashs.org/jashs/view/journals/jashs/128/2/article-p269.xml

Pap, D., A. J. Miller, J. P. Londo, and L. G. Kovács, 2015: Population structure of vitis rupestris, an important resource for viticulture. *American Journal of Enology and Viticulture*, **66**, no. 4, 403–410, doi:10.5344/ajev.2015.15012. URL https://www.ajevonline.org/content/66/4/403

Passioura, J. B., 2015: The yield of crops in relation to drought. *Physiology and Determination of Crop Yield*, doi:10.2134/1994.physiologyanddetermination.c23.

- Patakas, A., G. Kofidis, and A. M. Bosabalidis, 2003: The relationships between co2 transfer mesophyll resistance and photosynthetic efficiency in grapevine cultivars. *Scientia Horticulturae*, doi:10.1016/s0304-4238(02)00201-7.
- Peguero-Pina, J. J., J. Flexas, J. Galmés, Niinemets, D. Sancho-Knapik, G. Barredo, D. Villarroya, and E. Gil-Pelegrín, 2012: Leaf anatomical properties in relation to differences in mesophyll conductance to co<sub>2</sub>and photosynthesis in two related mediterranean<i>abies</i>species. Plant Cell & *Environment*, doi:10.1111/j.1365-3040.2012.02540.x.
- Riaz, S., D. Pap, J. Uretsky, V. Laucou, J.-M. Boursiquot, L. Kocsis, and M. Andrew Walker, 2019: Genetic diversity and parentage analysis of grape rootstocks. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, **132**, 1847–1860.
- Richards, D., 1983: *The Grape Root System*, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, chapter 3. 127–168. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9781118060728.ch3

Rienth, M. and T. Scholasch, 2019: State-of-the-art of tools and methods to assess vine water status. *OENO One*, **53**, doi:10.20870/oeno-one.2019.53.4.2403.

Rippner, D. A., P. V. Raja, J. M. Earles, M. Momayyezi, A. Buchko, F. V. Duong, E. J. Forrestel, D. Y. Parkinson, K. A. Shackel, J. L. Neyhart, and A. J. McElrone, 2022: A workflow for segmenting soil and plant x-ray computed tomography images with deep learning in google's colaboratory. *Frontiers in*

*Plant Science*, **13**, doi:10.3389/fpls.2022.893140.

URL https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2022.893140

- RStudio Team, 2020: Rstudio: Integrated development environment for r. URL http://www.rstudio.com/
- Sack, L., C. Scoffoni, D. M. Johnson, T. N. Buckley, and T. J. Brodribb, 2015: The anatomical determinants of leaf hydraulic function. *Functional and Ecological Xylem Anatomy*, 255–271, doi:10.1007/978-3-319-15783-210*.*
- Santesteban, L., C. Miranda, D. Marín, B. Sesma, D. Intrigliolo, J. Mirás-Avalos, J. Escalona, A. Montoro, F. de Herralde, P. Baeza, P. Romero, J. Yuste, D. Uriarte, J. Martínez-Gascueña, J. Cancela, V. Pinillos, M. Loidi, J. Urrestarazu, and J. Royo, 2019: Discrimination ability of leaf and stem water potential at different times of the day through a meta-analysis in grapevine (vitis vinifera l.). *Agricultural Water Management*, **221**, 202–210, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2019.04.020. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S037837741831802X
- Scharwies, J. D. and S. D. Tyerman, 2017: Comparison of isohydric and anisohydric vitis vinifera l. cultivars reveals a fine balance between hydraulic resistances, driving forces and transpiration in ripening berries. *Functional Plant Biology*, doi:10.1071/fp16010.
- Schultz, H., 2000: Climate change and viticulture: A european perspective on climatology, carbon dioxide and uv-b effects. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, **6**, no. 1, 2–12, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2000.tb00156.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2000.tb00156.x
- 2003: Differences in hydraulic architecture account for near-isohydric and anisohydric behavior of two field-grown vitis vinifera l. cultivars during drought. *Plant, Cell Environment*, **26**, 1393 – 1405, doi:10.1046/j.1365-3040.2003.01064.x.
- Serra, I., A. Strever, P. Myburgh, and A. Deloire, 2014: Review: the interaction between rootstocks and cultivars (vitis viniferal.) to enhance drought tolerance in grapevine. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, **20**, no. 1, 1–14, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/ajgw.12054. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/ajgw.12054
- Serrano, A. S., J. Martínez-Gascueña, G. L. Alonso, C. Cebrián-Tarancón, M. D. Carmona, A. Mena, and J. L. Chacón-Vozmediano, 2022: Agronomic response of 13 spanish red grapevine (vitis vinifera l.) cultivars under drought conditions in a semi-arid mediterranean climate. *Agronomy*, **12**, no. 10, doi:10.3390/agronomy12102399.

URL https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4395/12/10/2399

Sharkey, T. D., 2016: What gas exchange data can tell us about photosynthesis. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, **39**, no. 6, 1161–1163, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.12641.

URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/pce.12641

- Sharkey, T. D., C. J. Bernacchi, G. D. Farquhar, and E. L. Singsaas, 2007: Fitting photosynthetic carbon dioxide response curves for c3 leaves. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, **30**, no. 9, 1035–1040, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2007.01710.x. URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2007.01710.x
- Southey, J. M., 2017: Root distribution of different grapevine rootstocks on a relatively saline soil. *South African Journal of Enology and Viticulture*, doi:10.21548/13- 1-2189.
- Steudle, E., 2000: Water uptake by roots: effects of water deficit. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **51**, no. 350, 1531–1542, doi:10.1093/jexbot/51.350.1531. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/jexbot/51.350.1531
- Taratima, W., T. Ritmaha, N. Jongrungklang, P. Maneerattanarungroj, and N. Kunpratum, 2020: Effect of stress on the leaf anatomy of sugarcane cultivars with different drought tolerance (saccharum officinarum, poaceae). *Revista De Biología Tropical*, doi:10.15517/rbt.v68i4.41031.
- Taratima, W., T. Ritmaha, N. Jongrungklang, S. Raso, and P. Maneerattanarungroj, 2019: Leaf anatomical responses to drought stress condition in hybrid sugarcane leaf (saccharum officinarum 'kk3'). *Malaysian Applied Biology*. URL https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:228264397
- Théroux-Rancourt, G., J. M. Earles, M. E. Gilbert, M. A. Zwieniecki, C. K. Boyce, A. J. McElrone, and C. R. Brodersen, 2017: The bias of a two-dimensional view: comparing two-dimensional and three-dimensional mesophyll surface area estimates using noninvasive imaging. *New Phytologist*, **215**, no. 4, 1609–1622, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.14687.

URL https://nph.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/nph.14687

- Théroux-Rancourt, G., M. R. Jenkins, C. R. Brodersen, A. McElrone, E. J. Forrestel, and J. M. Earles, 2020: Digitally deconstructing leaves in 3d using x-ray microcomputed tomography and machine learning. *Applications in Plant Sciences*, **8**, no. 7, e11380, doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/aps3.11380. URL https://bsapubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/aps3.11380
- Tomás, M., H. Medrano, E. Brugnoli, J. Escalona, S. Martorell, A. Pou, M. Ribas-Carbó, and J. Flexas, 2014a: Variability of mesophyll conductance in grapevine cultivars under water stress conditions in relation to leaf anatomy and water use efficiency. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, **20**, no. 2, 272–280, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/ajgw.12069.

URL https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/ajgw.12069

Tomás, M., H. Medrano, J. M. Escalona, S. Martorell, A. Pou, M. Ribas-Carbó, and J. Flexas, 2014b: Variability of water use efficiency in grapevines. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **103**, 148–157, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2013.09.003, response to abiotic stresses of plants of Mediterranean-type ecosystems.

URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S009884721300124X

Zhu, J., 2002: Salt and drought stress signal transduction in plants. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, doi:10.1146/annurev.arplant.53.091401.143329.

# $S$ **UPPLEMENTARY** DATA

Genotype	<b>Species</b>	Lat	Long	$\mathbf T$	<b>MDR</b>	Isoth.	<b>TCV</b>	$\mathbf{T}_{\text{max-WAM}}$	$T_{min-CM}$	<b>TAR</b>	$\mathbf{T}_{\text{WEQ}}$	$T_{DQ}$
9018	acerifolia	34.0083	$-100.282$	16.5	15	38	853.6	35.8	$-3.5$	39.3	25.2	5.2
T <sub>52</sub>	aestivalis	30.6327	$-97.6772$	19.2	12.4	38	705	35	2.5	32.5	23.1	10.9
$b40-14$	arizonica	27.4525	$-107.712$	15.5	18.1	59	438.6	30.6	$\mathbf{0}$	30.6	20.3	14.9
b42-34	cinerea	25.1085528	$-99.8062$	22.1	13.9	48	516	35.9	7.1	28.8	25.7	15.1
T48	mustangensis	30.7592	$-98.7003$	18.8	14.5	41	720.9	35.6	0.7	34.9	22.9	9.1
NY1	riparia	43.841723	-73.387025	7.2	12.3	29	996.8	27.8	$-13.6$	41.4	18.4	$-5$
	hybrid											
<b>TXNM0821</b>	(V. riparia x)	35.6689	$-105.3361$	6.7	16.8	47	667.1	25.2	$-10.5$	35.7	14.8	$-0.4$
	V. arizonica)											
Vru42	rupestris	37.76774	$-90.3835$	12.4	13.1	34	892.4	31.4	$-6.9$	38.3	12.4	0.4
V60-96	vulpina	40.380579	$-75.032293$	10.7	11.7	32	877	29.5	$-6.8$	36.3	21	$-0.8$
Genotype	<b>Species</b>	$T_{WAQ}$	$T_{CQ}$	$\mathbf P$	$P_{WEM}$		<b>PCV</b>	$P_{WQ}$	$P_{DQ}$	$P_{WAQ}$	$P_{CQ}$	
9018	acerifolia	27.3	5.2	565	83	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{DM}}$ 17	49	213	61	191	61	
T52	aestivalis	27.9	9.8	837	114	43	31	278	163	182	163	
$b40-14$	arizonica	20.9	9.9	891	226	10	92	549	45	503	128	
$b42-34$	cinerea	28.2	15.1	849	180	19	68	393	65	297	65	
T48	mustangensis	27.7	9.1	701	101	30	35	240	113	179	113	
NY1	riparia	19.5	$-6.3$	919	104	53	18	275	172	273	178	
	hybrid											
<b>TXNM0821</b>	(V. riparia x)	15.5	$-1.5$	526	100	21	60	251	69	244	69	
	V. arizonica)											
Vru42	rupestris	23.6	0.4	1105	117	62	18	330	215	290	215	

**TA B L E S 1** *Vitis* species and genotypes used in study, coordinates of the collection location and climate data of their native habitat.

Geoclimate data for 9 *Vitis* accessions. Bold indicates significance at  $p < 0.05$ .

Abbreviations: Lat, Latitude; Long, Longitude; AMT, Annual Mean Temperature; MDR, Mean Diurnal Range; Isoth., Isothermality; T CV, Temperature Seasonality; T<sub>max-WAM</sub>, Maximum Temperature of Warmest Month; T<sub>min-CM</sub>, Minimum Temperature of Coldest Month; TAR, Temperature Annual Range;  $T_{WEO}$ , Mean Temperature of Wettest Quarter ;  $T_{DO}$ , Mean Temperature Driest Quarter; T<sub>WAQ</sub>, Mean Temperature Warmest Quarter; T<sub>CQ</sub>, Mean Temperature Coldest Quarter; P, Annual Precipitation; P<sub>WEM</sub>, Precipitation of Wettest Month; P<sub>DM</sub>, Precipitation of Driest Month; P CV, Precipitation Seasonality; P<sub>WQ</sub>, Precipitation Wettest Quarter;  $P_{DQ}$ , Precipitation Driest Quarter;  $P_{WAQ}$ , Precipitation Warmest Quarter;  $P_{CQ}$ , Precipitation Coldest Quarter.



**TA B L E S 2** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main and effects and interaction effects of biomass parameters.



**TA B L E S 3** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main and effects and interaction effects of morphological parameters.



**TA B L E S 4** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main and effects and interaction effects of physiological parameters for first measurement date.

$A_{n}$	Df	Sum Sq	<b>Mean Sq</b>	<b>F</b> value	$Pr(>\)$
Species	8	937.10	117.14	10.74	0.0000
Treatment	1	804.40	804.40	73.78	0.0000
Species:Treatment	8	268.14	33.52	3.07	0.0041
Residuals	92	1003.11	10.90		
$C_i$					
Species	8	61859.49	7732.44	3.98	0.0005
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	54152.39	54152.39	27.85	0.0000
Species:Treatment	8	21896.41	2737.05	1.41	0.2047
Residuals	87	169166.89	1944.45		
$g_{\rm s}$					
Species	8	0.30	0.04	10.63	0.0000
Treatment	1	0.28	0.28	78.03	0.0000
Species:Treatment	8	0.16	0.02	5.53	0.0000
Residuals	91	0.33	0.00		
E					
Species	8	121.32	15.17	8.08	0.0000
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	114.53	114.53	61.01	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	55.41	6.93	3.69	0.0009
Residuals	92	172.72	1.88		
$T_{\text{leaf}}$					
<b>Species</b>	8	28.60	3.57	1.44	0.1923
Treatment	1	3.18	3.18	1.28	0.2607
Species: Treatment	8	21.73	2.72	1.09	0.3759
Residuals	84	208.60	2.48		
$WUE_i$					
Species	$\overline{8}$	26.74	3.34	1.90	0.0707
Treatment	1	17.90	17.90	10.15	0.0020
Species: Treatment	8	25.23	3.15	1.79	0.0901
Residuals	87	153.38	1.76		
$WUE_{inst}$					
Species	$\overline{8}$	61000.84	7625.10	4.72	0.0001
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	47837.14	47837.14	29.61	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	11820.57	1477.57	0.91	0.5083
Residuals	89	143771.01	1615.40		
$\Psi_{\rm L}$					
Species	8	21.60	2.70	1.13	0.3700
Treatment	1	8.96	8.96	3.75	0.0614
Species: Treatment	$\overline{7}$	8.50	1.21	0.51	0.8217
Residuals	33	78.88	2.39		

**TA B L E S 5** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main and effects and interaction effects of physiological parameters for middle measurement date.

$A_{n}$	Df	Sum Sq	<b>Mean Sq</b>	<b>F</b> value	
Species	8	445.50	55.69	7.06	0.0000
Treatment	1	2785.80	2785.80	353.03	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	338.58	42.32	5.36	0.0000
Residuals	155	1223.12	7.89		
$C_i$					
Species	$\overline{8}$	309726.00	38715.75	5.48	0.0000
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	130690.86	130690.86	18.50	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	471524.52	58940.56	8.34	0.0000
Residuals	152	1073962.70	7065.54		
$g_{s}$					
Species	$\overline{8}$	0.08	0.01	3.91	0.0003
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	0.43	0.43	159.33	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	0.10	0.01	4.61	0.0000
Residuals	157	0.42	0.00		
E					
Species	$\overline{8}$	63.73	7.97	4.58	0.0000
Treatment	1	401.26	401.26	230.88	0.0000
Species: Treatment	8	75.99	9.50	5.47	0.0000
Residuals	157	272.86	1.74		
$T_{\rm leaf}$					
Species	8	48.30	6.04	3.01	0.0037
Treatment	1	28.48	28.48	14.18	0.0002
Species: Treatment	8	38.30	4.79	2.38	0.0189
Residuals	155	311.32	2.01		
$WUE_i$					
Species	8	138.94	17.37	4.82	0.0000
Treatment	1	55.48	55.48	15.39	0.0001
Species: Treatment	8	137.85	17.23	4.78	0.0000
Residuals	152	548.12	3.61		
$WUE_{inst}$					
Species	8	163981.62	20497.70	6.07	0.0000
Treatment	$\mathbf{1}$	45317.21	45317.21	13.41	0.0003
Species: Treatment	8	283476.43	35434.55	10.49	0.0000
Residuals	154	520393.51	3379.18		
$\Psi_{\text{LWP}}$					
<b>Species</b>	7	50.83	7.26	1.45	0.2079
Treatment	1	14.49	14.49	2.89	0.0954
Species: Treatment	7	16.76	2.39	0.48	0.8458
Residuals	48	240.41	5.01		

**TA B L E S 6** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the main and effects and interaction effects of physiological parameters for final measurement date.