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1 Title: Identification of QTLs for dynamic and steady state photosynthetic

2 traits in a barley mapping population

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24 Highlight

25 Significant variation exists in the photosynthetic induction response after a switch from

- 26 moderate to saturating light across a barley doubled haploid population. A QTL for rubisco
- 27 activation rate was identified on chromosome 7H, as well as overlapping QTLs for steady
- 28 state photosynthesis and stomatal conductance.
- 29

30 Abstract

31 Enhancing the photosynthetic induction response to fluctuating light has been suggested as 32 a key target for improvement in crop breeding programs, with the potential to substantially 33 increase whole canopy carbon assimilation and contribute to crop yield potential. Rubisco 34 activation may be the main physiological process that will allow us to achieve such a goal. In 35 this study, we phenotypically assessed the rubisco activation rate in a doubled haploid (DH) barley mapping population [131 lines from a Yerong/Franklin (Y/F) cross] after a switch from 36 37 moderate to saturating light. Rates of rubisco activation were found to be highly variable across the mapping population, with a median activation rate of 0.1 min⁻¹ in the slowest 38 genotype and 0.74 min⁻¹ in the fastest genotype. A QTL for rubisco activation rate was 39 40 identified on chromosome 7H. This is the first report on the identification of a QTL for 41 rubisco activation rate in planta and the discovery opens the door to marker assisted 42 breeding to improve whole canopy photosynthesis of barley. Further strength is given to 43 this finding as this QTL colocalised with QTLs identified for steady state photosynthesis and 44 stomatal conductance. Several other distinct QTLs were identified for these steady state 45 traits, with a common overlapping QTL on chromosome 2H, and distinct QTLs for 46 photosynthesis and stomatal conductance identified on chromosomes 4H and 5H 47 respectively. Future work should aim to validate these QTLs under field conditions so that 48 they can be used to aid plant breeding efforts. 49 50 **Keywords**: barley, dynamic photosynthesis, genotyping, mapping, phenotyping, rubisco

51 activation, sunfleck.

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54 Introduction

55 By 2050, the global population is expected to rise to 9 billion and to meet future food demand we will need to increase crop production worldwide by 70% (Paul et al., 2019). 56 57 Recent progress has been hindered by stagnating rates of annual yield increase, therefore 58 novel breeding targets to improve crop yield potential are urgently needed. Improving the 59 photosynthetic efficiency of crop species has now been shown to boost plant growth under 60 field conditions (Kromdijk et al., 2016; South et al., 2019). Whilst these studies used genetic 61 transformation to achieve such gains, they have proven that significant photosynthetic gains 62 are possible in the field and that these can contribute to plant growth and crop yield. It is 63 now imperative that we identify natural variation in photosynthetic traits in diverse 64 populations and harness this variation through marker-assisted plant breeding techniques 65 (Furbank et al., 2020).

66

67 Improving photosynthetic efficiency in dynamic environments has recently been highlighted as a key target to increase whole canopy carbon assimilation (Murchie et al., 2018). The 68 69 light environment of the lower canopy is subject to continuous and dynamic change across 70 the course of a day, caused by movement of the sun across the sky, sporadic cloud cover 71 and/or movement of upper elements in the canopy caused by wind (Slattery et al., 2018). 72 These processes can cause a leaf in low/moderate light one moment to suddenly be 73 exposed to saturating light conditions the next. Often these short periods of direct sunlit 74 illumination (referred to herein as 'sunflecks') only last a short period of time, in the order 75 of seconds to minutes, yet they can account for as much as 90% of the daily accumulated 76 light of lower canopy leaves (Pearcy, 1990). Photosynthesis under these dynamic light 77 conditions is highly inefficient. Specifically, the rates of stomatal opening and activation of 78 rubisco upon transition from low to high light significantly limit carbon assimilation. 79 Interactive effects of several environmental factors on stomatal aperture are common in the 80 field (Zeiger & Zhu, 1998; Talbott et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2008), meaning that stomata are 81 operating in an integrated and hierarchical manner in response to multiple environmental 82 stimuli (Lawson & Blatt, 2014). Stomatal responses to fluctuating light are therefore considered to be a much more challenging target for improvement than the biochemical 83 84 limitations to photosynthesis (for a comprehensive review of limitations to dynamic 85 photosynthesis see Kaiser et al., 2019).

87 Improving rubisco activation rate could be the low hanging fruit that allows plant breeders to boost whole canopy photosynthesis with few associated costs, specifically in terms of 88 89 water and nutrient use. This is critical for a future where global environmental change is 90 predicted to leave agricultural systems exposed to more frequent and more extreme 91 drought and heat events. It has been estimated that we could increase daily carbon gain by 92 as much as 21% in wheat if rubisco activation was instantaneous (Taylor & Long, 2017). 93 Variation in rubisco activation kinetics has now been observed in crop species including 94 soybean (Soleh et al., 2017), rice (Acevedo-Siaca et al., 2020) and wheat (Salter et al., 2019), 95 and work with other species has indicated specific molecular targets and pathways that 96 could accelerate rubisco activation speed, with a particular focus on rubisco's catalytic 97 chaperone rubisco activase (Rca) (in Arabidopsis thaliana, Mott et al., 1997; in Nicotiana 98 tabacum, Hammond et al., 1998; and in Oryza sativa, Yamori et al., 2012). In our recent 99 work with wheat, we found that by increasing the rate of rubisco activation of the slowest 100 genotype included in our study to that of the fastest, daily carbon assimilation could be 101 increased by 3.4% (Salter et al., 2019). However, in this work only ten genotypes of wheat 102 were studied, the potential for improvement would likely be far more substantial if we were 103 to investigate variation in this trait across a whole breeding population, and greater still if 104 we were to investigate diversity within cultivars from diverse geographic locations or 105 landraces.

106

107 Most recent studies of photosynthetic induction have tended to adopt the so-called 108 'dynamic A/c_i ' method (Taylor & Long, 2017; Salter et al., 2019), in which photosynthetic 109 induction curves are measured at a number of different CO₂ concentrations, allowing for the 110 reconstruction of A/c_i curves throughout the induction response. Whilst this technique 111 yields important fundamental data on the biochemical limitations during photosynthetic 112 induction (most importantly rubisco carboxylation capacity, V_{cmax}; and potential electron 113 transport rate, J), it takes a very long time (> 6 hours per plant) and thus limits its use in large scale screenings for photosynthetic induction traits. Conversely, other techniques that 114 yield less detailed information about the underlying physiology (such as that used by Soleh 115 et al., 2016) take far less time (< 1 hour) and may be much more suitable for large-scale 116 117 screenings of diverse plant material. The method of Soleh et al. (2016) involves measuring a

118single photosynthetic induction curve at a low intracellular CO_2 concentration (i.e. < 300</th>119µmol mol), at which it can be assumed that photosynthetic biochemistry is limited by120rubisco rather than by electron transport. This allows for the reliable estimation of rubisco121activation rate, with data comparable to those obtained using the 'dynamic A/c_i ' method122(Taylor & Long, 2017).

123

124 We hypothesize that variation in photosynthetic induction kinetics may be inadvertently 125 confounding efforts to improve steady state properties of photosynthesis. Steady state 126 measurement techniques [such as spot measurements of photosynthesis (A) and stomatal 127 conductance (g_s) , CO₂ response curves and light response curves] all rely on the assumption 128 that the leaf is fully acclimated to saturating light, and other environmental conditions 129 inside the leaf chamber of the system, prior to measurement. Thus, these methods require a delay for the leaf to become equilibrated to the conditions inside the leaf chamber of the 130 131 gas exchange system (referred to herein as the equilibration time). Although it is quite well 132 established that adequate equilibration time is required for accuracy of steady state gas 133 exchange measurements, an increasing demand for faster, higher throughput measurement 134 techniques (Furbank & Tester, 2011) may make researchers complacent. Yet, few studies 135 have quantitatively assessed the potential implications that may result from premature 136 assumptions of steady state conditions, for instance, the identification of false quantitative 137 trait loci (QTLs).

138

139 There is now compelling evidence that suggests whole canopy photosynthesis could be 140 improved by harnessing natural variation in rubisco activation rate that exists across 141 genotypes of crop species. However, no study to date has investigated or performed trait 142 dissection for rubisco activation in a segregating mapping population. We sought to identify 143 and characterise genetic variation in rubisco activation rate across a barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) doubled haploid (DH) mapping population in planta using gas exchange 144 145 techniques. We then used chromosome interval mapping to identify QTLs and closely 146 associated molecular markers. We were also interested in assessing whether false positive and/or false negative QTLs would be identified for "steady-state" photosynthetic properties 147 148 (A and q_s) if equilibration times were not long enough for steady state conditions to be 149 reached.

151 Methods

152 Plant material and growth conditions

A DH barley (*H. vulgare* L.) population was obtained from a cross between the Australian 153 154 barley cultivars Yerong and Franklin (Y/F). This population contained 177 DH lines and was 155 maintained at the Plant Breeding Institute at The University of Sydney. The Y/F mapping 156 population has been extensively used for QTL mapping for both morphological (Xue et al. 157 2008) and physiological (Zhang et al. 2016) traits, as well as disease resistance (Singh et al. 158 2014; Dracatos et al. 2016). In this study 131 lines from this population were phenotypically 159 assessed for steady state and dynamic photosynthetic traits. Due to the availability of seed 160 and genotypic data, only 127 DH lines were used for QTL analyses. A second DH barley 161 population (from a cross between VB9104 and Dash) was also phenotyped for 162 photosynthetic traits however due to the low number of lines with available genotypic data 163 this population was not included in further analyses (phenotyping results are however 164 presented in Figures S4 and S5).

165

166 Plants were grown in a controlled environment room for approximately five weeks prior to measurement. Day temperature was 25°C during a 14 h light period and night temperature 167 168 was 17°C during a 10 h dark period. Relative humidity was maintained at 70% while daytime PPFD was approximately 600 μ mol m⁻²s⁻¹ at the top of the plants. Seeds were planted in 169 170 potting mix enriched with slow-release fertilizer (Osmocote Exact, Scotts, Sydney, NSW, 171 Australia). Six seeds per genotype were sown in 6 L pots and grown for three weeks before 172 being thinned to three plants per pot. Seed was sown sequentially in time to make sure that 173 all measurements were conducted at the same growth stage. Plants were watered daily to 174 field capacity.

175

176 Photosynthetic measurements

Plants were moved from the controlled environment room to a temperature-controlled growth cabinet [temperature 25°C; relative humidity 70%]. Two or three of the youngest fully expanded leaves of a single plant were sealed in a 2x6 cm leaf cuvette (Li6400 11; LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) fitted to a LI-COR LI-6400XT gas exchange system to fill the cuvette without overlapping. This simulated an instantaneous shift in light intensity from 600 µmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ to 1300 µmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$, similar to the conditions experienced by a lower canopy leaf 183 during a sunfleck. Chamber conditions were set to closely match those of the controlled

184 environment room [leaf temperature 25°C; cuvette CO_2 (C_a) 400 µmol mol⁻¹; relative

humidity 70%], with the exception of PPFD which was set to 1300 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ using a red-

186 green-blue light source (Li6400 18A; LI-COR) set to 10% blue and 90% red light.

187 Measurements of photosynthetic gas exchange rates (A and g_s) were recorded once per

188 minute immediately after the leaf was inserted into the chamber until photosynthesis had

189 reached steady state. Preliminary photosynthetic light response curves were measured with

190 plants grown under the same conditions to ensure that 1300 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ was saturating

and that 600 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ was non-saturating (results shown in Figure S1).

192

193 Rubisco activation rate was calculated using a modified method of Soleh et al. (2016).

194 Photosynthetic data was first normalised to an assumed intercellular CO₂ concentration (*c*_i)

195 of 300 μ mol mol⁻¹, using the following equation:

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$$A^* = A \times \frac{300}{c_i}$$

198

199 where A^* is the normalised photosynthetic rate, A is the measured photosynthetic rate and 200 c_i is the measured intercellular CO₂ concentration. This effectively removed the influence of 201 stomatal opening/closure for the induction phase. The initial rubisco activation rate $(1/\tau)$ 202 was modelled from the plot of the logarithmic difference between A^* and its maximum value after induction (A^*_{max}) against the time taken for induction (representative data shown 203 204 in Figure 1). From this plot, the value of $1/\tau$ was determined from the slope of the linear 205 regression on data points in the range of 2 to 5 mins after induction, and points after this that aligned well with these initial points (with an $R^2 > 90\%$). 206

207 Genetic analysis and QTL mapping

The genotypic data and genetic linkage map for the Yerong/Franklin DH population used for QTL analysis for rubisco activity and steady state photosynthetic traits in the present study was previously described by Singh et al. (2015). In brief, the Y/F genetic map is comprised of 496 DarT and 28 microsatellite (SSR) markers spanning 1,127cM across all seven chromosomes, 1H to 7H (Wenzl et al., 2006).

- A subset of 127 lines were selected for QTL mapping analysis. Markers were selected every
- 215 10 cM so that the whole genome was evenly covered. Composite interval mapping (CIM)
- 216 methods were used in QTL Cartographer version 2.5 (North Carolina State University,
- 217 Raleigh, NC, USA), carrying out 1,000 iterations permutation analysis with steps at 1 cM, and
- 218 with a 0.05 confidence level for all traits.
- 219
- 220 Statistical analyses
- All other modelling and statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team, 2019).
- 222
- 223

224 Results

225 Photosynthetic induction kinetics

While specific photosynthetic induction kinetics were found to vary across individual leaves 226 227 and genotypes, general trends were quite clear (representative induction curves from one 228 day of measurements is shown in Figure 2). Net photosynthesis (A) increased immediately 229 after transition from to saturating light for all leaves. Stomatal responses were more variable than those of photosynthesis but there tended to be an initial reduction in g_s after 230 231 transition to saturating light and then a gradual rise towards steady state. By normalising 232 photosynthesis to a constant c_i of 300 ppm, we were able to obtain a measure of 233 photosynthesis limited by rubisco carboxylation unobstructed by variation in stomatal 234 kinetics (A*). A* showed a similar trend to A, increasing immediately after the switch from 235 low to high light.

236

237 QTLs for rubisco activation rate

238 Rubisco activation rates of the parental lines Yerong and Franklin were found to differ, with within-genotype medians of 0.38 min⁻¹ and 0.74 min⁻¹ respectively. Wide variation in $1/\tau$ 239 240 was found across the population (Figure 3), with within-genotype medians ranging from 0.099 min⁻¹ to 0.74 min⁻¹. Interestingly, the parental line Franklin was found to have the 241 fastest rate of rubisco activation. A frequency distribution of $1/\tau$ was plotted for the 242 243 population and was found to follow a normal distribution suggesting that rubisco activation 244 rate was under complex genetic control (Figure S2). CIM analysis revealed the presence of a 245 distinct QTL for rubisco activation rate (Figure 4; further details in Table 1). $Q1/\tau$.sun-7H, was located at 41.67 cM on chromosome 7H (proximal to DarT marker bPb-9601 marker) 246 247 accounting for 10.48% of the phenotypic variance in this trait.

248

249 Steady state photosynthesis and equilibration time tests

250 Variation was also found in steady state photosynthetic rates across the population (Figure 5). Median rates of A and q_s were 17.45 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 0.31 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹, respectively. 251

From this phenotyping data, there was no correlation found between steady state A and $1/\tau$ 252

253 (p > 0.05; Figure 6).

As hypothesized, "steady-state" photosynthetic rates were substantially underestimated if 255 256 measurements were recorded without sufficient equilibration time (Table 2). This was more pronounced the earlier the measurements were recorded after enclosing the leaf in the 257 258 chamber of the IRGA. Mean values of A and g_s were both underestimated by 21% at five 259 minutes compared to steady state. It should be noted that although some of the fastest 260 genotypes reached steady state after five minutes, most of the lines did not. In fact, g_s was 261 underestimated by 82% for one of the genotypes and A was underestimated by 54% for 262 another if measurements were recorded after just five minutes.

263

264 To assess the importance of equilibration time for accurate identification of steady state QTLs, QTL mapping was first performed for steady state A and g_s . Frequency distributions 265 266 were plotted for both traits and they followed a normal distribution suggesting they are under complex genetic control (Figure S3). Several QTL were found for both A and g_s (Table 267 268 1). Trait co-location was observed on chromosome 7H whereby the position of the 269 Q1/ τ .sun-7H QTL was almost identical to QTL for both A and g_s . This suggests a region on 270 the short arm of chromosome 7H either carries a single gene or more likely a cluster of 271 genes responsible for the genetic control of photosynthesis, stomatal conductance and 272 rubisco activation. For steady state A and q_s , additional overlapping and distinct QTL were 273 identified. A common overlapping QTL for both A and q_s was identified, peaking at 27.03 cM 274 on chromosome 2H, whilst distinct QTL were identified on chromosomes 4H (41.67 cM) and 275 5H (53.39 cM) for A and q_s respectively.

276

277 QTL mapping was then performed with data collected at five, ten and fifteen minutes after 278 the start of induction for comparison with detected steady state QTLs (coloured traces in 279 Figure 7). Although most QTL were still identified with non-steady state data, the 280 significance these QTL peaks were found to be weakened under non-steady state 281 conditions. This was particularly evident for the g_s QTL identified on chromosome 7H (Figure 7h), with the LOD score of this QTL dropping from 6.8 when using steady state data to 4.9, 282 283 3.9 and 3.3 when using data collected at 15 min, 10 min and 5 min after the start of 284 induction, respectively.

286 Discussion

We have identified QTLs for *in planta* rubisco activation rate for the first time in any species. 287 As in other crops, we found rubisco activation rate to be a highly variable trait across 288 289 genotypes of barley, aiding in the discovery of a significant QTL in our doubled haploid 290 population. QTLs were also identified for steady state photosynthetic parameters, including 291 co-localised QTLs for A, g_s and $1/\tau$ on chromosome 7H. The importance of adequate 292 equilibration time in the measurement of steady state gas exchange was highlighted by 293 comparing these results to those obtained using arbitrary non-steady state rates at 5, 10 294 and 15 min after the start of induction. The significance of QTLs was reduced if steady state 295 conditions had not been reached.

296

297 Improving whole canopy photosynthesis

298 It is well established that improving photosynthesis has the potential to increase crop yield 299 (for a review of recent progress see Simkin et al., 2019). However, until now research has 300 invariably focussed on only the uppermost leaves of the canopy under optimal conditions 301 (i.e. continuous saturating light, 25°C). This approach has its merits because these leaves 302 have the most light available to them and their contribution to whole canopy 303 photosynthesis reflects this (Osborne et al. 1998). Yet, for monocot cereal species such as 304 wheat and barley there have been few studies that have shown flag leaf photosynthesis to 305 correlate well with crop yield (Richards et al., 2000). Whole canopy photosynthesis, and 306 more specifically the cumulative rate of photosynthesis over the growing season, can be a 307 much more reliable determinant of crop yield (Wu et al., 2019). Accordingly, there has been 308 a recent shift in research focus towards dynamic photosynthetic traits. This is important 309 because whilst some studies have found weak relationships between steady state and 310 dynamic photosynthetic traits (Salter et al., 2019) other studies have not found any 311 relationship (Soleh et al, 2017; Acevedo-Siaca et al., 2020). Our results also showed no link 312 between steady state A and $1/\tau$ (Figure 6), although the co-localisation of QTLs on 313 chromosome 7H suggests they both may be controlled by the action of a single gene or a 314 cluster of closely linked genes at the same chromosomal location. 315

Significant improvements in photosynthesis and resultant increases in plant growth havenow been achieved under field conditions through genetic modification of model plant

318 species (15% increased biomass production by accelerating recovery from photoprotection, 319 Kromdijk et al., 2016; and 40% increased biomass via engineering of a photorespiratory bypass, South et al., 2019) and recent modelling has highlighted the potential of improving 320 321 several dynamic photosynthetic traits on whole canopy photosynthesis (Wang et al., 2020). 322 It is important now that we explore and exploit natural variation in photosynthetic traits 323 across plant populations (for review see Furbank et al., 2020). As in previous studies with 324 other species, we identified significant variation in rubisco activation rate across barley 325 genotypes. We identified a QTL for rubisco activation rate, as well as several QTLs for steady 326 state A and g_s . Q1/ τ .sun-7H was flanked by the bpb-9601 DArT marker which has previously been associated with both grain yield and crop spike number in the Yerong/Franklin 327 328 population (Xue et al., 2010). This marker is of particular interest as it also flanks QTLs that 329 we identified for steady state A and g_s (QA.sun-7H and Q g_s .sun-7H in Table 1), highlighting 330 its utility for marker assisted selection (MAS). MAS exploiting natural variation between barley genotypes can now be achieved through the development of a high throughput 331 codominant marker using the sequence information from the closely associated bpb-9601 332 333 DArT marker identified in this study. MAS for both steady-state and dynamic photosynthetic 334 traits in barley now provides potential to improve daily photosynthetic carbon gain in both sporadically sunlit lower canopy and fully sunlit upper canopy leaves, bolstering whole 335 336 canopy photosynthesis and contributing to yield potential.

337

338 Whilst we observed segregation for three different photosynthetic traits in the barley 339 mapping population studied, and the V/D population presented in Figures S4 and S5, these 340 populations were not specifically developed to investigate photosynthesis. Future work in this area would hugely benefit from phenotyping a diverse panel of barley accessions to 341 342 either develop additional trait-specific mapping populations using parents with contrasting 343 photosynthetic properties or use a genome wide association scan (GWAS) approach to mine 344 for novel favourable alleles based on natural variation in photosynthetic traits. This may also include the investigation of crop wild relatives (Castañeda-Álvarez, 2016). Such approaches 345 346 have already yielded promising outcomes for other desirable traits in crop species, including 347 salinity (in barley, Saade et al., 2016) and drought tolerance (Venuprasad et al., 2009).

349 Due to the recent availability of multiple reference genomes for cultivated and wild barley, 350 the precision of GWAS studies and ability to rapidly clone genes of interest from cereal crops is continually improving. Further studies are required to determine whether each of 351 352 the traits studied are under control by a single gene or more complex genetic control within 353 the QTL region on chromosome 7H. Further mendelisation of the 7H QTL by intercrossing 354 select DH lines from the Y/F population will enable the development of a large segregating F₂ fine-mapping population for positional cloning of the 7H QTL to unravel the underlying 355 356 genetic and biological mechanisms involved.

357

358 Our study focussed on a step change from moderate (600 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) to saturating light 359 (1300 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹), rather than low to high light as has been reported previously (i.e. 50 – 1500 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in Taylor and Long, 2017). We felt this approach would provide more 360 valuable information for plant breeding, as it more accurately represents the light regime 361 362 experienced by the second youngest leaves in the canopy, which for wheat have been reported to receive between 300 – 700 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD when not in a sunfleck (Townsend 363 364 et al., 2018). Whilst leaves lower in the canopy receive much less light than this (< 300 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹), these leaves are also less likely to be exposed to sunflecks and also have a much-365 366 reduced photosynthetic capacity (Townsend et al. 2018), so contribute considerably less to 367 whole canopy photosynthesis. Our results show that rubisco activation rates after a switch from moderate to high light in barley (median $1/\tau = 0.28 \text{ min}^{-1}$) are similar to those that 368 have been reported from low to high light in other species $(0.3 - 0.45 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ in rice}, \text{ Yamori})$ 369 370 et al., 2012; 0.24 – 0.42 min⁻¹ in soybean, Soleh et al., 2016; and 0.25 – 0.33 min⁻¹ in wheat, 371 Taylor and Long, 2017), albeit with greater variation. It would therefore seem that the same 372 biochemical processes, likely related to the amount of and form of rubisco activase present 373 in the leaves (Carmo-Silva and Salvucci, 2013), are involved in photosynthetic induction 374 under the two induction scenarios.

375

376 Limitations and future directions

Our study has focussed on rubisco activation however this is only one part of the dynamic
photosynthesis puzzle, in which all the pieces must be investigated to fully understand
potential improvements that could be made to whole canopy photosynthesis. Responses of
stomata can also limit photosynthesis in fluctuating light. Faster stomatal opening has now

381 been shown to improve net photosynthesis and biomass production in overexpressing 382 mutants of Arabidopsis thaliana compared to wild type plants (Kimura et al., 2020). And so, 383 if improvements are made to rubisco activation rate without also considering rates of 384 stomatal opening/closure, the dominant limitation will likely shift in the direction of the 385 stomata. In effect, this could nullify any improvements made to rubisco activation in terms 386 of net photosynthesis. On a positive note, recent work has highlighted that stomatal traits 387 can be linked to rubisco kinetics during leaf development in some plant species (Conesa et 388 al., 2019), and it has long been realised that stomata respond to photosynthetic activity in 389 the mesophyll (Messinger et al., 2006). It is therefore conceivable that improving rubisco 390 activation rate through targeted plant breeding could also inherently result in improved 391 stomatal responses. Regardless, there is a definite need for future work in this area to 392 address dynamic responses of stomata, rubisco and other biochemical processes (i.e. non-393 photochemical quenching) of photosynthesis together, rather than focussing on each in 394 isolation.

395

396 In this study, we measured photosynthetic induction and identified associated QTLs in 397 plants grown under optimal and controlled conditions. The next important step is for 398 photosynthetic induction traits to be investigated in field grown plants with established 399 canopies. Traditional gas exchange techniques combined with new higher throughput 400 techniques based on thermography (for dynamic stomatal traits; Vialet-Chabrand & Lawson, 401 2020), hyperspectral imaging and chlorophyll fluorescence (for dynamic photosynthetic 402 parameters; McAusland et al., 2019; Meacham-Hensold et al., 2020) may offer the potential 403 to screen these two populations in the field and validate the QTLs we identified in this 404 study. It is also important that we understand if these QTLS are strong under sub-optimal 405 conditions (i.e. under drought or heat stress), as for most growers such conditions can be 406 common during a growing season.

407

408 A note on gas exchange methodology

It is common practice to allow a leaf to stabilise to the chamber conditions of an IRGA, yet
the recent push for "high throughput" and "big data" approaches in plant physiology may
have made researchers complacent. We hypothesized that this complacency could impact
detected QTLs for photosynthesis and stomatal conductance, and indeed we found that

413 using non-steady state rates (i.e. before leaves had equilibrated to chamber conditions) 414 resulted in less accurate detection of QTLs. It is likely that false QTL identifications are worsened by the high variability in photosynthetic induction kinetics that exists across this 415 416 population (and has also been found in other crop species) and the fact that there is no 417 clear relationship between steady state and dynamic photosynthesis. This result reinforces 418 the importance of good gas exchange technique. The push for high-throughput measurements has resulted in new fast methods, such as the Rapid A/c_i method (Stinziano 419 420 et al., 2017), being developed yet it must be highlighted that most of these methods still 421 rely on the assumption of steady state conditions and these will therefore still be limited by 422 equilibration time.

423

424 We suggest that plant physiologists treat this as a methodological opportunity instead of a 425 hindrance. Rather than just waiting for the leaf to reach steady state and then recording a 426 point measurement or photosynthetic response curve, the photosynthetic induction phase could always be logged continuously as soon as the leaf enters the chamber. Not only would 427 428 this provide extra data on photosynthetic induction, it would also provide transparency and 429 confidence in the data. Specifically, the researcher and their peers would be able to 430 backcheck to ensure that steady state conditions had been reached. In the past, technical 431 limitations may have prevented such an approach, but new gas exchange instruments have 432 both the computational power and environmental control to establish this as common 433 practice.

434

435 **Conclusions**

In this study, we found wide variation in photosynthetic induction to fluctuating light across
a barley mapping population. This variation allowed us to identify a QTL for rubisco
activation rate, the position of which overlapped QTLs for steady state photosynthesis and
stomatal conductance. These QTLs lie close to molecular markers that could be used for
selection in plant breeding programs. Future work should aim to validate these QTLs under
field conditions so that they can be used to aid plant breeding efforts.

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- 450

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560 Tables

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561 Table 1 – QTLs for dynamic and steady state photosynthetic traits identified in the mapping
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562 population.

563

Trait	QTL	Chromosome	Position (cM)	Nearest Marker	Explained variance (%)	Additivity	LOD
1/τ	Q1/τ.sun-7H	7H	41.67	bpb-9601	10.48	-0.07	4.40
Α	QA.sun-2H	2H	27.03	bpb-0003	9.20	-3.85	4.31
Α	QA.sun-4H	4H	66.68	bpb-2305	5.84	-4.37	2.64
Α	QA.sun-7H	7H	41.67	bpb-9601	10.80	-4.30	5.18
g s	Qg _s .sun-2H	2H	35.91	bpb-8750	11.80	-0.09	5.41
g _s	Qg₅.sun-5H	5H	53.39	bpb-5532	6.49	0.07	2.98
\boldsymbol{g}_{s}	Qg₅.sun-7H	7H	41.28	bpb-4989	13.75	-0.11	6.80

564

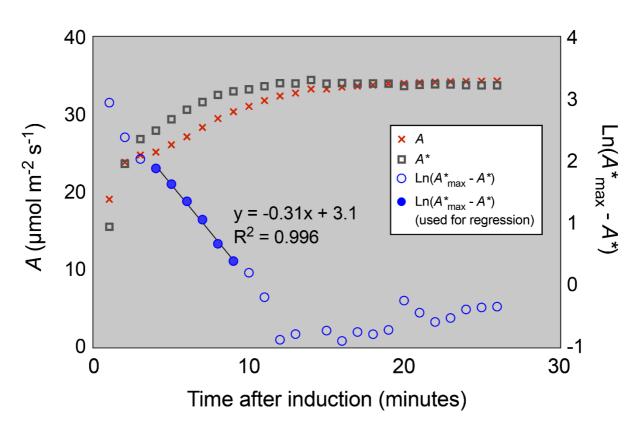
- **Table 2** Distribution features for photosynthetic rate (A) and stomatal conductance (g_s)
- across the population at 5, 10 and 15 minutes into photosynthetic induction.

Trait	Time point (minutes)	Minimum	25% Percentile	Median	75% Percentile	Maximum	Mean
А	5	7.1	16.5	20.0	24.9	36.5	20.4
(umol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	10	9.6	20.0	23.3	26.9	40.2	23.4
	15	12.2	21.5	24.9	28.4	41.8	25.0
g₅	5	0.044	0.259	0.365	0.522	0.947	0.397
(mmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	10	0.069	0.294	0.392	0.508	0.947	0.412
	15	0.107	0.330	0.441	0.544	0.940	0.452

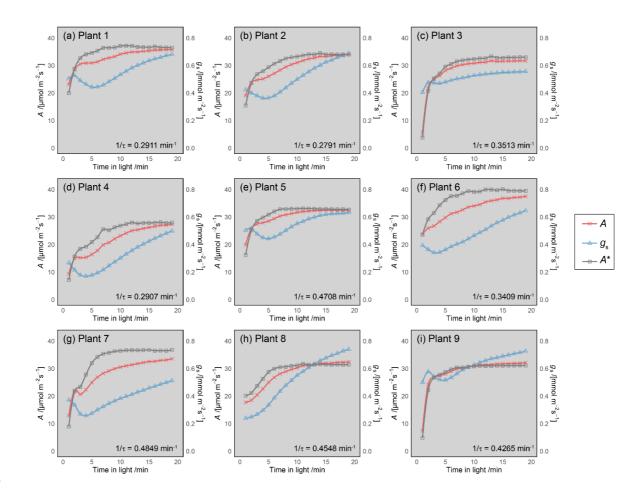
571 Figures

Figure 1 – Example of a typical leaf photosynthetic induction response and the linear regression used to calculate rubisco activation rate $(1/\tau)$. The orange crosses represent the measured photosynthetic rate *A*; the grey squares the $c_i = 300 \mu mol mol^{-1}$ normalised photosynthetic rate *A*^{*}; and the blue circles the logarithmic difference between the fully induced photosynthetic rate *A*^{*}_{max} and *A*^{*}. Filled circles represent the data points used in the linear regression to estimate $1/\tau$, the rubisco activation rate. The slope of the regression represents $1/\tau$, in this case 0.31 min⁻¹.





- 581 Figure 2 Induction curves for net photosynthesis, A (red crosses); stomatal conductance,
- 582 g_s (blue triangles); and $c_i = 300$ ppm normalised photosynthesis, A^* (grey squares), after a
- 583 switch from moderate to saturating light. Data shown in panels (a) (i) are representative
- induction curves from one day of measurements in individual plants. The value of $1/\tau$ is
- shown in each panel for reference.
- 586

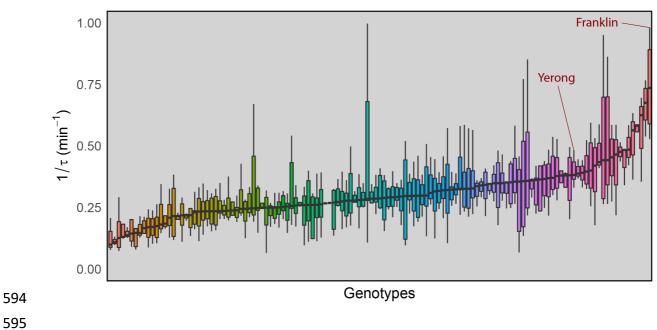




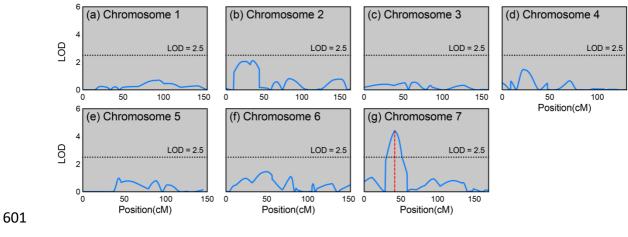
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- 590 **Figure 3** Distribution of rubisco activation rate $(1/\tau)$ across genotypes of the
- 591 Yerong/Franklin DH population. Each bar represents a single genotype. Parental lines are
- 592 highlighted. Colours are arbitrary.

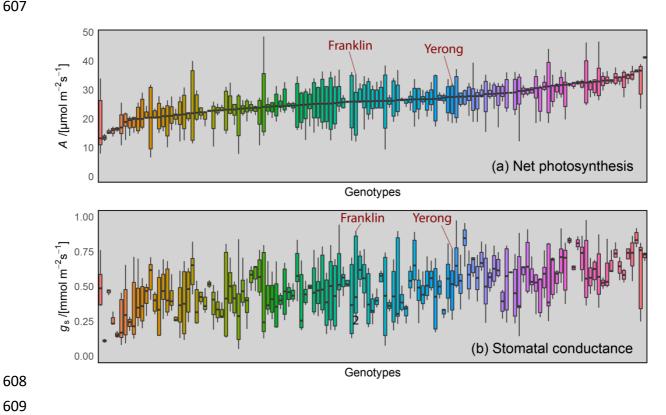




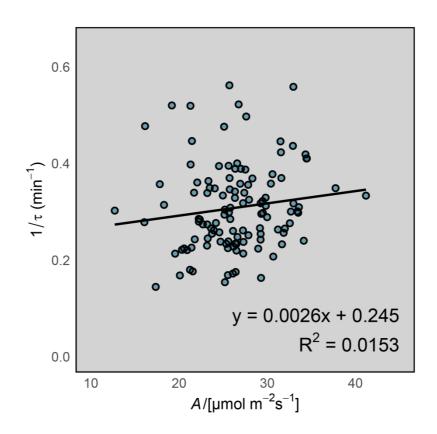
- 596 **Figure 4** Logarithm of odds (LOD) traces from composite interval QTL mapping analysis for
- 597 $1/\tau$. LOD values are plotted against the position on the chromosomes. The significance
- threshold LOD of 2.5 is indicated by the dotted line in each plot. Vertical dashed red lines
- 599 represent identified QTLs.
- 600



- 603 Figure 5 – Distribution of steady state (a) A and (b) g_s across genotypes of the
- 604 Yerong/Franklin population. Each bar represents a single genotype. Parental lines are
- 605 highlighted. Note that colours are arbitrary but are consistent for genotypes in panels (a)
- and (b). 606
- 607

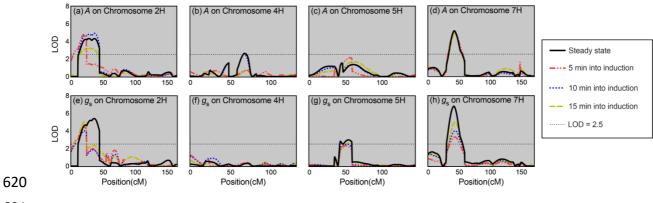


- 610 **Figure 6** Relationship between steady state A and $1/\tau$. Each point represents a genotype.
- 611 Values are genotype means.
- 612





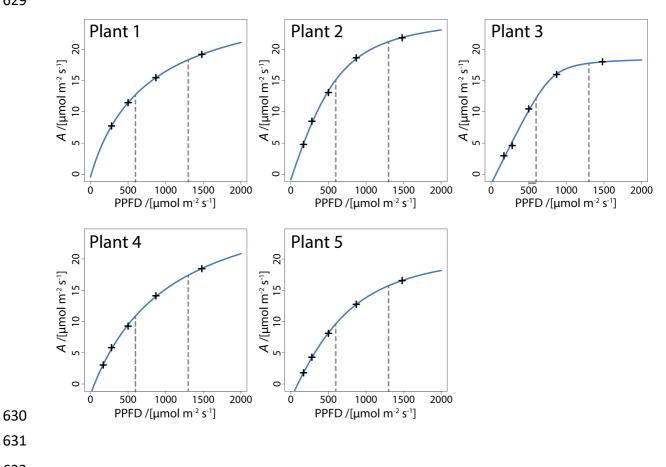
- 614 **Figure 7** Logarithm of odds (LOD) traces from composite interval QTL mapping analysis for
- 615 A and g_s in the Yerong/Franklin DH population. LOD values are plotted against the cM
- 616 position on chromosomes 2H, 4H, 5H and 7H. The threshold LOD of 2.5 is indicated by the
- 617 horizontal dotted line in each plot. Note that LOD plots for chromosomes 1H, 3H and 6H are
- 618 not shown as there were no significant QTLs identified on these chromosomes.
- 619



622 **Supplementary figures**

623 Figure S1 – Photosynthetic light response curves measured on plants of the parental line

- 624 Dash grown under the same growth conditions as experimental plants. Curves were fitted to
- 625 a non-rectangular hyperbola model using non-linear least squares in R (nls; R Language and
- Environment) as per Salter et al. (2019). Vertical dashed lines are shown at 600 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ 626
- and 1300 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ to highlight the moderate to high light induction phase measured in 627
- 628 this study.
- 629





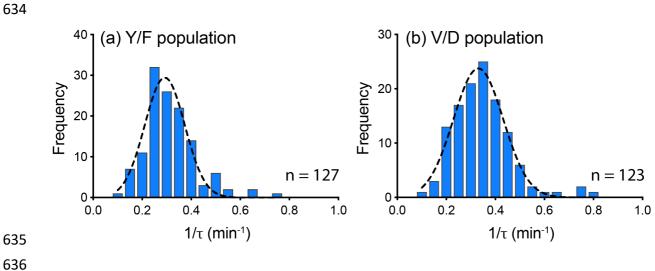




Figure S3 – Frequency distributions of steady-state (a) A and (b) g_s for the Y/F DH 637

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638
       population.
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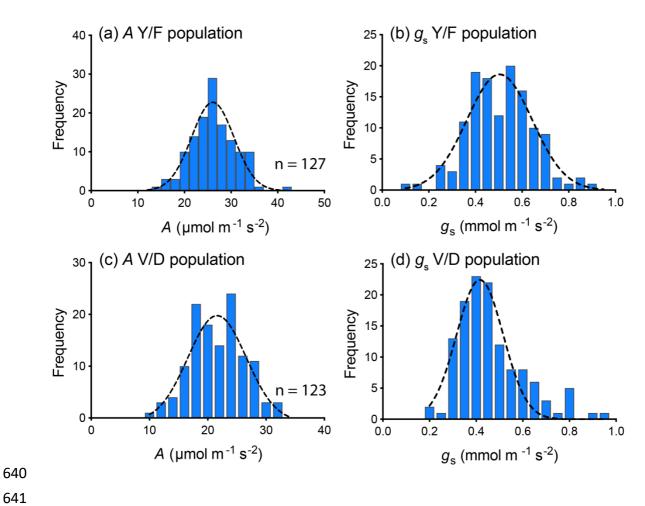
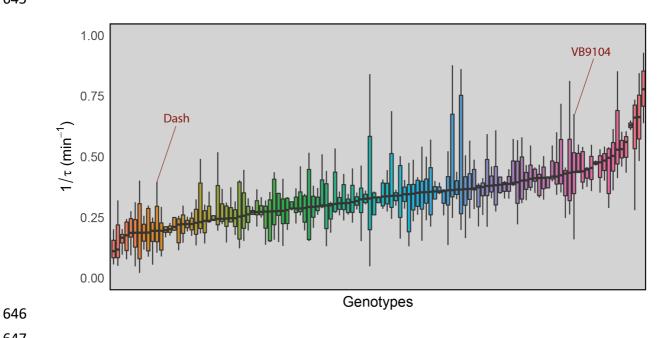


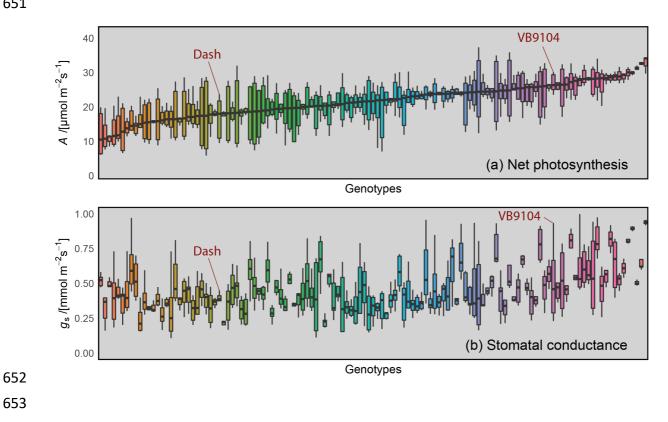
Figure S4 - Distribution of rubisco activation rate $(1/\tau)$ across genotypes of the V/D DH 642

643 population. Each bar represents a single genotype. Parental lines are highlighted. Colours

- 644 are arbitrary.
- 645



- 648 **Figure S5** - Distribution of steady state (a) A and (b) g_s across genotypes of the VB9104/Dash
- 649 population. Each bar represents a single genotype. Parental lines are highlighted. Note that
- colours are arbitrary but are consistent for genotypes in panels (a) and (b). 650
- 651



654 List of supplementary files

- 655 *FileS1.xlsx* Yerong/Franklin dynamic and steady state gas exchange phenotypic data.
- 656 *FileS2.xlsx* Results of composite interval mapping of dynamic and steady state
- 657 photosynthetic traits.