

**EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE REGIMES ON MORPHOLOGICAL  
DEVELOPMENT OF SELECTED CANOLA (*Brassica napus*) GENOTYPES****ABSTRACT**

Seven canola genotypes selected from early and mid-maturing groups of canola genotypes presently planted in the Western Cape canola production area were grown in 3 litre plastic bags filled with a mixture of sand and compost at ratio of 1:1 and irrigated with fully balanced nutrient solution at EC=2.0 in two glasshouses at night/day temperature regimes of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Plant heights were measured at 14 days interval from 28 to 84 days after planting (DAP). Plants were sampled for leaf area (LA) and above ground dry mass (DM) at budding, flowering and seed physiological maturity stages. Plant growth rates (PGR) from planting to budding, from budding to flowering and from flowering to physiological maturity growth stages were calculated. Relative growth rates (RGR) and net assimilation rates (NAR) from budding to flowering and from flowering to physiological maturity stages were also calculated. Days after planting, GDD and PTU at budding, flowering and physiological maturity were correlated with leaf area, dry mass, number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup> and pod dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> at budding, flowering and physiological maturity stages to determine whether there were relationships between the variables. The study showed that by increasing night/day temperature from 10/15°C to 15/20°C plant height, number of leaves plant<sup>-1</sup> at budding stage, leaf area at budding, plant growth rate (PGR) from planting to budding stage and relative growth rate (RGR) from budding to flowering stage were increased. However, PGR from budding to physiological maturity, RGR from flowering to physiological maturity, net assimilation rate (NAR) from budding to flowering stage, leaf area at flowering and physiological maturity stages, as well as number of flower stems, number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup>, above ground total dry mass at flowering and physiological maturity stages were decreased. Pod dry mass at physiological maturity decreased by 22.24% to 40.35% for different genotypes which clearly demonstrated the variations in sensitivity of canola genotypes to increasing night/day temperatures and also indicates that canola crop can be genetically improved for heat tolerance.

**KEYWORDS:** Temperature, Canola, Morphology, Genotypes.

**INTRODUCTION**

Canola (*brassica napus*) is increasingly becoming an important field crop in South Africa. It can be used to produce high quality cooking oil and margarine, animal feed, biofuel (Anonymous 2006) and in crop rotation systems to break the disease chain and improve weed management (Burton *et al.* 2008). It is a native of Canada and is characterized by seeds which contain oil that has a low erucic acid content. Such oils contain less than 2% erucic acid, the solid component of the seed must contain less than 30 micromoles of any one or any mixture of 3-butenyl glucosinolate, 4-pentyl glucosinolate, 2-hydroxy-3-butenyl glucosinolate and 2-hydroxy-4-pentyl glucosinate per gram of air-dry oil free solid (Anonymous 2006).



38 In Canada canola is planted in late April or early May, where-after it grows rapidly during the short  
39 summer season that *et al* has long warm days and is harvested in end September or early October.  
40 Although canola will flower much sooner at daylight lengths of 16 to 18 hours, it will eventually also  
41 flower at much shorter daylight lengths but after a longer period, (Kirkegaard *et al.* 2012). In South  
42 Africa and Australia canola is also planted in April or May but the growth take place during winter period  
43 with daylight lengths of 9.5 hrs in May to 12 hrs in September and is harvested during October. The  
44 phenological development affects the success of canola production and is largely controlled by  
45 temperature (Morrison *et al.* 1992). Accurate timing of these phenological events is generally  
46 considered the most important factor determining crop adaptation and maximum yield in a particular  
47 environment (Fischer 1979, Richard 1991).



48 In general development of an annual crop from emergence to maturity can be divided into three major  
49 phenological developmental phases: from emergence to flower buds initiation-vegetative development,  
50 from floral buds initiation to anthesis-reproductive development and from anthesis to physiological  
51 maturity -seed filling (Craufurd and Qi, 2001, Ritchie, 1991, Siebert and Ewert 2012). However, canola  
52 developmental stages can be divided into six phases according to Harper and Berkenkamp (1975): Phase  
53 0-Pre-emergence, Phase 1-Seedling, Phase 2-Rosette, Phase 3-stem elongation, Phase 4-flowering,  
54 Phase 5-Seed maturation. Under climate change scenario, increase in both the mean and extremes of  
55 temperature are expected for many parts of the world (IPCC 2001). These changes can impact largely  
56 on the growth and phenological development of crops. Temperature and to less extent photoperiod  
57 have been reported to be major environmental factors that determine the timing and duration of each  
58 of the phenological phases in the physiological development of crops (Roberts *et al.* 1993). Many models  
59 have been developed to explain the phenological phases that take place during growth and  
60 development of crops (Alocija and Ritchie 1991, Matthews and Hunts 1994), while the physiological  
61 mechanisms that govern the transition from one phenophase to another are strongly influenced by  
62 environmental factors and have been described using photothermal models (Summerfield *et al.* 1991).

63 Photoperiod has been reported to be principally factor that determines the time of floral initiation and  
64 hence onset of anthesis in many crop species (Burtero *et al.* 1999). Photoperiod, for example affects  
65 floral development of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) (Coolhaas and Wormer 1953), caryopteris (Piringer *et al.*  
66 1963), wheat( *Triticum aestivum* L.) (Slafer and Rawson 1994), barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) (Kernich *et*  
67 *al.* 1996) and quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa willd*) (Burtero *et al.* 1999). However, it is not clear whether

68 the duration of the reproductive phase is affected directly (immediate response) by the photoperiod  
69 experienced during this phase or indirectly (delayed response) by photoperiod experienced in earlier  
70 developmental phases. The delayed effects on reproductive development could be because of the fact  
71 that more leaf primordia are formed under an extended duration of the vegetative period and this  
72 means that anthesis has to wait longer because more leaves have to appear and all the leaves must  
73 appear before anthesis will occur (Kiniry *et al.* 1992). The underlying assumption here is that the total  
74 leaf number cannot be altered after the end of vegetative growth phase during anthesis and seed filling.  
75 However, Slafer and Rawson (1995) and Kernich *et al.* (1996) have shown that time from the end of leaf  
76 appearance to anthesis is affected by the photoperiod after floral initiation, but not leaf number in  
77 wheat and barley respectively.

78 Ritchie and Smith (1991) reported that temperature regime is a major factor controlling the rate of leaf  
79 appearance. Hence “phyllochron” is defined as a constant interval of thermal time between successive  
80 leaves appearance. However the effect of temperature on the time interval between successive leaves’  
81 appearance (phyllochron) is crop specific for the different field conditions (Cao and Moss, 1989). For  
82 *Chenopodium* photoperiod was reported to decrease the “plastochron” (the time between initiation of  
83 two successive primordia) with transfers from inductive to marginally or vice versa (Thomas, 1961). A  
84 photothermal duration effect on seed maturation processes has been demonstrated for soybean  
85 (*Glycine max* (L) *merril*), peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L), bambaranut (*Vigna subterrenea* (L) *verdc*), rice  
86 (*Oryza sativa*), mungbean spp, maize (*Zea mays* L), sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) and field pea (*Pisum*  
87 *sativum*) ( Bagnall and King, 1991, Birch *et al* 1997, Craufurd and Qi 2001, Craufurd *et al.* 2003,  
88 Linnemam 1993, Morandi *et al.* 1998, Poggio *et al.* 2005 and Qi *et al.* 1998,). It has also been reported  
89 that photothermal regime influence vernalisation sensitivity of crops. Plants vernalised for 50 days  
90 showed greater response to photoperiod than those vernalised for 15 days. As the duration of stem  
91 **enlongation** lengthened in photoperiod-sensitive genotypes by exposure to less inductive photoperiods,  
92 a higher number of fertile florets at anthesis are produced, leading to an increased grain number and  
93 thereby to higher yield (Gonzalez *et al.* 2003). The timing of leaf emergence, flowering and seed filling as  
94 influenced by photothermal exposure and duration are critical factors in crop production, especially in  
95 the Mediterranean environment with its characteristic period of increasing temperatures and water  
96 stress that occur towards the end of the growing season. This has been extensively studied in other  
97 cereal crops as highlighted earlier in this introduction, but such study has not been carried out in canola  
98 being that it is relatively a new crop in South Africa. Therefore this study was conducted to determine

99 the effect of temperature regimes on the morphological development of canola in order to maximally  
100 exploit its productive potentials, and enhance its agronomic management. In addition, results obtained  
101 from this study will serve as a tool for canola breeding for the South African climatic conditions and also  
102 provide information with regard to its production potential in new production areas.

## 103 **1. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

104 The study was conducted in glasshouse controlled environment at department of Agronomy, University  
105 of Stellenbosch, South Africa. Experiment was laid out as a completely Randomized design (CRD) with  
106 two temperature regimes and seven genotypes of canola as treatments. Four replications were used  
107 and single plant represents an experimental unit. Provision was made for three sampling times.

108 Seven genotypes of canola evaluated were Hyola 571 CL, AGAMAX, 45Y86, 44Y84, Hyola 50, 43Y85, and  
109 Hyola 575 CL. These were planted (four seeds per 3 litre plastic bags filled with the mixture of sand and  
110 compost at ratio of 1:1 and irrigated with fully balance nutrient solution at 2.0 EC) in two glasshouses.  
111 The genotypes were selected based on the duration of their maturity. 45Y86 and Hyola 50 were mid-  
112 maturing genotypes; 44Y84 was mid-early; while, 43Y85, AGAMAX, Hyola 571 CL and Hyola 575 CL were  
113 early maturing genotypes. During the seedling stage, plants were thinned to one per bag. The two  
114 temperature regimes were set at 15/20°C and 10/15°C night/day temperatures respectively. The plants  
115 were irrigated twice a day to re-fill the bags to field water capacity.

116 Daylight length (number of hours of sunshine) was obtained from the South African weather service  
117 (<http://www.Weathera.com>). Crops were planted on 11 February 2014 and the final harvest was done  
118 on 14 July 2014 with the result that the day length varied between 13:20 hours at planting and 10:48  
119 hours during the final harvest. The light intensity in the glasshouses and outside exposed environment  
120 were measured weekly at 12h00n from the seedling stage of the plants and averages of 211.6  $\mu\text{molm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$   
121 <sup>1</sup> for 15/20°C glasshouse, 249.1  $\mu\text{molm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  for 10/15°C glasshouse and 481.5  $\mu\text{molm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  for outside  
122 environment were obtained. Temperature loggers were put in each glass house to record the actual  
123 temperature of the glass houses to make sure that the set temperatures were achieved.

124 The number of days required to reach the following growth stages (GS) according to Harper and  
125 Berkenkamp (1975) were recorded: Seedling stage (GS 1.0); first true leave (GS 2.1); visible inflorescence  
126 at center of rosette or budding (GS 3.1); first flower open (GS 4.1); beginning of seed filling) (GS 4.4);  
127 lower pods filled to full size and become translucent (GS 5.1); and seeds in lower pods turn brown which

128 is physiological maturity (GS 5.4). Plant height was measured at 28, 42, 56, 70, 84, days after planting  
129 (DAP). Before budding it was done from the base of the above the soil stem to the tip of the tallest  
130 leaf), but after budding, it was measured to the tip of the flower bud. The total number of leaves plant<sup>-1</sup>  
131 was counted after the end of the vegetative stage when budding started (growth stage 3.1). Plants in  
132 both glasshouses were sampled at the budding, full flowering and physiological maturity stages to  
133 determine the leaf area and dry mass after being oven dried for 48hrs at 80°C. Number of flower stems  
134 (NFS) and pods plant<sup>-1</sup> (NPP) were recorded at final harvest (physiological maturity) stage and pods dry  
135 mass (PDM) plant<sup>-1</sup> were also obtained after oven drying the samples for 48hrs at 80°C. Formulae  
136 described by Paine *et al.* (2012) were adopted to calculate the following plant growth parameters for  
137 different genotypes and temperature regimes. Plant growth rate (PGR) from planting date to budding,  
138 from budding to flowering and from flowering to physiological maturity were calculated by dividing  
139 difference between the dry mass at beginning (DM1) and at end (DM2) of each growth interval with the  
140 number of days needed for the different growth intervals. Relative growth rates (RGR) were calculated  
141 by dividing each PGR with DM1 while net assimilation rates (NAR) were calculated by dividing PGR with  
142 leaf area at beginning of each growth interval (LA1). Relative growth rate (RGR and net assimilation rate  
143 (NAR) were only calculated from budding to flowering and from flowering to physiological maturity  
144 because plant did not have any leaf area at planting and seed mass at planting are so small that RGR  
145 values would be unrealistic. Because of large differences between plants only mean values and not  
146 individual replication values were used. DAP, Growing Degree Days (GDD) and Photo thermal Unit (PTU)  
147 at budding, flowering and physiological maturing stages were correlated with LA, DM, NPP and PDM at  
148 budding, flowering and physiological maturing stages to determine whether there were relationships  
149 between the variables.

150 An appropriate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed, using Statistica software, version 12®. The  
151 Bonferroni test's least significant difference (LSD) values were calculated at the 5% probability level to  
152 compare treatment means.

### 153 **3.1 Results and Discussion**

#### 154 *3.1 Plant height*

155 As expected all genotypes showed a significant increase in plant height with time (days after planting)  
156 and heights of about 150 cm were achieved after 84 days when plants were already in the pod filling  
157 stage (Figure 1). Genotypes responded differently to temperature treatments. Genotypes, 43Y85,

158 44Y84, Hyola 575 and Hyola 50 showed little response to the different temperature treatments (10/15°C  
159 and 15/20°C), but all other genotypes showed a significant increase in plant height with an increase in  
160 night/day temperature from 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Differences in plant height were in most cases  
161 shown from 56 DAP onwards and largest differences were found with early and mid-early maturing  
162 genotypes Hyola571 and AGAMAX and 43Y85 because these genotypes were already at the budding  
163 stage, which is characterized by rapid stem elongation. But because early maturing genotypes such as  
164 43Y85 and Hyola 575 did not show a large response to temperature, no conclusion can be drawn with  
165 regard to the response for different maturity groups.

166 These results are in agreement with the findings of Qaderi *et al.* (2006) who reported that higher  
167 temperatures increased height of canola plants, but Dong *at al.* (2011) reported that higher  
168 temperatures in combination with short day lengths reduced stem height in rice crop in eastern China.

169

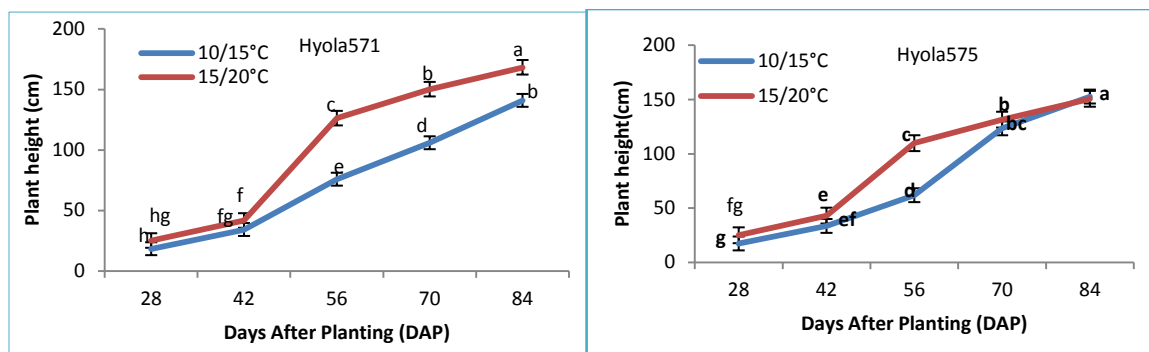
170

171

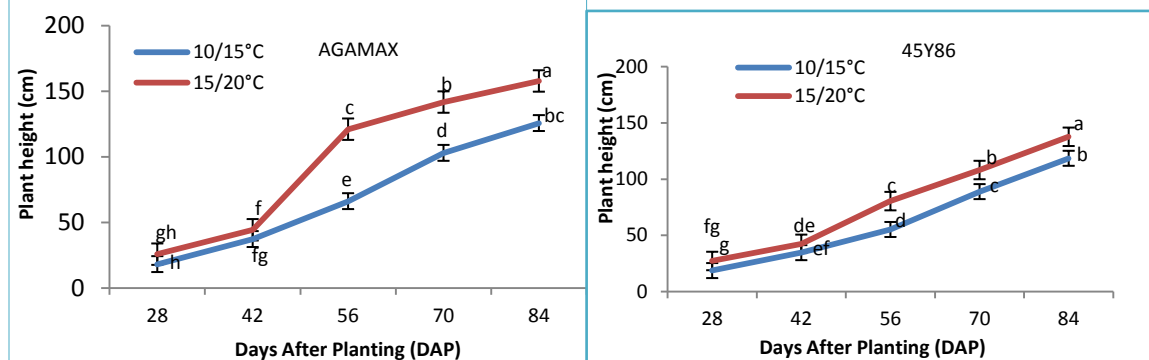
172

173

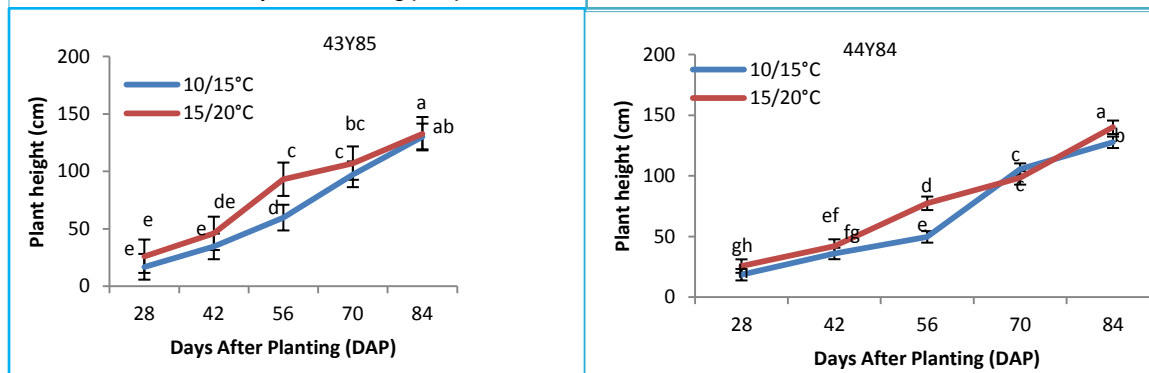
174



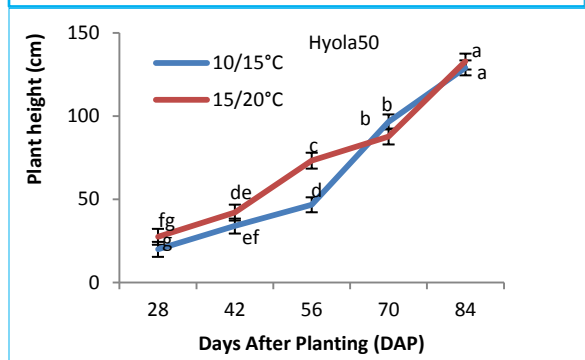
175



176



177



178 **Figure 1** Plant heights (cm) of different canola genotypes, measured at 28, 42, 56, 70 and 84 days after planting  
 179 (DAP), in response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with the same alphabetical lettering  
 180 do not differ significantly at P=0.05

181

182

183 *3.2 Number of leaves*

184 The total number of leaves ranged from 10 to 14 per plant. Genotypes did differ with regard to the  
185 number of leaves produced when subjected to different growing temperatures (Figure 2). In general  
186 genotypes tend to produce more leaves at the higher night/day temperature (15/20°C), but with the  
187 exception of the early maturing cultivar 43Y85 and the mid maturing cultivar 45Y86. At the lower  
188 temperature regime (10/15°C), early maturing genotypes Hyola 571 and Hyola 575, produced less leaves  
189 than other genotypes. At the higher temperature regime of 15/20°C, Hyola 571, Hyola 575 and AGAMAX  
190 produces less leaves than genotypes 43Y85, 44Y84 and 45Y86. Hyola 571 and Hyola 575 also produce  
191 less leaves than Hyola 50. Hyola 50 on the other hand, produces less leaves than early maturing 43Y85  
192 and mid-early 44Y84 and mid maturing 45Y86. Because genotypes 43Y85, 44Y84 and 44Y85 tend to  
193 produce the largest number of leaves at especially the higher temperature regime, results suggested  
194 that number of leaves produced before budding stage when stem elongation started, may to a larger  
195 degree be related to the cultivar origin than maturity grouping. These results are in contrast to the  
196 findings of Slauenwhite and Qaderi (2013) who found no significant difference in leaf numbers plant<sup>-1</sup>  
197 among four canola genotypes; 46A76, 45H72, 45H24 and 45H21 grown at day/night temperature  
198 regimes of 24/20°C and 30/26°C, though we don't know the maturity grouping of these genotypes.  
199 These authors also reported that higher temperature reduced leaf number plant<sup>-1</sup>. This contrasting  
200 results may indicate that the lowest temperature regime of 24/20°C used in their study were already  
201 above the optimum for leaf initiation in canola.

202

203

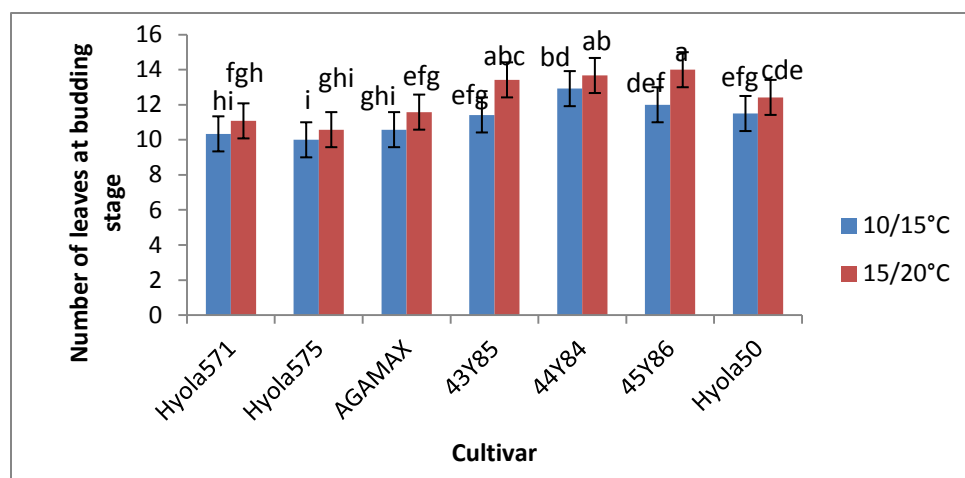
204

205

206

207





209 Figure 2 Number of leaves plant<sup>-1</sup> of different canola genotypes, measured at the beginning of budding  
 210 (growth stage 3.1) in response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with the  
 211 same alphabetical lettering do not differ significantly at P=0.05

212 **3.3 Leaf area**

213 In general leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> increased from budding stage to reach a maximum at flowering, where-after  
 214 it started to decrease. At all sampling stages, leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> (cm<sup>3</sup>) was affected by temperature  
 215 regime. On average, larger leaf areas were produced at the lower night/day temperature of 10/15°C  
 216 during flowering and final harvesting stage (Figure 3), but not so at budding stage. This tendency  
 217 indicates an increase in leaf senescence at the higher temperature regime. Different canola genotypes  
 218 however responded differently to the increase in temperature from 10/15°C to 15/20°C.

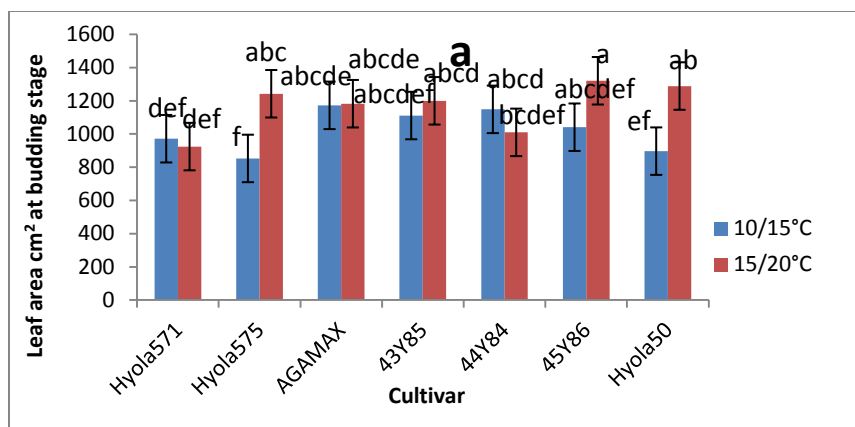
219 At budding stage only Hyola 575 and Hyola 50 showed a significant increase in leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> with an  
 220 increase in temperature (Figure 3), resulting in significant larger leaf areas plant<sup>-1</sup> compared to early  
 221 maturing Hyola 571 at the higher temperature regime (15/20°C), but not so at the lower temperature  
 222 regime (10/15°C). Although Hyola 571 showed on average the smallest leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> at budding  
 223 stage, no clear trend due to maturity grouping was shown.

224 At flowering stage, significant decreases in leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> due to the increase in temperature from  
 225 10/15°C to 15/20°C were shown for genotypes, Hyola 571, AGAMAX and 45Y86, while the reverse was  
 226 the case for 43Y85 (Figure 3). Cultivar AGAMAX produced the largest leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> at the low  
 227 temperature regime (10/15°C), while at the higher temperature regime (15/20°C), the leaf area of  
 228 43Y85 plants at flowering were significantly larger than other genotypes. On average, early maturing  
 229 genotypes Hyola 571 and Hyola 575 tend to produce the smallest leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup>.

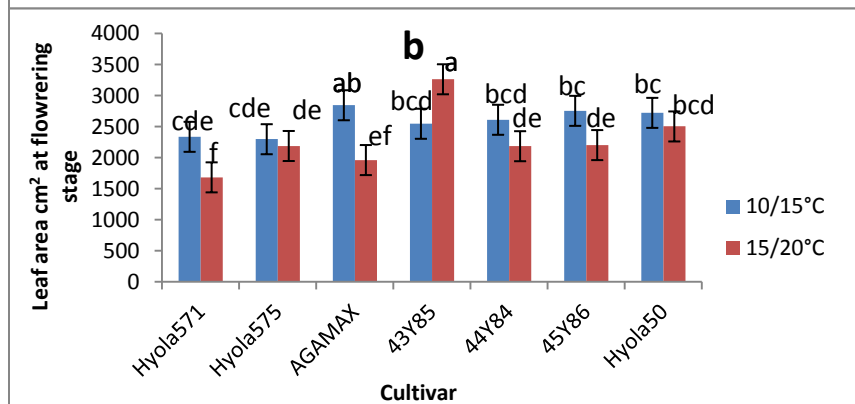
230 During the final harvest at growth stage 5.4, leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> with the exception of the early maturing  
231 cultivar Hyola 571 tend to decrease with an increase in temperature regime, but differences were not  
232 significant (Figure 3). No significant differences were recorded between genotypes at the 10/15°C  
233 temperature regime, but at the higher temperature regime (15/20°C), Hyola 575 showed a significantly  
234 smaller leaf area compared to 44Y84. In general mid-early maturing genotypes tend to have larger leaf  
235 areas than early maturing or mid maturing genotypes at this stage.

236 These results did not show clear evidence that genotypes of the same maturity group followed similar  
237 pattern with regard to their leaf area development at any of the sampling times, but in general mid-  
238 early maturing genotypes tend to produce the largest leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup>. Higher night/day temperatures  
239 resulted in larger leaf areas at budding, but smaller leaf areas at flowering and especially during the final  
240 harvesting at growth stage 5.4. Schwabe (1957) and Humphries (1969) also showed that leaf initiation  
241 and expansion rate during the early growth stage of seedlings are increased by higher temperatures.  
242 Rawson and Dunstone (1986) as well as Nanda *et al.*, (1995) reported that temperature affects crop  
243 phenology and thus can change pattern of leaf area development by altering the source-sink  
244 relationship. They observed that before onset of flowering, leaves and stem were the main sites of  
245 assimilation, taking up to 46% and 41% of dry matter respectively, but at onset of pod filling, leaves as  
246 assimilated only 19% of dry matter produced.

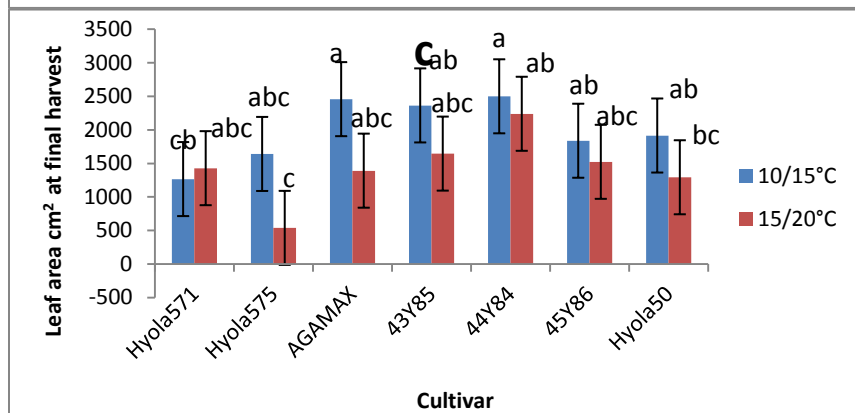
247



248



249



250

251 **Figure 3** Leaf area plant<sup>-1</sup> (cm<sup>2</sup>) of different canola genotypes , measured at (a)the beginning of  
 252 budding (growth stage 3.1) (b) flowering and (c ) during the final harvest at growth stage 5.4 in  
 253 response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with the same alphabetical  
 254 lettering do not differ significantly at P=0.05

255 **3.4 Dry mass**

256 Above ground dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> increased with time for all genotypes, but was affected by both cultivar  
 257 and temperature (Figure 4).

258 At budding stage (growth stage 3.1), a higher dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> was generally recorded for plants grown  
 259 at the higher temperature regime of 15/20°C, but differences were only significant for the genotypes  
 260 Hyola 575, Hyola 50 and 45Y86.

261 At flowering, above ground dry mass was, with the exception of the early maturing cultivar 43Y85, in all  
 262 genotypes significantly reduced when grown at the higher temperature regime of 15/20°C. With the  
 263 exception of Hyola 571 which produced significantly less dry mass than 43Y85, no differences were  
 264 recorded between genotypes growing in the 15/20°C glasshouse. In the cooler glasshouse (10/15°C), the  
 265 highest dry mass at flowering was produced by early and mid-early genotypes Hyola 571 and AGAMAX.

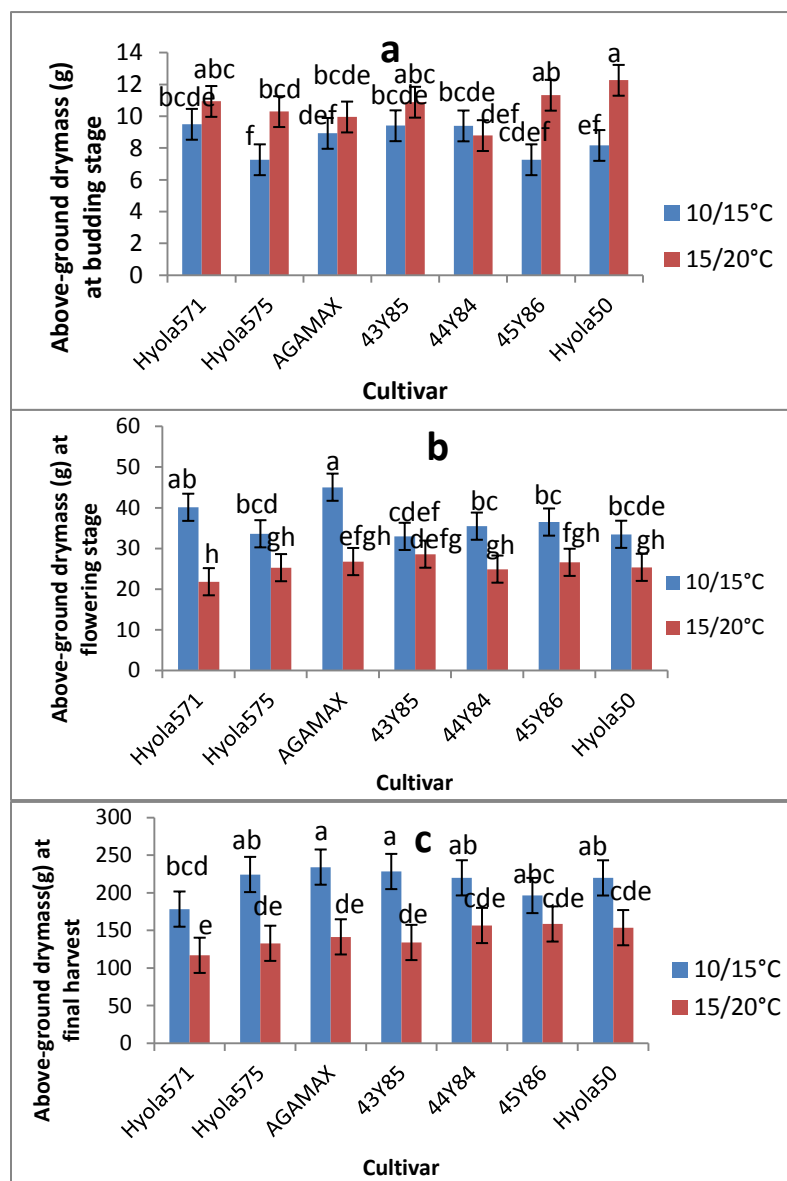
266 At final harvest (FH), no significant interaction between growing temperature regime and cultivar was  
 267 recorded with dry mass of all genotypes reduced at the higher temperature regime of 15/20°C (Figure  
 268 4). AGAMAX and 43Y85 recorded significantly higher dry mass than all genotypes in the 15/20°C, but  
 269 only higher than Hyola 571 in the 10/15°C glasshouse. In general early and mid-early maturing types  
 270 (Hyola 575, Hyola 571, AGAMAX and 43Y85) showed larger reductions in dry mass of 41.31%, 34.69%,  
 271 39.65% and 40.65% respectively in the higher temperature glasshouse, while mid and mid to mid-early  
 272 maturing types, 45Y86, Hyola 50 and 44Y84 showed reductions of 18.81%, 30.40% 28.41% respectively.

273 In general, canola plants at 15/20°C temperature regime accumulated more above ground dry mass at  
 274 budding stage and more so for late maturing genotypes than at 10/15°C temperature regime. It seems  
 275 that the trait(s) for lateness enabled late maturing genotypes to produce more leaves by reducing the  
 276 time between appearances of successive leaves. Therefore more leaves and leaf area recorded by late  
 277 maturing genotypes at higher temperature regime during budding stage as shown in figures 2 and 3  
 278 might be responsible for more above ground dry mass accumulated at budding stage. Canola has been  
 279 reported to partition more dry mass to leave in the early growth stage than wheat, barley and sorghum  
 280 (Rood *et al.*, 1984, Deligios *et al.*, 2013). While Faraji *et al.*, (2009) and Faraji (2014) showed significant  
 281 positive correlations between leaf number before flowering and dry mass as well as final grain yield.  
 282 Morrison *et al.* (1991) also reported that crops produce leaves at slower rate when exposed to low  
 283 temperature. For this reason, the higher dry mass accumulated at the 15/20°C temperature regime  
 284 compared to 10/15°C temperature regime during growth stage, could be because leaves were produced  
 285 at faster rate.

286 Results from this study are in agreement with earlier studies (Qaderi *et al.* 2006, Gou, *et al.*, 2010, Nordli  
 287 *et al.*, 2011) reporting an increase in dry matter production during earlier growth stages with higher

288 temperatures, but a decrease in total dry mass production due to more rapid crop development and a  
 289 shortened growth period.

290  
 291



292

293

294

295 **Figure 4** Dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> (g) of different canola genotypes , measured at (a)the beginning of budding  
 296 (growth stage 3.1) (b) flowering and (c) during the final harvest at growth stage 5.4 in response to  
 297 night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with same alphabetical lettering do not differ  
 298 significantly at P=0.05

299

300 *3.4 Number of flower stems*

301 Although all genotypes showed a decrease in the number of flower stems when grown at a lower  
302 temperature (10/15°C) instead of 15/20°C, differences were only significant for cultivar 44Y84 (Figure  
303 5). With the exception of Hyola 575, cultivar 44Y84 produced significantly more flower stems compared  
304 to other genotypes at the lower temperature regime of 10/15°C, but at the higher temperature regime  
305 (15/20°C) no significant differences were recorded between genotypes tested, except for Hola575 and  
306 Hola 50.

307 The reduction in number of flower stems recorded in the higher temperature regime could be attributed  
308 to the fact that the higher temperature regime of 15/20°C reduced the duration of different growth  
309 stages, so that plants have less time to develop flower stems. Similar results were reported by Kutcher  
310 *et al.* (2010) who found that high temperatures during vegetative growth reduced number of flowers  
311 produced per plant.

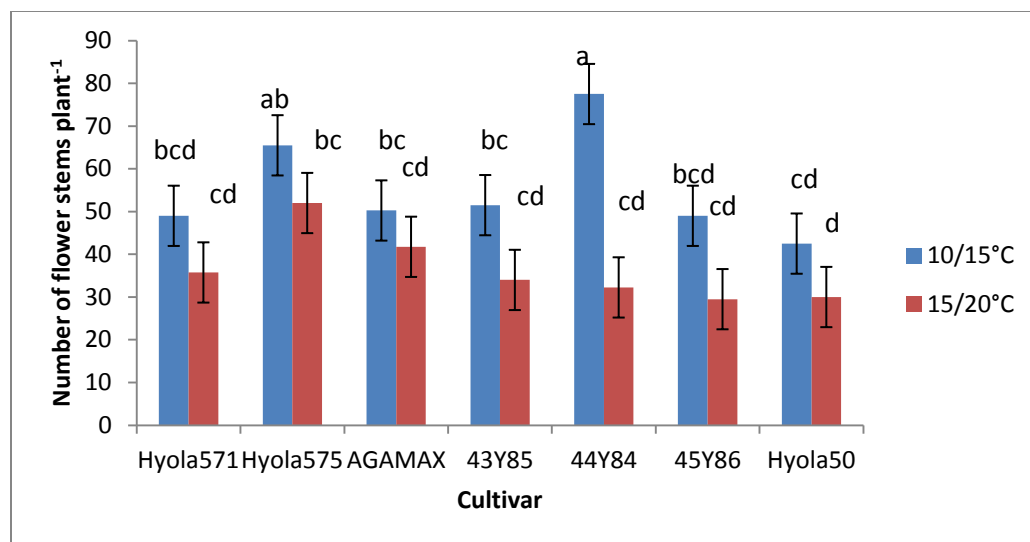
312 Except for the already mentioned difference between 44Y84 and others genotypes at the lower  
313 temperature regime, the number of flower stems produced by different genotypes did not show any  
314 relationship with their maturity grouping as early and later maturing genotypes produced the same  
315 number of flower stems.

316

317

318

319

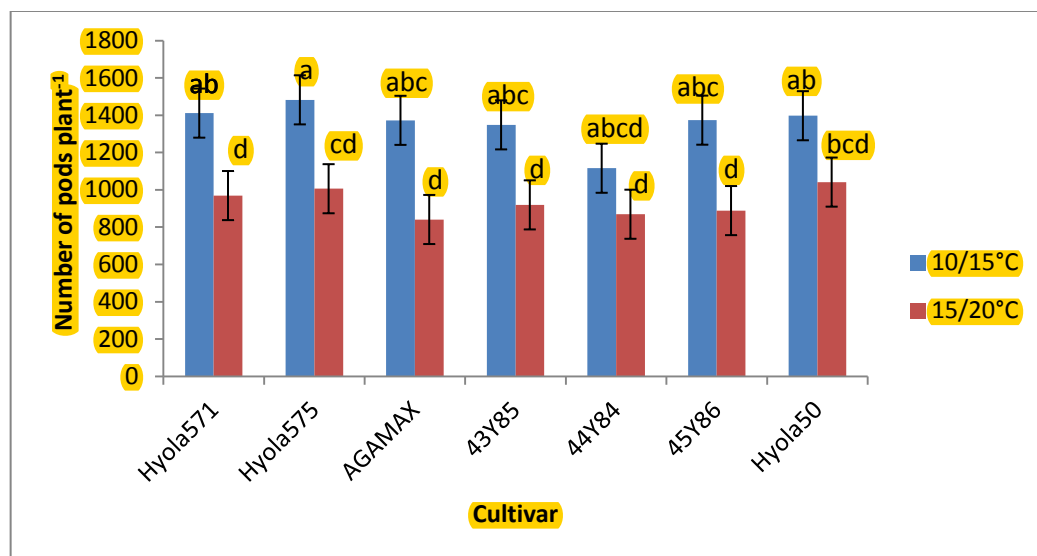


320

321 **Figure 5** Flower stems plant<sup>-1</sup> of different canola genotypes, measured during the final harvest at growth  
 322 stage 5.4 in response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with the same  
 323 alphabetical lettering do not differ significantly at P=0.05

324 3.6 Number of pods

325 The number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup> ranged from 841 to 1483. Genotypes differed with respect to number of  
 326 pods plant<sup>-1</sup> when grown at different temperature regimes (Figure 6). With the exception of Hyola 50  
 327 and 44Y84, all genotypes produced significantly less pods plant<sup>-1</sup> at the higher temperature regime of  
 328 15/20°C compare to 10/15°C. However, differences between genotypes at both temperature regimes  
 329 (10/15°C and 15/20°C) were not significant. With exception of 45Y86, later maturing genotypes (44Y84  
 330 and Hyola 50) showed less reduction in the number of pods per plant in the higher temperature regime  
 331 than early and mid-early maturing types.



332  
 333 **Figure 6** Effect of temperature on number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup> of different canola genotypes, measured  
 334 during the final harvest at growth stage 5.4 in response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and  
 335 15/20°C. Values with the same alphabetical lettering do not differ significantly at P=0.05

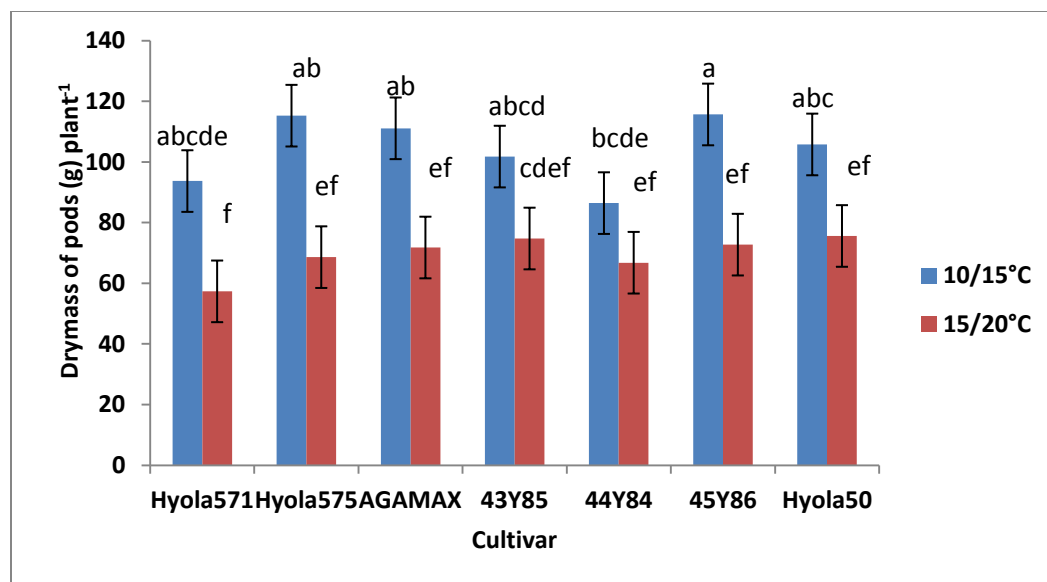
336 *3.7 Dry mass of pods*

337 With exception of 44Y84 and 43Y85, all genotypes showed a significant reduction in dry mass of pods  
 338 plant<sup>-1</sup> at the 15/20°C temperature regime compared to the 10/15°C temperature regime (Figure 7). Dry  
 339 mass of pods varied between about 80 and 116 g plant<sup>-1</sup> at the lower day/night temperature of 10/15°C  
 340 and differences between genotypes were not significant except for the difference between 45Y86 and  
 341 44Y84,. No significant differences between genotypes were recorded at the 15/20°C temperature  
 342 regime and the pod dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> varied between about 58 and 72 g. Early maturing Hyola 575 and  
 343 Hyola 571 showed higher pods dry mass reductions than mid-maturing Hyola 50 with an increase in  
 344 temperature. In contrast to this, early maturing 43Y85 showed less response than mid-maturing 45Y86,  
 345 indicating genetic differences between early maturing genotypes.

346 The reduced duration of growth stages, increased rate of respiratory break down of accumulated dry  
 347 mass and accelerated leaf senescence due to the higher temperature might be the reason for the  
 348 reduced pod dry mass at the 15/20°C regime. Kutcher *et al.* (2010) reported that increased mean  
 349 temperature during vegetative development reduced the number of seeds and size of seed per flower  
 350 and consequently resulted in seed yield reduction, the view also shared by findings of Morrison and  
 351 Stewart (2002).

352





353  
 354 **Figure 7** Pod dry mass plant<sup>-1</sup> of different canola genotypes, measured during the final harvest at  
 355 growth stage 5.4 in response to night/ day temperatures of 10/15°C and 15/20°C. Values with the same  
 356 alphabetical lettering do not differ significantly at P=0.

357 **3.8 Effect of temperature on plant growth rate (PGR), relative growth rate (RGR) and net assimilation**  
 358 **rate (NAR) of canola genotypes at budding, flowering and physiological maturity stages**

359 *3.8.1 Plant growth rate (PGR).*

360 Plant growth rate (PGR) increased progressively from planting to budding and from flowering to  
 361 physiological maturity at both temperature regimes (Table 1). On average a PGR of 0.2414 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>  
 362 was recorded from planting to budding compared to 1.4452 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and 2.0295 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>  
 363 measured from budding to flowering and from flowering to physiological maturity. However, at each  
 364 sampling stage, PGR differ as a result of both temperature and genotypes tested. From planting to  
 365 budding, all genotypes showed a higher PGR at the 15/20°C temperature regime compared to the  
 366 10/15°C temperature regime, but from budding to flowering and flowering to physiological maturity a  
 367 higher PGR was measured for all genotypes at the lower (10/15°C) temperature regime compared to the  
 368 15/20°C temperature regime. Genotypes also differed at both temperature regimes with respect to PGR.  
 369 From planting to budding a PGR of 0.2752 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> was measured on average for the higher  
 370 temperature regime of 15/20°C compared to 0.2075 gplant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> for the lower temperature regime  
 371 (10/15°C). At the 15/20°C temperature regime, 45Y86 showed highest PGR, while Hyola 571 recorded  
 372 the highest PGR at the 10/15°C temperature regime from planting to budding. From budding to  
 373 flowering stage, a higher PGR of 1.6124 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> were recorded on average by genotypes at the

374 10/15°C temperature regime compared to 1.2780 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> on average at the 15/20°C temperature  
375 regime. At the 10/15°C temperature regime, AGAMAX recorded highest PGR, whereas at 15/20°C  
376 temperature regime 43Y86 showed the highest PGR. Genotypes also showed a higher PGR at the lower  
377 temperature regime of 10/15°C compared to higher temperature regime (15/20°C) from flowering to  
378 physiological maturity. At the 10/15°C temperature regime genotypes grew at 2.2008 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>,  
379 while at the 15/20°C temperature genotypes grew at 1.8584 g plant<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. Cultivar, 43Y85 showed the  
380 highest PGR at 10/15°C, whereas at 15/20°C 44Y84 recorded the highest PGR from flowering to  
381 physiological maturity.

382 The increase in PGR from planting to physiological maturity indicated that PGR for all genotypes  
383 followed the normal growth rate curve, which usually increases as plant growth duration increase.  
384 Similar results have been reported on soybean, barley and maize ( Garmash 2005, Liu *et al.* 2006,  
385 Thomas *et al.* 2010, Tsimba *et al.* 2013). Increased PGR from planting to budding at 15/20°C  
386 temperature regime and decrease from budding to flowering and flowering to physiological maturity  
387 suggest that increasing the mean night/day temperature from 12.5°C to 17.5°C increased PGR during  
388 the vegetative growth stage (planting to budding) by increasing the rate of leaf appearance and  
389 expansion, but as growth progress the increase in temperature decreased PGR by increasing the rate of  
390 leaf senescence and respiratory break down of photosynthates (Munier-Jolain *et al.* 2008, Tsimba *et al.*  
391 20011, Tacarindua *et al.* 2012). Although genotypes differed in growth rate, it did not show any  
392 relationship with their maturity grouping.

### 393 3.8.2 Relative growth rate (RGR).

394 A higher RGR of 0.1528 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> was shown on average from budding to flowering compared to a  
395 lower RGR of 0.0669 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> from flowering to physiological maturity (Table 1). From budding to  
396 flowering, RGR was higher at the 10/15°C temperature regime (0.1840 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> ) than at the 15/20°C  
397 temperature regime (0.1215 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>), while from flowering to physiological maturity a higher RGR of  
398 0.0727 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> was recorded by genotypes at the 15/20°C temperature regime compare to a PGR of  
399 0.0610 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> at the 10/15°C temperature regime . AGAMAX showed the highest RGR at the 10/15°C  
400 temperature regime, whereas at 15/20°C temperature regime 44Y84 recorded the highest RGR from  
401 budding to flowering stage. From flowering to physiological maturity 43Y85 showed the highest RGR at  
402 the 10/15°C temperature, while AGAMAX showed the highest RGR at 15/20°C.

403 The higher RGR observed from budding to flowering compared to flowering to physiological maturity  
 404 could be attributed to the quantity of the dry mass at the beginning of the growth stage (DM1). The RGR  
 405 from budding to flowering was calculated by dividing PGR with dry mass at budding, while RGR from  
 406 flowering to physiological maturity was calculated by dividing PGR with dry mass at flowering stage. The  
 407 DM at flowering stage was higher than DM at budding stage, therefore as (DM1) increases RGR within  
 408 any range of growth stages decreases. The same applies for differences between temperature regimes.,  
 409 dry mass at budding stage were higher at 15/20°C temperature regime, so there was lower RGR from  
 410 budding to flowering stage and vice-versa, while at flowering stage dry mass were higher at 10/15°C  
 411 temperature regime and lower RGR were observed from flowering to physiological maturity and vice-  
 412 visa. Similar trends of RGR have been observed on wheat, soybean and maize (Victor *et al.* 2006,  
 413 Federick *et al.* 2013, Tacarindua *et al.* 2013, Tsimba *et al.* 2013) and therefore show that the efficacy of  
 414 crops to accumulate dry mass decreases towards the end of the growing season . Differences between  
 415 genotypes did not show any relationship with maturity grouping.

### 416 3.8.3 Net assimilation rate (NAR).



417 A higher NAR of 0.00136 g cm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> was recorded by genotypes at both temperature regimes from  
 418 budding to flowering when compared to the 0.00083 g cm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> from flowering to physiological  
 419 maturity. From budding to flowering genotypes recorded higher NAR of 0.00161 g cm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> at 10/15°C  
 420 temperature regime compared to the 0.00111 g cm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> at the 15/20°C temperature regime. From  
 421 flowering to physiological maturity there was no difference between NAR at different temperature  
 422 regimes. Genotypes of the same maturity groups did not show similar NAR values at different sampling  
 423 stage or temperature regimes

424 At the 10/15°C temperature regime Hyola571 recorded the highest NAR from budding to flowering,  
 425 while 43Y85 showed the highest NAR at 15/20°C. From flowering to physiological maturity there were  
 426 no difference between temperature regimes but genotypes did differ. At the 10/15°C temperature  
 427 regime Hyola 575 showed the highest NAR, whereas all genotypes, with the exception of 43Y85, showed  
 428 NAR values of 0008-0009 g cm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> at the 15/20°C temperature regime.

429 The higher NAR recorded from budding to flowering stage than from flowering to physiological maturity  
 430 can be attributed to lower leaf area at budding stage (LA1), which was used as the divisor of the PGR  
 431 from budding to flowering and higher leaf area at flowering (LA1) which was use as divisor of PGR from  
 432 flowering to physiological maturity. These results agreed with findings of Gaetan *et al.* (2008) and John  
 433 and Kim (2014) who also showed that NAR and photosynthetic efficiency of plants decrease towards the  
 434 end of the growing season.

435

436 **Table 1** Effect of temperature on plant growth rate (PGR) ( $\text{g plant}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}$ ), relative growth rate of plants  
 437 (RGR)( $\text{g g}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$ ) and net assimilation rate of plants (NAR) ( $\text{g cm}^{-2}\text{day}^{-1}$ ) of the different canola  
 438 genotypes determined for the periods: Planting to budding; Budding to flowering and from flowering to  
 439 physiological maturity.

		Planting to budding	Budding to flowering			Flowering to physiological maturity		
Temp	Cultivar	PGR	PGR	RGR	NAR	PGR	RGR	NAR
10/15°C	Hyola571	0.2315	2.04	0.215	0.0021	1.7377	0.0433	0.0007
	Hyola575	0.1773	1.645	0.2269	0.0019	2.414	0.0719	0.0011
	AGAMAX	0.2178	2.1241	0.2379	0.0018	2.3058	0.0512	0.0008
	43Y85	0.2176	1.3847	0.1472	0.0013	2.5697	0.078	0.001
	44Y84	0.2136	1.303	0.1385	0.0013	2.1754	0.0613	0.0008
	45Y86	0.209	1.6135	0.1785	0.0016	1.8589	0.051	0.0007
	Hyola50	0.1857	1.1763	0.144	0.0013	2.3432	0.07	0.0007
10/15°Cmean		<b>0.2075</b>	<b>1.6124</b>	<b>0.184</b>	<b>0.00161</b>	<b>2.2008</b>	<b>0.061</b>	<b>0.00083</b>
15/20°C	Hyola571	0.2957	1.086	0.0993	0.0012	1.5571	0.0714	0.0009
	Hyola575	0.2765	1.0736	0.105	0.0009	1.886	0.0747	0.0008
	AGAMAX	0.2692	1.3177	0.1323	0.0011	1.9666	0.0735	0.0009
	43Y85	0.2656	1.6456	0.1511	0.0014	1.8259	0.0639	0.0006
	44Y84	0.2144	1.3425	0.1527	0.0013	1.9567	0.0786	0.0009
	45Y86	0.3062	1.1723	0.1035	0.009	1.898	0.0714	0.0009
	Hyola50	0.299	1.308	0.1067	0.001	1.9185	0.0757	0.0008
15/20°Cmean		<b>0.2752</b>	<b>1.278</b>	<b>0.1215</b>	<b>0.00111</b>	<b>1.8584</b>	<b>0.0727</b>	<b>0.00083</b>
GSmean		<b>0.2414</b>	<b>1.4452</b>	<b>0.1528</b>	<b>0.00136</b>	<b>2.0295</b>	<b>0.0669</b>	<b>0.00083</b>

440 GSmean (growth stage mean)

#### 441 **4.0 Conclusions**

442 The study demonstrated that an increase in night/day temperature from 10/15°C to 15/20°C resulted  
443 in an increase in plant height, leaf number at budding stage, leaf area at budding, plant growth rate  
444 from planting to budding stage, but reduces plant growth rate from budding to physiological maturity,  
445 net assimilation rate from budding to flowering stage, leaf area at flowering and physiological maturity  
446 stages, as well as the number of flower stems, number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup>, above ground I dry mass at  
447 flowering and physiological maturity stages and pod dry mass at physiological maturity stage by 22.24%  
448 to 40.35%.

449 It also showed that on average, later maturing (mid-maturing) genotypes produced more leaves, leaf  
450 area at budding, flowering and physiological maturity stages, as well as above ground dry mass at  
451 budding stage compared to early maturing genotypes. However, they produced less flower stems and  
452 pods plant<sup>-1</sup>. At physiological maturity, early maturing genotypes (Hyola 575 and Hyola 571) showed the  
453 highest reduction in pods dry mass of 40.35% and 38.28% respectively with an increase in temperature  
454 to 15/20°C. Surprisingly, the early maturing 43Y85 shared most of morphological characteristics of later  
455 maturing (mid- maturing) group, instead of those of early and mid-early types, indicating that the  
456 response of different genotypes to an increase in temperature might to a large degree be related to  
457 their genetics (genotype) and not to their maturity grouping.

#### 458 **References**

459 Alocija EC, Ritchie JT. (1991). A model for the phenology of rice In: Hodges T. (Ed) *Predicting crop*  
460 *phenology*. CRC press Boca Raton FL. Pp 181-190.

461 Anonymous. .2006. Canola production manual.

462 Bagnall D, King RW. (1991). Response of peanut (*Arachis hypogea*) to temperature, photoperiod and  
463 irradiance In: Bertero *et al.*1999. Photoperiod sensitive development phases in quinoa (*chenopodium*  
464 *quinoa willd*). *Field Crops Research* 60: 237-243.

465 Bertero HD, King RW, Hall AJ. (1999). Photoperiod-sensitive development phases in quinoa  
466 (*Chenopodium quinoa willd*). *Field Crops Research* 60: 231-243.

467 Birch CJ, Hammer GL, Rickert KG. (1998). Temperature and photoperiod sensitivity of development in  
468 five cultivars of maize (*Zea mays* ) from emergence to tassel initiation. *Field Crops Research* 55:93-107.

- 469 Burton WA, Flood RF, Norten RM, Field B, Potts DA, Robertson MJ, Salisbury PA. (2008). Identification of  
470 variability in phenological responses in canola- quality *Brassica juncea* for utilization in Australia  
471 breeding programs. *Australian Journal of Agricultural Research*.59:847-881.
- 472 Cao W, Moss DN. (1989). Day length effect on leaf emergence and phyllochron in wheat and barley.  
473 *Crop Science* 29:1021-1025.
- 474 Coolhaas C, Wormer TM. (1953). Developmental differences in rice plants in relation to photoperiodism.  
475 *Netherland Journal of Agricultural Science* 1:207-216.
- 476 Craufurd PQ, Hauser IE, Dingkuhn M. (2003). photothermal responses of *O. sativa* and *O. glaberima*  
477 varieties and interspecific progenies from west Africa. *Field Crops Research* 83:313-324.
- 478 Craufurd PQ, Qi A. (2001). Photothermal adaptation of sorghum (*sorghum bicolor*) in Nigeria.  
479 *Agriculture, Forest and Meteorology* 108:199-211.
- 480 Deliqio PA, Faci R, Sulas L, Hoogenboom G, Ledda L. (2013). Predicting growth and yield of winter  
481 rapeseed in mediterranean environments: model adaptation at fields scale. *Field Crops Research* 144:  
482 100-112.
- 483 Faraji A, Latific N, Soltani A, Rad AHS. (2009). Seed yield and water use efficiency of canola (*Brassica*  
484 *napus* L.) as affected by high temperature stress and supplemental irrigation. *Science Direct* 132-140.
- 485 Faraji A. (2014). Seed weight in canola as a function of assimilate supply and source-sink ratio during  
486 seed filling period. *International Journal of Plant Production* 8: P255
- 487 Fischer RA. (1979). Growth and water limitation to dryland wheat yield in Australia: a physiological  
488 frame work. *Journal of Ausralian Instittute of Agricultural Science*. 45:83-94.
- 489 Fredrick TS, Martin L, Martthew PR, Hannah EJ. (2013). Quantifying the relationship between  
490 temperature regulation in the ear and floret development stage in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L)under  
491 heat and drought stress. *Functional Plant Biology* 40: 700-707.
- 492 Gaetan L, Karine C, Christain F, Bruno A, Catherine G. (2008). Relative contributions of light interception  
493 and radiation use efficiency to the reduction of maize productivity under cold temperatures. *Functional*  
494 *Plant Biology* 38: 885-899.

- 495 Garmash EV. (2005). Temperature controls a dependence of Barley plant growth on mineral nutrition  
496 level. *Russian Journal of Plant Physiology* 52:338-344.
- 497 Gonzalez FG, Slafer GA, Marelles DJ. (2003). Floret development and spike growth as affected by  
498 photoperiod during stem elongation in wheat. *Field Crop Research*: In press.
- 499 Gou R, Lin Z, Mo X, Yang C. (2010). Response of crop yield and water use efficiency to climate change in  
500 the North China plain. *Agricultural water management* 97: 1185-1194.
- 501 Harper FR, Berkenkamp B. (1975). Revised growth key for Brassica Campestris and B. Napus. *Canadian*  
502 *Journal of Plant Science* 55: 657-658.
- 503 Humpheries EC. (1969). Internal control of rate of leaf production in sugar beet. *Physiologia Pl.* 827-  
504 829.
- 505 IPCC . 2001. *Climate change 2001; the scientific basis, contribution of working group to the third*  
506 *assessment report of intergovernmental panel on climate change*. Cambridge University press, pp 103.
- 507 John WP, Kim C. (2014). Crop yields components-photoassimilate supply or utilization limited-organ  
508 development. *Functional Plant Biology* 41:893-913.
- 509 Kernich GC, Halloran GM, Flood RG. (1996). Constant and interchanged photoperiod effects on the rate  
510 of development in barley (*hordeum vulgare*). *Australian Journal of plant physiology* 23:489-496.
- 511 Kiniry JR, Rosenthal WD, Jackson BS, hoogenbroom G. (1992). Predicting leaf development of crop plants  
512 In: *Hodges T(Ed) predicting crop phenology*. CRC.press Boca Raton FL. Pp 29-42.
- 513 Kirkegaard JA, Sprague SJ, Lilley JM, McCormick JI, Virgona JM, Morrison MJ. (2012). Physiological  
514 response of spring canola (*Brassica napus*) to defoliation in diverse environments. *Field Crop Research*  
515 *125:61-68*.
- 516 Kutcher HR, Warland, JS, Brandt SA. (2010). Temperature and precipitation effects on canola yields in  
517 Saskatchewan, Canada. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 150: 161-165
- 518 Lineman AR. (1993). Phenological development in Bambara groundnut (*Vigna subterranean*) at constant  
519 exposure to photoperiods of 10 and 16h. *Annals of Botany* 71:445-452.

- 520 Liu X, Herbert SJ, Baath K, Hashemi AM. (2006). Soybean (*Glycine max*) seed growth characteristics in  
521 response to light enrichment and shading. *Plant Soil Environment* 52:178-185.
- 522 Matthews RB, Hunt LA. (1994). GUMCAS: a model describing the growth of cassava (*manihot esculent*  
523 *L. crantz*). *Field Crop Research* 36: 69-84.
- 524 Morandi EN, Casano LM, Raggiado LM. (1988). Post flowering photoperiod effects on reproductive  
525 efficiency and seed growth in soybean. *Field crops Research* 18:227-241.
- 526 Morrison MJ, Stewart DW, McVetty PBE. (1992). Maximum area expansion rate and duration of summer  
527 rape leaves. *Canadian Journal of plant Science* 72:117-126.
- 528 Morrison MJ, Stewart DW. (2002). Heat stress during flowering in summer Brassica. *Crop Science* 85:  
529 431-438.
- 530 Morrison, MJ, McVetty, PBE. (1991). Leaf appearance rates in summer rape. *Canadian Journal*  
531 *Plant Science* 71: 405-412.
- 532 Munier-Jolain N, Larmure A, Salon C. (2008). Determinism of carbon and nitrogen accumulation in  
533 legume seeds. *CR Biology* 331: 780-787.
- 534 Nanda R, Bhargava SC, Rawson HM. (1995). Effect of sowing date on rates of leaf appearance, final leaf  
535 numbers and areas in Brassica Compestris, B. juncea, B. napus and B Carinata. *Field Crops Research* 42:  
536 125-134.
- 537 Nordli EF, Stom, M, Torrie S. (2011). Temperature and photoperiod control of morphology and  
538 flowering time in two year greenhouse grown Hydrangea macrophylla cultivars. *Scientia Horticulturae*  
539 127: 372-377.
- 540 Paine CET, Matthews TR, Vogt DR, Purves D, Rees M, Hector A, Turnbull LA. (2012). "How to fit  
541 nonlinear plant growth models and calculate growth rates: updates for ecologists". *Methods in Ecology*  
542 *and Evolution* 3:245.
- 543 Pinrige AA, Down RJ, Borthwick HA. (1963). Photocontrol of growth and flowering of caryopteris.  
544 *American Journal of Botany* 50, 86-90.



- 545 Poggio SL, Satorre EH, Dethiou S, Gonzalez GM. (2005). Pod and seed numbers as a function of  
546 photothermal quotient during the seed set period of field pea (*Pisum Sativum*) crops. *European Journal*  
547 *Agriculture* 22:55-69.
- 548 Polowick PL, Sawhney VK. (1988). High temperature induced male and sterility in canola (*Brassica*  
549 *napus* L). *Annals of Botany* 62: 83-86.
- 550 Qaderi MM, Kurepin LV, Reid DM. (2006). Growth and physiological responses of canola (*Bassica napus*)  
551 to three component of global climate change temperature carbondioxide and drought. *Physiologia*  
552 *Plantarium* 128: 710-721.
- 553 Qi A, Ellis RH, Keatinge JDH, Wheeler TR, Tarawali SA, Summerfield RJ. (1999). Differences in the effects  
554 of temperature and photoperiod on progress to flowering among diverse *Muccuna* spp. *Journal of*  
555 *Agronomy & Crop Science* 182:249-255.
- 556 Rawson HM, Dunstone RI. (1986). Simple relationships describing the responses of leaf growth to  
557 temperature and radiation in sunflower. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology* 13: 321-327.
- 558 Richards RA. (1991). Crop improvement for temperature Australia: future opportunities. *Field Crops*  
559 *Research* 26: 141-169.
- 560 Ritchie JT, Ne Smith DJ.(1991). Temperature and crop development In: Hanks RJ, Ritchie EJT,(eds)  
561 *Modelling plant and soil systems*. Madison WI: American Society of Agronomy. PP 5-29.
- 562 Ritchie JT, Ne Smith DS. (1991). Temperature and crop development, In; Hanks RJ, Ritchie EJT (eds),  
563 *modelling plant and soil systems*. Madison WI: American Society of Agronomy. Pp 5-29.
- 564 Roberts EH, Summerfield RJ, Ellis RH, Qi A. (1993). Adaptation of flowering in crops to climate. *Outlook*  
565 *Agriculture* 22:105-110.
- 566 Rood SB, Major DJ, Charnetski WA. (1984). Seasonal changes in <sup>14</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and <sup>14</sup>C  
567 translocation in oilseed rape. *Field Crops Research* 8: 341-348.
- 568 Saarikko RA, Carter TR. (1995). Phenological development in spring cereals: responses to temperature  
569 and photoperiod under northern conditions. *European Journal of Agronomy* 5: 59-70.

- 570 Schwabe, WW. (1957). The study of plant development in controlled environment In; Hudson JP, (ed)  
571 *Control of the plant environment*. London. PP 234-242.
- 572 Siebert S, Ewert F. (2012). Spatio-temporal patterns of phenological development in Germany in relation  
573 temperature and day length. *Agriculture and Forest Meteorology* 152: 44-57.
- 574 Slafer GA, Rawson. HM. (1994). Sensitivity of wheat phasic development to major environmental  
575 factors: a re-examination of some assumptions made by physiologists and modelers. *Australian Journal*  
576 *of Plant Physiology* 21:393-426.
- 577 Slauenwhite KLI, Qaderi MM. (2013). Single and interactive effects of temperature and light quality on  
578 four canola cultivars. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science* 199: 286-298.
- 579 Statistics Canada. (2010). *1999-2009 cereal and oil seeds review*. Catalogue number CS22-007. Periodical  
580 statistics Canada. Ottawa.
- 581 Summerfield RJ, Roberts EH, Ellis RH, Lawn RJ. (1991). Towards the reliable prediction of time to  
582 flowering in six annual crops In: The development of simple models for fluctuating field environments.  
583 *Experimental Agriculture* 27: 11-31.
- 584 Tacarindua CRI, Shiraiwa T, Hamma K, Kumagi E, Sameshima R.( 2012). The response of soybean seed  
585 growth characteristics to increased temperature under near-field conditions in a temperature gradient  
586 chamber. *Field Crop Research* 131: 165-171.
- 587 Tacarindua CRI, Tatshihik SI, Koki H, Etsushi K, Royi S. (2013). The effect of increased temperature on  
588 crop growth and yield of soybean grown in a temperature gradient chamber. *Field Crop Research* 154:  
589 74-81.
- 590 Thomas JMG, Boote KJ, Pan D, Allen LH. (2010). Elevated temperature delays onset of reproductive  
591 growth and reduces seed growth rate of soybean. *Journal of Agricultural Science* 1:19-32.
- 592 Thomas RG. (1961). Correlation between growth and flowering in *chenopodium amaranticolor* :  
593 initiation of leaf and bud primordia. *Annals of Botany* 25:138-151.

594 Tsimba R, Gregory O, Edmeades, James PM, Peter DK. (2013). The effect of planting date on maize  
595 phenology; thermal time durations and growth rates in a cool temperate climate. *Field Crop Research*  
596 150:145-155.

597 Tsimba R. (2011). *Development of decision support system to determine the best maize (zea mays)*  
598 *hybrid-planting date option under tropical typical New Zealand management systems*. Massey  
599 University. New Zealand, Pp 261 (PHD thesis).

600 Victor OS, Jaun PM. (2006). Modelled wheat phenology captures rising temperatures trends; Shortened  
601 time to flowering and maturity in Australia and Argentina. *Field Crop Research* 99:136-146.

602 Villaloboss FJ, Ritchie JT. (1992). The effect of temperature on leaf emergence rates of sunflower  
603 genotypes. *Field Crops Research* 29: 37-46.

604 [www.Australian](http://www.Australianoilseedfederation.com.au) oilseed federation (2013)

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626