

Plant Science Research



ISSN 0972-8546

OJIP fluorescence transient as a tool for analysis of plant responses to insecticides: A review

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received : 16 August 2014 Accepted : 19 December 2014

Keywords:
Chlorophyll a
Fluorescence
OJIP
PS II
Insecticide
Plant efficiency

ABSTRACT

Fast chlorophyll a fluorescence is a useful tool for non destructive analytical use of plant material and relative quantification of plant efficiency under various environmental conditions. The fast fluorescence rise, OJIP, in response to an exposure to a high intensity of saturating pulse (ca 3000 µmol photon/m2s) is very effective in characterizing the Z-scheme components of the light reaction of photosynthesis in general and of PS II in particular. Various derived parameters, calculated from the peaks of the OJIP transient have been successfully used to analyze the action of biotic and abiotic stresses on the photosynthetic activity of plants. The derived fluorescence parameters precisely determine the site of action of various stressors on non cyclic electron transport chain and the information, so obtained, are applied to minimize the effect of stress on plants as well as to design plants to adapt to such stress situations. The OJIP transient patterns in general and PS II fluorescence in particular are altered by the action of insecticides on plants at field and higher concentrations. Different insecticides have different sites of action on the photosynthetic membrane, which is analysed by the magnitude of changes in various derived fluorescence parameters. This review presents the application of OJIP fluorescence analysis for quick and effective determination of the action of insecticides on photosynthesis.

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1. Introduction

Fast Chl a fluorescence (2-10 % of the absorbed light; Trissl et al., 1993) has proved to be a very useful and non-invasive tool for plant efficiency studies and more specifically for characterizing the behaviour of photosystem II (PS II; Krause and Weis, 1991; Govindjee, 1995; Lazar, 1999). The chlorophyll fluorescence signal recorded from the plant samples becomes repetitive, non destructive and enables the detection of changes in the response of plants, algae and cyanobacteria to external factors over time. Recent improvements in detecting the fluorescence signal through direct and time-resolved measurements could provide detail information on the fast fluorescence rise. All oxygenic photosynthetic materials investigated so far show a

polyphasic rise consisting of the basic steps from the "origin" (O) through two intermittent "inflections" (termed as J and I) to a "peak" (maximum) fluorescence (Kautsky and Hirsch, 1931; Strasser and Govindjee, 1992; Strasser *et al.*, 1995; 2004). The OJIP polyphasic transient was found to change its shape according to changes in the environmental conditions (Munday and Govindjee, 1969; Neubauer and Schreiber, 1987; Krause and Weis, 1991; Strasser *et al.*, 1995).

The analysis of the fast fluorescence rise, termed as OJIP test, allows the derivation of several expressions leading to the actual description of a photosynthetic sample in a current physiological state. Therefore, the changes in the photosynthetic behaviours caused by environmental stress have been widely explored by applying the fast Chl *a*

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fluorescence kinetics in higher plants (Govindjee *et al.*, 1986; Papageorgiou and Govindjee, 2004). The shape of OJIP fluorescence rise has been found to be very sensitive to stress caused by changes (positive or negative) in different environmental conditions, e.g., light intensity, temperature, drought, atmospheric CO₂ concentration and chemical influences (Vernay *et al.*, 2008; Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010; Albert *et al.*, 2011; Bürling *et al.*, 2011; Jena *et al.*, 2012). Various bioenergetic parameters are derived from the OJIP fluorescence data to analyse the site of action of an abiotic or biotic stress on the photosynthetic energy harvesting process (Strasser and Strasser, 1995; Srivastava *et al.*, 1999; Force *et al.*, 2003; Strasser *et al.*, 2004; Tsimilli Michael and Strasser, 2008; Strasser *et al.*, 2010; Yusuf *et al.*, 2010; Stirbet and Govindjee, 2011; Chhotaray *et al.*, 2014).

The analysis of the effects of abiotic stresses on photosynthetic apparatus of green plants (algae, lower and higher plants) and cyanobacteria has been successfully made using the OJIP fluorescence transient and the derived information from the rise (Force et al., 2003; Lazar, 2003; Tsimilli Michael and Strasser, 2008; Vernay et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008; Strasser et al., 2010; Yusuf et al., 2010; Stirbet and Govindjee, 2011; Jena et al., 2012; Chhotray et al., 2014). There are plenty of information on the analysis of herbicide toxicity to plants and cyanobacteria by the use of fluorescence parameters (DeLorenzo et al., 2001; Juneau and Harrison, 2005; Juneau et al., 2007; Chalifour and Juneau, 2011; Deblois et al., 2013). Some information is also available on the effects of insecticides on photosynthesis through the use of fluorescence signals. However, such information has not yet been compiled to evaluate the potential of fluorescence tools in general and OJIP fluorescence rise in particular as an approach for effective analysis of pesticide phytotoxicity. This review presents the effects of insecticides of various classes on the photosynthetic electron flow by taking the OJIP fluorescence transient. This review is also aimed at scientists, who have some experience with the application of chlorophyll a fluorescence but still in the process of discovering its extension to insecticide stress analysis.

2. OJIP parameters for stress analysis

Upon a dark-to-light transition, the fluorescence intensity of a photosynthetic sample increases from a low value (F_0 or O) via two intermediate steps (F_J or J and F_I or I) in 200–400 ms to a maximum value (F_M or P) during the application of a saturating pulse of light (1500-3000 $\mu E/m^2s$; Strasser and Govindjee, 1991; Strasser *et al.*, 1995). The different fluorescence rise phases (OJ, JI and IP) can be related to different steps of the reduction of the ETC: OJ parallels the reduction of the acceptor side of PSII (Q_A to

Q_p); JI parallels the reduction of the PQ-pool and IP parallels the reduction of the electron transport acceptors in and around PSI (Schansker et al., 2005). This means that OJIP transients give information on the state of the entire noncyclic ETC. Although complex simulations of OJIP transients use a kinetic model based on the gradual reduction of the ETC (Lazar, 2003; Zhu et al., 2005), it has been shown that the transients can also be approximated assuming that the transients consist of three kinetic components indicating that the rate limitations (exchange of PQ at the Q_R-site of PS II and re-oxidation of PQH, by cyt b₆/f) quite effectively separate the three rise phases kinetically. These three phases are found differentially sensitive to chemical stresses (pesticides, herbicides, antibiotics, etc.) and therefore a number of derived parameters are used to determine the electron flow vis-a-vis photosynthetic activity of samples. Table 1 summerises the most commonly used derived parameters of OJIP transient for stress analysis (Force et al., 2003; Strasser et al., 2004; 2010; Yusuf et al., 2010; Stirbet and Govindjee, 2011). The trend of change and the magnitude of variation of these parameters are the indications of the variety of effects of stress on plants.

3. Fluorescence rise under insecticide stress

The most significant effect of insecticides on the target pests is the change in the membrane fluidity resulting in various disorders in the insect physiology and the death of the target pest. Similar effects of insecticides on mitochondrial and thylakoid membrane integrity have been reported (Moreno and Madeira, 1990; Mohapatra *et al.*, 1996; Panda *et al.*, 1998; Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000; Yao *et al.*, 2006; Pan *et al.*, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2011). Insecticide accumulation in the lipid bilayer core of the thylakoid membrane results in a loose and permeable or a tight and rigid photosynthetic membrane showing abnormal ETC. such effects are easily visualized by the alteration in the chlorophyll fluorescence signal.

3.1 Change in the shape of OJIP fluorescence transient

The shape of the OJIP fluorescence transient, both with short and prolonged illumination (fast and delayed fluorescence) changes in response to insecticide treatments (Singh *et al.*, 1996; Pan *et al.*, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2010; Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010; Jena *et al.*, 2012). On dimethoate treatment of wheat plants it has been observed that the linear time plots of the fluorescence induction curve of the control as well as treated plants have shown significant variation from each other (Fig. 1). The control plant has a monotonous P to T fluorescence decay whereas treated one has clear S to M fluorescence rise. The fluorescence maximum M became prominent and fluorescence intensity decreased

Table 1
The summary of OJIP parameters, directly obtained from the transient as well as those derived from primary OJIP data. The table is based on the publication by many authors (Strasser and Strasser, 1995; Srivastava *et al.*, 1999; Force *et al.*, 2003; Strasser *et al.*, 2004; Tsimilli Michael and Strasser, 2008; Strasser *et al.*, 2010; Yusuf *et al.*, 2010; Stirbet and Govindjee, 2011).

Sl. No	Parameter	Calculation	Explanation			
		0	JIP transient data			
1	F_0	50 μs fluorescence	Minimal reliable recorded fluorescence, at 50µs			
2	F_t	Fluorescence at time t	Fluorescence at time t after onset of actinic illumination			
3	F_{K}	300 µs fluorescence	Fluorescence at 300 µs			
4	F_{J}	2 ms fluorescence	Fluorescence at the J-step (2 ms) of OJIP			
5	F_{I}	30 ms fluorescence	Fluorescence at the I-step (30 ms) of OJIP			
6	F_{p} (or F_{M})	Fluorescence maximum	Maximum fluorescence recorded in the OJIP transient during 1 s $$			
7	F_v	F_{M} - F_{0}	Variable fluorescence			
8	F_{v}	$F_{t} - F_{0}$	Variable fluorescence recorded at time t after onset of light and t \neq t _{FM}			
9	$t_{_{\mathrm{FM}}}$	Time to achieve F _M	Time t (in ms) to reach at F_{M}			
10	Area		Total complementary area between fluorescence induction cur and $\boldsymbol{F} = \boldsymbol{F}_{_{\boldsymbol{M}}}$			
			Energy fluxes			
11	$J^{TR} (=TR_0)$		Rate of exciton trapping (leading to Q_A reduction) by all PS II RCs			
12	$J^{ET2} (=ET_0)$		Electron transport flux from Q_A to Q_B			
13	$J^{RE1} (=RE^1)$		Electron transport flux until PS I acceptors (defined at t=30ms, corresponding to the I level; also called as End Reaction; RE)			
14	$J^{DI}(=DI_0)$		Rate of energy dissipation in all the PS II			
		Qua	ntum yield efficiency			
15	$\phi P_{_0}$	$(F_{M}-F_{0})/F_{M}$	Maximal quantum yield of primary PS II photochemistry			
16	$\phi E_{_0}$	$(F_{M}-F_{J})/F_{M}$ or ϕP_{0} . Ψ_{0}	Quantum yields of the electron transport flux from $\boldsymbol{Q}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ to $\boldsymbol{Q}_{\boldsymbol{B}}$			
17	φRE_{0}^{1}	$(F_M - F_I)/F_M \text{ or } \phi P_0 \cdot \Psi RE_0^1$	Quantum yield of the electron transport flux until the PS I electron acceptors			
18	$\phi D_{_0}$	F_0/F_M	Quantum yield (at $t = 0$) of energy dissipation by PS IIs			
19	Ψ_0 or (YET	² ₀)	$1\text{-V}_{_J}$ Efficiency probability with which a PS II trapped electron is transferred from $Q_{_A}$ to $Q_{_B}$			
20	ΨRE^{1}_{0}	1-V ₁	Efficiency/probability with which a PS II trapped electron is transferred until PS I acceptor			
21	$\delta RE^{1}_{\ 0}$	$(1-V_1)/(1-V_J)$	Efficiency/probability with an electron from $Q_{\rm B}$ is transferred until PS I acceptors			
		Specific energ	gy fluxes (per active PS II RC)			
22	ABS/RC	$(M_{\scriptscriptstyle 0}/V_{\scriptscriptstyle J}).(1/\phi P_{\scriptscriptstyle 0})$	Average absorbed photon per PS II RC (also average antenna size of an active PS II)			
23	TR ₀ /RC	M_0/V_1	Maximum trapped exciton flux per PS II RC (at t=0)			
24	ET ₀ /RC	$(M_0/V_J).\Psi_0$	Electron transport flux (from Q_A to Q_B) per RC (at t=0)			
25	DI ₀ /RC	(ABS/RC)-(TR ₀ /RC)	Dissipated energy flux per RC (at t=0)			
26	RE ¹ /RC	(M_0/V_J) . ΨRE	Electron transport flux until PS I acceptors per PS II RC			

Phenomenological energy fluxes (per excited cross section CS)

27	ABS/CS ₀	F_0	Absorption flux per CS (also apparent PS II antenna size), approximated by \mathbf{F}_0							
28	ABS/CS_{M}	F_{M}	Absorption flux per excited CS, approximated by $F_{\rm M}$							
29	TR_0/CS_0	$\phi P_0.F_0$	Trapped energy flux per CS (at t=0)							
30	ET_0/CS_0	$\phi E_0.F_0$	Electron transport flux per CS (at t=0)							
31	RE1/CS ₀	$\varphi RE^1.F_0$	Electron transport flux until PS I acceptors per cross section							
32	DI ₀ /CS ₀	$\phi D_0 F_0$	Dissipated energy flux per CS (at $t = 0$)							
Performance indices										
33	PI_{ϕ} F_{ϕ}/F_{ϕ} or $\phi P_{\phi}/(1-\phi P_{\phi})$ Performance index of primary photochemistry									
34	PI_{Ψ}	$\Psi_{0}/(1-\Psi_{0})$	Performance index of electron transport							
35	PI_{ABS}	PI_{ϕ} . PI_{ψ} (RC/ABS)	Performance index for energy conservation from photons absorbed by PS II antenna to the reduction of $Q_{\rm B}$							
36	PI ^{total}	PI_{ABS} .[$\delta RE/(1-\delta RE)$]	Performance index for energy conservation from photons absorbed by PS II antenna until the reduction of PS I acceptors							
37	$PI^{total}_{ CS0}$	F ₀ .PI ^{total}	Performance index on cross section basis approximated by F ₀							
38	PI ^{total} CSM	F_{M} . PI^{total}	Performance index on cross section basis approximated by $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$							
	Other derived parameters of performance measurement									
39	$V_{_{\mathrm{J}}}$	$(F_{J}-F_{0})/(F_{M}-F_{0})$	Relative variable fluorescence at J inflection							
40	$V_{_{\rm I}}$	$(F_{I}-F_{0})/(F_{M}-F_{0})$	Relative variable fluorescence at I inflection							
41	$M_{_0}$	$4(F_{K}-F_{0})/F_{M}-F_{0}$	Net rate of PS II closure by donor limitation							
42	S_{M}	Area/F _v	Normalized total complementary area above the OJIP transient (reflecting multiple turnover of Q_A)							
43	S_s	$V_{\rm J}/M_{_0}$	Normalized total complementary area corresponding only to the O-J phase (reflecting single turnover of Q_A)							
44	N	S_M/S_S	Turnover number, i.e. number of Q_A reduction events between time t_0 and t_{FM}							
45	$V_{_{\scriptscriptstyle{\mathtt{f}}}}$	$(F_{t}-F_{0})/(F_{M}-F_{0})$	Relative variable fluorescence at time t							
46	$\Delta m V_{_{f}}$	V_{t} sample- V_{t} control	Differential relative variable fluorescence transient							
47	\mathbf{V}_{av}	$1-(S_{\rm M}/t_{\rm FM})$	Average relative variable fluorescence from time t_0 to $t_{\rm FM}$							
	av	111 1111	ty of reaction centres							
48	RC/CS _x	$\varphi P_0.(V_1/M_0).(ABS/CSx)$	Density of RCs per CS							
49	RC/ABS	$(V_1/M_0).\phi P_0$	Active RCs on absorption basis							
50	RC/CS ₀	$F_0.\varphi P_0.(V_J/M_0)$	Active RCs on cross section basis							

slowly to the terminal peak T in dimethoate-treated plants, whereas in the control plants, the fluorescence peak M was not present and fluorescence decreases slowly from S \rightarrow T (Pandey and Gopal, 2012). This has been attributed to the fluorescence quenching because of the transmembrane ΔpH generated due to reduced across the membrane proton translocation (Briantais *et al.*, 1979, Pandey and Gopal, 2012). Similarly in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 dimethoate has been reported to cause rapid increase of ΔpH leading to enhanced NPQ resulting in complete loss of variable

fluorescence and photosynthetic yield within few minutes (2 – 10 min) of treatment (Mohapatra *et al.*, 1997; Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000). Further Pandey and Gopal (2012) observed that there are disturbances in the energy redistribution between PS I and PS II (impairment of PS I activity) and/or reduction in the number of mobile light-harvesting protein complex and/or decrease in the activity and concentration of LHC II kinases and/or increase in the activity of LHC II phosphates. Decrease in qP and an increase in NPQ in *P. vulgaris* was found to be the result of

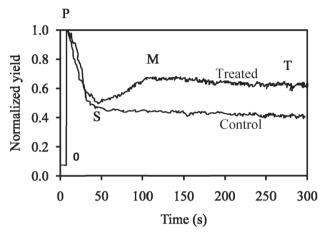
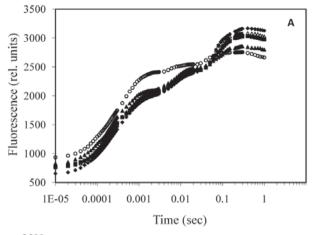


Fig.1. Fluorescence induction curve of control and leaves treated with dimethoate. The values are fluorescence recorded at 685 nm on excitation with 635 nm red diode (Modified from Pandey and Gopal, 2012).

reduced maximum fluorescence associated with SM rise of a leaf beyond 1 sec at weak actinic excitation (Bradbury and Baker, 1984).

In Solanum melongena dimethoate treatment, at field concentration, caused an increase of fluorescence at J step, a prolonged IP phase and a reduced P fluorescence, which were proportional to the time up to 6 h but gradual decrease of J fluorescence and restoration of P fluorescence were reported thereafter (Fig. 2; Khillar et al., 2010; Mohapatra et al., 2010). There is also a relative increase of F₀ with time indicating the increase in Q reduction. A new step, called K step, first observed and described by Strasser (1997), appears under stress condition when all oxygen evolving complexes (OEC) are in S2 or S3 states and electron donation from Y₇ to P680⁺ is slowed down (Strasser, 1997; Lazar, 2003; Strasser et al., 2004). Such modification of OJIP fluorescence rise with a distinct and visible K step was, however, not observed with dimethoate treatment as the insecticide inhibited PS II-PS I electron flow but did not cause complete inhibition of PQ-PS I electron flow. The insecticide also did not significantly modify the OEC-PS II electron transport. However, an increase in J amplitude caused a rise in F₀ and indicated the disturbance of electron transport at the acceptor side of PS II (Mohapatra et al., 2010).

Taking four OP insecticides (dimethoate, phorate, quinalphos and chlorfenvinphos) of diverse chemical structures Jena *et al.* (2012) reported that there was alteration in the shape of OJIP fluorescence rise on treatment with each of the four insecticides. Dimethoate and phorate caused enhancement of J fluorescence but reduction of I and P fluorescence (Fig. 3). Higher concentrations of dimethoate, however, reduced OJIP rise at all levels. Quinalphos and



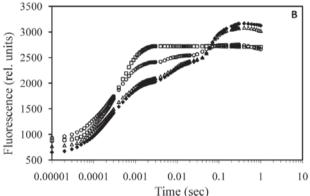


Fig. 2. The OJIP fluorescence rise of dark adopted *Solanum melongena* leaves on treatment with dimethoate (1.419 mg 9.1/g fr.wt.). (A) Treatment at different time interval (B) Insecticide treatment compared on 0.5 h treatment with DCMU. Treatment time (h): full diamond-0, full square-0.5, full triangle -2, empty circle-6, empty triangle -48, empty square- DCMU (Adapted from Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010).

chlorfenvinphos, on the other hand, limited the energy availability to PS II RC and resulted reduction of OJIP fluorescence rise at all levels. A very fast reduction of F_M with increase in concentration of quinalphos and chlorfenvinphos indicated that there is an inverse relationship between the insecticide concentration and electron flow beyond Q_A due to the donor limitation of PS II - RC (Mohapatra et al., 1997; Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000). Quinalphos is known to delink the antenna of PS II, most probably by changes in the thickness of the thylakoid membrane in Synechocystis (Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000) and Chlorella vulgaris (Jena et al., 2012). Similarly the pyrethroid insecticide cypermethrin also caused significant change in the PS II fluorescence and photosynthetic yield in Anabaena doliolum (Mohapatra et al., 2003; Samantaray, 2007) and Anabaena sp. PCC 7119 (Chandrakala and Mohapatra, 2012).

Anthracine treatment of *Desmodesmus subspicatus* has shown no significant influence on photochemical processes.

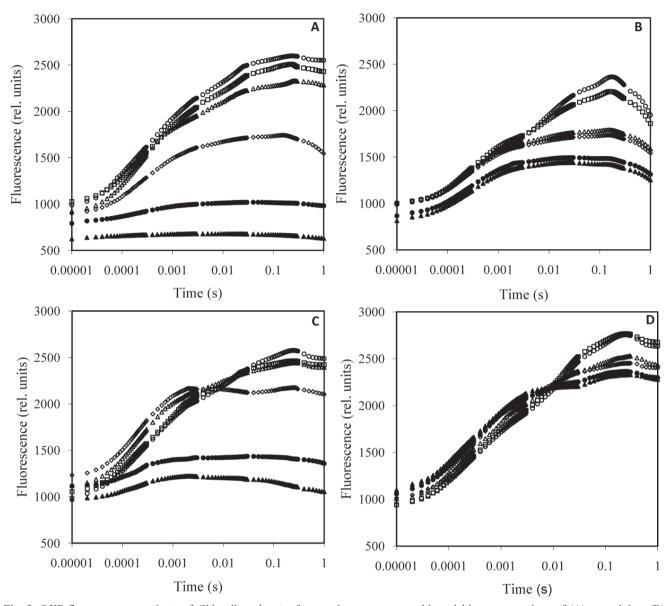


Fig. 3. OJIP fluorescence transients of *Chlorella vulgaris* after one hour treatment with variable concentrations of (A) quanalphos (B) chlorfonvinfos (C) dimethoate (D) phorate Insecticide concentration (μM): empty circle-0, empty square- 10, empty triangle-50, diamond-100, full circle-200, full triangle-500 (adapted from Jena *et al.*, 2012).

The shape of OJIP fluorescence was also not influenced by the insecticide, an indication of regularised PS II-PS I electron flow (Perales-Vela *et al.*, 2007; Tukaj *et al.*, 2007; Aksmann and Tukaj, 2008; Kummerova *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand, high concentrations of artemicinin treatment of *M. aeruginosa* caused disappearance of fluorescence at P level and the JIP phase gradually levelled off with increasing artemisinin concentration into a OJ rise (Ni *et al.*, 2012). This suggested that artemisinin blocked the electron transfer beyond Q_A, like that of a standard herbicide (Srivastava *et al.*, 1998; Ni *et al.*, 2012).

Acetamiprid treatment of Synechocystis caused a concentration-dependent change on the OJIP curve

decreasing almost in parallel with increasing acetamiprid concentration (Li *et al.*, 2010). Fluorescence rise was slow from J step to I step, a typical shape of the rise in cyanobacteria, for the control and low concentration acetamiprid stressed cells. However, at high concentrations (≥ 1 mM), the J–I phase rise almost disappeared (Fig. 4).

3.2. Effects on plant efficiency and energy dissipation

In most of the cases insecticide treatment induces the rise of stress indicating parameters viz., V_{J} , M_{0} , DI_{0}/RC and TR_{0}/RC (Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010; Khillar *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2010, Jena *et al.*, 2012). Force *et al.* (2003) noted that TR_{0}/RC showed narrowest magnitude of change under any stress situation and did not throw much light on the adaptive

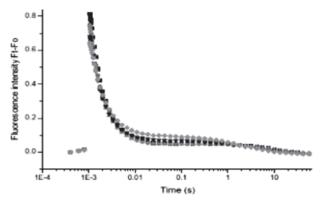


Fig. 4. The Q_A reoxidation kinetics of *Synechocystis sp.* treated for 24 h with various concentrations of acetamiprid. Insecticide concentration (μ M): square-0, circle-50, triangle-100, diamond-500 (Li *et al.*, 2010).

response of plants. Many other fluorescence parameters, viz., F_v, TR₀/Abs, ET₀/TR₀ and ET₀/RC, are adversely affected by the insecticide due to suppression of electron transport in functional PS II (Bukhov *et al.*, 2004; Volgusheva *et al.*, 2008; Bascik-Remisiewicz *et al.*, 2011; Ni *et al.*, 2012; Jena *et al.*, 2012; Antal *et al.*, 2013). Thus the insecticide not only minimizes the functional PS II but also retards the electron transport. These parameters are affected with reduction in the fluorescence yield due to the adverse effects of the insecticides on donor, acceptor or both sides of PS II.

Decrease in the value of φP_0 , Ψ_0 and φE_0 on treatment with the insecticides indicated the slowing down of electron flow from PS II to PS I and a corresponding increase of V_J and M_0 proved that the limitation of Q_A^- reoxidation is due to poor diffusion of PQ across the thylakoid membrane (Jena *et al.* 2012). Reduction in PI_{total} with insecticides treatment was caused due to acceptor limitation of PS I (Mohapatra *et al.*, 1997). V_J and M_0 increased gradually with artemisinin concentration, and there was proportionate decrease of electron transport beyond Q_A^- . The increased V_J^- and decreased ΨE_0^- indicate reduced Q_A^- accumulation as observed under light stress conditions (Ni *et al.*, 2012).

Anthracine treatment also caused decrease in the amount of energy absorbed (ABS/RC) and trapped (TR_0/RC) by active RC suggesting greater antenna size and photosynthetic activity of single RC in anthracine-treated cells. At the same time, the fraction of active PS II RCs was a little lower than in controls as some RCs are converted into heat sinks when over-excitation of photosynthetic pigments occurs. These RCs become inactive, i.e., they are unable to reduce Q_A (Krause and Weis 1991), and this kind of NPQ may be correlated with the rearrangement of the PS II core or with degradation of PS II proteins (Aksmann and

Tukaj, 2008). However, anthracine diminishes the performance indices of photosynthetic cells by reduction of the fraction of active RCs and from the lower quantum efficiency of energy trapping (φP_0) and electron transport (φE_0) (Huang *et al.*, 1997; Aksmann and Tukaj, 2008; Bascik-Remisiewicz *et al.*, 2011).

The parameter S_m is a measure of the energy needed to close all RCs and shows the multiple turnover. The value of S_m and N could reflect the size of PQ pools. If an exponential fluorescene rise for the single turn-over situation, then the normalized area S would be inversely proportional to the initial slope of the relative variable fluorescence (Strasser et al. 1995). However, the value of this slope can be calculated utilizing only data from the in vivo fluorescence transient as M_o without the requirement of additional measurements in the presence of DCMU (Strasser et al., 1995; Srivastava et al., 1998; Strasser et al., 2004). Artemisinin stress had little effects on the minimum value of S_m (S_c) but had greater impact on the rate of oxidation and reduction of $Q_A(M_0)$, S_m and N. This confirmed that the acceptor side in the electron transport of PS II was a target site of artemisinine stress in M. Aeruginosa (Ni et al., 2012). Similar acceptor limitation of PS II has been reported in algae and cyanobacteria (Mohapatra et al., 1997; Li et al., 2010; Jena et al., 2012).

The rise in S_s with insecticide treatment has also been reported by many workers. This shows that Q_A reduction rate increases, but the energy of reducing a single Q_A remains unchanged. On the other hand, since S_m decreases, i.e. PQ storage capacity of PS II reaction centre receptor side decreases, the corresponding redox number of Q_A also reduces (Lazar, 2003; Strasser *et al.*, 2004; Li *et al.*, 2010; Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010; Jena *et al.*, 2012).

Corresponding to the insecticide concentration, φP_0 of *Synechocystis sp.* was not, however, significantly affected after exposure to acetamiprid, which indicated that this parameter of the transient is not a good indicator of stress response (Li *et al.*, 2010). However, with OP insecticide treatment, significant reduction in the magnitude of φP_0 has been reported (Mohapatra *et al.*, 1997; 2010; Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000; Pandey and Gopal, 2012; Jena *et al.*, 2012). Further Mohapatra *et al.* (2003) and Samantaray (2007) observed that with pyrethroid insecticide treatment most of the performance indicating parameters including φP_0 of algae and cyanobacteria are adversely affected.

 $M_{_0}$, ABS/RC, $TR_{_0}/RC$ and $\phi D_{_0}$ changed little under stress of various concentrations of acetamiprid, indicating that acetamiprid had little effect on energy flux per RC. $\phi E_{_0}$, performance index ($PI_{_{CS}}$ and $PI_{_{ABS}}$) were promoted by

lower concentration (0.1 mM and below) acetamiprid but remarkably reduced by higher concentrations (Li et al., 2010). On the other hand, energy dissipation and the dissipation flux per active RC significantly decreased with other insecticide treatments (Mohapatra et al., 1997; 2010; Mohapatra and Schiewer, 2000; Pandey and Gopal, 2012; Jena et al., 2012). However, on the basis of cross section, the active RC/CS₀, ABS/CS, TR₀/CS, ET₀/CS clearly decreased with increasing acetamiprid concentration. (Table 2). All these observations proved that Q_A reoxidation kinetics was not significantly affected by lower concentrations (0.1 mM or below) of acetamiprid but at higher concentrations the effect was significant. Acetamiprid decreased the density of active PS II RC per excited cross section and quantum yield of electron transport, resulting in the decline of performance of PS II (Li et al., 2010).

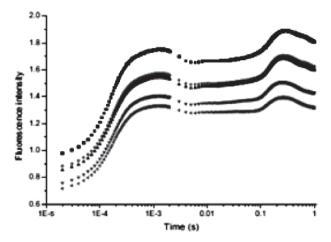


Fig. 5.The fluorescence transient of *Synechocystis* sp. untreated and treated for 24 h with various concentrations of acetamiprid. Legend for concentrations are as for figure (Li *et al.*, 2010).

Table 2
The JIP-test parameters of *Synechocystis s*p. cells cultured in various concentrations of acetamiprid for 24 h. All parameters were normalized to the control (Li *et al.*, 2010)

Conc (mM)	V _J	M _o	$F_{\rm v}/F_{\rm m}$	Ψο	φΕ ₀	$\phi D_{_0}$	ABS/RC	TR ₀ /RC	ET ₀ /RC	RC/CS ₀	ET ₀ /CS	PI _{cs}	PI _{abs}
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0.5	0.992	0.966	0.998	1.036	1.034	1.002	0.976	0.974	1.009	0.925	0.935	0.962	1.064
0.1	0.978	0.962	1.024	1.104	1.129	0.977	0.961	0.984	1.087	0.907	0.987	1.069	0.978
0.5	1.022	0.994	1.03	0.894	0.92	0.972	0.944	0.972	0.87	0.821	0.715	0.762	0.978
1.0	1.074	1.038	1.007	0.652	0.657	0.993	0.959	0.967	0.631	0.763	0.481	0.469	0.639

The amplitude of the fast phase and the middle phase rise slightly, accompanied with a slight drop of the amplitude of the slow phase at low concentrations of acetamiprid (Li et al., 2010). This means that low concentrations of acetamiprid may stimulate electron transport from Q_A to Q_B. The disappearance of this J–I phase rise at 1.0 mM acetamiprid implies that the reduction Q_B, PQ, Cyt and PC may be inhibited by high concentration of acetamiprid. Besides, the effect on J–I phase might also be related to the membrane potential changes that may also affect the J–I phase (Fig. 5).

4. Conclusion

The fast OJIP fluorescence transients and their quantification by OJIP test provide a rapid, reliable and non-invasive tool to detect real time changes in the functionality of the photosynthetic apparatus and plant vitality in physiologically active or stress conditions. The OJIP transient pattern as well as the analytical parameters have been successfully used to evaluate the plant performances as well as to predict the production on the basis of plant

performance. The behaviour of photosystems could be effectively analyzed by OJIP fluorescence measurement making it a valuable and potential tool for plant efficiency analysis. New analytical parameters are being adopted to the OJIP fluorescence interpretation, which are expected to add new dimension to the effectiveness of this analytical method. These parameters would possibly help in quick detection of various stresses, inclusive insecticides, on crop plants and may be of use in regulating the pesticide use to minimize residual toxic effects.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Head of the Department of Botany, Ravenshaw University, Cuttack, for providing the infrastructure to write this review. The financial assistance of DST, New Delhi to the Department of Botany, Ravenshaw University under FIST programme-2010 is highly acknowledged.

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