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Role of Water Soluble Carbohydrates in Improving Drought Stress Tolerance in Wheat: An Overview

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Abstract

Abiotic factors such as drought and heat stress impairs photosynthetic assimilates, shortening the carbon supply to the developing grains leads to yield loss. Under water stress, stem water-soluble carbohydrates (WSCs) mainly fructans, play an important role in buffering yield during the grain filling period in wheat. The stem WSCs may contribute up to 20% of the total dry weight of grain under irrigated conditions and upto 70% of grain dry matter under drought stress. Additionally, it maintains physiological balance under water-stressed conditions by acting as signalling molecules to various phytochemicals and hormones. Therefore, this drought adaptive trait can be a potential breeding target for sustainable wheat production, especially for water limiting conditions. Despite the proven contribution of stem WSCs to water-stress tolerance in wheat and compensating grain yield, a comprehensive review on this trait is still missing in the literature. With this review, efforts are made to compile the available information on the physiological, genetic and molecular aspects of accumulation and remobilisation of stem WSCs to bring more attention of plant scientists to this trait. Furthermore, effective molecular marker systems such as KASP to target stable loci identified using GWAS, QTL or meta QTL studies may bring precision to the selection and accelerate the WSCs based wheat breeding program.

Keywords: Carbohydrate metabolism, Drought tolerance, Fructans, Wheat, WSC

1. Introduction

Climate change has significantly impacted the worlds' hydrological cycle, eventually affecting water availability in many parts of the world, including India (Gunathilaka *et al.*, 2018). This imbalance shows severe effects on agricultural production, especially on cereal crops that are widely cultivated under rainfed agriculture, such as wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.). As a primary staple food for ca. 2.5 billion people, wheat is a sustainable source of global food securityThe global production of wheat amounted over 765 million metric tons (Food Agriculture Organization

of the United Nations, 2021), however the rate of increase in annual wheat production has recently decreased from 3% (during 1970's and 1980's) to 0.9% in recent years is matter of concern (Gahlaut et al., 2021). . Nearly 50% of the total wheat production from developing countries comes from regions with less than 600 mm annual rainfall, characterized by frequent drought and inadequate irrigation methods in cropping seasons (Gupta *et al.*, 2017).

In wheat, water stress induces various morphological, physiological, and metabolic disruptions leading to an



inhibited rate of growth and development, loss of yield, and in extreme cases, loss of entire crop (Bharadwaj et al., 2021). Depending upon the degree of stress and growth stage, wheat crops may face up to 90% yield loss (Senapati et al., 2019, Own observations). To survive in such an unfavourable environment, the plant tries to readjust its metabolic and physiological activities. In wheat and its close relatives (barley and oat), the accumulation of water-soluble carbohydrates (WSCs) and subsequent remobilization into developing grains is one such adjustment (Dreccer Shreds of evidence advocating the critical role of WSCs in plant complex systems of growth and development, 2014). In wheat, a developing grain harnesses fixed carbon from two primary sources: (1) current photosynthetic assimilates and (2) assimilates stored in vacuoles. Photosynthetic assimilates are directly provided to developing grains when the growth conditions are favourable. Conversely, in the absence of photosynthesis during the diurnal cycle or dwindling photosynthesis conditions that may arise due to ageing or an environmental factor, the stored sugars (WSCs) become a crucial carbon source (Ehdaie et al., 2008; Schnyder, 1993). It indicates that WSCs accumulation and remobilization in wheat must be crucial for buffering grain yield under optimum and stressed conditions. WSCs are primarily made up of glucose (Glu), fructose (Fru), sucrose (Suc), and fructans; however fructans make most of the part of it. (Zhang et al., 2015a) Fructans are sucrosederived linear or branched polymers that range in length from trisaccharides (1-ketotriose, 6-ketotriose, and neoketotriose) to polysaccharides with hundreds of fructose units. Fructans, whether linear or branched, are formed by fructose molecules and often by terminal glucose. Wheat fructans of graminan-type are mixed levans that contain both (2-1)- and (2-6)-linked β-D-fructosyl units (Yáñez et al., 2017).

The genetic mechanisms underlying the variation in WSC are still partially understood. Many previous studies have advocated the critical role of WSCs in plant complex systems of growth and development under optimum and hostile environments are available. For instance, sucrose signalling induces anthocyanin accumulation and activates pathogenesis-related (PR) genes in rice and arabidopsis (Gómez-Ariza *et al.*, 2007; Thibaud *et al.*, 2004). Important role of PR genes have been idnetifed (Akbudak *et al.*, 2020). For example, in *Arabidopsis Di19* (Drought-

induced) gene upregulates the PR genes in response to drought tolerance (Liu *et al.*, 2013). Increasing fructans concentration may help a wheat plant cope with salinity and/or drought stress by maintaining the membrane stability and reducing osmotic potential (Kerepesi and Galiba, 2000; Livingston *et al.*, 2009). Peshev *et al.* (2013) suggested the role of increased fructan in phloem mobile signalling and reactive oxygen species scavenging mechanism. Moreover, it is evident from previous studies that remobilization of WSCs to developing grains under optimum or water stress conditions may contribute up to 20% and 70%, respectively (Goggin and Setter, 2004; Ovenden *et al.*, 2017). Thus, the role of WSCs to grain growth could be very significant under water deficit conditions (Reynolds *et al.*, 2007).

Despite the availability of ample literature advocating the importance of WSCs in wheat, an updated and comprehensive review is still not available. Therefore, in this review, we aimed at the various aspects of WSCs to improve drought tolerance in wheat. Here, we discuss the physiological and molecular basis of accumulation, dynamic flux, and genetic variations of WSCs in wheat, and how the individual components contribute to drought tolerance. In addition we briefly describe the recent advancements and future thrust in context to breeding sustainable wheat using WSCs as a potential drought adaptive trait.

2. The accumulation

The freshly formed sucrose during photosynthesis is efficiently partitioned and transported to sinks either as sucrose by sucrose transporters or as glucose and fructose by hexose transporters after hydrolyzation by cell wall invertase. A partition of the sucrose is transported to vacuoles to form a short-term reservoir of water-soluble sugars., a part of sucrose remains unconverted, and another part converts to glucose, fructose and fructans. The glucose and fructose are formed in a reaction catalyzed by cell wall invertase whereas, fructans are formed in the reaction catalyzed by fructosyltransferase. In wheat, sucrose:sucrose-1-fructosyltransferase (1-SST), sucrose:fructose-6-fructosyltransferase (6-SFT) and fructan: fructan 1-fructosyltransferase (1-FFT) catalyzes the synthesis of 1-kestotriose, 6-kestotriose and 1,6-kestotetraose, and 1,1-kestotetraose forms of fructans,



respectively (Cortés-Romero *et al.*, 2012; Lasseur *et al.*, 2009; Xue *et al.*, 2008).

Genotypic potential, environmental conditions, edaphic factors and their interaction largely influence the accumulation and storage of stem WSCs (Ovenden et al., 2017; del Pozo et al., 2016). The WSC in wheat stem generally occurs between stem elongation and 15 days after anthesis (DAA); however, some studies suggests that the accumulation may continue up to 20DAA in optimum conditions (Kühbauch and Thome, 1989). Similarly Ehdaie et al., 2006b observed that the maximum WSC level was reached 20 days after anthesis (DAA) in the penultimate internodes and peduncle of the well-watered plants, while it peaked at 10DAA in the lower internodes In internodes, WSCs accumulation is likely to occur in acropetal order, *i.e.* lower internodes start accumulating the WSCs as soon as they complete their elongation phase while the upper internodes are still elongating (Bonnett and Incoll, 1993). WSC levels in the lower internodes were higher than those in the peduncles of both well-watered and drought-stressed plants at mid-grainfilling (Zhang et al., 2014). On average, the WSC in the lower internodes mobilised the most stem WSC (51%) in drought and irrigated plants, followed by the penultimate internode and the peduncle (Ehdaie et al., 2006b). Some of the previous studies in wheat revealed that WSC reserves continuously accumulate before anthesis and reach highest between 7DAA and 20DAA when photosynthetic tissue synthesize WSC at a greater rate than the requirement of the various sink (Gebbing, 2003; Li et al., 2020). Nitrogen management in the field significantly affects the WSCs concentration in the wheat shoot; indeed, a per cent increase in nitrogen may reduce the WSCs level by 28% (Valluru et al., 2011). The moisture content of the field shows an inverse relation with WSCs concentration in the wheat peduncle, *i.e.* with the increase in water stress, WSCs concentration also increases (Li et al., 2020). Under severe drought conditions total WSCs in wheat peduncle may increase up to 25%, whereas, under rainfed conditions with no artificial irrigation, it may increase up to 17%. An increase in CO₂ level, rate of gaseous exchange, flag leaf chlorophyll and nitrogen content increases the rate and amount of WSCs accumulation in the wheat stem. Higher potential of WSCs accumulation in drought-tolerant genotypes in contrast to sensitive one has been suggested

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in many previous studies (Macabuhay *et al.*, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2016).

Accumulation of WSCs occurs in every vegetative part of the wheat plant. The highest contribution to grain filling as a carbon source is provided by stem WSCs, specifically in water stress. The total WSC content in wheat stem may reach up to 60% of the dry weight and sometimes even more . This accumulation depends on space (internodes) and time (elongation phase). However, this spatio-temporal behaviour does not assure higher accumulation in lower internodes as the mean rate of accumulation is reported much higher in top internodes (Bonnett and Incoll, 1992; Schnyder, 1993). The peak amount of accumulation in different internodes of wheat stems depends upon the plant growth phase. In lower internodes, it peaks somewhere between stem elongation to 10DAA in penultimate its peak may be found between anthesis to 20DAA and in peduncle post-anthesis to 20DAA (Ehdaie et al., 2006b; Schnyder, 1993; Bonnett and Incoll, 1992). Zhang et al. (2016) demonstrated a substantial contribution of root WSCs in grain filling. The WSC level in roots was up to 15% of dry weight; however, the storage pattern was similar to stems. Moreover, the stem morphology reinforces the potential impact on the accumulation process. In a recent study at ICAR-IIWBR, a certain degree of a linear relationship between peduncle length and WSC concentration at 15DAA was observed under water stress conditions . These results were in line with Pierre et al. (2010), who showed a close association with various stem morphological traits such as length of the main stem, internode length, solidness with WSCs concentration under water stress and irrigated conditions. Furthermore, 20% higher stem WSC had reported in reduced tillering genotypes in contrast to free tillering genotypes (van Herwaarden and Richards, 2002).

Rather than being an independent trait, WSC is a product of the sum of the concentrations of accumulated glucose, fructose, sucrose and fructans in vacuoles. Thus, WSC concentration shall depend on photosynthesis efficiency and carbohydrate metabolism. Hence, the molecules affecting photosynthesis and carbohydrate metabolism in a particular environment likely to affect the WSCs accumulation, also. Xue *et al.* (2008) presented the most transparent view on the molecular basis of WSCs accumulation in wheat under irrigated and water-stress

conditions. With Affymetrix GeneChip, an upstream analysis was performed using sixteen Seri/Babax RILs contrasting for total stem WSC concentration at anthesis. This study revealed a correlation between WSC concentration and mRNA transcript levels of at least 41 enzymes belonging to wheat carbohydrate metabolism. Total mRNA level of 1-SST and 6-SFT genes showed a significant positive correlation with WSC concentration; conversely, total mRNA level of soluble acid invertase, sucrose synthase, cellulose synthase, fructokinase and pyruvate dehydrogenase (E1ß and E3) negatively correlated. Later, Xue et al. (2011) demonstrated a highly significant and positive correlation between mRNA levels of homologous series of TaMYB genes and fructosyltransferase (1-SST and 6-SFT) genes eventually affected the stem WSC accumulation at anthesis in Seri/ Babax RILs.

Recent genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have presented a more complex view on stem WSC accumulation in wheat at different growth stages and water regimes; however, the number of these studies are pretty less. The first-ever SNP based GWAS for stem WSC concentration was carried out by Dong et al. (2016). They identified nine putative genes for stem WSC content at 14DAA. However, only one gene (1-SST) was directly involved in WSC metabolic pathway, rest eight were involved in different activities such as glycerol metabolism, ABA response, immune response and mitogen-activated protein kinase. They also observed that the molecular mechanism of WSC accumulation in wheat stems varies with environmental conditions. The above evidence indicates that the underlying molecular mechanism of WSC accumulation is complex, and more number of studies are needed to dissect this complex trait.

3. The remobilization

Stored WSCs remobilize from source (vacuoles) to sink (developing grain) when the current assimilation rate declines due to the diurnal cycle, senescence and stress conditions. The declined rate of photosynthesis reduces available sugars that promote the remobilization of soluble sugars from reservoirs. Glucose, fructose, sucrose and fructans are components of stored WSCs. The first three sugars relocate to sink directly whereas, the fructans convert to hexose sugars before relocating to sink tissues. The pre- and post-anthesis rate of remobilization significantly differ between water conditions as, with limiting conditions, it is relatively high compared to favourable conditions; furthermore, the drought-tolerant genotypes has more potential of remobilization in contrast to sensitive one (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Palta *et al.*, 1994). Liu *et al.* (2020) has demonstrated that pre-anthesis remobilization is higher in drought-stressed plants, whereas post-anthesis remobilization is higher in well-watered plants.

The study of the dynamic flux of WSCs is done based on individual segments (lower internodes, penultimate and peduncle) of the main stem. The remobilization rate is higher in lower internodes before anthesis and in penultimate and peduncle after anthesis. However, this pattern remains constant irrespective of water conditions, but the stress conditions and genotypic potential can affect the remobilization efficiency. For example, remobilization efficiency can increase by 65, 17, and 11% water deficit condition in the peduncle, penultimate and lower internodes, respectively (Ehdaie et al., 2006a and 2006b). Conversely, Ma et al. (2014) demonstrated that the remobilization might increase by 110%, 137%, and 33% under severe drought stress in the whole stem, lower internodes, and upper internodes. Under terminal drought stress, stem WSC remobilization during the grain filling stage can contribute as much as 30-50% of grain yield (Piaskowski et al., 2016) and in some elite cultivars up to 70% (Rebetzke et al., 2008).

Genotypic potential and variation for WSCs remobilization to sink lay within the regulation of genes encoding fructans exohydrolases (FEHs) and cell wall/vacuolar invertase (cwINV). FEH and cwINV are highly similar proteins with different activities (Le Roy et al., 2013). Fructans conversion to hexose that depends on the FEH activities is crucial for remobilization. Researchers have frequently reported different types of FEH in wheat. The two prominent FEHs are 1-FEH and 6-FEH that break inulin and levan fructans to fructose and sucrose (Van Riet et al., 2008; Xue et al., 2008). Two other exohydrolases are, 6-kestosexohydrolase (6-KEH) and 6,1-FEH hydrolyze 6-kestotriose and small graminian type fructans (Kawakami et al., 2005; Van Den Ende et al., 2005). Three isoforms of 1-FEH (w1, w2 and w3) are known, but the isoform *w3* is speculated to be functionally more critical in remobilization (Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2009; Van Riet et al., 2008). However, studies suggest



that under drought stress, the mRNA level of *FEH* genes significantly increases in stem segments, but the peduncle and penultimate show a much higher transcript count, comparatively. Zhang *et al.* (2015) demonstrated early (15DAA) upregulation of 1-*FEH* w3 under drought stress in contrast to irrigated conditions (>20DAA) which indicate that declined photosynthesis and senescence must have some regulatory control on this gene which needs further investigations.

Few early studies have advocated an inverse relationship between plant height and remobilization of soluble sugars to developing grain (Blum *et al.*, 1997; Shakiba *et al.*, 1996; Borrell *et al.*, 1993). Dwarf genotype with *Rht1* and *Rht2* alleles shows reduced accumulation but greater remobilization (Borrell *et al.*, 1993). To the best of our knowledge, the effect of stem morphology on remobilization is not widely studied yet and need to be investigated from various aspects.

4. Role of WSCs in Water Stress Tolerance

The role of reserved WSCs' in water stress tolerance in wheat is much discussed for buffering grain yield by compensating the declined rate of current assimilation. Variations among wheat genotypes for accumulation and remobilization of WSC exist within the differential capacity of photosynthesis, respiration and carbon use efficiency under drought stress conditions (Tricker et al., 2018). Therefore, drought-tolerant varieties presumably accumulate and remobilize more WSCs as a secondary source of carbon and maintain a better harmonious relationship between the source (CO₂ assimilation) and sink (developing grains) under water limiting conditions (Ruuska et al., 2006;). A broad genetic variability in stem WSCs has been reported for wheat. Many studies have reported higher stem WSC content and remobilization in drought-tolerant genotypes than sensitive ones (Gupta et al., 2011). The stem WSCs content positively correlates with final grain yield, especially in a water deficit environment (Ruuska et al., 2006). Studies have shown relatively higher WSCs content in wheat stem under water-stressed than non-stressed conditions (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2014). In a similar study, Goggin and Setter (2004) reported an increase of 2.5 folds in the content of stem fructans of three high yielding Australian cultivars viz, Kauz, Westonia and Attila-A under rainfed conditions. Dreccer et al. (2009) evaluated a set of 194



Seri/Babax RILs under complete drought, rainfed and irrigated conditions and reported an increase in grain filling rate, grain weight and yield by 41%, 34% and 10%, respectively in high WSCs content RILs relative to lower ones. Contribution of 10-20% and 30-50% in kernel weight due to remobilization of WSCs under optimum and water stress conditions, respectively, has been advocated by Rebetzke *et al.* (2008) and Goggin and Setter (2004). Thus, remobilization of WSCs may contribute from 10% to 70% to the final grain weight and even more in some high potential genotypes.

As discussed earlier, reserved WSC is a composite trait of the accumulated amount of glucose, fructose, sucrose and fructans, which are essential sugars to maintain the integrity of plant life. Discussing the roles of the individual component during water stress would be beyond the objective of this article. Briefly, as: signalling molecules, ROS scavengers, and osmolytes, these sugars might be critical to help a wheat plant cope with drought stress conditions. Accumulation of soluble sugars under water stress may promote proline, a crucial osmolyte, accumulation that play a key role in ROS scavenging by stimulating antioxidant activity and stabilizing biomolecules (Hayat et al., 2012; Sperdouli and Moustakas, 2012). Sugar accumulation also reduces photosynthesis and dehydration, maintaining water potential and turgidity in leaves (Xu et al., 2007; F. Liu et al., 2004). In addition, glucose induces stomatal closure to enhance adaptability to water stress (Osakabe et al., 2014). Fructans reduce water leakage, protect membranes' structural integrity, and enhance recovery mechanisms (Valluru and Van Den Ende, 2008). Components of WSC may act as signalling molecules such as small fructans, and sucrose acts as phloem-mobile signalling under many stress conditions, including drought (Ruan, 2014; Van den Ende, 2013). Glucose also plays a vital role in the signalling and regulation of phytohormones related to water stress through sucrose non-fermenting 1-related protein kinase (SnRK1) and hexokinase (HXK1) energy sensors (Abhinandan et al., 2018; Golldack et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2013). The reallocation of stored sugars may further enhance the water use efficiency in water deficit conditions (Zhang et al., 2008).

Traces in this reference may find with the transgenic studies. Pilon-Smits *et al.* (1995) demonstrate the effect of

accumulation of bacterial fructans in transgenic tobacco. Lines with high WSC showed ~55% higher growth rate and ~59% higher dry weight under polyethylene glycol (PEG) simulated drought conditions. Li et al. (2007) demonstrate reduced electrolyte leakage rate and malondialdehyde concentration under cold stress in transgenic tobacco lines with 1-SST gene form lettuce in contrast to wild type and anti-sense lines. Transformation of 1-FFT from Helianthus tuberosus in tobacco leaves demonstrated the higher accumulation of fructans, which led to increased concentration of total WSCs and proline with subsequent reduction in malondialdehyde (MAD) under PEG simulated drought (Sun et al., 2020). Higher accumulation of WSCs by stressed plants can invariably be seen in these studies. Therefore, presumably, besides compensating the grain weight, WSCs may also be playing a crucial role in maintaining physiological balance in a water-stressed wheat plant.

5. Breeding for stem WSCs

The facts presented earlier in this article advocate the potential contributions of stem WSCs to grain weight and water stress tolerance. With his comprehensive review, Blum (1998) probably first advocated the direct selection of stem WSCs as a potential trait for improving grain filling in wheat under water stress. Studies published on the recent genetic gains in modern wheat varieties of Australia, the United Kingdom and the southern Yellow and Hui Valley of China suggested inadvertent selection for increased WSCs (Gao *et al.*, 2017; Shearman *et al.*, 2005; van Herwaarden and Richards, 2002). This selection might have been assisted by selection for increased harvest index, erect canopies, greener areas, radiation interception, and other traits associated with enhanced photosynthetic capacity and better partitioning.

Rebutting the hypothesis that supports the requirement of consistent terminal drought for increased WSCs, Foulkes *et al.* (2007) and Shearman *et al.* (2005) advocated a positive correlation between progressive genetic gain in grain yield and increased WSCs under irrigated and terminal drought. The correlation studies between stem WSCs, grain yield, and associated traits take this dilemma to the next level. Some studies demonstrate a significant positive association between stem WSCs and grain yield (Gao *et al.*, 2017; Xue *et al.*, 2008), whereas others indicate variable, non-significant and even negative association (Ovenden *et al.*, 2017; del Pozo *et al.*, 2016). However, the positive correlation of stem WSCs with grains per spike and thousand-grain weight is more stable and transparent, particularly under water-limited environments (Ruuska *et al.*, 2006; Fu *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, Ovenden *et al.* (2017) suggested that the direct selection for stem WSC might not be a better strategy for improving yield under drought than direct selection for yield.

Genotypic variability and trait stability are two critical factors for the success of any breeding programme. Evidence suggesting the genotypic variations of accumulation and remobilization of stem WSCs at different growth phases and water conditions are available (Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Hou et al., 2018; Dong et al., 2016; McIntyre et al., 2012; Ruuska et al., 2006). Various studies have identified low and high WSC genotypes with differential yield, stem biomass or yield tolerance index using recombinant inbred lines (RILs), cultivars, synthetic hexaploid derived lines, and double haploid population (Guerra et al., 2021). These variations depend on numerous factors such as photosynthetic capacity, carbon use efficiency and partitioning, respiration, and several other physiological processes that affect the carbohydrate metabolisms in a vascular plant (Xue et al., 2008). These factors are supposed to be highly sensitive to environmental conditions. Many studies have reported low to high genotype x environment interaction coupled with high residual variance for stem WSCs (Ovenden et al., 2017; del Pozo et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2016). Despite the considerable influence of the environment, medium to high broad-sense heritability of 0.46-0.93 has been reported for stem WSCs, estimated at different growth stages and environments (Rebetzke et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020). This suggests a cautious early selection while accounting genotype x environment interaction for this trait is possible (Ovenden et al., 2017).

QTLs associated with accumulation and redistribution of stem WSCs may differentially express depending upon the stage and environment due to robust Environment X QTL (eQTLs) interactions (Ovenden *et al.*, 2017; Yang *et al.*, 2007). However, identification of stable loci (loci associated with BLUE/BLUPs, across multiple environments or studies) may solve the purpose of improving the selection abilities of a breeder. In the past two decades, efforts made to identify loci for stem WSC



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Trait	Water regime	Population	Genotyping	MTAs	QTLs	Marker	ΓG	Position	$\mathbf{R2}$
			Guer	ra <i>et al.</i> (2021)					
						iniaGBS56801	3A	4425	0.12
						iniaGBS12206	4B	11169	0.1
water-soluble carbohydrate						iniaGBS21514	5D	1859	0.09
concentration at anthesis (WSCa)						iniaGBS13140	5B	8732	0.09
		225 spring				iniaGBS61502	1A	8462	0.08
	w w and RF	wheat	3243 SNP 9	6		inia GBS86062	6B	21361	0.08
Apparent remobilization of water- soluble carbohydrates (ARWSC)	1	genotypes				iniaGBS83719	6D	5759	0.14
						iniaGBS52443	6B	17021	0.12
lotal WSC content at anthesis per						iniaGBS52444	6B	17185	0.12
						iniaGBS24966	7B	33179	0.09
			Fu	<i>et al.</i> (2020)					
						AX-109989656	1A		8.86
WSC10						AX-109293426	1A		12.98
(Stem WSC content at 10 days post-						UVV0VJLLL AV	d I		19 60
anthesis)						AA-111040444U	IB		13.00
						AX-94811887	1D		10.38
						$BS00098423_51$	2A		
						AX-110010963	4A		10.16
						AX-108959247	6B		12.33
						AX-110514480	7D		15.43
	117117	166 winter	660 K and			AX-111668935	1B		12.07
	~ ~	wneat	90 K SNP			<i>AX-111640220</i>	1D		9.85
		genutypes				AX-111552571	2A		14.58
WSC20 (Stem WSC content at 20 days most-anthasis)						AX-108729610	2B		11.24
uays postanuresis)						AX-94829137	3A		
						AX-111031397	5A		13.8
						AX-111274903	6B		8.17
						BobWhite_c39668_143	3 1A		11.77
WSC30 (Stem WSC content at 30						AX-110028549	2A		17.44
days post-anthesis)						AX-108784564	7A		
						AX-108972618	7A		11.59

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Water soluble carbohydrates in wheat

				Li et al. (2020				
Stone store solution and sheet at at					Qwscf.acs-3B.1	Xpsp3112-Xgwm72	3B	6.96/8.09
the flowering stage (WSCf)					Qwscf.acs-4A	Xksum51-Xgwm637	4A	9.14/9.58
the movering stage (W.S.C.I)					Qwscf.acs-7A.2	Xbarc195-Xbarc121	7A	3.42/4.12
					Qwscg.acs-2D.1	Xgwm261-Xwmc112	2D	3.92/4.62
Water-soluble carbonydrates at the main-filling strates (M/SCg)					Qwscg.acs-4B.1	Xgwm495-Xgwm251	4B	4.91/3.08
grammang stage (WUUCg)					Quoseg.acs-5A.1	Xmag694-Xgwm415	5A	2.97/3.83
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at the maturity stage (WSCm)	DS and	100 DTL 5	CER CND	160	Qvescm.acs-7A.2	Xbarc195-Xbarc121	7A	3.48/8.94
Pre-anthesis WSC remobilization rate. (WRRpr)	ΜM	STIM 021		004	Qwrrpr.acs-6B.2	Xwmc341-Xbarc198	6B	5.49/6.66
Post-anthesis WSC remobilization					Qwrrps.acs-4B.1	Xgwm495-Xgwm251	4B	1.75/5.31
rate. (WRRps)					Querrps.acs-5A.4	Xgwm443-Xcfa2155	5A	0.97/0.89
Pre-anthesis WSC contribution rate. (WCRDr)					Qwcrpr.acs-6B.1	Xcfd13-Xwmc737	6B	4.92/5.76
Post-anthesis WSC contribution					Oreverse acc-6R 1	X781mr 3.41 - Xhawr 19.8	ЯŖ	5 81/5 30
rate. (WCRps)					in and mark		-	70.0 /10.0
			L	Vadia <i>et al.</i> (20	17)			
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at the grain-filling stage (SWSCG)	DS and	116 winter wheat				Xwmc112	2D 28	0.15-0.44
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at the maturity stage (SWSCM)	MM	genotypes				Xwmc420	4AL 7	0.15 - 0.44
				Dong et al. (20	16)			
						wsnp_Ra_ c26191_35761997	1AS 54	8.2
						Tdurum_ contig8382_300	1AS 58	7.6
						$BobWhite_c4147_1429$	1BS 63	6.8
						Excalibur_c12994_1060	1BL 82	7.7
		166 Chinese				Kukri_c11000_1769	1BL 137	6.8
WSC content 14DAA	ΜM	bread wheat	90K SNP	52		$BS00066305_{51}$	1BL 159	8.6
		cultivars				IAAV4884 8.1	1BL 159	8.1
						RFL_Contig3165_667	1BL 159	10.5
						BobWhite_c34125_183	1BL	7.6
						$BS00063907_{51}$	1DL 160	8.2
						Excalibur_c7963_1722	2BS 116	7.6
						$GENE-0137_469$	2BS 69	7.2
						GENE-1421_706	2BS 69	7.6

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	Kukri_c29640_92	2BS	6969	6.9
	Kukri_rep_ c106290_204	2BS	69	7.2
	Ku_c34562_480	2BS	72	8.5
	$Excalibur_c40229_76$	2BS	88	7.5
	$BS00022949_{51}$	2BS	91	7.1
	BS00065993_51	2BS	91	7.5
	$Excalibur_c11505_155$	3AS	26	7.4
	RAC875_c20134_535	3AS	26	7.2
	Excalibur_c54388_193	3B	99	7.5
	Kukri_rep_c70097_286	3B	66	8
	wsnp_CAP11_ c558_382875	3B	99	8
	BS00003522_51	3B	67	7.9
	RAC875_c15109_510	3B	81	7.9
	TA002089-1495	3B	81	7.3
	RAC875_c35720_229	3B	82	7.6
	RAC875_c35720_456	3B	82	8.4
	wsnp_Ex_rep_ c68193_66971396	3 B	83	8.5
	BS00067163_51	3DL	130	14.5
	D_ GA8KES402JVT1Y_74	3DL	130	14.6
	GENE-1785_118	3DL	130	15.2
	GENE-1785_626	3DL	130	12.4
	Excalibur_c15280_1242	$4\mathrm{AL}$	109	7.5
	BS00062691_51	4BS	62	7
	$BS00074440_{51}$	4BS	62	7.1
	Tdurum_ contig57516_269	4BS	62	6.9
	BS00074439_51	4BS	63	7
	GENE-2129_76	4BS	63	7
	$RAC875_c45747_87$	4BS	63	7
	RAC875_c33933_350	5AS	35	8.4
	RAC875_rep_ c78046_324	5DL	50	7.2
	$Excalibur_{c5}8260_{332}$	6BL	65	9.2
9	RAC875_c5129_280	6BL	79	7.1

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					RAC875 c63889 486	7AS	88	8.5
					wsnp_bq170165A_ Ta_1_1	7AL	136	8
					tplb0045p11_893	7AL	148	7.5
					IACX2471	7AL	150	6.9
					wsnp_Ku_ c42539_50247426	7AL	152	11.5
					$RAC875_c26328_75$	7BS	53	8
					TaSST-D1	7DS	20	13
				Li et al. (2015)				
					Xgwm4.03	1B	49.6	2.432
WSCG-Low					Xbarc324	3A	73.0	2.260
					Xgwm566	3B	54.1	2.469
					Xbarc181	1B	38.3	2.174
	CU-NU				Xbarc324	3A	73.0	3.510
WSCG-Ste					Xgwm566	3B	54.1	3.000
					Xgwm537	7B	35.2	2.022
					Xwmc396	7B	67.3	2.131
					Xgwm358	5D	26.2	2.620
					Xwmc182	6B	43.8	3.073
WDCF-LUW					Xbarc175	6D	79.1	2.222
					Xgwm131	7B	7.6	2.292
	CK-WW	262 G			Xbarc187	1B	31.5	3.764
		Wheat	209 SS	iRs	Xgwm458	1D	55.3	2.276
WSCF-Ste		Genotypes			Xgwm148	2B	46.5	3.369
					Xbarc175	6D	79.1	3.628
					Xgwm46	7B	53.5	2.409
					Xgwm413	1B	25.9	2.585
					Xwmc181	1B	38.3	2.114
					Xgwm259	1B	106.8	2.229
WSCG-Low					Xgwm261	2D	23.2	2.041
	SCI 17				Xbarc314	3A	110.1	2.268
	CU-IN				Xcfd23	4D	32.9	2.143
					Xgwm361	6B	37.7	2.602
					Xgwm413	1B	25.9	2.921
WSCG-Ste					Xgwm429	2B	40.4	2.027
					Xgwm374	2B	60.7	3.439

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			077	ę		
			Xgwm149	4B	30.9	4.713
			Xgwm186	5A	64.4	3.469
			Xbarc216	5B	36.8	2.268
			Xgwm292	5D	65.4	2.071
			Xbarc105	7D	162.0	2.347
			Xgwm3	3D	42.7	2.071
WSUG-LOW			Xbarc176	7B	68.7	2.076
			Xgwm135	1A	60.7	2.699
M M-TY			Xgwm186	5A	64.4	2.252
WoCG-Ste			Xgwm583	5D	44	2.260
			Xbarc24	6B	55.3	2.167
	Yang et al. (20	02)				
		QSwscf.cgb-1A.1	WMC59-WMC254	1A		4.34
		QSwscf.cgb-1D.1	WMC432-WMC222	1D		1.87
		QSwscf.cgb-2D.1	WMC453.1-WMC18	2D		3.41
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at		QSwscf.cgb-2D.2	WMC41-WMC170	2D		1.06
the flowering stage (SWSCF)		QSwscf.cgb-4A	WMC420-Xgwm601	4A		2.39
		QSwscf.cgb-4B.1	Xgwm368-Xgwm107	4B		
		QSwscf.cgb-7B.1	CWM467-CWM466	7B		3.97
		QSwscf.cgb-7D	Xgdm88-WMC463	7D		2.62
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at the grain-filling stage (SWSCG)	150 DHs of	QSwscg.cgb-4A	Xgwm610-Xgwm397	4A		5.6
Stem water-soluble carbohydrates at $\frac{1}{10000000000000000000000000000000000$	Hanxuan 10	QSwscm.cgb-1A.1	CWM516-CWM517	1A		7.53
the maturity stage (SWSCM)	X LUIIIAI 14 CTOSS	QSwscm.cgb-6B.1	Xgwm219-WMC341	6B		2.49
	CLUDD.	QAeswc.cgb-1A.1	P3156-250-WMC59	1A		
- c2 - c2 		QAeswc.cgb-2A.1	Xgwm372-Xgwm448	2A		7.32
Accumulation efficiency of stem		QAeswc.cgb-3B.1	P3622-400-P2076-147	3B		4.65
water-soluble carboily utates (AFSWC)		QAeswc.cgb-5A	P2470-280-Xgwm154	5A		2.77
		QAeswc.cgb-7B.1	WMC311-CWM467	7B		1.86
		QAeswc.cgb-7D.1	WMC436-Xgwm44	7D		5.1
Remobilization efficiency of stem		QReswc.cgb-1A	Xgwm135-CWM516	1A		6.24
water-soluble carbohydrates		QReswc.cgb-3B	Xgwm547-Xgwm181	3B		3.72
(RESWC)		QReswc.cgb-7A.1	P2071-180-Xgwm260	7A		6.97
CK-DS: Drought stress condition; CK-WW: Well:watered cor well:watered condition; Lower internodes; RF: Rainfed;	ndition; DHs: Double haploids; DS: Drought stress; KI-l ; RILs: Recombinant inbred lines; SNPs: Single nucleoti	DS: Treated with KI (potassiur de polymorphism; SSRs: Simp	n iodide) under drought stress cor ole sequence repeats; ste: Stem; W	vSCF: St	KI-WW: Treat em water:solul	ed with KI under de carbohydrates
at flowering: WSCG: Stem water:soluble carbohydrates at the	mid orain fillino: WSCM: Stem water soluble carbohydi	ates at maturity: WW. Well w	atered			

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Water soluble carbohydrates in wheat

accumulation and remobilization in wheat under varying environments using bi-parental QTL mapping and GWAS (Table 1). The identified potential SNPs and putative candidate genes related to WSC provide opportunities for breeding higher WSC wheat cultivars. Few of these identified loci collocate with QTLs for different agronomic traits. For instance, Rebetzke et al. (2008) collocated the QTLs of WSCC, WSC total amount per square meter, and WSC per tiller with Ppd-D1, Rht-B1, and Rht-D1. Fu et al. (2020) observed that loci for stem WSCs at 10, 20 and 30DAA were in the vicinity of previously identified QTLs for the number of spikes per plant/unit areas, TKW and grain yield. These studies have advocated that pyramiding favourable alleles support the increment in stem WSCs content under abiotic stress in wheat (Zhang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). Therefore, deployment of allelic variations of genes favoring drought adaptability is a key approach in wheat molecular breeding. Khalid et al., 2019 developed two KASP (Kompetitive allele-specific PCR) markers for water-soluble carbohydrate genes (TaSST-D1 and TaSST-A1) associated with plant height and thousand grain weight (TGW) in the diversity panel. Recently, Fu et al. (2020) also developed high-throughput KASP markers for five pleiotropic loci for stem WSC content (SWSCC) and thousand kernel weight (TKW) and validated in diferent environments. Theses KASP markers would be valuable tools for MAS targeting simultaneous improvement in SWSCC and TKW. Such studies further strengthen the hypothesis that somehow, stem WSCs, and grain yield and contributing traits have a close association.

6. Conclusion

Stem WSCs maintains the grain yield and physiological balance by compensating the fixed carbon shortage during the diurnal cycle, senescence and stress conditions. Thus it can be a potential target for wheat breeders. As a prerequisite for a breeding program, ample genetic variation may be found to accumulate and remobilise stem WSCs across various wheat germplasms. Since these variations lay within the differential capacity of photosynthesis, carbohydrates metabolism and respiration that are influenced by environment and genotype x environment interactions, stability of this trait may slow down the selection process. However, medium to high heritability for this trait, reported under various experimental conditions, shows careful early generation selection possibilities. Furthermore, efficient molecular marker systems may bring precision to the selection and accelerate the WSCs based wheat breeding program.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical Compliance Statement

NA

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