



Interactive effects of CO₂ enrichment and brassinosteroid on CO₂ assimilation and photosynthetic electron transport in *Cucumis sativus*

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ABSTRACT

CO₂ enrichment and brassinosteroids (BR) both have positive impacts on photosynthesis and plant growth. To examine the interactive effect of CO₂ enrichment and BR on photosynthesis and plant growth, CO₂ assimilation, chlorophyll fluorescence quenching, carbohydrate metabolism, photosynthetic gene transcript and enzyme activity were analyzed in leaves of young plants of cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) in response to a doubling of growth CO₂ level, foliar BR application alone or in combination. Both CO₂ elevation and application of BR increased shoot biomass, leaf area, CO₂ assimilation, total soluble sugar and starch contents, transcript for photosynthetic gene and activity for enzymes involved in Benson–Calvin cycle but a combination of the two treatments resulted in a more significant effect. Although an elevation of CO₂ level had little effects on quantum efficiency of PSII (Φ_{PSII}), it significantly increased the electron flux for photosynthetic carbon reduction [$J_e(\text{PCR})$] but decreased electron flux for photorespiratory carbon oxidation [$J_e(\text{PCO})$]. In contrast, BR treatment increased Φ_{PSII} and this increase in Φ_{PSII} was associated with increased $J_e(\text{PCR})$ and $J_e(\text{PCO})$. Furthermore, a combined treatment of CO₂ elevation and BR resulted in an additive effect on PSII electron flux. However, alternative electron flux was almost unaltered after CO₂ enrichment and BR treatment. Thus, short term CO₂ elevation did not induce a down-regulation of photosynthesis and there was an additive effect between BR and CO₂ on the enhancement of CO₂ assimilation in leaves of young cucumber plants.

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1. Introduction

The concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ are predicted to double the current levels of 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ by the end of this century (Watson et al., 1990). If other growth conditions are optimal, the photosynthetic rate of C₃ plants is limited by the supply of CO₂ (Kimball, 1983; Kimball et al., 2002; Long et al., 2004). Accordingly, crop CO₂ enrichment has been a powerful practice in greenhouse industry for improving produce quality and increasing crop yield. Total dry matter production increases in many species of plants are correlated with increased CO₂ levels and are most pronounced during the early stages of vegetative growth and development (Chu et al., 1992). However, research effort has not kept pace with com-

mercial development. Whilst a great deal of data is available on photosynthesis covering many varieties of plants, the role played by CO₂ is perhaps the least understood.

Elevated CO₂ levels may increase plant productivity due to enhanced CO₂ fixation, suppressed photorespiration and/or suppressed dark respiration (Bunce, 1990; Drake et al., 1997; Amthor, 2001). In plants with a C₃ photosynthetic pathway, the enzyme Rubisco catalyses the initial carboxylation and oxygenation reactions of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) (Bowes, 1993). Rubisco is not CO₂-saturated at current atmospheric CO₂ levels in C₃ plants, and an increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration will decrease photorespiration and increase photosynthesis since the balance of carboxylation and oxygenation depends on the CO₂ and O₂ ratio at the Rubisco site (Bowes, 1993; Drake et al., 1997). However, prolonged exposure to elevated atmospheric CO₂ will lead to a decreased photosynthetic capacity in many plant species (Sage et al., 1989). This acclimation response to elevated CO₂ is often accompanied by an increase in soluble carbohydrate pools and a decrease in Rubisco protein content, activity, and activation state (Bowes, 1993; Drake et al., 1997; Pfannschmidt, 2003). However, there are significant differences in the response of mature leaves and developing leaves to CO₂ elevation (Pearson and Brooks, 1995).

Abbreviations: BR, brassinosteroids; F_v/F_m , efficiency of excitation capture by open PSII center; J_a , alternative electron flux; $J_e(\text{PCO})$, electron flux for the photorespiratory carbon oxidation; $J_e(\text{PCR})$, electron flux for the photosynthetic carbon reduction; $J_e(\text{PSII})$, total electron flux in PSII; P_n , net CO₂ assimilation rate; PPFD, photosynthetic photo flux density; Φ_{PSII} , quantum efficiency of PSII; q_p , photochemical quenching coefficient; RuBP, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate.

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Several studies showed that the mature leaves were more sensitive to the photosynthetic acclimation induced by elevated CO₂ (Gesch et al., 1998; Sakai et al., 2006). To avoid photosynthetic acclimation and reduced growth vigour at the late growth stage, farmer prefer to introduce CO₂ enrichment at the early growth stage instead of the whole growth stage in the commercial production. Until now, experiments on climate change under controlled environmental conditions have focused primarily on temperate plant species with a prolonged growth period (Sage et al., 1989; Gesch et al., 1998; Vu et al., 1999, 2001). Furthermore, there are close interactions between elevated CO₂ and other environmental factors such as temperature, nutrients, water availability and ozone in the atmosphere (Prasad et al., 2003; Mateos-Naranjo et al., 2010). In addition, CO₂ elevation had a significant effect on the levels of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), gibberellins (GAs), cytokinins (CKs) and abscisic acid (ABA), and ethylene in the leaves or in the xylem sap (Yong et al., 2000; Li et al., 2002; Seneweera et al., 2003; Teng et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2010). However, a few studies to date have been conducted to examine the interactive effects of CO₂ elevation and exogenous plant growth substances on the physiology of greenhouse crops such as tomatoes and cucumber although CO₂ enrichment is widely used in their production.

Brassinosteroids (BRs) are a family of over 40 naturally occurring plant steroid hormones that are ubiquitously distributed in the plant kingdom (Clouse and Sasse, 1998; Bishop and Koncz, 2002; Krishna, 2003; Montoya et al., 2005). BRs play prominent roles in various physiological processes including the induction of a broad spectrum of cellular responses, such as stem elongation, pollen tube growth, xylem differentiation, leaf epinasty, root inhibition, induction of ethylene biosynthesis, proton pump activation, regulation of gene expression and photosynthesis, and adaptive responses to environmental stress (Clouse and Sasse, 1998; Dhaubhadel et al., 1999; Khripach et al., 2000; Krishna, 2003; Yu et al., 2004). As potent plant growth regulators, BRs are now widely used to enhance plant growth and yield of important agricultural crops (Khripach et al., 2000; Divi and Krishna, 2009). We have previously shown that application of exogenous BR increases photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation in cucumber plants, which may provide an important mechanism for increased growth and yield in BR-treated plants (Yu et al., 2004). Recently, we found that BR increased whilst brassinazole (Brz), a specific inhibitor of BR biosynthesis, decreased the maximum Rubisco carboxylation rates ($V_{c,max}$), total and, to a greater extent, initial Rubisco activity and the Rubisco activation state (Xia et al., 2009a). Furthermore, BR upregulated whilst Brz downregulated the expressions of *rbcl*, *rbcs* and other Calvin–Benson cycle genes. In this regard, there is an intriguing possibility that BR and CO₂ enrichment could have additive effects on photosynthesis by increasing RuBP carboxylation capacity by Rubisco and depressing photorespiration.

Cucumber is widely cultivated in greenhouse in the world. Due to its effectiveness in improving growth vigor and productivity, CO₂ enrichment has been widely adopted in its commercial production around the world especially at the early plant growth stage. In the following study, we grew cucumber plants under two atmospheric CO₂ levels with or without BR application to test the hypothesis that BR and CO₂ enrichment could have additive effects on the increase in biomass accumulation and CO₂ assimilation. Furthermore, carbohydrate accumulation, Calvin–Benson cycle gene transcripts and enzyme activity were analyzed to determine whether elevated CO₂-induced photosynthetic acclimation occurs in young developing leaves and if so whether BR could alleviate elevated CO₂-induced photosynthetic acclimation by modifying photosynthetic gene transcript and enzyme activity.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant materials and treatments

Seeds of cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L. cv. Jinchun No. 3) were sown directly in a growth medium containing a mixture of peat, vermiculite and perlite (6:3:1, v:v:v) in plastic trays. Average day/night temperatures were 26/17 °C in a greenhouse with natural sunlight as light source. When the first true leaf was fully expanded, seedlings were transplanted into plastic pots (15 cm diameter and 15 cm deep, one seedling per pot) and watered daily with half-strength Enshi nutrient solution (Yu and Matsui, 1997). After 3 weeks after sowing, the seedlings at the 3-leaf stage were set into Conviron E15 (Conviron, Manitoba, Canada) controlled environment growth chambers and allowed to acclimate for 2 days under 12-h photoperiod (8 am–8 pm), temperature of 25/18 °C (day/night), photosynthetic photo flux density (PPFD) of 400 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ above canopy and CO₂ of 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$. Then, the seedlings were set into 4 growth chambers with four treatments: control (ambient CO₂ of 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$); BR (ambient CO₂ of 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ + 0.1 μM 24-epibrassinolide); elevated CO₂ (CO₂ of 760 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$); and elevated CO₂ + BR (CO₂ of 760 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ + 0.1 μM BR). The aqueous BR solution was made with a very low level of ethanol (0.01, v/v) and sprayed onto the leaves at day 1 and day 5. After 7 days, plants were harvested for biomass and leaf area analysis according to Xia et al. (2009a). Meanwhile, a subset of samples were taken, frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C before biochemical and molecular analysis. Each treatment had 8 plants with four replicates.

2.2. Leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence analysis

Leaf gas exchange measurements were coupled with measurements of chlorophyll fluorescence using an open gas exchange system (LI-6400; LI-COR, Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with an integrated fluorescence chamber head (LI-6400-40 leaf chamber fluorometer; LI-COR, Inc.) on the 4th leaves. For all cases unless otherwise stated, gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters were measured under the growth conditions at 25 °C, 80% relative humidity, 1–1.3 kPa leaf-to-air vapor pressure deficit, 380 or 760 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ CO₂ and 400 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ incident PPFD, respectively. Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters were calculated on the basis of the light-adapted fluorescence measurements as described by Zhou et al. (2004) and Ogwen et al. (2008). Quantum efficiency of PSII (Φ_{PSII}), efficiency of excitation capture by open PSII center (F'_v/F'_m), and photochemical quenching coefficient (q_p) were calculated as $(F'_m - F_s)/F'_m$, $(F'_m - F'_0)/F'_m$ and $(F'_m - F_s)/(F'_m - F'_0)$, respectively (Genty et al., 1989; van Kooten and Snel, 1990).

2.3. Estimation of the rate of alternative electron flow

The rate of electron transport through PSII [$J_e(\text{PSII})$] was measured as described by Harley et al. (1992). The rate of oxygenation by Rubisco (V_o) was estimated following von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) and the rate of carboxylation by Rubisco (V_c) was estimated as described by Miyake and Yokota (2000). Under atmospheric conditions, the electron fluxes in the two cycles can be expressed as $J_e(\text{PCR}) = 4 \times V_c$ and $J_e(\text{PCO}) = 4 \times V_o$, respectively (Krall and Edwards, 1992). An alternative flux, J_a , caused by electrons that are not used by the PCR and/or PCO cycles in the total electron flux driven by PSII, can be estimated from $J_e(\text{PSII}) - J_e(\text{PCR} + \text{PCO})$ (Miyake and Yokota, 2000; Zhou et al., 2004).

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