Seasonal changes in photosynthesis, phenolic content, antioxidant activity and anatomy
 <u>inof</u> apical and basal leaves <u>fromof</u> *Aristotelia chilensis* (Mol.) Stuntz

4 Abstract

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6 Aristotelia chilensis (Mol.) Stuntz is an evergreen antioxidant species endemic from to Chile. It grows 7 in open areas or under the tree canopy, and its leaves emerge in early spring and summer. This The 8 objective of this study's study objective was to determine annual station influence (winter, spring, and 9 summer) on photosynthetic activity, total phenol content (TPC), antioxidant activity, and anatomy of 10 apical and basal leaves of A. chilensis. We determined photosynthesis Photosynthesis performance was 11 determined by measuring electron transport rate (ETR), the quantum efficiency of photosystem II 12 (Fv/Fm), photochemical quenching (qP), and non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) with a fluorimeter. 13 We analysed leaf Leaf extracts were analysed to determine total phenol content (TPC) and antioxidant 14 activity by DPPH and ABTS methods. The maximum ETR and qP were recorded in spring and 15 summer when the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at midday was higher (1901 µmol m⁻²s⁻ 16 ⁴,and 1968 µmol m⁻²s⁻¹, respectively). Fv/Fm recorded had typical physiological values in both types 17 of leaves, around (about 0.8 in all the seasons). The behaviour of NPQ was not influenced by the kind 18 of leaves and season of the year. In concordance, the basal spring leaves (42.8 mg GAE g⁻¹dw)was had 19 higher TPC values(42.8 mg GAE g⁻¹dw). In contrast, the higher highest values of antioxidant activity 20 were recorded in basal winter leaves followed by basal spring leaves. The results suggested that an 21 increase in light intensity (spring) positively affected positively the antioxidant activity and TPC, 22 which correlated with higher ETR and qP values. In the main anatomy results, apical leaves display 23 displayed morphological adaptations as area intercellular spaces and parenchyma palisade areas were 24 bigger larger than in the basal leaves.

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 Keywords: <u>Aristotelia</u> - chilensis, total phenols content, antioxidant activity, chlorophyll
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 fluorescence, winter, spring, summer.
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30 INTRODUCTION

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Some plant species, mainly of woody type, grow under adverse environmental conditions as it	it w just
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- 33 <u>like as the case of Aristotelia chilensis</u>(Mol.) Stuntz, a dioic evergreen tree which is commonly known
- 34 <u>as "maqui" and native of to</u> Chile, commonly known as "maqui". These <u>Thisplants plant</u> develop
- 35 <u>develops</u> preferably in humid and drained soils of the central valley, in the slopes of both mountain
- 36 ranges, streams and margins of forests, from near sea level to 2500 metersof-altitude (Fredes et

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37 al.,2012). A. chilensis grows up until-to 4 to 5 meters mhigher high, it has a soft and smooth bark, and 38 plentifulabundant, thin and flexible ramifications. Leaves are simple, oval-lanceolate form with 39 dentate edges and size-range from 4 to 9 cm in size. The leaves veins are marked with a long reddish 40 petiole and stems are characterized by an intense red colour. Flowering occurs in the beginning of 41 spring, and the fruit fruitsis are harvested once per a year, from December to February (Turchetti and 42 Paz, 2019). In addition, A. chilensis plants tolerate drought periods of less than one month. This 43 species appears in succession as a colonizer of newly burned or exploited soils, forming dense and 44 monospecific groups known as "macales" which fulfilwith the function of reducing erosion and 45 generating the conditions for establishing other species forming secondary shrubs (Benedetti, 2012).

46 Variations in environmental factors such as temperature, light radiation, water availability, 47 among others, can cause stress and therefore, changes in plant metabolism. In fact, the photosynthetic 48 rate decreases due to an alteration in the electron transport mechanism and CO₂ assimilation, which 49 finally-is finally reflected in a decrease in carbohydrate production(Sáez et al., 2012). Plants, in their 50 interaction with the environment, produce a high number of secondary metabolites, which normally 51 are normally not essential for the-their primary metabolism. The synthesis of these compounds is 52 enhanced under stress conditions and many of them have biological activity activities which are 53 beneficial for to human health, being used as biologically active compounds(Scossa and Fernie, 2020).

54 A. chilensis fruits have been intensively studied intensively (Masoodi et al., 2019) and they are 55 for pharmacological (Céspedes et al., 2017; Fuentealba et al., 2012) and used 56 nutraceuticalspurposes(Rubilar et al., 2011, Fredes et al., 2018). Their fruits are bright black edible 57 berries, with a high presence level of anthocyanin, so thus, they have up to four times more 58 antioxidants properties than other berries (Fredes et al., 2014, 2018; Fuentes et al., 2019). However, the 59 national and international demand for these fruits is growing and so, affects its the genetic heritage and 60 biodiversity.of this species. Faced with the drawbacks of the unregulated collection of fruits, the 61 proposal to use leaves as a source of phenolic compounds arises, constituting an alternative that can be 62 sustainable, permanent and that does not affect the state of conservation of the species.

63 A. chilensis leaves emerge in two periods of the year, one more abundant in early spring, and 64 another, in summer. As evergreen species, A. chilensis plants retain their leaves during the-winter; and 65 they remain photosynthetically active, both in the days of moderate temperature in autumn and winter, 66 and during the early spring(Damascos and Prado, 2001). However, there are searce-limited studies that 67 reporton the behaviour of phenolic compounds in leaves in relation to leaf ontogeny and seasonal 68 period.

69 The present work relates the ontogenic age of the leaves of *A. chilensis* (Mol.) Stuntz with-to 70 the photosynthetic capacity and the accumulation of phenolic compounds as well as their antioxidant 71 capacity under different natural growth conditions.

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73 Materials and methods

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The This research was conducted between August 2017 and January 2018, the period in which the
leaves of *A. chilensis* were collected, at the Universidad de Concepción, Biobío Region, Chile (36°
50'02.6 "S, 73° 01'54.3" W). The influence of climatic conditions on annual seasons in which this
study was carried out, is shown in Table 1 Suppl. (data from Dirección Meteorológica de Chile, 2018).
In addition, in the Table 1 present the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) measurements realized
obtained at midday in the study seasons are presented in Table 1.

Adult male *A. chilensis* plants were used, which grow in a natural environment and reach a uniform height of 3 m were used. Six plants were selected within the university campus. The study is was carried out with fully expanded leaves, where adult and young leaves are-were distinguished. The samples were collected near the base of the tree where the ontogeny is less. Leaves were selected from the upper third of the branch corresponding to as the young leaves (apical leaves) and leaves from the lower third of the branch or were adult leaves (basal leaves).

88 Light response curves

89 The chlorophyll fluorescence was evaluated through light responses. The leaves were previously put in 90 the darkness dark for 30 min and then, exposed to different light intensities of 12.13, 25.62, 51.39, 91 86.64, 241.50, 479.08, 878.08 and 1280.83 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Fluorescent signals were measured 92 with a pulse amplitude fluorimeter (FMS 2, Hansatech Instrument, U.K). According to the 93 terminology of Murchie and Lawson (2013), the minimum value for chlorophyll fluorescence (Fo) in 94 the dark-adapted state was determined by applying a weak pulse of modulated light, and the maximum 95 fluorescence (Fm) was induced by a short pulse (0.8 s) of saturating light. The fluorescence signals 96 were followed until they reached a steady state (Fs). To determine the maximal fluorescence in light 97 (Fm'), various pulses of saturating light were applied. The minimal value for chlorophyll fluorescence 98 (Fo') in the light-adapted state, was determined by turning off the actinic light, and immediately 99 applying a 2 s far-red pulse.

100 The maximum photochemical efficiency of photosystem II (ФРSII), Fv/Fm (variable 101 fluorescence/maximal fluorescence) was calculated considering Fv = Fm - Fo. Once data from 102 fluorimeter were obtained, the efficiency of photosystem II ($\Phi PSII=$ (Fm'- Fs)/Fm'), and the electron 103 transport rate (ETR = $0.8 \times \Phi PSII \times PAR \times 0.5$) were calculated. The factor 0.8 is the average value of 104 the absorbance for the green leaves, and the factor 0.5 assumes that the efficiency of both 105 photosystems is equal, and that the radiation is distributed equally among them. In addition, 106 photochemical quenching (qP= (Fm'- Fs)/(Fm- Fo')) and non-photochemical quenching (NPQ = (Fm -107 Fm')/Fm') were calculated (Sáez et al., 2012).

In the different seasons of the year (winter, spring and summer), Branches branches of A.
 chilensis collected, and identifying apical and basal leaves wereidentified., in the different

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110 seasons of the year (winter, spring, summer). The samples were collected at midday where the light 111 intensity is higher. At this time, the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was measured, and the 112 light condition of the exposed environment of the study plants was established based on the criteria 113 described by Zhen and Bugbee (2020). The PAR data was is shown in Table 1.

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115 Preparation of A. chilensis samples for anatomical studies

116 For anatomical studies, the tissue was selected from the central portion of the leaf, cut quickly, and 117 fixed in 37% formalin, acetic acid, and 70% ethanol (FAA70). The samples were dehydrated through 118 serial solutions in ethanol and *n*-butyl acetate_a and embedded in paraplast. The cuts were made with a 119 Jung Biocut 2035 microtome and stuck in glass sheets with Hatsup and Bissmut adhesives. After 120 removing the paraplast by dipping in butyl acetate and washing with ethanol, the samples were 121 coloured with safranin and Astra blue. Subsequently, they were re-dehydrated in a series of dilutions 122 of ethanol and finally in butyl acetate. Glass sheets were visualized in a Leica ICC50 HP optical 123 microscope(dos Santos Isaias et al., 2011). Apical and basal leaves were selected from the three seasons 124 of the year

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126 Preparation of A. chilensis samples for chemical study

Fresh basal and apical leaves (40 g) were dried at 37°C for two days. Dried leaveswere crushed to get
 obtain powder and then, maceration was performed by exhaustion in methanol-HCl 0.1%. The total

extract was concentrated in a rotavaporat 37°C and lyophilized for 24 h. The extraction yield was

130 defined as the amount of extract (mg) recovered by leaf dry weight (mg), for each sample.

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132 Determination of total phenolic content (TPC)

The total phenolic content(TPC) in each extract/sample was determined using TPC method described
by Mongkolsilp et al. (2004), with minor-slight modifications. The dried extract/sample was dissolved

in distilled water to a concentration of 200 μ g mL⁻¹. The calibration curve was established using gallic acid (10 to 200 μ g mL⁻¹). The reaction mixture contained: distilled water (400 μ L), sample or gallic acid solution for the standard curve (20 μ L), Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (40 μ L) and 15% sodium carbonate (200 μ L). The reaction mixture was incubated at room temperature for 60 min in darkness, with intermittent shaking for favouring colour development. Absorbance was measured at 750 nm using UV-Vis spectrophotometer (BioTeK ELx800, Winooski, USA). TPC was expressed in mg of gallic acid equivalents per gram of dry weigh (GAE mg g⁻¹dw).

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145 Determination of the antioxidant activity

146 DPPH radical scavenging assay

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147 The free radical scavenging activity of A. chilensis leaf extracts and standard solution Trolox (±-6-148 Hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchromane-2-carboxylic acid) were analysed using 1,1-diphenyl-2-149 picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging method as reported by Morales et al. (2012). The assay 150 mixture contained 270 µL of 0.06 mMDPPH radical solution, prepared in methanol, and 30 µL of 151 Trolox at different concentrations $(10-to 200 \ \mu g \ mL^{-1})$ or A. chilensis leaf extracts. The reaction 152 mixtures were quickly mixed and incubated in darkness at 37°C for 20 min. The decrease in 153 absorbance of each sample was measured at 515 nm using UV/Vis spectrophotometer. Trolox, a well-154 known antioxidant, was used as positive control, while DPPH radical solution with 1 mL methanol 155 was taken as blank. All determinations were performed in triplicate (n=3).

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157 ABTS radical scavenging assay

158 For ABTS assay, the procedure followed was that described byKuskoski et al.(2004) with some 159 modifications. The stock solutions included 3.5 mM ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis 3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-160 sulfonate) and 1.22 mM potassium per sulfate. The working solution was then prepared by mixing the 161 two stock solutions in equal quantities and allowing them to react for 16 h at room temperature in 162 darkness. Once the ABTS*+ radical was formed, the solution was then diluted by mixing 1 mL ABTS*+ 163 solution with 14 mL distilled water to obtain an absorbance value of 0.70 ± 0.01 units at 750 nm. 164 ABTS^{*+} solution was freshly prepared for each assay. The reaction (60 min, in dark conditions) 165 contained ABTS*+radical (180 µL) and 20 µL of the samples at different concentrations. For standard 166 Trolox and samples, dilutions of 10 to 200 µg mL⁻¹were prepared. All determinations were performed 167 in triplicate (n=3). The antioxidant activity for both methodologies was expressed as percentage of inhibition, which corresponds to the amount of radical (DPPH and ABTS) neutralized by the extract at 168 169 a certain concentration, as described in the following equation

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% inhibition = ((A_s-A_c)/ A_c) x100

172Where $_{2}$ Ac is the absorbance of control and As, the absorbance of the samples. The antioxidant activity173was expressed as IC₅₀, which was defined as the final concentration (µg extract mL⁻¹) of the tested174sample required for the inhibition of radical by 50% (Kulisic et al., 2004, Rubilar et al., 2011).

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176 Statistical Analysis

For the light response curves, eight samples for six plants were used for each type of leaf in relation to the season of the year studied. For the determination of TPC, six <u>plants-plant</u> samples were used for each type of leaf in relation to the season of the year studied. For the foliar anatomy measurements, five samples with fifteen repetitions were used. The analyses were carried out with the AxioVision LE 4.8.2.0 software. The assays for the determination of antioxidant activity were carried out in triplicate. The data obtained were analysed statistically with an using analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the differences between the means were determined through the Tukey test (*P*≤0.05). Statistical analyses 184 were performed using the InfoStat/L software (FCAUNC, Argentina) and the graphic representations 185 were made using SigmaPlot software version 10.0 (SPSS; Chicago, IL, USA). 186 187 188 Results 189 190 Effect of seasonal conditions on fluorescence parameters of both basal and apical leaves 191 According to the chlorophyll fluorescence data in for A.chilensis, we it was observed that they were 192 affected by seasons of the year's seasonyear. Indeed, Certainly, the season of the year had a significant 193 effect on ETR (Table 3 Suppl.). On the other hand, quantum efficiency of the PSII (Fv/Fm), was 194 affected by the leaf type but not by the environmental conditions or their interactions. However, qPand 195 NPQ was were significantly affected by the leaf type and the season, and an interaction betweenboth 196 variables (season and leaf type) was observed (Table 3 Suppl.). 197 Light response showed that the maximum values of ETR were found-obtained in the seasons 198 of the year with greater luminosity (spring and summer) in both types of leaves (basal and apical);as 199 shown in Table 2). In fact, the minimum values were observed in winter, regardless of the type of leaf, 200 showing a strong correlation of ETR/PAR during this season, as it is described for this the last 201 parameter in the M&M Materials and Methods section. The parameter, Fv/Fm, remained with values 202 around of about 0.80 in all the seasons of the year analysed, without significant differences among 203 them. In the same way, Fv/Fm values showed no significant differences between basal and apical 204 leaves (Tables 2 and Table 3 Suppl.). 205 Photochemical quenching (qP) is the ratio of excitation energy trapped by open reaction 206 centres that has been used for electron transport(Moreno et al. 2008). Welt was observed that the 207 highest qP values were recorded in spring and summer, in both types of leaves, and they all showed 208 significance significant differences with respect to the data collected obtained during the winter (Table

winter, where the lowest values of qP were found.
Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) represents-indicates the influence of non-photochemical
processes on the fluorescence emission of chlorophyll from a darkness to light state (Moreno et al.,2008). The type of leaf used and the seasons of the year did not influence the behaviour of NPQ,
although a trend to riseincrease the NPQ values with the increase in the light intensity during spring
and summer, especially in apical leaveswas observed (Table Tables 2 and Table-3 Suppl.).

2).However, there were no significant differences in qP values in both apical and basal leaves during

217 Foliar Anatomy

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Fig. 1 Suppl. shows cross sections of basal (Fig.1A) and apical (Fig. 1B) fully expanded leaves.
Important anatomical differences were observed, mainly in the conformation of palisade and spongy parenchyma of both types of leaves. In apical leaves (Fig.1B), the area of parenchyma palisade was

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biggerlarger than in the basal leaves. Also, the basal leaves had smaller intercellular spaces than the
apical leaves. However, no significant changes were recorded in the epidermis in both types of leaves
(Table 4).

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225 Yields of the extraction of phenolic compounds

Fig. 2Suppl. shows the yield of the extraction process of phenolics, <u>which was</u> obtained from basal and apical leaves of *A. chilensis*, in the different seasons of the year (mg extract mg ⁻¹dw). When comparing the yields, both apical and basal leaves in winter were lower than in spring and summer. Basal and apical leaves in spring and summer, respectively, showed the highest yield levels.

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231 Determination of Total Phenol Content

TPC values showed significant differences in both basal and apical leaves, and in the different seasons (Fig. 3). The highest values were recorded for extracts obtained from basal leaves in spring, followed by those of apical leaves in winter and summer. The lowest value of TPC was <u>recorded detected</u>-in extracts of basal leaves in winter and in those obtained from apical leaves in spring. According to TPC data from leaves of *A. chilensis*, they were not affected by the type of leaf and interaction between both factors <u>were was</u> observed (Table 5 Suppl.).

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239 Determination of the Antioxidant Activity

240 The F-values from two-way ANOVA for the antioxidant activities obtained by both methodologies 241 (ABTS and DPPH), were influenced by the season of the year, the type of leaf and by the interaction 242 between both factors as ean be observed shown in Table 5 Suppl. In addition, the antioxidant activity 243 for ABTS assay expressed as a function of IC₅₀ is shown in Table 6.Data described in this Table 244 strongly support significant differences in extracts of basal leaves sampled in winter, with respect to 245 the extracts obtained in the other two seasons, as well as significant differences between both types of 246 leaves as it can be seen by from their F values. The best result of this ABTS antioxidant activity was 247 found in basal winter leaves, which corresponds to the lower value of IC₅₀, followed to spring and 248 summer basal leaves. Thelowest antioxidant capacity which corresponds to the higher value of IC50 249 was found in apical spring leaves by ABTS assay.

250 On the other hand, IC_{50} values obtained from DPPH assays are shown in Table 6. Data 251 obtained from this assay were significantly different in both types of leaves as confirmed by their *F* 252 values. Although, the differences in antioxidant activity were small and significant, basal leaves during 253 winter had a higher antioxidant capacity than those leaves in spring and summer. Regarding apical 254 leaves, the extracts in all the seasons presented values statistically different, being lower in summer, 255 which means a higher antioxidant capacity, and higher levels in both winter and spring, which is 256 related to a lower antioxidant capacity.

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259 Discussion

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261 Weather conditions that characterize the different seasons of the year affect both the 262 morphology and the physiology of the plant, and therefore, modify the growth and 263 development of its organs, including the leaves. Consequently, the objective of this work was 264 to analyse the effect of climatic conditions in-on A. chilensis leaves. As maqui leaves emerge 265 in two periods of the year, one more abundant in spring, and another, in summer, we selected 266 these two seasons were selected to carry out this study. In addition, we also selected a third season, 267 winter, was also selected because A. chilensis plants retain their leaves during this period, and sothus, 268 they remain photosynthetically active. Another factor analysed was the level of growth of A. chilensis 269 leaves, in both apical and basal leaves, due to because these leaves have different morphological and 270 physiological characteristics, as also well as apical leaves are continuously growing grow leaves which 271 act as consumptive sinks while basal leaves, being adult leaves, are sources of photosynthetic products.

272 In fact, Damascos and Prado (2001)indicated that adult leaves of A. chilensis in winter, 273 remainremained photosynthetically active during the spring and 15 days before the senescence, and 274 when subjected to a low photonic flow density (150 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹), and showed higher average values 275 of photosynthesis. Being an evergreen tree, its leaves emerge in two seasons of the year, spring, and 276 summer. These authors indicated that, the new leaves in the spring constitute sinks of mass and energy. 277 However, the formation and growth of the reproductive structures of the plant are processes with high 278 energy demand. In other studies, conducted in-on evergreen species, it was found that the conservation 279 of leaves from winter to spring was not associated with the translocation of foliar nutrients before the 280 formation of new leaves but to maintain a positive carbon balance in less favourable periods (Mendoza 281 et al.,2014).

282 Murchie and Lawson(2013)described carried out a revision review about on how fluorescence 283 parameters can be used to evaluate changes in photosystem II photochemistry, linear electron flux, and 284 CO2 assimilation in vivo, and described the theoretical bases for the use of specific fluorescence 285 parameters. In relation to these parameters, apical leaves showed lowerFv/Fm values than basal leaves 286 during spring and summer, although, the data recording made obtained was always constantly within 287 the normal physiological values (around about 0.8) throughout the year. This agrees with our the 288 results of the current study (Table 2) and so thus, the decrease of Fv/Fm values cannot be interpreted 289 as a photoinhibition of the photosynthetic apparatus. This could be due to two reasons: eitherA. 290 chilensisis tolerant to high light conditions(Lusk, 2004), or this plant is not under stress, allowing 291 making it to achieve the optimum physiological performance in any season of the year (Molina-292 Montenegro et al.,2012). Other studies confirmed that this species has a great phenotypic 293 plasticity in traits associated with carbon gain and water economy, which allows-makes it to survive Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Not Italic, Font color: Black

both under habitats with low light and water availability (continuous forest), and with high light
conditions and water scarcity(Repetto-Giavelli et al., 2007).

296 In the present study, ETR and qP values were well-correlated and appear-appeared to be 297 dependent on light intensity. However, in A. chilensis basal leaves, both ETR and qP values were 298 slightly higher in spring and summer. Acosta-Motos et al. (2015a)studied the effect of high light 299 intensity on chlorophyll fluorescence parameters in apical and basal leaves in of myrtle plants. Under 300 high light irradiation, basal leaves from of myrtle plants displayed showed higher values for qP, Fv/Fm 301 and NPQ than apical leaves (Acosta-Motos et al., 2015a). These results partially agreed agrees with our 302 those of the present study results, due that because Fv/Fm values of A. chilensis leaves were 303 influenced by leaf type, with higher Fv/Fm values in basal leaves than apical leaves under high light 304 conditions (spring and summer). This result can be due to a down-regulation mechanism of PSII in 305 high light conditions in apical leaves, which were more exposed to sunlight than basal leaves. A 306 similar response in Fv/Fmvalues has been observed in pea leaves subjected to high light irradiation, 307 being-that is, the response is dependent on the exposure time to this high light intensity (Hernández et 308 al.,2004). On the other hand, higher NPQ means that much of the light energy absorbed is dissipated 309 by the protective mechanisms. However, in our the results of the current study, NPQ behaved 310 differently depending on the leaf type, but no significant changes change were was recorded for NPQ 311 values during the different seasons. These stable NPQ values suggested the capacity of A. chilensis 312 leaves to use the excess of light energy into photosynthesis process. In contrast, in basal myrtle leaves, 313 high NPQ values were observed during periods of high light intensity, which could facilitate the safe 314 removal of excess light energy and minimize the generation of ROS (Acosta-Motos et al., 2015a).

315 Furthermore, in this study, some differences in foliar anatomy ean be were found between 316 apical and basal leaves. One of the more evident one is the number of chloroplasts, more abundant in 317 the palisade parenchyma in basal leaves. That This means that photosynthetic activity must be higher 318 in basal than in apical leaves, which must still function as a sink organ. These differences can be 319 reflected in Fv/Fm values, being in which higher basal leaves are higher during spring and summer. 320 Interestingly, apical leaves had a higher percentage of area occupied by palisade parenchyma, an 321 adaption that could favour the photosynthetic process. Another interesting difference was the greater 322 intercellular spaces observed in the apical leaves in relation to basal leaves. This anatomical 323 modification in leaves, can improve the CO₂ diffusion, and facilitate its entry to into the chloroplast, 324 especially under stress conditions. A similar modification was previously described in myrtle and 325 Eugenia plants under salinity conditions (Acosta-Motos et al., 2015a, b). These authors observed a 326 decrease in the percentage of spongy parenchyma, and an increased percentage of intercellular spaces 327 under NaCl-stress. These They authors concluded that these anatomical changes may serve to facilitate 328 CO2 diffusion in a situation of reduced stomatal aperture(Acosta-Motos et al., 2015a,b).

A. *chilensis* is characterized by high phenols <u>phenol</u> content <u>as</u> compared to other berries, and the nutritional and pharmacological effects are attributed to them. The TPC observed in this study

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were lower to than that those reported by Vidal et al. (2013) for *A. chilensis* leaves collected in Región del Biobío. These authors carried out theextraction in ethanol-water 50% v/v, and obtained TPC values of 40 ± 0.57 mmolL⁻¹GAE, which is equivalent to 136 mg of phenols g⁻¹ dw values, and higher when compared with samples of apical leaves of spring. A similar response was reported by Rubilar etal.(2011)where TPC of *A. chilensis* leaves was higher than *A. chilensis* leaves on those of this study (69.0 ± 0.9 mg GAE g⁻¹dw). These results could indicate that the extraction method used influenced on the TPC quantification.

338 In addition, phenolic compounds exhibit a wide range of biological effects. Some of them are 339 powerful free radical scavengers (and so, have antioxidant activity). For this reason, they are useful in 340 the prevention of arteriosclerosis, cancer, diabetes, neurodegenerative diseases and arthritis 341 (Gonçalves and Romano, 2017). Depending on the extraction procedure, the antioxidant activity can 342 vary, being in some cases, higher in leaves than in fruits (IC₅₀ values, leaves: 8.0 ± 0.1 mg extractL⁻¹, 343 fruit: 399.8 \pm 17.5 mg extract L⁻¹)(Rubilar et al., 2011). In our-thecase of the present study, the 344 antioxidant activity recorded in leaves was similar to that observed by Rubilar et al.,(2011)in stems 345 $(IC_{50} \text{ value: } 43.1 \pm 1.7 \text{ mg extractL}^{-1}).$

346 The mechanism by which an antioxidant compound interacts with a radical molecule depends B47 on the structural conformation of the antioxidant (Mishra et al., 2012). Granato et al. (2018)indicate 348 indicated that no single antioxidant activity assay will reflect the total antioxidant capacity. The antioxidant activity methods have particularities depending on mechanisms of action, types of radical, 349 350 pH, time of exposition, and temperature. Another important factor is the use of standards to build 351 analytical curves, which generate the sample's quantitative results (Granato et al., 2018). One of the 352 tests used in this study was the DPPH assay, which is simply due to its stable nitrogen radical, but has 353 problems with many antioxidants by reacting with different kinetics or not reacting at all(Mishra et 354 al.,2012). DPPH assay is reversible due to the reaction's low reading of antioxidant capacity of some 355 antioxidants. It was also indicated that the DPPH assay is pH-dependent, and the final result could be 356 influenced by the deprotonation of the phenolic group (Mishra et al., 2012; Tirzitis and Bartosz, 2010). 357 The other method used in this study was the ABTS assay, which consists of an oxidation reaction of 358 the coloured cation ABTS+. The ABTS assay can be applied to lipophilic and hydrophilic 359 compounds(Huyut et al., 2017). Thereby Thus, our the results of the current study determine 360 determined in the DPPH assay, an increase in antioxidant activity in summer in both types of leaves, 361 coinciding with the greater luminosity, without the same trend in ABTS assay.

362 On the another hand, Harnly (2017) described how the measurement of *in vitro* antioxidant 363 activity and total phenolic content using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent are not suitable. The author 364 indicated no standard mechanism or method to quantify antioxidant activity, and scientific research 365 will only use advanced techniques to identify antioxidants. In this regard, chromatography techniques 366 used to identify and quantify phenolic compounds in foods, beverages; and herbal extracts have 367 sufficient accuracy or precision. It is also necessary to highlight what the author indicates about the Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Not Italic, Font color: Black

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368method's results_a are (usually) not comparable with the data of method b or even between laboratories369(Harnly_ 2017). Therefore, as indicated by Granato et al. (2018), it is evident that "antioxidant activity"370involves complex interactions. However, screening spectrophotometric methods to characterize the871samples and give an idea of total phenolic content in the matrix.

372 As a general conclusion, in this study, it was determined that the A.chilensisbasal leaves showed a 373 better photosynthetic performance as observed-indicated by higher Fv/Fm values, that which 374 correlated correlates with higher total phenol content in high light conditions. In both types of leaves, 375 the increase in light intensity was accompanied by a-an increase rise-in NPQ values, reflecting a safe 376 mechanism to dissipate excess light energy. In addition, apical leaves display some morphological 377 adaptions, such as the increase in intercellular spaces in order to facilitate the entry of CO₂ inside the 378 chloroplasts, as a mechanism to protect the photosynthetic process. Finally, in order to take advantage 379 of the research, it is necessary to know in the future, the performance of the activity of the different 380 antioxidant enzymes and compare these antioxidants mechanisms in both types of leaves.

382 Acknowledgements

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415 Each parameter corresponds to the monthly average for the three seasons of the year.

Winter (August)	Spring (November)	Summer (January)
0	8	9
14	22	29
9	14	17
586.73	849.72	1.45
85	81	75
13.7	13.6	14.8
85.2	50	50
435.98 ± 10.4	1901.7 ± 3.6	1968.7 ± 7.2
	Winter (August) 0 14 9 586.73 85 13.7 85.2 435.98 ± 10.4	Winter (August)Spring (November)081422914586.73849.72858113.713.685.250435.98 \pm 10.41901.7 \pm 3.6

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418 Table 2.Effect of the season of the year on fluorescence parameters in basal and apical leaves of A.

419 chilensis.

Parameters	Winter	Spring	Summer	F
Basal leaf	0			
ETR	$64.02\pm6.47a$	$129.71 \pm 13.69 b$	$108.83\pm4.83b$	13.38**
qP	$0.25\pm0.03b$	$0.47\pm0.04a$	$0.42\pm0.02a$	13.81**
Fv/Fm	$0.83 \pm 0.01a$	$0.84\pm0.005a$	$0.84 \pm 0.01 a$	0.97ns
NPQ	$3.42\pm0.11a$	$3.79\pm0.15a$	$3.84 \pm 0.22a$	1.85ns
Apical leaf				
ETR	$85.75\pm5.25a$	$123.08\pm12.58b$	$122.19\pm3.64b$	6.84*
qP	$0.35\pm0.02b$	$0.48\pm0.04a$	$0.51 \pm 0.01a$	13.35**
Fv/Fm	$0.83 \pm 0.004 a$	$0.82\pm0.01a$	$0.82\pm0.004a$	1.16ns
NPQ	$3.85\pm0.14a$	$3.89\pm0.14a$	$4.27\pm0.07a$	3.44ns
esent the mean	\pm SE from eight	samples from of eac	ch season of the year	ar. Different lette
	Parameters Basal leaf ETR qP Fv/Fm NPQ Apical leaf ETR qP Fv/Fm NPQ esent the mean	Parameters Winter Basal leaf ETR $64.02 \pm 6.47a$ qP $0.25 \pm 0.03b$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.01a$ NPQ $3.42 \pm 0.11a$ Apical leaf ETR $85.75 \pm 5.25a$ qP $0.35 \pm 0.02b$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.004a$ NPQ $3.85 \pm 0.14a$	ParametersWinterSpringBasal leafETR $64.02 \pm 6.47a$ $129.71 \pm 13.69b$ qP $0.25 \pm 0.03b$ $0.47 \pm 0.04a$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.01a$ $0.84 \pm 0.005a$ NPQ $3.42 \pm 0.11a$ $3.79 \pm 0.15a$ Apical leafETR $85.75 \pm 5.25a$ $123.08 \pm 12.58b$ qP $0.35 \pm 0.02b$ $0.48 \pm 0.04a$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.004a$ $0.82 \pm 0.01a$ NPQ $3.85 \pm 0.14a$ $3.89 \pm 0.14a$	ParametersWinterSpringSummerBasal leafETR $64.02 \pm 6.47a$ $129.71 \pm 13.69b$ $108.83 \pm 4.83b$ qP $0.25 \pm 0.03b$ $0.47 \pm 0.04a$ $0.42 \pm 0.02a$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.01a$ $0.84 \pm 0.005a$ $0.84 \pm 0.01a$ NPQ $3.42 \pm 0.11a$ $3.79 \pm 0.15a$ $3.84 \pm 0.22a$ Apical leafETR $85.75 \pm 5.25a$ $123.08 \pm 12.58b$ $122.19 \pm 3.64b$ qP $0.35 \pm 0.02b$ $0.48 \pm 0.04a$ $0.51 \pm 0.01a$ Fv/Fm $0.83 \pm 0.004a$ $0.82 \pm 0.01a$ $0.82 \pm 0.004a$ NPQ $3.85 \pm 0.14a$ $3.89 \pm 0.14a$ $4.27 \pm 0.07a$ esent the mean \pm SE from eight samples from of each season of the year

420Data represent the mean \pm SE from eight samples from of each season of the year. Different letters421the same row indicate significant differences according to Tukey's test ($P \le 0.05$). F values from

422 ANOVA for the different season of the year and type of leaf.

- 423 *F values were significant at 95% levels level of probability.
- 424 *******F* values were significant at 99% <u>level levels of</u> probability.

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	***F values were significant at	99.9% levels v of pro	bability.		Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Font color: Text 1
426	Non-significant values are indic	ated by "ns".			Formatted: Font color: Text 1
427					Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Font color: Text 1
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429					
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420					
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+33	Table 3.Relationship between type	of leaf (A) and seaso	on of the year (B) as w	ell as interaction of both	
434	(AXB) on fluorescence parameters	in A. chilensis.			
	Source of variation	n ETR	qp Fv/Fm	NPQ	
	Type of leaf (A) Season (B)	1.76ns	8.01* 7.19* 5.07** 0.27ps	7.08*	
	AXB	13.4** 1	9 38** 2 58ns	5.06*	
35	<i>F</i> -values from two-way ANOVA for	or ETR, qP, Fv/Fm a	and NPQ. F-values sig	nificant at 99.9% (***),	
436	99% (**)- or 95% (*) levels of prob	ability. Non-signific	ant values are indicated	l by "ns".	
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+50		•.0			
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439 440	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A)	and apical (B) lea	ives of A. chilensis.	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
439 440 441	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma	and apical (B) lea	ives of <i>A. chilensis.</i> hyma.	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
439 440 441 442	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parenc	wes of <i>A. chilensis.</i> hyma.	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
439 440 441 442 443	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma	and apical (B) lea	aves of <i>A. chilensis.</i> hyma.	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
 439 440 441 442 443 444 	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µm	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parenc ²)in cross sections of	wes of <i>A. chilensis.</i> hyma. f basal and apical leave	Black bars: 50µm. EP: s of <i>A. chilensis.</i>	
439 440 441 442 443 444	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µm	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parenc ²)in cross sections of Area (μ	wes of <i>A. chilensis</i> . hyma. f basal and apical leave m²)	Black bars: 50µm. EP: s of <i>A. chilensis</i> .	
439 440 441 442 443 444	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µn	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parenc ²)in cross sections of <u>Area (µ</u> Basal leaf	wes of <i>A. chilensis</i> . hyma. f basal and apical leave m ²) Apical leaf	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
439 440 441 442 443 444	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µn Adaxial epidermis	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parence ²)in cross sections of Area (μ Basal leaf 243.27 ± 8.24a 266.79 ± 7.16	wes of <i>A. chilensis</i> . hyma. f basal and apical leave m^2) Apical leaf $257.25 \pm 7.51a$ $226.95 \pm 7.51a$	Black bars: 50µm. EP:	
439 440 441 442 443 444	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µn Adaxial epidermis Palisade parenchyma Spangu parenchyma	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parence ²)in cross sections of Area (μ Basal leaf 243.27 ± 8.24a 266.78 ± 7.16a 202 5 ± 7.07c	wes of <i>A. chilensis</i> . hyma. f basal and apical leave m^2) Apical leaf 257.25 \pm 7.51a 336.98 \pm 5.33b 214.32 \pm 4.91c	Black bars: 50µm. EP: s of <i>A. chilensis.</i> F 1.57ns 61.81** 2 52ns	
439 440 441 442 443 444	Fig. 1.Cross section of basal (A) epidermis. PP: palisade parenchyma Table 4.Measurements of areas (µn Adaxial epidermis Palisade parenchyma Spongy parenchyma Abaxial epidermis	and apical (B) lea a. SP: spongy parence ²)in cross sections of Area (μ Basal leaf 243.27 ± 8.24a 266.78 ± 7.16a 203.5 ± 7.97a 135.29 ± 5.28a	wes of <i>A. chilensis</i> . hyma. f basal and apical leave m^2) Apical leaf $257.25 \pm 7.51a$ $336.98 \pm 5.33b$ $214.33 \pm 4.91a$ $140.85 \pm 3.38a$	Black bars: 50µm. EP: s of <i>A. chilensis.</i> F 1.57ns 61.81** 2.52ns 0 79ns	

446 significant differences according to Tukey's test ($P \le 0.05$). *F* values from one-way ANOVA for the 447 different type types of leaf.

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Fig. 2. Yield of extracts of basal and apical leaves of *A. chilensis*to determine phenolic content in three seasons of the year (mg extract mg ⁻¹dw).Data represent the mean \pm SE from <u>of</u> three samples from each season of the year. Different letters in the same row indicate significant differences according to Tukey's test (one-way ANOVA, $P \le 0.05$).

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463Fig. 3. TPC (expressed as mg GAE g⁻¹ dw) in basal and apical leaves of *A. chilensis* in the different464seasons of the year.Data represent the mean \pm SE from of six samples from each season of the year.465Different letters indicate significant differences according to Tukey's test (one-way ANOVA, $P \le 0.05$).466

467 Table 5. Relationship between type of leaf (A) and season of the year (B), as well as the interaction of

both (AXB), expressed as F-values from two-way ANOVA, for TPC and antioxidant activity (ABTS 468

469 and DPPH assays) in A. chilensis.

Property of

Source of variation	TPC	ABTS	DPPH
Type of leaf (A)	0.65ns	25.15**	11.04*
Season (B)	1.39*	9.15*	3.97*
AXB	1.14ns	14.48*	6.32*

470 F-values from two-way ANOVA for TPC, ABTS and DDPH.F-values significant at 99.9% (***), 99%

471 (**); or 95% (*) levels of probability. Non-significant values are indicated by "ns".

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473 Table 6.Antioxidant activity (ABTS assay and DPPH assay assays) expressed as a function of the IC50

ined for each type of leaf and season of the year (μg extract mL ⁻¹).				
Parameters	Winter	Spring	Summer	F
Basal leaf				
ABTS	$45.05\pm0.30a$	$49.97\pm2.24b$	$49.91 \pm 0.97 b$	11.88*
DPPH	$34.68\pm0.58a$	$35.92 \pm 0.90 ab$	$38.08 \pm 1.65 b$	6.93*
Apical leaf				
ABTS	$51.81 \pm 4.59a$	$69.02 \pm 4.21 b$	56.05 ± 4.21a	12.81*
DPPH	$59.49 \pm 1.87c$	$47.37 \pm 0.63b$	33.89 ± 1.53a	236.03**

475 Data represent the mean ± SE of three samples from each season of the year. Different letters in the

476 same row indicate significant differences according to Tukey's test ($P \leq 0.05$). F values from one-way 477 ANOVA for the different type types of leaf.