



Rapid changes in root HvPIP2;2 aquaporins abundance and ABA concentration are required to enhance root hydraulic conductivity and maintain leaf water potential in response to increased evaporative demand

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1 **Rapid changes in root HvPIP2;2 aquaporins abundance and ABA concentration are**
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3 **response to increased evaporative demand**

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14 **Abstract.** To address the involvement of abscisic acid (ABA) in regulating transpiration and root
15 hydraulic conductivity ($L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$) and their relative importance for maintaining leaf hydration, the
16 ABA-deficient barley mutant Az34 and its parental wild-type (WT) genotype (cv. Steptoe) were
17 grown in hydroponics and exposed to changes in atmospheric vapour pressure deficit (VPD)
18 imposed by air warming. WT plants were capable of maintaining leaf water potential (Ψ_L) that
19 was likely due to increased $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$ enabling higher water flow from the roots, which increased in
20 response to air warming. The increased $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$ and immunostaining for HvPIP2;2 aquaporins
21 correlated with increased root ABA content of WT plants when exposed to increased air
22 temperature. The failure of Az34 to maintain Ψ_L during air warming may be due to lower $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$
23 than WT plants, and an inability to respond to changes in air temperature. The correlation
24 between root ABA content and $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$ was further supported by increased root hydraulic
25 conductivity in both genotypes when treated with exogenous ABA (10^{-5} M). Thus the ability of
26 the root system to rapidly regulate ABA levels (and thence aquaporin abundance and hydraulic
27 conductivity) seems important to maintain leaf hydration.

28

29 **Additional keywords:** *Hordeum vulgare* L., abscisic acid, tissue hydration, water relations.

30

31 **Introduction**

32 Maintaining tissue hydration is of pivotal importance for plant survival under a changing
33 environment. This is achieved by fine regulation of leaf water relations, which is largely
34 dependent on coordinated changes in stomatal and hydraulic conductivity (Meinzer 2002).
35 Although both mechanisms are important for maintaining the balance between water uptake and
36 losses, the former has attracted much more attention (Dodd, 2005; 2013 and references therein).

37 The discovery of the membrane located water channel proteins aquaporins, whose activity
38 alters hydraulic conductivity (Maurel et al. 2008; Chaumont and Tyerman, 2014), led to an
39 increase in research addressing the control of plant water uptake. The plant hormone abscisic
40 acid (ABA), whose concentration increases in response to water deficit, can influence both
41 stomatal (see ref. in review of Dodd 2005) and root and shoot hydraulic conductivity (Hose et al.
42 2000; Pantin et al. 2013), the latter effect being due to ABA-induced increase in activity of
43 aquaporins (Parent et al. 2009). Thus the same hormone can induce opposite influences on water
44 relations by either decreasing water flow due to stomatal closure, or increasing it by modulating
45 hydraulic conductivity. The resulting effect may depend on the site of ABA accumulation in
46 stressed plants: foliar ABA accumulation directly closes the stomata (McAdam et al 2016) and
47 reduces transpiration by decreasing leaf hydraulic conductivity (Pantin et al. 2013), while root
48 ABA accumulation increases hydraulic conductivity in a dose-dependent manner (Hose et al.
49 2000; Kudoyarova et al. 2011; Dodd 2013).

50 When plants experience a sudden increase in evaporative demand (eg. by warming the air
51 that surrounds them), increased root ABA concentration was correlated with increased root
52 hydraulic conductivity (Kudoyarova et al. 2011). However, using ABA-deficient or ABA-
53 overproducing plants provides more specific evidence that ABA regulates root hydraulic
54 conductivity and maintains leaf water relations. Genetic modification of ABA levels caused long
55 lasting effects on plant hydraulic properties and aquaporin activity in maize (Parent et al. 2009)
56 and tomato (Thompson et al. 2007) plants. However, the role of ABA in regulating plant water
57 relations is likely to be most critical in response to abrupt step-changes in environmental
58 conditions. Thus we compared leaf water relations, AQPs abundance and ABA content and
59 localization in roots of the ABA deficient barley mutant (Az34) and its parental line cv. Steptoe
60 in response to air heating (that increased evaporative demand). The goal of the work was to
61 check the ability of the root system to rapidly regulate ABA levels (and thence hydraulic
62 conductivity) and its importance to maintain leaf hydration.

63

64 **Material and Methods**

65 Seedlings of barley *Hordeum vulgare* L. (ABA deficient mutant Az34 and its wild-type cv.
66 *Stephoe*) were grown in 3-litre containers filled with 0.1 strength Hoagland-Arnon nutrient
67 solution under illumination of $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ from ZN and DNAT-400 fluorescent lamps, at a
68 14-h photoperiod (from 8:00 to 22:00), 24°C air temperature and 40 % relative air humidity
69 (which corresponds to VPD of 2 kPa). When plants were 7-d-old and bearing one true leaf that
70 was half-expanded, the air temperature was increased by 4°C from 24°C to 28°C (increase in
71 VPD from 2 up to 2.6 kPa) and maintained at that level for 1 hour using a fan-heater, taking care
72 not to direct the airflow directly on to the shoots. Experiments started at 11:00.

73 Transpiration was measured as a loss of weight during 15 min by 10 intact plants drawing
74 water from 50 ml of nutrient solution in a container covered with aluminium foil to minimise
75 surface evaporation. Stomatal conductance was determined with a porometer Model AP4, Delta
76 T Devices, United Kingdom).

77 Leaf water potential (Ψ_L) of tissue discs of 7 mm diameter were punched from mature
78 leaves, placed immediately on clean sample holders and wrapped in aluminium foil to minimize
79 water losses. After 16 discs had been collected (approximately 15 min), they were unwrapped
80 and then loaded into C52 chambers (Wescor Inc., Logan, UT, USA), incubated for 2 h then
81 voltages were read with a microvoltmeter (model HR-33T-R; Wescor Inc., Logan, UT, USA).
82 Voltages were converted into water potentials based on calibration with salt solutions of known
83 osmotic potential.

84 Xylem sap flow from detached root systems was measured according to Carvajal et al.
85 (1996) with modifications described by Veselov et al. (2008) and Vysotskaya et al. (2004).
86 Applying the method for measuring $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$ in plants after air heating is described in detail by
87 Kudoyarova et al. (2011). In short, the aerial parts of the plant were removed leaving a cylinder
88 of leaf bases. These were connected to thin pre-weighed capillaries by means of silicon tubing.
89 Xylem sap flow was measured in this way at 20°C for all plants. After 1 h, the capillary
90 containing osmotically-driven xylem sap was disconnected from the root system and weighed.
91 The procedure was started after transpiration had stabilized following air heating (normally after
92 40 min). Xylem sap flow was measured in this way for all plants (either control i.e. kept at 24°C
93 all the time or exposed to 28°C for about 40 min). In some cases ABA (10^{-5}M) was added to the
94 nutrient solution of control Az34 and Steptoe plants 15 min before the start of sap collection and
95 was present in the solution during xylem sap collection. Bleeding sap from each capillary was
96 diluted five times to provide sufficient sample for measurement of osmotic potential using a
97 freezing point depression osmometer (Osmomat 030, Germany). In preliminary experiments,
98 proportionality of the effect of dilution on the obtained values was checked. Root hydraulic
99 conductivity, $L_{p_{\text{Root}}}$ was calculated according to equation: $L_{p_{\text{Root}}} = J / ((\Psi_s - \Psi_x) \times FW)$ where J is

100 the bleeding sap flow rate and ($\Psi_s - \Psi_x$) the difference in osmotic pressure between xylem sap
101 and root medium and FW is the root fresh weight: a root solute reflection coefficient of 1.0 was
102 used (Knipfer and Fricke 2010). Because roots were dipped in 0.1 strength Hoagland-Arnon
103 nutrient solution with near-zero osmolality, the gradient of osmotic pressure was equal to Ψ_x .
104 To inhibit AQP activity, hydroxyl radicals (*OH) were produced through the Fenton reaction
105 ($\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 = \text{Fe}^{3+} + \text{OH}^- + * \text{OH}$) by mixing equal volumes of 6 mM H_2O_2 and 6 mM FeSO_4 (Ye
106 and Steudle 2006).

107 Excised roots might have lower Lr as shown by Vandeleur et al (2014) since the measured
108 values of hydraulic conductivity are the result of osmotically induced flow rather than
109 hydrostatic induced flow. However, since osmotically driven flow depends on aquaporins, our
110 measurements seems appropriate within the context of the research problem posed

111 ABA was immunoassayed as previously described (Vysotskaya et al. 2009) in the roots of
112 control plants (continuously kept at 24 °C) and exposed to air heating (after transpiration had
113 stabilised about 40 min after the start of experiment). Aqueous residues of ethanol extracts were
114 diluted with distilled water, acidified with HCl to pH 2.5 and partitioned twice with peroxide-
115 free diethyl ether (ratio of organic to aqueous phases was 1:3). Subsequently hormones were
116 transferred from the organic phase into 1% sodium hydrocarbonate (pH 7-8, ratio of organic to
117 aqueous phases was 3:1), re-extracted with diethyl ether after acidification to pH 2.5, methylated
118 with diazomethane and immunoassayed using antibodies to ABA (Veselov et al. 1992). ABA
119 recovery calculated in model experiments was about 80%. Reducing the amount of extractant,
120 based on the calculated distribution of ABA in organic solvents, increased the selectivity of
121 hormone recovery and the reliability of immunoassay. The reliability of the immunoassay for
122 ABA was enabled by both specificity of antibodies and purification of hormones according to a
123 modified scheme of solvent partitioning (Veselov et al. 1992).

124 For immunolocalization of AQPs, root sections were harvested from control Steptoe and
125 Az34 plants. Root tip segments 3-5 mm in length were fixed in 4% carbodiimide (1-ethyl-3-(3-
126 dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide, Sigma, United States) for 4 h as described earlier
127 (Sharipova et al. 2016). Tissues were infiltrated with carbodiimide under vacuum during the first
128 30 min of fixation. After dehydration in ethanol solutions of increasing grades (up to 96%),
129 samples were embedded in the methacrylate resin (JB-4, Electron Microscopy Sciences, United
130 States) as recommended by manufacturers. Histological sections (1.5 μm thickness) were cut
131 with the rotation microtome (HM 325, MICROM Laborgerate, Germany) and placed on slides.
132 Immunolocalization was performed as described earlier (Sharipova et al. 2016). Sections were
133 treated with 0.1 M Na-phosphate buffer (pH 7.3) containing 0.2% gelatin and 0.05% Tween 20
134 (PGT) for 30 min. Rabbit anti-ABA serum (20 μl), and diluted with PGT at the ratio of 1 : 80,

135 was poured on some sections. To check specificity of immunostaining, other sections were
136 treated with non-immune serum at similar dilution. Sections were covered with 50 μ l 0.1 M
137 phosphate buffer (pH 7.2–7.4) with 0.2% gelatine and 0.05% Tween 20 (PGT) and incubated for
138 30 min in a moist chamber. Serum and gold conjugates were diluted with PGT. Sections washed
139 with distilled water were incubated with immune serum to HvPIP2;1, HvPIP2;2 and HvPIP2;5
140 aquaporins for 2 h in a moist chamber. Polyclonal antibodies for HvPIP2s were raised in rabbits
141 against synthetic oligopeptides (Medical & Biological Laboratories Co., Japan) corresponding to
142 the amino acid sequences in the N- region of HvPIP2;1 (Katsuhara et al. 2002), HvPIP2;2 (Horie
143 et al. 2011), and HvPIP2;5 (Sharipova et al., 2016). Control sections were treated with rabbit
144 nonimmune serum. To visualize serum binding with aquaporins, sections were treated with gold
145 conjugate (BBInt, United Kingdom) for 1 h in a moist chamber. After three washes with PT
146 samples were incubated with silver enhancer (BBInt, United Kingdom) for 15–20 min in dark
147 and examined under a light microscope. Excess silver was removed with distilled water.
148 Preparations were visualized under an Axio Imager.A1 light microscope (Carl Zeiss Jena,
149 Germany) equipped with an AxioCam MRc5 digital camera (Carl Zeiss Jena, Germany).

150 Intensity of immunostaining of plasmalemma aquaporins was estimated from 8-bit
151 grayscale images using ImageJ software (v.1.48, National Institutes of Health). Staining values,
152 obtained by determining the pixel intensity, were averaged for each root section (about 160
153 circles per image of one root section). Intensity of root section staining was measured by using
154 the “Freehand Selections” Tool of the same software by selecting the entire area of root sections
155 and measuring mean pixel intensities within the region of interest. Images were taken from 9
156 independent sections per genotype or temperature-treatment. Intensity of staining was expressed
157 in arbitrary units, maximal staining of circles within root section images was taken as 100 %,
158 while minimal staining was 0 %.

159 Significant differences between treatments were determined by employing an analysis of
160 variance (ANOVA) using the Excel software. The least squares difference (LSD) test was
161 performed to discriminate significant ($p < 0.05$) treatment differences.

162 **Results**

163 Transpiration of Az34 plants was initially 45% higher than in Steptoe plants (Fig. 1). Air heating
164 increased transpiration rate of Steptoe and Az34 plants by 39% and 25% respectively with
165 Steptoe plants ultimately transpiring at the same rate as Az34 plants under control conditions.

166 Stomatal conductance of Steptoe and Az34 plants was about 55 and 70 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$,
167 respectively (statistically different at $p < 0.05$, $n = 10$) and did not change significantly with the air
168 warming.

169 Leaf water potential (Ψ_L) was measured after transpiration stabilized about 40 min after the
170 start of air heating. Leaf water potential of Az34 was 0.32 MPa lower than that of parental cv.
171 Steptoe under control conditions, and decreased by another 0.23 MPa with the increase in air
172 temperature, while it did not significantly change in Steptoe plants (Table 1).

173 Xylem sap flowed from detached WT roots about 2 times faster than in Az34 (Fig. 2a). Air
174 heating increased the flow rate from WT roots by about 1.5 times but did not influence that of
175 Az34. Adding ABA to the nutrient solution of Az34 plants increased xylem sap flow rate 2.6-
176 fold. The increase in Steptoe was of less magnitude (only 1.6-fold), but also statistically
177 significant. Since the driving force for osmotically driven flow of xylem sap was the same in
178 both genotypes and did not change significantly with air heating (Table 1), a similar pattern of
179 $L_{p_{Root}}$ was detected in the plants: lower level in Az34 plants, increase in Steptoe with the air
180 heating and no response to air heating in Az34 plants (Fig. 2b). Adding ABA to the nutrient
181 solution increased $L_{p_{Root}}$ of both Az34 and Steptoe plants. Thus ABA treatment increased $L_{p_{Root}}$
182 of Steptoe plants kept at control temperature to the level of heated Steptoe plants, while this
183 exogenous hormone increased $L_{p_{Root}}$ of Az34 plants to the level of Steptoe control plants.
184 Inhibiting AQP activity by producing reactive hydroxyl radicals during the Fenton reaction
185 decreased hydraulic conductivity of both genotypes, however the extent of decline was greater in
186 the plants under air warming suggesting that AQPs contribute to the increased hydraulic
187 conductivity under this treatment (Table 1).

188 In Steptoe plants changes in transpiration induced by air warming strongly correlated with
189 the increase in hydraulic conductivity ($r=0.87$), while in the case of Az34 the correlation was
190 moderate ($r=0.56$).

191 Bulk root ABA concentration of Steptoe plants was ~50% higher than in Az34 plants and
192 further increased with air heating (Fig. 3). No significant changes in ABA content were detected
193 in the roots of Az34 plants following air warming.

194 Air warming increased immunostaining for HvPIP2;2 aquaporins in the roots of Steptoe
195 (Fig. 4, Table 3), but no such effect was detected in Az34. Increased air temperature did not
196 affect the abundance of HvPIP2;1 or HvPIP2;5 aquaporins in either Az34 or Steptoe roots.

197

198 Discussion

199 Previous experiments have addressed long-term effects (days to weeks) of ABA deficiency on
200 leaf elongation and stomatal conductance of barley plants exposed to dry or compacted soil
201 (Mulholland et al. 1996; Martin-Vertedor and Dodd, 2011). In accordance with these earlier
202 reports, leaf water potential (Ψ_L) was lower in Az34 than WT plants (Table 1), likely due to the

203 higher transpiration rate of Az34 plants (Fig. 1). The latter effect is apparently explained by
204 ABA's ability to close stomata and its reduced level in ABA deficient Az34 plants (Mulholland
205 et al. 1996; Martin-Vertedor and Dodd, 2011). Although air warming increased transpiration of
206 Steptoe plants almost to the level of Az34 plants (measured before air warming – Fig. 1), Ψ_L of
207 Steptoe was not decreased by this treatment (Table 1). This suggests that the lower Ψ_L of Az34
208 was not entirely due to altered stomatal behaviour.

209 Previously, air warming increased transpiration of wheat plants several-fold (Kudoyarova
210 et al. 2011), which was due to increased stomatal conductance. Transpiration increased to a
211 lesser extent (20-30% - Fig. 1) in both barley genotypes (due to the absence of changes in
212 stomatal conductance) and caused a drop in leaf water potential in Az34 plants but no effect in
213 Steptoe (Table 1). This suggests that elevated transpiration of Steptoe plants was balanced by
214 higher water flow from the roots, which was supported experimentally by measuring xylem sap
215 flow from the roots (Fig. 2). While air warming increased xylem flow in Steptoe plants, there
216 was no change in Az34 plants, suggesting impaired functionality of the ABA-deficient barley
217 roots.

218 Experiments with both exogenous ABA application to roots (Hose et al. 2000), and
219 transgenic ABA-overproducing plants (Thompson et al. 2007) have shown that increased ABA
220 concentrations result in increased root hydraulic conductance. In agreement, hydraulic
221 conductance of both genotypes was increased by exogenous ABA in the present experiments
222 (Fig. 2). Consequently the increased hydraulic conductivity and abundance of PIP2;2 detected in
223 Steptoe roots under air warming and the lack of response in Az34 is likely related to the
224 increased root ABA concentration of the former and to the unchanged ABA levels of the latter
225 (Fig. 3). ABA involvement in modulating aquaporin abundance in barley plants is supported by
226 experiments demonstrating increased PIPs abundance in ABA treated roots of Az34 and Steptoe
227 plants (Sharipova et al., 2016).

228 Perturbed water relations are characteristic of ABA deficient plants, and most frequently
229 explained by their failure to control stomatal conductance (Neil and Horgan 1985; Makela et al.
230 2003). ABA is important in this respect under conditions that require stomatal closure to
231 maintain leaf water status. On the contrary, adaptation to increased air temperature demands
232 maintaining high transpiration rates to allow plant cooling (Reynolds et al., 1998). Under high
233 evaporative demand, increased root hydraulic conductance may serve as the main mechanism
234 increasing water flow from the roots thereby maintaining increased transpiration (Tardieu et al.
235 2010). Previous experiments with inhibition of phloem transport have shown that under air
236 warming, root ABA accumulation was mainly the outcome of increased export from the shoots

237 (Kudoyarova et al., 2011). Thus ABA-controlled changes in (root) hydraulic conductivity is also
238 of great importance for maintaining water balance of the plants.

239 Molecular genetic approaches allow manipulation of ABA level (e.g. transgenic plants
240 overproducing ABA - Thompson et al. 2007) but negative effects of ABA on plant productivity
241 may be expected since crop yield is often positively related to transpiration (Collins et al. 2008;
242 Blum, 2015). However experiments with tomato plants overproducing ABA showed that
243 increased ABA levels may improve water supply to the shoot, thereby maintaining water status
244 when evaporative demand is high (Thompson et al. 2007). Thus ABA may act as a growth-
245 promoter via its effect on aquaporin activities, which is expected to have a greater influence
246 under high evaporative demand (Tardieu et al. 2010). Our results confirm these suggestions by
247 showing that sufficient ABA is necessary to adequately control root hydraulic conductivity
248 (L_{pRoot}) in barley following a step-change in VPD under air warming.

249

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254

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- 334

335

336 **Table 1. Leaf water potential (Ψ_1) and gradient of osmotic potential ($\Delta\Psi$)—osmotic pressure**
 337 **of xylem sap (Ψ_x) collected prior to and 40 min after the start of air warming**
 338 Statistically different values (n=10) are labeled with different letters (LSD-test $p \leq 0.05$)
 339

Genotype	Treatment time (min)	Ψ_1 (MPa)	Ψ_x
Step toe	0	-0.57 ± 0.08^a	0.32 ± 0.01^a
	40	-0.43 ± 0.05^a	0.25 ± 0.03^a
Az34	0	-0.89 ± 0.06^b	0.35 ± 0.06^a
	40	-1.12 ± 0.09^c	0.34 ± 0.02^a

340

341

342 **Table 2. Effect of inhibiting AQP activity by producing reactive hydroxyl radicals during**
 343 **the Fenton reaction on root hydraulic conductance ($\text{mg h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ root fresh weight MPa^{-1}) of**
 344 **roots excised from the barley plants prior to and 40 min after the start of air warming.**
 345 **Significantly different means for each variable are labelled with different letters (n=5, LSD**
 346 **test).**

347

Genotype, treatment	Control	Increased air temperature
Step toe, - Fenton	320 ± 41^c	590 ± 61^d
Az34, - Fenton	130 ± 19^{ab}	170 ± 21^b
Step toe, +Fenton	165 ± 22^b	280 ± 31^c
Az34, +Fenton	82 ± 9^a	110 ± 16^{ab}

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350 **Table 3. Intensity of staining for HvPIP2 aquaporins of control and treated of ABA**
 351 **deficient (Az34) mutant and parental cv. (Step toe)**

352 Means \pm SE, arbitrary units, maximal staining of circles within section images was taken for 100
 353 %, while minimal staining was 0 %. Significantly different means for each variable are labelled
 354 with different letters (n=9, LSD test)

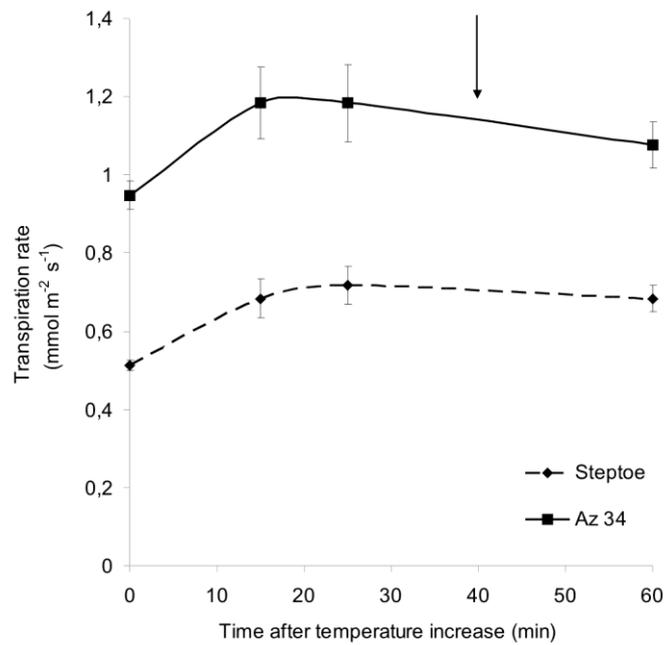
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Staining for	Step toe		Az34	
	Control	Increased air temperature	Control	Increased air temperature
HvPIP2;1	25+7 ^a	29+4 ^a	29 \pm 8 ^a	31 \pm 14 ^a
HvPIP2;2	20 \pm 6 ^a	71+9 ^b	31 \pm 7 ^a	25 \pm 12 ^a
HvPIP2;5	69+9 ^a	57+7 ^a	59 \pm 11 ^a	49 \pm 15 ^a

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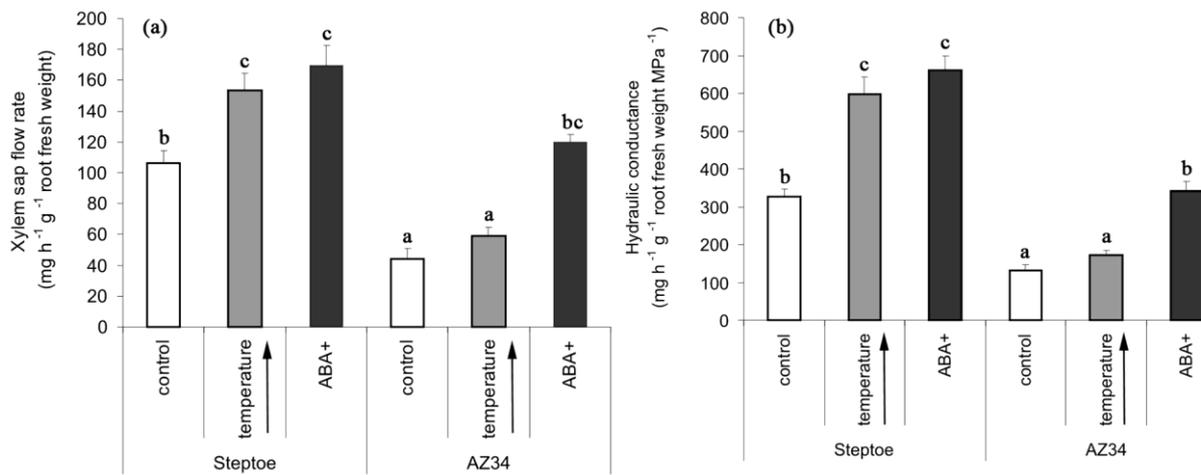
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360 **Fig. 1.** Effect of air warming on transpiration (normalized to leaf area) of Steptoe and Az34
361 plants. Arrow indicates sampling time for ABA assay, root excision for hydraulic conductivity
362 measurements and tissue fixation for immunolocalization. Data are means \pm SE of 10 plants.

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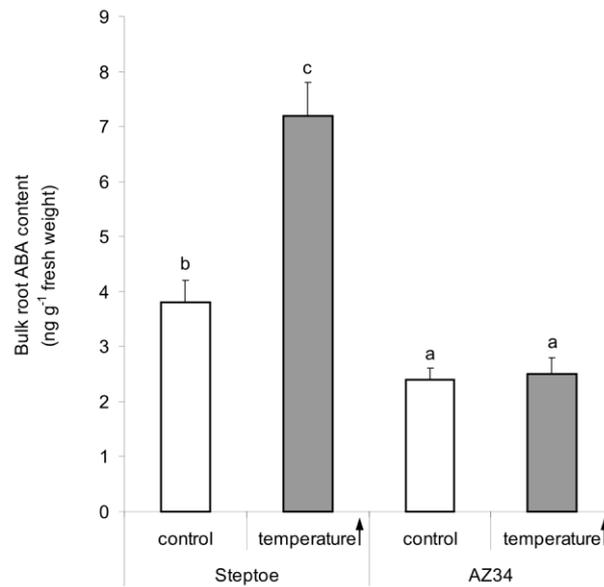
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Fig. 2. Xylem sap flow (a), and root hydraulic conductivity (b) of Steptoe and Az34 plants measured in control plants exposed to 24 °C and 40 min after the start of temperature increase (temp). ABA (10⁻⁵ M) was added to the nutrient solution of control Steptoe and Az34 plants 20 min before the start and was present in the nutrient solution during the time of xylem sap collection. Statistically different values (P<0.05) are labeled with different letters



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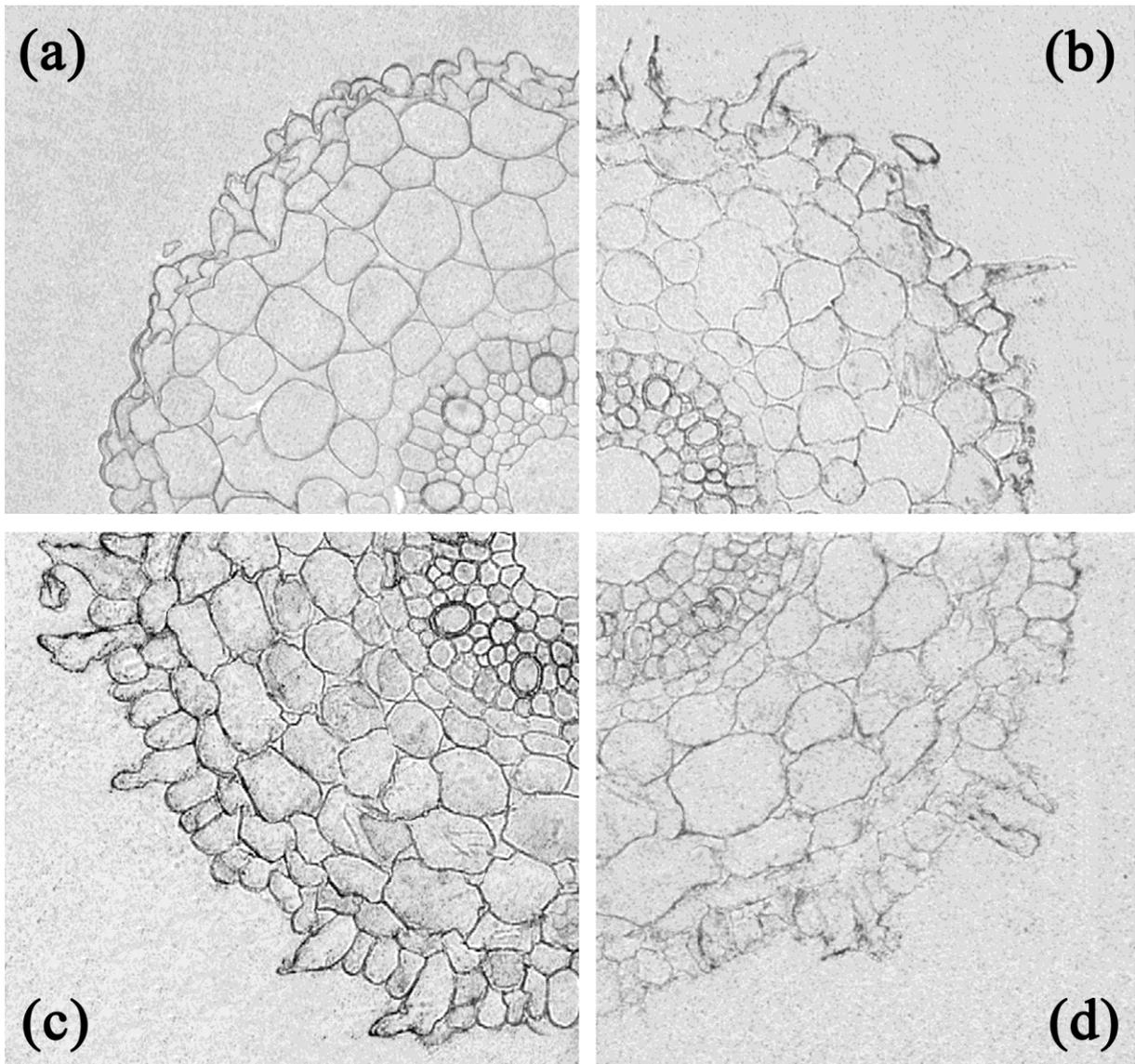
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Fig. 3. Bulk root ABA content (mean values \pm SE, $n=5$) of Steptoe and Az34 plants measured in control plants exposed to 24 °C and 40 min after the start of temperature increase (temp). Statistically different values ($P<0.05$) are labeled with different letters



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Fig. 4. Immunohistochemical localization of HvPIP2;2 AQPs in root sections (3-5 mm from the tip where root hairs appeared) of Steptoe (a,c) and Az34 (b,d) plants. a,b – control plants; c,d – plants exposed to air warming for 40 min.

Table 1. Leaf water potential (Ψ_1) and ~~gradient of osmotic potential ($\Delta\Psi$)~~ osmotic pressure of xylem sap (Ψ_x) collected prior to and 40 min after the start of air warming
 Statistically different values (n=10) are labeled with different letters (LSD-test $p \leq 0.05$)

Genotype	Treatment time (min)	Ψ_1 (MPa)	Ψ_x
Stephoe	0	-0.57 ± 0.08^a	0.32 ± 0.01^a
	40	-0.43 ± 0.05^a	0.25 ± 0.03^a
Az34	0	-0.89 ± 0.06^b	0.35 ± 0.06^a
	40	-1.12 ± 0.09^c	0.34 ± 0.02^a

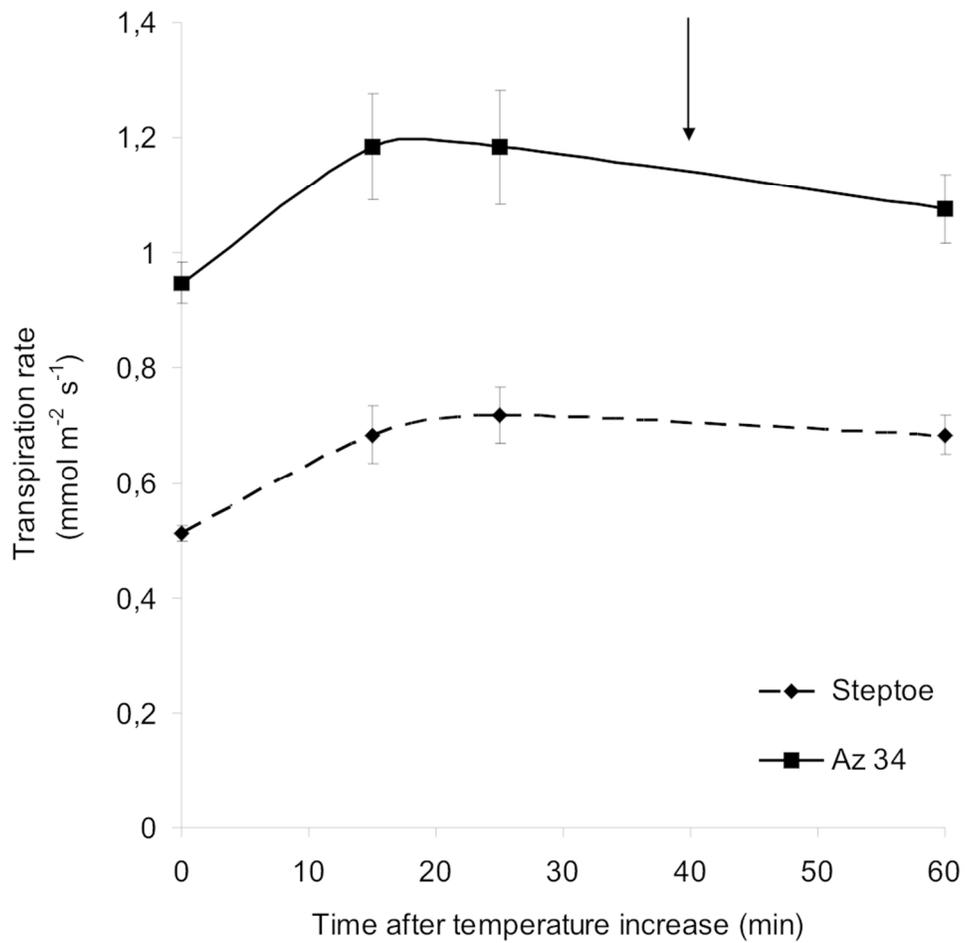
Table 2. Effect of inhibiting AQP activity by producing reactive hydroxyl radicals during the Fenton reaction on root hydraulic conductance ($\text{mg h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ root fresh weight MPa^{-1}) of roots excised from the barley plants prior to and 40 min after the start of air warming. Significantly different means for each variable are labelled with different letters (n=5, LSD test).

Genotype, treatment	Control	Increased air temperature
Step toe, - Fenton	320 ± 41^c	590 ± 61^d
Az34, - Fenton	130 ± 19^{ab}	170 ± 21^b
Step toe, +Fenton	165 ± 22^b	280 ± 31^c
Az34, +Fenton	82 ± 9^a	110 ± 16^{ab}

Table 3. Intensity of staining for HvPIP2 aquaporins of control and treated of ABA deficient (Az34) mutant and parental cv. (Stephoe)

Means \pm SE, arbitrary units, maximal staining of circles within section images was taken for 100 %, while minimal staining was 0 %. Significantly different means for each variable are labelled with different letters (n=9, LSD test)

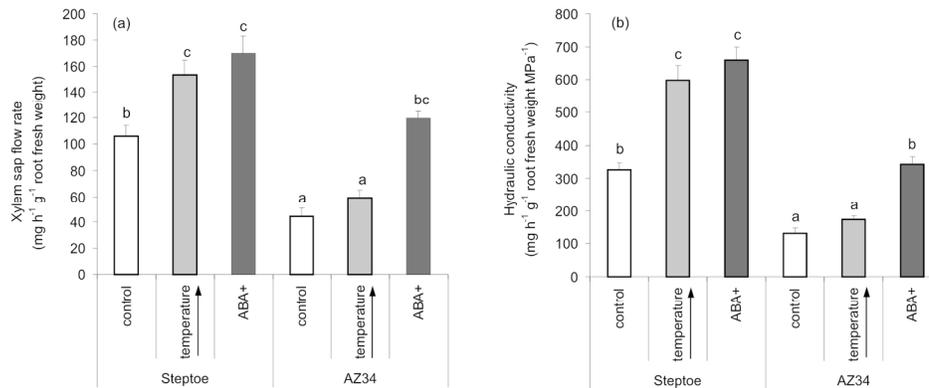
Staining for	Stephoe		Az34	
	Control	Increased air temperature	Control	Increased air temperature
HvPIP2;1	25+7 ^a	29+4 ^a	29 \pm 8 ^a	31 \pm 14 ^a
HvPIP2;2	20 \pm 6 ^a	71+9 ^b	31 \pm 7 ^a	25 \pm 12 ^a
HvPIP2;5	69+9 ^a	57+7 ^a	59 \pm 11 ^a	49 \pm 15 ^a



Effect of air warming on transpiration (normalized to leaf area) of Steptoe and Az34 plants. Arrow indicates sampling time for ABA assay, root excision for hydraulic conductivity measurements and tissue fixation for immunolocalization. Data are means \pm SE of 10 plants.

Fig. 1.

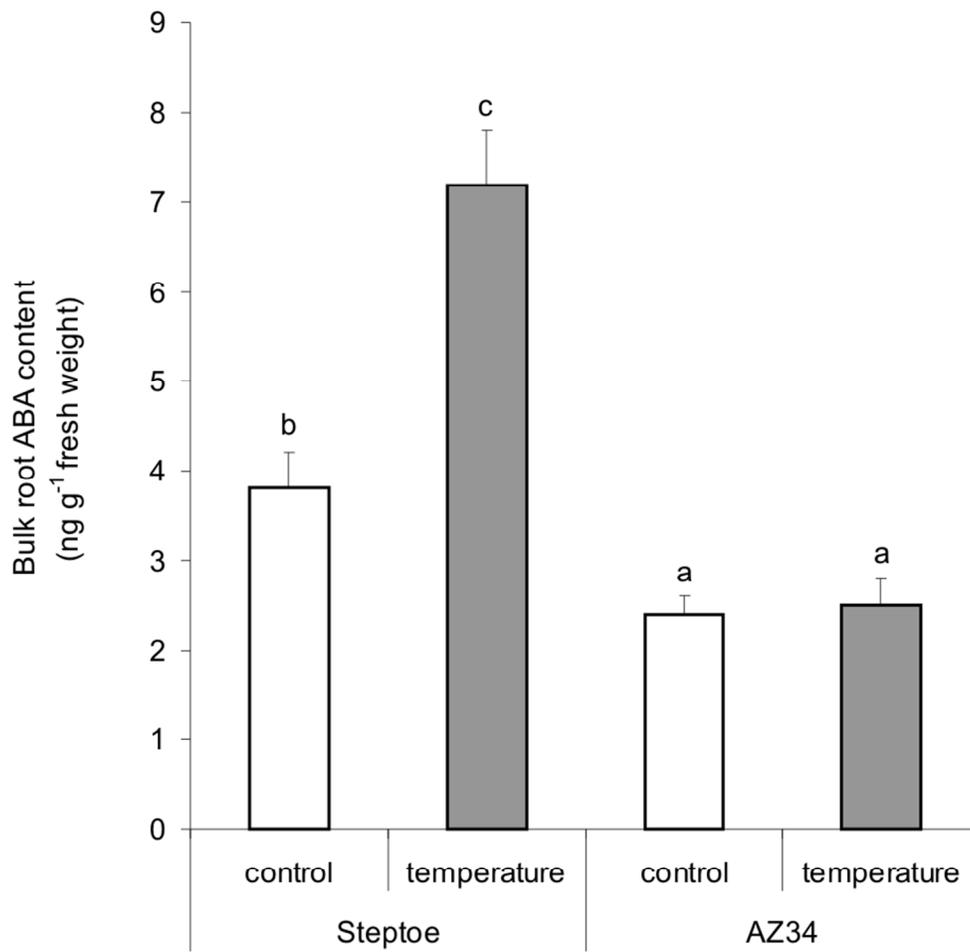
89x87mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Xylem sap flow (a), and root hydraulic conductivity (b) of Steptoe and Az34 plants measured in control plants exposed to 24 °C and 40 min after the start of temperature increase (temp). ABA (10⁻⁵ M) was added to the nutrient solution of control Steptoe and Az34 plants 20 min before the start and was present in the nutrient solution during the time of xylem sap collection. Statistically different values ($P < 0.05$) are labeled with different letters

Fig. 2.

162x64mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Bulk root ABA content (mean values \pm SE, $n=5$) of Steptoe and Az34 plants measured in control plants exposed to 24 oC and 40 min after the start of temperature increase (temp). Statistically different values ($P<0.05$) are labeled with different letters

Fig 3

79x78mm (300 x 300 DPI)