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| 1              | Reversible down-regulation of photosystems I and II leads to fast photosynthesis recovery  |  |  |
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| 2              | after long-term drought in Jatropha curcas   |  |  |
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| 21<br>22       | Running Title: Drought-induced photoprotection includes thermal energy dissipation in  |  |  |
| 23             | both photosystems.   |  |  |
| 24             |  |  |  |
| 25             | Highlight:   |  |  |
| 26             | Biochemical and spectroscopic analysis of Jatropha curcas photosystem II and I indicates   |  |  |
| 27             | that the plant responds to extensive drought by increasing thermal dissipation of excitation   |  |  |
| 28             | energy in both photosystems.   |  |  |
| 29             |  |  |  |
| 30<br>31       | Abstract<br>Jatropha curcas is a drought-tolerant plant that maintains the photosynthetic pigments under   |  |  |
| 32             | prolonged drought, and quickly regains its photosynthetic capacity when water is available.  |  |  |
| 33             | It has been reported that drought stress leads to increased thermal dissipation in photosystem   |  |  |
| 34             | (PS) II, but that of PSI has been barely investigated, one reason which could be a technical   |  |  |
|                | 1  |  |  |

35 limitation in measuring the PSI absolute quantum yield. In this study, we combined 36 biochemical analysis and spectroscopic measurements using an integrating sphere and 37 verified that the quantum yields of both photosystems are temporarily down-regulated under 38 drought. We found that the decrease in the quantum yield of PSII was accompanied by a 39 decrease in the core complexes of PSII while light-harvesting complexes are maintained 40 under drought. In addition, in drought-treated plants, we observed a decrease in the absolute 41 quantum yield of PSI as compared to the well-watered control, while the amount of PSI did 42 not change, indicating that non-photochemical quenching occurs in PSI. The down-43 regulation of both photosystems was quickly lifted in a few days upon re-watering. Our 44 results indicate, that in Jatropha curcas under drought, the down-regulation of both PSII 45 and PSI quantum yield protects the photosynthetic machinery from uncontrolled 46 photodamage.

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48 Keywords: Drought; Photosynthesis; Photoprotection; Zeaxanthin; Thylakoid membrane;
49 Photosystem I and II.

50

51 **Abbreviations:** A, Antheraxanthin;  $A_n$ , Net photosynthesis;  $\beta$ -DM, n-dodecyl  $\beta$ -d-52 maltoside; Car, Carotenoids; CEF, Cyclic electron flow; Chl, Chlorophyll; DEI, De-53 epoxidation index; DW, Dry weight; ETR, Electron transport rate; Fm, Maximal 54 fluorescence; Fo, Minimal fluorescence; FR, Far red; Fv, Variable fluorescence; Fv/Fm, 55 Maximum quantum yield of photosystem II (dark adapted); FW, Fresh weight; g<sub>s</sub>, Stomatal 56 conductance to water vapour; HPLC, High performance liquid chromatography; KDa, Kilodalton; LHC, Light-harvesting complex; Lhca, PSI light harvesting complex protein; 57 58 Lhcb, PSII light harvesting complex protein; lpCN-PAGE, Large pore clear native -59 polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; NADP<sup>+</sup>, Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate; NADPH, Reduced form of NADP+; NPQ, Non-photochemical quenching; P700, PSI 60 61 primary donor; P700<sup>+</sup>, Oxidized PSI primary donor; ΦPSII, Quantum efficiency of PSII in 62 the light-adapted state; PS, Photosystem; qE, Energy-dependent quenching; qI, 63 Photoinhibitory-dependent quenching; WC, Water content; SDS-PAGE, Sodium dodecyl 64 sulfate - polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; V, Violaxanthin; VAZ, Violaxathin+Anthera-65 xanthin+Zeaxanthin; VDE, Violaxanthin de-epoxidase; Y(NPQ), quantum yield of lightinduced NPQ; Y(NO), quantum yield of non-regulated NPQ; Z, Zeaxanthin; ZE, Zeaxanthin
epoxidase; ΔpH, Trans-thylakoid proton concentration gradient.

#### 68 **1. Introduction**

69 Photosynthesis comprises a series of reactions that involve light-harvesting, electron 70 transport, and the generation of a proton gradient across the thylakoid membrane. These 71 processes require tight coordination and adjustment in response to internal and external 72 factors such as light quantity and quality, CO<sub>2</sub> availability, temperature, and nutrient 73 availability (reviewed by Nelson and Yocum, 2006; Järvi et al., 2013; Colombo et al., 2016; 74 Flügge et al., 2016). Under stress conditions, electron acceptors of the photosynthetic 75 electron transport chain are often limited. Plants try to prevent impairment in electron flow 76 through photorespiration and cyclic electron transfer, but these electron transfer pathways 77 cannot completely remove excess electrons. Thus, suppressing charge separation is essential 78 in preventing photo-oxidative damage. It is well known that plants down-regulate 79 photosystem II (PSII) activity and suppress electron flow to photosystem I (PSI) (Tikkanen et al. 2014). 80

81 Thermal dissipation of excitation energy (non-photochemical quenching: NPQ) is 82 essential in the down-regulation of PSII activity. Several models of thermal dissipation have been proposed in plants. Among these mechanisms, energy-dependent quenching (qE) has 83 84 been the most extensively studied. In this mechanism, dynamic changes of the peripheral 85 antenna composed of light-harvesting complexes (LHC) lead to thermal dissipation of 86 excitation energy (Strand & Kramer 2014; Ruban 2016). These changes are induced by the 87 pH-dependent protonation of PsbS protein (Li et al., 2004). qE is also enhanced by an accumulation of zeaxanthin (Welc et al. 2021), which is induced by pH-dependent 88 89 activation of violaxanthin de-epoxidase (VDE), an enzyme that performs the de-epoxidation of violaxanthin (V) into antheraxanthin (A) and latter zeaxanthin (Z) (the xanthophyll cvcle) 90 91 (Demmig et al. 1987). Other thermal dissipation mechanisms are also employed, especially 92 under intensive or long stress exposure, but these are slower to relax than qE (Nilkens et al. 93 2010; Demmig-Adams et al. 2012; Brooks et al. 2013; Szymańska et al. 2017; Malnoë 94 2018). Among those, photoinhibition, or qI, has been considered as resulting from the 95 degradation or inactivation of the D1 subunit of PSII, although these processes do not always 96 take place concurrently (Chow et al. 1989). Direct energy transfer between PSII and PSI,

known as spillover, is also responsible for thermal dissipation (Yokono *et al.* 2015, 2019)
and is crucial for long-term quenching in overwintering conifer needles (Bag *et al.* 2020).

99 The NPQ mechanisms mentioned above have been most extensively studied in model 100 photosynthetic organisms (mainly Arabidopsis thaliana) under relatively short-term stresses 101 such as several minutes to several hours of high-light exposure. Under such conditions, the 102 major strategy to dissipate excess energy is qE quenching of PSII. However, additional 103 mechanisms may likely be necessary to protect the photosynthetic machinery in long-term 104 stress conditions such as drought or winter cold conditions. Several different mechanisms, 105 including the above-mentioned spillover (Bag et al. 2020), phosphorylation of LHCII 106 (Grebe et al. 2020), or Z accumulation (reviewed in Demmig-Adams et al., 2020), have 107 been suggested as possibly responsible for sustained NPQ in wintertime. It was also reported 108 that D1 degradation is correlated with sustained NPQ in white pine, but not in white spruce 109 (Merry et al. 2017).

110 It is widely accepted that thermal dissipation of excitation energy in PSI occurs when the 111 special chlorophyll pair (P700) is oxidized (Schlodder et al., 2005). This mode of quenching (P700+ quenching) is active even when the iron-sulfur clusters within PSI are damaged 112 113 (Tiwari et al. 2016). In contrast, there are only a few reports showing evidence for thermal 114 dissipation at PSI antennae (PSI-NPQ). Ballottari et al. (2014) reported that Z binding to the 115 PSI-LHCI complex in the *npq2* Arabidopsis mutant induces rapid quenching, resulting in 116 the apparent 30% reduction of PSI-LHCI antenna size in comparison to the wild type. 117 However, Tian et al. (2017) challenged this model by reporting that they did not observe 118 differences in the decay kinetics of PSI fluorescence between dark-adapted and high-light-119 adapted Arabidopsis plants. PSI-NPO was also reported in the green alga Chlamydomonas 120 reinhardtii (Girolomoni et al. 2019), and in the moss Physcomitrium patens (formerly 121 Physcomitrella patens) (Pinnola et al. 2015). The paucity of reports on quenching in PSI 122 antenna may be because, at room temperature, PSI emits much less fluorescence compared 123 with PSII and it is difficult to normalize its fluorescence intensity to estimate PSI quantum 124 yield. The studies on PSI-NPQ mentioned above analyzed time-resolved changes in 125 absorption or fluorescence normalized either by the initial level of the signals (Ballottari et 126 al. 2014; Tian et al. 2017) or by using a green fluorescent protein as an internal standard 127 (Pinnola et al. 2015). On the other hand, an integrating sphere can monitor virtually all 128 photons emitted from the light source and sample, making it possible to normalize the fluorescence intensity by the number of absorbed photons. Using an integrating sphere, we have previously analyzed the absolute quantum yields of photosystems in a green alga (Ueno *et al.* 2018). The present study is the first report on the use of this technique to estimate PSI quantum yield of a drought-stressed higher plant.

133 Previously, we have shown that *Jatropha curcas* can withstand long periods of water 134 withholding (up to 7 weeks) recovering photosynthetic capacity within only 3 days after 135 rewatering (Sapeta et al. 2016). It is noteworthy that, unlike desiccation-tolerant plants, J. 136 curcas can maintain water content during an extended drought period. Upon drought 137 imposition, the chlorophyll (Chl) a to b ratio decreases, indicating either a decrease in the 138 PSII core complexes or an increase in the LHCII level (Sapeta et al. 2013, 2016). 139 Considering J. curcas quick recovery after rewatering, this response is not the consequence 140 of uncontrolled damage, but it could be part of a regulated response to drought.

141 In this study, we aimed to gain insight into the mechanism that J. curcas uses to 142 withstand long-term drought, focusing on the composition and response of each of its 143 photosystems under an extended (3 weeks) drought period. We found that accompanying 144 the decrease of Chl a/b, the core complexes of PSII also decrease during drought, while the 145 levels of the PSII core complexes rapidly increase after 3 days of rewatering. A large amount 146 of Z was found to accumulate and bind to PSII-LHCII supercomplexes and PSI-LHCI. 147 Furthermore, using an integrating sphere, a drought-induced decrease in PSI quantum yield 148 was observed, and fully reversible upon rewatering. These results suggest that fast thermal 149 dissipation in PSI has physiological relevance during prolonged drought periods.

150 **2. Materials and Methods** 

#### 151 <u>Plant Material</u>

Seeds of *Jatropha curcas* were germinated in clean sand, and 10-day-old size uniform seedlings were transplanted to 2.5 L pots containing a mixture of sand, peat, and soil (2:1:1) supplemented with a commercial fertilizer (Osmocote, Scotts, Netherlands) (3.5 g/pot) (N:P:K: Mg, 16:9:12:2.5). Plants were daily irrigated until the beginning of the treatments. Experiments were carried out in a growth chamber with a 12 h photoperiod, a day/night temperature of  $27.3 \pm 1.6$  to  $24.7 \pm 0.9^{\circ}$ C, relative humidity of  $51 \pm 8\%$ , and average light intensity at plant level of ~300 µmol photon m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.

# 159 <u>Drought conditions</u>

160 Potted 46-day-old seedlings (six-leaf stage) were either subjected to drought imposed by 161 water withholding (Stress) or continuously grown under well-watered conditions (Control) for all experiments except for the purification of PSI-LHCI, as described below. To assess 162 163 the recovery capacity of the stressed plants, a group of plants under drought for 19 days was 164 rewatered (Recovery). Soil water content was used to monitor stress intensity (Sapeta et al. 165 2013). Growth was monitored as described in Sapeta et al. (2013, 2016). For all measurements, at least three plants were used per treatment and sampling point. The 166 167 experiments were performed in duplicate. A third experiment was performed for the 168 purification of PSI-LHCI using 16-month-old potted plants and subjecting them to water 169 withholding for 50 days.

### 170 *Leaf gas exchange and Chl a fluorescence*

171 Leaf gas exchange was assessed with a portable infrared gas analyser (LI-6400; LI-COR 172 Inc., USA). A block temperature of 28°C, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 400 ppm, 400 µmol photons  $m^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup> of light intensity (10% blue and 90% red light), and an airflow rate of 300 µmol s<sup>-1</sup> 173 was used to monitor net photosynthesis ( $A_n$ , µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and stomatal conductance to 174 water vapour (gs, mol H<sub>2</sub>O m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) in fully expanded and illuminated leaves (3-4 h light 175 photoperiod). Measurement of Chl a fluorescence was performed with a PAM fluorometer 176 177 (PAM2000 Heinz-Walz, Germany). Plants were kept in darkness for at least 15 min before 178 measurements. Fo (the minimum fluorescence yield measured in dark-adapted leaves) was determined with a weak measuring light (6  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and was followed by a 179 saturating pulse to estimate Fm (the maximum fluorescence yield measured in dark-adapted 180 leaves). Afterward, red actinic light (450 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) was switched on, and 181 182 saturating pulses were emitted (every 20 s) to estimate NPQ for a maximum period of 300 183 s. The fluorescence amplitude before the last saturating pulse was defined as F, and the 184 maximum fluorescence during the last saturating pulse was defined as Fm'. Maximum 185 variable fluorescence (Fv/Fm) was calculated as (Fm - Fo)/Fm (Kitajima & Butler 1975). 186 The effective photochemical quantum yield of PSII (Y(II)) was calculated as (Fm'- F)/ Fm' 187 (Genty et al., 1996). NPQ was calculated as [(Fm/Fm') - 1] (Bilger & Björkman 1990). 188 Y(NPQ) representing the quantum yield of light-induced NPQ was calculated as [(F/Fm') -189 (F/Fm)], Y(NO) representing the quantum yield of non-regulated NPQ was calculated as F/Fm (Genty *et al.*, 1996). The coefficient of photochemical fluorescence quenching (qP) was
calculated as (Fm' - F) / (Fm' - Fo) (Schreiber *et al.* 1986).

#### 192 *Leaf pigment composition*

193 Two leaf discs ( $\emptyset = 19$  mm) were cut from a fully expanded leaf and immediately frozen 194 in liquid nitrogen, and pigments were extracted with chilled acetone (-30°C) by mechanical 195 disruption of the leaf tissue. High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) 196 determinations were performed using a Hitachi model, equipped with an L-7100 pump, L-197 2200 sample injector, L-7300 column oven, and L-2450 diode array detector (operating in 198 the range of 400-700 nm), and with a C18 column (YMC AL303, 5 µm particles, 250 x 4.6 199 mm). For all pigments except for  $\beta$ -carotene determination, the mobile phase (solutions A: 200 ethanol-methanol-hexane (20:60:20, v/v/v) and B: methanol) and elution was carried out 201 using a graded descending series of A in B (100% - 17 min, 70% - 1 min, 50% - 1 min, 20% 202 - 1 min, 10% - 1 min and 0% - 10 min). The column was equilibrated with 100% A - 8 min. 203 For  $\beta$ -carotene determinations, a second run was performed with 100% B for 13 min. 204 Calibration curves for quantitative determinations were performed by linear regression of 205 standard peak area versus the respective concentration.

# 206 <u>Leaf water content</u>

207 Leaf water content (WC) was determined as WC=  $[(FW - DW)/FW] \times 100$ , six leaf discs 208 ( $\emptyset = 19$  mm) were collected for each plant from the three youngest expanded leaves (2 discs 209 per leaf). FW represents the fresh weight of freshly cut leaf discs and DW stands for dry 210 weight after drying the leaf discs at 50°C (until a constant weight was achieved).

# 211 <u>SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting</u>

212 A 20 mg aliquot of grinded leaf tissue was homogenized with 200 µl of extraction buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 2% SDS, 350 mM sucrose, and 20 mM DTT]. Homogenates 213 214 were centrifuged at  $21,600 \times g$  for 5 min at 4°C, and supernatants were used for SDS-PAGE. 215 Leaf proteins (equivalent to 0.2 µg of Chl) were separated in 14% polyacrylamide gels, 216 where the ratio of bisacrylamide to the total acrylamide was 2.6%. The gels were 217 prepared using a gel buffer containing 12.4 mM Tris/HCl (pH 6.8), 0.1% SDS, and 6 M 218 urea. After electrophoresis, one gel was stained using Coomassie Brilliant Blue (CBB) 219 and the remaining gels were used for immunoblotting analysis. The resolved proteins were

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220 electroblotted onto a PVDF membrane (GE Healthcare) and detected with primary 221 antibodies as follows: anti-CP43 (Tanaka et al. 1991) and Agrisera's anti-CP47 222 (AS04 038), anti-Lhcb1 (AS01 004), anti-Lhcb2 (AS01 003), anti-PsaB (AS10 695), 223 anti-Lhca1 (AS01 005) and anti-Lhca2 (AS01 006) antisera. Chemiluminescence signals 224 were recorded using a LumiVision Pro 140EX (Aisin Seiki) and quantified using ImageJ 225 (Schindelin et al. 2012). To determine PSII/PSI and PSII/LHCII ratios, the average band 226 intensity of CP43 and CP47, that of Lhcb1 and Lhcb2, and that of PsaB were measured 227 to represent PSII, LHCII, and PSI, respectively.

# 228 *Thylakoid isolation*

229 Thylakoid membranes were isolated from three fully illuminated (300 µmol photons m 230  $^{2}$  s<sup>-1</sup>) and expanded leaves per plant (~9 g FW) grown under control (well-watered), stress 231 (22-days water withholding) or recovery (19-days stress + 3-days rewatering) conditions 232 following the method of Järvi et al. (2011) with minor alterations. In brief, leaves were cut 233 in small pieces (2 x 3 cm) and blended on ice-cold grinding buffer [50 mM HEPES-KOH 234 (pH 7.5 at 4°C), 330 mM sorbitol, 2 mM EDTA, 1mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM ascorbate, 0.05% BSA and 0.25 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> Pefabloc SC as protein inhibitor]. The blended mixture was filtered 235 236 through 2 layers of Miracloth and centrifuged (4,100  $\times$  g for 5 min at 4°C). The pellet was 237 gently resuspended with a brush in shock buffer [50 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.5 at 4°C), 5 238 mM sorbitol, and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>], gently added to the surface of 1.5 volumes of shock buffer 239 supplemented with 80% Percoll (v/v) and immediately centrifuged in a swing out centrifuge  $(1,600 \times g \text{ for 5 min at 4}^\circ\text{C})$ . The intermediate layer (above the Percoll solution) was gently 240 241 collected, resuspended in shock buffer, and centrifuged  $(3,700 \times g \text{ for 5 min at } 4^{\circ}\text{C})$ . The pellet was resuspended in storage buffer [50 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.5 at 4°C), 100 mM 242 243 sorbitol, and 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>]. After Chl quantification (Chl was extracted with 80% acetone 244 and determined spectrophotometrically according to Porra et al., 1989), isolated thylakoids were diluted to 1 mg Chl ml<sup>-1</sup> with BTH buffer [25 mM Bis-tris-HCl (pH 7.0 at 4°C), 20% 245 glycerol (w/v), 10 mM sodium fluoride and 0.25 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> Pefabloc SC], and either 246 247 immediately used or stored at -196°C for future analysis.

#### 248 Large pore clear native PAGE (lpCN-PAGE) fractionation of thylakoid membranes

249 Large pore gradient gels were prepared as previously described (Yokono et al. 2015). 250 Briefly, gels included a separation gel with an acrylamide gradient (3.5-12.5%, where 251 the ratio of bisacrylamide to the total acrylamide was 3%) and a stacking gel (3% 252 acrylamide concentration, where the ratio of bisacrylamide to the total acrylamide was 253 20%). Both gels components were prepared using the same buffer [50 mM Bis-Tris/HCl 254 (pH 7.0 at 4°C), 0.5 M 6-aminocaproic acid, and 0.05% digitonin as detergent]. The 255 separation gel was prepared at 4°C and polymerized at 25°C for 3 h, the stacking gel was 256 prepared at room temperature and polymerized for 40 min at 30°C.

257 Isolated thylakoids (1 mg Chl ml<sup>-1</sup>) membranes were solubilized by adding an equal 258 volume of 2% n-dodecyl  $\beta$ -D-maltoside ( $\beta$ -DM, Wako) solution on ice mixed by gentle 259 pipetting, followed by centrifugation to remove insoluble materials  $(21,600 \times g \text{ for } 2 \text{ min at})$ 260 4°C). Next, 2% Amphipol A8-35 (Anatrace) was added to the supernatant (as an 261 amphipathic surfactant to maintain membrane proteins solubilized) which was then loaded 262 onto a gradient large-pore gel. For electrophoresis, an anode buffer [50 mM Bis-Tris/HCl 263 (pH 7.0 at 4°C)] and a cathode buffer [50 mM Tricine, 15 mM Bis-Tris/HCl (pH 7.0 at 264 4°C), 0.01% Amphipol] were used according to Yokono et al. (2015b). Electrophoresis 265 was performed at 4°C in the dark for approximately 3 h with a gradual increase in the voltage 266 as follows: 75 volts for 30 min, 100 volts for 30 min, 125 volts for 30 min, 150 volts for 60 267 min, 175 volts for 30 min, followed by 200 volts until the sample reached the end of the gel 268 (normally 15 min) (Järvi et al. 2011).

# 269 <u>PSI-LHCI purification by sucrose density gradient</u>

270 PSI-LHCI was purified from 16-month-old plants under control conditions or stress (50 271 days of water withholding). Thylakoids were isolated as described above after adapting the plants to low-light (20 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) for 14 h. PSI-LHCI purification was performed 272 273 according to Ballottari et al. (2004) as follows: thylakoid membranes were solubilized with 274 1% (w/v)  $\beta$ -DM and then fractionated by ultracentrifugation in a 0.1-1 M sucrose gradient 275 supplemented with 0.06%  $\beta$ -DM and 5 mM Tricine, pH 7.8. After centrifugation for 21 h at 276  $40,000 \times g$  in an RPS56T rotor (Hitachi) at 4°C, the lowest Chl-containing band was 277 collected, and 4% (w/v) Amphipol A8-35 was added to a final concentration of 1%.

278 Isolated photosynthetic complexes second dimension analysis by SDS-PAGE

After electrophoresis, the lpCN–PAGE gel lanes were cut and incubated in 10% (w/v) SDS and 0.5% (w/v) 2-mercaptoethanol, at 30°C for 50 min. A gel lane was placed horizontally over a 14% polyacrylamide with 6 M urea and subjected to conventional SDS-PAGE analysis. Staining was performed with SYPRO Ruby protein gel stain (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

For pigment extraction of excised gel bands, gel slices were manually grinded with a pestle. A small amount of water (ca. 50  $\mu$ L) was added and centrifuged twice at 4°C for 10 min at 21,600 × g. The supernatant was collected and 4 volumes of 100% acetone were added. Pigments were quantified by HPLC, as above described for leaf pigment determinations, with an injection volume of 60  $\mu$ L.

# 289 Gel images acquisition

Gel images were captured with a scanner (GT-X970, Epson, Japan) and levels were
adjusted equally among treatments (Photoshop CS5.1, Adobe Systems, USA). Gel
fluorescence pictures and SYPRO Ruby stained gels were captured after excitation using
a LumiVision Pro 140EX (Aisin Seiki, Japan) equipped with a custom-made LED array
(466 nm, FWHM 26 nm) and a long pass optical filter (YA3 SO-56, Kenko Tokina Co.,
Japan).

# 296 <u>Photosynthetic complexes spectroscopy sample collection</u>

297 The fluorescence quantum yield at low temperature was measured to determine the 298 absolute fluorescence emission of PSII and PSI complexes for control, stress, and recovery 299 leaves. In detail, one disc ( $\emptyset = 2 \text{ cm}$ ) was collected from each leaf either adapted to dark 300 (11 h darkness) or light (3 h under the regular photoperiod described above), transferred 301 to the quartz tubes, and frozen within 30 s. Additionally, PSI-LHCI excised bands (from 302 lpCN-PAGE) and fractions recovered from the sucrose density gradient were placed 303 inside quartz tubes, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C before 304 spectroscopic measurements.

#### 305 *Low-temperature fluorescence quantum yield*

306Absolute fluorescence spectra at -196°C were measured with a spectrofluorometer307equipped with an integrating sphere (JASCO FP-6600/ILFC-543L) as described by Ueno *et* 

al. (2018). The excitation wavelength was 440 (mainly exciting Chl a) or 480 nm (mainly
 exciting Chl b and carotenoids) to distinguish the overall responses of photosystems and
 those of the peripheral antenna. The fluorescence intensity was normalized relative to the
 number of photons absorbed by each sample.

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#### 313 *<u>Time-resolved fluorescence analyses</u>*

314 Fluorescence decay-associated spectra (FDAS) were constructed as previously 315 described (Yokono et al. 2008; Akimoto et al. 2012). In brief, time-resolved 316 fluorescence was measured using the time-correlated single photon counting method at 317 -196 °C. The excitation wavelength was set to 408 nm and the repetition rate of the pulse trains was 2 MHz, which did not interfere with measurements taken at up to 100 ns 318  $(24.4 \text{ ps/channel} \times 4096 \text{ channels})$ . To improve the time resolution, time-resolved 319 fluorescence was also measured for up to 10 ns (2.4 ps/channel  $\times$  4096 channels). 320 321 Following global analysis of the fluorescence kinetics, FDAS were constructed.

## 322 <u>Statistical analysis</u>

Data were subjected either to a t-test for single comparisons or Analysis of Variance
 (ANOVA) for multiple comparisons using the statistical software package SIGMAPLOT
 11.0 (Systat Software Inc., Chicago, USA). For ANOVA, mean comparison was carried out
 using Tukey's multiple comparison test. Significant results were assumed for *p*-value ≤0.05.

# 327 **3. Results**

#### 328 Leaf water content is maintained under drought

329 J. curcas plants (46-days-old) were subjected to well-watered conditions (control) or 330 drought imposed by water withholding (stress) for 36 days (Figure 1a). After 19 days of 331 water withholding (when the soil water content was stable, Figure S1a of the supplementary 332 data available at JXB online) a group of plants was rewatered, to evaluate the recovery of 333 drought-induced photosynthetic adjustments (recovery, Figure 1a). Stress application 334 resulted in a fast decrease of soil water content (Figure S1a) and growth arrest (Figure 1c 335 and Figure S1 b-d), nonetheless, stress had no effect on leaf water content (Figure 1b). 336 Moreover, no visible signs of wilting or necrosis/photobleaching lesions were observed in 337 stress leaves (day 22, Figure 1c).

#### 338 Sustained down-regulation of PSII and increased NPO occur under drought

339 To investigate the drought effect on leaf physiology, we monitored leaf gas exchange, and 340 chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence parameters (Figure 2). Stomatal conductance (gs) and net 341 photosynthesis (A<sub>n</sub>) gradually decrease under drought until day 11, remaining low thereafter (Figure 2a-b). After rewatering,  $g_s$  and  $A_n$  significantly increased within 24 hours (day 20, 342 343 recovery) reaching control levels within 7 days. Chl fluorescence parameters indicating the 344 maximum quantum yield of PSII (Fv/Fm), the quantum yield of PSII (Y(II)), open PSII 345 population (qP), thermal dissipation that is regulated in a short term (Y(NPQ) and NPQ) and 346 constitutive thermal dissipation (Y(NO)) were calculated by measuring Chl fluorescence 5 347 min after dark-to-light transition (Figure 2f-h and Figure S3). Fv/Fm in the stressed plants 348 decreased from day 10 to 17 when it reached 0.7 (Figure 2c). After day 22 Fv/Fm further 349 decreased, reaching 0.6 by day 28, and remaining at this level even under a longer drought 350 period (Day 58, Figure S2a). Fv/Fm decrease was due to a concomitant decrease in the 351 maximal fluorescence (Fm, Figure 2d) and an increase in the minimal fluorescence (Fo, 352 from 0.45 to 0.6, Figure 2e). The drought-induced Fm decrease suggests PSII 353 photoinhibition and sustained NPQ under stress that may lead to Fm underestimation. 354 Indeed, increased sustained quenching in the stress plants is observed from day 6 onward 355 by the increase of heat dissipation which is not responsive to changes in light intensity, 356 translated by the Y(NO) parameter (Figure 2g). An increase in light-induced quenching 357 under stress is also observed by the increase of Y(NPQ) from day 4 onwards (Figure 2f). 358 An increase in NPQ in the stress plants was also observed from day 4 to day 10 (Figure 2h). 359 However, no major differences between control and stress plants in NPQ were observed 360 from day 10 onwards. This lack of differences may be explained by Fm underestimation due 361 to sustained quenching mechanisms. Moreover, a drought-induced decrease of Y(II) and qP 362 was observed, indicating an increase in the reduced plastoquinone population (Figure S3). 363 After rewatering, Fv/Fm and NPQ parameters in the stressed plants recovered to the control 364 levels (Fig. 2 c-h).

365 Drought induces accumulation and overnight retention of zeaxanthin

Analysis of leaf photosynthetic pigment contents on day 22 revealed similar Chl contents
between control, stress, and recovery plants (Figure 3a). Moreover, similar total Chl levels
were observed between treatments even after a longer stress application (58 days, Figure

369 S2b). Chl a to b ratio was the lowest under stress, and the highest in the control, while it was 370 intermediate during recovery, indicating changes in the peripheral antenna composition 371 under stress and recovery (Figure 3b and Figure S4). Major differences in carotenoid content 372 were observed for the xanthophyll cycle pigments (Figure 3, Figure S5, and S6). On day 22, 373 an increased de-epoxidation index (DEI) of the xanthophyll cycle pigments was observed 374 for stress leaves as compared to control both under light-adapted (0.73 in stress and 0.09 in 375 control) and dark-adapted conditions (0.49 in stress and 0.06 in control) (Figure 3c). The 376 observed high leaf xanthophyll DEI under stress was due to a decrease in V content, 377 accompanied by an increase in antheraxanthin (A) and especially in Z (Figure 3d and Figure 378 S6a-c). The xanthophyll DEI further increased, in both light- and dark-adapted stress leaves, 379 along with stress progression (day 36, Figure S5b and day 58, Figure S2d). The changes in 380 DEI between light and dark conditions indicate that photosynthetic electron transfer 381 occurred and  $\Delta pH$  across the thylakoid membrane is formed under light conditions in both 382 control and stressed plants. Nevertheless, it was notable that part of the Z pool was not 383 converted to violaxanthin (V) under dark conditions in the stressed plants. After rewatering, 384 the DEI was restored to control levels (0.12 light and 0.08 dark, respectively). In addition to 385 xanthophyll interconversions, the total xanthophyll pool (V+A+Z) per Chl showed a 2-fold increase under stress, suggesting that besides conversion of pre-existing V into A+Z, de 386 387 novo synthetized Z is accumulated under stress (Figure S6d). Other carotenoids measured 388 (lutein, neoxanthin, and  $\beta$ -carotene) showed no significant alterations in response to stress 389 until day 26 (Figure S6e-g), except for an increase in neoxanthin on day 22 in the recovery 390 plants. The reason for the change in neoxanthin content is not clear at the moment. Although 391 it was not statistically significant, we could observe a slight increase in lutein and a decrease 392 in  $\beta$ -carotene contents for stress and recovery plants on day 22, as compared to control 393 conditions (Figure 3b), which is consistent with the observed decrease in the PSII core 394 proteins (see below).

- 395
- 396

5 <u>Drought induces reorganization of photosynthetic complexes</u>

Thylakoid membrane protein complexes were solubilized and fractionated by large-pore
clear native PAGE gel electrophoresis (lpCN-PAGE, Figure 4). It should be noted that we
used wide combs (ca. 11 mm) for sample loading since a relatively large amount of uniform

400 protein bands was necessary for subsequent pigment extraction and spectroscopic analysis. 401 When using wide combs, both sides of a lane tend to be distorted, thus we removed the 402 distorted part of the gel from subsequent analysis and used only the uniform middle part of 403 each lane (Figure 4 and Figure S7). In addition, the individual pigment composition of the 404 most prominent complexes was quantified and the protein subunits composing each 405 complex were assessed by denaturing SDS-PAGE. The identities of the isolated complexes 406 shown in Figure 4a were assigned based on migration patterns, absorption and fluorescence 407 spectra, apparent molecular weights (estimated from the second-dimension SDS-PAGE), 408 and pigment compositions, as compared with reported data (Aro et al. 2004; Järvi et al. 409 2011) (for details see Appendix S1, Figure S7 and Table S1 in the Supporting Information). 410 In this lpCN-PAGE analysis, PSII-LHCII super-complexes (PSII-LHCIIsc) were 411 decreased under stress in comparison with the control (Figure 4a,b). On the other hand, 412 LHCII trimer/monomer bands increased under stress, resulting in a decreased PSII to LHCII 413 ratio under stress (0.6 versus 1.1, respectively, Figure 4c). The decrease in the PSII to LHCII 414 ratio was due to a decrease in PSII core proteins levels and an increase in Lhcb levels under 415 stress as was assessed by immunoblotting analysis of CP43 and CP47, Lhcb 1 and 2 (Figure 416 S8). After 3-days of rewatering, PSII-LHCIIsc levels increased toward control levels and 417 LHCII trimer/monomer levels decreased, although LHCII trimer/monomer levels remained 418 slightly increased in relation to the control (Figure 4a).

On the other hand, the content of the PSI-LHCI band (which was co-migrating with a
minor amount of the PSII dimer) remained similar between treatments (Figure 4a),
presenting similar protein content and distribution (Figure 4b) and showing similar protein
levels for PsaB, Lhca1, and Lhca2 (Figure S8). Consistently, a decrease in the PSII to PSI
ratio was observed under stress as compared with control (1.1 *versus* 1.4, respectively,
Figure 4c).

## 425 Zeaxanthin binds the pigment-binding complexes under stress

426 No major variations were observed for the total Chl to total carotenoid ratio in the pigment 427 compositions of PSII-LHCIIsc, PSI-LHCI, and LHC trimer between treatments (Figure 4d). 428 Accordingly, similar subunit compositions in each complex were observed in control, stress, 429 and recovery (Figure 4b). Chl *a* to *b* ratios in these complexes were overall similar between 430 treatments(Figure 4d). On the other hand, a high DEI ( $\geq 0.7$ ) was observed under stress for 431 all the isolated complexes, with DEI decreasing toward control values after 3 days of

432 recovery (Figure 4d and Table S1). In detail, under stress, ~2.5 Z molecules were found per

- 433 100 Chls of PSII-LHCIIsc and LHCII, while  $\sim$ 2 Z were found per 100 Chls for the PSI-
- 434 LHCI enriched band (Table S1). These amounts are higher than the reported 0.8-1.1 Z (per
- 435 100 Chls) bound to PSII-LHCIIsc and LHCII trimer (Dall'Osto *et al.*, 2012; Xu *et al.*, 2015)
- 436 and ~1 Z per PSI-LHCI (Ballottari et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2017) reported for A. thaliana

437 under high-light stress, while it was lower than the Z contents in the npq2 Arabidopsis

438 mutant (~3.2 Z per 100 Chl: Ballottari *et al.*, 2014).

## 439 PSII and PSI fluorescence undergoes quenching in drought conditions

To further investigate the effect of drought and subsequent recovery on light harvesting and energy distribution of both photosystems, we measured Chl fluorescence from leaves or purified PSI particles at –196°C using an integrating sphere (JASCO FP-6600/ILFC-543L; Ueno *et al.*, 2018), which collect fluorescence emission in almost all directions (Figure 5). In this series of experiments, fluorescence emission spectra of the control, stress, and recovered leaves were obtained and normalized relative to the number of photons absorbed by each sample.

447 With leaf samples harvested from the control, stress, and recovery plants, three distinct peaks were observed (Figure 5), two being associated with PSII (~688 and ~697nm) and 448 449 one associated with PSI (~736 nm) (Lamb et al. 2018). In light-adapted conditions, plants 450 in control and recovery conditions showed similar spectra and fluorescence intensity along 451 the whole range of wavelengths, while under stress a clear reduction in fluorescence 452 intensity was observed for the PSI peak (35% reduction, Figure 5a). One possible 453 explanation for this could be a relative increase in the amount of the quenched-state PSII, 454 which would lead to an apparent decrease in the relative intensity of PSI fluorescence. 455 However, we think this is unlikely due to the rather decreased PSII-LHCIIsc content 456 observed in the stressed leaves in CN-PAGE analysis (Figure 4a). Another possibility is a 457 decrease in the quantum yield of PSI in stressed leaves, as compared to control or recovered 458 leaves.

To get further insights into the observed fluorescence decrease under stress, we compared the low-temperature fluorescence spectra of light-adapted (in which NPQ should be active) *versus* dark-adapted leaves (in which NPQ, at least the qE component, should be relaxed) (Figure 5b). In the light-adapted control and recovery plants, the low-temperature
PSI fluorescence was higher than in dark-adapted conditions (Figure 5b). In contrast, under
stress, the PSI fluorescence was decreased by 18% in light-adapted conditions, as compared
to dark-adapted. These results suggest that the light-induced decrease in stress leaves PSI
quantum yield could be due to non-photochemical quenching at PSI.

467 Furthermore, we observed a slight shift to shorter wavelengths of the PSI fluorescence 468 peak in stressed plants in light conditions (from 736 to 734 nm). Taken together, these results 469 suggest that the fluorescence intensity of LHCI long-wavelength Chls (red Chls) may be 470 lowered under drought, making the PSI peak appear to be relatively shifted to a shorter 471 wavelength. Subsequently, we compared the fluorescence after excitation at 440 nm, to 472 excite Chl a, or 480 nm, to excite Chl b and carotenoids (Figure S9). In the control and 473 recovery plants, excitation at 440 or 480 nm did not show differences in the fluorescence 474 spectra, while in the stressed plants, a 13% reduction in PSI quantum yield was observed 475 when excited at 480 nm as compared with 440 nm. Thus, indicating that the excitation 476 energy was quenched within the LHC antenna, or when it was transferred from the LHC antenna to PSI. 477

478 To further investigate the possibility that absorbed light energy is quenched at PSI, we 479 examined the fluorescence yield of isolated PSI-LHCI complexes (Figure 5c). PSI-LHCI-480 enriched CN-PAGE gel slices containing a small amount of co-migrated PSII dimer (see 481 Figure 4a) were used for fluorescence measurements (Figure 5c). In these studies, the PSI-482 LHCI fluorescence of the stressed plants was significantly lower than that of control or 483 recovery plants. Since the fluorescence intensity measured in the integrating sphere was 484 normalized to the number of absorbed photons, we considered the possibility that the 485 apparent decrease of PSI fluorescence in the stressed leaf samples could be influenced by 486 the comigrating PSII dimer. Therefore, to obtain a more accurate estimation of the PSI 487 fluorescence yield we further purified the PSI-LHCI fraction by ultracentrifugation in a 488 sucrose gradient. The resulting PSI fraction proved to be less contaminated with PSII, which 489 was revealed by subsequent SDS-PAGE (Figure S10c). The Z content of the purified PSI-490 LHCI fraction was 0.9 and 2.4 for control and stressed plants, respectively. These values are 491 slightly increased as compared to those we obtained for the plants previously analysed 492 because in this experiment the plants were older. Nevertheless, we could confirm that the 493 stressed plants show a similar increase in PSI-LHCI NPQ (Figure 5d) and DEI (Figure S10d) 494 as compared with the plants analysed in Figure 4. This increased PSI-LHCI NPQ is visible
495 by the 14% fluorescence reduction in stress *versus* control samples, measured with an
496 integrating sphere (Figure 5d).

# 497 <u>PSII quenching is 25% faster in drought-treated leaves</u>

498 FDAS were constructed from the fluorescence kinetics measured at -196°C with leaf 499 discs collected from light-adapted plants (3 h after the onset of illumination). Six 500 components shown in Table 1 were required to describe the fluorescence kinetics. The 501 second component (400 ps) increased in stress compared with control (Figure 6a). In 502 addition, the mean lifetime of illuminated leaves in the PSII wavelength region (680-690 503 nm) became 25% shorter in stress as compared with control (Table 1, 1.52 ns versus 1.14 504 ns, control and stress respectively). They may reflect light-dependent quenching in PSII, 505 similar to that observed in A. thaliana (14%, 1.36 ns versus 1.17 ns, Yokono et al., 2015b). 506 On the other hand, the PSI wavelength region (730-740 nm) showed no significant 507 difference in the mean lifetime between control and stress (Table 1) despite the decreased 508 fluorescence yields of PSI (Figure 5). Thus, we interpreted these results as suggesting that 509 PSI-LHCI quenching occurs under drought with a time constant shorter than the time 510 resolution limit of our measurements, that is 5 ps.

511 The delayed fluorescence which originated from charge recombination at PSII showed 512 a fluorescence peak in the wavelength region of PSI (Figure 6a, 6th components, 22-26 ns), 513 indicating that J. curcas could transfer excitation energy from PSII to PSI which is termed 514 spillover. We calculated the amount of spillover based on the delayed fluorescence at the 515 PSI region by assuming that the contribution of the PSII vibrational band to the fluorescence 516 at the PSI region is 15% (Yokono et al. 2015). Under this assumption, we estimated that 517 similar amounts of PSII excitation energy (about 60%) are transferred to PSI under both 518 control and stress conditions (Table 1). Thus, we conclude that the regulation of spillover 519 does not account for an increase in NPQ under drought.

Fluorescence decay curves (Figure 6b) were reconstructed from the FDAS data shown in Figure 6, and the results of the integrating sphere shown in Figure 5a. In the LHC (683 nm) and PSII (688 nm) wavelength regions, a slight enhancement of the fastest decay component was observed in the stressed leaves as compared to the control ones (Figure 6b), which may reflect enhanced NPQ in PSII. On the other hand, in the PSI wavelength region 525 (738 nm), a substantial reduction ( $\sim$ 50%) in fluorescence rise which is shown as negative 526 amplitudes was observed in stressed leaves. Interestingly, the fluorescence intensity at time 527 0 was almost the same between control and stressed leaves, suggesting that the amount of 528 absorbed energy by PSI was similar, which is consistent with the similar PsaB levels under 529 stress and control conditions (Figure S8). Except for the early fluorescence rise, no major 530 differences in fluorescence decay were observed between control and stress at 738 nm, 531 although the decay was slightly faster in the control (Figure 6b). The decreased fluorescence 532 rise of PSI in stress can be explained by decreased energy transfer from LHC and/or PSII to 533 PSI. However, this hypothesis is unlikely because few differences were observed in the LHC 534 and PSII wavelength regions (Figure 6a, approximately 690 nm). A more likely explanation 535 is PSI quenching with a time constant equal to (or faster than) PSI red Chl energy acceptation 536 (<30 ps). Thus, we suggest that Jatropha curcas PSI performs fast non-photochemical 537 quenching under drought conditions.

538

#### 539 **4. Discussion**

540 Jatropha curcas presents a water conservation strategy under water-limiting conditions, 541 with strict stomatal closure to avoid water loss through transpiration. Although stomatal 542 closure is an efficient strategy to reduce water loss, it also reduces CO<sub>2</sub> availability, thus 543 limiting CO<sub>2</sub> fixation and increasing the chances of photooxidation. Under such conditions, 544 photorespiration and cyclic electron transfer are enhanced to alleviate a limitation in electron 545 acceptors (Golding & Johnson 2003; Kohzuma et al. 2009; Zivcak et al. 2013; Lima Neto 546 et al. 2017). Nevertheless, it should be essential to down-regulate excitation energy transfer 547 to the reaction center to decrease the overall photosynthetic electron flow.

548 We found that increased NPQ under drought was composed of flexible components, 549 which are rapidly induced/relaxed in response to light, as well as sustained components that 550 remain active in the dark (Figure 2). In this study, sustained NPQ was shown by the 551 sustained decrease of Fv/Fm, increased Y(NO), and overnight Z-retention under drought. 552 Sustained quenching was previously reported for other species subjected to severe and 553 extended stress, such as evergreen conifers at sub-zero temperatures in wintertime (reviewed 554 by Verhoeven, 2014; Bag et al. 2020)) and Quercus species under summer drought 555 (Peguero-Pina et al. 2009). We show that sustained quenching has major physiological 556 relevance under prolonged drought exposure, allowing a "locked-in" photoprotection state 557 and preventing damaging reactions that may occur when qE has not yet been activated (e.g. 558 in the beginning of the light period). Moreover, sustained PSII quenching ensures the 559 maintenance of a low electron flow to PSI in the absence of qE, thus preventing PSI 560 photodamage (Tikkanen et al., 2014). In evergreen trees, it was recently proposed that 561 sustained NPQ was controlled by the phosphorylation of LHC (Grebe et al. 2020) and direct 562 energy transfer from PSII to PSI (Bag et al. 2020). In these trees, photoinhibition may also 563 occur, but a decrease in the reaction center complexes is not significant (Grebe et al. 2020; 564 Bag et al. 2020). In contrast, in the case of J. curcas, photoinhibition (degradation of the 565 PSII core complex) seems to play a major role in drought response, as we observed a striking 566 decrease in Chl *a/b* ratios which is consistent with the decrease of PSII-LHCIIsc (Figure 4) 567 and the amount of PSII CP43 and CP47 subunits (Figure S8). Upon rewatering, Chl a/b 568 ratios and the PSII-LHCIIsc gradually recovered (Figs. 3 and 4, and Figure S8) which agrees 569 with the recovery of photosynthetic activity (Figure 2). The results indicate that a decrease 570 in PSII-LHCIIsc coincided with the down-regulation of PSII (Figure 2d). In a typical form 571 of photoinhibition, D1 is inactivated without apparent loss of the reaction center. In such a case, charge recombination between QA and P680<sup>+</sup> may lead to thermal dissipation of the 572 573 excitation energy, or it was recently suggested that some oxidized chlorophyll molecules in 574 the reaction center complex may quench the excitation energy (Nawrocki et al. 2021). On 575 the other hand, since the reaction center complex was significantly decreased in stressed J. 576 *curcas* plants, thermal dissipation at the peripheral antennae of PSII may dominate.

577 A marked increase in the Z content and DEI was observed in stressed plants likely 578 contributing to increased qE quenching by allosterically changing LHC structure (reviewed 579 by Horton, 2014; Ruban and Mullineaux, 2014). In addition to the alterations in the DEI, 580 the total leaf VAZ pool was found to be doubled under stress (mainly due to increased Z). This indicates that besides de-epoxidation of V to Z bound to LHC proteins, extra Z is 581 582 accumulated. Similarly, an increased VAZ pool under drought was reported for other 583 species (summarized by meta-analysis studies by Wujeska et al., 2013 and Esteban et al., 584 2015). An increase in Z contents by treatment of a chemical plant growth regulator, 585 paclobutrazol, results in drought tolerance in *Quercus ilex* and *Q. robur* (Percival & 586 AlBalushi 2007). Likewise, it was reported that overexpression of  $\beta$ -carotene hydroxylase 587 led to an increase in the VAZ pool and drought tolerance in Tobacco plants, indicating that an increase in Z contents significantly contributes to drought tolerance (Zhao *et al.* 2014). Though current data does not allow us to clarify the role of Z in drought tolerance, we hypothesize that extra Z might localize in the lipid phase, where it can act as an antioxidant (Havaux *et al.* 2007) and/or increase membrane stability (Havaux 1998). Otherwise, extra Z may participate in NPQ without requiring defined binding positions, as it may be trapped in between the antenna proteins contributing to NPQ due to the proximity to the antenna exposed Chls, as suggested by Xu *et al.* (2015).

595 We further found that the quantum yield of PSI decreased by about 30% in the stressed 596 leaves as compared to control or recovered leaves (Figures 5a and 5b). In these 597 measurements, an integrating sphere captured all photons emitted, and the fluorescence 598 intensity was normalized to the total photons absorbed. A possible explanation for a 599 decrease in PSI fluorescence could be that the photon absorption by PSII and/or LHCII have 600 increased under drought conditions. However, we think this is unlikely because PSII was 601 decreased under drought while the PSI levels were relatively constant in all treatments (Figures 4 and S8). Moreover, the purified PSI fraction also showed a decrease in its 602 603 quantum yield (Figure 5d). These results suggest that the excited energy is to some extent 604 quenched at PSI.

605 The fluorescence decay curves of the control and stressed plants at 738 nm which 606 represents the fluorescence from PSI were similar except that the initial rise of Chl 607 fluorescence was substantially suppressed in the stressed plants (Figure 6). This suggests 608 that the quenching occurs very fast, probably faster than  $\sim 10$  ps. Since the long-wavelength 609 fluorescence (~738 nm) is assumed to be originated from Chl pairs of low-energy states 610 (red-shifted Chl), which are most likely located at LHCI (Jennings et al. 2004; Oin et al. 611 2015), we speculate that the excited energy is quenched nearby the red-shifted Chl. The exact mechanism behind our observed decrease in PSI fluorescence is not clear at present, 612 613 but a possible mechanism is that Z induces structural changes in PSI, or that Z forms a 614 quenching site in the stressed leaves. Both hypotheses are in line with our observations that 615 the fluorescence reduction and Z accumulation are reversible upon rewatering (Figure 5a 616 and Table S1).

Excitation energy quenching at PSI was also reported by Ballottari and colleagues
(Ballottari *et al.*, 2014). These authors analyzed the FDAS of the Z accumulating *npq2*Arabidopsis mutant and showed that the second fastest component among their observed

620 FDAS was shortened from 18 ps in the wild type to 12 ps in the *npq2* mutant. They suggested 621 that some Z molecules bound to the interphase of PSI-LHC could be responsible for 622 quenching. This hypothesis is consistent with our observation, except that in J. curcas, PSI-623 LHCI quenching can be even faster. In contrast, Tien et al. (2017) reported that fluorescence 624 decay kinetics of PSI-LHCI were identical in the A. thaliana plants grown under low- and 625 high-light conditions, where they predominantly accumulated V and Z, respectively. The 626 reason for this discrepancy is not clear at present, but in the report of Tien et al. (2017), only 627 one-third of V binding sites were replaced with Z even under high-light conditions, while in 628 the npq2 mutant, all V molecules were replaced by Z. We speculate that more extensive 629 binding of Z to PSI-LHCI may be necessary to induce PSI quenching, as we observed in the 630 stressed J. curcas leaves.

631 PSI quenching has also been reported in algae and moss. In the green alga, Chlorella 632 vulgaris, Z binding decreased the average fluorescence lifetime of an isolated PSI complex 633 from 72 ps to 49 ps (Girolomoni et al. 2020). In Physcomitrium patens, high-light-treated 634 (high NPO) chloroplasts presented a strong decrease of low-temperature PSI fluorescence 635 (in comparison to dark-adapted chloroplasts, *i.e.* unquenched state) (Pinnola et al. 2015). 636 These authors found that PSI fluorescence quenching was due to the action of an LHCSR 637 (light-harvesting complex stress-related protein, a pH-sensing protein involved in the qE 638 component of NPQ in green algae) and LHCII connected to PSI. The same research group 639 also reported LHCSR-dependent PSI quenching in C. reinhardtii (Girolomoni et al. 2019). 640 In this case, the change occurred at a relatively slow range: the constant of one of the decay-641 associated components that fitted the PSI spectrum changed from 1.72 ns to 1.29 ns when 642 high-light was imposed on WT cells.

643 PSI is recognized as more resilient to photodamage than PSII, but it can be also 644 photoinhibited when the electron flow from PSII exceeds the availability of electron 645 acceptors (Hihara and Sonoike, 2001; Sonoike, 2011). Under drought, a decrease in electron 646 acceptors is expected since CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation is largely decreased and NADPH is expected 647 to accumulate. In such conditions, CEF around PSI is expected to be increased to reduce the 648 possibility that electrons accumulate in Fe-S clusters in PSI. Nevertheless, electrons may 649 eventually return to reduce P700 which will be a potential risk for PSI photoinhibition. 650 Under such conditions, rapid quenching at PSI may decrease the risk of PSI photoinhibition.

Thus, we suggest that the concomitant operation of CEF and PSI quenching is important forthe protection of the photosynthetic apparatus under long-term drought conditions.

653 It is known that the oxidized form of P700 (P700<sup>+</sup>) is a potent quencher of excited energy 654 (Shubin et al. 1995; Trissl 1997; Schlodder et al. 2007; Tiwari et al. 2016; Yokono et al. 655 2019). Nevertheless, it is unlikely that  $P700^+$  is responsible for the observed decrease in the 656 quantum yield of PSI under drought, because the energy transfer between the red-shifted 657 Chl and P700<sup>+</sup> is relatively slow at the range of a few hundred picoseconds (Shubin et al. 658 1995; Yokono et al. 2019), while we did not observe significant changes in the components 659 of fluorescence decay in this time range at around 730 nm where the red-shifted Chl emits 660 fluorescence (Figure 6).

661 We show here that under long-term drought, both PSII and PSI have enhanced NPQ 662 energy dissipation capacity, which helps the plant to protect the photosynthetic machinery 663 from long-term drought damages and improves recovery. PSI photoinhibition could largely 664 compromise the recovery capacity after stress relief because PSI repair would require the de 665 novo synthesis and assembly, a slow process requiring several days to complete (Zhang & 666 Scheller 2004; Sonoike 2011). Moreover, this increased PSI-NPQ capacity may contribute to dissipate the energy transferred from PSII by spillover, thus increasing the protection 667 668 against photodamage of the entire thylakoid binding complexes.

Altogether, our data shows that flexible and sustained down-regulation of PSII is employed under drought, involving the reorganization of PSII-LHCIIsc. Concomitantly, we observed a drastic increase in the Z levels as well as enhanced thermal dissipation in PSI. After rewatering, the relaxation of the quenching mechanisms and the readjustment of the photosystems stoichiometry allow the photosynthesis and growth of *J. curcas* plants to be rapidly resumed.

#### 675 **5. Supplementary data**

676 The following supplementary data are available at JXB online.

#### 677 Figure S1. Effect of drought and rewatering on soil water content and plant growth.

# Figure S2. Effect of prolonged drought and rewatering on Chl *a* fluorescence and leaf pigment composition.

680 Figure S3. Effect of drought and rewatering on Y(II) and qP.

| Figure S4. Effect of drought and rewatering on Chl content.  |  |  |
|--|--|--|
| Figure S5. Effect of drought and rewatering on leaf xanthophyll de-epoxidation index.  |  |  |
| Figure S6. Effect of drought and rewatering on carotenoid content of light-adapted leaves.   |  |  |
| Figure S7. Steady-state relative absorption and fluorescence emission spectra of major bands isolated by lpCN-PAGE.                              |  |  |
| Figure S8. Drought-induced changes in the protein levels of photosystems I and II.   |  |  |
| Figure S9. Effect of drought on PSII and PSI low-temperature fluorescence quantum yield after excitation with 440 nm and 480 nm.                 |  |  |
| Figure S10. Purification of PSI-LHCI by sucrose-density ultracentrifugation followed by CN-PAGE.   |  |  |
| Table S1. Pigment composition of isolated photosynthetic complexes by lpCN-PAGE for plants subjected to control, stress, and recovery at day 22. |  |  |
| Appendix S1 Identities of the isolated photosynthetic complexes shown in Fig. 4  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

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706

# 707 7. Author contributions

RT, AT, TH and MMO supervised the research. HS, MY, AT, SA, and RT designed the
experiments; HS, MY, YU, AMC, and RT performed the research; HS, MY, and RT
analyzed the data; HS, MY, RT, SA, and MMO wrote the manuscript and all authors
discussed and improved the manuscript.

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## **Figures and Table**



Figure 1. Experimental overview. (a) 46-days-old potted plants were subjected to control (well-watered), stress (drought by water withholding) or stress followed recovery (19-days of stress followed by rewatering). (b) Leaf water content and (c) morphological aspect of control (well-watered), stress (22-days of drought) and recovery (19-days of drought + 3-days rewatering) plants. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=18 plants per treatment, collected from two independent experiments, except for recovery, in which 4 plants were used). No significant differences were detected in (b) (*p*-value  $\leq 0.05$ ).



**Figure 2. Drought-induced changes on leaf gas exchange and Chl** *a* **fluorescence. (a)** net photosynthesis (A<sub>n</sub>), **(b)** stomatal conductance to water vapour ( $g_s$ ), **(c)** maximum quantum yield of PSII (Fv/Fm), **(d)** maximal fluorescence (Fm), **(e)** minimal fluorescence (Fo), **(f)** quantum yield of light-induced NPQ (Y(NPQ)), **(g)** quantum yield of non-regulated NPQ (Y(NO)) and **(h)** NPQ measured for *J. curcas* plants subjected to well-watered conditions (Control), water withholding (Stress) or stress for 19-days followed by rewatering (Recovery). **(a-b)** Leaf gas exchange measurements were performed with Tblock=28°C, [CO<sub>2</sub>]=400 ppm, light intensity=400 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and air flow rate=300 µmol s<sup>-1</sup>, values are means ± SE (n=4-6 plants). **(c-i)** Chl *a* fluorescence measurements were performed in dark-adapted leaves ( $\geq$ 15 min) using a leaf clip to fix the distance and the leaf area. Fo was determined with a weak measuring light followed by a saturating pulse to estimate Fm. After Fo and Fm determinations, red actinic light (440 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) was turned on, and a saturating pulse was applied every 20 s to calculate Fm' (maximum fluorescence under light), 14 pulses were performed and the last Fm' measurement was used for the calculation of Y(NPQ) and NPQ. Values are means ± SE (n=18 plants from two independent experiments, except for recovery, in which 4 plants were used).



Figure 3. Effect of drought and rewatering on leaf photosynthetic pigment content. (a) Total chlorophyll (Chl) content, (b) Chl *a* to *b* ratio, (c) xanthophyll de-epoxidation index and d) carotenoid content of control, stress, and recovery leaves at day 22. For de-epoxidation index leaf samples were collected under light (3 h illumination) or dark (11 h darkness). Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=6 plants from two independent experiments). De-epoxidation index was calculated as (Z + 0.5 A)/(V + A+ Z). Z, zeaxanthin; V, violaxanthin and A, antheraxanthin. Different letters within the same group indicate significant differences according to Tukey's test (*p-value≤0.05*).



Figure 4. Drought-induced changes in the composition and distribution of thylakoid pigment-binding complexes. (a) Chloroplasts (60 μg of Chl) isolated at day 22 from control, stress, and recovery plants were solubilized with 1% dodecyl-βmaltoside and the pigment-binding complexes separated by large pore clear native PAGE (lpCN-PAGE), fluorescence emission of isolated complexes after excitation with blue light is shown in the right. (b) Protein separation of each photosynthetic complex isolated by lpCN-PAGE from control, stress, and recovery samples was performed by second dimension analysis (SDS-PAGE, 14% acrylamide, 6M urea). SDS/PAGE gels were stained with SYPRO Ruby protein stain. The molecular mass in kDa is indicated in the right. The position of major photosystem I (PsaA +PsaB) and II (CP 47, CP43, D1, and D2) reaction center proteins and lightharvesting proteins (Lhca 1 to 4, Lhcb 1 and 2) was highlighted in the figure. The assignment of protein identity was based on the apparent molecular weight in comparison to the literature (Aro et al., 2004; Järvi et al., 2011). (c) PSII to LHCII and PSII to PSI ratios. Immunoblot band intensity of CP47 and CP43 for PSII, Lhcb1 and 2 for LHCII and PsaB for PSI were quantified using ImageJ and used for ratio determination (see Fig. S8 for details). Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=3 biological samples collected in 2 independent experiments). Significant differences according to the t-test are presented (p-value  $\leq 0.05$ ). (d) Chl a to b ratio (Chl a/b), total Chl to total carotenoid ratio (Chl/Car), and xanthophyll de-epoxidation index (DEI) of isolated PSII-LHCIIsc, PSI-LHCI, and LHCII trimer. The pigment composition of bands enriched with PSII-LHCIIsc (excised bands are highlighted with an asterisk in panel a), PSI-LHCI, and LHCII trimer was determined by HPLC, and pigments normalized by 100 Chls. Bars are means; individual values are presented showing pigment qualifications from 4 independent lpCN-PAGE gels performed after solubilization of thylakoids isolated from two independent experiments. PSII-LHCIIsc, Photosystem II supercomplexes; PSI-LHCI, Photosystem I and light-harvesting complex I; **PSII-D**, Photosystem II dimer; **LHCII**, light-harvesting complex II; **D/M**, dimer/monomer.



Figure 5. Effect of drought on PSI quantum yield. Low temperature fluorescence (-196 °C) emission spectra were measured with an Integrated Sphere, samples were excited at 440 nm and the spectra normalized by total number of absorbed excitation photon numbers per sample. **a-b)** Intact leaf discs collected from control, stress, and recovery plants under (a) light-adapted (3 h illumination) or (b) dark-adapted (11 h dark) conditions. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=3-4 plants from two independent experiments). (c) Isolated PSI-LHCI enriched bands (PSI-LHCI/PSII dimer excised from lpCN-PAGE gels, see Fig.4a) from control, stress, and recovery. Values means  $\pm$  SE (n=3, from two independent experiments). (d) Isolated PSI-LHCI (by sucrose density gradient followed by CN-PAGE, see Fig. S10) from control and stress plants. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=3 independent measurements). Significant differences according to Tukey's test are presented (*p-value≤0.05*).



**Figure 6. Effect of drought on leaf FDAS. (a)** Fluorescence decay-associated spectra (FDAS) of light-adapted (3 h illumination) leaf discs of *J. curcas* plants under control or stress. **(b)** Fluorescence decay curves at 683 nm (top), 688 nm (middle) and 738 (bottom) nm constructed from the FDAS shown in Panel (a). These wavelengths correspond to the typical peak maxima of LHC, PSII and PSI, respectively. Fluorescence intensities are normalized by the results of the quantum yield measurements shown in Fig. 5.

Table 1: Leaf fluorescence decay-associated spectra summary for light-adapted (3 h illumination) leaf discs of *J. curcas* plants under control or stress (3 weeks water-withholding) conditions. DF, delayed fluorescence, PS, photosystem.

| Lifetime fluorescence components | Control     | Stress      |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1st                              | 45 ps       | 30 ps       |
| 2nd                              | 430 ps      | 390 ps      |
| 3rd                              | 1.2 ns      | 1.1 ns      |
| 4th                              | 2.2 ns      | 2.3 ns      |
| 5th                              | 3.6 ns      | 3.5 ns      |
| 6th (DF)                         | 26 ns       | 22 ns       |
| Mean Lifetime                    |             |             |
| PSII : PSI (ns)                  | 1.52 : 2.69 | 1.14 : 2.80 |
|                                  |             |             |
|                                  |             |             |

| Delayed | fluoresc | ence ] | Intensity |
|---------|----------|--------|-----------|
| (41 11  |          | 1      | 4 1)      |

| (the vibrational band corrected) |            |            |
|----------------------------------|------------|------------|
| PSII : PSI                       | 0.484:1.15 | 0.325:1.34 |
|                                  |            |            |
| Estimated spillover ratio        | 57%        | 63%        |
|                                  |            |            |