

Exploring Source-Sink Relationship for the Formation of Grain Yield in Sunflower

M. Saadatmand¹, M. Soltani Najafabadi^{2*}, and S. R. Mirfakhraei¹

ABSTRACT

Developing high-yielding varieties of sunflower as oilseed staple crops requires knowledge of physiological and molecular mechanisms involved in yield formation. Source strength, sink demand, and their interactions play crucial roles in the yield formation of sunflowers. The persistence of assimilate flux to the developing grains mainly determines sink demand. There was no information on the molecular mechanism for assimilate flux to the sink organ of sunflowers. To shed light on molecular events engaging in assimilate flux to sink organs, two experiments were carried out on five sunflower inbred lines differing in their grain yields. Source-related parameters (such as leaf biomass, area, and number) and sink-associated attributes (such as floret number at the first anthesis and capitulum biomass and diameter, in addition to changes in biomass of capitulum and stem, at the first anthesis with those at physiological maturity) were evaluated across all the inbred lines. The *Invertase* gene expression level was measured on the receptacle base of three inbred lines, showing discrepancies in the source, sink, and grain yield performances. While no significant correlation was found between source strength and sink demand with grain yield, the results showed that higher grain yield was likely attributed to the persistence of assimilate flux to the capitulum base during grain filling. This phenomenon is discussed to be due to higher *Invertase* activity in the receptacle base.

Keywords: Assimilate flux, *Invertase* gene expression, Source-to-sink relations.

INTRODUCTION

Sunflower is staple oilseed crops with a kernel oil content of about 55%. Sunflower oil is the fourth most important vegetable oil globally (Grompone, 2005). The crop shows wide adaptability to various climate conditions, thus attracting a great deal of attention for breeders with the aim of yield development (Vear, 2016). Yield improvement in grain crops is mostly achieved through either higher biomass production or Harvest Index (HI) or both (Evans, 1996; Sharma and Smith, 1986), according to plant species.

Sunflower, a C3 crop, has a high photosynthetic capacity and rate (English *et al.*, 1979), which is similar to many C4 species (Lloyd and Canvin, 1979; Rawson and Constable, 1980). Nevertheless, a high ratio of the transpiration rate to carbon fixation (Rawson and Constable, 1980), low HI (English *et al.*, 1979), inefficient assimilation partitioning to grains, inefficient management in partitioning carbon assimilates to developing grain (English *et al.*, 1979), low pre-anthesis reserved carbohydrate (Pereira *et al.*, 2000) are among the limiting factors proposed for affecting yield improvements.

Biomass production is mostly influenced

¹ Department of Plant Genetics Breeding, Faculty of Agriculture, Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Islamic Republic of Iran.

² Seed and Plant Improvement Institute, Agricultural Research, Education, and Extension Organization, Karaj, Islamic Republic of Iran.

*Corresponding author; e-mail: m.soltannin@areeo.ac.ir



by source strength; nevertheless, Harvest Index (HI) is determined by sink-source relationships (Smith *et al.*, 2018; Venkateswarlu and Visperas, 1987). Investigation of sunflower cultivars released in a period of 60 years in Argentina indicated that breeding programs had been directed toward increases in the partitioning of assimilates toward grain (Pereira *et al.*, 2000), and increasing biomass production would be the method of choice for further increase in the yield (Smith *et al.*, 2018). The formation of grain yield in crops, including sunflower, depends on assimilates from sources reaching the grain (as sink organ) (Sadras *et al.*, 1993; Venkateswarlu and Visperas, 1987). Most fractions of the assimilates is supplied by current photosynthesis (Hall *et al.*, 1995; Rafiei *et al.*, 2013) and fewer ones from pre-anthesis stored carbohydrates (Hall *et al.*, 1989; Hall *et al.*, 1990; Pereira *et al.*, 2008). Assimilates synthesized before anthesis are exported from the leaf and stored in the form of Non-Structural Carbohydrate (NSC) in vegetative parts, such as stem nodes (e.g., wheat, soybean, and sunflower), pods, petioles (in soybean), and cob (in maize) (Kühbauch and Thome, 1989; Pereira *et al.*, 2008; Seebauer *et al.*, 2010; Streeter and Jeffers, 1979).

Managing assimilate production (source-related activities), storage (sink-related activities and NSC storing), and their partitioning make avenues of research for plant physiologists and breeders (Baker *et al.*, 1984; Lee and Tollenaar, 2007; Lichthardt *et al.*, 2020; Ludewig and Sonnewald, 2016). Increases in HI, which have been pointed out by the aforementioned researchers, are the key point in developing varieties of higher grain yield. To achieve the goal, there must be a non-stop assimilate flux to filling grain from the first anthesis to physiological maturity. Identifying the cause of persisting flux requires knowing the molecular level of assimilate transportation. There are several lines of evidence mentioning the role of starch metabolizing enzymes in assimilate

partitioning to developing seeds (Ishimaru *et al.*, 2005; Saeedipour and Moradi, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2004). In sunflowers, no report was found on the role of the enzymes in grain filling. Nevertheless, it has been proven that invertase, hexokinase, and fructokinase are responsible for establishing the levels of soluble carbohydrates in sunflower seeds (Troncoso-Ponce *et al.*, 2009). Assimilate fluxes from phloem into sunflower grains go through the receptacle base and capitulum as intermediate sink, even though there is no molecular data to support this claim.

In this paper, physiological and molecular components affecting the variation of the grain yield of several sunflower inbred lines are discussed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Genetic Materials

Five inbred lines of a sunflower, developed at the Oilseed Crop Research Department, Seed and Plant Improvement Institute (SPII), Karaj, Iran, were used in this investigation (Table 1).

Cultivation Systems and Treatments

The experiment was conducted in two environments: one in the experimental station of SPII in Karaj and the other in the experimental station of the Tarbiat Modares University (TMU) located on the Tehran-Karaj Freeway, in 2017 and 2018, respectively. The location, soil, and climate characteristics are presented in Table 2.

Seeds were planted 25 cm apart with a row spacing of 60 cm. Each plot contained four rows of 4 m long each, with two external rows as borders and two internal rows serving as the experimental plants. The two internal rows were harvested after excluding one plant from each end of the rows. In each site, experiments were conducted in a complete randomized block design with

Table 1. Sunflower inbred lines used in this investigation.

Genetic material	Characteristic
Blinc19	B line, late maturity
M-289	Mutant inbred line, Donated kindly by Dr Ahmad Sarrafi
BF81-196	Hybrid mother line, B line
BF18141	Hybrid mother line, B line
Blinc1221	Hybrid mother line, B line

Table 2. Soil, geographic, and climatologic parameters of the two study sites.

Environment	Soil attributes		Longitude	Latitude	Height from sea level	Annual precipitation	Temperature			
	Soil texture	pH					June	Jul	Aug	Sep.
SPII	Sandy Clay Loam	8	51° 6' East	35° 49' North	1313	243	26.2	34	30.4	23.5
TMU	Clay Loam	7.4	51° 10' East	35° 44' North	1353	247.3	23.4	28.2	22.9	18.1

inbred lines as treatments and three replicates. The seeding date was chosen such that anthesis occurs when the temperature is nearly 30°C, starting from mid-April and three later sowing dates with 10-day intervals.

The nitrogen-phosphorous-potassium-containing fertilizers (urea, 450 kg/ha; triple superphosphate, 150 kg ha⁻¹; potassium sulfate, 220 kg ha⁻¹) were applied based on the soil analysis. Weeds were controlled manually. Plots were irrigated twice a week before anthesis and weekly from the anthesis to physiological maturity. To prevent bird injury, the capitulum was covered by newspapers after flowering.

Trait Measurement

In each plot, five competing plants were randomly selected and used for trait measurements. Leaf number, area, and biomass were measured at the first anthesis. Leaf area was measured on detached leaves of each plant using a digital leaf area meter device (Licor 3100, USA) and summed up to provide leaf area of the plant. Organ biomass (see below) was determined by oven-drying to a constant weight at 70°C. Filled and empty grains of each capitulum were counted, and their biomass was considered grain yield per plant. Receptacle

and capitulum biomass were determined at the first anthesis and physiological maturity, respectively. Non-Seed biomass of Capitulum (NSC) was calculated by subtracting biomass of grains from capitulum biomass. NSC content was measured by the following formula:

$$NSC = (W_{ra} + W_{sa}) - (W_{cgm} + W_{sm})$$

Where, W_{ra} , W_{sa} , W_{cgm} , and W_{sm} are the biomass of receptacle at the first anthesis, biomass of the stem five uppermost nodes at the first anthesis, biomass of grain-free capitulum at physiological maturity, and biomass of the stem five uppermost nodes at physiological maturity.

The contribution of current photosynthesis to grain yield was estimated by subtracting NSC from grain yield per plant.

Capitulum radial diameter was measured by a digital caliper 10 days after physiological maturity; also, it was used for calculating capitulum area. The average available area per grain was calculated by dividing the capitulum area by the number of grains per capitulum.

Pieces of 0.10 g tissues were sampled from the same region of the receptacle base and the five uppermost nodes of the stem. The specimen was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept under -80 °C for further analysis.



Starch Content Measurement and Gene Expression Analysis

Insoluble carbohydrates, also referred to as SC content (mg g^{-1}) of the frozen samples, were determined according to the method described by Sheligl (1986) and glucose as standard. The data are presented as the mean of three replicates over the two sites.

Total RNA was extracted from 100 mg of the frozen samples using the TransZol Up Plus RNA Extraction kit (Beijing, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and its concentration and purity were evaluated by a spectrophotometer. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using primer pairs for *Invertase* and *Actin* (Table 3) was used to test the lack of any genomic DNA residual after treating the total RNA with RNase-free *DNaseI* (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). The integrity of RNA was checked on a 1% (w/v) agarose gel before and after *DNaseI* treatment.

The first-strand cDNA synthesis was carried out using 2 μg of *RNase I*-treated RNA using the SuperScript III reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

PCRs were conducted using the Roche System (Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany) and SYBR Green as a dye. Reactions with a final volume of 20 μL contained 4 μL of a template (cDNA or total RNA), 200 mM of each primer (1 μL of mixed forward and reverse primers with a concentration of 0.5 mM each, see Table 3), and 4 μL of a SYBR Green RealQ plus 2X master mix (Ampliqon). The applied thermal profile was 50°C for 2 minutes and 95°C for

10 minutes, as well as 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 1 minute. After 40 cycles, the specificity of the amplification was checked by heating from 60 to 95°C with a ramp speed of 1.9°C min^{-1} and producing the melting curves. The results are presented as the mean of three replications over the two environments.

The normalized expression level of *Invertase* based on *Actin* (Table 3) was shown as $40 - \Delta C_t$, where C_t is the Cycle number at which SYBR Green fluorescence in a PCR reaction reaches an arbitrary value during the exponential phase of DNA amplification, and ΔC_t is the C_t for *Invertase* normalized based on that of the *Actin* gene ($\Delta C_t = C_{t[\textit{Invertase}]} - C_{t[\textit{Actin}]}$).

Data Analysis

Combined analysis of variance was performed over the two environments by R4.3.1. Before analysis of variance, the data was evaluated for normality through performing Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test by SPSS ver 27 and transformed up on deviation from normality. Mean comparisons was done through Duncan Multiple Range Test. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted on the raw data using SPSS ver. 27.

RESULTS

Like all grain crops, yield improvement is archived through understanding determinant factors affecting the sink, source, and their interrelationships. There are several lines of evidence showing the effect of physiological

Table 3. The primer pair sequences and accession number for *Invertase* and *Actin*.

Gene name	Primer name	Primer sequence (5' – 3')	Accession number
<i>Invertase</i>	INV F ^a	CCAAAAACATATCGGACCC	XM_035988205.1
	INV R ^a	CCATAATCATACTGTAACC	
<i>Actin</i>	ACTIN F	CAGGCCGTGCTTCCCTCTA	DY915068 (<i>Ochogavía et al.</i> , 2017)
	ACTIN R	GGTCACGA CCAGCGAGATCA	

^a F and R stand for Forward and Reverse, respectively.

cues on this interrelationship, but to the best of our knowledge, no data are available on the molecular physiology of events responsible for the interrelationships in the sunflower. Therefore, in this study, we investigated the physiological aspects of grain yield formation in sunflower inbred lines and tried to use molecular knowledge to find the obscure part of the yield formation, which was pointed out in the previous studies.

Genotypes Impacts on the Behavior of All Investigated Traits

A combined Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) over the two environments was conducted (Table S1). Effect of environment (location, year or both) was significant for most the traits, except for leaf area per plant, receptacle dry weight at anthesis, stem dry weight at anthesis, grain yield, capitulum diameter, and current photosynthesis contribution to grain yield. Thus, to investigate in the two environments, we removed effects of environment on the mentioned traits. The analysis showed that the effect of Genotype-by-Environment interaction (G×E) was not significant for all traits; thus, a pooling error comprising of environmental error and G×E was estimated. Upon the pooling, genotypes appeared to have significant effects on all leaf-related traits, biomass of various organs, capitulum attributes, and contribution of remobilization to the grain yield at $P \leq 0.05$. Nevertheless, contribution of the current photosynthesis to grain yield was not significantly affected by genotype effect. Accordingly, we took the average of genotypes across environments for all the traits.

We investigated the appearance of the sunflower inbred lines regarding various source- and sink-related traits and combined the data with molecular data obtained from genotypes with differential grain yield to explain grain formation determinants in the

sunflower. The details of the results are presented as follows:

Sunflower Inbred Lines Exhibit Variation in Source-Related Capacity

The lines were significantly different in total leaf area per plant at anthesis. Line BF1814 produced the largest leaf area (0.8 m^2), while inbred M-289 produced the smallest leaf area (0.2 m^2 ; Figure 1-a). The number of leaves per plant was also different, ranging from 21 for BF1814 to 25 for Bline1221 (Figure 1-b). Total dry mass of leaves at anthesis followed the same pattern as total leaf area, and BF1814 and M-289 showed the largest and smallest total leaf dry mass, respectively (Figure 1-c).

Pre-Anthesis Stored Photo-Assimilates Is Differently Distributed between Stem and Receptacle base

Pre-anthesis stored biomass of the receptacle base and the upper part of the stem were significantly different among the lines. The biomass of the receptacle base for all lines was always greater than the biomass for the upper part of the stem (Figure 2). This result indicates that before anthesis, more assimilates are translocated and stored in the receptacle base than in the upper part of the stem. According to the amount of biomass stored before anthesis, the lines were grouped into two classes: one class contained BF1814 and BF81-196 with the largest values, and the other included the rest of the lines showing similar values of the receptacle base biomass. Moreover, at anthesis, the lines showed similar classification patterns for the biomass of the upper part of the stem and leaves (Figure 2). Since the assimilates stored in the receptacle base provide the energy required for developing florets, the amount of the assimilates stored before anthesis may be used to estimate energy supply for floret

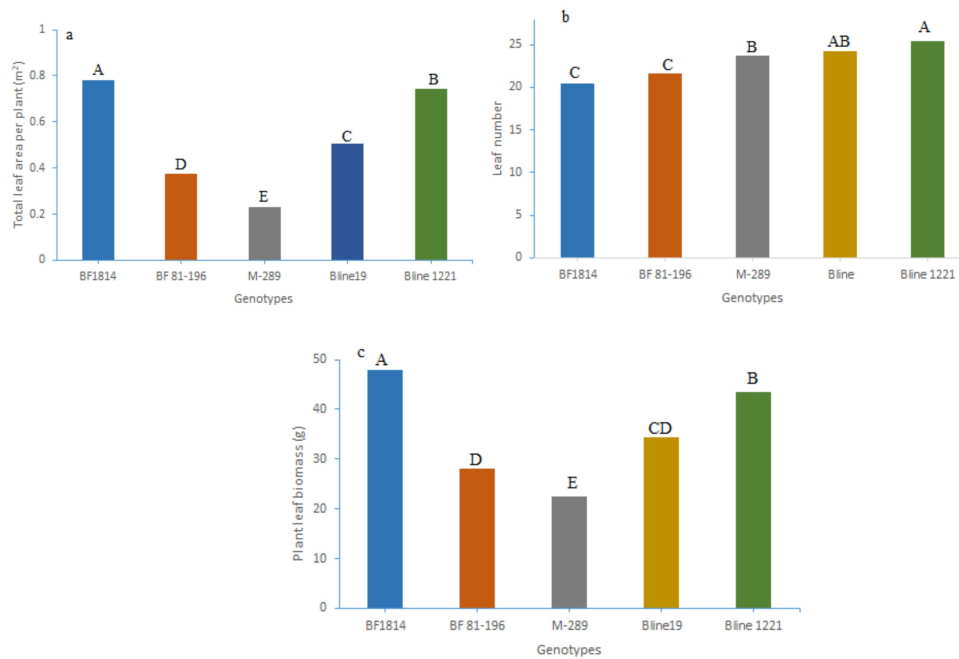


Figure 1. Leaf characteristics of five sunflower inbred lines at the first anthesis. (a) Total leaf area per plant, (b) Number of leaves per plant, and (c) Total leaf weight per plant. In each panel, means having common letters are not significantly different at $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

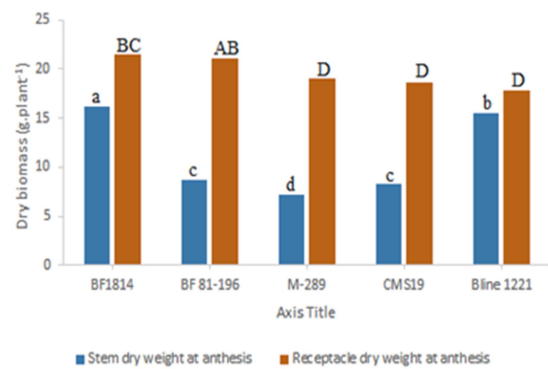


Figure 2. The dry weight of the upper part of the stem (in cyan) and receptacle (in gray) of five sunflower inbred lines at the first anthesis. The small and capital letters are independently used to show significant differences for stem biomass and receptacle biomass, respectively. In each trait, means having common letters

formation, indirectly affecting grain number at maturity.

Sink-Related Attributes Are Responsible for Variation in Grain Yield across Inbred Lines

Grain yield per plant was measured at maturity by removing all achenes (filled and

empty grains) from the capitulum and weighing the dried achenes thereafter.

Bline1221 had the largest grain yield per plant (33.5 g), followed by BF81-196 (29.1 g), BF1814 (20.2 g), Bline19 (18.4 g), and M-289 (14.9 g; Figure 3a). All the lines used in this experiment were single-headed; thus, all the grain-targeted assimilates produced in source organs reached a single head. As a

result, the single head (capitulum) was considered the only aboveground sink.

At physiological maturity, the biomass of the capitulum after removing all achenes was measured (non-seed capitulum biomass). This trait revealed how much of the allocated assimilate to the capitulum is not partitioned toward grains, thus called the Capitulum Structural Carbohydrates (CSC). Lines BF1221

and M-289 had the largest and smallest CSC content, respectively (Figure 3-b). High variation was found in CSC content among the lines (CV= 20%). Interestingly, a nearly constant ratio was observed between the total biomass of capitulum (CSC+grain yield) and grain yield (Figure 3-c and Table 4). Thus, we may conclude that irrespective of genotype, a general mechanism plays a role within the capitulum for allocating

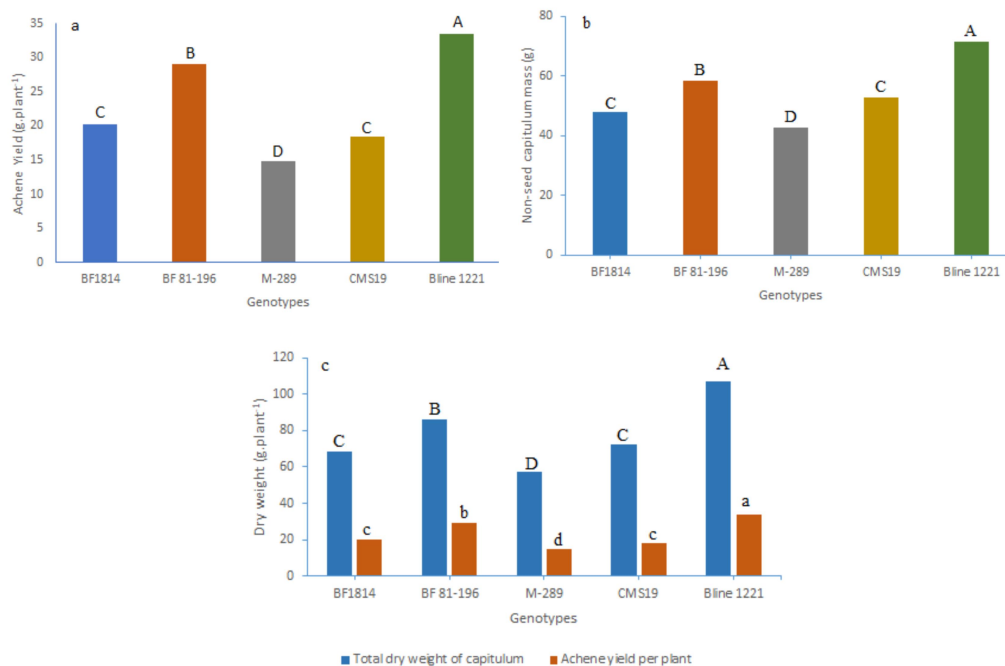


Figure 3. The dry weight at physiological maturity of five sunflower inbred lines. (a) Achene (grain) yield per plant, (b) Capitulum weight after removing all achenes (Capitulum Structural Carbohydrates, CSC), and (c) A panel showing both achenes yield and capitulum weight (capitulum body plus all the achenes). In each panel and c panel, means having common letters are not significantly different at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. In panel c, the small and capital letters are independently used to show significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ for achene and capitulum biomass, respectively.

Table 4. Means of capitulum dry weight components at physiological maturity.^a

Genotype name	Grain yield (g)	Capitulum structural carbohydrates (CSC) (g)	Fraction of Grain weight in capitulum weight (g g ⁻¹)	Fraction of CSC weight in the capitulum weight (g g ⁻¹)
BF1814	20.16 c	47.94 c	0.30 a	0.71 a
BF81-196	29.14 b	58.3 b	0.33 a	0.66 a
M-289	14.88 d	42.79 d	0.26 ab	0.74 a
Bline19	18.39 c	52.76 c	0.26 b	0.75 a
Bline1221	33.55 a	71.31 a	0.32 a	0.69 a
CV (%)	33	20	11	5

^a (a-d): Means with common letter are not significantly different at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. CV stands for Coefficient of Variation.



capitulum-dry-matter to grains.

The number of achenes per capitulum was used as the estimation of sink size. The inbred lines were classified into two categories according to the sink size (Figure 4-a). In one category, there exist BF1221, M-289, and BF81-196 with a similar number of achenes per capitulum and, in the other one, Bline1814 and Bline19 with a significantly larger number of achenes per capitulum. Capitulum radial diameter (Figure 4-b) followed the same pattern as average space per achene on the capitulum (Figure 4-c): BF1814 and Bline19 had similarly the largest capitulum diameters and average available area per grain, followed by the rest of the lines with statistically the same values for the two traits.

Current Photosynthesis Has a Higher Impact on Grain Yield Formation than Remobilization

Changes in the starch content of the

receptacle base were monitored in four-day interval sampling dates, starting from the first anthesis. The results of the starch content over the sampling dates are presented in Figure 5.

The results showed that, for all the inbred lines, starch content continued to rise in the receptacle base until the eighth day after the first anthesis, and declined thereafter (Figure 5). The same patterns in the dynamic of the starch content were observed in the five uppermost nodes of the stem (data are not shown). Thus, the eighth day after the first anthesis was considered the time for starting the remobilization of dissolved NSCs from the receptacle base and the upper part of the stem toward achenes.

Remobilization Amount (RA) was calculated based on the differences in the total biomass of the achene-free capitulum and the five uppermost nodes in the stem at physiological maturity from the biomass of the organs on the eighth day after the first

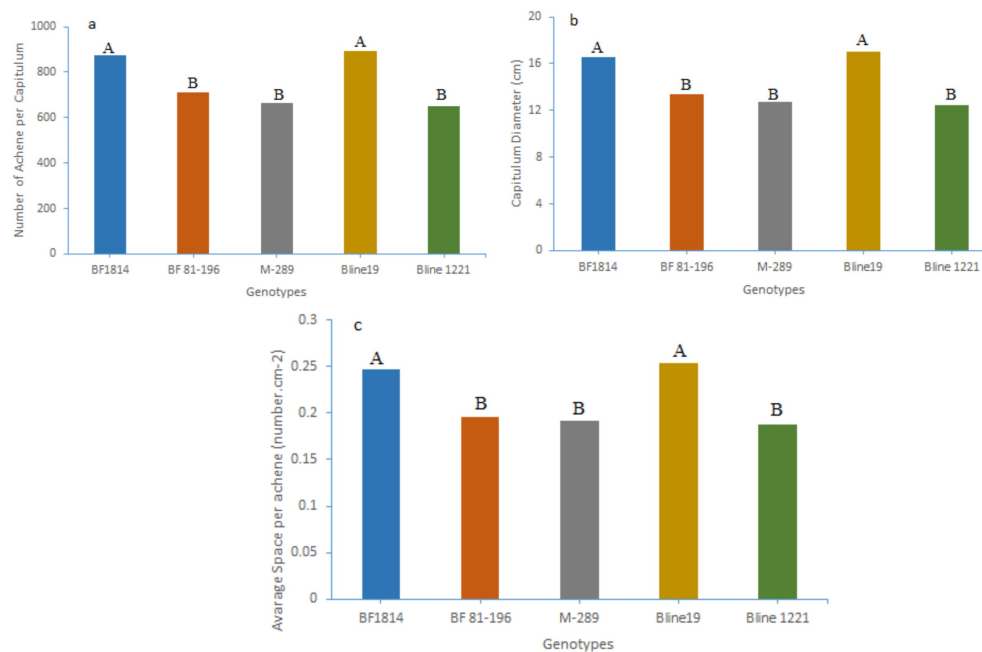


Figure 4. Sink size-related attributes of five sunflower inbred lines. (a) Number of achenes (filled plus empty) per capitulum, (b) Capitulum diameter, and (c) Average space per achenes on the capitulum. In each panel, means having common letters are not significantly different at $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

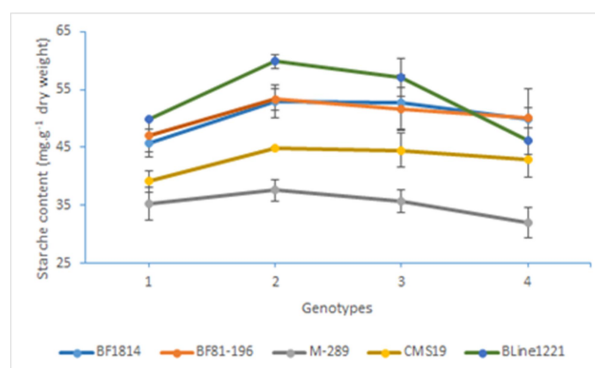


Figure 5. Trends of starch concentration on the receptacle base of five sunflower inbred lines in interval dates after anthesis. X axis units represent 4-days intervals. Data are shown as mean \pm SD (n= 6).

anthesis. Dividing the RA by the grain yield, the Contribution of RA to grain yield (RAC) was estimated. Also, we subtracted the RAC from grain yield, which gave us an estimation of the Current Photosynthesis Contribution to grain yield (CPC).

BF1814 and M-28 showed a maximum RAC of 33%, while its minimum was 22% for BF81-196 (Figure 6-a). Comparison between the contribution of current photosynthesis (Figure 6-b) and remobilization to grain yield revealed that the contribution was much larger for current photosynthesis than that of remobilization (from 64% for BF1814 and M-289 to about 80% for BF81-196; Figure 6). As a result, we concluded that photosynthesis activity in the period after anthesis is more determinant in grain filling than that of pre-anthesis. Nevertheless, other factors play important roles in importing photosynthates to the

***Invertase* Gene Differentially Expressed over the Lines with Similar Sink Size**

Invertase expression, normalized according to an internal control gene, *Actin*, was measured in three inbred lines, showing discrepancies between the source, sink power at anthesis, and grain yield (Figure 7). According to Figure 7, while Bline1221 and M-2890 showed similar values for the gene expression, BF1814 had significantly lower *Invertase* gene expression.

DISCUSSION

The source-sink formation and relationship is fundamental to understanding the crop growth and yield formation (White

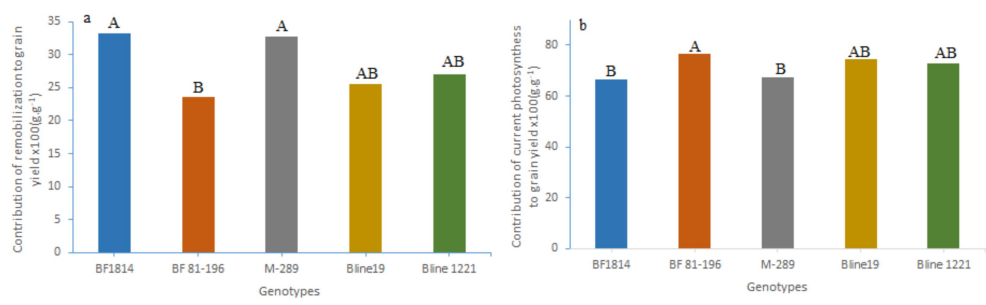


Figure 6. Contribution of Non-Structural Carbohydrates (NSC) stored in receptacle base and upper part of stem (a) and current photosynthesis (b) in grain yield of five sunflower inbred lines. In each panel, means having common letters are not significantly different at $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

capitulum.

et al., 2016) and helps plant breeders to

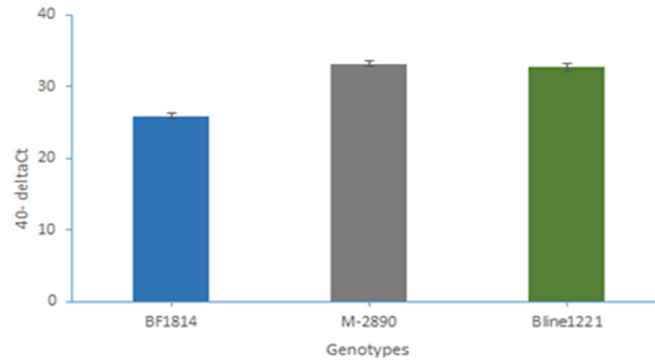


Figure 7. *Invertase* gene expression in receptacle base of three sunflower genotypes at anthesis. Expression data were normalized according to *Actin*, as reference gene (ΔC_t) and subtracted from 40 to make the comparisons easier. Data are shown as mean \pm SD (n= 6).

make efficient and better decisions for yield improvement.

Leaves produce assimilates and thus serve as a source organ. Source strength, as a product of source size and source activity, is associated with the total biomass of the source tissue and the specific rate of photosynthates biosynthesis (White *et al.*, 2016). The 14th and upper leaves in sunflower have a high rate of net photosynthesis (English *et al.*, 1979) or gross photosynthesis (Rawson and Constable, 1980), respectively, which is accounted for source activity. Total leaf area and average leaf size are commonly used to express source size in sunflowers (Pereira *et al.*, 1999). By these definitions, in our study, BF1814 and M-289 showed the highest and lowest source strength, respectively.

Smith *et al.* (2018) and Rennie and Turgeon (2009) indicated that there were multiple mechanisms functioning in assimilate transportation in the same plant species. A strong correlation between the

considerable limitations in assimilate uploading in the leaves and the presence of limitations in the unloading of the assimilate at the receptacle base before anthesis. Meanwhile, these correlations highlight the presence of multiple mechanisms involved in assimilate uploading, unloading, and transportation in the in the evaluated sunflower lines.

Grain yield per plant of single-headed sunflower genotypes is determined as a product of the number of achenes (filled and empty) per capitulum and 1,000-grain weight (Ion *et al.*, 2015; Villalobos *et al.*, 1996), where the number of achenes plays a much greater role in yield formation. Achenes are the strongest sink after starting anthesis (Connor and Sadras, 1992). The sink strength is defined as a product of sink size and sink activity (White *et al.*, 2016). Sink size in sunflower has a close correlation with the floret number, which is determined at the flowering time (Steer *et al.*, 1988). Thus, a capitulum with a greater

Table 5. Correlation coefficients between leaf biomass, receptacle base biomass, and number of floret per capitulum.

Traits	Receptacle base biomass	Number of florets per capitulum
Leaf biomass	0.94**	0.41ns

** Represents significant differences at, $\alpha \leq 0.01$, respectively. ns stands for nonsignificant differences.

leaf biomass and receptacle and a weak correlation between the leaf biomass and the number of florets per capitulum were observed in this study (Table 5). These correlations may indicate a lack of

number of achenes, and thereby a bigger radial length, is considered a stronger sink. Because floret formation and development lead to a great demand for assimilate before anthesis (Alkio *et al.*, 2002; Connor and

Sadras, 1992), genotypes with a greater number of achenes (i.e., BF1814 and Bline19) are expected to have more receptacle dry matter at anthesis and vice versa—a relationship we did not observe in Bline19 and BF81-196 (Figures 3 and 4).

Grain filling is supported by assimilate flux to the grain, which is decomposed into current photosynthesis (photo-assimilate) (Epila *et al.*, 2018) and pre-anthesis NSC stored in stem (Bihmidine *et al.*, 2013; Evans, 1996; Streeter and Jeffers, 1979) and receptacle base (Baker *et al.*, 1984; English *et al.*, 1979; Hall *et al.*, 1989; Pereira *et al.*, 2008; Pereira *et al.*, 2000). In our study, NSC could only contribute up to 33% of achene dry weight, indicating more contribution of current photosynthesis to grain yield, which was less than the same figure (45%) reported by other researchers under the same conditions (Pereira *et al.*, 2008). Pereira *et al.* (2008) divided and estimated the contribution of pre-anthesis NSC to grain filling into two origins: the receptacle and stem. In the present investigation, all evaluated genotypes were indifferent in their contribution of NSC and current photosynthesis to grain filling; therefore, it can be concluded that the limitation in the remobilization of NSC and photo-assimilates may be a less than what was thought before deterministic factor for grain yield of sunflower.

Development of achenes on the capitulum is limited mainly by three factors:

- a) Limited space and the physical pressure exerted by the neighboring achene on the capitulum (Hernández, 2015; Lindström *et al.*, 2006; Sinsawat and Steer, 1993),
- b) Insufficient assimilates (Alkio and Grimm, 2003; Kühbauch and Thome, 1989),
- c) Competition among developing achene (Behbahanzadeh *et al.*, 2012; Sinsawat and Steer, 1993; Steer *et al.*, 1988).

The capitulum radial diameter is used as a good estimation of the average available area for each achene (Sinsawat and Steer,

1993). Thus, if sufficient assimilate is provided, the bigger the capitulum radial diameter, the more available space per achene on the capitulum, and thus the greater potential sink size. Thus, in our experiment, while BF1814 and BF81-196 had the biggest amount of pre-anthesis receptacle weight, BF1814 and Bline19 had the biggest sink size.

Sufficient assimilate supply to the developing grains depends on two factors: physical resistance in the assimilate flux route from the source to filling achenes, and biochemical barriers against reaching the assimilates in the phloem to the receptacle base and achenes. Every floret/achene on the receptacle/capitulum receives photo-assimilate from three neighboring orthostichies (Alkio *et al.*, 2002; Sinclair, 1994). Also, there are lines of evidence for the lack of structural and functional deficiency in the vascular connection between the receptacle and all the grain on the capitulum (Alkio and Grimm, 2003). As a result, we conclude that biochemical barriers are the determinant factors in reaching assimilates to filling achenes.

Summing up the above observations, lines BF1814 and Bline19 have the biggest sink size, and line BF1814 has the strongest source. However, line with the strongest source and sink (BF1814) could not produce the greatest grain yield, provided a counter-argument against current ideas on source-sink relationships and the source-limitation hypothesis of yield formation in sunflower under a normal cultivation system, as reported by Alkio *et al.* (2003) and Behbahanzadeh *et al.* (2012). The contribution of NSC and current photosynthesis to grain filling was nearly similar for all the evaluated genotypes (Figure 6 and Table 4). Thus, we observed that sink size and source stringency, according to the current terminology (White *et al.*, 2016), were unlikely to have a strong impact on grain yield.

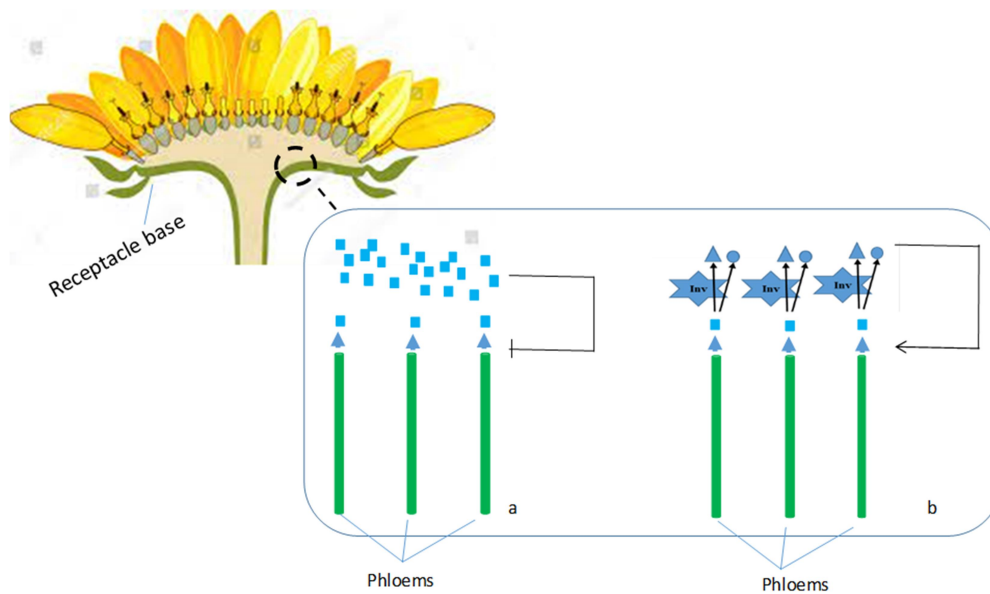


Figure 8. Proposed model mentioning the role of the Invertase enzyme (Inv) presented in the receptacle base to hydrolyze the imported sucrose (squares) into glucose (triangles) and fructose (circles). In the low or lack of Inv activity, the unloaded sucrose from phloem is accumulated in the receptacle base as temporary base and results in negative feedback on unloading of sucrose (a). The unloading sucrose is broken down by Inv into simpler sugars, thus, it removes the negative feedback in the receptacle base and creates a negative gradient and maintains assimilate flux to the receptacle base.

While the contribution of the receptacle as temporary intermediate storage of the current photosynthesis has been proposed (Hall *et al.*, 1989; Pereira *et al.*, 2008), the molecular mechanisms of this process remain to be elucidated. Sucrose is the major mobile form of assimilates in nearly all plant species (Farrar *et al.*, 2000). Accumulation of unloaded assimilates in the sink organ creates negative feedback to the current assimilate toward the sink (Farrar and Minchin, 1991). Ideally, in the sink organ, the unloaded sucrose has to be rapidly hydrolyzed into glucose and fructose, a task that is accomplished by Invertases (Sturm, 1999). Thus, in the sink organ, sucrose released from the phloem is broken down by Invertase to minimize the negative feedback (Roitsch and Tanner, 1996) and maintain the assimilate flux to the sink.

We observed that M-289 and Bline1221 showed the lowest and highest grain yield, CSC, and total capitulum biomass at maturity, respectively—but interestingly, with the same level of *Invertase* gene expression in the receptacle base. BF1814,

on the other hand, showed a large sink size and pre-anthesis stem and receptacle base biomass—but low capitulum total biomass and grain yield. The *Invertase* expression level was lower in BF1814 than in M-289 and Bline1221. In the current study, we observed a constant ratio between the total dry matter of the capitulum (CSC+grain yield) and grain yield across the lines (Table 4), indicating that the grain yield differences are probably more attributable to the total dry matter of capitulum than to the allocation of NSC of the capitulum to developing grains, which was originally suggested by English *et al.* (1979). We think that the allocation of assimilates to the capitulum has a more prominent effect on yield than the re-distribution of assimilates to the developing grains. This finding is illustrated in a proposed model of yield formation (Figure 8), where the Invertase activity in the receptacle base creates a negative gradient and maintains assimilate flux to the receptacle base as temporary storage of current photosynthates, which in turn, provides sufficient dry matter for more

grain filling. Future studies can monitor the concentrations of two simple sugars, glucose and fructose movements, from the receptacle base into the filling grains to further verify this proposed model.

CONCLUSIONS

Observation over a limited number of sunflower inbred lines indicated the need for re-defining the sink strength concept in sunflowers. In other words, re-defining sink in sunflowers requires factoring in source activity, metabolic activity, and sink size (the number of florets per receptacle), which are the determinants of assimilate gradient down to filling grains. Our results suggest that the sucrose metabolism enzyme, Invertase, highly contributes to maintaining the assimilate flux down to the developing grains. The receptacle base (i) Stores NSC before anthesis and (ii) Maintains assimilate flux to the developing grain; thus, it plays a role as an intermediate sink. Our results also suggest that the overexpression of sucrose metabolism-related enzymes, in addition to higher HI and source stringency, is a prominent strategy for breeding high yielding varieties in sunflower.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was conducted in Seed and Plant Improvement Institute and Tarbiyat Modared University, College of Agriculture. This work was supported by Iran National Science Foundation [grant numbers 92017948]. Special thanks goes to Dr Mohsen Mohammadi for critically reviewing the manuscript.

REFERENCES

1. Alkio, M., Diepenbrock, W. and Grimm, E. 2002. Evidence for Sectorial Photoassimilate Supply in the Capitulum of Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*). *New Phytol.*, **156(3)**: 445-456.
2. Alkio, M. and Grimm, E. 2003. Vascular Connections between the Receptacle and Empty Achenes in Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.). *J. Exp. Bot.*, **54(381)**: 345-348.
3. Baker, D., Chapman, G., Standish, M. and Bailey, M. 1984. Growth Habit in Relation to Assimilate Partitioning and Some Consequences for Field Bean Breeding. *Vicia faba: Agronomy, Physiology and Breeding*. In: "World Crops: Production, Utilization, Description", (Eds.): Hebblethwaite, P. D., Dawkins, T. C. K., Heath, M. C. and Lockwood, G.. Springer, Dordrecht, **10**: 23-28.
4. Behbahanzadeh, S.A., Akbari, G., Farahani, L. and Irannejad, H. 2012. Morphological and Qualitative Properties of Sunflower Seeds in Different Levels of Source and Sink Reduction. *Int. J. Agric.: Res. Rev.*, **2(5)**: 618-623.
5. Bihmidine, S., Hunter III, C. T., Johns, C. E., Koch, K. E. and Braun, D. M. 2013. Regulation of Assimilate Import into Sink Organs: Update on Molecular Drivers of Sink Strength. *Front. Plant Sci.*, **4**: 177.
6. Connor, D. and Sadras, V. 1992. Physiology of Yield Expression in Sunflower. *Field Crops Res.*, **30(3-4)**: 333-389.
7. English, S., McWilliam, J., Smith, R. and Davidson, J. 1979. Photosynthesis and Partitioning of Dry Matter in Sunflower. *Func. Plant Biol.* **6(2)**: 149-164.
8. Epila, J., Hubeau, M. and Steppe, K. 2018. Drought Effects on Photosynthesis and Implications of Photoassimilate Distribution in ¹¹C-Labeled Leaves in the African Tropical Tree Species *Maesopsis eminii* Engl. *Forests*, **9(3)**: 109.
9. Evans, L. T. 1996. *Crop Evolution, Adaptation and Yield*. Cambridge University Press. 500 PP.
10. Farrar, J. and Minchin, P. 1991. Carbon Partitioning in Split Root Systems of Barley: Relation to Metabolism. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **42(10)**: 1261-1269.
11. Farrar, J., Pollock, C. and Gallagher, J. 2000. Sucrose and the Integration of Metabolism in Vascular Plants. *Plant Sci.*, **154(1)**: 1-11.
12. Grompone, M. A. 2005. Sunflower Oil. In: "Vegetable Oils in Food Technology: Composition, Properties and Uses", (Ed.): Gunstone, F. D. Blackwell Publishing, PP. 137-167.



13. Hall, A., Connor, D. and Sadras, V. 1995. Radiation-Use Efficiency of Sunflower Crops: Effects of Specific Leaf Nitrogen and Ontogeny. *Field Crops Res.*, **41(2)**: 65-77.
14. Hall, A., Connor, D. and Whitfield, D. 1989. Contribution of Pre-Anthesis Assimilates to Grain-Filling in Irrigated and Water-Stressed Sunflower Crops I. Estimates Using Labelled Carbon. *Field Crops Res.*, **20(2)**: 95-112.
15. Hall, A., Whitfield, D. and Connor, D. 1990. Contribution of pre-Anthesis Assimilates to Grain-Filling in Irrigated and Water-Stressed Sunflower Crops II. Estimates from a Carbon Budget. *Field Crops Res.*, **24(3-4)**: 273-294.
16. Hernández, L. F. 2015. Spatial Constraints also Regulates Final Achene Mass in the Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) Capitulum. *Int. J. Plant Biol.*, **6(1)**: 6014.
17. Ion, V., Dicu, G., Basa, A. -G., Dumbrava, M., Temocico, G., Epure, L. -L. and State, D. 2015. Sunflower Yield and Yield Components under Different Sowing Conditions *International Conference Agriculture for Life, Life for Agriculture*. Elsevier BV, Romania, PP. 44 – 51.
18. Ishimaru, T., Hirose, T., Matsuda, T., Goto, A., Takahashi, K., Sasaki, H., Terao, T., Ishii, R.-i., Ohsugi, R. and Yamagishi, T. 2005. Expression Patterns of Genes Encoding Carbohydrate-Metabolizing Enzymes and Their Relationship to Grain Filling in Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.): Comparison of Caryopses Located at Different Positions in a Panicle. *Plant Cell Physiol.*, **46(4)**: 620-628.
19. Kühbauch, W. and Thome, U. 1989. Nonstructural Carbohydrates of Wheat Stems as Influenced by Sink-Source Manipulations. *J. Plant Physiol.*, **134(2)**: 243-250.
20. Lee, E. and Tollenaar, M. 2007. Physiological Basis of Successful Breeding Strategies for Maize Grain Yield. *Crop Sci.*, **47**: S-202-S-215.
21. Lichthardt, C., Chen, T.-W., Stahl, A. and Stützel, H. 2020. Co-Evolution of Sink and Source in the Recent Breeding History of Winter Wheat in Germany. *Front. Plant Sci.*, **10**: 1771.
22. Lindström, L. I., Pellegrini, C. N., Aguirrezábal, L. A. N. and Hernández, L. F. 2006. Growth and Development of Sunflower Fruits under Shade during pre and Early Post-Anthesis Period. *Field Crops Res.*, **96(1)**: 151-159.
23. Lloyd, N. D. and Canvin, D. T. 1979. Photosynthesis and Photorespiration in Sunflower Selection. *Can. J. Bot.*, **55(24)**: 3006-3012.
24. Ludewig, F. and Sonnewald, U. 2016. Demand for Food as Driver for Plant Sink Development. *J. Plant Physiol.*, **203**: 110-115.
25. Ochogavía, A.C., Novello, M. A., Picardi, L. A. and Nestares, G. M. 2017. Identification of Suitable Reference Genes by Quantitative Real-Time PCR for Gene Expression Normalization in Sunflower. *Plant Omics*, **10(4)**.
26. Pereira, M. L., Berney, A., Hall, A. J. and Trápani, N. 2008. Contribution of pre-Anthesis Photoassimilates to Grain Yield: Its Relationship with Yield in Argentine Sunflower Cultivars Released between 1930 and 1995. *Field Crops Res.*, **105(1-2)**: 88-96.
27. Pereira, M.L., Trapani, N. and Sadras, V., 2000. Genetic Improvement of Sunflower in Argentina between 1930 and 1995: Part III. Dry Matter Partitioning and Grain Composition. *Field Crops Res.*, **67(3)**: 215-221.
28. Pereira, M.L., Trápani, N. and Sadras, V. 1999. Genetic Improvement of Sunflower in Argentina between 1930 and 1995: II. Phenological Development, Growth and Source-Sink Relationship. *Field Crops Res.*, **63(3)**: 247-254.
29. Rafiei, F., Darbaghshahi, M. R. N., Rezaei, A. and Nasiri, B. M. 2013. Survey of Yield and Yield Components of Sunflower Cultivars under Drought Stress. *Int. J. Adv. Biol. Biomed. Res.*, **1(12)**: 1628-1638.
30. Rawson, H. and Constable, G. 1980. Carbon Production of Sunflower Cultivars in Field and Controlled Environments. I. Photosynthesis and Transpiration of Leaves, Stems and Heads. *Func. Plant Biol.*, **7(5)**: 555-573.
31. Rennie, E. A. and Turgeon, R. 2009. A Comprehensive Picture of Phloem Loading Strategies. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.*, **106(33)**: 14162-14167.
32. Roitsch, T. and Tanner, W. 1996. Cell Wall Invertase: Bridging the Gap. *Bot. Acta* **109(2)**: 90-93.

33. Sadras, V., Connor, D. and Whitfield, D. 1993. Yield, Yield Components and Source-Sink Relationships in Water-Stressed Sunflower. *Field Crops Res.*, **31(1-2)**: 27-39.
34. Saeedipour, S. and Moradi, F. 2011. Comparison of the Drought Stress Responses of Tolerant and Sensitive Wheat Cultivars during Grain Filling: Impact of Invertase Activity on Carbon Metabolism during Kernel Development. *J. Agric. Sci.*, **3(2)**: 32.
35. Seebauer, J. R., Singletary, G. W., Krumpelman, P. M., Ruffo, M. L. and Below, F. E. 2010. Relationship of Source and Sink in Determining Kernel Composition of Maize. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **61(2)**: 511-519.
36. Sharma, R. and Smith, E., 1986. Selection for High and Low Harvest Index in Three Winter Wheat Populations. *Crop Sci.*, **26(6)**: 1147-1150.
37. Sheligl, H. 1986. Die Verwertung Orgngischer Souren Durch Chlorella Lincht. *Planta J.*, **47**: 51.
38. Sinclair, T.R., 1994. Limits to Crop Yield? In: "*Physiology and Determination of Crop Yield*", (Eds.): Boote, K. J., Bennett, J. M., Sinclair, T. R. and Paulsen, G. M. American Society of Agronomy, New York, PP. 509-532.
39. Sinsawat, V. and Steer, B. T. 1993. Growth of Florets of Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) in Relation to Their Position in the Capitulum, Shading and Nitrogen Supply. *Field Crops Res.*, **34(1)**: 83-100.
40. Smith, M. R., Rao, I. M. and Merchant, A. 2018. Source-Sink Relationships in Crop Plants and Their Influence on Yield Development and Nutritional Quality. *Front. Plant Sci.*, **9**: 1889.
41. Steer, B., Hocking, P. and Low, A. 1988. Dry Matter, Minerals and Carbohydrates in the Capitulum of Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*): Effects of Competition between Seeds, and Defoliation. *Field Crops Res.*, **18(1)**: 71-85.
42. Streeter, J. and Jeffers, D. 1979. Distribution of Total Non-Structural Carbohydrates in Soybean Plants Having Increased Reproductive Load. *Crop Sci.*, **19(5)**: 729-734.
43. Sturm, A. 1999. Invertases. Primary Structures, Functions, and Roles in Plant Development and Sucrose Partitioning. *Plant Physiol.*, **121(1)**: 1-8.
44. Troncoso-Ponce, M. A., Kruger, N. J., Ratcliffe, G., Garcés, R. and Martínez-Force, E. 2009. Characterization of Glycolytic Initial Metabolites and Enzyme Activities in Developing Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) Seeds. *Phytochem.*, **70(9)**: 1117-1122.
45. Vear, F. 2016. Changes in Sunflower Breeding over the Last Fifty Years. *Oilseeds Fats Crops Lipids*, **23(2)**: 1-8.
46. Venkateswarlu, B. and Visperas, R. M. 1987. *Source-Sink Relationships in Crop Plants*. International Rice Research Institute Publisher, Manila IRPS 125.
47. Villalobos, F. J., Hall, A. J., Ritchie, J. T. and Orgaz, F. 1996. OILCROP-SUN: A Development, Growth, and Yield Model of the Sunflower Crop. *Agron. J.*, **88(3)**: 403-415.
48. White, A. C., Rogers, A., Rees, M. and Osborne, C. P. 2016. How Can We Make Plants Grow Faster? A Source-Sink Perspective on Growth Rate. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **67(1)**: 31-45.
49. Yang, J., Zhang, J., Wang, Z., Xu, G. and Zhu, Q. 2004. Activities of Key Enzymes in Sucrose-to-Starch Conversion in Wheat Grains Subjected to Water Deficit during Grain Filling. *Plant Physiol.*, **135(3)**: 1621-1629.



بررسی رابطه منبع و مخزن برای تشکیل عملکرد دانه در آفتابگردان

م. سعادت‌مند، م. سلطانی نجف آبادی، و س. ر. میر فخرایی

چکیده

ایجاد ارقام پرمحصول آفتابگردان، به‌عنوان یکی از محصولات اصلی دانه روغنی، نیازمند در اختیار داشتن دانش ساز و کار های فیزیولوژیکی و مولکولی دخیل در شکل‌گیری عملکرد است. قدرت منبع، تقاضای مخزن و بر همکنش آن‌ها نقش مهمی در شکل‌گیری عملکرد دانه آفتابگردان دارد. تداوم جریان مواد فوتوسنتزی به سمت دانه‌های در حال تشکیل تعیین‌کننده تقاضای مخزن است. اطلاعاتی در مورد سازو کار مولکولی جریان مواد فوتوسنتزی به سوی اندام مخزن در آفتابگردان در دسترس نیست. برای روشن شدن وقایع مولکولی دخیل در جذب جریان فوتوسنتزی به سوی اندام‌های مخزن، دو آزمایش بر روی پنج لاین اینبرد آفتابگردان با عملکرد دانه متفاوت انجام شد. پارامترهای مرتبط با منبع (مانند تعداد، مساحت و زیست توده برگ) و ویژگی‌های مرتبط با مخزن (مانند تعداد گلچه در آغاز گرده افشانی و زیست توده و قطر طبق، علاوه بر تغییرات زیست توده طبق و ساقه در آغاز گرده افشانی نسبت به زیست توده این اندام‌ها در زمان رسیدگی فیزیولوژیکی بودند) در تمام لاینهای اینبرد مورد ارزیابی قرار گرفتند. سطح بیان ژن اینورتاز بر روی بافت کف طبق سه لاین اینبرد که از نظر عملکرد منبع، مخزن و عملکرد دانه با یکدیگر متفاوت بودند، اندازه‌گیری شد. نتایج نشان داد که در حالی که هیچ ارتباط معنی‌داری بین قدرت منبع و تقاضای مخزن با عملکرد دانه وجود ندارد، به احتمال زیاد عملکرد دانه بالاتر به تداوم برقراری جریان فوتوسنتزی به سوی کف طبق در حین پر شدن دانه مرتبط است. این پدیده احتمالاً بواسطه فعالیت اینورتاز بالاتر در کف طبق می‌باشد که در این مقاله مورد بحث قرار می‌گیرد.