INFLUENCE OF BRASSINOLIDES ON PLANT PHYSIOLOGY AND YIELD OF CANTALOUPE UNDER HIGH TEMPERATURE STRESS R.M.N.T. Amarasinghe^{1,3**} S.S. Zaharah ^{1,2*} P. E. M. Wahab¹ S. I. Ramlee¹ J. J. Nakasha¹ Researcher Asso. Prof. Lecturer Lecturer Lecturer 1.Dep. of Crop Scie., Fac. of Agric., University Putra Malaysia 2.Institute of Tropical Agric. and Food Security (ITAFoS), University Putra Malaysia 3.Agric. Rese. Stat., Fruit Rese. and Develop. Institute, Maduruketiya, Sri Lanka * Corresponding author E-mail: szaharah@upm.edu.my

ABSTRACT

Cantaloupe is a high value crop growing in greenhouse. Economical crop yield reduction due to heat stress, caused by global warming is an emerging issue of cantaloupe. High temperature significantly decreases the plant performances and finally effect on the crop yield. Brassinosteroids (BRs) regulates cellular and physiological processes and environment response to abiotic stress of plants. To find out the best concentration of BRs for alleviate the high temperature stress of cantaloupe, plant physio-chemical behaviors and yield responses were evaluated after the application of four concentrations of exogenous BRs (24epibrassinolide, EBR) to cantaloupe plants grown under 47 ± 3 °C. Chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, total chlorophyll content, rates of photosynthesis and transpiration, stomatal conductance, intercellular CO₂ concentration, proline and malondialdehyde contents, electrolyte leakage, catalase and peroxidase activity, fruit position, fruit yield, total soluble solid content and fruit firmness were significantly differed according to the type of cultivar and EBR concentration. EBR concentration at 0.1 - 0.2 mg L⁻¹ given significant results in order to reduce the impacts of high temperature under greenhouse environment. Higher EBR concentrations than 0.2 mg L^{-1} recorded negative effect on evaluated physiological and biochemical characters. Furthermore, EBR enhanced the early fruiting of cantaloupe.

Key words: 24-epibrassinolide, fruit position, heat stress, malondialdehyde, proline

اميراسنكهي وآخرون

مجلة العلوم الزراعية العراقية -2022 :6)53-1377

تأثير البراسينوليد على فيزيولوجيا النبات وإنتاجية الشمام تحت ضغط درجات الحرارة العالية

J.J.Nakasha1 ،S.I Ramlee1 ،P. E.M Wahab1 ،S.S Zaharah ،R.M.N.T. Amarasinghe1 المستخلص

الشمام هو محصول عالي القيمة ينمو في البيوت المحمية. يعد التخفيض الاقتصادي في غلة المحاصيل بسبب الإجهاد الحراري الناجم عن الاحتباس الحراري من قضايا الشمام الناشئة. تؤدي درجة الحرارة المرتفعة إلى انخفاض معنوي في أداء النبات وتؤثر في النهاية على إنتاجية المحصول. البراسينوسترويدات (BRs) تنظم العمليات الخلوية والفسيولوجية والاستجابة البيئية للإجهاد اللأحيائي للنباتات. لمعرفة أفضل تركيز من BRs للتخفيف من إجهاد درجة الحرارة المرتفع للشمام ، تم تقييم السلوكيات الفيزيائية والكيميائية للنبات واستجابات الغلة بعد تطبيق أربعة تركيزات من BRs الخارجية (24-السلوكيات الفيزيائية والكيميائية للنبات واستجابات الغلة بعد تطبيق أربعة تركيزات من BRs الخارجية (24-محتوى الكلوروفيل الكلي ، معدلات الشمام التي تزرع تحت 47 ± 3 درجات مئوية. الكلوروفيل ، الكلوروفيل ب ، محتوى الكلوروفيل الكلي ، معدلات الشمام التي تزرع تحت 47 ± 3 درجات مئوية. الكلوروفيل أ ، الكلوروفيل ب ، محتوى الكلوروفيل الكلي ، معدلات الشمام التي تزرع تحت 47 ± 3 درجات مئوية. الكلوروفيل أ ، الكلوروفيل ب ، محتوى الكلوروفيل الكلي ، معدلات التمثيل الضوئي والنتح ، التوصيل الثغري ، تركيز ثاني أكسيد الكربون بين الخلايا ، محتويات البرولين ومالونديالديهيد ، تسرب المنحل بالكهرياء ، نشاط الكاتلاز والبيروكسيديز ، موضع الفاكهة ، محصول محتويات البرولين ومالونديالديهيد ، تسرب المنحل بالكهرياء ، نشاط الكاتلاز والبيروكسيديز ، موضع الفاكهة ، محصول عند 0.1 – 2.0 مجم لتر – 1 مع إعطاء نتائج مهمة من أجل تقليل تأثيرات درجات الحرارة المرتفعة تحت بيئة الدفيئة. سجلت تركيزات EBR الأعلى من 0.2 مجم 1–1 تأثيرًا سلبيًا على الصفات الفسيولوجية والكيميائية الحيوية الدفيئة. على ذلك ، عزز EBR الإثمار المبكر للشمام.

الكلمات اللمفتاحية epibrassinolide-24، موضع الفاكهة، الإجهاد الحراري، malondialdehyde، البرولين Received:22/3/2021, Accepted:27/6/2021

INTRODUCTION

(Cucumis Cantaloupe melo var. *cantaloupensis*) is a popular economical greenhouse fruit crop (56, 6). Even though it is a warm climate crop, high environmental temperatures due to global warming and extreme temperature conditions effect on crop 41). greenhouse production (18. High temperature disturbs the balance between photosynthesis and respiration. When the temperatures increase beyond the optimum, the physiological activities of plants negatively affected followed by proteins include enzymes inactivation. Maximum temperature limits for melon crop identified as 39°C - 45°C (28). It was reported that cantaloupe can tolerate in higher temperature than 45 °C. Heat stress due to high temperature throughout the cropping season decline biomass production, plant physiological and biochemical processes and finally, crop yield (39, 17, 3). Reactive oxygen species (ROS) produce when plants opened to heat stress conditions (5. 15). When production of exceeded. ROS lipid peroxidation in biological membranes occurs and decompose polyunsaturated fatty acid. This generates Malondialdehyde (MDA) (9, 44, 29). Proline is an osmolyte and it act in protective mechanism for oxidative stress (40). Proline buffer cellular redox potential and adjust osmotic potential. Proline protect Photosystem II and the chlorophyll from high MDA content (40, 48). Heat stress alters the structures of plant cell membrane proteins by increasing the kinetic energy of molecules and losing the chemical bonds, which leads to increase of loss of electrolytes. This expressed by the value of electrolyte leakage (EL) (22, 8). Hormones are important elements in the process of plant tolerance development for heat stress (23). Brassinosteroids (BRs) are natural plant important hormones. 24epibrassinolide (EBR) is an important naturally occurring derivative of BRs (23, 7). BRs regulate plant physiological processes such as cell division, cell differentiation, cell wall metabolism, plant organ development, vegetative and reproductive development, photosynthesis, ethylene biosynthesis, gene expression and response to temperature stress (45, 50). Exogenous foliar spray of BRs will increase the heat tolerance capacity of plants

in future sustainable crop production, towards global warming (10, 20) through improving the proline and antioxidant enzymes i.e. peroxidase (POD) and catalase (CAT) activities, while significantly decreased the peroxidation of membrane lipids or MDA content (33, 49). It has been found that exogenous BRs increase ethylene production and increase femaleness of cucumber (49). According to the observations on tomato, EBR pretreatments reduced the inhibition of photosynthesis by high temperature (35). EBR can effectively alleviated the down regulation activity under high of PSII growth temperatures by increasing activity of the ROS hunting system and increasing carboxylation efficiency (1). BRs can act in very small concentrations on plants (42). Exogenous application of BRs can be harmful if exceed a certain concentration level (46). In this previous experiment, it was identified that some cantaloupe cultivars can tolerate in tropical greenhouse at 47±3 °C, with yield reduction than the ambient temperature (3). There were no reported data on BRs application on cantaloupe beyond the 45 °C temperature. This experiment was conducted to investigate the plant physiological and biochemical responses of cantaloupe for different EBR concentrations under extreme high temperature. And also, to find out most efficient EBR concentration for foliar application to enhance the stress tolerance of cantaloupe grown in tropical greenhouse. Findings from this study with the foliar application of EBR on plants in high temperatures, will be a good changing fact for safe and economic agricultural practices towards global warming.

MATERIAIS AND METHODS

Experimental site, Planting Materials and Crop Establishment: Cantaloupe cultivars, Himalai-99 and Glamour, which identified as most tolerant cultivars in our previous experiment were used in this study. Seeds of four cantaloupe cultivars were from commercial sources. This research study was conducted in greenhouse at Faculty of Agriculture, Universiti Putra Malaysia (2.9917 °N. 101.7163 °E). Temperature controlled by exhaust and axial fans. Data on atmospheric temperature, humidity and CO₂ in every 5

minutes were monitored by data logger. The plants were fertigated five times per day (0800, 1030, 1200, 1430 and 1700 hours) using Dosatron fertigation system (Model: D25RE2, 0.2 - 2%, 2.5 m³/h, USA). Modified Cooper formulation was used as the fertilizer source. Seeds were sawn in nursery trays filled with decomposed coco-peat and maintained in shade house. 10 days old seedlings were transplanted into 16 ×16 cm sized polybags which contained coco-peat. Plant main stem was pruned at 6 feet height and only one fruit per plant was maintained by pruning other side branches after first fruit set. Crop was maintained in maximum 47 \pm 3 °C day-time temperature. 24-Epibrassinoloid was dissolved in 1% ethanol and then brought into distilled water (55). Four concentrations of 24epibrassinolide (EBR); 0, 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 mg L^{-1} applied foliar on 15 days after transplant (DAT), 50ml per plant. RCBD design was used with four replicates with 2 sub samples. Data were recorded on 3rd mature leaf at 7 days after treatment. Fruits were harvested at the commercial harvesting stage of each cultivar (60 - 70 DAT). The Total Soluble Solid (TSS) were measured for each sample of fruit in three replications using digital refractometer (Atago Co. Ltd., Japan). Firmness was measured by texture analyzer.

Physiological measurements: Chlorophyll Content was determined according to the method described by Coombs et.al. (1986) with use of four leaf-discs of 4 cm^2 , collected from the fully opened third young leaf. Chlorophyll was extracted with use of acetone. After pigments totally absorbed in to the acetone solution, absorbance was measured at 647nm 664nm and with use of spectrophotometer (UV-3101PC UV-VIS-NI, Shimsdsu, Japan). Chlorophyll content was calculated with use of following formulas.

Chlorophyll a = 13.19 (A664) - 2.57 (A647)

Chlorophyll b = 22.1 (A647) - 5.26 (A664)

Total chlorophyll content = 3.5 (chl a + chl b)/4

A647 and A664 = absorbance of the solution at 647nm and 664nm respectively 13.19, 2.57, 22.1 and 5.26 = absorption

coefficients

4.5 = volume of solution taken from the original solution for the analysis (ml)

= total leaf disc area (cm²)

4

Leaf gas exchange; photosynthesis rate (PR), stomatal conductance (SC), intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci) and transpiration rate (TR), were measured by using portable photosynthesis system (Li 6400, Li-Cor, USA). Data obtained between 0830-1030 hours of the day and repeated in three growth stages.

Biochemical measurements: Analysis of MDA was done according to the method described by Madhava Rao and Sresty (41). 1g of fresh leaf was homogenized with 0.1% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and homogenate was centrifuged for 10 min at 15,000 rpm. 0.5ml of supernatant was added to thiobarbituric acid + 20% TCA and kept in water bath at 90 °C for 20 minutes. Reaction was stopped in an ice bath and centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 rpm. Absorbance of supernatant was measured at 532 nm and 600 nm. MDA concentration was calculated by using extinction coefficient of 155 mM⁻¹cm⁻¹. Proline content of third fully mature leaf was determined according to Bates et al., 1973, (19). The 0.5g leaf samples were homogenized in 10 cm^3 of aqueous solution of 3% sulphosalicylic acid and centrifuge at 1500ppm for 10 min. Then supernatant, acid ninhydrin and glacial acetic acid added 1:1:1 and incubated in water bath for 1 h at 100°C and reaction was concluded in an ice bath. Then add 4 cm³ of toluene and mixed vigorously. Proline content was measured by a spectrophotometer at 520 nm using toluene as a blank and calculated as micrograms per gram FW against standard proline. Nine young leaf discs, 1cm² each from 3rd matured leaf were used to measure EL according to Ahammed et al. (2). Leaf discs were washed 3 times with deionized water to remove surface- adhered electrolytes and they were placed in closed vials containing 10 mL of deionized water. Samples were incubated at 25°C on a rotary shaker. After 24 hours, electrical conductivity (EC1) of the solutions were recorded. Then samples were autoclaved at 120°C for 20 minutes. After cooled to 25°C, final electrical conductivity (EC2) was measured and EL was calculated as follows EL= (EC1 / EC2) ×100

Enzyme extraction for POD and CAT analysis was done according to the Poli et al. (38). 0.1 g of leaf sample was mixed with 5 ml extraction buffer containing 0.1M phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.5 mM EDTA and 1% (w/v) of polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP). The enzyme extract was centrifuged for 20 min at 15000 g at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and stored until assay for enzyme activity. POD assay was done according to Mardinata et al. (32). For assay, a 3 ml of reaction mixture consist of 2.83 mL of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 28 µL of guaiacol, 30 μ L of 30% H₂O₂ and 100 μ L of enzyme extract was used. The increase in absorbance at 420 nm was measured for 2 min. The POD activity was measured and expressed as mmol of H₂O₂ reduced per minute per gram FW.

The CAT activity was assayed according to Poli et al., (38) by measuring the ability of the enzyme extract to decompose H_2O_2 . The reaction mixture of 3 ml consisted of 0.05 ml extract, 1.5 ml phosphate buffer (100 mM buffer, pH 7.0), 0.5 ml H_2O_2 , and 0.95 ml distilled water. A decrease in the absorbance was recorded at 240 nm for 2 minutes. The CAT activity was expressed as mmol of H_2O_2 .

Leaf nutrient content

The third mature leaves were harvested and dried 72 houres in 70°C with use of forced oui oven. Then, 0.25 g of sample mixed with 5 ml of concentrated sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) in digestion tubes and kept for 24 hours for digestion. Then, 2 ml of 50% H2O2 was added and heated at 285°C for 45 minutes in block digester. The mixture was left to cool and added of 2 ml H₂O₂ followed by heating in block digestor. Cooling tubes, adding H₂O₂ and heating for 45 minutes were repeated until totally transparent solution developed. The final samples were diluted with distilled water and volumed up to 100 ml. Then filtered using Whatman No. 4 filter paper before the concentration was analyzed. The concentration of K, Ca and Mg were measured using Atomic Absorption Analyzer (AAS) and calculated the each element %.

Statistical analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done using statistical software R-studio 1.4.1106. The least significant difference (LSD) at 5% significant level was used for mean separation and Ls-means was used where the interaction effect was significant. For analyze the correlation between parameters, Pearson Correlation method was used.

RESUITS AND DISCUSSION

Maximum temperature was controlled at 50 °C. Minimum and maximum atmospheric $[CO_2]$ was recorded as 429 and 499 ppm at 1400 and 0700 time of the day.

Chlorophyll content and leaf gas exchange

EBR significantly reduced the leaf Chl-a and Chl-total contents and treatments had a significant interact effect (Table 1). Chl-a reduced by 16% and Chl- total reduced by 11% at 0.1 mg/L EBR. Chl-b didn't have either significant in interaction effect or cultivar effect. Compare to the control, Chl-b was increased by 6-8% at 0.1mg/L and 1% at 0.2mg/L, but not significantly differ with control. Chlorophyll is vastly sensitive to conditions which decrease stress total chlorophyll a, b, and carotenoid contents in leaves. BRs protect the chlorophyll and increase chlorophyll content under different stresses conditions (32, 4). Data relevant to PR, SC, Ci and TR presented in Table 1, had a significant effect by the treatments and significant interaction between the treatments. Compare to the control, application of 0.1 mg/L EBR had increased the PR, SC and TR by 9-13% and 0.2 and 0.3 mg/L made reduction of the PR by 10-7% and 33% respectively and significantly. Each cultivar not significantly differ between control and 0.1 mg/L, 0.1 and 0.2 mg/L. At 0.3 mg/L, Ci was increased by 3% in each cultivar. 0.1mg/L EBR BRs exhibit multiple actions on essential processes of leaf gas exchange. The high temperature inhibited the photosynthesis rate due to photosynthetic apparatus disruption. BRs regulate plant growth and development and alleviate high temperature stress (14). Application of EBR increase quantum yield of PSII photochemistry, electron transport rate and PR and it was observed in soybean (37). Cucumis sativus at 27 °C to three leaf stage plants 0.1 mg/L EBR foliar application recorded most effective for stimulated PR. 0.1mg/L EBR recorded a higher quantum yield of PSII electron transport due to a significant increase in the photochemical quenching. Particularly the capacity of CO₂ assimilation in the Calvin cycle which were mainly attributed to an increase in the initial activity of Rubisco in photosynthesis mechanism (52). Microscopic analyses showed that the application of EBR maintains the typical shape of the chloroplasts and promotes the formation of grana in the stressed cucurbit plants (53).

Table 1. Interaction effect of EBR on chlorophyll-a, total chlorophyll content and leaf	gas
exchange and effect of EBR on chlorophyll-b of each cultivar.	

Chlore	ophyll con	tent (mg	m ⁻²) Leaf gas exchange				
Factors	Chl-a	Chl-b	Chl- total	PR (µMm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	SC (mMm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	Ci (µMm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	TR (mMm ⁻² s ⁻¹)
Himalai -9)9						
0	4.64 a	1.86 a	4.64 a	28.6c	1.42c	305cd	14.e
0.1	4.01c	1.98 a	4.01b	31.4 b	1.56 a	302d	16.4c
0.2	3.92d	1.88 a	3.92d	25.8e	1.23d	305cd	17.8a
0.3	3.04g	1.70b	3.04g	19.6f	0.82e	316 a	12.1f
Glamour	_		_				
0	4.65a	1.85b	5.68a	28.7c	1.55ab	306c	15.6d
0.1	4.14b	2.00a	5.36b	32.6a	1.63 a	307bc	17.0b
0.2	3.86e	1.96a	5.10e	26.8d	1.45bc	310b	16.1c
0.3	3.75f	1.75c	4.81f	19.2f	0.81e	315a	11.6g

Note: Chl – Chlorophyll, PR - photosynthesis rate, SC - stomatal conductance, Ci - Intercellular carbon dioxide concentration, TR - transpiration rate

Correlation analysis

Ch-a and Ch-b significantly correlate by 97 and 79% to the total chlorophyll content and by 57 and 72% to PR (Table 2). Total chlorophyll content 66% correlate to the PR. Data reveals that PR highly, positively and significantly correlate with the SC and TR. TR highly correlate with PR, SC and Ci. Ci negatively correlated with all the compared analyzed parameters. In the present study, EBR accompanied by the increasing PR, SC and high TR. The TR was correlated with the photosynthesis (1), which could be due to the carbon dioxide availability. PR significantly correlated with SC, TR and Ci. PR extrovertly correlate with Ci and in EBR-treated plants, when PR increases, TR and SC increases and Ci decreased. It was likely due to 0.1 - 0.2 mg/L EBR make open stomata. The significance of this correlation depend on the type of the plant and type of the BRs (11).

Table 2. Pear	son correlation	between	chlorophyll	content and	leaf gas exch	nange
					0	0

	PR	Chl-a	Ch-b	Ch-tot	SC	Ci
Chl-a	0.67**	-				
Chl-b	0.77**	0.38*	-			
Chl-tot	0.77**	0.98**	0.56**	-		
SC	0.96**	0.7**	0.78**	0.8**	-	
Ci	-0.82**	-0.62**	-0.68**	-0.71**	-0.80**	-
TR	0.8*	0.44*	0.76**	0.56**	0.81**	-0.78**

Note: Chl – Chlorophyll, PR - photosynthesis rate, SC - stomatal conductance, Ci - Intercellular carbon dioxide concentration, TR - transpiration rate

Biochemical changes

Data relevant to **MDA**, **proline**, **EL** and **CAT** given a significant interaction effect between cultivars and EBR concentrations. **POD** activity expressed a significant effect by the EBR concentration and significant difference between cultivars, where no interaction effect (Table 3). Compare to the control, application of 0.1 mg/L EBR increase the proline content

by 35 and 27% in Himalai-99 and Glamour. At 0.2mg/L, increment was 51 and 121%. MDA content was decreased by 34-26% at 0.1 mg/L and 32-12% at 0.2 mg/L. But increased by 33-17% at 0.3mg/L which means plants get stressed at higher EBR concentrations. EBR reduced the ROS and increase MDA in heat stressed plants (37, 41) The decrease in MDA content after EBR treatment is an indicator for

EBR induced efficient scavenging of ROS Reduction of MDA content with (25).temperature and EBR treatment interaction was observed by Jin et al. (24), in fig plants at 40 °C compared to 28 °C. Thussagunpanit et al. (46), recorded that EBR treatment significantly reduced the MDA content of rice at 40 °C and it facilitated by protective mechanism of EBR on chlorophyll content and oxidative stress. Compare to the control, application of 0.1 mg/L EBR increase the proline content by 35 and 27% in Himalai-99 and Glamour. At 0.2mg/L, increment was 51 and 121%. Compared to the control, maximum reduction of EL for each cultivar (43% in Himalai-99 and 63% in Glamour), was recorded at 0.2mg/L. Same effective concentration of EBR (0.2 mg/L) for reduction of MDA and EL in abiotic stress was observed by Li and Feng (31), on 1 year old sorbifolia seedlings and Dou et al. (12) on 2 weeks old cotton seedlings. Khan et al. (26), recorded significant reduction of EL in application of EBR on both thermo-tolerant and thermosensitive cultivars of okra. EBR act on a membrane in deferent ways; (i) influence on the fatty acid composition, (ii.) modify cell

membrane properties (iii) improve the cell functions under membrane hostile environmental temperatures, (iv) subpress the excess ROS and reduce the damage of constituent membrane elements, (v) defends cell membranes by neutralize free radicals leads to reduce lipid peroxidation (28). Compared to the control, POD of Himalai-99 increased by 12, 31 and 20 % at 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 mg/L EBR. In Glamour, it was 2, 10 and 20%. POD activity in control was comparatively lower in Himalai-99 and it may be because it is more heat resistant. Yun-ying et al. (54), reported that EBR increase the POD activity and also improve the expression of POD isozymes by inducing new native bands of isozymes in rice seedlings which protect the plants from heat stress. Compared to the control, CAT activity was increased by 60 -47% at 0.1 mg/L and it was 34-24% at 0.2mg/L. In heat stressed environment, EBR significantly and markedly increase the proline, CAT and POD to protect the cell functions from ROS (42, 51).

Cultivars in EBR mg/L	MDA (µmol/g FW)	Proline (µmol/g FW)	EL (%)	POD (µg g ⁻¹ FW min ⁻¹)	CAT (U mg ⁻¹ Protein)
Himalai-99					
0	1.07 ^c	8.31 ^{de}	61.8 ^b	12.30^b	7.57 ^f
0.1	0.71^{f}	11.23 ^{bcd}	40.0^d	13.73 ^{ab}	12.09^b
0.2	0.73^f	12.51 ^{ab}	35.3 ^e	16.08 ^a	10.16^d
0.3	1.42^a	9.01 ^{cde}	36.7 ^e	14.69 ^{ab}	6.20 ^g
Glamour					
0	1.10^c	6.68 ^e	67.9 ^a	14.70^b	9.04 ^e
0.1	0.81 ^e	8.46d ^e	35.1 ^e	15.01 ^{ab}	13.25 ^a
0.2	0.97 ^d	$\mathbf{14.80^{a}}$	25.3 ^e	16.19 ^a	11.16 ^c
0.3	1.28^b	11.74 ^{bc}	48.0 ^c	16.14 ^a	6.20 ^g

 Table 3. Effect of EBR on plant biochemical changes

Note: MDA - Malondialdehyde, EL - electrolyte leakage, POD – peroxidase content, CAT – catalase activity Leaf nutrient content F3, increment was 31%. EBR application

Leaf calcium and potassium contents were significantly affected by EBR application and not either significantly differ between cultivars or interaction effect (Table 4). Compared to the control, leaf calcium content was 81% higher in F3 and 55% higher in F4. Leaf potassium content was increased with application of EBR at 0.2 and 0.3 mg/L and at F3, increment was 31%. EBR application was significantly affected on Mg content and there was a significant difference between cultivars. But there was no interaction effect on leaf Mg content. K, Ca and Mg are three essential minerals of cantaloupe to develop the membrane structure and membrane functions of fruits and postharvest quality improvement (30). Giri et al. (16) observed the reduction of root nutrition absorption in elevated temperature in tomato. They and Hellal (21) highlighted that moderate heat stress has no significant effect on nutrient absorption rate where severe heat stress significantly decreased the root nutrient absorption rate.

	Leaf nutrient content (%)							
Factor	Ca	K	Mg					
	Cultivar							
Himalai-								
99	0.230a	0.497a	0.081a					
Glamour	0.209a	0.451a	0.073b					
	ns	ns	*					
	EBR concentration mg/L							
0	0.154d	0.427bc	0.065c					
0.1	0.183c	0.417c	0.068bc					
0.2	0.281a	0.557a	0.097a					
0.3	0.239b	0.496ab	0.077b					
	*	*	*					

Table 4. Leaf nutrient content

Notes: Ca – Calcium, K – Potassium, Mg – Magnesium Fruiting node in main stem

Fruiting node in high temperature with application of EBR had a significant effect from EBR concentration and observed a significant interaction effect (Figure 1). In our previous experiment (3), we observed an increment of fruiting node in high temperature than the ambient temperature by around two folds. Compare to the control, in the application of EBR, earliest fruit set or the lowest node number of Himalai-99 recorded at 0.1mg/L and it was 38% reduction. In Glamour, lowest node number was recorded at 0.2mg/L and it was 64% reduction. EBR increase cucurbit sex expression and decrease the time to appear female flower. On the other hand, EBR increase Ethelene production and early fruiting and fertilization believed facilitated by Ethelene (36). EBR increase fruit set of cucurbits and after anthesis, EBR activating ovary cell division and duplication (13).



Figure 1. Interaction effect of EBR on fruit position in main stem

Fruit yield and quality Data grafted in Figure 2 had a significant effect from EBR concentration, significant difference between cultivars and significant interaction effect between treatments. Compare to the control, maximum yield increment was observed at 0.1 mg/L by 29-22%. At 0.2 and 0.3 mg/L, increments were 23-14 and 10-12%. This yield response depend on the developmental stage of EBR application and EBR concentration (34). Foliar application EBR increase crop yield of by facilitating/increasing the crop growth, photosynthesis, early fruiting, biomass partitioning and fruit growth rate (11, 47).



Figure 2. Interaction effect of EBR on fruit fresh weight

TSS content and firmness values of the fruits were grafted in Figure 3. Brix value of Himalai-99 was significantly higher than the Glamour. In Himalai-99, highest brix value was observed at 0.2mg/L and it was significantly not differed with 0.3 mg/L.

Both cultivars recorded their maximum firmness at 0.1mg/L EBR. In Himalai-99, at

0.1 and 0.2 mg/L firmness was not significantly differed. Fruit firmness is a direct measurement of fruit maturity and fruit quality. EBR application to stressed plants has been increased the plant performances and fruit quality too.



(ii)

Figure 3. Interaction effect of EBR on fruit TSS and firmness

CONCLUSION

Exogenic application of BRs successfully reduces the plant stress and enhance the cantaloupe plant physiological and biochemical functions to increase the production in elevated temperature in modern farming. EBR concentration of 0.1-0.2 mg/L is effective to increase plant growth, flowering, fruit setting, leaf gas exchange, antioxidant enzymes, proline content and reduce the malondialdehyde content and electrolyte leakage. Higher EBR concentrations than 0.2mg/L cause complications in all evaluated physiological and biochemical characters. EBR enhanced early fruiting by facilitating either early female flowering or reducing flower abortion or increase fertility or all.

REFERENCES

1. Ahammed, G.J., X. Li , J. Zhou, Y.-H. Zhou and J.Q. Yu. 2016. Role of hormones in plant adaptation to heat stress. In Plant Hormones under Challenging Environmental Factors; Ahammed, Golam Jalal and J.-Q.Yu. 2016. Ed.; Springer Netherlands. 1–21 ISBN 9789401777582

2. Ahammed, G.J., W. Xu, A. Liu and S. Chen. 2019. Endogenous melatonin deficiency aggravates high temperature-induced oxidative stress in *Solanum lycopersicum* L. Environ. Exp. Bot. 161:303–311

3. Amarasinghe, R.M.N.T., S.Z. Sakimin, P.E.M. Wahab, S.I. Ramlee, and J.N. Jaafar. 2021. Growth, physiology and yield responses of four rock melon (*Cucumis melo* Var. *Cantaloupensis*) cultivars in elevated temperature. Plant Arch. 21:259–266

4. Anwar, A., Y. Liu, R. Dong, L.Bai, X. Yu and Y. Li. 2018. The physiological and molecular mechanism of brassinosteroid in response to stress Biol. Res. 51:1–15

5. Apel, K. and H. Hirt. 2004. Reactive oxygen species: metabolism, oxidative stress and signal transduction. Annu. Rev. Plant Biol. 55:373–99

6. Azmi, W.A., W.Z.W. Sembok, N. Yusuf, M.F.M. Hatta, A.F. Salleh, M.A.H. Hamzah and S.N. Ramli. 2019. Effects of pollination by the indo-malaya stingless bee (Hymenoptera: Apidae) on the quality of greenhouse-produced rockmelon. J. Econ. Entomol. 112:20–24

7. Bartwal, A., R. Mall, P. Lohani, S.K. Guru and S. Arora. 2013. Role of secondary metabolites and Brassinosteroids in plant defense against environmental stresses. J. Plant Growth Regul. 32:216–232

8. Blum, A., N. Klueva and H.T. Nguyen, H.T. 2001. Wheat cellular thermotolerance is related to yield under heat stress. Euphytica. 117:117–123

9. Cho, U.H. and N.H. Seo. 2005. Oxidative stress in *Arabidopsis thaliana* exposed to cadmium is due to hydrogen peroxide accumulation. Plant Sci. 168:113– 120

10. Clouse, S. 2014. Brassinosteroid signaling in plants. In Molecular Biology; Howell, S.H., Ed.; Springer Science+ Business Media New York: New York. 291–312 ISBN 9781461475705

11. Divi, U.K., T. Rahman and P. Krishna. 2010. Brassinosteroid-mediated stress tolerance in arabidopsis shows interactions with abscisic acid, ethylene and salicylic acid pathways. BMC Plant Biol. 10:1–14

12. Dou, L., Y. Sun, S. Li, C. Ge, Q. Shen, H. Li1, W. Wang, J. Mao, G. Xiao, C. Pang. 2021. Transcriptomic analyses show that 24- Epibrassinolide (EBR) promotes cold tolerance in cotton seedlings. PLoS ONE. 16:1–21

13. Fu, F.Q., W.H. Mao, K. Shi, Y.H. Zhou, T. Asami, J.Q. Yu. 2008. A role of brassinosteroids in early fruit development in cucumber. J. Exp. Bot. 59:2299–2308

14. Fujioka, S. and A. Sakurai. 1997. Brassinosteroids. Nat. Prod. Rep. 8:1–10

15. Gao, Y., Y.K. Guo, S.H. Lin, Y.Y. Fang and J.G. Bai. 2010. Hydrogen peroxide pretreatment alters the activity of antioxidant enzymes and protects chloroplast ultrastructure in heat-stressed cucumber leaves. Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam). 126:20–26

16. Giri, A., S. Heckathorn, S. Mishra and C. Krause. 2017. Heat stress decreases levels of nutrient-uptake and -assimilation proteins in tomato roots. Plants. 6:443–448

17. Hartz, T., M. Cantwell, J. Mickler, S. Mueller, S. Stoddard and T. Turini. 2008. Cantaloupe production in California. UC Agric. Nat. Resour. 1–5

18. Hatfield, J.L. and J.H. Prueger. 2015.Temperature extremes: effect on plant growth and development. Weather Clim. Extrem. 10:4–10

19. Hawrylak-Nowak, B., R. Matraszek and M. Szymańska. 2010. Selenium modifies the effect of short-term chilling stress on cucumber plants. Biol. Trace Elem. Res. 138:307–315

20. Hayat, S. and A. Ahmad. 2011. Brassinosteroids: A class of plant hormone. In Brassinosteroids: A class of plant hormone: 345–356 ISBN 9789400701892

21. Hellal, F.A., S.A. E-I-Sayed, D.M. Basha and C. Abdelly. 2020. Mineral nutrient

status of some mediterranean barley varieties as affected by drought stress in Egypt. Iraqi J. Agric. Sci. 51:138–147

22. Iqbal, N.,M. Fatma, N.A. Khan and S. Umar. 2019. Regulatory Role of Proline in Heat Stress Tolerance: Modulation by Salicylic Acid. Elsevier Inc. ISBN 9780128164518

23. Islam, M.R., B. Feng, T. Chen, L. Tao and G. Fu. 2018. Role of abscisic acid in thermal acclimation of plants. J. Plant Biol. 61:255–264.

24. Jin, S.H., X.Q. Li, G.G. Wang and X.T. Zhu. 2015. Brassinosteroids alleviate high-temperature injury in ficus concinna seedlings via maintaining higher antioxidant defence and glyoxalase systems. AoB Plants. 7:1–12

25. Kaur, H., G. Sirhindi, R. Bhardwaj, M.N. Alyemeni, K.H.M. Siddique and P. Ahmad. 2018. 28-Homobrassinolide regulates antioxidant enzyme activities and gene expression response in to saltand temperature-induced oxidative stress in Brassica Juncea. Sci. Rep. 8:1-13

26. Khan, M.W., M.A. Shahid and R.M. Balal. 2017. Determination of Critical Level of Brassinosteroid (24-Epibrassinoloid) for heat-tolerance in okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus* L.). Proc. Pakistan Acad. Sci. Part B. 54:207–217

27. Khattab, E.A., R.E. Essa and M.A. Ahmed. 2019. Drought tolerance of some soybean varieties in Newly Land. Iraqi J. Agric. Sci. 50:741–752

28. Kurtar, E.S. 2010. Modelling the effect of temperature on seed germination in some cucurbits. African J. Biotechnol. 9:1343–1353

29. Labudda, M. 2013. Lipid peroxidation as a biochemical marker for oxidative stress during drought. An effective tool for plant breeding. E-wydawnictwo. 1–12

30. Lester, G.E. Whole plant applied potassium: effects on cantaloupe fruit sugar content and related human wellness compounds. Acta Hortic. 682:487–492

31. Li, K.R. and C.H. Feng. 2011. Effects of brassinolide on drought resistance of *Xanthoceras sorbifolia* seedlings under water stress. Acta Physiol. Plant. 33:1293–1300

32. Mardinata, Z., T. Edy Sabli and S. Ulpah. 2021. Biochemical responses and leaf

gas exchange of fig (*Ficus carica* L.) to water stress, short-term elevated CO₂ levels and brassinolide application. Horticulturae. 7(4):73 33. Mazorra, L.M., M. Nunez, M. Hechavarria, F. Coll and M.J. Sanchez-Blanco. 2002. Influence of brassinosteroids on antioxidant enzymes activity in tomato under different temperatures. Biol. Plant. 45:593– 596

34. Nunez, M., P. Mazzafera, L.M. Mazorra, W.J. Siqueira and M.A.T. Zullo. 2003. Influence of a brassinosteroid analogue on antioxidant enzymes in rice grown in culture medium with NaCl. Biol. Plant. 47: 67–70

35. Ogweno, J.O., X.S. Song, K. Shi, W.H. Hu, W.H. Mao, Y.H. Zhou, J.Q. Yu and S. Nogues. 2008. Brassinosteroids alleviate heat-induced inhibition of photosynthesis by increasing carboxylation efficiency and enhancing antioxidant systems in *Lycopersicon esculentum*. J. Plant Growth Regul. 27:49–57

36. Papadopoulou, E. and R. Grumet. 2005. Brassinosteriod-induced femaleness in cucumber and relationship to ethylene production. HortScience. 40:1763–1767

Pereira, Y.C., W.S. Rodrigues, E.J.A. 37. Lima, L.R. Santos, M.H.L. Silva and A.K.S. Lobato. 2019. Brassinosteroids increase and photosynthesis electron transport in soybean plants under water deficit. Photosynthetica. 57:181–191

38. Poli, Y., V. Nallamothu, D. Balakrishnan, P. Ramesh, S. Desiraju, S.K. Mangrauthia, S.R. Voleti and S. Neelamraju. 2018. Increased catalase activity and maintenance of photosystem ii distinguishes high-yield mutants from low-yield mutants of rice var. nagina22 under low-phosphorus stress. Front. Plant Sci. 871:1-14

39. Prasad, P.V.V. and S.V.K. Jagadish.
2015. Field cops and the fear of heat stress – opportunities, challenges and future directions.
Procedia Environ. Sci. 29:36–37

40. Qadir, S.A., M.Q. Khursheed, T.S. Rashid and H.K. Awla. 2018. Abscisic acid accumulation and physiological indices in responses to drought stress in wheat genotypes. Iraqi J. Agric. Sci. 50:705–7012

41. Rad, N.R.M., J. Abbaskohpayegani and G. Keykha, 2018. Assessment of genetic diversity among melon accessions using graphical principal component and cluster. Iraqi J. Agric. Sci. 49:817–825

42. Rao, K. V. M. and T. V. S. Sresty. 2000. Antioxidative parameters in the seedlings of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) millspaugh) in response to Zn and Ni stresses. Plant Sci. 157:113–128

43. Sadura, I. and A. Janeczko. 2018. Physiological and molecular mechanisms of brassinosteroid-induced tolerance to high and low temperature in plants. Biol. Plant. 62: 601–616

44. Savchenko, G. E., E. A. Klyuchareva, L.M. Abramchik and E.V. Serdyuchenko. 2002. Effect of periodic heat shock on the inner membrane system of etioplasts. Russ. J. Plant Physiol. 49:349–359

45. Sharma, P., A.B. Jha, R.S. Dubey and M. Pessarakli. 2012. Reactive oxygen species, oxidative damage, and antioxidative defense mechanism in plants under stressful conditions. J. Bot. 2012:1–26

46. Siddiqui, H., S. Hayat and A. Bajguz.
2018. Regulation of photosynthesis by brassinosteroids in plants. Acta Physiol. Plant.
40:1–15

47. Thussagunpanit, J., K. Jutamanee, L. Kaveeta, W. Chai-arree, P. Pankean, S. Homvisasevongsa and A. Suksamrarn. 2015. Comparative effects of brassinosteroid and brassinosteroid mimic on improving photosynthesis , lipid peroxidation , and rice seed set under heat stress. J. Plant Growth Regul. 34:320–331

48. Thussagunpanit, J., K. Jutamanee, W. Sonjaroon, L. Kaveeta, W. Chai-Arree, P. Pankean and A. Suksamrarn. 2015. Effects of brassinosteroid and brassinosteroid mimic on photosynthetic efficiency and rice yield under heat stress. Photosynthetica. 53:312–320

49. Wahid, A. 2007. Physiological Implications of metabolite biosynthesis for net assimilation and heat-stress tolerance of sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum*) sprouts. J. Plant Res. 120:219–228

50. Wu, C., F. Li, H. Xu, W. Zeng, R. Yu, X. Wu, L. Shen, Y. Liu and J. Li. 2019. The potential role of brassinosteroids (BRs) in alleviating antimony (Sb) stress in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Plant Physiol. Biochem. 141:51–59

51. Xia, X.-J., L.F. Huang, Y.H. Zhou, W.H. Mao, K. Shi, J.X. Wu, T. Asami, Z. Chen and J.Q. Yu. 2009. Brassinosteroids promote photosynthesis and growth by enhancing activation of rubisco and expression of photosynthetic genes in *Cucumis sativus*. Planta. 230:1185–1196

52. Yang, P., M. A. Nawaz, F. Li, L. Bai and J. Li. 2019. Brassinosteroids regulate antioxidant system and protect chloroplast ultrastructure of autotoxicity-stressed cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) seedlings. Agronomy. 9:1–15

53. Yu, J.Q., L.F. Huang, W.H. Hu. Y.H. Zhou, W.H. Mao, S.F. Ye and S.A. Nogues. 2004. Role for Brassinosteroids in the regulation of photosynthesis in *Cucumis sativus*. J. Exp. Bot. 55:1135–1143

54. Yuan, L., S. Shu, J. Sun, S. Guo and T. Tezuka. 2012. Effects of 24-Epibrassinolide on the photosynthetic characteristics, antioxidant system, and chloroplast ultrastructure in *Cucumis sativus* L. under Ca(NO₃)₂ stress. Photosynth. Res. 112:205– 214

55. Yun-ying, C.A.O., and Z.H.A.O. Hua. 2008. Protective roles of brassinolide on rice seedlings under high temperature stress. Rice Sci. 15:63–68

56. Zhang, Y.P., J. He, S.J. Yang and Y.Y. Chen. 2014. Exogenous 24-Epibrassinolide ameliorates high temperatureinduced inhibition of growth and photosynthesis in *Cucumis melo*. Biol. Plant. 58:311–318

57. Zhang, Y. P., X. H. Zhu, H. D. Ding, S. J. Yang and Y.Y. Chen. 2013. Foliar application of 24-Epibrassinolide alleviates high-temperature-induced inhibition of photosynthesis in seedlings of two melon cultivars. Photosynthetica. 51:341–349