Sodicity stress differently influences physiological traits and anti-oxidant enzymes in pear and peach cultivars

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Background. The growth and physiological responses to sodicity stress of pear and peach are poorly understood. Insights into how sodicity stress alters tree physiology remain vital to developing salt tolerant scion and rootstock cultivars.

Methods. The effects of sodicity stress (soil $pH_s \sim 8.8$) on tree growth and physiological traits on field grown trees of pear cultivars Punjab Beauty and Patharnakh, and peach cultivars Partap and Shan-e-Punjab were recorded using standard procedures. Sodicity-induced changes in oxidative stressors, proline, anti-oxidant enzymes and leaf ions were measured to draw inferences.

Results. Sodicity-induced reductions in vegetative growth were particularly marked in Patharnakh pear and Partap peach compared with other cultivars. Although sodicity stress triggered a significant increase in leaf malondialdehyde (MDA) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), their levels relative to controls were much higher in peach than in pear; reflecting that peach suffered from greater oxidative stress. Interestingly, MDA and H_2O_2 levels did not seem to be deleterious enough to trigger proline-induced osmotic adjustment in pears. The activities of anti-oxidant enzymes strongly varied with the cultivar; specifically, the sodicity-induced increases in CAT and SOD activities were much higher in Punjab Beauty pear and Shan-e-Punjab peach. Principal Component Analysis revealed an explicit convergence between CAT and SOD activities in Punjab Beauty and Shan-e-Punjab cultivars in response to sodicity-induced oxidative stress. Correlation analysis revealed that leaf Na⁺ strongly inhibited tree growth in peach than in pear. Leaf K⁺ and proline were found to be the major osmolytes in sodicity-stressed pear and peach cultivars, respectively.

Conclusions. Our findings revealed a marked suppressive effect of sodicity stress on tree growth in peach than in pear. The sodicity-induced upticks in leaf malondialdehyde, hydrogen peroxide and Na^+ seemed to induce proline-mediated osmotic adjustment in peach but not in pear. The overall better sodicity tolerance in pear compared to peach was ascribed to increased activities of anti-oxidant enzymes catalase and superoxide dismutase enzymes together with restricted Na^+ uptake and better leaf K^+ levels.

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- 8 Abstract

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21 deleterious enough to trigger proline-induced osmotic adjustment in pears. The activities of anti-

22 oxidant enzymes strongly varied with the cultivar; specifically, the sodicity-induced increases in

- 23 CAT and SOD activities were much higher in Punjab Beauty pear and Shan-e-Punjab peach.
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29 **Conclusions.** Our findings revealed a marked suppressive effect of sodicity stress on tree growth 30 in peach than in pear. The sodicity-induced upticks in leaf malondialdehyde, hydrogen peroxide 31 and Na⁺ seemed to induce proline-mediated osmotic adjustment in peach but not in pear. The 32 overall better sodicity tolerance in pear compared to peach was ascribed to increased activities of 33 anti-oxidant enzymes catalase and superoxide dismutase enzymes together with restricted 34 translocation of Na⁺ uptake and better leaf K⁺ levels.

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Horticultural production will have to increasingly rely on salt-impaired lands in the coming decades (Singh et al., 2018a). Saline, sodic (alkali) and saline-sodic soils occupy ~60%, 26% and 37 14% of the global salt-affected area, respectively (Wicke et al., 2011). In contrast to the 38 commonly accepted saturated soil paste pH (pH_s) threshold of 8.5, pH_s >8.2 seems to be more 39 40 realistic for classifying the soils as sodic under Indian conditions: soil pH_s of 8.2 is often associated with an exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) of 15; a limit above which the soils 41 are generally considered to be sodic (Abrol et al., 1988). Generally, soil pH_s of 8.5 roughly 42 corresponds to ESP of \sim 50, high enough to suppress the crop growth (Sharma et al., 2016; Abrol 43 44 et al., 1988). Although alkali salts such as sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3) are often more detrimental to plant growth than neutral salts (e.g. NaCl) (Yang et al., 2009), including fairly salt 45 tolerant crops (Abbas et al., 2021), alkali stress research continues to receive little attention. 46

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Sodic soils in the Trans-Gangetic Plains of India (study area) mostly have predominance of
highly soluble Na₂CO₃ and NaHCO₃ salts, and are thus prone to abrupt increases in the soil pH
(Mandal, 2012).

In sodic soils, excessive Na⁺ causes clay dispersion, surface crusting and deterioration in 50 the soil physical properties (Qadir et al., 2007). Besides poor physical properties, high pH, 51 osmotic and ionic stresses, and nutrient deficiencies are other limitations to plant growth in the 52 sodic soils (Qadir & Schubert, 2002). Additionally, calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) concretions in 53 the sub-soil also hamper plant establishment (Sharma et al., 2016). Considerable spatial 54 variations in soil pH are also frequently seen in sodic soils; the more sodic parts of the field are 55 56 often less congenial for crop growth (Samra et al., 1988). In fruit crops, sodicity stress adversely affects vegetative growth (Saxena & Gupta, 2006; Krishnamoorthy, 2009). Altered plant water 57 relations (Li et al., 2020), decrease in photosynthetic pigments (Krishnamoorthy, 2009; Li et al., 58 2020), lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress (Ahmad et al., 2014), and ionic stress (e.g. Na⁺) 59 (Singh et al., 2018b) are the major limitations to plant growth. Sodicity-stressed plants 60 accumulate osmolytes such as proline for osmotic adjustment (Krishnamoorthy, 2009; Ahmad et 61 al., 2014; Singh et al., 2018a), and activate the antioxidant enzymes for scavenging the free 62 radicals (Ahmad et al., 2014). 63

The physico-chemical properties of sodic soils improved following amendment application and salt leaching; however, such improvements are mostly transient and limited to the top soil (<15 cm) (Sharma & Singh, 2019) such that sub-soil constraints continue to persist (Kumar et al., 2019). Under such conditions, agronomic practices such as planting into amendment-treated auger-holes often give better results (Gill & Abrol, 1991; Saxena & Gupta, 2006). As a majority of fruit crops are mostly highly sensitive to salinity and sodicity stresses

(Singh et al. 2018a), development of salt tolerant scion and rootstock cultivars could help to
sustaining fruit production in salt-affected soils (Mahmoud et al., 2020). Although salt tolerance
is a complex polygenic trait, and is greatly influenced by the genetic and environmental cues
(Flowers, 2004), there exists ample genotypic variation that needs to be explored for identifying
the salt tolerant genotypes (Mahmoud et al., 2020; Singh et al. 2018a).

Although some studies have shown the adverse effects of salinity stress on pear (Myers et 75 al., 1995; Oron et al., 2002; Musacchi et al., 2006) and peach (Boland et al., 1993; Karakas et al., 76 2000; Soliman et al., 2017) tree growth and physiology, their responses to sodicity stress remain 77 elusive; barring some anecdotal evidence that high soil pH and the sub-soil constraints may 78 suppress plant growth (Elkins et al., 2012; Abd-Elmegeed et al., 2013; Mestre et al., 2015; 79 Tagliavini et al., 1995). Notably, not only the soil pH levels in these studies were rather low to 80 draw reasonable inferences, the plausible physiological changes accounting for the reduced plant 81 growth were also not investigated. Plant responses to salt often strikingly vary with the 82 experimental conditions; for instance, depending on experimental conditions pears may either be 83 highly sensitive (EC_e < 1.0 dS m⁻¹; Ebert, 1999) or moderately tolerant (~5.0 dS m⁻¹; Musacchi et 84 al., 2006) to salinity. Interestingly, most of the aforementioned studies had used NaCl as the sole 85 salinizing agent in relatively controlled short-term experiments; the results may be altogether 86 87 different when a different salt is used to induce salt stress (Grieve et al., 2012). While an interplay among the oxidative stressors (e.g., malondialdehyde), osmolytes (e.g., proline), anti-88 oxidant enzymes and the leaf ions is known to greatly influence plant response to salinity stress 89 in pears and peaches (Erturk et al., 2007; Wu& Zou, 2009; Dejampour et al., 2012; Yousefi et 90 al., 2019), such responses remain uninvestigated under sodic conditions. Insights from other fruit 91 crops [e.g., Malus halliana (Jia et al., 2019) and Morus alba (Hui-Hui et al., 2019)] also suggest 92

93	that plant physiological responses to salinity and sodicity stresses remarkably vary with each
94	other: the effects of salinity cannot be used as a reliable proxy for those of sodicity.
95	To our knowledge, systematic studies have not yet been carried out to evaluate the effects
96	of sodicity stress on tree growth and physiological relations of pears and peaches. This study
97	intended to delineate sodicity-induced changes in tree growth, leaf oxidative stress markers,
98	proline, enzymatic anti-oxidants and leaf ions in pear and peach cultivars, and how these changes
99	influence the overall cultivar-specific tree responses to sodicity stress.
100	MATERIALS & METHODS
101	Location
102	The experiment was conducted between January, 2015 and April, 2019 at the
103	experimental farm of Indian Council of Agricultural Research-Central Soil Salinity Research
104	Institute, Karnal, India (29° 42' 20.6" N, 76° 57' 19.80" E, 243 m above mean sea level). The
105	region has a semi-arid subtropical climate with hot summers and dry winters. The long-term
106	average annual rainfall is \sim 700 mm. A sodic field was used to evaluate the pear and peach
107	cultivars.
108	Experimental material
109	The pear cultivars Punjab Beauty (Pyrus communis) and Patharnakh (P. pyrifolia) grafted
110	on Kainth (Pyrus pashia); and peach cultivars Partap and Shan-e-Punjab (Prunus persica) on
111	Sharbati rootstock (<i>P. persica</i>) were evaluated. The bare root plants were planted on 17 th January

112 2015 in auger-holes (diameter 20 cm, depth 120 cm) in a sodic field, keeping graft joint ~15 cm

above the surface. The auger-holes were refilled with original soil and 5 kg of gypsum

114 (Ca₂SO₄.2H₂O) before planting for better initial establishment (Sharma et al., 2014). The square 115 system of planting was used, with between- and within-row spacings of 6 m each in both pear 116 and peach. Trees were trained to the modified leader system, and the recommended management 117 practices were followed for better tree growth. Irrigation water was applied through 1 m wide 118 channels.

119 Treatments

Soil samples were collected from 24 random points of the field, from four depths (0-15, 120 15-30, 30-60 and 60-100 cm) using an auger. After air drying, the samples were ground and 121 sieved (2.0 mm sieve) for determining the saturated soil paste pH (pH_s) and soil saturation 122 extract electrical conductivity (ECe) using digital pH and conductivity meters (Eutech, 123 124 Singapore). Based on soil analysis, the experimental plants were grouped into control (mean soil $pH_s = 8.22$, $EC_e = 0.71 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$) and sodic (mean $pH_s = 8.80$, $EC_e = 0.94 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$) treatments for 125 recording the observations. Both soil pH_s and EC_e increased with depth, and there were 126 significant differences between control and sodicity treatments (pH_sF= 41.94, p <0.001; EC_eF= 127 27.52, p <0.001) (*Table S1*). The groundwater used in irrigation had the following composition: 128 electrical conductivity- 0.65 dS m⁻¹, pH- 8.04, Na⁺- 2.41 me L⁻¹, K⁺- 0.15 me L⁻¹, Ca²⁺ + Mg²⁺-129 4.17 me L⁻¹, Cl⁻ 0.98 me L⁻¹ and HCO⁻₃- 4.31 me L⁻¹. 130

131 Tree growth

Four trees of each pear and peach cultivar representing control and sodic treatments were randomly tagged for recording the observations. Tree height and trunk diameter were measured during the last week of April, 2019. Trunk diameter readings, recorded using a digital Vernier caliper (Mitutoyo, Japan) 15 cm above the graft union, were converted into trunk cross sectional

- area (TCSA) by the formula: TCSA= $\pi(d/2)^2$; where d= mean of E-W and N-S trunk diameters.
- 137 Canopy volume (CV) was computed by the formula: $CV=(w^2 \times h)/2$; where w= canopy diameter
- 138 in east-west (E-W) and north-south (N-S) directions; and h= tree height.

139 Leaf physiological traits

The fully expanded leaves from middle of the shoots were collected from all the 140 directions of each replicate tree (n=4), pooled, packed in zip lock bags inside an ice-box, and 141 immediately brought to the laboratory. Total leaf chlorophyll was estimated by overnight 142 incubation of 200 mg chopped leaves in 80% acetone (Arnon, 1949) using a UV-VIS 143 spectrophotometer (Electronics India). Lipid peroxidation, in terms of malondialdehyde (MDA) 144 content, was estimated by the method of Heath & Packer, (1968). Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) 145 146 content was estimated using the procedure described in Sinha, (1972). Proline was extracted using 200 mg leaf tissue homogenized in 10 ml of 3% sulphosalicyclic acid (Bates et al., 1973). 147

148 Anti-oxidant enzymes

Fresh leaf sample (~250 mg) was homogenized in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) 149 containing 5% (w/v) polyvinyl polypyrrolidone, 1 mM EDTA, and 10 mM b-mercapto-ethanol 150 for determining ascorbate peroxidase (APX, EC 1.11.1.11) and superoxide dismutase (SOD, EC 151 1.15.1.1) activities. APX activity was assayed as described in Nakano & Asada, (1981), and the 152 enzyme activity was calculated using extinction coefficient of 2.8 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹. The SOD assay 153 was performed following Beauchamp & Fridovich, (1971). The absorbance of the solution was 154 measured at 560 nm with a UV-VIS spectrophotometer (UV 3200, Lab India Analytical). 155 156 Catalase (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6) and peroxidase (POX, EC 1.11.1.7) were extracted in 0.01 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) with 3% (w/v) polyvinyl polypyrrolidone by homogenizing the fresh 157

leaf tissue (1.0 g). The homogenate was centrifuged at 4°C for 15 min at 10,000 x g and clear supernatant was used for the assay. CAT activity was determined as the disappearance of H_2O_2 at 240 nm (25°C) for 1 min (Aebi, 1984). The POX was assayed by determining the rate of guaiacol oxidation in the presence of H_2O_2 at 470 nm (Rao et al., 1998).

162 Leaf Na⁺ and K⁺

Leaf samples, dried to a constant weight at 60° C in a hot air oven (NSW, India), were finely ground and 100 mg tissue sample was digested in the di-acid [HNO₃:HClO₄(3:1)] mixture for determining Na⁺ and K⁺ (mg g⁻¹ DW) using a flame photometer (Systronics India).

166 Statistical analysis

167 The experiment was laid out in a randomized block design. The main and interaction effects of treatment and cultivar on dependent variables were examined by a two-way Analysis 168 of Variance (ANOVA). The assumptions of equality of variances (Levene's test) and normality 169 170 (Q-Q plots) were checked prior to ANOVA, and some variables (tree height, proline and peroxidase in case of peach data) were log-transformed to improve the ANOVA assumptions. 171 The effect size measure omega squared (ω^2) was computed to estimate the variance in the 172 response variable(s) accounted for by the explanatory variables. Tukey's test (p < 0.05) was used 173 for mean comparisons (JASP v. 0.15). Data are expressed as mean $(n=4) \pm$ standard error. 174 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Bartlett's test of sphericity, p<0.001) was applied to 175 reduce the dimensionality and to detect the key patterns in data (Jamovi v. 2.2). Pearson's 176 bivariate correlations between the measured traits were computed (Julkowska et al., 2019). 177

178

179 **RESULTS**

180 Analysis of Variance

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results evinced strong repressive effects of sodicity stress 181 on tree growth and leaf physiological traits in both pear and peach. Although sodicity-induced 182 reductions in tree height (TH), trunk cross sectional area (TCSA) and canopy volume (CV) were 183 highly significant (p < 0.001) in both the crops, a perusal of the effect-size measure (ω^2) implied 184 that TCSA was far less sensitive to sodicity stress than were both TH and CV; regardless of the 185 186 crop (*Table 1*). Likewise, ω^2 values suggested a more adverse effect of sodicity stress on peach than on pear growth. The ω^2 values were low-to-moderate (<0.600) for most of the leaf 187 physiological traits, but quite high (>0.700) for leaf proline, APX and Na⁺ in pear. This 188 189 suggested that explanatory variable (i.e., sodicity stress) accounted for a reasonably high variance in the latter. The pear cultivars differed markedly with other for all the traits except leaf 190 proline, APX and Na⁺/K⁺ ratio (*Table 1*). The sodicity-triggered increases in leaf MDA and H_2O_2 191 levels were far greater in peach compared to pear in terms of ω^2 values. This, together with more 192 or less similar values of ω^2 for the leaf proline, implied the greater sensitivity to oxidative stress 193 of peaches compared to pears. Quite the contrary, the values of ω^2 evinced a moderate-to-strong 194 increases in APX, POX and CAT activities in pear than in peach; while upregulation in SOD 195 activity was quite similar in both the cases. This again indicated a better anti-oxidant system to 196 cope with free radicals in pear than in peach (*Table 1*). 197

198 Tree growth

199There were strong differences between the cultivars for sodicity-induced reductions in200tree growth. For instance, the reductions in trunk cross sectional area (TCSA) and canopy

volume (CV) relative to controls were much lower in Punjab Beauty pear (16.49% and 44.50%,

respectively) than in Patharnakh (41.89% and 69.28%, respectively) (Table 2). Sodicity stressed

203 Partap peach trees displayed much higher reductions in tree height (TH, 36.24%), TCSA

204 (74.28%) and CV (90.33%) than corresponding decreases of 29.23%, 11.94% and 58.58% in cv.

205 Shan-e-Punjab (*Table 2*).

206 Leaf physiological traits

Sodicity stress caused appreciable reductions in total leaf chlorophyll (TC) in pear 207 (Punjab Beauty- 26.95%, Patharnakh- 21.43%). Leaf malondialdehyde (MDA), hydrogen 208 peroxide (H₂O₂) and proline levels were invariably higher in sodic than in control treatment. 209 Leaf MDA increased marginally (9.61%) in Punjab Beauty and moderately (19.92%) in 210 211 Patharnakh (*Table 3*). Both the cultivars showed identical increases ($\sim 12.0\%$) in leaf H₂O₂. Leaf proline accumulation in sodic treatment was considerably higher in Punjab Beauty (33.86%) 212 compared to Patharnakh (20.15%). Partap and Shan-e-Punjab peaches had 30.80 and 18.09% less 213 TC, respectively, in sodic soils than respective controls (*Table 3*). 214

215 Leaf anti-oxidant enzymes

Sodicity-triggered increases in APX and CAT activities relative to controls were more 216 pronounced in pear cv. Patharnakh (34.49 and 35.97%, respectively) than in Punjab Beauty 217 (28.44 and 25.16%, respectively) (Table 4). Contrarily, POX and SOD activities were 2.6- and 218 1.4-folds higher, respectively, in sodicity-stressed Punjab Beauty leaves than in Patharnakh 219 (Table 4). However, in absolute terms, only POX activity was higher in sodicity-stressed 220 Patharnakh while both CAT and SOD activities much higher in Punjab Beauty. In case of peach, 221 222 the sodicity-triggered upregulation in leaf APX and POX activities relative to controls were markedly higher in Shan-e-Punjab (29.41 and 22.99%, respectively) than in Partap (13.49 and 223

6.24%, respectively). Conversely, CAT and SOD activities were more noticeable in Partap
(38.82 and 16.19%, respectively) compared to Shan-e-Punjab (8.37 and 14.79%, respectively).
Nonetheless, Shan-e-Punjab significantly outperformed Partap for the absolute leaf CAT and
SOD levels in the sodic soils (*Table 4*).

228 Leaf Na⁺ and K⁺

As expected, sodicity stress caused an increase in leaf Na⁺ and a decrease in K⁺, regardless of the cultivar. Pears Punjab Beauty and Patharnakh displayed considerably higher leaf Na⁺ (43.91 and 74.57%, respectively) in sodic than in control soils. In contrast, leaf K⁺ declined significantly in sodicity stressed Punjab Beauty (17.76%) and Patharnakh (28.69%) trees (*Table 5*). In sodic soils, peaches Partap and Shan-e-Punjab had 71.68 and 58.24% more leaf Na⁺, respectively, and 31.97 and 24.21% less K⁺, respectively (*Table 5*).

235 Principal component analysis

The PCA was quite efficient in reducing the dimensionality: the first two Principal 236 Components (PCs) (Eigen value >1.0) alone explained 90.95% of the cumulative variance in 237 data in pear (Table S2; Figure 1a), and 94.61% in peach (Table S2; Figure 1b). In case of pear, 238 leaf Na⁺, K⁺ and Na⁺/K⁺ ratio alongside proline, APX and CV were the highly weighted variables 239 on PC1; and TH, TCSA, HP, MDA and CAT on PC2 (Table S2). Likewise, for peach, TH, HP, 240 proline and Na⁺/K⁺ ratio were the best represented variables on PC1, and TCSA, APX, POX, 241 CAT and K⁺ on PC2 (*Table S2*). Interestingly, PCA achieved a clear-cut discrimination for the 242 cultivar- and treatment-specific effects in data: while PC1 unambiguously distinguished the 243 244 control and sodicity treatments, PC2 clearly separated the tested cultivars from each other (Figure 1a, 1b). The PCA also unveiled some interesting patterns in data. For pear, tight 245

clustering of tree growth attributes, K and TC in the upper left quadrant implied a 246 straightforward role of leaf K⁺ in osmotic adjustment in the sodicity-stressed pears (Figure 1a). 247 Likewise, there was an apparent cultivar-specific upregulation in CAT and SOD activities in 248 response to oxidative (HP and MDA) and ionic (Na⁺) stresses in Punjab Beauty trees; increased 249 POX activity alone seemed to have alleviated salt stress in Patharnakh (Figure 1a). In case of 250 peach, leaf K^+ did not have any obvious effect in alleviating the salt stress. Contrarily, 251 osmoregulation through proline apparently increased in response to increasing HP, MDA and 252 Na⁺ levels. Of the enzymatic anti-oxidants, APX and POX were rather specific to Partap, and 253 CAT and SOD to Shan-e-Punjab (Figure 1b). 254

255 Correlation analysis

256 In pear, growth traits (TH, TCSA and CV) and total leaf chlorophyll (TC) had strong positive correlations with leaf K⁺ (r > 0.800, p = 0.000). Expectedly, leaf Na⁺/K⁺ ratio had 257 moderate-to-strong negative correlations with TH (r= -0.623, p= 0.010), TC (r= -0.602, p= 258 0.014) and CV (r= -0.788 p= 0.000) (*Table S3*, Figure 2a). A strong positive correlation between 259 leaf MDA and H₂O₂ (r= 0.914, p= 0.000) reflected their synergistic adverse effects on pear tree 260 growth and physiology. Leaf proline had moderate positive correlations with MDA (r=0.578, p=261 0.019) and HP (r=0.519, p=0.039). Similarly, strong positive relationships (r > 0.800, p=0.000) 262 were found between antioxidants (CAT and SOD) and oxidative stress indicators (MDA and HP) 263 (*Table S3*, Figure 2a). In peach, leaf K⁺ had strong positive correlations with TC (r=0.887, p=264 0.000), APX (r= 0.732, p= 0.001) and POX (r= 0.791, p= 0.000), strong negative correlations 265 with CAT (r= -0.987, p= 0.000) and SOD (r= -0.839, p= 0.000), and a moderate negative 266 267 correlation with HP (r= -0.655, p= 0.006) (*Table S4*, Figure 2b). In contrast to pear, elevated leaf Na⁺ had strong inhibitory effects (r > 0.880, p = 0.000) on tree growth in peach. The marked 268

adverse effects of MDA and HP on peach tree growth were also apparent (*r*> -0.800 (*Table S4*,
Figure 2b).

271 DISCUSSION

Sodicity stress caused by high soil pH and excessive Na⁺ accumulation (Sharma et al., 2016) is a serious constraint on pear and peach productivity (Elkins et al., 2012; Mestre et al., 2015). The observation that sodic soil conditions impair pear and peach tree growth (*Thind et al., 2020*) is anecdotal in the sense that key physiological traits underpinning sodicity tolerance remain elusive. In this backdrop, our study aimed to unveil the effects of sodicity stress on tree growth and physiological attributes in commercially important pear cultivars Punjab Beauty and Patharnakh, and peach cultivars Partap and Shan-e-Punjab.

We found that peach cultivars were more adversely affected than pear cultivars. 279 280 Moreover, sodicity stress had a far greater growth suppressing effect on Patharnakh pear and Partap peach than their counterparts. The experimental soils used in this study, though previously 281 reclaimed using gypsum, still have pH in the sodic range (>8.5), particularly below 30 cm depth. 282 Additionally, a clayey soil texture limits the water flux and nutrient availability; further 283 hampering the plant growth (Kumar et al., 2019). This may partly explain the differential 284 responses to sodicity stress by the crops and cultivar tested by us (Samra et al., 1988). Excess 285 salts suppress leaf and stem growth, and biomass production in pears (Okubo et al., 2000; 286 Matsumoto et al., 2006) and peaches (Massai et al., 1997, 2004); albeit in a genotype-specific 287 manner such that some cultivars are more adversely affected than others (Krishnamoorthy, 288 2009). The depletion of leaf chlorophyll may be caused by the lime-induced chlorosis when 289 pears (Ma et al., 2005) and peaches (Thomidis & Tsipouridis, 2005) are grown in high pH 290

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calcareous soils. Interestingly, the sodic soils of the Trans-Gangetic Plains (study area) are often 291 deficient in plant available Fe (Kaledhonkar et al., 2019), a key element in chlorophyll synthesis 292 (Ma et al., 2005). Furthermore, high soil pH may inhibit the uptake of metal ions (Mg²⁺ and Fe²⁺) 293 needed for chlorophyll synthesis (Jia et al., 2019). The presence of bicarbonate (NaHCO₃, a 294 major salt in the study area soils; Mandal, 2012) is known to suppress Fe availability to the peach 295 (Molassiotis et al., 2005) and pear (Valipour et al., 2020) plants; and this may, in turn, hamper 296 the leaf chlorophyll formation (Molassiotis et al., 2005). The apoplastic pH increases in the 297 presence of bicarbonates which eventually limits the Fe transport to the root stele and restricts 298 the Fe uptake (Molassiotis et al., 2005). 299

Sodicity stress triggered a significant increase in leaf MDA and H₂O₂ accumulation, the 300 indicators of oxidative injury and cell membrane damage (Sorkheh et al., 2012; Shen et al., 301 2021), regardless of the crop and cultivar tested. Nonetheless, sodicity-induced increases in leaf 302 MDA relative to controls were far greater in peach (~37.0-42.0%) than in pear (9.61-19.91%) as 303 were the increases in leaf H_2O_2 (~22.0-27.0% and ~12.0%, respectively), suggesting that peaches 304 in general were more adversely affected by the oxidative injury (Shahvali et al., 2020). Although 305 pears and peaches have not been comparatively evaluated for salt-induced increases in leaf MDA 306 and H₂O₂, studies have shown relatively higher sensitivity of *Prunus* spp. including peach 307 308 (*Prunus persica*) to the salt-induced lipid peroxidation and oxidative injury (Erturk et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2021; Toro et al., 2021). Salt-induced osmotic and oxidative stresses more adversely 309 affect osmotic-sensitive than osmotic-tolerant genotypes; the latter show relatively efficient 310 reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging and better cell membrane stability when exposed to 311 these stresses (Rajabpoor et al., 2014). High sensitivity of *Prunus* spp. to these stresses is also 312

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evidenced by the inefficacy of some interventions (e.g., fungal symbiosis) otherwise known to alleviate salt-induced oxidative stress to a considerable extent (Shahvali et al., 2020).

Although direct evidence is lacking, insights from a related species (birch-leaved pear, 315 Pyrus betulaefolia) suggest that salt-triggered increases in leaf MDA may not be deleterious 316 enough to cause lipid peroxidation in pears (Wu & Zou, 2009). The overexpression of genes 317 'Pp14-3-3' (from P. pyrifolia) and 'PbrNHX2' (from P. betulaefolia) dramatically improved salt 318 tolerance in transgenic tobacco and *P. ussuriensis* by upregulating the activity of antioxidant 319 enzymes (Li et al., 2014; Dong et al., 2019). Specifically, increased APX activity may account 320 for a better redox homeostasis in pear; '14-3-3' proteins interact with APX for scavenging the 321 reactive oxygen species implicated in the oxidative damage (Li et al., 2014). This is in agreement 322 with our results as sodicity-induced increases in APX activity were noticeably higher in pears 323 (28.44-34.49%) than in peaches (13.49-29.41%). The cultivar differences for both MDA and 324 H_2O_2 were highly significant (p < 0.001) for pear (Wu & Zou, 2009), and significant (p < 0.05) for 325 326 peach (Toro et al., 2021); implying quite distinct and somewhat shared responses of pear and peach cultivars, respectively, to sodicity stress in terms of lipid peroxidation and cellular 327 328 damage. Genotypic differences for these oxidative stress markers under salt and drought stresses 329 are either pronounced or subtle in different *Pyrus* and *Prunus* species (Sorkheh et al., 2012; 330 Rajabpoor et al., 2014; Zarafshar et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015; Toro et al., 2021).

Salt-stressed plants accumulate compatible osmolytes like proline that, in addition to osmoregulation, also minimize cell membrane damage by scavenging the ROS (Dejampour et al., 2011; Rahneshan et al., 2018; Yousefi et al., 2019). We found that the tested cultivars did not differ significantly for leaf proline in both control and sodic treatments (Wen et al., 2011). Furthermore, the increase in leaf proline in response to MDA and H_2O_2 accumulation was

moderate in pear (r= 0.578 and 0.519, respectively; Fig. 2a) but quite strong in peach (r= 0.870336 and 0.930, respectively; Fig. 2b). Leaf proline levels may not always be sufficient enough to 337 contribute to osmotic adjustment and antioxidant activity, as shown previously in different pear 338 species (Larher et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2011) and other fruit crops (e.g., Singh et al., 2022). 339 Despite being a typical compatible solute, proline may not essentially lessen the osmotic 340 341 potential of pear leaves (Larher et al., 2009), and other organic osmolytes (e.g., glycine betaine) may be potentially involved in osmotic adjustment. The fact that MDA and H₂O₂ levels may not 342 necessarily be toxic enough to induce an increase in proline activity (Wen et al., 2011) also 343 supports our finding as leaf MDA and H₂O₂ were two-three folds higher in peach than in pear 344 (Table 2). Plausibly, a lower than expected increase in proline activity (Regni et al., 2019) might 345 reflect higher sodicity tolerance in pear than in peach (Ebert, 1999; Musacchi et al., 2006); 346 increased leaf proline levels often reflect sensitivity rather than tolerance to the excess salt 347 (Mademba-Sy et al., 2003). 348

The tested cultivars, regardless of the crop, displayed increased activities of leaf 349 antioxidant enzymes (APX, CAT, POX and SOD) in response to sodicity stress. Enzymatic anti-350 oxidants efficiently protect salt-stressed plants from ROS (e.g., H_2O_2) induced oxidative stress, 351 and are considered reliable markers for discriminating the salt-tolerant and salt-sensitive 352 genotypes (Sorkheh et al., 2012; Yousefi et al., 2019; Aazami et al., 2021). The cultivar 353 differences for anti-oxidant activities observed by us can be explained by the complex nature of 354 anti-oxidant expression in plant cells (Racchi, 2013), cell organelle-specific activities of anti-355 oxidant enzymes (Niu & Liao, 2016), and the genotypic differences (Regni et al., 2019). The P. 356 pashia rootstock was found to better protect the Flemish Beauty scions than clonal (Quince A 357 and C) rootstocks against oxidative damage via enhanced CAT, POX and SOD activities 358

(Sharma & Sharma, 2008). Similarly, peach seedling and clonal rootstocks differed considerably 359 for leaf antioxidant levels in the presence of NaHCO₃ (Molassiotis et al., 2005). The SOD 360 constitutes the first line of defense in alleviating the ROS-triggered oxidative stress in plants; it 361 dismutases the superoxide anion (O_2^-) to produce molecular oxygen (O_2) and H_2O_2 . The CAT 362 then decomposes H₂O₂ into O₂ and H₂O (Cavalcanti et al., 2004). Obviously, a balance between 363 SOD and CAT activities, and not their relative levels per se, would be crucial to maintaining O₂⁻ 364 and H₂O₂ levels in a steady-state (Azarabadi et al., 2017). The CAT and SOD activities were not 365 only much higher (Table 3) but also had a clear synergistic effect (Fig. 1a,b) in the sodicity-366 stressed Punjab Beauty pear and Shan-e-Punjab peach; enabling them to better adapt to sodicity 367 than other cultivars (Sorkheh et al., 2012). The decreased activity of CAT often comes at the 368 expense of greater oxidative damage-characterized, for instance, by the increased accumulation 369 of H₂O₂ (Molassiotis et al., 2005). 370

Sodicity-stressed pear and peach trees had significantly higher leaf Na⁺ and lower K⁺ than 371 respective controls. In the sodic treatment, pear Punjab Beauty showed considerably lower 372 increase in leaf Na⁺ than Patharnakh; helping it maintain a higher leaf K⁺. A more or less similar 373 trend was also seen in peach. Restricted translocation of Na⁺ to aerial plant parts (Matsumoto et 374 al., 2006), achieved for example by Na⁺ exclusion by the roots in common pears (Musacchi et 375 al., 2006) prevents xylem loading and translocation of Na⁺ to the leaves. Differential 376 accumulation of leaf Na⁺ and K⁺ in response to salt stress has also been observed in both own-377 rooted and grafted peaches (Massai et al., 1997, 2004) and interspecific Prunus hybrids 378 (Dejampour et al., 2011), with low Na⁺ accumulators showing better salt tolerance (Massai et al., 379 1997). Reduced accumulation of leaf Na⁺, achieved either by root exclusion (Musacchi et al., 380

2006) or partitioning into basal leaves (Massai et al., 2004) together with maintenance of
adequate leaf K⁺ (Massai et al., 2004) improves the salt tolerance.

In this study, the PCA was highly efficient in reducing the dimensionality, and in 383 differentiating cultivar- and sodicity-specific effects in data. Specifically, PCA delineated the 384 putative traits linked to sodicity stress tolerance in the pear and peach cultivars. Previously, PCA 385 has been used to unveiling key responses to salt in other fruit crops (Sorkheh et al., 2012; Abid et 386 al., 2020). Multivariate techniques such as PCA are usually more suitable for detecting the key 387 patterns in data having complex (multicollinear) variables (Julkowska et al., 2019). Additionally, 388 graphical visualization of PCA loadings provides an easier and intuitive means to understanding 389 the shared and contrasting physiological responses to salt stress (Sorkheh et al., 2012; Singh et 390 al., 2022). Based on correlation analysis, MDA, H₂O₂ and leaf Na⁺ were found to have a greater 391 repressive effect on tree growth in peaches than in pears. Furthermore, a strong correlation 392 between leaf K⁺ and growth traits and leaf chlorophyll in pear, but not in peach, was indicative 393 of leaf K⁺ mediated osmotic adjustment in pears. 394

395 CONCLUSIONS

Although sodicity stress suppressed tree growth regardless of the cultivar, strong genotypic differences were quite apparent: Punjab Beauty pear and Shan-e-Punjab peach exhibited better tolerance to sodicity stress. We found that sodicity-triggered increases in leaf malondialdehyde, hydrogen peroxide and Na⁺ had a greater repressive effect on tree growth in peaches than in pears, and induced proline-mediated osmotic adjustment in the former. The higher activities of catalase and superoxide dismutase enzymes coupled with restricted Na⁺

402 uptake and the maintenance of adequate leaf K⁺ are the plausible explanations for overall better
403 sodicity tolerance in pear.

404 ABBREVIATIONS

405 ANOVA: Analysis of Variance; APX: Ascorbate peroxidase; CAT: Catalase; CV: Canopy 406 volume; DW: Dry weight basis; EC_e : Soil saturation extract electrical conductivity; H_2O_2 : 407 hydrogen peroxide; MDA: Malondialdehyde; me L⁻¹: Milli equivalent per liter; PCA: Principal 408 Component Analysis; PCs: Principal Components; POX: Peroxidase; pH_s: Soil saturated paste 409 pH; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; SOD: Superoxide dismutase; TCSA: Trunk cross sectional 410 area; TH: Tree height

411 **Declaration of Competing Interest:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

412 Author contributions: Conceived and designed experiments- AMS; performed the experiments-

AMS and AK, analyzed the data- AMS; prepared the figures and tables- AMS, AK, RK; drafted

the manuscript and revised it critically for important content- all authors.

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Figure 1

Figure 1a Principal Component Analysis biplot showing variable loadings and cultivartreatment groups on first two principal components in pear.

Lines radiating from the centre reflect relative contribution and directionality. PBC- Punjab Beauty control, PBS- Punjab Beauty sodic, PathC- Patharnakh control, PathS- Patharnakh sodic, Abbreviations: TH- tree height, TCSA- trunk cross sectional area, CV- canopy volume, TC- total leaf chlorophyll, MDA- malondialdehyde,HP- hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), APXascorbate peroxidase, POX- peroxidase, CAT- catalase, SOD- superoxide dismutase, Na- leaf Na⁺, K- leaf K⁺, Na.K- leaf Na⁺/K⁺ ratio.

Manuscript to be reviewed

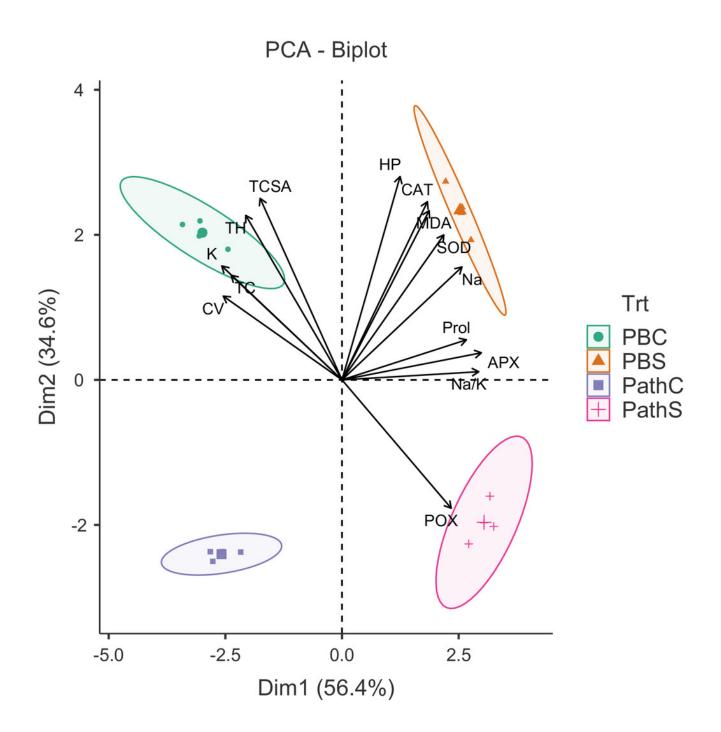


Figure 2

Figure 1b Principal Component Analysis biplot showing variable loadings and cultivartreatment groups on first two principal components in peach.

Lines radiating from the centre reflect relative contribution and directionality. PtpC- Partap control, PtpS- Partap sodic, SPC- Shan-e-Punjab control, SPS- Shan-e-Punjab sodic, Abbreviations: TH- tree height, TCSA- trunk cross sectional area, CV- canopy volume, TCtotal leaf chlorophyll, MDA- malondialdehyde,HP- hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), APX- ascorbate peroxidase, POX- peroxidase, CAT- catalase, SOD- superoxide dismutase, Na- leaf Na⁺, K- leaf K⁺, Na.K- leaf Na⁺/K⁺ ratio.

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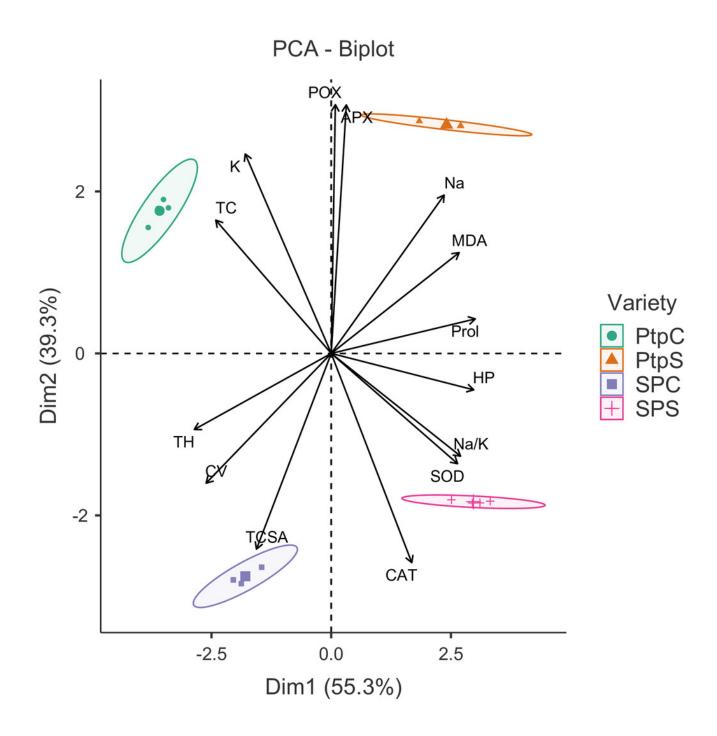
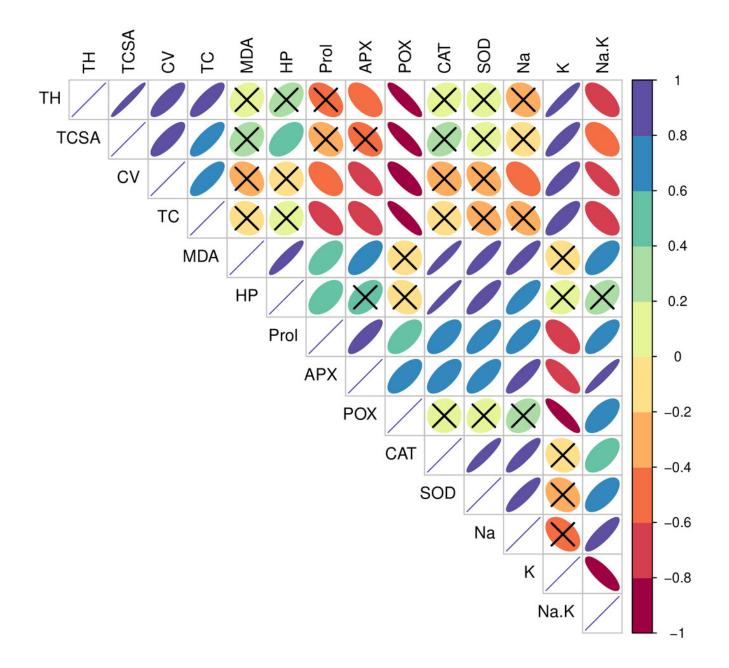


Figure 3

Figure 2a Correlation plot showing Pearson's bivariate correlations between the measured traits in pear.

Ellipse size and color reflect the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the correlation. Individual cells marked with cross (X) denote non-significant correlations. For abbreviations, see Figure 1.



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Figure 4

Figure 2b. Correlation plot showing Pearson's bivariate correlations between the measured traits in peach.

Ellipse size and color reflect the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the correlation. Individual cells marked with cross (X) denote non-significant correlations. For abbreviations, see Figure 1.

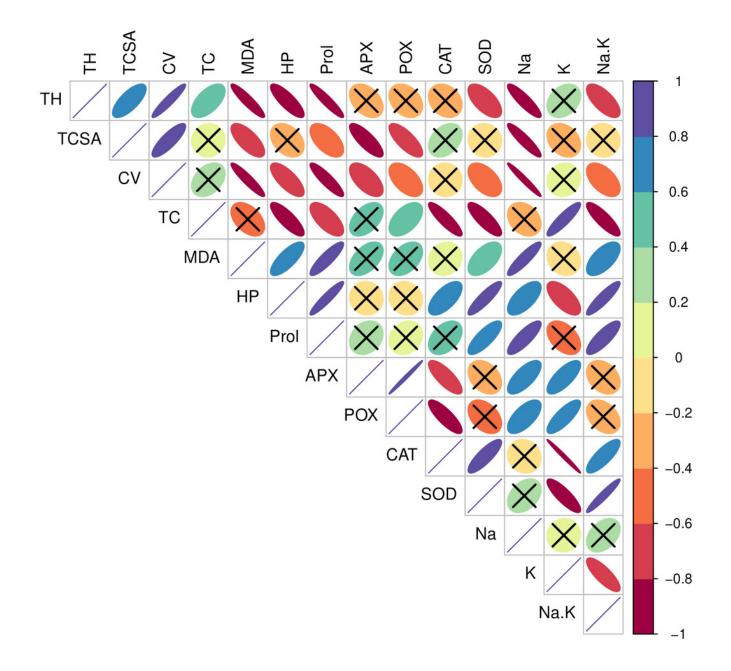


Table 1(on next page)

Table 1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for different traits in pear and peach.

Table 1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for different traits in pear and peach.

Trait	Source	F	р	ω ²	F	р	ω ²
		Pear			Peach		
Tree height (m)	Treatment (T)	83.55	< 0.001	0.354	218.76	< 0.001	0.902
	Cultivar (C)	134.00	< 0.001	0.571	5.95	0.031	0.02
	T x C	2.35	0.151*	0.006	3.62	0.081*	0.01
Trunk cross sectional area (cm2)	Treatment (T)	50.98	< 0.001	0.203	468.82	< 0.001	0.379
	Cultivar (C)	179.72	< 0.001	0.724	533.37	< 0.001	0.43
	T x C	2.98	0.110*	0.008	219.17	< 0.001	0.17
Canopy volume (m3)	Treatment (T)	38.93	< 0.001	0.606	411.53	< 0.001	0.846
	Cultivar (C)	10.20	0.008	0.147	53.81	< 0.001	0.109
	T x C	0.50	0.495*	0.000	7.15	0.020	0.013
Total leaf chlrophyll (mg/g FW)	Treatment (T)	36.52	< 0.001	0.509	46.78	< 0.001	0.360
r (68 m)	Cultivar (C)	18.39	0.001	0.249	55.54	< 0.001	0.430
	TxC	1.86	0.197*	0.012	9.69	0.009	0.070
Malondialdehyde (nmoles/g FW)	Treatment (T)	30.65	< 0.001	0.376	81.82	< 0.001	0.818
(B) == (B)	Cultivar (C)	32.93	< 0.001	0.405	3.96	0.070	0.030
	T x C	2.20	0.164*	0.015	0.03	0.861*	0.00
Hydrogen peroxide (mmoles/g FW)	Treatment (T)	84.27	< 0.001	0.219	101.26	< 0.001	0.772
	Cultivar (C)	281.57	< 0.001	0.739	15.27	0.002	0.110
	T x C	0.95	0.349*	0.000	0.32	0.580*	0.000
Proline (mg/g FW)	Treatment (T)	40.49	< 0.001	0.703	85.00	< 0.001	0.85
	Cultivar (C)	0.42	0.530*	0.000	0.44	0.518*	0.00
	T x C	2.28	0.157*	0.023	0.06	0.814*	0.000
Ascorbate peroxidase (units/g FW)	Treatment (T)	147.59	< 0.001	0.906	28.11	< 0.001	0.092
(units) g 1 (i)	Cultivar (C)	0.42	0.527*	0.000	252.51	< 0.001	0.850
	T x C	0.85	0.374*	0.000	0.21	0.652*	0.000
Peroxidase (units/g FW)	Treatment (T)	167.45	< 0.001	0.500	130.39	< 0.001	0.072
(units/g1 (v)	Cultivar (C)	129.46	< 0.001	0.386	1618.96	< 0.001	0.898
	T x C	23.24	< 0.001	0.067	39.18	< 0.001	0.02
Catalase (units/g FW)	Treatment (T)	161.13	< 0.001	0.421	197.25	< 0.001	0.11
	Cultivar (C)	205.79	< 0.001	0.539	1456.33	< 0.001	0.860
	T x C	1.040e -4	0.992*	0.000	24.82	< 0.001	0.014
Superoxde dismutase (units/g FW)	Treatment (T)	88.32	< 0.001	0.542	107.21	< 0.001	0.554
Superonue distribution (difficing f (1))	Cultivar (C)	55.54	< 0.001	0.338	71.48	< 0.001	0.368
	T x C	4.35	0.059*	0.021	0.01	0.911*	0.00
Leaf Na ⁺ (mg/g DW)	Treatment (T)	159.87	< 0.001	0.745	423.82	< 0.001	0.730
	Cultivar (C)	38.69	< 0.001	0.177	121.42	< 0.001	0.20
	T x C	1.80	0.205*	0.004	21.05	< 0.001	0.03
Leaf K ⁺ (mg/g DW)	Treatment (T)	109.07	< 0.001	0.590	252.43	< 0.001	0.05
	Cultivar (C)	58.23	< 0.001	0.312	1407.86	< 0.001	0.80
	T x C	2.96	0.111*	0.011	71.96	< 0.001	0.04
Leaf Na ⁺ /K ⁺ ratio	Treatment (T)	201.17	< 0.001	0.871	651.86	< 0.001	0.620
2002 1 W / IL 1000	Cultivar (C)	0.38	0.549*	0.000	360.43	< 0.001	0.020
	T x C	15.25	0.002	0.062	25.19	< 0.001	0.023

3 *Non-significant effect (p > 0.05).

Table 2(on next page)

Table 2 Mean comparisons for tree growth parameters in pear and peach cultivars.

Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different ($p \leq 0.001$) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean $(n=4) \pm SD$.

Cultivar	Treatment	Tree height	Trunk cross sectional area	Canopy volume
Pear		(m)	(cm ²)	(m ³)
Punjab Beauty	Control	3.86±0.20a	36.76±2.63a	1.91±0.21a
I unjub Deduty	Sodic	3.23±0.12b	30.70±2.64b	1.06 ± 0.19 bc
Patharnakh	Control	3.03±0.20b	23.68±1.87c	1.53±0.53ab
	Sodic	2.14±0.13c	13.76±1.62d	0.47±0.08d
Peach	<u> </u>	4.05+0.01	221.17.0 (1)	20.0(+2.00
Partap	Control	4.25±0.31a	231.17±9.61b	28.96±2.90a
Shan-e-Punjab	Sodic Control	2.71±0.11b 4.31±0.14a	59.45±2.62c 270.22±12.0a	2.80±0.18b 34.28±3.09a
Shan-e-runjao	Sodic	$3.05\pm0.18b$	237.96±10.57b	14.20±1.68b
Control and sod	lic treatments	denote significa	antly different ($p < 0.001$) pH	I _s levels of ~ 8.2
			nean $(n=4) \pm SD$.	5
, <u>1</u> J		1		

Table 2 Mean comparisons for tree growth parameters in pear and peach cultivars. 1

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Table 3(on next page)

Table 3 Mean comparisons for leaf physiological traits in pear and peach cultivars.

Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different ($p \le 0.001$) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and 8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean (n=4) ± SD. TC- total leaf chlorophyll, MDA- malondialdehyde, H₂O₂- hydrogen peroxide.

Cultivar	Treatment	TC	MDA	H ₂ O ₂	Proline
	Troutinont	$(mg g^{-1} FW)$	(nmoles g ⁻¹ FW)	(mmoles g ⁻¹ FW)	$(mg g^{-1} FW)$
Pear					
Punjab Beauty	Control	1.41±0.10a	8.95±0.25b	130.41±1.99b	3.78±0.43b
	Sodic	1.03±0.10bc	9.81±0.35a	146.27±3.23a	5.06±0.25a
Patharnakh	Control	1.12±0.05a	7.43±0.22c	105.74±4.32d	3.92±0.28b
	Sodic	0.88±0.14c	8.91±0.69b	118.55±2.43c	4.71±0.31a
Peach					
Partap	Control	1.56±0.11a	7.74±0.36b	138.12±4.28c	4.06±0.11b
~	Sodic	1.08±0.15b	10.58±0.94a	175.57±8.77a	5.31±0.18a
Shan-e-Punjab	Control	1.05±0.05bc	7.04±0.11b	153.89±9.19b	4.16±0.19b
6	Sodic	0.86±0.05c	10.0±0.78a	187.33±4.32a	5.39±0.50a

1 Table 3 Mean comparisons for leaf physiological traits in pear and peach cultivars.

4 Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different (p < 0.001) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

5 8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean (n=4) \pm SD. TC- total leaf chlorophyll, MDA-

6 malondialdehyde, H_2O_2 - hydrogen peroxide.



Table 4(on next page)

Table 4 Mean comparisons for leaf anti-oxidant enzymes (units g⁻¹ FW) in pear and peach cultivars.

Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different ($p \leq 0.001$) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean $(n=4) \pm SD$.

- 1 Table 4 Mean comparisons for leaf anti-oxidant enzymes (units g⁻¹ FW) in pear and peach
- 2 cultivars.

Cultivar	Treatment	Ascorbate peroxidase	Peroxidase	Catalase	Superoxide dismutase
Pear					
Punjab Beauty	Control	14.10±0.53b	183.68±5.80c	6.20±0.31b	64.09±1.88b
<i>. .</i>	Sodic	18.11±0.75a	224.07±4.92b	7.76±0.24a	80.62±4.40a
Patharnakh	Control	13.54±0.68b	220.47±3.47b	4.42±0.31c	56.23±1.29c
	Sodic	18.21±0.86a	238.84±3.74a	6.01±0.25b	66.84±2.08b
Peach					
Partap	Control	22.15±1.38b	307.41±5.85b	3.93±0.17d	46.88±1.31c
*	Sodic	25.14±1.46a	326.60±5.42a	5.22±0.43c	54.47±1.55b
Shan-e-Punjab	Control	12.07±1.01d	178.22±6.93d	6.93±0.37b	53.00±1.57b
5	Sodic	15.62±1.01c	219.20±5.92c	7.51±0.41a	60.84±1.54a

5 Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different (p < 0.001) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

- 6 8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean $(n=4) \pm SD$.



Table 5(on next page)

Table 5 Mean comparisons for leaf Na^+ and K^+ and Na^+ : K^+ ratio in pear and peach cultivars.

Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different ($p \leq 0.001$) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean $(n=4) \pm SD$.

Cultivar	Treatment	Na ⁺ (mg/g DW)	K^+ (mg/g DW)	Na ⁺ : K ⁺ ratio
Pear		· • • •	· • • · ·	
Punjab Beauty	Control	0.82±0.07c	9.74±0.52a	0.08±0.01b
	Sodic	1.18±0.09a	8.01±0.31b	0.15±0.01a
Patharnakh	Control	0.59±0.05d	8.54±0.63b	0.07±0.01b
	Sodic	1.03±0.07b	6.09±0.45c	0.17±0.02a
Peach				
Partap	Control	1.13±0.10c	14.42±0.59a	0.08±0.01d
-	Sodic	1.94±0.10a	9.81±0.25b	0.20±0.01b
Shan-e-Punjab	Control	0.91±0.04d	5.70±0.37c	0.16±0.01c
5	Sodic	1.44±0.09b	4.32±0.26d	0.33±0.02a

1 Table 5 Mean comparisons for leaf Na⁺ and K⁺ and Na⁺: K⁺ ratio in pear and peach cultivars.

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3

4 Control and sodic treatments denote significantly different (p < 0.001) pH_s levels of ~ 8.2 and

5 8.8, respectively. Each data value represents mean $(n=4) \pm SD$.

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