

1 **Thermal imaging can reveal variation in stay-green functionality of**
2 **wheat canopies under temperate conditions**

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12

13 Abstract

14 Canopy temperature (CT) is often interpreted as representing leaf activity traits such as
15 photosynthetic rates, gas exchange rates, or stomatal conductance. Accordingly, CT
16 measurements may provide a basis for high throughput assessments of the productivity of wheat
17 canopies during early grain filling, which would allow distinguishing functional from
18 dysfunctional stay-green. However, whereas the usefulness of CT as a fast surrogate measure
19 of sustained vigor under soil drying is well established, its potential to quantify leaf activity
20 traits under high-yielding conditions is less clear. To better understand sensitivity limits of CT
21 measurements under high yielding conditions, we generated within-genotype variability in stay-
22 green functionality by means of differential short-term pre-anthesis canopy shading that
23 modified the sink:source balance. We quantified the effects of these modifications on stay-
24 green properties through a combination of gold standard physiological measurements of leaf
25 activity and newly developed methods for organ-level senescence monitoring based on
26 timeseries of high-resolution imagery and deep-learning-based semantic image segmentation.
27 In parallel, we monitored CT by means of a pole-mounted thermal camera that delivered
28 continuous, ultra-high temporal resolution CT data. Our results show that differences in leaf
29 activity stemming from differences in stay-green functionality translate into measurable
30 differences in CT in the absence of major confounding factors. Differences amounted to
31 approximately 0.8°C and 1.5°C for a very high-yielding source-limited genotype, and a
32 medium-yielding sink-limited genotype, respectively. The gradual nature of the effects of
33 shading on CT during the stay-green phase underscore the importance of a high measurement
34 frequency and a time-integrated analysis of CT, whilst modest effect sizes confirm the
35 importance of restricting screenings to a limited range of morphological and phenological
36 diversity.

37

38 **Keywords:** high throughput field phenotyping, physiological breeding, deep learning, semantic
39 segmentation, remote sensing

40 **Introduction**

41 The onset of monocarpic senescence is a critical phenological event in annual crops,
42 marking a basic transition of canopies from carbon assimilation to Nitrogen remobilization
43 (Thomas and Ougham, 2014). Senescence-related remobilization processes are pivotal for
44 yield and quality formation in wheat (Kichey et al., 2007), but an adequate post-anthesis green
45 canopy duration preceding its onset is similarly important to avoid time- and resource-related
46 constraints to grain filling. Indeed, maximizing carbon assimilation by a prolonged maintenance
47 of green leaf area after anthesis (the “stay-green” trait) represents an important breeding aim in
48 several crops (reviewed by Gregersen et al., 2013).

49 Single genes with major effects on the timing and dynamics of senescence have been
50 identified in wheat (Uauy et al., 2006), but senescence is generally considered to be under
51 complex genetic and environmental control. Numerous studies highlighted the importance of
52 the balance between Nitrogen uptake from the soil and Nitrogen demand by developing grains
53 as a determinant of its timing and dynamics (Kichey et al., 2007; Rajcan and Tollenaar, 1999;
54 Triboi and Triboi-Blondel, 2002; van Oosterom et al., 2010). From this perspective, a timely
55 and rapid senescence indicates a high sink demand for assimilates and Nitrogen (Xie et al.,
56 2016; Yang and Zhang, 2006), whereas an unfavorably delayed and slow senescence indicates
57 sink-source imbalances, such as resulting from a low yield potential or overfertilization (Jiang
58 et al., 2004; Naruoka et al., 2012; Yang and Zhang, 2006). When selecting for increased green
59 canopy duration, it would therefore be imperative to distinguish between functional stay-green
60 associated with enhanced photosynthetic activity required to meet a high sink demand, and
61 dysfunctional stay-green resulting from slowed Nitrogen remobilization indicating low sink
62 demand and, consequently, a low yield potential (Gregersen et al., 2008). This may be
63 particularly important under high yielding conditions where strong external environmental
64 triggers of senescence such as heat or drought events are absent in average years.

65 Key aspects of senescence and its dynamics, such as rates of chlorophyll degradation, are
66 readily observable by the eye, both at the canopy level as well as at the level of visible parts of
67 plant organs (e.g., leaves, peduncles, or ears). Numerous studies have used proximal sensing
68 techniques based on average canopy light reflectance to track the dynamics of senescence (e.g.,
69 Anderegg et al., 2020; reviewed by Chapman et al., 2021). High-resolution imaging combined
70 with deep-learning-based semantic image segmentation additionally enabled tracking of
71 senescence and overall healthiness of wheat stands at the organ-level (Anderegg et al., 2023).
72 In comparison to visual assessments, these approaches offer the key advantages of objectivity
73 and scalability. Unfortunately, however, much like visual assessments, they do not enable a
74 distinction between functional and dysfunctional stay-green, nor a precise assessment of
75 remobilization, grain filling rates or grain filling duration, since an increased green canopy
76 duration as observed visually is not *per se* indicative of increased grain filling rates or duration.
77 Therefore, measurements of canopy greenness must be complemented with measurements of
78 “leaf activity” traits (Fischer et al., 1998), such as photosynthetic activity, gas exchange rates,
79 or stomatal conductance.

80 Numerous retrospective studies on historical series of genetic lines have found remarkably
81 strong correlations between increases in stomatal conductance and yield gains over time (i.e.,
82 with year of release; e.g., Fischer et al., 1998; reviewed by Roche, 2015). Increased sink-to-
83 source ratios are hypothesized to contribute significantly to this relationship (Roche, 2015).
84 With all else equal, higher transpiration rates (a greater stomatal conductance) decrease canopy
85 temperature (CT) *via* evaporative cooling; therefore, CT measurements have been used as a fast
86 surrogate measure for stomatal conductance (e.g., Rebetzke et al., 2013). Additionally, since
87 photosynthetic gas exchange and stomatal conductance are intertwined, CT may provide an
88 indirect measurement of photosynthetic rate (Amani et al., 1996; Fischer et al., 1998; Jones and
89 Vaughan, 2011). Recently, CT measurements have been acquired using airborne imaging

90 thermography, enabling the measurement of large experiments in short time, which greatly
91 increased repeatability of measurements as compared to plot-by-plot measurements using hand-
92 held thermometers (e.g., Deery et al., 2019, 2016; Perich et al., 2020).

93 While these studies represent significant methodological advances and provide convincing
94 evidence for the potential usefulness of airborne CT measurements in breeding, some
95 unexpected patterns also became apparent, including in our own data, which was collected
96 using repeated drone-based thermal imaging of large germplasm collections throughout the
97 grain filling phase (Anderegg et al., 2021; Perich et al., 2020). Most notably, a high heritability
98 of plot-based CT was observed even at maturity, when no transpiring leaf tissue was left.
99 Additionally, CT at maturity was moderately to highly correlated with CT shortly after
100 flowering, as well as with CT measured throughout grain filling. These correlations were
101 comparable in magnitude to correlations observed between CT values at earlier measurement
102 dates during the stay-green phase (see for example Figures 8 and 9 in Perich et al., 2020) and
103 this cannot be well explained when interpreting CT primarily as a measure of leaf activity traits.
104 Finally, but perhaps less surprisingly, moderate to strong correlations were observed between
105 CT and structural, morphological, and phenological characteristics of genotypes (Anderegg et
106 al., 2021), which is in line with results from numerous other studies (see reviews by Deery and
107 Jones, 2021 and Prashar and Jones, 2014). Taken together, these observations prompted some
108 skepticism on our side regarding the existence of a direct and strong enough link between leaf
109 activity traits and remotely sensed CT under the conditions of the study site (i.e., high-yielding
110 zones of temperate Europe). This is mentioned here not to question the usefulness of CT as a
111 valuable tool in breeding, for which ample evidence has been presented by others (e.g., Li et
112 al., 2019; Lopes and Reynolds, 2010; Rebetzke et al., 2013; Thapa et al., 2018). However, we
113 want to highlight the need for a better understanding of the extent to which CT measured at
114 different growth stages and under different growing conditions can be interpreted as

115 representing directly leaf activity traits. We anticipate that such an improved understanding will
116 help quantify the value of CT measurements as a complement to precision assessments of
117 phenology and measurement of canopy biophysical characteristics in the characterization of the
118 status of stay-green canopies.

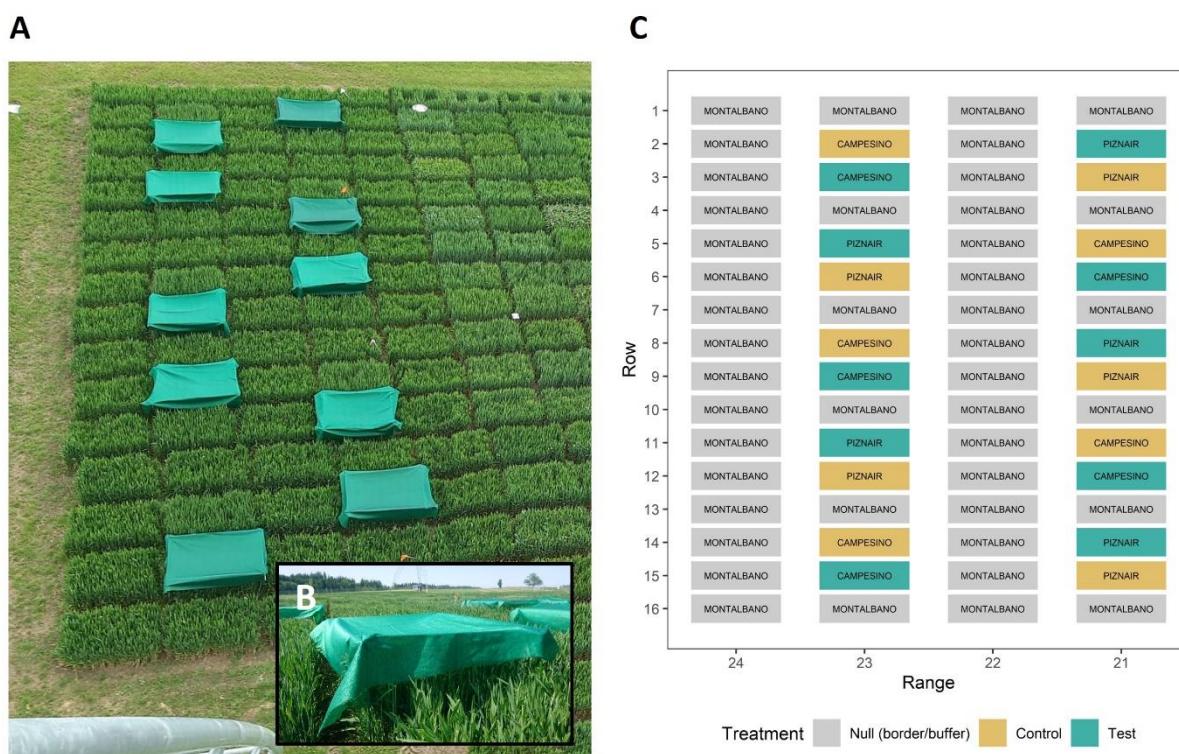
119 Therefore, the objective of this study was to isolate and quantify the direct effect of
120 differences in leaf activity traits on remotely sensed CT. In other words, we aimed to establish
121 whether differences in photosynthetic rates and stomatal conductance are detectable in canopies
122 differing only with respect to these traits, but with all else as similar as possible and growing
123 side-by-side. To this end, we aimed to introduce variation in terms of the functionality of stay-
124 green in otherwise identical canopies. We modified sink-source relationships by applying short-
125 term canopy shading during rapid spike growth with the aim of reducing potential yield,
126 whereas directly neighboring control plots of the same genotype were left untreated. Plot CT
127 was continuously monitored throughout grain filling by means of a pole-mounted thermal
128 camera, and precision phenology assessments were made using frequent RGB imaging
129 combined with segmentation of different organs based on deep learning models. Our results
130 clearly indicate that differences between functional and dysfunctional stay-green translate into
131 measurable differences in CT, and that they do so in the absence of co-variation in often
132 correlated confounding traits.

133 Materials and Methods

134 *Plant materials, experimental design, and environmental data*

135 A field experiment with two registered winter wheat cultivars ('Piznair',
136 AGROSCOPE/DSP, Switzerland; and 'Campesino', SECOBRA Saatzucht GmbH, Germany)
137 was carried out at the ETH Research Station for Plant Sciences Lindau-Eschikon, Switzerland
138 (47.449°N, 8.682°E, 520 m above sea level; soil type: eutric cambisol) in the wheat growing

139 season of 2022–2023. The two cultivars were selected for the experiment based on (i) their
140 similarity in terms of canopy characteristics, particularly leaf and ear orientation and final
141 height; (ii) their similar phenology: both cultivars are classified as mid-late in terms of ear
142 emergence and maturation; and (iii) their strongly contrasting yield potential: ‘Campesino’ has
143 a very high yield potential, whereas ‘Piznair’ has an intermediate yield potential but a high
144 protein content (Strebel et al., 2022).



145
146 **Figure 1** Design of the field experiment. (A) Image of the field experiment taken from the position where the thermal camera
147 was mounted. The image was taken right after the shading tents were mounted on 13 May 2023 (GS 43); (B) close-up of a
148 shading tent; (C) schematic of the experimental design. The scale of the axes was inverted to directly represent the view as
149 seen in (A). Control plots were left untreated, whereas Test plots were shaded during rapid spike growth. Text labels within
150 color boxes represent cultivar names. The experiment was bordered to the right side by an additional row of border plots,
151 identical to range 24. The experiment was sown row-wise on 18 October 2022.

152 Each cultivar was grown in ten plots for a total of 20 experimental plots. Wheat was sown
153 with a drill sowing machine in nine rows per plot with a row length of 1.7 m and a row spacing
154 of 0.125 m at a density of 400 plants m⁻² on 18 October 2022. Plots were arranged in pairs
155 sown with the same cultivar (Figure 1C). To avoid inhomogeneous neighboring effects on
156 experimental plots, each pair of plots was bordered both in sowing direction as well as
157 perpendicular to it by buffer plots sown with a late-maturing check with a very similar canopy

158 height ('Montalbano', AGROSCOPE/DSP, Switzerland). Pairs of plots were arranged in a
159 cultivar-alternating manner in two buffer-separated ranges (Figure 1A, 1C). At booting (growth
160 stage [GS] 43; reached on 13 May 2023) one plot in each pair was shaded by suspending a
161 polyethylene shading net that decreased light intensity by 73% (Agroflor, Wolfurt, Austria)
162 approximately 25 cm above the top of the canopy (Figure 1B), whereas the adjacent plot was
163 used as an unshaded control. The spatial arrangement of control and shaded plots was alternated
164 across the pairs. Shading was applied after full flag leaf emergence in order to avoid undesired
165 side-effects on canopy characteristics such as total above ground biomass, leaf area index,
166 canopy cover, or leaf sizes. The shading nets were removed again at the late heading stage
167 (approximately GS 59, reached on 29 May 2023). Crop husbandry was performed according
168 to local agricultural practice. Temperature, rainfall, and wind speed data were retrieved from
169 an on-site weather station.

170 ***Measurement of gas exchange and photosynthetic parameters***

171 Gas exchange measurements were made plot-by-plot on eight dates between 8 June and 29
172 June 2023, using the portable photosynthesis system LI-6400XT (LI-COR, Inc., Lincoln, NE,
173 USA). Measurements were made on fully sun-exposed, intact flag leaves with no visible
174 disorders, at a position about halfway along its length. Measurements were made under clear
175 sky conditions between 10 a.m. and 3 p.m. This ensured that leaves had been exposed to
176 constant light prior to the measurement. One measurement lasted 3 min, with one value logged
177 every 5 s. Air temperature in the chamber was regularly controlled and adjusted as needed to
178 match the ambient temperature in the field. The air flow rate during the measurements was 300
179 $\mu\text{mol air s}^{-1}$. To ensure stable CO_2 concentration in the incoming airflow, a canister with an
180 open cap was used as a buffer volume, as recommended by the manufacturer. Infrared gas
181 analyzers were matched once before a measurement series. The light source intensity was set
182 to $1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. All 20 plots of the experiment were routinely measured within 1.5 h. One

183 or two measurement runs were made on each measurement date. For each measured sample,
184 the first 6 logged values were removed. After that, one iteration of outlier removal was
185 performed on logged values, defining an outlier as a value deviating from the median by more
186 than 1.5 times the interquartile range. The remaining values were averaged to obtain one value
187 for each measured leaf. The experiment was measured twice on 8 June and 12 June 2023, and
188 once on all other measurement dates. Whenever more than one measurement was performed,
189 values across measurement runs were averaged on a plot basis.

190 Active fluorescence measurements were obtained on twelve dates between 1 June and 29
191 June 2023, using a MultispeQ device (PhotosynQ Inc, MI, USA). The ‘Photosynthesis RIDES
192 2.0_short’ protocol (photosynq.org) was used to measure the operating efficiency of
193 photosystem II (F_q'/F_m'), photosynthetic photon flux rate (PPFR), and relative chlorophyll
194 (SPAD) (Keller et al., 2023; Kuhlgert et al., 2016). Measurements were performed on leaves
195 that were selected following the same principles as for gas exchange measurements. Between
196 two and six measurement runs were performed on each date. Whenever more than one
197 measurement was performed, values across measurement runs were averaged on a plot basis.

198 *Crop phenology, morphology, and agronomic traits*

199 The dynamics of senescence were monitored with nearly daily resolution at the level of
200 individual organs by means of repeated imaging from a nadir as well as an off-nadir perspective
201 (viewing angle of approximately 45°), using a measurement setup described in detail earlier
202 (Anderegg et al., 2023; Grieder et al., 2015). The resulting image time series were first
203 segmented into a vegetation and a soil fraction. Subsequently, ears were segmented in images
204 captured from a nadir perspective, whereas ears and stems were segmented in off-nadir images.
205 Nadir images were segmented using deep convolutional neural networks available from
206 previous work, without modification (Anderegg et al., 2023). The stem and ear segmentation
207 model for off-nadir images was developed in the context of this study, following the same

208 procedure as described for nadir images earlier (Anderegg et al., 2023). Briefly, 100 patches
209 sized 600×600 pixels from carefully selected diverse images representing the entire grain
210 filling phase, contrasting light conditions, and different genotypes, were manually annotated at
211 pixel level, using polygons. This data set was complemented with 165 patches from images
212 captured with a different setup and containing only stay-green canopies. Compared to the target
213 domain, these images had a much higher resolution but a much shallower depth of field,
214 resulting in a blurry background. These images were resized to match the target domain in terms
215 of physical resolution. 24 randomly selected patches from the target domain were designated
216 as the validation data set. Model hyper-parameters were optimized within a limited search
217 space, in a stepwise procedure. First, the segmentation framework together with the input
218 resolution were optimized, with resnet34 (He et al., 2016) as encoder. Next, the resnet encoder
219 depth was optimized together with data augmentation (image resolution, rotation, horizontal
220 and vertical flipping, down-scaling and up-scaling, color jittering, blurring), and the training
221 strategy. Finally, parameters of the network training process were optimized. The resulting
222 optimized segmentation model reached an overall validation F1-Score of 0.90 (see
223 Supplementary Figure S1 for an illustration). The resulting segmentation masks enabled an
224 estimation of the fraction of images representing different components of vegetation. The
225 original images were further segmented pixel-wise based on color properties of pixels into a
226 green, chlorotic, and necrotic fraction, using a previously trained classifier (Anderegg et al.,
227 2023). The masks were combined through logical operations to obtain the fractions of green,
228 chlorotic, and necrotic tissues for each vegetation component. For details, refer to (Anderegg
229 et al., 2023). The annotated data sets representing the target domain will be made freely
230 available via the Repository for Publications and Research data of ETH Zürich
231 (<https://www.research-collection.ethz.ch/>).

232 Peduncle length was measured shortly before harvest as the distance between the uppermost
233 node on the stem and the spike collar for 12 randomly selected culms per plot with a precision
234 of 1 cm, using a ruler. Peduncle senescence was assessed by visually classifying them as either
235 senescent or green. Three batches of 10 tillers were examined per plot, and the total fraction of
236 senescent peduncles was recorded. All assessments were made as recommended by Chapman
237 et al. (2021) and Pask et al. (2012). As peduncle senescence was used as a reference for the
238 image-derived stem senescence score, plots in a separate experiment were additionally scored
239 to broaden the validation basis, and off-nadir imagery was also collected in the context of that
240 experiment.

241 Spikes were sampled for volume measurements on 10 June, 4 July, and 11 July 2023. On
242 each date, two spikes were sampled for each plot. Sampled spikes were stored under dry
243 conditions and were later scanned using a 3D light scanner (Shining 3D Einscan-SE V2,
244 SHINING3D, Hangzhou, China). Parts that were used to stabilize the spike in the scanner were
245 removed from the resulting point cloud using a custom MatLab script (MatLab r2022b, Natick,
246 MA, USA). The spike volume was extracted using pymeshlab (<https://github.com/cnr-isti-vclab/PyMeshLab>). Some strongly bent spikes had to be scanned in a special mounting. The
247 points of these mountings were manually removed with 3dbuilder
248 (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/3d-print/3d-builder-users-guide?rtc=1>) and the spike
249 volume was determined using Meshlab 1.3.2_64 bit (<https://www.meshlab.net/>).

251 Grain yield and total above-ground biomass were assessed by manually harvesting the
252 sowing rows 6, 7, and 8 (out of 9). After the ears had been removed for determination of grain
253 yield, the remaining biomass was cut approximately 1 cm above ground and dried to constant
254 weight. Grain protein concentration (GPC) was determined using near-infrared transmission
255 spectroscopy (IM-9500, Perten, Hägersten, Sweden). Thousand kernel weight (TKW) was
256 measured using a MARViN ProLine II (MARViTECH GmbH, Wittenburg, Germany).

257 *Thermal imaging and extraction of plot canopy temperature*

258 A thermal camera (FLIR A655sc uncooled microbolometer camera with W/45° lens, 640 ×
259 480 pixel; FLIR Systems AB, Sweden) was mounted on a pole of the ETH field phenotyping
260 platform FIP (Kirchgessner et al., 2017) located right next to the experimental field (cf. Figure
261 1A). The camera was mounted in a weatherproof housing (Tecnovideo, Villaverla, Italy) at a
262 height of 23.5 m above ground and connected to a 12V power supply. It was controlled by a
263 common PC at the bottom of the pole connected by LAN. Image acquisition was controlled
264 through a Matlab script (r2022b, The Mathworks, Natick, USA), which wrote data directly to
265 our NAS. Viewing angles for experimental plots were between 34° and 46.5° to nadir view.
266 The used lens provides a field of view of 45° and 34°. An image was recorded every 20 s,
267 resulting in approximately 140.000 images that covered the entire grain filling phase from
268 flowering to shortly before harvest. From each image, median plot temperatures were extracted
269 by generating a geojson file that contained the corner coordinates of polygons representing each
270 experimental plot using the ‘ogr’ module of the python library ‘osgeo’. The shapes were
271 generated by specifying the number of rows and ranges of the experiment as well as the size of
272 a plot, with plot length set to 1.1 m, and plot width set to 0.8 m, thus leaving a buffer zone of
273 approximately 0.3 m in sowing direction and 0.2 m perpendicular to it. Plot shape corner
274 coordinates were then transformed by calculating their dot product with the homography
275 matrix, which was determined by matching all four corners of the experiment to the pixel
276 coordinates of the respective position in one example thermal image. These steps were
277 accomplished using code associated with Treier et al. (2023). Before exporting summary
278 statistics per plot, outliers were removed as pixel values that deviated from the median value of
279 all pixels attributable to that plot by more than 1.5 times the interquartile range. This was
280 deemed necessary to reduce the effect of obstructions in images, such as for example a person
281 performing measurements in the experiment.

282 **Statistical Analysis**

283 Canopy temperature time series were smoothed by fitting a smoothing spline using the
284 function *smooth.spline()* of the R-package ‘stats’ (R Core Team, 2018), separately for each
285 experimental plot. The number of spline knots was set to one tenth of the number of
286 observations, and a prediction every 2 min from the resulting fits was retained for further
287 analyses. To summarize the resulting smoothed time series of CT measurements, we extracted
288 the area under the curves (AUC_{CT}) for the duration between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. at each
289 measurement date.

290 The experimental design resulted in a spatially perfectly homogeneous distribution of
291 control and test plots for each of the two evaluated genotypes, and there were ten direct neighbor
292 pairs of control and test plots (five for each cultivar), that were themselves surrounded by
293 invariable buffer plots. We therefore considered neighboring plots as representing paired
294 samples. For canopy temperature measurements, this accounted for variation over time
295 attributable to short-term fluctuations in environmental conditions, as well as for spatial effects
296 related to field heterogeneity and measurement geometry. For plot-by-plot measurements, it
297 additionally allowed for a correction of temporal effects since test and control plots were
298 allocated to the members of a pair in a spatially alternating fashion (Figure 1). Plot-based values
299 were therefore compared across the treatments by means of a paired samples t-test, carried out
300 separately for each date.

301 The effects of genotype, treatment, and genotype-by-treatment interactions on
302 phenological, morphological and agronomic trait values measured at the plot level were
303 determined through a corresponding two-way analysis of variance, conducted independently
304 for each trait, using the R-function *aov()*. Pairwise comparisons were made by means of a Tukey
305 posthoc test, using the function *TukeyHSD()*. Where repeat measurements were made for each
306 plot, a linear mixed effects model was fitted, with the experimental plot additionally considered

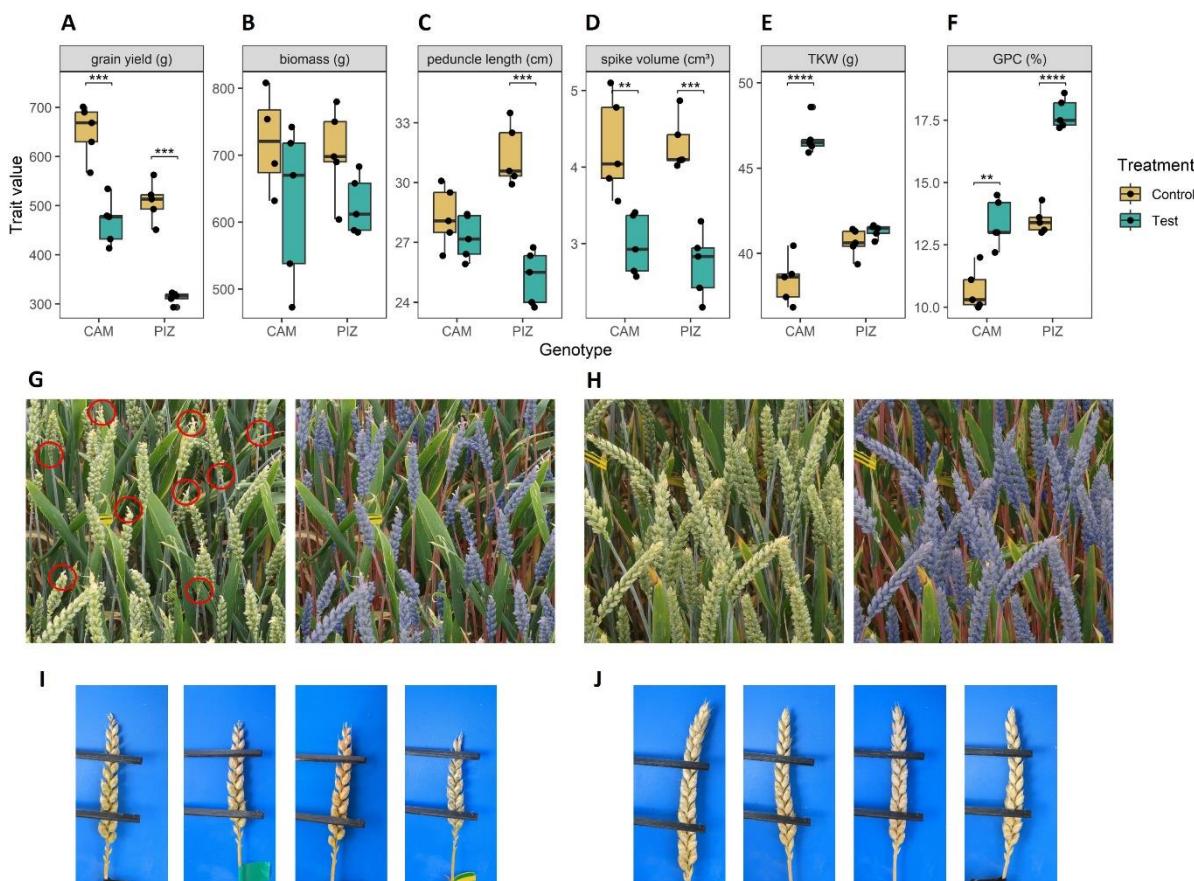
307 as a random effect. These models were fitted using the function *lme()* of the R-package ‘nlme’
308 (Pinheiro et al., 2021) and all possible pair-wise contrasts were obtained from the function
309 *emmeans()* of the R-package ‘emmeans’ (Lenth et al., 2020).

310 **Results**

311 ***Pre-anthesis canopy shading effectively modified the sink-source relationship with***
312 ***minor effects on other canopy characteristics***

313 Canopy shading was applied during rapid spike growth and after full flag leaf emergence
314 with the aim of generating variation in sink strength within each tested genotype. This, in turn,
315 was expected to create variation in leaf activity traits in response to the modified sink-source
316 balance, in canopies with otherwise very similar characteristics.

317 The shading treatment drastically reduced grain yield in both genotypes, with a larger
318 relative reduction observed for the low-yielding cultivar ‘Piznair’ ($\Delta = -38.4\%$, $p < 0.001$; Figure
319 2A), than for the high-yielding cultivar ‘Campesino’ ($\Delta = -28.4\%$, $p < 0.001$). The reduction in
320 yield potential for each genotype was clearly apparent already in the first measurement of ear
321 volume on 10 June 2023 (i.e., 12 d after full heading [GS 59]) in terms of a reduced spike
322 volume, which was also more prominent in the low-yielding cultivar ($\Delta = -36.5\%$, $p < 0.001$;
323 Figure 2D) than in the high yielding cultivar ($\Delta = -30.1\%$, $p < 0.01$). The difference in spike
324 volume was mostly attributable to an increased number of rudimentary basal and apical
325 spikelets that did not develop grains (Figure 2G, 2I, 2J). This had notable canopy-level effects,
326 with decreased ear coverage both in nadir and in oblique images for shaded than for control
327 canopies (Figure 2G, 2E, Supplementary Figure S2). In contrast, ear volumes were not different
328 between genotypes within each of the treatments despite the large differences in end-of-season
329 grain yield ($p > 0.8$ for both treatments; data not shown).



330

331 **Figure 2** Effects of canopy shading on agronomic traits and canopy characteristics. Effects of shading on (A) grain yield, (B) 332 above ground vegetative dry biomass (total above ground biomass after threshing), (C) peduncle length, (D) spike volume, (E) 333 thousand kernel weight, (F) grain protein concentration. Where multiple measurements were made per plot, the mean value 334 across repeat measurements is plotted. (G) Example of an image of a shaded plot with the corresponding segmentation model 335 output overlaid (right side) for the cultivar 'Piznair'; red circles highlight some obvious instances of rudimentary basal and 336 completely aborted apical spikelets; (H) image of the directly adjacent unshaded plot. See supplementary Figure S1 for 337 quantitative results on organ contribution to images; (I) Close-up images of spikes from a shaded plot of 'Piznair'; (J) close- 338 up images of spikes from the adjacent control plot of 'Piznair'.

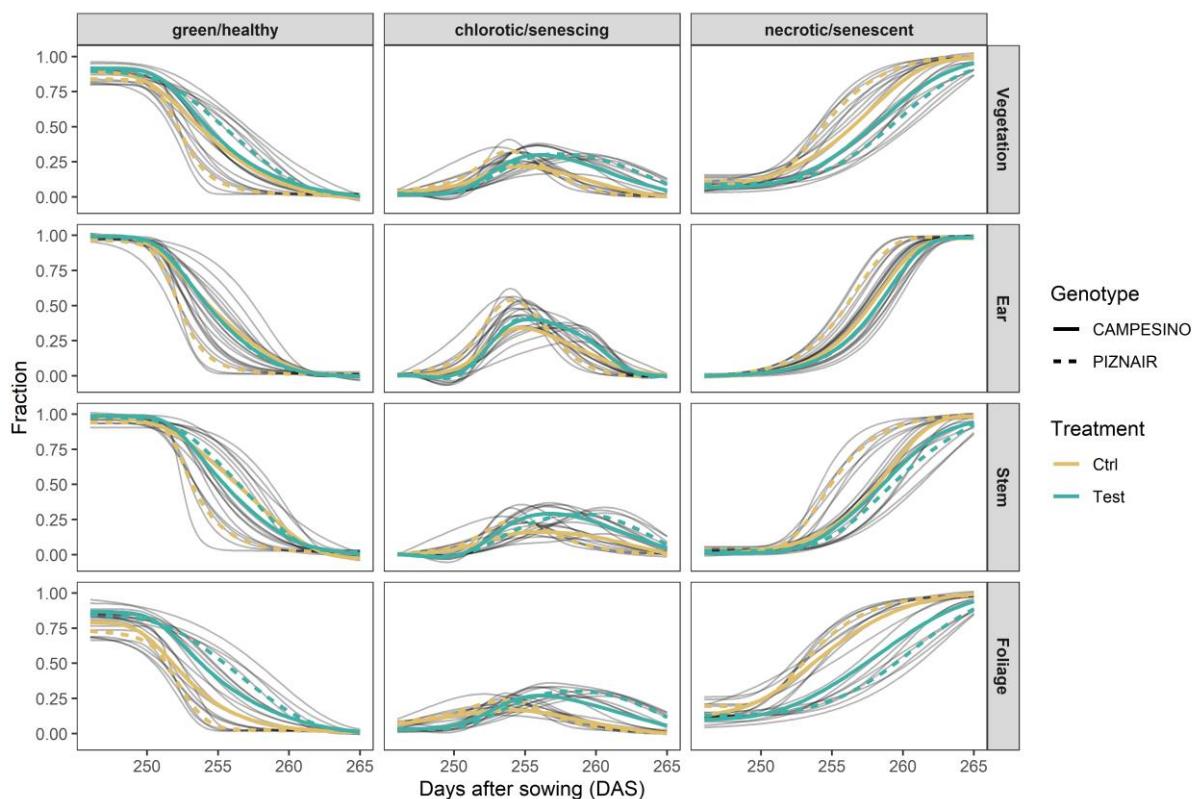
339 Thousand kernel weight was much increased under the shading treatment in 'Campesino' 340 ($\Delta = +21.9\%$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 2), indicating that grain yield in this genotype was source-limited 341 under the control treatment; no increase in thousand kernel weight was observed for 'Piznair', 342 indicating sink-limitation under the control treatment for this genotype. Grain protein 343 concentration was increased in response to shading in both genotypes (Figure 2F). In 'Piznair', 344 grain protein concentration reached a very high value of 17.8% under shading.

345 Despite the late application of the shading treatment, a trend towards a reduced above 346 ground vegetative biomass was also observed, though these effects were not statistically 347 significant ($\Delta = -12.8\%$, $p = 0.36$ and $\Delta = -11.2\%$, $p = 0.44$ for 'Campesino' and 'Piznair', 348 respectively; Figure 2B). The observed trend towards a decreased vegetative biomass in shaded

349 canopies can be partly explained by the effect of shading on peduncle length ($\Delta = -3.89\%$,
350 $p=0.64$ and $\Delta = -19.3\%$, $p<0.001$ for ‘Campesino’ and ‘Piznair’, respectively; Figure 2C). In
351 ‘Piznair’, the reduction in peduncle length was significantly correlated with the reduction in
352 vegetative biomass (Pearson $r = 0.66$, $p<0.001$; not shown). In contrast, canopy cover was not
353 affected by shading: it was nearly 100% in oblique-angle images and approximately 0.8 in nadir
354 images, irrespective of the treatment (Supplementary Figure S2). We observed no differences
355 in canopy characteristics besides the mentioned differences in peduncle length and ear fraction.
356 In particular, leaf sizes and orientation appeared to be unaffected by the treatment. No
357 differences were expected, given the late application of the treatment.

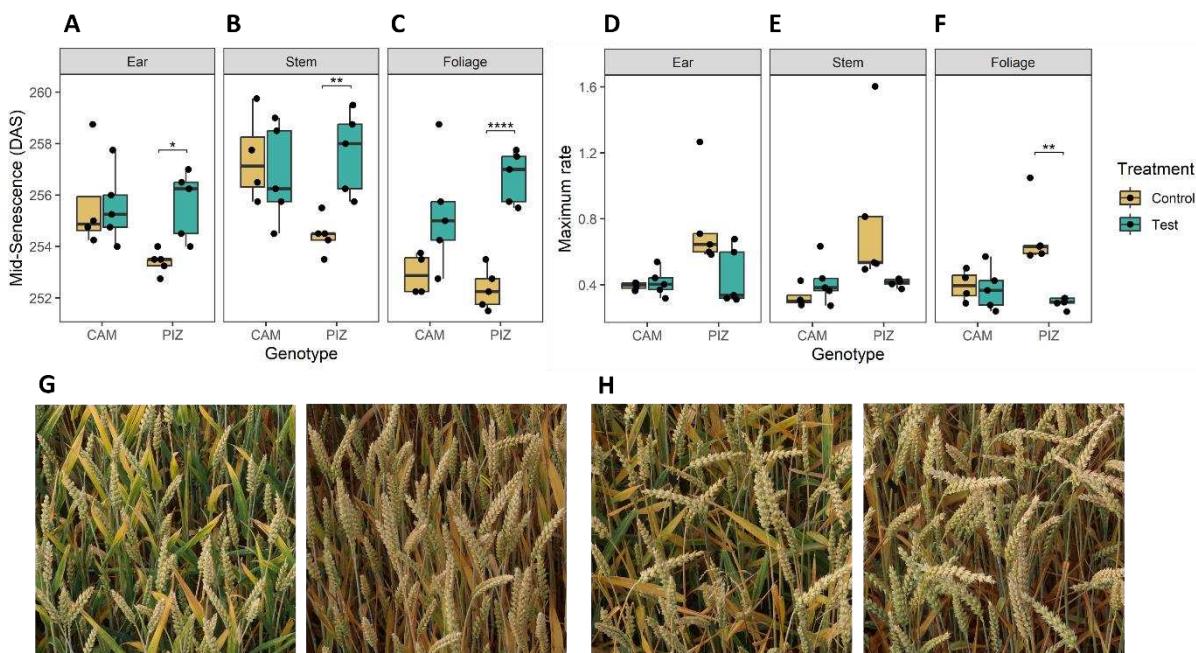
358 *Measurements of phenology, photosynthetic rates, and gas exchange indicated
359 extensive dysfunctional stay-green in response to pre-anthesis canopy shading*

360 Shading tended to delay senescence in both genotypes. In the absence of shading, the onset
361 of senescence occurred at similar timepoints for both genotypes but progressed much faster in
362 ‘Piznair’ than in ‘Campesino’ (Figure 3, left-most column). In both genotypes, the delay in
363 senescence was most pronounced in leaves, but less in ears and stems (Figure 4A, 4B, 4C). As
364 observed for agronomic traits, the delay in visible senescence in response to shading was greater
365 for ‘Piznair’ than for ‘Campesino’ (Figure 3; Figure 4A, 4B, 4C). On average, the mid-point of
366 foliar senescence was delayed by 2.4 d ($p = 0.09$) and 4.4 d ($p < 0.001$) in ‘Campesino’ and
367 ‘Piznair’, respectively (Figure 4C). In shaded plots of ‘Piznair’, senescence progressed much
368 slower than in unshaded control plots, especially in leaves (Figure 3D-F). Strikingly, in shaded
369 plots senescence progressed slower in ‘Piznair’ than ‘Campesino’, which is the opposite of what
370 was observed in control plots (Figure 3). Thus, shading affected both the timing and the
371 dynamics of senescence, and it affected both aspects of senescence more in ‘Piznair’, which
372 was also more strongly affected by shading in its sink potential.



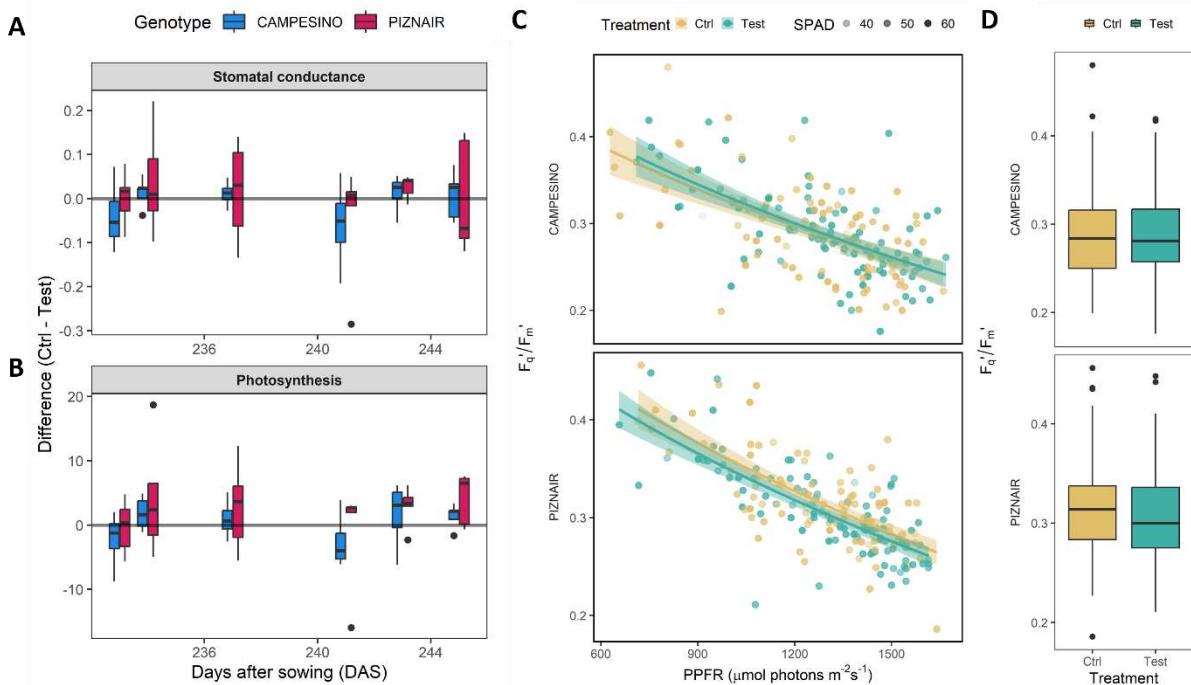
373

374 **Figure 3** Relative contribution of green, chlorotic, and senescent tissue at organ level (total vegetation, ears, stems, and leaves)
 375 and their evolution over time between approximately 20 d after heading (21 June 2023) and physiological maturity (10 July
 376 2023). Gray curves represent 4-parameter Gompertz model fits or P-spline fits to 16 data points for each experimental plot.
 377 Colored lines represent means for each treatment-by-genotype combination.



378

379 **Figure 4** Effects of canopy shading on senescence dynamics. (A) Effects of shading on the midpoint of senescence observed
 380 for ears, (B) stems, (C) foliage; (D) Effects of shading on the maximum rate of senescence observed for ears, (E) stems, (F)
 381 foliage; (G) Example images of neighboring plots with shading (left) and without shading (right) for cultivar 'Piznair', (H) for
 382 cultivar 'Campesino'. Images in (G) and (H) were acquired on 1 July 2023, i.e., at around the midpoint of senescence (256
 383 DAS).



384

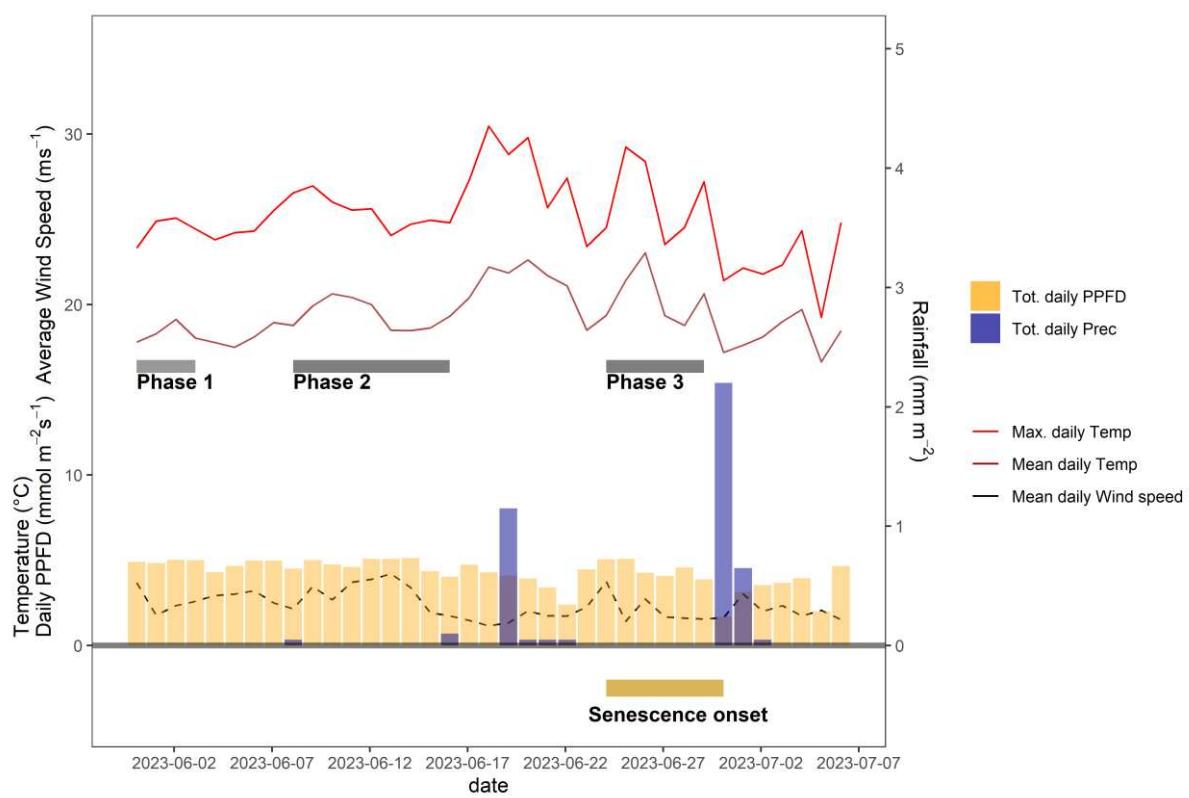
385 **Figure 5 (A)** Differences in stomatal conductance between members of pairs of directly adjacent plots, of which one each was
 386 exposed to pre-anthesis canopy shading (“Test”), and one was left untreated (“Control”). Positive values indicate higher
 387 stomatal conductance and photosynthetic rates in untreated control plots than in shaded test plots; **(B)** Differences in
 388 photosynthesis as determined via gas exchange. **(C)** F_q'/F_m' in response to increased photosynthetic photon flux rate (PPFR).
 389 Solid lines represent fitted values after square root transformation of PPFR. Relative chlorophyll (SPAD) is indicated by the
 390 transparency of the points. **(D)** Boxplot of F_q'/F_m' for both genotypes and treatments. Data for six measurement days between
 391 June 1 and June 14 (DAS 226 to 239) was pooled.

392 Overall, measurements of gas exchange and photosynthesis showed a high variation across
 393 measured leaves (raw data not shown), despite very stable weather conditions during the
 394 relevant period. Nonetheless, taken together the measurements indicated a trend towards
 395 reduced stomatal conductance and reduced photosynthetic activity in shaded plots compared to
 396 the controls (Figure 5), although these trends were not statistically significant for either of the
 397 tested cultivars. Interestingly, however, the stronger effects of shading on ‘Piznair’ compared
 398 to ‘Campesino’ as described above were by trend visible also in these measurements, with the
 399 only exception being the measurement of stomatal conductance at 245 DAS (20 June 2023),
 400 which represented the last measurement before the onset of visually observable senescence (cf.
 401 Figure 3). Across all measurement dates, the effects of shading were more pronounced in
 402 measurements of photosynthesis than in measurements of stomatal conductance for both tested
 403 cultivars (Figure 5). The F_q'/F_m' showed the typical decrease with increasing PPFR which was
 404 more pronounced in ‘Piznair’ than in ‘Campesino’ (Figure 5C). In agreement with the

405 photosynthesis measurements, shading slightly decreased F_q'/F_m' compared to the control, again
406 more pronounced in ‘Piznair’ (Figure 6D).

407 *Pre-anthesis canopy shading was associated with increasingly higher canopy*
408 *temperature during early grain filling*

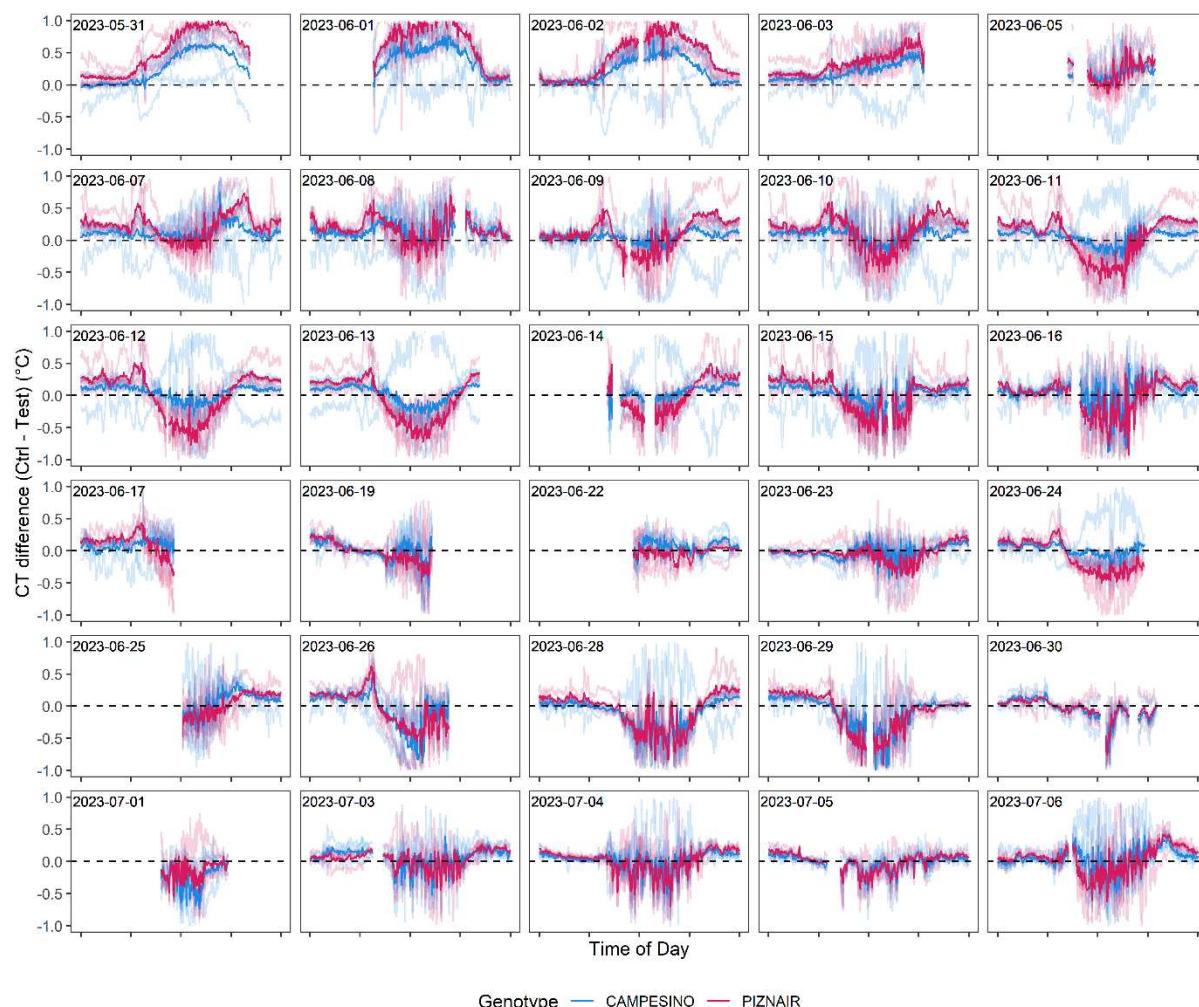
409 CT values exhibited significant short-term variation, especially during early afternoons.
410 Recurring rapid increases and decreases, typically in the range of 1-2 degrees, were observed
411 within a timespan of a few minutes (cf. Supplementary Figure S3). Neighboring plots generally
412 showed very similar temporal patterns in CT (Supplementary Figure S3), suggesting that this
413 variation over time resulted from short-term changes in local meteorological conditions.



414
415 **Figure 6** Daily average and maximum air temperature, daily rainfall, average daily wind speed, and daily incident light
416 throughout the grain filling period of 2023. Except for rainfall, daily values were calculated based on data recorded between
417 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. each day. Dark grey bars indicate different phases during which distinct but temporally stable patterns in
418 CT were observed. The dark yellow bar at the bottom of the plot indicates the time span during which plots started to senesce.

419 After a particularly wet spring season, early grain filling coincided with a period of very
420 stable weather conditions, characterized by long periods of clear sky conditions during the day

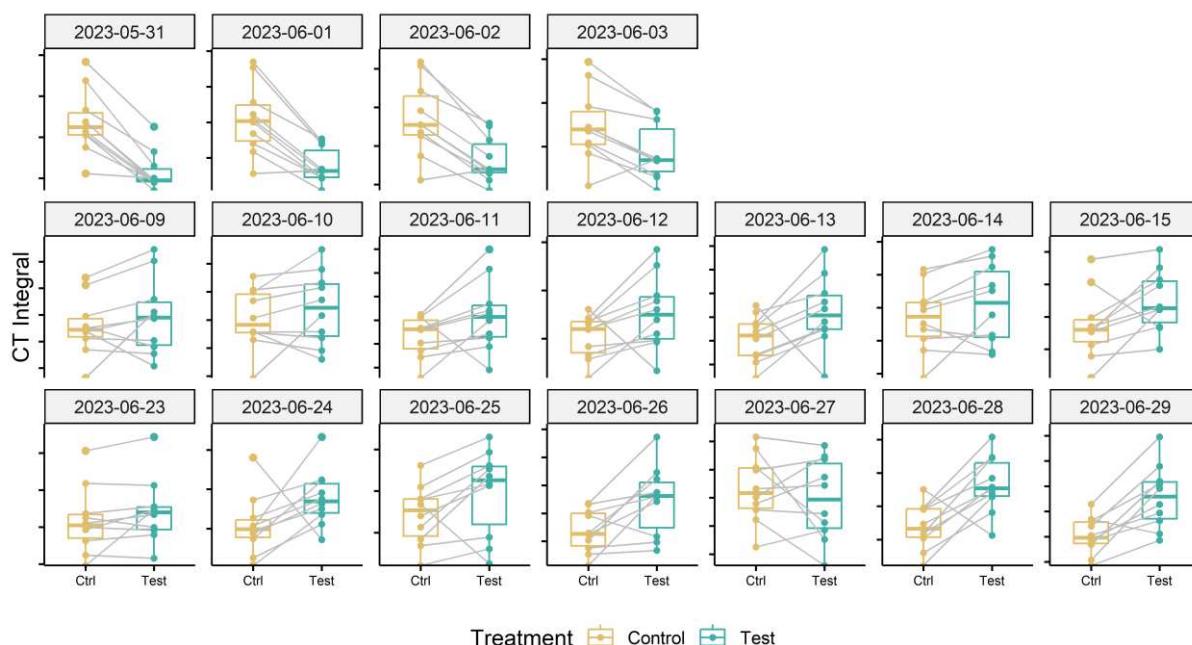
421 but moderate day-time temperatures (Figure 6). Significant rainfall was registered only on 19
422 June 2023, a few days before the onset of visually discernable senescence (Figure 6).



423
424 **Figure 7** Differences in canopy temperature (CT) between pairs of plots with pre-anthesis shading (“Test”) and without pre-
425 anthesis shading (“Ctrl”). Negative values indicate higher CT in test plots than in adjacent control plots, and vice-versa. Solid
426 lines represent genotype averages across five replicates, transparent lines represent differences between individual pairs of
427 neighboring plots. Measurement dates with little or no data available for the period between 10 a.m. and 6 p.m. are not included.

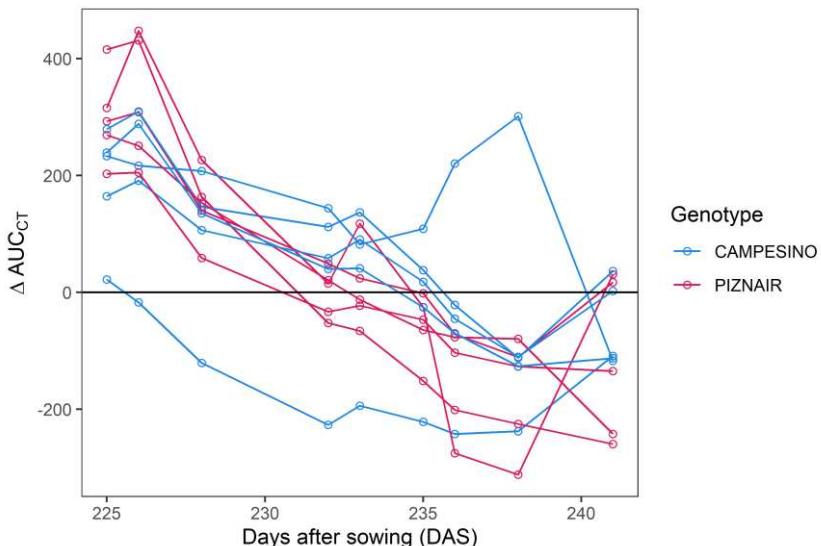
428 To isolate the effect of the treatment from effects related to genotype morphology, short-
429 term changes in meteorological conditions, and spatial field heterogeneity, we calculated
430 differences in CT between neighboring plots that had received either of the treatments, at the
431 genotype level. When considering the entire measurement period (i.e., the period between
432 flowering and harvest), contrasting effects of the treatment were observed (Figure 7). However,
433 effects showed marked temporal continuity, allowing to distinguish three different phases (cf.
434 Figure 6): In an initial Phase following the removal of the shading nets (Phase 1), shaded plots

435 were consistently cooler during the day (Figure 7, top row). The difference between AUC_{CT}
436 across the treatments were highly significant ($p < 0.01$; Figure 8, top row), but this difference
437 progressively disappeared within the first 4-5 d. During the following days (Phase 2), the
438 initially observed trend was gradually inverted, with shaded plots increasingly characterized by
439 higher CT than control plots (between 9 June 2023 and 16 June 2023; Figure 7, panel rows 2
440 and 3). This observed difference in AUC_{CT} was statistically significant for ‘Piznair’, but not for
441 ‘Campesino’. When data for both genotypes was pooled, differences were at the significance
442 threshold on most measurement dates (Figure 8). The trend observed during Phase 1 was
443 therefore continued during Phase 2. The gradual increase in CT during Phase 1 and Phase 2 in
444 shaded relative to control plots becomes more obvious when comparing AUC_{CT} across the
445 entire duration (Figure 9). This also reveals that the relative increase appeared to be stronger
446 for ‘Piznair’ than for ‘Campesino’. Finally, a third phase (Phase 3) with stable patterns across
447 multiple days was observed between 23 June and 29 June, when shaded test plots were again
448 warmer than control plots (bottom rows of Figures 7 and 8). This phase coincided with the onset
449 of canopy senescence, which occurred earlier in control plots than in shaded test plots.
450 Throughout the entire measurement period, differences between shaded and control plots did
451 not exceed 1°C but were more often in the order of a few tens of degrees (Figure 7). Throughout
452 the period, no sizable differences between differentially treated plots were observed during the
453 night for either of the tested genotypes. Similarly, no differences in CT between shaded and
454 control plots were apparent during the final days before maturity.



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Figure 8 Effect of the pre-anthesis canopy shading treatment on the daily integral under the canopy temperature curves between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. Data for measurement dates corresponding to three different phases of interest with stable environmental conditions are shown. Data for the two tested cultivars were pooled. Numbers above the black brackets indicate p-values of the paired sample t-test ($n = 10$), gray lines connect paired samples (i.e., neighboring plots of the same genotype having received the shading or control treatment).



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Figure 9 Differences between control plots and shaded plots in the area under the canopy temperature curve observed between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. on each day (ΔAUC_{CT}). Data is shown for the early grain filling phase i.e., up until 20 June 2023, which corresponds to the phase preceding the onset of visually discernible senescence in the earliest maturing plots.

465

Discussion

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Canopy temperature is often interpreted as representing leaf activity traits, particularly stomatal conductance, and corresponding associations have been found by many researchers (e.g., Fischer et al., 1998; Rebetzke et al., 2013). However, it is well known that CT

469 measurements are strongly affected by a multitude of other factors as well (Anderegg et al.,
470 2021; Deery and Jones, 2021; Prashar and Jones, 2014). Depending on the objective of CT
471 measurements, the influence of confounding variables may or may not be problematic. For
472 example, if reasonably strong correlations between CT and yield are consistently observed
473 under certain well-defined growing conditions at well-defined stages of crop development (e.g.,
474 because CT may provide a fast measure of overall vigor under stressful conditions at that time),
475 then an exact understanding of the underlying functional relationship is not necessary to use it
476 as a trait to select for higher-yielding genotypes under these conditions (see Li et al., 2019;
477 Reynolds et al., 1994; Thapa et al., 2018 for some examples). In contrast, if the objective of CT
478 measurements is to complement other secondary traits (such as plant height and biomass) to
479 enable a knowledge-based physiological selection, then a better understanding of the variables
480 determining CT is indispensable. Only then will it be possible to estimate the feasibility of
481 specific trait assessments, develop appropriate measurement protocols and define the scope of
482 application. Here, our objective is of the latter sort: We aim to quantify a specific secondary
483 trait (leaf activity traits during the stay-green phase of wheat), and we require this measurement
484 to be *complementary* to (not indicative of) traits such as plant height, above-ground biomass,
485 or phenology, for which more direct and precise high throughput assessment protocols are
486 already available.

487 To better understand the potential and limitations of CT measurements in this context, we
488 therefore performed an experiment that isolated the effect of variation in the trait of interest on
489 CT from variation in CT caused by such confounding and possibly co-varying traits. Below,
490 we first discuss the experimental approach underlying this feasibility assessment. Then, we
491 interpret and contextualize observed effects and effect sizes, and discuss implications for an
492 optimized use of CT measurements to characterize stay-green canopies.

493 *Pre-anthesis canopy shading to manipulate sink-source balances and create*
494 *variation in stay-green functionality*

495 We applied pre-anthesis canopy shading during rapid spike growth (but significantly after
496 full flag leaf emergence) with the aim of creating variation in sink strength with minimum side-
497 effects on the size and structure of the canopy. Given the importance of the sink-source balance
498 in the regulation of senescence, shading was expected to result in dysfunctional stay-green *via*
499 a reduced and delayed demand for remobilized assimilates and N.

500 Large effects of pre-anthesis shading on potential grain yield have been reported in several
501 studies (e.g., Fischer, 1985, 1975; Savin and Slafer, 1991). Yield losses result primarily from a
502 reduced number of kernels per spikelet (Slafer et al., 1994), and an increased number of
503 rudimentary basal spikelets is often observed (Backhaus et al., 2023; Slafer et al., 1994), which
504 appears to be the result of complete floret abortion in basal spikelets as a consequence of their
505 delayed development (Backhaus et al., 2023). Though we did not perform detailed quantitative
506 in-field assessments of spike fertility, it was obvious from ear volume measurements (Figure
507 2d) and from examinations of organ contribution to vegetation sceneries (Supplementary Figure
508 S2) that shading drastically affected spike fertility. Specifically, there was an obvious increase
509 in the number of rudimentary basal spikelets and completely aborted apical spikelets (Figure
510 2E; Figure 4D). Interestingly, eye-ball assessments in the field and re-examination of ears in
511 images suggested that shading affected apical spikelets more than basal spikelets, especially in
512 ‘Piznair’, which would be in contrast with common observation (Backhaus et al., 2023; Slafer
513 et al., 1994; Stockman et al., 1983).

514 Because of the temporal overlap between rapid spike growth and elongation of the last
515 internode (peduncle), canopy shading affected both traits (Figure 2). Peduncles are important
516 as storage location for water-soluble carbohydrates, and canopy shading affects WSC
517 accumulation within a few days of application (Stockman et al., 1983). Therefore, source

518 strength must also have been affected by the shading treatment. However, this regarded
519 primarily reserve and biomass accumulation of the peduncle and spike during the restricted
520 period of shading, whereas photosynthetically active leaf area should not have been affected
521 (Supplementary Figure S2). Given the size of the effects on sink potential, it seems highly likely
522 that shading affected sink strength far more than source capacity, resulting in an increased
523 source:sink ratio as compared to the untreated controls for both assimilates and Nitrogen. This
524 is additionally supported by the increase in thousand kernel weight in ‘Campesino’ and the
525 increase in grain protein concentration in response to shading in both tested genotypes. The lack
526 of a sizable increase in TKW in ‘Piznair’ is likely a result of grain size limitations (i.e., the
527 maximum capacity of grains to absorb assimilates, that is determined already at an early stage
528 of grain filling (Borrás et al., 2004; Brocklehurst, 1977)) than the lack of assimilate supply,
529 given that GPC is drastically increased despite its already high levels under control conditions.

530 The dynamics of senescence were strongly affected by shading, with magnitude and
531 direction of the observed changes in good agreement with an interpretation of the shading
532 treatment as a cause of dysfunctional stay-green mediated by source:sink imbalance. In
533 apparently sink-limited ‘Campesino’, shading reduced grain number, but this was partly
534 compensated for by a sizeable increase in TKW and in GPC (Figure 2E, 2F), which helped
535 maintain a high sink demand for assimilates and remobilized Nitrogen. Consequently, only
536 relatively small differences between treatments in the timing and dynamics of senescence were
537 observed in this cultivar, and only for leaves (Figure 2). In contrast, ‘Piznair’ was unable to
538 compensate *via* increases in TKW, and sink demand for assimilates and Nitrogen was therefore
539 more strongly reduced. Accordingly, the delay in the onset and progression of senescence was
540 accentuated in this cultivar, and the delay was also apparent in ears and stems. These patterns
541 therefore confirm the importance of sink:source balances in the regulation of senescence under

542 stress-free conditions and strongly suggest that pre-anthesis canopy shading caused
543 dysfunctional stay-green.

544 In contrast to the obvious agronomic and phenological effects of shading, direct
545 measurements of photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance in the field were less
546 conclusive, although direction and relative size of effects across the tested genotypes do seem
547 to indicate that the expected decrease in photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance did in
548 fact occur (Figure 5). Reynolds et al. (2005) and Miralles and Slafer (1997) also suggested that
549 sink strength should be a major factor determining post-anthesis growth, and a common
550 observation has been that upon removal of source capacity during grain filling, stomatal
551 conductance and photosynthetic rates are increased in compensation (Rawson et al., 1976;
552 Richards, 1996); so the inverse should equally be true. In a similar experiment with zucchini,
553 sink limitation did not significantly reduce photosynthetic rates, but nevertheless increased leaf
554 temperature and had other notable leaf- and canopy level effects that were readily detectable
555 using reflectance-based approaches (Burnett et al., 2021). Thus, sink-limitation may not
556 necessarily have immediate and strong effects on leaf photosynthesis. Here, an additional
557 plausible explanation for the lack of a similarly clear difference between treatments in stomatal
558 conductance and photosynthesis may be the difficulty in upscaling spot measurements
559 performed on single and randomly selected leaves to entire field canopies.

560 *Feasibility of stay-green functionality monitoring using high throughput canopy
561 temperature measurements*

562 CT differed significantly between the treatments in the initial phase immediately following
563 the removal of the shading tents (Figure 7, Figure 8, top rows), and this effect cannot be well
564 explained by expected differences in leaf activity traits resulting from the shading treatment. It
565 seems more likely that these initial differences represented side-effects of the shading treatment
566 on canopy structure and on the contribution of different organs to plot-level CT signals

567 (Supplementary Figure S2). Spikes and peduncles were found to be consistently warmer than
568 flag leaves at different stages of grain filling by Ayeneh et al. (2002); Similarly, Vicente et al.
569 (2018) found durum wheat ears to be consistently warmer than leaves, and Fernandez-Gallego
570 et al. (2019) even exploited this fact to obtain automatic ear counts from thermal images. A
571 higher contribution of warmer ears to plot-level CT signals is therefore a likely reason for the
572 observed initial differences (cf. Supplementary Figure S2). When considering the entire stay-
573 green phase, there was an obvious gradual increase in CT of shaded canopies relative to
574 unshaded controls over a period of almost three weeks. This increase appeared to be nearly
575 constant during the early grain filling phase (until approximately 18 June) and was then
576 interrupted by a period of less stable weather conditions (Figure 6); however, it quickly
577 reestablished upon a return of more stable weather conditions shortly after. These basic
578 observations are in full agreement with the indications based on all other measurements that
579 shading introduced dysfunctional stay-green and it clearly suggests that this had a direct and
580 measurable effect on CT. In particular, a gradually increasing contrast in CT between treatments
581 is expected under the assumption of an increasingly downregulating effect of limited sink
582 demand on grain filling rates and, consequently, leaf activity traits. Conversely, a more abrupt
583 effect would be expected if the reduction in sink demand immediately triggered a proportional
584 decrease in leaf activity. Unfortunately, to the best of our knowledge, sink-regulation of
585 photosynthesis during grain filling in wheat (and thus the expected response of photosynthetic
586 rates and stomatal conductance to reductions in sink strength) is poorly understood. Intuitively,
587 it would seem more natural for this effect to build up gradually, since there should be no
588 constraints to grain filling in an initial phase.

589 Despite the strong effects of the shading treatment on physiological and phenological traits
590 of interest, observed differences in CT between the treatments were limited to less than 1°C.
591 This is substantially less variation than we observed previously within a set of diverse genotypes

592 measured during the same growth stages at the same site (Anderegg et al., 2021; Perich et al.,
593 2020), where differences across measurement dates between coolest and hottest canopies
594 ranged from 3.1°C to 11.8°C in raw data, and from 1.8°C to 6.8°C after spatial correction of
595 the CT signals (reanalyzed from Anderegg et al., 2021; Perich et al., 2020). Limiting these
596 analyses to Swiss elite breeding material resulted in a very similar picture. Similar ranges were
597 observed across different years and time of day by Deery et al. (2019, see e.g., Figure 9 in their
598 paper). If our interpretation of the initial differences in CT is correct, then that should be
599 considered the baseline for the quantification of the effect of differences in stay-green
600 functionality on CT, i.e., the total effect would amount to approximately 1.5°C and 0.8°C for
601 ‘Piznair’ and ‘Campesino’, respectively (cf. Figure 7). While this would be a sizeable effect, it
602 clearly must be considered the maximum expected effect in experiments without treatments. In
603 a set of historical lines from CIMMYT spanning 26 years of breeding, reported a decrease in
604 CT of approximately 0.6°C that could be associated with higher stomatal conductance (Fischer
605 et al., 1998). Yet, this number may have been influenced by traits other than leaf activity,
606 although above ground biomass was ruled out as a relevant factor in that study.

607 The gradual nature of the observed effects of sink limitation on CT during grain filling
608 confirms the hypothesized advantage of a time-integrated analysis of individual measurements
609 (Anderegg et al., 2021). We already observed a moderate to high heritability of plot-based
610 temporal trends in CT under the conditions of the study site, but it was unclear to what extent
611 they represented genotype-specific reactions to progressive soil drying or again an effect of
612 confounding factors, such as heritable changes in canopy structure during the assessment
613 period. Given the possibility of within-genotype comparisons in this study, these confounding
614 effects could be excluded, underscoring the meaningfulness and advantage of time-integrated
615 analysis of CT changes during periods of stable meteorological conditions.

616 Conclusions

617 This study integrated gold standard physiological measurements and traditional
618 experimental approaches with recently developed RGB- and thermal-image-based high
619 throughput phenotyping protocols, with the aim of developing a better understanding of the
620 sensitivity limits of remote-sensing-based phenotyping approaches in stay-green wheat
621 canopies. Our results clearly indicate that differences in leaf activity stemming from differences
622 in stay-green functionality translate into measurable differences in CT. Importantly, they appear
623 to do so in the absence of co-variation in confounding traits (such as above ground biomass,
624 green leaf area, or plant height), and in dense canopies with (near-)complete soil cover, as
625 typically observed in high-yielding, stress-free environments. Our findings provide a strong
626 basis for future uses of CT for a better characterization of the physiological status of stay-green
627 wheat canopies during early grain filling. Modest effect sizes highlight the importance of
628 restricting screenings to a limited range of morphological and phenological diversity, as already
629 recommended in a similar context by Lopes and Reynolds (2010). Finally, gradually increasing
630 effects of sink limitation on CT underscore the importance of frequent measurements and a
631 time-integrated analysis.

632 Author contributions

633 JA proposed and designed the experiment, performed in-field and post-harvest
634 measurements, processed, analyzed, and interpreted the data, and wrote the original draft of the
635 manuscript. AH contributed to the conceptualization and design of the study, assisted with field
636 assessments, contributed to data interpretation, provided materials and resources, and reviewed
637 and edited the manuscript. NK designed, maintained, mounted, and operated the multi-sensor
638 pack that included the thermal camera, set up the ear volume estimation method, assisted with
639 experiment planning, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. HA acquired funding for and

640 designed the multi-sensor pack, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. OZ collected and
641 processed ear volume data, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. BK contributed to in-field
642 measurements, contributed to data interpretation, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. RZ
643 assisted with deep learning model development, provided annotated data, provided technical
644 support with computing infrastructure, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. AW
645 contributed to the conceptualization of the study, contributed materials and resources, and
646 reviewed and edited the manuscript.

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658

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