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Copyright Year	2024	
Copyright HolderName	The Author(s)	
Corresponding Author	Family Name	Mensah
	Particle	
	Given Name	Eric Opoku
	Prefix	
	Suffix	
	Role	
	Division	Department of Crop Science
	Organization	University of Ghana
	Address	Accra, Ghana
	Division	Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management
	Organization	University of Copenhagen
	Address	Frederiksberg, Denmark
	Division	
	Organization	CSIR-Plant Genetic Resources Research Institute
	Address	Bunso, Ghana
	Email	com@ign.ku.dk omedjin@gmail.com
	ORCID	http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7964-5180
Author	Family Name	Vaast
	Particle	
	Given Name	Philippe
	Prefix	
	Suffix	
	Role	
	Division	UMR Eco & Sols, Centre de Coopération Internationale en Recherche Agronomique Pour Le Développement (CIRAD)
	Organization	Université Montpellier
	Address	Montpellier, France
	Division	
	Organization	World Agroforestry Center
	Address	Nairobi, Kenya
	Email	philippe.vaast@cirad.fr
	ORCID	http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2971-3210
Author	Family Name	Asare
	Particle	
	Given Name	Richard

Prefix
Suffix
Role
Division
Organization International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA)
Address Accra, Ghana
Email r.asare@cgiar.org
ORCID <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5557-9190>

Author Family Name **Amoatey**
Particle
Given Name **Christiana A.**
Prefix
Suffix
Role
Division Department of Crop Science
Organization University of Ghana
Address Accra, Ghana
Email camoatey@ug.edu.gh
ORCID <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1468-5800>

Author Family Name **Owusu**
Particle
Given Name **Kwadwo**
Prefix
Suffix
Role
Division Department of Geography and Resource Development
Organization University of Ghana
Address Accra, Ghana
Email kowusu@ug.edu.gh
ORCID <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1322-0566>

Author Family Name **Asitoakor**
Particle
Given Name **Bismark Kwesi**
Prefix
Suffix
Role
Division Department of Crop Science
Organization University of Ghana
Address Accra, Ghana
Division Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management
Organization University of Copenhagen
Address Frederiksberg, Denmark
Division
Organization CSIR-Plant Genetic Resources Research Institute
Address Bunso, Ghana

Email bkasitoakor001@st.ug.edu.gh
bka@ign.ku.dk
ORCID <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6507-6706>

Author Family Name **Ræbild**
Particle
Given Name **Anders**
Prefix
Suffix
Role
Division Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management
Organization University of Copenhagen
Address Frederiksberg, Denmark
Email are@ign.ku.dk
ORCID <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8793-5663>

Abstract *Cocoa* (*Theobroma cacao* L.) is an important cash crop in many tropical countries, particularly in West Africa. Heat and drought are both known to affect the physiology of cocoa plants through reduced rates of photosynthesis and transpiration, as well as changed physiological processes such as the functions of photosystems, chlorophyll synthesis, stomatal conductance and expression of heat-shock proteins. This in turn leads to decreased yields and increased risks of mortality under severe heat and drought. To help cocoa plants adapt to climate change, the literature suggests agroforestry as a potential farm management practice. It has been argued that the lack of tree cover in cocoa cultivation systems exposes the crop to heat and direct solar radiation, thus increasing evapotranspiration and the risk of drought. Drawing on data generated from two on-field studies, this chapter assesses the shade effect on cocoa's physiological responses to drought and heat stress to determine whether shade would be beneficial under climate change scenarios. We conclude that shade improves the physiology of cocoa, but that this may not be sufficient to compensate for the negative effects of high temperatures and severe drought exacerbated by climate change in sub-optimal conditions.

Keywords (separated by '-') Shade - Cocoa - Heat - Stomatal conductance - Water potential - Photosynthesis



CHAPTER 2

Cocoa Under Heat and Drought Stress

*Eric Opoku Mensah*¹, *Philippe Vaast*², *Richard Asare*³,
*Christiana A. Amoatey*⁴, *Kwadwo Owusu*⁵,
*Bismark Kwesi Asitoakor*⁶, and *Anders Rebild*⁷

[AQ1]

Abstract Cocoa (*Theobroma cacao* L.) is an important cash crop in many tropical countries, particularly in West Africa. Heat and drought are both known to affect the physiology of cocoa plants through reduced rates of photosynthesis and transpiration, as well as changed physiological processes such as the functions of photosystems, chlorophyll synthesis, stomatal conductance and expression of heat-shock proteins. This in turn leads to decreased yields and increased risks of mortality under severe heat and drought. To help cocoa plants adapt to climate change, the literature suggests agroforestry as a potential farm management practice. It has been argued that the lack of tree cover in cocoa cultivation systems exposes

E. O. Mensah (✉) · C. A. Amoatey · B. K. Asitoakor
Department of Crop Science, University of Ghana, Accra, Ghana
e-mail: eom@ign.ku.dk

C. A. Amoatey
e-mail: camoatey@ug.edu.gh

B. K. Asitoakor
e-mail: bkasitoakor001@st.ug.edu.gh; bka@ign.ku.dk

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E. O. Mensah · B. K. Asitoakor · A. Ræbild
Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management, University of
Copenhagen, Frederiksberg, Denmark
e-mail: are@ign.ku.dk

E. O. Mensah · B. K. Asitoakor
CSIR-Plant Genetic Resources Research Institute, Bunso, Ghana

P. Vaast
UMR Eco & Sols, Centre de Coopération Internationale en Recherche
Agronomique Pour Le Développement (CIRAD), Université Montpellier,
Montpellier, France

World Agroforestry Center, Nairobi, Kenya

P. Vaast
e-mail: philippe.vaast@cirad.fr

R. Asare
International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Accra, Ghana
e-mail: r.asare@cgiar.org

K. Owusu
Department of Geography and Resource Development, University of Ghana,
Accra, Ghana
e-mail: kowusu@ug.edu.gh

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Cocoa (*Theobroma cacao* L.) is native to South America and belongs to the Malvaceae family (formerly Sterculiaceae). For this species, three main genetic groups are recognized based on physical, sensory quality and associated botanical traits: Forastero, Criollo and Trinitario (Bartley, 2005; Cheesman, 1944). Around 95% of all cocoa production comes from the Forastero and the Trinitario groups, which are high-yielding, more vigorous and less susceptible to pests and diseases than the Criollo group (Loor et al., 2009; Umaharan, 2018).

Cocoa is mostly grown in a narrow belt 20 degrees north and south of the equator with warm and humid tropical climates, regular rains and short dry seasons (Mattyasovszky, 2017). It is mostly planted in smallholder plantations in West Africa, Southeast Asia and Latin America (Lahive et al., 2019). Cocoa plants grow well within a temperature range of 18–32 °C, with regular rainfall of 1000–2500 mm per year and at altitudes as high as 1000 m above sea level (Ameyaw et al., 2018; ICCO, 2020; Wood & Lass, 1992). Under shade, cocoa physiology is changed, and yields may increase (Asare et al., 2017; Tee et al., 2018). Cultivation under full sun without any vegetation cover increases the risk of exposing the crop to the negative consequences of high radiation, elevated temperatures and drought. Recent predictions of future climate conditions foresee increases in temperature and a decline in rainfall periods at crucial times for cocoa production in the current production zones in West Africa (IPCC, 2021; Schroth et al., 2016; Stocker et al., 2013). The global average air temperature is expected to increase by between 0.8 and 5.4 °C, while annual rainfall may decline by 1.1–20.5% between 2020 and 2080 depending on the emission scenario (IPCC, 2021; NCCAS, 2012; Pielke et al., 2022). This is a cause for concern, since elevated temperatures, reduced rainfall, longer dry seasons and higher incidences of pests and diseases are expected to reduce cocoa yields (Cilas & Bastide, 2020; Gachene et al., 2014; Muller et al., 2014, see also Chapter 1).

Breeding resilient varieties has been considered to be a way to increase cocoa yields, especially under future climate scenarios (Vaast & Somarriba, 2014). However, breeding new varieties, especially varieties with increased tolerance to drought and heat, high water-use efficiency and high yields, has been limited by insufficient use of proven breeding methods, limited information on the ecophysiology of cocoa, the plant's long selection cycle, and the heterozygous nature of hybrid parental clones (Efron et al.,

59 2003). Efforts so far have resulted in hybrid cocoa varieties with increased
60 resistance to pests and diseases and reduced time to maturity (Dos Santos
61 et al., 2014; Frimpong-Anin et al., 2015), but more work is urgently
62 needed on their drought and heat tolerances (Judy et al., 2021). Although
63 marker-assisted selection is being used to study drought-resistant cultivars
64 and genes involved in drought tolerance (Bae et al., 2008), the produc-
65 tion and dissemination of cocoa materials that are highly tolerant to
66 drought and heat are still some way off. Selecting drought-tolerant cocoa
67 rootstocks, followed by grafting, is another potential pathway (Zasari
68 et al., 2020).

69 The provision of shade and the promotion of good agroforestry
70 practices are recommended by many plant scientists to ensure the environ-
71 mental sustainability of cocoa production (Asare et al., 2017; Asitoakor
72 et al., 2022, Vaast et al., 2016). Agroforestry increases species diversity,
73 provides year-round soil cover and ensures high levels of stored carbon
74 in the soil and in vegetation (LobÎo et al., 2007; Sommarriba et al.,
75 2018). It has also been shown that tree growth and cocoa yields, i.e.
76 the mature productive phase, extend over a longer time span under shade
77 than under full-sun conditions (Ahenkorah et al., 1974). Other benefits
78 of agroforestry include reduced evapotranspiration, enhanced soil fertility
79 and protecting cocoa plants from strong winds and other unfavourable
80 ecological factors (Kyereh, 2017; Miyaji et al., 1997). Furthermore, rates
81 of photosynthesis, growth and yields of cocoa are enhanced under shade
82 (Asare et al., 2018; De Almeida & Valle, 2007; Mensah, 2021). For adult
83 cocoa plants, high yields were observed at shade levels between 30 and
84 40% (Asare et al., 2018), while about 60% shade is recommended for
85 cocoa seedlings.

86 In agroforestry systems, companion shade trees in cocoa crop systems
87 have been documented to buffer temperature changes, but they may
88 also have other positive or negative consequences. This depends on the
89 associated tree species that are involved, and whether they lead to root-
90 zone complementarity or competition (Abdulai et al., 2017; Critchley
91 et al., 2022; Jaimes-Suarez et al., 2022; Rigal et al., 2022). Studies of
92 cocoa ecophysiology are difficult because of the size and longevity of
93 cocoa trees, making manipulations difficult. This chapter discusses results
94 from the literature in combination with findings from our on-field studies
95 regarding the effects of shade on cocoa performance under drought and
96 high-temperature stress (Fig. 2.1).



Fig. 2.1 **A** Cocoa farm without shade trees. **B** Cocoa agroforestry with remaining shade trees from clearing of the land. **C** Cocoa agroforestry with planted shade trees (*Terminalia sp.* and *Triplochiton scleroxylon*). **D** and **E** Experiment with a mature cocoa stand under 40% shade using an artificial shade net and with rainwater exclusion. **F** Experiment with cocoa seedlings exposed to heat from non-glowing heaters, with shade (Photos by Eric Opoku Mensah)

97 The chapter thus draws heavily on two eco-physiological experi-
98 ments that were conducted in Ghana to study how shade could reduce
99 the effects of drought and elevated temperatures on cocoa physiology
100 (Mensah, 2021). The first experiment took place in the semi-moist region
101 of Ghana investigating the effects of shade and water exclusion on the
102 performance of productive cocoa trees (Fig. 2.1D, E). Plants were moni-
103 tored over two years for their physiology, growth, litter production and
104 yields. Results from the experiment indicated that shade enhances yields
105 and the physiological performance of cocoa but has limited impacts on
106 water use. The second experiment was conducted at the University of
107 Ghana's Crop Research Farm to test whether shade could reduce the
108 effects of heat on cocoa plants (Mensah et al., 2022). Here, six-month-old
109 cocoa seedlings were exposed to heat provided by 2000W non-glowing
110 infra-red heaters (Fig. 2.1F). The heaters increased the temperature 5–
111 7 °C above the ambient, while 60% shade was provided using black shade
112 nets. Results from the second experiment showed limited effects of shade
113 on the cocoa seedlings under elevated temperature. However, plants kept
114 under shade generally showed enhanced physiology, such as increased
115 chlorophyll fluorescence, chlorophyll pigmentation, stomatal conductance
116 and growth, compared to plants in full-sun conditions.

117 2.2 DROUGHT AND COCOA PRODUCTION

118 Drought is a period in which moisture content in the soil is limited so
119 that plants cannot extract sufficient water for growth and physiological
120 activities (Coder, 1999). It occurs under conditions of low soil and atmo-
121 spheric humidity when the transpiration flux exceeds the plant uptake of
122 water from the soil. Drought has severe effects on cocoa physiology and
123 restricts stomatal conductance and photosynthesis, and hence vegetative
124 and reproductive plant growth.

125 2.2.1 *Soil Moisture*

126 Soil water content (SWC) is the amount of water present in the soil
127 (Datta et al., 2018). At low SWC, leaves start drooping and may reach
128 the Permanent Wilting Point (PWP), the threshold where plants can no
129 longer recover even if re-watered (Datta et al., 2018).

130 Cocoa plants have shallow rooting systems (Carr & Lockwood, 2011),
131 with most of the roots concentrated within the first 80 cm of the soil

132 profile, and with over 80% of the root biomass within the top 40 cm,
133 restricting the possibility for water extraction from deep soil layers (Lahive
134 et al., 2019; Moser et al., 2010). The amount of soil water obviously
135 depends on rainfall patterns and evapotranspiration, but also on the soil
136 type and soil depth. For example, clayey soils hold larger amounts of
137 water than sandy soils, and deep soils conserve more available water than
138 shallow soils. In most cocoa-producing countries in West Africa, soil water
139 is depleted in the top 60 cm of soil depth during extended dry seasons,
140 thus exposing the plants to drought (Abdulai et al., 2017).

141 Under shade, the temperature may fall to 5 °C lower than outside the
142 canopy during the day, maintaining shaded cocoa plants under conditions
143 of relatively high humidity. This means a lower vapour pressure deficit
144 (which is the driving force for transpiration), and it has been suggested
145 that agroforestry reduces cocoa evapotranspiration and allows cocoa to
146 survive under sub-optimal climate conditions (Acheampong et al., 2013;
147 Neither et al., 2018). However, this depends on complementarity in water
148 use between shade tree species and cocoa and hence works best with
149 deep-rooted shade trees that tap soil water below the cocoa root zone.
150 Species selection for cocoa production is very important under drought
151 conditions, as some shade trees, such as *Albizia ferruginea* and *Antiaris*
152 *toxicaria* (leguminous tree species), have been found to compete with
153 cocoa plants for soil moisture during the dry season (Abdulai et al., 2017;
154 Adams et al., 2016).

155 2.2.2 Effects of Drought on Plant-Water Potential

156 Water potential is an expression of the water status of a plant, with
157 negative values indicating a relative absence of water. When soil moisture
158 is reduced, roots may not keep up with the pace of evaporation
159 (also known as transpiration) from the leaves, increasing tension in the
160 water-transporting tissues (the xylem) and making plant-water potential
161 more negative. Under conditions of severe drought, the water potential
162 becomes increasingly negative and may cause the formation of air bubbles
163 in the xylem (known as cavitation), which blocks water transport and may
164 in severe cases be lethal to the plant. It is noted that in cocoa, the stem
165 xylem has a larger diameter than the root xylem, which may contribute
166 to plant sensitivity to cavitation under drought (Kotowska et al., 2015).

167 The plant-water potential affects many physiological processes, and
168 most importantly, it controls the opening and closing of stomata in

169 leaves. Stomata are the pores through which the plant takes up CO₂
 170 and loses water vapour. Under normal, well-watered conditions, cocoa
 171 plants will have a water potential ranging between 0.0 and -0.4 MPa
 172 (Deloire & Heyns, 2011; Zanetti et al., 2016), whereas values below -
 173 0.8 MPa indicate a water deficit (Deloire & Heyns, 2011). In a through-
 174 fall displacement study in Indonesia, after six months of drought, roots
 175 experienced declining water potential, falling below -1.5 MPa (Moser
 176 et al., 2010) that caused permanent closure of stomata. In a study from
 177 Ghana during the dry season, most of the cocoa plants died in response to
 178 very low soil moisture because of competition with shade trees (Abdulai
 179 et al., 2017).

180 Shade increases relative humidity around the cocoa plants, thereby
 181 reducing transpiration and thus potentially maintaining plant-water
 182 potential at a high level. In our field experiment, water exclusion reduced
 183 the predawn water potential of cocoa plants, with lower values observed
 184 during the dry season (Table 2.1). However, shade resulted in slightly
 185 higher water potentials, confirming that shade has a positive impact on
 186 the water status of cocoa trees. Reduced plant-water potential in full sun
 187 may be the result of increased evapotranspiration resulting from higher
 188 leaf temperatures and dryer air.

Table 2.1 Average predawn leaf water potential of cocoa plants at three different levels of rainwater exclusion and two levels of shade measured over two year

Shade	Rainwater exclusion	Predawn water potential (MPa)	
		Rainy season	Dry season
Shade	Full rainwater (0/3W)	-0.24 ± 0.12 ^a	-0.40 ± 0.17 ^a
	Moderate rainwater exclusion (1/3W)	-0.30 ± 0.13 ^b	-0.46 ± 0.15 ^{bc}
	Severe rainwater exclusion (2/3W)	-0.36 ± 0.15 ^c	-0.51 ± 0.14 ^{bc}
Sun	Full rainwater (0/3W)	-0.31 ± 0.16 ^{bc}	-0.46 ± 0.16 ^b
	Moderate rainwater exclusion (1/3W)	-0.36 ± 0.15 ^c	-0.52 ± 0.14 ^c
	Severe rainwater exclusion (2/3W)	-0.43 ± 0.17 ^d	-0.59 ± 0.14 ^d

Note Numbers indicate means ± s.d. ($n = 3$). Means followed by different letters are significantly different according to Tukey's multiple range test ($P < 0.05$)

2.2.3 *Effects of Drought on Photosynthesis*

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Photosynthesis, the process by which plants use sunlight, water and carbon dioxide to create oxygen and energy in the form of carbohydrates, is impaired when soil–water content is decreasing (Carr & Lockwood, 2011; Datta et al., 2018; Kirschbaum, 2004). Reduced rates of photosynthesis may be due to partial closure of stomata but can also be due to biochemical limitations (Liang et al., 2019) (see Sect. 2.4). Stomata regulates both transpirational water loss and CO₂ diffusion into the leaves (Barbour, 2016). As discussed above, under drought stress, many plants reduce their stomatal opening to conserve water, at the cost of reducing plant absorption of CO₂ for photosynthesis. The closure of the stomata reduces cooling of the leaves through evaporation, thus increasing leaf temperature. Very high leaf temperatures may harm the leaves and cause leaf wilting. Cocoa plants have low stomatal conductance under water stress and low relative humidity (De Almeida & Valle, 2007) compared to large stomatal opening under non-limiting water conditions and high relative humidity (Sena et al., 1987). Stomatal opening is often assessed in terms of stomatal conductance, a standardized measure of opening. In our field study, stomatal conductance showed a strong seasonal trend, being especially low during the dry season (Fig. 2.2). Surprisingly, the effects of shade vs. sun appeared to have a larger effect on stomatal conductance compared to water exclusion, with shaded cocoa plants having larger stomatal conductance than sun plants.

Despite the differences in stomatal conductance, rates of photosynthesis were comparable between sun and shade plants, with a tendency towards slightly higher values for the former (Fig. 2.2). Since photosynthesis is driven by light, it would be natural to expect a large decrease in photosynthesis in shaded plants. However, in addition to having larger stomatal opening, shaded cocoa plants were able to use the available light and achieve relatively high rates of photosynthesis. Cocoa plants have low light-saturation points, meaning that they reach saturation for photosynthesis at relatively low levels of light, corresponding to 500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ or ca. 20% of the natural sunlight (Anim-Kwapong & Frimpong, 2004; Salazar et al., 2018). Hence, plants in full sun may not be able to take advantage of the extra radiation available to them. The ability to capture light in shade may also be a result of a reorganization of the photosynthetic system development of large leaves with longer lifespans and increased chlorophyll pigments in the leaves.

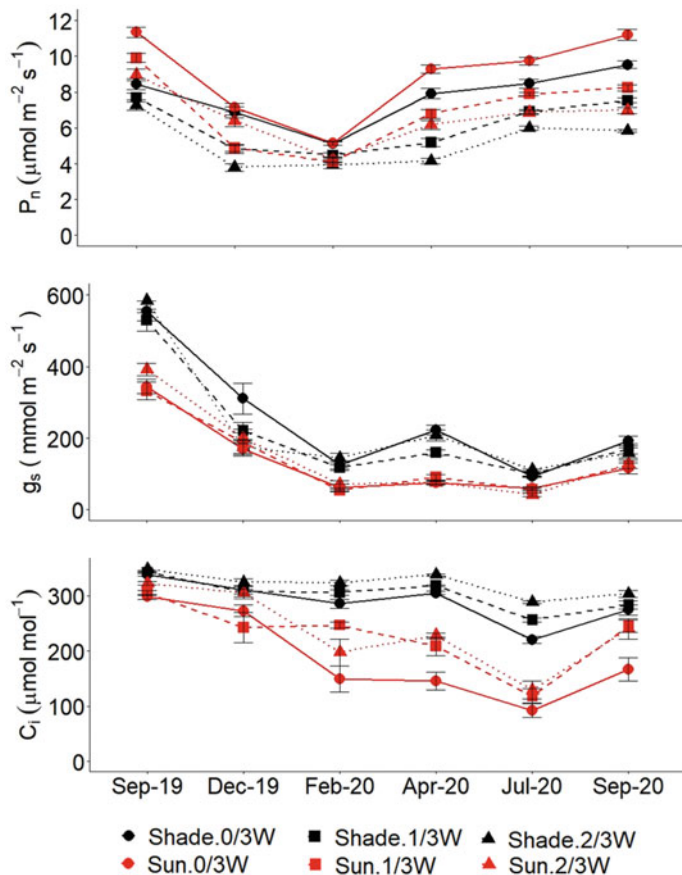


Fig. 2.2 Effects of shade and rainwater exclusion on photosynthesis rate (P_n), stomatal conductance (g_s) and sub-stomatal CO_2 concentration (C_i) of a 12-year-old cocoa plant. Codes indicate water availability: 0/3W—full rainwater; 1/3W—partial water exclusion; 2/3W—severe water exclusion

227 Responses to drought may be dependent on genotypes. Some reports
 228 indicate different responses of stomatal conductance and transpiration
 229 among cocoa cultivars (Daymond et al., 2011; De Almeida et al., 2015),
 230 suggesting that it may be possible to identify cultivars that perform better

231 under drought stress than others. Further research on the varietal differ-
232 ences of stomata regulation and water use in cocoa plants is needed. This
233 also includes studies of whether cocoa has a predominantly anisohydric
234 behaviour (i.e. a variable water content because of continued transpiration
235 at low soil moisture, due to limited stomatal adjustment) or an isohydric
236 tendency (with more stable water contents due to closure of stomata after
237 sensing low soil–water potential).

238 *2.2.4 Biochemical Limitations to Photosynthesis*

239 In addition to limitations caused by light availability and stomatal limi-
240 tations to the diffusion of CO₂, photosynthesis may also be limited by
241 biochemical factors. The presence of such biochemical limitations can be
242 detected by increased levels of CO₂ inside the leaf (C_i). In our rainwater-
243 exclusion experiment, C_i increased in highly stressed plants compared to
244 non-stressed control plants, and the concentration was proportional to
245 the level of stress (Fig. 1.2). Paradoxically, biochemical limitations may in
246 the first instance be caused by high light and limited diffusion of CO₂,
247 caused by closed stomata (Tholen et al., 2012; Haworth et al., 2018).
248 Energy from high light may be directed to toxic oxygen compounds that
249 will react with enzymes and other substances in the cell, thus reducing the
250 capacity of the plant for photosynthesis. Conversely, high sub-stomatal
251 CO₂ concentrations observed in shade, rather than indicating damage
252 to the photosynthetic system, may be caused by plants maintaining high
253 stomatal conductance and in effect facilitating carbon absorption. Shade
254 thus has positive effects on CO₂ absorption and distribution in the leaves,
255 reflecting increased carboxylation.

256 The study of sub-stomatal CO₂ concentration is also important
257 because CO₂ gradients within the leaf affect the efficiency of the enzyme
258 fixing CO₂ into sugars (RubisCO) and the nitrogen use efficiency
259 (Evans & von Caemmerer, 1996). Limited information is available on the
260 effect of environmental conditions on sub-stomatal CO₂ concentration in
261 cocoa.

2.3 HEAT AND COCOA

High temperature is one of the main limiting factors for cocoa production (De Almeida & Valle, 2007). High temperature affects the physiology of plants, including the effects of changed stomatal frequency, chlorophyll synthesis (the green pigments in the leaf), enzyme activity and sugar transport (Lamaoui et al., 2018; Wisser et al., 2004).

2.3.1 *Photosynthesis*

As mentioned, stomata control CO₂ and water movement in and out of the plant through the pore area, the density on the leaf surface and the degree of opening. In cocoa, stomatal densities are higher for leaves developed under mild water stress (Carr & Lockwood, 2011; Huan et al., 1986), but are also higher in leaves developed in full sun compared to shaded leaves (De Almeida & Valle, 2007). In our heat experiment, seedlings in full sun had denser stomata per unit area than seedlings in shade, and heat increased the number of stomata produced per unit area under both full sun and shade. Such differences naturally affect photosynthetic performance, although knowledge on pore size is also needed to accurately assess potential rates of gas flux in and out of leaves.

Most enzymes, including those involved in photosynthesis, work faster with increasing temperatures until they reach the maximum level, where they start uncoiling and lose their function (denaturation). For example, temperatures above 40 °C destroyed the light harvesting complexes in the leaves of perennial plants such as fingered citron and reduced assimilation (Chen et al., 2012; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2013). Another temperature-dependent process affecting rates of photosynthesis is photorespiration. The enzyme fixing CO₂ into sugars, RubisCO, occasionally catalyzes a reaction called photorespiration where O₂ takes the place of CO₂. Photorespiration increases with temperature and leads to a declining net photosynthesis at high temperatures. Furthermore, high temperature inactivates the enzyme system, which transforms sugars into starch, resulting in accumulation of sugars, causing a downregulation of the rate of photosynthesis (Franck et al., 2006; Mathur et al., 2014).

In our heat experiment, we showed that photosynthesis of cocoa is affected by the growing temperature (Fig. 2.3). Temperature optima were between 31 and 33 °C (see also Avila-Lovera et al., 2016; Yapp, 1992) but were almost similar across treatments. The optimum temperature

298 range for photosynthesis coincided with the daily average environmental
 299 temperature of 29–33 °C in the experimental site. Having optimum
 300 temperature for photosynthesis close to the environmental temperature
 301 helps plants to thrive and function well in their environment (Slot &
 302 Winter, 2017). Above the optimum, the rate of photosynthesis declines
 303 due to photorespiration and, at higher temperatures, the denaturation of
 304 enzymes.

305 On the other hand, the actual levels of photosynthesis were affected by
 306 both shade and heat treatments. Photosynthetic capacity was higher for
 307 plants growing in full sun compared to shaded plants, and heat reduced
 308 the photosynthetic capacity considerably at all temperatures (Fig. 2.3).
 309 However, our analysis did not show interactions between sun/shade and
 310 heat/no-heat treatments, suggesting that shade could not prevent the loss
 311 of photosynthetic capacity caused by the heat treatments (Mensah et al.,
 312 2022).

313 Measurement of chlorophyll fluorescence showed that part of the
 314 decrease in photosynthesis seen under heat stress was caused by damages
 315 at photosystem II, which is the enzyme complex that fixes the energy from
 316 light by removing an electron from oxygen. Chlorophyll fluorescence

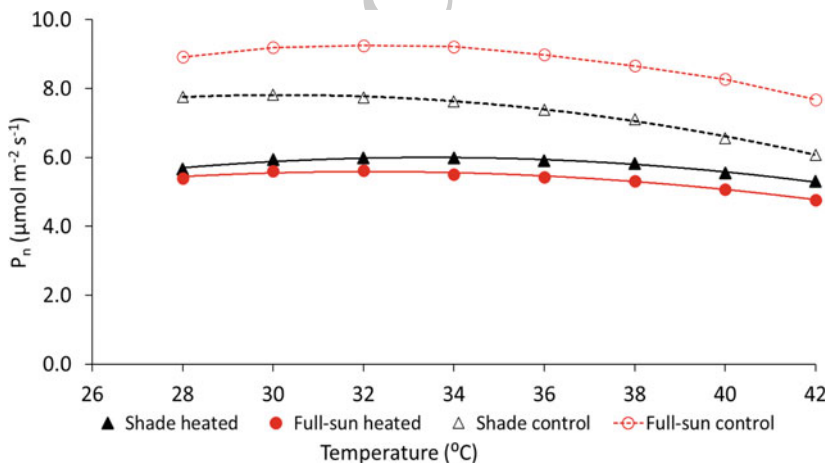


Fig. 2.3 Effects of shade and heat on the photosynthesis rate at different levels of temperature (Adapted from Mensah et al. [2022]. Creative Commons Attribution BY 4.0)

317 (F_v/F_m) reflects the photochemical activity of photosystem II (PSII) and
318 has previously been used to detect and quantify temperature-induced
319 changes in the photosynthetic system (Chen et al., 2012; Murchie &
320 Lawson, 2013). In our experiment, predawn chlorophyll fluorescence was
321 reduced from 0.80 in control treatments to 0.68 after 28 days of heat
322 imposition, indicating severe stress to the photosynthetic system.

323 Another cause for lower photosynthesis seems to be a changed concen-
324 tration and composition of the chlorophylls, the green pigments respon-
325 sible for capturing light for photosynthesis. We observed reduced leaf
326 chlorophyll contents under heat stress, suggesting impaired chlorophyll
327 biosynthesis (Datta et al., 2009). Also, the ratio between chlorophylls A
328 and B was affected (Mensah et al., 2022). Reduced chlorophyll contents
329 could reduce photosynthesis, resulting in substantial loss in plant produc-
330 tivity. Again, values under shade were higher, but effects were not strong
331 enough to prevent a decrease for the heated seedlings (Salazar et al.,
332 2018).

333 2.4 FLOWER AND POD DEVELOPMENT 334 UNDER HEAT AND DROUGHT STRESS

335 The flowering of cocoa starts eighteen months after planting for some
336 early yielding varieties, while for most varieties, this occurs between three
337 to five years (De Almeida & Valle, 2007). Only 0.5–5% of the flowers
338 develop into mature pods (Carr & Lockwood, 2011). Flowering inten-
339 sity, pod formation and sizes are affected by drought and heat. Pollen and
340 stigma viability, anthesis, pollen-tube growth and early embryo develop-
341 ment are all vulnerable to heat stress (Giorno et al., 2013; Lamaoui et al.,
342 2018). Increased rainfall promotes flushing and flower initiation in cocoa,
343 which is mostly followed by flower and fruit abortion in the dry season
344 (Frimpong-Anin et al., 2014). While flowers and fruits drop during the
345 dry season, mainly because of water stress, flower and fruit abortion in
346 the rainy season is a way for cocoa to manage the resources available
347 for the plants to develop pods (Handley, 2016; Stephenson, 1981). This
348 is affected by plant hormones, the positions of the flowers or the pods
349 on the plant, and rates of cross-pollination (Carr & Lockwood, 2011;
350 Handley, 2016).

351 Cocoa attains full potential yield between eight to ten years after
352 planting (De Almeida & Valle, 2007). The average yield is between 300
353 and 500 kg ha⁻¹ in West Africa (Bymolt et al., 2018) corresponding

354 to only a third of the potential yield (Aneani & Ofori-Frimpong, 2013;
355 MOFA, 2016). The low yields seem to be partly due to limitations in
356 water supply (Asante et al., 2022). In our study on shade and water-
357 exclusion effects, yields were generally between 200 and 700 kg ha⁻¹
358 per year depending on the suppression and/or the shade levels. Under
359 full rainwater, shade increased yields by about 23% compared to full-sun
360 conditions, while severe water exclusion reduced yields to as low as 59%.
361 While shade was beneficial under all levels of water supply, it was not
362 sufficient to prevent lower yields when water was restricted.

363 2.5 CONCLUSION

364 In West Africa, climate change is already having negative impacts on
365 cocoa production and therefore on cocoa farmers' livelihoods. All stake-
366 holders along the cocoa value chain (from cocoa farmers to purchasing
367 companies) are increasingly being affected, in Ghana as well as in the
368 neighbouring cocoa-producing countries. Field performance and yields
369 are expected to be reduced further due to increasing rainfall variability,
370 longer dry seasons and rising temperatures, making climate change the
371 key challenge faced by cocoa producers. Our results confirm that drought
372 and high temperatures have negative impacts on cocoa physiology, leading
373 to reduced yields. Shade, on the other hand, improves both physiologi-
374 cal performance and yields, thus confirming on-field research suggesting
375 that agroforestry systems may increase yields (see Chapter 3). Although
376 we recommend cultivation under shade, shade alone does not reduce the
377 negative impact of stresses sufficiently to prevent damage from extreme
378 climate change. Hence, while agroforestry represents an overall benefit
379 under medium to high rainfall conditions, it will be necessary to refine
380 agroforestry management using other climate-smart management inno-
381 vations to improve the performance of cocoa under the expected climate
382 change. This could include the following:

- 383 • Exploring the effects of irrigation systems under shade
- 384 • Selecting and managing tree species according to the local context
- 385 • Selecting cocoa rootstocks and varieties that are highly performant
386 under water-limiting conditions
- 387 • Studying shade tree-cacao interactions to understand cocoa physi-
388 ology under agroforestry conditions

- Identifying deep-rooted shade trees with limited competition with cocoa plants' root zones under drought stress.

Aside from climate, yields are influenced by a wide range of factors, including labour costs, diseases and pests, soil fertility, choice of cocoa variety, the age of cocoa trees, and the age and training of farmers (Abdulai et al., 2020). Higher yields may be possible with the use of technologies such as fertilization, pest and disease control, timely harvesting, pruning, supplemental irrigation and planting high-yielding cocoa cultivars (Laven & Boomsma, 2012). Any intervention regarding the use of shade will have to consider these factors, which are explored in more detail in other chapters of this book.

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