

Low Growth Temperature Effects a Differential Inhibition of Photosynthesis in Spring and Winter Wheat¹

Vaughan M. Hurry and Norman P. A. Huner*

Department of Plant Sciences, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario N6A 5B7, Canada

ABSTRACT

In vivo room temperature chlorophyll *a* fluorescence coupled with CO₂ and O₂ exchange was measured to determine photosynthetic limitation(s) for spring and winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) grown at cold-hardening temperatures (5°C/5°C, day/night). Plants of comparable physiological stage, but grown at nonhardening temperatures (20°C/16°C, day/night) were used in comparison. Winter wheat cultivars grown at 5°C had light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange and apparent photon yields for CO₂ exchange and O₂ evolution that were equal to or greater than those of winter cultivars grown at 20°C. In contrast, spring wheat cultivars grown at 5°C showed 35% lower apparent photon yields for CO₂ exchange and 25% lower light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange compared to 20°C grown controls. The lower CO₂ exchange capacity is not associated with a lower efficiency of photosystem II activity measured as either the apparent photon yield for O₂ evolution, the ratio of variable to maximal fluorescence, or the level of reduced primary quinone electron acceptor maintained at steady-state photosynthesis, and is most likely associated with carbon metabolism. The lower CO₂ exchange capacity of the spring cultivars developed following long-term exposure to low temperature and did not occur following overnight exposure of nonhardened plants to 5°C.

Attainment of maximum freezing resistance by cold-tolerant cereals such as winter rye and winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is dependent upon growth and development during prolonged exposure of seedlings to low, nonfreezing temperatures (0–5°C) prior to onset of freezing conditions. Growth and development at low temperature are therefore prerequisites for the expression of freezing resistance in these cold-tolerant cereals (8, 14, 17). Because photosynthesis provides the energy for this growth and development, we are interested in understanding the mechanisms by which overwintering cereals maintain optimal photosynthetic capacity at low, cold-hardening growth temperatures.

The most extensive work on the effects of prolonged exposure to low, nonfreezing (0–5°C) as well as freezing temperatures on photosynthesis in cold-tolerant plants has been carried out in conifers (21, 22, 24). However, conifers, unlike cereals such as wheat and rye, do not undergo significant growth during exposure to cold-hardening conditions (21).

Winter rye plants grown at 5°C develop a resistance to

photoinhibition at low temperatures (23) similar to that observed for spinach (32), and are able to maintain light- and CO₂-saturated rates of photosynthesis equivalent to or higher than plants grown at 20°C (12). To exhibit these characteristics, winter rye must develop at low temperatures. Mature leaves developed at 20°C and subsequently exposed to low temperatures for up to 25 d do not exhibit these photosynthetic traits (23). Similarly, *Lolium temulentum* (27) and dicotyledonous winter annuals (4, 29) have equivalent rates of CO₂ exchange under cold-hardening and nonhardening conditions. In contrast, when pines are exposed to cold-hardening conditions they become photosynthetically inhibited (21, 24).

Much of our present knowledge of cold acclimation and freezing tolerance has been gained through comparative studies of spring and winter cereal cultivars grown at cold-hardening and nonhardening temperatures (8, 9, 17, 19). There are published data concerning the effects of measurement temperature (10, 11) and water stress (10, 13, 20) on carbon assimilation in spring and winter wheat, but there is little published information on the effects of development temperature on photosynthesis in cold-tolerant cereals.

Light and CO₂ are required during exposure of winter cereals and other herbaceous crops to low temperature in order to attain maximum cold-hardening (1, 7, 16). An important question, therefore, is whether cold-tolerant winter cereals remain photosynthetically more competent during prolonged exposure to low temperature than the less tolerant spring cultivars. In this study, we use measurements of *in vivo* room temperature Chl *a* fluorescence coupled with CO₂ and O₂ gas exchange to determine the photosynthetic limitation(s) imposed on spring and winter wheat during growth and development at cold-hardening temperatures.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material

Three cultivars of winter (cv Monopol, cv Kharkov, cv Augusta) and three of spring (cv Glenlea, cv Katepwa, cv Marquis) wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) were grown in coarse vermiculite in 7-cm plastic pots at a density of five plants per pot. Water and nutrients were supplied as required in the form of a modified Hoagland solution as described previously (14). Seeds were germinated under controlled environment conditions with a day/night temperature regimen of 20°C/16°C, at a PPFD of 250 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and a 16-h photoperiod. After 7 d, both winter and spring seedlings were cold-hardened by transfer to a temperature regime of 5°C/5°C with photo-

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period and light intensity the same as controls. Control plants remained in the 20°C/16°C regimen.

Comparative Growth Kinetics

Aerial portions of seedlings from two pots exposed to nonhardening conditions were harvested every 3 d; those exposed to cold-hardening conditions were harvested every 7 d. Leaves were counted, then shoot tissues were dried at 105°C to constant weight. Growth coefficients were calculated from the slope of \ln of total shoot dry weight and leaf number versus time (19).

Chl Content

Fresh leaf tissue was extracted in 80% (v/v) acetone. The Chl content was determined according to Arnon (2).

Measurement of CO₂ Gas Exchange

CO₂ exchange rates were measured on attached, fully expanded, third and fourth leaves of 25-d-old nonhardened and 75-d-old cold-hardened plants in a closed system using an LI-COR 6200 (Lincoln, NE) IR CO₂ analyzer. The fourth leaf of Monopol at 20°C was about 60%, but others were fully expanded (Fig. 1), and plants were considered to be at similar physiological stages of development.

Measurements were made at 20 and 5°C air temperature in a controlled-environment growth chamber such that the temperature of the measured leaf and the remainder of the plant were comparable. Relative humidity of the air stream was approximately 50%. Ambient CO₂ ranged from 350 to 450 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$. Plants grown at 20°C to be measured at 5°C and those grown at 5°C to be measured at 20°C were equilibrated at the measurement temperature during the regular 8-h dark period prior to measurement of CO₂ exchange to ensure that the entire plant, not just the leaf being measured, was equilibrated to the measurement temperature. Gas exchange measurements were made 2 h after the beginning of the photoperiod. Temperature shifted plants were therefore equilibrated at the measurement temperature for a total of 10 h prior to measurement of CO₂ exchange. Stomatal conductance and calculated internal CO₂ concentration were measured with the LI-COR 6200 and were unaffected by this temperature shift.

Φ_{app}^2 for CO₂ exchange (mol CO₂ exchanged/mol incident photons) was calculated from the slope of rate versus PPFD in the light-limited (4–125 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) range. Plants were allowed to equilibrate for 1 h to changes in PPFD, which was monitored at leaf height with a quantum sensor (LI-COR model LI-190S-1). CO₂ exchange rates were measured at PPFDs from 0 to 1500 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to determine PPFD saturation.

² Φ_{app} , apparent photon yield; F_0 , minimum fluorescence with all photosystem II reaction centers open; $(F_v)_m$, maximal variable fluorescence; F_v , variable fluorescence; $(F_v)_s$, saturation level of variable fluorescence; F_v/F_m , ratio of variable to maximal fluorescence; q_N , non-photochemical quenching; q_P , photochemical quenching; Q_A , primary quinone electron acceptor for PSII.

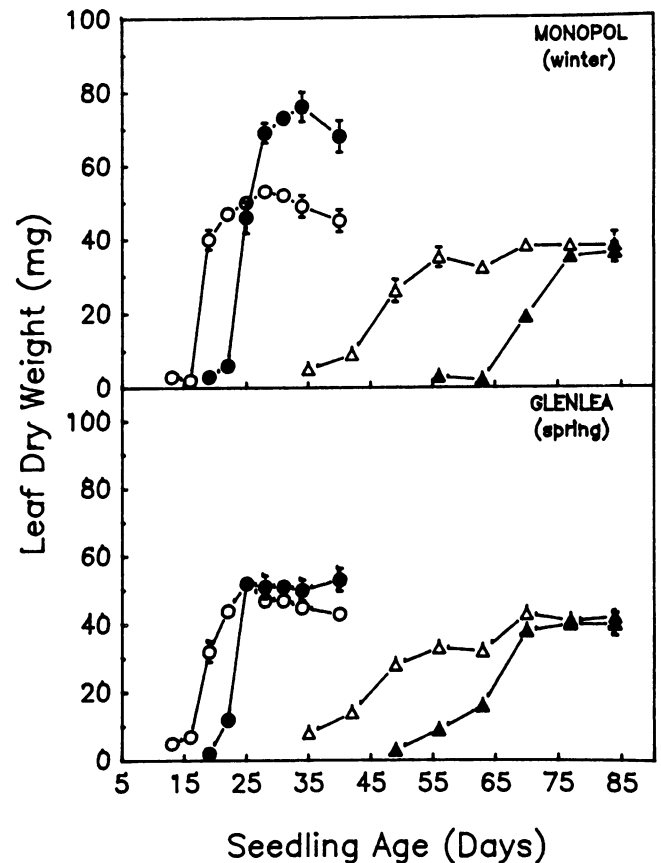


Figure 1. Leaf dry weight accumulation for winter (Monopol) and spring (Glenlea) wheat during growth under cold-hardening and non-hardening conditions. Leaf 3 (○) and leaf 4 (●) at 20°C; leaf 3 (△) and leaf 4 (▲) at 5°C. Each point is the mean of 10 plants from two different pots. Bars represent SE.

Measurements of Fluorescence

Fluorescence induction kinetics were measured at room temperature using a PAM fluorometer (Heinz Walz, Effeltrich, FRG) (31). Measurements were made on detached, fully expanded, third and fourth leaves of both 75-d-old cold-hardened and 25-d-old nonhardened winter (Monopol) and spring (Glenlea) wheat.

Prior to fluorescence measurements, all leaves were dark-adapted for 30 min at room temperature. F_0 was determined by illuminating dark-adapted leaves with a low intensity measuring beam ($<1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) from a light-emitting diode. $(F_v)_m$ was determined by application of a second beam of saturating ($3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) actinic white light applied in four short (400 ms) pulses at 10 s intervals. The difference between the mean height of the four peaks and the F_0 level was taken to be $(F_v)_m$. Following determination of F_0 and $(F_v)_m$, F_v and $(F_v)_s$ were monitored during induction. This was accomplished by simultaneous illumination of the sample with a red actinic light source of low intensity ($60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) to stimulate fluorescence induction, and a saturating white light ($3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) source applied repetitively in 400 ms pulses at 10 s intervals. q_N and q_P

Table I. Estimated Growth Coefficients for Winter and Spring Wheat

Ten seedlings from two pots grown at nonhardening and cold-hardening temperatures were harvested every 3 and 7 d, respectively. Growth coefficients (k_1') were calculated from the plot of \ln of total shoot dry weight and leaf number *versus* time.

Cultivar	Growth Parameter	k_1' (day ⁻¹)		H:NH
		Hardened (H)	Nonhardened (NH)	
Monopol (winter)	Dry wt	0.060	0.184	0.33
	Leaf No.	0.039	0.109	0.36
Glenlea (spring)	Dry wt	0.058	0.182	0.32
	Leaf No.	0.044	0.121	0.36

coefficients were calculated using the equations of Schreiber *et al.* (31).

$$q_N = \frac{(F_v)_m - (F_v)_s}{(F_v)_m} \quad (1)$$

and

$$q_P = \frac{(F_v)_s - F_v}{(F_v)_s} \quad (2)$$

Measurement of O₂ Evolution

Oxygen evolution was measured with a leaf-disc electrode (HansaTech, model LD2, Kings Lynn, Norfolk, UK) at 20°C with an initial gas mixture 5% CO₂:5% O₂:90% N₂. Light was provided by a set of photodiodes (HansaTech; λ_{max} 660 nm). Measurements were made on leaf discs punched from the mid region of fully expanded third and fourth leaves of both 75-d-old cold-hardened and 25-d-old nonhardened winter (Monopol) and spring (Glenlea) wheat. Φ_{app} for O₂ evolution was calculated from the plot of O₂ evolution rate *versus* PPFD in the light-limited (1–60 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) range.

RESULTS

Comparative Growth Kinetics

It is important to consider both chronological age and the relative stage of development, since growth temperature has a pronounced effect on the rate of both growth and development. Accordingly, the growth characteristics of all six cultivars were compared at cold-hardening (5°C) and nonhardening (20°C) temperatures to determine at which chronological ages the different growth temperatures yielded experimental material at a similar physiological stage of development. Results are shown only for the winter wheat Monopol and the spring wheat Glenlea because the results of all winter and spring wheat cultivars were comparable within their respective groups.

Growth coefficients for winter and spring cultivars were similar for dry weight accumulation and leaf initiation, but coefficients achieved at 5°C were about one-third those at 20°C (Table I). These results are consistent with previous reports for growth of cereals at cold-hardening temperatures (9, 14, 19). Thus, for all subsequent measurements of CO₂ exchange, O₂ evolution, and fluorescence characteristics, the third and fourth leaves of 25-d-old nonhardened plants were compared with those of 75-d-old cold-hardened plants.

Effect of Growth and Measuring Temperature on Apparent Photon Yield for CO₂ Exchange

The winter wheat cultivars Monopol, Kharkov, and Augusta exhibited similar Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange whether grown at 5 or 20°C (Table II). Furthermore, measurement temperature had no effect on Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange for either cold-hardened or nonhardened Monopol, Kharkov, or Augusta winter wheat (Table II). In contrast, the Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange of Glenlea, Marquis, and Katepwa spring wheat following growth at low, cold-hardening temperatures was 35 to 45% lower than the Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange of the same cultivars grown at 20°C (Table II). The Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange for both hardened and nonhardened Katepwa plants was not affected by measurement temperature (Table II). However, cold-hard-

Table II. Effect of Growth and Measurement Temperature on Apparent Photon Yield for CO₂ Exchange of Winter and Spring Wheat Cultivars

Light-response curves for CO₂ exchange were measured at 5 and 20°C on attached, fully expanded third and fourth leaves of 25-d-old nonhardened and 75-d-old cold-hardened plants. Data represent the mean and (SE), $n = 4$.

Cultivars	Measurement Temperature			
	Nonhardened		Cold-hardened	
	20°C	5°C	20°C	5°C
<i>mol CO₂ mol⁻¹ photons</i>				
Winter				
Monopol	0.041 (0.002)	0.044 (0.001)	0.042 (0.002)	0.042 (0.002)
Kharkov	0.040 (0.001)	0.040 (0.002)	0.045 (0.002)	0.045 (0.002)
Augusta	0.042 (0.002)	0.045 (0.001)	0.044 (0.001)	0.040 (0.002)
Spring				
Glenlea	0.043 (0.001)	0.045 (0.001)	0.034 (0.001)	0.024 (0.001)
Katepwa	0.048 (0.002)	0.047 (0.003)	0.027 (0.001)	0.026 (0.001)
Marquis	0.046 (0.001)	0.045 (0.001)	0.035 (0.002)	0.029 (0.002)

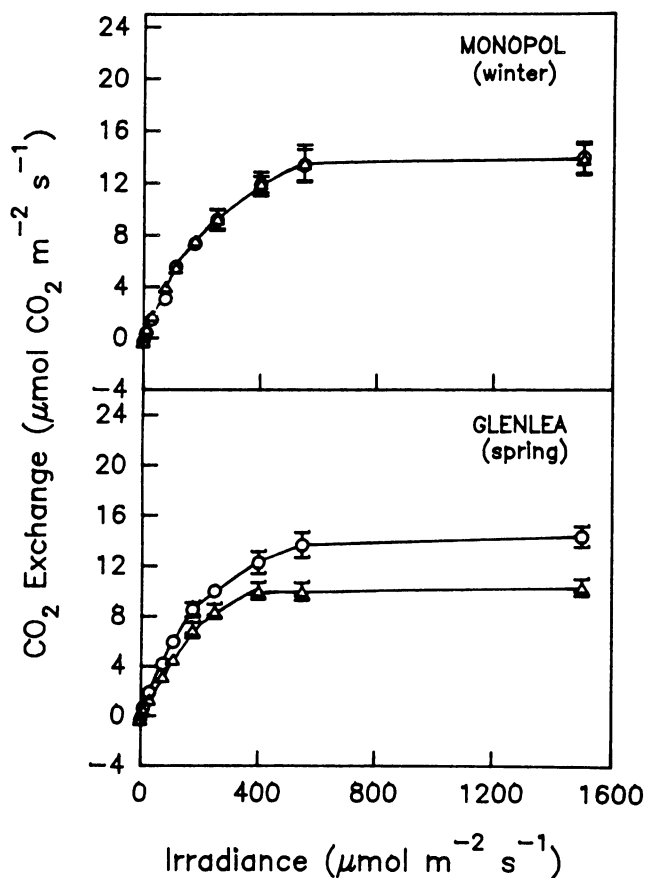


Figure 2. Irradiance response curves for CO₂ exchange in winter (Monopol) and spring (Glenlea) wheat measured at 5°C. (○) Plants grown at 20°C; (▲) plants grown at 5°C. Each point is the mean of 12 leaves from four different pots. Bars represent SE.

ened Glenlea and Marquis spring wheat exhibited only a 15 to 24% lower Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange, relative to nonhardened leaves, after being equilibrated at 20°C for 10 h (8 h darkness + 2 h at 250 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD). This indicates that partial recovery of Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange is possible provided the measurement temperature is increased above the 5°C growth temperature (Table II).

Effect of Growth and Measuring Temperature on Light-Saturated Rates of CO₂ Exchange

For simplicity, only the data for one winter and one spring cultivar are shown in Figure 2 because the three winter cultivars tested responded similarly, as did the three spring cultivars. The light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange of winter wheat cultivars were similar when the cultivars were grown at either 5 or 20°C and measured at 5°C (Fig. 2). In contrast, the three spring wheat cultivars had 25 to 35% lower light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange when grown at 5°C compared with nonhardened plants (Fig. 2). Furthermore, cold-hardened seedlings of spring wheat exhibited lower light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange, relative to cold-hardened seedlings of winter wheat (Fig. 2). All cultivars exhibited 20 to 25% higher

light-saturated rates of CO₂ exchange when measured at 20°C than when measured at 5°C.

Effect of Growth Temperature on Apparent Photon Yield for O₂ Evolution and F_v/F_m

Measurements of CO₂ gas exchange give an indication of overall photosynthetic competence. The 35 to 45% decrease in Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange points to a significant loss in photosynthetic efficiency, but does not provide any information with respect to a possible site for the perturbation. Butler and Kitijima (5) first showed that Φ_{app} for O₂ evolution is directly related to F_v/F_m. This has been confirmed experimentally with a number of plant species (6) including wheat (Fig. 3). Both these parameters can be used as estimates of the efficiency of PSII photochemistry.

The results summarized in Table III indicate that both Glenlea spring and Monopol winter wheat grown at 20°C exhibit similar Φ_{app} for O₂ evolution. However, in contrast to the lower Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange (Table II), growth at cold-hardening temperatures had no significant effect on Φ_{app} for O₂ evolution for spring or winter wheat (Table III). Growth at cold-hardening temperatures resulted in a 6% decrease in F_v/F_m in both spring and winter wheat (Table III); however, cold-hardening did not cause a differential decrease in this fluorescence response. Winter wheat grown at 5°C showed an increased fluorescence signal as indicated by the increase in both F_o and F_v, which can be explained by the 55% increase in Chl/unit leaf area (Table III). Thus, the fluorescence data are consistent with the data for Φ_{app} for O₂ evolution (Table

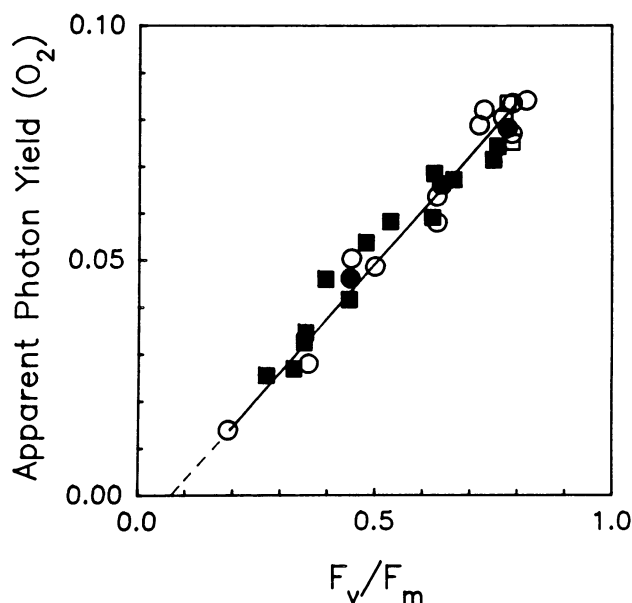


Figure 3. Relation between apparent photon yield for O₂ evolution (mol O₂ evolved/mol incident photons) and the ratio of variable to maximal fluorescence (F_v/F_m) measured at room temperature. Leaves 3 and 4 of nonhardened (open symbols, ○, □) and cold-hardened (closed symbols, ●, ■) Glenlea (squares, □, ■) spring and Monopol (circles, ○, ●) winter wheat were photoinhibited for varying periods of time at 5°C and 1200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD ($r = 0.98$).

Table III. Fluorescence Characteristics, Apparent Photon Yield of O₂ Evolution (Φ_{app}), and Chl Concentration of Winter and Spring Wheat Leaves Grown at Two Temperatures

Measurements were made on detached, fully expanded third and fourth leaves from 25-d-old nonhardened and 75-d-old cold-hardened plants. Data represent the mean and (SE), *n* = 4.

Cultivar	Growth Temperature °C	F _o	F _v	F _m	F _v /F _m	Φ_{app} for O ₂ evolution ^a	Chl
		relative fluorescence units				mol O ₂ mol ⁻¹ photons	mg m ⁻²
Monopol (winter)	20/16	1.4 (0.1)	6.4 (0.1)	7.8 (0.1)	0.82 (0.01)	0.090 (0.010)	320 (32)
	5/5	2.0 (0.2)	7.2 (0.4)	9.2 (0.4)	0.78 (0.01)	0.084 (0.010)	510 (47)
Glenlea (spring)	20/16	1.5 (0.1)	6.2 (0.2)	7.7 (0.2)	0.80 (0.01)	0.086 (0.010)	320 (27)
	5/5	1.8 (0.1)	5.8 (0.4)	7.6 (0.3)	0.76 (0.01)	0.070 (0.005)	340 (37)

^a Measured at 20°C.

III) which indicate that the photosynthetic efficiency of PSII was unaffected by low growth temperature in both the spring and winter cultivars.

Effect of Growth Temperature on Room Temperature Fluorescence Induction

The slow fluorescence transients typically observed by *in vivo* room temperature Chl *a* fluorescence induction are thought to reflect processes associated with photosynthetic carbon reduction (26). Because growth at low temperature appeared to inhibit Φ_{app} for CO₂ exchange of spring but not winter wheat, we compared the slow fluorescence transients of cold-hardened and nonhardened winter wheat (Fig. 4). Nonhardened spring and winter wheat exhibited similar patterns for quenching maximum fluorescence, which was characterized by the presence of a prominent M-peak prior to the attainment of a minimum steady-state fluorescence yield. This M-peak, although somewhat reduced, was still present in spring cultivar after growth at low temperature. In contrast, the M-peak was not resolved in winter cultivar after cold-hardening (Fig. 4).

We have observed similar trends in room temperature fluorescence induction curves of cold-hardened and nonhardened spinach (SR Boese, NPA Huner, unpublished results) and rye (NPA Huner, unpublished results). Thus, it appears that the cold-hardened winter cultivars can quench maximum room temperature Chl *a* fluorescence more rapidly than cold-hardened spring cereals.

Fluorescence quenching kinetics of cold-hardened spring and winter wheats were examined during the induction period in more detail by the pulsed-modulated system recently developed by Schreiber and co-workers (31). This provides a means of separating fluorescence quenching into its constituent q_P and q_N components. q_P reflects the redox state of Q_A (31). Several different processes are thought to be associated with q_N. However, there appears to be a consensus that it reflects, primarily, the capacity to establish a *trans*-thylakoid pH gradient (15).

Nonhardened winter (Fig. 5A) and spring wheat (Fig. 5C) exhibited similar kinetics for the establishment of q_P and q_N

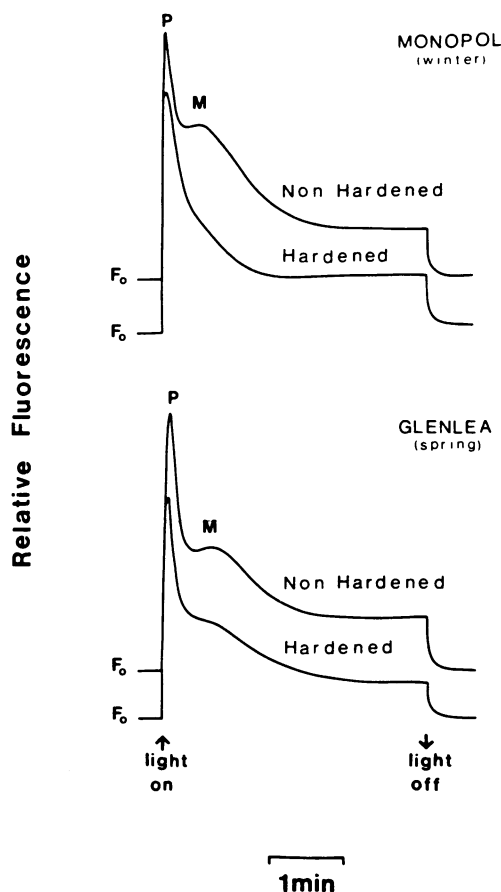


Figure 4. Representative traces of the slow fluorescence transients for cold-hardened and nonhardened winter (Monopol) and spring (Glenlea) wheat. Original traces generated by illuminating leaves with a low intensity (60 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPF) red actinic light to stimulate fluorescence induction.

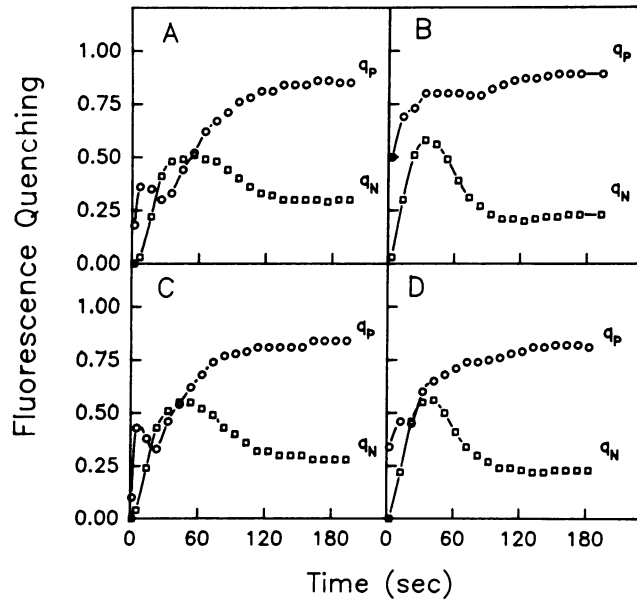


Figure 5. Comparison of the time courses of q_P (O) and q_N (□) during fluorescence induction in nonhardened (A) and cold-hardened (B) Monopol winter wheat, and in nonhardened (C) and cold-hardened (D) Glenlea spring wheat. Curves were calculated from the original induction curves that were generated by simultaneously illuminating leaves with a low intensity ($60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPF) red actinic light to stimulate fluorescence induction, and saturating white light ($3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPF) applied in 400 ms pulses at 10 s intervals to fully reduce Q_A .

during the induction period. In both cases, cold-hardening appeared to increase significantly the relaxation of q_N (Fig. 5B and D). In addition, both the spring and winter wheats exhibited a more rapid rise to maximum q_P after growth at low temperature (Fig. 5B and D) than did plants grown at 20°C (Fig. 5A and C). However, cold-hardened winter wheat appeared to develop maximum q_P more rapidly than cold-hardened spring wheat (Fig. 5B and D).

Although growth at low temperature affects the kinetics for the relaxation of q_N and rise in q_P , steady-state levels of q_N and q_P were not affected by growth temperature. At steady-state, at least 85% of Q_A was maintained in the oxidized state at the actinic light intensity employed, regardless of growth temperature. Thus, the inability to resolve the M-peak in cold-hardened winter wheat appears to be associated with an increased rate for the development of photochemical quenching.

DISCUSSION

We have shown for the first time that spring wheat grown at 5°C and $250 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPF exhibits lower Φ_{app} (35–45%) and lower light-saturated rates (25–35%) of CO_2 exchange compared to 20°C grown controls. In contrast, Φ_{app} and light-saturated rates of CO_2 exchange of winter wheat are similar for plants grown at both 20 and 5°C . The Φ_{app} for CO_2 exchange and carboxylation efficiency of winter rye (*Secale cereale* L.) are also similar when grown under cold-hardening

(5°C) and nonhardening temperatures (20°C) (12). Thus, spring wheat, exposed for long periods to low, cold-hardening temperatures and moderate light intensities, are less photosynthetically competent than when grown at 20°C . Winter cereals adjust to prolonged exposure to low temperatures without sacrificing photosynthetic competence.

Similar losses in both Φ_{app} and light-saturated rates of CO_2 exchange, related to photoinhibitory damage to PSII, occur in chilling-sensitive plants following short-term exposure to low temperatures and high light (3, 18, 28). However, in contrast with earlier work on chilling sensitive plants, the spring wheat Glenlea showed no significant reduction in photochemical efficiency of PSII after cold-hardening, measured as either a reduction in F_v/F_m or as a reduction in Φ_{app} for O_2 evolution. Thus, the reduction in Φ_{app} and light-saturated rates of CO_2 exchange observed for spring wheat during cold-hardening does not appear to be due to an inhibition at the level of PSII. This is supported by the fact that maximum photochemical quenching, that is, the oxidation state of Q_A , is similar for spring and winter wheat regardless of growth temperature.

Ortiz-Lopez and co-workers (25) reported that exposure of chilling sensitive *Zea mays* to low temperatures and light intensities results in a reduction in Φ_{app} for CO_2 exchange without affecting either the photochemical efficiency of PSII or coupling factor activity. In the current study, spring wheat exhibited a capacity to generate and relax q_N similar to that of winter wheat regardless of the growth temperature. Because the build-up of q_N reflects, in part at least, the establishment of the *trans*-thylakoid pH gradient (15), the relaxation of q_N indicates the collapse of that gradient through the synthesis of ATP by coupling factor 1. Therefore, the low temperature-induced depression of Φ_{app} for CO_2 exchange in spring wheat does not appear to be the result of a decreased capacity to establish or to utilize the *trans*-thylakoid pH gradient. The quenching data indicate that the inhibition of Φ_{app} for CO_2 exchange at low growth temperatures may be associated with the photosynthetic carbon reduction reactions of the stroma rather than the thylakoid membrane.

Chilling at high light is known to reduce the activity of key enzymes involved in carbon reduction (30), and this may be a contributing factor to the inhibition of CO_2 exchange observed in the spring wheat. However, all nonhardened spring cultivars were equilibrated at 5°C for 10 h (8 h darkness + 2 h at $250 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPF) prior to measurement of Φ_{app} and light-saturated rates of CO_2 exchange at 5°C (Table II) without any observed reduction in these parameters relative to the same plants measured at 20°C . Thus, if there is a reduction in the activity of key enzymes during cold-hardening of spring wheat cultivars, it must be dependent on low temperature-high light interactions or it must develop as a function of leaf growth and development at low temperature rather than as a consequence of the brief exposure of fully expanded nonhardened leaves to low temperature.

In conclusion, winter wheat cultivars can be distinguished from spring cultivars by their ability to maintain comparable photosynthetic efficiency and light-saturated rates of CO_2 exchange at cold-hardening and nonhardening temperatures. Stomatal conductance and internal CO_2 concentration are not affected by growth temperature in any of the six wheat

cultivars tested. The site of low temperature inhibition of CO₂ exchange in the spring cultivars is not associated with PSII or the thylakoid membrane but is likely associated with enzymes involved in photosynthetic carbon reduction. This inhibition is partially reversible by exposure of 5°C grown plants to 20°C for at least 10 h. Further work is required to pinpoint the specific site of inhibition.

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