

1 **Drought stress adaptation modulates plant secondary metabolite production in *Salvia***  
2 ***dolomitica* Codd.**

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4 **Matteo Caser<sup>1\*</sup>, Walter Chitarra<sup>2,3</sup>, Francesca D'Angiolillo<sup>4</sup>, Irene Perrone<sup>2</sup>, Sonia Demasi<sup>1</sup>,**  
5 **Claudio Lovisolo<sup>1</sup>, Luisa Pistelli<sup>5</sup>, Laura Pistelli<sup>4</sup>, Valentina Scariot<sup>1</sup>**

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7 <sup>1</sup>Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences, University of Torino, Largo Paolo Braccini  
8 2, 10095, Grugliasco (TO), Italy. E-mail: [matteo.caser@unito.it](mailto:matteo.caser@unito.it); [sonia.demasi@unito.it](mailto:sonia.demasi@unito.it);  
9 [claudio.lovisolo@unito.it](mailto:claudio.lovisolo@unito.it); [valentina.scariot@unito.it](mailto:valentina.scariot@unito.it)

10 <sup>2</sup>Institute for Sustainable Plant Protection, National Research Council (IPSP-CNR), Strada delle  
11 Cacce 73, 10135, Torino (TO), Italy. E-mail: [walter.chitarra@crea.gov.it](mailto:walter.chitarra@crea.gov.it); [irene.perrone@ipsip.cnr.it](mailto:irene.perrone@ipsip.cnr.it)

12 <sup>3</sup>CREA-VE, Viticulture and Enology Research Centre, Viale XXVIII Aprile 26, 31015, Conegliano  
13 (TV), Italy. E-mail: [walter.chitarra@crea.gov.it](mailto:walter.chitarra@crea.gov.it)

14 <sup>4</sup>Department of Agriculture, Food, and Environment, University of Pisa, Via del Borghetto 80,  
15 56124, Pisa, Italy. E-mail: [francescadangiolillo@libero.it](mailto:francescadangiolillo@libero.it); [pistelli@agr.unipi.it](mailto:pistelli@agr.unipi.it)

16 <sup>5</sup>Department of Pharmacy, University of Pisa, Via Bonanno 33, 56126, Pisa, Italy. E-mail:  
17 [luisa.pistelli@unipi.it](mailto:luisa.pistelli@unipi.it)

18

19 \*Corresponding author: Matteo Caser, Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences,  
20 University of Torino, Largo Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco (TO), Italy, tel. +390116708935;  
21 fax +390116708798; mail: [matteo.caser@unito.it](mailto:matteo.caser@unito.it)

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27 **Abstract**

28 Sages are important medicinal and aromatic plants. While *Salvia officinalis* and *S. miltiorrhiza* have  
29 been widely studied, poor information are available on *S. dolomitica* which is recently addressing  
30 attention for its antiplasmodial and anti-inflammatory properties. The current study investigated the  
31 performances and the metabolic profile of this minor species in response to drought stress. Plants  
32 were exposed to three treatments: control, moderate drought stress, or severe drought stress.  
33 Changes in growth and ecophysiological traits, in active and volatile compounds, and essential oils  
34 production were determined. As the terpenoids are the most representative class of secondary  
35 metabolites, the gene expression of key enzymes of terpenoid biosynthesis has been also  
36 investigated. Moderate drought induced a drop of leaf water potential, growth, and stomatal  
37 conductance, while an increase of deyhdrin expression level. However, serious stress symptoms  
38 such as decrease of net photosynthesis and transpiration rate and increase of endogenous abscisic  
39 acid were observed only in severe drought stressed plants. Both drought stress conditions lead to  
40 modulate the expression of some genes involved in BVOCs and EOs biosynthesis and the metabolic  
41 profile. In particular, drought induced an increase of sesquiterpenes, a class of terpenoids with high  
42 importance in food, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industry. Thus, we can speculate that moderate  
43 drought stress, in addition to allowing water savings during cultivation, can lead to an improvement  
44 in the production of secondary metabolites in *S. dolomitica*.

45

46 **Keywords:** ABA; farnesyl diphosphate synthase; sage; sesquiterpenes; volatilome; water  
47 deprivation; medicinal and aromatic plants; metabolome

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## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Drought, in combination with high levels of irradiance and increasing temperature, is  
51 considered the most severe abiotic stress that inhibits plant survival (Morales et al., 2013; Nogués et  
52 al., 2015). Water shortage induced a series of changes at morphological, physiological, biochemical  
53 and molecular level that adversely affect plant growth, health, and productivity (Mitchell et al.,  
54 2013; Caser et al., 2016, 2017 and 2018).

55 The quality of medicinal and aromatic plants (MAPs) relies on the composition and  
56 concentration of plant secondary metabolites (PSMs), which are definitely influenced by  
57 environmental conditions such as drought (Kleinwächter and Selmar, 2015; Mandoulakani et al.,  
58 2017). This effect occurs to all major classes of PSMs and depends on plant species and cultivation  
59 practices (Kleinwächter et al., 2015).

60 Among PSMs, terpenoids represent the most diverse and largest class of compounds  
61 produced by plants (Tholl, 2015). Mono- and sesquiterpenes are the main constituents of biogenic  
62 volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) and essential oils (EOs), providing typical aroma and  
63 biological properties (Raut and Karuppayil, 2014; Loreto et al., 2014; Nogués et al., 2015; Caser et  
64 al., 2016; Moradi et al., 2017; Radwan et al., 2017).

65 Recently, a model was described to explain how drought affects PSMs production (Selmar  
66 and Kleinwächter, 2013). Authors reported that, during water-shortage conditions, the stomata are  
67 closed to minimize transpiration and impairs influx of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) into the leaves.  
68 Consequently, the lower content of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules is fixed via the Calvin Cycle and the fewer  
69 reduced reduction equivalents (e.g. NADPH + H<sup>+</sup>) are consumed and re-oxidized. Thus, large  
70 amounts of NADPH + H<sup>+</sup> accumulate, generating an over-reduced state. In this condition, plants  
71 promote all reactions to consume NADPH + H<sup>+</sup>, including terpenoids and phenols biosynthesis.  
72 Generally, PSMs changes induced by drought improve the product quality of many MAPs  
73 (Mandoulakani et al., 2017; Caser et al., 2018; Kleinwächter and Selmar, 2014). However, this  
74 model has not been effectively addressed so far. Recently, in *Salvia officinalis*, Radwan et al.

75 (2017) verified that the increase of monoterpenes biosynthesis was due not only to a passive shift  
76 caused by the stress related over-reduced status, but also to an active biosynthesis of plant growth  
77 regulators, changes of biochemical pathway and up-regulation of the main genes involved in  
78 terpenoids. In *S. miltiorrhiza*, Ma et al. (2012) isolated and studied the expression of several genes,  
79 coding different enzymes involved in both the 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway  
80 and the mevalonate (MVA) pathway leading to terpenoid biosynthesis. These enzymes, starting  
81 from the universal isoprene precursor isopentenyl diphosphate and its isomer lead to the formation  
82 of diverse terpenoids such as mono (C10)- and sesqui (C15)-terpenoids, carotenoids and  
83 chlorophylls, and bicyclic diterpenoids activated during biotic and abiotic stress responses (Prisic et  
84 al., 2004; Wenping et al., 2011).

85 This study aimed to contribute to unravel the mechanisms underlying the answers to drought  
86 stress in *Salvia dolomitica* Codd, addressing particular attention to the impact on PSMs.

87

## 88 **2. Materials and methods**

### 89 *2.1. Plant material and experimental conditions*

90 A total of 120 clonally propagated plants of *Salvia dolomitica* Codd. were transplanted in  
91 plastic pots (9 cm in diameter) containing peat (Silver Torf, Agrochimica, Bolzano, Italy) and  
92 Agriperlite® (70:30). A slow-release fertilizer (Osmocote 15:11:13; Scotts Europe, The Netherland)  
93 was used. Cultivation lasted for a total of 34 days and was performed in a climate chamber with  
94 semi-controlled growth conditions (25 °C, 60% air humidity, 300  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 16/8 h  
95 photoperiod), located at the University of Torino (Italy, 45°06'23.21''N Lat, 7°57'82.83''E Long).  
96 A complete randomized design with three levels of irrigation was applied. The levels of irrigation  
97 were: 100% container capacity (CC) as well-watered (WW, control), 50% CC as moderate drought  
98 stress (MDS) or 0% CC as severe drought stress (SDS) treatments. For each irrigation regime, a  
99 total of 40 plants (four replications with 10 plants each) were treated. All the water amounts were  
100 kept constant throughout the experiment by gravimetric determinations as reported by Caser et al.

101 (2016). Morphological, physiological and biochemical parameters were monitored after 0, 4, 7, 11,  
102 14, 18, 21, 25, 28, 32 and 34 days of cultivation to describe the plant responses to drought during  
103 time.

104

#### 105 *2.2. Morphological parameters*

106 Plant growth (Growth Index, G.I.) was monitored by estimating the occupied volume of each plant  
107 through the measurement of the height, the broadest diameter and the perpendicular diameter  
108 (Demasi et al., 2017). At the end of the experiment (day 34), roots and aerial parts of ten plants per  
109 irrigation level were weighted to record fresh biomass. Later, they were oven-dried at 45 °C for one  
110 week and dry biomass was measured. Root to aerial (R:A) dry weight ratio was calculated.

111

#### 112 *2.3. Photosynthetic pigments*

113 The relative quantity of chlorophyll was measured on six leaves per plant, randomly  
114 selected, for a total of six plants per irrigation level, by using the Chlorophyll Meter SPAD-502  
115 (Konica Minolta Sensing Inc., Osaka, Japan).

116 Chlorophyll and carotenoids were extracted from 50 mg of fresh fully formed leaves from  
117 six plants per irrigation level. After an over-night extraction in 5 ml of methanol at 4 °C in the dark,  
118 pigments were spectrophotometrically determined at 665, 652, and 470 nm using a Ultrospec 2100  
119 pro (Amersham Biosciences, UK) as described by Caser et al. (2013). The data were reported in mg  
120 g<sup>-1</sup> leaf fresh weight (FW).

121

#### 122 *2.4. Phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant activity*

123 One-hundred mg of fresh leaves per irrigation level were powdered and homogenized with 1  
124 ml of aqueous solution at 70% (v/v) methanol. After 30 minutes on ice, the extracts were  
125 centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 25 °C to recover the supernatant for the following  
126 determination of phenol and flavonoid content, and the antioxidant activity.

127 The total phenols were determined colorimetrically using Folin-Ciocalteu's reagents, as  
128 described by Singleton and Rossi (1965) and indicated as mg gallic acid equivalent (GAE) g<sup>-1</sup>FW.  
129 Total flavonoid content was also determined spectrophotometrically using the colorimetric method  
130 of Kim et al. (2003), based on the formation of a complex flavonoid-aluminium and indicated as mg  
131 g<sup>-1</sup>FW. The antioxidant activity was determined by using the ferric reducing antioxidant power  
132 (FRAP) method with minor modification (Szöllôsi and Szöllôsi Varga, 2002) and indicated as µmol  
133 Fe<sup>2+</sup>mg<sup>-1</sup>. The working solution always freshly prepared contained 7.5 mM acetate buffer, pH 3.6,  
134 0.1 mM tripyridyltriazine (TPTZ), and 0.05 mM FeCl<sub>3</sub> 6H<sub>2</sub>O. At low pH, when the  
135 tripyridyltriazine (Fe<sup>3+</sup>-TPTZ) complex is reduced to the ferrous form (Fe<sup>2+</sup>), an intensive blue color  
136 of (Fe<sup>2+</sup>-TPTZ) can be monitored spectrophotometrically at 593 nm.  
137 Samples were measured in three replicates. At the end of the experiment (day 34), the total amount  
138 of total phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant activity per plant (mg plant FW<sup>-1</sup>) was estimated on the  
139 basis of the aerial fresh biomass.

140

#### 141 *2.5. Ecophysiological evaluation*

142 The method of Scholander et al. (1965) was used to estimate the midday leaf water potential  
143 (MLWP; MPa) in three mature and fully expanded leaves of six plants per irrigation level with a  
144 pressure bomb (Soil Moisture Equipment, Santa Barbara, CA, USA). Moreover, the internal CO<sub>2</sub>  
145 concentration (C<sub>i</sub>; µmol mol<sup>-1</sup>), the transpiration rate (*E*; mmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), the stomatal conductance  
146 (g<sub>s</sub>; mmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), and the net photosynthetic rate (*A*; µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) were measured with a portable  
147 infrared gas analyser ADC-LCPro+ (The Analytical Development Company Ltd., Hoddesdon, UK).  
148 These parameters were monitored in healthy and fully expanded leaves of six plants per irrigation  
149 level between 10:00 and 12:00 a.m. when the vapour pressure deficit (VPD) was constantly around  
150 2.4 kPa (± 0.06 std err) with air temperature of 26.6 ± 0.11 °C.

151

#### 152 *2.6. Endogenous abscisic acid determination*

153 The concentration of endogenous abscisic acid (ABA) was quantified every week in mature  
154 leaves of six plants per irrigation level through an High Performance Liquid Chromatography  
155 (HPLC), based on Solid Phase Extraction (SPE) (Bosco et al., 2013; Demasi et al., 2017). Leaves  
156 were grounded in liquid nitrogen and 0.5 g of each sample was suspended in 4 ml of the extraction  
157 solution (65% pure methanol, 25% ultrapure water, 10% aqueous hydrogen chloride 1 M) for 2 h at  
158 4 °C, in the dark. Samples were then filtered and the eluates were added to a SPE cartridge  
159 (Supelclean SPE LC-NH<sub>2</sub>, Supelco Analytical, USA). ABA was eluted with 5% of phosphoric acid  
160 (H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>) in methanol. The procedure was carried out under artificial light with amber glassware,  
161 preventing degradation. The chromatographic analysis of the eluate was performed with HPLC  
162 1200 Series (Agilent Technologies, Böblingen, Germany) and the signal was monitored at 265 nm  
163 with a diode array detector. The content (pmol mg<sup>-1</sup> FW) was calculated based on a calibration  
164 curve constructed from the matrix-matched calibration standards.

165

### 166 *2.7. Analysis of biogenic volatile organic compounds*

167 The BVOCs evaluation was conducted on 3 grams of shoots by using a Supelco Solid Phase  
168 Micro Extraction (SPME) (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS, 100  
169 µm) at day 14. Each sample was introduced into a 100 ml glass conical flask and equilibrated for 30  
170 min at 25°C. After the equilibration time, the fiber was exposed to the headspace for 15 min at  
171 room temperature; once sampling was finished the fiber was withdrawn into the needle and  
172 transferred to the injection port of the Gas Chromatography–Electron Impact Mass Spectrometry  
173 (GC-EIMS) system where the fiber was desorbed. GC-EIMS analysis was performed with a Varian  
174 CP 3800 gas chromatograph (Varian, Inc., Palo Alto, CA) equipped with a DB-5 capillary column  
175 (30 m × 0.25 mm; coating thickness 0.25 µm) and a Varian Saturn 2000 ion trap mass detector  
176 chromatograph (Varian, Inc., Palo Alto, CA). Analytical conditions were: injector and transfer line  
177 temperature at 250 °C and 240 °C, respectively; oven temperature programmed from 60 °C to  
178 240 °C at 3 °C min<sup>-1</sup>; helium as carrier gas set at 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; and the injection in splitless mode.

179 Identification of the constituents was conducted by the comparison of their retention times with  
180 those of authentic samples, and on computer matching against commercial (Adams, 1995) and  
181 home-made library mass spectra built from pure substances and MS literature data (Davies, 1990).

182 The relative proportions of the volatile constituents were expressed in percentages obtained  
183 by peak-area normalisation, and all relative response factors were taken as one.

184

#### 185 *2.8. Essential oil isolation*

186 Twenty grams of dried leaves were hydrodistilled using a Clevenger-type apparatus (2 h).  
187 The yields of distillation were not determined due to the low amount of the starting plant material.  
188 The EOs obtained were solubilized in *n*-hexane, dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate and filtered,  
189 then stored in a vial at 4 °C in the dark until use. GC-EIMS was used to analyze all the EO obtained  
190 (injection of 0.2 µL) as reported by Caser et al. (2016).

191

#### 192 *2.9. RNA isolation and real time RT-PCR analysis*

193 Leaves collected from six plants at the end of the experiment (day 34) were pooled to form  
194 three biological replicates (two plants for each biological replicate). Total RNA was extracted using  
195 the Spectrum™ Plant Total RNA extraction kit (Sigma Aldrich) starting from 80 mg of material,  
196 and RNA quantity were checked using a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher  
197 Scientific). RNA was then treated with DNase I (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) in  
198 accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. For each biological replicate, first-strand cDNA  
199 was synthesized starting from 500 ng of total RNA using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse  
200 Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's  
201 instructions. Since the absence of *S. dolomitica* reference genome, gene-specific primers (Table 1)  
202 were selected on the base of the closest phylogenetically species, *S. miltiorrhiza* and designed using  
203 Primer Express® software (v3.0, Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Reactions were  
204 carried out using Power SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher



205 Scientific) as reported in Chitarra et al. (2017). Three technical replicates were run for each  
206 biological replicate, and the expression of target genes was quantified after normalization to  
207 glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*) housekeeping gene. The results were  
208 calculated as expression ratios (Relative Quantity, RQ) to control (WW).

209

## 210 2.10. Statistical methods

211 Data were firstly tested for the variance homogeneity. All the measured and the derived data  
212 were then subjected to post-hoc test using Ryan-Einot-Gabriel-Welsch-F test (REGW-F) and  
213 Tukey's test for gene expression analyses. The critical value for statistical significance was  $P <$   
214 0.05. All computations were conducted with SPSS statistical package (version 21.0; SPSS Inc.,  
215 Chicago, Illinois).

216

## 217 3. Results and discussion

### 218 3.1. Plant growth

219 Moderate drought stress (MDS) and severe drought stress (SDS) reduced growth starting  
220 from day 21 onward when compared to well-watered (WW) (G.I. Table 2). MDS and SDS also  
221 drastically reduced the total (-74% and -83%, respectively), aerial (-80% and -82%, respectively)  
222 and root dry biomass (-60% and -85%, respectively) compared to control (Table 3).

223 Dehydration often reduces the overall plant growth (Caser et al., 2012, 2016, 2017 and  
224 2018; Soni and Abdin, 2017), attributable to the considerable reduction of photosynthesis, cell  
225 turgidity, cell growth, and to the increasing evapotranspiration (Rahimi et al., 2017). This was seen  
226 in many MAPs, such as *Mentha pulegium* (Hassanpour et al., 2014), *M. piperita* (Rahimi et al.,  
227 2017), *M. spicata* (Delfine et al., 2005) and *Rosmarinus officinalis* (Delfine et al., 2005). Within the  
228 genus *Salvia*, different morphological responses to drought are reported in literature. No differences  
229 in biomass production was observed in drought stressed *S. officinalis* plants (Radwan et al., 2017)

230 while, a reduction was seen in other *Salvia* species as *S. splendens* (Burnett et al., 2005), *S.*  
231 *miltiorrhiza* (Liu et al., 2011) and in a previous study on *S. dolomitica* (Caser et al., 2012).

232 *S. dolomitica* significantly increased the root to aerial ratio when grown in MDS in  
233 comparison to WW (+100%) and SDS treatments (+244%). Roots are the only source to acquire  
234 water from soil, therefore the root density and size are key responses of plants to drought stress.  
235 Mediterranean plant species typically have higher R:A ratios than plants from more mesic biomes  
236 (Valliere and Allen, 2016), possibly as a result of the adaptation to seasonal drought. Besides,  
237 Mahajan and Tuteja (2005) reviewed that leaves are generally more sensitive to stresses than roots.  
238 This often results in an increase in R:A when water is limited, as also seen in *S. sinaloensis*, *Allium*  
239 *cepa* and *Artemisia californica* (Farooq et al., 2009; Valliere and Allen, 2016; Caser et al., 2018).  
240 However, when drought conditions are too severe, there is also a dramatic reduction of roots, as  
241 proved in *Helichrysum petiolare* (Caser et al., 2016).

242

### 243 3.2. Photosynthetic pigments

244 A decrease in chlorophyll and carotenoid content in plants subjected to drought stress is  
245 commonly known in several species, including MAPs (Caser et al., 2016). In *S. dolomitica*, only  
246 SDS significantly reduced the content of both pigments compared to WW and MDS starting from  
247 day 21 (total chlorophylls: 1.46, 1.45 and 1.19 mg g<sup>-1</sup>; carotenoids: 2.93, 2.75 and 1.54 mg g<sup>-1</sup> in  
248 WW, MDS and SDS, respectively) up to their senescence (Table 4), combined to a growth  
249 reduction at the same time points, as previously seen in *S. sinaloensis* (Caser et al., 2018).  
250 Differently, in *S. officinalis* a strong reduction in chlorophyll content was observed also in plants  
251 treated with MDS (-78.5%) (Bettaieb et al., 2011).

252 According to Flexas and Medrano (2002), green leaf colour in C<sub>3</sub> plants can be reduced by  
253 increasing drought stress. However, in the present study no significant differences on SPAD values  
254 among treatments were noted (Table 4), as previously found in *S. dolomitica* and *S. sinaloensis* by  
255 Caser et al. (2012 and 2018).

256

257 3.3. Phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant activity

258 Drought induces oxidative stress in plants, in which reactive oxygen species (ROS) are  
259 commonly produced (Munné-Bosch and Peñuelas, 2003). Polyphenols and flavonoids are among  
260 the most adaptable natural compounds, helping plants to scavenge ROS (di Fernando et al., 2014).  
261 An increase of phenolic compounds biosynthesis was seen in drought-stressed plants of *Labisia*  
262 *pumila* (Jaafar et al., 2012), *Salvia officinalis* (Radwan et al., 2017) and *S. sinaloensis* (Caser et al.,  
263 2018).

264 In the present study, the rate of total phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant activity in treated  
265 plants was evaluated during the entire experiment (Table 5). *S. dolomitica* plants subjected to SDS  
266 conditions showed a strong decrease in the content of total phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant  
267 activity starting from day 4 till day 11. Later, no differences occurred among treatments in total  
268 phenols and flavonoids till the end of the experiment. No differences among WW and MDS  
269 occurred in phenols and flavonoids content, with the exception for day 32 (29.0 and 12.7 mg GAE  
270 g<sup>-1</sup> of phenols and 8.3 and 5.7 mg g<sup>-1</sup> of flavonoids in WW and MDS, respectively). Regarding  
271 antioxidant activity, at day 25, SDS induced a sharply significant increase compared to other  
272 treatments (98.7, 101.5 and 153.1 μmol Fe<sup>2+</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively). This time  
273 point coincides with the complete senescence. At the end of the experiment (day 25 for SDS and  
274 day 34 for WW and MDS), the total amount of total phenols, flavonoids and antioxidant activity per  
275 plant was estimated on the basis of the plant fresh biomass (Table 5). Here, results highlighted that  
276 all the parameters were significantly reduced by MDS and SDS compared to WW (305.2, 53.2 and  
277 20.5 mg GAEg<sup>-1</sup> of phenols, 105.7, 17.1 and 5.3 mg g<sup>-1</sup> of flavonoids and 1815.8, 337.5 and 134.7  
278 μmol Fe<sup>2+</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> of antioxidant activity, respectively).

279 Considering that drought-tolerant species are known to increase the accumulation of  
280 antioxidants, which help to protect plant cells from ROS (Moradi et al., 2017), these results point at

281 *S. dolomitica* as a drought-sensitive species. A low amount of these metabolites produced under  
282 drought stress conditions was also seen in *S. miltiorrhiza* (Liu et al., 2011).

283

### 284 3.4. Ecophysiological traits

285 The decline in the levels of pigments (chlorophyll and carotenoids) under drought stress  
286 conditions, in parallel to the increased level of stress, is in tune with depressed physiological needs  
287 of photosynthetic activity in favour of lower water loss and assuming lower growth. As expected, in  
288 *S. dolomitica* water shortage affected midday leaf water potential (MLWP), internal CO<sub>2</sub>  
289 concentration (*C<sub>i</sub>*), transpiration rate (*E*), stomatal conductance (*g<sub>s</sub>*) and net photosynthetic rate (*A*)  
290 (Figure 1).

291 The MLWP in the WW plants kept constant during the entire experiment (-0.34 MPa) (Fig.  
292 1A). In MDS plants, MLWP was significantly lower at the days 18, 28, 32 and 34 (-0.40, -0.52, -  
293 0.50 and -0.46 MPa, respectively) compared to controls. Severe drought stress significantly  
294 constantly reduced MLWP from day 7 (-0.53 MPa) until day 25 (-1.00 MPa), when the complete  
295 leaf withering occurred. Within the genus *Salvia*, similar results were found also in *S. splendens*  
296 ‘Bonfire’ and *S. sinaloensis* whose leaves reached a LWP of -1.40 and -1.10 MPa under similar  
297 severe drought conditions, respectively (Eakes et al., 1991; Caser et al., 2018). Even more, *S.*  
298 *officinalis* and *S. mellifera* plants under the same stress conditions showed much lower LWP (-4.8  
299 and -8.0 MPa, respectively) (Hargrave et al., 1994; Bettaieb et al., 2011).

300 No differences in *C<sub>i</sub>* were observed between WW and MDS plants, ranging between 255.0  
301 and 483.4 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> during the experiment (Fig. 1B), while a significant increase in SDS plants  
302 was observed starting from day 14 (423.0 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>) to day 25 (493.0 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>). Similarly, also  
303 in *E* no differences between WW and MDS plants were highlighted (Fig. 1C), whereas, a significant  
304 decrease occurred in SDS plants in the days 4, 7, 11, 14 and 25, compared to the other treatments.  
305 Regarding stomatal conductance (*g<sub>s</sub>*) (Fig. 1D), differences between WW and MDS plants occurred  
306 at days 7, 21, 25, 28 and 34. SDS plants showed a significant and constant decrease starting from

307 day 7 ( $0.10 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) until the complete senescence ( $0.01 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Net photosynthetic  
308 rate ( $A$ ) (Fig. 1E) followed a similar trend in SDS treatment starting from day 14 ( $1.78 \text{ } \mu\text{mol mol}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).  
309 Differences between WW and MDS appeared only at day 25 ( $15.32$  and  $5.16 \text{ } \mu\text{mol mol}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  
310 respectively). The decrease of photosynthetic activity under drought stress may be due to stomatal  
311 or non-stomatal mechanisms (Caser et al., 2018). In drought tolerant species, the reduction of  
312 photosynthesis is due to stomatal closure and limitation of water losses. In drought sensitive plants,  
313 the reduction of net photosynthesis is mainly due to water shortage, inducing severe damages in  
314 plants. Here, SDS strongly reduced the assimilation processes, with a significant decrease of  $g_s$  and  
315 saving internal  $\text{CO}_2$ , suggesting an efficient adaptive stomatal modulation.

316

### 317 3.5. Endogenous ABA content

318 Abscisic acid (ABA) is known to be synthesized under different stress conditions (Demasi et  
319 al., 2017) either at the root or leaf level. ABA has an inhibitory effect on cell growth and it leads to  
320 the depolarization of guard cell membranes triggering osmotic ion efflux and the loss of guard cell  
321 turgor (McAdam and Brodribb, 2016).

322 Endogenous ABA content in the leaves of *S. dolomitica* under WW and MDS plants did  
323 not differ during the entire experiment with a mean value equal to  $0.16 \text{ pmol mg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1F). On the  
324 contrary, SDS induced a strong significant increase in the hormone concentration already at day 7  
325 ( $\sim 14$  fold more than WW and MDS) until the complete plant senescence ( $\sim 39$  fold more than WW  
326 and MDS). Endogenous ABA plays an important role in drought adaptation and, in *S. dolomitica*  
327 rapidly increased under severe water shortage conditions, enhancing drought tolerance as was  
328 observed in leaves of *Cichorium intybus* treated with similar severe drought conditions  
329 (Ghanaatiyan and Sadeghi, 2017).

330 Within the genus *Salvia* only few studies reported the content of ABA in response to not  
331 optimal growing conditions. Kondrat'eva et al. (2008) found an increase of ABA in *S. sclarea* under

332 cold stress (ranged between 5.1 and 7.1 pmol mg<sup>-1</sup>). While, Asensi-Fabado et al. (2013) in *S.*  
333 *officinalis* under heat stress (ranged between 3.0 and 6.0 pmol mg<sup>-1</sup>).

334

### 335 3.6. Biogenic volatile organic compounds production

336 Intensity and profile of BVOCs emitted by plants is dependent on the genetic variability and  
337 plasticity of phenotypes (Dicke and Loreto, 2010). Their emission can vary drastically depending on  
338 the species, organ, developmental stage and environmental conditions (Holopainen and  
339 Gershenzon, 2010). Several authors highlighted that any stress condition could potentially alter the  
340 rate and composition of BVOCs (Niinemets et al., 2013). As reported by Loreto et al. (2014) under  
341 stress conditions, the investment of carbon into foliar BVOC increases, resulting in considerably  
342 larger quantities being released into the atmosphere. In fact, abiotic and biotic stresses can enhance  
343 their emission to communicate with other organisms (Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010).

344 The total emitted and identified BVOCs from the analyzed shoots of *S. dolomitica* are  
345 reported in Table 6. Overall, a number of 36, 33 and 37 compounds were recognized in WW, MDS  
346 and SDS plants, accounting for 94.43%, 81.38% and 98.18% of the total compositions,  
347 respectively. Figure 2A shows how the main volatile fractions changed in *S. dolomitica* plants  
348 subjected to different drought treatments. Well watered plants were characterized mainly by  
349 monoterpene hydrocarbons (mh); this volatile fraction strongly decreased due to increasing stress  
350 conditions (57.71%, 30.97% and 29.41% in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively). Conversely, under  
351 MDS and SDS conditions, an increase in sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (sh) was highlighted (34.09%,  
352 47.19% and 66.32% in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively). Drought conditions softly affected also  
353 the production of the other reported volatile molecule class, the oxygenated monoterpene (om)  
354 (1.72%, 2.92% and 2.19% in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively).

355 Several recent reviews addressed the roles of BVOCs in enhancing the tolerance of plants to  
356 various general abiotic stressors (Possel and Loreto, 2013). However, the literature concerning  
357 BVOC emission in relation to water availability is ambiguous. *S. dolomitica* as other Labiatae

358 species accumulate terpenes in specialized structures (i.e. glandular hairs) (Bassolino et al., 2015)  
359 and their terpene emission is considered to be the consequence of terpene volatilization from these  
360 structures, which is generally temperature dependent (Llusia and Peñuelas, 2000). In the present  
361 study, plants under severe stress conditions showed an increase in the total amount of analysed  
362 components and a strong decrease of hydrogenated monoterpenes in concomitance with a sharp  
363 increase of hydrogenated sesquiterpenes. Llusia and Peñuelas (1998) reported that a reduction of  
364 monoterpene emission under severe drought conditions could be expected due to stomata closure.  
365 However, sesquiterpenes are not generally emitted in large amounts constitutively (Possel and  
366 Loreto, 2013) but they can be enhanced by biotic and abiotic stresses as indirect defence  
367 mechanism.

368 All the investigated headspaces showed different array of the main constituents. The  
369 chemical profile in WW plants was characterized by Limonene >  $\Delta$ -3-carene > Germacrene D >  $\beta$ -  
370 Caryophyllene > (E)- $\beta$ -ocimene, in MDS plants, by Germacrene D > Limonene >  $\beta$ -Caryophyllene  
371 >  $\alpha$ -guaiene >  $\Delta$ -3-carene, and in SDS plants by Germacrene D > Limonene > Bicyclogermacrene >  
372  $\beta$ -Caryophyllene >  $\alpha$ -guaiene. Among the cited constituents, a very sharp increase (~+260%) was  
373 observed for the sesquiterpene hydrocarbons Germacrene D (from 8.57% to 22.35% and 22.16% in  
374 WW and MDS and SDS, respectively). On the opposite, the monoterpene hydrocarbons (E)- $\beta$ -  
375 ocimene reduced of ~60% when plants were subjected to MDS and SDS. Arey et al. (1995)  
376 suggested that the sesquiterpenes emission in *S. mellifera*, mainly composed by  $\beta$ -caryophyllene  
377 and Germacrene D, is not dependent to seasons but that any disturbances to the plants may exert  
378 influence on the total observed emission variability. Very few studies reported the impact of  
379 drought on volatile sesquiterpenes emissions in MAPs with misaligned results. Ormeño et al. (2007)  
380 observed a reduction in sesquiterpenes (allo-aromadendrene,  $\alpha$ -zingiberene and  $\alpha$ -cadinene) in  
381 drought stressed *Rosmarinus officinalis* plants, while an increase of Germacrene D was evidenced  
382 in *Thymus vulgaris* and *T. serpyllum* (Moradi et al., 2017).

383

384 3.7. Essential oils

385 Essential oil synthesis in plants is influenced by several factors such as light, seasonal  
386 variation, climate change, plant growth regulators, and environmental stresses such as drought  
387 (Mandoulakani et al., 2017).

388 A total of 82 constituents were detected in the investigated EOs, of which 42, 46 and 52 in  
389 WW, MDS and SDS plants, respectively (Table 7). Drought stress conditions induced only a slight  
390 decrease in the total amount of the identified constituents (97.3, 95.5 and 95.9% at WW, MDS and  
391 SDS plants, respectively), but affected the main chemical classes, particularly the sesquiterpenes  
392 (Fig. 2B). Only the oxygenated monoterpenes were reduced under stress conditions (7.5%, 1.1% and  
393 1.5%, in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively), while MDS and SDS reduced the total amount of the  
394 sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (53.4%, 32.9% and 33.2% in WW, MDS and SDS, respectively) and  
395 increased the oxygenated sesquiterpenes (26.0%, 53.2% and 53.1% in WW, MDS and SDS,  
396 respectively).

397 The main constituent in WW EOs was the sesquiterpene hydrocarbon  $\beta$ -Caryophyllene. This  
398 constituent strongly decreased with drought (21.2%, 0.6% and 0.6% in WW, MDS and SDS,  
399 respectively). In stressed plants the main constituent was instead the oxygenated sesquiterpene  
400 Longipinalol, which deeply increased under drought conditions (0.8%, 41.9% and 41.5% in WW,  
401 MDS and SD, respectively). Specifically, the chemical profile of WW plants was composed by  $\beta$ -  
402 Caryophyllene >  $\delta$ -cadinene > 1H-cyclopropanaphthalene >  $\alpha$ -eudesmol > epi- $\alpha$ -cadinol, while for  
403 MDS and SDS by Longipinalol > Trans- $\beta$ -guaiene >  $\beta$ -pinene >  $\alpha$ -humulene >  $\delta$ -cadinene.

404 Within the genus *Salvia*, drought stress resulted to slightly increase the total amount of EO  
405 constituents in *S. officinalis* (i.e. camphor,  $\alpha$ -thujone and 1.8-cineole) (Bettaieb et al., 2009) and *S.*  
406 *sinaloensis* (i.e. camphor) (Caser et al., 2018). *S. dolomitica* EOs were previously evaluated by  
407 Kamatou et al. (2007) in South Africa wild plants and by Bassolino et al. (2015) in potted cultivated  
408 plants. Quite surprisingly, these profiles differ greatly. Wild plants contained mainly oxygenated  
409 monoterpenes (71.8%), while cultivated plants mainly hydrocarbons (71.5%) and oxygenated



410 sesquiterpenes (13.6%), with  $\beta$ -caryophyllene as main constituent. In our study, WW plants  
411 presented a profile similar to what found by Bassolino et al. (2015). These variations in the EO  
412 compositions might have arisen from several factors (climatical, seasonal, geographical, geological,  
413 extraction method), as mentioned González-Coloma et al. (2011) in other Labiatae species.

414 Sesquiterpenes represent an extremely diverse, heterogeneous and large group of natural  
415 compounds. Since these compounds play essential roles in plant defense response, their  
416 accumulation under abiotic stress is consistent with the carbon balance theory, which states that the  
417 investment in plant defense increases in response to a growth limitation. As an example, high  
418 amount of sesquiterpenes were observed in *Inula montana* plants subjected to different abiotic  
419 stresses (i.e. altitude, drought and soil composition) (Roux et al., 2017). In this work, plants  
420 subjected to drought showed a reduction of hydrocarbons sesquiterpenes and an increase in  
421 oxygenated sesquiterpenes (Fig. 3). These dynamics were already supposed to be a defence  
422 mechanism of the plants against hostile environment such as intense light conditions or water  
423 shortage.

424

### 425 3.8. Genes involved in terpenoid biosynthesis

426 Plants are compatible to biotic and abiotic stresses by modulating the expression of genes  
427 which are responsible in both primary and secondary metabolism (Dolzhenko et al., 2010).  
428 Dehydrin is one of the most important genes expressed in plants during water deficit condition and  
429 its ABA binding-site is often used as target to attest the drought stress (George et al., 2017). These  
430 proteins of LEA family help to maintain large amounts of water inside the plant cell during water  
431 stress, thereby protecting the plants proteins and biomembranes (Battaglia et al., 2008).

432 Here, the expression profile of the dehydrin gene (*DH*) increased concurrently with the  
433 strength of the water stress (c.a. 1.5 and 3 fold in MDS and SDS compared to WW, respectively)  
434 (Fig. 3 in the box), confirming how plants perceived the drought stress and activated molecular  
435 responses. A similar trend was seen for the following genes that code for enzymes involved in the

436 terpenoid biosynthesis: geranyl diphosphate synthases (GPPS), farnesyl diphosphate synthase  
437 (FPPS), geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase (GGPPS) and copalyl diphosphate synthases (CPS).  
438 As reported in *S. miltiorrhiza* (Wenping et al., 2011), GPPS catalyses the condensation of two units  
439 of isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and one unit of dimethyl allyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) to  
440 form geranyl diphosphate (GPP), precursor of almost all the monoterpenes, while FPPS catalysed the  
441 formation of farnesyl diphosphate (FPP), precursor of almost all sesquiterpenes. Lastly, GGPPS  
442 catalysed the formation of geranyl geranyl diphosphate (GGPP), precursor of triterpenes (C<sub>20</sub>),  
443 carotenoids and chlorophylls, and CPS catalyses the cyclization reaction that converts GGPP to  
444 form copalyl diphosphate (CPP).

445 In this study, all the genes were up regulated in stressed plants. This was particularly evident  
446 for FPPS and CPS2 genes (c.a. 18 and 8 fold, respectively) (Fig. 3C and F). Comparing the two  
447 drought stresses, except for GPPS2D and CPS3 (Fig. 3B and G), the highest levels of expression  
448 were found in MDS plants. This highlights that the MDS treatment induced with greater efficiency  
449 the transcriptional upregulation of different enzymes involved in the terpenoid biosynthesis and  
450 consequently in BVOCs and EOs production.

451 Within the Labiatae family, CPS genes were isolated in *Salvia fruticosa*, *S. miltiorrhiza* and  
452 *R. officinalis* (Božičet al., 2015). Wenping et al. (2011) and Ma et al. (2012) highlighted that these  
453 genes have diverse expression patterns that are tightly controlled at different developmental stages  
454 (seed germination, seedling growth, vegetative stage and reproductive stage). As confirmed by our  
455 study, they play important roles also in interactions with environmental factors by inducing the  
456 biosynthesis of PSMs, as well as the other studied genes.

457

#### 458 **4. Conclusion**

459 In summary, this study represents an integrated approach, combining metabolomics and  
460 physiological studies that allowed us to get new insights on the impact of drought in mechanisms  
461 and processes involved in MAPs, and particularly in *S. dolomitica* adaptation.

462 Moderate drought stressed plants perceived the water stress, as testified by the drop of leaf  
463 water potential, the reduced growth index, the constant decrease of stomatal conductance and the  
464 increased deyhdrin expression level. However, only severe drought stressed plants showed serious  
465 stress symptoms such as significant decrease of net photosynthesis, increase of endogenous ABA,  
466 and decrease of transpiration rate. Thus, these traits revealed that the optimum irrigation conditions  
467 for the growth and health of *S. dolomitica* plants was of circa 50% of control irrigation, since did  
468 not affect its quality, suggesting the possibility to ameliorate the water-management practices in  
469 MAPs sector.

470 Plant secondary metabolites are a fascinating class of phytochemicals exhibiting immense chemical  
471 diversity. MAPs are commonly known to produce a wide range of these molecules with different  
472 industrial purposes. Here, both drought stress conditions (mainly MDS) lead to modulate the  
473 expression of some genes involved in BVOCs and EOs biosynthesis, mainly sesquiterpenes, a class  
474 of terpenoids with high importance in food, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industry. Since previous  
475 studies indicated that the EOs of *S. dolomitica* exhibited antiplasmodial and anti-inflammatory  
476 activities (Fisher et al., 2005; Kamatou et al., 2007a,b, 2008 and 2010), we can speculate that  
477 moderate drought stress can be beneficial for the PSMs production in *S. dolomitica*.

478

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486

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682

683 **Conflict of Interest Statement:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

684

686 **Table 1.** Oligonucleotides used in this study in qRT PCR experiments.

Name	Putative Gene Description	Primer	Primer sequences 5'-3'	References
<i>DH</i>	Dehydrin	Forward	GAGGTAGAGGGGGAAAA TGG	This study
		Reverse	CCGATGTGTCTACGCATT TC	
<i>GPPSB</i>	Geranyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	GGCGTATGGGTTACACA AGC	This study
		Reverse	GCACCAAGGCTAGAGAG CTG	
<i>GPPS2D</i>	Geranyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	GCTGTCCCCCAAGTTTGA T	This study
		Reverse	CTCTCCATCACGCGAAGC GCGGGTGAGGACCTGGA	
<i>FPPS</i>	Farnesyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	GAAACAT CAGGGCCTTTACAACCAG	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	CCAAGAA	
<i>GGPPS2</i>	Geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	CCAGATTGTGGACTTGTC GAGCGA	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	CAACACACCTGGCGTACT TCCTCAA	
<i>CPS1</i>	Copalyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	CCACATCGCCTTCAGGGA AGAAAT	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	TTTATGCTCGATTTGCT GCGATCT	
<i>CPS2</i>	Copalyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	GGTTCATCGCCTTCAAC GAAGAT	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	TCCTTATCCTTTATGCTCC CATCCA	
<i>CPS3</i>	Copalyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	GGAGATGCCAATTCGAA CATCAGA	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	TCAAATATAGTTGCGGCG GCCAAA	
<i>CPS4</i>	Copalyl diphosphate synthase	Forward	CGGCTGCCTTGGGCTACA ACAATA	Ma et al. 2012
		Reverse	TCCCTGGTGACCTCCTCC TTCCA	
<i>GAPDH</i>	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	Forward	ACCCTCACGGGGAAGAC CATC	This study
		Reverse	ACCACGGAGACGGAGGA CAAG	

687

688 **Table 2.** Average values of growth index (G.I., cm<sup>3</sup>) during the experiment. *S. dolomitica* plants  
689 were well watered (100% container capacity, 100% CC, WW) or subjected to moderate drought  
690 stress (50% CC, MDS) or severe drought stress (0% CC, SDS).

G.I. (cm <sup>3</sup> ) Treatments	Days										
	0	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	34
WW	8134	3186	3525	7114	6464	4788	8355a	11921a	12059	12156	12456
MDS	8134	5726	5837	4641	4561	4779	4058b	3336b	3451	3587	4002
SDS	8143	2951	3011	3611	2874	2786	1534c	778c	-	-	-
<i>P</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	*	**	**	**

691 Means followed by the same letter do not differ significantly, according to REGW-F test (NS = non significant;  
692 \**P*<0.05; \*\* *P*<0.001).

693

694 **Table 3.** Total, aerial and root dry mass accumulation (g DW plant<sup>-1</sup>) and root:aerial (R:A) ratio of  
695 treated *S. dolomitica* plants at the end of the experiment. Plants were well watered (100% container  
696 capacity, 100% CC, WW) or subjected to moderate drought stress (50% CC, MDS) or severe  
697 drought stress (0% CC, SDS). In brackets are reported the percentage variations referred to controls.

Treatments	Dry mass accumulation (gDW plant <sup>-1</sup> )			R:A ratio
	Total	Aerial part	Root	
WW	6.24 a (100%)	4.30 a (100%)	1.94 a (100%)	0.45 b (100%)
MDS	1.64 b (26%)	0.86 b (20%)	0.78 b (40%)	0.91 a (200%)
SDS	1.06 b (17%)	0.77 b (18%)	0.29 c (15%)	0.38 c (82%)
<i>P</i>	**	**	**	*

698 Means followed by the same letter do not differ significantly, according to REGW-F test (NS = non significant;  
699 \**P*<0.05; \*\* *P*<0.001).

700

701 **Table 4.** SPAD values, chlorophyll (a + b) and total carotenoid (Car) measured on *S. dolomitica*  
702 plants treated with three irrigation regimes: well watered (100% container capacity, 100% CC,  
703 WW), moderate drought stress (50% CC, MDS), or severe drought stress (0% CC, SDS).

SPAD Treatments	Days										
	0	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	34
WW	28.1	34.2	36.4	36.8	35.9	34.4	38.0	38.4	38.1	38.7	38.8
MDS	28.1	32.1	32.7	35.3	35.0	32.1	33.8	33.9	34.1	34.2	34.1
SDS	28.1	28.3	29.3	32.3	33.2	33.0	31.5	30.0	-	-	-
<i>P</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Chl (a+b) (mg g <sup>-1</sup> FW)											
Treatments	Days										
WW	1.42	1.46	1.42	1.46	1.48	1.49	1.46 a	1.45 a	1.48	1.49	1.45
MDS	1.42	1.41	1.43	1.31	1.39	1.48	1.45 a	1.46 a	1.47	1.45	1.43
SDS	1.42	1.43	1.39	1.48	1.27	1.29	1.19 b	1.11 b	-	-	-
<i>P</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	**	ns	ns	ns
Carotenoids (mg g <sup>-1</sup> FW)											
Treatments	Days										
WW	2.18	2.24	2.04	2.84	2.65	2.45	2.93 a	2.46 a	2.58	2.78	2.94
MDS	2.18	1.85	2.16	2.02	2.05	2.35	2.75 a	2.45 a	2.74	2.95	2.87
SDS	2.18	2.20	2.01	2.23	2.32	1.96	1.54 b	1.07 b	-	-	-
<i>P</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	**	ns	ns	ns

704 Means followed by the same letter do not differ significantly, according to REGW-F test (NS = non significant;  
 705 \*P<0.05; \*\* P<0.001).

706

707 **Table 5.** The rate during the experiment and the total amount (mg plant<sup>-1</sup> FW) of leaf phenols,  
 708 flavonoids, and antioxidant activity of treated *S. dolomitica* plants. Plants were well watered (100%  
 709 container capacity, 100% CC, WW) or subjected to moderate drought stress (50% CC, MDS) or  
 710 severe drought stress (0% CC, SDS). In brackets are reported the percentage variations referred to  
 711 controls.

Phenols (mg GAE g <sup>-1</sup> ) Treatments	Days											Total amount
	0	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	34	
WW	58.3	38.7a	27.5a	34.8a	31.8	21.7	21.5	21.0	18.0	29.0	21.8	305.2a (100%)
MDS	58.3	39.6a	29.1a	31.6a	38.7	22.5	22.0	20.0	18.5	12.7	18.6	53.2b (17%)
SDS	58.3	13.8b	11.2b	9.9b	29.1	17.3	23.3	21.3	-	-	-	20.5c (7%)
<i>P</i>	ns	*	**	**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	ns	**
Flavonoids (mg g <sup>-1</sup> ) Treatments												
	0	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	34	
WW	22.1	11.3a	7.3a	10.5a	11.3	6.8	7.0	6.3	5.3	8.3	7.3	105.7a (100%)
MDS	22.1	10.8a	7.0a	7.9ab	8.2	7.1	6.5	6.1	5.6	5.7	6.0	17.1b (16%)
SDS	22.1	4.2b	3.8b	5. b	7.9	5.3	7.1	6.0	-	-	-	5.3c (5%)
<i>P</i>	ns	*	**	**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	**
FRAP (μmol Fe <sup>2+</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ) Treatments												
	0	4	7	11	14	18	21	25	28	32	34	
WW	380.3	193.5a	130.3a	168.5a	148.3	115.3	120.4	98.7b	99.1	163.4	125.4	1815.8a (100%)
MDS	380.3	190.6a	135.1a	143.4a	154.3	121.5	108.3	101.5b	102.3	105.0	118.0	337.5b (18%)
SDS	380.3	83.1b	64.5b	80.5b	150.2	98.4	116.1	153.1a	-	-	-	134.7c (7%)
<i>P</i>	ns	**	**	**	ns	ns	ns	**	ns	*	ns	**

712 Means followed by the same letter do not differ significantly, according to REGW-F test (NS = non significant;  
 713 \*P<0.05; \*\* P<0.001).

714

715 **Table 6.** Chemical composition (%) of volatiles emitted from *Sa. dolomitica* plants after well  
 716 watered irrigation (WW), moderate drought stress (MDS) or severe drought stress (SDS). All

717 constituents are ordered on the basis of their linear retention index (LRI). In bold are indicated the  
 718 most relevant constituents.

Category*	Constituents (%)	IRI	WW	MDS	SDS
mh	$\alpha$ -thujene	939	0.33	0.11	0.35
mh	$\alpha$ -pinene	953	5.75	2.97	2.76
mh	camphene	980	4.05	2.04	1.88
mh	$\beta$ -pinene	991	3.35	1.85	1.64
mh	myrcene	1031	5.09	2.01	1.76
mh	$\alpha$ -phellandrene	1040	0.57	0.18	0.27
<b>mh</b>	<b><math>\Delta</math>-3-carene</b>	<b>1050</b>	<b>9.14</b>	<b>4.16</b>	<b>4.53</b>
<b>mh</b>	<b>limonene</b>	<b>1088</b>	<b>19.80</b>	<b>13.51</b>	<b>12.24</b>
<b>mh</b>	<b>(E)-<math>\beta</math>-ocimene</b>	<b>1097</b>	<b>7.39</b>	<b>3.19</b>	<b>2.99</b>
mh	(Z)- $\beta$ -ocimene	1098	0.64	0.23	0.27
mh	$\gamma$ -terpinene	1110	0.85	0.38	0.43
mo	<i>cis</i> -sabinene hydrate	1125	0.08	0.21	0.17
mh	terpinolene	1143	0.75	0.32	0.28
mo	<i>trans</i> -sabinene hydrate	1165	0.18	0.21	0.24
mh	<i>allo</i> -ocimene	1189	0.91	0.29	0.26
mo	isoborneol	1204	0.10	0.12	0.00
mo	borneol	1285	1.36	2.39	1.79
sh	$\Delta$ -elemene	1339	0.49	0.98	1.12
sh	$\alpha$ -cubebene	1376	0.37	0.40	0.57
sh	isolekene	1380	0.52	0.53	0.68
sh	$\alpha$ -copaene	1391	1.93	2.23	2.63
sh	$\beta$ -bourbonene	1398	0.22	-	1.89
sh	$\beta$ -cubebene	1418	0.21	0.47	0.40
sh	$\beta$ -elemene	1429	0.11	0.31	0.37
sh	$\alpha$ -gurjunene	1432	0.72	0.79	0.89
<b>sh</b>	<b><math>\beta</math>-caryophyllene</b>	<b>1439</b>	<b>7.86</b>	<b>9.47</b>	<b>9.09</b>
sh	$\beta$ -copaene	1454	0.92	1.29	2.00
sh	$\beta$ -gurjunene	1458	0.38	0.46	0.65
<b>sh</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math>-guaiene</b>	<b>1476</b>	<b>3.68</b>	<b>4.51</b>	<b>5.21</b>
sh	aromadendrene	1477	0.40	0.58	0.77
sh	$\alpha\beta$ -humulene	1480	0.75	1.16	1.15
sh	<i>allo</i> -aromadendrene	1485	0.46	0.72	0.94
sh	$\gamma$ -muurolene	1494	0.89	0.96	1.02
<b>sh</b>	<b>germacrene D</b>	<b>1503</b>	<b>8.57</b>	<b>22.35</b>	<b>22.16</b>
<b>sh</b>	<b>bicyclgermacrene</b>	<b>1517</b>	<b>4.21</b>	-	<b>9.27</b>
sh	$\gamma$ -cadinene	1524	1.40	-	1.84
sh	$\delta$ -cadinene	1581	-	-	3.68
	<b>Total</b>		<b>94.43</b>	<b>81.38</b>	<b>98.18</b>
	<b>Monoterpene Hydrocarbons (mh %)</b>		<b>57.71</b>	<b>30.97</b>	<b>29.41</b>
	<b>Oxygenated Monoterpene (om %)</b>		<b>1.72</b>	<b>2.92</b>	<b>2.19</b>
	<b>Sesquiterpene Hydrocarbons (sh %)</b>		<b>34.09</b>	<b>47.19</b>	<b>66.32</b>

719 \*All the constituents identified belong to monoterpene hydrocarbons (mh), oxygenated monoterpene (om) and  
 720 sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (sh).

721

722 **Table 7.** Chemical composition (%) of essential oils extracted from *Salvia dolomitica* plants after  
 723 well watered irrigation (WW), moderate drought stress (MDS) or severe drought stress (SDS). All

724 constituents are ordered on the basis of their linear retention index (LRI). In bold are indicated the  
 725 most relevant constituents.

Category*	Constituents (%)	IRI	WW	MDS	SDS
mh	$\alpha$ -pinene	319	1.4	1.0	1.0
mh	camphene	340	0.6		
<b>mh</b>	<b><math>\beta</math>-pinene</b>	<b>386</b>	<b>0.2</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>6.0</b>
mh	myrcene	408	0.5	0.2	0.2
mh	$\alpha$ -phellandrene	435	0.2		
mh	$\Delta$ -3-carene	444	1.5		
mh	$\alpha$ -terpinene	462	0.2		
mh	p-cymene	471	0.3		
mh	limonene	481	2.0	0.3	0.3
om	1,8-cineolo	485	3.4	0.3	0.3
om	(Z)- $\beta$ -ocimene	498	0.6	0.2	0.2
mh	$\gamma$ -terpinene	545	0.3		0.1
om	terpinolene	612	0.1		
om	trans-pinocarveol	724	0.1		
om	pinocarpone	781			0.1
ac-10	borneol	789	2.4	0.4	0.4
nt	4-terpineol	820	0.3	0.1	0.1
om	myrtenal	864		0.5	0.5
om	safranal	950			0.2
om	N-decanal	1084			0.1
sh	lavandulyl acetate	1111		1.4	1.3
sh	trans-pinocarvyl acetate	1135		0.2	0.2
sh	myrtenyl acetate	1195		0.8	0.8
om	$\alpha$ -cubebene	1267	0.3		
sh	isolekene	1308	0.4		
sh	$\alpha$ -copaene	1334	2.3	0.5	0.5
sh	trans-myrtanol acetate	1347		0.2	0.2
om	sativene	1364	0.1		
sh	$\alpha$ -gurjunene	1421	1.0	0.2	0.2
<b>sh</b>	<b><math>\beta</math>-caryophyllene</b>	<b>1442</b>	<b>21.2</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>0.6</b>
sh	lavandulyl isobutyrate	1452	0.9	0.2	0.2
sh	$\beta$ -copaene	1464	0.3		
sh	$\beta$ -gurjunene	1475	0.9		
<b>sh</b>	<b>1H-cyclopropanaphthalene</b>	<b>1486</b>	<b>6.9</b>		
sh	$\alpha$ -guaiene	1491	0.8	0.2	0.2
sh	aromadendrene	1491	0.1		
<b>sh</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math>-humulene</b>	<b>1527</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>3.8</b>
sh	alloaromadendrene	1546	0.9	0.5	0.5
sh	trans-cadina 1(6).4-diene	1567	0.7		
sh	$\gamma$ -muurolene	1586	0.8	0.6	0.6
sh	$\beta$ -selinene	1608	0.2	0.7	0.7
sh	cis- $\beta$ -guaiene	1621	0.5		
sh	valencene	1624	0.3		
om	viridiflorene	1628	3.0	0.2	0.2
<b>sh</b>	<b>trans-<math>\beta</math>-guaiene</b>	<b>1646</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>18.5</b>
sh	$\alpha$ -bulnesene	1658	0.1		0.1
sh	geranyl isobutyrate	1678		1.4	1.7
sh	trans- $\gamma$ -cadinene	1676	3.6		
<b>sh</b>	<b><math>\delta</math>-cadinene</b>	<b>1700</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>3.2</b>
os	trans-cadina-1(2).4-diene	1718	0.7		



sh	$\alpha$ -cadinene	1733	0.3		
os	$\alpha$ -calacorene	1744		1.3	1.3
os	elemol	1759	0.2		
os	germacrene D	1786	0.5		
<b>os</b>	<b>longipinalol</b>	<b>1801</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>41.9</b>	<b>41.5</b>
os	caryophyllene alcohol	1806	0.1		
os	spathunelol	1825	0.4	1.5	1.5
os	caryophyllene oxide	1837	3.8	0.2	0.2
os	5-epi-7-epi- $\alpha$ -eudesmol	1894	1.6	0.3	0.3
os	humulene oxide	1897	0.3	1.0	1.0
os	1.10-di-epi-cubenol	1915	0.5	0.9	1.0
os	1-epi-cubenol	1944	1.3	0.7	0.8
os	$\gamma$ -eudesmol	1951	0.9		0.1
os	caryophylla-4(14).8(15)-dien-5-ol	1962	0.6		
<b>os</b>	<b>epi-<math>\alpha</math>-cadinol</b>	<b>1973</b>	<b>4.3</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>0.9</b>
os	$\alpha$ -muurolol	1984	0.1	0.4	0.4
os	$\beta$ -eudesmol	1993	1.4		
<b>os</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math>-eudesmol</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>2.3</b>
os	14-hydroxy-9-epi-(E)-caryophyllene	2028	2.3		
os	bulnesol	2033	0.1	0.1	0.1
os	$\alpha$ -cadinol	2003		0.3	0.3
os	valeranone	2047	0.9	0.4	0.4
os	cadalene	2050		0.2	0.2
os	khusinol	2051	0.1	0.2	0.2
os	$\alpha$ -bisabolol	2072		0.2	0.2
os	eudesma-4(15).7-dien-1- $\beta$ -ol	2076	0.3		
os	acorenone	2078	0.1		
nt	trans- $\alpha$ -bergamotol	2097	0.2		
os	$\gamma$ -atlantone	2116		0.3	0.3
os	oplopanone	2153	0.1		
nt	hexadecanal	2239	0.2	0.1	0.1
os	lanceol acetate (z)	2455		0.2	0.2
	<b>Total</b>		<b>97.3</b>	<b>95.5</b>	<b>95.9</b>
	<b>Monoterpene Hydrocarbons (mh %)</b>		<b>7.2</b>	<b>7.6</b>	<b>7.5</b>
	<b>Oxygenated Monoterpene (om %)</b>		<b>7.5</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>1.5</b>
	<b>Sesquiterpene Hydrocarbons (sh %)</b>		<b>53.4</b>	<b>32.9</b>	<b>33.2</b>
	<b>Oxygenated Sesquiterpenes (os %)</b>		<b>26.0</b>	<b>53.2</b>	<b>53.1</b>
	<b>Non terpenoid (nt %)</b>		<b>0.6</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>0.3</b>
	<b>Apocarotenoids (ac-10 %)</b>		<b>2.4</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>0.4</b>

726 \*All the constituents belong to non terpene derivates (nt), monoterpene hydrocarbons (mh), oxygenated monoterpene  
727 (om), sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (sh), oxygenated sesquiterpene (os), and apocarotenoids (ac-10).

728

729 **Figure captions**

730

731 **Figure 1.** Midday leaf water potential (MLWP - A), gas exchange (internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, *C<sub>i</sub>* -  
732 B; transpiration rate, *E* - C; stomatal conductance, *g<sub>s</sub>* - D; net photosynthetic rate, *A* - E) and  
733 internal abscisic acid content (ABA - F) dynamics measured on *S. dolomitica* plants treated with  
734 well watered irrigation (WW), moderate drought stress (MDS), or severe drought stress (SDS).  
735 Mean values showing the same letter are not statistically different at  $P \leq 0.05$  according to the  
736 REGW-F post-hoc test. The statistical relevance of 'Between-Subjects Effects' tests (ns=non  
737 significant, \*= $P < 0.05$ , \*\*  $P < 0.001$ ) was evaluated.

738

739 **Figure 2.** Radar charts showing changes in terpenoids content of biogenic volatile organic  
740 compounds (BVOCs - A) and essential oils (EOs - B) of *S. dolomitica* plants in responses to well  
741 watered irrigation (WW, black line), moderate drought stress (MDS, dark grey line) or severe  
742 drought stress (SDS, light grey line). All the constituents belong to non terpene derivatives (nt),  
743 monoterpene hydrocarbons (mh), oxygenated monoterpene (om), sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (sh),  
744 oxygenated sesquiterpene (os), and apocarotenoids (ac-10).

745

746 **Figure 3.** Flowchart for assembling isoprenoid building blocks to produce terpenes and relative  
747 transcriptional modulation of genes involved in *S. dolomitica* terpenoid biosynthesis. Relative gene  
748 expression levels obtained by RT-qPCR analysis of the *DH* (in the box): dehydrin; *GPPSB* (A) and  
749 *GPPS2D* (B): geranyl diphosphate synthases; *FPPS* (C): farnesyl diphosphate synthase; *GGPPS2*  
750 (D): geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase; *CPS1* (E), *CPS2* (F), *CPS3* (G) and *CPS4* (H): copalyl  
751 diphosphate synthases. In the box relative transcriptional modulation. Genes were tested on plants  
752 subjected to moderate water stress (MDS), severe water stress (SDS) or well-watered (WW)  
753 treatments. Mean values showing the same letter are not statistically different at  $P \leq 0.05$  according

754 to the Tukey's post-hoc test. Bars represent the standard deviation of the mean (n=3). MVA,  
755 Mevalonate pathway; MEP, Methylerythritol phosphate pathway; IPP, isopentenyl diphosphate;  
756 DMAPP, dimethylallyl diphosphate.