



Comparison of two noninvasive methods for measuring the pigment content in foliose macrolichens

Shuai Liu^{1,2} · Su Li^{1,3} · Xiao-Yang Fan^{1,2} · Guo-Di Yuan^{1,2} · Tao Hu^{1,2} · Xian-Meng Shi^{1,2} · Jun-Biao Huang^{1,2} · Xiao-Yan Pu^{1,2} · Chuan-Sheng Wu⁴

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Abstract

Chlorophyll content in lichens is routinely used as an accurate indicator of lichen vigor, interspecific differences, and the effect of site-related environmental parameters. Traditional methods of chlorophyll extraction are destructive, time-consuming, expensive, and inoperable, especially when measuring large quantities of chlorophyll. However, non-destructive methods of measurement using portable chlorophyll meters are rarely used for lichens. Considering the characteristics of lichens such as rough blade surface and absence of chlorophyll b in cyanolichens, we compared the non-destructive methods with traditional methods and evaluated their applicability in studying lichen pigment content. Two instruments, SPAD-502 and CCM-300, were used to measure the pigment content of seven foliose lichen species. These pigment readings were compared with those determined using the dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) extraction method. Significant correlations were observed between SPAD/CCM values and pigments (chlorophyll and total carotenoids) extracted from chlorolichens, especially species with a smooth surface. The CCM-300 was more accurate in detecting the pigment content of foliose chlorolichens. However, both instruments showed certain limitations in the determination of pigment content in cyanolichens, especially gelatinous species. For example, CCM-300 often failed to give specific values for some cyanolichen samples, and both instruments showed low measurement accuracy for cyanolichens. Based on the high correlation observed between chlorophyll meter readings and pigments extracted from chlorolichens, equations obtained in this study enabled accurate prediction of pigment content in these lichens.

Keywords CCM-300 · Carotenoids · Chlorophyll · Dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) · Foliose macrolichens · SPAD-502

Introduction

Lichens are extremely sensitive to climate change and environmental pollution because of their physiological characteristics (Brunialti and Frati 2007; Purvis et al. 2008; Lang et al. 2009; Hauck 2010). Lichen epiphytes are also a widespread and important component of forest structure and play a vital role in maintaining the biodiversity and integrity of forest ecosystems, as well as water and nutrient cycling therein (Li et al. 2013). Chlorophyll content, chlorophyll degradation, respiration rate, and photosynthesis in lichens are important indicators of air pollution and other environmental changes (Gonzalez and Pignata 1994). Among these indicators, the degradation of chlorophyll in the symbiotic photobiont is one of the most obvious signs of damage to the sensitive lichens (Showman 1975; Beltman et al. 1980; Chettri et al. 1998). Nevertheless, chlorophyll content of lichens varies considerably within the same species because

✉ Su Li
lis@xtbg.ac.cn

¹ CAS Key Laboratory of Tropical Forest Ecology, Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Kunming 650223, Yunnan, People's Republic of China

² University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, People's Republic of China

³ Ailaoshan Station for Subtropical Forest Ecosystem Studies, Jingdong 676209, People's Republic of China

⁴ Anhui Province Key Laboratory of Embryo Development and Reproductive Regulation, Anhui Province Key Laboratory of Environmental Hormone and Reproduction, Fuyang Normal University, Fuyang 236037, Anhui, People's Republic of China

of differences among local microenvironments (especially light) and microhabitats (Renhorn et al. 1997; Gauslaa and Solhaug 2000). For example, shaded thalli of *Cladonia verticillaris* contain more chlorophyll and carotene than sun-grown thalli (Legaz et al. 1986). Epiphytic individuals of *Parmelia pastillifera* also contain significantly higher chlorophyll content than epilithic individuals, as these are generally exposed to stronger irradiance than epiphytic individuals (Tretiach and Brown 1995). Accordingly, these studies imply the need to include a large number of samples in the chlorophyll assessment of lichens in large-scale and long-term research, when considering the inherent complexity of lichen microhabitats.

The assessment of the chlorophyll content of lichens has gained importance in large-scale and long-term monitoring programs. However, these programs require an efficient, rapid, and reliable method of pigment measurement. In traditional studies, organic solvents, such as acetone, methanol, ethanol, dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO), *N*-dimethyl formamide, and petroleum ether, were used for the extraction of chlorophyll from lichen thalli (Bruinsma 1961; Hiscox and Israelstam 1979; Moran and Porath 1980; Lichtenthaler and Wellburn 1983; Inskeep and Bloom 1985). The modified DMSO assay is more efficient and superior than other methods (Barnes et al. 1992). In this method, lichen samples are first repeatedly washed with carbonate-saturated acetone and then extracted in DMSO buffer containing polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) to minimize the conversion of chlorophyll to pheophytin. The use of DMSO during pigment extraction eliminates the need to grind plant material or centrifuge plant extracts (Shoaf and Lium 1976). Additionally, pigments extracted using DMSO can be stored in the dark for a week at 4 °C (Barnes et al. 1992) and do not need to be measured using a spectrophotometer immediately after extraction (Netto et al. 2005).

Additional methods, based on the reflectance and/or absorbance of radiation by chlorophyll, have been developed for the estimation of leaf chlorophyll content (Uddling et al. 2007). Unlike traditional methods, these methods of chlorophyll content measurement are simple, rapid, and non-destructive. One of these methods uses SPAD-502, a hand-held absorbance-based dual wavelength chlorophyll meter, developed by Minolta (SPAD models 501 and 502; Minolta Corporation, Ltd., Osaka, Japan) in the 1980s. The SPAD-502 meter records measurements instantaneously in a non-destructive manner, based on the transmittance of red (650 nm) and infrared (940 nm) radiation through a leaf sample (Netto et al. 2005). It is a simple and portable diagnostic tool and is capable of measuring the degree of greenness or relative chlorophyll concentration of leaves in a large number of experiments (Netto et al. 2005). Until 2007, the SPAD-502 meter had been used in more than 200 studies, most of which focused on agricultural products or cash crops

(Uddling et al. 2007). The relationship between extracted leaf chlorophyll content and SPAD readings has been quantified (Parry et al. 2014) either as linear (Dwyer et al. 1991; Xu et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2004) or curvilinear (Markwell et al. 1995; Richardson et al. 2002; Jifon et al. 2005). However, the SPAD-502 meter has not been used for poikilohydric autotrophic organisms, such as lichens, mosses, and liverworts, probably because it requires the measuring aperture to be completely filled. Additionally, lichens have diverse growth forms, such as crustose, foliose, and fruticose, and the use of SPAD-502 is limited to certain forms. Moreover, there has been minimal interest in large-scale ecophysiological research of poikilohydric organisms to date.

Another instrument used to determine the chlorophyll content of leaves, based on reflectance and/or absorbance of radiation by chlorophyll, is the Chlorophyll Content Meter-300 (Opti-Sciences CCM-300, Hudson, NH, USA). Like SPAD-502, CCM-300 is also a lightweight hand-held device. It provides accurate readings and is easy to use. With CCM-300, chlorophyll absorbs blue fluorescence excitation light and emits a range of longer wavelengths of fluorescence (Gitelson et al. 2003). The measuring aperture does not need to be completely covered because the CCM-300 does not compare transmission through a leaf sample at two different wavelengths. The CCM-300 is capable of measuring the chlorophyll content of leaves with a small surface area (e.g., pine needles) and of other difficult to measure samples, such as fruits, mosses, lichens, and algae. Significant correlations between CCM-200 (absorption technique; the previous generation of CCM-300) and total foliar extractable chlorophyll content have been reported in many studies, most of which are focused on agricultural species, including grain crops, fruit trees, and coffee (Marquard and Tipton 1987; Schaper and Chacko 1991; Azia and Stewart 2001; Netto et al. 2005).

Despite the advantages of SPAD-502 and CCM-300, each instrument has certain shortcomings. For example, mathematical relationships between SPAD chlorophyll readings and foliar chlorophyll content vary with the plant growth stage (Chapman and Barreto 1997), season (Dwyer et al. 1995; Bullock and Anderson 1998), habitat condition (Campbell et al. 1990; Simorte et al. 2001), and genotype (Peng et al. 1993; Sibley et al. 1996). Additionally, CCM-300 shows only a linear response to chlorophyll content ranging from 41 to 675 mg m⁻². The predictive value of chlorophyll meters is also limited, when applied across species or within species, by the variability and instability of the mathematical relationship between chlorophyll meter values and foliar chlorophyll content (Uddling et al. 2007; Hawkins et al. 2009).

Although lichens have gained importance as indicators of environmental changes, the correlation between chlorophyll meter readings and extracted chlorophyll content has not yet been assessed for lichens. Consequently, it is difficult

to assess the accuracy and effectiveness of SPAD-502 and CCM-300 for the measurement of the chlorophyll content of lichens. In this study, seven epiphytic foliose lichen species, comprising different types of symbiotic algae at different growth stages, were selected from different habitats across the subtropical forests of the Ailao Mountains in southwest China. The objectives of this study were to (1) determine the empirical relationship between chlorophyll meter readings and pigment content (chlorophyll a [chl *a*], chl *b*, total chlorophyll and total carotenoids) of thalli of different lichen species and (2) determine which instrument is more accurate and, therefore, more suitable for measuring the chlorophyll content of lichens.

Materials and methods

Lichen sampling and treatment

Lichen samples were collected from the Ailao Mountains National Nature Reserve (23°35′–24°44′N, 100°54′–101°30′E) in southwestern China, which is home to one of the largest tracts of natural montane moist evergreen broad-leaved primary forests in China (Qiu and Xie 1998; Fig. 1a). These forests support abundant epiphytes and common macrolichen species belonging to the genera *Everniastrum*, *Heterodermia*, *Hypotrachyna*, *Leptogium*, *Lobaria*, *Myelochroa*, *Nephromopsis*, *Parmotrema*, *Ramalina*, *Sticta*, and *Usnea* (Li et al. 2013).

Seven epiphytic lichen species, including three chlorolichens (with green algal photobiont; *Lobaria isidiophora*, *Nephromopsis pallescens*, and *Sticta nylanderiana*) and four cyanolichens (with cyanobacterial photobiont; *Leptogium menziesii*, *Lobaria retigera*, *Sticta fuliginosa* and *Sticta weigeli*) (Fig. 1b–h), were collected from various habitats, including natural plots (inside, outside, and edge of forest) as well as artificial plots (fully exposed plots, and shaded shelters with high, medium, and low light conditions). Unlike chlorolichens, cyanolichens lack chl *b* and instead contain a phycobilin-containing light harvesting protein complex (Palmqvist 2000). Moreover, *L. menziesii* is a gelatinous lichen, *S. nylanderiana* has a flat surface, *S. fuliginosa* and *S. weigeli* have a highly grainy surface, *L. isidiophora*, *L. retigera*, and *N. pallescens* have a more pleated surface. A total of 1145 samples, including 566 samples of chlorolichens and 579 samples of cyanolichens (Table 1), were collected on rainy days or dewy mornings in November 2016 and November 2017.

SPAD and CCM readings

All wet lichen samples were transferred to the Xujiaba Ecological Field Station laboratory (adjacent to the sampling

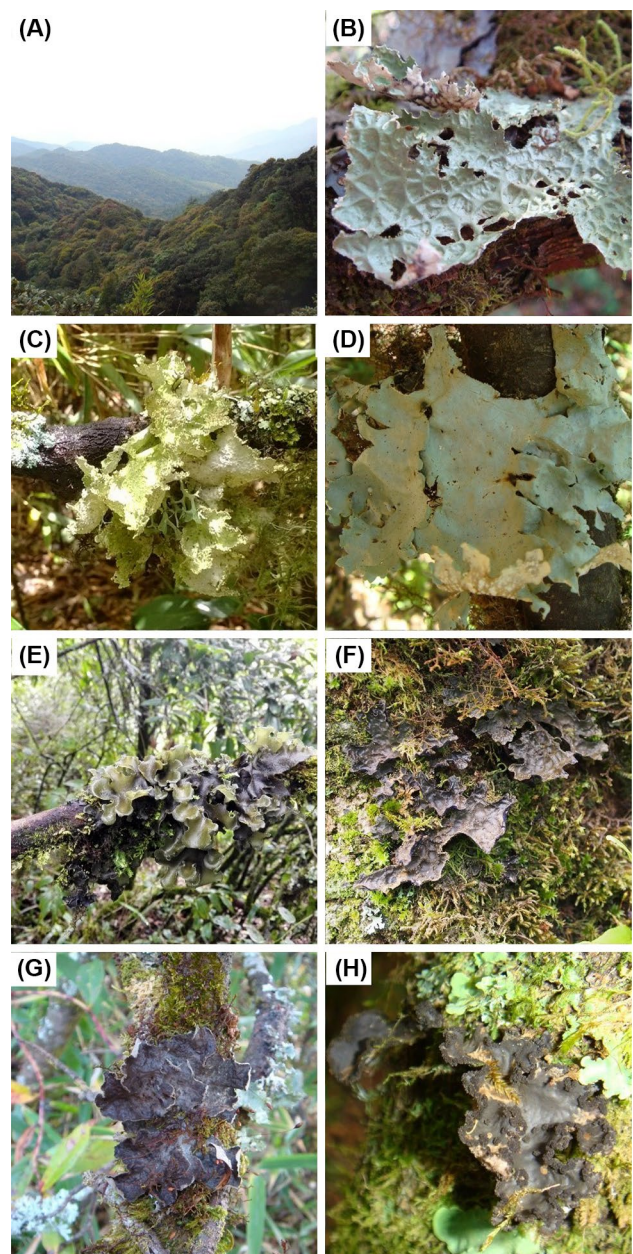


Fig. 1 Photos of the study site and lichen species investigated in this study. **a** Subtropical forest in the Ailao Mountains; **b** *Lobaria isidiophora*; **c** *Nephromopsis pallescens*; **d** *Sticta nylanderiana*; **e** *Leptogium menziesii*; **f** *Lobaria retigera*; **g** *Sticta fuliginosa*; **h** *Sticta weigeli*

sites) in the Ailao Mountains and cleaned to remove adhering debris, organic matter, and other unwanted species. Subsequently, lichen thalli were soaked in ultrapure water to saturation (not less than 30 min) under 600–800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity. For each sample, at least five measurements were recorded using SPAD-502 and CCM-300 portable chlorophyll meters, and average values were calculated. Damaged or diseased areas of thalli were avoided for taking measurements.

Table 1 List of foliose lichen species investigated in this study, along with their photobionts, number of samples studied and number of samples successfully analyzed using SPAD-502 and CCM-300

Species	Photobiont	Total number of samples	SPAD-502 Number of measurable samples (%)	CCM-300 Number of measurable samples (%)
<i>Lobaria isidiophora</i>	Green algae	185	185 (100)	185 (100)
<i>Nephromopsis pallescens</i>	Green algae	181	181 (100)	181 (100)
<i>Sticta nylanderiana</i>	Green algae	190	190 (100)	190 (100)
<i>Leptogium menziesii</i>	Cyanobacteria	149	149 (100)	116 (78)
<i>Lobaria retigera</i>	Cyanobacteria	161	161 (100)	148 (92)
<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i>	Cyanobacteria	126	126 (100)	125 (99)
<i>Sticta weigelii</i>	Cyanobacteria	139	139 (100)	127 (91)

Nonetheless, CCM-300 did not record the chlorophyll content of some samples of cyanolichens for unknown reasons (Table 1). Lichen samples were then air-dried to a constant weight, which were generally less than 0.1 g, and subsequently used for chlorophyll extraction using DMSO.

Chlorophyll extraction with DMSO

Chlorophyll was extracted from air-dried lichen thalli (20 mg) using DMSO, as described previously (Barnes et al. 1992). Unlike plants, lichens contain a large number of secondary metabolites such as lichenic acids, which degrade chlorophyll during extraction; therefore, it is necessary to wash off these secondary metabolites with relevant solutions (e.g., acetone) before pigment extraction (Barnes et al. 1992). Therefore, samples were washed six times (5 min per wash) with 3 ml of 100% CaCO₃-saturated acetone. The washed thalli were then placed on a filter paper and air-dried until the acetone had completely evaporated (at least 30 min). Each sample was then cut into tiny pieces and placed in an anticorrosive tube. To extract chlorophyll, 10 ml DMSO containing 2.5 mg ml⁻¹ PVP was added to the sample, and samples stored in the dark for 72 h to allow solvent extraction. Prior to analysis, pieces of lichen thalli were removed from the tubes, and extracts were transferred to 10-ml volumetric flasks and diluted with the same solvent.

Absorbance of the extracts was measured using a UV–visible spectrophotometer (UV-B2501; Shimadzu, Japan). The turbidity of the extracts was evaluated at 750 nm. If the absorbance at 750 nm exceeded 0.01, samples were subjected to centrifugation to remove particulate matter. Absorbance was also measured at other wavelengths including 665, 649, and 480 nm. Values obtained using the spectrophotometer were used to calculate the concentration (μg mg⁻¹ dry mass) of chl *a*, chl *b*, total chlorophyll (chl *a* + *b*) and total carotenoids, according to the equations described below (Wellburn 1994):

$$\text{Chl } a = 12.19A_{665} - 3.45A_{649} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Chl } b = 21.99A_{649} - 5.32A_{665} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Chl } a + b = \text{Chl } a + \text{Chl } b \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Total carotenoids} = (1000A_{480} - 2.14 \text{ Chl } a - 70.16 \text{ Chl } b)/220 \quad (4)$$

Statistical analysis

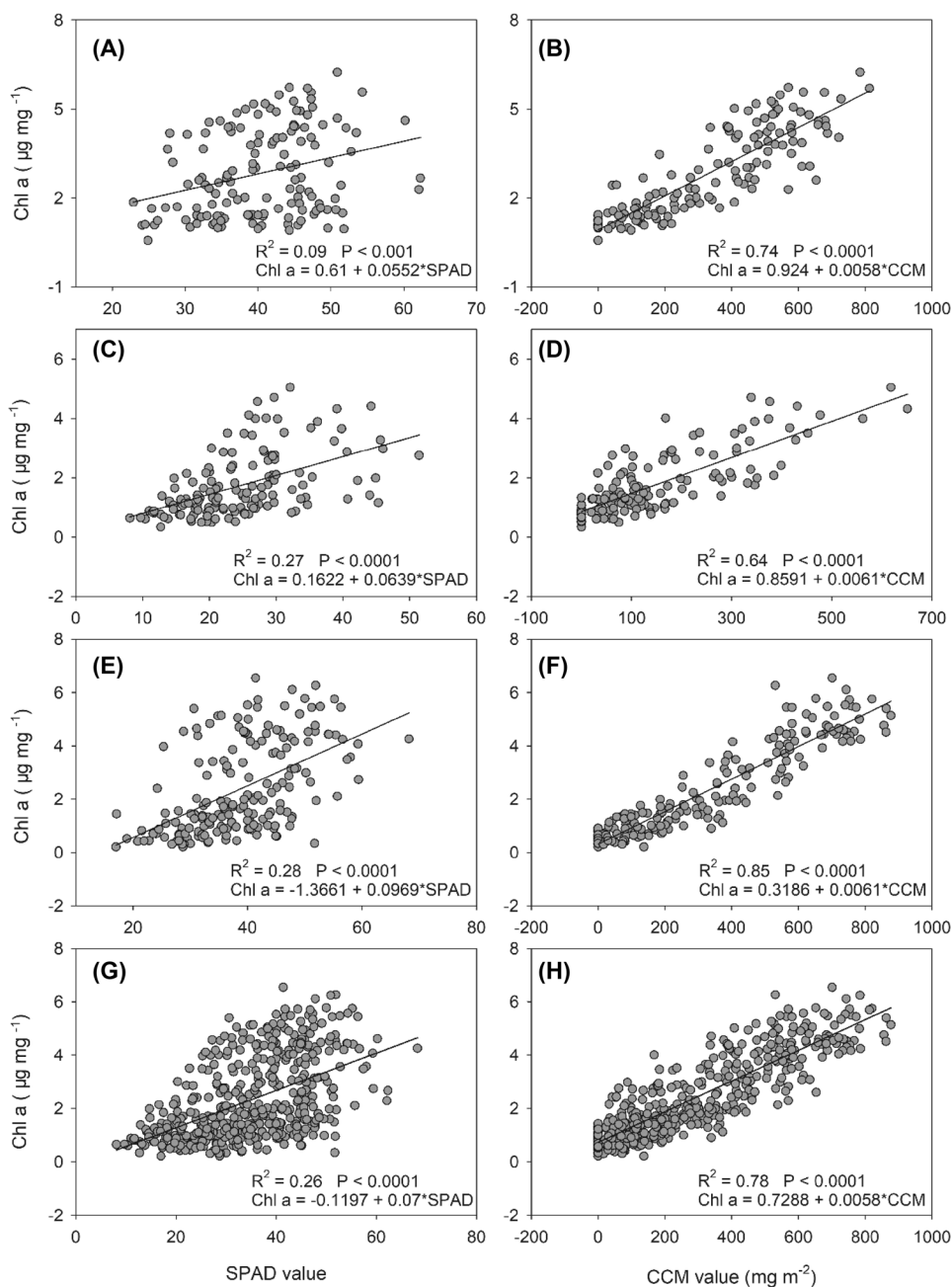
The relationship between the amount of chlorophyll extracted from thalli and SPAD/CCM readings was determined by regression analysis. Cyanolichen samples without CCM readings were not used for the regression analysis between extracted chlorophyll and CCM values. After comparison with curvilinear models, simple linear regression was chosen to evaluate the relationship because it is simple, intuitive, and has a similar correlation coefficient. All graphs were drawn using Sigmaplot 12.5.

Results

Chlorophyll content in chlorolichens

Among chlorolichens, SPAD or CCM values showed significant linear relationships with the extracted chl *a*, chl *b*, and total chlorophyll contents (Figs. 2, 3, and 4). Both instruments showed a higher fitness for chl *a* than for chl *b* (Figs. 2, 3). Results of chl *a*, chl *b*, and total chlorophyll content indicated that CCM-300 was more suitable for measuring the chlorophyll content of chlorolichens than SPAD-502 (Figs. 2, 3, and 4) and showed a higher degree of fit for *S. nylanderiana* with a smooth surface than for *L. isidiophora* and *N. pallescens* with a coarse surface. For chl *a*, the *R*² value of *S. nylanderiana* (*R*² = 0.85) was higher than that of *L. isidiophora* (*R*² = 0.74) and *N. pallescens* (*R*² = 0.64). The results of total chlorophyll content were consistent with those of chl *a*; the *R*² value of total chlorophyll content of *S. nylanderiana*, *L. isidiophora*, and *N. pallescens* was 0.84, 0.71, and 0.67, respectively. However, results of chl *b* were different from those of chl *a* and total chlorophyll; the *R*² value of *S. nylanderiana* was the highest (*R*² = 0.67) and that of *L. isidiophora* was the lowest (*R*² = 0.43) (Figs. 2, 3,

Fig. 2 Correlation between chl *a* extracted from chlorolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Lobaria isidiophora*; **c, d** *Nephromopsis pallescens*; **e, f** *Sticta nylanderiana*; **g, h** all chlorolichens



4). For all chlorolichen samples, CCM-300 showed a higher degree of fit for chl *a* (Fig. 2g, h), chl *b* (Fig. 3g, h) and total chlorophyll (Fig. 4g, h) than SPAD-502.

Total carotenoids in chlorolichens

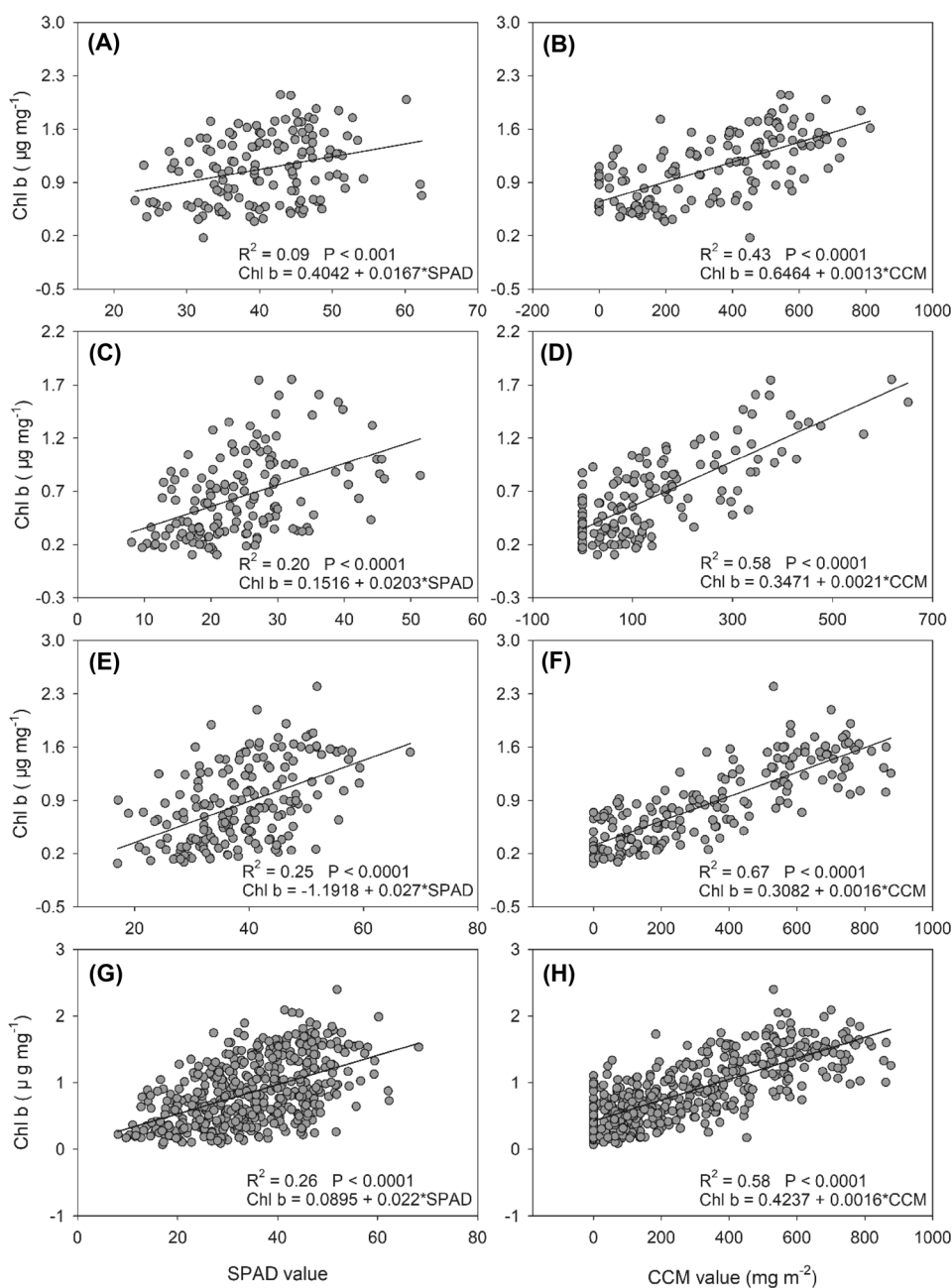
Significant correlations were observed between chlorophyll meter readings and total extracted carotenoids for all three chlorolichens (Fig. 5). The degree of fit using SPAD-502 was the highest for *N. pallescens* ($R^2 = 0.29$), followed by *S. nylanderiana* ($R^2 = 0.26$) and *L. isidiophora* ($R^2 = 0.05$). By contrast, the degree of fit using CCM-300 was the highest

for *S. nylanderiana* ($R^2 = 0.79$), followed by *N. pallescens* ($R^2 = 0.47$) and *L. isidiophora* ($R^2 = 0.44$). Like chlorophyll, CCM-300 showed a higher degree of fit than SPAD-502 when measuring the total carotenoids of all chlorolichen samples (Fig. 5).

Chlorophyll content in cyanolichens

Significant linear correlations were observed between SPAD/CCM values and extracted chl *a* content for all cyanolichen species, except *L. menziesii* (Fig. 6). The degree of fit was substantially below 0.3, and no significant differences were

Fig. 3 Correlation between chl *b* extracted from chlorolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Lobaria isidiophora*; **c, d** *Nephromopsis pallescens*; **e, f** *Sticta nylanderiana*; **g, h** all chlorolichens



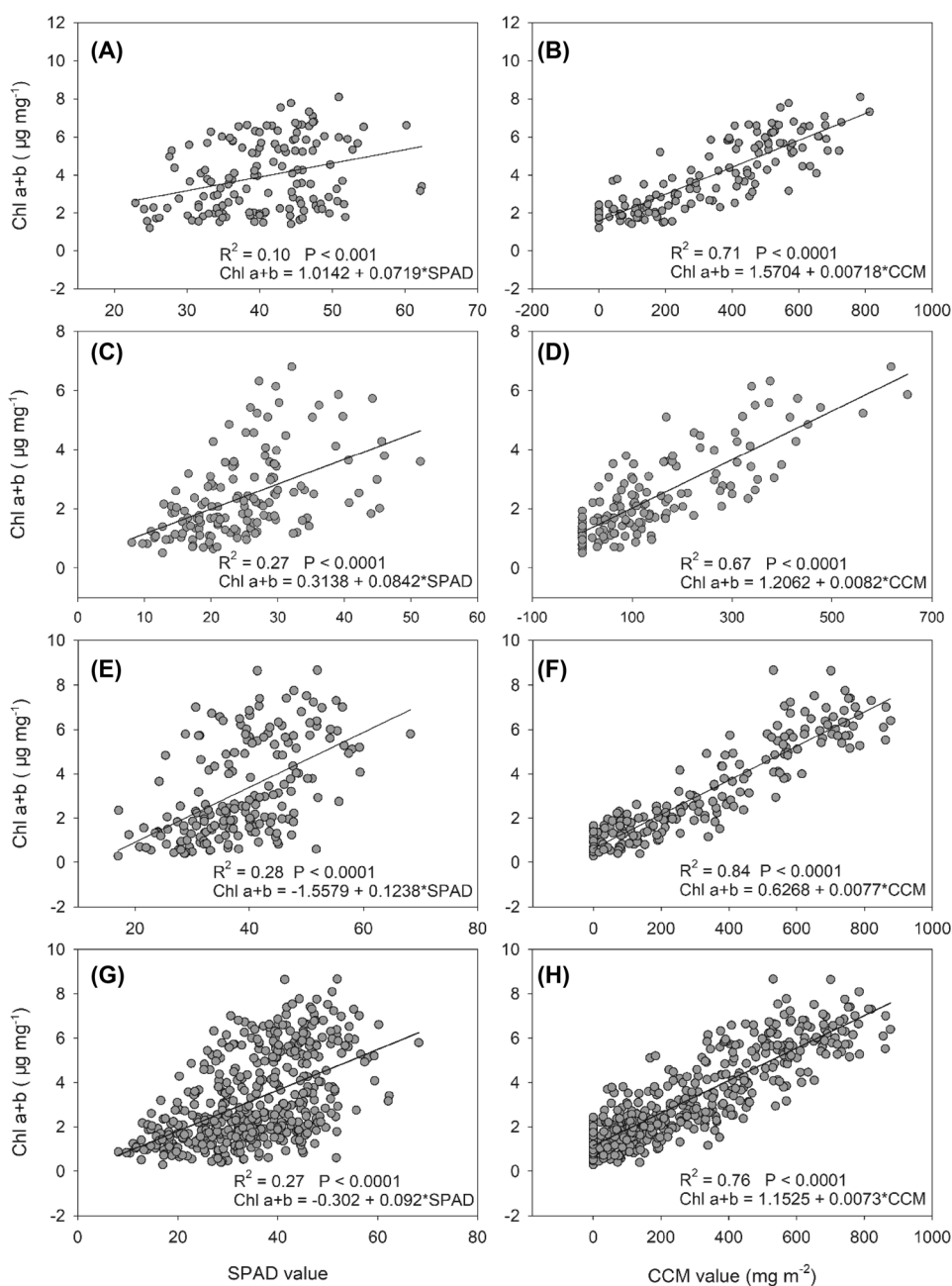
observed in correlation coefficient between the two instruments for most cyanolichens. The degree of fit for chl *a* among cyanolichens was also lower than that among chlorolichens (Figs. 2, 6).

Total carotenoids in cyanolichens

Our results showed a significant linear correlation between SPAD-502 values and total extractable carotenoids among all cyanolichens ($R^2=0.11$ – 0.36), except *L.*

retigera ($R^2=0.006$) (Fig. 7). The CCM-300 instrument was not suitable for the determination of total carotenoids in cyanolichens ($R^2=0.06$ – 0.21). Consistent with SPAD measurements, no significant correlation was observed between CCM-300 values and total extractable carotenoids of *L. retigera*. The extracted carotenoids showed a significant correlation with SPAD-502 values ($R^2=0.06$, $p < 0.001$) but not with CCM-300 values ($p = 0.55$) for all cyanolichen samples. Notably, the degree of fit for cyanolichens was substantially lower than that for chlorolichens.

Fig. 4 Correlation between total chlorophyll (chl *a* + *b*) extracted from chlorolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Lobaria isidiophora*; **c, d** *Nephromopsis pallescens*; **e, f** *Sticta nylanderiana*; **g, h** all chlorolichens



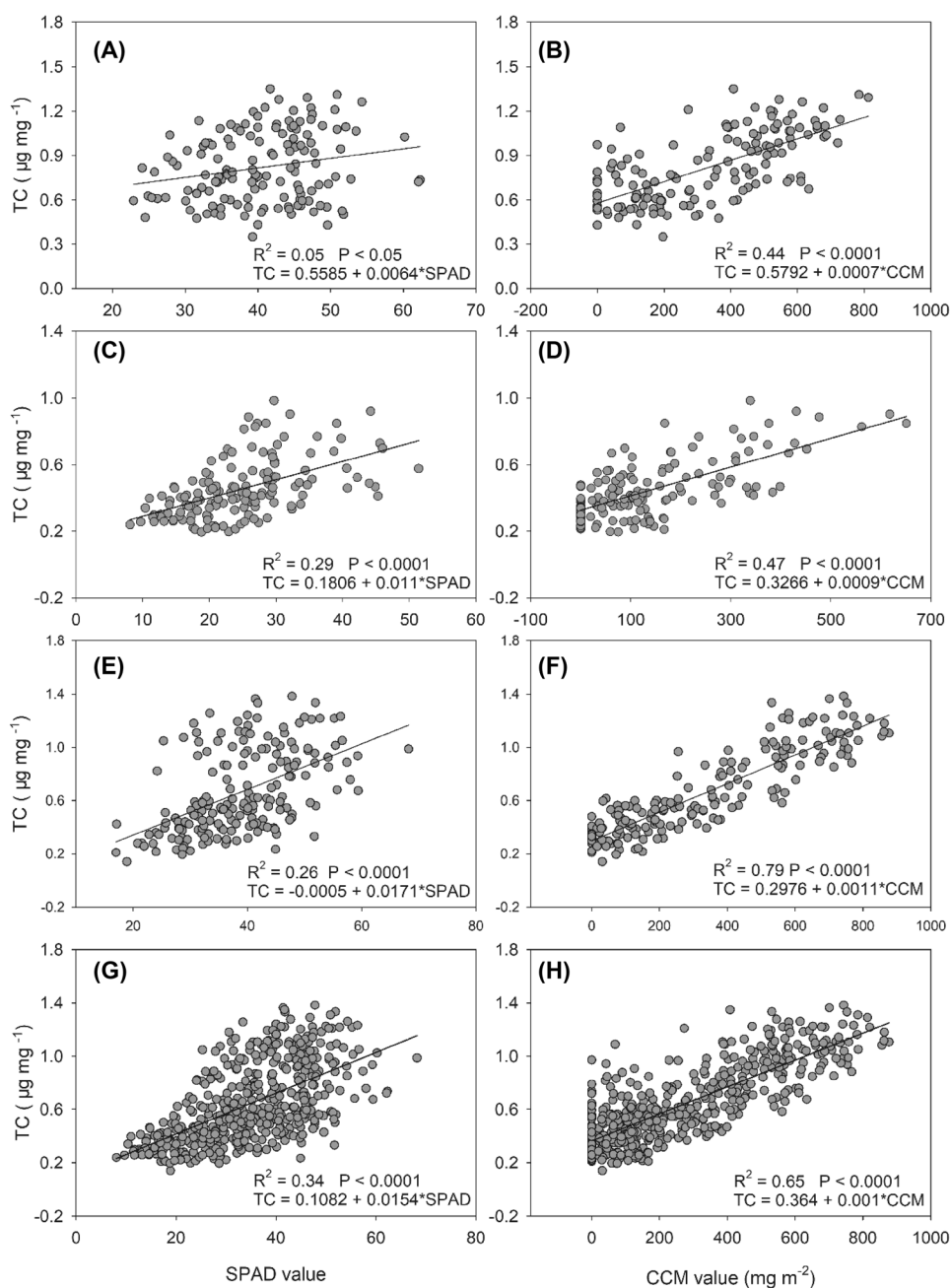
Discussion

The destructive method of plant chlorophyll content measurement is highly inefficient for very small sized samples and for large-scale sampling. The SPAD-502 and CCM-300 chlorophyll meters enable non-destructive quantification of physiological variables and temporal changes among threatened and endangered plant species (Hawkins et al. 2009). This is also true for lichens, which are small and highly sensitive to environmental fluctuations (Nadkarni and Solano 2002). Additionally, the growth rate of many lichen species is extremely slow (Phillips 1969). Therefore, it is reasonable

to assume that the non-destructive chlorophyll meters will be an important analysis tool for lichens in large-scale and long-term field studies.

The relationship between SPAD values and extracted chlorophyll content is linear (Gratani 1992; Esposti et al. 2003; Wang et al. 2004) or nonlinear (Cartelat et al. 2005; Marengo et al. 2009; Coste et al. 2010; Cerovic et al. 2012). Similar linear (Berg and Perkins 2004) and nonlinear (Jifon et al. 2005; Gonçalves and Silva 2008; Cerovic et al. 2012) relationships have also been reported with CCM-200. Our study showed linear relationships between SPAD/CCM values and extracted chlorophyll content for all epiphytic

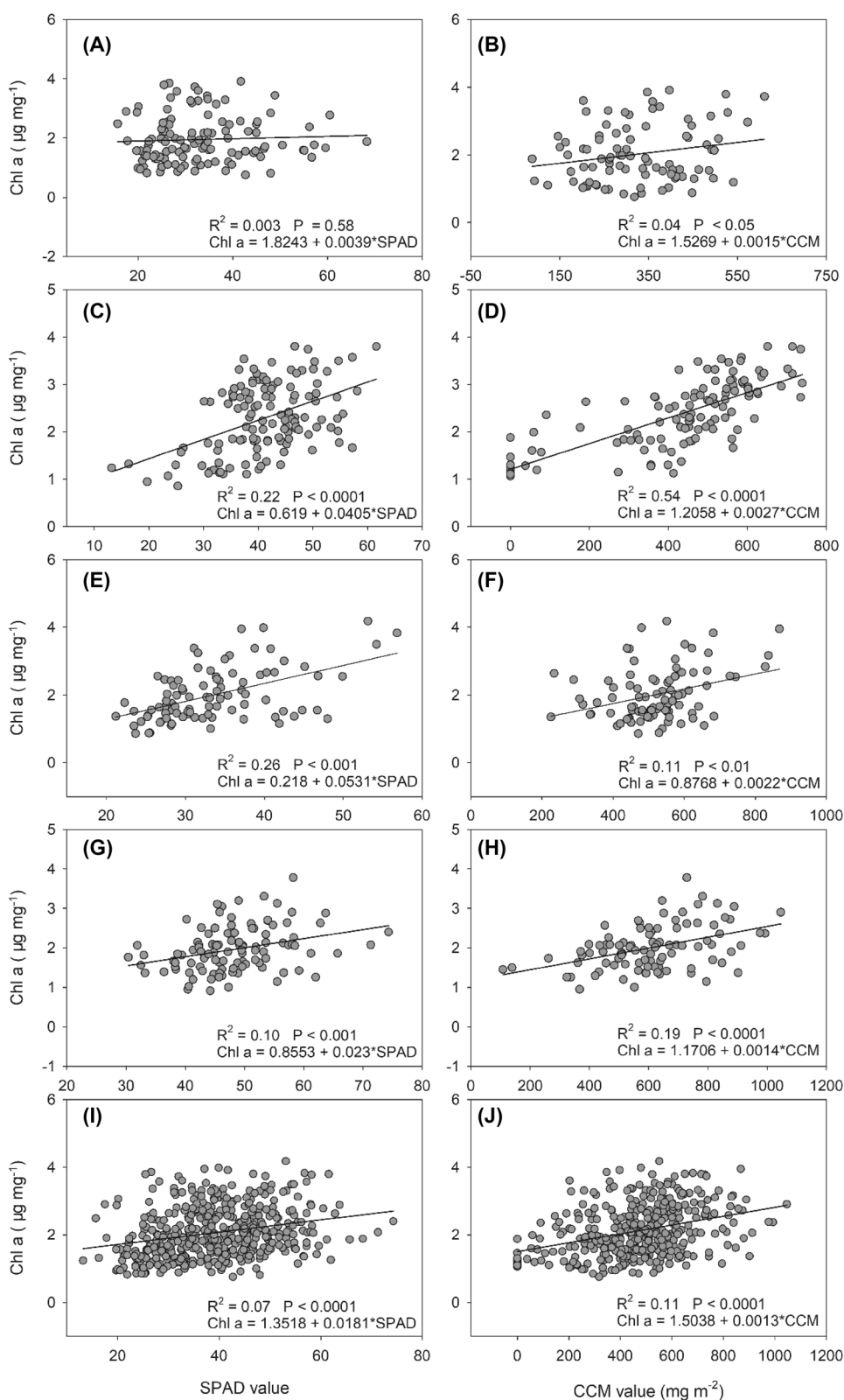
Fig. 5 Correlation between total carotenoids (TC) extracted from chlorolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Lobaria isidiophora*; **c, d** *Nephromopsis pallescens*; **e, f** *Sticta nylanderiana*; **g, h** all chlorolichens



In vascular plants, the correlation between SPAD values and extracted pigment content is generally reported as $\geq 80\%$ (Markwell et al. 1995; Uddling et al. 2007; Ling et al. 2011); similar degree of fit has been reported using CCM-200 (Richardson et al. 2002; Jifon et al. 2005; Gonçalves and Silva 2008). However, in our study, R^2 values for non-vascular epiphytic lichens were relatively low. The R^2 values between the extracted total chlorophyll content and CCM readings were higher than 60% among all chlorolichens and

approximately 80% among some individual species, whereas R^2 values between the extracted pigment content and SPAD readings were generally 20–30%. Moreover, R^2 values for cyanolichens were generally below 40% using both meters, which were lower than those for chlorolichens in our study and vascular plants in previous studies (Markwell et al. 1995; Jifon et al. 2005). Additionally, no significant correlation was observed between the extracted pigment content and SPAD/CCM readings for some cyanolichens, especially the gel-like *L. menziesii*. Although CCM-300 showed a high degree of correlation between the extracted pigment content and CCM values, it was occasionally unable to measure the

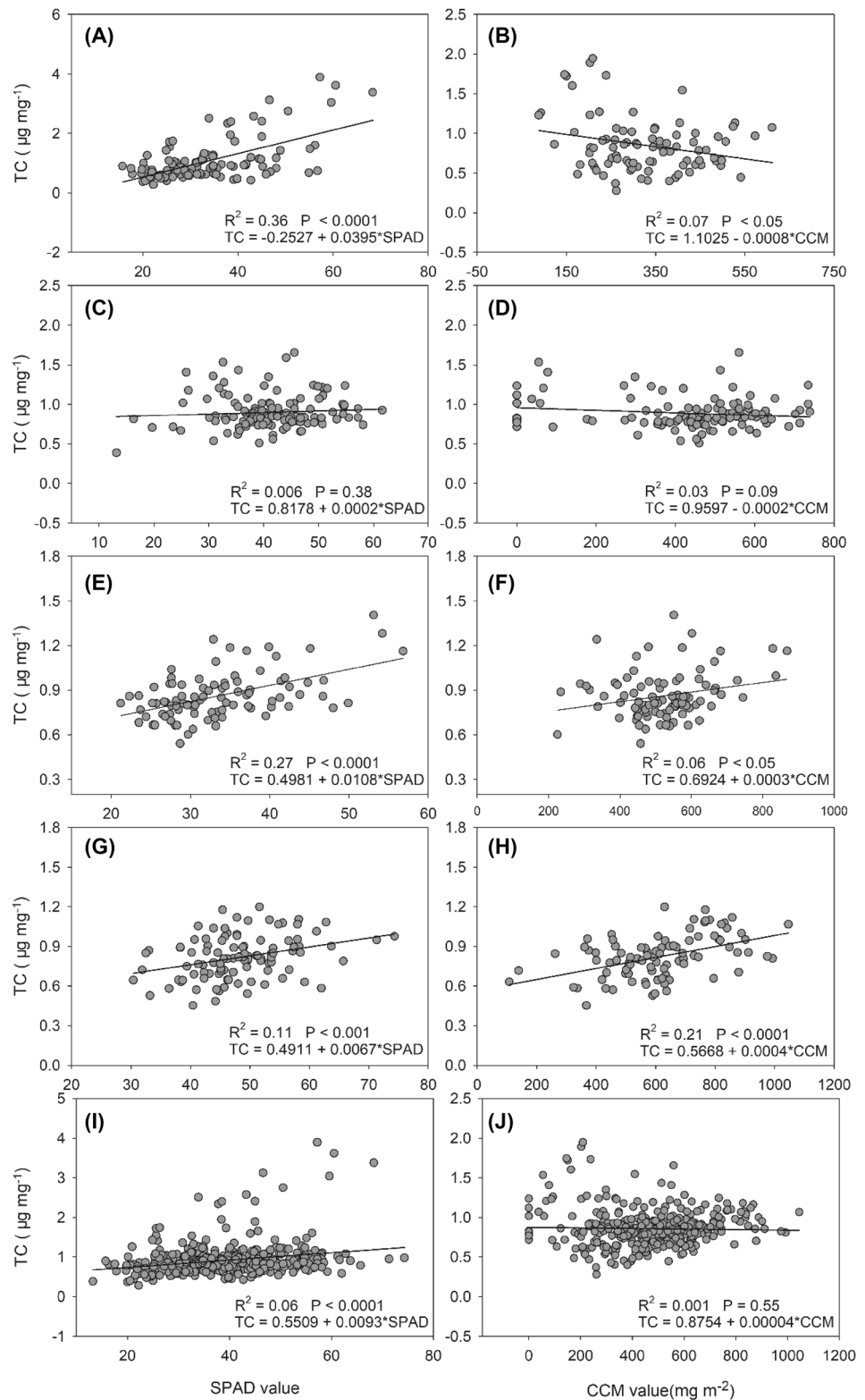
Fig. 6 Correlation between chl *a* extracted from cyanolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Leptogium menziesii*; **c, d** *Lobaria retigera*; **e, f** *Sticta fuliginosa*; **g, h** *Sticta weigelii*; **i, j** all cyanolichens



chlorophyll content of some cyanolichen samples. By contrast, SPAD-502 was able to measure all samples, albeit with a lower degree of fitness.

Several alternative explanations are possible for these results. First, the lower degree of correlation between extracted pigment content and CCM/SPAD values was

Fig. 7 Correlation between total carotenoids extracted from cyanolichens and readings of SPAD-502 (left) and CCM-300 (right). **a, b** *Leptogium menziesii*; **c, d** *Lobaria retigera*; **e, f** *Sticta fuliginosa*; **g, h** *Sticta weigelii*; **i, j** all cyanolichens



largely because pigmented photosynthetic algae are unevenly distributed in lichen thalli, as shown in some lichen species using chlorophyll fluorescence imaging (Barták et al. 2000). Alternatively, the uneven distribution of

algae could be attributed to the different growth patterns, such as apical/marginal, regular, and patchy intercalary growth (Honegger 1993; Barták et al. 2000), which result in irregular intrathalline gradients of physiological activity

at different points within a lichen thallus (Honegger 1993; Barták et al. 2000). Second, the accuracy of instruments was possibly confounded by physical (e.g., surface roughness, color, and water content) and chemical (e.g., secondary compounds) properties of the upper cortex of lichen thallus. For example, the degree of fitness of *S. nylanderiana* with smoother surface was 10–20% higher than that of other species. Color diversity of the upper cortex of lichen species, especially cyanolichens, may also reduce the degree of fit. Desiccated thallus reflects more irradiance than hydrated thallus (Gauslaa 1984; McEvoy et al. 2007; Solhaug et al. 2010), causing reduced transmittance through the desiccated upper cortices (Gauslaa and Solhaug 2001). Additionally, lichens also absorb and/or reflect specific wavelengths through secondary compounds (e.g., atranorin and parietin) deposited as crystals on fungal hyphae in the cortex (Solhaug et al. 2010); however, these may be washed off with acetone before pigment extraction (Barnes et al. 1992). Third, specific anatomical characteristics of certain cyanolichen species (e.g., the gel-like *L. menziesii*) may reduce the accuracy of instruments. Cyanobacteria often form thick extracellular gelatinous sheaths outside the cells (Gauslaa and Coxson 2011), resulting in higher water-holding capacity (Honegger et al. 1996) and lower reflection of specific wavelengths (Solhaug et al. 2010). For example, the maximum water content of *L. menziesii* can reach 1104% of the dry mass in our studied area (Hu et al. 2016). Accordingly, *L. menziesii* showed a lower degree of fit and lowest measurable samples using CCM-300 (Table 1). Moreover, cyanobacteria lack chl *b*, which may also cause errors associated with the reflectance and/or absorbance of radiation by chlorophyll.

Furthermore, our results showed that CCM-300 is capable of measuring the pigment content of chlorolichens, which is consistent with the manufacturer's claims. To compare CCM-300 and SPAD-502 instruments, we analyzed only the foliose macrolichens. Considering the diversity in lichen morphology, such as crustose and fruticose types, CCM-300 may be more suitable for diverse lichen groups. However, our results also indicated that CCM-300 could not determine pigment content in samples with too low chlorophyll content because of extremely high light intensity or arid environments. Because both instruments showed a lower degree of fit for cyanolichens, we propose that both these instruments have limited application for measuring the chlorophyll content of cyanolichens, especially gel-like species. Although SPAD-502 showed a relatively low degree of fit with chlorolichens, it exhibited a certain advantage when measuring the total carotenoid content in cyanolichens (Fig. 6m, n). Moreover, SPAD-502 was able to analyze all foliose lichen samples and produced readable values. Overall, our data suggest that SPAD-502 may be applicable for a wider range of foliose species across various habitats than CCM-300.

In conclusion, this study is the first attempt to explore the relationship between the extracted pigment content and SPAD-502/CCM-300 chlorophyll meter readings in lichens. The degree of fit observed in this study suggests that these portable chlorophyll meters can be used for the measurement of pigment content of lichens, especially chlorolichens, in field experiments. Equations generated in this study will play an important role in predicting the absolute pigment content of the same lichen species or the same symbiotic algae lichen species, and facilitate further research in the field of lichen ecology.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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