



1 Article

2 **Dissecting wheat grain yield drivers in a mapping**
3 **population in the UK**4 João P. Pennacchi ^{1,2,*}, Elizabete Carmo-Silva ^{1,2}, P. John Andralojc ², David Feuerhelm ³, Stephen
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16 **Abstract:** Improving crop yields arises as a solution to ensure food security in the future scenarios
17 of growing world population, changes in food consumption patterns, climate change and limitation
18 on resources allocated to agriculture. Defining traits that can be reliable cornerstones to yield
19 improvement and understanding their interaction and influence on yield formation is an important
20 part of ensuring the success of breeding programs for high yield. Traits that can drive yield
21 increases, such as light interception and conversion efficiency, carbon assimilation and allocation,
22 were intensively phenotyped in a double-haploid wheat mapping population grown under field
23 conditions in the UK. Traits were analysed for their correlation to yield, genetic variation and broad-
24 sense heritability. Canopy cover and reflectance, biomass production and allocation to stems and
25 leaves, as well as flag leaf photosynthesis at a range of light levels measured pre- and post-anthesis
26 correlated with plant productivity and contributed to explain different strategies of wheat lines to
27 attain high grain yields. This research mapped multiple traits related to light conversion into
28 biomass. The findings highlight the need to phenotype traits throughout the growing season and
29 support the approach of targeting photosynthesis and its components as traits for breeding high
30 yielding wheat.

31 **Keywords:** *Triticum aestivum*; Crop improvement; Physiological breeding; Photosynthesis;
32 Productivity; Food security

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Global food security is defined as a situation where all people at all times have access to safe,
36 nutritious and affordable food that provides the foundation for active and healthy lives [1]. Ensuring
37 food security in the near future is challenging, particularly when considering the predicted scenarios
38 of growing world population [2], changes in food consumption patterns [3], extreme climatic events
39 [4] and the need for sustainable use of resources in agricultural activities [5].

40 Increasing food production is one of the alternatives to ensure that food availability is kept ahead of
41 food demand. Food production can be increased by: expansion of croplands, intensification of land
42 use and increase in yields. Increasing yields might be responsible for around 77% of food production
43 increases by 2050 [6]. In opposition to the required yield increases, a trend of stagnating yields has
44 been observed for the main crops around the world [7].

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45 For rice, maize, wheat and soybean, which represent two-thirds of the total caloric intake worldwide
46 [8], yields have stagnated since around 2002 with increases in production being pushed by expanding
47 the cultivated land area for these crops [7]. For wheat in the UK, yields have stagnated at around 8 t
48 ha⁻¹ since 1996 [9]. Understanding yield formation and dry matter accumulation is therefore crucial
49 to reveal new target traits, from canopy to molecular levels, to be exploited in the process of breeding
50 for high yield [10].

51 Yield formation is a process of energy conversion and accumulation. The radiative energy available
52 in sunlight is intercepted by plants and converted during photosynthesis to molecules that can be
53 stored in the form of dry matter and allocated to plant organs [11]. Therefore, crop yield potential
54 (Y_p) is a function of the incident sunlight radiation (RAD) and the efficiency of the plant to intercept
55 (ϵ_i) and convert (ϵ_c) light into biomass, as well as the efficiency of partitioning of the biomass (ϵ_p) to
56 the organ of economic interest (e.g. the grain): $Y_p = RAD \cdot \epsilon_i \cdot \epsilon_c \cdot \epsilon_p$ [12].

57 The Green Revolution was very successful in increasing wheat yields by using genes encoding for
58 dwarfing of the plants [13]. This provided a higher efficiency in allocating plant biomass to the grain
59 during grain filling, which led to an increase in harvest index [14]. It was also related to an increase
60 in the area covered by leaves and the speed of canopy closure which improved interception efficiency.
61 However, the potential increases in interception and partitioning efficiency are currently limited in
62 wheat as ϵ_i and ϵ_p have reached values close to their theoretical limits [15]. Therefore, although solar
63 radiation is not manageable, ϵ_c improvement is still a target for increasing yield potential.

64 ϵ_c is related to all the steps involved in the conversion of intercepted light to molecules that can be
65 stored in the form of biomass, or the light use efficiency (LUE). LUE is the ratio of net primary
66 productivity (NPP) to intercepted photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) [16] or simply the crop
67 photosynthetic efficiency [17]. At current atmospheric conditions, C3 photosynthesis has a theoretical
68 maximum efficiency of 4.6%. However, practical efficiency is around 2% and the average, in field
69 conditions, less than 1%, showing potential for improvement [18]. Possible strategies to improve
70 photosynthesis, and consequently light use efficiency, include overcoming the limitations imposed
71 on the photosynthetic process, such as: CO₂ diffusion and concentration, the regeneration of Calvin-
72 Benson cycle intermediates, Rubisco efficiency and light reactions [19].

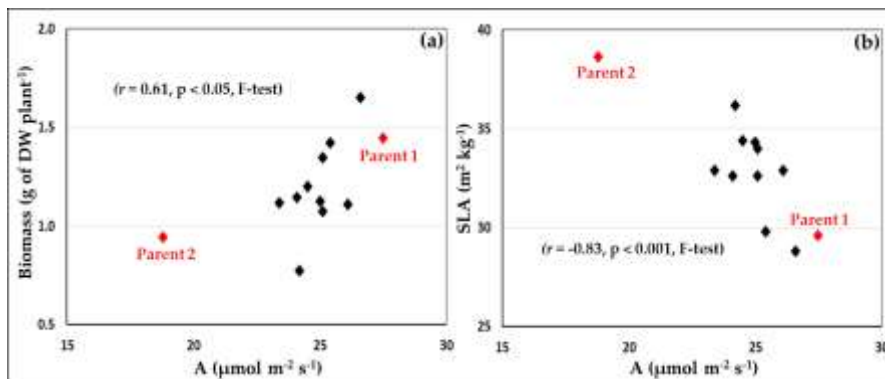
73 There is a multitude of plant traits, at different plant structural levels, that may contribute to yield
74 improvement. Selecting possible targets can be a challenging and confusing process, although there
75 are some directions that can be taken to make the process more efficient. Selection of target traits for
76 breeding for high yield need to be based on: a) the correlation between the trait and yield; b) the
77 variation of the trait for the species or within a population thereof; c) the trait stability (heritability)
78 and d) the influence of genetic x environment interaction on the trait [20]. Although the selection of
79 traits to focus on is a crucial step for the breeding of high yielding genotypes, understanding
80 interactions and trade-offs between traits, as well as their behaviour along the crop cycle have an
81 important role in defining yield improvement strategies.

82 This research aimed to identify the main yield drivers, and their interaction, for a double-haploid
83 wheat mapping population grown in the UK. The phenotyping was based on the yield formation
84 equation and the processes associated with the three efficiencies, ϵ_i , ϵ_c and ϵ_p , with a focus on ϵ_c , due
85 to its greater scope for improvement. The contribution of multiple traits assessed throughout the
86 growing season to wheat productivity and their interaction to define different strategies to attain high
87 grain yields are discussed.

88 2. Materials and Methods

89 2.1 Plant material and field experiments

90 A mapping population comprised of double-haploid lines (DHL) generated by Syngenta
 91 (Cambridge, UK) was used. For the selection of the population, 12 wheat cultivars were used,
 92 including 11 parents of mapping populations available at Syngenta (Cassius, Gallant, Gatsby,
 93 Hereford, JB Diego, KWS Kielder, KWS Santiago, Panorama, Player, Revelation, Stigg and SY Epsom),
 94 and Gatsby, used as an internal control, having been extensively characterised in previous studies.
 95 The 12 cultivars were grown in a randomized block design experiment with 4 replicate plants per
 96 cultivar distributed into 4 blocks. The experiment was conducted in August/September 2014 at
 97 Rothamsted Research, under glasshouse conditions (26/20°C, day/night temperatures and no control
 98 of day length) with 1 plant per pot (biological replicate). Plants were screened for their photosynthetic
 99 traits, leaf characteristics and biomass production at the end of the tillering growth stage. The
 100 youngest fully-expanded leaf in five-week old plants of the 12 cultivars was analysed with a portable
 101 infra-red gas analyser (IRGA) system (LI-6400XTR and leaf chamber 6400-40; LI-COR, Lincoln, USA)
 102 for net CO₂ assimilation at 25°C, ambient CO₂ concentration (400 μmol CO₂ mol⁻¹ air) and at high light
 103 level of 1500 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Subsequently, the leaf area and dry weight of the leaf used for gas-
 104 exchange measurements was determined, as well as the total above ground plant biomass (dry
 105 weight, g). Rates of net CO₂ assimilation at ambient CO₂ and high light, specific leaf area and
 106 aboveground biomass were used to select the two parents of the mapping population for this study
 107 (Figure 1). Parent 1 was characterised by high rates of net CO₂ assimilation and aboveground biomass
 108 production, and low specific leaf area, while parent 2 had low rates of net CO₂ assimilation and
 109 aboveground biomass production, and high specific leaf area. It was anticipated that a high level of
 110 genetic variation for the traits of interest would be present in a population having parents with
 111 contrasting phenotypes, which would enable dissection of traits driving grain yield.



112

113 **Figure 1.** Relationship between the net CO₂ assimilation at high light and ambient CO₂ (A) and (a) total
 114 aboveground plant biomass (dry weight, DW) or (b) specific leaf area (SLA) of the leaf used for photosynthesis
 115 measurements. Conditions for infra-red gas analysis were: reference CO₂ = 400 μmol mol⁻¹, PPF = 1500 μmol
 116 m⁻² s⁻¹ and block temperature = 25°C. Values are means of four replicate plants.

117 The double-haploid mapping population, comprising the two parents and 119 lines, was grown at
 118 the Rothamsted Research farm, in Harpenden, UK, between 2014 and 2015 (sown 20/10/2014 and
 119 harvested 23/08/2015). The experiment was planted in the Pastures field, in a typical Batcombe soil
 120 [21], after an oilseed rape crop, in 2 × 1 m (2 m²) plots of 6 rows, with sowing rate of 350 seeds m⁻²,
 121 and organized in three randomized blocks. To obtain powerful comparisons and to assess spatial
 122 variation over the whole experiment (32.5 × 73.75 m), the parents were replicated six times in each
 123 block. Commercial cultivars Avalon, Brompton, Cadenza, Gatsby and Gladiator were also included
 124 (once per block) for comparison as controls. Application of fungicides, insecticides and herbicides, as
 125 well as fertilizers followed Rothamsted farm practices.

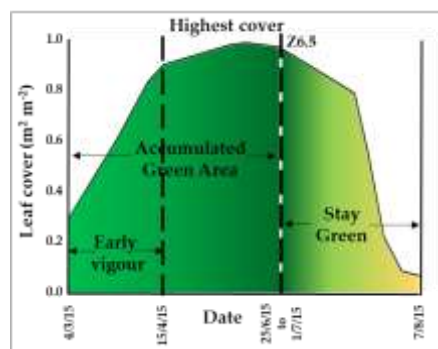
126 2.2 Crop development

127 The date at which half of the plants in a plot reached a given growth stage [22] was monitored
 128 throughout the growing season. The frequency of crop development monitoring depended on the
 129 crop stage, being less frequent when crop development was slower (from tillering (Z2) to booting
 130 (Z4) stages) and more frequent when crop development was faster (from booting (Z4) to dough
 131 development (Z8) stages). Senescence was measured from anthesis to the end of the season using the
 132 wheat senescence scale [23].

133 2.3 Phenotyping

134 A full set of measurements was taken at three specific development stages: vegetative growth (*Veg* –
 135 Z3.2), pre-anthesis (*Pre-A* – Z4.5) and 7 days post-anthesis (*Post-A* – Z6.5+7d). Other measurements
 136 were carried more frequently throughout the growing season, as detailed below.

137 Leaf cover: horizontal photographs of the canopy from above, parallel to the soil surface of the plot,
 138 were taken weekly from March (Z2.4) to August (Senescence score 10) using a digital camera. The
 139 pictures were analysed using the BreedPix open access software that outputs the area covered by
 140 green tissue as a percentage of the total area [24]. From this data, the following indices were calculated
 141 (Figure 2): early vigour (calculated as the sum of the weekly single measurements of leaf cover from
 142 the first measurement date (4/3/15) and the date when plots reached an average of 90% of area
 143 covered by leaves (15/4/15)), accumulated green area (calculated as the sum of the weekly single
 144 measurements of leaf cover from the first measurement date (4/3/2015) to the date when plants
 145 reached Z6.5 (between 26/6/15 and 1/7/15 according to plants' development in each plot), maximum
 146 leaf cover (maximum value of leaf cover over the season) and stay green (calculated as the sum of the
 147 weekly single measurements of leaf cover from Z6.5 to the last measurement date (7/8/15)).



148

149 **Figure 2.** Graphic representation of leaf cover indices. Early vigour, as accumulated leaf area until
 150 90% of plot area cover by leaves was reached, accumulated green area, as accumulated leaf area
 151 until flowering, highest cover and stay green, as accumulated leaf area from flowering to harvest.

152 Leaf Area Index (LAI): measured at soil level at the 3 crop development stages analysed (*Veg*, *Pre-A*
 153 and *Post-A*) using a LI-COR LAI-2200 plant canopy analyser (LI-COR, Lincoln, US). Three
 154 measurements were taken between the second and third row of each plot at the 25, 50 and 75
 155 percentiles of plot length and mean values per plot determined.

156 Height: crop height at the 3 crop development stages (*Veg*, *Pre-A* and *Post-A*). Measurements were
 157 taken from the soil to the top most part of the crop, with a single measurement taken per plot.

158 Peduncle length: the distance between the flag leaf collar and the bottom of the spike was measured
 159 for three plants per plot at *Post-A* and mean values per plot calculated.

160 Reflectance: measured 75 cm above the canopy at the 3 crop development stages (*Veg*, *Pre-A* and *Post-*
161 *A*) using a HandySpec System (TEC5, Oberursel, Germany) reflectance meter. From the reflectance
162 measurements a set of traits was calculated, using the software accompanying the HandySpec System
163 meter: NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), Sra (Simple Ratio), RARSa (Ratio analysis
164 of reflectance Chlorophyll a), RARSb (Ratio analysis of reflectance Chlorophyll b), RARSc (Ratio
165 analysis of reflectance Carotenoid), NPQI (Normalized pheophytinization index), SIPI (Structural
166 Independent Pigment Index), PRI (Photochemical Reflectance Index) and WI (Water Index) according
167 to [25].

168 Gas-exchange analysis: measured at *Pre-A* and *Post-A* for the flag leaf in one plant per plot with a
169 portable infra-red gas analyser (IRGA) system (LI-6400XTR and chamber 6400-40; LI-COR, Lincoln,
170 USA), using the multiphase flash method [26]. Plant harvest and flag leaf preparation was carried
171 out according to the methodology described by [27]. Leaf gas exchange parameters were measured
172 at an ambient CO₂ concentration of 400 µmol CO₂ µmol air⁻¹, light levels (Photosynthetic Photon
173 Flux Density, PPFD) of 1800, 1000, 500, 250, 100 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, vapour pressure deficit of ~0.9
174 kPa and block temperature of 20°C. Maximum net photosynthesis (*A*_{max}) was measured at 1200
175 µmol CO₂ µmol air⁻¹ and 1800 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Fluorescence measurements used the following
176 settings for the multiphase flash method: Ramp 40%, Phase I 300, Phase II 200, Phase III 300, Target
177 7, Rate 20 kHz, Filter 50 Hz.

178 Flag leaf and plant traits: the flag leaves analysed for gas-exchange measurements were also used for
179 the following measurements: leaf thickness, length and width, chlorophyll content (SPAD 502,
180 Minolta), flag leaf area and weight. The harvested plant shoot, used for flag leaf analysis, was also
181 weighted. The measurements were done at *Pre-A* and *Post-A*. At *Post-A* only, plant shoot, stem
182 thickness and number of green leaves were also determined, as well as the following spike
183 characteristics: spike dry weight, length, width, presence of awns and number of spikelets.

184 In-growing-season biomass analysis: at *Post-A*, the tillers in a 50 cm row (in the first quarter of the
185 third row in each plot) were manually harvested, with the following measurements being taken: tiller
186 count, leaves, stems and spike dry weight, according to methodology described by [23].

187 End-of-growing-season biomass analysis: at physiological maturity (Z9.9), the tillers in a 50 cm row
188 (in the third quarter of the third row in the plot) were manually harvested and tiller count, straw,
189 spike and grain dry weight, grain moisture and grain number were measured. The following traits
190 were calculated: harvest index, grain weight per ear, grain number per ear, thousand-grain weight,
191 estimated yield, and estimated biomass production [23].

192 Combine harvest: plants were harvested using a Haldrup-C65 (Haldrup, Le Mans, France) plot
193 combine. Grain weight for each plot was determined by the combine. Grain moisture was measured
194 using a sub-sample of grains from each plot, at harvest time, and grain weight was normalized to
195 15% moisture content. Grain weight per plot was corrected for the two sections harvested by hand
196 and grain yield estimated in tons per hectare at 85% dry matter.

197 Phenotypic traits were grouped into four categories: leaf and canopy (leaf cover, leaf area index,
198 height, peduncle length, flag leaf and plant characteristics), biomass (in-growing-season and end-of-
199 growing-season biomass traits and grain yield from the combine), reflectance (reflectance indices)
200 and gas-exchange (measured and calculated from the IRGA analysis).

201 2.4 Statistical analysis

202 The method of residual maximum likelihood (REML) was used to fit a linear mixed model to each
203 measured trait to test for any statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, Chi-squared test) variation due to first-
204 order auto-regressive spatial trends over the rows and columns in the field design. Predicted means

205 from the model fitted to each trait were used in subsequent correlation analyses. These are the means
206 expected in the absence of any spatial trends. Hence, of the traits reported here, some evidence ($p <$
207 0.05 , Chi-squared test) of minor trend over rows was found for net photosynthesis (A), and stomatal
208 conductance (g_s), but only at 1000 and $1800 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Pearson Product Moment (PPM)
209 correlation coefficients (r) were calculated for all the pairs of traits measured to evaluate pairwise
210 association (F-tests).

211 To compare different strategies of high yield formation, lines were ranked in terms of grain yield.
212 Also, for each trait, values were ranked as high (upper quartile), intermediate (two intermediate
213 quartiles) and low (lower quartile). The traits included in this analysis were chosen based on their
214 correlation to yield, their heritability and variation in the population, and collinearity to other traits.
215 For the lines in the higher quartile, an investigation of traits influencing yield was performed.

216 All statistical analyses were performed using the GenStat 17th Edition software (VSN International
217 Ltd., Hemel Hempstead, UK).

218 2.5 Heritability

219 Broad-sense heritability (H^2) was calculated for all the traits measured in each season using the
220 procedure described by [28], based on the ratio of the between line variance component, $\text{Var}(L)$, to
221 the sum of this plus the residual variance accounting for the three replicates per cultivar, i.e. $\text{Var}(e)/3$,
222 as estimated by best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs), using the results of the linear mixed model
223 analyses.

224 2.6 Genetic variation

225 The genetic variation of each measured trait was calculated by the ratio of the estimated standard
226 deviation of the trait (σ) to the estimated trait average (μ), i.e. the coefficient of variation. This
227 represents a normalized variation of each trait for the mapping population in the growing season.

228 3. Results

229 3.1 Traits within the same group of measurements presented high collinearity

230 The total number of measured/calculated traits was over 150 and multiple correlation trends between
231 traits were observed. The Pearson coefficient (r) indicates the level of correlation between a pair of
232 traits. It varies from a strong negative correlation (-1) to a strong positive correlation ($+1$). Positive
233 correlation between a pair of traits means that increases in one trait are related to increases in the
234 other. Negative correlations have an opposite meaning, with increases in one trait being related to
235 decreases in the other or vice versa. As some traits were measured using the same instrument, at the
236 same time, or were calculated from a single measurement, a common trend of collinearity was
237 observed within groups of traits. Strong positive and negative correlations were observed between
238 pairs of traits mainly inside the groups comprising reflectance indices and gas-exchange
239 measurements (Figure S1). Considering the high number of traits measured in the current study,
240 when collinearity was high inside a group of traits, the selection of a few or a single trait that
241 significantly correlated to the trait of interest (grain yield) and to the other group traits was selected
242 for subsequent analysis to simplify the interpretation of the results.

243 3.2 Correlation to grain yield varied at different developmental stages

244 The correlation between grain yield and specific measured traits changed throughout the growing
245 season depending on the crop developmental stage. This suggests that some traits might be more, or
246 less, important to final yield definition in different stages of crop development. Significant correlation
247 to yield is one of the important characteristics for a trait to be chosen as a potential target for yield

248 improvement in a breeding programme, as well as high heritability and high genetic variation.
249 Several traits correlated significantly ($p < 0.05$, F-test) to yield, but also correlated to other traits in the
250 same group to which they pertained. For instance, reflectance indices at *Veg* stage (NDVI, SRA,
251 RASRc and SIPI) correlated positively to yield but also correlated strongly to each other. The set of
252 traits presented in Table 1 was selected for their correlation to yield, their high genetic variation and
253 high heritability. Traits within the same group that correlated strongly to the selected trait and had
254 weaker correlation to yield are not shown.

255 3.2.1 Leaf and Canopy

256 Canopy cover and longevity traits correlated positively to grain yield, including: accumulated green
257 area until Z6.5 ($r = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$), highest cover ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.001$, F-test), early vigour ($r = 0.27$, $p <$
258 0.01 , F-test) and stay green ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$, F-test) (Table 1). Although accumulated green area and
259 highest cover showed similar correlation to yield and heritability ($H^2 = 0.77$ for both), accumulated
260 green area presented greater genetic variation ($\sigma/\mu = 0.03$) than highest cover ($\sigma/\mu = 0.01$) in the
261 population (Table 1). This can be explained by the fact that although every genotype covered nearly
262 100% of the soil area in the plots at their highest cover, there were different rates of accumulation of
263 green area to reach the highest cover.

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Table 1. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) for correlation with grain yield, genetic variation (σ/μ) and heritability (H^2) of physiological traits measured in a double-haploid wheat mapping population grown in the UK.

	Leaf and canopy				Biomass			
	Early Vigour	Acc. green area	Highest cover	Stay green	Leaves weight (Post-A)	Stem weight (Post-A)	Total (Post-A)	biomass
Correlation (r)	0.27**	0.43***	0.42***	0.26**	0.25**	0.23*	0.24*	
Variation (σ/μ)	0.09	0.03	0.01	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.08	
Heritability (H^2)	0.50	0.77	0.77	0.78	0.42	0.42	0.24	
Reflectance indices								
	NDVI (Veg)	PRI (Veg)	WI (Veg)	NDVI (Pre-A)	PRI (Pre-A)	WI (Pre-A)	PRI (Post-A)	WI (Post-A)
Correlation (r)	0.49***	0.48***	-0.36***	0.28**	0.44***	-0.21*	0.35***	-0.42***
Variation (σ/μ)	0.02	0.70	0.01	0.01	1.98	0.02	0.33	0.01
Heritability (H^2)	0.71	0.89	0.57	0.79	0.87	0.70	0.93	0.79
Gas-exchange								
	A _{Q1800} (Pre-A)	A _{Q1000} (Pre-A)	A _{Q500} (Pre-A)	A _{Q250} (Pre-A)	A _{Q100} (Pre-A)	A _{max} (Pre-A)	A _{Q1800} (Post-A)	A _{Q1000} (Post-A)
Correlation (r)	0.28**	0.29**	0.28**	0.28**	0.23*	0.21*	0.18*	0.19*
Variation (σ/μ)	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.06
Heritability (H^2)	0.59	0.61	0.61	0.47	0.28	0.54	0.59	0.61

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Traits are grouped according to Leaf and canopy, Biomass, Reflectance indices and Gas-exchange. Significance levels for correlations are given by an F-test on 1 and 119 degrees of freedom: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Genetic variation is calculated as the ratio of the standard deviation (σ) and the average of each trait (μ) and provides a normalized dispersion index. Heritability (H^2) is calculated according to [28] and represents the ratio of the genotypic variance component, $\text{Var}(L)$, to the total of this plus the residual variance accounting for the three biological replicates per genotype, i.e. $\text{Var}(e)/3$. Veg, vegetative growth (Z3.2); Pre-A, pre-anthesis (Z4.5); Post-A, 7 days post-anthesis (Z6.5+7d). NDVI, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; PRI, Photochemical Reflectance Index; WI, Water Index. A_Q, flag leaf net photosynthesis (A) at ambient CO₂ and a light level Q; A_{max}, net photosynthesis at 1200 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \mu\text{mol air}^{-1}$ and a light level of 1800 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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273 3.2.2 Biomass

274 Plant biomass accumulated at *Post-A* also correlated positively to grain yield. Biomass accumulation
275 in stems ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$, F-test) and leaves ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$, F-test), as well as total plant biomass (r
276 $= 0.24$, $p < 0.05$, F-test), correlated to grain yield (Table 1). The positive correlation between biomass
277 accumulated in stems at *Post-A* and grain yield may be explained by grain filling being the period of
278 greatest availability of dry matter to be re-allocated from the stem to the grain. *Post-A* leaf biomass
279 also correlated to *Post-A* specific leaf area ($r = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$, F-test) and leaf area index ($r = 0.42$, $p <$
280 0.001 , F-test), and to stay green ($r = 0.54$, $p < 0.001$, F-test). These multiple correlations reflect a greater
281 capacity to intercept and convert energy *Post-A*, generating photoassimilates that sustain grain filling
282 and thus contribute to grain yield.

283 3.2.3 Reflectance indices

284 NDVI, as a measurement of green biomass, correlated positively to the leaf cover traits as well as to
285 grain yield at *Veg* ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.001$, F-test) and *Pre-A* ($r = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$, F-test) (Table 1). NDVI
286 correlation to yield decreased during the season (at *Post-A*, $r = 0.17$, $p = 0.06$, F-test). PRI, an indirect
287 measurement of canopy light use efficiency, correlated to photosynthesis and other gas-exchange
288 traits, as well as to grain yield at *Veg* ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.001$, F-test), *Pre-A* ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$, F-test) and
289 *Post-A* ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.001$, F-test) (Table 1). WI is a measurement of canopy water stress, inverse to the
290 canopy water content. This explains its negative correlation to yield, as higher values of WI are related
291 to lower canopy water content. WI correlated negatively to yield at *Veg* ($r = -0.36$, $p < 0.001$, F-test),
292 *Pre-A* ($r = -0.21$, $p < 0.05$, F-test) and *Post-A* ($r = -0.42$, $p < 0.001$, F-test) (Table 1), suggesting that water
293 could be limiting to grain yield, especially *Post-A*.

294 3.2.4 Gas-exchange

295 *Pre-A* flag leaf photosynthesis (*A*) measured at all light levels and ambient CO_2 , as well as high light
296 and high CO_2 concentration (*A*_{max}), correlated positively to grain yield (Table 1). *Post-A*, the
297 correlations were less strong and only significant for *A* measured at light levels higher than 1000
298 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. *Pre-A*, both *A* and stomatal conductance (*g*_s) correlated to yield at all light levels,
299 while *Post-A*, at light levels equal or above 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, *A* correlated to yield but *g*_s was
300 not correlated to yield (Table 2). Both *Pre-A* and *Post-A*, the correlation between *A* and *g*_s was very
301 strong at the high light levels, suggesting a diffusion limitation to CO_2 assimilation. This correlation
302 decreased at lower light intensities, especially at 100 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, suggesting that
303 photosynthesis was limited not just by diffusion, but also by the biochemical pathways involved in
304 carbon fixation and the light reactions (Table 2).

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306 **Table 2.** Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between pre-anthesis (*Pre-A*; Z4.5) or post-anthesis (*Post-A*; Z6.5+7d)
 307 net photosynthesis (A), stomatal conductance (gs) and grain yield in a double-haploid wheat mapping
 308 population grown in the UK.

	Light levels ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)				
	1800	1000	500	250	100
<i>Pre-A</i>					
A - gs	0.92**	0.88**	0.82**	0.76**	0.55**
A - Yield	0.28**	0.29**	0.28**	0.28**	0.23*
gs - Yield	0.22*	0.21*	0.21*	0.21*	0.21*
<i>Post-A</i>					
A - gs	0.80**	0.85**	0.77**	0.73**	0.49**
A - Yield	0.18*	0.19*	0.17	0.12	0.08
gs - Yield	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.16	0.16

309 Significance levels for correlations are given by an F test on 1 and 119 degrees of freedom: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

310 3.3 High yielding lines presented different strategies to build grain yield

311 Lines in the high yielding group (higher quartile for grain yield within the population) presented
 312 different strategies to achieve higher productivity (Table 3), based on the traits with stronger
 313 correlation to yield (Table 1). Lines relied on increased early vigour and green mass accumulation
 314 with lower photosynthetic rates (e.g., line 223), and/or on the re-allocation of pre-stored biomass to
 315 the grain (e.g., line 223 and 315) and/or on the maintenance of carbon uptake levels in the flag leaf
 316 during grain filling (e.g., line 140).

317 The highest yielding line in the population (223) presented high canopy cover and longevity, and
 318 high biomass accumulation *Post-A*, despite having low photosynthesis per leaf area *Pre-A* and *Post-*
 319 *A* (Table 3). Line 246, on the other hand, had low canopy cover and longevity and intermediate values
 320 of accumulated biomass *Post-A*, but high values for photosynthesis per leaf area both *Pre-A* and *Post-*
 321 *A*. Line 399 presented intermediate values for canopy cover and longevity, biomass accumulated
 322 *Post-A* and photosynthesis *Pre-A* and *Post-A*. Although the difference between *Pre-A* and *Post-A*
 323 photosynthesis did not correlate with grain yield ($p < 0.05$, F-test; data not shown), line 140, which
 324 maintained similar levels of photosynthesis for *Pre-A* and *Post-A*, reached the second highest yield in
 325 the population, supporting the importance of sustained flag leaf photosynthesis throughout grain
 326 filling.

327 The two parents of the mapping population presented intermediate yields and different patterns for
 328 the analysed traits (Table 3). The photosynthesis patterns in the experiment were consistent with
 329 those observed during the preliminary glasshouse experiments that led to selection of the mapping
 330 population, with Parent 1 presenting higher photosynthesis values than Parent 2 (Figure 1 and Table
 331 3). The correlations between yield and multiple traits and their variation over the growing season, as
 332 well as the diverse strategies of achieving high yields observed, demonstrate the complexity of the
 333 interaction of many components to determine grain yield and the need of an integrated approach for
 334 its understanding and prediction.

335 **Table 3.** Strategies for yield formation in the 31 highest yielding lines of a double-haploid wheat mapping population grown in the UK.

Lines	Leaf and Canopy			Biomass			Reflectance indices						Gas-exchange		Yield (85% DM)		
	Early vigour	Acc. green area	Stay green	Leaves weight (Post-A)	Stems weight (Post-A)	Total biomass (Post-A)	NDVI (Veg)	NDVI (Pre-A)	PRI x100 (Veg)	PRI x100 (Pre-A)	WI (Veg)	WI (Pre-A)	WI (Post-A)	Flag Leaf A (Pre-A)		Flag Leaf A (Post-A)	
Correlation to Yield	0.27	0.43	0.26	0.25	0.23	0.24	0.49	0.28	0.48	0.44	0.35	-0.36	-0.21	-0.42	0.30	0.19	-
Line 223	3.2	11.2	3.2	29	79	139	0.92	0.95	-1.5	0.2	-2.1	0.93	0.90	0.79	17.0	15.2	10.7
Line 140	3.3	11.1	3.4	24	56	110	0.92	0.94	-0.4	0.5	-1.8	0.94	0.92	0.79	17.5	17.5	10.7
Line 013	3.1	11.1	3.0	23	69	126	0.93	0.96	0.0	0.8	-1.6	0.94	0.88	0.78	16.8	18.1	10.6
Line 315	3.1	11.2	3.0	29	68	129	0.92	0.95	0.0	0.2	-1.5	0.93	0.91	0.78	17.5	14.7	10.6
Line 022	2.6	10.6	2.5	22	77	144	0.91	0.95	-0.8	0.7	-2.1	0.94	0.90	0.79	17.5	16.2	10.5
Line 331	2.9	10.9	2.9	24	63	124	0.91	0.96	-1.2	0.9	-2.6	0.95	0.91	0.79	18.1	16.6	10.4
Line 405	3.1	10.9	3.0	26	72	133	0.91	0.95	-1.3	0.5	-0.9	0.95	0.92	0.79	18.2	15.7	10.3
Line 367	2.8	11.3	2.9	27	67	132	0.93	0.96	0.1	1.0	-1.7	0.93	0.89	0.78	17.7	15.6	10.2
Line 348	3.5	11.2	3.4	23	68	122	0.92	0.96	-0.3	0.6	-1.5	0.94	0.87	0.79	18.6	16.6	10.2
Line 126	3.2	10.9	3.1	25	67	125	0.92	0.94	-0.4	0.6	-1.3	0.94	0.93	0.78	18.4	16.3	10.2
Line 395	2.6	11.1	2.7	23	68	130	0.93	0.95	-0.2	0.9	-1.1	0.93	0.89	0.78	19.2	16.7	10.2
Line 143	3.0	10.6	2.9	26	73	134	0.91	0.96	-1.7	0.9	-1.2	0.95	0.90	0.79	18.0	17.0	10.2
Line 210	3.2	11.1	3.2	28	74	138	0.91	0.96	-1.3	0.6	-1.9	0.94	0.90	0.78	17.6	14.3	10.2
Line 394	2.3	10.6	2.4	23	74	147	0.93	0.96	-0.4	1.1	-2.3	0.93	0.87	0.79	18.4	14.8	10.2
Line 364	2.8	11.0	2.9	26	76	143	0.92	0.96	-0.2	1.0	-1.5	0.94	0.87	0.80	17.5	14.3	10.2
Line 382	2.6	11.0	2.6	25	72	140	0.92	0.95	-1.0	0.4	-2.7	0.92	0.89	0.79	18.3	14.0	10.1
Line 246	2.4	10.5	2.4	21	68	133	0.90	0.94	-2.1	0.5	-1.2	0.94	0.88	0.79	19.4	17.8	10.1
Line 031	2.7	10.9	2.7	22	71	137	0.91	0.95	-1.4	0.7	-1.9	0.94	0.89	0.80	19.0	16.3	10.1
Line 366	2.6	11.0	2.6	23	68	133	0.92	0.94	-1.6	0.0	-2.2	0.92	0.91	0.78	17.2	15.0	10.1
Line 226	3.1	11.3	3.1	23	65	117	0.92	0.95	-0.5	0.7	-2.2	0.93	0.89	0.79	18.0	15.9	10.1
Line 239	2.7	10.8	2.8	21	62	116	0.91	0.95	-1.9	0.5	-2.2	0.95	0.91	0.80	18.8	16.2	10.0
Line 208	2.8	11.3	2.9	20	65	118	0.92	0.95	-0.5	0.6	-1.8	0.94	0.92	0.81	18.6	17.6	10.0
Line 034	2.8	10.4	2.8	21	63	117	0.89	0.95	-2.2	1.2	-1.3	0.95	0.90	0.77	17.7	17.1	10.0
Line 060	2.7	10.8	2.8	21	77	138	0.90	0.96	-1.4	0.7	-1.9	0.94	0.87	0.80	17.1	14.3	10.0
Line 036	2.8	11.1	2.7	26	80	151	0.92	0.95	-1.3	-0.8	-2.5	0.93	0.92	0.80	17.0	16.0	10.0
Line 412	3.0	10.7	2.9	26	78	138	0.92	0.96	-0.5	1.1	-0.9	0.95	0.89	0.78	19.0	16.1	10.0
Line 347	2.7	10.0	2.7	21	64	116	0.89	0.94	-2.8	1.2	-1.0	0.95	0.90	0.79	18.5	15.7	10.0
Line 184	2.5	10.7	2.4	22	75	144	0.90	0.94	-1.3	0.9	-1.2	0.94	0.89	0.78	19.9	17.2	10.0
Line 391	2.5	10.9	2.3	19	61	119	0.92	0.94	-1.4	0.5	-2.3	0.93	0.89	0.79	18.9	15.7	10.0
Line 399	2.6	10.7	2.8	25	73	140	0.92	0.96	-0.2	0.9	-2.0	0.94	0.90	0.79	18.3	16.0	10.0
Line 158	3.1	10.9	3.0	27	77	135	0.91	0.95	-1.0	0.4	-1.2	0.94	0.90	0.79	18.0	15.8	10.0
Parent 1	2.8	10.8	2.8	25	66	130	0.92	0.96	0.1	0.5	-1.6	0.95	0.92	0.79	19.0	15.8	9.7
Parent 2	2.5	10.4	2.5	20	71	130	0.88	0.96	-3.4	0.1	-3.5	0.95	0.89	0.80	16.9	14.1	9.5
Mean pop	2.8	10.8	2.8	23	68	129	0.91	0.95	-1.4	0.4	-1.9	0.94	0.90	0.79	17.9	16.0	9.6
STD pop	0.3	0.3	0.2	2	6	10	0.01	0.01	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.01	0.02	0.01	1.0	0.9	0.5

336

337 Traits are grouped according to Leaf and canopy, Biomass, Reflectance indices and Gas-exchange, measured at vegetative growth (Veg; Z3.2), pre-anthesis (Pre-A; Z4.5) and post-anthesis (Post-A; Z6.5+7d). NDVI, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; PRI, Photochemical Reflectance Index; WI, Water Index; A, flag leaf net photosynthesis average for all light levels at Pre-A and Post-A ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Leaf and canopy and reflectance traits are dimensionless, Biomass (g per 50 cm row), Yield (t ha^{-1}). For each trait, the lines were ranked according to the quartiles of the trait values: green arrow upwards (upper quartile), yellow arrow to the right (two intermediate quartiles) and red arrow downwards (lower quartile). Mean pop, trait mean value for the whole population; STD pop, trait standard deviation for the whole population ($n=121$).

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342 4. Discussion

343 A double-haploid wheat mapping population was grown in the field in the UK to identify
344 phenotypic drivers of grain yield. Grain yield correlated with multiple traits at different scales, from
345 leaf to canopy, depending on the crop development stage. The results demonstrate the existence of
346 different strategies to reach high yields and the need to phenotype field grown plants across the
347 growing season. The results are discussed in terms of the multiple correlations between traits and
348 their influence on yield.

349 4.1 Main drivers of yield

350 At leaf and canopy level, early vigour, accumulated green area and stay green correlated positively
351 with yield. These traits determine the length of the period over which plants will intercept light and
352 be able to convert it into biomass, thus, indirectly, these traits contribute to both ϵ_i [29] and to ϵ_c [14]
353 by extending the period over which plants are photosynthetically active. Consequently, these traits
354 contribute to increase plant biomass and crop yields. The positive correlation of NDVI with grain
355 yield is also related to ϵ_i and ϵ_c as it represents green area cover.

356 For the biomass allocation patterns, the weight of leaves, stems and whole plant *Post-A* correlated
357 positively with yield. Biomass traits result from the combined ϵ_i and ϵ_c , and represent a source of
358 biomass to be reallocated to the spike (sink) during the grain filling process, thereby affecting ϵ_p . This
359 is in agreement with the fact that the reallocation of carbohydrates stored in plant organs, together
360 with flag leaf photosynthesis, are important drivers of grain yield formation in wheat [30], mainly
361 *Post-A*, when the grain development starts. Additionally, the weight of leaves is also correlated to ϵ_c
362 as it is linked to the photosynthetic apparatus capacity.

363 Collectively, the statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, F-test) correlations between the various phenotypic
364 traits and yield were not remarkably high, with r generally lower than 0.50. This confirms the
365 underlying intuition that many drivers contribute to the formation of yield, rather than one
366 individual component being a sole, strongly associated candidate. This is also reinforced by the
367 multiple strategies found to reach high yield. Mapping these strategies is crucial to understand
368 possible combinations of traits to reach high yields and how those strategies can be chosen to reach
369 or maintain yields in different environments and under different climatic scenarios and
370 environmental pressures.

371 4.2 Photosynthesis and yield

372 The selection of a population generated from parents with contrasting photosynthetic characteristics
373 enabled variation in this trait to be exploited to understand its influence on yield. The average
374 variation (σ/μ) of photosynthesis in the population was around 5.2% at *Pre-A* and *Post-A*. Other gas-
375 exchange traits presented larger or smaller variation than photosynthesis, such as stomatal
376 conductance (12%) and maximum quantum efficiency of PSII in light adapted leaves (F_v'/F_m') (1.7%).

377 Free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiments showed that increased photosynthetic rates result in
378 yield increases, when other conditions are not limiting [31]. In the present study, *Pre-A* and *Post-A*
379 photosynthesis correlated with yield, with stronger correlations being observed for photosynthetic
380 traits measured *Pre-A* than *Post-A*; these traits are representative of ϵ_c . Correlations between
381 photosynthesis and yield have been previously reported in wheat [32-36]. The correlation of PRI and
382 WI to grain yields are also related to ϵ_c as they are linked to LUE, stomatal conductance and leaf
383 water status.

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384 In wheat, flag leaf photosynthesis *Pre-A* was generally higher than it was *Post-A*, as also reported by
385 [36]. The decrease from *Pre-A* to *Post-A* was around 12% at light levels of 1800, 1000, 500, 8% at 250
386 and 3% at 100 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. There was interaction between lines and development stages for
387 photosynthesis, suggesting different patterns for the reduction in photosynthesis from *Pre-A* to *Post-*
388 *A* between the lines, although the difference in photosynthetic rates between the two growth stages
389 was not significantly correlated to yield ($p < 0.05$, F-test).

390 The reduction in photosynthesis resulting from reduced light levels, was very similar over the lines
391 and there was no correlation between the reduction pattern and yield. Rates of photosynthesis were
392 highly correlated to stomatal conductance at light levels above 250 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, but the
393 correlation was weaker at the lower light level of 100 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Table 2). These results
394 agree with the notion that stomatal conductance limits photosynthesis at a range of light levels and
395 that biochemical limitations are relatively more prominent as the light reaches low levels [37].

396 Broad-sense heritability estimated for photosynthesis measured at the various light levels was on
397 average 0.51. A similar value has been reported by [38] and this value is also within the range reported
398 by [36]. The heritability estimate for photosynthesis decreased with light level (Table 1), suggesting
399 a smaller effect of the genetic background in defining the phenotype at the lower light level (100 μmol
400 $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). This might explain the lower correlation between photosynthesis and yield at lower
401 light levels, as grain yield was strongly linked to the genetic background with a broad-sense
402 heritability of 0.73.

403 4.3 Canopy vs. leaf photosynthesis

404 Considering its correlation to yield and natural variation, photosynthesis is currently a major target
405 trait in breeding for higher yields [39]. However, phenotyping leaf gas-exchange traits in detail for
406 large populations under field-grown conditions can be challenging, given the length of time taken to
407 perform the measurements and the plant responses to climatic conditions and circadian rhythms. In
408 the current work, the methodology proposed by [27] contributed to standardize measuring
409 conditions and allowed a reliable method to assess gas-exchange traits in field grown plants. Despite
410 the improved methodology, measuring gas-exchange at the leaf level, using infra-red gas analysers
411 (IRGAs), is still a time-consuming process. Reflectance indices have been proposed as high-
412 throughput estimators of photosynthetic traits at the top of the canopy. For the double-haploid
413 population, flag leaf photosynthesis and PRI presented a reasonable positive correlation *Pre-A* ($r =$
414 0.46 , $p < 0.001$) and *Post-A* ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) and g_s and W_i were negatively correlated *Post-A* ($r = -$
415 0.19 , $p < 0.05$). Correlations between PRI and yield were higher than the correlations between flag leaf
416 photosynthesis and yield (Table 1). As reviewed by [14], measurements of canopy, rather than leaf
417 photosynthesis tend to correlate more strongly to yield.

418 PRI estimates reflect a response from the top layers of the canopy, which varies with varying light
419 intensities. Flag leaf photosynthesis represents a small portion of the total plant photosynthesis, and
420 in very specific conditions of light, which explains the relatively low correlation values between PRI
421 and flag leaf photosynthesis and the difficulties in modelling one based on the other, as also observed
422 by [40, 41]. Flag leaf photosynthetic characteristics cannot be extended to the entire canopy as PRI
423 cannot be used to understand specific changes in the carbon assimilation behaviour at leaf level. We
424 conclude that both gas-exchange and reflectance traits are valuable to the understanding of plant
425 behaviour and yield formation, at different levels, and should be used together to assist breeding
426 programs.

427 5. Conclusions

428 Grain yield was strongly correlated to multiple traits related to sunlight interception and conversion,
429 and to biomass allocation, with different traits contributing most at key stages along the crop growth

430 cycle. The great majority of the mapped traits were related to conversion efficiency, ϵ_c , a current
431 target in crop breeding. The results presented here support the use of photosynthesis, at leaf and
432 canopy scale, as a target trait for the breeding of high yielding wheat cultivars. High yielding lines
433 had different strategies to achieve higher productivity, which highlights the complexity of grain yield
434 formation. This manuscript provides evidence for the need to phenotype photosynthetic traits at
435 multiple scales, leaf to canopy, and multiple development stages, vegetative, pre- and post-anthesis.

436 **Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/link, Figure S1: Matrix of
437 Pearson correlation coefficients (r) for pairs of traits measured in a double-haploid wheat mapping population
438 grown in UK.

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448 research. JPP and SJP analysed data. JPP, ECS, PJA, DF, SJP and MAJP wrote the paper.

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450 of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, and in the
451 decision to publish the results.
452

453 **Appendix A**

454 Figure S1. Matrix of Pearson correlation coefficients (r) for pairs of traits measured in a double-haploid wheat
 455 mapping population grown in UK ($n=120$).



456

457 Coefficient values range from -1 (dark red, strong negative correlation) to +1 (dark green, strong positive
 458 correlation), through 0 (white, no correlation). Black bordered triangles limit the correlations within a specific
 459 group of traits related to Leaf and Canopy, Biomass, Reflectance indices and Gas-exchange.

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