Effects of kinetin on growth, grain yield and some mineral elements in wheat plants growing under excess salinity and oxygen deficiency

M.A.A. Gadallah

Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Assiut University, Assiut, Egypt

Received 29 June 1998; accepted 2 October 1998

Key words: flooding, kinetin, leaf relative water content, membrane stability, Triticum aestivum, wheat

Abstract

Wheat plants, 22d. old, were exposed to wide range of soil water osmotic potential ($\Psi_s = 0$ to -1.2 MPa) induced by NaCl and CaCl₂ treatments in combination with roots maintained under aerobic (drained at field capacity) or nonaerobic (flooded) conditions in the soil, and sprayed with 10 mg L^{-1} kinetin solution. In drained plants, not receiving kinetin, increased soil salinity resulted in appreciable inhibition of shoot growth and reduction in chlorophyll (Ch1.), soluble sugars (SS) contents and grain yield. Shoot growth, Ch1. content, soluble sugars and grain yield were significantly lower for flooded plants than unflooded analogues over the entire Ψs range. Both salinity and waterlogging synergize to increase Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ accumulation in shoot tissues and to decrease the stability of leaf membranes to either dehydration (40% polyethylene glycol 6000) or heat (51 °C) stress. The ratio of K⁺/Na⁺ transported to shoots under aerobic and anaerobic conditions decreased progressively on salinization. The association between the internal mineral element concentrations was largely affected by kinetin treatment. Kinetin application ameliorated the deleterious effects of salinity and oxygen deficiency. It reduced Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ accumulation and improved K⁺ uptake under salinity and waterlogging stresses. Increased K⁺/Na⁺ ratio helped the plants to avoid Na⁺ toxicity and enhanced shoot growth and grain yield. Kinetin also reduced membrane injury by dehydration and heat stresses and improved the water status of plants under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The effects of single factors (Soil salinity 'Ψs', soil waterlogging 'WL' and Kinetin 'Kin') and their interactions ($\Psi s \times WL$, $\Psi s \times Kin$, $WL \times Kin$ and $\Psi s \times WL \times Kin$) were shown by analysis of variance to be statistically significant for most parameters tested. Calculation of the coefficient of determination (η^2) led to three important findings. (1) Salinity (Ψ s) was dominant in affecting leaf relative water content (RWC), shoot dry mass, grain yield, stability of leaf membranes to dehydration stress and the contents of Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻. (2) Kinetin (Kin) had a dominant effect on the stability of leaf membranes to heat stress as well as on chlorophyll and soluble sugars contents. (3) The share of waterlogging (WL) was dominant for K⁺ content. It can be concluded that kinetin application helped wheat plants to grow successfully in the areas subjected to combined effects of salinity and oxygen deficiency, such as in salt marshes.

Abbreviations: PEG – polyethylene glycol, WL – waterlogging, Kin – kinetin, RWC – relative water content, MPa – mega pascal, Ψ s – osmotic potential, η^2 – coefficient of determination, Ch1 – chlorophyll. SS – soluble sugars. RH – relative humidity, VPD – vapour pressure deficits, SAR – Sodium adsorption ratio

1. Introduction

Excess soil salinity is a major concern in agriculture in arid and semi-arid regions where evapotranspiration causes salts originating from irrigation water (or sometimes naturally from the soil) to become concentrated in the rooting zone. Under conditions of soil salinity, rapid reduction in net photosynthesis [7], inhibition of growth [22], disturbance of anatomical structure [41, 23], alterations in cell mem-

brane structure [10] and K⁺ deficiency [6] have been reported.

Soil waterlogging is a major limiting factor for the growth of vascular plants grown in humid regions [17]. Irrigation, especially where it is frequent or on poorly drained land, also can give rise to soil oxygen deficiency in the rooting zone [43]. Soil waterlogging and the consequent oxygen depletion result in substantial soil chemical change and reduction of photosynthesis [44, 3], shoot and root growth [28, 20] and final yield [15]. Waterlogging can also decrease absorption of water [18, 39].

Both soil salinity and waterlogging alter root and shoot hormone relations e.g. decreases cytokinins and gibberellins and increases abscisic acid contents [8, 55]. Recently, plant growth regulators have been applied to counteract the deleterious effects of adverse environmental stresses. In waterlogged plants, a variety of plant growth regulators have been considered to be of crucial importance in the process of adventitious root formation [47]. Kinetin, is one of the cytokinins known to improve the growth of many crop plants grown under salinity [40], soil acidity [19], soil waterlogging [20] and soil pollution [21].

Since soil salinity and oxygen deficiency alone is harmful to the growth of most dry land species, the combined effects of excess salt and oxygen shortage would be expected to be especially damaging. Under natural conditions, as in salt marshes, plants are subjected to salinity stress and waterlogging, and only a highly specialized vegetation is adapted to tolerate such diverse conditions [13, 48]. However, the effects of these two stressors in combination on plant growth and metabolism are poorly understood [46, 33].

The interactions between soil salinity and soil waterlogging in combination with exogenous kinetin as a three-factorial treatment combination has not been studied. Often their effects on the growth and metabolic activities of the plants have been studied separately (as single factorial treatments). Since, in natural habitats, multifactorial effects and interactions are the rule rather than the exception, therefore, single factorial laboratory experiments concerning the effects of environmental stresses on the growth and metabolic activities in plants are not good simulations of the natural conditions. Accordingly, in the present paper, the possibility of a salinity × waterlogging × kinetin interaction affecting growth and grain yield in wheat plants was studied under natural field conditions. In addition, the possible dual role for the effect of the three factors and their interactions on the stability of leaf membranes, leaf relative water content, chlorophyll, soluble sugars and some mineral element content (Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ and their association) were also investigated.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Plant cultivation

Wheat plants (Triticum aestivum sacha 8) were grown in plastic pots containing 1400 g air dry soil (sand/clay 2: 1 v/v) under field conditions at the experimental farm of the Faculty of Science, Assiut University as discribed previously [19]. The roots of wheat plants grown for 22 day in soil, the water content of which was maintained at field capacity, were irrigated with solutions having NaCl and CaCl₂ in combination to result in different equivalent osmotic potentials (Ψ s) in the range from 0 to -1.2 MPa with a fixed sodium adsorption ratio (SAR) of 1/8 see [22]. The plants were either exposed to oxygen deficiency (waterlogging) or maintained under aerobic conditions (watered periodically to field capacity). In waterlogging treatment, the plants were flooded by maintaining the water (unstressed $\Psi s = 0$) or saline solution levels (saltstressed $\Psi s = -0.3$ to -1.2 MPa) 1 to 2 cm above the soil surface [49] by periodically adding water or saline solutions.

One week after salinity and waterlogging treatment, the growing shoots were sprayed three times at 3d intervals with 10 mg L⁻¹ kinetin. Kinetin was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, Mo., U.S.A.). The control plants were sprayed with distilled water. Each treatment combination at every stress level had three replicates which were arranged in a completely randomized design. On day 7, after the last kinetin application, the plants were analyzed for the stability of leaf membranes, leaf relative water content, chlorophyll content and some mineral element contents. Ears were harvested after grain ripening, oven dried and the grain yield and dry mass production were determined.

2.2 Membrane stability test

The stability of leaf membranes was assessed by determining electrolyte leakage from leaf segments exposed to dehydration (40% polyethylene glycol, PEG) and heat (51 °C) stress. A method used by Blum and Ebercon [4] on wheat was adopted.

The degree of membrane injury (based on electrolyte leakage) was calculated according to the following formula:

% injury =
$$1 - [1 - (T_1/T_2)/1 - (C_1/C_2)] \times 100$$
,

where T_1 and T_2 represent the first and second conductance measurements on the treatment samples and C_1 and C_2 the first and second measurements on the control.

2.3 Chlorophyll and soluble sugar contents

Chlorophyll a and b and soluble sugar contents were measured spectrophotometrically (Bausch and Lomb Spectronic 2000) according to Tood and Basler [45] and Buysse and Merckx [9], respectively.

2.4 Leaf relative water content

For measuring leaf relative water content the method of Weatherley and Barrs [50] was adopted. Relative water content (RWC) was calculated as follows:

$$RWC\% = \frac{\text{fresh weight} - \text{dry weight}}{\text{saturated weight} - \text{dry weight}} \times 100.$$

Diurnal pattern of leaf relative water content, and fluctuation in air temperature, vapour pressure deficits (VPD) and relative humidity (R.H.) were measured at 3h intervals from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

2.5 Mineral elements

 ${\rm Ca^{2+}}$ and ${\rm Mg^{2+}}$ were analyzed by an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Model AA -630- ${\rm O_2}$). Na⁺ and K⁺ were analyzed by the flame emission technique. In this respect, a flame photometer M7D was used. Content of chloride (Cl⁻) was determined according to Johnson and Ulrich [30].

The relative role (shares) of single factors and their interactions on the parameters tested and association between the mineral ions were evaluated by analysis of variance (F values), coefficient of determination (η^2) and simple linear correlation coefficient (r), respectively [35]. The coefficient of determination (η^2) has been devised to evaluate the relative effect of each single factor and interaction in contributing to total response. In that case:

$$(\eta^2) =$$

sum of squares due to the factor

total sum of squares due to the treatment combination

3. Results

3.1 Stability of leaf membranes

Under aerobic conditions, solution of 40% PEG (Table 1) caused 6.69% injury in the membranes of unstressted plants ($\Psi s = 0$). The percent of membrane injury increased to 47% on salinization at $\Psi s = -1.2$ MPa, which is about 8-fold the injury at $\Psi s = 0$. Leaf membranes of waterlogged plants were less stable (more injured) than plants growing at field capacity over the entire Ψs levels.

Exposure of leaf segments taken from unflooded salt-unstressed plants to heat stress (51 $^{\circ}$ C) caused 30.8% injury in the membranes. Lowering of osmotic water potential in the root environment in combination with oxygen deficiency enhanced the percentage of injury by heat. The highest injury (78.5%) was noticed in plants flooded with -1.2 MPa saline solution.

Kinetin application decreased the membrane injury by either PEG dehydration or heat stress compared with their kinetin untreated analogues (unstressedflooded plants were an exception). The reduction of membrane injury by kinetin was more pronounced at higher stress levels, especially under flooding conditions.

Soil salinity (Ψ s), waterlogging (WL) and kinetin (Kin) as well as their interactions (Table 2) had highly significant effects on the stability of leaf membranes, except the interaction Ψ s × Kin for membrane stability to heat. Based on the calculated coefficient of determination (η^2), the role of Ψ s in affecting membrane stability to PEG dehydration was dominant, but that of kinetin was subsidiary. Under heat stress the reverse held true.

3.2 Chlorophyll content

Chlorophyll a and b contents (Table 1) progressively decreased with increasing salinity. The magnitude of the salinity effect varied with aeration of the root environment. Ch1 reduction by salinity was much greater under anaerobic conditions than in plants grown in drained soil. For example, Ch1 a and b contents at $\Psi s = -1.2$ MPa were about 20 and 23% (under anaerobic) and 50 and 51% (aerobic condition) that of the unstressed plants.

Supplying kinetin to waterlogged and drained plants, whether salt-stressed or not, increased the content of chlorophyll compared with kinetin-untreated plants. The kinetin effect was more pronounced in plants flooded with saline solutions. For example, Ch1

Table 1. Changes in the stability of leaf membranes (measured as percent of injury %), chlorophyll content (Ch1.) and growth (dry matter production and grain yield) of wheat plants grown under excess soil salinity (Ψ s), aerobic (drained) and waterlogging (WL) conditions in the presence of absence of kinetin (Kin) solution

Kin Mg L ⁻¹	Parameters		Membra	ne injury %	Ch1. c	ontent -1 lf.f.wt)	Growth	Soluble sugars	
	Soil aeration	Ψs (MPa)	PEG (40%)	Heat (51 °C)	a	b	Dry matter (g)	Grain yield (g)	(mg·g ⁻¹ D.W.)
		0.0	6.69	30.81	2.32	1.57	20.77	22.49	22.32
		-0.3	15.13	50.81	2.28	1.36	17.31	20.31	21.10
	Drained	-0.6	27.70	57.73	2.07	1.35	15.23	18.07	18.32
		-0.9	31.79	63.27	1.54	1.14	8.88	9.27	15.21
0		-1.2	47.03	70.25	1.18	0.80	7.32	2.74	10.32
		0.0	20.23	44.29	1.22	1.02	15.52	19.70	15.32
	WL.	-0.3	27.49	69.57	1.23	0.94	10.37	14.64	14.33
		-0.6	38.54	74.85	0.53	0.43	9.25	8.01	12.58
		-0.9	64.79	75.79	0.40	0.41	5.27	_	10.48
		-1.2	72.42	78.52	0.25	0.24	2.94	_	8.73
		0.0	5.27	19.53	2.80	1.82	17.36	29.74	35.36
		-0.3	6.67	30.21	3.54	2.16	19.35	27.98	38.26
	Drained	-0.6	13.77	46.07	2.96	2.01	17.73	18.74	30.64
		-0.9	20.59	48.45	2.53	1.70	16.52	17.66	25.13
10		-1.2	8.96	44.78	2.73	1.78	9.10	7.34	20.39
		0.0	10.92	48.27	1.99	1.25	17.61	25.98	32.75
	WL	-0.3	16.73	49.81	2.09	1.50	18.88	20.65	30.36
		-0.6	2.99	21.73	2.69	1.71	14.47	18.72	27.94
		-0.9	36.07	40.29	2.09	1.31	11.45	8.62	24.36
		-1.2	40.79	56.73	2.18	1.46	8.52	4.32	23.33

content of plants flooded at -1.2 MPa and receiving kinetin was about 10-fold that of kinetin untreated plants at the same water potential. Furthermore, supplying kinetin under anaerobic conditions increased Ch1 contents of salt-stressed plants over that of the unstressed plants ($\Psi s = 0$ and flooded with H_2O).

The effects of Ψ s, WL, Kin and their interactions on Ch1 a and b contents were statistically significant (Ψ s \times WL interaction was an exception for Ch1 b). Kinetin had a dominant role in affecting Ch1 content, but the role of waterlogging was subdominant.

3.3 Relative water content (RWC)

Diurnal fluctuation in leaf relative water (RWC) content are shown in Table 3. In the absence of kinetin, under both aerobic and nonaerobic conditions, salt unstressed plants ($\Psi s = 0$) showed a decrease of RWC in the early morning toward a minimum at 1 p.m. However, they tended to regain turgidity early in the

afternoon. Salinity caused some changes in the diurnal pattern of leaf RWC where plants at most salinity levels ($\Psi s = -0.6$ to -1.2 MPa) showed a minimum RWC at 4p.m. In the presence of kinetin, the reverse held true. Leaf RWC fluctuated during the late part of the day (4–7 p.m.) and ended up at a lower or higher level at sunset relative to its value at sunrise.

Mean daily leaf relative water content (Table 3) was generally lower in salt-stressed plants, grown under aerobic conditions, than the unstressed plants. Combination of salinity with oxygen deficiency resulted in a greater reduction in leaf water content. In plants flooded with -0.3, -0.6, -0.9 and -1.2 MPa solutions, the RWC was 9%, 2%, 4% and 8% lower than unflooded plants irrigated with the same saline solutions.

Kinetin treatment improved the water status of wheat plants. The response of RWC in highly stressed plants (-1.2 MPa) to kinetin was higher than that grown at lower stress levels (-0.3 MPa) where RWC

Table 2. F and (η^2) values for the effects of salinity (Ψs) , waterlogging (WL), kinetin (Kin) and their interactions on the stability of leaf membranes, chlorophyll content (Ch1), leaf relative water content (RWC), soluble sugars (S.S.), dry mass production (d.m.) and grain yield in wheat plants

Source of Variance	Membrane stability			Ch1. Content							Production					
	Dehydration (40% PEG)		Heat (51 °C)		Ch1.a Ch1.b		Ch1.b	SS		RWC		d.m.		Grain		
•	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2
Ψ_{S}	104.5**	0.42	96.7**	0.23	33.9**	0.10	100.0**	0.10	334.2**	0.24	158.5**	0.53	131.1**	0.61	603.5**	0.75
WL	144.2**	0.15	142.3**	0.08	388.2**	0.28	1100.0**	0.27	292.5**	0.05	30.3**	0.03	87.6**	0.10	318.9**	0.10
Kin	245.1**	0.25	654.5**	0.38	721.2**	0.52	2085.0**	0.52	966.9**	0.66	283.8**	0.24	144.1**	0.17	349.2**	0.11
$\Psi s \times WL$	18.4**	0.08	114.3**	0.27	3.3	0.01	5.0*	_	37.5**	0.03	18.96**	0.06	2.9	0.01	9.3**	0.01
$\Psi s \times Kin$	18.5**	0.08	3.99	0.01	17.0**	0.05	82.5**	0.08	11.9**	0.01	35.11**	0.12	15.8**	0.08	10.04**	0.01
$WL \times Kin \\$	13.2**	0.01	31.9**	0.02	23.9**	0.02	32.5**	0.01	35.4**	0.01	6.19*	0.01	20.6**	0.03	0.73	_
$\Psi s \times WL \times Kin$	4.2*	0.02	5.5*	0.01	8.18**	0.02	20.0**	0.02	2.1	-	4.06*	0.01	3.3	0.02	15.3**	0.02

^{*} Significant at 5% confidence level. ** Significant at 1% confidence level.

Table 3. Diurnal pattern and average daily leaf relative water content of wheat plants grown under excess of salinity
(Ψs), aerobic (drained) and waterlogging (WL) conditions in the presence and absence of kinetin (Kin) solution and the
prevailing climatic factors, air temperature (°C), Relative Humidity (RH%) and vapour pressure deficit (VPD)

Kin	Soil	Ψ_{S}	Diurnal	Diurnal Change in Leaf RWC (%)						
${ m Mg}~{ m L}^{-1}$	aeration	(MPa)	7 a.m.	10 a.m.	1 p.m.	4 p.m.	7 p.m.	Values		
		0.0	91.66	87.96	75.45	85.87	88.88	85.97		
		-0.3	86.32	84.43	70.88	73.30	78.32	79.04		
	Drained	-0.6	82.19	80.97	72.31	67.50	73.73	75.34		
		-0.9	80.40	75.03	74.60	62.55	69.58	72.43		
0		-1.2	77.27	67.07	59.94	58.17	64.37	65.36		
		0.0	95.72	89.88	82.06	88.65	92.05	89.97		
		-0.3	86.06	81.34	67.55	64.20	54.91	70.82		
	WL	-0.6	81.62	78.08	77.42	69.76	62.16	73.81		
		-0.9	73.32	70.92	68.45	64.56	59.81	67.41		
		-1.2	62.35	58.43	54.31	58.34	52.30	57.15		
		0.0	95.02	89.93	85.33	73.71	81.15	85.07		
		-0.3	87.36	85.83	74.81	81.90	87.30	83.44		
	Drained	-0.6	84.52	76.74	67.29	83.22	88.22	80.00		
		-0.9	81.12	82.89	79.87	83.42	84.93	82.45		
10		-1.2	82.32	70.28	76.02	81.38	87.27	81.26		
		0.0	94.53	87.08	92.64	80.21	86.88	88.27		
		-0.3	89.75	81.78	77.60	81.22	90.76	84.22		
	WL	-0.6	85.82	89.46	72.43	72.44	80.33	80.10		
		-0.9	81.52	87.85	70.35	79.10	86.83	81.13		
		-1.2	66.21	64.59	61.59	65.73	65.03	76.26		
	Air Temp (°C)		14	25	36	30	18			
	R.H. (%)		52	38	25	29	50			
	V.P.D. (mmHg)		6.28	15.52	33.16	23.51	8.53			

of plants stressed at -1.2 MPa and received kinetin were 16 and 22% higher than kinetin untreated analogues; which contrasts to 4 and 14% increases at lower stress level (-0.3 MPa) in drained and flooded plants, respectively.

Salinity, waterlogging, kinetin and their interactions had significant effects on the leaf RWC. The role of salinity was dominant, but that of kinetin was subdominant.

3.4 Soluble sugars

In the absence of kinetin (Table 1), unflooded-salt-stressed plants had lower soluble sugar contents in their shoots than the unstressed plants. Soil waterlogging caused marked reduction in the content of shoot soluble sugar over the entire Ψs range. Unstressed and salt stressed plants receiving kinetin solution had much more soluble sugar in their shoots under both anaerobic and aerobic conditions compared to their kinetin untreated analogues.

Statistical significant effects for Kin, WL, Ψ s and their interactions on SS was detected by F values (Ψ s \times Kin \times WL interaction was an exception). The role of kinetin in affecting shoot SS was dominant followed by Ψ s and waterlogging.

3.5 Mineral elements

The contents of Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ in shoot tissues of wheat plants (Table 4) increased with increasing salinity under aerobic conditions. Ion accumulation was much greater with treatment combination of salinity and oxygen deficiency. The ratio of K⁺/Na⁺ was greatly modified by addition of saline solutions and soil flooding, decreasing more than 3-fold and 7-fold between $\Psi s=0$ and -1.2 MPa in drained and flooded plants, respectively. Shoot K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ contents were

Shoot K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ contents were generally higher but the contents of Na⁺ were lower in wheat plants grown in drained soil and receiving kinetin solution than in those sprayed with distilled

Kin Mg L ⁻¹	Soil aeration	Ψs (MPa)	Na ⁺	K ⁺	K ⁺ /Na ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	Cl ⁻
		0.0	12.67	18.45	1.50	11.85	14.40	35.05
		-0.3	22.00	23.86	1.10	40.43	19.74	83.91
	Drained	-0.6	31.33	23.46	0.75	52.27	16.52	113.00
		-0.9	41.00	24.37	0.51	55.46	18.29	119.03
0		-1.2	45.00	20.75	0.46	68.17	19.29	168.37
		0.0	8.33	27.47	3.63	26.67	17.71	49.60
		-0.3	32.67	34.05	1.05	48.14	17.50	129.20
	WL	-0.6	45.00	36.07	0.81	60.66	16.48	136.17
		-0.9	48.33	36.38	0.76	64.40	15.49	152.77
		-1.2	64.00	33.47	0.53	75.65	19.27	184.03
		0.0	9.17	18.02	1.98	21.00	14.37	58.17
		-0.3	22.33	18.37	1.27	38.09	22.33	123.07
	Drained	-0.6	21.67	27.28	1.26	62.91	18.33	101.08
		-0.9	20.00	26.70	1.34	78.44	21.27	186.10
10		-1.2	31.00	28.61	0.92	85.34	22.24	185.20
		0.0	5.83	29.30	5.18	26.84	14.61	79.93
		-0.3	11.00	38.64	6.11	28.29	15.33	71.40
	WL	-0.6	11.67	35.98	3.20	35.54	15.38	101.00

48.93

46.07

1.96

1.63

Table 4. Changes in internal shoot elements contents of wheat plants grown under excess salinity (Ψ s), aerobic (drained) and waterlogging (WL) conditions in the presence or absence of kinetin solution

water (-0.6 MPa for Cl $^-$ was an exception). Under oxygen deficiency, kinetin treatment reduced the contents of Ca $^{2+}$, Na $^+$ and Cl $^-$ over the entire Ψs range ($\Psi s = 0$ was an exception for Cl $^-$), but increased accumulation of K $^+$ at all stress levels and Mg $^{2+}$ at higher stress levels only. K $^+$ /Na $^+$ ratio was higher for kinetin – treated plants than in the untreated analogues under both anaerobic and aerobic conditions.

-0.9

-1.2

25.00

28.33

Data in Table 5 indicate that single factors and their interactions significantly affected the internal mineral elements (Kin effect for Ca^{2+} and $\Psi s \times Kin$ and $\Psi s \times WL \times Kin$ interactions for K^+ were exceptions). The role of salinity in affecting Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and Cl^- was dominant. In the case of K^+ the dominant role was occupied by WL effect followed by Ψs .

In plants not receiving kinetin solution (Figure 1), under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, Na^+ was positively correlated (P < 0.05) with Cl^- and Ca^{2+} . Also, significant positive correlation was found between Ca^{2+} and Cl^- . In the presence of kinetin, the significant correlations were somewhat different. The most pronounced effect for kinetin under aerobic condition was the significant positive correlations between Mg^{2+} and each of Na^+ and Cl^- , and the lack of the

significant correlation existed between Na⁺ and each of Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ and between Cl⁻ and Ca²⁺.

22.03

22.29

130.40

115.03

In flooded plants, Kinetin application resulted in significant positive correlations between Mg^{2+} and each of Na^+ , Cl^- and Ca^{2+} . Also positive significant correlations were found between Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} and between Na^+ and K^+ as a result of kinetin treatment.

3.6 Growth and grain yield

51.95

72.51

Shoot growth (dry mass production) and finally grain yield were reduced by salinity. Flooding by either distilled water ($\Psi s = 0$) or saline solutions (salt-stressed plants) caused further reduction in shoot biomass and grain yield than their drained analogues. Furthermore, plants without kinetin and flooded with -1.2 MPa solutions died within 4 weeks of treatment.

Kinetin application during salinity and oxygen deficiency improved shoot growth and grain yield. The most clear effect was noticed in plants flooded with -1.2 MPa solution where kinetin helped the plants to grow successfully and produced grains.

Single factors as well as their interactions significantly affected dry mass production and grain yield,

Source of	Na ⁺		K^+		Ca ²⁺	Ca ²⁺		Mg^{2+}		
variance	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2
Ψs	176.6**	0.53	13.1**	0.08	93.6**	0.83	42.7**	0.50	1696.9**	0.78
WL.	7.6**	0.01	505.5**	0.75	14.8**	0.01	12.81**	0.04	497.2**	0.01
Kin	384.8**	0.29	7.1*	0.05	0.3	_	20.48**	0.06	462.8**	0.01
$\Psi s \times WL$	6.4*	0.02	6.3**	0.04	34.3**	0.03	12.5**	0.15	322.9**	0.04
$\Psi s \times Kin$	24.1**	0.07	0.2	0.01	36.6**	0.03	14.2**	0.17	473.8**	0.06
$WL \times Kin$	66.0**	0.05	33.8**	0.05	371.8**	0.08	5.8*	0.01	520.3**	0.02

0.02

18.2**

Table 5. F and (η^2) values for the effects of salinity (Ψ s), waterlogging (WL), kinetin (Kin) and their interactions on some mineral elements contents of wheat plants

 Ψ s × WL × Kin

except the $\Psi s \times WL$ and $\Psi s \times WL \times Kin$ interactions (for dry mass) and $WL \times Kin$ interaction (for grain yield). The role of salinity (Ψs) was dominant followed by the role of kinetin.

10.2**

3.9

4. Discussion

Under aerobic conditions, lowering of soil water osmotic potential decreased the stability of leaf membranes to either dehydration (40% PEG) or heat stress (51 °C) where leaf segments taken from salt-stressed plants being more injured than those taken from salt-unstressed plants. This could be due to the alteration in cell membranes structure and properties under salinity [10]. It is clear that membranes of salt-stressed plants were less injured by dehydration stress (percent of injury was 47% at -1.2 MPa) than by heat stress (70% injury at -1.2 MPa). The lower injury caused by dehydration stress in salt-stressed plants could be explained by the protecting effect of salt accumulated inside the cell [44]. Data in Table 4 on the accumulation of some mineral ions support this view.

Exposure of wheat roots to waterlogging enhanced membrane injury by either heat or PEG dehydration in both unstressed and salt-stressed plants. This means that membrane resistant to solute leakage in cereal plants was decreased in response to waterlogging. The differences in the permeability of cell membranes under anaerobic conditions may result from change in the degree of saturation of fatty acids in the phospholipids of cell membranes [52].

Soluble sugars were markedly declined with reduced Ψ s under aerobic conditions, probably through inhibition of carbon metabolism and pho-

tosynthetic activity [7] and reduction of chlorophyll content (Table 1). The deleterious effect of salinity on shoot soluble sugars was enhanced by soil waterlogging. This means that both salinity and waterlogging synergize in their impact on chlorophyll contents and photosynthetic activities and accumulation of its products.

0.07

692.2**

0.08

6.1**

0.02

Generally, salt-stressed plants maintained lower leaf relative water content than salt-unstressed plants. This could be due to reduction of water supply to the leaves, probably through effects of salinity on the anatomical structure and disorganization of the vascular cylinder [41, 23], and decreased the conductance of root membranes or plasmodesmata [54]. Exposure of wheat roots to oxygen deficiency results in further reduction in leaf relative water content. Such reduction could be due to decreased water absorption under anaerobic conditions [18, 39].

Under combination of salt stress and flooding conditions (as in salt marshes), mutual effects of elements on their absorption are of particular interest. Elements at high concentration in the root medium are taken up at higher rates which may lead to excessive accumulation in plant tissues. In general, salt-stressed wheat plants were higher in contents of Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ in their shoot tissues than were the unstressed plants (Ψ s = 0). The effect was most pronounced under combination of salinity and anaerobic conditions. This could be due to the large increase in their activity in the external solutions. Accumulation of such inorganic ions, which contribute to osmoregulation, under saline condition is considered as one of the most important adaptive mechanisms of water deficits [38].

The high concentration to which Na⁺ in preference to K⁺ can be accumulated in the shoot, espe-

^{*} Significant at 5% confidence level.

^{**} Significant at 1% confidence level.

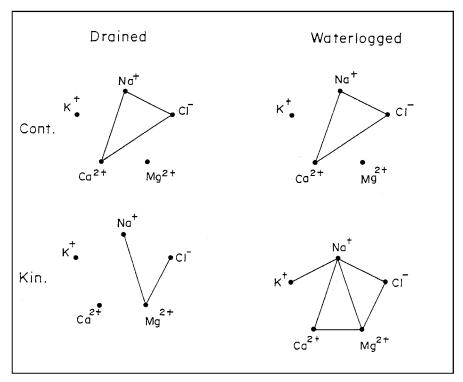


Figure 1. Significant positive correlation (P < 0.05) between ions in shoot of wheat plants grown under excess salinity under aerobic (drained) and anaerobic (waterlogged) conditions in the absence (Cont.) and presence of kinetin (Kin.).

cially under salinity stress, is an interesting feature. In this study, the K⁺/Na⁺ ratio in the shoots of wheat decreased steadily with increasing salt addition. This is in agreement with previous findings of He and Cramer [27] and Gadallah [22]. It is accepted that competition exists between Na⁺ and K⁺ leading to a reduced level of internal K⁺ at a high external NaCl concentration [24, 5, 6]. Data in this study (Table 4) indicate that the internal K⁺ level was not reduced by salinity, but sometimes it increased. In our study, soil salinity was induced by the NaCl and CaCl2 combination. Sodium-calcium interaction under salinity has been recently reviewed [14]. Therefore, it can be concluded that Ca²⁺ is important for the maintenance of K⁺ transport in the presence of Na⁺. A high selectivity of cereal roots for transport of K⁺ [29] could be an alternative explaination for increased K⁺ content in this study.

It has been known that anoxia eliminates or strongly inhibits active ion transport [11], so that any outward transport of Na^+ that contributes to avoidance of high internal concentration is lost, while K^+ influx is simultaneously arrested. This result is a passive influx of Na^+ with little K^+ influx, so that the

 K^+/Na^+ ratio reaching the shoot is decreased many times under flooding conditions. However, Zhang et al. [57] reported greater loss of K^+ than that of Na^+ during anoxia. Our results did not coincide with this study where K^+/Na^+ ratio in flooded wheat plants was generally higher than in the unflooded analogues. This could be due to improvement of K^+ uptake under anaerobic conditions by addition of Ca^{2+} to the external medium.

Shoot dry mass and finally grain yield were strongly reduced by soil salinization under aerobic conditions. The underlying causes are complex and can range from partial stomatal closure [7], detrimental effects on the photosynthetic enzymes [53] and ion toxicity or nutrient imbalance [31]. Generally, shoot dry mass and grain yield were significantly lower for waterlogged plants than drained plants. In addition, senscence and death of old leaves and sometimes the whole plant (e.g. at $\Psi s = -1.2$ MPa without kinetin) is well documented. Possible reasons for this include lack of nutrients which come from roots, depletion of phytohormones such as cytokinins [8], lack of photosynthate because of ABA accumulation and stomatal closure [55], and ion toxicity due to

accumulation of much Na⁺ and Cl⁻ under flooding conditions (Table 4).

Adaptation of wheat plants to salinity and water-logging, in terms of ion control and growth, was accelerated by exogenously added kinetin. Generally, kinetin treatment protected leaf membranes against either heat or dehydration stress injury compared to untreated parallels (0 mg L⁻¹ Kin). Such effect could be due to the effects of kinetin on cell membrane permeability [51]. Membrane protection by kinetin can improve the tolerance of wheat plants to salinity and saline-anaerobic conditions where the extent of membrane damage is commonly used as a measure of tolerance to various stresses in plants [4, 20, 21] and adjustment to solute transport capabilities across membranes are of paramount importance to salinity adaptation [34].

Kinetin application reduced the harmful effects of saline-anaerobic treatment combination through reduction of inorganic ions (Na $^+$, Ca $^{2+}$ and Cl $^-$) accumulation (Table 4). Such an effect may help the plants to avoid ions toxicity. Also, kinetin improved K $^+$ uptake under salinity and waterlogging stresses, which effectively increased the K $^+$ /Na $^+$ ratio in the tissues. This effect is considered to be important in salt tolerance where maintenance of high cytoplasmic level of K $^+$ is essential for survival in saline habitats [12] and the characteristic of K $^+$ and Na $^+$ transport are determinant of the NaCl tolerance in plants [2].

Kinetin application increased soluble sugar accumulation in wheat plants growing under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. In recent years, increasing attention is being paid to a possible role of carbohydrates availability and utilization in conferring anoxia tolerance [32, 1, 26, 37]. However, the presence of soluble sugar may allow the operation of anaerobic pathways for utilization of carbohydrates under a condition of energy shortage [16, 1]. Also, some authors reported data indicating that carbohydrates supplied exogenously enhance anoxia tolerance in plant tissues [36, 57, 56]. Therefore, it can be concluded that enhancement of wheat growth under anaerobic conditions by kinetin treatment in the present study is partially attributed to increases in soluble sugar which has been reported to play a role in anoxia tolerance [37, 25].

Despite the different external treatment combination in this study, the results indicated significant interactions between soil salinity, soil waterlogging and kinetin on the parameters tested. This means that in natural habitats the plants not only respond to the environmental factors as single factors, but were also affected by their interactions.

Finally, it can be concluded that application of kinetin increase the ability of anoxia-intolerant wheat to grow successfully under severe saline-anaerobic conditions. The effects of kinetin in this respect varied from reduction in inorganic ion accumulation and increasing membranes stability and K^+/Na^+ ratio to enhancement of chlorophyll formation and soluble sugar accumulation. The facts mentioned above make it possible to recommend the treatment of plants grown under conditions of soil salinity and oxygen shortage (as in salt marshes) with solution of kinetin.

References

- Armstrong W, Brandle R and Jackson MB (1994) Mechanisms of flood tolerance in plants. Acta Bot Neer 43: 307–358
- Benlloch M, Ojeda MA, Ramos J and Rodriquez, A (1994) Salt sensitivity and low discrimination between potassium and sodium in bean plants. Plant and Soil 166: 117–123
- Bishoni NR and Krishnamoorthy HN (1992) Effect of waterlogging and gibberellic acid on leaf gas exchange in peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.). Plant Physiol 139: 503–505
- Blum A and Ebercon A (1981) Cell membrane stability as a measure of drought and heat tolerance in wheat. Crop Sci 21: 43–47
- Bohra JS and Dörffling K (1993) Potassium nutrition of rice (Oryza sativa L.) varieties under NaCl salinity. Plant and Soil 152: 299–303
- Botella MA, Martinez V, Pardines J and Cerda A (1997) Salinity induced potassium deficiency in maize plants. J Plant Physiol 150: 200–205
- Brignoli E and Lauteri M (1991) Effect of salinity on stomatal conductance, photosynthetic capacity and carbon isotope discrimination of salt-tolerant (Gossypium hirsutum L.) and salt senstive (Phaseolus vulgaris L) C₃ non. halophytes. Plant Physiol 95: 628–635
- Burrows WJ and Carr DJ (1969) Effects of flooding the root system of sunflower plants on the cytokinin content of the xylem sap. Plant Physiol 22: 1105–1112
- Buysse J and Merckx R (1993) An improved colorimetric method to quantify sugar content of plant tissue. J Exp Bot 44: 1627–1629
- Chang PFL, Damsz B, Kononowicz AK, Reuveni M, Chen Z, Yixu Hedges K, Tseng CC, Singh NK, Binzel ML, Narasimhan ML, Hasegawa PM and Bressan RA (1996) Alteration in cell membrane structure and expression of a membrane-associated protein after adaptation to osmotic stress. Physiol Plant 98: 505–516
- Cheeseman J and Hansan JB (1979) Energy-linked potassium influx as related to cell potential in corn roots. Plant Physiol 64: 842–845
- Chow WS, Ball MC and Anderson JM (1990) Growth and photosynthetic response of spinach to salinity. Implication of K⁺ nutrition for salt tolerance. Aust J Plant Physiol 17: 553–578

- Cooper A (1982) The effect of salinity and waterlogging on the growth and cation uptake of salt marsh plant. New Phytol 90: 263–275
- Davenport RJ, Reid RJ and Smith FA (1997) Sodium-calcium interactions in two wheat differing in salinity tolerance. Physiol Plant 99: 323–327
- Davies MS and Hillman C (1988) Effect of soil flooding on growth and grain yield of population of tetraploid and hexaploid species of wheat. Ann Bot 62: 597–604
- Drew MC (1990) Sensing soil oxygen. Plant Cell Envir 13: 681–693
- Drew MC (1991) Oxygen deficiency in the root environment and plant mineral nutrition. In: Jackson MB, Davies DD and Lambers H (eds) Plant Life under Oxygen Deprivation, pp 303–316. The Hague, The Netherlands: Academic Publishing
- Everard JD and Drew MC (1989) Water relations of sunflower (Helianthus annuus) shoots during exposure of the root system to oxygen deficiency. J Exp Bot 40: 1255–1264
- Gadallah MAA (1994) The combined effects of acidification stress and kinetin on chlorophyll content, dry matter accumulation and transpiration coefficient in *Sorghum bicolor* plants. Biol Plant 36: 149–153
- Gadallah MAA (1995a) Effect of waterlogging and kinetin on the stability of leaf membranes, leaf osmotic potential, soluble carbon and nitrogen compounds and chlorophyll content of *Ricinus* plants. Phyton 35: 199–208
- Gadallah MAA (1995b) Effect of cadmium and kinetin on chlorophyll content, saccharides and dry matter accumulation in sunflower plants. Biol Plant 37: 233–240
- Gadallah MAA (1996) Abscisic acid, temperature and salinity interactions on growth and some mineral elements in *Carthamus* plants. J Plant Growth Regul 20: 225–236
- Gadallah MAA and Ramadan T (1997) Effects of zinc and salinity on growth and anatomical structure of *Carthamus tinctorius L.* Biol Plant 39: 411–418
- Gorham J, Bristol A, Young EM, Wyn Jones RG and Kashour G (1990) Salt tolerance in the triticeae: K⁺/Na⁺ discrimination in barley. J Exp Bot 41: 1095–1101
- Guglielminetti L, Wu Y, Boschi E, Yamaguchi J, Favatt A, Vergara M, Perata P and Alpi A (1997) Effects of anoxia on sucrose degrading enzymes in cereal seeds. J Plant Physiol 150: 251–258
- Hanhijarvi AM and Fagerstedt KV (1995) Comparison of carbohydrate utilization and energy charge in the yellow flag iris (*Iris pseudacorus*) and garden iris (*Iris germanica*) under anoxia. Physiol Plant 93: 493–497
- He T and Cramer GR (1993) Salt tolerance of rapid-cycling Brassica species in relation to potassium sodium ratio and selectivity at the whole plant and callus levels. J Plant Nutr 16: 1263–1277
- Huang B, Johnson JW, Nesmith S and Bridges CD (1994) Growth, physiological and anatomical responses of two wheat genotypes to waterlogging and nutrient supply. J Exp Bot 45: 193–202
- Jeschke WD (1984) K⁺-Na⁺ exchange at cellular membranes, interacellular compartmentation of cations, and salt tolerance. In: Staples RC and Toenniessen J (eds) In Salinity Tolerance in Plants, pp. 37–66. New York: Wiley
- Johnson CM and Ulrich A (1959) Analytical methods for use in plant analysis. US Department of Agriculture. California University of Agricultural Information Bulletin
- Läuchli A and Epstein E (1990) Plant responses to saline and sodic conditions: In: Tanyi KK (ed) Agricultural Salinity

- Assessment and Management, pp 133–137. New York: American Society of Civil Engineers
- Mohanty B, Wilson PM and Res T (1993) Effects of anoxia on growth and carbohydrate metabolism in suspension cultures of soybean and rice. Phytochemistry 34: 75–82
- Naidoo G, Mckee KL and Mendelssohn IA (1992) Anatomical and metabolic responses to waterlogging and salinity in Spartina alterniflora L. and Spartina potens A. Amer J Bot 79: 765–770
- Niu X, Bressan RA, Hasegawa PM and Pardo JM (1995) Ion homeostasis in NaCl stress environments. Plant Physiol 109: 735–742
- Ostle B (1963) Statistics in Research. Amer, Iowa, USA: The Iowa State University Press
- Perata P, Pozueta-Romero J, Akazawa T and Yamaguchi J (1992) Effect of anoxia on starch breakdown in rice and wheat seeds. Planta 188: 611–618
- Perata P, Guglielminetti L and Alpi A (1996) Anaerobic carbohydrate metabolism in wheat and barley, two anoxia-intolerant cereal seeds. J Exp Bot 47: 999–1006
- Premachandra GS, Saneoka H, Fujita K and Ogata S (1992)
 Osmotic adjustment and stomatal response to water deficits in maize. J Exp Bot 43: 1451–1456
- Reece CP and Riha SJ (1991) Role of root systems of eastern larch and white spruce in response to flooding. Plant Cell Envir 14: 229–234
- Salama FM and Awadalla AA (1987) The effects of different kinetin application methods on some chlorophyll parameters of two crop plants grown under salinity stress. Phyton 21: 181– 193
- Serrato Valenti G, Melone L, Orsi O and Riverost S (1992) Anatomical changes in *Prosopis cineraria* (L.) Druce seedlings growing at different levels of NaCl salinity. Ann Bot 70: 399–404
- Singh BP, Tucker KL, Sutton JD and Bhardwai HL (1991)
 Flooding reduces gas exchange and growth in snap bean. Hort
 Science 26: 372–373
- Smith RCG, Mason WK, Meyer WS and Barrs HD (1983)
 Irrigation in Australia: development and future prospects.
 Advances in Irrigation 2: 99–153
- 44. Tal M and Shannon MC (1983) Salt tolerance in the wild relatives of the cultivated tomato: Response of Lycopersicum esculentum, L. Checsmoni, L. peruvianum, Solanum pennellii and F₁ hybrids to high salinity. Aust J Plant Physiol 10: 109–117
- Tood GW and Basler E (1965) Fate of various protoplasmic constituents in droughted wheat plants. Phyton 22: 79– 85
- Van der Moezel PG, Watson LE and Bell DT (1989) Gas exchange responses of two *Eucalyptus* species to salinity and waterlogging. Tree Physiol 5: 251–257
- Visser EJW, Heijink CJ, Van Hout KJGM, Voesenek LACJ, Barendse GWM and Blom CWPM (1995) Regulatory role of auxin in adventitious root formation in two species of *Rumex*, differing in their sensitivity to waterlogging. Physiol Plant 93: 116–122
- 48. Wainwright SJ (1984) Adaptations of plants to flooding with salt water. In: Kozlowsk TT (ed) Flooding and Plant Growth, pp 295–343. New York: Academic Press
- Wample RL and Thornton RK (1984) Differences in the response of sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) subjected to flooding and drought stress. Physiol Plant 61: 611–616

- Weatherley PE and Barrs C (1962) A re-examination of the relative turgidity technique for estimating water deficits in leaves. Aust J Biol Sci 15: 413–428
- Williams S and Hester P (1983) Kinetin increases water permeability of phosphatidylcholine lipid biolayers. Plant Physiol 71: 524–530
- Yamada Y, Hara Y, Katagh H and Senda M (1980) Protoplast fusion, the effect of low temperature on the membrane fluidity of cultured cells. Plant Physiol 65: 1098–1102
- 53. Yeo AR, Caporn SJM and Flowers TJ (1985) The effect of salinity upon photosynthesis in rice (*Oryza sativa L*): gas exchange by individual leaves in relation to their salt content. J Exp Bot 36: 1240–1243
- Yeo AR, Yeo ME and Flowers TJ (1987) The contribution of an apoplastic pathway to sodium uptake by rice roots in saline conditions. J Exp Bot 38: 1141–1163
- 55. Zhang J and Zhang X (1994) Can early wilting of old leaves account for much of the ABA accumulation in flooded pea plants? J Exp Bot 45: 1335–1342
- Zhang Q and Greenway H (1994) Anoxia tolerance and anaerobic catabolism of aged beetroot storage tissues. J Exp Bot 45: 567–575
- Zhang Q, Läuchli A and Greenway H (1992) Effects of anoxia on solute loss from beetroot strorage tissues. J Exp Bot 43: 897–905