Metabolic and film antitranspirants both reduce drought damage to wheat yield despite having contrasting effects on leaf ABA

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- 2 Metabolic and film antitranspirants both reduce drought damage to wheat yield
- 3 despite having contrasting effects on leaf ABA
- 4 ii. Running title
- 5 Drought mitigation with antitranspirants
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- 15 v. Abstract and Keywords
- 16 Abstract

Film antitranspirants (e.g. di-1-*p*-menthene) and metabolic antitranspirants (e.g. exogenous ABA) can be used to protect grain crops from drought, particularly during reproductive development. Here, we compared effects of di-1-*p*-menthene (1.0 L/ha) and exogenous ABA (100 μ M) on well-watered and droughted spring wheat in two glasshouse experiments. Progressive drought was imposed in the first experiment, controlled drought in the second, both from flag leaf emergence. Antitranspirants

were applied at flag leaf emergence, except in the controlled drought experiment 23 additional ABA applications were made at four further stages up to anthesis-24 complete. Measurements were taken for endogenous ABA, stomatal conductance 25 and photosynthesis during reproductive development, and yield components at 26 maturity. Both progressive and controlled drought elevated leaf ABA, less so in di-1-27 *p*-menthene-treated plants, whereas in exogenous ABA-treated plants leaf ABA was 28 29 elevated further. Overall, both antitranspirants improved yield under reproductivestage drought, more so for controlled drought. Grain yield was negatively associated 30 31 with reproductive-stage leaf ABA concentration except that raising leaf ABA concentration with multiple exogenous ABA applications was associated with high 32 yield. In conclusion, both antitranspirants generally reduced effects of reproductive-33 stage drought on yield despite having contrary effects on leaf ABA. 34

Keywords: abiotic stress, drought amelioration, drought mitigation, water deficit,
water stress.

37 vi. Main Text

38 1. Introduction

39

Abiotic stresses depress crop productivity to levels below their genetic potential (Fita, Rodríguez-Burruezo, Boscaiu, Prohens, & Vicente, 2015). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2018), drought will increase due to climate change. This poses a threat to world food security, especially in view of the rapidly increasing world population, projected to reach 9.8 billion by 2050 (United Nations, 2017). Wheat, one of the three most important cereals, accounts for about 44% of global trade (FAO, 2019) and 41% of calories from cereals (Khadka, Earl,

Raizada, & Navabi, 2020). Climate adaptation technologies are needed to improve 47 its production to help meet the global food security challenge. One such technique is 48 the use of antitranspirants (ATs) - products sprayed on plant leaves to reduce 49 transpiration (Iriti et al., 2009). Among the ATs are di-1-p-menthene (DpM), a film-50 forming AT, and exogenous ABA (Exo-ABA), which is metabolic. Film-forming ATs, 51 reduce transpiration by covering stomata with a film of low permeability to water 52 53 vapour, while the metabolic type induce partial stomatal closure by acting on guard cells (Mphande et al. 2020). Both ATs are being studied as possible tools for drought 54 55 amelioration. The use of ATs, i.e., reduction of transpiration, has the potential to raise leaf temperature, which is one of the known non-target effects (Mphande et al., 56 2020). This might aggravate drought impacts if it induces heat stress. A review by 57 Mphande et al. (2020) provides details on commercial ATs, how they reduce 58 transpiration and the potential effects on leaf temperature. 59

Drought, often accompanied with heat stress (Chaves et al., 2016; Lipiec, Doussan, 60 Nosalewicz, & Kondracka, 2013), limits crop productivity by supressing gas 61 exchange and damaging photosynthetic pigments and inactivating photosystem II 62 (Anjum et al., 2011; Batra et al., 2014). More than 90% of the water a plant absorbs 63 is lost through transpiration (Morison, Baker, Mullineaux, & Davies, 2008). As soil 64 water availability is limited during drought, reducing transpiration improves the plant 65 water status hence maintaining higher biological function within the cells (Farooq, 66 Wahid, Kobayashi, Fujita, & Basra, 2009). However, with the possibility of an 67 increase in temperature, improved biological activity is not to be expected where the 68 risk of heat stress is high. Drought elevates endogenous abscisic acid (endo-ABA) 69 concentration (Dayer et al., 2020; Norton, Xian, Kalic, Hughes, & Gubler, 2020) to 70 reduce transpiration via stomatal closure (Lee & Luan, 2012). Although endo-ABA 71

reduces stomatal transpiration, it may also lead to reproductive organ abortion (Pang
et al., 2017). ATs are an agronomic approach to reducing transpiration.

74 ATs also reduce photosynthesis, but benefits outweigh this detrimental effect by improve yield under drought conditions if applied just before the most sensitive crop 75 growth stage (GS). Examples include Kettlewell and Holloway (2010) who found that 76 77 DpM applied at the boots swollen stage improved yield of droughted winter wheat by as much as 42%; and Faralli et al. (2017) who found that DpM applied at the 78 initiation of flowering improved yield in droughted oil seed rape by 12%. Mphande, et 79 al. (2020) observed that DpM applied at the stem elongation stage in wheat resulted 80 in a 29% yield improvement, which was associated with reduced endo-ABA 81 concentration. Nevertheless, these yield improvements have not been seen in every 82 case and the mechanism of AT drought amelioration has not yet been established. 83 ATs may have positive effects on yield-influencing physiology due to reduced 84 85 transpiration. Understanding the mechanisms is likely to play a crucial role in maximising AT potential and developing plant breeding traits for enhancing crop 86 tolerance to drought. 87

Therefore, glasshouse experiments were conducted to assess the impact of DpM on gas exchange, endo-ABA concentration, yield and yield components in spring wheat under both well-watered and drought conditions, and to compare these effects to similar applications of Exo-ABA. Our hypothesis is that although both antitranspirants are expected to reduce gas exchange, applying DpM maintains yield under drought, in part by reducing leaf ABA; while applying Exo-ABA is less effective at maintaining yield under drought as leaf ABA is elevated.

95 2. Materials and Methods

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97 2.1 Experimental site description and design

Glasshouse experiments were conducted at Harper Adams University, UK (52°46′N,
2°25′W) in 2018 and 2019. The light in the glasshouse was set to 16 hrs per day.
Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was supplied using Osram sodium vapour
tubes of the model Vialox NAV-T 400 (with an output of 48, 800 lumens and colour
temperature of 2000k, the photosynthetic photon flux was 633 µmol/s per tube
(https://www.waveformlighting.com/horticulture/convert-lumens-to-ppf-online-

<u>calculator</u>). The experiments were arranged in a randomised complete block design.
 There were six treatments per block made up of two levels of irrigation, well-watered
 (WW) and drought and three levels of spray type (unsprayed control, DpM and Exo ABA); making it a 2x3 factorial design.

108 2.2 Agronomy

109 Growth medium: In 2018, 5 litre pots were filled with John Innes No. 2 Compost (William Sinclair Horticulture Ltd., UK). Its pot capacity (PC) and permanent wilting 110 point (PWP) expressed in volumetric water content (VWC) terms were determined by 111 Saeed (2008) as 50.33% and 7.00%, respectively. Therefore, its plant available 112 water (PAW) is 50.3 - 7.0 = 43.3% VWC. In 2019, a mixture of air-dry sandy loam 113 soil and moist John Innes No. 2 Compost was used in a ratio of 9:1 by weight, to 114 allow for quicker soil drying. The PC and PWP of the mixture were determined using 115 116 the pressure plate method as 14.3% and 6.7%, respectively and hence the PAW was 7.6%. 117

Fertilizer application: In 2018, we applied no additional fertilizer to John Innes no.2 Compost but in 2019, we added Chempak Formula 2 (NPK: 25:15:15; Chempak Products, Hoddesdon, UK) by dissolving 30g of product in 10 litres of water and applying 200ml of the nutrient solution per pot twice, at stem extension and anthesis stages.

Planting: Thirteen seeds of the spring wheat variety, Chilham (KWS UK Ltd), were planted in each pot in 2018. After establishment, thinning was done at GS24 to leave 11 plants per pot. In 2019, plants were thinned to seven and with tiller removal to ensure that all measurements were based on main stems only, unlike in 2018.

Pest control: The common pests in the glasshouse were aphids and powdery mildew. In 2018, aphids were controlled with Gazelle SG (a.s. 20% w/w acetamiprid) at a rate of 250 g/ha while powdery mildew was managed with Eclipse at a concentration of 250 g/litre (24.5% w/w) fenpropimorph and 84 g/litre (8.2% w/w) epoxiconazole. In 2019, Rose Clear[™] Ultra Gun 2, an insecticide-fungicide emulsion mixer of 0.05 g/L cypermethrin and 0.075 g/L myclobutanil, was used for both pests.

Irrigation: Irrigation management was based on the mathematical relationship 133 described by Bellingham (2009): $L[/U]SMT = VWC_{PC} - (VWC_{PWP}) \times (MAD)$, 134 where L[/U]SMT and MAD stand for lower (or upper) soil moisture target and 135 maximum allowable depletion. With the MAD of 30% for wheat (Hunsaker et al., 136 2005, higher values may be used e.g. 50%, Bellingham, 2009), the LSMT for the 137 WW pots was 37.0% and 12.0% in 2018 and 2019, respectively. WW pots were 138 irrigated to PC twice a week, on Tuesdays and Fridays, to maintain the moisture 139 content above the LSMT. In the drought treatment, plants were droughted for part of 140 the growth cycle after which normal irrigation was restored. In 2018, drought was 141

progressive (i.e. progressive drought, PD) for 17 days, from GS37 to GS45. In 2019, it was controlled (i.e. controlled drought, CD), with partial irrigation used to sustain plants for a longer period of 50 days from GS37 to GS70. The upper and lower targets for the CD pots was 10.5% and approximately 9.0%, with the MADs of 50% and 70% (Hafez & Farig, 2019), respectively. Approximately 88 ml and 150 ml of water was applied on Tuesdays and Fridays, respectively, to maintain the soil moisture between 9% and 10.5% (VWC).

149 2.3 Spray application

Exogenous (+/-)- ABA (A1049; Sigmal Aldrich – UK) weighing 52.864 mg and 150 dissolved in methanol (5 ml) and made up to 2.0 L with distilled water to obtain a 151 152 concentration of 100 µM (5.3 g/ha); and 10 ml DpM (96%, Miller Chemical and Fertilizer Corp., USA) shaken in 2.0 L tap water (1.0 L/ha) were applied using a 153 hand-held boom sprayer (Lunch Box Sprayer, Trials Equipment (UK) Ltd). In each 154 year, there was one DpM application made when the flag leaf was fully emerged 155 (GS39, Zadoks, Chang, & Konzak, 1974). Under PD, a single Exo-ABA spray was 156 applied at GS39. Under prolonged CD, there were multiple applications of Exo-ABA, 157 once every week for five weeks between GS39 and GS70. The third set of plants not 158 sprayed with any substance served as the unsprayed control. 159

160 The dates on which the spray products were applied are listed below (Table 1), 161 alongside ABA sampling dates.

162 Table 1: Spray application	n and ABA sampling schedule.
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_	Experiment		Spraying			Spraying Leaf sampling			ng	Spike sampling	
_		GS*	Spray types	DAP*	Date	GS	DAP	Date	DAP	Date	
	PD (2018)	GS39	DpM*	63	12 th Oct	GS42	68	17 th Oct		N/A	

	GS39	Exo-ABA	63	12 th Oct	GS42	68	17 th Oct		N/A
	GS39	DpM	59	16 th Jan	GS62	80	6 th Feb	80	6 th Feb
	GS39	Exo-ABA	59	16 th Jan	GS62	80	6 th Feb	80	6 th Feb
CD (2019)	GS43	Exo-ABA	65	22 nd Jan					
CD (2019)	GS54	Exo-ABA	72	29 th Jan					
	GS62	Exo-ABA	80	6 th Feb					
	GS69	Exo-ABA	87	13 th Feb					

* DAP, DpM, Exo-ABA and GS stand for days after planting, di-1-*p*-menthene,
exogenous ABA and growth stage, respectively.

165

166 Measurements

167 Temperature and relative humidity (RH) were monitored and regulated by the 168 TomTech T200 logger (Tomtech (UK) Ltd, Spalding, UK).

Soil moisture: Measurement of soil moisture was done using the HD2 mobile reading
device connected to the TRIME-PICO 64 two-rod soil moisture probe (IMKO
Micromodultechnik GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany). Readings were recorded as %VWC.

Leaf and spike ABA: Five fully expanded flag leaves were collected from each pot 172 into 5 ml plastic tubes and immediately flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -173 80°C for ABA assay. Sampling was done at five days after spraying (plants at GS42) 174 under PD and at 21 days after spraying (plants at GS62) under CD. Under CD, 175 spikes were also sampled. To perform an ABA assay, the frozen leaf and spike 176 samples were transferred to an Edwards Modulyo 4K freeze drier (Akribis Scientific 177 Ltd, UK) and dried for two days, after which they were ground and assayed 178 according to the Cusabio ABA ELISA protocol, (Cusabio Biotechnology Co., 179 Ltd, Wuhan, China). The ABA standard used in the assay was a mixture of isomeric 180 forms ((+/-) cis-Abscisic acid). Absorbance readings were taken at 450 nm using a 181

BioTek spectrophotometer (BioTek Instruments Ltd, UK). The leaf and spike ABA concentrations in the sample extracts were calculated after a natural logarithmic standard curve was fitted.

Infrared gas analysis: Stomatal conductance (gs), net photosynthesis (A) and leaf 185 temperature were determined with a portable open-system infrared gas analyser 186 187 (IRGA) - LCpro-SD (ADC BioScientific Ltd, UK). Light (PAR) was set to 250 and 1000 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in 2018 and 2019, respectively, and CO₂ to 400 μ mol mol⁻¹. 188 Measurements were taken between 10:00 hrs and 14:00 hrs and recorded when the 189 system was in a steady state (~ five minutes). Measurements were taken at five days 190 after spraying in 2018, and one day after spraying in 2019. Intrinsic water use 191 efficiency (WUEi) was calculated as a ratio of net photosynthesis, P_N , to stomatal 192 conductance (Sikder et al., 2015). 193

Yield and yield components: Spikes from each pot were hand-harvested, threshed, 194 cleaned, weighed and oven dried at 105 °C for 40 h. The number of grains per spike 195 196 was determined by counting the fertile spikes and grains per pot. A spike was counted as fertile if it was bearing at least one grain. In 2018, 11 main stem and 197 between seven and 28 tiller spikes were harvested and mixed. In 2019 there were 198 only seven main spikes per pot, as tillers were trimmed. Thousand grain weight 199 (TGW) was determined by the method described by (Sylvester-Bradley et al., 1985). 200 Finally, grain yield per spike was obtained by weighing all the grain harvested from 201 each pot and dividing that weight by the number of fertile spikes. Both TGW and 202 grain yield were expressed at 15% moisture content. Shoot biomass was determined 203 at harvest by weighing above-ground plant parts, oven-dried at 105 °C, and harvest 204 index (HI) calculated as a ratio of grain weight to shoot biomass (Huhn, 1991). 205

Statistical analysis: A two-factor analyses of variance (ANOVA) of gas exchange variables, leaf and spike ABA concentration and yield and yield components were performed using GenStat 20th Edition (Hemel Hempstead, UK). The Tukey test (at 5%) was used for *post hoc* analyses. Relationships between ABA and yield components were analysed using simple linear regression. Curves were fitted and modelling done using Microsoft Excel, but with parameters generated from GenStat.

212 3. **Results**

3.1 Temperature and relative humidity

The average, minimum and maximum daily temperature and RH inside the glasshouse for 2018 and 2019 were 19.3 °C, 11.9 °C and 25.1 °C; and 26.4 %, 14.8 % and 56.1%; and 15.9 °C, 14.2 °C and 18.4 °C; and 71.5%, 56.3 %, 78.4%, respectively. Thus, the average temperature for 2018 was significantly (p < 0.001) higher than for 2019 while the opposite was true for RH and equally significant (p < 0.001) as the values above indicate (and Figure 1).





Figure 1: Average daily air temperature (a and c) and average daily relative humidity (b and d) inside the glasshouse rain shelters recorded by the TomTech T200 data logger (Tomtech (UK) Ltd, Spalding, UK).

225

3.2 Soil moisture

Under PD (2018), the average fraction of PAW decreased from 22% at 60 DAP to
8% at 68 DAP (Figure 2), when watering was resumed. Under CD (2019), the
average proportion of remaining PAW fluctuated but measurements taken between
68 and 112 DAP ranged from 35% to 46%. WW plants were kept above their LSMT
of 37% and 12% (VWC) in 2018 and 2019, respectively.

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Figure 2: Soil moisture readings from (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants between 60 and 68 days after planting (DAP) and between 68 and 112 DAP, respectively. Note that the lower pot capacity for CD

was due to a predominantly sandy growth medium instead of John Innes No. 2
Compost for PD. Undotted arrows indicate DAP on which the antitranspirants were
sprayed.

241

242 3.3 ABA concentration

243 The leaf and spike BA concentrations (ng/g DW) under PD were much higher than under CD, reflective of the respective more severe and milder drought. Due to 244 drought, the ABA concentrations in flag leaves significantly increased above WW 245 plants by 243% and 159% under PD and CD, respectively, while in the spikes it rose 246 by 184% (determined under CD only). The effect of DpM on endo-ABA concentration 247 was consistent in the two experiments, but it varied for Exo-ABA. Application of DpM 248 reduced the endo-ABA concentration in droughted plants to the lowest values at five 249 days after spraying (Figure 3). Under drought conditions, Exo-ABA had no significant 250 251 effect on elevating endo-ABA at five days after spraying (PD). The only sampling for which Exo-ABA significantly elevated leaf ABA in droughted plants was at one day 252 after the fourth spraying under CD (Figure 3 b). Under WW conditions, the effect of 253 254 DpM was negligible. In contrast, Exo-ABA significantly increased the leaf ABA concentration in WW plants in both experiments, regardless of time lapse after 255 spraying. The effect was so large that the concentration rose to similar levels as 256 under droughted conditions at 80 DAP. However, at 68 DAP, it was significantly 257 lower than in the droughted plants but remained significantly higher than in the WW 258 259 unsprayed control and DpM-treated plants.

260



Figure 3: Flag leaf ABA levels under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants sampled at 68 days after planting (DAP i.e. five days after spraying, DAS, p = 0.008); and 80 DAP (i.e. 21 DAS DpM and one day after a fourth spray of Exo-ABA, p = 0.015), respectively. Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey test, p < 0.05). Error bars represent common standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

268 269

270 Spike ABA response to spray type treatments followed a similar pattern to foliar 271 ABA, with DpM reducing the concentration to the least values and Exo-ABA 272 elevating it (Figure 4). However, the effect of DpM was not significant at both levels 273 of irrigation, while Exo-ABA significantly increased the leaf ABA only under WW 274 conditions. Notice that the concentration of ABA in spikes was higher than in leaves 275 of the unsprayed control and DpM-treated counterpart plants.

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Figure 4: Spike ABA under controlled drought (CD) wheat plants (p = 0.025) sampled at 80 days after planting, i.e. 21 days after spraying di-1-*p*-menthene and one day after a fourth exogenous ABA spray under controlled drought. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05). Errors bars represent common standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

284

285 3.4 Gas exchange

Drought suppressed gas exchange both under PD and CD. Compared to the WW unsprayed control, stomatal conductance (Figure 5) under the PD treatment for unsprayed, DpM and Exo-ABA decreased significantly (p = 0.025) by 51%, 92% and 90%, respectively. Under CD (2019), which was mild, the reductions (p <0.001) corresponded to 43%, 61% and 33%. Compared to the unsprayed control, Exo-ABA significantly reduced stomatal conductance under PD but surprisingly induced a nonsignificant increase under mild CD. DpM consistently and significantly reduced stomatal conductance. Under WW conditions, DpM and Exo-ABA negligibly reducedstomatal conductance in both years.

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Figure 5: Stomatal conductance under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) 296 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants measured five days after spraying (DAS, p = 297 0.025) and one DAS (p < 0.001), respectively. The photosynthetically active radiation 298 in 2018 was set at 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in 2019. Different letters 299 represent significant differences (Tukey test, p < 0.05). The graphs were constructed 300 from back transformed values. The transformed means and their standard errors 301 (SEM) in the order: well-watered and droughted (control, di-1-p-menthene and 302 exogenous ABA, SEM); were: under PD (square root scale: 0.4434, 0.3759, 0.402 and 303 304 0.3108, 0.1244, 0.1382, SEM: 0.02189) and CD (log 10 scale: -0.118, -0.195 and -0.367 and -0.679, -1.043 and -0.514, SEM: 0.0739), respectively. 305

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³⁰⁷ Photosynthesis values for PD (2018) were much lower than for CD (2019, where a ³⁰⁸ higher light level was used during measurements (Figure 6). The effects of DpM and ³⁰⁹ Exo-ABA on photosynthesis for PD were not significant at either water level. Under ³¹⁰ the mild CD and high level of light during measurements (PAR of 1000 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹). 311 DpM significantly suppressed photosynthesis by 44% while Exo-ABA had no 312 significant effect (Figure 6, b).



Figure 6: Net photosynthesis under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants measured five days after spraying (DAS) at photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) set at 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (p = 0.488) and one DAS at PAR of 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (p = 0.004). Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey test, P < 0.05) while error bars are standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

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Generally, both drought and ATs increased WUEi (Figure 7). Under the severe PD, the ATs significantly increased the WUEi to much higher levels than under CD. Under the milder CD, all plants had significantly higher WUEi compared to unsprayed WW plants, although there were no significant differences for CD plants treated with ATs.

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Figure 7: Intrinsic water use efficiency under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) 329 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants determined on flag leaves (p < 0.001) and (p =330 0.007), respectively. Error bars represent standard error of means (SEM). Different 331 332 letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05); graphs were constructed from back transformed values. The transformed means and their SEM in the order: 333 well-watered and droughted (control, di-1-p-menthene and Exo-ABA, SEM); were: 334 under PD (log base 10 scale: 1.50, 1.57, 1.62 and 1.34, 2.03, 2.01, SEM: 0.50) and under 335 CD (square root scale: 4.51, 5.21, 6.25 and 7.75, 8.29, 6.68, SEM: 0.589), respectively. 336

337

338 3.5 Leaf temperature

Overall, PD had no effect on leaf temperature but CD significantly increased it by 0.7° C, above well-watered plants. In 2018, the ATs had no significant effect on leaf temperature regardless of water treatment (Figure 8, a). However, in 2019, DpM significantly reduced leaf temperature compared to all other treatments (Figure 8, b). Although DpM did not significantly reduce leaf temperature under well-watered conditions in 2018, the tendency of the AT to suppress the variable is apparent in both years.



Figure 8: Water treatment and antitranspirant (AT) interaction effects on flag leaf temperature, showing the tendency of di-1-*p*-menthene to reduce the variable under well-watered conditions with non-significant effect (a, p = 0.069) and significant effect (b, p = 0.007). The ATs had non-significant effects under both progressive drought (PD) and controlled drought (CD). Error bars represent common standard errors of means from ANOVA table. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05).

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355 3.6 Yield and yield components

Drought generally reduced most yield components and significant differences were 356 observed but not in all cases (Figures 9 and 10). Under the more severe PD, with 357 tillers untrimmed, the number of fertile spikes per pot, grains per spike, grain weight, 358 shoot biomass per plant and HI were all reduced compared to WW plants, but there 359 were no significant differences (main stem and tiller spikes were mixed). Under the 360 CD treatment with the plants trimmed to seven main stems only, there were no 361 differences in the number of fertile spikes per pot (data not shown) or TGW. Grain 362 number per spike and grain yield per spike were significantly reduced by CD in 363 unsprayed plants, but application of DpM and Exo-ABA protected these yield 364

365 components. This was supported by greater biomass and the allocation of significantly higher proportions of shoot biomass to grains, as the improved HI show. 366 Under CD, the average grain number per spike and grain yield per spike were 367 significantly higher than under PD. 368





Figure 9: Number of grains per spike, thousand grain weight and grain yield per 371 spike under (a, b and c) progressive drought (PD) and (d, e and f) controlled drought 372

(CD) wheat plants (p = 0.083, p = 0.984 and p = 0.038) and (p = 0.043, p = 0.370 and p 373 = 0.005), respectively. Error bars represent common standard errors of means (SEM) 374 from ANOVA. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05). 375 376 Figure 9 (d and f) were constructed from back transformed values; their means on the square root scale and SEM in the order: well-watered and droughted (control, di-377 1-p-menthene and exogenous ABA, SEM); were (4.72, 4.97, 5.08 and 3.48, 5.12, 4.65, 378 SEM: 0.262) and on the logit scale (-4.474, -4.343, -4.390 and -5.162, -4.561, -4.504, 379 SEM: 0.0750), respectively. 380







Figure 10: Harvest index and shoot biomass per plant under (a and b) progressive drought (PD) and (c and d) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants (p = 0.036 and p =

0.025 and (p = 0.033 and p = 0.039). Error bars represent common standard errors of means (SEM) from ANOVA. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05).

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Yield components were significantly correlated with leaf ABA sampled at the booting stage under PD (Figure 11). Leaf and spike ABA sampled at early anthesis under CD showed no significant associations (graphs on spikes not presented). The relationships between leaf ABA and the number of grains per spike, TGW and yield per spike under PD were all significant and linear, their values decreasing with increasing leaf ABA (Figure 11 a, b and c).



Figure 11: Linear regressions of flag leaf ABA concentration against fertile spikes per pot, grain number per spike, thousand grain weight and grain yield per spike under (a, b, c and d) progressive drought (PD) and (e, f g and h) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants. Under controlled drought (CD) sampling for ABA assay was done at booting (GS42), five days after spraying, and under CD at early anthesis (GS62), 21 days after spraying di-1-*p*-menthene and one day after a fourth exogenous ABA spray under CD.

404

405 4. **Discussion**

Drought is an important yield-limiting abiotic stress because of its impact on key 406 physiological processes such as stomatal conductance, photosynthesis (Acevedo, 407 Silva, & Silva, 2002; Shakeel Ahmad Anjum et al., 2011) and on metabolic 408 409 processes that determine grain development (Mphande et al., 2021). ATs reduce the negative impact of these processes on yield. In the two glasshouse experiments, 410 drought downregulated stomatal conductance and photosynthesis and upregulated 411 ABA concentration. The higher levels of stomatal conductance under CD reflect not 412 only the greater photosynthetic active radiation used but also the milder stress, as 413 414 water deficit was more severe under PD than under CD. The application of either DpM or Exo-ABA just before booting (GS39) reduced the yield-limiting effects of 415 drought, despite distinct physiological effects of these products. 416

Drought induces an increase in the endo-ABA accumulation (Dayer et al., 2020; Pang et al., 2017). Compared to the WW plants, drought upregulated the accumulation of ABA in leaves by 3.4 and 2.6 times under PD and CD, respectively; and in spikes by 2.8 times (determined under CD only). With PAW approaching

PWP, droughted plants under PD grew under more severe drought and warmer and 421 drier ambient conditions than under CD, as Figures 1 and 2 indicate. As expected, 422 application of DpM resulted in less accumulation of leaf ABA during droughted, while 423 Exo-ABA resulted in equal or greater leaf ABA during droughted (although the 424 differences were not always significant). In wheat, younger leaves accumulate higher 425 levels of ABA (Quarrie & Henson, 1981). This might explain the non-significant effect 426 of DpM on endo-ABA with sampling at 21 days after spraying (for DpM under CD), 427 being too late. In addition, the weekly irrigation intervals (on two different days) 428 429 meant that endogenous ABA levels were constantly fluctuating under CD. Under a progressive drought scenario, accumulation of endogenous ABA is known to steadily 430 increase (Itam et al., 2020), but hydration promotes catabolism of ABA (Yang and 431 432 Zeevaart, 2006). Further, the sampling for endo-ABA at anthesis (under CD) was too close to the time of determination of yield components. It was therefore too late for 433 the concentration of endo-ABA to influence grain number, and hence correlate with 434 this yield component and yield. The largest difference in the leaf ABA levels were 435 observed in Exo-ABA -treated plants under CD, which were sampled one day after a 436 fourth application. Although Exo-ABA consistently elevated leaf ABA when it was 437 low, under CD the increase was small and under PD there was no increase (as leaf 438 ABA was elevated due to drought). This suggests that endo-ABA reaches a ceiling 439 440 under severe drought, beyond which homeostatic mechanisms rapidly catabolise it, probably in not more than two days. Endo-ABA concentration is controlled by a 441 balance between its biosynthesis and catabolism (Nambara & Marion-Poll, 2005). 442 There is evidence that once drought-induced endo-ABA accumulates to a certain 443 level, negative feedback mechanisms mediated by transcription factors, AhAREB1 444 and AhNAC2, limit its further accumulation (Liu et al., 2016). There are also 445

suggestions that ABA self-regulates (see references in Nambara & Marion-Poll,
2005); and that this is by modulating the negative feedback transcription factors
AhAREB1 and AhNAC2 (Liu et al., 2016).

Other than for the effect of Exo-ABA treatment at one day after the fourth spraying 449 (under CD), leaf ABA concentration was expected to be higher than in the spike 450 451 counterparts, as Mphande et al. (2021) found at ear emergence. It is known that endo-ABA in spikes of wheat plants subjected to drought increases steadily reaching 452 maximum at the peak of grain filling, enhancing senescence and remobilisation of 453 fixed carbon from stems to spikes (Mphande et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2003). 454 Therefore, while the endo-ABA concentration in leaves declines as they age, it 455 increases in spikes as grain filling approaches (Kondhare et al., 2015; Yang, et al., 456 2004); this might explain why at anthesis spikes accumulated higher levels of the 457 hormone than leaves at the same growth stage. It is known that drought (i.e. high 458 459 ABA) during grain filling is less damaging to yield than between stem elongation and heading (Khadka et al., 2020). A high concentration of spike ABA pre-anthesis may 460 have damaging effects on some yield components. By physically blocking stomata, 461 DpM decreases the number of stomatal pores involved in gas exchange. In the 462 current study, DpM significantly reduced stomatal conductance to the lowest values 463 under both PD and CD conditions. Exo-ABA only reduced stomatal conductance 464 under PD, while it resulted in a negligible increase under CD. The non-significant 465 effect of spray type on photosynthesis under PD compared to CD may be attributed 466 to differences in the level of PAR at which measurements were taken. The level of 467 light used (250 µmolm⁻²s⁻¹) under PD was much lower than under (1000 µmolm⁻²s⁻¹) 468 and other studies (e.g.1200 µmolm⁻²s⁻¹, Faralli et al., 2017). Clearly, when the 469 photosynthetic machinery was operating below capacity, no significant differences 470

between treatments were detectable. Our results are consistent with a study on 471 beans by Iriti et al. (2009) who found DpM to be more effective in reducing stomatal 472 conductance than chitosan, another metabolic AT. Droughted plants had higher 473 WUE than well-watered plants, in agreement with previous research (e.g. 474 Mendanha, Rosenqvist, Hyldgaard, Doonan, & Ottosen, 2020). WUEi can be 475 increased by reducing stomatal conductance or increasing photosynthesis or a 476 477 combination of both (from the formula: P_N/g_s , (Sikder et al., 2015). This explains why DpM significantly increased the WUEi under severe drought (PD) but not under mild 478 479 CD or WW conditions. Increasing the WUE is one of the drought tolerance traits as water conservation outweighs the penalty on reduced carbon assimilation 480 (Mendanha et al., 2020). Under PD, both DpM and Exo-ABA improved WUEi but did 481 not significantly increase the fertile spikes per pot (data not shown), grain number 482 per spike and grain yield per spike most likely due to the masking effect of mixing of 483 main stem and tiller spikes. Iriti et al. (2009) reported DpM to be most effective in 484 increasing WUEi relative to chitosan and the control under drought. 485

There are two key concerns associated with the use of ATs and these are 486 suppression of photosynthesis and the potential to increase leaf temperature to 487 damaging levels due to reduction of transpiration (Mphande et al., 2020). In the 488 489 present study, ATs repressed photosynthesis, particularly under CD, nevertheless, 490 the benefit of improved yield outweighed the penalty on photosynthesis. However, we did not find evidence suggesting that ATs elevate leaf temperature. This is 491 expected as the air temperature remained low throughout the experiments and light 492 493 levels were relatively low. It might be expected that AT induced heat stress would impact yield under conditions of high temperature, high solar radiation and low wind 494 speed (Gale & Hagan, 1966; Fahey & Rogiers, 2018), but previous studies suggest 495

496 that this does not outweigh the potential for yield improvement under droughted conditions (Kettlewell, Heath, & Haigh, 2010; Mphande et al. 2020). In fact, field 497 experiments done in summer on the same genotype of spring wheat also showed no 498 evidence of significant increase in leaf temperature due to AT application. Although 499 Mphande et al., (2021) did not report the DpM effect on leaf temperature, on average 500 values determined on 10th July, 2018, which was after the application of the AT, were 501 32.1 °C, 33.0 °C and 33.3 °C for the well-watered-unsprayed benchmark, droughted-502 unsprayed and droughted-DpM-sprayed plants, respectively. Thus DpM-sprayed 503 504 leaves were 0.3 °C hotter than the unsprayed ones. Clearly, drought was a more important factor driving temperature increase (by 0.9 °C in this case) than DpM. 505 Mphande et al., (2021) reported yield benefit in the same spring wheat genotype as 506 507 in the present study, with ambient temperature in rain-out shelters ranging from 37.1 °C to 40.4 °C on hot days – determined more than two weeks after DpM had been 508 sprayed. Nonetheless, further research is needed to determine the efficacy of DpM 509 under hot conditions, such as in the tropics where the interaction with heat stress 510 may be more critical. 511

Saini & Aspinall (1982) showed that high levels of ABA during booting completely 512 inhibited spike fertility in wheat, and Mphande et al., (2021) suggest that some of the 513 514 positive effects of AT under drought are due to increased spike fertility. The present study has shown negative associations between leaf ABA at the booting stage and 515 yield/yield components (Figures 11 a, b, c and d). The number of grains per spike 516 was linearly related to leaf ABA in a negative way. This trait is fixed during spikelet 517 morphogenesis and development but is affected by environmental conditions 518 (Dolferus, Ji, & Richards, 2011; Lin et al., 2020). It is known that pre-anthesis 519 drought at this stage damages florets and entire spikelets, which are the 520

determinants of grain number per spike (Oosterhuis & Cartwright, 1983). In surviving 521 florets, grain number is further repressed by the sporicidal effect of drought on pollen 522 meiosis, which has been identified as the most sensitive reproductive process to 523 abiotic stress (Saini & Aspinall, 1982). Reduction in grain number is linked to 524 elevated ABA concentration induced by drought (Morgan, 1980) or other abiotic 525 stresses. Saini & Aspinall (1982) demonstrated that elevating the endo-ABA 526 527 concentration just before or at the commencement of pollen meiosis significantly reduced grain set and number of grains per spike, but these traits were unaffected if 528 529 increased concentrations were during pollen development and at the onset of anthesis. This may explain why elevated leaf ABA concentration at booting in the 530 present study was correlated with number of grains per spike under PD but there 531 was no correlation at anthesis under CD. To the contrary, in a glasshouse study, 532 Weldearegay, Yan, Jiang, & Liu (2012) found that drought at anthesis elevated 533 spikelet ABA levels, reduced grain set and grain yield of spring wheat. The mixing of 534 main stem and tiller spikes under PD masked treatment effects on grain number per 535 spike and other agronomic traits. Unlike main stems, tillers were not at GS39 at the 536 time of spray application, hence drought was not expected to have also affected 537 pollen meiosis in tiller spikes. In addition, even by the time normal watering was 538 resumed (main spikes at GS45), most tillers were still at stem extension. Thus, the 539 540 treatment effect of stems that were at GS39 was likely overshadowed. The lower number of grains per spike under PD can be attributed to source limitation resulting 541 in competition for growth resources, as there were 11 plants per pot and their tillers 542 against seven tiller-free main spikes under CD. The number of grains per spike 543 reduces with increasing plant density (Li et al., 2016), and water deficit (Lin et al., 544 2020). Under severe stress, entire flowering heads are aborted, thereby reducing the 545

number of fertile spikes per unit area (Katerji et al., 2009). Thus, under high endoABA concentration due to drought, reproductive failure increases. Figure 9 (a, b, and
c) demonstrates that accumulating high leaf ABA, of over 5000 ng/g DW in this case,
had damaging effects being associated with the lowest yield/yield component values.

The significant increase in grain number, yield per spike shoot biomass per plant and 550 551 HI under CD due to DpM and Exo-ABA application suggests that these compounds had stimulatory or ameliorative effects on these agronomic traits. In droughted spring 552 wheat, Mphande et al. (2021) found an association between yield improvement and 553 reduced endo-ABA concentration attributed to DpM. DpM is also known to improve 554 plant water balance (Faralli et al., 2017) and this is likely the mechanism linked to 555 reduced endo-ABA. Increasing the plant water status of dehydrated plant cells 556 restores turgor and reduces elevated endo-ABA concentration (Liang and Zhang, 557 1999) through catabolic pathways of hydroxylation and conjugation (Nambara & 558 559 Marion-Poll, 2005). Maintenance of cellular turgor is crucial for sustaining biological processes including photosynthesis, assimilate partitioning, growth and reproduction 560 (Faroog et al., 2009). Under water stress, high-yielding, drought-tolerant wheat 561 genotypes are associated with higher HI values (Kobata, Koc, Barutcular, Tanno, & 562 Inagaki, 2018). That DpM significantly improved the HI under CD despite repressing 563 photosynthesis suggest that there was an increased role of water-soluble 564 carbohydrates (remobilised from stems Mphande et al, 2016) in grain filling (Ehdaie, 565 Alloush, & Waines, 2008). 566

567 Application of Exo ABA provides signals to leaves to close the stomata and has been 568 shown to protect wheat from water loss during mild drought, however the amount 569 applied, the interaction with endogenously produced ABA and the timing of the 570 drought can all impact on crop response (Mphande et al., 2020). In wheat, Travaglia

et al. (2010) observed that under moderate drought, Exo-ABA sustained chlorophylls 571 a and b. This agrees with the present study as Exo-ABA increased net 572 photosynthesis with a PAR selection of 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and not 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, 573 thought the effect was not significant. Exo-ABA increasing of stomatal conductance 574 and photosynthesis has also been reported in soyabeans (Liu, Jensen, & Andersen, 575 2004). Further, Exo-ABA upregulates the expression of glutathione and ascorbate 576 antioxidant activities in droughted wheat (Wei et al., 2015). These mechanisms may 577 explain why Exo-ABA improved shoot biomass, HI, grain number and grain yield in 578 579 our study. Heightened expression of antioxidants is one of the traits conferring tolerance to abiotic stresses like drought in crop genotypes (Vaidyanathan, 580 Sivakumar, Chakrabarty, & Thomas, 2003). However, application of very high levels 581 of Exo-ABA is counterproductive – (e.g. while 20 mg/l (~ 76 µM) during pollen 582 meiosis reduced grain set to less than 15% while 100 mg/l (~378 µM) completely 583 inhibited grain set in wheat, Saini & Aspinall, 1982). In the current study, 100 µM 584 increased grain set under CD by average of 116%. The inconsistent effects of Exo-585 ABA concentrations (e.g. 76 µM vs 100 µM) on grain set might be attributed to 586 genotypic differences between the experiments. That the environment is also a 587 factor is clearly demonstrated by the effects of Exo-ABA and DpM on yield and yield 588 components in our study, being less effective under more severe PD than under mild 589 590 CD. Our results corroborate past findings. A study on oilseed rape by Faralli et al. (2017) reported that the effect of DpM on pod number per plant significantly 591 decreased with increasing drought severity. In wheat, Travaglia et al. (2010) found a 592 significant increase in individual grain weight attributed to Exo-ABA under moderate 593 but not severe drought. Working with three Exo-ABA concentrations (30, 40 and 60 594 mg/L ~ 113, 151 and 227 µM) on spring wheat, Zhang et al. (2016) observed that 595

596 grain yield averaged over two years decreased with increasing concentration, supportive of the damaging effects of increased endo-ABA. Other than for the more 597 severe PD, the effect of Exo-ABA on grain yield obtained in this study is consistent 598 with the finding of Zhang et al. (2016). They observed yield improvement in winter 599 wheat grown under both WW and droughted conditions. The effect of Exo-ABA 600 increased with drought from WW to moderate deficit and reached the highest under 601 602 severe drought. These studies suggest that the mitigative effects of ATs are influenced not only by dose rate but also by genotype, timing and the magnitude of 603 drought. In contrast, Sivakumar, Virendranath, & Srivastava (2001) reported decline 604 in grain weight and grain number per spike due to Exo-ABA application of 28% and 605 22%, respectively, showing that the yield benefits are not in all cases. There is need 606 607 for establishing the interplay between Exo-ABA as an AT for drought mitigation and its potential to cause damage to yield components by elevating ABA concentration. 608

5. **Conclusion**

In the present study, the effects of DpM and Exo-ABA on gas exchange and leaf and 610 spike ABA concentration were compared in WW and droughted spring wheat in two 611 glasshouse experiments. We found no evidence of Exo-ABA damaging yield or 612 number of grains per spike. DpM had no significant effect on endo-ABA in WW 613 plants but generally reduced it under drought. As such, the correlation between 614 reproductive-stage leaf ABA concentration and yield, seen here in one experiment 615 and in previous field experiments, might reflect a general association between endo-616 ABA and drought stress rather than a direct effect of the hormone on grain 617 development, as previously proposed. 618

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- 851
- 852 ix. Tables
- Table 1: Spray application and ABA sampling schedule.

Experiment		Spraying			Leaf	sampli	Spike sampling		
	GS*	Spray types	DAP*	Date	GS	DAP	Date	DAP	Date
PD (2018)	GS39	DpM*	63	12 th Oct	GS42	68	17 th Oct		N/A
	GS39	Exo-ABA	63	12 th Oct	GS42	68	17 th Oct		N/A
	GS39	DpM	59	16 th Jan	GS62	80	6 th Feb	80	6 th Feb
	GS39	Exo-ABA	59	16 th Jan	GS62	80	6 th Feb	80	6 th Feb
CD (2010)	GS43	Exo-ABA	65	22 nd Jan					
CD (2019)	GS54	Exo-ABA	72	29 th Jan					
	GS62	Exo-ABA	80	6 th Feb					
	GS69	Exo-ABA	87	13 th Feb					

- * DAP, DpM, Exo-ABA and GS stand for days after planting, di-1-p-menthene,
- exogenous ABA and growth stage, respectively.
- 856
- 857 x. Figures Legends
- Figure 1: Average daily air temperature (a and c) and average daily relative
 humidity (b and d) inside the glasshouse rain shelters recorded by the
 TomTech T200 data logger (Tomtech (UK) Ltd, Spalding, UK).

Figure 2: Figure 2: Soil moisture readings from (a) progressive drought (PD)
 and (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants between 60 and 68 days after
 planting (DAP) and between 68 and 112 DAP, respectively. Note that the
 lower pot capacity for CD was due to a predominantly sandy growth medium
 instead of John Innes No. 2 Compost for PD. Undotted arrows indicate DAP
 on which the antitranspirants were sprayed.

Figure 3: Flag leaf ABA levels under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b)
 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants sampled at 68 days after planting (DAP
 i.e. five days after spraying, DAS, p = 0.008); and 80 DAP (i.e. 21 DAS DpM
 and one day after a fourth spray of Exo-ABA, p = 0.015), respectively.
 Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey test, p < 0.05). Error
 bars represent common standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

Figure 4: Spike ABA under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants (p = 0.025) sampled at 80 days after planting, i.e.
21 days after spraying di-1-*p*-menthene and one day after a fourth exogenous ABA spray under controlled drought. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05). Errors bars represent common standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

Figure 5: Stomatal conductance under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b)
 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants measured five days after spraying (DAS,
 p = 0.025) and one DAS (p < 0.001), respectively. The photosynthetically
 active radiation in 2018 was set at 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in
 2019. Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey test, p < 0.05).
 The graphs were constructed from back transformed values. The transformed

means and their standard errors (SEM) in the order: well-watered and
droughted (control, di-1-p-menthene and exogenous ABA, SEM); were: under
PD (square root scale: 0.4434, 0.3759, 0.402 and 0.3108, 0.1244, 0.1382,
SEM: 0.02189) and CD (log 10 scale: -0.118, -0.195 and -0.367 and -0.679, 1.043 and -0.514, SEM: 0.0739), respectively.

• Figure 6: Net photosynthesis under (a) progressive drought (PD) and (b) sourcessive drought (CD) wheat plants measured five days after spraying (DAS) at photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) set at 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (p = 0.488) and one DAS at PAR of 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (p = 0.004). Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey test, P < 0.05) while error bars are standard errors of means from ANOVA table.

Figure 7: Intrinsic water use efficiency under (a) progressive drought (PD) and 896 • 897 (b) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants determined on flag leaves (p < p(0.001) and (p = 0.007), respectively. Error bars represent standard error of 898 means (SEM). Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 899 0.05); graphs were constructed from back transformed values. The 900 transformed means and their SEM in the order: well-watered and droughted 901 (control, di-1-p-menthene and Exo-ABA, SEM); were: under PD (log base 10 902 scale: 1.50, 1.57, 1.62 and 1.34, 2.03, 2.01, SEM: 0.50) and under CD 903 (square root scale: 4.51, 5.21, 6.25 and 7.75, 8.29, 6.68, SEM: 0.589), 904 905 respectively.

Figure 8: Number of grains per spike, thousand grain weight and grain yield
 per spike under (a, b and c) progressive drought (PD) and (d, e and f)
 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants (p = 0.083, p = 0.984 and p = 0.038)

and (p = 0.043, p = 0.370 and p = 0.005), respectively. Error bars represent 909 common standard errors of means (SEM) from ANOVA. Different letters 910 represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05). Figure 8 (f and h) were 911 constructed from back transformed values; their means on the square root 912 scale and SEM in the order: well-watered and droughted (control, di-1-p-913 menthene and exogenous ABA, SEM); were (4.72, 4.97, 5.08 and 3.48, 5.12, 914 915 4.65, SEM: 0.262) and on the logit scale (-4.474, -4.343, -4.390 and -5.162, -4.561, -4.504, SEM: 0.0750), respectively. 916

• Figure 9: Harvest index and shoot biomass per plant under (a and b) progressive drought (PD) and (c and d) controlled drought (CD) wheat plants (p = 0.036 and p = 0.025) and (p = 0.033 and p = 0.039). Error bars represent common standard errors of means (SEM) from ANOVA. Different letters represent significant difference (Tukey test, p < 0.05).

Figure 10: Linear regressions of flag leaf ABA concentration against fertile
 spikes per pot, grain number per spike, thousand grain weight and grain yield
 per spike under (a, b, c and d) progressive drought (PD) and (e, f g and h)
 controlled drought (CD) wheat plants. Under controlled drought (CD) sampling
 for ABA assay was done at booting (GS42), five days after spraying, and
 under CD at early anthesis (GS62), 21 days after spraying di-1-*p*-menthene
 and one day after a fourth exogenous ABA spray under CD.

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