

1 **Effects of two water regimes on morphological traits, nutritive**
2 **value and physiology of three *Bituminaria bituminosa* varieties**
3 **from the Canary Islands**

4 Jesús Fernández-Habas¹, M^a Teresa Hidalgo-Fernández¹, José Ramón Leal-
5 Murillo¹, Pilar Méndez², José L Quero¹, Tom Vanwalleghem³, Pilar Fernández-
6 Rebollo¹

7 ¹ Department of Forest Engineering, ETSIAM, University of Cordoba, Spain

8 ² Department of Agronomy, ETSIAM, University of Cordoba, Spain

9 ³ Canary Institute of Agricultural Research, ICIA, Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Spain

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11 **Abstract:**

12 Morphological traits, nutritive values and physiological responses to two different
13 water regimes of three *Bituminaria bituminosa* varieties: var. *albomarginata*, var.
14 *crassiuscula* and var. *bituminosa* were evaluated in a greenhouse experiment. Two
15 water regimes were imposed for 63 days; well-watered (WW) plants and deficit-
16 watered (DW) plants, both starting from a high soil water content (dripping point).
17 The three varieties showed similar aerial biomass reduction under reduced
18 watering, 50% for var. *albomarginata*, 51% for var. *bituminosa* and 43% for var.
19 *crassiuscula*. Var. *Albomarginata* showed lower shoot biomass under both water
20 regimes than var. *bituminosa* (56.2 % in WW plants and 55.2% in DW plants) and
21 var. *crassiuscula* (52% in WW plants and 57.8% in DW plants). This lower shoot
22 biomass could be attributed to the high initial soil water content imposed in this
23 experiment, affecting early development. This hypothesis is supported by the
24 lower root biomass production of var. *albomarginata* and its distribution. The DW

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3 25 treatment of this experiment was not sufficiently restrictive to cause
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5 26 morphological modifications, whilst of the forage quality variables analysed, only
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7 27 ash was affected. Var. *crassiuscula* and var. *albomarginata* had a lower specific
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9 28 leaf area ($239 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $235 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively) than var. *bituminosa* (352
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11 $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$), which might represent an important adaptation to high light intensity and
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13 29 $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$), which might represent an important adaptation to high light intensity and
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15 30 temperature conditions. The values of stem mass fraction (SMF) and leaf mass
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17 31 fraction (LMF) for var. *crassiuscula* (SMF=0.36 and LMF=0.28) and var.
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19 32 *albomarginata* (SMF=0.35 and LMF=0.36) indicated better forage aptitude of
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21 33 these varieties than var. *bituminosa* (SMF= 0.50 and LMF=0.19). All varieties
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23 34 showed good values of crude protein and digestibility, although important
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25 35 differences were found between leaf and stem. According to the studied
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27 36 morphological, nutritional and physiological traits, var. *albomarginata* showed
28
29 37 the best aptitude for being introduced as permanent grasslands in some
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31 38 Mediterranean farming systems. However, the possible susceptibility of var.
32
33 39 *albomarginata* to high water content in the soil could limit its introduction. These
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35 40 results help to inform the potential use of these three Canarian *B. bituminosa*
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37 41 varieties to improve Mediterranean rainfed grasslands of extensive farming
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39 42 systems.

43 **Keywords:** *Roots, water-use, morphology, biomass production, net*
44 *photosynthesis, crude protein.*

45 1. Introduction

46 *Bituminaria bituminosa* (L.) C.H. Stirton is a perennial legume widely distributed
47 in the Mediterranean basin and Macaronesia and traditionally used as forage crop
48 for livestock in the Canary Islands, where it is known as “*tedera*” (Méndez,

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3 49 Fernández, & Santos, 1990; Ventura, Castañon, & Mendez, 2009). Varieties from
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5 50 this archipelago are adapted to its large climatic diversity, with annual rainfall
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7 51 varying from 150 mm up to 800 mm. In this study the following varieties were
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9 52 investigated: *B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata* (BAM), *B. bituminosa* var.
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11 53 *crassiuscula* (BCC) and *B. bituminosa* var. *bituminosa* (BBT). These varieties
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13 54 were selected based on their different morphology and distribution in the Canary
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15 55 Islands (Méndez et al., 1990) which may be a source of adaptation to drought
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17 56 stress. Although *B. bituminosa* is known for its high content of metabolites such
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19 57 as furanocoumarins and isoflavonoids (Pecetti, Tava, Pagnotta & Russi, 2007;
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21 58 Pistelli et al., 2003), previous studies have demonstrated that it is consumed by
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23 59 livestock in nature (Sternberg, Gishri & Mabjeesh, 2006) and safe to feed sheep
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25 60 maintaining liveweight in a diet of BAM and BCC (Oldham et al., 2015). Ventura
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27 61 et al. (2009) studied the intake of the three varieties of “*tedera*” by goats and
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29 62 found preference for fresh “*tedera*” versus alfalfa hay, except in summer, when
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31 63 alfalfa hay was preferred due to a higher concentration of secondary compounds
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33 64 of “*tedera*” during this season. The same authors showed that the intake of
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35 65 “*tedera*” in summer could be increased by hay making.
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43 66 In recent years there has been a growing interest in these varieties of *B.*
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45 67 *bituminosa* because of their drought resistance and good forage aptitude,
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47 68 especially BAM, which has been established as the most drought- resistant variety
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49 69 (Martínez-Fernández, Walker, Romero, Martínez-Ballesta, & Correal, 2012;
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51 70 Raeside et al., 2012). Its aptitude as a fodder plant in Mediterranean-like climates
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53 71 has been tested in Australia and Israel, showing promising results (Oldham et al.,
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55 72 2013; Real, Oldham, Burgel, Dobbe & Hardy, 2017; Sternberg et al., 2006). The
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57 73 large genetic diversity of *B. bituminosa* is a promising source for breeding
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3 74 programs (Foster, Ryan, Real, Ramankutty, & Lambers, 2013; Pazos-Navarro et
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5 75 al., 2011). Significant advances have been made by Australian and Spanish
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7 76 researchers in selecting basic material for breeding programmes to produce
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9 77 improved lines of good forage aptitude adapted to different environmental
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11 78 conditions of arid lands (Pazos-Navarro et al., 2011; Raeside et al., 2012; Real &
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13 79 Verbyla, 2010). Indeed, a new variety, named *Lanza*, has recently been registered
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16 80 as a result of these breeding programmes.

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20 81 The Mediterranean basin is expected to be especially vulnerable to climate change
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22 82 (IPCC, 2018). Lower precipitation associated with a higher uncertainty of inter-
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24 83 annual distribution together with increases in temperature are forecast for the 21st
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26 84 century (Giannakopoulos et al., 2009; Giorgi & Lionello, 2008). Gang, et al.
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28 85 (2015), found a decreasing trend of net primary productivity of grasslands in
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30 86 Europe from 1981 to 2010 and an overall decline in water use efficiency in woody
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32 87 savannas and non-woody grasslands in response to climate change from 2000 to
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34 88 2013 (Gang et al., 2016). The expected climatic variability challenges the pasture
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36 89 productivity and hence the capacity to sustain livestock production. In this
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38 90 context, perennial legumes with drought resistance, dehydration tolerance, and
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40 91 consequently steady forage production, such as *B. bituminosa*, are of key
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42 92 importance for sustaining extensive farming systems in the Mediterranean region
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44 93 such as *Dehesas* (Bennett, Ryan, Colmer, & Real, 2011;; Hernández-Esteban,
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46 94 López-Díaz, Cáceres & Moreno, 2019; Melis, Franca, Re, & Porqueddu 2018;
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48 95 Porqueddu et al., 2016).

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55 96 Although summer drought is a limiting factor for forage production in the
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57 97 Mediterranean region (Cosentino, Gresta, & Testa, 2014), soil water saturation
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3 98 and wet conditions frequently occur at early stages of plant establishment and
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5 99 development during the autumn and winter months, especially in lower
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8 100 topographies (Ceballos & Schnabel, 1998; Lozano-Parra, Schnabel, & Ceballos-
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10 101 Barbancho, 2015; Maneta, Pasternack, Wallender, Jetten & Schnabel, 2007;
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12 102 Maneta, Schnabel, Wallender, Panday, & Jetten, 2008). Both limiting factors are
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14 103 expected to increase under future climate conditions, as projections show that
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16 104 droughts could start earlier in the year and last longer (Beniston et al., 2007;
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18 105 Giannakopoulos et al., 2009), whereas wet conditions may increase in late autumn
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20 106 and winter due to increases in precipitation extremes (Giorgi & Lionello, 2008).
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24 107 While the adaptation of *B. bituminosa* to drylands has been proven successful
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26 108 (Suriyagoda, Real, Renton, Lambers, & Ryan, 2013), susceptibility to wet
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28 109 conditions and unsuccessful development during wet winters has also been
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30 110 reported (Raeside et al., 2012; Real & Verbyla, 2010). This reflects the need to
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32 111 investigate the response of *B. bituminosa* varieties under different soil moisture
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34 112 conditions to ensure their successful introduction into pastures of Mediterranean
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36 113 farming systems in the face of climate change.
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41 114 The morphological traits and nutritive value of *B. bituminosa* have been widely
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43 115 studied in Spain, Italy and Australia (Correal, Hoyos, Real, Snowball, & Costa,
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45 116 2008; Melis et al., 2018; Méndez et al., 1990; Méndez, Santos, Correal, & Ríos,
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47 117 2006; Muñoz & Correal, 2000; Porqueddu, Dettori, Falqui, & Re, 2011; Raeside et
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49 118 al., 2012). However, to our knowledge, some traits such as leaf mass fraction or
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51 119 leaf area ratio and leaf and stem-nutritive value have not been investigated for
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3 121 influence forage aptitude (Abd El Moneim, Khair & Rihawi, 1990; Méndez et al.,
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5 122 2006).

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8 123 This study aims to assess the response in terms of (i) physiology, (ii) biomass and
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10 124 morphological traits of shoot/root and (iii) nutritive value of leaves and stems of
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12 125 the three recognised Canarian varieties of *B. bituminosa* under two different water
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14 126 regimes in greenhouse controlled conditions: high soil water content at the
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16 127 beginning of the growth cycle, followed by high or low irrigation regimes (well-
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18 128 watered or deficit-watered).

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22 129 This study could further inform the potential of these three varieties to adapt to
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24 130 future Mediterranean climatic conditions and elucidate the role that upcoming
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26 131 commercial varieties could play in improving pastures and thereby sustaining
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28 132 livestock production.

32 133 **2. Materials and methods**

34 134 **2.1. Plant material**

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36 135 Seeds from the three varieties of *B. bituminosa* were collected from wild
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38 136 populations of the Canary Islands (Spain) (Table 1). Tedera is a selfpollinated
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40 137 diploid ($2n=20$) species (Pazos-Navarro et al., 2011). This together with the
41
42 138 geographical isolation of the populations guaranteed no outcrossing pollination
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44 139 among varieties.

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46 140 BAM is native to the island of Lanzarote, where it grows in semi-arid coastal
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48 141 habitats with not more than 200 mm annual rainfall, having a five to six month-
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50 142 long hot and dry season and high relative humidity due to maritime influence.
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52 143 BCC grows in the National Park of Cañadas del Teide (2200m a.s.l.) with 500
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3 144 mm of annual rainfall (including snow), showing winter dormancy and the
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5 145 growing season during spring and mild summer (Martínez-Fernández et al.,
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7 146 2012). Previous research has pinpointed a biannual behaviour of this variety
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10 147 outside its native habitat at Mount Teide (Melis et al., 2018; Méndez, unpublished
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12 148 data). BBT is widespread on all the Canary Islands and the Mediterranean basin
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14 149 with 200-800 mm of annual rainfall during warm and dry summers (Table 1).

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17 150 The seeds were scarified by nicking the outer seed coat using a surgical scalpel
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19 151 (Beard, Nichols, Loo, & Michael, 2014) and germinated in 90-mm Petri dishes
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21 152 with wet filter paper (Foster et al., 2015; Pecetti, Tava, Pagnotta, & Russi,
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23 153 2007;). Once germinated, the seeds were grown in trays (17 days). Subsequently,
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25 154 each seedling was transplanted into individual plastic six-litre cylindrical pots 37
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27 155 cm high, with a 16.80 cm and 12.5 cm diameter at the top and bottom of the pot
28
29 156 respectively and holes at the bottom to allow free drainage of water. Each pot was
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31 157 filled with a mix of commercial peat (Gramosemi GF-Anz./Verm from
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33 158 Gramoflor) and sand (9:1 v/v) with 2 g of 19-19-19 NPK fertiliser per pot. The
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35 159 soil had a pH of 7.31 (1/2.5), 2.96 g 100g⁻¹ organic matter content, 0.647 (mmhos
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37 160 cm⁻¹) of electrical conductivity and cation exchange capacity of 20.69 meq 100 g⁻¹.
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39 161 Water was provided daily at a rate of 50 ml per pot, and the temperature set at
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41 162 22°C/7°C (day/night) for 13 days in the greenhouse to ensure successful
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43 163 establishment and acclimatisation before the treatments were imposed.
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164 2.2. Experimental design

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53 165 The experiment was conducted at the greenhouse of the University of Cordoba,
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55 166 Cordoba (Spain). The experiment comprised a complete randomised design to
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57 167 analyse two treatments (water regimes), and three *B. bituminosa* varieties with six
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3 168 pots per variety and treatment, having a total of 36 pots. The water regimes
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5 169 imposed were: high soil water content at the beginning followed by a high
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7 170 irrigation regime, well-watered plants (WW); and high soil water content at the
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9 171 beginning followed by a reduced irrigation regime, deficit-watered plants (DW).
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11 172 On the first day of the experiment, all pots were watered with 2,279 ml of water to
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13 173 the point of dripping ($\sim 1.17 \text{ g g}^{-1}$) to achieve even starting conditions of high soil
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15 174 water content. Then, WW plants were manually watered every day with 50 ml
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17 175 (2.3 l m^{-2}) for the first 47 days. For the rest of the experiment (16 days), when the
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19 176 plants had a higher demand for water due to an increase in daily mean
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21 177 temperature, watering was increased to 75 ml (3.4 l m^{-2}). In the second treatment,
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23 178 watering was reduced by $\sim 50\%$, with the DW plants being watered every second
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25 179 day with the same amount of water and following the same irrigation strategy as
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27 180 the WW plants. These watering regimes did not produce drainage in either WW or
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29 181 DW plants. At the end of the experiment, each WW plant received $\sim 2,279 \text{ ml}$ of
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31 182 water at initial watering, plus $\sim 3,550 \text{ ml}$ (263 l m^{-2}) for 63 days while DW plants
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33 183 received $\sim 2,279 \text{ ml}$ plus $\sim 1,775 \text{ ml}$ (183 l m^{-2}). This initial watering represents
34
35 184 around half of the average autumn rainfall of Cordoba, whilst the water supplied
36
37 185 for 63 days is about 33% higher (WW) or 33% lower (DW) than the average
38
39 186 spring rainfall registered in Cordoba. The greenhouse temperature was kept in the
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41 187 range of $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} / 15 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (day/night) during the experiment. The experiment started
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43 188 on April 1st, 2019 when all plants had approximately seven leaves (after 13 days
44
45 189 of acclimatisation in the greenhouse as mentioned in the previous section) and the
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47 190 plants were harvested on June 3rd, 2019 at the beginning of flowering. The
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49 191 duration of the experiment was 63 days.

192 2.3. Water use and physiological measurements

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3 193 Four pots per variety and water regime were weighed three times per week from
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5 194 day 30 to the end of the experiment (day 63). Pot evapotranspiration, ET (ml) was
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7 195 estimated as $ET = PW_i - PW_j + I_{ij}$, where PW_i is the pot weight at day i (g), PW_j is
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9 196 the pot weight at day j (g) and I_{ij} the irrigation water provided between days i and
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11 197 j (ml). During the same period, relative soil water content was estimated as
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13 198 $RSWC = (SW_i - DSW) / (FSW - DSW)$, where SW_i is the soil weight at day i , DSW
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15 199 is dry soil weight and FSW is the soil weight at point of dripping. DSW was
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17 200 obtained by weighing and averaging the oven-dried soil ($105^\circ\text{C}/24\text{h}$) of four pots.
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19 201 For FSW , the same four pots were previously watered to point of dripping and
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21 202 weighed discounting the weight of an empty pot. Since at day 30 the canopy of the
22
23 203 plant already covered the entire pot surface, transpiration can account for most of
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25 204 the measured ET (Or, Lehmann, Shahraeni, & Shokri, 2013; Ritchie, 1972).
26
27 205 At day 46, four fully expanded leaves of each plant were removed (12:00-14:00 h)
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29 206 to measure the relative leaf water content (RWC). RWC was calculated as $RWC =$
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31 207 $(FW - DW) / (SFW - DW) \times 100$, where FW is fresh leaf weight, DW is dry leaf
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33 208 weight and SFW is saturated fresh leaf weight. After recording FW , the leaves
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35 209 were immersed in 90-mm Petri dishes filled with deionised water for 24 h at 20 –
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37 210 25°C and then weighed again to record SFW . DW was measured after oven-
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39 211 drying the leaves at 60°C for 72h. Before drying, the leaves were scanned
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41 212 (EPSON 1640 XL) and the area was measured using the image analyser software
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43 213 ImageJ (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) for the later calculation of the specific leaf area
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45 214 ($SLA, \text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$). Net photosynthesis per area (A_{area}) and stomatal conductance per
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47 215 area (g_{Sarea}) were also measured at day 46 (09:00-12:00 h) of mid-height, fully
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49 216 expanded and undamaged leaves using a portable infrared CO_2 gas analyser
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51 217 (LiCor Li6400XT, Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) fitted with a 2-cm² leaf
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3 218 cuvette. PAR was set at $1000 \mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, flow rate at $500 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$,
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5 219 $[\text{CO}_2]$ to 400 ppm, with block temperature set at 25°C . Water-use efficiency
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7 220 (WUE) was derived from the ratio $A_{\text{area}}/g_{\text{Sarea}}$. An example of the state of WW and
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9 221 DW plants at the moment of measurement of the physiological variables can be
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12 222 seen in Fig. S1.
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15 223 **2.4. Biomass and trait measurement**

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18 224 At the end of the experiment, plants were cut at the soil surface. Aerial plant
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20 225 components were separated into stem and leaves, which were also split into
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22 226 green/senescent leaves. Pots were cut open and the soil was separated into three
23
24 227 layers (0-10.5, 10.5-21, 21-31.5 cm). The soil was carefully removed from the
25
26 228 roots using a 2-mm sieve. The roots of each layer were then split into thin roots
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28 229 ($<0.5\text{mm}$) and thick roots ($>0.5\text{mm}$) and immediately frozen. This threshold was
29
30 230 chosen to explicitly emphasise more absorptive roots (Wang, Liu, Fang &
31
32 231 Shangguan, 2020). A representative subsample of thin roots from the first layer
33
34 232 and all thick roots from the three soil layers of four WW plants per variety were
35
36 233 split and independently scanned (EPSON 1640 XL). Root length was calculated
37
38 234 using WinRHIZO software (<http://regent.qc.ca/>) and then root length to weight
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40 235 ratio (m g^{-1}) was also calculated. Leaves, stems and roots were oven-dried for 72 h
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42 236 at 60°C and dry mass (DM) recorded.
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49 237 Root to shoot ratio was calculated as the total root DM/total shoot DM. The Leaf
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51 238 mass fraction (LMF), Stem mass fraction (SMF) and Root mass fraction (RMF)
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53 239 were calculated as the proportion of the total DM corresponding to each one of
54
55 240 these plant components. SLA, ($\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) was calculated as the ratio between the
56
57 241 leaf area and its dry mass. Leaf area ratio (LAR, $\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$), the ratio of leaf area and
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3 242 total plant DM, was estimated as the product of SLA and LMF (Poorter &
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5 243 Remkes, 1990; Villar et al., 2004). Leaf to stem ratio was measured as total leaf
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7 244 DM/total stem DM. Senescent to green leaf ratio was calculated as senescent leaf
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9 245 DM/green leaf DM. The proportion of thin roots in each layer was estimated as
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11
12 246 the thin roots DM/total roots DM.

15 247 **2.5. Nutritive value**

18 248 Samples of green, fully expanded leaves and stems were independently analysed
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20 249 for four plants of each variety and treatment at the end of the experiment. These
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22 250 samples were ground and passed through a 1-mm sieve. Crude protein (CP),
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24 251 ashes, neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF) and enzyme
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26 252 digestibility of organic matter (EDOM) were determined by near-infrared
27
28 253 spectroscopy (NIRS) using a portable LabSpec 5.000 spectrometer (350–2.500
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30 254 nm; ASD Inc., Boulder, Colorado, USA) using IndicoPro 6.0 spectrum acquisition
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32 255 software (ASD Inc., Boulder, CO, USA). Spectral data of samples was recorded
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34 256 in the whole range of 350-2,500 nm by 1-nm step. Four replicates of each sample
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36 257 were scanned (each being an average of 50 internal scans). White reference scans
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38 258 (with a Spectralon panel) were taken between every sample scan. The final sample
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40 259 spectrum was obtained by averaging the four scans. The statistics of the NIRS
41
42 260 equations used to predict nutritional values of samples in this study are presented
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44 261 in Supplementary material (Table S1). NIRS equations were calibrated based on
45
46 262 130 spectra of Mediterranean pastures and forage crops analysed by wet chemical
47
48 263 methods at the Laboratory of Animal Nutrition of SERIDA (Villaviciosa, Spain).
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50 264 NIRS predictions were performed using WinISI software (Infrasoft International,
51
52 265 Port Matilda, PA, USA).

266 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

267 Differences among varieties and treatments for each variable were tested by two-
268 way ANOVAs (variety and water regimes as fixed factors). For those variables
269 where soil layer (3 depth levels) and plant organ (stem or leaf) were included,
270 differences were explored by three-way ANOVAs (variety, water regimes and
271 depth/organ as fixed factors). Accumulated evapotranspiration and RSWC were
272 tested by two-way ANOVA for each measurement date and the interactions of the
273 factors were also considered. When differences were significant ($p < 0.05$), post-
274 hoc Tukey's test at the 0.05 probability level was carried out to test differences
275 among means. The data was transformed, when needed, using either logarithmic
276 or square-root transformation to meet normality and homoscedasticity
277 assumptions. To summarise and analyse the covariation between variables, a
278 principal component analysis (PCA) was performed with morphological and
279 physiologic traits. Evapotranspiration and nutritive value parameters were not
280 included in the analysis because of the different number of observations.
281 Statistical analyses were performed using the software R v. 3.6.1 (R Development
282 Core Team, 2019).

283 **3. Results**

284 **3.1. Biomass and morphological traits**

285 The deficit-watered treatment significantly affected ($p < 0.05$, Table S2) biomass
286 production and senescent to green leaf ratio of all varieties (Table 2). The
287 morphological traits shown in Table 3 were modified not by the water regime but
288 by the variety. BAM was the variety with the lowest biomass production for both
289 water regimes, while no difference was found between BBT and BCC under each

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2
3 290 treatment (Table 2). Shoot biomass under the DW treatment as a percentage of the
4
5 291 WW treatment was similar for the three varieties: 50% for BAM, 49% for BBT
6
7 292 and 57% for BCC. The three varieties showed significantly different aboveground
8
9 293 biomass allocation (Table S3). BAM had the highest leaf to stem ratio (1.06 g g^{-1})
10
11 294 followed by BCC (0.80 g g^{-1}) and BBT (0.38 g g^{-1}). Similarly, BAM had the
12
13 295 highest LFM whereas BBT had significantly higher SMF than BCC and BAM
14
15 296 (Table 3).

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20 297 The SLA and LAR were not modified by the water regime although it was
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22 298 different for each variety (Table S3). The SLA was significantly lower for BAM
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24 299 ($235 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) and BCC ($239 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) than for BBT ($352 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$). Concerning
25
26 300 LAR, BBT showed significantly lower LAR than BAM (Table 3).

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30 301 Although root to shoot ratio did not change for either variety or treatment (Table
31
32 302 3), significant differences were found for root biomass and its allocation
33
34 303 throughout the profile (Table S4). Root biomass was reduced by the DW
35
36 304 treatment and it was always the lowest for BAM (Table 2). There was a two-way
37
38 305 interaction among varieties and depth ($p=0.017$, Table S4), revealing a different
39
40 306 pattern of root biomass distribution throughout the profile (Fig. 1: A). While BBT
41
42 307 and BCC showed a clear stratified distribution of root biomass decreasing with
43
44 308 depth, BAM showed similar root biomass throughout the soil profile. Root
45
46 309 biomass in the lower layer was of similar magnitude for all three varieties and this
47
48 310 pattern was not modified by the water regime. The proportion of thin roots (<0.5
49
50 311 mm) increased throughout the profile for all varieties, being 30%, 79% and 95%
51
52 312 for upper, middle and lower levels, respectively (Fig. 1: B). BCC invested more
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54 313 biomass in thin roots than BAM and BBT under WW treatment (82%, 65% and
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3 314 62% respectively). However, under DW treatment, BCC and BAM showed a
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5 315 higher proportion of thin roots than BBT (72%, 71% and 56% respectively). BCC
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7 316 had a significantly shorter root length to weight ratio of thin roots (33.5 m g^{-1})
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9 317 than BAM (60.1 m g^{-1}) and BBT (59.1 m g^{-1}). No differences were found for
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11
12 318 thicker roots ($>0.5\text{mm}$) with 1.1 m g^{-1} root length to weight ratio on average.

15 319 **3.2. Plant water use**

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17
18 320 The accumulated evapotranspiration over the measurement period showed a
19
20 321 significant difference ($p<0.001$) between treatments. The total evapotranspired
21
22 322 water was $1,790 \pm 25 \text{ ml}$ under DW and $2,833 \pm 102 \text{ ml}$ under WW. Moreover,
23
24 323 important differences were found when the accumulated evapotranspiration was
25
26 324 evaluated at each measurement date. At the beginning, both treatments had similar
27
28 325 evapotranspiration; however, from day 36 to the last measurement WW plants had
29
30 326 significantly higher evapotranspiration than DW plants. Regarding differences by
31
32 327 variety, BAM showed significantly lower evapotranspiration than BCC from the
33
34 328 first measurement to day 40. Thereafter, there was an interaction that indicated
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36 329 lower accumulated evapotranspiration of BAM under WW treatment (Fig. 2: A).

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38
39 330 At the beginning, relative soil water content (RSWC) was 66% on average and
40
41 331 45% under WW and DW respectively (Fig.2: B), showing no differences among
42
43 332 varieties. During the measurement period, RSWC was always significantly lower
44
45 333 under DW. From days 36 to the last measurement BAM showed significantly
46
47 334 higher RSWC than BCC and BBT. In DW treatment, RSWC decreased to a
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49 335 minimum value of around 12% at day 53 when it seemed to stabilise; this value
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51 336 was firstly reached by BCC (Fig.2: B).

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3 337 **3.3. Relative water content, photosynthesis and stomatal**
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5 338 **conductance**
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8 339 The deficit-watered regime did not affect the RWC (Table S5), as values are
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10 340 similar under both water regimes. However, BAM showed higher RWC than the
11
12 341 other two varieties (Table 4). For A_{area} , the interaction of variety and treatment
13
14 342 (Table S5) reflected the fact that BCC was the only variety affected by DW
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16 343 treatment. BAM was the variety with the highest A_{area} , although it showed similar
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18 344 values to BCC under WW treatment (Table 4). g_{Sarea} was also higher for BAM and
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20 345 was reduced by DW treatment across the three varieties. WUE was not influenced
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22 346 by either variety or treatment.
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26
27 347 The first two axes of the PCA accounted for 33.0% and 24.1% of total variation,
28
29 348 respectively. The three varieties showed clear clustering (Fig. 3. A) while the
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31 349 treatments were more scattered on both axes (Fig. 3. B). Overall, morphological
32
33 350 traits were more important to explain the variability of both principal components
34
35 351 than physiological ones. LMF, leaf to stem ratio and LAR had high negative
36
37 352 loadings and high positive loading for root biomass for the first principal
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39 353 component. For the second principal component, root biomass, root to shoot ratio
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41 354 and thin roots proportion presented high positive loadings while SMF, SLA and
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43 355 senescent to green leaf ratio had high negative loadings. All biomass-related
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45 356 variables together with water use efficiency (WUE), RMF and root to shoot ratio
46
47 357 showed covariation. LAR, LMF and leaf/stem ratio presented covariation with
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49 358 A_{area} , g_{Sarea} and RWC. Finally, SLA and SMF also showed covariation.
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55 359 **3.4. Nutritive value**
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3 360 Ash content was around 10-12% (leaf and stem weighed average across varieties),
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5 361 showing two interactions (Table S6): variety by organ ($p=0.008$) and organ by
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7 362 treatment ($p=0.019$). BBT ash content was significantly lower in the stem than in
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9 363 the leaf while BAM and BCC showed no difference in ash content between
10
11 364 organs (Fig. 4: A). The organ by treatment interaction reflected the effect of DW
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13 365 on the leaf ash content reduction whereas it had no effect on the stem (Fig. 4: B).
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16
17 366 The other parameters analysed, EDOM, ADF, NDF and CP, were not affected by
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19 367 the water reduction imposed in this experiment (Table S6). The leaf EDOM was
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21 368 similar for all varieties, with an average value of 86.2%. Stem EDOM was
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23 369 significantly lower than in leaf, also being lower for BBT than for BAM and
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25 370 BCC, which had similar values (Fig. 5: A). CP leaf values were around 16%
26
27 371 across all varieties. However, a two-way interaction (Table S6) reflected BAM
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29 372 having higher stem CP than BCC whereas BBT had the same CP value as the
30
31 373 other varieties (Fig. 5: B). There was an interaction between variety and organ for
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33 374 NDF (Table S6). Although the NDF value for stem was similar for all varieties,
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35 375 42.9% on average, the leaf NDF content was significantly higher for BAM than
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37 376 for BBT, while BCC showed no difference in leaf NDF compared to the other two
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39 377 varieties (Fig. 5:C). As expected, ADF was significantly higher for stem than for
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41 378 leaf, although values were similar across the three varieties, 19.9% for leaf and
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43 379 31.4% for stem on average (Fig. 5:D).

380 4. Discussion

381 The lower shoot biomass production of BAM under both treatments differs from
382 previous studies where BAM was highly productive (Melis et al., 2018; Real et
383 al., 2014). These contrasting results compared to previous studies (Foster et al.,

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2
3 384 2015; Foster, Ryan, Real, Ramankutty, & Lambers, 2012; Martínez-Fernández et
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5 385 al., 2012) could be explained by differences in experimental conditions, in
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7 386 particular, the high initial soil water content and differences in the water regimes.
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10 387 The relatively high initial soil water content could have affected the early
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12 388 development of BAM leading to a lower biomass production. BAM grows
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14 389 naturally in a very low-rainfall environment (< 200 mm) while BCC and BBT
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16 390 grow in environments with higher rainfall (Table 1) where periodic wet conditions
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18 391 may be expected during the growing season. BCC, in particular, which grows in
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20 392 the National Park of Cañadas del Teide (2200m a.s.l.) and receives part of the
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22 393 average precipitation (500 mm) as snow (Méndez et al., 1990; Raeside et al.,
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24 394 2012; Real et al., 2014), may have longer wet conditions due to snow melt. Real
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26 395 et al. (2014) also suggested that variability in wet conditions tolerance might be
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28 396 expected based on the high natural habitat variability of *B. bituminosa*.
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33 397 This hypothesis is supported by the lower root biomass production of BAM and
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35 398 its distribution throughout the profile compared to BCC and BBT (Fig. 1: A). In
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37 399 the same line, BAM was the only variety for which the WW treatment reduced the
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39 400 proportion of thin roots, as these are expected to be more susceptible to root rot.
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42 401 This poor root development limited the soil water use, as shown by the high
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44 402 RSWC maintained over the last growing period even for DW plants (Fig. 2: B).
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46 403 Similarly, the evapotranspiration of BAM could be affected by the lower shoot
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48 404 biomass and by a root system that was unable to use the soil water content as
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50 405 much as BCC and BBT which developed larger root systems. *B. bituminosa*
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52 406 susceptibility to stem and root rot has been pointed out in previous studies
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54 407 (Martínez-Fernández et al., 2012; Real et al., 2014). Real et al. (2014) found *B.*
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56 408 *bituminosa* accessions were generally sensitive to wet conditions although four
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3 409 accessions showed tolerance. Raeside et al. (2012) also found BAM failed to
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5 410 persist and produce biomass during wet winters. These results have important
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7 411 agronomic implications since BAM susceptibility to wet conditions may limit its
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9 412 potential as a novel forage legume (Raeside et al., 2012) in areas with contrasting
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11 413 rainfall during the plant growing season. In the Mediterranean basin, clay/silty
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13 414 soils and high-rainfall periods could often contribute to periodic wet conditions
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15 415 that might limit BAM root system development and therefore its resistance to
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17 416 subsequent drought periods. This could also mean a competitive disadvantage of
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19 417 BAM in grassland mixtures at initial stages, since more tolerant species to initial
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21 418 high soil water content could dominate and outcompete BAM. For example, as
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23 419 shown in Fig. 2: A, BAM under WW conditions showed lower accumulated
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25 420 evapotranspiration, while no differences between varieties were found under DW.
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27 421 Breeding programmes have used BCC to improve BAM cold-resistance (Real et
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29 422 al., 2014; Walker, Romero & Correal 2010); these crossed lines with BCC could
30
31 423 also improve BAM susceptibility to wet conditions (Raeside et al., 2012). The
32
33 424 efforts of the breeding programs to deliver wet conditions- and drought-resistant
34
35 425 ideotypes (Real et al., 2014) will be crucial to overcoming this potential limitation
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37 426 of BAM in permanent grasslands of the Mediterranean basin.

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39 427 The DW treatment of this experiment was not restrictive enough to cause SLA or
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41 428 other morphological modifications seen in previous studies (Foster et al., 2012;
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43 429 Foster et al., 2015; Martínez-Fernández et al., 2012). Only biomass-related
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45 430 variables and senescent to green leaf ratio contributed to differentiating between
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47 431 both treatments (Fig. 3. B). However, BAM and BCC had a significantly lower
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49 432 SLA than BBT, which could indicate a thicker and/or denser leaf for these
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51 433 varieties. The higher SLA of BBT could also be related to the lower NDF content

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3 434 in leaf (which indicates the cell-wall material) of this variety (Fig.5:C). Khaled,
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5 435 Duru, Decruyenaere, Jouany and Cruz, (2006) also found a negative correlation
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7 436 between SLA and fibre content in grassland species. SLA values for the three
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9 437 varieties were higher than those reported by Martínez-Fernández et al. (2012) for
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11 438 pot-grown plants and lower than SLA values of plants grown in the field in the
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13 439 same study. As these authors state, these differences might be due to different
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15 440 temperature and light intensity exposure. Foster et al. (2013) and Martínez-
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17 441 Fernández et al. (2012) suggested that lower SLA in BAM might play an
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19 442 important role in its protection against light intensity and water loss. Since BCC
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21 443 and BAM showed lower SLA (i.e., thicker and/or denser leaves), these two
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23 444 varieties could be better adapted than BBT to high light intensity and temperature.
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25 445 A_{area} and g_{Sarea} values of BAM measured at day 46 (that was not the point of
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27 446 maximum drought stress) were associated with higher leaf RWC (Foster et al.,
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29 447 2015) which confirms the drought adaptation of this variety (Foster et al., 2013).
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31 448 The differences in A_{area} of BCC by treatment could also be influenced by its
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33 449 RSWC at measurement time (day 46) under DW treatment, which was the lowest
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35 450 of the three varieties (12% vs 15% and 23% for BBT and BAM, respectively)
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37 451 (Fig.2: B). The significant lower A_{area} recorded for BBT under WW treatment
38
39 452 might indicate higher responsiveness to high temperature leading to earlier A_{area}
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41 453 reduction. The A_{area} and g_{Sarea} response of the different *B. bituminosa* varieties to
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43 454 increasing temperature and also light intensity could be further investigated in
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45 455 future research as it might play an important role in their adaptation to
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47 456 Mediterranean permanent grasslands.
48
49 457 In agreement with the results of this study, previous research has found little or no
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51 458 effect of moderate drought stress on the quality parameters of forage legumes
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3 459 (Komainda, et al., 2019; Kuchenmeister, Kuchenmeister, Kayser, Wrage &
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5 460 Isselstein, 2013). As Kuchenmeister et al. (2013) stated, selection of legume
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7 461 species and cultivation in mixture or monoculture may have more influence on
8
9 462 quality parameters than drought stress. These studies reported values of CP for
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11 463 alfalfa between 19% and 27% and informed of minor effect of drought stress on
12
13 464 CP content (Kuchenmeister et al. 2013; Staniak & Harasim, 2018). In this study,
14
15 465 just green leaves were sampled for nutritive analysis. Although green leaves might
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17 466 have no differences in quality, it is worth noting that drought stressed plants with
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19 467 senescent leaves may have lower global quality (lower digestibility and CP
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21 468 content and higher NDF and ADF) than those with no senescent leaves.
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26 469 Overall, BAM and BCC showed better forage aptitude than BBT due to the higher
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28 470 leaf proportion (Table 3). The leaf proportion is an important morphological value
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30 471 to assess the nutritive value of forage legumes (Abd El Moneim et al., 1990).
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32 472 Although BBT had similar leaf nutritive value to the other two varieties (Fig.4),
33
34 473 the lower leaf to stem ratio of this variety (Table 3) makes it less suitable as
35
36 474 forage since it reduces its palatability compared to BAM and BCC. As the PCA
37
38 475 showed, the LMF, leaf to stem ratio (both higher in BAM) and the SMF clearly
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40 476 contributed to differentiating the three varieties, especially between BAM and
41
42 477 BBT. The weighed average value of CP between stem and leaf of BAM (15%),
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44 478 BBT (12.5 %) and BCC (12.4%) were lower than concentrations found for
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46 479 Canarian varieties with values ranging from 15 to 17.7% for samples taken in
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48 480 summer (Ventura et al., 2009; Ventura, Méndez, Flores, Rodriguez & Castañón,
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50 481 2000), although similar to CP values from 9.4 to 16.1% reported for Italian
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52 482 accessions (Pecetti et al., 2007). As Ventura et al. (2009) informed, these varieties
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54 483 have higher forage quality than alfalfa hay, which showed values of 11.8% CP,
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3 484 57.4% NDF and 43.7% digestible organic matter. The weighed average
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5 485 concentrations of NDF (BAM 34.8%, BBT 38.4% and BCC 32.1%) and ADF
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7 486 (BAM 26.7%, BBT 28.1% and BCC 25.5%) were lower than previously
8
9 487 evaluated concentrations of Canarian varieties and other for Italian accessions that
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11 488 reported values of NDF from 41.1 to 53.7% (Pecetti et al., 2007; Ventura et al.,
12
13 489 2000; Ventura et al., 2009). These differences in NDF may be explained by the
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15 490 age of the plants sampled, three-year-old plants in the case of the Italian
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17 491 accessions (Pecetti et al., 2007). Evaluations of BAM nutritive value have shown
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19 492 CP to be highly variable depending on the accession analysed, with values
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21 493 ranging from 12.8% to 24.2% (Oldham et al., 2013; Raeside et al., 2012). The
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23 494 same studies presented lower values of NDF (25.4 - 32.8 %) and ADF (19.4 - 22.3
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25 495 %) (Oldham et al., 2013; Raeside et al., 2012) although these differences may be
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27 496 accounted for by the earlier phenological stage. Mismatches in reproductive
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29 497 development of the three studied varieties could be observed due to the different
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31 498 meteorology in their native environment (Méndez et al., 1990). Although
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33 499 phenology was not the subject of study here, the three varieties showed signs of
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35 500 being at the beginning of the reproductive stage without considerable differences
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37 501 between them. Melis et al. (2018) found some differences in the date of the first
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39 502 flower appearance between *B. bituminosa* Spanish accessions, Sardinian
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41 503 accessions and *Bituminaria morisiana* all grown in Sardinia (Italy). However, no
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43 504 significant differences were found for accessions of the three varieties from the
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45 505 Canary Islands. The intrinsic morphological traits such as leaf and stem mass
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47 506 fraction seem to have stronger effects on the forage aptitude than possible
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49 507 mismatches of the phenology between the three varieties. CP (15.0%), NDF
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51 508 (34.8%) and ADF (26.6%) stem and leaf average concentration of BAM were
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3 509 very similar to the concentrations also evaluated by near infrared analysis for the
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5 510 same variety by Adriansz, Hardy, Milton, Oldham, & Real, (2017), CP (15.0%),
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7 511 NDF (37.6%) and ADF (26.6%). However, it would be worth investigating the
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9 512 drought stress effect on phenology of the studied varieties since it would directly
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11 513 affect their nutritive value.
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15 514 Leaf ash content increased with WW treatment. This finding is consistent with
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17 515 other research that reported an increase in most leaf nutrient under well irrigated
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19 516 condition (Olivera-Viciedo et al., 2020), especially those nutrients that are
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21 517 passively uptaken (Wu, Liu, Wang, Zhang & Xu, 2012). Furthermore, ash content
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23 518 has been positively correlated with transpiration ratio (ratio of water transpired to
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25 519 carbon fixed) (Masle, Farquhar & Wong, 1992; Merah, Deleens, Souyris &
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27 520 Monneveux, 2001), and an increase in the later can occur under well irrigated
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29 521 condition. However, Masle et al. (1992) stated, that changes in the transpiration
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31 522 ratio induced by environmental factors (as atmospheric humidity or carbon
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33 523 dioxide concentration) do not cause a noticeable change in the mineral content.
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38 524 Leaf ash content can affect the response of the plant to water stress due to some
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40 525 nutrient are involved in water flow regulation. For example, moderate potassium
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42 526 starvation inhibits the mechanism of stomatal closure and can cause tissue
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44 527 dehydration in water-stressed plants (Benlloch-González, Arquero, Fournier,
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46 528 Barranco & Benlloch, 2008). In fact, we found a positive correlation between leaf
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48 529 ash content and RWC (result not shown). The ash content may seem higher
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50 530 compared to previous studies Italian accessions (6.0-7.7%) (Pecetti et al., 2007);
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52 531 however, similar values in Spanish accessions (9.18-12.2%) are reported by
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54 532 Oldham et al., (2013) and SIA (2019). These Canarian varieties show higher CP
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56 533 and lower NDF and ADF content than Mediterranean rainfed grasslands, at a
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3 534 similar phenological stage (Henkin et al., 2011; Vázquez De Aldana, García-
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5 535 Ciudad, & García-Criado, 2008; Zarovali, Yiakoulaki, & Papanastasis, 2007).
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7 536 This higher nutritive value together with its drought and grazing tolerances make
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9 537 this species a promising fodder plant for Mediterranean grasslands (Oldham et al.,
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11 538 2013; Real et al., 2017; Sternberg et al., 2006).

15 539 **5. Conclusion**

17
18 540 Water stress reduced biomass production equally for the three varieties. However,
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20 541 the initial soil water content affected the early development and biomass of BAM,
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22 542 which was reflected by the poor root system development. This denotes
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24 543 susceptibility of BAM to high soil water content which may limit its introduction
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26 544 to some Mediterranean farming systems, where periodic soil water saturation can
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28 545 be expected, especially at the beginning of the growing season. According to the
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30 546 morphological traits studied, BAM showed the best forage aptitude. The lower
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32 547 SLA of BAM and BCC is an important adaptation against high light intensity and
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34 548 temperature in arid environments. The three *B. bituminosa* native to the Canary
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36 549 Islands showed good nutritive value for their use to improve the quality of
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38 550 Mediterranean rainfed pastures.

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41 551 The wide diversity of existing varieties and the progress of the breeding
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43 552 programmes developed in Spain and Australia based on Canarian *B. bituminosa*
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45 553 varieties bring forward the opportunity for the incorporation of these lines for the
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47 554 improvement of Mediterranean pastures. However, additional research through
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49 555 continuous monitoring of its use and long-term field experiments will be needed
50
51 556 to confirm the proper adaptation of the improved lines and selected ideotypes to
52
53 557 the wide range of Mediterranean environmental conditions.
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3 809 **Table 1.** Population and descriptive location data for the three varieties used. *B.*
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5 810 *bituminosa* var. *albomarginata* (BAM); *B. bituminosa* var. *bituminosa* (BBT); *B.*
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7 811 *bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula* (BCC).
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Variety	Population	Location	Average Rainfall (mm)	Altitude (m)	Mean temperature (°C) hottest/coldest months	Average annual evapotranspiration (mm)
BAM	Malpaso	Lanzarote	150-250	250-280	24/16	1293
BCC	Chavao-Cañadas	Tenerife	500	1900-2200	22/8	1585
BBT	Tamarco	Tenerife	400	400	22/15	1208

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827 **Table 2.** Dry mass production and senescent leaves to green leaves ratio at the end of the
 828 experiment (63 days) for *B. bituminosa* varieties under two water regimes.

Variety	Treatment	Shoot dry mass (g)	Root dry mass (g)	Total dry mass (g)	Senescent leaves: Green leaves (g g ⁻¹)
BAM	WW	6.0 ± 1.0 c	2.7 ± 0.4 c	8.7 ± 1.4 c	0.38 ± 0.10 b
	DW	3.0 ± 0.7 d	1.2 ± 0.4 d	4.2 ± 1.1 d	0.52 ± 0.03 a
BBT	WW	13.7 ± 1.4 a	5.9 ± 0.9 a	19.6 ± 1.9 a	0.33 ± 0.06 b
	DW	6.7 ± 1.4 b	3.1 ± 0.5 b	9.8 ± 1.8 b	0.35 ± 0.03 a
BCC	WW	12.5 ± 1.7 a	8.0 ± 1.3 a	20.5 ± 2.2 a	0.18 ± 0.04 b
	DW	7.1 ± 0.4 b	3.5 ± 0.3 b	10.6 ± 0.5 b	0.32 ± 0.04 a

829 Mean values (n = 6) not sharing a common letter differ significantly ($P < 0.05$) according to
 830 Tukey's test. Standard error is showed. BAM: *B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT: *B.*
 831 *bituminosa* var. *bituminosa*; BCC: *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*.

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3 **845 Table 3.** Morphological traits at the end of the experiment (63 days) for the *B. bituminosa*
4 varieties. Mean of the two water regime treatments is presented. Leaf to stem ratio, root to
5 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
6 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
7 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
8 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
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10 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
11 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction
12 shoot ratio, Leaf mass fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction

Variety	Leaf:Stem ratio (g g ⁻¹)	Root: Shoot ratio (g g ⁻¹)	LMF (g g ⁻¹)	SMF (g g ⁻¹)	RMF (g g ⁻¹)	SLA (cm ² g ⁻¹)	LAR (cm ² g ⁻¹)
BAM	1.06 ± 0.10 a	0.46 ± 0.05 n.s.	0.36 ± 0.02 a	0.35 ± 0.02 b	0.29 ± 0.02 b	235 ± 10.0 b	86.9 ± 7.3 a
BBT	0.38 ± 0.04 c	0.47 ± 0.04 n.s.	0.19 ± 0.02 c	0.50 ± 0.02 a	0.31 ± 0.02 ab	352 ± 17.0 a	64.1 ± 4.8 b
BCC	0.80 ± 0.03 b	0.59 ± 0.06 n.s.	0.28 ± 0.01 b	0.36 ± 0.01 b	0.36 ± 0.02 a	239 ± 9.3 b	67.6 ± 3.7 ab

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18 **849** Mean values (n = 6) not sharing a common letter differ significantly ($P < 0.05$) according to

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20 **850** Tukey's test. Standard error is showed. BAM: *B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT: *B.*

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22 **851** *bituminosa* var. *bituminosa*; BCC: *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*. n.s.: no significant.

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868 **Table 4.** Relative water content (RWC) of the leaf, net photosynthesis per area (A_{area}),
 869 stomatal conductance per area (g_{Sarea}) and water use efficiency (WUE) for *B. bituminosa*
 870 varieties under two water regimes measured at day 46.

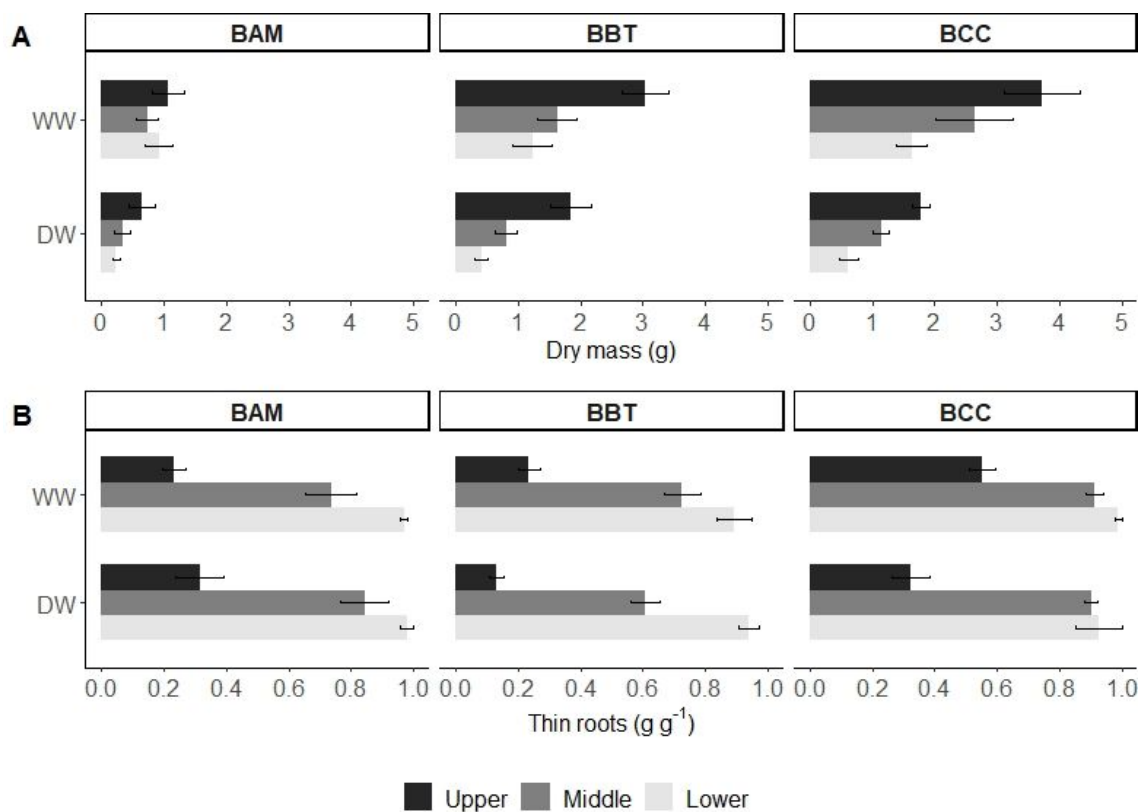
Variety	Treatment	RWC (%)	A_{area} ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	g_{Sarea} ($\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	WUE ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2$ ($\text{molH}_2\text{O}^{-1}$))
BAM	WW	85.5 ± 1.5 a	19.9 ± 1.6 a	192.5 ± 8.5 a	105.6 ± 11.3 n.s.
	DW	92.1 ± 1.0 a	15.5 ± 2.1 a	164.9 ± 20.4 b	104.9 ± 21.4 n.s.
BBT	WW	83.5 ± 2.5 b	6.0 ± 2.0 bc	54.7 ± 11.8 c	117.2 ± 18.0 n.s.
	DW	77.3 ± 4.7 b	4.7 ± 1.1 c	35.2 ± 4.3 d	124.7 ± 21.6 n.s.
BCC	WW	81.9 ± 3.4 b	13.3 ± 2.7 ab	75.5 ± 29.9 c	138.9 ± 28.4 n.s.
	DW	74.8 ± 4.2 b	2.5 ± 0.6 c	23.2 ± 5.3 d	86.3 ± 13.6 n.s.

871 Mean values (n = 6) not sharing a common letter differ significantly ($P < 0.05$) according to

872 Tukey's test. Standard error is showed. BAM: *B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT: *B.*

873 *bituminosa* var. *bituminosa*; BCC: *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*. n.s.: no significant.

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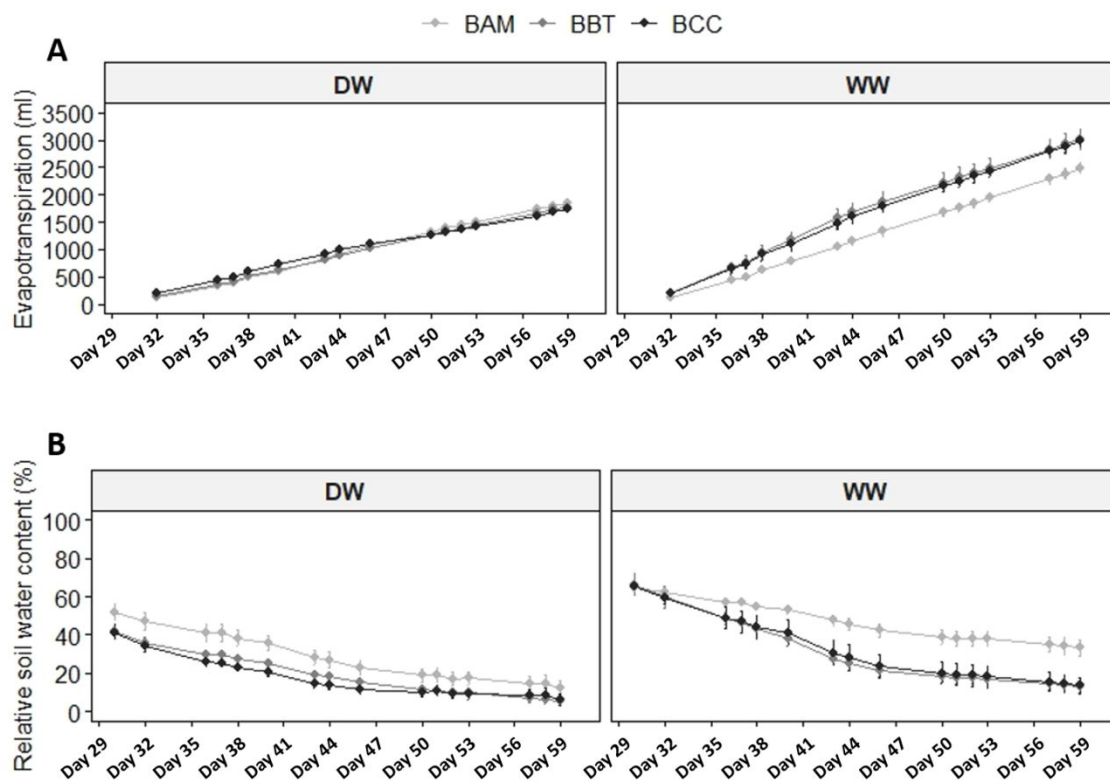
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876 **Fig.1. A:** Root dry mass distribution along the three soil layers at the end of the877 experiment (63 days) for *B. bituminosa* varieties under two water regimes and **B:**878 Proportion of thin roots. Thin roots proportion down the three soil layers for *Bituminaria*879 *bituminosa* varieties. BAM=*B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT=*B. bituminosa* var.880 *bituminosa*; BCC= *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*; WW= well-watered; DW=deficit-

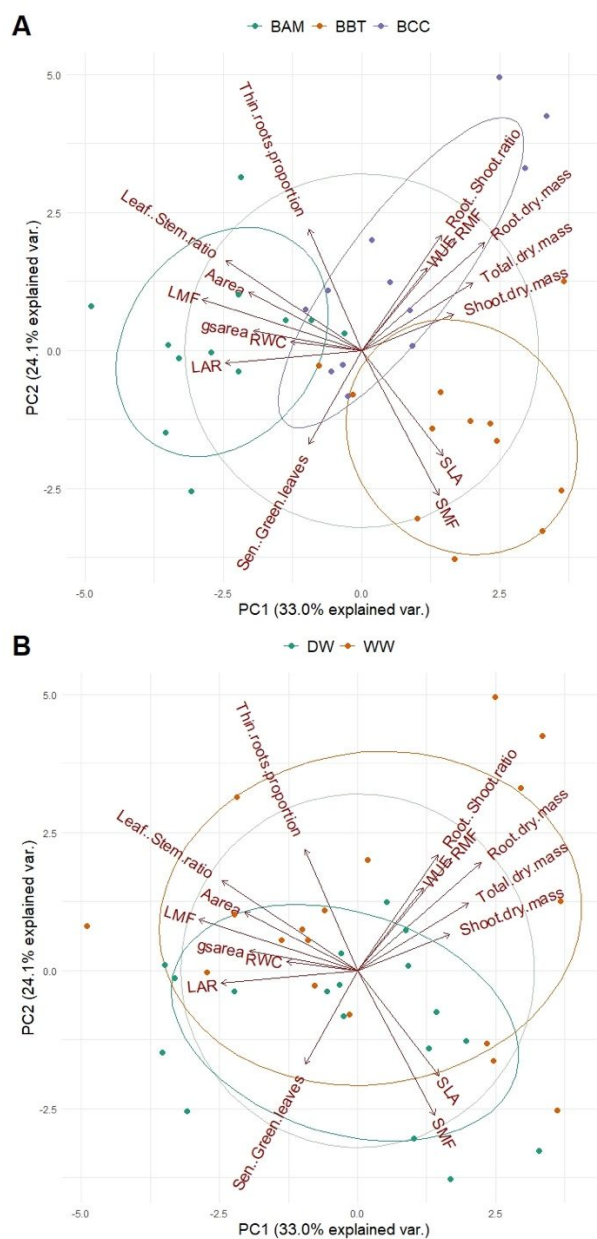
881 watered. Mean values and standard errors (N=6).

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 885 **Fig.2.** Evapotranspiration (ml) (A) and relative soil water content (RSWC) (%) (B) of *B.*
 886 *bituminosa* varieties under two water regimes WW= well-watered and DW=deficit-
 887 watered. BAM=*B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT=*B. bituminosa* var. *bituminosa*;
 888 BCC= *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*. Mean values and standard errors (N=4).



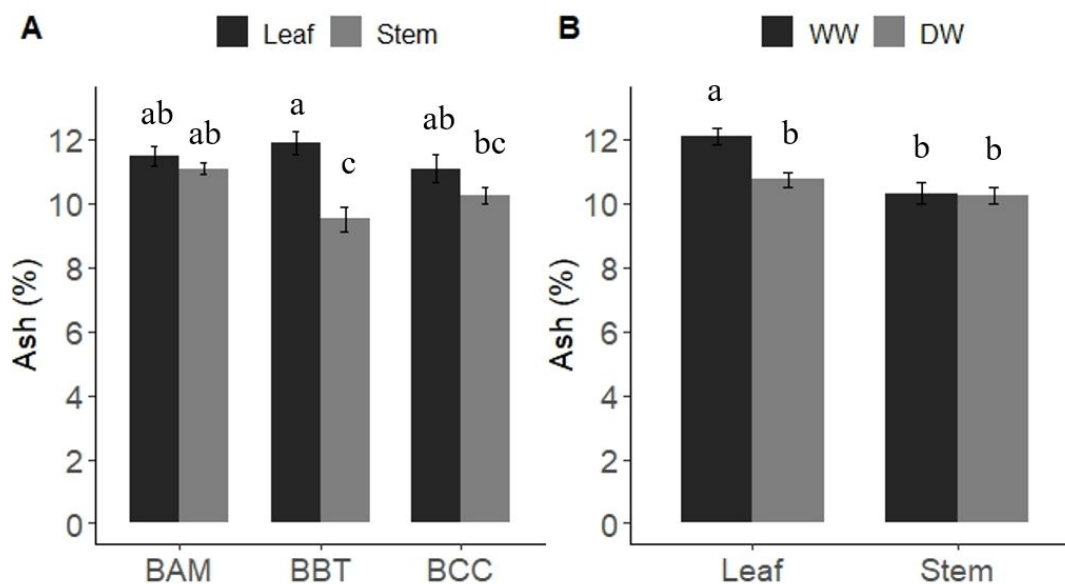
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890 **Fig. 3.** Principal component analysis (PCA) showing the two main axes of variability in
 891 morphological and physiological variables. Normal ellipse grouping observations by *B.*
 892 *bituminosa* variety: BAM=*B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT=*B. bituminosa* var.
 893 *bituminosa*; BCC= *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula* (A) and water regime: WW= well-
 894 watered and DW=deficit-watered (B). Abbreviations: net photosynthesis per area
 895 (Aarea), stomatal conductance per area (gsarea), water use efficiency (WUE), Leaf mass
 896 fraction (LMF), stem mass fraction (SMF), root mass fraction (RMF), specific leaf area
 897 (SLA) and leaf area ratio (LAR), Senescent to green leaves ratio (Sen.green,leaves).

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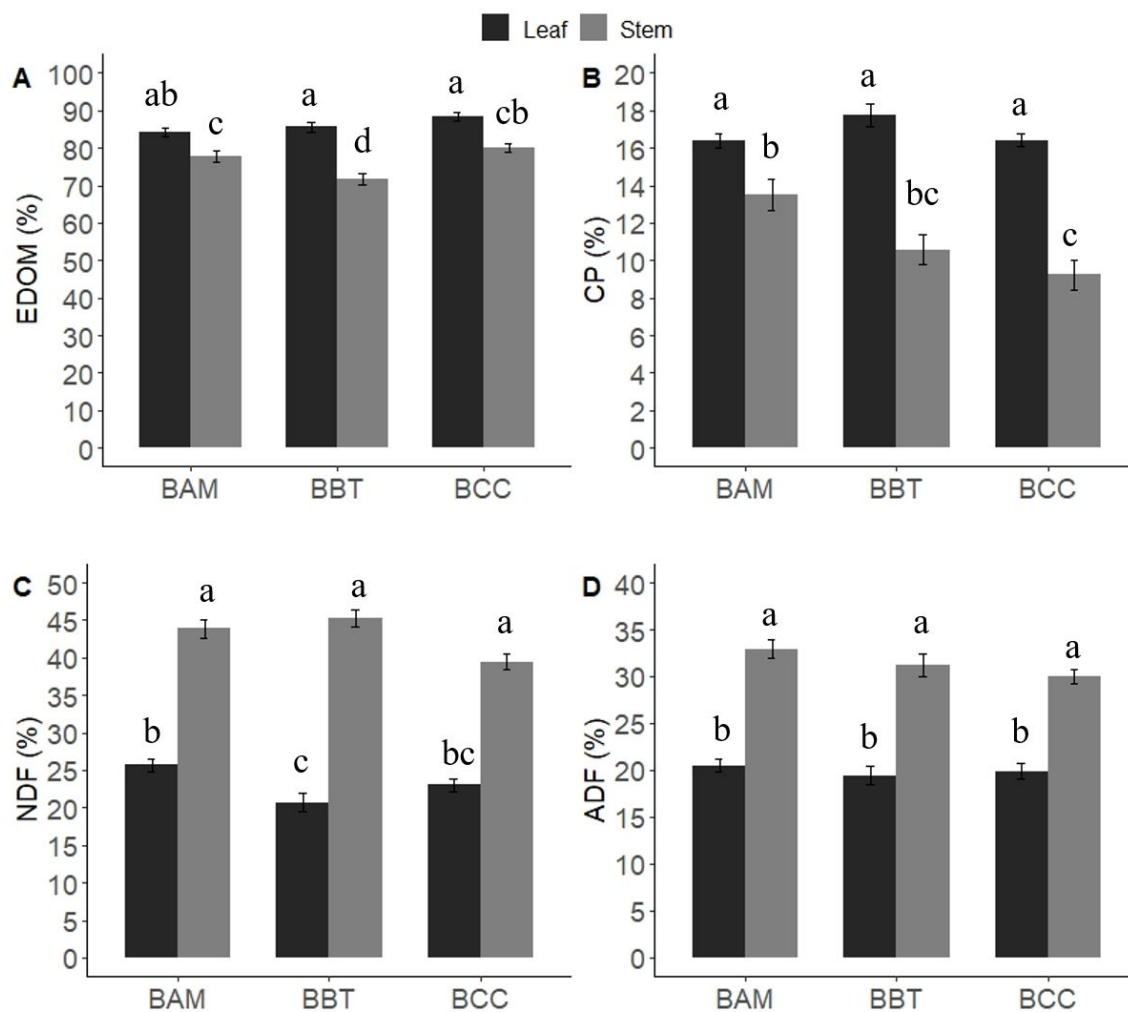
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903 **Fig. 4.** Ash content (%) in leaf and stem of *B. bituminosa* varieties (means of two water
 904 regimes) (A), and in leaf and stem under two water regimes WW= well-watered and
 905 DW=deficit-watered (means of three *B. bituminosa* varieties) (B) at the end of the
 906 experiment (63 days). BAM=*B. bituminosa* var. *albomarginata*; BBT=*B. bituminosa* var.
 907 *bituminosa*; BCC= *B. bituminosa* var. *crassiuscula*. Mean values and standard errors
 908 (N=4). Means not sharing a common letter differ significantly (P < 0.05) according to
 909 Tukey's test.



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911 **Fig. 5.** Enzyme digestibility of organic matter (EDOM) (A), crude protein (CP) (B),
 912 neutral detergent fibre (NDF) (C) and acid detergent fibre (ADF) (D) of leaf and stem of
 913 *B. bituminosa* varieties at the end of the experiment (63 days). BAM=*B. bituminosa* var.
 914 *albomarginata*; BBT=*B. bituminosa* var. *bituminosa*; BCC=*B. bituminosa* var.
 915 *crassiuscula*. Mean values and standard errors (N=4). Means not sharing a common letter
 916 differ significantly ($P < 0.05$) according to Tukey's test.

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8. Supplementary material

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For Peer Review