

Interactive effects of elevated CO₂ and drought on photosynthetic capacity and PSII performance in maize

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Abstract

Elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration [CO₂] and the change of water distribution in arid and semiarid areas affect plant physiology and ecosystem processes. The interaction of elevated [CO₂] and drought results in the complex response such as changes in the energy flux of photosynthesis. The performance of photosystem (PS) II and the electron transport were evaluated by using OJIP induction curves of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence and the P_{N-C_i} curves in the two-factor controlled experiment with [CO₂] of 380 (AC) or 750 (EC) [$\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$] and water stress by 10% polyethylene glycol 6000. Compared to water-stressed maize (*Zea mays* L.) under AC, the EC treatment combined with water stress decreased the number of active reaction centers but it increased the antenna size and the energy flux (absorbed photon flux, trapping flux, and electron transport flux) of each reaction center in PSII. Thus, the electron transport rate was enhanced, despite the indistinctively changed quantum yield of the electron transport and energy dissipation. The combination of EC and the water-stress treatment resulted in the robust carboxylation rate without elevating the saturated photosynthetic rate (P_{\max}). This study demonstrated that maize was capable of transporting more electrons into the carboxylation reaction, but this could not be used to increase P_{\max} under EC.

Additional key words: drought stress; elevated CO₂ concentration; OJIP induction curves; P_{N-C_i} curves.

Introduction

Global climate changes exert remarkable influence not only on [CO₂], but also on global distribution of arid and semiarid areas. Interactions of carbon and water, and their

influence on the global carbon cycle are of great changes may affect plant metabolism directly, such as photosynthesis and growth regulation (de Graaff *et al.*

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Abbreviations: ABS/CS_M – absorbed photon flux per cross section; ABS/RC – average absorbed photon flux per PSII reaction center; AC – ambient [CO₂]; AQY – apparent quantum yield; Area – total complementary area between fluorescence induction curve and F_M; CE – carboxylation efficiency; Chl – chlorophyll; C_i – intercellular CO₂ concentration; [CO₂] – CO₂ concentration; D – drought; E – transpiration rate; EC – elevated [CO₂]; ET₀/CS_M – electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per cross section; ET₀/RC – electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per PSII; F₀ – minimal fluorescence of the dark-adapted state; F_I – fluorescence at I step; F_J – fluorescence at J step; F_K – fluorescence at K step; F_M – maximal fluorescence of the dark-adapted state; F_t – fluorescence at time t after onset of actinic illumination; FACE – free air CO₂ enrichment; g_s – stomatal conductance; J – electron transport rate; M₀ – approximate value of the initial slope of relative variable Chl fluorescence curve V_t; N – reduction times of Q_A from F₀ to F_M; PEG – polyethylene glycol; PEPC – phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase; PI_{total} – performance index for energy conservation from photons absorbed by PSII antenna until the reduction of PSI acceptors; P_{max} – light- and CO₂-saturated photosynthetic rate; PPFD – photosynthetic photon flux density; PQ – plastoquinone pool; PS – photosystem; Q_A – primary quinone acceptor of PSII; Q_B – secondary quinone acceptor of PSII; RCs – reaction centers; RC/CS_M – probability that PSII Chl functions as an active center; RH – relative humidity; Rubisco – ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase; S_M – normalized area; t₀ – time to reach F₀; t_{FM} – time to reach maximal fluorescence F_M; TR₀/CS_M – maximum trapped exciton flux per cross section; TR₀/RC – maximum trapped exciton flux per PSII; ϕ_{D0} – quantum yield (at t₀) for energy dissipation; ϕ_{E0} – quantum yield for electron transport; ϕ_{Pav} – average (from t₀ to t_{FM}) quantum yield for primary photochemistry; ϕ_{P0} – maximum quantum yield of primary PSII photochemistry; ψ_0 – probability (at t₀) that the trapped exciton moves an electron into the electron transport chain beyond Q_A⁻; δ_{R0} – the efficiency of electron movement from the reduced intersystem electron acceptors to the PSI end acceptors.

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2006) importance to atmosphere-biosphere interactions and human society (Reich *et al.* 2006). Some climate driven. Analyses of the $[CO_2]$ effect and its interaction with other environmental factors are of great relevancy since the responsiveness of plants to EC differs with water availability (Prins *et al.* 2011).

Photosynthetic acclimation caused by EC has been reported variously (Gutiérrez *et al.* 2009, Martínez-Carrasco *et al.* 2005, Sarker and Hara 2011). Experiments conducted under both controlled and field conditions in free air CO_2 enrichment (FACE) system have shown that C_3 plants often maintain photosynthesis during short-term drought under EC due to the improved water use efficiency, however, it reduces long-term adaption and results in downregulation of photosynthesis (Ainsworth and Rogers 2007, Albert *et al.* 2011, Long *et al.* 2004). Experiments showed that C_4 plants are less sensitive than C_3 plants to EC (Ghannoum *et al.* 2011, Sage and Kubien 2003, Wand *et al.* 1999). The C_4 plants are known to have CO_2 -concentrating mechanism for two types of photosynthetic cells, the mesophyll and bundle sheath cells (Ghannoum *et al.* 2011). CO_2 is initially fixed by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) in the mesophyll cells into C_4 acids which then diffuse to the bundle sheaths where they are decarboxylated to supply CO_2 for ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) (Ghannoum *et al.* 2011). Thus, the C_4 plants possess near saturating photosynthesis at current AC (Ghannoum *et al.* 2011, 2000). Therefore, the rise in atmospheric $[CO_2]$ could have theoretically only the small direct effect on C_4 photosynthesis. And besides, the photosynthesis acclimation of C_3 plants is often accompanied by reduction in foliar N (Stitt 1991, Zhou and Shangguan 2009). In C_4 leaves, photosynthesis could reach the maximum level with lesser amount of Rubisco protein under both current and enriched $[CO_2]$ by the CO_2 -concentrating mechanism (Furbank *et al.* 1996, Ghannoum *et al.* 2000). Thus, the reduction in foliar N could theoretically exert less negative impact on C_4 plants in the CO_2 -enriched environment. Moreover, the C_4 plants were observed to have the fast growth rate under EC. Since the C_4 plants have almost saturated photosynthesis under AC, the fast growth rate was thought to be related to the number of potential mechanisms (Ghannoum *et al.* 2000, Grodzinski *et al.* 1998).

Data from previous studies revealed that C_4 plants growth at enhanced $[CO_2]$ alleviates the negative effects of drought stress on photosynthesis by stomata acclimation (Markelz *et al.* 2011, Vu and Allen 2009), which reduces stomatal conductance (g_s) and transpiration (E) with no significant change in the net photosynthetic rate (P_N) (Ghannoum *et al.* 2011). However, the electron flux in the PSII of C_4 plants under EC and drought stress remains poorly understood but plays the important role in photosynthesis. Chlorophyll (Chl) *a*

fluorescence transients can detect subtle variations in photosynthesis (Strasser *et al.* 2010) and they present energy fluxes from absorption in the Chl antenna to the electron transport (Strasser *et al.* 2004, Strasser *et al.* 2010, Tsimilli-Michael and Strasser 2008). The energy flux includes photon-flux absorption and the excitation of Chl in antennal pigments, called the absorption flux. The excitation energy, caused by excited Chl, is quenched in two ways. One way dissipates the energy as heat or fluorescence emission; the other way channels the energy to the reaction center, it is called the trapping flux. The trapping flux converts into the redox energy by reducing the electron acceptor Q_A to Q_A^- that is then reoxidized to Q_A reducing the electron transport chain beyond Q_A^- (called the electron transport flux) and ultimately leading to CO_2 fixation (Strasser and Strasser 1995, Strasser *et al.* 2004). These processes produce NADPH and ATP by accumulating protons in the thylakoids (Taiz and Zeiger 2006). These fluxes can be expressed per the fully active PSII reaction center (specific energy fluxes) and per the excited cross section (phenomenological energy fluxes) of the photosynthetic sample (Strasser *et al.* 2004). Understanding this process is essential to explore photosynthetic regulations in a future climate. The OJIP fluorescence curve is highly useful to describe these fluxes, starting at O level to P, the maximum point, and going usually through the series of transient curve inflections, namely J and I (Lazár 2009). The relative fluorescence variations during the phases O–J, J–I, and I–P are evaluated from the difference between the initial fluorescence and the fluorescence at the different steps. The J point corresponds to the peak of $[Q_A^- Q_B]$ and $[Q_A^- Q_B^-]$. The O–J phase mainly represents primary photochemistry, including the reduction of the primary electron acceptor in PSII (pheophytin) and of the first quinone electron acceptor of PSII (Q_A) (Lazár 2009, Lazár *et al.* 1997, Stirbet *et al.* 1998, Strasser and Strasser 1995, Strasser *et al.* 2004); the I point often corresponds to the first shoulder of the $[Q_A^- Q_B^{2-}]$; and the P point to the maximum concentrations of $[Q_A^- Q_B^{2-}]$ and $[PQH_2]$ (Lazár 2006, Zhu *et al.* 2005). The I–P phase should indicate the accumulation of double reduced Q_B and the reduced plastoquinone pool molecules (Zhu *et al.* 2005). Thus, the OJIP transients reflect the PSII performance. Relative parameters can be calculated with different formulas to evaluate the PSII performance and the electron fluxes (Strasser *et al.* 2004).

This paper presents an attempt to clarify the responses of Chl fluorescence transients in response to drought and EC. We used the technique of the fast fluorescence OJIP curve and P_{N-C_i} curve to explore the carboxylation capability and PSII performance in maize under EC and drought. The results may help to understand the mechanism of photosynthesis adaptation in maize under EC.

Materials and methods

Plant material and growth conditions: Maize (*Zea mays* L. cv. Zhengdan 958) seeds were obtained from Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University (Yangling, Shaanxi, China). The seeds were disinfected using 20% (w/v) NaClO for 30 min to prevent fungal infection, rinsed with distilled water, then placed on the moist filter paper for germination in a dark chamber at 30°C for about 2 d. After emergence, the seedlings were grown hydroponically in two closed climate chambers (*AGC-D001P*, *Qiushi Corp.*, China), which were controlled at 11 h - dark [18°C, relative humidity (RH) of 50%]/13 h - light regime (25°C, RH 40%, 300 [μmol(photon) m⁻² s⁻¹]) from 7:30 to 20:30 h. The plants were fertilized by 1/2 strength modified Hoagland nutrient solution (Taiz and Zeiger 2006) and aerated using aquarium diffusers.

When the seedlings were grown for 2 d and the first leaf expanded more than 80%, two closed climate chambers were controlled under AC or EC until the study was completed. Half of the 12-d-old plants with three fully expanded leaves were transplanted to 1/2 Hoagland solutions containing 10% PEG 6000 (-0.2 MPa) and grown further for 15 d. Another half of plants continued to grow in 1/2 Hoagland nutrient solutions without PEG treatment (control).

The experimental design was a randomized completely block design with eight replications. They were treated in the following way:

Treatment	
Control	AC × well watered
D	AC × 10% PEG
C750	EC × well watered
C750×D	EC × 10% PEG

Analysis of Chl *a* fluorescence transients and ETR: Noninvasive Chl *a* fluorescence measurements were performed with the portable *Handy PEA* (*Hansatech Instruments, Ltd.*, King's Lynn Norfolk, UK). Leaves were dark-adapted for 20 min to ensure that all PSII RCs were open. Then Chl *a* fluorescence transients were recorded and digitized with a 12-bit resolution from 1 × 10⁻⁵ s to 1 s and a time resolution of 1 × 10⁻⁵ s for the first 200 data points (Strasser and Strasser 1995). The excitation light intensity was 600 W m⁻² from the array of six red light emitting diodes with the peak wavelength of 650 nm focused on the leaf surface on a spot of 4 mm in diameter. The Chl *a* fluorescence signals were detected by a PIN photocell after passing through a long pass filter (50% transmission at 720 nm) (Srivastava *et al.* 1997). All measured and derived parameters were based on Strasser *et al.* (2004, 2010) and Tsimilli-Michael and Strasser (2008).

On the logarithmic time scale, the rising transient from F₀ (F measured at 5 × 10⁻⁵ s, when all the RCs of PSII were open, *i.e.*, when Q_A was fully oxidized) to F_P (where F_P = F_M under the saturating excitation light, of which the excitation intensity was high enough to ensure the closure of all the RCs of PSII, *i.e.*, the full reduction of all the RCs) showed the polyphasic behavior. The analysis of the transient took into consideration fluorescence values at 5 × 10⁻⁵ s (F₀, step O), 1 × 10⁻⁴ s (F_{0.0001} s), 3 × 10⁻⁴ s (F_{0.0003} s, step K), 2 × 10⁻³ s (F_{0.002} s, step J), 3 × 10⁻² s (F_{0.03} s, step I), and the maximal level (F_M, step P). The OJIP test represents a translation of original data into biophysical parameters that quantify the energy fluxes through PSII. The equations and definitions of OJIP parameters are shown in Table 1.

Analysis of P_N-C_i curve: The youngest, fully expanded leaves were chosen for measurements at 9:00 and 11:00 h (local time). The measurements were repeated 3 to 5 times (one leaf from one replicate plant) per the treatment. The photosynthetic measurements were carried out with the same leaves over time to avoid any additional variations. P_N, photosynthetic responses to intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i), and the photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) were determined with *Li-6400 Portable Photosynthesis System* (*Li-Cor*, Lincoln, USA). Under AC or EC, P_N was measured at 300 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD. The P_N-PPFD curves were measured at 2,000; 1,800; 1,600; 1,400; 1,200; 1,000; 800, 600, 400, 300, 250, 200, 150, 100, 80, 50, 20, and 0 μmol(photon) m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD. The apparent quantum yield (AQY) and saturated PPFD were derived from the P_N-PPFD curve. Under saturated PPFD, P_N was measured at 2,200; 2,000; 1,800; 1,600; 1,400; 1,200; 1,000; 800, 600, 400, 300, 250, 200, 150, 100, 80, and 50 μmol(CO₂) mol⁻¹ in the reference chamber. RH of the air in the leaf chamber was controlled at 35%, and the leaf temperature at 22°C. P_N was recorded when the sample leaf was balanced for 100 s under each PPFD and 300 s in each [CO₂] step. Photosynthesis measured at PPFD of 1,800 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and [CO₂] of 2,000 μmol mol⁻¹ was determined as the light and the CO₂-saturated photosynthetic rate in this study. Prior to the measurement, the leaf sample was illuminated with saturated PPFD provided by the light emitting diodes of the equipment for 600–1,200 s. No significant photoinhibition occurred during the measurements. Calculation of the PEPC carboxylation efficiency (CE), the CO₂-saturated photosynthetic rate (P_{max}), and the electron transport rate (J) followed the model of C₄ photosynthesis developed by von Caemmerer and Furbank (1999).

Table 1. Equations and definitions of OJIP parameters (based on information presented by Strasser and coworkers). For reasons of clarity, several notations and definitions of OJIP parameters used by Strasser and collaborators have been modified (for equivalence of notation) (Strasser and Strasser 1995, Strasser *et al.* 2010, Tsimilli-Michael and Strasser 2008).

Information selected from the fast OJIP fluorescence induction (data necessary for the calculation of the so called OJIP parameters)

Data extracted from the recorded fluorescence transient OJIP

F_0	Minimal fluorescence of dark adapted state
F_M	Maximal fluorescence of dark adapted state
F_t	Fluorescence at time t after onset of actinic illumination
$F_K = F_{0.0003\text{ s}}$	Fluorescence at K step of OJIP
$F_J = F_{0.002\text{ s}}$	Fluorescence at J step of OJIP
$F_I = F_{0.03\text{ s}}$	Fluorescence at I step of OJIP

Variable fluorescence

$V_K = (F_K - F_0)/(F_M - F_0)$	Relative variable Chl fluorescence at K-level
$V_J = (F_J - F_0)/(F_M - F_0)$	Relative variable Chl fluorescence at J-level
$V_I = (F_I - F_0)/(F_M - F_0)$	Relative variable Chl fluorescence at I-level

Basic parameters for PSII

$M_0 = 4 (F_{0.0003\text{ s}} - F_0)/(F_M - F_0)$	Approximate value of the initial slope of relative variable Chl fluorescence curve V_t
$S_M = (\text{Area})/(F_M - F_0)$	Normalized area (assumed proportional to the number of reduction and oxidation of one Q_A^- molecule during the fast OJIP transient, and therefore related to the number of electron carriers per electron transport chain)
$N = S_M \times M_0 \times (1/V_J)$	Reduction times of Q_A from F_0 to F_M
$RC/CS = \varphi_{P0} (V_J/M_0) (\text{ABS}/CS_M)$	Probability that a PSII Chl function as active centers
$PI_{\text{total}} = \frac{RC}{\text{ABS}} \times \frac{\varphi_{P0}}{1 - \varphi_{P0}} \times \frac{\psi_0}{1 - \psi_0} \times \frac{\delta_{R0}}{1 - \delta_{R0}}$	Performance index for energy conservation from photons absorbed by PSII antenna, until the reduction of PSI acceptors

Yields and flux ratios

$\varphi_{P0} = 1 - F_0/F_M$	Maximum quantum yield of primary PSII photochemistry
$\psi_0 = (1 - V_J)$	Probability (at time 0) that a trapped excitation moves an electron into the electron transport chain beyond Q_A^-
$\varphi_{E0} = [1 - F_0/F_M] \psi_0$	Quantum yield for electron transport
$\varphi_{Pav} = \varphi_{P0} (1 - V_J) = \varphi_{P0} (S_M/t_{FM})$	Average (from time 0 to t_{FM}) quantum yield for primary photochemistry
$\varphi_{D0} = 1 - \varphi_{P0}$	Quantum yield (at $t = 0$) for energy dissipation
$\delta_{R0} = (1 - V_I)/(1 - V_J)$	The efficiency with which an electron can move from the reduced intersystem electron acceptors to the PSI end acceptors

Specific energy fluxes (per active PSII reaction center)

$\text{ABS}/RC = (M_0/V_J) \times (1/\varphi_{P0})$	Average absorbed photon flux per PSII reaction section center
$TR_0/RC = M_0/V_J$	Maximum trapped excitation flux per PSII
$ET_0/RC = (M_0/V_J) \times \psi_0$	Electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per PSII

Phenomenological energy fluxes/activities (per excited cross section CS)

$\text{ABS}/CS_M = F_M$	Absorbed photon flux per cross section
$TR_0/CS_M = \varphi_{P0} (\text{ABS}/CS_M)$	Maximum trapped excitation flux per cross section
$ET_0/CS_M = \varphi_{E0} (\text{ABS}/CS_M)$	Electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per cross section

Statistical analysis: Data from the independent experiments presented in figures are in the form of means \pm SD. Significance of differences were (at $P < 0.05$) tested using

SAS for Windows V8 (*SAS Institute*, Cary, NC, USA), and the differences among the treatments were tested by *Duncan's* multiple range test.

Results

PSII reaction center and quantum yield: The shape of OJIP transient was sensitive to drought stress (Fig. 1). The performance index in Fig. 2 illustrated that treatment C750×D increased M₀ and N but decreased RC/CS_M compared with D and C750 treatments, and the control. The electron efficiencies (ϕ_{P0} , ϕ_{E0} , δ_{R0} , and ψ_0) of C750×D were not different from the D treatment, but they were lower than the control (decreased 2.6%, 13.5%,

and 11.2%, respectively). The ϕ_{Pav} of C750×D was about 64.8% of D, which could be due to the increased number of closed or silent PSII RCS in C750×D. The quantum yield (at t₀) for energy dissipation (ϕ_{D0}) of C750×D was 9.8% lower than control. C750×D and D markedly increased V_K, V_J, and V_I (Table 2). The changes in V_K, V_J, S_M, and N in C750 did not differ from those in the control.

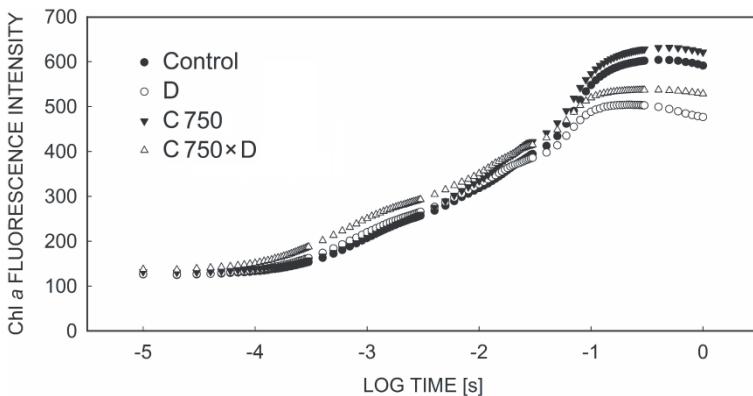


Fig. 1. The shapes of polyphasic fluorescence rise OJIP transients in the treatment with doubled CO₂ concentration under drought stress, plotted on a logarithmic time scale from 1×10^{-5} [s] to 1 [s]. The transients were normalized on F₀. The legend symbols stand for the time points set in the OJIP test for calculating the structural and functional parameters in the four treatments.

PSII energy fluxes: The performance index in Fig. 3 illustrated that treatment C750×D increased ABS/RC, TR₀/RC, and ET₀/RC compared with D and C750 treatments, and the control. The ABS/CS_M, TR₀/CS_M, and ET₀/CS_M of C750×D were as high as the control, and about 9.3%, 11.3%, and 46.6% higher than D treatment, respectively. Analysis revealed that C750×D had the lowest RC/CS_M among four treatments, but it had the highest probability of energy fluxes transit in per active PSII reaction center.

P_N-C_i parameters: shows the performance index of carbon reaction under different treatments. The CE of C750 and C750×D were significantly higher than that of control and D (Fig. 4). The C750 treatment had the highest P_{max} , while P_{max} of C750×D was not significantly higher than D. Dramatically, the J in C750×D reached the highest level among the four treatments, and in C750 treatment reached the second highest. Conversely, the control had the lowest level of J . The Fig. 4 indicates that EC helped to maintain high CE and J , but low P_{max} in water-stressed maize.

Discussion

EC may directly or indirectly affect the PSII performance (Maroco *et al.* 1999). Changes in stomatal conductance, electron transport efficiency, and carboxylation capacity altered consumption of the energy equivalents in the carbon reaction and the need for the controlled energy dissipation within PSII and alternative electron sinks (Lawlor and Tezara 2009). Therefore, photosynthetic capacity is affected by natural variation in ecosystem as well as by the experimental treatments. Controlled experiments could interpret precisely the combination of climatic variability.

In the current study, EC did not change ϕ_{P0} , ψ_0 , and ϕ_{E0} , but decreased ϕ_{Pav} , and significantly increased J and CE in well watered maize compared with the control plants. The reduced ϕ_{Pav} in C750 plants was caused by the reduction in δ_{R0} . This indicated that C750 plants decreased the probability that an electron can move from the reduced intersystem electron acceptors to the PSI end

acceptors. Thus, C750 rose the probability of energy dissipation in PSI acceptors. However, EC helped the leaves to enlarge significantly the apparent antenna size per active PSII (ABS/RC) and to enlarge the trapped exciton flux per PSII (TR₀/RC), which could counteract the reduction of δ_{R0} and maintain the ABS/CS_M, TR₀/CS_M, and ET₀/CS_M at the same level as the control. In general, acclimation of photosynthesis reduces the energy equivalents (ATP and NADPH) consumption in the Calvin-Benson cycle, which increases the probability of overexcitation in PSII and alternative electron sinks (Lawlor and Tezara 2009, Wilhelm and Selmar 2011). In well watered plants under AC, the energy dissipation is more important in photoprotection due to the higher restriction of carboxylation (Wilhelm and Selmar 2011). In the CO₂-enriched environment, the significantly enhanced energy supply (J) could not induce P_{max} downward acclimation for the robust carboxylation capacity

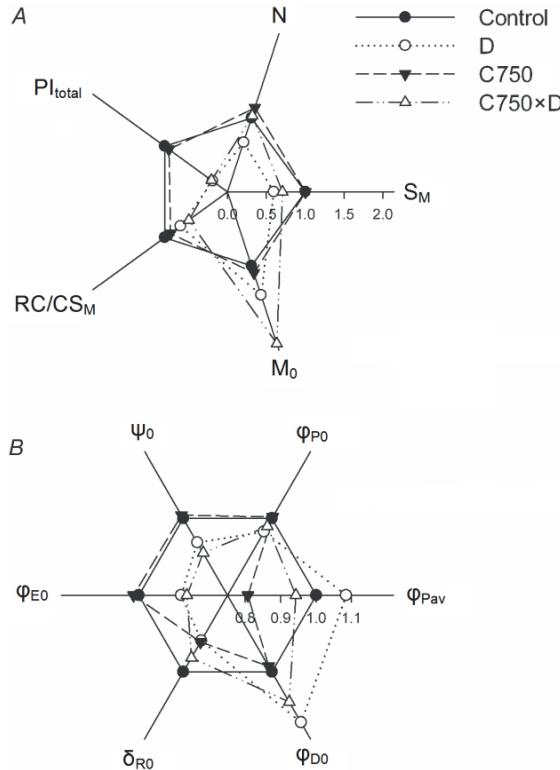


Fig. 2. Performance index changes from OJIP induction curves under different treatments. *A*: basic parameters for PSII, *B*: quantum yields and efficiencies/probabilities. The values represent the means of 8 replications. S_M – normalized area; RC/CS_M – probability that PSII Chls function as active centers; PI_{total} – performance index for energy conservation from photons absorbed by PSII antenna, until the reduction of PSI acceptors; N – reduction times of Q_A from F_0 to F_M ; M_0 – approximate value of the initial slope of relative variable Chl fluorescence curve V_t ; φ_{D0} – quantum yield (at $t = 0$) for energy dissipation; φ_{E0} – quantum yield for electron transport; φ_{Pav} – average (from time 0 to t_{FM}) quantum yield for primary photochemistry; φ_{P0} – maximum quantum yield of primary PSII photochemistry; ψ_0 – probability (at $t = 0$) that a trapped excitation moves an electron into the electron transport chain beyond Q_A^- ; δ_{R0} – the efficiency of electron movement from the reduced intersystem electron acceptors to the PSI end acceptors.

(Ghannoum *et al.* 2000). These response patterns indicated that the well watered maize seedlings were capable of maintaining P_{max} in the CO_2 -enriched environment.

Drought is often reported to restrain PSII performance by increasing energy dissipation if the energy transported from PSII excesses consumption capacity in Calvin-Benson cycle under AC (Guan and Gu 2009, Jin *et al.* 2008, Wilhelm and Selmar 2011). Results of the current study were in agreement with previous studies (Albert *et al.* 2011, Oukarroum *et al.* 2009) that the D plants reduced PI_{total} , φ_{E0} , ψ_0 , and δ_{R0} but increased φ_{D0} . $C750 \times D$ did not increase φ_{E0} and δ_{R0} . The changes in steps K and J

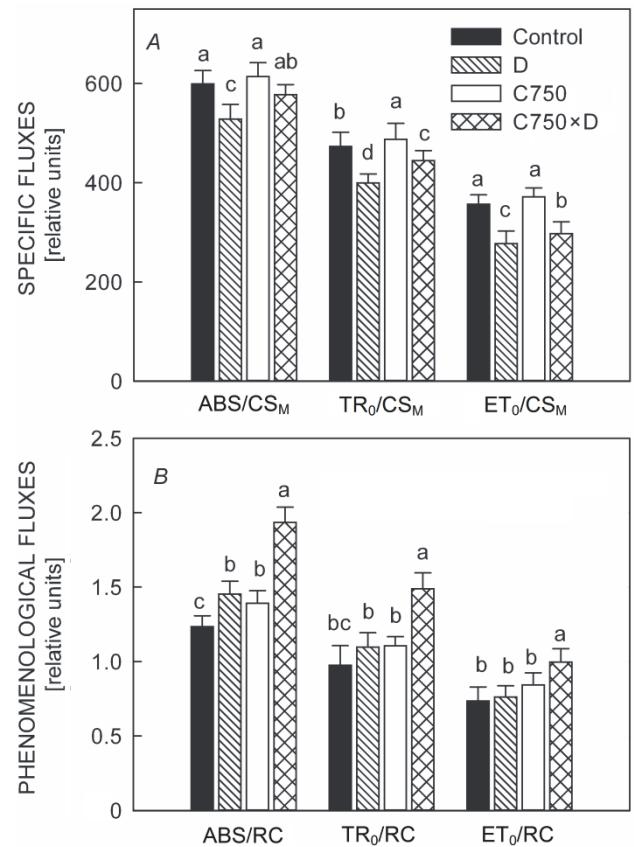


Fig. 3. Energy fluxes changes from OJIP induction curves under different treatments. *A*: phenomenological energy fluxes/activities (per excited cross section CS); *B*: specific energy fluxes (per active PSII reaction center). The values represent the means of 8 replications and the bars stand for SE. *Different letters* indicate statistical difference significance at $P < 0.05$ among the treatments by *Duncan's* multiple range test. ABS/CS_M – absorbed photon flux per cross section; ABS/RC – average absorbed photon flux per PSII reaction section center; ET_0/CS_M – electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per cross section; ET_0/RC – electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B per PSII; TR_0/CS_M – maximum trapped excitation flux per cross section; TR_0/RC – maximum trapped excitation flux per PSII;

(V_K and V_I) showed that the oxygen-evolving complex and the donor side of PSII were destroyed due to water stress, and that the electron donation capacity to the PSII donor side decreased as a consequence of significantly increased amount of closed PSII RCs (Lazar 2006), especially in maize under EC. However, the $C750 \times D$ plants significantly increased values of ABS/RC , TR_0/RC , and ET_0/RC than other three treatments. Thus, the enhanced energy fluxes (absorbed photon flux, trapping flux, and electron transport flux) per active PSII RC counteracted the downregulation of φ_{Pav} and RC/CS in the $C750 \times D$ plants, and therefore, it improved significantly J in Calvin-Benson cycle. While, the φ_{P0} , J ,

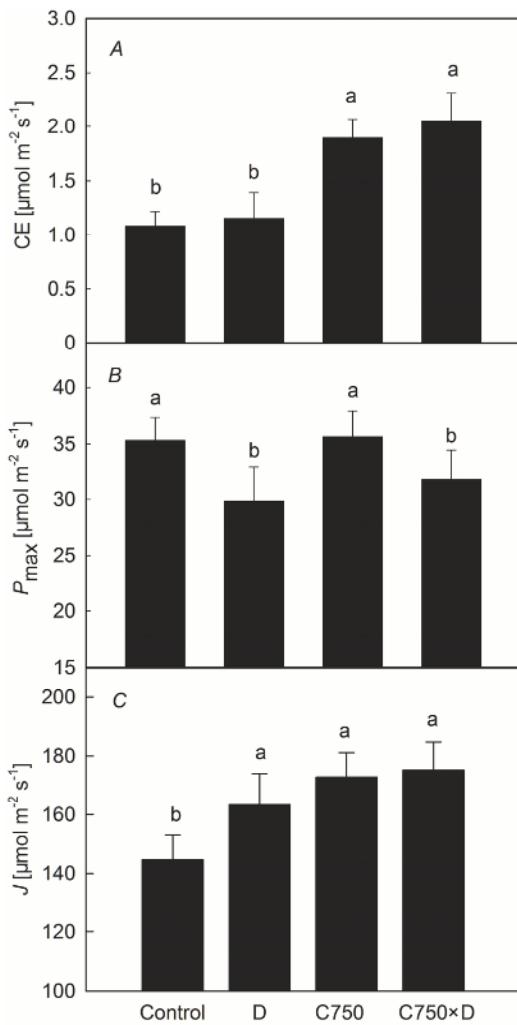


Fig. 4. Performances of carbon reaction under different treatments. A: the carboxylation rate (CE); B: maximum rate of RuBP regeneration (P_{\max}); C: electron transport rate (J). The values represent the means of 3 replications and the bars stand for SE. *Different letters* indicate statistical difference significance at $P<0.05$ among the treatments by *Duncan's* multiple range test.

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Table 2. Relative variable Chl fluorescence at J, I, and K level (V_J, V_I, and V_K). The values are the mean and SE of 8 plants. *Different letters* indicate statistical difference significance at $P<0.05$ among the treatments by *Duncan's* multiple range test.

Treatment	V _J	V _I	V _K
Control	0.246 ± 0.036 ^b	0.568 ± 0.06 ^b	0.060 ± 0.023 ^c
D	0.305 ± 0.052 ^a	0.643 ± 0.081 ^a	0.084 ± 0.034 ^b
C750	0.238 ± 0.034 ^b	0.606 ± 0.055 ^b	0.066 ± 0.021 ^c
C750×D	0.330 ± 0.063 ^a	0.634 ± 0.098 ^{ab}	0.123 ± 0.042 ^a

ϕ_{D0} , and PI_{total} in C(750)×D plants did not significantly increase.

Previous study reported that photosynthetic acclimation of water-stressed plants were often accompanied with the decrease in J , which increased the demand of energy dissipation in PSII (ϕ_{D0}) (Wilhelm and Selmar 2011). The interactive effects improved PSII performance even more than expected from additive effects (Albert *et al.* 2011). C750×D maintained J and CE at the same level as the C750 plants, while high CE could not help C750×D maintain a high P_{\max} . We suggest that this might be caused by energy oversupply in carbon reaction of the C750×D plants. The increased PSII RC capacity contributed greatly to the enhancement of energy supply. Thus, drought did not cancel out the effects of EC in J and CE. Our visual observations showed that a large portion of maize leaves were wilting under water stress at AC, but they remained turgid under water stress at EC.

In summary, by measuring the Chl *a* fluorescence transients and P_{N-C_i} curves, we described the photosynthetic capacity of maize seedlings under interaction of EC and water stress. Compared with water-stressed maize under AC, EC, and water stress reduced RCs and maintained ϕ_{D0} and δ_{R0} in PSII, but induced more energy to flow into the carbon reaction (J) by enhancing the electron transport capacity per RCs. However, the high J and CE did not help to increase P_{\max} in the water-stressed maize in response to EC.

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