
Title	Growth and photosynthetic characteristic of sweet potato (<i>Ipomoea batatas</i>) leaves grown under natural sunlight with supplement LED lighting in a tropical greenhouse
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The final publication is available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2020.153239>

1 Growth and photosynthetic characteristics of sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) leaves grown under
2 natural sunlight with supplemental LED lighting in a tropical greenhouse

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14

1 **Abstract**

2 Leaf growth and photosynthetic characteristics of sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* var. Biru
3 Putih) grown under different light quantities were studied in a tropical greenhouse. The stem
4 cuttings of *I. batatas* with adventitious roots were grown hydroponically under (1) only natural
5 sunlight (SL); (2) SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (SL + L-LED); and
6 (3) SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (SL + H-LED). One week after
7 emergence, all leaves had similar area and water content. However, leaf fresh weight and dry
8 weight were significantly higher in plants grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than under
9 SL due to their thicker leaves reflected by the lower specific leaf area. Plants grown under SL had
10 significantly lower concentrations of total chlorophyll (Chl) and total carotenoids (Car) but higher
11 Chl a/b ratio than under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED. However, all plants had similar Chl/Car
12 ratios. Although midday F_v/F_m ratio was the lowest in leaves grown under SL+ H-LED followed
13 by SL+ L-LED and SL, predawn F_v/F_m ratios of all leaves were higher than 0.8. Increasing growth
14 irradiance with supplemental LED resulted in higher electron transport rate and photochemical
15 quenching but lower non-photochemical quenching compared to those of plants grown under SL.
16 Measured under their respective growth irradiance in the greenhouse, attached leaves grown under
17 SL + L-LED and SL+H-LED had significantly higher photosynthetic CO_2 assimilation rate and
18 stomatal conductance than under SL. However, measuring the detached leaves at 25 °C in the
19 laboratory, there were no significant differences in PS II and Cyt b₆f concentrations although light-
20 and CO_2 -statured photosynthetic O_2 evolution rates were slightly higher in leaves grown under
21 SL+ H-LED than under SL. Impacts of supplemental LED on leaf growth and photosynthetic
22 characteristics were discussed.

23

1 **Keywords**

2 LED lighting; Leaf growth; Photosynthetic performance; Sweet potato leaves; tropical
3 greenhouse

4 **Abbreviations:**

5 *A*, Photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rate; *Car*, carotenoids; *Chl*, Chlorophyll; *C_i*, Internal CO₂
6 concentration; *Cyt b₆f*; Cytochrome b₆f complex; *DW*, Dry weight; *ETR*, Electron transport rate;
7 *FW*, Fresh weight; *g_s*, Stomatal conductance; *LED*, Light emitting diode; *NPQ*, Non-
8 photochemical quenching; *P_{max}*, Photosynthetic capacity, *P_N*, Net photosynthetic O₂ evolution rate;
9 *PPFD*, Photosynthetic photon flux density; *qP*, Photochemical quenching; *RuBP*, ribulose-1,5-
10 biphosphate; *Rubisco*, ribulose 1.5-biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase; *SL*, natural sunlight;
11 *SL+ L-LED*, natural sunlight with supplemental LED lighting at a PPFD of 150 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹; *SL*
12 *+ H-LED*, natural sunlight with supplemental LED lighting at a PPFD of 300 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹; *SLA*,
13 specific leaf area; *T_r*, Transpiration

14

15 **1. Introduction**

16 Sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* L.) is widely grown in developing countries due to its low
17 production cost and its high adaptability (Lin et al., 2007; Mekonen et al., 2015). Most people
18 grow sweet potato as food and mainly consume their modified root tubers (Yoshimoto et al., 2002).
19 Although the leaves of sweet potato have been neglected, they are consumed as fresh vegetables
20 in tropical areas in Southeast Asia (Nwinyi, 1992) because both leaf blades and petioles are rich
21 in protein, dietary fiber, vitamins, antioxidants, essential fatty acids and minerals (Ishida et al.,
22 2000; Johnson and Pace, 2010). Several studies have demonstrated that sweet potato leaves inhibit

1 mutagenicity, diabetes, leukemia and viruses and the growth of colon and stomach cancer cells
2 (Yoshimoto et al., 2002; Kurata et al., 2007; Ludivik et al., 2008).

3 Due to limited land in Singapore, local farming currently accounts for only 10 per cent of
4 the leafy vegetables consumed. The maintenance of food security, especially the supply of
5 vegetable is an increasing challenge for Singapore where natural resources are limited.
6 Furthermore, the disconnect between supply and demand is the result of the global food supply
7 chains being disrupted in unprecedented ways due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Back to March
8 2019, the Environment and Water Resources Minister, Singapore announced the ambitious “30 by
9 30” goal to produce 30 per cent of Singapore's nutritional needs locally by 2030 (Ai-Lien, 2019).
10 Sweet potato leaves are considered an indigenous and tropical leafy vegetable, which could play
11 an important role in alleviating the shortage of leafy vegetables as they grow quickly in the tropics
12 under warm temperature and humid conditions (An et al., 2003). They have much higher annual
13 yield than that of other green vegetables and could be harvested several times a year. Sweet potato
14 are mainly grown over a broad range of environment. In Singapore sweet potato leaves are
15 commonly cultured in outdoor soil farms. It was reported that high light intensity enhanced growth
16 of sweet potato plants and thus, shade conditions should be avoided (Oswald et al., 1994). The
17 sweet potato plant is also considered to be a drought tolerant crop (Ghuman and Lal, 1983).
18 However, drought is a major environmental constraint for sweet potato production in the tropical
19 area as its growth and development are significantly influenced by soil moisture (Yooyongwecha
20 et al., 2013).

21 Soilless cultures such as hydroponics and aeroponics are increasingly adopted as major
22 technological components in the modern greenhouses to replace community gardens and
23 traditional outdoor soil farms in Singapore (He, 2015). Today, in Singapore, all kinds of leafy

1 vegetables are grown all year round in the greenhouse using soilless culture systems with adequate
2 water and nutrient supplies, which is not affected by drought conditions. Apart from water, light
3 intensity critically affects plant growth. In the past two decades, Singapore has been frequently
4 experiencing increasingly unpredictable cloudy and hazy weather (Nobre et al., 2016), resulting in
5 lowered light intensity which reduced crop productivity (Jones, 2006). We have previously
6 reported that in Singapore, when lettuce (He et al., 2011) and *Brassica alboglabra* (Chinese
7 broccoli) plants (He et al., 2019b) were grown under low light during the haze episodes in the
8 greenhouse, lower photosynthetic rate, stomatal conductance and productivity were measured. To
9 circumvent the problem of insufficient sunlight, in another study with lettuce plants, light emitting
10 diode (LED) lighting was supplemented to low sunlight intensity in the greenhouse (Choong et al.,
11 2018; He et al., 2019b). Leaf expansion rate was faster in both heat resistant and heat sensitive
12 recombinant inbred lines (RILs) of lettuce grown under natural sunlight with supplemental LED.
13 However, impacts of supplementary LED lighting on shoot and root productivity and
14 photosynthetic performance such as photosynthetic light use efficiency and maximal oxygen
15 evolution rate seemed to be genotype-dependent due to their different sensitivities to heat (Choong
16 et al., 2018). In the study with *B. alboglabra* (Chinese broccoli), we have found that plants grown
17 under shade with supplemental LED lighting improved photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation, stomatal
18 conductance and productivity (He et al., 2019b). As mentioned earlier, sweet potato leaves are
19 tropical leafy vegetables and have fast growth rates in the tropics under warm and humid
20 conditions (An et al., 2003). The nutrient-rich leaf blade and petiole make it as one of the suitable
21 vegetable crops to achieve the Singapore's goal to produce 30 per cent of nutritional needs locally
22 by 2030. However, little is known about its photosynthetic characteristics when grown under
23 different light intensities using soilless culture such as hydroponics. We hypothesize that plant

1 growth should increase with increasing of growth irradiance, with leaf traits adjustment that
2 enhance light capture and carbon fixation in the tropical greenhouse. Therefore, this study aimed to
3 investigate the effects of two different supplementary LED lightings with photosynthetic photon
4 flux density (PPFD) of 150 and 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ respectively on the leaf growth of sweet potato
5 leaves, *I. batatas* (var. Biru Putih) in the tropical greenhouse. Impacts of supplementary LED
6 quantity on photosynthetic light use efficiency measured by chlorophyll fluorescence, the
7 functions of PS II and Cyt b_6/f , and photosynthetic gas exchanges were also studied.

8

9 **2. Materials and Methods**

10 **2.1 Plant materials and experimental design**

11 Sweet potato leaves, *I. batatas* (var. Biru Putih), were purchased from one of the local
12 farms (KOK FAH Technology Farm Pte Ltd). Apical stems were cut into 15 cm pieces. **Roots**
13 **were induced from cuttings grown hydroponically under modified half strength Netherlands**
14 **Standard Composition nutrient solution (details are given below)** for 1 week. After root induction,
15 the stem cuttings with adventitious roots were grown hydroponically in greenhouse under three
16 different quantities of lights: (1) only natural sunlight (SL) with average maximum PPFD of 800
17 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; (2) SL with supplemental LED lighting at a PPFD of 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (SL + L-LED);
18 and (3) SL with supplemental LED lighting at a PPFD of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (SL + H-LED). The
19 photoperiod of supplemental LED lighting (**Dissis LED Lighting Technology, Singapore**) was 12-
20 h (from 0700h to 1900h) provided by a combination of red- (**633 nm and 656 nm**) and blue-LED
21 (**463.5 nm**) lightings in the ratio of 9:1. All the light intensities were measured by holding PAR
22 quantum sensor with a reading unit (SKP 215 and 200, Skye Instruments Ltd, Llandrindod Wells,
23 UK). All treatments were supplied with modified full strength Netherlands Standard Composition

1 nutrient solution (Douglas, 1985) with $2.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$ conductivity and pH 6.0 ± 0.2 . The
2 modified full strength Netherlands Standard Composition solution had the following composition:
3 N, 191.89 ppm; P, 33.29 ppm; K, 309.00 ppm; Ca, 210.29 ppm; Mg, 60.04 ppm; S, 125.45 ppm;
4 Fe, 9.36 ppm; B, 0.105 ppm; Mn, 0.238 ppm; Zn, 0.014 ppm; Cu, 0.015 ppm; Mo, 0.408 ppm; Na,
5 3.860 ppm. The fluctuating ambient temperatures of 24–43 °C and relative humidity of 26–96%
6 were recorded using DataHog2 (Skye Instruments Ltd, UK).

7 ***2.2 Measurements of leaf fresh weight (FW) and dry weight (DW), leaf area, specific leaf area*** 8 ***(SLA) and leaf water content***

9 The just-emerged leaves of *I. batatas* plants were labeled 27 days after transplanting and
10 they were harvested one week after emergence from 0730h to 0800h. The cut leaves were kept in
11 sealed plastic bags with sheets of damp paper towel and brought back to lab. The FW of leaf (blade
12 only) was first recorded before measuring their areas using a leaf area meter (WinDIAS3 Image
13 Analysis system). All leaves were then wrapped individually in pre-weighed aluminium foil, dried
14 at 80 °C for at least four days, before re-weighing them to obtain DW. Specific leaf area (SLA)
15 was determined as L_A/L_{DW} where L_A = leaf area (cm^2) and L_{DW} = leaf DW(g) (Hunt et al. 2002).
16 Leaf water content (LWC) was determined as $(L_{FW} - L_{DW})/L_{FW}$ where L_{FW} = leaf FW (g).

17 ***2.3. Measurements of Chl and carotenoids (Car) pigments***

18 For each measurement, two leaf discs (1 cm in diameter) were cut from the youngest fully
19 expanded leaves 15 days after transplanting and soaked in 2.5 mL of N, N-dimethylformamide
20 (N,N-DMF, Sigma Chemical Co.) in darkness for 48 hours at 4 °C. The absorption of pigments
21 were measured using a spectrophotometer (UV-2550 Shimadzu, Japan) at 647 nm, 664 nm and
22 480 nm respectively. Chl a, Chl b and Car concentrations were calculated as described by Wellburn
23 (1994).

1 **2.4 Measurements of predawn and midday F_v/F_m ratio**

2 The maximum photochemical efficiency of PS II was estimated in dark-adapted samples by
3 the F_v/F_m ratio. Predawn and midday F_v/F_m ratios were measured from the attached youngest fully
4 expanded leaves in the greenhouse before photoperiod and during mid-photoperiod on sunny days
5 after transplanting for 34 days using the Plant Efficiency Analyser (Hansatech Instruments, UK)
6 according to He et al., (2001).

7 **2.5 Measurements of electron transport rate (ETR), photochemical quenching (qP) and non-** 8 **photochemical quenching (NPQ)**

9 After 30 days of transplanting, the youngest fully expanded leaves were harvested between
10 0900h to 1000h and ETR, qP and NPQ were determined at 25 °C in the laboratory. Prior to
11 measurements, the leaves were pre-darkened for 15 min. By using the IMAGING PAM MAXI
12 (Walz, Effeltrich, Germany), images of fluorescence emission were digitized within the camera
13 and transferred via ethernet interface (GigEVision®) to the PC for storage and analysis.
14 Measurements and calculations of ETR, qP and NPQ were described previously (He et al., 2017b).

15 **2.6. Measurements of light response curves of net photosynthetic O_2 evolution rate (P_N), PS II** 16 **concentration and Cyt b₆f concentration**

17 These parameters were measured according to He and Chow (2003), and Zhu et al. (2017).
18 O_2 evolution from leaf discs was measured in a gas-phase oxygen electrode (Hansatech, King's
19 Lynn, UK) chamber maintained at 25 °C. Each leaf disc was 3.4 cm² in area, punched from the
20 similar part of the youngest fully expanded *I. batatas* leaves grown under different light conditions.
21 The sample chamber contained 1% CO₂ supplied by fabric matting moistened with 1M
22 NaHCO₃/Na₂CO₃ (pH 9). Two illumination regimes were used: (1) repetitive flash illumination
23 with saturating, single-turnover flashes, or (2) continuous white light from light emitting diodes.

1 First, repetitive flash illumination of the leaf sample with saturating, single-turnover xenon flashes
2 (at 10 Hz) was performed to obtain a net rate of O₂ evolution on a leaf area basis. Following an
3 initial dark equilibration for 10 min, the repetitive flash illumination was applied for 4 min,
4 followed by 4 min darkness. This was followed by a second cycle of flashes and darkness. The
5 average dark drift in the signal before and after repetitive-flash illumination was subtracted
6 algebraically from the net rate of O₂ evolution during flash illumination to obtain the gross rate of
7 flash-induced O₂ evolution. A small heating artefact signal due to flash illumination was obtained
8 by substituting a green paper disc for a leaf disc, and was corrected for. The limitation of linear
9 electron transport by PS I was minimized by the use of background far-red light. The ratio of the
10 gross rate of O₂ evolution to the flash frequency was used to derive the PS II concentration on a
11 leaf area basis (p), assuming that after four flashes, each active PS II evolves one O₂ molecule
12 (Chow et al., 1991). Second, after repetitive-flash illumination, a light response curve of P_N was
13 measured under continuous white light. The leaf disc was illuminated at 15 different light
14 intensities, starting from the lowest PPFD of 0 to 1870 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹. The leaf disc was illuminated
15 at each PPFD over several minutes until steady-state of photosynthetic O₂ evolution rate was
16 obtained. The saturating, continuous irradiance (1870 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) was used to determine the
17 photosynthetic capacity (P_{max}). The post-illumination drift was subtracted algebraically from the
18 steady-state net O₂ evolution rate at PPFD of 1870 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ to yield the gross O₂ evolution
19 rate, P_{max}. For calibration of the oxygen signals, 1mL of air at 25 °C (taken to contain 8.584 μmol
20 O₂) was injected into the gas-phase O₂ electrode chamber.

21 Calculation of the Cyt b₆f concentration: After measurements of p and P_{max}, the Cyt b₆f
22 concentration (f) was calculated from the equation, $P_{max} = 1 / [(0.022/f) + (0.004/p)]$, all parameters

1 being on a leaf area basis. The Cyt b₆f concentration, calculated from the two activity
2 measurements, represents the functional Cyt b₆f concentration in leaves (Zhu et al., 2017)

3

4 **2.7. Measurements of photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rate (*A*), stomatal conductance (*g_s*),** 5 ***internal CO₂ concentration (*C_i*) and transpiration (*T_r*)***

6 *A*, *g_s*, *C_i* and *T_r* were measured from the youngest fully expanded attached leaves under
7 growth irradiances in the greenhouse using the LI-COR Portable Photosynthetic System (LI-6400.
8 Bioscience, USA) from 1030h to 1230h. During the measurement, the average ambient CO₂
9 concentration in the greenhouse was 383 ± 6 μmol mol⁻¹, the relative humidity was 40 ± 10% and
10 the temperature was 39 ± 4 °C. The measurement was performed twice on both the 44th and 45th
11 days after transplanting. The results presented were the means of data collected in these two days.

12 **2.8 Statistical Analysis**

13 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for significant differences of
14 variances crossed with the three different treatments. LSD multiple comparison tests were used to
15 discriminate between means of the different treatments, where means with *p* < 0.05 has significant
16 differences (IBM, SPSS Version 25).

17

18 **3. Results**

19 **3.1 Leaf growth, leaf productivity and leaf water content**

20 It was observed that all leaves were fully expanded after one week emergence regardless of
21 growth irradiances. Fig. 1 shows an average leaf area and a SLA of fully-expanded leaves
22 developed under different growth irradiances. Although the average leaf area of sweet potato
23 leaves grown under SL + H-LED (56 cm²) was slightly larger than those grown under SL + L-

1 LED (50 cm²) and SL (51 cm²), statistically, there were no significant differences in their values
2 (Fig. 1A). However, sweet potato leaves grown under SL had significantly higher SLA compared
3 to those grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED (Fig. 1B). For leaf FW and leaf DW, they
4 were significantly higher in sweet potato plants grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than
5 under only natural SL (Figs. 2A and 2B). However, all leaves had similar water content (Fig. 2C).

6 **3.2 Photosynthetic pigments**

7 Sweet potato leaves grown under SL + H-LED had the highest concentrations of Chl a, Chl
8 b, total Chl and total Car followed by those grown under SL + L-LED. For plants grown under SL,
9 their leaves had the lowest Chl a, Chl b, total Chl and total Car concentrations (Figs 3A, 3B, 3C
10 and 3D). However, Chl a/b ratio of sweet potato leaves grown under SL was significantly higher
11 than those grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED (Fig. 3E). There were no significant
12 differences in Chl/Car ratios among the leaves grown under different light conditions (Fig. 3F).

13 **3.3 Photosynthetic light utilization efficiency measured by F_v/F_m ratio, ETR, qP and NPQ**

14 Fig. 4 shows the predawn and midday F_v/F_m ratios measured from the attached leaves on the
15 same sunny day in the greenhouse. The measurements were repeated once on another sunny day
16 and similar results were obtained. All leaves had their predawn F_v/F_m ratios greater than 0.8
17 although leaves grown under SL had F_v/F_m ratio significantly higher than those grown under SL +
18 L-LED and SL + H-LED (Fig. 4A). Leaves grown under SL + H-LED had significantly lower
19 midday F_v/F_m ratio (0.689) than those grown under SL (0.750) and SL + L-LED (0.744) (Fig. 4B).

20 The youngest fully expanded leaves were also harvested to measure the light response curves
21 of ETR, qP and NPQ, starting from the lowest PPFD of 0 to 1501 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹. The measurements
22 were repeated once on a different day and similar results were obtained. The readings of ETR
23 increased as PPFDs increased from 0 to 1501 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ for all leaves (Fig. 5A). All leaves had

1 similar values of ETR when they were measured under PPFDs $<111 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. However,
2 leaves grown under SL had significantly lower ETR compared to those grown under SL + L-LED
3 and SL + H-LED when they were measured under PPFDs from 146 to $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.
4 Measured under the two highest PPFDs of 1076 and $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, leaves grown under SL
5 + H-LED had the highest ETR, followed by those grown under SL + L-LED and the leaves grown
6 under SL had the lowest ETR under these two PPFDs (Fig. 5A). The values of qP decreased with
7 increasing PPFDs from 0 to $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for all leaves (Fig. 5B). All leaves had similar
8 decrease rates of qP when they were measured under PPFDs from 0 to $56 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. However,
9 decreases in qP were significantly faster in leaves grown under SL than under SL + L-LED and
10 SL + H-LED when measured under PPFDs above $81 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ except for the higher PPFd of
11 $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, under which all leaves had similar lowest level of qP (Fig. 5B). Similar to the
12 changes of ETR, NPQ of all leaves increased with increasing PPFDs from 0 to $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
13 (Fig. 5C). When measured under PPFDs $<146 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, all leaves had similar levels of NPQ.
14 Leaves grown under SL + H-LED had significantly lower NPQ compared to those grown under
15 SL + L-LED and SL under PPFDs from 146 to $611 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. However, under the two highest
16 PPFDs of 1076 and $1501 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, NPQ values were similarly higher in leaves grown under
17 SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than under SL (Fig. 5C).

18

19 **3.4 Light response curves of P_N , PS II and Cyt b_6f concentrations of detached leaves** 20 **measured in the laboratory**

21 Fig. 6 shows light response curves P_N , PS II and Cyt b_6f concentrations measured from the
22 same detached leaves in the laboratory at 25°C . P_N increased with increasing PPFDs similarly in
23 all leaves from 0 to $602 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, and started to saturate between 602 to $808 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig.

1 6A), after which, slow increases of P_N were still observed from 808 to 1435 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in leaves
2 grown under SL + H-LED. Thus, the light response curve of P_N measured from leaves grown
3 under SL + H-LED was above those grown under SL + L-LED and SL. Measured under the two
4 highest PPFDs of 1435 and 1870 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, leaves grown under SL + H-LED had significantly
5 higher P_N than those grown under SL + L-LED while leaves grown under SL + H-LED and SL
6 had similar P_N (Fig. 6A). However, there were no significant differences in PS II (Fig. 6B) and
7 Cyt b_6f (Fig. 6C) concentrations among the sweet potato leaves grown under different light
8 conditions.

9 **3.5 A , g_s , C_i , T_r of attached leaves measured in the greenhouse**

10 Figs. 7A and 7B show the results of A and g_s of sweet potato leaves measured under their
11 respective growth irradiance with similar but much higher values obtained from leaves grown
12 under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than under SL. The C_i was significantly lower in leaves
13 grown under SL + H-LED compared to those grown under SL + L-LED and SL (Fig. 7C).
14 However, all leaves had similar T_r (Fig. 7D).

15

16 **4. Discussion**

17 Although sweet potato leaves have been consumed in Singapore as a high nutritional leafy
18 vegetable, they are mainly cultivated in outdoor soil farms. The supply of sweet potato leaves to
19 the vegetable markets is not secured due to the fact that its productivity is influenced by variation
20 in sunlight availability and intensity. To the best of our knowledge, this was the first project to
21 grow sweet potato leaves in the tropical greenhouse using hydroponic systems under supplemental
22 LED lighting to prevailing natural sunlight. Light is the most crucial factor for plant growth and
23 development as well as the efficiency of the photosynthesis (Violet-Chabrand et al., 2017;

1 Gommers, 2020). Plants can adjust their morphological and physiological traits such as leaf size,
2 SLA, leaf mass and Chl content when they are subjected to changing light conditions (Liu et al.,
3 2016; He et al., 2017a). This study was carried out in the tropical greenhouse from the middle of
4 February to early April 2020, when the weather was warm and sunny. The average highest ambient
5 temperature was about 34 to 36 °C under full sunlight and maximum PPFD in an open field
6 on sunny days outside the greenhouse ranged from 1400 to 1600 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for at least 4 hours
7 from 1100h to 1500h. However, the average maximum PPFD inside the greenhouse was round
8 700 to 800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, which was 50% of full sunlight but the average ambient temperature could
9 be as high as 38 to 40 °C with the highest of 43 °C during midday for at least 4 hours. **It was a**
10 **surprise to observe that inside the hot greenhouse, the leaves of all sweet potato plants grew very**
11 **fast and were very healthy, especially those grown under SL supplemented with constant PPFDs**
12 **of either 150 (SL + L-LED) or 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (SL + H-LED), for a 12 h photoperiod.** These
13 observations were supported by the results shown in Figs. 1 and 2. Although there was no
14 significant difference in leaf area of the youngest fully expanded leaves grown under different light
15 conditions one week after emergence (Fig. 1A), leaf FW and DW were significantly higher in
16 leaves grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than under SL alone (Figs. 2A and 2B). All
17 leaves had similar water content (Fig. 2C) and thus, higher leaf FW and DW resulted from the
18 greater thickness of **those** grown under supplemental LED lighting, which was supported by the
19 lower SLA (Fig. 1B). Low SLA is associated with greater leaf thickness as SLA is measured as
20 the ratio of leaf area to leaf dry mass (Hunt et al. 2002). It was previously reported by our studies
21 that both light quantity and quality affected SLA of leafy vegetables within the species (Choong
22 et al., 2018; He et al., 2019a).

1 Grown under low-light conditions, plants usually develop leaves with higher SLA compared
2 to those grown under high-light conditions (He et al., 2017a; Vialet-Chabrand et al., 2017; Zhang
3 et al., 2019). According to Poorter et al. (2018), light-capture-related traits such as SLA and Chl
4 content are strongly related to light, and therefore vary mostly within species. The higher SLA of
5 sweet potato leaves grown under low-light conditions such as only SL (Fig. 1B) could be
6 interpreted as a mechanism to optimize light harvesting. However, under high-light conditions
7 such as SL + H-LED conditions, lower SLA (Fig. 1B) could help plants to increase the efficiency
8 of light capture (Evans and Poorter, 2001; Liu et al., 2016). In the study with soybean, Fan et al.,
9 (2018) and Feng et al. (2019) reported that Chl a, Chl b, total Chl and Car contents increased with
10 the increase in light intensity, which were directly associated with leaf thickness. The results of
11 this study with potato leaves grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED conditions having higher
12 Chl a, Chl b, total Chl and Car concentrations on a per area basis (Figs. 3A to D) are consistent
13 with those previous results (Fan et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2019). However, Anderson et al. (1988)
14 demonstrated that it was not the Chl concentration per leaf area but the ratio of Chl a/b showed a
15 close correlation to the growth irradiance. In this study, when growth irradiance was increased by
16 supplementing LED lighting to SL, Chl a/b ratio of sweet potato leaves decreased (Fig. 3E).
17 Increasing light intensity decreased Chl a/b ratio was also reported in soybean (Feng et al., 2019).
18 These results are not in accordance with the usually increased Chl a/b ratio of plants grown under
19 high-irradiance compared to those grown under low-irradiance (Evans and Poorter, 2001). Zivcak
20 et al. (2014) suggested that effects of light intensity on Chl a/b ratio is not a universal phenomenon
21 and the dependence of Chl a/b ratio on light intensity is strongly correlated to plant species. In this
22 study, the supplemental LED-lighting was provided by a combination of red- and blue-LED
23 lighting in the ratio of 9:1. The effects of light conditions on Chl a/b ratio could result from both

1 the light intensity and light quality, which merits our further study. Car concentration of sweet
2 potato leaves increased by 8 and 27%, under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED respectively, compared
3 to **those** grown under SL alone (Fig. 3D). Generally, Car concentration was higher for sun-
4 acclimated leaves compared to that of shade-grown leaves (Demmig-Adams and Adams, 1996;
5 Lichtenthaler, 2007). Carotenoids play important roles in photosynthesis (Pogson et al., 2005) and
6 protect plants from the harmful effects of excess exposure to light by maintaining proper Chl/Car
7 ratio (or Car/Chl ratio) for optimal photosynthesis and photoprotection (Hashimoto et al., 2016).
8 All sweet potato leaves had similar Chl/Car ratios as those grown under higher growth irradiance
9 increased the concentrations of both total Chl and total Car concentrations (Figs. 3C and 3D). In
10 the study with barley leaves (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), Zivcak et al. (2014) also reported that no
11 significant changes were observed in the Chl/Car ratio between sun and shade leaves.

12 **Biosynthesis of Chl increases with increasing light intensity (Björkman, 1981). However,**
13 under **adverse** environmental conditions such as high temperature, high light inhibits Chl formation
14 due to photoinhibition (He et al., 1996). In this study, all leaves had predawn F_v/F_m ratio > 0.8
15 (Fig. 4A), indicating that no chronic photoinhibition occurred in any plants. However, dynamic
16 photoinhibition occurred in all leaves during midday with F_v/F_m ratios < 0.8 . The greatest decrease
17 of midday F_v/F_m ratio was observed in leaves grown under SL + H-LED, which were exposed to
18 the highest PPFD about $1150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. **The midday F_v/F_m ratio remained higher for leaves of**
19 **plants grown under SL with the lowest midday PPFD (700 to $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$).** Grown under SL
20 + L-LED subjected to a PPFD of $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, the decrease of midday F_v/F_m ratio was in-
21 between (Fig. 4B). Similar to the results of this study, grown under natural conditions with
22 dynamic fluctuations in light, high PPFDs coupled with high temperature during midday caused

1 dynamic photoinhibition but no sustained chronic photoinhibition were observed in certain native
2 orchid species in Singapore (He et al., 2017a; Tay et al., 2019).

3 Chls are essential molecules that catch light energy to drive photosynthetic electron transfer
4 (Fromme et al., 2013). Sweet potato leaves grown under high-irradiance had thicker leaves and
5 higher Chl concentrations are associated with higher ETR compared to those grown under low-
6 irradiance (Fig. 5A). When measurements were carried out from 801 to the highest 1501 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
7 s^{-1} , which were within the maximum ranges of PPFD under which all leaves were developed, the
8 ETR readings were 80-98% and 55-75% respectively higher in SL + H-LED and SL + L-LED
9 leaves than that in leaves grown under SL (Fig. 5A). Not only ETR but also qP was modified by
10 the light conditions, with slower declines in qP in leaves grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-
11 LED compared to that in leaves grown under SL except for the measurements at the higher PPFD
12 of 1501 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5B). The values of qP were significantly higher for the leaves grown
13 under high-irradiance such as SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than those under lower irradiance
14 of SL inside the greenhouse, indicating that high-irradiance improve photosynthetic light use
15 efficiency (Feng et al., 2019). It was reported that high growth irradiance increased ETR and qP
16 while decreased the NPQ (Zivcak et al., 2014; Feng, 2019). These were also observed in this study
17 with sweet potato leaves grown under SL + H-LED had low NPQ when measurements were made
18 from 146 to 611 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ compared to those grown under SL. However, decreased NPQ was
19 not observed in leaves grown under SL + L-LED (Fig. 5C).

20 High growth irradiance enhances ETR and qP that could increase photosynthetic rate by
21 improving the energy transport from PSII to PSI in tobacco leaves (Yamori et al., 2010) and
22 soybean leaves (Yang et al., 2018). It was also reported earlier that pea leaves grown under high-
23 light had higher concentrations of PS II and Cyt b_6/f and thus a higher capacity for electron transport

1 and photosynthetic oxygen evolution compared to those grown under low-light (Leong and
2 Anderson, 1984; Chow and Anderson, 1987). Similar results were also reported in spinach (Chow
3 and Hope, 1987), *Alocasia macrorrhiza* (Chow et al., 1988) and *Hordeum vulgare* (De la Torre
4 and Burkey, 1990). However, in this study, sweet potato leaves grown under SL+ L-LED and SL
5 + H-LED increased ETR and qP while the concentrations of PS II (Fig. 6B) and Cyt b₆f (Fig. 6C)
6 remained unchanged compared to those grown under SL. Higher ETR and qP observed in this
7 study may be due to the tuning of the amount of active PSII reaction centres and regulating the
8 electron transfer by the Cyt b₆f complex (Tikkanen et al., 2012) rather than the modified
9 concentrations. As all leaves in this study were developed under the maximum PPFDs about 700
10 to 800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ where P_N started to saturate (Fig. 6A), they may have produced maximum
11 amount of PS II and Cyt b₆f complex. On the other hand, P_N was measured at the temperature (25
12 °C) lower than the maximum growth temperature of sweet potato leaves, which may also be
13 another factor affecting the values of P_N (to be discussed in the next section). In our future study,
14 corrections among ETR, qP, PS II, Cyt b₆f and P_N in sweet potato leaves should be carried out
15 under different light intensity and different leaf temperatures.

16 Many studies have shown that PS II and Cyt b₆f may be the site of the rate-limiting step
17 in the electron transport (Heber et al., 1988; Eichelmann et al., 2000). The concentration of Cyt b₆f
18 is the main rate-limited factor that determines light and CO₂-saturated photosynthetic capacity
19 (Tikkanen et al., 2012; Zhu et al. 2017). In this study, there was a slightly higher P_N measured
20 from leaves grown under SL + H-LED at the highest PPFD of 1870 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ compared to that
21 of leaves grown under SL (Fig. 6A), which could be due to the similar concentrations of Cyt b₆f
22 (Fig. 6B) among all leaves.

1 Although all detached leaves had similar P_N measured at 25 °C in the laboratory under
2 saturated CO_2 (Fig. 6A), there were significant differences in A , g_s , and C_i , measured from attached
3 leaves under their respective growth irradiance in the greenhouse (Fig. 7). Generally, leaves
4 developed under high-irradiance are thicker than those grown under low-irradiance and thus
5 enhance light use efficiency for carbon fixation (Terashima et al., 2006). In their paper, Terashima
6 et al. (2006) confirmed that there were sufficient mesophyll surfaces in the thicker sun leaves for
7 CO_2 dissolution and transport to the chloroplasts. Thicker sun leaves of C_3 plants could maintain
8 the CO_2 concentration in the chloroplast as high as possible for ribulose 1.5-bisphosphate
9 carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) (Terashima et al., 2006). Furthermore, thicker leaves
10 accumulated more photosynthetic enzymes on a leaf area basis and thus contributed to greater
11 CO_2 fixation capacity of high-light grown leaves (Evans and Poorter, 2001). The results of this
12 study support those earlier studies as photosynthetic CO_2 assimilation rate, A was 31 and 40%
13 higher in SL+ L-LED and SL + H-LED, respectively than that of SL (Fig. 7A). Generally, plants
14 grown at higher temperature have a higher optimal temperature of photosynthetic rate (Yamasaki
15 et al., 2002). In many species, the optimal temperature of photosynthetic rate increases with
16 increasing growth temperature (Hikosaka et al., 2006). These earlier studies explain why the values
17 of A (Fig. 7A) measured from the attached leaves in the greenhouse with their leaf temperatures
18 as high as 38 to 43 °C under ambient CO_2 were higher than those of P_N (Fig. 6A) measured from
19 detached leaves at 25°C in the presence of a saturating CO_2 concentration in the laboratory. It has
20 been reported that g_s is sensitive to temperature, humidity and light (Bunce, 2001; Lawson, 2009).
21 Generally, high temperature promotes stomatal opening to facilitate leaf cooling. In this study,
22 there were small variations in leaf temperature and humidity among sweet potato leaves as they
23 were grown in the same area of the same greenhouse. However, the values of g_s were significantly

1 higher in sweet potato leaves grown under SL + L-LED and SL + H-LED than that of leaves
2 grown under SL (Fig. 7B). Different light conditions could be the main factors resulting in different
3 g_s . Optimal combinations of blue- and red-LED used in this study could enhance g_s , which have
4 been previously reported in cucumber (Hernández et al., 2016) and lettuce (Wang et al., 2016;
5 Choong et al., 2018). It is well known that stomata are responsible for balancing photosynthetic
6 CO_2 uptake with water loss through transpiration. Although it was unable to measure the root
7 biomass in this study, all sweet potato plants had well developed big root systems to ensure water
8 and nutrient uptake (Poorter et al., 2012). Thus, all leaves had similar transpiration rate (Fig. 7D)
9 although leaves grown under SL had significantly lower g_s compared to those grown under SL
10 supplemented with LED lighting.

11 In certain species, the greater A by plants grown under high-irradiance means that they have
12 lower C_i than those grown under low-irradiance (Hanba et al., 2002; Yamori et al., 2010; Huang
13 et al., 2014). For instance, Huang et al. (2014) reported that sun-grown tobacco leaves had greater
14 A , leading to lower C_i . In this study, sweet potato leaves grown under the highest irradiance (SL
15 + H-LED) also had the highest A which was as high as $38.1 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 7A) and the
16 lowest C_i of $236.8 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ compared to those grown under low-irradiance (Fig. 7C).
17 Lower C_i could result in higher ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) oxygenation rate in sun-grown-
18 leaves than in shade-grown leaves and thus upregulate photorespiratory pathway. However, lower
19 C_i of sun-grown leaves also increased RuBP regeneration resulting from higher electron transport
20 capacity and thus RuBP oxygenation and regeneration were balanced (Foyer et al., 2012; Huang
21 et al., 2014). In this study, sweet potato leaves grown under high-irradiance also had higher
22 electron transport capacity (Fig. 5A). Instead of suppressing A , enhancement of photorespiratory
23 pathway through enhanced RuBP regeneration potentially improved the A in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

1 (Timm et al., 2012) and tobacco leaves (Huang et al., 2014). Sweet potato leaves grown in the
2 tropical greenhouse under high-irradiance may also have higher photorespiration which enhanced
3 photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation and at the same time prevented them from suffering sustained
4 chronic photoinhibition supported by their predawn F_v/F_m ratios of greater than 0.8 (Fig. 3A).
5 Changes in the light dependence of photosynthesis may be ascribed to changes in not only CO₂
6 concentration in the chloroplasts but also the activity and amount of photosynthetic components
7 especially the activation and the amount of Rubisco (Simkin et al. 2015; 2019). Compared to sweet
8 potato leaves grown under low-irradiance such as SL only, leaves grown under high-irradiance
9 such as SL+ H-LED probably have increased synthesis of Rubisco. Supplemental LED lighting to
10 SL increased total leaf soluble protein and Rubisco protein of Cos lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.)
11 grown in the same greenhouse (unpublished data). In this study, samples have been collected for
12 the analysis of total leaf soluble protein and Rubisco protein. Unfortunately, we were unable to
13 determine these parameters as we had to close our laboratory due to the COVID-19 pandemic.
14 The effects of light on Rubisco protein would be studied in near future. We also hypothesize that
15 supplementing LED to natural SL enhances not only leaf growth and photosynthetic characteristics
16 of sweet potato leaves in a tropical greenhouse but also their nutritional quality, which also merits
17 our further study.

18 **5. Conclusion**

19 The results of this study show that supplemental LED lighting to natural SL increased leaf
20 fresh and dry weights of hydroponically grown sweet potato (*I. batatas* var. Biru Putih) in the hot
21 tropical greenhouse. The enhancement of leaf biomass was due to the increased thickness of high-
22 irradiance grown leaves, which improved electron transport capacity and photosynthetic CO₂
23 assimilation rate of attached leaves under their growth temperature and irradiances. Corrections

1 among ETR, qP, PS II, Cyt b₆f, P_N and Rubisco protein in sweet potato leaves under different
2 light intensities and different leaf temperatures merit our further study.

3 **Author contributions**

4 JH initiated and funded the expenses for the project, planned and carried out some parts of the
5 experiments and wrote most part of the manuscript. LQ planned, carried out most experiments,
6 analyzed the data and wrote some part of the manuscript.

7 8 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

9 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
10 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

11 **Acknowledgements**

12 We thank Singapore Millennium Foundation (SMF-Farming System) and National Institute of
13 Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore for providing us with the funding and
14 facility support.

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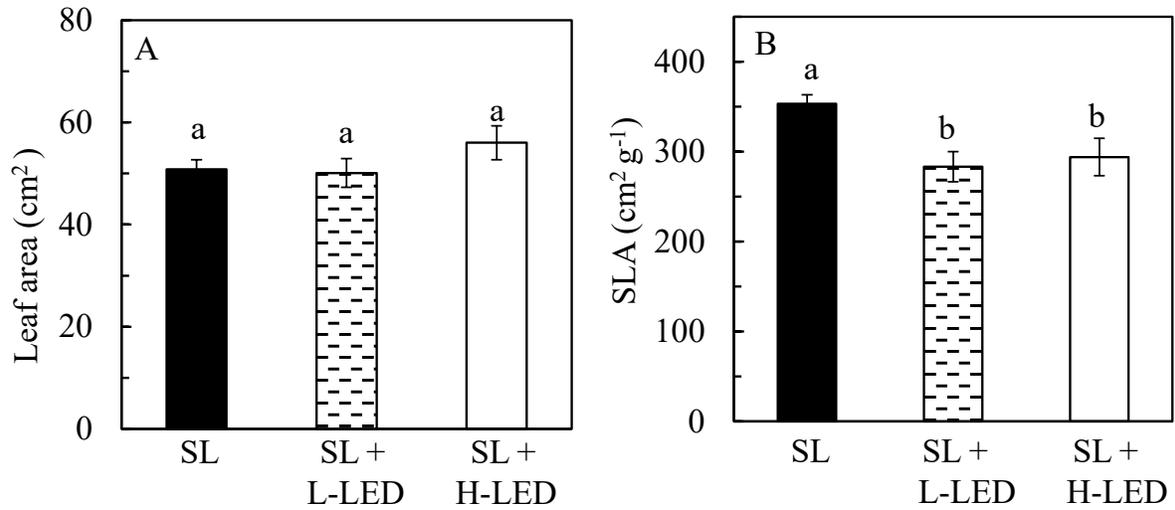


Fig. 1. Leaf area (A) and SLA (B) of the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 5$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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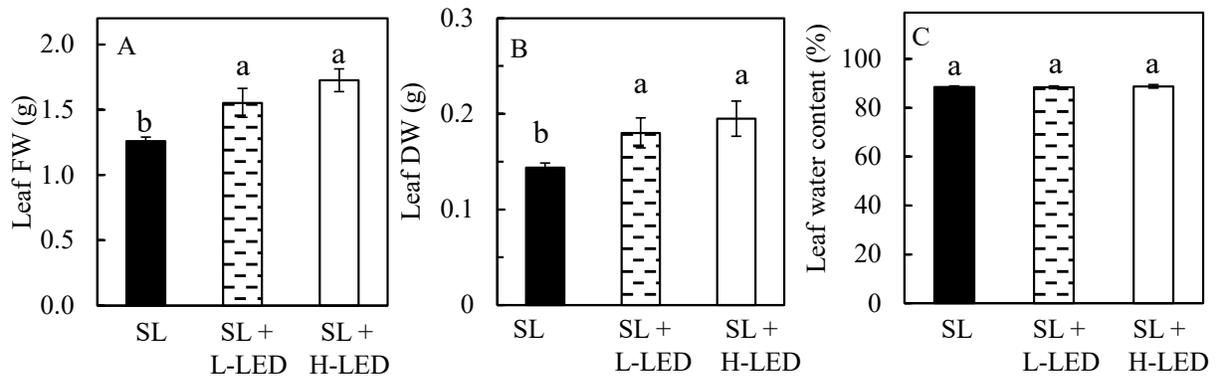


Fig. 2. Leaf FW (A), leaf DW (B) and leaf water content of the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 5$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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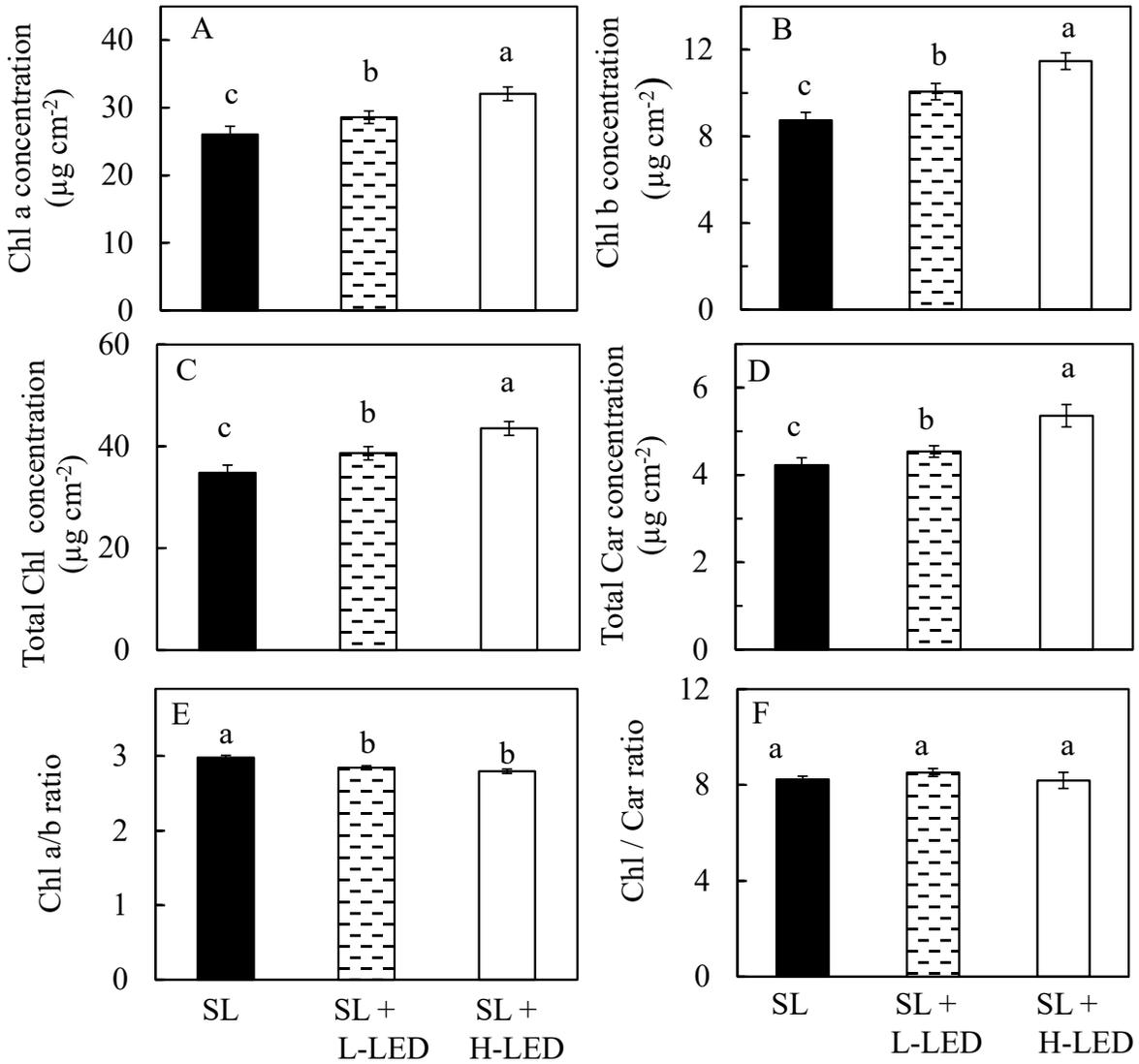


Fig. 3. Chl a concentration (A), Chl b concentration (B), total Chl concentration (C), total Car concentration (D), Chl a/b ratio (E) and Chl/Car ratio (F) of the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 6$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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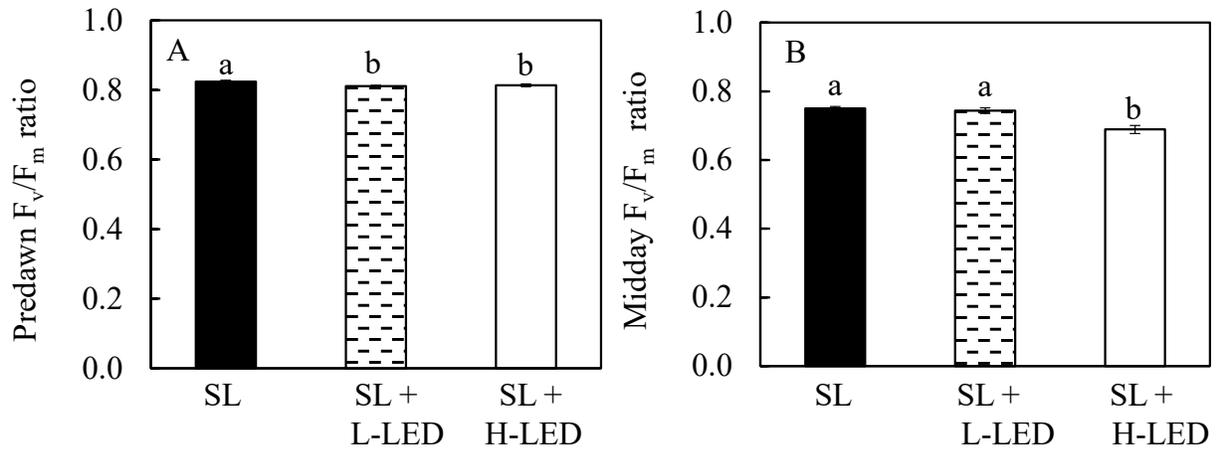


Fig. 4. Predawn (A) and midday (B) F_v/F_m ratios on a sunny day measured from the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 8$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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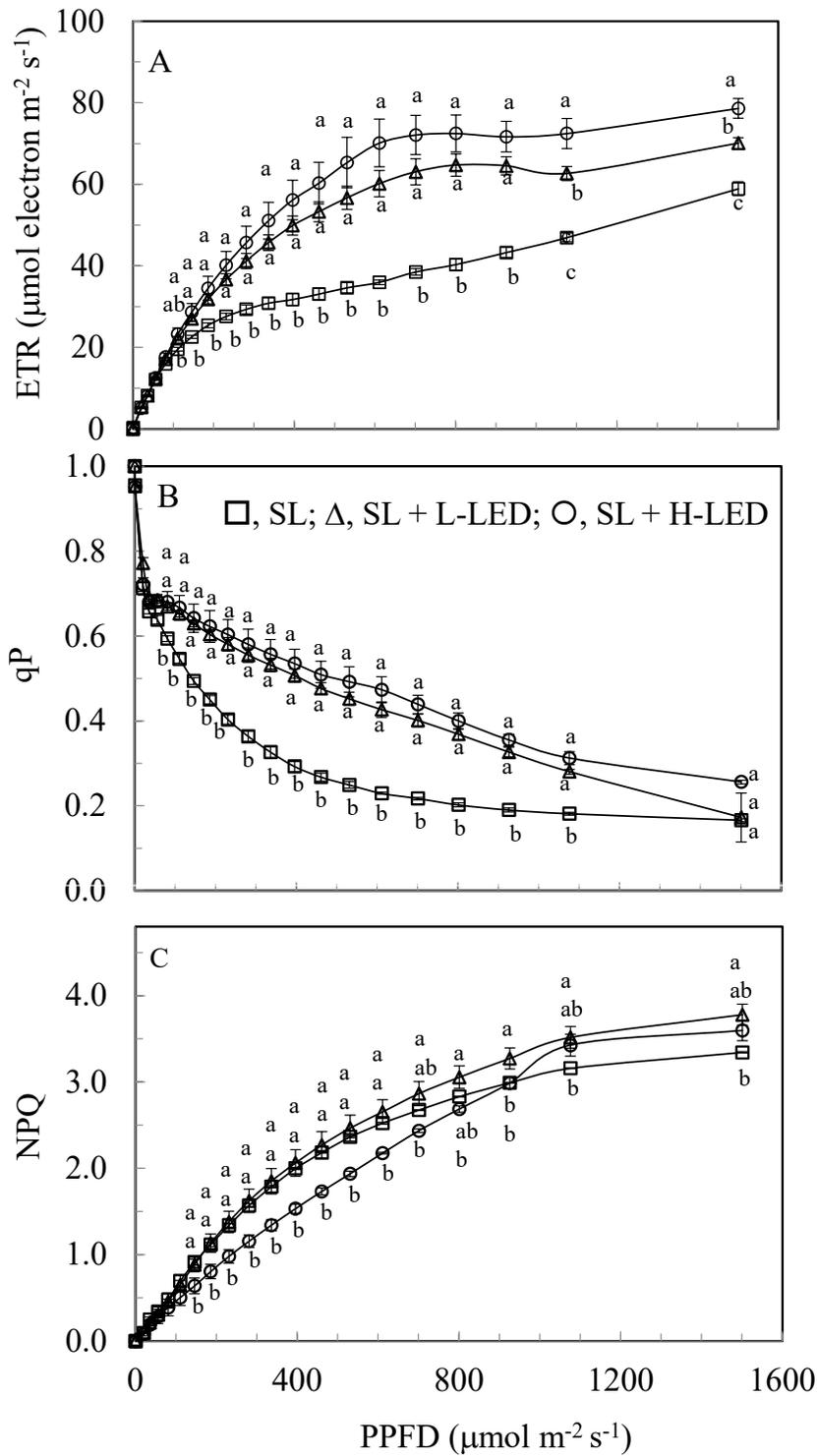


Fig. 5. Light response curves of ETR (A), qP (B) and NPQ (C) measured from the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 4$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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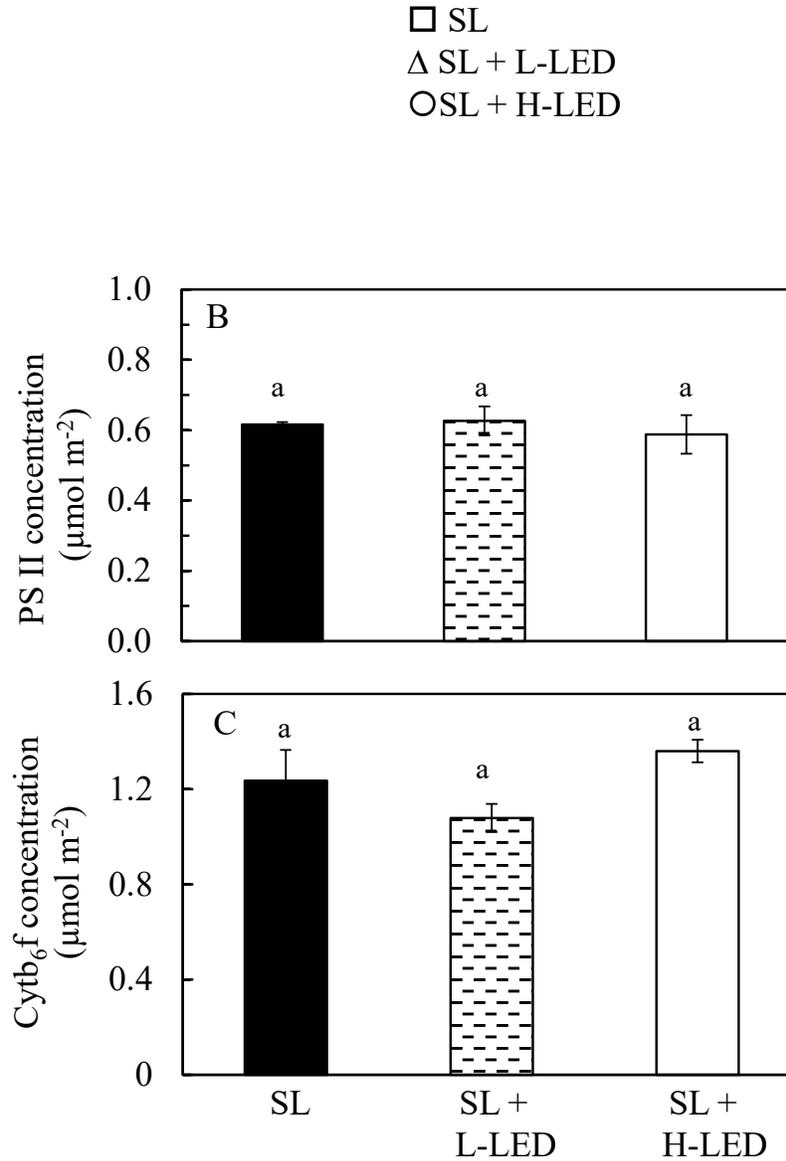


Fig. 6. Light response curves of P_N (A), PS II concentration (B) and Cyt b_6f concentration (C) measured from the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 3$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

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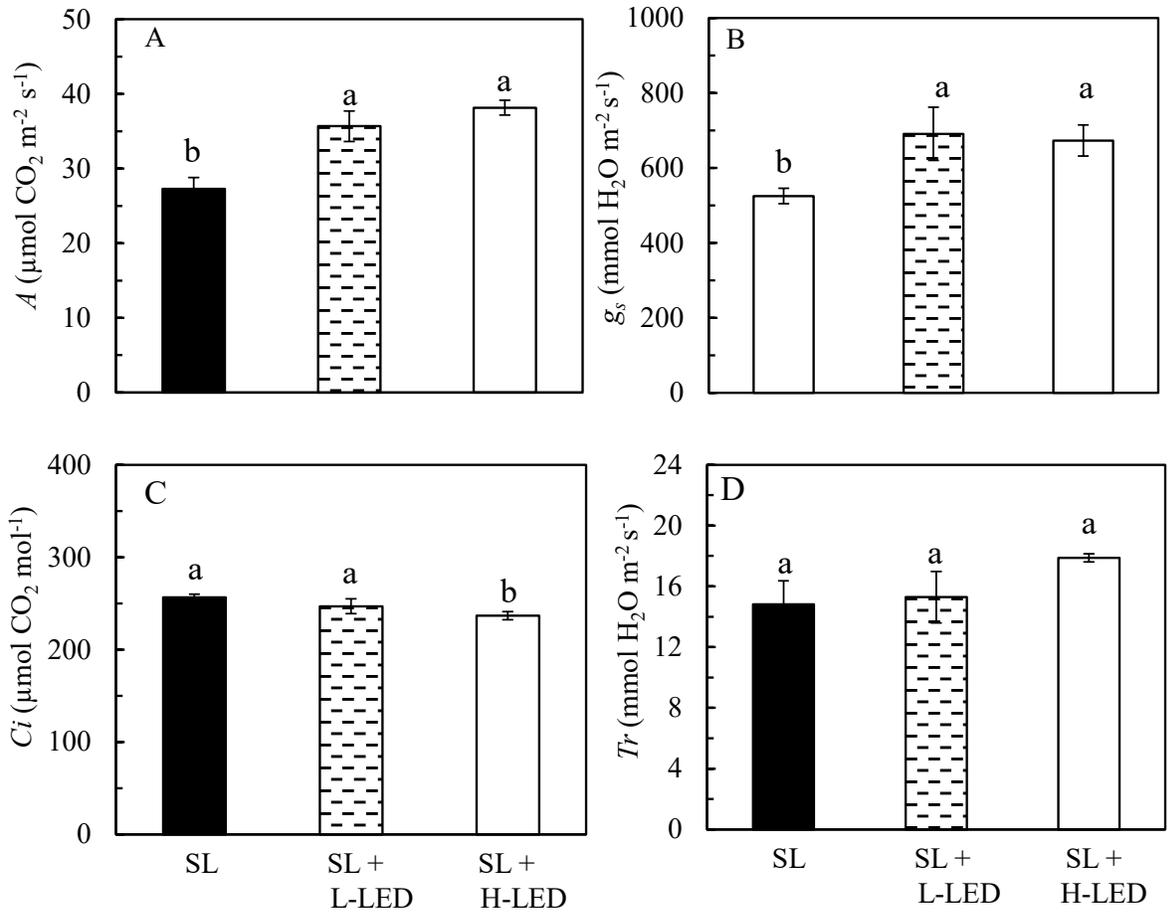


Fig. 7. A (A), g_s (B), C_i (C) and T_r (D) measured from the youngest fully expanded leaves of *I. batatas* grown under different light conditions. Means with different letters are statistically different ($P < 0.05$; $n = 6$) as determined by LSD multiple comparison test. SL, Sunlight; SL + L-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$; SL + H-LED, SL with supplemental LED at a PPFD of $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

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