Reduced nighttime transpiration is a relevant breeding target for high water-use efficiency in grapevine

Aude Coupel-Ledru[a,1], Eric Lebon[a], Angélique Christophe[a], Agustina Gallo[a], Pilar Gago[b], Florent Pantin[a], Agnès Doligez[c], and Thierry Simonneau[a,1]

[a]UMR Laboratoire d'Ecophysiologie des Plantes sous Stress Environnementaux (LEPSE), Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA), Montpellier SupAgro, 34060 Montpellier, France; [b]Misión Biológica de Galicia, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (MBG-CSIC), 36143 Pontevedra, Spain; and [c]UMR Amélioration Génétique et Adaptation des Plantes méditerranéennes et tropicales (AGAP), Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA), F-34060 Montpellier, France

Edited by Natasha V. Raikhel, Center for Plant Cell Biology, Riverside, CA, and approved June 17, 2016 (received for review January 16, 2016)

Increasing water scarcity challenges crop sustainability in many regions. As a consequence, the enhancement of transpiration efficiency (TE)—that is, the biomass produced per unit of water transpired—has become crucial in breeding programs. This could be achieved by reducing plant transpiration through a better closure of the stomatal pores at the leaf surface. However, this strategy generally also lowers growth, as stomatal opening is necessary for the capture of atmospheric CO_2 that feeds daytime photosynthesis. Here, we considered the reduction in transpiration rate at night (E_n) as a possible strategy to limit water use without altering growth. For this purpose, we carried out a genetic analysis for E_n and TE in grapevine, a major crop in drought-prone areas. Using recently developed phenotyping facilities, potted plants of a cross between Syrah and Grenache cultivars were screened for 2 y under well-watered and moderate soil water deficit scenarios. High genetic variability was found for E_n under both scenarios and was primarily associated with residual diffusion through the stomata. Five quantitative trait loci (QTLs) were detected that underlay genetic variability in E_n. Interestingly, four of them colocalized with QTLs for TE. Moreover, genotypes with favorable alleles on these common QTLs exhibited reduced E_n without altered growth. These results demonstrate the interest of breeding grapevine for lower water loss at night and pave the way to breeding other crops with this underexploited trait for higher TE.

night transpiration | transpiration efficiency | growth | stomata | QTL

Understanding how plants make efficient use of water has become a priority in the context of climate change and reduced water availability (1, 2). Plants inevitably lose water vapor by transpiration while capturing atmospheric CO_2 for photosynthesis through stomatal pores at the leaf surface. Photosynthesis and transpiration covary with the aperture and density of stomatal pores depending on genotypes and environmental conditions (3, 4). In addition, photosynthesis and transpiration rates are codetermined by the leaf area, which is involved in light capture and is subjected to evaporation. Thus, plant productivity is positively coupled with transpirational water losses through stomatal characteristics and shoot development. This coupling has prompted plant scientists to define transpiration efficiency (TE) as the amount of biomass produced per unit of water used through transpiration (5). Because TE shows significant variations across species and varieties, it has been proposed as a relevant target in breeding programs for areas with restricted water availability (2).

Breeders have substantially improved TE by selecting plants with more efficient photosynthesis or higher allocation of photosynthates to harvested organs (6). Another way to improve TE is to decrease the amount of water lost by transpiration. However, the tight coupling between transpiration and photosynthesis during the day in C_3 and C_4 species makes it challenging to decrease water loss without reducing crop yield: genotypes that save the most water often show the lowest photosynthesis rate and yield (7). This drawback may be circumvented by selecting alleles or manipulating genes that uncouple transpiration from photosynthesis. Such a selection has been facilitated by the widespread use of $\delta^{13}C$, a proxy for daytime TE based on the carbon isotope discrimination that occurs during photosynthesis (8). This strategy has been successfully implemented in both model plants and crops to detect genomic regions associated with the control of TE, which are being exploited in breeding programs (9, 10), or serve as starting points to investigate the genetic determinism and ecological significance of the variation in TE (11–13).

An alternative yet unexplored strategy to improve TE (14) could be to select plants with a reduced rate of water loss at night (E_n), when photosynthesis is not operating due to the absence of light. Although plants actively close their stomata in the dark, stomatal closure is largely incomplete and nighttime transpiration can be substantial, accounting for up to 30% of the plant's daytime water loss (15). Furthermore, variation in E_n has been identified across (15–17) and within (15, 18–20) plant species, but little is known about the underlying genetic determinisms. In the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, natural variation in nighttime transpiration was detected (21, 22) and found to contribute significantly to total transpiration (23). However, genotypes with reduced E_n also exhibited lower photosynthesis rate and growth (21), hindering further developments in breeding programs. More recently, *A. thaliana* mutants were isolated, showing impaired nighttime transpiration and intact growth (24). This suggests that genomic regions may be identified with beneficial alleles, allowing plants to save water at night without altering growth. However, no study so far has attempted to jointly analyze the genetic determinisms of E_n, TE, and growth at the whole genome scale of a plant species.

Significance

Breeding crops with more biomass produced per drop of water transpired is a key challenge in the context of climate change. However, the tight coupling between transpiration and carbon assimilation during the day makes it challenging to decrease water loss without altering photosynthesis and reducing crop yield. We tested whether reducing transpiration at night when photosynthesis is inactive could substantially reduce water loss without altering growth—a hypothesis that, to our knowledge, has never been genetically addressed in any species. By studying a whole progeny in grapevine, a major crop for drought-prone areas, we identified genomic regions where selection could be operated to reduce transpiration at night and maintain growth. This opens new horizons for breeding crops with higher water-use efficiency.

Author contributions: A.C.-L., E.L., A.C., and T.S. designed research; A.C.-L., E.L., A.C., A.G., P.G., and T.S. performed research; A.C.-L. and A.G. analyzed data; and A.C.-L., F.P., and T.S. wrote the paper with the contribution of E.L., A.C., and A.D.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Freely available online through the PNAS open access option.

[1]To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: thierry.simonneau@supagro.inra.fr or aude.coupel-ledru@supagro.inra.fr.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1600826113/-/DCSupplemental.

Here we show that TE can be bred by reducing E_n independently of daytime stomatal behavior in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.), a cultivated perennial species of high economic importance for drought-prone areas. Genetic variations in TE (25) and E_n (20, 26, 27) have been independently reported in *V. vinifera*, but the genetic basis of a possible link between these two traits has never been examined. In our study, we jointly examine TE and E_n in a mapping population obtained from the cross between two widespread cultivars, Syrah and Grenache (S×G), previously described as exhibiting different daytime water use (28, 29). We highlight that part of the genetic variation in TE is tightly linked to the variation in E_n. Incomplete stomatal closure and, to a lesser extent, water loss through the cuticle account for a large part of the genetic variability in E_n. Several genomic loci underlying the variation in E_n are identified under well-watered (WW) conditions and soil water deficit (WD). Based on genetic information on these loci, offspring genotypes could be selected with favorable alleles that enhance TE by reducing E_n without altering plant growth.

Results and Discussion

Nocturnal Transpiration in Grapevine: Substantial Losses Under Tight Genetic Control. We first characterized the variability of nighttime water loss and its response to soil WD in a pseudo-F1 population obtained from a cross between the two grapevine cultivars Syrah and Grenache. Potted plants (186 offspring plus the parents) were grown in a phenotyping platform in a greenhouse under both WW and WD conditions. Transpiration rates were determined in a chamber under stabilized climatic conditions. Experiments were repeated over 2 successive years and gave similar mean values with similar genetic variability, although with slight differences between years for most of the traits (*SI Appendix*, Table S1). Genotypic values reported hereafter for all traits were estimated as Best Linear Unbiased Predictions (BLUPs) from mixed models using replicates from either 2012, 2013, or both years.

Substantial, nocturnal rates of water loss (E_n) were recorded with a highly significant genotypic effect regardless of the year and watering scenario (*SI Appendix*, Table S1), resulting in broad-sense heritability up to 0.86 (*SI Appendix*, Table S2). Mean genotypic E_n values recorded under WW conditions for Grenache and Syrah (0.070 and 0.091 mmol·m^{-2}·s^{-1}, respectively) were consistent with previous reports (20). The offspring exhibited much higher contrasts, with E_n ranging from 0.054 to 0.136 mmol·m^{-2}·s^{-1} (Fig. 1*C*), similar to ranges reported in several species (15). Comparatively, diurnal rates of water loss (E_d) ranged from 0.69 to 1.13 mmol·m^{-2}·s^{-1} (Fig. 1*D*). WD decreased mean E_n of the population by 37% compared with WW (Fig. 1*C*), whereas it decreased E_d by 50% (Fig. 1*D*), resulting in a stronger contribution of E_n to daily water loss under WD. Interestingly, genotype ranking for E_n was mostly conserved between WW and WD conditions, as indicated by the tight correlation between the genotypic values of E_n under these two conditions (Fig. 1*F*). The correlation was looser for E_d (Fig. 1*G*). This suggests that the genetic determinism of E_n is less subjected to environmental interaction than E_d, making E_n a simpler target for breeding. The E_n/E_d ratio, which gives the extent of nighttime compared with daytime transpiration, was ruled by a significant effect of the genotype (*SI Appendix*, Table S1) and high heritability (up to 0.87). E_n accounted for 6–14% of E_d under WW conditions, whereas it reached up to 23% of E_d under WD conditions (Fig. 1*E*). The ranking of genotypes for E_n/E_d was largely conserved between both watering scenarios (Fig. 1*H*). Most importantly, the genotypic values of E_n and E_d only loosely correlated, notably under WD (Fig. 1 *I* and *J*). Deviation from this correlation suggests that genotypes with low E_n but high E_d could be exploited to substantially reduce water loss at night without lowering gas exchange in the daytime.

To test whether results obtained in controlled environment were conserved in outdoor conditions, a subset of 14 genotypes with contrasting transpiration rates were grown outdoors. Potted plants were regularly weighed over a 24-h period on a clear summer night followed by a bright sunny day, typical of the Mediterranean climate. Overall, genotype ranks for the contribution of night relative to daytime water losses (E_n/E_d) were mostly conserved regardless of conditions (Fig. 1*K*). Compared with controlled conditions, outdoor daytime evaporative demand and light were particularly high (*SI Appendix*, Table S3), resulting in a general decrease in E_n/E_d (Fig. 1*K*). Nevertheless, E_n/E_d values still reached up to 10% for extreme genotypes (Fig. 1*K*).

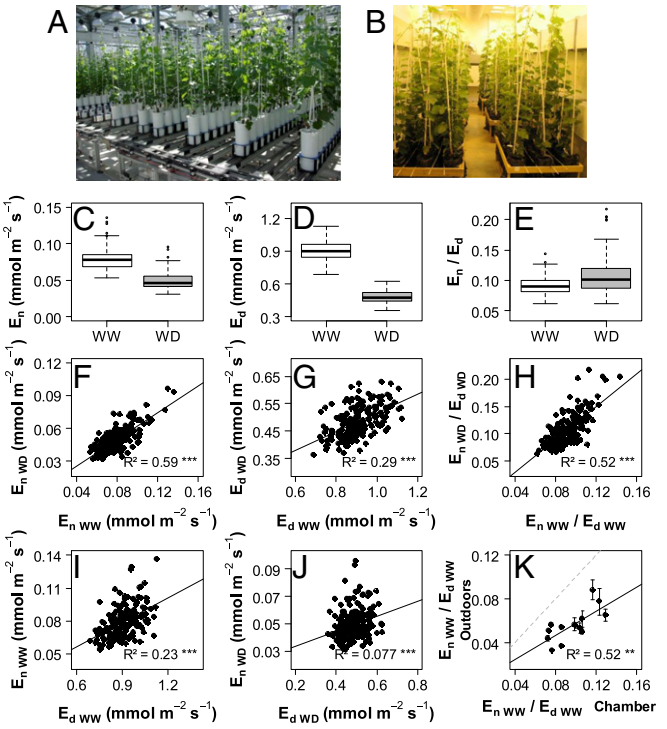


Fig. 1. Genetic variability in transpiration rates measured in the nighttime (E_n) and daytime (E_d) on potted plants of an S×G population. Offspring and parents (188 genotypes) were grown and subjected to either WW or WD conditions on a greenhouse phenotyping platform (*A*) during two experiments in 2012 and 2013. Plants were transferred to a controlled environment chamber (*B*) to determine E_n and E_d. (*C–E*) Boxplots of the genotypic values (BLUPs for the whole dataset merging 2012 and 2013) for E_n, E_d, and E_n/E_d under WW and WD conditions. (*F–H*) Comparisons of genotypic values between WW and WD scenarios. (*I* and *J*) Correlation between daytime and nighttime genotypic values of transpiration rates under WW (*I*) and WD (*J*) conditions. (*K*) Comparison of genotypic values of E_n/E_d between controlled (*x* axis) and outdoor (*y* axis) conditions for a subset of 14 genotypes. Pearson's determination coefficients (R^2) are indicated with their significance level as follows: $^{**}P < 0.01$, $^{***}P < 0.001$. Regression lines are represented in black and bisecting lines in dotted gray. Means and SD of genotypic values are presented in *SI Appendix*, Table S1 together with effects of genotype, water scenario, and year.

Genetic Variability in Nighttime Transpiration Mostly Originates from Incomplete Stomatal Closure in the Dark. The fact that a significant transpiration rate was found at night even under WD (Fig. 1*C*) raises questions about the origin of this nocturnal water loss. Although recent studies have shown that stomata remain partially open in the dark (30, 31), including in grapevine (32), a slightly permeable cuticle might also be responsible for these observations. To decipher the respective contributions of stomata and cuticle to the genetic variability of E_n, a subset of 28 genotypes with contrasting E_n were selected from the S×G population. Detached leaves from potted plants cultivated outdoors were fed with solutions of artificial sap, and E_n was determined once stabilized under controlled atmospheric conditions in darkness (control in Fig. 2*A*). A significant effect of the genotype on E_n was detected ($P < 0.001$), and genotypic values measured on detached leaves correlated with

values obtained on whole plants (Fig. 2*B*). Higher values for detached leaves than for whole plants were consistent with a higher stomatal density (168 ± 31 stomata mm^{-2}) that is typical of plants grown outdoors rather than under greenhouse conditions (108 ± 25 stomata mm^{-2}). The detached leaves were then transferred to a solution supplemented with abscisic acid (ABA), a drought hormone that induces stomatal closure. The ABA treatment significantly reduced E_n by 70% on average compared with control (Fig. 2*A*), indicating that stomata had remained substantially open under dark conditions before ABA addition. Stomatal contribution to E_n was calculated as the percentage variation in E_n induced by ABA, assuming that feeding detached leaves with ABA at supraphysiological concentration induced maximal stomatal closure. Stomatal contribution largely varied across genotypes ($P < 0.001$), ranging from 30% to 90%, and strongly correlated with E_n (Fig. 2*C*). This indicates that variability in the stomatal contribution to water loss at night, as estimated with the ABA assay, accounted for an important part of the genetic variability of E_n. Genotypes with higher E_n also displayed higher stomatal density in a subset of five genotypes (Fig. 2*D*). This suggests that stomatal density also contributed to the genetic variability of E_n observed in our study, contrasting with a previous report (33).

Cuticular Water Losses: Tight Genetic Control for a Small Fraction of Nighttime Transpiration. A small but consistent rate of water loss was still recorded on detached leaves after the ABA treatment (Fig. 2*A*). This remaining loss may be due to the inability of stomata to fully close (34) or to a slight permeability of the cuticle on the leaf epidermis. Taking advantage of the hypostomatous feature of grapevine—that is, the absence of stomata on the adaxial side of the leaves—we quantified water loss through the adaxial cuticle by waterproofing the abaxial side of detached leaves with petroleum jelly. As an average for all genotypes tested, the resulting, residual rate of water loss accounted for 15% of total E_n observed for control leaves (Fig. 2*A*). It approached half of E_n observed upon ABA treatment, suggesting that water loss through the abaxial cuticle was close to that of the adaxial cuticle. Assuming that water loss through the cuticle was similar on both leaf sides (i.e., negligible part played by water vapor leaks through ABA-treated stomata), we inferred that total cuticular water loss from both sides accounted for 30% of E_n, the remaining 70% being due to incomplete stomatal closure in the dark, in agreement with previous estimates in grapevine (27, 35). Moreover, we found a significant effect of the genotype on cuticular water loss ($P < 0.001$). This suggests that cuticular water loss, although low compared with stomatal transpiration under WW conditions, may represent a relevant breeding target, with a likely higher contribution under WD when stomata close more fully.

Nighttime Transpiration, Daytime Transpiration, and Growth Only Partly Share Their Genetic Determinisms. The genetic determinism of E_n was examined in whole plants by searching for underlying QTLs. Detection was performed on BLUPs calculated for individual years (2012 or 2013) and for the 2-y dataset on the consensus S×G map (36). Significant QTLs for E_n were detected on five linkage groups (LGs) for 2012 and/or 2013 and WW and/or WD (Fig. 3), with a higher confidence level under WD (*SI Appendix*, Table S5). Contributions of alleles to individual QTLs were mainly due to additive effects with very few dominance effects between alleles (*SI Appendix*, Table S5). Each of these QTLs individually accounted for 8–24% of the total variance (*SI Appendix*, Table S5) and for up to 36% altogether (for WD in 2012). Three genomic regions of particular interest, located on LGs 1, 4, and 13, contained stable QTLs for E_n in 2012 and 2013 under WD. The identification of stable QTLs where alleles had mostly additive effects is a promising, primary step toward marker-assisted selection on E_n.

We then examined whether the genetic variations of E_n and E_d could be uncoupled from each other, as suggested by the weak correlations between the two traits (Fig. 1 *I* and *J*). Five QTLs were found on LGs 1, 2, 10, and 17 as determining genetic variation in E_d (Fig. 3 and *SI Appendix*, Table S5). Although E_d was much larger than E_n, the associated QTLs were less stable across years and watering scenarios, probably due to stronger differences in climatic conditions during the day between the 2 y of experiment (29). Importantly, most of the QTLs detected for E_d did not colocalize with QTLs for E_n. The only exception was a colocalization on LG 1 (Fig. 3), where allelic variation had parallel effects on both traits (Fig. 4*A* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1 *A* and *B*). The four other QTLs that were exclusively detected for E_n suggested they could be related to specific regulators of stomatal closure in darkness, such as those recently classified as *OPEN ALL NIGHT LONG* (24). Thus, choosing favorable alleles on QTLs for E_n that do not colocalize with QTLs for E_d should allow a reduction in nighttime water loss without altering daytime gas exchange.

Finally, we assessed whether genetic variations in E_d and E_n were associated to variations in growth. Growth rate (ΔBiomass) was estimated for the whole offspring in the greenhouse over periods of 10–15 d with stabilized soil water content by analyzing sequences of images taken in the phenotyping platform. ΔBiomass was ruled by a highly significant effect of the genotype, and heritability reached up to 0.71. Five QTLs were detected on LGs 4, 10, 15, 17, and 18 (Fig. 3), altogether accounting for up to 30% of

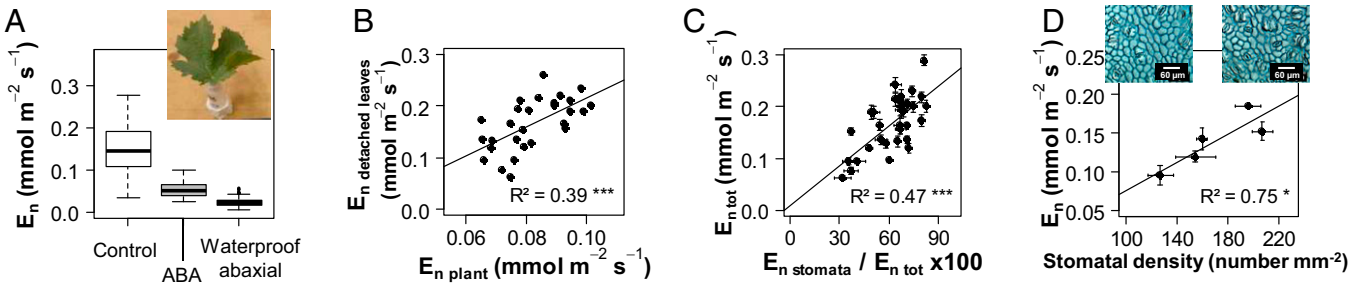


Fig. 2. Genetic variability in nighttime transpiration (E_n) measured on detached leaves subjected to different treatments for a subset of genotypes selected in the S×G population. (*A*) Detached leaves fed with control, artificial sap; effect of 128 mmol m^{-3} (+) ABA added to the solution (boxplots for 28 genotypes) and effect of waterproofing of the abaxial side (boxplot for 15 genotypes). The *Inset* picture shows a representative leaf in solution. (*B*) Comparison for 28 genotypes between E_n measured on detached leaves fed with control, artificial sap (mean for $n = 5$ leaves per genotype, *y* axis) and genotypic E_n values measured on WW whole plants (2013 experiment, *x* axis). (*C*) Comparison between total E_n measured on detached leaves fed with artificial sap ($E_{n\ tot}$) and estimate of stomatal contribution to E_n calculated as the percentage reduction in E_n induced by ABA ($E_{n\ stomata}$) relative to $E_{n\ tot}$ for 28 genotypes. (*D*) Correlation between E_n measured on detached leaves fed with artificial sap and stomatal density for five genotypes; pictures show imprints of the abaxial leaf surface for two genotypes with low (*Left*) or high (*Right*) stomatal density. (Scale bar, 60 µm.) In *C* and *D*, mean ± SE for five leaves per genotype.

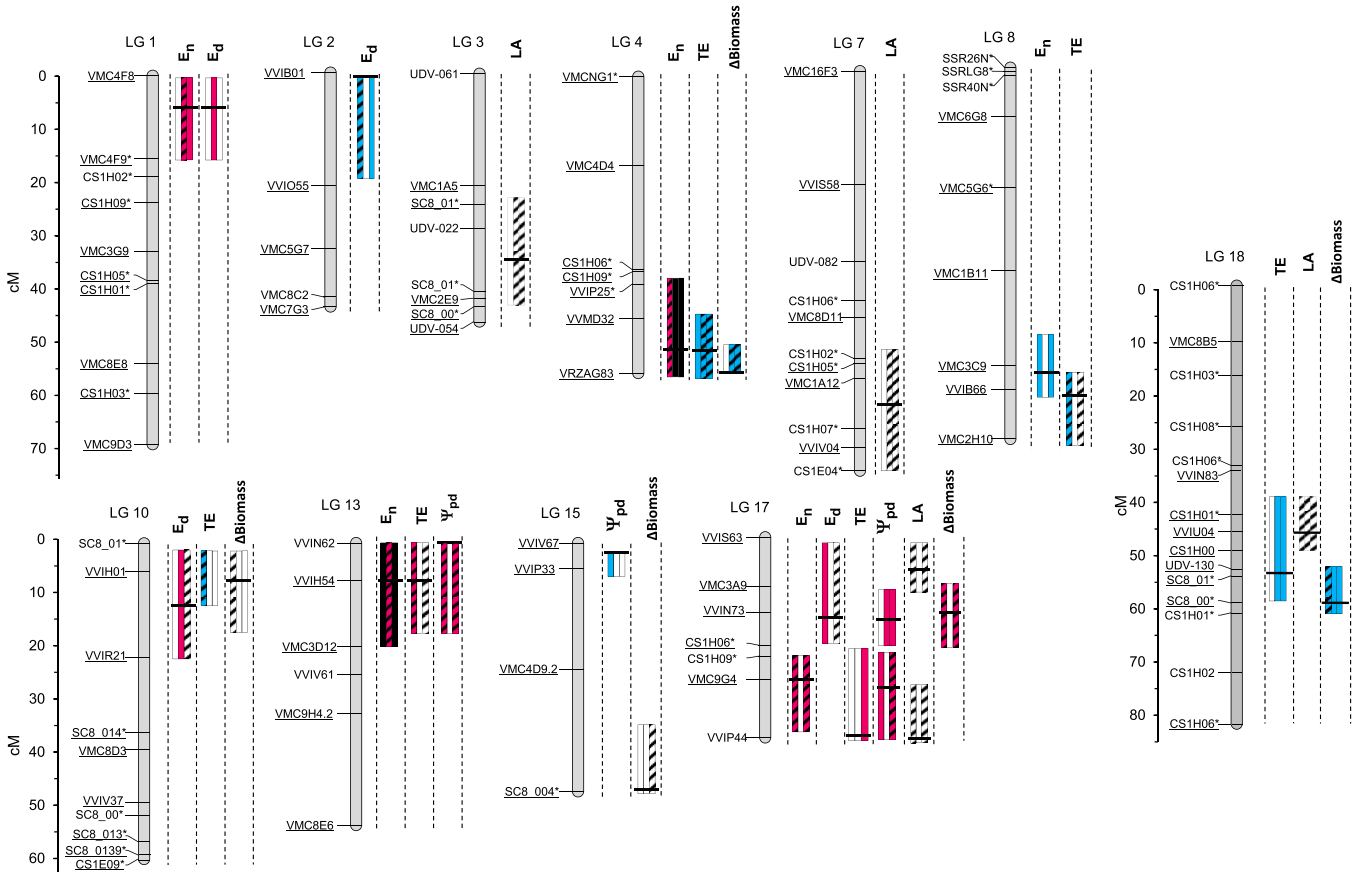


Fig. 3. Localization on the S×G linkage map of the most important QTLs detected for transpiration rates during the nighttime (E_n) and daytime (E_d), transpiration efficiency (TE), predawn water potential (Ψ_{pd}), shoot growth (ΔBiomass), and leaf area (LA). Each QTL is represented by three bars, either filled when significant in 2012 (left), 2013 (middle), and 2012+2013 (right) or left empty if not, and colored in blue or red when detected under WW or WD conditions or filled with black when detected under both conditions or else hatched when detected with the multiscenario dataset (WW+WD). Central mark in the bars indicates the position L where maximum logarithm of odds (LOD) score was obtained, and bar length represents the confidence region for the QTL (where LOD score exceeded maximum LOD – 1). When several QTLs were detected for the same trait with different positions L but with overlapping confidence regions, only one bar was figured with L corresponding to the highest LOD score; when the length of their confidence regions differed, the shorter one was figured. Fully informative markers (segregating in four allelic classes) are underlined. The longest marker names have been truncated and suffixed * (29). Complete description of the QTLs is provided in *SI Appendix*, Table S5.

the variance. Stable localizations between years were found on two LGs (4 and 18; *SI Appendix*, Table S5). Two QTL colocalizations were found for ΔBiomass and E_d with parallel allelic effects (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S2), reflecting the positive relationship between transpiration and photosynthesis rates in the daytime. As expected from this relationship, genotypes with reduced transpiration rates also exhibited reduced growth, especially under WD (*SI Appendix*, Table S4). By contrast, the genotypic values of E_n and ΔBiomass did not correlate under WW (*SI Appendix*, Table S4). Furthermore, a negative correlation was observed under WD (*SI Appendix*, Table S4): genotypes with reduced E_n tended to maintain higher growth rates. Accordingly, a common QTL for E_n and ΔBiomass was detected on LG 4 (Fig. 3) with opposite allelic effects on each trait (Fig. 4*B* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1 *C* and *D*). The relationship between reduced transpiration at night and enhanced growth may be due to an improved restoration of the plant water status during the night with low E_n, favoring cell expansion before the onset of transpiration at dawn (37). High transpiration rate at night, by contrast, prevents overnight equilibration between plant and soil water potentials (38, 39). In line with this interpretation, a significant, negative correlation was observed between the genotypic values of E_n and predawn leaf water potential (Ψ_{pd}; *SI Appendix*, Table S4). Moreover, two colocalizations between QTLs for E_n and Ψ_{pd} were detected (on LG 13 and 17) with opposite allelic effects (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3). Reduced transpiration at night may also favor plant growth by limiting plant vulnerability to embolism in the daytime (20). Our results support that reduced E_n does not necessarily decrease productivity and can even result in higher growth.

Shared Genetic Determinisms for Nighttime Transpiration and TE. The genetic analysis of the S×G population suggested that selection could be effectively operated on E_n independently of E_d and without causing detrimental effects on plant growth or even having a positive influence under WD. Such a breeding strategy would be of agronomical relevance if lower E_n significantly improved TE. We addressed this possibility by determining TE at the whole shoot level as the ratio of ΔBiomass to the amount of water lost over a period of 10–15 d. A highly significant genotypic effect on TE was found (*SI Appendix*, Table S1), with TE ranging from 5.0 to 6.7 $g{\cdot}L^{-1}$ under WW and from 1.8 to 3.2 $g{\cdot}L^{-1}$ under WD (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*A*). A negative correlation was found between TE and E_n under both watering scenarios, supporting our initial hypothesis that water saving at night could substantially contribute to an efficient use of this resource (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4 *B* and *C*). However, individual genotypes largely deviated from this general trend, which prompted us to dissect the genetic links between E_n and TE.

Six QTLs for TE were detected on six LGs (Fig. 3), altogether accounting for up to 33% of the variance (for WW in 2012). The most significant QTL, on LG 4, remained stable over the 2 y and accounted for more than 18% of the variance (*SI Appendix*, Table S5). Four QTLs for TE colocalized with QTLs for E_n on LGs 4, 8, 13, and

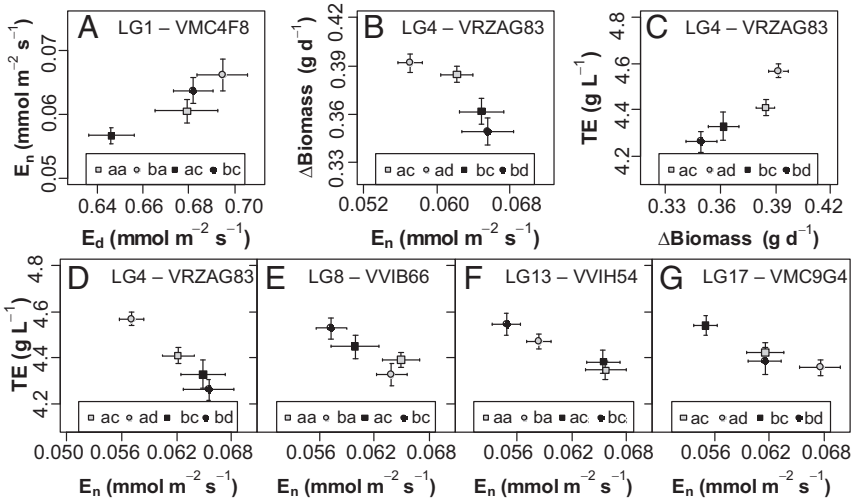


Fig. 4. Relationships between allelic values for transpiration rates during the nighttime (E_n) and daytime (E_d), growth (ΔBiomass), and transpiration efficiency (TE) at the main QTL colocalizations. QTLs are identified in plots by the name and LG number of the nearest marker. Pairs of letters in the legends indicate the different allelic combinations on markers associated to each QTL, with different letters when alleles differed and the first and second letters corresponding to alleles, respectively, inherited from Syrah and Grenache parents. (*A*) Biplot of allelic values for E_n vs. E_d at the VMC4F8 marker on LG 1. (*B*) Biplot of allelic values for ΔBiomass vs. E_n at the VRZAG83 marker on LG 4. (*C*) Biplot of allelic values for TE vs. ΔBiomass at the VRZAG83 marker on LG 4. (*D*–*G*) Biplots of allelic values for TE vs. E_n at the VRZAG83 marker on LG 4 (*D*), at the VVIB66 marker on LG 8 (*E*), at the VVIH54 marker on LG 13 (*F*), and at the VMC9G4 marker on LG 17 (*G*). Means and SEs of allelic values are calculated as BLUPs from the whole dataset. Separate analyses for each water scenario are detailed in *SI Appendix*, Figs. S1, S2, and S5.

17 (Fig. 3), with opposite allelic effects (Fig. 4 *D*–*G*). Allelic variation at the QTL detected on LG 4 combined an increase in TE not only with a reduction in E_n (Fig. 4*D*) but also with an enhancement of growth (Fig. 4*C*). The three remaining loci (on LGs 8, 13, and 17) hosted genetic variation with specific impacts on E_n without significant effect on E_d or growth (Figs. 3 and 4 *E*–*G*). All these QTLs therefore arise as preferential targets to breed for higher TE. Only one QTL of TE was common to E_d and growth (on LG 10), suggesting a dominating role of E_n in determining the genetic variability of TE in the S×G population. A lot of genetic analyses of TE that are based on gas exchange in the daytime or $\delta^{13}C$ may therefore miss important components that are unrelated to daytime physiology (40, 41). In our study, this drawback was circumvented by using an integrated estimation of TE over several day–night cycles to reveal the effect of nighttime transpiration therein.

That nocturnal transpiration might be associated to a less efficient use of water raises the question of why plants evolved with substantial water losses at night. First, night transpiration may lower leaf temperature by evaporative cooling, thereby decreasing carbon losses through dark respiration (42). Night water fluxes may otherwise have beneficial roles in nutrient transport (43) and O_2 supply to the xylem parenchyma (16, 44). Incomplete stomatal closure at night may also accelerate photosynthesis resumption at sunrise (45), but this has not always been observed (46). All these putative benefits were probably masked by stronger physiological influences in our study, as we did not observe any general, positive relationship between night transpiration and plant growth.

Lowering Nighttime Transpiration as a Breeding Strategy to Anticipate Climate Change. The genetic uncoupling between day and night water losses allowed us to identify QTLs for nighttime transpiration with an associated impact on TE in grapevine. One of these QTLs where alleles also favor plant growth arose as a promising target for marker-assisted selection. Implementing such a breeding strategy becomes all the more relevant in light of climate change projections (1).

First, the intensity and duration of drought episodes are likely to increase in Mediterranean regions. Our study highlights that soil WD further loosens the relationship between day and night transpiration (Fig. 1 *I* and *J*) and increases the confidence level on the QTLs identified (Fig. 3 and *SI Appendix*, Table S5). The level of water stress we imposed was deliberately moderate, to capture the physiological events triggered at incipient stages of soil drying. Such stages correspond to extended periods of major relevance for water saving in Mediterranean vineyards (47). Investigating more stressful conditions would certainly have led to the detection of alternative QTL localizations but most likely associated with avoidance or survival strategies, which are less relevant in an agricultural perspective (48). Gradual change in the physiological processes mobilized by plants to cope with progressive soil drying could be illustrated by the QTLs of E_n that were detected exclusively under WD but not under WW conditions (e.g., on LG 17). Such QTLs could be related to a substantial influence of the cuticle on nocturnal transpiration under WD, whereas it could be masked by the predominant contribution of stomata under WW conditions (Fig. 2). These QTLs could also be related to differences in stomatal density, which is affected by water stress and ABA (49) and modulates TE (50). Further studies are required to dissect these previously unidentified QTLs of E_n and their interaction with the severity of water stress.

Second, evaporative demand and thus transpiration are expected to increase faster in the nighttime than in the daytime due to multiple impacts of climate change. An increase in temperature that drives higher vapor pressure deficit appears to proceed faster at night with global warming (1). Consequences on transpiration rate are expected to be attenuated preferentially in the daytime due to a forecasted increase in atmospheric water vapor concentration (51). Additionally, the projected elevation in atmospheric CO_2 concentration is expected to reduce stomatal aperture and transpiration more strongly in the presence of light than in darkness (52). Overall, climate projections therefore intimate an enhancement of transpiration at night relative to the day, making nocturnal control of transpiration a relevant target to breed crops for enhanced TE.

In conclusion, this study supports that crops can be bred for reduced transpiration at night with a substantial gain in TE. Field experiments that address the control of nighttime transpiration in relation to climate change projections will contribute to the design of a more sustainable agriculture.

Materials and Methods

The S×G pseudo-F1 population was obtained from the reciprocal cross between Syrah and Grenache *V. vinifera* cultivars. In 2012 and 2013, six and five clones, respectively, of each genotype (all offspring and the two parents) were studied as replicates in randomized blocks into the PHENOARCH high-throughput phenotyping platform (53) in a greenhouse. Watering scenarios were imposed by maintaining soil water content in pots at target values using watering stations. Total water loss by transpiration over a period of 10–15 d, when soil water content had stabilized, was calculated as the sum of daily water losses recorded for each potted plant by the weighing terminals and corrected for soil evaporation. Individual plant fresh weights were calculated daily using images taken in the platform and processed for conversion into biomass. Growth rates over 10–15 d periods were then calculated as increases in dry biomass per unit time (ΔBiomass) from processed images of plants. Whole plant TE was determined as the ratio between biomass increase and the total amount of transpired water

over the same period. E_n, E_d, and predawn water potential (Ψ_{pd}) were measured on a specific day when the plants were taken off the platform and placed into a controlled chamber to ensure stable and repeatable climatic conditions. The weight loss of each plant in a bagged pot to prevent soil evaporation was calculated over periods of darkness (ca. 12 h) followed by at least 6 h of constant light. Results were related to the duration of the measurement period and to the leaf area obtained by image analysis, yielding mean specific transpiration rates overnight (E_n) and daytime (E_d) periods. For each trait, QTL detection was performed on BLUPs with MapQTL 4.0 software (54) using the consensus map, which combined segregation information from the two parents. Further experiments were performed on subsets of genotypes selected for their contrasting E_n, E_d, or allelic composition at the main QTLs identified. More details on all experiments, analyses, and any associated references are provided in *SI Appendix*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank P. Péchier, P. Hamard, and the technical staff from the team "Diversité, Adaptation et Amélioration de la Vigne" for technical assistance, and L. Cabrera-Bosquet and Antonin Grau for great help with platform management. This work was supported by funding from the project Long Term Impacts and Adaptations to Climate Change in Viticulture and Oenology (LACCAVE) of the French National Institute for Agricultural Research (INRA) and by Grant ANR-09-GENM-024-002 from the French National Research Agency. A.C.-L. received a PhD grant from the French government.

1. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2013) *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis*, eds Stocker TF, et al. (Cambridge Univ Press, New York).
2. Condon AG, Richards RA, Rebetzke GJ, Farquhar GD (2004) Breeding for high water-use efficiency. *J Exp Bot* 55(407):2447–2460.
3. Lawson T, Blatt MR (2014) Stomatal size, speed, and responsiveness impact on photosynthesis and water use efficiency. *Plant Physiol* 164(4):1556–1570.
4. Hetherington AM, Woodward FI (2003) The role of stomata in sensing and driving environmental change. *Nature* 424(6951):901–908.
5. Bacon MA (2004) *What Is Water-Use Efficiency? Water Use Efficiency in Plant Biology* (Blackwell, Oxford), pp 27–41.
6. Furbank RT, Quick WP, Sirault XRR (2015) Improving photosynthesis and yield potential in cereal crops by targeted genetic manipulation: Prospects, progress and challenges. *Field Crops Res* 182:19–29.
7. Blum A (2009) Effective use of water (EUW) and not water-use efficiency (WUE) is the target of crop yield improvement under drought stress. *Field Crops Res* 112(2–3):119–123.
8. Farquhar G, Oleary M, Berry J (1982) On the relationship between carbon isotope discrimination and the inter-cellular carbon-dioxide concentration in leaves. *Aust J Plant Physiol* 9(2): 121–137.
9. Rebetzke GJ, Condon AG, Richards RA, Farquhar GD (2002) Selection for reduced carbon isotope discrimination increases aerial biomass and grain yield of rainfed bread wheat. *Crop Sci* 42(3):739–745.
10. Viger M, Rodriguez-Acosta M, Rae AM, Morison JIL, Taylor G (2013) Toward improved drought tolerance in bioenergy crops: QTL for carbon isotope composition and stomatal conductance in *Populus*. *Food Energy Secur* 2(3):220–236.
11. Masle J, Gilmore SR, Farquhar GD (2005) The ERECTA gene regulates plant transpiration efficiency in Arabidopsis. *Nature* 436(7052):866–870.
12. Juenger TE, et al. (2005) Identification and characterization of QTL underlying whole-plant physiology in Arabidopsis thaliana: δ13C, stomatal conductance and transpiration efficiency. *Plant Cell Environ* 28(6):697–708.
13. Campitelli BE, Des Marais DL, Juenger TE (2016) Ecological interactions and the fitness effect of water-use efficiency: Competition and drought alter the impact of natural *MPK12* alleles in *Arabidopsis*. *Ecol Lett* 19(4):424–434.
14. Yoo CY, Pence HE, Hasegawa PM, Mickelbart MV (2009) Regulation of transpiration to improve crop water use. *Crit Rev Plant Sci* 28(6):410–431.
15. Caird MA, Richards JH, Donovan LA (2007) Nighttime stomatal conductance and transpiration in C_3 and C_4 plants. *Plant Physiol* 143(1):4–10.
16. Marks CO, Lechowicz MJ (2007) The ecological and functional correlates of nocturnal transpiration. *Tree Physiol* 27(4):577–584.
17. Ogle K, et al. (2012) Differential daytime and night-time stomatal behavior in plants from North American deserts. *New Phytol* 194(2):464–476.
18. Schoppach R, Claverie E, Sadok W (2014) Genotype-dependent influence of night-time vapour pressure deficit on night-time transpiration and daytime gas exchange in wheat. *Funct Plant Biol* 41(9):963–971.
19. Phillips NG, Lewis JD, Logan BA, Tissue DT (2010) Inter- and intra-specific variation in nocturnal water transport in Eucalyptus. *Tree Physiol* 30(5):586–596.
20. Rogiers SY, Greer DH, Hutton RJ, Landsberg JJ (2009) Does night-time transpiration contribute to anisohydric behaviour in a *Vitis vinifera* cultivar? *J Exp Bot* 60(13):3751–3763.
21. Christman MA, et al. (2008) Genetic variation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* for night-time leaf conductance. *Plant Cell Environ* 31(8):1170–1178.
22. Fletcher RS, et al. (2013) Development of a next-generation NIL library in *Arabidopsis thaliana* for dissecting complex traits. *BMC Genomics* 14(1):655.
23. Reuning GA, Bauerle WL, Mullen JL, McKay JK (2015) Combining quantitative trait loci analysis with physiological models to predict genotype-specific transpiration rates. *Plant Cell Environ* 38(4):710–717.
24. Costa JM, et al. (2015) *Open All Night Long*: The dark side of stomatal control. *Plant Physiol* 167(2):289–294.
25. Tomás M, et al. (2014) Variability of water use efficiency in grapevines. *Environ Exp Bot* 103:148–157.
26. Fuentes S, De Bei R, Tyerman S (2013) Night-time plant water loss: The unseen process for local and global water footprint and water balance estimations in grapevines. *Wine Vitic J* 28(4):50–52.
27. Escalona JM, et al. (2013) Responses of leaf night transpiration to drought stress in *Vitis vinifera* L. *Agric Water Manage* 118:50–58.
28. Schultz HR (2003) Differences in hydraulic architecture account for near-isohydric and anisohydric behaviour of two field-grown *Vitis vinifera* L. cultivars during drought. *Plant Cell Environ* 26(8):1393–1405.
29. Coupel-Ledru A, et al. (2014) Genetic variation in a grapevine progeny (*Vitis vinifera* L. cvs Grenache×Syrah) reveals inconsistencies between maintenance of daytime leaf water potential and response of transpiration rate under drought. *J Exp Bot* 65(21):6205–6218.
30. Mott KA, Peak D (2010) Stomatal responses to humidity and temperature in darkness. *Plant Cell Environ* 33(7):1084–1090.
31. Howard AR, Donovan LA (2007) *Helianthus* nighttime conductance and transpiration respond to soil water but not nutrient availability. *Plant Physiol* 143(1):145–155.
32. Rogiers SY, et al. (2012) Stomatal response of an anisohydric grapevine cultivar to evaporative demand, available soil moisture and abscisic acid. *Tree Physiol* 32(3):249–261.
33. Rogiers SY, Clarke SJ (2013) Nocturnal and daytime stomatal conductance respond to root-zone temperature in 'Shiraz' grapevines. *Ann Bot (Lond)* 111(3):433–444.
34. Santamaria JM, Davies WJ, Atkinson CJ (1993) Stomata of micropropagated *Delphinium* plants respond to ABA, CO_2, light and water potential, but fail to close fully. *J Exp Bot* 44(1): 99–107.
35. Boyer JS, Wong SC, Farquhar GD (1997) CO_2 and water vapor exchange across leaf cuticle (epidermis) at various water potentials. *Plant Physiol* 114(1):185–191.
36. Fournier-Level A, et al. (2009) Quantitative genetic bases of anthocyanin variation in grape (*Vitis vinifera* L. ssp. *sativa*) berry: A quantitative trait locus to quantitative trait nucleotide integrated study. *Genetics* 183(3):1127–1139.
37. Caldeira CF, Jeanguenin L, Chaumont F, Tardieu F (2014) Circadian rhythms of hydraulic conductance and growth are enhanced by drought and improve plant performance. *Nat Commun* 5:5365.
38. Donovan L, Linton M, Richards J (2001) Predawn plant water potential does not necessarily equilibrate with soil water potential under well-watered conditions. *Oecologia* 129(3):328–335.
39. Kavanagh KL, Pangle R, Schotzko AD (2007) Nocturnal transpiration causing disequilibrium between soil and stem predawn water potential in mixed conifer forests of Idaho. *Tree Physiol* 27(4):621–629.
40. Tambussi EA, Bort J, Araus JL (2007) Water use efficiency in C_3 cereals under Mediterranean conditions: A review of physiological aspects. *Ann Appl Biol* 150(3):307–321.
41. Medrano H, et al. (2015) From leaf to whole-plant water use efficiency (WUE) in complex canopies: Limitations of leaf WUE as a selection target. *Crop J* 3(3):220–228.
42. Peraudeau S, et al. (2015) Effect of carbohydrates and night temperature on night respiration in rice. *J Exp Bot* 66(13):3931–3944.
43. Zeppel MJB, Lewis JD, Phillips NG, Tissue DT (2014) Consequences of nocturnal water loss: A synthesis of regulating factors and implications for capacitance, embolism and use in models. *Tree Physiol* 34(10):1047–1055.
44. Gansert D (2003) Xylem sap flow as a major pathway for oxygen supply to the sapwood of birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehr.). *Plant Cell Environ* 26(11):1803–1814.
45. Resco de Dios V, Loik ME, Smith R, Aspinwall MJ, Tissue DT (2016) Genetic variation in circadian regulation of nocturnal stomatal conductance enhances carbon assimilation and growth. *Plant Cell Environ* 39(1):3–11.
46. Auchincloss L, Easlon HM, Levine D, Donovan L, Richards JH (2014) Pre-dawn stomatal opening does not substantially enhance early-morning photosynthesis in Helianthus annuus. *Plant Cell Environ* 37(6):1364–1370.
47. Lebon E, Pellegrino A, Louarn G, Lecoeur J (2006) Branch development controls leaf area dynamics in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) growing in drying soil. *Ann Bot (Lond)* 98(1):175–185.
48. Skirycz A, et al. (2011) Survival and growth of Arabidopsis plants given limited water are not equal. *Nat Biotechnol* 29(3):212–214.
49. Tanaka Y, Nose T, Jikumaru Y, Kamiya Y (2013) ABA inhibits entry into stomatal-lineage development in Arabidopsis leaves. *Plant J* 74(3):448–457.
50. Franks PJW, W Doheny-Adams T, Britton-Harper ZJ, Gray JE (2015) Increasing water-use efficiency directly through genetic manipulation of stomatal density. *New Phytol* 207(1): 188–195.
51. Robinson PJ (2000) Temporal trends in United States dew point temperatures. *International Journal of Climatology* 20(9):985–1002.
52. Messinger SM, Buckley TN, Mott KA (2006) Evidence for involvement of photosynthetic processes in the stomatal response to CO_2. *Plant Physiol* 140(2):771–778.
53. Cabrera-Bosquet L, et al. (June 3, 2016) High throughput estimation of incident light, light interception and radiation-use efficiency of thousands of plants in a phenotyping platform. *New Phytologist*, 10.1111/nph.14027.
54. Van Ooijen JW, Maliepaard C (1996) *MapQTL Version 4.0: Software for the Calculation of QTL Positions on Genetic Maps* (CPRO-DLO, Wageningen, The Netherlands).

Supporting information for

Reduced nighttime transpiration is a relevant breeding target for high water-use efficiency in grapevine

Aude Coupel-Ledru[1], Eric Lebon, Angélique Christophe, Agustina Gallo, Pilar Gago, Florent Pantin, Agnès Doligez and Thierry Simonneau[1]

[1]To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: thierry.simonneau@supagro.inra.fr (T.S.) or aude.coupel-ledru@supagro.inra.fr (A.C.-L.).

This file includes:

SI Materials and Methods

Plant material

A pseudo-F1 population of 186 two year-old genotypes was obtained from a reciprocal cross between the grapevine cultivars Syrah and Grenache (1). In February 2010, 20 clones of each offspring and the parents were grafted on 110Richter rootstock (*V. berlandieri* × *V. rupestris*) and then cultivated outside with ferti-irrigation in 9 L individual pots containing a 30:70 (v/v) mixture of loamy soil and organic compost. Experiments on these plants were then carried out during three successive years as described below.

Measurements in a phenotyping platform on entire plants of the whole population

Growth conditions and watering scenarios in greenhouse. Six (in 2012) and five other (in 2013) clones of each genotype (all the offspring and the two parents) were studied as replicates. On late winter preceding each experiment, potted plants were transferred for budburst to a first greenhouse and grown there for 1 month as previously described (2). All inflorescences and branches were removed in order to ensure full growth of one leafy axis per plant. The plants were then transferred into the PhenoArch phenotyping platform (3) in another greenhouse located at Montpellier, France (https://www6.montpellier.inra.fr/lepse_eng/M3P). Within this platform, water treatments were imposed to all the offspring and the parents by maintaining soil water content in pots at target values. This was achieved by daily watering of each pot using watering stations made up of weighing terminals with 1 g accuracy (ST-Ex, Bizerba, Balingen, Germany) and high-precision pump-watering stations (520U, Watson Marlow, Wilmington, MA, USA). Well-watered (WW) replicates (three in 2012 and two in 2013) were maintained at 1.50 g water per g dry substrate (corresponding to a soil water potential of -0.055 MPa), and a moderate water deficit (WD) was imposed to the other replicates (three on each year) by restricting irrigation until the soil water content gradually declined to 1.05 $g \cdot g^{-1}$ (corresponding to a soil water potential of -0.15 MPa) and this level was maintained thereafter by daily watering (2). The WW scenario was chosen as non-limiting for growth (as detailed in reference 2). With the WD scenario, we aimed at characterizing the plants responses to early stages of water deficit which have large impacts on growth and transpiration in the field (4) and are thus decisive on the yield and the amount of water used over the production cycle. The WD scenario was thus chosen moderate as compared to late stages of soil drying in field conditions, when the soil water potential frequently decreases down to -0.6 MPa (5).

Soil water potential (Ψ_{soil}) was estimated for each plant from the soil water content in the corresponding pot, using a calibration curve that was previously established for the same soil (2). The desired soil water potential for WW or WD scenarios was reached in the phenotyping platform with high reproducibility between plants (SE on Ψ_{soil} was <0.0014 MPa and <0.014 MPa for WW and WD plants, respectively) and years (mean Ψ_{soil} for all WD plants averaged –0.154 ± 0.014 MPa in 2012 and –0.151 ± 0.005 MPa in 2013).

Determination of transpiration efficiency in the greenhouse. Transpiration efficiency (TE) was calculated for each genotype in both years and watering scenarios, over a period of 10 to 15 days starting 2-3 days after stabilization of soil water content. Total water loss by evapotranspiration over this period was calculated as the sum of the daily water losses recorded by the weighing terminals for each potted plant. Mean soil evaporation was recorded on pots without plants and subtracted from total weight loss of each potted plant to obtain transpiration. Daily estimates of fresh weight of individual plant were calculated using images automatically taken in a cabin located in the platform and

processed for conversion into fresh matter weight as previously described (2). Plant relative water content (g H_20 g^{-1} fresh weight) was obtained in 2012 for 6 plants per genotype by weighing whole plants at harvest (newly formed leafy shoots cut at their bases) and after oven drying. Dry matter weight was then calculated at any stage for each plant by using the fresh weight deduced from processed images and the relative water content specific to each genotype and watering scenario, which both had significant effects. The total dry matter weight increment over the period was then calculated as the difference in whole-plant dry matter weight between the end and the beginning of the 10-15 day period of each experiment. Mean growth rate was calculated for each plant over this period by dividing dry matter weight increment by the period duration. Whole plant transpiration efficiency (TE) was finally determined as the ratio between increment in dry matter weight and the total amount of transpired water over the same period.

Leaf area. Individual whole plant leaf area (LA) was estimated through processed images taken every two days in the platform imaging cabin, as previously described (2).

Nighttime, daytime transpiration rates and predawn water potential in climatic chamber under fully controlled conditions. Transpiration rate was determined during both night and daytime on the whole population by sequentially placing plants in a chamber adjacent to the phenotyping platform with controlled temperature, relative humidity (RH), vapour pressure deficit (VPD), and light. Measurements in climatic chamber were performed 2-3 days after the stabilization of both watering scenarios (WW and WD) in the platform and at a similar, mean developmental stage for all of the offspring (2). Pots were bagged to prevent evaporation from the soil. Once placed in the chamber, plants were first submitted to a dark period with a similar timing to that prevailing in the greenhouse (for about 12 h), then lights were switched on for a minimum of 6 h. Air temperature and RH were measured every 30 s (HMP35A probe, Oy, Helsinki, Finland) and the temperature was set to an average of 20 °C during the night (27 °C during the day). VPD was controlled by manipulating RH to maintain 1.5 ± 0.2 kPa during the first 7 hours of the night period (to favour transpiration) and 0.8 ± 0.2 kPa during the next 5 hours of the same night period (to facilitate equilibration of water potentials between leaf and soil). VPD was maintained at 2 ± 0.2 kPa during the whole light period. During the daytime period, a bank of sodium lamps provided a photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of ~480 $\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ at the height where leaves were sampled. Each pot was weighed with 0.1 g accuracy (Sartorius balance, IB 34 EDEP, Gottingen, Germany) at the beginning and end of each period (night and day). Weight losses over 12 h (respectively 6 h) period were used to calculate average nighttime (respectively daytime) transpiration rate on a leaf area basis (respectively E_n and E_d).

Predawn leaf water potential (Ψ_{pd}) was measured at the end of the dark period, just before the lights were switched on and while the VPD had stabilized to 0.8 ± 0.2 kPa for about 4 hours. We used up to six Scholander pressure chambers (Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, CA, USA) which were cross-calibrated with a distributed, pressurized nitrogen source.

Statistical analyses. Natural logarithm or root square transformation was applied when data distribution deviated from normality (Shapiro–Wilk test (6)). Linear regression analyses, calculation of Pearson's correlation coefficients and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed with R packages (7).

For each trait measured on the whole population, the Best Linear Unbiased Predictors (BLUPs) of genetic values were then estimated for use in QTL detection. Models selected were those with the

lowest Bayesian Information Criterion, among several mixed models where fixed effects of operator, year, water scenario and their interactions were tested (2).

Variance estimates of the selected models were used to determine the broad-sense heritability (H^2) of each trait as the ratio between the phenotypic variance and the total variance as follows:

$$H^2 = \frac{\sigma^2_G}{(\sigma^2_G + \frac{\sigma^2_R}{n})}$$

where σ^2_G is the genetic variance, σ^2_R the residual variance, and *n* the number of replicates per genotype.

When significant, an interaction between the genotype and the year (G × Y) was included in the model and the heritability was calculated as follows:

$$H^2 = \frac{\sigma^2_G}{(\sigma^2_G + \frac{\sigma^2_{G\times Y}}{n_a} + \frac{\sigma^2_R}{n \times n_a})}$$

where n_a is the number of years (2 in the present case).

When significant, an interaction between the genotype and the water scenario (G × S) was also included, and the calculation was:

$$H^2 = \frac{\sigma^2_G}{(\sigma^2_G + \frac{\sigma^2_{G\times Y}}{n_a} + \frac{\sigma^2_{G\times S}}{n_s} + \frac{\sigma^2_R}{n \times n_a \times n_s})}$$

where n_s is the number of water scenarios (2 in the present case).

QTL detection. Quantitative trait locus analyses were carried out on BLUPs for each above-described trait. The linkage map had previously been built using 153 simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers (8), most of them being fully informative ones (with four allelic classes in the offspring). QTL detection was performed on BLUPs with MapQTL 4.0 software (9) using the consensus map which combined segregation information from the two parents. Interval mapping was performed in combination with multiple QTL model mapping (MQM) (10, 11) as an equivalent of composite interval mapping. QTL significance was determined at the genome-wide level (P_G) by calculating thresholds for the logarithm of odds (LOD) score through 1000 permutations (12). QTLs were declared significant when detected at the whole-genome level (P_G<0.05), or putative when only significant at the chromosome level (P_{Chr}<0.05) (13). The confidence interval for each QTL was calculated as the chromosome region where the LOD score was higher than the maximum LOD score of the QTL minus 1. Co-localization between QTLs was diagnosed when the confidence intervals of these QTLs overlapped. To check dubious QTLs (e.g. in case of distorted segregation, large interval between nearest markers, or skewed distribution of residuals), the MQM results were complemented by a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test at flanking markers.

Additive and dominance effects for the QTLs were calculated as described by (14):

$$A_S = \frac{1}{4}\,[\,(\mu_{ad} + \mu_{ac}) - (\mu_{bd} + \mu_{bc})]$$

$$A_G = \frac{1}{4}\left[(\mu_{ac} + \mu_{bc}) - (\mu_{ad} + \mu_{bd})\right]$$

$$D = \frac{1}{4}\left[(\mu_{ac} + \mu_{bd}) - (\mu_{bc} + \mu_{ad})\right]$$

with A_S the additive effect associated with Syrah alleles (a, b when heterozygous), A_G the additive effect associated with Grenache alleles (c, d when heterozygous), D the dominance effect, and μ_{bd}, μ_{bc}, μ_{ac}, and μ_{ad} the phenotypic means corresponding to the four possible recombinations (less in some cases of homozygous locus for one parent or one same allele for the 2 parents).

Outdoors measurements on contrasted genotypes

Growth conditions. A subset of 14 genotypes was selected within the population based on their contrasting behaviour for daytime and/or night transpiration as observed in 2013 in the controlled environment chamber. They were grown outdoors for one additional year and pruned to produce one, unbranched shoot axis with their inflorescences removed. Ferti-irrigation was complemented by regular manual weighing and watering of pots to ensure that they were maintained close to the well-watered regime (1.50 g of water per g of dry substrate).

Transpiration and predawn leaf water potential measurements. In July 2014, 5 plants per genotype were studied during a whole 24 h cycle while pots were maintained outdoors under a well-watered regime at Montpellier (southern France; 43°38N, 3°53E) and bagged to prevent evaporation from the soil. Environmental conditions (air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and global radiation) were recorded during the experiment using a meteorological station installed within the experimental area. Air temperature and relative humidity were measured with a capacitive hygrometer (HMP35A Vaisala; Oy, Helsinki, Finland) protected from direct radiation and placed at a height of 2.5 m. PPFD was calculated from global solar radiation measured with a pyranometer (bp Solar, SX 10 M; Madrid, Spain). Data were collected every 30 s, averaged and stored in a data logger (CR10X; Campbell Scientific Ltd, 20 Shepshed, Leics, UK).

Individual whole plant leaf area was calculated from the leaves secondary vein lengths using allometric relationships. One allometric relationship per genotype had previously been built with n=200 leaves per genotype that were sampled at harvest in 2012 and 2013 on 6 plants per genotype (5 in 2013) (all the leaves of each plant were collected).

Plants were weighed in their pots with 0.1 g accuracy (Sartorius balance, IB 34 EDEP, Gottingen, Germany) every three hours during the whole 24 hour cycle. Weight losses over dark (10:00 pm– 07:00 am) and light (08:00 am– 08:00 pm) periods were used to calculate average nighttime (respectively daytime) transpiration rates on a leaf area basis (E_n and E_d).

Experiments on detached leaves

Growth conditions. A subset of 28 genotypes (5 plants per genotype) was selected within the population as representative of the contrasting E_n observed during 2012 and 2013 experiments and the different allelic compositions at the main stable QTLs identified for E_n. Plants were grown outside for one additional year and pruned to one, unbranched leafy axis with their inflorescences removed. In July 2014, plants were transferred to a controlled environment chamber one night prior to measurements in order to ensure reproducible, low-transpiring conditions.

Transpiration in controlled environment chamber and response to ABA. On the day of measurements, leaves were excised from plants in dark conditions and their petioles were immediately immersed in individual 5 mL containers filled with a filtered (0.2 μm), degassed control solution of artificial sap [2 mol m^{-3} KH_2PO_4, 1 mol m^{-3} MES, 0.4 mol m^{-3} $Ca(NO_3)_2$] adjusted to pH 6.5. Petioles were tightly sealed to the containers caps. Each leaf in its container was placed in the chamber in dark conditions, with VPD maintained at 1.5 ± 0.2 kPa and temperature at 22 ± 0.5 °C. Transpiration rate in the dark was determined by weighing leaves fed with solution in their container every 20 min over a 1h30 time period.

Leaves were then transferred to solutions complemented with abscisic acid (synthetic (±)-ABA, Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland) with a final concentration of 128 mmol m^{-3} (+)-ABA. Average transpiration rate of detached leaves fed with ABA, still in the dark, was determined as previously described for control solution once the weight declined at a stabilized rate (which occurred about 45 minutes after transfer to ABA solutions).

For another set of leaves, after 1h30 in control solution, the abaxial face was completely coated with petroleum jelly which stopped water loss on this face. Transpiration rate was quantified over a 2h30 time period as described above.

Main genotype and genotype×treatment interaction effects were tested by ANOVA.

Stomatal density. Stomatal counts were determined on 3 leaves per genotype for 5 genotypes chosen within the subset presented above. Leaves were sampled at nodes 11-14, similar to those used for measurement of transpiration on detached leaves, on two complementary plants (replicates) per genotype. Nail polish was applied to the abaxial side of the leaf to obtain an imprint of the leaf surface and allowed to dry for 10 min. Clear adhesive tape was used to peel off the nail polish, and the tape was then mounted on a microscope slide. Stomatal density was assessed at three positions of standard area (0.37 mm^2) in the lower quadrant of each leaf, next to the midrib on the abaxial surface. Stomatal counts were performed under a microscope (Leitz DM RB, Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) coupled to an image analyser (ImageJ, (15)).

1. Adam-Blondon A-F, et al. (2004) Mapping 245 SSR markers on the *Vitis vinifera* genome: a tool for grape genetics. *Theor Appl Genet* 109(5):1017–1027.

2. Coupel-Ledru A, et al. (2014) Genetic variation in a grapevine progeny (*Vitis vinifera* L. cvs Grenache×Syrah) reveals inconsistencies between maintenance of daytime leaf water potential and response of transpiration rate under drought. *J Exp Bot* 65(21):6205–6218.

3. Cabrera-Bosquet L, et al. (2016) High throughput estimation of incident light, light interception and radiation-use efficiency of thousands of plants in a phenotyping platform. *New Phytol* in press: doi:10.1111/nph.14027.

4. Lebon E, Pellegrino A, Louarn G, Lecoeur J (2006) Branch development controls leaf area dynamics in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) growing in drying soil. *Ann Bot* 98(1):175–185.

5. Prieto JA, Lebon E, Ojeda H (2010) Stomatal behavior of different grapevine cultivars in response to soil water status and air water vapor pressure deficit. *J Int Sci Vigne Vin* 44(1):9–20.

6. Royston (1995) Remark AS R94: a remark on Algorithm AS 181: the W test for normality. *Appl Stat* 44(4):547–551.

7. R Development Core Team (2012) *R: a language and environment for statistical computing* (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

8. Huang Y-F, et al. (2012) Dissecting genetic architecture of grape proanthocyanidin composition through quantitative trait locus mapping. *BMC Plant Biol* 12(30):1–19.

9. Van Ooijen JW, Maliepaard C (1996) *MapQTL™ version 4.0: software for the calculation of QTL positions on genetic maps* (Wageningen:CPRO-DLO, Wageningen).

10. Jansen RC (1993) Interval Mapping of Multiple Quantitative Trait Loci. *Genetics* 135(1):205–211.

11. Jansen RC, Stam P (1994) High resolution of quantitative traits into multiple loci via interval mapping. *Genetics* 136(4):1447–1455.

12. Churchill GA, Doerge RW (1994) Empirical threshold values for quantitative trait mapping. *Genetics* 138:963–971.

13. Complex Trait Consortium (2003) The nature and identification of quantitative trait loci: a community's view. *Nat Rev Genet* 4(11):911–916.

14. Segura V, Denancé C, Durel CE, Costes E (2007) Wide range QTL analysis for complex architectural traits in a 1-year-old apple progeny. *Genome* 50:159–171.

15. Rasband WS (2009) *ImageJ* (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA).

Table S1. Effects of watering scenario, genotype and year on the traits assessed on two years on the Syrah×Grenache mapping population (two parents+186 offsprings)

			Water scenario effect	Genotypic and Year effects					
			WW *vs* WD	WW			WD		
Trait	Description	Year	P_S	Mean	P_G	P_Y	Mean	P_G	P_Y
E_n	Nighttime transpiration in the controlled chamber (mmol m^{-2} s^{-1})	2012	***	0.077 ± 0.017	***	*	0.05 ± 0.016	***	ns
		2013	***	0.082 ± 0.010	***		0.048 ± 0.009	***	
E_d	Daytime transpiration in the controlled chamber (mmol m^{-2} s^{-1})	2012	***	0.87 ± 0.092	***	***	0.46 ± 0.056	***	***
		2013	***	0.96 ± 0.090	*		0.50 ± 0.068	***	
E_n/E_d	Ratio of nighttime transpiration over daytime transpiration in the control chamber	2012	***	0.091 ± 0.015	***	ns	0.11 ± 0.040	***	**
		2013	***	0.092 ± 0.012	***		0.10 ± 0.020	***	
Ψ_{pd}	Predawn leaf water potential in the controlled chamber (MPa)	2012	***	-0.26 ± 0.016	*	***	-0.41 ± 0.028	***	***
		2013	***	-0.19 ± 0.010	*		-0.31 ± 0.035	***	
LA	Leaf area on the day of measurements in the chamber (m^2)	2012	-	0.15 ± 0.024	***	***	0.24 ± 0.044	***	***
		2013	-	0.21 ± 0.035	***		0.23 ± 0.035	***	
TE	Whole plant transpiration efficiency in the greenhouse (g dry biomass L^{-1} water)	2012	***	4.10 ± 0.33	***	***	1.92 ± 0.25	**	***
		2013	***	6.50 ± 0.68	***		3.26 ± 0.42	***	
ΔBiomass	Shoot growth rate (g dry matter d^{-1})	2012	***	0.38 ± 0.082	***	***	0.26 ± 0.062	***	***
		2013	***	0.49 ± 0.095	***		0.29 ± 0.07	***	

E_n, E_d, Ψ_{pd} and LA were measured on the day when the plants were placed into a controlled environment chamber. ΔBiomass and TE were calculated over a period of 10 to 15 days in the greenhouse. For E_n, E_d, E_n/E_d and Ψ_{pd}: means ± SD of 188 genotypic values (BLUPs) determined on three clones of each genotype in each condition, except WW in 2013 where two clones were measured. For ΔBiomass and TE: means ± SD of 188 genotypic values determined on three clones of each genotype in each condition, except WW in 2013 where five clones were measured when the WW scenario was stabilized before irrigation withholding. The significance of watering scenario (P_S), genotype (P_G), and year (P_Y) effects is indicated as follows: *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$; ns, non-significant. The experimental design was organized so that measurements in the controlled chamber were performed at similar mean developmental stage (and thus similar LA) for the total progeny whatever the water scenario (2) so that P_S is not relevant for this trait.

Table S2. Broad sense heritability (H^2) calculated on the traits assessed on the Syrah×Grenache mapping population.

Trait	Scenario	H^2 (2012)	H^2 (2013)	H^2 (2012+2013)
E_n	WW	0.73	0.50	0.73
	WD	0.86	0.70	0.59
	WW + WD	0.83	0.54	0.74
E_d	WW	0.55	0.44	0.66
	WD	0.55	0.57	0.68
	WW + WD	0.38	0.65	0.48
E_n / E_d	WW	0.61	0.52	0.66
	WD	0.87	0.75	0.62
	WW + WD	0.62	0.75	0.52
Ψ_{pd}	WW	0.28	0.19	0.11
	WD	0.41	0.56	0.53
	WW + WD	0.50	0.44	0.45
LA	WW	0.68	0.60	0.40
	WD	0.69	0.69	0.53
	WW + WD	0.81	0.76	0.82
TE	WW	0.40	0.61	0.41
	WD	0.45	0.45	0.52
	WW + WD	0.56	0.34	0.53
ΔBiomass	WW	0.64	0.58	0.50
	WD	0.53	0.60	0.66
	WW + WD	0.48	0.44	0.30

Heritability was calculated from genotypic and residual variances obtained by fitting mixed linear models to data sets for each of the WW and WD scenarios, and for the multi-scenario data sets ('WW+WD'). Same abbreviations as in Table S1.

Table S3. Comparison of transpiration rates measured in the daytime (E_d) and the nighttime (E_n), and their ratio E_n/E_d between plants experimented in a controlled chamber and outdoors. (A) Environmental conditions during experiments. (B) Statistical analysis for experimental conditions and genotype effects. Means and SD of 14 genotypes maintained under well-watered (WW) conditions (*n*=3 plants in the controlled environment chamber and *n*=5 plants in the outdoors experiment).

A	Experiment	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
VPD_{day} (kPa)	Chamber	2.10	1.34	2.93	0.27
	Outdoors	2.44	1.79	2.92	0.37
VPD_{night} (kPa)	Chamber	1.12	0.57	1.62	0.21
	Outdoors	1.22	0.76	1.62	0.22
T_{day} (°C)	Chamber	26.97	21.00	32.20	1.23
	Outdoors	29.50	26.23	31.32	1.50
T_{night} (°C)	Chamber	20.05	16.00	22.90	0.91
	Outdoors	22.69	21.02	25.53	1.38
Daily cumulative PPFD (mol m^{-2} j^{-1})	Chamber	10.40	-	-	-
	Outdoors	61.00	-	-	-

B	Experiment	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Effect of experiment	Effect of genotype
E_n (mmol m^{-2} s^{-1})	Chamber	0.079 ± 0.03	0.025	0.17	***	***
	Outdoors	0.16 ± 0.054	0.11	0.39		***
E_d (mmol m^{-2} s^{-1})	Chamber	0.87 ± 0.33	0.26	1.88	***	***
	Outdoors	3.10 ± 0.41	2.32	4.28		*
E_n/E_d	Chamber	0.096 ± 0.036	0.029	0.19	***	***
	Outdoors	0.055 ± 0.019	0.030	0.14		**

Asterisks indicate significance as follows: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Statistics have been determined for vapor pressure deficit during the night (VPD_{night}) and daytime (VPD_{day}) together with temperatures (T_{night} and T_{day}) during the same periods of time and daily cumulative photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD). See Table S1 for the meaning of other abbreviations.

Table S4. Pearson's correlation coefficients for genotypic correlations between well-watered (below the diagonal) and water deficit (above the diagonal) conditions for the 188 genotypes (2 parents + 186 offspring) of the Syrah×Grenache mapping population.

	E_n	E_d	LA	Ψ_{PD}	TE	ΔBiomass
E_n	-	0.28 ***	-0.22 *	-0.45 ***	-0.37 ***	-0.21**
E_d	0.48 ***	-	-0.41 ***	0.33 ***	0.27 ***	0.29 ***
LA	-0.097 *	-0.21 **	-	0.085 ns	0.036 ns	0.71 ***
Ψ_{pd}	-0.14 *	0.17 *	0.22 **	-	0.32 ***	0.44 ***
TE	-0.43 ***	0.06 ns	0.05 ns	-0.083 ns	-	0.72 ***
ΔBiomass	-0.081 ns	0.25 ***	0.71 ***	0.28 ***	0.24 ***	-

Correlations between genotypic values (BLUPs) calculated within the two years dataset (2012 + 2013), with *n*=5 plants per genotype in the WW scenario and *n*=6 in the WD scenario. Asterisks indicate significance as follows: **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001. See Table S1 for abbreviations.

Table S5. Significant quantitative trait loci (QTL) detected on the consensus map of the S×G mapping population (same abbreviations as in Table S1 and S4). Results of multi-year ('2012+2013') and single-year ('2012' or '2013') analyses are presented for well-watered (WW) and water-deficit (WD) scenarios, and for the multi-scenario datasets ('WW+WD').

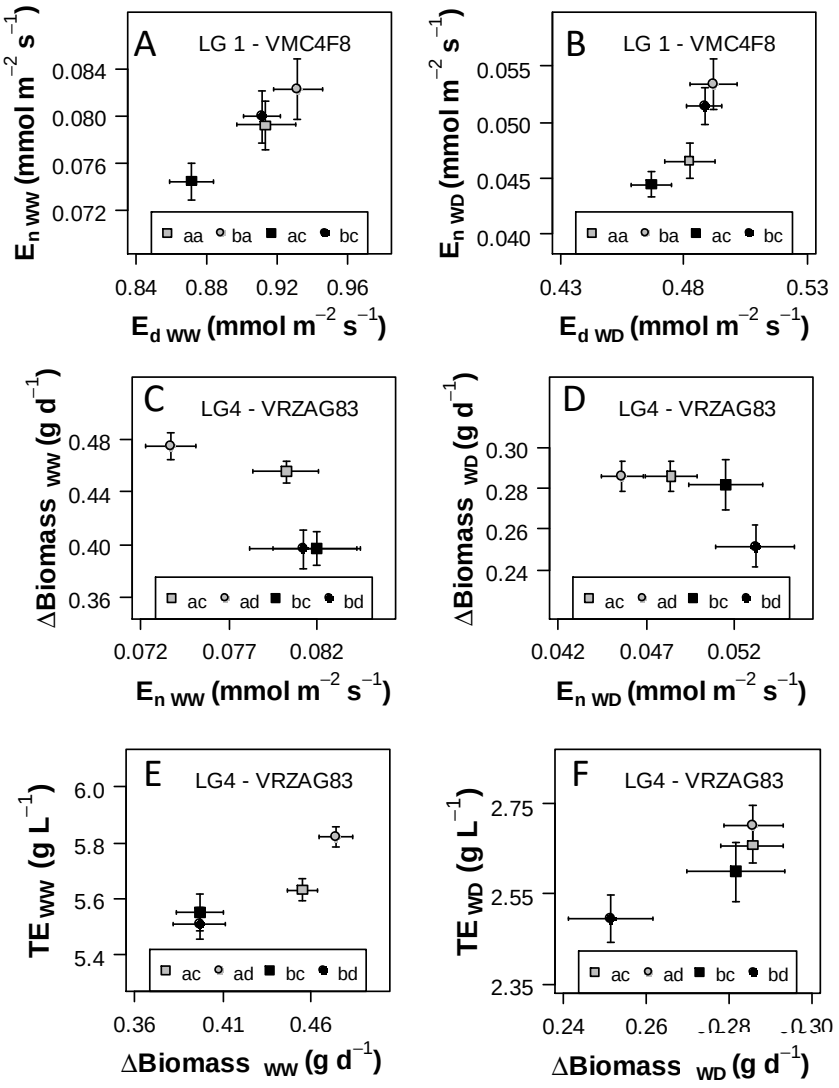
Trait and scenario	*LG*	*Year*	*LOD*	*L (cM)*	*CI (cM)*	*%V*	*Effect*
E_n WW	**4**	**2013**	**3.8**	**39.1**	**36.5-45.7**	**9.1**	**A_S**
E_n WW	**4**	**2012+2013**	**4.1**	**44.1**	**36.5-45.7**	**10.8**	**A_S**
E_n WW	**8**	**2012**	**4.5**	**56.3**	**48.4-60.7**	**9.5**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WW	**8**	**2012+2013**	**3.8**	**56.3**	**43.4-70.1**	**8.2**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WW	**13**	**2012**	**4.6**	**5**	**0-19.6**	**10.6**	**A_S**
E_n WW	**13**	**2012**	**4.6**	**12.1**	**0-19.6**	**10.6**	**A_S**
E_n WW	13	2013	3.4	5	0-19.6	10.6	A_S
E_n WW	**13**	**2012+2013**	**4.1**	**7.1**	**0-29.8**	**8.8**	**A_S, D**
E_n WD	**1**	**2013**	**6.6**	**0**	**0-10**	**15.7**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WD	**1**	**2012+2013**	**4.5**	**5**	**0-15**	**10.6**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**4**	**2012**	**4.3**	**44.1**	**36.5-56**	**8.5**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**4**	**2012**	**4.2**	**50.7**	**36.5-56**	**8.3**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**4**	**2013**	**5.8**	**39.1**	**36.8-55.7**	**13.5**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**5.3**	**39.1**	**36.5-56**	**10.2**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**4.8**	**50.7**	**36.5-56**	**10.2**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**13**	**2012**	**6.6**	**0**	**0-12.1**	**13.3**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**13**	**2013**	**3.7**	**12.1**	**0-29.8**	**9.9**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**13**	**2012+2013**	**5.4**	**0**	**0-17.1**	**12.1**	**A_S**
E_n WD	**17**	**2012**	**10.6**	**26.9**	**22.4-36.9**	**23.7**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**7.7**	**26.9**	**22.4-36.9**	**17.8**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WW+WD	**1**	**2013**	**4.5**	**0**	**0-15**	**11.7**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WW+WD	4	2012	3.7	44.1	36.5-56.0	8.6	A_S
E_n WW+WD	**4**	**2013**	**4.8**	**39.1**	**36.5-55.7**	**10.1**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**5.3**	**44.1**	**36.5-55.7**	**12**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**5.0**	**50.7**	**36.5-56**	**11.6**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**13**	**2012**	**4.9**	**0**	**0-17.1**	**11**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**13**	**2013**	**4.3**	**7.1**	**0-19.6**	**10.2**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**13**	**2012+2013**	**5.2**	**0**	**0-19.6**	**12.5**	**A_S**
E_n WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**6.1**	**26.9**	**22.4-37.8**	**14.3**	**A_S, A_G**
E_n WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**5.3**	**26.9**	**22.4-37.8**	**12.4**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WW	**2**	**2012**	**4.8**	**5**	**0-20**	**13.3**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WW	**2**	**2012+2013**	**4.3**	**0**	**0-20**	**10.8**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WD	**1**	**2013**	**4.4**	**5**	**0-15**	**11.6**	**A_S**
E_d WD	**10**	**2013**	**4.7**	**10.3**	**0-20.3**	**12.5**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.6**	**5**	**0-14.1**	**12.8**	**D**
E_d WW+WD	**2**	**2012**	**4.8**	**0**	**0-15**	**12.3**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WW+WD	**10**	**2012+2013**	**4.2**	**10.3**	**0-20.3**	**12.6**	**A_S, A_G**
E_d WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.4**	**14.1**	**5-19.1**	**9.4**	**A_S, A_G**

Ψ_{pd} WW	**15**	**2012**	**4.6**	**0**	**0-4.9**	**10.9**	**A_S**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**13**	**2012**	**5.8**	**0**	**0-17.1**	**13.4**	**A_S**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**13**	**2012+2013**	**4.3**	**0**	**0-7.1**	**11.8**	**A_S**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**17**	**2012**	**6.5**	**26.9**	**20.4-36.9**	**15**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**17**	**2013**	**4.2**	**14.1**	**9.3-19.1**	**10.1**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.9**	**5**	**0-37.8**	**11.3**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**6.5**	**14.1**	**9.3-19.1**	**12.9**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**5.8**	**31.9**	**0-37.8**	**14.1**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**13**	**2012**	**5.4**	**0**	**0-17.1**	**12.1**	**A_S**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**13**	**2012+2013**	**4.5**	**0**	**0-7.1**	**12**	**A_S**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**5.1**	**22.4**	**19.1-26.9**	**13**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.2**	**19.1**	**0-37.8**	**9.1**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.3**	**22.4**	**0-37.8**	**9.6**	**A_S, A_G**
Ψ_{pd} WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.4**	**31.9**	**0-37.8**	**10.5**	**A_S, A_G**
TE WW	**4**	**2012**	**4.0**	**50.7**	**44.1-56**	**9.6**	**A_S, A_G**
TE WW	**4**	**2013**	**5.0**	**50.7**	**44.1-56**	**11.9**	**A_S, A_G**
TE WW	**4**	**2012+2013**	**7.3**	**50.7**	**45.7-56**	**18.5**	**A_S**
TE WW	**8**	**2012**	**4.6**	**60.7**	**56.3-70.1**	**11**	**A_G**
TE WW	**10**	**2012**	**3.8**	**0.0**	**0.0-10.3**	**9.6**	**A_S**
TE WW	18	2012	3.6	53.5	50.0-59.9	9.5	A_S
TE WW	**18**	**2013**	**4.0**	**53.5**	**50.0-59.9**	**9.5**	**A_S**
TE WW	**18**	**2012+2013**	**4.1**	**53.5**	**50.0-59.9**	**9.5**	**A_S**
TE WD	**13**	**2012**	**4.8**	**7.1**	**0-17.1**	**11.3**	**A_S**
TE WD	13	2012+2013	3.7	0.0	0.0-7.1	10.1	A_S
TE WD	17	2012	3.5	22.4	20.4-37.8	9.0	A_S, A_G
TE WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.6**	**36.9**	**20.4-37.8**	**12.1**	**A_S, A_G**
TE WW+WD	**4**	**2013**	**7.2**	**50.7**	**45.7-56**	**18.7**	**A_S**
TE WW+WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**7.2**	**50.7**	**45.7-56**	**18.8**	**A_S**
TE WW+WD	**8**	**2012**	**4.7**	**60.7**	**56.3-70.1**	**10.1**	**A_G**
TE WW+WD	**8**	**2012+2013**	**3.9**	**60.7**	**48.4-70.1**	**8.8**	**A_G, D**
TE WW+WD	**10**	**2012**	**4.0**	**0.0**	**0.0-10.3**	**9.8**	**A_S**
TE WW+WD	**13**	**2012**	**4.5**	**12.1**	**0-19.6**	**10.8**	**A_S**
TE WW+WD	**13**	**2012+2013**	**4.2**	**12.1**	**0-19.6**	**10.8**	**A_S**
LA WW+WD	**3**	**2013**	**4.7**	**39.1**	**29.1-46.8**	**10.8**	**A_G**
LA WW+WD	**3**	**2013**	**5.5**	**41.1**	**29.1-46.8**	**11.6**	**A_G**
LA WW+WD	**3**	**2013**	**4.9**	**44**	**29.1-46.8**	**10.6**	**A_G**
LA WW+WD	**3**	**2012+2013**	**4.3**	**34.1**	**21.2-42.4**	**10.3**	**A_S, A_G**
LA WW+WD	**7**	**2012**	**4.1**	**63**	**51.6-75.5**	**8.9**	**A_G, D**
LA WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.2**	**5**	**0-14.1**	**12.6**	**A_G, D**
LA WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.3**	**22.4**	**14.1-37.8**	**9.5**	**A_G, D**
LA WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.4**	**36.9**	**26.9-37.8**	**9.8**	**A_G, D**
LA WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**4.7**	**5**	**0-9.3**	**10.9**	**D**
LA WW+WD	**18**	**2012**	**8.7**	**53.5**	**46.5-54.8**	**20.3**	**A_S, A_G**
LA WW+WD	**18**	**2013**	**5.1**	**46.5**	**39.9-50**	**12.3**	**A_G**

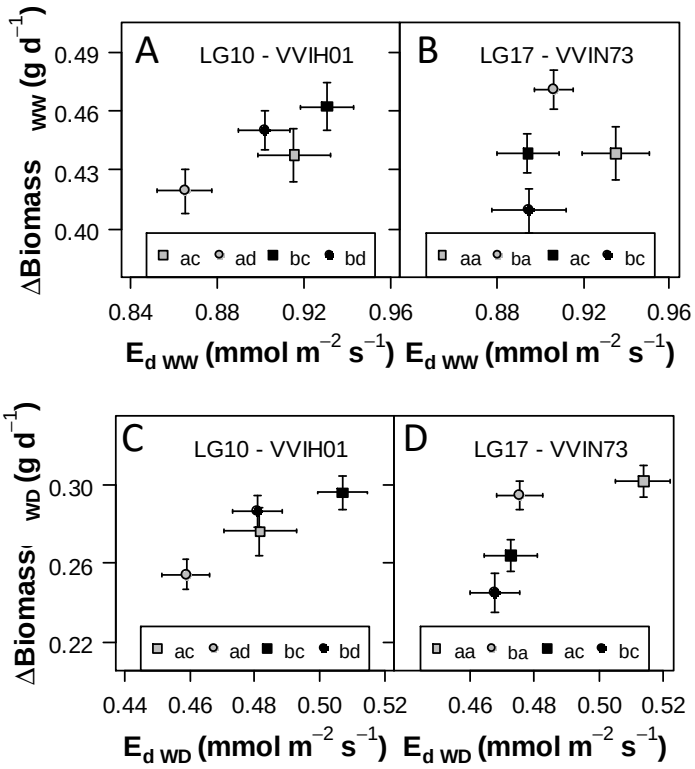
LA WW+WD	**18**	**2012+2013**	**8.4**	**46.5**	**39.9-50**	**19.5**	**A_S, A_G**
ΔBiomass WW	4	2012	3.6	56.0	50.7-56	15.6	A_S
ΔBiomass WW	**4**	**2013**	**7.3**	**56.0**	**50.7-56**	**15.6**	**A_S**
ΔBiomass WW	**4**	**2012+2013**	**7.0**	**56.0**	**50.7-56**	**12.8**	**A_S**
ΔBiomass WW	**15**	**2012+2013**	**4.8**	**46.9**	**33.9-46.9**	**10.3**	**A_S, D**
ΔBiomass WW	**18**	**2012**	**4.1**	**54.8**	**53.5-61.8**	**13.9**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW	**18**	**2012**	**4.9**	**59.9**	**53.5-61.8**	**13.3**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW	**18**	**2013**	**4.3**	**59.9**	**53.5-61.8**	**11.5**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW	**18**	**2012+2013**	**6.2**	**59.9**	**53.5-61.8**	**13.5**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WD	10	2012	3.79	5.3	0.0 -15.3	8.0	A_S
ΔBiomass WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.8**	**22.4**	**19.1-26.9**	**12.9**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**5.5**	**14.1**	**9.3 20.4**	**12.8**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**4**	**2013**	**6.0**	**55.7**	**45.7-56.0**	**14.5**	**A_S**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**4**	**2012+2013**	**5.1**	**56.0**	**50.7-56**	**9.6**	**A_S**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**10**	**2012**	**4.9**	**5.3**	**0.0 -15.3**	**9.3**	**A_S**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**17**	**2012**	**4.6**	**19.1**	**9.3-20.4**	**10.2**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**17**	**2012+2013**	**5.0**	**14.1**	**9.3 20.4**	**9.1**	**A_G**
ΔBiomass WW+WD	**18**	**2012**	**4.6**	**59.9**	**53.5 61.8**	**10.7**	**A_G**

LG, linkage group. L, location of maximum LOD score for the QTL on the LG in cM. CI, confidence interval for the QTL. %V, percentage variance of the trait explained by allelic variation at the QTL. A_S and A_G, additive effects associated respectively with Syrah and Grenache alleles and D, dominance effect. The column entitled 'Effect' indicates the main effects at the considered locus, satisfying the following condition: ($|A_S|$ or $|A_G|$ or $|D|)/(|A_S|+|A_G|+|D|) > 0.30$. All significant QTLs are figured in bold. Putative QTLs on one year (not in bold face) are shown only when they colocalize with a significant QTL in the other year or in the multi-year analysis.

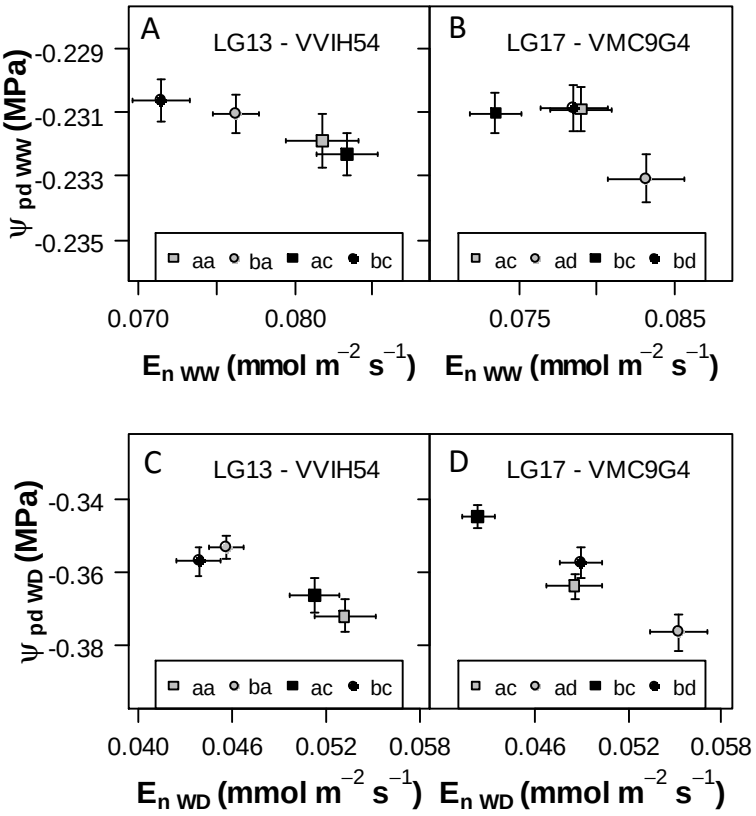
Supplemental figure S1. Relationship between allelic values for nighttime transpiration (E_n), daytime transpiration (E_d), growth rate (ΔBiomass) and transpiration efficiency (TE) at the main loci where colocalizations were noted for QTLs of these traits. (A-B) Biplot of allelic values for E_n *vs* E_d at VMC4F8 marker on linkage group (LG) 1. (C-D) Biplot of allelic values for ΔBiomass *vs* E_n at VRZAG83 marker on LG 4. (E-F) Biplot of allelic values for TE *vs* ΔBiomass at VRZAG83 marker on LG 4. Means and SEs of the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset either under well-watered (WW in A, C and E) or water deficit (WD in B, D and F) scenario. Pairs of letters in the legends indicate the different allelic combinations on markers associated to each QTL, with different letters when alleles differed and the first and second letters corresponding to alleles, respectively, inherited from Syrah and Grenache parents.



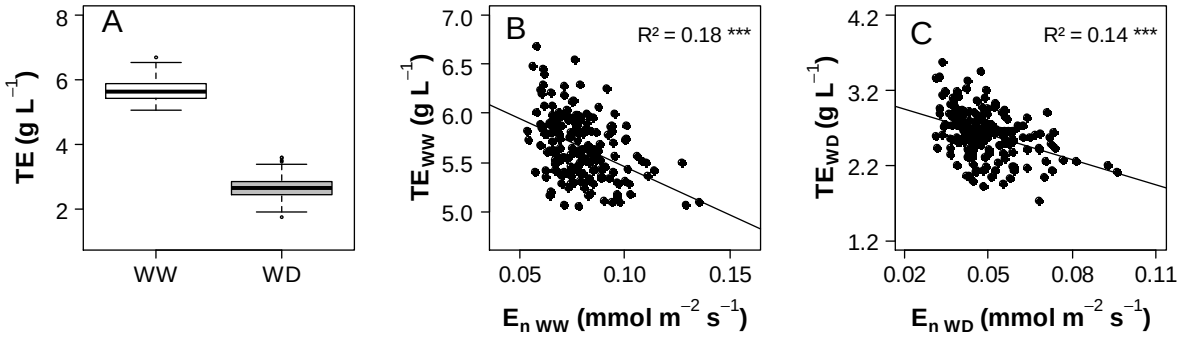
Supplemental figure S2. Relationship between allelic values for growth rate (ΔBiomass) and daytime transpiration (E_d) at the two loci where colocalizations were noted for QTLs of both traits. (A-B) Comparison of allelic values at VVIH01 marker on linkage group (LG) 1 (A) and at VVIN73 marker on LG 17 (B) for the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset under the well-watered (WW) scenario. (C-D) Comparison of allelic values at VVIH01 marker on LG 1 (A) and at VVIN73 marker on LG 17 (B) for the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset under the water deficit (WD) scenario. Same convention for allelic combinations mentioned in the bottom legends as in Fig. S1.



Supplemental figure S3. Relationship between allelic values for predawn leaf water potential (Ψ_{pd}) and nighttime transpiration (E_n) at the two loci where co-localizations were noted for QTLs of both traits. (A-B) Comparison of allelic values at VVIH54 marker on linkage group (LG) 13 (A) and at VMC9G4 marker on LG 17 (B) for the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset under the well-watered (WW) scenario. (C-D) Comparison of allelic values at VVIH54 marker on LG 13 (C) and at VMC9G4 marker on LG 17 (D) for the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset under the water deficit (WD) scenario. Same convention for allelic combinations mentioned in the bottom legends as in Fig. S1.



Supplemental figure S4. Distribution of whole plant transpiration efficiency (TE) and its correlation with nighttime transpiration (E_n) measured on potted plants under well-watered (WW) and water deficit (WD) scenarios for the whole Syrah×Grenache population. (A): Boxplots of TE genotypic values calculated for each offspring under WW and WD conditions (BLUPs of the 188 genotypes calculated for each scenario for the multiyear dataset 2012+2013). (B, C): Correlation between TE and E_n genotypic values (n=188 genotypes, BLUPs calculated for the multiyear dataset 2012+2013 under the WW scenario (B) or under the WD scenario (C)). Pearson's determination coefficients (R^2) are indicated with their significance level as follows: ****P* < 0.001. Regression lines are represented in black.



Supplemental figure S5. Relationship between allelic values for transpiration efficiency (TE) and nighttime transpiration (E_n) at the four loci where colocalizations were noted for QTLs of both traits. (A,E) Comparison of allelic values for TE vs E_n at VRZAG83 marker on linkage group (LG) 4. (B,F) Comparison of allelic values for TE vs E_n at VVIB66 marker on LG 8. (C,G) Comparison of allelic values for TE vs E_n at VVIH54 marker on LG 13. (D,H) Comparison of allelic values for TE vs E_n at VMC9G4 marker on LG 17. Means and SEs of the BLUPs calculated from the multi-year (2012+2013) dataset under either well-watered (WW in A, B, C and D) or water deficit (WD in E, F, G and H) scenario. Same convention for allelic combinations mentioned in the bottom legends as in Fig. S1.