



Maximum fluorescence and electron transport kinetics determined by light-induced fluorescence transients (LIFT) for photosynthesis phenotyping

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Abstract

Photosynthetic phenotyping requires quick characterization of dynamic traits when measuring large plant numbers in a fluctuating environment. Here, we evaluated the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) method for its capacity to yield rapidly fluorometric parameters from 0.6 m distance. The close approximation of LIFT to conventional chlorophyll fluorescence (ChlF) parameters is shown under controlled conditions in spinach leaves and isolated thylakoids when electron transport was impaired by anoxic conditions or chemical inhibitors. The ChlF rise from minimum fluorescence (F_0) to maximum fluorescence induced by fast repetition rate (F_{m-FRR}) flashes was dominated by reduction of the primary electron acceptor in photosystem II (Q_A). The subsequent reoxidation of Q_A^- was quantified using the relaxation of ChlF in 0.65 ms (F_{r1}) and 120 ms (F_{r2}) phases. Reoxidation efficiency of Q_A^- (F_{r1}/F_v , where $F_v = F_{m-FRR} - F_0$) decreased when electron transport was impaired, while quantum efficiency of photosystem II (F_v/F_m) showed often no significant effect. ChlF relaxations of the LIFT were similar to an independent other method. Under increasing light intensities, F_{r2}'/F_q' (where F_{r2}' and F_q' represent F_{r2} and F_v in the light-adapted state, respectively) was hardly affected, whereas the operating efficiency of photosystem II (F_q'/F_m') decreased due to non-photochemical quenching. F_{m-FRR} was significantly lower than the ChlF maximum induced by multiple turnover (F_{m-MT}) flashes. However, the resulting F_v/F_m and F_q'/F_m' from both flashes were highly correlated. The LIFT method complements F_v/F_m with information about efficiency of electron transport. Measurements in situ and from a distance facilitate application in high-throughput and automated phenotyping.

Keywords Fluorescence transient · Photosynthesis · Fast repetition rate · Electron transport kinetics

Introduction

Photosynthetic processes, from light absorption by the chlorophyll-based pigments through charge separation in the photosystem II (PSII) reaction centers and sequential electron transport, are related to the redox state of the primary quinone electron acceptor (Q_A) and coupled to the signature of chlorophyll fluorescence (ChlF) (Kautsky and Hirsch 1931; Baker 2008; Müh et al. 2012). Based on ChlF, parameters such as the maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_v/F_m) and non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) estimating the proportion of absorbed light energy utilized for PSII photochemistry and non-photochemical energy dissipation, respectively, were established (Butler 1978; Baker 2008; Lazár 2013). The quick assessment of ChlF makes this signal a powerful tool for plant phenotyping (Furbank and Tester 2011; Fiorani and Schurr 2013). Phenotyping

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requires characterization of a large plant set which needs to be completed before significant changes in the measured traits occur. This is particularly difficult when phenotyping photosynthesis because this process is highly dynamic and sensitive to environmental conditions (Ananyev et al. 2005a; Kono and Terashima 2014).

In order to determine F_v/F_m , the ChlF signal is compared under conditions when Q_A is in a fully oxidized state resulting in minimal ChlF (F_o) respective to the fully reduced state resulting in maximal ChlF (F_m). Two approaches using strong light pulses are widely accepted to reduce Q_A fully: the single turnover flash (STF) and the multiple turnover flash (MTF) (Kalaji et al. 2017). A saturating STF has to provide high enough excitation power to induce one single charge separation in all PSII reaction centers and fully reduce Q_A in order to yield maximum ChlF level (F_{m-ST}) (Malkin and Kok 1966; Schreiber 1986a; Samson and Bruce 1996; Kolber et al. 1998; Steffen et al. 2001). The excitation flash needs to be short enough (from fs to few μ s) to prevent reoxidation of Q_A^- and reexcitation of PSII reaction centers (Malkin and Kok 1966; Belyaeva et al. 2014). In contrast, a saturating MTF requires at least 0.2-s duration of excitation at a few 1000 μ mol photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ (Ögren and Baker 1985; Schreiber et al. 1986b; Schreiber 2004). Within this time range, Q_A is reduced and reoxidized several times followed by reduction of the plastoquinone (PQ) pool and electron transfer to Photosystem I (PSI) (Vernotte et al. 1979; Schansker et al. 2005). MTFs ultimately result in an about 50% higher maximum ChlF level (F_{m-MT}) compared to F_{m-ST} (Schreiber 1986a; Schreiber et al. 1986b; Schansker et al. 2011). The difference between F_{m-ST} and F_{m-MT} was named the thermal phase because it is dependent on temperature, i.e., it is rate-limited (Delosme 1967). Later, the ChlF rise of the thermal phase was related to electron transport kinetics, particularly the accumulation of secondary quinone acceptors (Q_B) in a reduced state (Strasser et al. 1995; Lazár 2006). However, the origin of the thermal phase is not yet localized due to the complex and overlying kinetics of different electron transport processes (Rascher and Nedbal 2006; Müh et al. 2012) and the probable involvement of additional ChlF quenchers (Schansker et al. 2011, 2014; Prášil et al. 2018; Magyar et al. 2018).

Alternatively, electron transport kinetics in the dark-adapted state were studied by following reoxidation of Q_A^- coupled to ChlF relaxation after a STF (Vass et al. 1999; Petrouleas and Crofts 2005). According to an exponential decay model with three time constants, ChlF relaxes due to electron transport from Q_A^- to Q_B with a time constant (τ_1) of 0.1–0.2 ms when the Q_B site is occupied by a PQ (Bowes and Crofts 1980; Vass et al. 1999; Shinkarev 2004; Petrouleas and Crofts 2005). The second exponential component represents the reoxidation of Q_A^- which had initially no PQ molecule bound (Taoka

and Crofts 1990; Petrouleas and Crofts 2005). Therefore, this time constant (τ_2) represents the binding of PQ molecule to the Q_B site of PSII and is estimated to be between 2.2 and 10 ms (Vass et al. 1999; Eshaghi et al. 2000). The third component (τ_3) is slow (500 ms to seconds) and interpreted as a back reaction from Q_A^- to the donor side components of PSII, specifically the S_2 state of the oxygen evolving complex (OEC) (Robinson and Crofts 1983; Vass et al. 1999). Most of the existing ChlF-based techniques apply STFs either from a measuring head in direct contact with the leaf surface, or from a few cm distance. F_{m-ST} is then recorded from a dark-adapted sample with an oxidized electron transport chain (Vernotte et al. 1979; Schansker et al. 2014). This allows standardized examination and modeling of ChlF relaxation kinetics in the dark (Vass et al. 1999). However, these requirements are impractical under conditions of ambient illumination, specifically when the presence of light is required for manifestation of stress conditions in the targeted plants. One such example is temperature stress, where low temperature enhances the photodamage effects of excess light (Pieruschka et al. 2010). In addition, the conventional fluorometric techniques may not provide sufficient resolution and throughput to capture highly dynamic regulation of photosynthesis.

The light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) method probes PSII from a distance using subsaturating (actinic) measuring flashlets in fast repetition rate (FRR) (Kolber et al. 1998; Osmond et al. 2017). In contrast to other techniques, no separate saturating flash is required in the LIFT method because the FRR probe flashlets are used directly for that purpose. The short measuring time of 0.2 s allows integration into automated systems for phenotyping in high spatio-temporal resolution. Following application in marine research (Kolber et al. 1998; Suggett et al. 2001; Oxborough et al. 2012; Robinson et al. 2014), a stationary LIFT system was installed for monitoring plant canopy from a distance of 50 m using laser excitation (Pieruschka et al. 2010, 2014; Raesch et al. 2014). Operating efficiency of PSII (F_q'/F_m') measured with this previous LIFT system correlated well with pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) measurements ($R^2 = 0.89$) and CO_2 assimilation rates ($R^2 = 0.94$) (Ananyev et al. 2005a; Pieruschka et al. 2010, 2014).

Here, we evaluated a newly developed LIFT device for its capacity to yield robust fluorometric parameters useful in plant phenotyping. Parameters as maximum ChlF induced by FRR flash (F_{m-FRR}) and Q_A^- reoxidation efficiency in 0.65 ms (F_{r1}/F_v) and 120 ms (F_{r2}/F_v) relaxation phases were introduced. The parameters were determined in isolated thylakoids and intact plants subjected to different treatments (electron transport inhibitors, anaerobiosis, or light) and approximated well-established ChlF parameters.

Materials and methods

Plant cultivation

In total, 36 spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) plants of genotype *Matador* were grown in the greenhouse in Jülich, Germany, under 16-h/8-h day/night cycle at 20 °C/18 °C. Light intensity was kept automatically between 60 and 300 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ using additional lamps or shading nets. 400-mL pots were filled with a turf-clay substrate (ED73, Einheitserdewerke, Sinntal-Altengronau, Germany). Plants were watered automatically twice a day during cultivation. Measurements were performed using plants 28 or 32 days after sowing.

Isolation of thylakoids and PSII enriched membrane particles

For isolation of spinach thylakoids and PSII-enriched thylakoid membrane particles (BBY particles), fresh spinach leaves were bought from a local supermarket in Szeged, Hungary, and prepared as described in Berthold et al. (1981). For measurements with LIFT and FL3000, the final concentration of thylakoids was adjusted to equivalent chlorophyll *a* concentration of 10 μM ($\sim 10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$).

DCMU and DBMIB treatment

To manipulate the ChlF relaxation kinetics in thylakoid samples, we used 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) and 2,5-dibromo-5-methyl-6-isopropyl-benzoquinone (DBMIB), which inhibit selectively the reoxidation of Q_A^- in PSII and of PQH_2 at the $\text{cyt b}_6\text{f}$ complex, respectively (Lázár et al. 2001; Kurisu et al. 2003). A thylakoid suspension of 3 mL was transferred to transparent plastic cuvettes. After 5-min dark-adaption, DCMU and DBMIB were added to final concentration of 5 μM ($1.17 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) and 0.66 μM ($0.213 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$), respectively. Samples were stirred manually and followed by either LIFT or FL3000 measurements using FRR flash for 0.75 ms ($\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$) or STF, respectively. The number of technical replicates was 3–5. In addition, intact leaves were treated with DCMU to observe ChlF induction curves under conditions of blocked electron transport between Q_A and Q_B . Plants were dark-adapted overnight, then fully expanded leaves were left untreated or were subjected to 200 μM DCMU in 50 mL Milli-Q water (Tóth et al. 2005). The control was left untreated because a control with 1% ethanol in distilled water showed no effect on F_m and little effect on the ChlF rise compared to untreated leaves (Tóth et al. 2005). However, no ethanol was used in the DCMU solution to avoid possible side

effects (Haldimann and Tsimilli-Michael 2005). DCMU was grinded to powder in order to dissolve it better in water. In the dark, one leaf per plant was left for 6 h in DCMU solution, then wiped and left for 30 min in the air. Measurements on attached leaves were done using 5 $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ followed by one MTF for 750 ms ($\text{MTF}_{750\text{ms}}$). Only the first of the 5 $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ is shown in the result section. Measurements were replicated with six different plants.

Anaerobic treatment under nitrogen atmosphere

Oxygen depletion inhibits the plastid terminal oxidase (PTOX), which normally keeps PQ in an oxidized state in the dark (Bohme et al. 1971; Cournac et al. 2000; Feilke et al. 2014). Anoxic treatment was used to manipulate the level of PQ reduction non-invasively in living plants (Tóth et al. 2007b). The anoxic atmosphere was maintained in the LI-COR 6400 transparent 2×3 cm chamber head (LI-COR, Inc., Nebraska USA) using nitrogen gas (N_2). Air inflow into the chamber came either from the ambient air (as control, with 400 ppm CO_2) or from N_2 gas supply without oxygen (containing < 1.5 ppm CO_2). The air flow rate during the measurements was 300 $\mu\text{mol air s}^{-1}$, and the block temperature of the LI-COR was kept at 20 °C. Prior to measurements, plants were dark-adapted overnight. A fully expanded leaf was inserted into the chamber and measured with the LIFT instrument through the transparent front window. Measurements were started after 5-min exposure to control or N_2 atmosphere using 5 $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ followed by one $\text{MTF}_{750\text{ms}}$. After another 5 min, measurements were repeated using 5 FRR flashes for 2.5 ms ($\text{FRRF}_{2.5\text{ms}}$). Each first flash of the 5 $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ and 5 $\text{FRRF}_{2.5\text{ms}}$ is shown the result section. Measurements were replicated with six different plants.

Light response curves

To study electron transport kinetics of light-adapted plants, control plants of the N_2 atmosphere experiment were subjected to increasing levels of blue light provided by the LED (445 nm) light source of the LIFT instrument. The size of the illumination spot was around 3 cm^2 . A light response measurement consisted of a total of 160 $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ triggered at a 5-s interval. At every light intensity (30, 100, 300, 700 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), ChlF was monitored over a period of 200 s by applying 40 consecutive $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$. Light response curves were replicated with six different plants.

Fluorescence measurements

Different methods have been developed to separate absolute ChlF intensity and background radiation from relative

Table 1 Different excitation protocols are shown: Fast repetition rate flash for 0.75 ms (FRRF_{0.75ms}) and for 2.5 ms (FRRF_{2.5ms}) as well as saturating multiple turnover flash for 750 ms (MTF_{750ms}). In the induction phase, flashlet interval is constant for given amount of

flashlets and interval, while it increases exponentially in the relaxation phase to allow reoxidation of the primary quinone acceptor (Q_A). Flashlet length is always 1.6 μs and has in all flashes the same specified excitation power

Excitation protocol	Induction phase (ms)	Number of flashlets in induction phase	Flashlet interval in induction phase (μs)	Relaxation phase (ms)	Number of flashlets in relaxation phase	Flashlet length (μs)
FRRF _{0.75ms}	0.75	300	2.5	209	127	1.6
FRRF _{2.5ms}	2.5	1000	2.5	209	127	1.6
MTF _{750ms}	750	7500	100	1975	127	1.6

longer flashes. This resulted in the lower excitation power. Excitation power was measured at 1% duty cycle using a 5-s calibration flash measured by a quantum sensor (LI-190R, LI-COR, Inc.) and then extrapolated to 100%. For application of constant actinic light, the intensity of the blue LIFT LED in DC mode was calibrated using a quantum sensor (LI-190R, LI-COR, Inc.) at 0.6-m distance.

Analysis of LIFT and FL3000 raw data

For the calculation of F_v/F_m , the variable ChlF (F_v) is the difference between F_m and F_o . In the LIFT analysis, F_m is represented by F_{m-FRR} as the averaged ChlF yield of 301st–302nd flashlet. F_o is the ChlF yield of the first flashlet (Fig. 1). In the FL3000 analysis, F_m is represented by F_{m-ST} and measured 0.15 ms after the STF. F_o is measured before the STF. The Q_A[−] reoxidation efficiency is calculated from the ChlF relaxation kinetics as follows:

$$F_{r1,2}/F_v = (F_v \times t_{1,2} - \sum F_i \times j_i) / (F_v \times t_{1,2})$$

Here, F_i is the ChlF yield in the relaxation phase at flashlet i . F_i is multiplied by j_i and summed up to represent the area of ChlF relaxation up to $t_1 = 0.65$ ms (for F_{r1}) and $t_2 = 120$ ms (for F_{r2}). In case of the FL3000 data, the time points for t_1 and t_2 were 0.52 ms and 100 ms after the STF, respectively, due to different relaxation protocols. The light-adapted states of F_o , F_{m-FRR} , F_v , and $F_{r1,2}$ are denoted as F' , F_{m-FRR}' , F_q' , and $F_{r1,2}'$, respectively.

Statistics

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to calculate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) followed by Tukey's test for pairwise comparison. Due to the small sample size ($n < 7$), normal distribution and homogeneity of variance were assumed. Analysis was done by R program using the *multcomp* package.

Results

Photosynthetic characteristics were studied by measuring light-induced ChlF transients using both the modulated LIFT and the double-modulated FL3000 device with an emphasis on the properties of electron transport from PSII towards PSI.

Determination of F_m levels and electron transport kinetics

We used the FRRF_{0.75ms} and MTF_{750ms} protocol to study the Induction of F_{m-FRR} and F_{m-MT} , respectively (Table 1). The F_{m-FRR} in control leaves was significantly lower than F_{m-MT} (Figs. 1, 2a, b). Under control conditions, F_{m-FRR} saturated earliest at about 0.25 ms depending on the excitation power (Fig. S1). At the end of the induction phase, a small peak of ChlF occurs pointing towards a minor ChlF quenching during the high excitation power of the FRRF_{0.75ms}. These spikes contributed to F_{m-FRR} resulting in F_v/F_m values independent of the excitation power. In contrast, F_{m-MT} in intact leaves was reached after 750 ms and showed the same F_{m-MT} as in the presence of DCMU (Fig. 2b).

We studied ChlF relaxation on attached leaves in the dark by using FRRF_{0.75ms} under control and N₂ atmosphere. The absence of O₂ in the latter condition prevents reoxidation of the PQ pool in the dark (Tóth et al. 2007b). After 5 min in the N₂ atmosphere, ChlF relaxation phase was significantly altered compared to control conditions (Fig. 2a). While F_v/F_m did not change under control and N₂ atmosphere, F_{r1}/F_v in the N₂ atmosphere decreased significantly to 0.16 (± 0.01) compared to 0.18 (± 0.01) in the control (Fig. 3). In contrast, F_{r2}/F_v was significantly increased in the N₂ atmosphere compared to the control. Notably, also the ChlF induction phase of MTF_{750ms} differed in N₂ atmosphere compared to control (Fig. 2b). Following MTF_{750ms}, we kept the plants for additional 5 min under the control or N₂ atmosphere. This allowed S-states of the OEC to relax in the dark (Kolber et al. 1998), whereas the PQ pool remained reduced in the N₂ atmosphere. Then a subsequent measurement using FRRF_{2.5ms} was initiated. F_{m-FRR} in the control

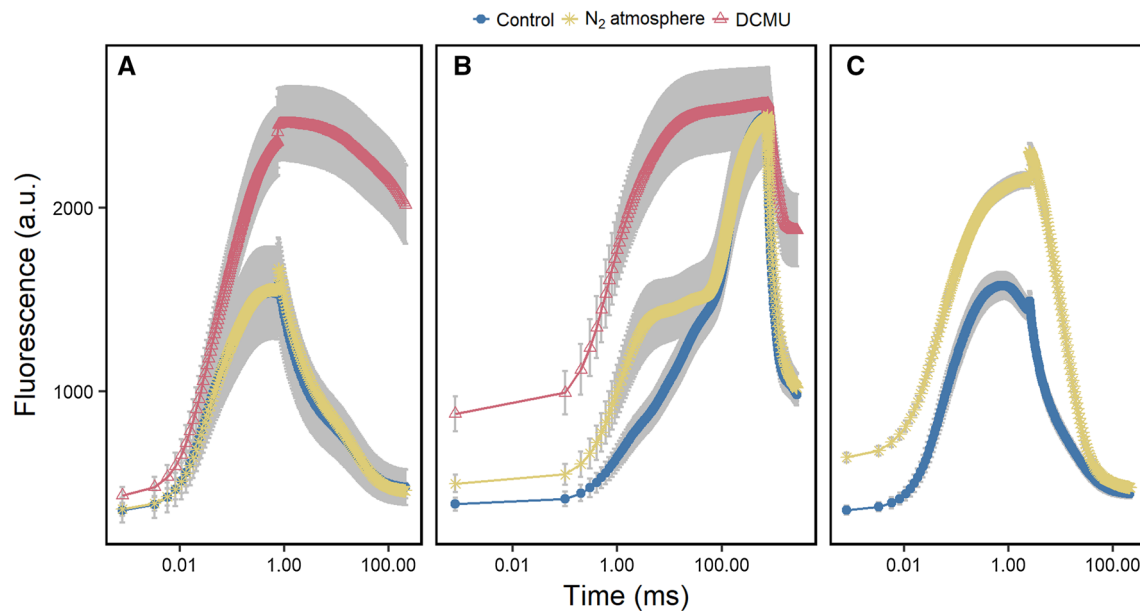


Fig. 2 Dark-adapted spinach leaves were subjected to a 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) treatment and nitrogen (N_2) atmosphere, which prevent reoxidation of the primary quinone acceptor (Q_A), and plastoquinone (PQ) pool in the dark, respectively. Under those treatments, fast repetition rate flash for 0.75 ms (FRRF_{0.75ms}, **a**), multiple turnover flash (MTF_{750ms}, **b**), and fast repetition rate flash for 2.5 ms (FRRF_{2.5ms}, **c**) were used to study

chlorophyll fluorescence induction and relaxation. FRRF_{0.75ms} was performed after 5 min in control or N_2 atmosphere (for DCMU treatment see “Materials and methods” section). MTF_{750ms} was performed after FRRF_{0.75ms}. FRRF_{2.5ms} was performed after additional 5 min in control or N_2 atmosphere. Chlorophyll fluorescence transients are presented on a logarithmic time scale. Error bars showing standard deviation of the mean ($n=6$ plants)

treatment was reached at around 750 μ s and then the ChlF signal started to decline (Fig. 2c). In the N_2 atmosphere, the ChlF level continued to increase during the FRRF_{2.5ms} without reaching saturation. This resulted in a significantly increased F_{m-FRR} relative to the control. In addition, F_o levels were higher in the N_2 atmosphere compared to control in the subsequent flashes (Fig. 2b, c). This led to significantly lowered F_v/F_m under N_2 atmosphere using FRRF_{2.5ms} (p value < 0.001). In summary, F_{m-MT} induction in untreated leaves using MTF_{750ms} was confirmed by the same F_m induced in DCMU-treated leaves. Full saturation of F_{m-FRR} level was confirmed using FRRF_{2.5ms} under two conditions: (1) plants were in controlled, aerobic conditions (PQ pool was oxidized); and (2) the leaf was fully dark-adapted (OEC mainly in the S_1 -state) (Delosme and Joliot 2002). The influence of increased PQ pool reduction was reflected in decreased F_{r1}/F_v , and increased F_o and F_{m-FRR} .

Comparison of electron transport kinetics measured by the LIFT and FL3000 device

We compared the ChlF relaxation kinetics acquired by the modulated LIFT to those of the double-modulated FL3000 device. For that purpose, we treated the thylakoids with different electron transport inhibitors. The two methods resulted in similar ChlF relaxation curves (Fig. 4). The

F_v/F_m values calculated from the LIFT measurements ranged between $0.58 (\pm 0.01)$ for BBY and $0.7 (\pm 0.02)$ for thylakoids (Fig. 5a). The FL3000 device showed generally lower F_v/F_m values: $0.31 (\pm 0.04)$ for BBY particles and $0.49 (\pm 0.02)$ for thylakoids (Fig. 5b). In BBY particles, electron transport is impaired after the Q_B site since the PQ pool is partly, and the PSI fully removed (Berthold et al. 1981). DBMIB binds to the cytb₆f complex, which blocks the reoxidation of the PQ pool (Bohme et al. 1971). Consequently, BBYs and DBMIB-treated thylakoids showed slower ChlF relaxation kinetics compared to thylakoids, resulting in significantly lower F_{r1}/F_v and F_{r2}/F_v values in both methods (Fig. 5c–f). F_{r1}/F_v for the LIFT device ranged from $0.21 (\pm 0.008)$ for thylakoids to $0.04 (\pm 0.008)$ for BBY (Fig. 5c). The F_{r1}/F_v values calculated from the FL3000 measurements were in general higher (e.g., $0.34 (\pm 0.025)$ for thylakoids and $0.1 (\pm 0.013)$ for BBY, Fig. 5d) but showed the same tendency as in the LIFT measurements. F_{r2}/F_v showed increasing difference between the control and treated samples reflecting impaired electron transport (Fig. 5e, f). In summary, F_{r1}/F_v and F_{r2}/F_v measured with both devices responded specifically to the treatments which block electron transport at different steps.

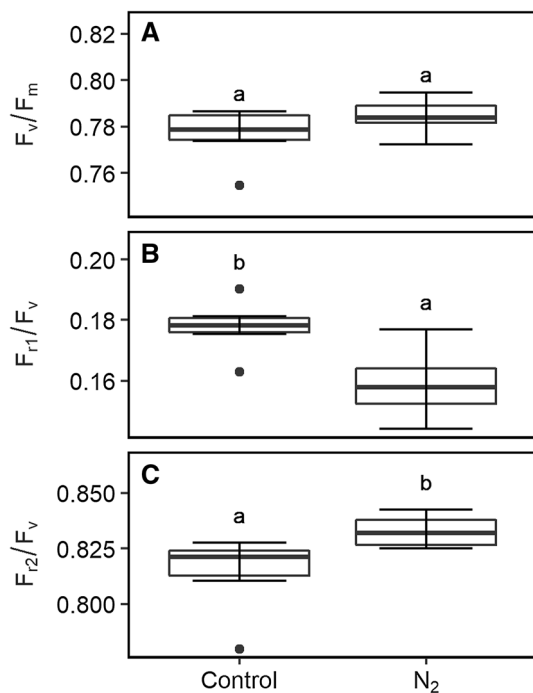


Fig. 3 Boxplot of quantum efficiency of the photosystem II (F_v/F_m , **a**), efficiency of primary quinone acceptor (Q_A) reoxidation in 0.65 ms (F_{t1}/F_v , **b**), and 120 ms (F_{t2}/F_v , **c**) relaxation phases of dark-adapted attached spinach leaves are shown. Measurements took place 5 min after exposure to control or nitrogen (N_2) atmosphere. Parameters were obtained using fast repetition rate flash (FRRF_{0.75ms}) of the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) instrument. Box represents inter-quartile range, bold horizontal bar the median, the discontinuous lines the upper and lower quartile, and outlier data points ($>1.5 \times$ inter-quartile range) are depicted by a point ($n=6$ plants). Boxes labeled with different letters differ significantly from each other according to Tukey's multiple comparisons of means

Electron transport kinetics measured under ambient light

We measured light-response curves on attached spinach leaves in order to follow the light saturation of electron transport rate. F' initially increased with increasing light intensities, but this increase was then reversed, most likely due to NPQ formation (Fig. 6a). Simultaneously, F_{m-FRR}' decreased in response to increasing light intensities due to NPQ formation. F_{m-FRR}' showed smaller absolute differences than F_{m-MT}' compared to the corresponding dark-adapted states (Fig. 6b).

The F_q'/F_m' values we obtained with the FRRF_{0.75ms} protocol correlated highly with F_q'/F_m' values we retrieved with the MTF_{750ms} protocol ($r^2=0.99$) during the measurements of blue-light response curves (Fig. 7). This demonstrates that FRRF_{0.75ms} and MTF_{750ms} measurements result in basically the same parameters with the exception of an offset, at least under these standard conditions. Increasing light intensities resulted in a significant decrease in the F_q'/F_m' (Fig. 8a). In

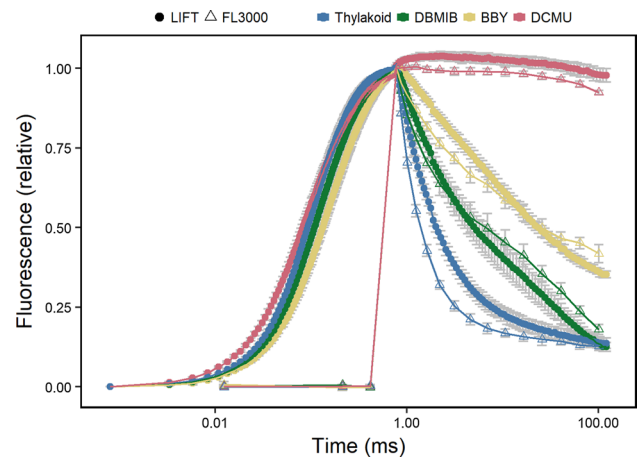


Fig. 4 Chlorophyll fluorescence transients of isolated spinach thylakoids and photosystem II particles (BBY) are presented on a logarithmic time scale. The measurements were performed either by the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) device (closed circles) or with the double-modulated FL3000 fluorometer (open triangles). Thylakoid samples (10 μg chlorophyll/mL) were either untreated, or treated with 5 μM 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) or 0.66 μM 2,5-dibromo-5-methyl-6-isopropyl-benzoquinone (DBMIB). Chlorophyll fluorescence signals are double normalized so that the signal starts from 0 for measured minimum fluorescence (F_o), and has a total amplitude of 1. Chemicals were added in the dark and samples were dark-adapted for 3 min before measurement. Error bars show standard deviation ($n=5$, except DCMU FL3000 and DBMIB FL3000 $n=3$)

contrast, F_{r1}'/F_q' and F_{r2}'/F_q' were less affected by the higher light intensities (Fig. 8b, c). Upon dark to light transition at 30 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, F_{r1}'/F_q' decreased from 0.18 (± 0.009) to 0.10 (± 0.023) and increased to 0.2 (± 0.01) at the last two light intensities. F_{r2}'/F_q' increased from 0.81 (± 0.018) to 0.95 (± 0.035) and then was stabilized at 0.89 (± 0.02) at the higher light intensities. F_{r1}'/F_q' measured in the light was not significantly different from dark-adapted values, with the exception of the initial light step at 30 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. In summary, ChlF relaxation kinetics in the light were little affected by increasing light intensities and NPQ, whereas F_q'/F_m' decreased.

Discussion

We induced ChlF transients by using different LIFT-FRR excitation protocols (FRRF_{0.75ms} and MTF_{750ms}) at 0.6 m distance (Fig. 1). F_v/F_m and F_q'/F_m' were highly correlated between the two protocols (Fig. 7). Furthermore, we characterized a range of photo-physiological properties with an emphasis on the kinetics of electron transport from PSII towards PSI. These kinetics are determined by the well-established architecture of photosynthetic linear electron transport chain and can be observed via ChlF relaxation

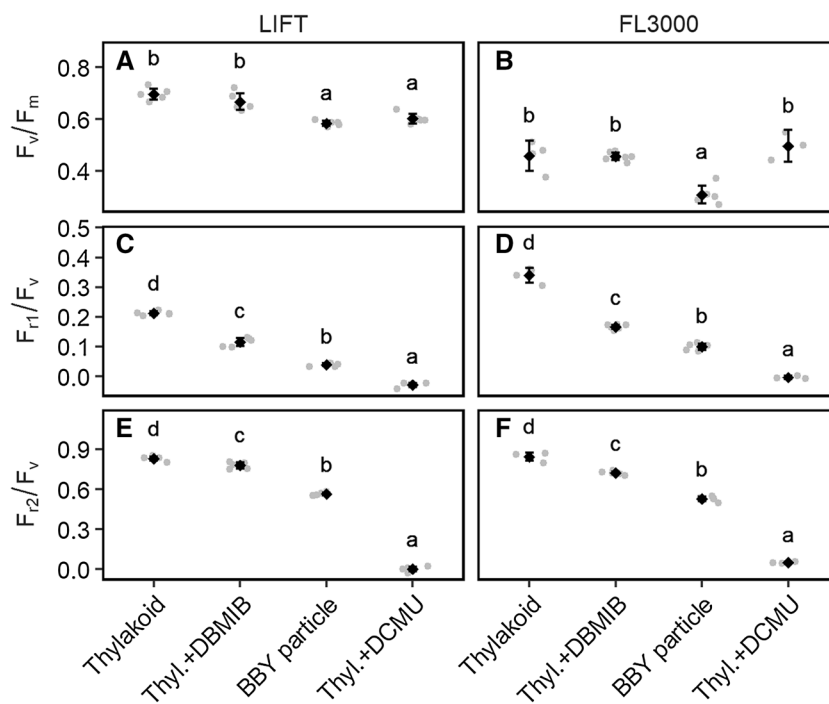
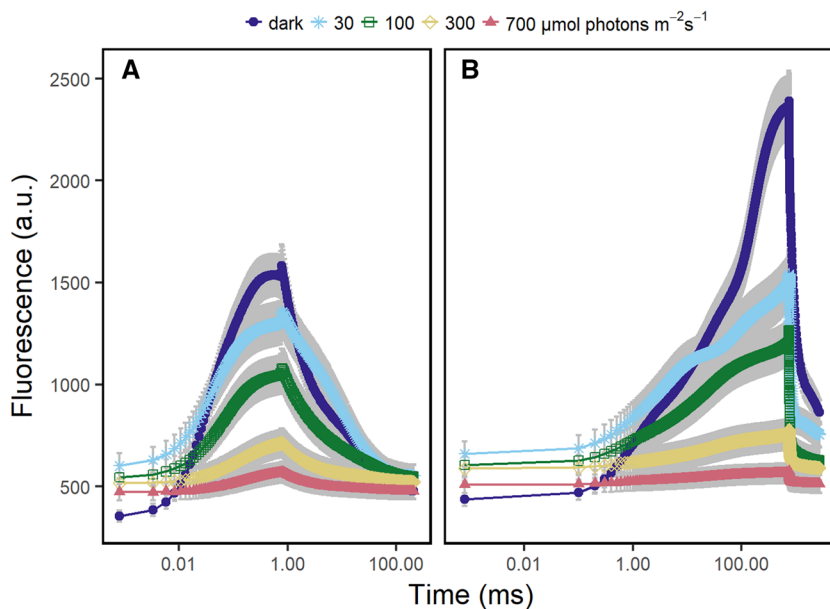


Fig. 5 Comparison of photosystem II quantum efficiency (F_v/F_m , **a**, **b**) and efficiency of primary quinone acceptor (Q_A) reoxidation in 0.65 ms (F_{m1}/F_v , **c**, **d**), and 120 ms (F_{m2}/F_v , **e**, **f**) relaxation phases in dark-adapted state acquired by light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) and double-modulated FL3000 fluorometer. Measurements were carried out on isolated spinach thylakoids and BBY particles. Thylakoid samples (10 μg chlorophyll/mL) were either untreated or treated with 5 μM 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU)

or 0.66 μM 2,5-dibromo-5-methyl-6-isopropyl-benzoquinone (DBMIB), resulting in different chlorophyll fluorescence relaxations as shown in Fig. 4. Black diamonds show mean values and error bars indicate the 95% confidence intervals. Individual data points are depicted by a grey point ($n=5$, except DCMU FL3000 and DBMIB FL3000 $n=3$). Means labeled with different letters differ significantly from each other according to Tukey's multiple comparisons of means

Fig. 6 Chlorophyll fluorescence response of attached spinach leaves measured under different intensities of background irradiance by the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) instrument. Leaves were exposed to 0 (dark-adapted), 30, 100, 300, and 700 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light (445 nm). Fast repetition rate flash (FRRF_{0.75ms}, **a**) and multiple turnover flash (MTF_{750ms}, **b**) were performed on dark-adapted samples and after reaching the steady state at each light intensity (after 3 min). Chlorophyll fluorescence transients are presented on a logarithmic time scale. Error bars show the standard error of the mean ($n=6$ plants)



reflecting the kinetics of Q_A^- reoxidation (Vass et al. 1999). Efficiency of Q_A^- reoxidation was assessed in 0.65 ms and 120 ms relaxation phases after the FRR excitation, expressed

in the F_{m1}/F_v and F_{m2}/F_v parameter, respectively. These simple parameters reflect the overall reoxidation of Q_A^- during the indicated time periods. In the light, F_{m2}'/F reflected

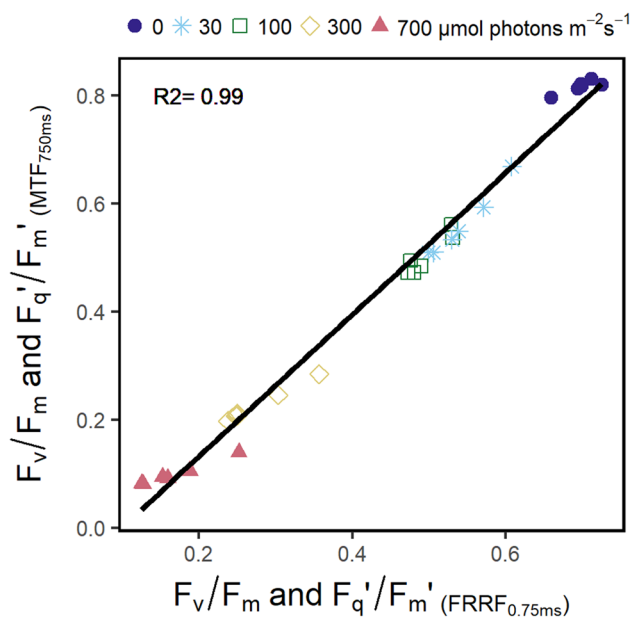


Fig. 7 Correlation of quantum efficiency of the photosystem II in the dark-adapted state (F_v/F_m) and the light-adapted state (F_q'/F_m') obtained by fast repetition rate flash (FRRF_{0.75ms}) and multiple turnover flash (MTF_{750ms}) during a blue-light response curve of spinach leaves. Maximum fluorescence (F_m in the dark and F_m' in the light) represents chlorophyll fluorescence yield of the averaged 300th and 301st flashlet of the FRRF_{0.75ms} respective the yield of the 7500th flashlet in case of the MTF_{750ms}. Variable fluorescence (F_v in the dark or F_q' in the light) is the difference between F_m or F_m' and the chlorophyll fluorescence yield of the first flashlet (F_o in the dark or F' in the light). The regression formula was $y = -0.13 + 1.31 \times x$. Measurements were performed using the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) device ($n=6$ plants)

electron transport capacity from Q_A towards PSI and was far less sensitive to increasing light intensities than F'/F_m' (Fig. 8). The results provide additional information about electron transport, which are not reflected by the F_v/F_m parameter.

Maximum fluorescence

We demonstrated ChlF induction at 0.6 m distance by using the LIFT instrument on attached spinach leaves. F_{m-MT} in the control leaves was reached at 750 ms after multiple turnover of PSII reaction centers (Fig. 2b). That F_{m-MT} was indeed saturated by using MTF_{750ms}, was confirmed by using the DCMU treatment, which showed the same ChlF level. DCMU inhibits Q_A^- reoxidation and induces F_{m-MT} in intact leaves (Tóth et al. 2005). In contrast to F_{m-MT} , F_{m-ST} is reached within 40 to 60 μs within one full turnover of the PSII reaction centers (Kolber et al. 1998; Nedbal et al. 1999; Belyaeva et al. 2014). The level of F_{m-ST} is about 50% lower compared to F_{m-MT} and is based on fully reduced Q_A (e.g., Samson

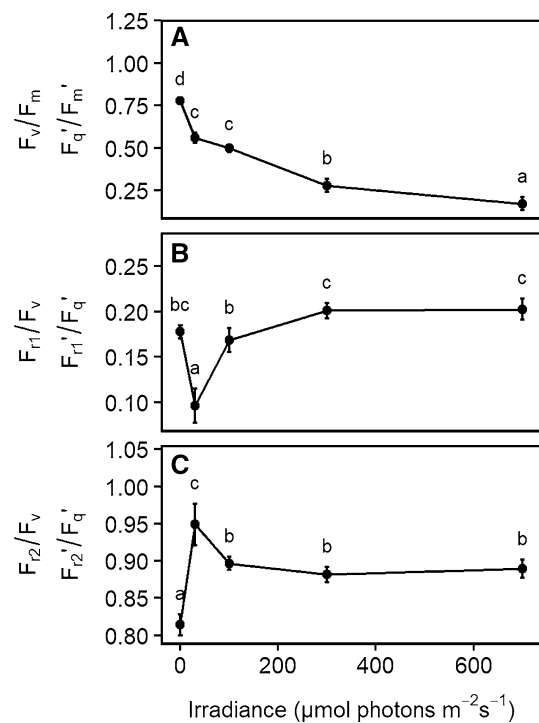


Fig. 8 Quantum efficiency of the photosystem II (F_v/F_m in the dark, and F_q'/F_m' in the light, **a**) and efficiency of primary quinone acceptor (Q_A) reoxidation in 0.65 ms (F_{r1}/F_v in the dark, and F_{r1}'/F_q' in the light, **b**,) and 120 ms (F_{r2}/F_v in the dark, and F_{r2}'/F_q' in the light, **c**) relaxation phases of attached spinach leaves were measured under different intensities of background irradiance. Parameters were acquired using fast repetition rate flash (FRRF_{0.75ms}) of the light-induced fluorescence transient (LIFT) instrument. Black dots show mean values and error bars indicate the 95% confident interval ($n=6$ plants). Means labeled with different letters differ significantly from each other according to Tukey's multiple comparisons of means

and Bruce 1996; Schansker et al. 2014). The difference between F_{m-MT} and F_{m-ST} is suggested to be caused by additional ChlF quenchers that are removed during multiple turnovers (Delosme 1967; Kalaji et al. 2017). In this study, the F_{m-FRR} induced by FRRF_{0.75ms} saturated at about 0.25 ms at highest excitation power of 40,000 μmol photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ (Fig. S1). Within this time range, the OEC is already in the second turnover and Q_A^- is once reoxidized by Q_B (Ananyev and Dismukes 2005b; Pérez-Navarro et al. 2016). The reoxidation of Q_A^- by Q_B and Q_B^- has time constants of 0.2 ms and 0.7 ms, respectively (Bowes and Crofts 1980; de Wijn and van Gorkom 2001; Tomek et al. 2001). The second time constants may vary with respect to the kinetics of H^+ uptake by Q_B^- (Petrouleas and Crofts 2005). The saturating behavior of F_{m-FRR} strongly indicates that photochemical processes stabilized within the FRRF_{0.75ms} (Fig. S1). In agreement, the derived F_v/F_m values were independent from the used excitation power. We conclude that F_{m-FRR} reflected fully reduced Q_A mainly associated with Q_B^- .

Using the $\text{FRRF}_{2.5\text{ms}}$ protocol, $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ declined after reaching a plateau under control conditions (Fig. 2c). This behavior was only observed when the PQ pool was oxidized and the sample was dark-adapted. Similarly, the polyphasic ChlF rise during a MTF of 15,000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ records a local ChlF maximum at about 2 ms (J-step) (Schreiber 1986a; Tóth et al. 2007a; Schansker et al. 2011). This ChlF peak appears only when the sample is in the S_1 -state, i.e., dark-adapted (Strasser 1997). In the ChlF decline, Q_A reduction is overcome by Q_A^- reoxidation via the oxidized PSII primary donor ($P680^+$), which accumulates during the slow S_3 – S_4 transition of the OEC (Schansker et al. 2011; Kalaji et al. 2017). The phase of ChlF decline matches time wise with the formation of Q_B^{2-} (Bowes and Crofts 1980; de Wijn and van Gorkom 2001). After 2 ms, electron delivery of the OEC proceeds and re-reduction of Q_A , further accumulation of Q_B^{2-} and exchange of Q_B^{2-} by an oxidized PQ takes place (Petrouleas and Crofts 2005). These processes lead to an increasing ChlF signal during a MTF, known as thermal phase (Delosme 1967; Lazár 2006). It was shown before that PQ pool reduction leads to a higher ChlF signal by releasing non-photochemically quenched ChlF (Vernotte et al. 1979; Haldimann and Tsimilli-Michael 2005). In agreement, $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ increased without reaching saturation when the PQ pool was already reduced in the dark (Fig. 2c). Similarly, F_o under N_2 atmosphere was also higher than in the control but was the same in the subsequent $\text{FRRF}_{2.5\text{ms}}$ (p value = 0.403, data not shown) due to reoxidation of PQ pool during the flash. F_o yield was shown to be dependent on PQ redox state and can be recovered by far-red light pulse (Diner 1977; Hohmann-Marriott et al. 2010; Kalaji et al. 2017). However, this additional ChlF quenching is probably not directly controlled by the PQ pool (Tóth et al. 2005). It may be induced by the occupancy of the Q_B -pocket or by conformational changes in the PSII complex (Falkowski et al. 2004; Schansker et al. 2014; Magyar et al. 2018; Prášil et al. 2018). This might explain that $F_{\text{m-ST}}$ (when only Q_A is reduced) cannot surpass the ChlF level at the J-step (Schreiber 1986a). Another reason for the lower $F_{\text{m-ST}}$ compared to the J-step might be that STF induced a quenching mechanism during the reduction phase of Q_A . At the end of the $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ induction phase, when changing from fast to low repetition rate flashlets, we noticed an instantaneous ChlF spike (Fig. S1). This indicates a fast-relaxing quenching mechanism. It was suggested earlier that carotenoid triplets quench ChlF within μs when operating with flashes at high excitation power (Schödel et al. 1999; Steffen et al. 2001; Braslavsky and Holzwarth 2012; Belyaeva et al. 2014). In summary, saturated $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ differs from $F_{\text{m-ST}}$ in the reduction of Q_B to Q_B^- while Q_A is fully re-reduced. $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ and $F_{\text{m-ST}}$ are expected to be comparable since Q_B^- is not known to quench any ChlF (Schansker et al. 2011). The saturation of $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ after 0.25 ms indicates that

Q_B^{2-} was not formed. The $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ differs from the J-step in the redox state of the OEC and the accumulation of Q_B^{2-} which influence ChlF (see also Osmond et al. 2017). When reaching $F_{\text{m-MT}}$, at least one additional quencher is removed increasing ChlF signal by a still unclear mechanism (Magyar et al. 2018; Prášil et al. 2018).

Validation of electron transport kinetics

Anaerobiosis inhibits PQ pool reoxidation in the dark (Bohme et al. 1971; Cournac et al. 2000; Feilke et al. 2014). As expected, reduced PQ pool under N_2 atmosphere affected ChlF relaxation and decreased F_{r1}/F_v compared to control (Fig. 3b). ChlF relaxation was compared between the modulated LIFT-FRR and the double-modulated FL3000 device. The two devices measured similar qualitative responses comparable to earlier studies (Deák et al. 2014). However, Q_A^- reoxidation was faster in the first milliseconds when measuring with the double-modulated FL3000 than the LIFT device (Fig. 4). This might be due to the shorter duration of the STF than $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$, where the latter reduced Q_B already. In addition, the FRR flashlets have an actinic effect, which partially reduce Q_A and slow down the Q_A^- reoxidation kinetics. The STF of the FL3000 device with 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ was probably not saturating resulting in the lower F_v/F_m values compared to the values derived by the LIFT device. In summary, a wide range of impaired electron transport processes were detected using the ChlF relaxation parameters F_{r1}/F_v and F_{r2}/F_v derived either by the LIFT or the FL3000 device.

Measurements in the light and effect on electron transport kinetics

In the dark, the $F_{\text{m-FRR}}$ yield was linked to PQ redox state and S-state of the OEC. The situation is different in the light because NPQ occurs and S-states are randomized. $F_{\text{m-FRR}}'$ was interpreted as equilibrium of Q_A reduction, NPQ and subsequent Q_A^- reoxidation (Fig. 6a, Osmond et al. 2017). Accordingly, $F_{\text{m-MT}}'$ in the light does not reach saturation because NPQ limits light harvesting and electron transport quenches ChlF very efficiently (Loriaux et al. 2013). The $\text{MTF}_{750\text{ms}}$ with rather low excitation power (1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) limited $F_{\text{m-MT}}'$ saturation additionally. However, F_q'/F_m' derived by $\text{FRRF}_{0.75\text{ms}}$ during the measurement of blue-light response curve correlated highly with F_q'/F_m' derived by $\text{MTF}_{750\text{ms}}$ ($R^2 = 0.99$) (Fig. 7). Correspondingly, F_q'/F_m' derived with a previous LIFT device using FRR flashes was shown to be well-correlated to the values measured by a PAM device ($R^2 = 0.89$) (Pieruschka et al. 2010, 2014). Comparable results were also shown by Samson et al. (1999) who carried out a similar experiment using STF and MTF. Dark-light transition at 30 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

was clearly separated based on the transient shape and the derived F_{r1}'/F_q' and F_{r2}'/F_q' values (Fig. 8). The strong initial response upon illumination appears to represent transition from the dark-adapted state of inactive electron transport to a light-stimulated state of engaged electron transport, e.g., activation of RUBISCO in the first few minutes of light acclimation (Kono and Terashima 2014). In conclusion, F_q'/F_m' derived by FRRF_{0.75ms} approximate F_q'/F_m' values derived by STF or MTF.

The F_{m-ST} and F_{m-MT} signal, along with F_v/F_m and NPQ, are the most common photosynthetic parameters used in ChlF-assisted plant phenomics (Furbank and Tester 2011). These properties are relatively easy to measure by using existing ChlF techniques, and they are extremely sensitive to a range of photo-physiological properties of plants. At the same time, the F_m responses are rather non-specific, requiring additional information to identify the affected photosynthetic mechanisms (Kalaji et al. 2014). In addition, their direct responses to irradiance levels require that these parameters are measured under well-defined light conditions (generally in the dark, with pre-defined periods of dark adaptation), limiting their applications as reporters of physiological conditions under highly variable, natural light conditions. However, the properties of the photosynthetic electron transport from Q_A towards PSI (expressed as F_{r2}'/F_q') remain well-constrained under different ambient light intensities (Fig. 8c). The possibility for automation and measurements in the light using the LIFT method will make it possible to monitor the dynamics of photosynthetic traits under natural conditions.

Conclusion

Simultaneous measurements of F_v/F_m (respective F_q'/F_m') and the kinetics of electron transport between PSII towards PSI expressed as $F_{r1,2}/F_v$ (respective $F_{r1,2}'/F_q'$) parameter provided more detailed information about the photosynthetic apparatus detecting differences in a wide range of physiological conditions. Performing these measurements non-invasively with high time resolution under natural environmental conditions has the potential to improve the efficacy of the photosynthetic phenotyping, while contributing to the advancement of knowledge about photosynthesis and its regulation.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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