

Roles of Antitranspirants in Improving Growth and Water Relations of *Jatropha curcas* L. Grown under Water Stress Conditions

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, deficit irrigation has been widely investigated as a valuable and sustainable production strategy in Egypt. Also, in response to rising oil prices and the quest for alternative economically viable and environmentally sustainable forms of energy, certain plant species with bio-energy potential have been proposed for large-scale planting and bio-fuel production. Hence, the present investigation was conducted in a greenhouse during the two consecutive summer seasons to investigate the effects of three soil moisture levels (85, 55, and 25% depletion of the available soil water), and four antitranspirant treatments (control, 6% kaolin, 6% MgCO₃, and 6% kaolin + MgCO₃) which were sprayed twice during the plant's life (the first after 60 days from planting and the second 4 weeks later) and their interactions on growth attributes, percentage relative water content (RWC%), osmotic pressure, Pro content and percentage carbohydrates of *Jatropha curcas* L. Results indicated that increasing water stress significantly retarded growth attributes and RWC%. On the contrary, increasing severity of drought caused a significant increase in osmotic pressure, Pro content and percentage carbohydrates. A spray with antitranspirants markedly increase all growth attributes and RWC% while osmotic pressure, Pro content and percentage carbohydrates decreased markedly compared with control plants. The interaction effect between soil moisture levels and antitranspirant treatments was significant for all the studied parameters in both seasons. Highest values were observed in plants watered with the highest soil moisture level (25% depletion of the available soil water) and which received 3% kaolin + 3% MgCO₃ which had a greater effect.

Keywords: antitranspirants, available soil moisture, carbohydrates, growth, jatropha, Pro, RWC% **Abbreviations:** MgCO₃, magnesium carbonate; RWC, relative water content

INTRODUCTION

In response to increasing oil prices and the quest for alternative economically viable and environmentally sustainable forms of energy, certain plant species with bio-energy potential have been proposed for large-scale planting and biofuel production, aided by breeding strategies (Islam et al. 2011). International interest in Jatropha curcas L. (Euphorbiaceae) as a drought-tolerant, fast-growing, and renewable bio-energy crop has grown significantly in recent years (Gush 2008). J. curcas is promising as a sustainable biofuel option since its seeds contain up to 35% oil which is easily convertible into biodiesel, kerosene and other fuels; moreover, it has potential to reclaim wastelands with positive effects on ecology and socio-economic development (Francis et al. 2005) and with its reputation of being a droughtresistant and easily establishing species, this small tree is now planted worldwide on wastelands in the semi-arid tropics (Fairless 2007; Achten et al. 2008; Maes et al. 2009). Its probable centre of origin is Mexico and Central America; it is now naturalized and widespread throughout the tropics. Plants are succulent; its oil is an environmentally safe and cost-effective renewable source of non-conventional energy. This plant is also a source of poisons and medicines (Ashish et al. 2010). In South and North Africa, governments have received numerous requests for permission to plant this species, but apart from certain trial plantings, a moratorium on commercial plantings has been imposed. This is due to, among other considerations, the extremely limited data available on its potential environmental impacts (specifically water-use). This knowledge gap is of

particular concern in a dry area such as sub-Saharan Africa, where evaporation and evapotranspiration from vegetation is the component of the water balance that accounts for the greatest loss of water from catchments. Accurate estimates of water-use are therefore fundamental to gaining a good understanding of the hydrological impacts of a specific plant species or vegetation type (Gush 2008). Improving the tolerance of crop plants using antitranspirants has been an important but largely unfulfilled aim of modern agriculture.

Antitranspirants are chemical compounds whose role is to train plants by gradually hardening them to stress as a method of reducing the impact of drought. There are different types of antitranspirants: film-forming which stops almost all transpiration; stomatic, which only affects the stomata; reflecting materials (Nasraui 1993). Reducing transpiration can play a useful role in this respect by preventing the excessive loss of water to the atmosphere via stomata (Khalil 2006). Antitranspirant are substances involved in increasing drought resistance by tending to cause xeromorphy and/or stabilizing cell structure (Ouda et al. 2007). Kaolin is a non-toxic aluminosilicate (Al₄Si₄O₁₀ (OH)₈) clay mineral; kaolin spray decreased leaf temperature by increasing leaf reflectance and reduced transpiration rate more than photosynthesis in plants (Ibrahim and Selim 2010). Magnesium carbonate ($MgCO_3$) is considered to be an antitranspirant that closes stomata and thus affects metabolic processes in leaf tissues (Nermeen and Emad 2011). The present investigation was carried out to observe what adaptive features J. curcas has evolved that may allow it to grow and survive in dry habitats.

Table 1 Mechanical and chemical analyses of the tested soil over the two growing seasons (2009 and 2010).

Seasons	Sandy	Silt	Clay	Soil	pH	EC	O.M	Ν	Р	K
	%	%	%	texture		ds/m	%	ppm	ppm	ррт
1st season	68.75	11.39	15	Sandy	7.9	1.9	0.72	151	199	114
2nd season	66.25	10.5	13	Sandy	7.9	1.3	0.60	123	186	105

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Water treatments

The following three water treatments were applied throughout the entire growth period of the crop:

W1 = water stress was maintained at about 85% depletion of the available soil water and the soil water was maintained at field capacity when this depletion level was reached;

W2 = water stress was maintained at about 55% depletion of the available soil water and the soil water was maintained at field capacity when this depletion level was reached;

W3 = water level was maintained at about 25% depletion of the available soil water and the soil water was maintained at field capacity when this depletion level was reached.

These soil moisture levels were applied 45 days after planting.

Antitranspirant treatments

The following antitranspirant treatments (all values in w/v) were used during the experiment:

A0 = without antitranspirant (control treatment);

A1 = 6% kaolin (reflecting antitranspirant);

A2 = 6% MgCO₃ (stomatic antitranspirant);

A3 = 3% kaolin + 3% MgCO₃.

Planting and watering

Two pot experiments were established at the greenhouse of the National Research Center, Dokki, Egypt, during two successive summer seasons of 2009 and 2010 to evaluate the effect of different soil moisture levels and different antitranspirant treatments on growth, water relations and some chemical composition of J. curcas. Seeds were obtained from the Agriculture Research Center, Giza, Cairo, and directly sown on the 15th of April (5 seeds/pot) in earthenware pots of 30 cm diameter filled with 10 kg of sandy soil. The mechanical and chemical analyses of the soil were determined according to a standard method described by Klute (1986) and results are shown in Table 1. Plants were thinned to one/pot. All pots received a recommended dose of NPK fertilizers, namely 2 g calcium super phosphate (15.5% P2O5), which was added immediately after sowing, 1.68 g potassium sulphate (48% K₂O), which was added immediately after thinning, and 0.61 g ammonium nitrate (33.5% N), which was divided into three equal portions: the first immediately after sowing, the second after thinning and the third 2 weeks after the second. Seeds were regularly irrigated with tap water for 45 days; each pot was maintained to 25% water field capacity one day before applying the treatments, so that the soil moisture amount in each pot was uniform. The different soil moisture levels were then established by weighing each pot every 1 to 3 days and calculating the amount of water added. The pots were then irrigated to restore the soil to the appropriate moisture regime by adding a calculated amount of water. The general principal stated by Boutraa and Sanders (2001) was used for the water treatment application. The three antitranspirant treatments and all possible combinations between both antitranspirants were tested. Each of these treatments was sprayed twice during the plant's life: first after 60 days from sowing and the second time 4 weeks later. Foliar sprays were applied, always early in the morning. Antitranspirants were purchased from Scientific East Group, Begam-Shoubra, Egypt.

Experimental design

This experiment included 9 treatments which included all combinations between three soil moisture levels (W1, W2, W3) and four antitranspirant treatments (A0, A1, A2, A3). Treatments were arranged in a split plot design with five replicates each, and different soil moisture levels were assigned at random in the main plots, while sub-plots were devoted to the different antitranspirant treatments.

Data collection

After 120 days the plants were sampled at random to estimate the following characters: plant height (cm), number of leaves/plant, main root length (cm), leaf area (cm²), fresh weight (FW; g) of the whole plant, and dry weight (DW; g) of the whole plant. The percentage relative water content (RWC%) of fresh leaves was also measured according to Weatherly (1962). The determination of total soluble solids (TSS) concentration in the cell sap of fresh plant was also estimated by using a refractometer; the corresponding osmotic pressure (Atm) values were then obtained from tables, as given by Gusev (1960). Samples were collected and dried for 48 h at 70°C to determine Pro (Pro) content (μ mole/g DW) on dry leaves according to Troll (1995). Total soluble carbohydrates were also determined on dry leaves according to Dubois *et al.* (1956).

Statistical analyses

The collected data were subjected to statistical analysis of variance using the normal (F) test and mean separation were possible by using Least Significant Difference (LSD) test at the 5% level according to Snedecor and Cochran (1980).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Growth parameters

Increasing water stress significantly retarded stem and root elongation (Table 2A). There was a negative relation between shoot height and root length with increasing water stress. Leaf area and leaf number were also significantly reduced by increasing water stress. Furthermore, a negative relation was observed between FW and DW of the whole plant and increasing water stress. The most significant increases in all growth parameters were evident under the highest soil moisture level, i.e., W3. The reduction in these growth parameters under the lowest soil moisture level (i.e., W1) may be attributed to losses of tissue water which inhibited cell division and enlargement, or possibly to a decrease in the activity of meristematic tissues responsible for elongation (Siddique et al. 1999). Soil drying also decreased leaf growth, thereby reducing leaf water status in addition to accumulating organic solutes, hence enabling osmotic adjustment and inhibiting the incorporation of small substrate molecules into the polymers needed in the growth of new cells (Ali et al. 1999). In addition, decreasing leaf area under drought stress may be caused by decreasing cell division and expansion (Liberman and Wang 1982). Moreover, total FW and DW decreased due to exposure to injurious levels of drought which might have resulted from a reduction in chlorophyll content and consequently, photosynthetic efficiency (Khalil et al. 2010). These results correspond with the findings of Farrag and El-Nagar (2005), who indicated that increasing water stress caused a significant decrease in the growth of cucumber (Cucumis sativus) plants. In addition, Ibrahim and Selim (2007) found that inadequate irrigation strongly negatively affected the growth of early summer squash (Cucurbita pepo) plants. Bafeel and Moftah (2008) showed that decreasing water stress significantly increased the FW and DW of eggplant (Solanum melongena).

When comparing the effectiveness of different types of antitranspirants used in this study, the use of kaolin + MgCO₃ resulted in the highest significant increase in all

Table 2A Effect of soil moisture levels on growth parameters of *Jatropha curcas* L. (combined analysis of 2009 and 2010 seasons).

Treatments	Plant height (cm)	No. of leaves /plant	Root length (cm)	Leaf area (cm²)	Fresh weight (g)	Dry weight (g)
W1	89.29	25.25	24.29	83.663	102.32	23.92
W2	110.71	33.00	29.25	121.987	136.58	47.94
W3	144.33	36.00	33.42	133.758	252.94	68.52
LSD _{0.05}	1.03	1.60	1.58	0.91	1.86	5.53

Table 2B Effect of antitranspirants treatments on growth parameters of

Treatments	Plant height	No. of leaves	Root length	Leaf area	Fresh weight	Dry weight
	(cm)	/plant	(cm)	(cm ²)	(g)	(g)
A0	94.33	25.33	21.28	93.039	110.81	34.80
A1	102.78	29.33	27.00	106.227	148.33	43.20
A2	115.22	32.67	30.33	118.977	171.51	48.37
A3	146.78	38.33	37.33	134.302	225.13	60.80
LSD _{0.05}	0.90	1.17	0.98	1.04	1.00	3.29

Table 2C Effect of interactions on growth parameters of *Jatropha curcas* L. (combined analysis of 2009 and 2010 seasons).

Treat	tments	Plant height	No. of leaves /plant	Root length	Leaf area	Fresh weight	Dry weight
W/1	40	66.00	20	16.17	66 576	<u>(g)</u> <u>46.33</u>	17.80
VV 1	A1	00.00 95.67	20	24	79 104	40.55	21.10
	AI	83.07	25	24	/8.104	90.09	21.10
	A2	86.67	26	26	88.133	99.59	22.83
	A3	118.83	32	31	101.839	167.25	33.95
W2	A0	86.50	25	21	90.445	85.29	23.85
	A1	89.83	31	25	117.284	111.29	43.75
	A2	110.50	35	28	135.870	139.48	59.55
	A3	156.00	41	38	144.347	210.30	64.60
W3	A0	130.50	31	26.67	122.094	200.82	62.75
	A1	132.83	34	32	123.292	237.60	64.74
	A2	148.50	37	37	132.927	275.50	62.73
	A3	165.50	42	43	156.719	297.85	83.85
LSD_0	.05	1.55	2.02	1.70	1.80	1.74	5.70

W1 = 85% depletion of the available soil water; W2 = 55% depletion of the available soil water; W3 = 25% depletion of the available soil water; A0 = without antitranspirants; A1 = kaolin (6%); A2 = MgCO₃ (6%); A3 = kaolin (3%) + MgCO₃ (3%).

growth parameters compared with the control followed by MgCO₃; the lowest values were obtained for kaolin-only spray. In addition, kaolin + MgCO₃ increased plant height, leaf number/plant, root length, leaf area, plant FW and DW by 55.60, 51.32, 75.42, 44.35, 103.16, and 74.71%, respectively (Table 2B). These increases in growth parameters as a result of antitranspirant treatments may be due to the reduction in transpiration rate as result of stomata closure (Pennazio and Roggero 1984). Also, antitranspirants increased plant growth, possibly by increasing photosynthesis as a result of the improvement of the water status of the plant (Samir 1988). Ouda et al. (2007) noted that reflecting antitranspirants helped to reduce the heat load on leaves and increased the penetration of solar radiation into the canopy, increasing photosynthesis. The same finding was made by Gaballah and Moursy (2004) and El-Kholy et al. (2005b). Ibrahim and Selim (2010) suggested that a foliar spray with kaolin reduced the transpiration rate, which in turn maintained a higher water content in plant tissues, possibly favoring plant metabolism, physiological processes, photosynthetic rate, carbohydrate metabolism and many other important functions that directly affect plant growth. Jain and Srivastava (1981) also reported that low concentrations of antitranspirant stimulated the growth of maize (Zea mays) seedlings. Furthermore, Metwally et al. (2002) concluded that the application of antitranspirants significantly increased plant height, number of branches, and number of leaves/ plant as well as FW and DW of roselle (Hibiscus sabdariffa) plants. Khalil (2006) reported that all antitranspirants (film-forming, stomata and reflecting) significantly increased all growth parameters of sesame (*Sesamum indicum*) plants compared with the control treatment. Bafeel and Moftah (2008) suggested that a foliar spray with kaolin could lead to a reduction in the transpiration rate, which in turn maintained a higher water content in the plant tissues, thus directly affecting plant growth. Cantore *et al.* (2009) and Ibrahim and Selim (2010) concluded the same thing.

The interaction between water stress and different antitranspirants showed that all antitranspirant treatments (A1 through A3) increased growth parameters significantly under different soil moisture levels (W1 through W3) compared with control plants. The highest values in growth parameters were observed in the interaction between the highest soil moisture level (W3) and the kaolin + MgCO₃ treatment (i.e., $W3 \times A3$) compared with the other treatments, followed by $W2 \times A3$ (Table 2C). These results may be due to the effect of supplemental irrigation, which may have increased the absorption of some nutrients (Ibrahim and Selim 2007), consequently improving the photosynthetic capacity of leaves, in turn enhancing plant growth. Moreover, the use of antitranspirants decreases the loss in moisture content through transpiration (Nakano and Uehara 1996; Ibrahim and Selim 2010).

Relative water content

Increasing stress caused an observed adverse action on RWC% (**Table 3A**). The highest levels obtained were under the highest soil moisture level (W3), followed by the moderate soil moisture level (W2), although the difference between the two moisture levels was insignificant. The negative effect of water stress on RWC% as a result of reducing leaf water status was reported by Gupta *et al.* (2001), who confirmed the decrease in water-related parameters in water-stressed plants; when transpiration exceeds water absorption, cell turgor falls as RWC and cell volume decreases. Similar findings were made by Lawlor *et al.* (2002) and De Pascale *et al.* (2003), who reported that increasing stress severity caused a significant decline in RWC%. Soha and Atef (2011) reported that increasing water stress caused a significant decrease in RWC% of roselle plants.

Foliar application of MgCO₃ and kaolin + MgCO₃ significantly increased RWC% compared with the control treatment, while a single treatment with kaolin spray showed an insignificant increase in RWC% compared with control plants. The highest significant value for RWC% was obtained in the kaolin + MgCO₃ treatment (Table 3B). This increase in RWC% as a result of antitranspirant treatments might have resulted from closing stomata thus reducing the transpiration rate. Davenport et al. (1972b) also reported that antitranspirant materials effectively retard transpiration, increasing the turgidity of leaves and stomata guard cells. Poljakoff-Mayber and Gale (1975) indicated that antitranspirants showed a major role in increasing plant turgidity due to stomatal closure. Ma and Jian (1991) noted that spraying bean (Vicia faba) plants with 2% VaporGuard decreased transpiration and increased the RWC of leaves. Łukaszewska and Skutnik (2003) treated cut Monstera flowers with the commercial preservatives (8-HQC + 2% sucrose) to reduce transpiration loss and maintain flower turgidity, thus extending vase life. Khalil (2006) indicated that all antitranspirants (film-forming, stomata, reflecting) tended to significantly increase RWC% compared with the control. Imam and Miseha (1978) and Jones et al. (2004) observed the same.

The interaction between soil moisture level and antitranspirants showed a significant effect on RWC% in the summer of both consecutive years (**Table 3C**). Plants grown under the highest soil moisture level and sprayed with kaolin + MgCO₃ (W3 × A3) gave the highest significant values for RWC%, followed by W2 × A3, although the difference between both treatments was insignificant. All antitranspirant treatments increased RWC% under different soil moisture levels compared with control plants.

Table 3A Effect of soil moisture levels on some water relations and chemical compositions of *Jatropha curcas* L. (combined analysis of 2009 and 2010 seasons).

Treatments	RWC	Osmotic	Pro	Carbohydrates
	%	pressure	(µMole/g)	%
		(Atm)		
W1	71.658	7.47	4.431	1.640
W2	74.163	6.90	3.228	1.408
W3	75.605	5.74	1.379	1.193
LSD _{0.05}	2.73	0.05	1.68	0.18

Table 3B Effect of antitranspirants treatments on some water relations and chemical compositions of *Jatropha curcas* L. (combined analysis of 2009 and 2010 seasons)

Treatments	RWC	Osmotic	Pro	Carbohydrates %	
	%	pressure	(µMole/g)		
		(Atm)			
A0	71.436	7.17	4.083	1.581	
A1	73.083	6.91	3.186	1.446	
A2	74.292	6.66	2.480	1.362	
A3	76.424	6.06	2.303	1.265	
LSD _{0.05}	2.30	0.03	0.55	0.06	

Table 3C Effect of interactions on some water relations and chemical compositions of *Jatropha curcas* L. (combined analysis of 2009 and 2010 seasons).

Treatments		RWC	Osmotic	Pro	Carbohydrates
		%	pressure	(µMole/g)	%
			(Atm)		
W1	A0	70.144	8.16	6.366	1.751
	A1	70.514	7.97	4.907	1.640
	A2	71.282	7.33	3.409	1.629
	A3	74.690	6.41	3.043	1.540
W2	A0	71.470	7.30	3.708	1.620
	A1	73.329	7.13	3.409	1.453
	A2	74.992	7.02	3.014	1.337
	A3	76.860	6.13	2.174	1.221
W3	A0	72.694	6.04	2.779	1.372
	A1	75.406	5.64	1.241	1.245
	A2	76.600	5.64	1.015	1.121
	A3	77.721	5.64	1.086	1.034
LSD	0.05	2.89	0.05	1.89	0.23

W1 = 85% depletion of the available soil water; W2 = 55% depletion of the available soil water; W3 = 25% depletion of the available soil water; A0 = without antitranspirants; A1 = kaolin (6%); A2 = MgCO₃ (6%); A3 = kaolin (3%) + MgCO₃ (3%).

Osmotic pressure

Osmotic pressure increased significantly with decreasing soil water (equiv. soil moisture level) in the summer of both years (**Table 3A**). This decrease may be due to the accumulation of osmotic agents such as amino acids, especially Pro and organic acids or sugars, for osmotic adjustment in order to maintain turgidity (Abdel-Haleem 1985). Others (Sensoy *et al.* 2007; Zeng *et al.* 2009; Shanan *et al.* 2011) also observed a similar effect of irrigation on osmotic pressure.

Antitranspirants can be effectively used to reduce water loss and enhance the water status of plants. Use of a foliar spray of MgCO₃ and/or kaolin decreased the osmotic pressure compared to control plants (Table 3B). The lowest results were obtained for kaolin + $MgCO_3$ (A3) in both years, followed by MgCO₃ (A2). This may be due to the fact that antitranspirants (either stomatic or reflecting) reduced photosynthesis due to smaller stomata opening or due to the reflection of sunlight, which would lead to a reduction in the accumulation of photosynthate in the cell sap, thus reducing osmotic pressure (Shemshi 1963). Oliver and Barber (1966) indicated that reduced transpiration by antitranspirants reduced the uptake of some important ions such as Ca, Mg, K and P through mass flow processes; therefore, their uptake is affected by the transpiration rate. Mankarios et al. (1995) and Gu et al. (1998) reported a decrease in osmotic pressure as a result of decreasing transpiration rate

caused by antitranspirant treatments. Ibrahim and Selim (2010) found that increasing water stress significantly increased the TSS of summer squash. Similar results were obtained by Shanan *et al.* (2011).

The interaction between water stress and antitranspirant treatments revealed that all antitranspirants decreased osmotic pressure values under different soil moisture levels. Moreover, the lowest osmotic pressure values were obtained when the highest soil moisture level (W3) was combined with any antitranspirant treatment (**Table 3C**).

Pro content

There was an inverse relationship between drought severity and Pro content (Table 3A): the highest Pro accumulation occurred in response to the lowest soil moisture level (W1) compared with all other treatments. This increment in Pro content as result of water shortage may be due to the hydrolysis of protein under stress conditions and the accumulation of different amino acids, especially Pro, for intracellular osmotic adjustment to maintain its turgidity (Pushpam and Rangasamy 2000). Wang et al. (2003) reported an increase in Pro values in response to drought, considered to be a defense mechanism in stressed plants in order to control osmotic pressure of stressed cells and tissues so as to raise their ability to take up water and solutes. Zlatev and Stoyanov (2005) noted that Pro content increased significantly by stress from 5.03 to 20.60 µm/g FW compared to control plants. Also, a high Pro content following water stress has been reported in wheat (Errabii et al. 2006; Vendruscolo et al. 2007; Tatar and Gevrek 2008).

Treatment of jatropha leaves with different antitranspirants caused a marked significant decrease in Pro accumulation compared with control plants, where the lowest significant value in Pro content was obtained in the kaolin + MgCO₃ (A3) treatment, followed by the MgCO₃ (A2) treatment, while the lowest accumulation was obtained in the single spray with kaolin (**Table 3B**). The decrease in Pro content by antitranspirant treatments is likely to be due to a direct increase of mRNA protein synthesis (Shanan *et al.* 2011). Taravati *et al.* (2007) mentioned that hydroxyl groups in polyols are thought to form a hydration sphere around macromolecules, thus protecting cells against stress by stabilizing the quaternary structure of proteins such as membranes and enzymes.

Least Pro accumulated in jatropha leaves under the combined effect of W3 × A2 and W3 × A3, 1.015 and 1.086 μ Mole/g respectively; W2 × A3 treatment (2.779 μ Mole/g Pro) was insignificantly different from the previously mentioned treatment combinations (**Table 3C**).

Total carbohydrates

There was a significant decrease in % carbohydrates of jatropha leaves with increasing soil moisture level (**Table 3A**). Increasing soil moisture stimulates some plants to increase their respiration rates as a prerequisite to produce both ATP to activate stressed cells and osmotic soluble substances which reduce cell osmotic potential thus increasing cell water uptake. Several groups (Lutfor-Ruhman *et al.* 2000; Arora *et al.* 2001; Banon *et al.* 2006; Sánchez-Blanco *et al.* 2006) reported an increase in total carbohydrates with increasing drought severity. Abdalla and El-Khoshiban (2007) noted that total carbohydrates extracted from the shoots and roots of *Triticum* plants increased as water stress increased.

All antitranspirant treatments decreased the % carbohydrates significantly compared with control plants: lowest levels were recorded with the kaolin + MgCO₃ (A3) treatment, followed by MgCO₃, kaolin and control treatments. The percentage decrease in total % carbohydrate was 19.98% for kaolin + MgCO₃, 13.85% for MgCO₃ and 8.54% for kaolin treatment, respectively (**Table 3B**). Antitranspirants may have caused stomatal closure, leading to a reduction in stomatal conductance, CO₂ concentration in leaf tissues, electron transport system, CO_2 fixation, rate of photosynthesis and the eventual quantity of photosynthates, thus causing a decline in carbohydrate content (Khalil 2006).

Under all soil moisture levels, the leaf carbohydrate % decreased with all antitranspirant treatments. Kaolin + $MgCO_3$ showed the lowest carbohydrate % under different soil moisture levels (**Table 3C**).

CONCLUSIONS

From our study, it can be concluded that:

1) Water stress negatively affected all growth parameters and RWC% of jatropha plants; the higher the level of moisture stress the greater the negative effect.

2) Different antitranspirants enhanced the tolerance of jatropha plants to moisture deficit treatments over two consecutive summers.

3) The interaction between the highest soil moisture level and kaoline + MgCO₃ revealed the greatest effect on growth parameters, moisture status and carbohydrate metabolism of jatropha plants.

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