

Embolism and mechanical resistances play a key role in dehydration tolerance of a perennial grass *Dactylis glomerata* L.

Florence Volaire^{1,*}, Frederic Lens², Hervé Cochard³, Hueng Xu², Larissa Chacon-Doria², Pauline Bristiel⁴, Jennifer Balachowski^{4,5}, Nick Rowe^{6,7}, Cyrille Violle⁴ and Catherine Picon-Cochard⁸

¹INRA, USC 1338, UMR 5175, Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive, Université de Montpellier, Université Paul Valéry, EPHE, 1919 route de Mende, F-34293 Montpellier, France, ²Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden University, PO Box 9517, 2300RA Leiden, The Netherlands, ³Université Clermont-Auvergne, INRA, PIAF, F-63000 Clermont-Ferrand, France, ⁴UMR 5175, Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive, Université de Montpellier, Université Paul Valéry, EPHE, 1919 route de Mende, F-34293 Montpellier, France, ⁵Department of Evolution and Ecology, University of California, Davis, CA 95616, USA, ⁶Université de Montpellier, UMR-MAP, F-34000 Montpellier, France, ⁷CNRS 5120, UMR AMAP, F-34000 Montpellier, France and ⁸INRA, VetAgroSup, UREP, F-63000 Clermont-Ferrand, France

*For correspondence. E-mail Florence.volaire@cefe.cnrs.fr

Received: 30 January 2018 Returned for revision: 1 March 2018 Editorial decision: 11 April 2018 Accepted: 30 April 2018 Published electronically 17 May 2018

• **Background and Aims** More intense droughts under climate change threaten species resilience. Hydraulic strategies determine drought survival in woody plants but have been hardly studied in herbaceous species. We explored the intraspecific variability of hydraulic and morphological traits as indicators of dehydration tolerance in a perennial grass, cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata*), which has a large biogeographical distribution in Europe.

• Methods Twelve populations of cocksfoot originating from Mediterranean, Temperate and Northern European areas were grown in a controlled environment in pots. Dehydration tolerance, leaf and stem anatomical traits and xylem pressure associated with 88 or 50 % loss of xylem conductance (P_{ss}, P_{so}) were measured.

where the solution is the transmission of the provided of the provided of the transmission of the transmission of the transmission of the provided of the pro

• **Conclusions** Compared with woody species, the large intraspecific variability in dehydration tolerance and embolism resistance within cocksfoot has consequences for its sensitivity to climate change. To better understand adaptive strategies of herbaceous species to increasing drought and frost requires further exploration of the role of hydraulic and mechanical traits using a larger inter- and intraspecific range of species.

Key words: Cavitation resistance, *Dactylis glomerata* L., dehydration tolerance, drought survival, embolism threshold, plant mortality, leaf fracture toughness, vessel wall thickness, stem anatomy, intraspecific variability, perennial grass.

INTRODUCTION

Higher temperatures due to climate change have led to more frequent extreme climate events around the world (Orlowsky and Seneviratne, 2012; IPCC, 2014; Seneviratne *et al.*, 2014). Extreme events, including intense droughts and heat waves, will become important drivers of future ecosystem dynamics and function (Smith, 2011). Resilience, defined as the capacity of a population or community to recover following disturbance, may therefore be the key to the persistence of ecosystems (Hodgson *et al.*, 2015; Nimmo *et al.*, 2015).

Forests and grasslands are major terrestrial ecosystems, covering a quarter and a third of the total land area, respectively.

They provide many important ecosystem services including timber and forage supply, carbon storage and biodiversity preservation, but their persistence is threatened under more frequent extreme climate events (Pilgrim *et al.*, 2010; Anderegg *et al.*, 2013). Climate-induced forest dieback is an increasing global concern (Allen *et al.*, 2010), and major research efforts have been carried out to identify strategies for drought survival among woody plant species (Pivovaroff *et al.*, 2015). In parallel, declines in grassland productivity (Brookshire and Weaver, 2015) and long-term degradation from drought may gradually become more common in the future (Ciais *et al.*, 2005). Drought reduces plant productivity and induces plant mortality in grasslands

under extreme events (Van Peer *et al.*, 2001; Hodgkinson and Muller, 2005; Griffin and Hoffmann, 2012; Poirier *et al.*, 2012; Moran *et al.*, 2014). Although the ability of woody species to survive intense drought was strongly related to their embolism resistance, i.e. the vulnerability to embolism (McDowell *et al.*, 2008), the traits and processes involved in the survival and recovery of herbaceous species after extreme stress are still poorly characterized (Craine *et al.*, 2013; Hoover *et al.*, 2014).

Recent methodological developments have enabled interspecific study of the vulnerability to embolism in stems of herbaceous plants (Lens *et al.*, 2013; Tixier *et al.*, 2013), opening the door for explorations of the role of hydraulic traits in stress survival of non-woody species. Building on these recent results showing large interspecific variability in embolism resistance in grasses distributed along an aridity gradient (Lens *et al.*, 2016), the present study aimed to explore the extent of intraspecific variability in the perennial grass *Dactylis glomerata* L. This model species was chosen since it has a large biogeographical distribution over Europe and Asia (Borrill, 1991) and a high genetic variation within both populations and geographical origins (Lumaret, 1988; Xie *et al.*, 2010).

Intraspecific variation with respect to embolism resistance is still poorly understood (Martinez-Vilalta *et al.*, 2009). In woody trees, phenotypic plasticity in resistance to embolism was found to be low and buffered against environmental variation in a large range of *Pinus pinaster* (Lamy *et al.*, 2011, 2014) but was not different across populations of *Fagus sylvatica* (Herbette *et al.*, 2010; Wortemann *et al.*, 2011); however, not a single study has assessed the intraspecific variation within a herbaceous grass species. Perennial species exhibit various functional strategies to cope with moderate to severe drought (Volaire, 2008; Pérez-Ramos *et al.*, 2013; Zwicke *et al.*, 2015), since they undergo many successive periods of stress and recovery during their life cycle. Under severe drought, the basal aerial meristems and roots are the key organs for plant survival and recovery, while most leaves of perennial grasses senesce to reduce water loss (Volaire *et al.*, 2009). As a result, no significant correlation was found between vulnerability of leaf hydraulic conductance and whole-plant survival of drought in grasses (Ocheltree *et al.*, 2016). The role of hydraulic traits in herbaceous species should therefore be analysed through a whole-plant perspective.

Survival in increasingly drought-prone environments depends on a range of traits which include sufficient mechanical strengthening to avoid irreversible effects of tissue dehydration. Embolism-resistant tree species are often characterized by a high wood density (Hacke et al., 2001; Lens et al., 2013; Ogasa et al., 2013) although no strong evidence was found that denser woods conferred higher survival, or that the risk of embolism caused by wide conduits increased mortality (Russo et al., 2010). In addition, increased tolerance to hydraulic dysfunction implies increased carbon costs for leaf construction and water use (Nardini et al., 2012). Low embolism threshold values were associated with narrower and denser vein conduits, increased thickness of the conduit wall, increased vein density and with reduced leaf area (Nardini et al., 2012). In herbaceous species too, arabidopsis plants with increased wood formation in their stems were shown to be significantly more embolism resistant (Lens et al., 2013; Tixier et al., 2013), and grass species from the most arid environments had more lignified stems compared with the vulnerable species native to wetter habitats (Lens et al., 2016).

The main objective of this study is to identify relationships between embolism resistance, whole-plant dehydration survival, leaf traits and stem anatomy amongst 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* L. originating from Scandinavia to Morocco. Given the contrasting biogeographic origins of the studied populations, we expected that they differ strongly in hydraulic and anatomical traits, which would subsequently contribute to their dehydration tolerance. To determine ecological responses of grassland species under climate extremes (Smith, 2011*a*), this study therefore aims to (1) identify the role of embolism thresholds and associated traits for drought survival and mechanical resistance in a perennial herbaceous

Population	Origin	Country	Latitude	Longitude		Temperature (°C)	Rair	ıfall mean ((mm)	Aridity index
					Annual mean	Min of the coldest month	Max of the warmest month	Annual	Wettest quarter	Driest quarter	
Maroc 1(ma1)	Mediterranean	Morocco	33.10	-8.08	18.0	7.0	30.2	346	7	4	0.27
Maroc 9 (ma9)	Mediterranean	Morocco	29.71	-8.96	16.2	1.9	31.1	246	13	5	0.17
Kasbah (kas)	Mediterranean	Morocco	32.35	-6.16	11.7	3.9	39.6	270	215	17	0.31
Sicily (sic)	Mediterranean	Italy	37.48	14.50	15.4	4.0	27.6	572	237	40	0.47
Carnac (car)	Temperate	France	47.58	-3.07	11.7	3.5	21.6	893	179	153	0.86
Fourchette (fou)	Temperate	France	48.17	-2.75	10.8	2.3	20.8	857	174	153	0.74
St Michel (stm)	Temperate	France	48.63	-1.51	11.5	2.6	22.3	731	169	149	0.78
Ludac (lud)	Temperate	France	46.58	0.33	11.5	9	25.0	724	152	152	0.90
Danemark (dan)	Northern	Denmark	56.46	8.66	7.8	-3.2	19.4	809	201	134	1.48
Sweden (swe)	Northern	Sweden	60.50	24.22	4.8	-9.8	21.4	613	199	93	1.10
Loke (lok)	Northern	Sweden	62.98	14.80	2.6	-12.6	18.9	563	213	87	1.14
Tammisto (tam)	Northern	Finland	60.23	23.75	4.9	-9.3	21.3	609	196	92	1.08

TABLE 1. List of the 12 populations of Dactylis glomerata

Climatic data associated either with their origin sites of collection or sites of breeding (for cultivars in Temperate and Northern areas) from the WorldClim data set (http://www.worldclim.org; Hijmans *et al.*, 2005). Seeds from Northern populations were provided by the Nordic Genetic Resource Center (NordGen). Temperate populations were provided by the plant genetic resources information system of the National Institute for Agronomical Research (INRA, Lusignan, France). The Sicilian ecotype came from University of Catania, Italy. The Moroccan ecotypes came from INRA Rabat, Morocco.

species; and (2) determine the intraspecific variability of these traits as indicators of potential drought survival.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material

Twelve populations of *Dactylis glomerata* L. (cocksfoot), including native populations and cultivars, were selected from germplasm banks to be representative from three climatic regions: four Mediterranean, four Temperate and four Northern populations (Table 1). Cocksfoot is a tetraploid (2n = 4x = 28) species from the genus *Dactylis* whose taxonomic constitution is debated, but broadly consists of a complex of diploids and tetraploids (Borrill, 1991). The 12 populations tested were all verified to be tetraploid (P. Barre, pers. comm).

Experimental sites and design

Three pot experiments were carried out to determine dehydration tolerance, embolism resistance as well as anatomy and leaf traits, at the CEFE-CNRS research centre in Montpellier, France (43°6'N, 3°8'E). Seeds from each *D. glomerata* population were sown in seedling trays in February 2013 and the adult plants (>1 year old) were used for all subsequent experiment.

Experiment 1 was carried out to determine plant dehydration tolerance measured as the plant survival rate in plants growing in short pots, after rewatering following an intense drought (Volaire, 2018). Plants were transplanted into 4 L, 18 cm diameter pots in May 2013. As roots were equally limited in depth for all the populations in pots, plant drought survival mirrored a plant's dehydration tolerance under a similar soil water availability (Volaire, 2008). It allowed us to discount the effect of rooting depth associated mainly with dehydration avoidance (Volaire and Lelievre, 2001; Pérez-Ramos *et al.*, 2013). For this experiment, the quantity of dry substrate was measured to be identical for each of the 4 L pots so that the time dynamics of soil moisture could be accurately assessed and compared simply by pot weight during the period of intense water deficit in summer 2014.

Experiment 2 was carried out to measure the embolism threshold and stem anatomy. Individuals started from tillers taken from the adult plants sown in 2013 were transplanted in September 2014 into 10 L (24 cm diameter) pots in order to obtain reproductive tillers from spring 2015.

Experiment 3 was carried out to measure biomechanical and leaf traits. Individuals taken from the initial adult plants were transplanted into new 4 L pots in September 2015.

Each 4 and 10 L pot contained four clones from a single population, to ensure soil cover close to field conditions, with ten and four replicates for 4 and 10 L pots, respectively, per population. Pots were filled with a substrate composed of 65 % local loamy-clay soil and 35 % compost.

For all experiments, the plants were grown under an openended hoop-house and they were kept fully irrigated and fertilized (20 kg ha⁻¹ of P and K at establishment and every autumn, then 40 kg ha⁻¹ nitrogen after each cut) except during the imposition of the severe drought in Experiment 1 during summer 2014. Pesticides were applied to prevent the development of diseases caused by insects (aphids) or fungi (rust). For all experiments, pots were distributed on a bench according to a full randomization design. In addition, the position of pots was modified multiple times during the experiment to minimize placement effects.

In addition, plants of one of the Mediterranean populations (Kasbah), that was grown in a nearby field in a 1.30 m deep loamy soil since 2011 (Barkaoui *et al.*, 2016) and without irrigation or fertilization for 2 years, were used for stem sampling in order to assess the plasticity of embolism resistance in one population. Twenty stems of this field-grown 'Kasbah' population were collected in spring 2015 and processed for the measurement of stem embolism (see below).No other measurement was carried out on these plants.

Mean temperatures were 9.5 °C in winter, 16.6 °C in spring and 24.2 °C in summer, with 63 % mean air relative humidity and mean radiation of 800 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ from spring to summer.

Measurements

Dehydration tolerance under severe summer drought (Experiment 1). Plants of Experiment 1 were kept fully irrigated and fertilized until June 2014 when the severe summer drought started to be imposed, as follows. In June 2014, the soil water content was raised to field capacity (60 % soil water content for the substrate used) and irrigation was withheld thereafter. Pots were weighed at frequent intervals (every 2-5 d) throughout the experiment to monitor the decrease in soil water content. Once full leaf senescence was reached for all populations, and when soil water content in the pots decreased to near 12 % (27–35 d after withholding irrigation), plants were harvested at 3 cm from the soil surface and the pot was put back under full irrigation (field capacity), thus ending the severe drought. All pots were re-watered after they reached the same soil water content to ensure that plant survival corresponded to an identical soil final dehydration for all populations irrespective of their growth potential. The plants were irrigated for 15 d, after which dehydration survival was measured. Plants that did not produce new shoots after 15 d were counted as dead. The survival rate was measured as the number of living plants divided by the total number of plants (plant survival; SURV %).

Embolism resistance (Experiment 2). In late spring 2015, three pots for each population were maintained under irrigated conditions and allowed to flower. Stems were then collected and processed using the static centrifuge technique (Alder et al., 1997). A negative pressure was applied to stem pieces in a standard centrifuge with a custom-built, 26 cm rotor. Each stem segment was only spun once in the centrifuge. After centrifugation, a 2 cm long segment containing a node was excised under water from the middle of the stem segment. The segment was connected to the XYL'EM apparatus (Bronkhorst, Montignyles-Cormeilles, France) to measure its hydraulic conductance using a solution of 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl, in deionized ultrapure water. The sample was then resaturated with pressurized water to determine the percentage loss of conductance caused by embolized conduits. For each pressure point in the vulnerability curve (VC), one to seven grass stems were used with 14–36 pieces per curve (minimum–maximum), and one S-shaped curve per population was fitted (Supplementary Data Fig. S1) according to a sigmoid function (Pammenter and Vander Willigen, 1998). Embolism resistance was expressed by the 50 or 88 % percentage loss of hydraulic conductance (P_{50} , P_{88}). P_{50} is the metric most used to compare hydraulic thresholds between species and populations, while P_{88} was shown to be the embolism threshold leading to irreversible drought damage in angiosperm trees (Urli *et al.*, 2013)

Stem anatomy. To evaluate which stem characters contribute to the variation in embolism resistance observed among the D. glomerata populations, light microscopy observations were performed on cross-sections of stems - previously used for the measurement of embolism resistance - at the level of internodes (from three stems per population). After vulnerability curve determination, samples were frozen until processed for anatomy. Samples were defrosted in water, stored in 50 % ethanol and then were embedded with LR White (hard grade, London Resin, UK) following Hamann et al. (2011), and sectioned with a rotary microtome (Leica RM 2265) equipped with disposable blades. Transverse sections of 4 µm were made, heatattached to the slides, stained with toluidine blue and mounted in Entellan®. The slides were observed with a Leica DM2500 light microscope equipped with a Leica DFC-425C digital camera (Leica Microscopes, Wetzlar, Germany). A range of stem anatomical characters (Lens et al., 2016), such as total stem area (A_s), area of lignified outer stem tissue (A_{LIG}), surface area of the fibre wall (A_{FW}) and fibre lumen (A_{FL}) , thickness of the metaxylem vessel wall (T_{VW}) , hydraulically weighted diameter of vessels (D_{HV}) and traits derived from these measurements, such as the proportion of lignified tissue per total stem area (P_{LIG}) , the proportion of cell wall per fibre $(P_{\text{CW}}F)$, the proportion of total fibre wall area in the lignified area $(P_{\rm FW}F \times A_{\rm LIG})$ and the proportion of total fibre wall in the lignified area per stem area $[(P_{FW}F \times A_{LIG}):A_{S}]$. Observations were made based on three individuals per population and at least 30 measurements per feature using ImageJ v 1.43 (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA).

The diameter of the vessels (D_v) was calculated based on the lumen area that was considered to be a circle following the equation:

$$D_{\rm v} = \sqrt{\frac{4A}{\pi}} \tag{1}$$

where *D* is the vessel diameter and *A* is the area of the vessel. The hydraulically weighted vessel diameter (D_{Hv} ; weights diameters of vessels according to their hydraulic conductance) was calculated following the equation (Sperry *et al.*, 1994):

$$D_{\rm hv} = \frac{\sum D^5}{\sum D^4}$$
(2)

where D is the vessel diameter as measured in eqn (1).

Leaf traits under full optimum conditions (Experiment 3). In grasses, leaf tissue density (dry mass per volume) can be assessed both by leaf dry matter content (Garnier and Laurent,







FIG. 1. Thresholds of embolism resistance in cocksfoot. Means and standard errors of water potentials at 50 % embolism (A, P_{50}) and at 88% embolism (B, P_{ss}) in stems of 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins.

1994; Garnier et al., 2001) and by the resistance of the leaf to mechanical fracture, that can be measured in a variety of ways (Aranwela et al., 1999; Ang et al., 2008; Onoda et al., 2011). For Experiment 3, in early spring of 2016, at the time before the reproductive stage, one fully extended leaf was collected from one plant per pot (four replicates). Fracture toughness was measured with a portable mechanical measuring device (Instron[®] Inspec 2200) adapted for cutting with a single razor cut (Ang et al., 2008). Leaf blades were placed on the cutting platform across a gap 2 mm wide, permitting the passage of the diagonally angled blade in the middle of each leaf blade (single-edged blade, 'Personna GEM, 0.23 mm thickness, Cat.# 71962). Leaf toughness, the energy required to shear the leaf cross-section in J m⁻², was calculated after subtracting initial elastic loading and final elastic unloading, as well as friction energy from the force-distance curves. As in Ang et al. (2008), the initial cut was followed by a second pass that measured just the friction force generated by the blade against the cut surfaces of the leaf. Leaves were cut with a razor angle of 20° and at a cross-head speed of 0.1 mm s⁻¹. Leaf thickness and width were measured with a binocular at the central vein of the leaf and at the widest part of the leaf, respectively. The leaf was then immediately placed into a tube with the cut end submerged in deionized water and stored in the dark at 4 °C for 24 h. The fresh and dry leaf biomass (g) were weighed to obtain leaf dry matter content [LDMC; the oven-dry mass (mg) of a leaf divided by its water-saturated fresh mass (g), expressed in mg g⁻¹] following Perez-Harguindeguy *et al.* (2013). This trait is used as a proxy for leaf density which is a trait more difficult to measure (Shipley and Vu, 2002).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with Rstudio (version 0.98.501). The effect of biogeographical origin was tested with anova ('Imtest' package) followed with Tukey's post-hoc tests. A principal component analysis (PCA; 'ade4' package) was performed on the 12 variables showing significant differences between origins, scaled and centred, to visualize their covariations. The four bioclimatic variables (www.worldclim.org) chosen to characterize the drought and frost occurrence in the sites of origins of the populations [annual precipitations, precipitations of the driest quarter, aridity index (Trabucco *et al.*, 2008) and minimum temperature of the coldest months] were used as supplementary variables in the PCA. Pairwise correlations between all measured traits for each season were evaluated using Pearson's method ('Hmisc' package). We tested the relationships between key variables using simple linear regressions.

RESULTS

Across the 12 populations of *D. glomerata* studied, P_{50} ranged from -3.06 to - 6.36 MPa (Fig. 1A), while P_{88} ranged from -5.06 to -11.6 MPa (Fig. 1B). The Mediterranean populations had significantly lower P_{50} and P_{88} (-5.8 and -10.4 MPa, respectively) than the Temperate populations (-3.3 and -6.1 MPa, respectively), while the Northern populations showed intermediate embolism thresholds (Table 2). In addition, P_{50} of the Mediterranean population Kasbah significantly differed according to the growing environment (Fig. 2), either in pots ($P_{50} = -6.05 \pm 0.31$) or in the field ($P_{50} = -5.21 \pm 0.29$).

 $(P_{50} = -6.05 \pm 0.31)$ or in the field $(P_{50} = -5.21 \pm 0.29)$. Both P_{50} and P_{88} measured on potted irrigated plants were highly and more correlated (r = 0.88 and 0.89, P < 0.001;Table 3) with the mean precipitation of the driest quarter of the year (Fig. 3) than with the annual precipitation of the origin site. Both embolism thresholds were, however, less strongly correlated with the aridity index of the site of origin (r = 0.60, P = 0.039). The mean aridity index was 1.20 for Northern populations (less arid) compared with 0.82 (more arid) for Temperate populations despite the greater rainfall in Temperate areas. In addition, no correlation was detected between cavitation resistance and minimum temperatures of the coldest months of the sites studied.

Plant dehydration survival in pots was significantly greater (Table 2) for the Mediterranean populations (58 %) than for the group of Northern and Temperate populations (7–13 %).

Although leaf thickness did not discriminate the populations according to their origin, leaf width almost doubled with increasing latitude, from on average 4.3 mm in Mediterranean populations to 8 mm in Northern populations. Mediterranean populations also had a higher LDMC (20 % greater) and a very significantly greater leaf fracture toughness (2.5-fold greater) than the Northern and Temperate populations.

The Mediterranean populations were distinguished from the others by having thinner stems with a higher fibre wall proportion in lignified area per stem (Table 2). The traits for Northern and Temperate populations were mostly not significantly different although the proportion of total fibre wall area in lignified area was greater in Northern populations. The thickness of metaxylem vessel wall highly discriminated all origins and spanned 1.4, 1.2 and 1.1 μ m in Mediterranean Northern and Temperate populations, respectively (Table 2).

The value of P_{88} was highly and better correlated to dehydration survival (r = -0.79; Table 3; Fig. 4A) and leaf traits such as fracture toughness (r = -0.78; Table 3; Fig. 4B) and LDMC (r = -0.82; Table 3; Fig. 3C), than P_{50} . A highly significant correlation was found between both embolism thresholds (Table 3; Figs 5 and 6) and the thickness of metaxylem vessel wall in stems (T_{VW} , r = -0.92 for P_{50}). Notably, no other stem anatomical trait was correlated with either embolism threshold. In contrast, plant dehydration survival was correlated to the total stem area (A_{s} , r = -0.66) and therefore with the area of lignified outer stem tissue (A_{LIG} , r = -0.61) as well as with the proportion of the fibre wall in the lignified area over the entire stem area [($P_{EW}F \times A_{LIG}$): A_s , r = 0.59).

Overall, the covariation between LDMC, leaf fracture toughness, embolism thresholds and dehydration tolerance was very significant (Table 3). Unexpectedly, leaf toughness was not correlated with any trait associated with stem lignification over the entire data set. However, a PCA (Fig. 7A, B) clearly illustrates that high embolism resistance and dehydration survival associated with small and more lignified lamina and lignified stems discriminate the group of Mediterranean populations. In contrast, Temperate and Northern populations were characterized by low dehydration survival and embolism resistance, bigger leaves, and stems with thicker walled fibres, especially for Northern populations.

DISCUSSION

This study is the first to explore intraspecific variability of embolism resistance, whole-plant dehydration tolerance and associated traits in a herbaceous grass species. Our results show a huge range of embolism thresholds amongst the 12 *D. glomerata* populations studied, reflecting its biogeographical distribution and corresponding to some key traits.

Large intraspecific variability in cocksfoot

If we compare the interspecific range for P_{50} (Lens *et al.*, 2016) observed within 18 Poaceae species native to similar mesic and xeric environments (-3.2 to -7.5 MPa) with the intraspecific variability in *D. glomerata* found here (-3.06 to -6.36 MPa), the overlap is striking. Only *Stipa pennata*, a grass native to arid rangelands, exhibited a lower P_{50} (-7.5 MPa) compared with the Mediterranean populations of *D. glomerata*.

	Bio	geographic origin of D. g	glomerata populat	ons
	P-value	Mediterranean	Northern	Temperate
SURV, plant dehydration survival (%)	< 0.001***	58.2ª	13.1 ^b	6.9 ^b
P_{so} , embolism pressure threshold for 50 % embolism (MPa)	0.0016**	-5.8^{a}	-4.3 ^{ab}	-3.3 ^b
$P_{\rm ex}^{,0}$, embolism pressure threshold for 88 % embolism (MPa)	< 0.001***	-10.4^{a}	-7.6 ^{ab}	-6.1 ^b
Lwidth, leaf width (mm)	< 0.001***	4.28 ^a	7.97°	6.22 ^b
Lthick, leaf thickness (mm)	0.13n.s.	0.30	0.36	0.35
LDMC, leaf dry matter content (mg g DM ⁻¹)	< 0.001***	232.72ª	185.75 ^b	188.41 ^b
LFrac, leaf fracture resistance (J m ⁻²)	< 0.001***	478.6 ^a	188.47 ^b	225.55 ^b
$A_{\rm s}$, total stem area (mm ²)	0.006**	2.07ª	3.09 ^b	2.9 ^b
A_{LIG} , lignified area (μ m ²)	0.02*	0.27 ^a	0.38 ^b	0.33 ^{ab}
$P_{\text{LIG}}^{\text{LIG}}$, proportion of lignified area per total stem area	0.02*	0.1308 ^b	0.1258 ^{ab}	0.115 ^a
$A_{\rm r}$, fibre cell area (μ m ²)	0.34n.s.	70.61	77.21	77.56
$A_{\rm rr}$, fibre lumen area (μ m ²)	0.50n.s.	15.95	14.16	14.76
A_{rw}^{12} , fibre wall area (μm^2)	0.12n.s.	54.66	63.04	62.79
$P_{cw}^{TW}F$, proportion of cell wall per fibre	0.029*	0.77 ^a	0.82 ^b	0.81 ^{ab}
$P_{rw}^{W}F \times A_{LC}$, proportion of total fibre wall area in lignified area	0.037*	0.30 ab	0.33 ^b	0.29ª
$(P_{FW}^{n}F \times A_{IIC}^{n}):A_{s}$, proportion of total fibre wall in lignified area per stem area	0.002**	0.156 ^a	0.117 ^b	0.102 ^b
$D_{\mu\nu}^{TW}$ hydraulically weighted diameter of vessels (µm)	0.17n.s.	23.04	21.77	21.18
$T_{VW}^{(m)}$, thickness of metaxylem vessel wall (µm)	< 0.001***	1.426°	1.226 ^b	1.109 ^a

TABLE 2. Results of variance analysis and Tukey test between means of variables for the three origins of Dactylis glomerata populations

***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05; n.s., non-significant. For each variable, different superscript letters indicate significant differences between origins.

In addition, this intraspecific variation is much greater than that reported for a dicot herbaceous perennial *Solidago canadensis* sampled from dry to humid sites and showing P_{50} ranging from -2.37 to -3.08 MPa (Nolf *et al.*, 2014). The intraspecific range in P_{50} variation within cocksfoot matches with most of the woody species studied in angiosperms (-2 to -4 MPa) and gymnosperms (-4 to -8 MPa), although far from the extreme embolism threshold (-18.8 MPa) found so far in the gymnosperm *Callitris tuberculata* (Larter *et al.*, 2015). This intraspecific variability is strikingly large in comparison with former results on woody species. For instance, across 17 populations of *Fagus sylvatica* originating from sites in a large European latitudinal gradient with annual precipitations spanning from 563 to 1362 mm, P_{50} was relatively constant from -2.8 to -3.2 MPa (Wortemann *et al.*, 2011). No significant differences in embolism resistance (-3.9 to -4.1 MPa) were found either across 24 populations of *Pinus pinaster* from Northern African and French sites (Lamy *et al.*, 2011). Nevertheless, plasticity in vulnerability to embolism (from -3 to -6 MPa) was shown in the very dry limits of *Pinus canariensis* under a strong aridity gradient (Lopez *et al.*, 2016). It could be interesting to explore whether the high embolism resistance of *D. glomerata* from the most arid sites (P_{50} less than -5 MPa) could be correlated to morphological and anatomical differences in the rooting system compared with woody species, by analogy with shrubs that were found to be more embolism tolerant than trees in the same habitat, probably reflecting differences in rooting depth and drought tolerance (Brendel and Cochard, 2011). The



FIG. 2. Embolism resistance at increasing water potentials in stems of the Mediterranean *Dactylis glomerata* population 'Kasbah' growing either in the pot or in the field. Mean water potentials at 50 % embolism (P_{50}) are -6.1 and -5.2 MPa for the population growing in the pot and in the field, respectively.



FIG. 3. Embolism resistance and aridity of the site of origin in cocksfoot. Linear relationships between mean precipitation of the driest quarter at the site of origin and water potential at 50 % embolism (P_{50}) in 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins. Bars correspond to standard errors.

		$P_{_{88}}$	$P_{_{50}}$	SURV	Lwidth	Lthick	LDMC	LFrac	$A_{ m S}$	$A_{ m LIG}$	$P_{ m LIG}$	$A_{ m F}$	$A_{ m FL}$	$A_{ m FW}$	$P_{\rm CW}F$	$\begin{array}{c} P_{\rm FW} F \times \\ {\rm A}_{\rm LIG} \end{array}$	$\substack{(P_{\rm FW}F\times\\A_{\rm LIG}):A_{\rm s}}$	$D_{ m HV}$	$T_{\rm vw}$	$P_{ m sUM}$	P_{YEAR}	$T_{_{ m MIN}}$	Aridity
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	P	-	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.19	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.18	0.89	0.45	0.67	0.38	0.37	0.88	0.14	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.76	0.04
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$P_{\varepsilon_0}^{-88}$	0.94	-	0.02	0.21	0.25	0.02	0.03	0.24	0.45	0.58	0.51	0.47	0.38	0.27	0.73	0.18	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.92	0.04
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	SURV	-0.79	-0.65	1	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.85	0.09	0.73	0.06	0.13	0.80	0.04	0.07	0.11	0.00	0.01	0.25	0.01
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Lwidth	0.50	0.39	-0.71	1	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.40	0.14	0.87	0.16	0.35	0.15	0.09	0.71	0.36	0.10	0.21	0.00	0.00
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Lthick	0.40	0.36	-0.66	0.72	1	0.02	0.02	0.20	0.42	0.53	0.08	0.48	0.04	0.07	0.30	0.73	0.81	0.78	0.06	0.12	0.03	0.01
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	LDMC	-0.82	-0.68	0.87	-0.85	-0.65	1	0.00	0.01	0.07	0.50	0.23	0.66	0.18	0.22	0.64	0.07	0.13	0.07	0.00	0.04	0.09	0.01
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	LFrac	-0.78	-0.61	0.92	-0.84	-0.68	0.97	1	0.02	0.03	0.81	0.21	0.62	0.16	0.18	0.62	0.08	0.10	0.11	0.01	0.05	0.08	0.00
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$A_{ m s}$	0.46	0.37	-0.66	0.83	0.40	-0.70	-0.67	1	0.00	0.24	0.15	0.22	0.30	0.99	0.14	0.00	0.90	0.30	0.11	0.19	0.08	0.13
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$A_{ m IIG}^{ m J}$	0.41	0.24	-0.61	0.65	0.26	-0.54	-0.62	0.78	1	0.36	0.24	0.24	0.42	0.88	0.06	0.08	0.71	0.34	0.30	0.49	0.17	0.13
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	P_{11G}	-0.04	-0.18	0.06	-0.27	-0.20	0.22	0.08	-0.37	0.29	1	0.81	0.80	0.87	0.96	0.67	0.18	0.37	0.92	0.53	0.42	0.52	0.99
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$A_{\rm E}$	0.24	0.21	-0.52	0.45	0.53	-0.37	-0.39	0.44	0.37	-0.08	1	0.66	0.00	0.06	0.09	0.99	0.87	0.96	0.19	0.23	0.41	0.32
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$A_{\rm B}^{\rm L}$	-0.14	-0.23	0.11	0.05	-0.22	0.14	0.16	0.38	0.37	-0.08	0.14	1	0.64	0.01	0.05	0.76	0.21	0.64	0.26	0.17	0.92	0.10
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$A_{\rm FW}$	0.28	0.28	-0.55	0.43	0.59	-0.41	-0.44	0.33	0.26	-0.05	0.96	-0.15	1	0.00	0.28	0.92	0.60	0.93	0.09	0.10	0.43	0.13
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$P_{\rm Cw}^{\rm mF}$	0.28	0.35	-0.46	0.29	0.53	-0.38	-0.41	0.00	-0.05	-0.02	0.56	-0.73	0.77	1	0.60	0.90	0.21	0.65	0.06	0.03	0.49	0.02
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$P_{\rm FW}F \times A_{\rm LIG}$	-0.05	-0.11	-0.08	0.44	0.33	-0.15	-0.16	0.45	0.56	0.14	0.52	0.59	0.34	-0.17	1	0.60	0.11	0.68	0.69	0.53	0.20	0.78
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$(\dot{P}_{\rm FW}F \times \vec{T})$	-0.45	-0.42	0.59	-0.50	-0.11	0.53	0.53	-0.76	-0.52	0.41	0.00	-0.10	0.03	0.04	0.17	1	0.59	0.16	0.08	0.08	0.47	0.24
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\overline{A}_{\mathrm{LIG}}$): A_{s}																						
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$D_{\rm HV}$	-0.51	-0.31	0.53	-0.12	-0.08	0.46	0.50	0.04	-0.12	-0.28	-0.05	0.39	-0.17	-0.39	0.49	0.17	1	0.44	0.19	0.37	0.97	0.36
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$T_{\rm vw}$	-0.85	-0.92	0.48	-0.29	-0.09	0.53	0.49	-0.33	-0.30	0.03	0.02	0.15	-0.03	-0.14	0.13	0.44	0.25	1	0.01	0.01	0.96	0.09
$T_{Y\rm EMR}^{Y\rm EMR}$ 0.75 0.86 -0.71 0.39 0.48 -0.61 -0.57 0.40 0.22 -0.26 0.38 -0.42 0.50 0.61 -0.20 -0.52 - 0.52 -0.		0.88	0.89	-0.84	0.50	0.55	-0.77	-0.74	0.48	0.32	-0.20	0.40	-0.35	0.51	0.56	-0.13	-0.53	-0.40	-0.71	1	0.00	0.83	0.01
$T_{1,2,0,0}$ 0.10 -0.03 0.36 -0.87 -0.67 0.51 0.53 -0.53 -0.71 -0.36 -0.03 -0.35 -0.72 -0.40 -0.23	$P_{_{\rm VEAD}}$	0.75	0.86	-0.71	0.39	0.48	-0.61	-0.57	0.40	0.22	-0.26	0.38	-0.42	0.50	0.61	-0.20	-0.52	-0.29	-0.70	0.94	1	0.83	0.01
	$T_{\rm MIN}$	0.10	-0.03	0.36	-0.82	-0.62	0.51	0.53	-0.53	-0.42	0.21	-0.26	-0.03	-0.25	-0.22	-0.40	0.23	0.01	-0.02	-0.07	-0.07	1	0.03
Aridity 0.60 0.60 -0.71 0.76 0.73 -0.74 -0.77 0.47 0.46 0.01 0.32 -0.49 0.46 0.65 0.09 -0.37	Aridity	0.60	0.60	-0.71	0.76	0.73	-0.74	-0.77	0.47	0.46	0.01	0.32	-0.49	0.46	0.65	0.09	-0.37	-0.29	-0.51	0.70	0.70	-0.62	1

5 .NIW . 5 o, ' YEAR' 5 5, DRY' Curliate variables of the oright sites (of preduing sites) of the popula the coldest months; aridity, aridity index. P < 0.05 (italics. bold). P < 0.01 (bold). P < 0.001 (bold underlined).



FIG. 4. Embolism resistance and (A) dehydration tolerance, (B) leaf fracture toughness and (C) leaf dry matter content in cocksfoot. Linear relationships between water potential at 88% embolism (P_{88}) and (A) the proportion of surviving plants at soil wilting point in short pots (dehydration tolerance), (B) leaf fracture toughness of irrigated plants and (C) leaf dry matter content (LDMC) of irrigated plants in 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins. Bars correspond to standard errors.

remarkable range in embolism resistance could be added to the list of factors contributing to explain why cocksfoot covers a greater span of biomes that that of most woody species.

Our intraspecific comparison is based on plants grown in similar optimum pot conditions for 2 years, underlining that the large differences within populations are genetically determined. Yet, our results also show a high plasticity of embolism threshold since for the tested Kasbah population, P_{50} significantly varied between potted and field-grown plants of the same population. Many factors differ, such as plant age at sampling date as well as many biotic and abiotic factors (soil



FIG. 5. Embolism resistance and stem anatomy in cocksfoot. Linear relationships between water potential at 50% embolism (P_{50}) and thickness of metaxylem vessel walls in stems in 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins. Bars correspond to standard errors.

depth, plant density, etc.) between these two growing conditions for the same population. However, it may be hypothesized that a less negative P_{50} of field-growing plants may be ascribed in particular to a deeper rooting system (130 cm in the field vs. 20 cm in pots) which enhances dehydration avoidance vs. dehydration tolerance and may have impacted hydraulic adaptations (Scholz et al., 2012). It could be interesting to measure embolism resistance in the same populations of cocksfoot all growing in a similar deep soil in order to analyse the impact of the expression of full rooting depth on embolism thresholds. However, it can therefore be assumed that if sampling was done using populations growing in their natural environment, our results would have probably generated stronger genotype × environments interactions, and even further increased the range of intraspecific variability in embolism thresholds. Significant site × population interactions were, for instance, found in beech (Herbette et al., 2010; Wortemann et al., 2011), underlining the high phenotypic plasticity of embolism resistance. Further work is necessary to assess intraspecific P₅₀ and P₈₈ plasticity as a response to environments (e.g. soil depth, soil nutrients and water availability).

Relationships between embolism resistance and environmental limiting factors

Our results show a correlation between the annual and driest quarter precipitations of the sites studied with embolism thresholds measured on plants grown in a common garden under optimum irrigation. As a general pattern, dehydration survival in pots was greater for the populations coming from the driest sites, with P_{50} and P_{88} more negative than -4.50 and -9.3 MPa, respectively. Plant mortality under severe drought when the resource is limited (shallow soils) can then be predicted by the hydraulic failure model assuming that a significant loss of conductivity can trigger plant mortality (McDowell *et al.*, 2013). Our results are in line with a meta-analysis of tree species showing that hydraulic traits capture key mechanisms



FIG. 6. Thickness of metaxylem vessel wall in stems of cocksfoot: three populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins: (A) 'car' (Temperate); (B) 'swe' (Northern); (C) 'ma1' (Mediterranean). The arrows point to the wall of the metaxylem vessels.



FIG. 7. PCA of 12 plant traits and 12 populations of cocksfoot. Principal component analysis (factorial axes 1 and 2) showing (A) the distribution of the 12 traits significantly discriminating origins of populations (only P_{50} was included since it is highly correlated to P_{88} ; see Table 2) and (B) 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* of contrasting origins. Climatic data of the origin or breeding site: annual precipitations (Pyear), precipitations of the driest quarter (Pdry), aridity index (aridity) and minimum temperature of the coldest months (Tmin) were included as supplementary variables (+).

determining tree death (Anderegg et al., 2016). However, embolism resistance was less strongly correlated with the aridity index of the site of origin in contradiction to a former study dealing with a range of Temperate to semi-arid grass species that showed a strong correlation between P_{50} and aridity (Lens et al., 2016). It would be interesting to test whether this interspecific correlation would hold when including herbaceous species from the highest latitudes. In D. glomerata, Northern populations showed a trend to more negative P_{50} values than Temperate populations and are more frost tolerant, suggesting that the Northern populations could have also developed greater embolism resistance as a mechanism of frost tolerance (Lens et al., 2013). Both drought and freezing-thawing of stems induce a loss of hydraulic conductivity in woody plants (Feng et al., 2015). Frost 'drought' had a large effect on plant water transport, adaptations in hydraulic safety and related anatomical parameters (Mayr et al., 2006), and the propensity for freeze-induced embolism increases as the conduit diameter increases (Zanne et al., 2014). The relationships between recovery from winter embolism and anatomical vessel traits also varied according to functional groups of tree species (Niu *et al.*, 2017). The role of hydraulic dysfunction under frost remains to be explored in herbaceous species.

Tissue lignification and embolism resistance

In pseudostems, partly constituted with leaf sheaths, we found a strong positive correlation between the thickness of the metaxylem vessel wall and embolism resistance, while lignification characters are not correlated with P_{50} or P_{88} . Despite a significant positive correlation (Lens *et al.*, 2016) between embolism resistance and stem lignification amongst 19 grass species (in terms of the thickness of the fibre walls and the relative proportion of lignified tissue per stem area), this trade-off is lacking within populations of *D. glomerata*. This lack of correlation is noteworthy given the huge range in P_{50} variation within cocksfoot. There are slight indications that stem lignification may contribute to differences in embolism resistance. For instance, Fig. 6A and B shows that the proportion of

lignified area per stem area clusters with other key traits for the embolism-resistant Mediterranean populations. Furthermore, the two most resistant Mediterranean populations have more lignified fibres inside and surrounding the vascular bundles (Supplementary Data Fig. S2) compared with the other cocksfoot populations studied. However, this character is difficult to quantify and seemingly shows random variation amongst the remaining populations. Since we have sectioned internodes, we had to restrict ourselves to measurements of solitary vessels. It is plausible that our observations also reflect a correlation between more negative P_{50}/P_{88} values and increased intervessel wall thickness compared with vessel diameter (so-called thickness to span ratio) in the case of vessel multiples that occur much more in the nodal parts of the stem. Vessel wall reinforcement was suggested to be required for embolism resistance in order to prevent wall implosion when xylem pressure is very negative (Hacke et al., 2001). However, vessels have never been observed to implode in stems, probably because embolism events occur before the critical vessel implosion threshold is reached. Whatever the exact mechanism(s) operating during xylem embolism dysfunction in D. glomerata, it appears that plants with more fracture-resistant leaves have stems that are more resistant to embolism than plants with less resistant leaves. In addition possibly to reducing the probability of lethal embolism (Hacke and Sperry, 2001), mechanically robust leaf architecture will also play a role in mechanically supporting water-stressed leaves and protecting leaf meristems, as discussed below. This perhaps at least partly explains the tendency towards narrower, more compact, denser, tougher leaves in the Mediterranean ecotypes that are more likely to be exposed to more drought conditions. Of course leaf lamina traits are anatomically and functionally graded into the more proximal leaf sheath (Bell, 1991) which is also important for mechanical robustness and resistance to dehydration of the self-supporting meristems of D. glomerata.

Drought survival in perennial herbaceous species: hydraulic leaf traits may not be crucial

A general tenet of ecophysiology of drought adaptation is based on the assumption of a strong linkage between hydraulic and stomatal traits especially in woody species (Skelton et al., 2015; Bartlett et al., 2016) and also in herbaceous species (Holloway-Phillips and Brodribb, 2011; Nardini et al., 2012; Lens et al., 2016). Regarding the extreme case of drought plant mortality in both annual and perennial grasses, basal leaf meristems are the tissues surviving longer and able to regenerate when the mature blades are dead (Van Peer et al., 2004). These leaf meristems enclosed in mature leaf sheaths are protected from intense evaporation and can survive more intense water deficits than older tissues (Munns et al., 1979; Barlow et al., 1980). As they accumulate carbohydrates such as fructans (Schnyder and Nelson, 1989; Volaire et al., 1998), apices exhibit the greatest osmotic adjustment relative to other tissues during drought (Matsuda and Riazi, 1981; West et al., 1990). In addition, the strategy of summer dormancy (Volaire and Norton, 2006; Gillespie and Volaire, 2017) found in some species and populations of perennial species triggers leaf senescence and meristem dehydration to reduce plant metabolism

and consequently enhance drought survival. Our results show that the Mediterranean populations of *D. glomerata* which are the most summer dormant, 'sacrifice' their lamina in summer (irrespective of the water supply) but also have the highest embolism resistance and dehydration tolerance. In frost-prone areas too, perennial herbaceous species avoid freezing by senescing above-ground tissues and overwintering as underground storage organs (Zanne et al., 2014). For dehydration tolerance under frost or drought (Gillespie and Volaire, 2017). these model species can then raise the relevance of the paradigm of hydraulic safety margins in leaves for stress survival. The leaf (lamina)-level drought tolerance (Nardini and Luglio, 2014; Ocheltree et al., 2016) may not be the key level to explore drought survival in all species. However, studies linking hydraulic conductivity and lamina anatomy (Scoffoni et al., 2017) could be fruitful provided they take into account the continuum between expanded blades, sheaths and meristematic tissues. The co-variation between hydraulic traits and anatomical traits in meristems but also in root tissues should be explored further in grasses.

In conclusion, this study investigated dehydration survival amongst 12 populations of D. glomerata from a latitudinal gradient from Mediterranean to Scandinavian areas, representing only a restricted range of its much larger biogeographical distribution. Dactylis glomerata represents an 'ideal' species for analysing the genotype \times environment interactions because its biogeographical distribution is huge and spans over Europe and Asia (Borrill, 1991), and its phylogenetic relationships between populations are being investigated and show high genetic variation within both populations and geographical origins (Lumaret, 1988; Xie et al., 2010). Compared with woody species, the large degree of intraspecific variability in dehydration tolerance and embolism resistance within cocksfoot has consequences for its sensitivity to climate shifts, possible migrations and future biogeographical distribution (Anderegg, 2015). In addition, given that the measurement of plant drought survival is experimentally difficult to standardize, our study demonstrating the key role of embolism threshold and tissue lignification as proxy for dehydration tolerance provides highly relevant knowledge to screen genetic resources and new breeding material.

Finally, this study calls for extending the numerous studies on mortality factors and lethal embolism thresholds in woody species to a large range of herbaceous species, at both inter- and intraspecific levels, under contrasting environmental constraints.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available online at https://academic. oup.com/aob and consist of the following. Figure S1: S curves for determination of embolism resistance in cocksfoot. Figure S2: overview of the stem anatomy of the 12 populations of *Dactylis glomerata* and P_{88} (MPa).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Pascal Chapon and Mathieu Ogier for excellent technical assistance, the 'Terrain d'expérience platform' and the 'Plateforme d'Analyses Chimiques en Ecologie' both at CEFE-CNRS (Labex CEMEB). We also thank Mark Norton, Jeffrey Clary, Rajae Kallida, N. Shaimi, A. Palmé, S. Fourtier, B. Reid, G. Test, and V. Copani, for providing seeds. This study was supported by the European Research Council (ERC) Starting Grant Project 'Ecophysiological and biophysical constraints on domestication in crop plants' [grant ERC-StG-2014-639706-CONSTRAINTS], and by the Agence National de la Recherche [PRAISE project, ANR-13-BIOADAPT-0015]. P.B. was financially supported by INRA (EA department).

LITERATURE CITED

- Alder NN, Pockman WT, Sperry JS, Nuismer S. 1997. Use of centrifugal force in the study of xylem cavitation. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 48: 665–674.
- Allen CD, Macalady AK, Chenchouni H, et al. 2010. A global overview of drought and heat-induced tree mortality reveals emerging climate change risks for forests. *Forest Ecology and Management* 259: 660–684.
- Anderegg WRL. 2015. Spatial and temporal variation in plant hydraulic traits and their relevance for climate change impacts on vegetation. *New Phytologist* 205: 1008–1014.
- Anderegg WRL, Kane JM, Anderegg LDL. 2013. Consequences of widespread tree mortality triggered by drought and temperature stress. *Nature Climate Change* 3: 30–36.
- Anderegg WRL, Klein T, Bartlett M, et al. 2016. Meta-analysis reveals that hydraulic traits explain cross-species patterns of drought-induced tree mortality across the globe. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 113: 5024–5029.
- Ang KY, Lucas PW, Tan HTW. 2008. Novel way of measuring the fracture toughness of leaves and other thin films using a single inclined razor blade. *New Phytologist* 177: 830–837.
- Aranwela N, Sanson G, Read J. 1999. Methods of assessing leaf fracture properties. *New Phytologist* 144: 369–383.
- Barkaoui K, Roumet C, Volaire F. 2016. Mean root trait more than root trait diversity determines drought resilience in native and cultivated Mediterranean grass mixtures. Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 231: 122–132.
- Barlow EWR, Munns RE, Brady DJ. 1980. Drought responses of apical meristems. In: Turner NC, Kramer PJ, eds. Adaptation of plants to water and high temperature stress. New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, 191–205.
- Bartlett M, Klein T, Jansen S, Choat B, Sack L. 2016. The correlations and sequence of plant stomatal, hydraulic and wilting responses to drought. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 113: 13098–13103.
 Bell A. 1991. *Plant form.* Portland, OR: Timber Press.
- **Borrill M. 1991.** Evolution and genetic resources in cocksfoot. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers.
- Brendel O, Cochard H. 2011. How plant species cope with water stress. In: Birot Y, Gracia C, Palahi M, eds. Water for forest and people in the Mediterranean: a challenging balance. Joensuu, Finland: European Forest Institute, 76–80.
- Brookshire ENJ, Weaver T. 2015. Long-term decline in grassland productivity driven by increasing dryness. *Nature Communications* 6: 7148. doi: 10.1038/ncomms8148.
- Ciais P, Reichstein M, Viovy N, et al. 2005. Europe-wide reduction in primary productivity caused by the heat and drought in 2003. Nature 437: 529–533.
- Craine JM, Ocheltree TW, Nippert JB, et al. 2013. Global diversity of drought tolerance and grassland climate-change resilience. Nature Climate Change 3: 63–67.
- Feng F, Ding F, Tyree MT. 2015. Investigations concerning cavitation and frost fatigue in clonal 84K poplar using high-resolution cavitron measurements. *Plant Physiology* 168: 144–155.
- Garnier E, Laurent G. 1994. Leaf anatomy, specific mass and water-content in congeneric annual and perennial grass species. *New Phytologist* 128: 725–736.
- Garnier E, Shipley B, Roumet C, Laurent G. 2001. A standardized protocol for the determination of specific leaf area and leaf dry matter content. *Functional Ecology* 15: 688–695.
- Gillespie L, Volaire F. 2017. Are winter and summer dormancy symmetrical seasonal adaptive strategies? The case of temperate herbaceous perennials. *Annals of Botany* 119: 311–323.

- Griffin PC, Hoffmann AA. 2012. Mortality of Australian alpine grasses (Poa spp.) after drought: species differences and ecological patterns. *Journal of Plant Ecology* 5: 121–133.
- Hacke U, Sperry J. 2001. Functional and ecological xylem anatomy. Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics 4: 97–115.
- Hacke UG, Sperry JS, Pockman WT, Davis SD, McCulloch KA. 2001. Trends in wood density and structure are linked to prevention of xylem implosion by negative pressure. *Oecologia*, 126: 457–461.
- Hamann TD, Smets E, Lens F. 2011. A comparison of paraffin and resinbased techniques used in bark anatomy. *Taxon* 60: 841–851.
- Herbette S, Wortemann R, Awad H, Huc R, Cochard H, Barigah TS. 2010. Insights into xylem vulnerability to cavitation in *Fagus sylvatica* L.: phenotypic and environmental sources of variability. *Tree Physiology* 30: 1448–1455.
- Hijmans RJ, Cameron SE, Parra JL, Jones PG, Jarvis A. 2005. Very high resolution interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology* 25: 1965–1978.
- Hodgkinson KC, Muller WJ. 2005. Death model for tussock perennial grasses: a rainfall threshold for survival and evidence for landscape control of death in drought. *Rangeland Journal* 27: 105–115.
- Hodgson D, McDonald JL, Hosken DJ. 2015. What do you mean, 'resilient'? Trends in Ecology and Evolution 30: 503–506.
- Holloway-Phillips MM, Brodribb TJ. 2011. Minimum hydraulic safety leads to maximum water-use efficiency in a forage grass. *Plant, Cell and Environment* 34: 302–313.
- Hoover DL, Knapp AK, Smith MD. 2014. Resistance and resilience of a grassland ecosystem to climate extremes. *Ecology* 95: 2646–2656.
- IPCC. 2014. International Panel of Climatic changes. Fifth assessment report (AR5). https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/
- Lamy JB, Bouffier L, Burlett R, Plomion C, Cochard H, Delzon S. 2011. Uniform selection as a primary force reducing population genetic differentiation of cavitation resistance across a species range. *PLoS One* 6: e23476. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0023476.
- Lamy JB, Delzon S, Bouche PS, et al. 2014. Limited genetic variability and phenotypic plasticity detected for cavitation resistance in a Mediterranean pine. New Phytologist 201: 874–886.
- Lens F, Tixier A, Cochard H, Sperry JS, Jansen S, Herbette S. 2013. Embolism resistance as a key mechanism to understand adaptive plant strategies. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* 16: 287–292.
- Larter M, Brodribb TJ, Pfautsch S, Burlett R, Cochard H, Delzon S. 2015. Extreme aridity pushes trees to their physical limits. *Plant Physiology* 168: 804–+.
- Lens F, Picon-Cochard C, Delmas C, et al. 2016. Herbaceous angiosperms are not more vulnerable to drought-induced embolism than angiosperm trees. Plant Physiology 172: 661–667.
- Lopez R, Cano FJ, Choat B, Cochard H, Gil L. 2016. Plasticity in vulnerability to cavitation of *Pinus canariensis* occurs only at the driest end of an aridity gradient. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 7: 769. doi: 10.3389/ fpls.2016.00769.
- Lumaret R. 1988. Cytology, genetics, and evolution in the genus Dactylis. Critical Reviews in Plant Sciences 7: 55–91.
- Martinez-Vilalta J, Cochard H, Mencuccini M, et al. 2009. Hydraulic adjustment of Scots pine across Europe. New Phytologist 184: 353–364.
- Matsuda K, Riazi A. 1981. Stress-induced osmotic adjustment in growing regions of barley leaves. *Plant Physiology* 68: 571–576.
- Mayr S, Hacke U, Schmid P, Schwienbacher F, Gruber A. 2006. Frost drought in conifers at the alpine timberline: xylem dysfunction and adaptations. *Ecology* 87: 3175–3185.
- McDowell N, Pockman WT, Allen CD, et al. 2008. Mechanisms of plant survival and mortality during drought: why do some plants survive while others succumb to drought? New Phytologist 178: 719–739.
- McDowell NG, Fisher RA, Xu CG, et al. 2013. Evaluating theories of droughtinduced vegetation mortality using a multimodel-experiment framework. *New Phytologist* 200: 304–321.
- Moran MS, Ponce-Campos GE, Huete A, et al. 2014. Functional response of U.S. grasslands to the early 21st-century drought. Ecology 95: 2121–2133.
- Munns R, Brady CJ, Barlow EWR. 1979. Solute accumulation in the apex and leaves of wheat during water-stress. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology* 6: 379–389.
- Nardini A, Luglio J. 2014. Leaf hydraulic capacity and drought vulnerability: possible trade-offs and correlations with climate across three major biomes. *Functional Ecology* 28: 810–818.

- Nardini A, Peda G, La Rocca N. 2012. Trade-offs between leaf hydraulic capacity and drought vulnerability: morpho-anatomical bases, carbon costs and ecological consequences. *New Phytologist* 196: 788–798.
- Nimmo DG, MacNally R, Cunningham SC, et al. 2015. Vive la resistance: reviving resistance for 21st century conservation. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 30: 516–523.
- Niu C-Y, Meinzer FC, Hao G-Y. 2017. Divergence in strategies for coping with winter embolism among co-occurring temperate tree species: the role of positive xylem pressure, wood type and tree stature. *Functional Ecology* 31: 1550–1560.
- Nolf M, Pagitz K, Mayr S. 2014. Physiological acclimation to drought stress in Solidago canadensis. Physiologia Plantarum 150: 529–539.
- Ocheltree TW, Nippert JB, Prasad PVV. 2016. A safety vs efficiency trade-off identified in the hydraulic pathway of grass leaves is decoupled from photosynthesis, stomatal conductance and precipitation. *New Phytologist* 210: 97–107.
- Ogasa M, Miki NH, Murakami Y, Yoshikawa K. 2013. Recovery performance in xylem hydraulic conductivity is correlated with cavitation resistance for temperate deciduous tree species. *Tree Physiology* 33: 335–344.
- Onoda Y, Westoby M, Adler P, et al. 2011. Global patterns of leaf mechanical properties. Ecology Letters 14: 301–312.
- Orlowsky B, Seneviratne SI. 2012. Global changes in extreme events: regional and seasonal dimension. *Climatic Change* 110: 669–696.
- Pammenter NW, Vander Willigen C. 1998. A mathematical and statistical analysis of the curves illustrating vulnerability of xylem to cavitation. *Tree Physiology* 18: 589–593.
- Perez-Harguindeguy N, Diaz S, Garnier E, et al. 2013. New handbook for standardised measurement of plant functional traits worldwide. Australian Journal of Botany 61: 167–234.
- Pérez-Ramos IM, Volaire F, Fattet M, Blanchard A, Roumet C. 2013. Tradeoffs between functional strategies for resource-use and droughtsurvival in Mediterranean rangeland species. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* 87: 126–136.
- Pilgrim ES, Macleod CJA, Blackwell MSA, et al. 2010. Interactions among agricultural production and other ecosystem services delivered from European temperate grassland systems. Advances in Agronomy 109: 117–154.
- Pivovaroff AL, Pasquini S, De Guzman ME, Alstad KP, Stemke JS, Santiago LS. 2015. Multiple strategies for drought survival among woody plant species. *Functional Ecology* 30: 1–10.
- Poirier M, Durand JL, Volaire F. 2012. Persistence and production of perennial grasses under water deficits and extreme temperatures: importance of intraspecific vs. interspecific variability. *Global Change Biology* 18: 3632–3646.
- Russo SE, Jenkins KL, Wiser SK, Uriarte M, Duncan RP, Coomes DA. 2010. Interspecific relationships among growth, mortality and xylem traits of woody species from New Zealand. *Functional Ecology* 24: 253–262.
- Schnyder H, Nelson CJ. 1989. Growth rates and assimilate partitioning in the elongation zone of tall fescuue leaf blades at high and low irradiance. *Plant Physiology* 90: 1201–1206.
- Scholz FG, Bucci SJ, Arias N, Meinzer FC, Goldstein G. 2012. Osmotic and elastic adjustments in cold desert shrubs differing in rooting depth: coping with drought and subzero temperatures. *Oecologia* 170: 885–897.
- Scoffoni C, Albuquerque C, Brodersen CR, et al. 2017. Leaf vein xylem conduit diameter influences susceptibility to embolism and hydraulic decline. New Phytologist 213: 1076–1092.
- Seneviratne SI, Donat MG, Mueller B, Alexander LV. 2014. No pause in the increase of hot temperature extremes. *Nature Climate Change* 4: 320–320.
- Shipley B, Vu TT. 2002. Dry matter content as a measure of dry matter concentration in plants and their parts. New Phytologist 153: 359–364.

- Skelton RP, West AG, Dawson TE. 2015. Predicting plant vulnerability to drought in biodiverse regions using functional traits. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, USA 112: 5744–5749.
- Smith MD. 2011. The ecological role of climate extremes: current understanding and future prospects. *Journal of Ecology* 99: 651–655.
- Sperry JS, Nichols KL, Sullivan JEM, Eastlack SE. 1994. Xylem embolism in ring-porous, diffuse-porous, and coniferous trees of northern Utah and interior Alaska. *Ecology* 75: 1736–1752.
- Tixier A, Cochard H, Badel E, Dusotoit-Coucaud A, Jansen S, Herbette S. 2013. Arabidopsis thaliana as a model species for xylem hydraulics: does size matter? Journal of Experimental Botany 64: 2295–2305.
- Trabucco A, Zomer RJ, Bossio DA, van Straaten O, Verchot LV. 2008. Climate change mitigation through afforestation/reforestation: a global analysis of hydrologic impacts with four case studies. Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 126: 81–97.
- Urli M, Porte AJ, Cochard H, Guengant Y, Burlett R, Delzon S. 2013. Xylem embolism threshold for catastrophic hydraulic failure in angiosperm trees. *Tree Physiology* 33: 672–683.
- Van Peer L, Nijs I, Bogaert J, Verelst I, Reheul D. 2001. Survival, gap formation, and recovery dynamics, in grassland ecosystems exposed to heat extremes: the role of species richness. *Ecosystems* 4: 797–806.
- Van Peer L, Nijs I, Reheul D, De Cauwer B. 2004. Species richness and susceptibility to heat and drought extremes in synthesized grassland ecosystems: compositional vs physiological effects. *Functional Ecology* 18: 769–778.
- Volaire F. 2008. Plant traits and functional types to characterise drought survival of pluri-specific perennial herbaceous swards in Mediterranean areas. *European Journal of Agronomy* 29: 116–124.
- Volaire F. 2018. A unified framework for plant drought adaptive strategies: across scales and disciplines. *Global Change Biology* (in press).
- Volaire F, Lelievre F. 2001. Drought survival in *Dactylis glomerata* and *Festuca arundinacea* under similar rooting conditions in tubes. *Plant and Soil* 229: 225–234.
- Volaire F, Norton M. 2006. Summer dormancy in perennial temperate grasses. Annals of Botany 98: 927–933.
- Volaire F, Thomas H, Bertagne N, Bourgeois E, Gautier MF, Lelievre F. 1998. Survival and recovery of perennial forage grasses under prolonged Mediterranean drought: water status, solute accumulation, abscisic acid concentration and accumulation of dehydrin transcripts in bases of immature leaves. New Phytologist 140: 451–460.
- Volaire F, Seddaiu G, Ledda L, Lelievre F. 2009. Water deficit and induction of summer dormancy in perennial Mediterranean grasses. *Annals of Botany* 103: 1337–1346.
- West CP, Oosterhuis DM, Wullschleger SD. 1990. Osmotic adjustment in tissues of tall fescue in response to water deficit. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* 30: 149–156.
- Wortemann R, Herbette S, Barigah TS, et al. 2011. Genotypic variability and phenotypic plasticity of cavitation resistance in *Fagus sylvatica* L. across Europe. *Tree Physiology* 31: 1175–1182.
- Xie WG, Zhang XQ, Ma X, et al. 2010. Diversity comparison and phylogenetic relationships of cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata* L.) germplasm as revealed by SSR markers. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 90: 13–21.
- Zanne AE, Tank DC, Cornwell WK, *et al.* 2014. Three keys to the radiation of angiosperms into freezing environments. *Nature* 506: 89–92.
- Zwicke M, Picon-Cochard C, Morvan-Bertrand A, Prud'homme M, Volaire F. 2015. What functional strategies drive drought survival and recovery of perennial species from upland grassland? *Annals of Botany* 116: 1001–1015.