

1 **Impact of high temperatures in maize: phenology and yield**  
2 **components.**

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4 J.I. Lizaso<sup>1\*</sup>, M. Ruiz-Ramos<sup>1</sup>, L., Rodríguez<sup>1</sup>, C. Gabaldon-Leal<sup>2</sup>, J.A. Oliveira<sup>3</sup>, I.J.  
5 Lorite<sup>2</sup>, D. Sanchez<sup>1</sup>, E. Garcia<sup>4</sup>, and A. Rodríguez<sup>1,5</sup>

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7 <sup>1</sup> *CEIGRAM- Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, ETSIAAB, 28040 Madrid, Spain*

8 <sup>2</sup> *IFAPA-Centro Alameda del Obispo, Junta de Andalucía, P.O. Box 3092, 14080*  
9 *Córdoba, Spain*

10 <sup>3</sup> *Área de Producción Vegetal. Universidad de Oviedo, EPM, 33600 Mieres, Spain*

11 <sup>4</sup> *POSTGRADO DE HIDROCIENCIAS- Colegio de Postgraduados, Campus*  
12 *Montecillos, 56230 Texcoco, México*

13 <sup>5</sup> *University of Castilla-La Mancha, Department of Economic Analysis and Finances,*  
14 *Toledo, Spain*

15 *\*corresponding author: jon.lizaso@upm.es*

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Heat stress is a main threat to current and future global maize production. Adaptation of  
19 maize to future warmer conditions requires improving our understanding of crop  
20 responses to elevated temperatures. For this purpose, the same short-season (FAO 300)  
21 maize hybrid PR37N01 was grown over three years of field experiments on three  
22 contrasting Spanish locations in terms of temperature regime. The information  
23 complemented three years of greenhouse experiments with the same hybrid, applying  
24 heat treatments at various critical moments of the crop cycle. Crop phenology, growth,  
25 grain yield, and yield components were monitored. An optimized beta function  
26 improved the calculation of thermal time compared to the linear-cutoff estimator with  
27 base and optimum temperatures of 8 and 34 °C, respectively. Our results showed that  
28 warmer temperatures accelerate development rate resulting in shorter vegetative and  
29 reproductive phases (*ca.* 30 days for the whole cycle). Heat stress did not cause silking  
30 delay in relation to anthesis (extended anthesis-silking interval), at least in the range of  
31 temperatures (maximum temperature up to 42.9 °C in the field and up to 52.5 °C in the  
32 greenhouse) considered in this study. Our results indicated that maize grain yield is  
33 reduced under heat stress mainly via pollen viability that in turn determines kernel

34 number, although a smaller but significant effect of the female component has been also  
35 detected.

36

### 37 **Keywords**

38 Heat stress; maize; kernel number; anthesis; beta function

39

40

### 41 **Introduction**

42

43 FAO has reported an improvement in food security in the last two decades, with a  
44 global reduction of undernourished people of 216 million in 2015 compared to 1990–  
45 92. These figures are especially encouraging in developing regions dropping from 23.3  
46 % of the population undernourished in 1990–92 to 12.9 % in 2015 (FAO, et al., 2015).

47 In spite of these positive data, the already observed and projected impacts of climate  
48 change on agriculture (IPCC, 2013) and their implications for the food security of  
49 current world population and of the 9 billion people foreseen by 2050 emphasize the  
50 urgent need for farmers to adapt to a changing climate (FAO, 2016). In addition, crops  
51 with high water requirements cultivated under semi-arid or arid conditions require to be  
52 adapted to the new climate conditions to increase water productivity and irrigation water  
53 efficiency (Molden et al., 2010) in an elevated temperature environment.

54

55 The major staple crops, such as maize (*Zea mays* L.), the cereal with greatest world  
56 production (in the period 2010-2014, average production was 932.7 Million Mg with an  
57 average yield of 5.27 Mg/ha, <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/>) will need to adapt to the  
58 new conditions. Maize is cultivated in a wide range of climate conditions, following the  
59 rainy season in tropical regions and as a summer crop in temperate ones, with high  
60 irrigation requirements under semi-arid conditions. Maize adaptation should deal not  
61 only with changed climate averages, but also with the increased frequency and intensity  
62 of extreme events (IPCC, 2012). More specifically, several studies have identified heat  
63 stress as a main threat for future maize cultivation in several relevant production regions  
64 (e.g. Gourdjji et al., 2013).

65

66 Kernel number, i.e. the size of the physiological sink of assimilates, is a key yield  
67 component to determine final maize grain yield (Fischer and Palmer, 1984; Andrade et

68 al., 2000). In turn, this component is closely related to the source of assimilates during a  
69 narrow time window of four or five week period around anthesis (Fischer and Palmer,  
70 1984; Otegui and Bonhomme, 1998; Andrade et al., 1999). No clear dependency of the  
71 kernel number on growth rates during the occurrence of heat stress in pre-silking period  
72 has been found (Cicchino et al., 2010b). However, heat stress during the period around  
73 silking leads to high yield reduction (Cicchino et al., 2010b) affecting both plant sources  
74 and sinks. Source capacity is directly affected by a reduced synthesis of carbohydrates  
75 (Barnabás et al., 2008), in turn caused by decreased photosynthesis and escalated  
76 respiration rates (Rattalino-Edreira and Otegui, 2012; Wahid et al., 2007; Ordoñez et al.,  
77 2015). Sink capacity is affected by the disruption of the anthesis-silking synchrony,  
78 reduced ovule fertilization and increased kernel abortion. In turn, these effects disturbs  
79 pollination and kernel set and can result in severe yield losses (Herrero and Johnson,  
80 1980; Rattalino-Edreira et al., 2011; Ordoñez et al., 2015; Dupuis and Dumas, 1990;  
81 Cicchino et al., 2010b). Also, recent studies (Rattalino-Edreira et al., 2011; Ordoñez et  
82 al., 2015) have found an important role of the female component of the sinks in the  
83 maize response to heat stress.

84

85 The upper optimum temperature for maize flowering has been considered to be between  
86 29 and 37.3 °C (Schlenker and Roberts, 2009; Gilmore and Rogers, 1958; Tollenaar et  
87 al., 1979; Cicchino et al., 2010b; Porter and Semenov, 2005; Sánchez et al., 2014).

88 Some authors have explained partially this wide range by the experimental error coming  
89 from considering air temperature instead of canopy temperature (Craufurd et al., 2013;  
90 Siebert et al., 2014, 2017; Webber et al., 2016, Lobell et al., 2008) or plant profile  
91 temperature (Rattalino-Edreira and Otegui, 2012). Differences in [vapor pressure deficit](#)  
92 [\(VPD\) may also affect these responses](#). On one hand, the difference between those  
93 temperatures can be especially large under irrigated conditions (up to 10 °C according to  
94 Kimball et al., 2015), but even the smaller differences registered under rainfed  
95 conditions (*ca.* 2 °C) can lead to underestimation of heat stress impact (Webber et al.,  
96 2016). Most of the previous experiments introduced modifications in temperature, gas  
97 exchange, wind profile and radiation not just in the greenhouse experiments but also in  
98 the field ones (e.g. by using polyethylene films as Cicchino et al., 2010a,b; Rattalino-  
99 Edreira et al., 2011; Ordoñez et al., 2015) to achieve fully or partially controlled heat  
100 stress conditions. [On the other hand](#), increases in air temperature under field conditions

101 usually induce higher VPD, enhancing the demand for soil water and the effect of water  
102 deficits (Mittler, 2006), which in turn can raise canopy temperature.

103

104 The objective of this study was to improve the understanding of the response of maize  
105 development, growth and grain production to heat stress conditions. For that reason, our  
106 study combines data collection under controlled conditions (greenhouse) with field  
107 experiments under natural conditions with unperturbed wind, radiation, humidity, and  
108 temperature regimes. Also, data collection on the same hybrid under several field and  
109 controlled conditions across all years was crucial to remove the uncertainty linked to  
110 genotype variation.

111

## 112 **Materials and Methods**

113

### 114 Experimental conditions and design.

115

#### 116 *Field treatments*

117 The study was conducted over three years (2014-2016) growing the short-season maize  
118 (*Zea mays* L.) hybrid PR37N01 (FAO-300) in three locations in Spain with a North-  
119 South thermal gradient (Candás in Northern Spain, Aranjuez a Central site, and  
120 Córdoba in the South, Figure 1a). The soils of the field experiments (Figure 1b), were  
121 fertilized according to soil analysis recommendations, typically with 250 kg N/ha split  
122 in two applications at V4 and V8, to avoid nutrient limitation. Irrigation was applied  
123 weekly or as required to maintain soil moisture near field capacity. The amounts varied  
124 according to the soil, year, and crop cycle based on the reference evapotranspiration  
125 (ET<sub>0</sub>), but typically 40 mm were applied weekly for a total seasonal irrigation of ca.  
126 550-700 mm in the Center and South, less in the North. Crops were protected from  
127 pests, diseases and weeds, and management was adjusted to local conditions and  
128 practices.

129

130 Treatments for field experiments consisted of two sowing dates in each location (Table  
131 1), aimed to cover a wide range of temperatures through the growing cycle. The  
132 experimental design was completely randomized, with four replications of plots 10-12  
133 m length containing six rows 0.75 m apart, at a target plant population density of 5  
134 plants m<sup>-2</sup>.

135

136 *Greenhouse treatments*

137 In parallel, a greenhouse experiment was conducted over the same years and with the  
138 same hybrid in Madrid (within the Experimental Fields of the Technical University of  
139 Madrid, 40°26'14"N 3°44'10"W, 657 m above mean sea level). Two greenhouses, cool  
140 and hot, differing in target daytime temperature, provided the controlled environment to  
141 complement the information for this work. The controls were adjusted in the cool  
142 greenhouse to maintain the daytime temperature around 25° C, and above 35° C in the  
143 hot greenhouse. Late in the afternoon, heating and cooling systems were switched off  
144 and windows opened allowing both greenhouses to equilibrate with outside  
145 temperatures. Sensors measuring photosynthetically active radiation, PAR (QSO-S,  
146 Decagon, Pullman, Washington, USA) and temperature and relative humidity (PASS  
147 VP-3, Decagon, Pullman, Washington, USA) were located in the center of each  
148 greenhouse. The same hybrid used in the field experiments was sown in 15-L pots filled  
149 each year with a fresh mixture (1:1:1) of sand, peat, and compost. Three seeds per pot  
150 were planted on late May or early June during 2014, 2015, and 2016, and thinned to one  
151 plant at V3. Pots were irrigated twice a day, 8:30 am and 8:30 pm, during 2 minutes,  
152 and fertilized weekly with 5 g per pot of 15-15-15/18 (water soluble SO<sub>3</sub>). The  
153 experimental unit consisted of three plants replicated three times, with two pollen  
154 sources used for pollination, for a total of 18 plants per treatment. All topmost ears were  
155 hand-pollinated at mid-morning three days after silking, half with pollen from the same  
156 treatment (local pollen) and half with fresh pollen collected in a nearby field. Heat  
157 treatments consisted of moving 18 plants of the corresponding treatment from the cool  
158 greenhouse to the hot greenhouse, and returning the plants back to the cool greenhouse  
159 seven days later. Heat treatments were applied at specific phenological times (Table 1).  
160 In 2015 and 2016 an additional treatment was incorporated by maintaining 18 plants in  
161 the hot greenhouse all the season. In 2016 the V4 treatment was changed. Two complete  
162 treatments were maintained in the hot and in the cool greenhouses until V4 and then the  
163 plants were switched reciprocally and maintained in the new location until the end of  
164 the season. Also in 2016, to further examine heat effect on pollen and pistils, we  
165 incorporated two additional treatments with plants growing all season in the hot and  
166 cool greenhouses. Half of the plants growing in the cool greenhouse were pollinated  
167 with pollen from plants growing in the hot greenhouse. Reciprocally, half of the plants  
168 growing in the hot greenhouse, were pollinated with pollen from the cool greenhouse.

169 The remaining plants as usual, were pollinated with fresh pollen. No grain filling (GF)  
170 treatment was included in 2016. Therefore, there were six treatments in 2014 (108  
171 plants from 18 plants x six treatments), seven in 2015 and nine in 2016. Treatments  
172 were identified as follows: plants in the cool greenhouse all crop cycle or control (C),  
173 heat at V4 (V4), in cool greenhouse up to V4, then moved to hot greenhouse (V4c), in  
174 hot greenhouse up to V4, then moved to the cool greenhouse (V4h), heat at V9 (V9),  
175 heat at anthesis (FL), heat at lag phase (LG), heat at early GF, heat all crop cycle (H),  
176 plants in the cool greenhouse pollinated with pollen from the hot greenhouse (CxH),  
177 and the corresponding opposite (HxC) .

178

#### 179 Weather data

180

181 In the field experiments, automatic weather stations at each site provided daily records  
182 of maximum and minimum temperature, precipitation and radiation for all sites, and  
183 also relative humidity and wind speed for the Central and South sites. Weather station in  
184 Cordoba is part of the Agroclimatic Information Network (RIA, in Spanish) described  
185 in Gavilán et al. (2006).

186

187 In the greenhouse, the relative humidity, air temperature and PAR were recorded every  
188 5 minutes separately for the cool and hot greenhouses.

189

#### 190 Crop data

191

##### 192 *Field measurements*

193 Plants were monitored every other day to determine emergence date (seedlings visible  
194 above the soil surface), anthesis (anthers visible) and silking (silks visible). Leaf  
195 number or stage and physiological maturity were monitored weekly. Plants in a  
196 treatment were considered to be in a particular phenological stage when 50% of the  
197 plants had reached that stage. Leaf stage was determined by numbering the leaf collars  
198 (V-stage, Ritchie et al., 1993) and the visible leaf tips (T-stage). Anthesis or silking date  
199 were estimated by fitting a sigmoidal curve as function of time (days after sowing,  
200 DAS) to the average percentage of plants (P, %) with anthers or silks exposed:

201

202 
$$P = \frac{Px}{1 + \exp(-s(t - t_{50}))} \quad (1)$$

203

204 Where  $Px$  is the maximum percentage of plants with visible anthers or silks, parameter  $s$   
205 determines the slope of the function,  $t$  is the current day in DAS and  $t_{50}$  is the DAS  
206 when 50% of the population reaches anthesis or silking. Data to fit the function was  
207 collected from a two-row sample of 10 m in each repetition. Physiological maturity was  
208 determined by weekly sampling of five ears per repetition. Next, 30 seeds were taken  
209 from the mid-section of each ear to determine average dry matter per seed and  
210 percentage of grain humidity in the laboratory. Physiological maturity was considered  
211 to happen when the mean seed dry weight stopped increasing. Crop cycle was  
212 calculated as the chronological time from emergence to physiological maturity.

213

214 Above ground biomass was measured twice, at silking and physiological maturity.  
215 Biomass was separated into leaves, stalks and ears (including seeds). In addition for the  
216 first sowing date, tassel size after pollen shed and Tassel Area Index ( $TAI$ ) were  
217 measured sampling 3-5 tassels per repetition to estimate the amount of pollen produced  
218 (Fonseca, 2004). Since some authors have shown a relationship between the total  
219 expanded plant leaf area and ear leaf area (Lizaso et al., 2003), leaf area of the largest  
220 leaf (ear leaf) and final number of leaves were recorded for 3 consecutive tagged plants  
221 per repetition. The leaf area was estimated by Montgomery allometry.

222

223 After all plants in a treatment reached physiological maturity the plants of the two  
224 central rows per repetition were harvested. The grain yield components recorded were  
225 number of ears per plant, kernel number and weight.

226

#### 227 *Greenhouse measurements*

228 Phenology was monitored in the same way than in field experiments. Above ground  
229 biomass was not monitored. At silking the apical ear was covered and hand pollinated  
230 tree days later with pollen either local (same treatment) or fresh (from a nearby field  
231 sown with the same hybrid). After pollination, ears were covered again. Yield and yield  
232 components were measured on every plant similarly to field experiments but harvesting  
233 only the topmost ear per plant.

234

235 *Thermal time calculation*

236 We calculated and compared two procedures to estimate thermal time using the daily  
237 mean temperature. The standard method assumes that the rate of development increases  
238 linearly between a base temperature of 8 °C and an optimum temperature of 34 °C.  
239 Temperatures above the optimum will result in a constant thermal time as at 34 °C,  
240 therefore does not consider the reduction in development rate at supraoptimum  
241 temperatures. The simplified beta function (Eq. 2, Yan and Hunt, 1999) is calculated as:  
242

$$243 \quad T T d = T T x \left( \frac{T x - T}{T x - T o} \right) \left( \frac{T}{T o} \right)^{\frac{T o}{T x - T o}} \quad (2)$$

244

245 Where  $T T d$  is the estimated daily thermal time and  $T$  is the daily mean temperature,  $T o$   
246 and  $T x$  are the optimum and maximum temperatures, and  $T T x$  is the maximum thermal  
247 time at the optimum temperature  $T o$ . The function assumes a gradual curvilinear  
248 increase in thermal time between  $T$  values of zero and  $T o$ , and a corresponding drop  
249 between  $T o$  and  $T x$ .

250

251 Statistical analysis

252 Statistical analysis consisted of an ANOVA analysis applied per year considering the  
253 factors location and sowing and their interaction (location x sowing). A Duncan test at  
254 0.05 significance level was applied to compare means and for the calculation of  
255 standard deviations per treatment. All calculations were done with SPSS software (IBM  
256 Corp. Released v. 20, 2011).

257

258 **Results**

259 Effects of heat stress on phenology

260 *Field experiments*

261

262 The three field experimental locations showed an increasing Southward gradient of  
263 temperatures. In our hottest year (2015) and location (South) the range of mean  
264 temperatures during the growing season was 12.5 – 32.4 °C. Maximum temperatures  
265 ( $T_{max}$ ) registered in the North site were always below 30 °C, while  $T_{max}$  was over 35  
266 °C for several days in both Central and South locations, mostly in the middle of the crop



267 cycle, and over 40 °C for some days in the summer of 2015 (Figure 2 for the 1st sowing  
268 date). These high temperatures matched anthesis and grain filling, particularly in the  
269 Southern location. *Tmax* in this site was over 35 °C during the period from *ca.* 40 days  
270 after emergence nearly up to physiological maturity for the first sowing date of the three  
271 years. Weather conditions of the second sowing were very similar (Figure S1 in suppl.  
272 material). Diurnal temperature range was much smaller in the North place than in the  
273 other locations (Figure 2), and this site received *ca.* one third less radiation than the  
274 other ones. Radiation was similar in the Central and South sites during the whole cycle  
275 except for the last month of crop cycle, when radiation was lower in the Central site.

276

277 Crop cycle duration (in days after emergence, DAE) showed a decreasing Southward  
278 gradient, with mean yearly values of 121, 110 and 92 for North, Central and South  
279 locations, respectively (Figures 2 and 3). This spatial variability was greater (7 days of  
280 difference between locations) in 2015 and 2016. Besides, milder temperatures resulted  
281 in longer crop cycle in the North. In spite of these variations in crop cycle, the anthesis-  
282 silking interval (ASI) was similar in the three locations and therefore it was not affected  
283 by the hot conditions experienced in the Central and Southern locations.

284

285 Number of leaves was recorded only in 2015 and it was explained as a function of  
286 thermal units (degree-days, GDD) accumulation since emergence (Figure 4 a, b).  
287 Thermal time accumulation over a base temperature of 8 °C did not result in a single  
288 rate of ligulated leaf (V stage) appearance at the three sites (Figure 4a). However, when  
289 the simplified beta function was applied (Eq. 2, Yan and Hunt, 1999), a single  
290 appearance rate of ligulated leaves (V stage) could be estimated for all locations (0.019  
291 leaves GDD<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 4b). Although the  $R^2$  coefficients were similar when the linear  
292 regressions were calculated separately for every treatment and location, when all data  
293 were pooled together the  $R^2$  coefficient improved from 0,85 to 0,92 when the linear  
294 function was substituted by the simplified beta function (Table S1 in suppl. mat, for V-  
295 stages).

296

297 The three parameters of Eq. 2 ( $TTx$ ,  $To$ ,  $Tx$ ) were optimized with the Simulated  
298 Annealing algorithm (Goffe et al., 1994), keeping separated the vegetative and the  
299 reproductive phases. Two sets of parameters were adjusted: For the sowing to anthesis

300 period,  $TTx$  was set to 16.28 GDD,  $To$  was 30.04 °C and  $Tx$  was 47.63 °C, while for the  
301 anthesis to maturity period  $TTx$  was set to 15.2 GDD,  $To$  was 24.95 °C and  $Tx$  was  
302 46.94 °C (a more detailed description of the parameter optimization and results of this  
303 improvement on phenology modelling can be found in Lizaso et al., 2017b, this special  
304 issue).

305

### 306 *Greenhouse*

307 Cool greenhouse temperature was kept below 25-26 °C during daytime, and around 20  
308 °C during nighttime, depending on the external temperature. Air relative humidity was  
309 between 55% and 90% (with some records close to 100% at the end of the cycle, with a  
310 mean daily value throughout the cycle of *ca.* 70%. Hot greenhouse daytime temperature  
311 was kept above 35°C with daily  $Tmax$  typically of 42-43°C, and similar to the cool  
312 greenhouse during nighttime. Air relative humidity decreased to around 40% during  
313 daytime, with oscillations between 30 and 80%. Photosynthetically active radiation  
314 ( $PAR$ ) was similar in both greenhouses, with maximum daily values close to 1500  $\mu\text{mol}$   
315  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Figure 5 illustrates these conditions in both the hot and cool greenhouses for the  
316 week from 20<sup>th</sup> to 27<sup>th</sup> of July 2015, which matched the moment of FL treatment in the  
317 hot greenhouse.

318

319 Duration of the vegetative period was recorded in these experiments (reproductive  
320 phase duration was not recorded as destructive sampling of ears was not carried out).  
321 The effects of the heat stress on the vegetative phase duration was independent of the  
322 treatment but for H (Figure 6) in 2015, for which the vegetative period was *ca.* 6 days  
323 shorter than for plants under all other treatments. However, duration of the vegetative  
324 phase of the H treatment in 2016 was similar to all other treatments.

325

326 Number of leaves was recorded in 2016 and it was represented as a function of thermal  
327 time accumulation since emergence (Figure 4 c, d). As in the field experiments, a single  
328 ligulated leaf appearance rate could be used only when a beta function was applied with  
329 the same parameters used in the field experiments (Figure 4d). The  $R^2$  coefficients from  
330 the linear regression improved from 0.87 to 0.96 when beta function was fitted to the  
331 greenhouse data, and from 0.81 to 0.93 when both field and greenhouse data from 2015  
332 and 2016 were fitted together (Table S1 in suppl. mat, for V-stages).

333

334

335 Crop growth, yield and yield components

336

337 *Field experiments*

338 Ear leaf area was used as an indicator of total plant leaf area (Table 2). There was a  
339 Southwards gradient of decreasing leaf area with mean values of *ca.* 750 cm<sup>2</sup> in the  
340 North and of *ca.* 635 cm<sup>2</sup> in the South. These differences between leaf area values  
341 registered at each location were significant and they were related to the differences in  
342 leaf width, which was *ca.* 8% larger in the North locality as compared to the South one.  
343 There were no differences in leaf area and width between sowing dates of the same  
344 location (Table 2).

345

346 Biomass partitioning between leaves, stems and ears revealed that the ear is the organ  
347 accumulating more biomass (between 65-70% of the total biomass) followed by the  
348 stem (20-25%) and the leaves (10% of total biomass) (Figure 7). Mean total dry mass  
349 per plant ranged between 400 and 500 g/plant across locations, with greater share in the  
350 ear, and therefore harvest index, in the North location. Stem biomass represented a  
351 higher percentage of the total plant biomass (*ca.* 30%) when conditions were especially  
352 hot, as in the second sowing of warmest locations in 2015, than in cooler conditions  
353 (e.g. 20% in the North experiment). Differences between sowing dates of the same  
354 location were found for leaves biomass in 2014 and 2015 and for stem and ear biomass  
355 only in 2015 in the Central location (Figure 7).

356

357 Significant differences between locations were also found for tassel size and TAI (Table  
358 3). *TAI* was twice larger in the warmest location in the South (*ca.* 2700) than in the  
359 North experiment (*ca.* 1350). Estimated pollen production ranged in an increasing  
360 Southwards gradient from less than 3 million of grains in the North to 5 million in the  
361 South experiment, accordingly to tassel size, *TAI* and temperature (Table 3).

362

363 Number of grains per ear was the most variable yield component ranging between 390  
364 and 600 grains/ear with significant differences between locations and years. A clear  
365 spatial pattern could not be identified, but data from the Northern site showed less  
366 variation between years and it was the only location not affected by the hot summer of  
367 2015, that reduced kernel number and weight in Central and South locations (Figure 8).

368 Mean kernel weight showed small variation as expected, ranging between 290 and 350  
369 mg, with the highest values in the North experiments in 2014 and 2016 and in the South  
370 in 2015. No differences between sowing dates of the same location were observed for  
371 kernel number. Kernel weight was greater for the first sowing date than for the second  
372 in both 2014 and 2015.

373

374 As a result of both components, crop grain yield in the South location was always lower  
375 than in the other locations, with differences up to 500 kg/ha (equivalent to 150 g plant<sup>-1</sup>,  
376 results not shown). Yield was also low in the Central location in the hot summer of  
377 2015 (150 g plant<sup>-1</sup> lower than in other locations). Yield was greater for the first sowing  
378 date than for the second in both 2014 and 2015.

379

### 380 *Greenhouse*

381 All measurements refer to the 1<sup>st</sup> ear as it was the only one hand-pollinated with local or  
382 fresh pollen.

383

384 Tassels and *TAI* from plants grown during the whole cycle in the hot greenhouse (H  
385 treatment) were 40% larger than those of the plants from cool greenhouse (data not  
386 shown).

387

388 Timing of heat stress affected kernel number and kernel weight differently (Figure 9).  
389 The high variability of both yield components within some treatments may have masked  
390 some differences. A decrease in the number of kernels per ear respect to C treatment  
391 was found for all years for some heat treatments, especially for FL, H and V4c (*ca.* 70-  
392 100% of decrease). In 2014, no differences between treatments were found for the mean  
393 kernel weight (mean values 380 mg), but in 2015 kernel weight was lower and pollen  
394 source made a difference for the H treatment (180 mg for plants pollinated with local-  
395 pollen and 250 g for plants pollinated with fresh-pollen). Mean kernel weight for the  
396 other treatments was 340 mg in 2015. In 2016, the kernel weight decreased for the same  
397 treatments than kernel number (for V4c, FL and H) but in a lesser extent.

398

399 In coherence with the effects on kernel number and weight, depending on its timing,  
400 heat stress affected crop yield differently (Figure 9). When the heat stress was applied  
401 before anthesis (V4 and V9), yield was similar to that of the C treatment (mean yield in

402 2014 and 2015 was between 165-170 g plant<sup>-1</sup>). When the heat stress was applied during  
403 grain development and filling (LG and GF), a slight decrease of crop yield was found in  
404 2014 and 2016 for LG and for GF in all years, with no effect for the LG treatment in  
405 2015. Yield was especially reduced (50-55 g/plant in 2014 and 2015) when heat stress  
406 occurred during anthesis (FL), and maximum losses were found for the H treatment in  
407 2015 (mean yield 35g plant<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 9). In 2016, yield followed the same pattern than  
408 the yield components, with very low yields for V4c, FL and H treatments.

409

410 In the treatments mentioned above, the pollen source (local or fresh) only showed clear  
411 influence in plants under LG and H treatments, for which mainly kernel number and  
412 weight and consequently yields were dramatically reduced when plants were pollinated  
413 with local pollen (Figure 9).

414

415 The additional treatments of 2016 allowed evaluating in depth how pollen viability was  
416 affected by heat stress (Figure 10). Plants in the cool greenhouse only showed pollen  
417 viability problems when pollinated with pollen from the hot greenhouse: kernel number  
418 and yield were dramatically reduced, although kernel weight was not. Plants in the hot  
419 greenhouse presented an important decrease in kernel number and weight and in final  
420 yield whatever the pollen source, and the crop failed (no kernel set) when pollen was  
421 local (i.e. from the hot greenhouse) (Figure 10).

422

## 423 **Discussion**

424

### 425 Crop phenology

426 The purpose of this study was to assist improving our understanding of the responses of  
427 maize crops to heat conditions. Our first concern was the developmental responses. We  
428 found one-month difference in crop cycle (emergence-maturity) between our Northern  
429 and Southern locations. This is especially significant considering that we worked with a  
430 short-season hybrid, and illustrates the adequacy of the sites selected for this study. This  
431 also raised a major challenge to correctly calculate thermal time to estimate crop  
432 phenology.

433

434 The classic maize thermal time model, based on a linear response between a base  
435 temperature ( $T_b$ ) of 8 °C and an optimum temperature ( $T_o$ ) of 34 °C, was not able to

436 explain the evolution of the number of leaves for every experiment and year with a  
437 single development rate. One of the reasons might be that this type of model does not  
438 consider supra optimum temperatures, which according to previous results (Rattalino-  
439 Edreira et al., 2011; Ordoñez et al., 2015; Cicchino et al., 2010a) as well as ours  
440 strongly influence maize development and growth. Other possibility might be the need  
441 to reparametrized  $T_b$  and/or  $T_o$ . Instead, a beta function describes the response to  
442 temperature as a smooth curve more realistically than linear or multi-linear models (Yan  
443 and Hunt, 1999), and uses biologically meaningful parameters related not only to  $T_o$   
444 (and  $TTx$ ), but also to the  $T_x$  over which crop development would stop. Therefore, the  
445 effect of supra optimum temperatures above  $T_o$  is considered, with a slower  
446 developmental rate between  $T_o$  and  $T_x$  and null development over  $T_x$  (in agreement  
447 with Cicchino et al. 2010a), which makes this parameterization especially useful for  
448 assessing adaptation to warming climate conditions and to an increased frequency of  
449 extreme  $T_{max}$  events. The improvement of phenological models is not only needed for  
450 maize. Traditional phenological models, parameterized for current climate conditions,  
451 are being challenged when simulating crop phenology under projected future conditions  
452 for many crops as for instance olive (Gabaldón-Leal et al., 2017). Then, extending  
453 experimentation to other crops and hotter temperatures more representative of future  
454 climate projections is required.

455

456 One main issue in the developmental response to temperature is the uncertainty in  $T_o$   
457 and especially in  $T_x$  parameterization. The reason is that most of the available  
458 experimental data are from controlled environments, typically with constant day/night  
459 temperatures, and few treatments at supra optimum values and  $T_x$  determined by  
460 extrapolation (e.g. Warrington and Kanemasu, 1983). In other cases, information was  
461 originated in field experiments conducted in temperate regions (Kumudini et al., 2014;  
462 Bassu et al., 2014) where supra optimum temperatures are not usually reached (notice  
463 that both  $T_o$  and  $T_x$  refer to mean daily temperature, not just to instantaneous  
464 temperature). Therefore, to reduce the uncertainty in  $T_o$  and  $T_x$  estimation there is a  
465 need for field experiments reaching supra optimum daily mean temperatures under non-  
466 modified conditions. Our experiments contribute to fill this gap. We included a wide  
467 range of conditions, not only by supplementing field experiments with greenhouse data,  
468 but also by selecting 3 field locations with contrasting temperature and radiation  
469 regimes, two of them with frequent supra optimum summer temperatures. This is a step

470 forward from former experiments that used polyethylene films to induce warming in the  
471 field plots, as these films are reported to reduce incident *PAR* by 12% average (Ordoñez  
472 et al., 2015). According to Ordoñez et al. (2015) the reduction in incident *PAR* could be  
473 compensated by the increase in radiation use efficiency due to a larger proportion of  
474 diffuse radiation induced by the film. This effect has not been quantified, nor the  
475 changes in light quality, red to far-red light ratios (Ballaré and Casal, 2000), and crop  
476 evapotranspiration. Part of our data was also collected in a greenhouse, in which *PAR*  
477 was reduced by *ca.* 50% compared to outdoors radiation. Yet we complemented this  
478 information with field experiments with the same genotype. Also, another step in  
479 reducing the mentioned uncertainty would be to check if plant development rate  
480 parameterization should be different for the periods before and after anthesis due to  
481 intra season acclimation effects (Cicchino et al., 2010a).

482

483 The lack of differences between greenhouse treatments in 2016 in the duration of the  
484 vegetative phase could have been because temperatures in the greenhouse were slightly  
485 hotter in 2016 than in 2015. All treatments in 2016 were exposed to temperatures over  
486 the  $T_0$  of the vegetative phase (30.04 °C), including C treatment that registered 21 days  
487 with some hours over  $T_0$ . This was not the case of C treatment in 2015, with no days  
488 over  $T_0$ . Finally, it is noticeable that we have not found significant differences between  
489 treatments in the *ASI*, unlike previous studies as Ordóñez et al. (2015) and Cicchino et  
490 al. (2010a, b). A possible explanation could be again that in our field experiments no  
491 cover neither any other heat-forcing modification was introduced, while in the  
492 mentioned studies the polyethylene film used could impact the *ASI* through the changes  
493 in the crop microenvironment discussed above. According to our results heat stress does  
494 not cause silking delay in relation to anthesis, at least in the range of temperatures  
495 considered in this study.

496

#### 497 Crop growth, yield and yield components

498

499 The higher leaf area production in the North experiment compared to the rest of field  
500 locations could be explained by the lower radiation and temperature of this site, which  
501 would result in a different pattern of assimilate partitioning targeted to maximize  
502 radiation interception (Vos et al., 2005). Biomass production was also higher in the  
503 North, and it followed an opposite gradient to temperature comparing the 3 locations:

504 the higher the temperature, the lower the biomass and the leaf area, in agreement with  
505 Cicchino et al. (2010b). The larger fraction of biomass in stems when the conditions  
506 were hotter suggested that the shorter grain filling duration might have limited  
507 assimilate mobilization to the sinks. Other possibility might have been that mobilization  
508 was restricted by sink size. However, the lack of correlation between the duration of the  
509 reproductive phase (anthesis-maturity) and kernel weight, and between stem mass and  
510 kernel number, did not allow confirming any of these hypotheses. In addition, it is  
511 possible that a high atmospheric VPD-induced water stress might contribute to such  
512 impacts in the hottest locations.

513 Tassel size and *TAI*, calculated as the surface covered by male flowers (Fonseca, 2004)  
514 from both South and greenhouse experiments was double than in the North. Also H  
515 treatments in the greenhouse produced the highest *TAI*. If pollen is produced  
516 accordingly, this would imply pollen production being enhanced by higher  
517 temperatures. However, previous studies have reported the opposite (Schoper et al.,  
518 1987). Fonseca (2004) developed the *TAI* using data from Minnesota (44 °N) and Iowa  
519 (42 °N), both sites characterized by mild summer weather, with very rare occurrence of  
520 supra optimum temperatures. To the best of our knowledge this is the first time that  
521 pollen production per tassel is estimated using *TAI* under hot growing conditions. Our  
522 observations question the applicability of the method under heat stress conditions,  
523 unless information about pollen production per anther and loss of floral structures is  
524 incorporated, as discussed by Fonseca (2004).

525

526 The location with the largest kernel number changed across years, as this is the most  
527 responsive yield component to temperature change. In 2015, with warmer temperatures,  
528 the largest kernel number site was the North, while in 2014 and 2016 that were closer to  
529 average years in terms of temperature, the largest kernel number was found in the  
530 Center. However, kernel weight was the most variable factor between sowing dates of  
531 the same location, being higher for the first sowing date and resulting in higher yields  
532 for this sowing, probably associated to temperatures during grain filling. It is noticeable  
533 that at least in Central and South locations crop flowering occurred well over supra  
534 optimum temperatures for both sowings; this can contribute to explain the lack of  
535 significant differences between kernel number from sowing dates of the same location,  
536 as they would be affected similarly by heat stress. A consistent relationship between  
537 kernel weight and grain filling duration was not found, when data from all locations and



538 sowings were compared. Based on these data, we hypothesize that critical temperature  
539 for kernel weight would be higher than for kernel number, and it would have been  
540 overpassed only by the second sowing. Critical temperature for kernel number would be  
541 lower and would have been overpassed by both sowings.

542

543 The greenhouse experimental protocol consisted in pollinating exposed silks only once  
544 on the third day after silk emergence, with either local or fresh pollen from outside, and  
545 preventing any additional exposure to pollen. This allowed evaluating the impact of heat  
546 on pollen viability, but not the impact on silk receptivity. According to Bassetti and  
547 Westgate (1993) silk receptivity period lasts normally 6 days under non-stress  
548 conditions, but some shortening of the receptivity period would be expected under heat  
549 stress conditions. From the comparison of kernel number from all treatments pollinated  
550 with either pollen source, it became evident that plants exposed to heat around anthesis  
551 (FL, H, V4c) were always affected, with an additional impact if pollinated with local  
552 (hot) pollen, although due to high plant-to-plant variability, differences were not always  
553 significant. Previous reports have shown similar results (Cicchino et al., 2010b;  
554 Ordóñez et al., 2015), but always using fresh pollen. Only our experimental protocol  
555 examined the effect of fresh vs. local pollen. Plants exposed to heat during early grain  
556 filling (*ca.* 20 days after anthesis) also exhibited less kernels and grain yield. Since  
557 pollination was completed in the cool greenhouse, these reductions in seeds per ear  
558 should be the consequence of kernel abortion (Rattalino-Edreira et al., 2011).

559

560 We further examined the effects of heat on pollen and pistils by pooling information  
561 from additional treatments (CxH, HxC) of our 2016 greenhouse experiment. Same  
562 kernel number and yield were observed in plants grown in the cool greenhouse when  
563 fertilized with pollen from the cool greenhouse or from outside. This indicated that  
564 enough viable pollen and receptive silks were available for maximum kernel set  
565 (average C treatments  $427.3 \pm 50.6$  kernels ear<sup>-1</sup>). When plants were fertilized with  
566 pollen from the hot greenhouse, a 75% reduction was observed in kernel number. This  
567 reduction was totally ascribed to the loss of pollen viability resulting from the heat  
568 applied in the hot greenhouse. On the other hand, the substantial decrease in kernel  
569 number observed when fresh pollen or pollen from the cool greenhouse was used to  
570 fertilize plants growing in the hot greenhouse cannot be entirely credited to loss of silks  
571 receptivity, since under the conditions of the hot greenhouse pollen would desiccate

572 very rapidly and loss viability (Fonseca and Westgate, 2005). Compared to  
573 corresponding kernel numbers in the cool greenhouse, reductions were in the order of  
574 60.7% for plants fertilized with pollen from the cool greenhouse and 83.6% for plants  
575 exposed to fresh pollen. Cicchino et al. (2010) reported reductions in kernel number  
576 between 52 and 61% for plants exposed to heat and pollinated with fresh pollen.  
577 Therefore, our study provides evidence supporting the view that there is a major impact  
578 of heat on pollen viability already known (Cicchino et al., 2010). We also established  
579 that there is a smaller but significant and additive effect on the female component. The  
580 existence of a female component of the impact is also supported by Cicchino et al.  
581 (2010b) and Ordoñez et al. (2015), who found both male and female sterility and kernel  
582 number reduction mainly related to abortion of fertilized flowers and not to pollination  
583 problems when the plants were exposed to fresh pollen (Ratalino-Edreira et al. 2012).  
584

585 Finally, in this study we have described the main mechanisms driving the impacts of  
586 supra optimum temperatures on maize development, growth and yield, in the absence of  
587 soil water deficits. Including these mechanisms in a process based crop model will  
588 allow assessing more accurately the effect of elevated mean temperatures and single and  
589 multiple heat stress events on crop development, yield components, and yield. Further  
590 improvements could be possible by examining the combined effects of temperature and  
591 limited soil water (Mittler, 2006), and other atmospheric factors, such as VPD and  
592 [CO<sub>2</sub>], especially relevant under the climate change context which primarily motivated  
593 this study. In this sense, a number of recent reports have examined the performance of  
594 maize germplasm with limited transpiration under elevated temperature and VPD, while  
595 maintaining adequate water supply (Shekoofa et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2012; Gholipoor  
596 et al., 2013). Similarly, Perdomo et al. (2016) identified the acclimation capacity of  
597 maize photosynthesis to heat, VPD, and drought. Also, the interaction between the  
598 atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] and temperature can be modified by the water status as shown in  
599 FACE experiments. Under no water stress conditions Manderscheid et al. (2015) found  
600 that maize responded to high atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] by reducing the stomatal conductance  
601 and increasing the VPD and the daytime canopy temperature which would worsen the  
602 effects of heat stress described in this study. Under water deficit, the reduced  
603 transpiration saved soil water displacing the water stress period which might alleviate  
604 the effects of heat (Manderscheid et al., 2015). These complex interactions underline the

605 need to evaluate crop responses to these stresses under field conditions (Cairns et al.,  
606 2013).

607

608

### 609 Conclusions

610  $T_o$  and  $T_x$  are key parameters for estimating plant developmental rate but currently large  
611 uncertainty in their estimation under warm conditions affect the quality of the  
612 estimations. Thus, additional field experiments in warm conditions, with a wider range  
613 of temperatures that assure  $T_o$  being overpassed are needed to reduce this uncertainty.  
614 The simplified beta function can take this range of temperatures into account and seems  
615 to be a more effective approach than classic thermal time accumulation above a  $T_b$ .

616

617 The results obtained in this study indicated that heat stress does not cause silking delay  
618 in relation to anthesis, at least in the range of temperatures considered. We conclude that  
619 maize yield is reduced under heat stress mainly via pollen viability that in turn  
620 determines kernel number, although a smaller but significant additive effect of the  
621 female component has also been detected.

622

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631

632

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765  
766  
767  
768  
769

770 **Table 1**

771 Sowing and emergence dates of the three field experimental sites and greenhouse  
 772 treatments for 2014, 2015 and 2016. Treatments were identified as follows: plants in  
 773 the cool greenhouse all crop cycle or control (C), heat at V4 (V4), in cool greenhouse up  
 774 to V4, then moved to hot greenhouse (V4c), in hot greenhouse up to V4, then moved to  
 775 the cool greenhouse (V4h), heat at V9 (V9), heat at anthesis (FL), heat at lag phase  
 776 (LG), heat at early grain filling (GF), heat all crop cycle (H), plants growing in the cool  
 777 greenhouse pollinated with pollen from the hot greenhouse (CxH), and plants growing  
 778 in the hot greenhouse pollinated with pollen from the cool greenhouse (HxC).  
 779

Field experiments				Greenhouse experiments	
Year	Site	Sowing date	Emergence date	Year	Treatment
2014	North	20 May	01-Jun	2014	C
	North	27 May	04-Jun		V4
	Central	20 May	30-May		V9
	Central	06 June	13-Jun		FL
	South	29 May	05-Jun		LG
	South	17 June	24-Jun		GF
2015	North	18 May	24-May	2015	C
	North	25 May	03-Jun		V4
	Central	30 April	07-may		V9
	Central	15 May	28-May		FL
	South	07 May	13-may		LG
	South	21 May	26-May		GF
2016	North	23 May	02-Jun	2016	H
	Central	17 May	25-May		Control



South

19 May

24-May

V4h

V4c

V9

FL

LG

H

CxH

HxC

---

780

781

782 **Table 2**  
 783 Length, width, and area of the ear leaf (as an indicator of total leaf area) for the  
 784 locations and years for which measurements were done. Significance of the analysis is  
 785 shown for location and sowing factors. Standard deviation is shown in brackets.

786

Experiment /factor	Ear leaf length (cm)	Ear leaf width (cm)	Ear leaf area (cm <sup>2</sup> )
<b>2015</b>			
North			
1st sowing	89.1 (5)	11.6 (0.2)	775 (50)
2nd sowing	86.9 (4)	11.0 (0.8)	718 (30)
South			
1st sowing	81.1 (4)	10.5 (0.8)	642 (77)
2nd sowing	89.8 (2)	10.3 (0.2)	697 (30)
Location	ns	*	**
Sowing	ns	ns	ns
Location x Sowing	*	ns	*
<b>2016</b>			
North	91.3 (0.4) b	11.0 (0.1) a	753 (3.6) a
Central	96.3 (1.2) a	9.6 (0.3) b	691 (15) b
South	86.9 (1.6) c	8.7 (0.2) c	565 (23) c
Location	***	***	***

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788 \*, \*\*, \*\*\*, ns: significant at  $P \leq 0.05$ , 0.01, 0.001, and not significant, respectively.  
 789 Means within columns followed by different letters differ significantly at  $P \leq 0.05$   
 790 (Duncan's multiple range test)

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800 **Table 3**  
 801 Tassel size expressed as Tassel Area Index (*TAI*, Fonseca, 2004) and amount of pollen  
 802 produced (millions of grains), with the corresponding standard deviation, from the 1st  
 803 sowing of the field experiments. Significance of the analysis is shown for location  
 804 factor.

Experiment /factor	TAI	SD	Tassel pollen grains (Million grains)	SD
<b>2014</b>				
North	1302 c	246	2.79c	0.46
Central	1719 b	334	3.57b	0.63
South	2526 a	322	5.08a	0.60
Location	***		***	
<b>2015</b>				
North	1396 c	200	2.96c	0.37
Central	1739 b	135	3.60b	0.25
South	2839 a	407	5.66a	0.76
Location	***		***	
<b>2016</b>				
North	NA		NA	
Central	2024	49	4.14	0.09
South	2908	282	5.79	0.53
Location	***		***	

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806 \*, \*\*, \*\*\*, ns: significant at  $P \leq 0.05$ , 0.01, 0.001, and not significant, respectively.  
 807 Means within columns followed by different letters differ significantly at  $P \leq 0.05$   
 808 (Duncan's multiple range test)

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818 **Figure captions:**

819 **Fig. 1.** Locations and main soil features of the three field experimental sites. (PAWC:  
820 Plant available water capacity).

821 **Fig. 2.** Observed daily solar radiation (RAD), maximum (Tmax) and minimum (Tmin)  
822 temperatures, and cycle length (days after emergence) for North (1st tier), Central (2nd  
823 tier) and South (3rd tier) field experiments with the 1st sowing dates and for years 2014,  
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825

826 **Fig. 3.** Observed anthesis, silking and maturity dates (days after emergence) for North,  
827 Central and South field experiments for first (S1) and second (S2) sowing dates in 2014  
828 (14) and 2015 (15), and a single sowing date (S) for 2016 (16). Vertical lines indicate  
829 half standard deviation.

830 **Fig. 4.** Observed number of leaves (Vstage) as a function of thermal unit accumulation  
831 (degree-days) calculated as thermal time over a base temperature (Tb) of 8°C (a) and by  
832 a beta function (b) for North, Central and South field experiments and for first (S1) and  
833 second (S2) sowing dates in 2015, and for the greenhouse experiments (c, for thermal  
834 time over Tb, d for a beta function). In the greenhouse, lines indicate that the same  
835 plants were monitored over time, and V designates V-stage (Ritchie et al., 1993) and T  
836 is visible leaf-tip stage.

837 **Fig. 5.** Example of conditions in the greenhouse experiments: Registered PAR,  
838 temperature and air humidity at the cool and hot greenhouses during the week from 20<sup>th</sup>  
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842 heat at V4 (V4), in cool greenhouse up to V4, then moved to hot greenhouse (V4c), in  
843 hot greenhouse up to V4, then moved to the cool greenhouse (V4h), heat at V9 (V9),  
844 heat at anthesis (FL), heat at lag phase (LG), heat at early grain filling (GF) and heat all  
845 crop cycle (H) in 2014, 2015 and 2016 (see section 2.1.2 for a description of the  
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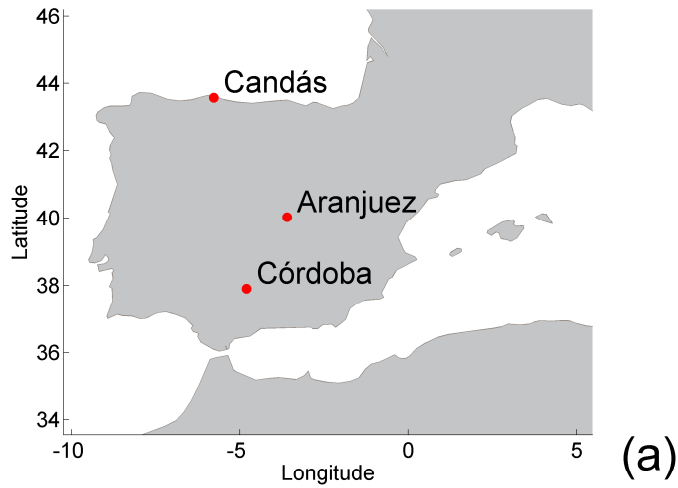
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863 (V4h), heat at V9 (V9), heat at anthesis (FL), heat at lag phase (LG), heat at early grain  
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865 pollen) in 2014, 2015 and 2016 (see section 2.1.2 for a description of the treatments).  
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867 significant differences between heat treatments at  $P \leq 0.05$  (Duncan's multiple range  
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872 ear from the greenhouse experiment in 2016, for treatments growing all season in the  
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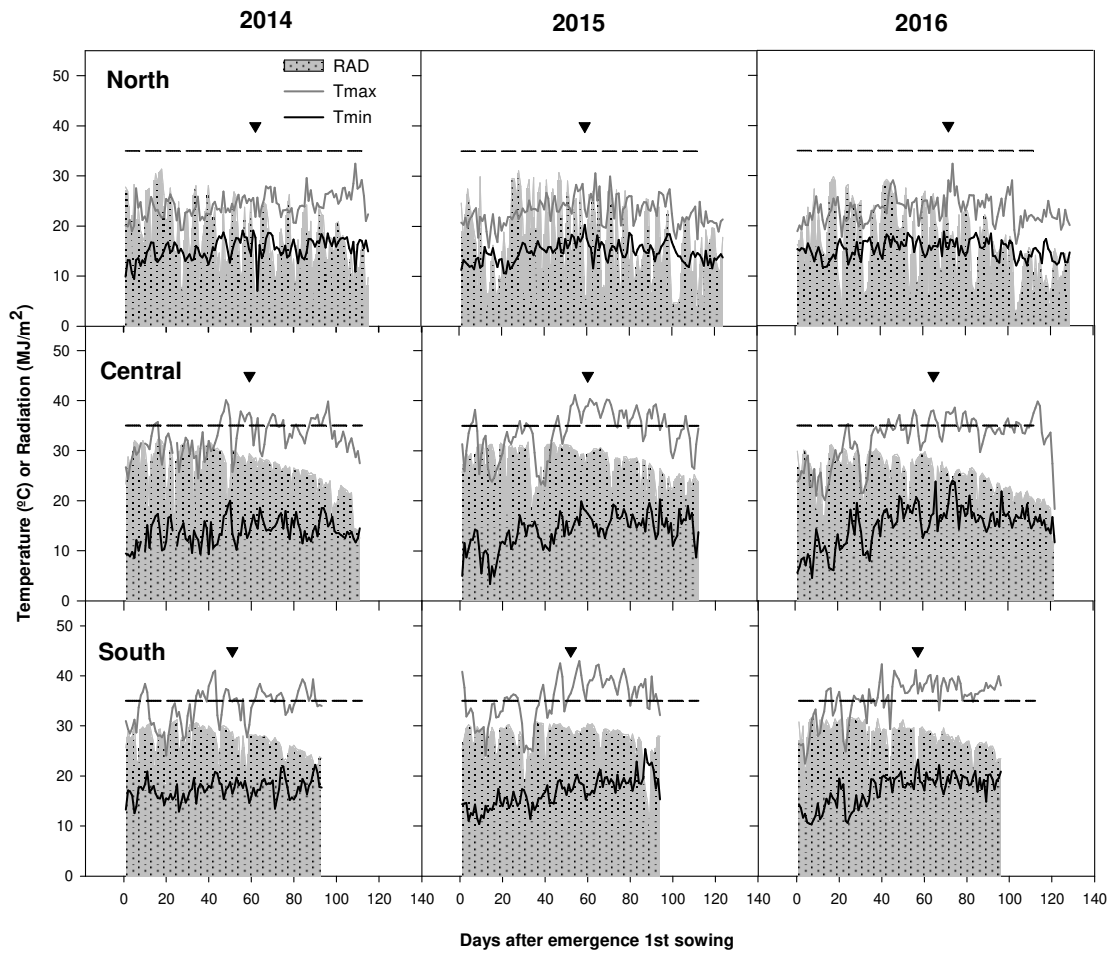
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Soil	North	Centre	South
Localization	Candás 43° 35' N, 5° 47' W	Aranjuez 40° 1' N, 3° 36' W	Córdoba 37° 54' N, 4° 48' W
Elevation (m)	80	525	250
Depth (cm)	100	120	195
Texture	Sandy clay loam	Loam/ silt-loam	Sandy Loam
PAWC (mm)	93	254	284

**Fig. 1. Locations and main soil features**

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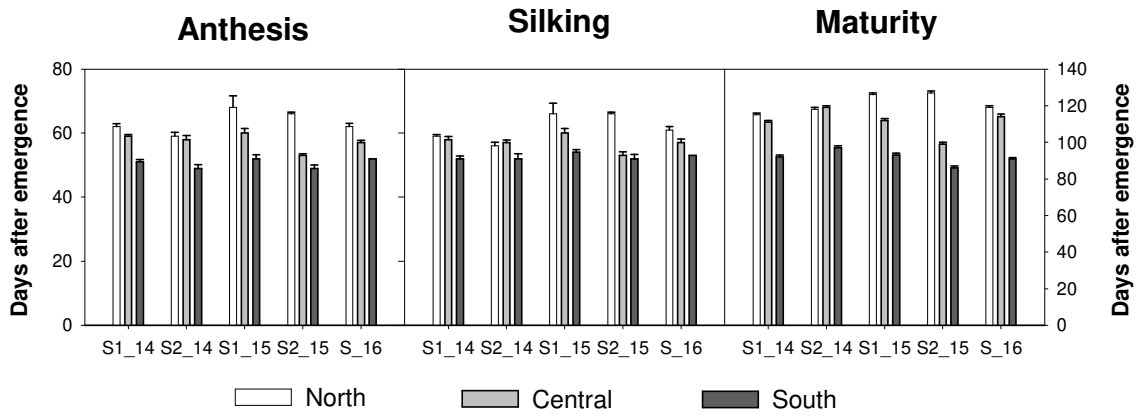


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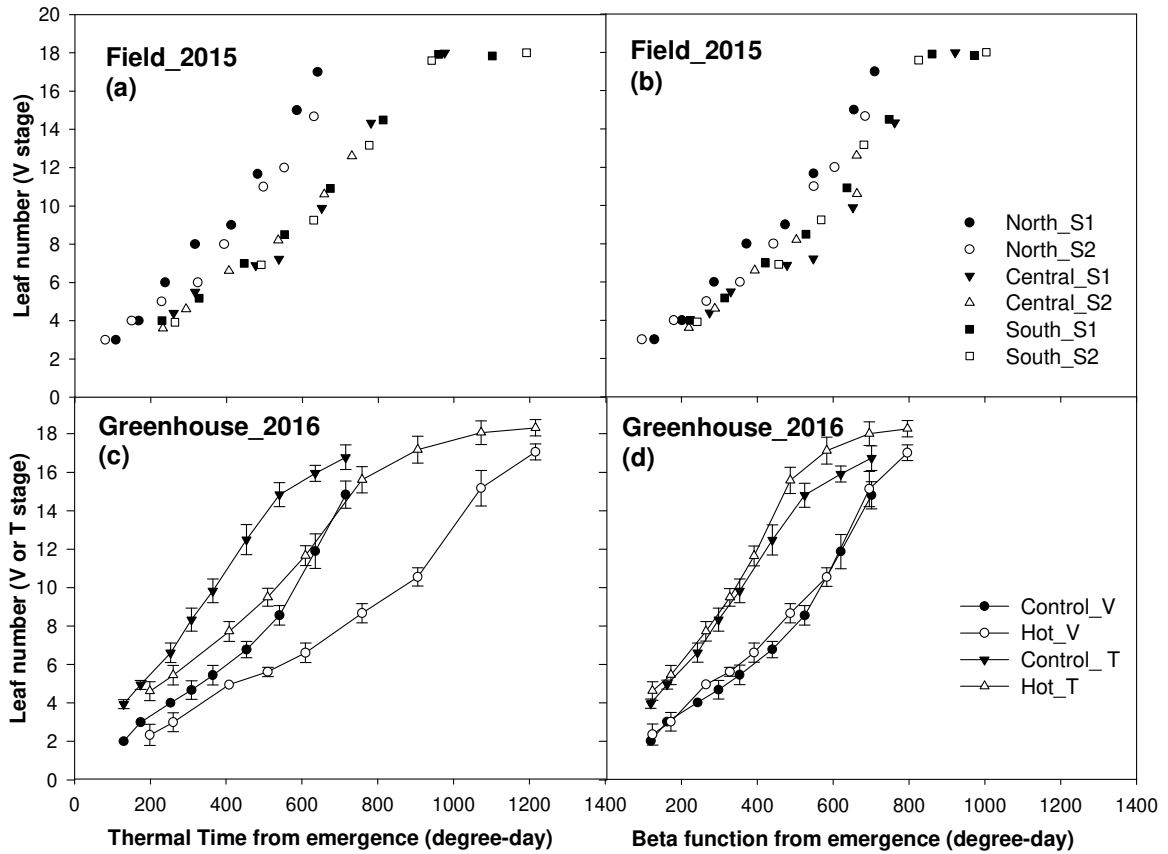
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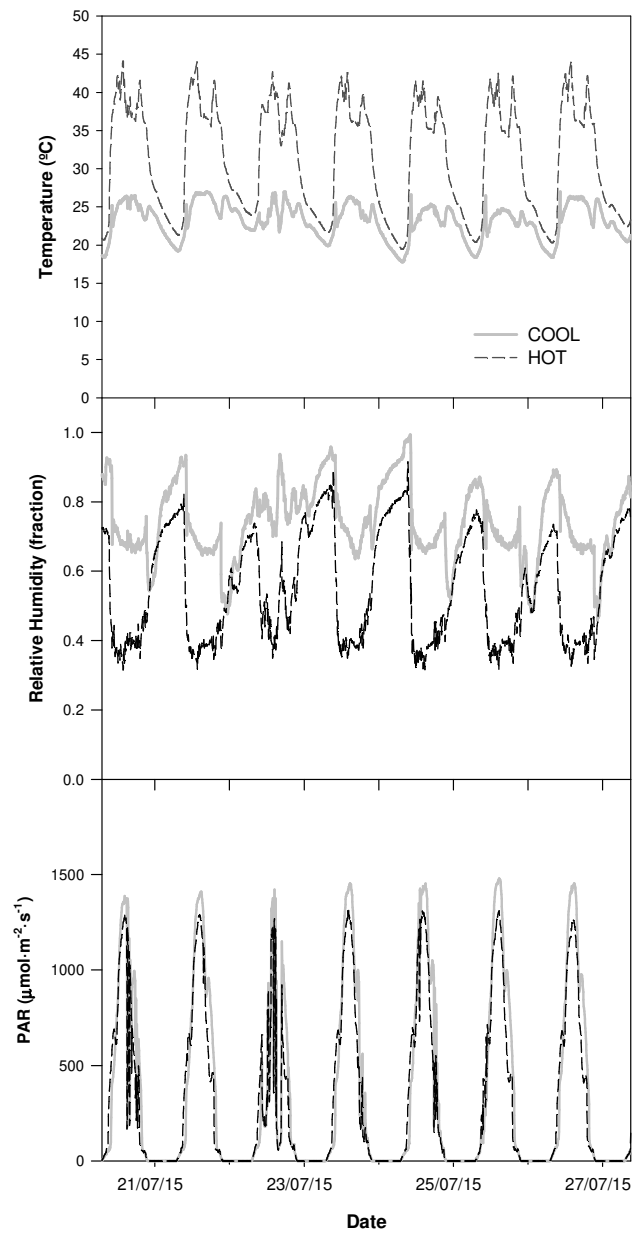


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Jul 20-27 2015

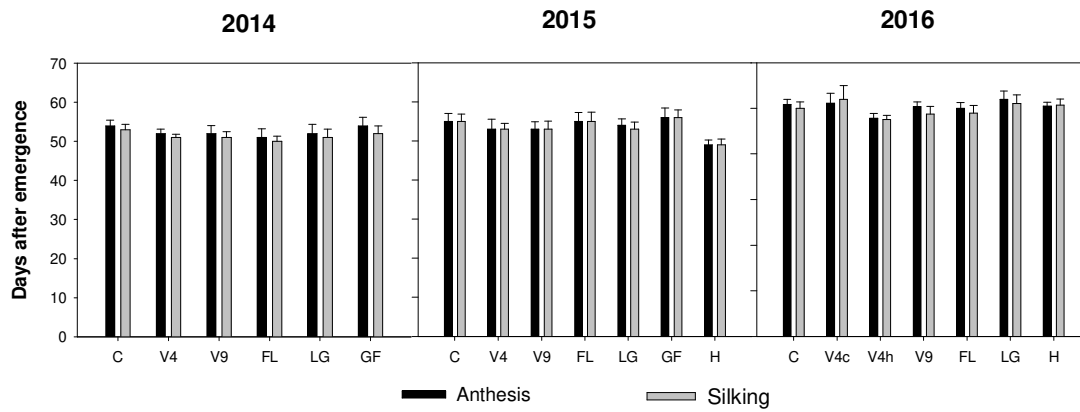


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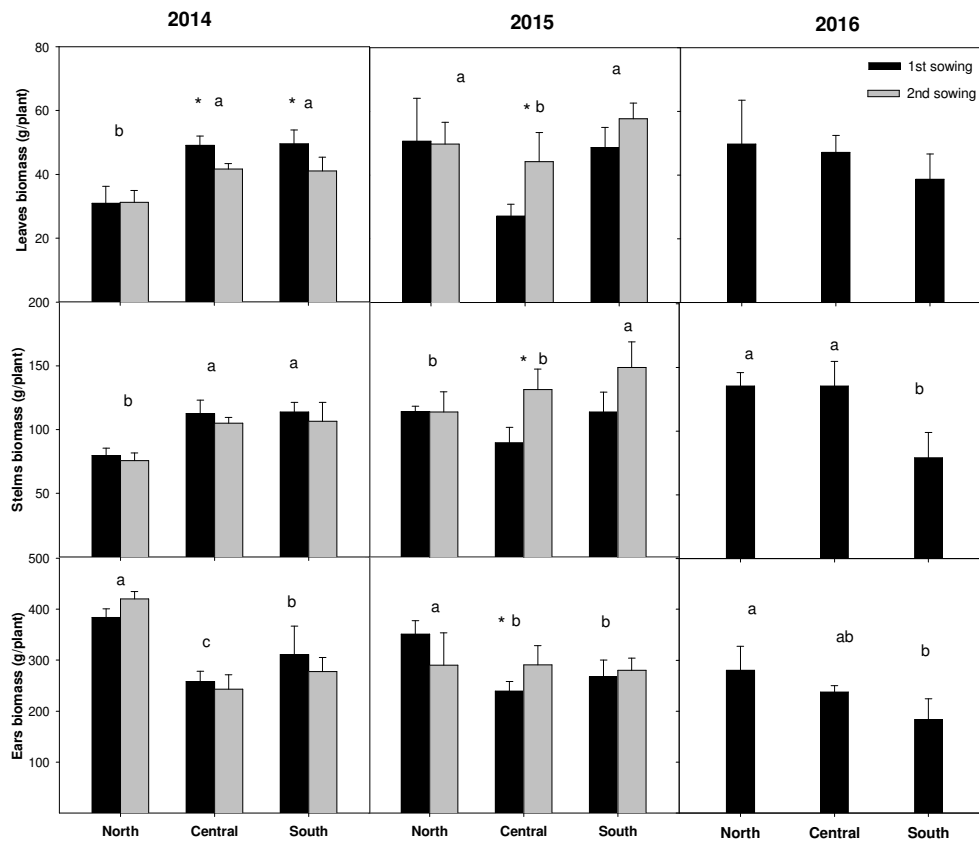


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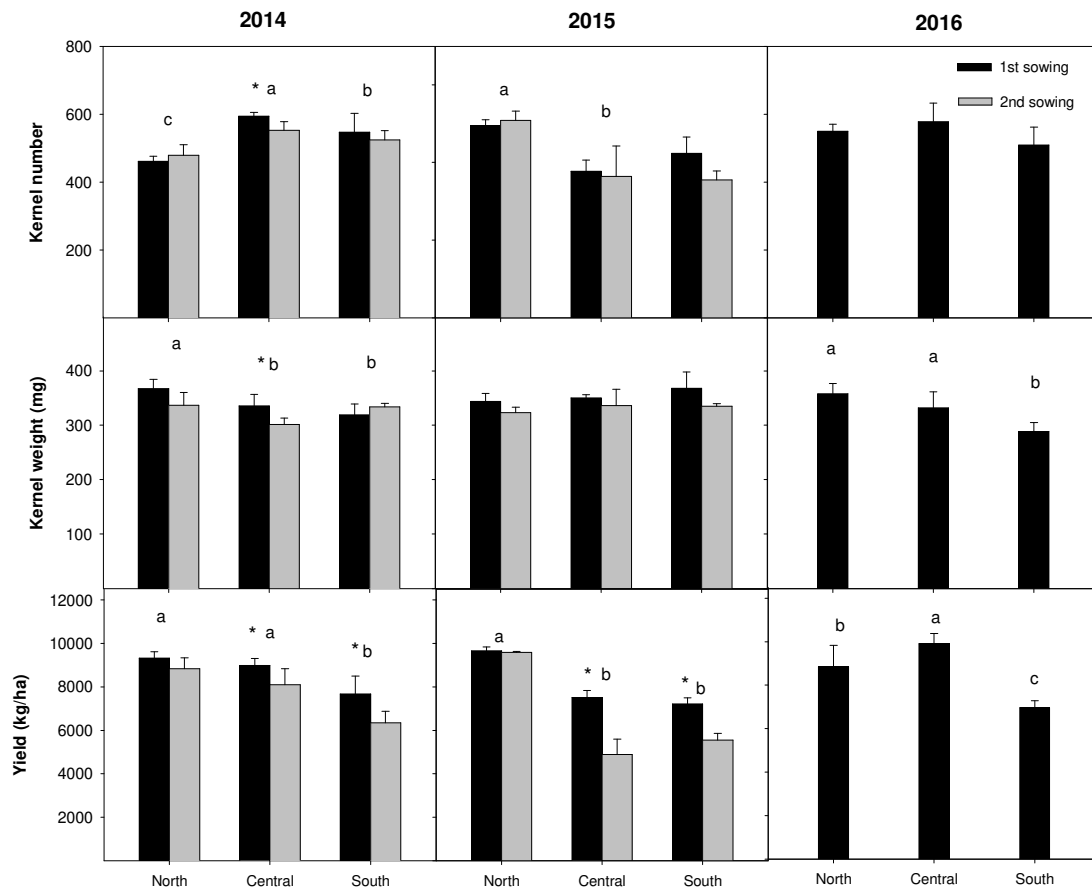


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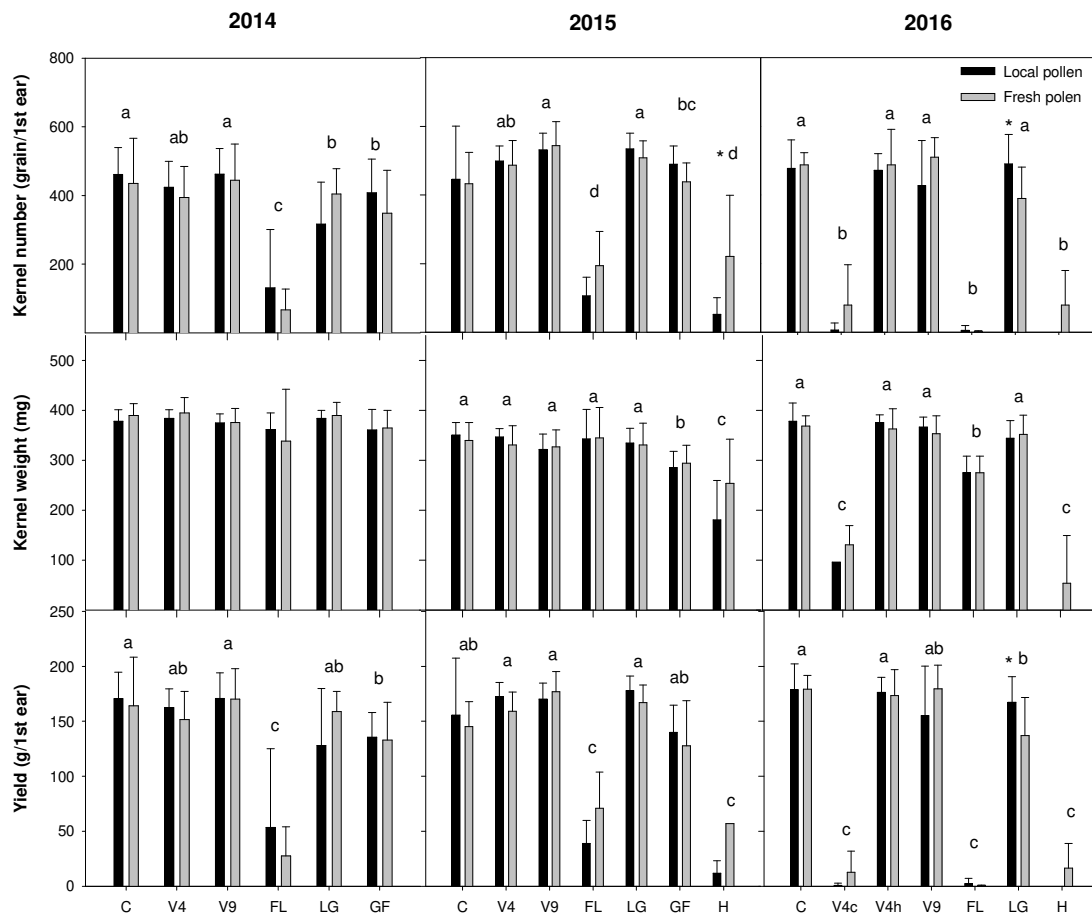


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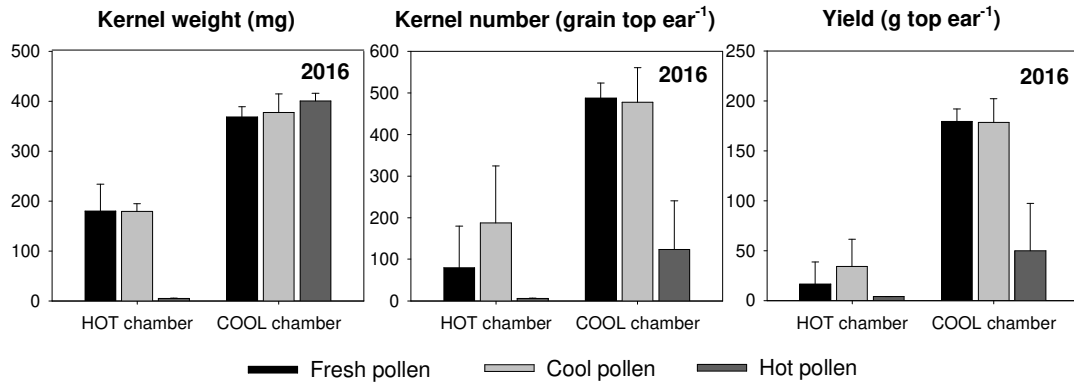
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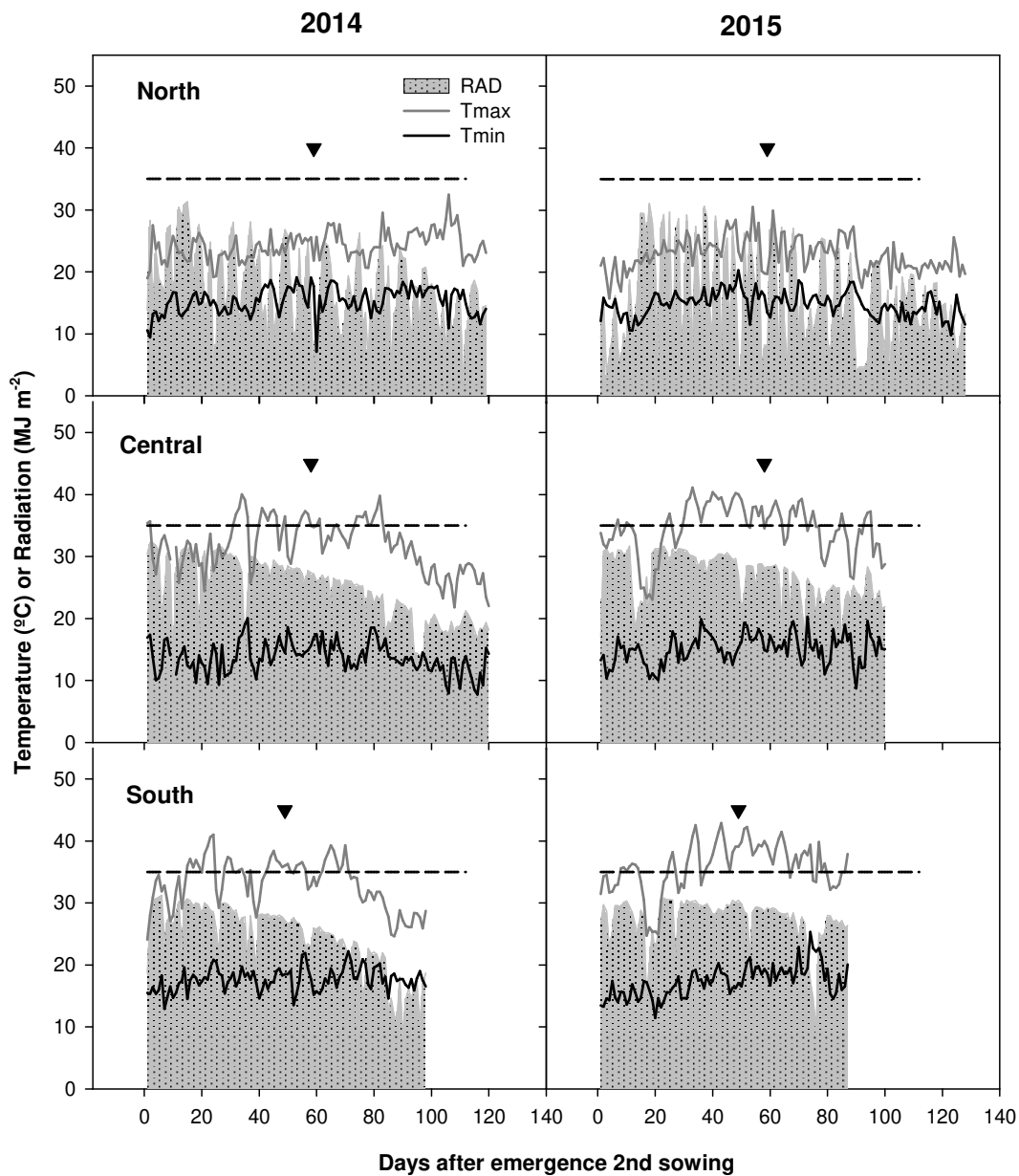


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 974 in years 2014 and 2015. Triangles mark anthesis date. Dashed line indicates 35 °C  
 975 threshold.

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977 **Table S1.** Coefficients of determination  $R^2$  from the regressions of visible leaf tips (T  
 978 stages) and ligulate leaves (V stages) versus thermal time (TT) calculated with the linear  
 979 8 – 34 °C classic method and with the simplified beta function (Yan and Hunt, 1999)  
 980 using greenhouse and field data.

Experiment	$R^2$ from classic TT estimations	R2 from beta function estimations
Greenhouse (V stages, 2016)	0.87	0.96
Green house (T stages, 2016)	0.85	0.96
Field (V stages, 2015)	0.85	0.92
Field (T stages, 2015)	0.56	0.67
Field and greenhouse together (V-stages, 2015, 2016)	0.81	0.93
Field and greenhouse together (T-stages, 2015, 2016)	0.77	0.95

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