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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Acclimation limits for embolism resistance and osmotic adjustment accompany the geographical dry edge of Mediterranean species

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## Abstract

- Survival and growth of woody species in the Mediterranean are mainly restricted by water availability. We tested the hypothesis that Mediterranean species acclimate their xylem vulnerability and osmotic potential along a precipitation gradient.
- We studied five predominant co-occurring Mediterranean species; *Quercus calliprinos*, *Pistacia palaestina*, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Rhamnus lycioides* and *Phillyrea latifolia*, over two summers at three sites. The driest of the sites is the distribution edge for all the five species. We measured key hydraulic and osmotic traits related to drought resistance, including resistance to embolism ( $\Psi_{50}$ ) and the seasonal dynamics of water and osmotic potentials.
- The leaf water potentials ( $\Psi_l$ ) of all species declined significantly along the summer, reaching significantly lower  $\Psi_l$  at the end of summer in the drier sites. Surprisingly, we did not find plasticity along the drought gradient in  $\Psi_{50}$  or osmotic potentials. This resulted in much narrower hydraulic safety margins (HSMs) in the drier sites, where some species experienced significant embolism.
- Our analysis indicates that reduction in HSM to null values put Mediterranean species in embolism risk as they approach their hydraulic limit near the geographical dry edge of their distribution.

## KEYWORDS

climate change, drought resistance, hydraulic failure, hydraulic safety margins, osmotic adjustment, tree hydraulics

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## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Drought is projected to increase in intensity and duration in many regions world-wide, including the Mediterranean (Spinoni et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019), a hot spot for biodiversity (Myers et al., 2000). The current massive tree mortality in parts of the region is a major cause of concern for the extinction of native species (Cramer et al., 2018; García de la Serrana et al., 2015). Deciphering drought-resistance strategies and their limitations in Mediterranean woody species is crucial for understanding changes in structure and function of plant communities threatened by climate change and will help improve forests and woodlands' sustainable management programs (Trumbore et al., 2015).

The various strategies used by woody species to cope with drought stress can be divided into three categories; escape, avoidance and tolerance (Delzon, 2015; Voltaire, 2018). Escape is the temporary shedding of leaves and branches through which water is lost. Avoidance actively minimizes water loss by stomatal closure or increasing water uptake through deep roots. Tolerance maintains physiological functionality during water loss, mainly by increased xylem resistance to embolism and osmotic adjustment to prevent turgor loss at the cell level. Woody species vary in their strategies to cope with drought, especially under natural conditions of prolonged and severe drought. Therefore, field studies of natural populations for a wide range of species and traits and along aridity gradients are necessary.

Drought can lead to embolism, a process that occurs via cavitation events in the xylem and causes hydraulic dysfunction by disrupting water conduction in the xylem (Tyree & Zimmermann, 1983). Embolism resistance is often expressed as the value of xylem water potential ( $\Psi_x$ ) corresponding to 50 or 88 % loss of conductivity (PLC),  $\Psi_{50}$  and  $\Psi_{88}$  respectively (Tyree & Sperry, 1989). Embolism has been shown to be highly associated with tree mortality world-wide (Adams et al., 2017; Anderegg et al., 2016). The variation in embolism resistance between species is large, and it appears that species habitat dryness plays a substantial role in this variation (Choat et al., 2012; Delzon et al., 2010; Larter et al., 2017; Maherali et al., 2004; Skelton et al., 2018). As opposed to the large interspecific variation, it seems that intraspecific variation in resistance to embolism is limited. However, an analysis of 46 species suggests that significant intraspecific variation may occur (Anderegg, 2015).

Leaf water potential ( $\Psi_l$ ) is an indicator of plant water status. Predawn leaf  $\Psi$  ( $\Psi_{PD}$ ) is measured when the plant is in equilibrium with soil water and is a measure of the soil water availability as perceived by the plant.  $\Psi_{PD}$  is affected by drought severity and root depth (Nardini et al., 2016). The difference between either the  $\Psi_{12}$ ,  $\Psi_{50}$  or  $\Psi_{88}$  value and the minimum water potential observed in field conditions ( $\Psi_{min}$ ) is defined as the hydraulic safety margins (HSMs, Martin-StPaul et al., 2017; Meinzer et al., 2009). In order to keep wide HSMs, plants use their ability to minimize stomatal aperture, that is, a plastic response. A narrow HSM means proximity to thresholds with a risk of hydraulic failure. A meta-analysis showed that most plants that resist drought do so by stomatal closure at a

much higher water potential than that which causes hydraulic failure (Martin-StPaul et al., 2017), suggesting that species in nature avoid hydraulic failure by sacrificing photosynthesis (Creek et al., 2020; Johnson et al., 2011; Martin-StPaul et al., 2017; Meinzer et al., 2009).

Stomatal closure has been shown to be correlated with the cell turgor loss point (TLP, Bartlett et al., 2016; Martin-StPaul et al., 2017; Mencuccini et al., 2015). Plants may invest energy to reduce the cell TLP during dehydration to keep cells turgid. The water potential for TLP ( $\Psi_{TLP}$ ) can be reduced through increasing cell wall elasticity (reduced modulus of elasticity,  $\epsilon$ ; i.e. elastic adjustment), increasing the extracellular water content (increasing  $a_p$ ; i.e. apoplastic adjustment) and active accumulation of solutes (decreasing osmotic potential at full turgor,  $\Pi_0$ ; i.e. osmotic adjustment, Bartlett et al., 2012; Meinzer et al., 2014). While  $\Pi_0$  was found to reveal the plasticity of osmotic adjustment related to environmental changes in many species (Bartlett et al., 2012), evidence for a correlation of  $\epsilon$  with response to drought is limited (Meinzer et al., 2014).

Studies focusing on leaf traits of coexisting woody species in Mediterranean climates reveal variation in response to drought during the long rainless summer. In response to extreme drought, leaf defoliation was observed in *Juniperus phoenicea*, *Rosmarinus officinalis* and *Rhamnus lycioides* but not in four other coexisting species (Gazol et al., 2017). Dehydration avoidance via stomatal closure at the cost of low carbon assimilation was demonstrated by *Pinus nigra*, while neighbouring *Quercus ilex* and *Quercus faginea* showed dehydration tolerance via osmotic adjustment. The observed osmotic adjustment was more robust in the evergreen *Q. ilex* than in the semideciduous *Q. faginea*, explaining its better resistance to drought (Forner, Valladares, & Aranda, 2018). However, *Q. faginea* responded to intensified drought conditions with a more robust plastic stomatal response than *Q. ilex* (Forner, Valladares, Bonal, et al., 2018; Klein et al., 2013). Combined analysis of  $\Psi_{PD}$  and sap flow of five species allowed designating *Pinus halepensis*, *Pistacia lentiscus* and *Erica multiflora* as water savers versus *Quercus coccifera* and *Stipa tenacissima* as water spenders (Chirino et al., 2011).

The above studies imply interspecific differences in the plastic stomatal response or osmotic adjustment; however, resistance to embolism, a key trait in species resistance to drought, was missing from those studies. Pratt et al. (2007, 2012) found a large variation in resistance to embolism in Mediterranean climates among 19 fynbos species in South Africa and nine chaparral species of the Rhamnaceae in California. In a study conducting year-round measurements of resistance to embolism, water potential and  $\Psi_{TLP}$  in three coexisting species (Väänänen et al., 2020), it was found that *Phillyrea latifolia* tolerates drought via xylem resistance to embolism and osmotic adjustment, while coexisting *Pistacia lentiscus* and *Quercus calliprinos* avoid drought via stomatal regulation. However, these results did not explain the high mortality rate of *Q. calliprinos* compared to the other species, suggesting that an additional mechanism might occur in these coexisting species. This emphasizes the importance of evaluating a range of traits, species and aridity gradients to better represent each species' total traits repertoire used for drought resistance. Here, we tested the hypothesis that the hydraulic safety margins

(HSMs) of co-occurring species are preserved along an aridity gradient due to one or more of the plastic responses to drought, including resistance to embolism, stomatal closure and osmotic adjustment.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 | Sites and species

The steep climatic gradient in Israel is governed by Mediterranean weather patterns, characterized by long, dry summers and changes gradually from mesic Mediterranean to arid from north to south (Tielbörger et al., 2014). Three sites were chosen to represent mesic Mediterranean (MM), Mediterranean (M) and semi-arid (SA) climate conditions along the natural rainfall gradient (Table 1). The three sites were undisturbed for the last 40 years, and thus represent ecologically equilibrated environments. No licence or permit was needed to carry out the work. Climate data were taken from stations of the Israel Meteorological Service (IMS, [ims.gov.il](http://ims.gov.il)); station Michmanim for the MM site, station Ramat Hanadiv for the M site, and station Netiv HaLamed-Heh for the SA site. All sites were characterized by a prolonged summer–fall rainless dry period, from the end of April to October. Aridity indexes (mean annual precipitation divided by potential evapotranspiration) for the SA, M and MM sites are 0.27, 0.39 and 0.46 respectively. Site aridity was also reflected by differences in leaf carbon isotope ratio ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), which was measured in mature healthy sunlit leaves collected at the end of the dry period (August 2018) with a  $^{13}\text{C}$  cavity ring down analyser (G2131i, Picarro) as described by Nemera et al. (2020). Leaf intrinsic water-use efficiency (WUE<sub>i</sub>) was calculated using the species mean based on a leaf-scale model of C3 photosynthetic isotope discrimination (Farquhar et al., 1989):

$$\text{WUE}_i = \frac{C_a(b - \delta^{13}\text{C})}{1.6(b - a)}, \quad (1)$$

Where  $C_a$  is the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in PPM and  $a$  and  $b$  are fractionation factors occurring during diffusion of  $\text{CO}_2$  through stomata pores (4.4‰) and enzymatic carbon fixation by Rubisco plus a small component accounting for mesophyll conductance (27‰) respectively.

TABLE 1 Three selected sites with main geographical, edaphic and climatic characteristics.

Code site	AI <sup>a</sup>	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m)	MAP <sup>a</sup> (mm)	SMT <sup>a</sup> (°C)	WMT <sup>a</sup> (°C)	Soil type <sup>b</sup>
MM	0.46	32°54'N	35°20'E	430	700	30	10	TR
M	0.39	32°33'N	34°56'E	80	550	32	16	TR and R
SA	0.27	31°40'N	34°56'E	300	400	31	17	Bright and Brown R

<sup>a</sup>AI, Aridity index is the ratio of the annual precipitation and potential evapotranspiration. MAP, mean annual precipitation; SMT, Average maximum daily temperature in July; WMT, Average maximum daily temperature in January. Data for 1981–2000, provided by the Israel Meteorological Service.

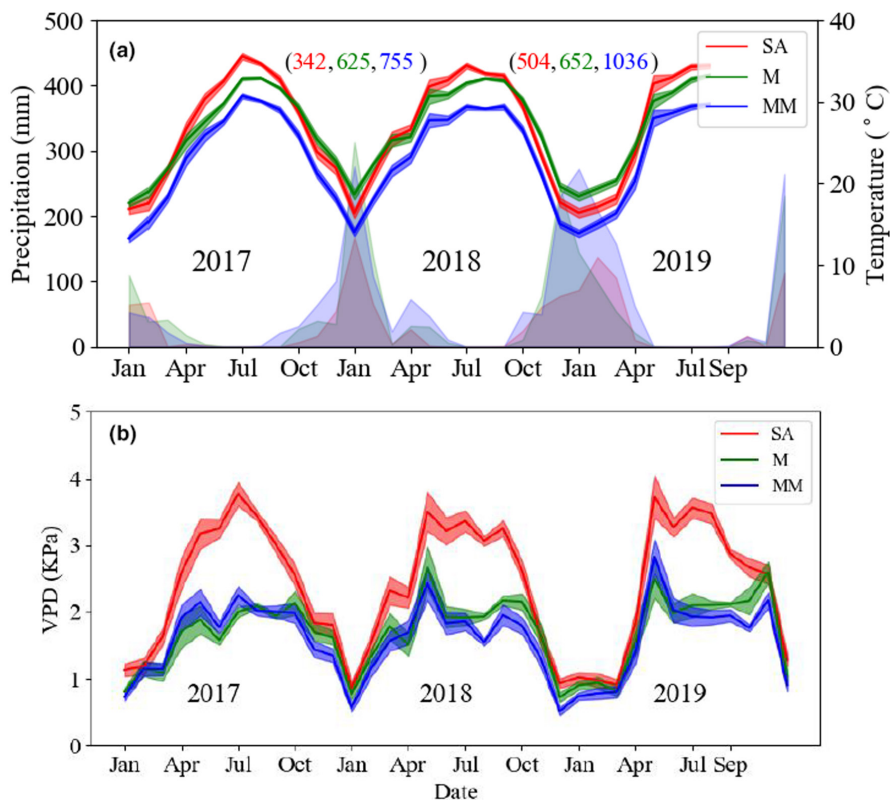
<sup>b</sup>Data taken from GIS site of Israel Agriculture office (<https://moag.maps.arcgis.com/>), TR and R correspond to Terra Rossa and Rendzina respectively.

Lower leaf  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in leaves that grew during the dry season at the more humid sites indicates that internal  $[\text{CO}_2]$  was higher there during photosynthesis, allowing more fractionation during carboxylation, which is indicative of more open stomata. Leaf  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  can also be taken a proxy for WUE<sub>i</sub>, which is the ratio between carbon assimilation and stomatal conductance (see Figure S1 in Supporting Information, Cernusak et al., 2013). The site influence on leaf  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was significant in the two-factorial ANOVA (see Table S1). Annual precipitation (from September to August) in 2017–2018 was 700, 624 and 337 mm, and in 2018–2019 was 1039, 651 and 504 mm at the MM, M and SA sites respectively. The average daily maximum temperature in July was 30°C, 32°C and 31°C at the MM, M and SA sites respectively (Figure 1a). Maximum VPD in the summer was 2.5, 3 and 4 kPa for the MM, M and SA sites respectively (Figure 1b). Soil types varied between the sites and the degree of clayey soil decreased from north to south. Five predominant native woody species were selected for the research (Table 2), which coexisted in 2500 square metre plots at each of the three research sites. The SA site is close to the dry southern limit of the Mediterranean zone and the studied species (see Figure S2, Danin & Plitmann, 1987).

For all trait measurements described below, samples were taken from specific five labelled individuals per species at each site, unless otherwise stated.

### 2.2 | Hydraulic vulnerability measurements

Vulnerability curves (VCs) for per cent loss of conductivity (PLC) of stem samples as a function of water potential were measured in a Cavitron (Cochard et al., 2005). We have shown that different methods for PLC measurement can give significantly different PLC values, and therefore it is important to use the same method when doing comparative studies (David-Schwartz et al., 2016). In the current study, Cavitron measurements were done for all species except QC, which was not measured due to its long vessels (>30 cm, personal data). In addition, due to the growth characteristics at the study sites, it was impossible to find strait QC branches of 1 m long for measurements in a nonstandard Cavitron with a large rotor diameter. Thus, we measured the PLC values of *Quercus coccifera*, which is an evergreen oak that belongs to the subgenus *Quercus* section *Cerris* and is considered a subspecies of QC (Toumi & Lumaret, 2010). Two branches from three *Q. coccifera*



**FIGURE 1** Meteorological data from the three study sites. (a) Monthly average daily maximum temperature (line chart) and monthly precipitation (area chart). Numbers in brackets represent the cumulative precipitation for two consecutive winters (2017–2018 and 2018–2019, calculated from September to September) for the SA (red), M (green) and MM (blue) sites respectively. (b) Monthly average daily maximum vapour pressure deficit (VPD). Line shadow represents standard error.

Species	Code	Family	Life-form	Leaf phenology
<i>Quercus calliprinos</i>	QC	Fagaceae	Tree	Evergreen
<i>Pistacia palaestina</i>	PP	Anacardiaceae	Shrub/ Tree	Winter deciduous
<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>	PL	Anacardiaceae	Shrub	Evergreen
<i>Rhamnus lycioides</i>	RL	Rhamnaceae	Shrub	Partially drought deciduous
<i>Phillyrea latifolia</i>	PHL	Oleaceae	Shrub	Evergreen

**TABLE 2** Characteristics of species selected for the research.

individuals collected from a site near Avignon (French Mediterranean basin) were used for the PLC measurements.

To avoid native embolism in branches that were tested for VC and PLC, samples were collected from the three sites at the end of the rainy season (April 2018), when water potentials were less negative than  $-1.5$  MPa. Samples of RL at the MM site were not included in this analysis, as its branches were too short for the Cavitron. Two terminal branches (1 cm diameter and 100 cm in length) were harvested from the upper canopy of five to seven individuals of each species and were sent in overnight mail to France (to Bordeaux and Clermont-Ferrand). VCs were determined as previously described (Lamy et al., 2014). PLC was calculated every 1–2 MPa, following the equation:

$$PLC = 100 * \left( 1 - \frac{K}{K_{max}} \right). \quad (2)$$

The sigmoidal curve was fitted to the following equation (Pammenter & Van der Willigen, 1998):

$$PLC = \frac{100}{\left[ 1 + \exp\left(\frac{S}{25} * (\Psi - \Psi_{50})\right) \right]}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\Psi_{50}$  (MPa) is the xylem pressure inducing 50% loss of conductance and  $S$  (% MPa $^{-1}$ ) is the slope of the vulnerability curve at the inflection point. Predicted PLC ( $PLC_p$ ) was calculated according to the actual leaf water potential and Equation (2).

### 2.3 | Field measurements of water potential

Field campaigns were conducted monthly at all sites during the rainless period (May–September) in two consecutive years; 2018, where predawn and midday water potentials were measured ( $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$  respectively), and in 2019, where only  $\Psi_{MD}$  was measured. Twigs for  $\Psi_{PD}$  were taken at 4:30 am, while twigs for  $\Psi_{MD}$  were taken at 12:30 pm. The twigs were kept in sealed plastic bags in a dark cold container until measurements were taken after a couple of hours.

The measurements were made in a Scholander-type pressure chamber (PMS, Corvallis, OR, USA). The decline in  $\Psi_{MD}$  in relation to soil dehydration (as reflected by  $\Psi_{PD}$ ) was analysed according to Meinzer et al. (2016). Regression lines were calculated for all species for each site. Slopes, hydroscares (HS) (which is a metric of stomatal control based on the area between the 1:1 line and the regression slope) and  $\Psi_{g0}$  (extrapolated to find the value at which  $\Psi_{PD} = \Psi_{MD}$ ) were calculated from the above analysis both for different sites for each species and for each species separately at all sites included.  $\Psi_{min}$  was taken as the lowest value of measured midday water potential in the field. Hydraulic safety margins (HSMs) were calculated as  $\Psi_{min} - \Psi_x$ , where  $\Psi_x$  is the xylem pressure inducing 12, 50 or 88% loss of branch hydraulic conductivity.

## 2.4 | Osmotic potential

Seasonal change in osmotic potential was measured five times along the summer of 2019. For each leaf sample, both  $\Psi_{MD}$  and native osmotic potential ( $\Psi_s$ ) were concurrently measured. For full turgor osmotic potential ( $\Pi_0$ ) measurements, an additional shoot, harvested from each individual, was cut under water, rehydrated for 2 h, and measured in the pressure chamber to verify rehydration. For both cases ( $\Psi_s$  and  $\Pi_0$ ), samples were packed into 250  $\mu$ L tubes and were frozen in liquid nitrogen. Upon thawing, holes were drilled in the bottom of the frozen tubes, which were then put into other clean tubes that collected the liquid when centrifuged at 15000 RCF (g) for 2 min. Ten microlitres from each Osmolality (mmol) of the samples was assessed with a vapour pressure osmometer (VAPRO 5520 Wescor). Conversion to pressure units was done by Van't Hoff equation:

$$\Psi_x(\text{MPa}) = nRT / 10000, \quad (4)$$

in which  $n$  is the solute concentration in mol/L,  $R$  is the universal gas constant (8.314472 LbarK<sup>-1</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) and  $T$  is the temperature in °K. Temperature was taken as 25<sup>0</sup>; conversion ratio was 403.33 mmol/MPa.

$\Psi_s$  and  $\Pi_0$  were analysed by correlation with the  $\Psi_{MD}$  values, and by covariance analyses which were performed to test the influence of  $\Psi_{MD}$ , site and the interaction between  $\Psi_{MD}$  and site on  $\Psi_s$  and  $\Pi_0$ . Slope regression analysis of  $\Psi_s$  versus  $\Psi_{MD}$  is a proxy for the osmotic potential due to both solute concentration (reduced cell volume) and osmotic adjustment (OA, i.e. active solute accumulation), while slope regression analysis of  $\Pi_0$  versus  $\Psi_{MD}$  is a proxy for OA only (Turner, 2017, 2018).

## 2.5 | Species characterization by drought-resistance strategies

Tolerance, avoidance and escape were quantified as numbers between 0 and 1 (less to most respectively) for each species. Each

strategy was evaluated from the below measured parameters which were converted to normalized values (NVs) as follows:

$$NV = (x - \min) / (\max - \min), \quad (5)$$

where  $x$  is the measured value, and  $\min$  and  $\max$  are the minimum and maximum thresholds of each parameter, which are either based on the theoretical limit for the measured parameters as describes below or on known values from the literature.

'Tolerance' was calculated as the average of 'xylem tolerance' and 'osmoregulation'. Xylem tolerance was taken to be a normalized value of  $\Psi_{50}$ . Values for normalization were from 0 to -18 MPa, the latter being the most negative  $\Psi_{50}$  reported (Larter et al., 2015). 'Osmoregulation' was normalized from the slope of  $\Psi_{MD}$  versus  $\Pi_0$ . Values for normalization were from 0 to 1.

'Avoidance' was calculated as the average of 'water access' and 'Stringency of stomatal control'. 'Water access' was normalized from the minimum seasonal  $\Psi_{PD}$  at the SA site. Values for normalization were from 0 to -10 MPa. Normalized values were subtracted from 1. 'Stringency of stomatal control' was normalized from HS, calculated from  $\Psi_{PD}$  versus  $\Psi_{MD}$  according to Meinzer et al. (2016), where the full range of values was from 0 to 10 MPa. Normalized values were subtracted from 1.

'Escape' was the rank for 'Drought deciduous'. 'Drought deciduous' was evaluated from the literature (1, 0.5 and 0, refer to full-, partial- and nondeciduous respectively). Among the studied species, only RL is known to be partially drought deciduous (Gazol et al., 2017).

## 2.6 | Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey-Kramer post hoc test and graphs plotting were done using Python software (Python Software Foundation, packages; SCIPY and STATSMODEL). Two-way ANOVA, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances were done using JMP 14 software (SAS Institute Inc.). Hydraulic traits were compared over species and sites by two-way ANOVA. In addition, comparisons of sites by species with regard to  $\Psi_{MD}$  and  $\Psi_s / \Pi_0$  were performed by analysis of covariance with  $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$  as the covariate respectively. Comparison of species by site was done analogously. The Tukey-Kramer post hoc test was used to compare the results where applicable. In all cases, validity of ANOVA assumptions was tested using the model residuals. To test the hypothesis of equal variances in the relevant populations, we used the Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances, which is used for three or more independent samples, where a sample variance can be calculated for each sample (Zar, 1984). Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances was used to compare interspecific variation between means among sites and along the season within sites. The threshold for statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .



### 3 | RESULTS

#### 3.1 | Effect of environmental drought on hydraulic traits

##### 3.1.1 | Resistance to embolism

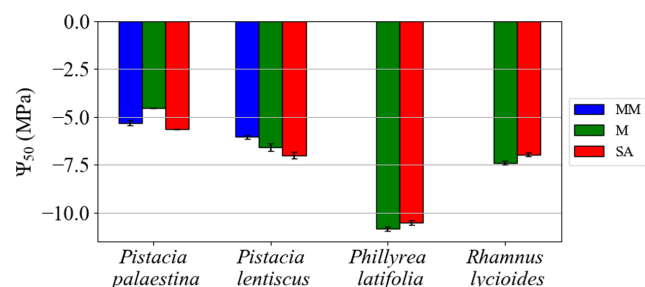
Large differences in resistance to embolism were found between species (Figure 2), with PHL demonstrated the most negative  $\Psi_{50}$  value ( $< -10$  MPa) followed by RL and PL, while PP showed the least negative value ( $\sim -5$  MPa). PLC curves of all species are provided as Supporting Information Figure S3. All parameters of vulnerability curves for resistance to embolism per species, including slope,  $\Psi_{12}$ ,  $\Psi_{50}$  and  $\Psi_{88}$ , were similar at the three sites (Figure 2, Table 3, Table S2), and were not influenced by the site, as shown by a two-factorial ANOVA (Table 3).

##### 3.1.2 | Leaf water potential

In each sampling along the dry season,  $\Psi_{PD}$  values for each of the species were the lowest in the drier site as compared to the wetter sites (Figure 3, Table 3 and Table S3). Interspecific variations in water potential were evidenced at each site, and at each measurement event (see Tables S4 and S5). PHL had the most negative  $\Psi_{PD}$ , followed by RL and PL, while QC and PP had the highest  $\Psi_{PD}$  values (Figure 3a–e). The  $\Psi_{min}$  was determined as the  $\Psi_{MD}$  found at the end of the dry season at the SA site.  $\Psi_{min}$  was significantly lower with increasing site aridity in both 2018 and 2019 (Table 3, Figure 3f,g). Two-factorial ANOVA showed that  $\Psi_{min}$  was affected by the species and site, and was affected by the interaction of species-on-site only in 2018 (Table 3). For QC and PHL minimum values were close to, but did not decline below  $\Psi_{12}$ , while for the other species minimum  $\Psi_{MD}$  values were significantly lower than  $\Psi_{12}$  (Figure 3).

##### 3.1.3 | HSM and PLCp

The HSM in 2018 was narrower at the SA site than at the M and MM sites for PL, PHL and RL, while QC and PP had narrower HSMs at the SA



**FIGURE 2**  $\Psi_{50}$  at the three sites (MM, mesic Mediterranean; M, Mediterranean; SA, semi-arid). *Quercus calliprinos* was not measured due to excessive vessel length. Differences between species were significant, but no significant differences were observed between sites. Error bars indicate standard error ( $n = 5-7$ ).

and M site in comparison to the MM site (Figure 4a,b, Table S2). These differences in HSM between the species were less prominent in 2019 (Figure 4d,e, Table S2), which was a wetter year (Table 3, Figure 1). Still, in both 2018 and 2019,  $HSM_{12}$  declined to negative values at the SA site for PP and RL (Figure 4a,d). These species demonstrated values of  $HSM_{50}$  less than 1 MPa at the SA site in 2018 (Figure 4b, Table S2). The predicted PLC (PLCp) of all species were positive in 2018 and in 2019, except for PHL, which demonstrated neglected PLCp values (Figure 4c,f).

##### 3.1.4 | Osmotic potential

Changes in solute potential ( $\Psi_s$ ) were significant for all the species along the dry season, linearly correlated with the decline in  $\Psi_{MD}$ , while a site effect was found only for PL (Figure 5a–e, Tables S6 and S7). Osmotic adjustment, that is, the seasonal decrease in  $\Pi_0$  differed substantially among species, being large in PHL and QC, minor in RL, negligible in PL and nonexistent in PP (Figure 5f–j, Tables S8–S10). Only QC, PHL and RL had a  $\Psi_{MD}$  effect on  $\Pi_0$ . There was a site effect on  $\Pi_0$  for PHL and PL, while no effect for the interaction of  $\Psi_{MD}$  with site was revealed for any of the species (see Table S9). The largest osmotic adjustment was observed for PHL, and ranged from  $-2$  to  $-5$  MPa along the dry season, with similar responses at all sites (Figure 5j). Osmotic adjustment for QC ranged from  $-2$  to  $-3$  MPa during the dry season, mostly at the M and SA sites (Figure 5f).

#### 3.2 | Interspecific variation

A comparison of the interspecific variation between means of  $\Psi_{PD}$  among sites using Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances, resulted in a significant difference ( $p = 0.026$ ) between sites at the beginning of the dry season. Interspecific variation was more pronounced at the SA site than at the M and MM sites (Table 4).

Species showed different evolution of  $\Psi_{PD}$  along the dry season, and reached different values at the end of the season (Figure 3a–e). In each site, the interspecific variation increased during the dry season, however, the increase was significant ( $p = 0.026$ ) only at the M site (Table 5). Slopes of  $\Psi_{PD}$  along the dry season were different between species in each site, while the higher value was that of RL and PHL, followed by PL, PP and QC (see Table S11).

#### 3.3 | The relationships between $\Psi_{PD}$ and $\Psi_{MD}$

Analysis of the relationships between  $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$  at the various sites for each species showed that the slopes at the drier sites (M and SA) were steeper than the slope at the MM site, except for QC and PHL (see Table S12). However, covariance analysis did not show significant differences between the slopes, except for PL (see Table S13). Hydroscape values for all species were larger at the SA site than at the two wetter sites except for PHL (Figure 3f–j, Table S12). Analysis, which includes the data from the various sites for each species, showed that slopes ranged

**TABLE 3** Two-factorial ANOVA of the effect of species, site and the interaction between site and species on all measured traits. For all embolism resistance parameters the two-factor analysis was done on four species (PL, PP, PHL and RL) for two sites (M and SA). For the other parameters, analysis was done on four species (QC, PL, PP and PHL) for three sites. Bold *p* values indicate statistically significant result.

Trait	Species	Site	Species*site
$\Psi_{50}$	$F(3,19) = 84.5056$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(1,19) = 0.4501$ , $p = 0.508$	$F(3,19) = 1.4025$ , $p = 0.2636$
$\Psi_{12}$	$F(3,19) = 17.4657$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(1,19) = 0.0105$ , $p = 0.919$	$F(3,19) = 0.6733$ , $p = 0.5759$
$\Psi_{88}$	$F(3,19) = 27.4226$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(1,19) = 0.719$ , $p = 0.4039$	$F(3,19) = 0.1714$ , $p = 0.9148$
Slope	$F(3,15) = 0.6424$ , $p = 0.5944$	$F(1,15) = 0.0095$ , $p = 0.9229$	$F(3,15) = 0.9251$ , $p = 0.442$
$\Psi_{min}$ (2018)	$F(3,75) = 84.7131$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,75) = 68.5311$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,75) = 4.9622$ , <b><math>p = 0.0003</math></b>
$\Psi_{min}$ (2019)	$F(3,39) = 92.7639$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,39) = 19.4777$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,39) = 2.0137$ , $p = 0.087$
Leaf $\delta^{13}C$ / WUEi	$F(3,33) = 2.4531$ , $p = 0.0806$	$F(2,33) = 22.3469$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,33) = 1.3517$ , $p = 0.2629$
PLCp (2018)	$F(3,75) = 61.1677$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,75) = 13.0761$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,75) = 8.4556$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>
PLCp (2019)	$F(3,39) = 62.9183$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,39) = 9.6769$ , <b><math>p = 0.0004</math></b>	$F(6,39) = 6.3173$ , <b><math>p = 0.0001</math></b>
HSM <sub>12</sub> (2018)	$F(3,75) = 109.954$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,75) = 57.7828$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,75) = 10.5175$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>
HSM <sub>12</sub> (2019)	$F(3,75) = 110.3402$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,75) = 48.928$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,75) = 10.6456$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>
HSM <sub>50</sub> (2018)	$F(3,75) = 111.7792$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,75) = 40.8695$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,75) = 11.3523$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>
HSM <sub>50</sub> (2019)	$F(3,39) = 87.4207$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,39) = 17.8401$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,39) = 5.0945$ , <b><math>p = 0.0006</math></b>
HSM <sub>88</sub> (2018)	$F(3,39) = 88.1662$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,39) = 14.9253$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,39) = 5.0271$ , <b><math>p = 0.0007</math></b>
HSM <sub>88</sub> (2019)	$F(3,39) = 89.8414$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,39) = 12.7135$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,39) = 5.5257$ , <b><math>p = 0.0003</math></b>
$\Psi_{PD}$ (Sep_2018)	$F(3,74) = 73.7787$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,74) = 39.6804$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,74) = 2.3523$ , <b><math>p = 0.0391</math></b>
$\Psi_{PD}$ (May_2018)	$F(3,32) = 17.1726$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,32) = 85.8451$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(6,32) = 21.302$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>
$\Psi_5$ (June 2019)	$F(3,11) = 10.7141$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,11) = 0.3355$ , $p = 0.7179$	$F(6,11) = 1.8519$ , $p = 0.1263$
$\Pi_0$ (June 2019)	$F(3,11) = 21.5185$ , <b><math>p &lt; 0.0001</math></b>	$F(2,11) = 7.5033$ , <b><math>p = 0.0033</math></b>	$F(6,11) = 4.9563$ , <b><math>p = 0.0024</math></b>

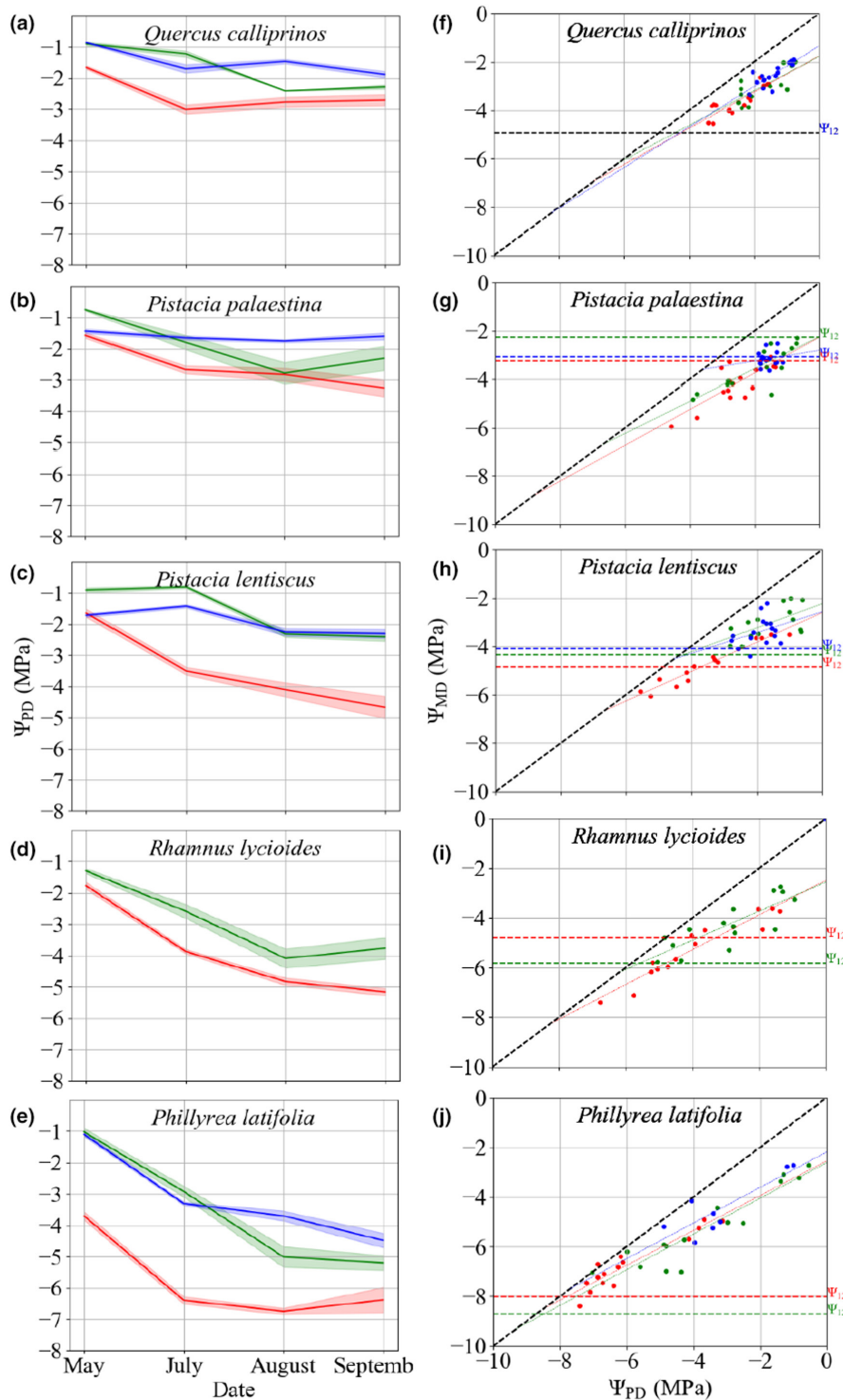
from 0.83 for QC to 0.68 for RL (see Table S14). For QC and PP, the extrapolated values were several MPa lower than the lowest data points, -8.9 and -8.7 MPa respectively. However, for PHL, RL and PL the lowest points were close to the regression values at equality, -8.7, -7.6 and -7.1 MPa respectively. Hydroscape values were 10.7, 9.15, 7.31, 6.31 and 3.52 MPa<sup>2</sup>, for RL, PHL, PL, PP and QC respectively (see Table S14).

### 3.4 | Species characterization by drought-resistance strategies

The results described above allowed the assessment of drought-resistance strategies for each of the studied species (Figure 6).

That was achieved by quantifying tolerance, avoidance and escape strategies, as described in the Material and Methods (see Table S15). Thus, we found that extreme resistance to embolism confers tolerance in PHL, which also uses osmotic adjustment to resist drought. Osmotic adjustment is a major trait in QC, which probably has deep roots to access water, supporting its stomatal opening during drought. PL and RL do not show osmotic adjustment but have intermediate values of resistance to embolism and almost complete stomatal closure in severe drought. PP has relatively low resistance to embolism and no osmotic adjustment, but its continued water uptake along the dry season suggests it has deep roots. RL is known to escape drought by partial leaf defoliation (Gazol et al., 2017).





**FIGURE 3** Leaf water potential values during the dry season of 2018 at the mesic Mediterranean (blue), Mediterranean (green) and semi-arid (red) study sites. (a–e) Courses of predawn leaf water potential for each species. Line shadow represents standard error. (f–j), Midday water potential ( $\Psi_{MD}$ ) versus predawn water potential ( $\Psi_{PD}$ ) for all species during the dry season. Each point on a plot is the average of two twigs. Regression parameters can be found in Table S12. Thick dashed black line represents 1:1 ratio. The thin coloured lines are the regressions of all points of each site from which HS were calculated. Horizontal dashed lines indicate the point of incipient embolism ( $\Psi_{12}$ ) values for the MM (blue), M (green) and SA (red) sites. Horizontal dashed black line in f indicates the point of incipient embolism based on *Q. coccifera* data (see Section 2). Horizontal dashed blue lines in (i and j) are missing due to insufficient replicates (see Section 2).

## 4 | DISCUSSION

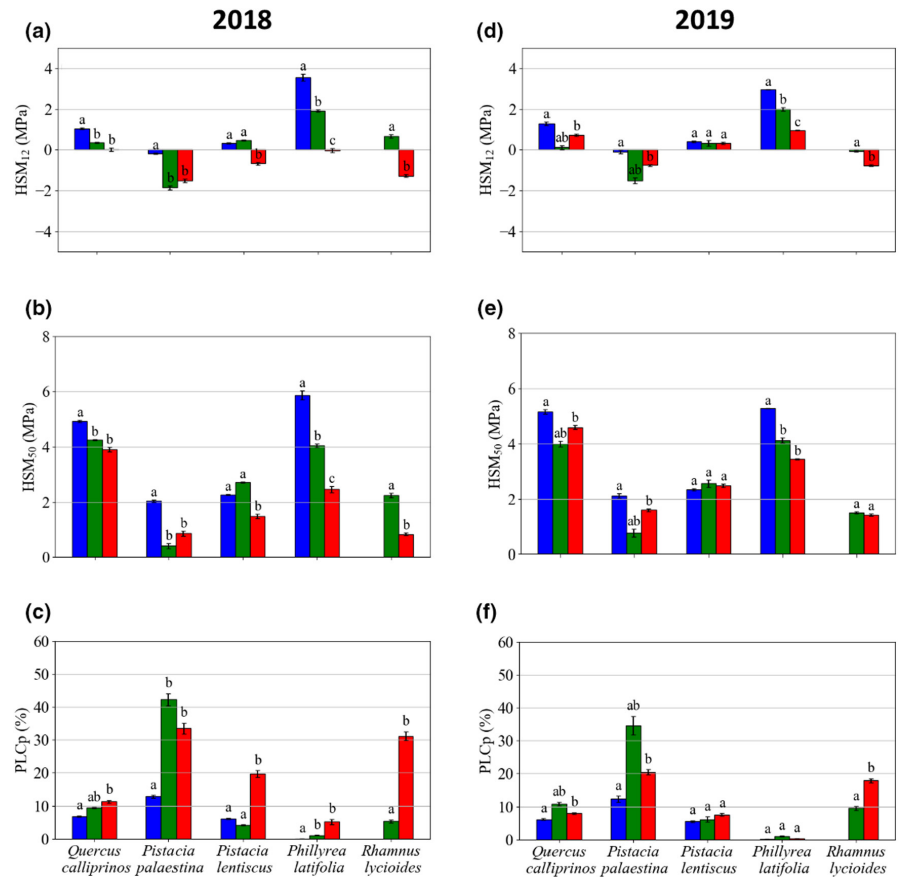
This study demonstrates differences in drought-related mechanisms among five co-occurring woody species along a climatic gradient. Species differed in xylem resistance to embolism but did not demonstrate plasticity in this trait along the climatic gradient. All species showed a plastic stomatal response, which was demonstrated by leaf water potential. Osmotic potential decreased in all species as

a function of water potential; however, substantial osmotic adjustment differences were observed among species.

### 4.1 | Relating environmental factors to phenotype

The large dataset provided by this study, encompassed three aspects of environmental drought, including site aridity, seasonal

**FIGURE 4** HSMs—Hydraulic safety margins ( $HSM_{12}$  and  $HSM_{50}$ ) and PLCp (% of predicted embolism) for all species at the different sites, (a–c) represent 2018 data, (d–f) represent 2019 data. MM, mesic Mediterranean; M, Mediterranean; SA, semi-arid. Different lowercase letters denote significant differences among sites within each species. HSMs of QC are based on the PLC curve of *Q. coccifera* (see Section 2). Error bars indicate standard error ( $n = 5\text{--}7$ ).



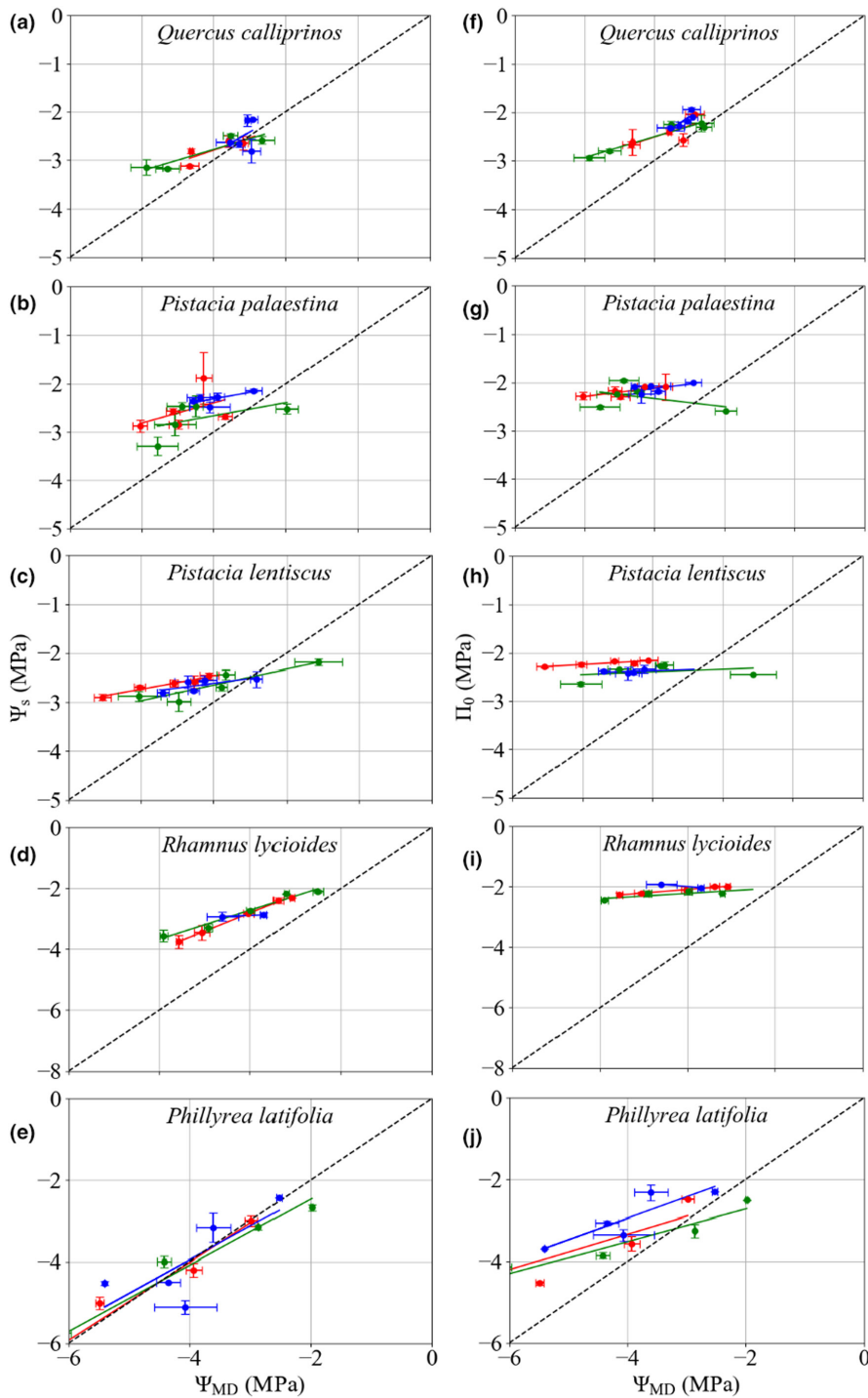
drought and interannual climate differences. While all site characteristics were less favourable at the SA site than at the two wetter sites, precipitation and VPD differed the most, and actually played major roles in determining the drought intensity of the site. The rainless summer, together with the interannual precipitation differences, further emphasized the stress intensity that the studied species confronted. The SA site differed significantly from the other two sites for most of the traits, suggesting that species were closer to their physiological limits at the dry edge. The latter is in agreement with Feng et al. (2019) and Guo et al. (2020) who emphasized that temporal and spatial variability in the environment is important in determining plant response to drought, as opposed to characterization of species without considering environmental influences.

Our results show interspecific variation in resistance to embolism (Figure 2). However, no intraspecific variation was evident for this trait. A lack of intraspecific variation is in agreement with previous studies that showed similar resistance to embolism in distantly separated populations (Bittencourt et al., 2020; González-Muñoz et al., 2018; Lamy et al., 2014; Li et al., 2018; Lobo et al., 2018; Martínez-Vilalta et al., 2009). However, although the three tested sites differ in climate characteristics, the lack of intraspecific variation might also be due to the continuous geographical distribution of the tested species (see Figure S2), which prevented differentiation between populations due to continuous gene flow. In addition, it is possible that other remote populations, which were not included in the current study, do possess intraspecific variation in resistance to

embolism. Several studies have reported intraspecific variation in resistance to embolism in angiosperms. Examples are *Cordia alliodora*, *Artemisia tridentata*, *Fagus sylvatica*, *Populus trichocarpa*, and in Mediterranean and chaparral shrubs (Choat et al., 2007; Jacobsen et al., 2014; Kolb & Sperry, 1999; Pratt et al., 2012; Sparks & Black, 1999; Stojnić et al., 2018; Wortemann et al., 2011).

As opposed to the stability of resistance to embolism, the stomatal response was very plastic as reflected in changes in leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$ ) in response to drought in all species in relation to site aridity, seasonality and interannual climate differences (Figure 3, Table 3). The difference between species in the  $\Psi_{PD}$  slope along the season, especially at the SA site (Figure 3, Table S11), suggests species differentiation in the degree of plasticity, where RL and PHL showed the strongest, and QC showed the least plastic response. The interspecific variation in  $\Psi_{PD}$  seemed to increase with drought and along the dry season, that is, it was inversely related to aridity (Tables 4 and 5). The HS (see Tables S8 and S9), which showed differences between species, can be used as proxies for stringency of stomatal regulation (Meinzer et al., 2016). Accordingly, QC showed the most stringency of stomatal regulation having the smallest HS value, whereas PHL and RL had the largest HS values and showed the least stringency of stomatal regulation (Figure 3, Tables S12 and S14).

Variations in  $\Psi_{PD}$  between species along the dry season may reflect differences in root depth, where  $\Psi_{PD}$  of more deeply rooted species, such as QC, appears high with weak plasticity along the



**FIGURE 5** Osmotic potential and leaf water potential for all species measured in summer 2019 at the mesic Mediterranean (blue), Mediterranean (green) and semi-arid (red) sites. (a–e) Leaf water potential at midday ( $\Psi_{MD}$ ) versus native osmotic potential ( $\Psi_s$ ). (f–j)  $\Psi_{MD}$  versus osmotic potential at full turgor ( $\Pi_0$ ). Regression parameters for  $\Pi_0$  can be found in [Table S10](#).

**TABLE 4** Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances for all species per date at the different sites. Bold indicates significant difference.

Parameter	Measurement date	Standard deviation			$\chi^2$	p value
		MM	M	SA		
$\Psi_{PD}$	May 2018	0.374	0.201	0.922	$\chi^2(2) = 3.655$	<b>0.026</b>
$\Psi_{PD}$	July 2018	0.860	0.894	1.474	$\chi^2(2) = 0.389$	0.687
$\Psi_{PD}$	August 2018	0.998	1.273	1.726	$\chi^2(2) = 1.308$	0.309
$\Psi_{PD}$	September 2018	1.308	1.284	1.731	$\chi^2(2) = 0.2$	0.819

TABLE 5 Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances for all species per site at the different dates. Bold indicates significant difference.

Parameter	Site	Standard deviation				$\chi^2$	p value
		May	July	August	September		
$\Psi_{PD}$	SA	0.922	1.474	1.726	1.731	$\chi^2(3) = 0.532$	0.660
$\Psi_{PD}$	M	0.201	0.894	1.273	1.284	$\chi^2(3) = 3.092$	<b>0.026</b>
$\Psi_{PD}$	MM	0.374	0.860	0.998	1.308	$\chi^2(3) = 1.139$	0.332

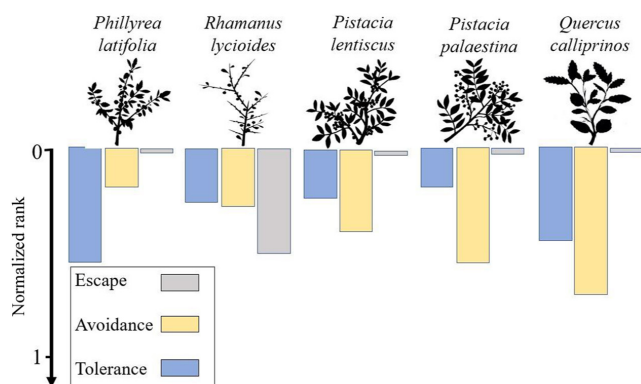


FIGURE 6 A superposition for the three different drought-resistance strategies (tolerance, avoidance and escape) for a species, evaluated as normal parameters (scaled from 0 to 1) derived from measured parameters. Detailed evaluations are presented in Supporting Information Table S15. Drawing by Ilana Stein.

season (Crombie et al., 1988). Roots of 5 m depth have been reported for PP (Jakoby et al., 2020) and QC (Canadell et al., 1996). This is in agreement with Palacio et al. (2017), who demonstrated co-existing species with different root depths sustain niche segregation to share soil water resources. Redtfeldt and Davis (1996) and Rog et al. (2021) also investigated niche segregation in terms of water use patterns. The latter emphasized its importance in increasing forest productivity and carbon sink in semi-arid regions. Our approach to summarize drought-resistance strategies for the different species based on measurements in increasing temporal and local drought suggests current and future niche segregation.

#### 4.2 | The dearth of hydraulic safety margins near the dry edge of species distribution

The  $\Psi_{50}$  HSM seemed to change according to annual precipitation as reflected by increasing PLCp in dry 2018 compared to 2019 (Figure 4), especially at the SA site, suggesting that a drought year would have more impact on species vulnerability. This is in agreement with Ziegler et al. (2019), who showed that for tropical trees the  $\Psi_{50}$  HSM became narrower, but still positive, in dry years. In the current study, all species (except for QC) crossed the  $\Psi_{12}$  threshold (Figure 3f–j), at which point some degree of difference between  $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$  remained, suggesting that species maintain some stomatal opening when embolism is low. As drought became more severe, PL,

RL and PHL  $\Psi_{min}$  at the SA site was similar to the water potential for complete stomatal closure ( $\Psi_{g0}$ ), indicating that these plants approached the point of null activity (Figure 3f–j). QC and PP did not seem to reach that point and demonstrated  $\Psi_{min}$  that was higher by more than 1 MPa than their water potential for complete stomatal closure  $\Psi_{g0}$ .

Interestingly, PP had a negative  $\Psi_{12}$  HSM in all sites in both years (Figure 4), emphasizing the trade-off between hydraulic safety and carbon assimilation in this winter-deciduous species. In addition, results of predicted PLC (PLCp, Figure 4c,f) suggest that all species, except PHL, experienced embolism, which increased with drought intensity. These results suggest that those species approach the limit of hydraulic capacity at the site near the dry margins of their distribution. Taking a modelling approach, Benito Garzón et al. (2018) used minimum soil water potential data and HSMs of 44 European woody species and found that negative HSMs explained the mortality of 15 species at the driest margins of their distribution. With respect to PHL, it is not clear what limits its distribution into the dry region (see Figure S2), as its hydraulic structure is not threatened. The low  $\Psi_{PD}$  indicates that PHL has a shallow root system (Nardini et al., 2016; Väänänen et al., 2020) that senses the drought early in the dry season, provoking stomatal closure that limits the growth period by the length of the cold-wet season. In addition, it is possible that the strong OA requires energy investment that cannot be maintained in drier sites.

#### 4.3 | Interspecific variation in response to drought

The interspecific variation in  $\Psi_{PD}$  increased with aridity and along the dry season (Tables 4 and 5). This difference was supported by the significant effect of the species-by-site interaction on  $\Psi_{PD}$  (Table 3). However, the increase in interspecific variation with site aridity appeared statistically significant only at the beginning of the dry season. These results are another way of showing the limitation of dryness on species distribution, as the interspecific differences, as expressed by the standard deviation, are significantly larger in the SA (0.922) than in the M (0.201) and MM (0.374) sites already at the end of the winter. This suggests that the annual precipitation is a limiting factor for species-specific physiological operation.

As all the species in our study suffered from severe drought at the SA site, as manifested in a significant reduction in HSMs, not all showed osmotic adjustment (which is related to TLP), suggesting that this mechanism is species dependent. Osmotic adjustment in

drought has been reported for PHL (Serrano et al., 2005), and is also well known in Olive species, which are related to PHL (*Oleaceae*; Lo Gullo & Salleo, 1988; Sofu et al., 2008). It has also been reported for PL (Álvarez et al., 2018) in response to salinity and in *Quercus* species (Aranda et al., 2020; Deligö & Bayar, 2018), but not in QC. The low degree of osmotic adjustment in RL and nonexistent osmotic adjustment in PP may also be related to their deciduous nature. It may result from a strategy of allocating fewer resources to the leaf, similar to the findings of Liu et al. (2011), who showed higher capacities for osmotic adjustment in evergreen shrubs than in deciduous species. It is important to note that the other two mechanisms for turgor maintenance, that is, elastic and apoplastic adjustments (Bartlett et al., 2012; Meinzer et al., 2014), were not evaluated in the current study and may play a role in response to drought in the studied species.

## 5 | CONCLUSIONS

Figure 6 summarizes how each of the co-occurring species in our study combines different drought-resistance strategies to minimize the risk of mortality. The quantification in the figure is an initial attempt (see methods) which might lead to more implicit modelling of the implications of our findings, for example, geographical and climate limits of the species. However, modelling was beyond the scope of the current study.

We show that RL and PP clearly approached the limit of their hydraulic capacity at the site near the dry margins of their distribution. As the hydraulic limit was more pronounced in the drier year, we argue that a slight reduction in precipitation is more likely to put species at the dry margins of their distribution at the risk of mortality. Our study suggests that RL and PP had more than 30% PLCp in the SA. We therefore predict that they will be the first to experience mortality in the near future. We assume that changes in the woody species community structure would further have critical impacts on global biodiversity. Our study emphasizes the urgent need to develop models to predict the likely effects of climate change on woody community structures to assist in developing management and conservation strategies.

### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Asaf Alon, Rakefet David-Schwartz, Shabtai Cohen, Sylvain Delzon and HC designed the experiments and interpreted the data. AA, RB and VL collected and measured field samples. Asaf Alon and RB performed vulnerability curve measurements. Asaf Alon and IR performed carbon isotope measurements. Asaf Alon analysed all data. Asaf Alon, Shabtai Cohen and RDS cowrote the manuscript with contributions from Sylvain Delzon, Hervé Cochard, UH and TK.

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### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that they have no competing interest in the preparation of this manuscript. Tamir Klein is an Associate Editor of Functional Ecology, but took no part in the peer review and decision-making processes for this paper.

### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the results of this study are available at the Dryad Digital Repository <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1vhhm-gqxb> (Alon et al., 2023).


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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

**Figure S1.** Leaf  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and the derived WUEi of five species at the study sites at the end of the dry season.

**Figure S2.** Distribution maps of the studied species in Israel.

**Figure S3.** Per cent loss of conductivity (PLC) curves obtained by the Cavitrone method.

**Table S1.**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ANOVA analysis between species per site per measurement date.

**Table S2.**  $\Psi_{50}$ ,  $\Psi_{12}$ ,  $\Psi_{88}$ ,  $\Psi_{\min}$  and safety margins measured for the different species at the different sites in summer of 2018 and 2019.

**Table S3.**  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  ANOVA analysis between sites per species per measurement date.

**Table S4.**  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  ANOVA analysis between species per site per measurement date.

**Table S5.**  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  ANOVA analysis between species per site per measurement date.

**Table S6.** Summary of covariance analysis testing influence of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ , species and their interaction on  $\Psi_{\text{S}}$ .

**Table S7.** Summary of covariance analysis testing influence of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ , site and  $\Psi_{\text{MD}} \times \text{site}$  on  $\Psi_{\text{S}}$ .

**Table S8.** Summary of covariance analysis testing influence of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ , species and their interaction on  $\Pi_{\text{O}}$ .

**Table S9.** Summary of covariance analysis testing influence of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ , site and  $\Psi_{\text{MD}} \times \text{site}$  on  $\Pi_{\text{O}}$ .

**Table S10.** Parameters correspond to  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  versus osmotic potential at full turgor ( $\Pi_{\text{O}}$ ), in all species at all sites.

**Table S11.** Parameters correspond to  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  slopes analysis in all species at all sites.

**Table S12.** Parameters for the linear regression of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  versus  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  for the different species at the different sites.

**Table S13.** Summary of covariance analysis testing influence of  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$ , site and  $\Psi_{\text{PD}} \times \text{site}$  on  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ .

**Table S14.** Parameters for the linear regression of  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  versus  $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$  for the different species.

**Table S15.** Summary of normalized drought strategies.

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