

Utilization of O₂ in the metabolic optimization of C₄ photosynthesis

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ABSTRACT

The combined effects of O₂ on net rates of photosynthesis, photosystem II activity, steady-state pool size of key metabolites of photosynthetic metabolism in the C₄ pathway, C₃ pathway and C₂ photorespiratory cycle and on growth were evaluated in the C₄ species *Amaranthus edulis* and the C₃ species *Flaveria pringlei*. Increasing O₂ reduced net CO₂ assimilation in *F. pringlei* due to an increased flux of C through the photorespiratory pathway. However, in *A. edulis* increasing O₂ up to 5–10% stimulated photosynthesis. Analysis of the pool size of key metabolites in *A. edulis* suggests that while there is some O₂ dependent photorespiration, O₂ is required for maximizing C₄ cycle activity to concentrate CO₂ in bundle sheath cells. Therefore, the response of net photosynthesis to O₂ in C₄ plants may result from the balance of these two opposing effects. Under 21 versus 5% O₂, growth of *A. edulis* was stimulated about 30% whereas that of *F. pringlei* was inhibited about 40%.

Key-words: *Amaranthus edulis*; *Flaveria pringlei*; climate change; C₄ photosynthesis; oxygen requirement.

Abbreviations: A, net CO₂ assimilation rate; Ala, alanine; Asp, aspartate; Gly, glycine; Mal, malate; MPR, Mehler peroxidase reaction; NAD-ME and NADP-ME, NAD- and NADP-malic enzyme; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; PGA, 3-phosphoglycerate; PPK, pyruvate Pi dikinase; PSII, photosystem II; Q_A, quinone A; Ru5P, ribulose 5-phosphate; RuBP, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate; Rubisco, ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase; Ser, serine; ϕ_{PSII} , quantum yield of PSII reaction centres.

INTRODUCTION

During photosynthesis, CO₂ fixation via ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) carboxylase yields two phosphoglycerate (PGA) molecules. Of the PGA formed, one-sixth are then converted primarily to carbohydrates while the other five-sixths are used to regenerate RuBP, the precursor of

the C₃ cycle. However, the oxygenase reaction of RuBP carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) with O₂ as substrate, which is competitive with CO₂, yields one PGA and one phosphoglycolate. As a result of the oxygenase reaction, plants evolved a metabolic process – photorespiration – to recover part of the carbon, in which phosphoglycolate is metabolized via the glycolate pathway to glycerate, which can then re-enter the C₃ cycle (Keys 1986; Andrews & Lorimer 1987; Leegood *et al.* 1995). Despite some evidence that photorespiration may play a protective role when excess energy is present (Andrews & Lorimer 1987; Kozaki & Takeba 1996), it is mainly a wasteful process since for every O₂ reacting with RuBP the equivalent of 2 NADPH are utilized (to re-assimilate the PGA and ammonia formed), the same as when one CO₂ reacts with RuBP. Furthermore, one-quarter of the carbon metabolized through the glycolate pathway is lost as CO₂ to the atmosphere (Keys 1986; Andrews & Lorimer 1987; Leegood *et al.* 1995). Indeed, in plants possessing the C₃ type of photosynthesis, reducing the O₂ levels from 21 to 2% or increasing CO₂ to 0.1% can increase the net CO₂ assimilation by up to 50% (Gerbaud & Andre 1987; Tolbert 1994) because of reduced oxygenase activity and photorespiration.

In C₄ plants, CO₂ is first hydrated to HCO₃⁻ in the cytoplasm of mesophyll cells and then fixed into C₄ acids via carboxylation of the C₃ acid phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP). The C₄ acids, malate (Mal) and aspartate (Asp), are transported through the plasmodesmata to an adjacent bundle sheath cell where they are metabolized, releasing CO₂ and pyruvate (Pyr) in the malic enzyme-type species. The CO₂ released in this step is subsequently fixed by Rubisco in the conventional C₃ cycle, whereas Pyr or alanine (Ala) returns to mesophyll chloroplasts and is converted to PEP, reinitiating the C₄ cycle (Edwards & Walker 1983; Hatch 1987). Because of this additional metabolic pathway, C₄ plants are able to concentrate CO₂ in the Rubisco-containing bundle sheath cells (Edwards & Walker 1983) at levels up to three to 20 times higher than atmospheric CO₂ (Jenkins, Furbank & Hatch 1989; Dai, Ku & Edwards 1993; He & Edwards 1996; von Caemmerer & Furbank 1999). Thus, C₄ plants have been able to take advantage of the C₄ mechanism, especially in high light, high temperature and arid conditions (Ehleringer *et al.* 1991; Collatz, Berry & Clark 1998). However, the concentrating mechanism requires the generation of two ATP for conversion of Pyr to PEP with each turn of the C₄ cycle.

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Because of their CO₂ concentrating mechanism, C₄ plants greatly reduce the oxygenase reaction of Rubisco (Edwards & Walker 1983; Hatch 1987; Ogren 1994). In addition, since net CO₂ assimilation rates of C₄ plants are similar at O₂ concentrations of 2 and 20% (Dai *et al.* 1993; Ogren 1994), C₄ plants were thought to be O₂ insensitive (Edwards & Walker 1983; Cerling, Wang & Quade 1993; Dai *et al.* 1993). However, recent studies on single leaves demonstrated that C₄ photosynthesis in all three subtypes of C₄ plants has an optimal O₂ concentration of 5 to 10% (Maroco, Ku & Edwards 1997). At suboptimal O₂ concentrations, C₄ photosynthesis is limited by over-reduction of quinone A (Q_A) and a decrease in the efficiency of Photosystem II (PSII) (Maroco *et al.* 1997). Further studies on mutants of *A. edulis* lacking the C₄ cycle versus wild-type plants have shown that the requirement for O₂ is associated with function of the C₄ cycle (Maroco *et al.* 1998a).

In this study, analyses were made of the effects of O₂ on CO₂ fixation, the reductive state of the acceptor side and quantum yield of PSII (ϕ_{PSII}), photosynthetic metabolite pools, and plant growth in a C₃ versus a C₄ dicot. The results suggest O₂ benefits C₄ photosynthesis by increasing the activity of the C₄ cycle and the CO₂ concentrating mechanism, which limits photorespiration.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Gas-exchange and fluorescence

Fully expanded leaves from 40 to 60-day-old plants of the C₃ species *Flaveria pringlei* Gandoger and the NAD-malic enzyme (NAD-ME) C₄ species *Amaranthus edulis* Speng., grown in a greenhouse with 25/35 °C night/day temperatures, were used for simultaneous measurements of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence (to measure Φ_{PSII} and the reduction state of Q_A) and gas exchange, as described elsewhere (Maroco *et al.* 1997; Maroco *et al.* 1998a). Measurements were made at a leaf temperature of 30 ± 0.2 °C, PPFD of 1000 ± 50 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and a leaf to air vapour pressure difference of 19.1 ± 0.1 Pa kPa⁻¹.

For growth analysis, four plants per treatment were grown for 35 d in plexiglass boxes with supplemented irradiance from sodium vapour lamps (2000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹), day/night temperatures of 35/25 °C, 85% relative humidity and 350 μL L⁻¹ CO₂ and at 5 versus 21% O₂ during the daytime. Roots were kept outside the controlled atmosphere box to avoid the effects of low O₂ over root respiration and function (see Quebedeaux & Hardy 1973). Gas concentrations were obtained by mixing O₂ with N₂ and CO₂. Plants were separated into roots, stems and leaves and their biomass determined after drying in an oven at 50 °C for 62 h.

Metabolite extraction

Ten cm² leaf discs were cut from leaves undergoing steady-state photosynthesis at 0.035% CO₂ and different O₂ concentrations, and immediately frozen using a pressure-driven

freeze-clamp apparatus with copper rods which had been cooled by immersion in liquid N₂. Half of each leaf disc was used to determine the size of the PEP, Pyr, RuBP and ribulose 5-phosphate (Ru5P) pools, and the other half was used for glycine (Gly), Ala, Asp, and serine (Ser) determination. Metabolites were extracted by grinding frozen leaf discs in liquid N₂ to a fine powder and resuspending the powder in cold (4 °C) 5% (v/v) perchloric acid (0.1 g leaf/1 mL). After centrifugation at 12000 g and 4 °C for 10 min, the pellet was washed and recentrifuged, and the supernatant fractions combined and neutralized to pH 7–8 with 5 M K₂CO₃. The neutralized extract was centrifuged again at 12000 g for 5 min at 4 °C and the remaining pigments in the supernatant were removed with activated charcoal (0.1 g mL⁻¹). The charcoal was removed by centrifugation at 2000 g for 2 min at 4 °C and the supernatant stored at –80 °C until assay.

Metabolite assays

Pyr and PEP

The pool sizes of Pyr and PEP were determined spectrophotometrically by following the decrease in absorbance at 340 nm using coupling enzymes. The assay mixture (final volume of 1 mL) contained 300 μL of the metabolite extract, 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 7.5 mM MgSO₄/KCl and 0.16 mM NADH. For determining Pyr, the reaction was initiated by addition of 6 U of lactate dehydrogenase (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and the decrease in absorbance due to the reduction of Pyr to lactate was measured. Then, the PEP pool was determined in the same assay by adding ADP (0.24 mM) and 0.4 U of Pyr kinase (Holldorf 1984).

RuBP and Ru5P

The pool sizes of RuBP and Ru5P were determined radio-metrically by following the incorporation of ¹⁴HCO₃⁻ by Rubisco into acid-stable products. The assay mixture (final volume of 0.18 mL) contained 120 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 15 mM MgCl₂, 15 mM DTT and 12 mM NaH¹⁴CO₃ (26.8 nCi μmol⁻¹). After a 2 min incubation at 30 °C, the reaction was initiated by adding purified spinach Rubisco (final concentration 2 U mL⁻¹). After incubation for 2.5 h at 30 °C, the reaction was stopped with addition of 0.25 mL of 20% (v/v) tricarboxylic acid. The samples were left 10 min at room temperature and then flushed with air for 10 min. Ten ml of scintillation liquid (Bio-Safe II, Research Products International Co., Mount Prospect, IL, USA) was added to the samples and the specific activity counted in a Beckman LS 700 Liquid scintillation counter (Beckman Instruments Co., Irvine, CA, USA). The RuBP pool size was calculated after correction for background counts and counting efficiency. The Ru5P pool was measured in parallel with the RuBP determination by adding 2.8 mM ATP and 2 U mL⁻¹ of phosphoribulokinase (Sigma) to a duplicate assay mixture. The Ru5P pool size was calculated by subtracting the total count of this assay from that of the RuBP assay after correction for background and counting efficiency.

Asp, Ala, Gly and Ser

The amino acid analysis was performed by the Washington State University Bioanalytical Laboratory. Total soluble amino acids were extracted in cold (4 °C) 80% ethanol. After drying in a vacuum drier the residue was redissolved in high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) amino acid buffer and Asp, Ala, Ser and Gly were determined by HPLC using a Beckman 6300 automatic amino acid analyzer (Beckman Instruments Co.). The pool sizes of these four amino acids were then quantified against known amino acid standards.

Statistical analysis

Biochemical data presented are the means of two independent assays of three leaves each. Growth data are presented as the means of four plants per treatment and species. Statistical analysis was done by a GLM ANOVA with $\alpha = 0.05$. Fisher LSD's with $\alpha = 0.05$ are shown as error bars in the figures.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Effects of O₂ on rates of CO₂ fixation and PSII efficiency

In the C₃ plant *Flaveria pringlei*, decreasing the O₂ concentration from 20 to approximately 2% increased net photosynthesis by 50% (Fig. 1) ($P = 0.02$), whereas, at extremely low O₂ levels (0.3%), photosynthesis declined. Inhibition of photosynthesis by anaerobic conditions or very low levels of O₂ in C₃ plants has been reported in several C₃ species (Ziem-Hank & Heber 1980; Dietz, Schreiber & Heber 1985) with evidence that very low O₂ may limit PSII activity and mitochondrial respiration (Dietz *et al.* 1985) and starch synthesis Sharkey & Vassey 1989).

In the C₄ plant *A. edulis*, maximum rates of photosynthesis were obtained at 5 to 10% O₂ whereas at lower O₂ concentrations, net photosynthesis decreased (Fig. 1a) ($P = 0.06$). The decline in photosynthesis at low O₂ is associated with decreased efficiency of PSII reaction centres and with over-reduction of Q_A (Fig. 1b) ($P < 0.050$). The higher O₂ requirement for C₄ photosynthesis results from the activity of the C₄ cycle, since C₄ mutant plants with low C₄ cycle activity show an O₂ response similar to that for C₃ photosynthesis (Maroco *et al.* 1998a). Limited function of the C₄ cycle under low O₂ could account for the decrease in photochemistry and PSII activity and increase in non-photochemical dissipation of energy.

Maintenance of high rates of photosynthesis under atmospheric levels of O₂ (21%) is the result of the CO₂ concentrating mechanism in C₄ plants which greatly reduces photorespiration. Under the current atmospheric conditions, photorespiration in C₄ plants is estimated to be 3 to 7% of net photosynthesis (de Veau & Burris 1989; Dai *et al.* 1993). Our results are in accordance with these estimates (Fig. 1a).

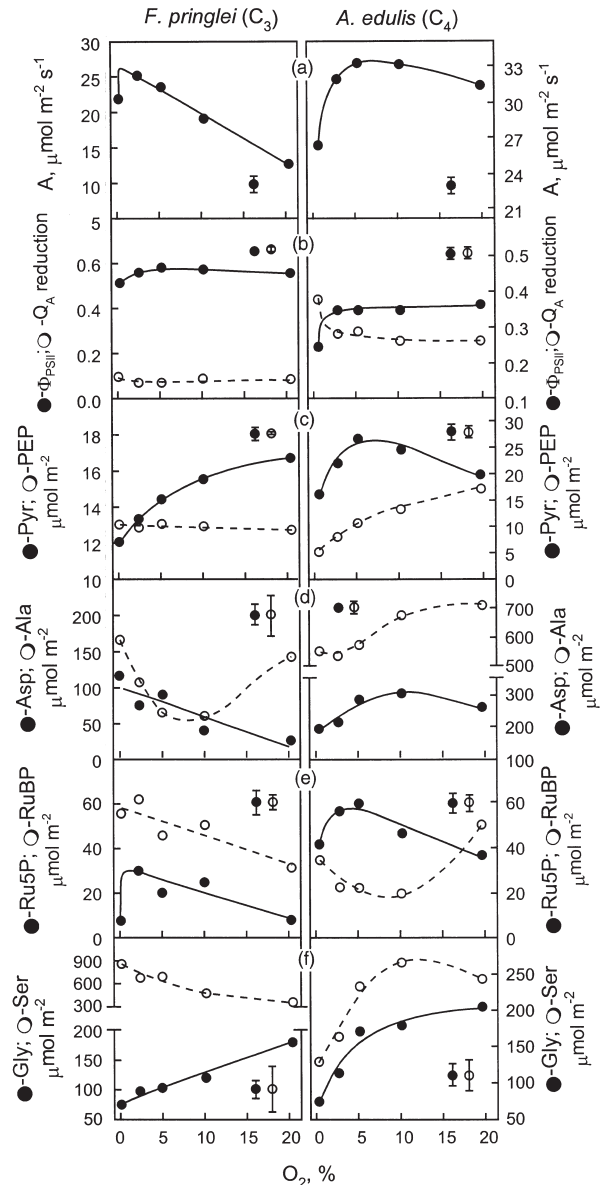


Figure 1. Net CO₂ assimilation (a), quantum yield of PSII (Φ_{PSII}) and reduction state of Q_A (b) and the pool sizes of Pyr and PEP (c), Asp and Ala (d), Ru5P and RuBP (e) and Gly and Ser (f) in *F. pringlei* (C₃) and *A. edulis* (C₄) as a function of O₂ concentration. Data points are the averages of two independent assays of three leaves each. Error bars are the Fisher LSD's with $\alpha = 0.05$.

Effects of O₂ on pool sizes of photosynthetic metabolites

C₄ cycle metabolites

The effects of O₂ on changes in pool sizes of key photosynthetic metabolites in the C₄ *A. edulis* versus C₃ *F. pringlei* were investigated. While O₂ dependent changes in metabolite pools will not give quantitative information on flux through a pathway, it can give some qualitative infor-

mation on pathway function. Very different patterns were observed in the pool sizes of several photosynthetic metabolites in the C_4 versus the C_3 species in response to changes in the level of O_2 . In the C_4 *A. edulis*, increasing O_2 from 0 to 20% led to a 3.5-fold increase in PEP ($P = 0.04$), the initial substrate for CO_2 fixation in the C_4 cycle (Fig. 1b). The size of the Pyr pool, the precursor for forming PEP, increased as O_2 increased from 0 to 5%, but then decreased at O_2 concentrations above 5% (Fig. 1c). Similarly, the Asp and Ala pools increased with increasing O_2 up to 10%, and then levelled off at higher O_2 concentrations (Fig. 1d). In NAD-ME type C_4 plants such as *A. edulis*, Asp is the primary C_4 acid formed in mesophyll cells, and Asp and Ala are the primary metabolites shuttled between the two photosynthetic cell types (Edwards & Walker 1983). Leegood & von Caemmerer (1988) showed that increasing rates of photosynthesis with increasing ambient levels of CO_2 in *A. edulis* was accompanied by a rise in the C_4 cycle metabolites PEP, Asp and Ala. Thus, the increase in the PEP and Asp pools with increasing O_2 suggests O_2 accelerates the C_4 cycle and increases the level of CO_2 pumped into the bundle sheath cells. This could explain the previously observed stimulatory effect of O_2 on C_4 photosynthesis (Glacoleva & Zalensky 1978; Dai *et al.* 1993; Maroco *et al.* 1997; Maroco *et al.* 1998a). In contrast to results obtained with *A. edulis*, in the C_3 *F. pringlei*, the pool size of PEP was independent of O_2 ($P = 0.14$) although there was some increase in the Pyr pool with increasing O_2 concentrations ($P = 0.02$). In leaves of C_3 plants, PEP is synthesized via glycolysis rather than by the ATP-dependent PPDK (pyruvate Pi dikinase), and it is not involved in primary carbon fixation. An increasing Pyr pool might reflect flow of some carbon from photorespiration through the glycolate pathway into Pyr (via hydroxypyruvate or glycerate) (Fig. 1c). Under low O_2 near anaerobic conditions Pyr formation by glycolysis may also be restricted. The linear decrease in the Asp pool with increasing O_2 (Fig. 1d) could occur by increased utilization of Asp as an amino donor in glycolate pathway metabolism.

Further evidence to support the hypothesis that O_2 enhances C_4 cycle activity in *A. edulis* is provided by plotting the effect of O_2 on the ratio of PEP/Pyr (Fig. 2). In *A. edulis* there is a significant linear increase in the PEP/Pyr ratio with increasing O_2 up to 21% ($P < 0.05$), whereas in *F. pringlei* the ratio slowly decreased with increasing O_2 , but was not statistically significant ($P > 0.10$). The increasing PEP : Pyr ratio in response to increasing O_2 (Fig. 2) further suggests O_2 causes an increased efficiency of the C_4 cycle in concentrating CO_2 in the bundle sheath cells. As more PEP is regenerated from Pyr, more atmospheric CO_2 can be fixed and pumped into the bundle sheath cells. The results specifically suggest a limitation on PPDK activity under low O_2 . In this respect, it is of interest that O_2 can stimulate the rate of conversion of pyruvate to PEP via PPDK (Huber & Edwards 1975; Furbank, Badger & Osmond 1983) and induce pseudocyclic electron flow via the Mehler peroxidase reaction (MPR) (Ivanov & Edwards 1997). This suggests O_2 may increase the PEP/Pyr ratio *in*

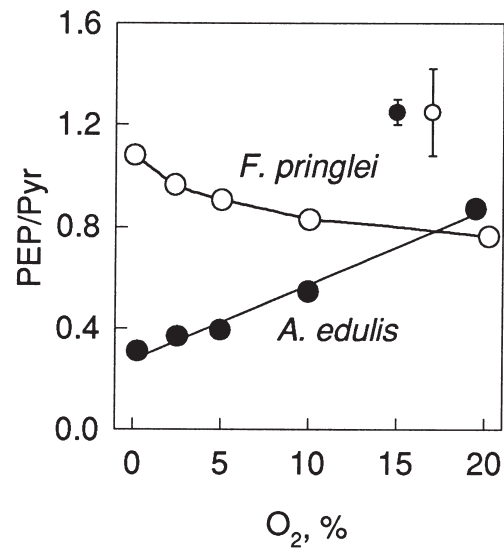


Figure 2. The ratios of PEP to Pyr as a function of O_2 concentration in the C_3 *F. pringlei* and in the C_4 *A. edulis*. Data points are the averages of two independent assays of three leaves each. Error bars are the Fisher LSD's with $\alpha = 0.05$.

in vivo via generating ATP for PPDK in the mesophyll chloroplasts through the MPR. There is also evidence that the state of activation of PPDK falls under very low O_2 (less than 2%) which could also limit the function of the cycle. The activation state of PPDK in maize (C_4) leaves is inhibited by 60 to 70% under anaerobic conditions, compared to the activation state at 2 versus 21% O_2 (Nakamoto & Edwards 1983). Either means of restricting the C_4 pathway under low O_2 , i.e. by limited ATP or decreased activation of PPDK, would limit the delivery of CO_2 to the C_3 cycle, and the associated utilization of reductive power for carbon assimilation. This could explain the observed decrease in PSII activity and increased non-photochemical dissipation of energy under low O_2 .

Amaranth is an NAD-ME type species, and there is evidence that the MPR is active *in vivo* and in other species of this subgroup based on O_2 isotope exchange analysis (Furbank & Badger 1982) and O_2 dependent increase in PSII activity under high CO_2 (Laisk & Edwards 1998; Maroco *et al.* 1998b). However, results of these studies also indicate that the MPR is not sufficient to provide all the additional ATP needed to support the C_4 cycle and that cyclic photophosphorylation must contribute. In this respect, it is of interest that O_2 is also required for the optimum function of cyclic photophosphorylation around Photosystem I as O_2 is required to prevent over-reduction of electron carriers on the acceptor side of PSII, which can inhibit cyclic electron flow (Ziem-Hank & Heber 1980; Dietz *et al.* 1985). In NAD-ME type species such as *A. edulis* the only energy requirement for conversion of Ala and CO_2 to Asp in mesophyll cells is 2 ATP through the combined activities of PPDK and adenylate kinase. This results in a high demand for ATP which can be met through the MPR and cyclic photophosphorylation.

C₃ cycle metabolites: Ru5P, RuBP

In *A. edulis*, the RuBP pool decreased as O₂ increased from 0 to 5–10% (Fig. 1e), where the rate of photosynthesis reached a maximum. This is consistent with an O₂-dependent increase in C₄ cycle activity and in the CO₂ level in bundle sheath cells. In support of this interpretation, the RuBP pool is known to decrease as the rate of photosynthesis in *A. edulis* and *Zea mays* increases with increasing atmospheric levels of CO₂ (Leegood & von Caemmerer 1988, 1989). The basis for the increase in RuBP pool at 20% O₂ in *A. edulis*, which occurs as the rate of photosynthesis slightly decreases, is uncertain (Fig. 1e). It could be explained if there were some restriction of metabolism through the glycolate pathway with increasing O₂ which resulted in feedback inhibition of catalysis by Rubisco.

The increase in the RuBP and Ru5P pools under decreasing O₂ in the C₃ plant *F. pringlei* is consistent with other evidence on the O₂ effects on C₃ photosynthesis. A similar effect on the RuBP pool was reported with decreasing O₂ from 21 to 2% in the C₃ species *Raphanus sativus* (von Caemmerer & Edmondson 1986), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Chastain & Ogren 1985), *Spinacea oleracea* (Chastain & Ogren 1985) and *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Badger, Sharkey & von Caemmerer 1984). An increase in the RuBP pool under low O₂ may be a general phenomenon associated with a reduction in photorespiration, but in some cases it may be related to feedback inhibition of photosynthesis (Sun, Edwards & Okita 1999).

Photorespiratory metabolites: Gly and Ser

In the C₄ *A. edulis*, increasing O₂ caused an increase in the Gly and Ser pool which reached a maximum at about 5% O₂, consistent with the occurrence of some photorespiration (Fig. 1f). Relevant to this, in a study with maize (C₄) leaf discs when O₂ was increased from 1 to 50% there was an increase in the Gly pool (Marek & Stewart 1983); and, in *Flaveria bidentis* (C₄) decreasing CO₂ caused a rise in Gly (Leegood & von Caemmerer 1994), which was taken as evidence for the occurrence of photorespiration in C₄ plants. Direct evidence for photorespiration in maize was obtained using ¹⁸O₂ where the rate of synthesis of glycolate and Gly increased as O₂ was increased from 2, to 21, to 40%; as expected, rates of synthesis of these metabolites were much lower in maize than in the C₃ species wheat (de Veau & Burris 1989). With increasing O₂, photorespiration in C₄ plants may be limited in part by an O₂-dependent enhancement of the C₄ cycle and increased CO₂ levels in the bundle sheath cells, limiting RuBP oxygenase activity.

In *F. pringlei*, there was a linear increase in the Gly pool with increasing O₂ up to 21%. This corresponds to a linear decrease in rates of CO₂ fixation and in the RuBP pool in *F. pringlei* with increasing levels of O₂ above 2% (Figs 1a & e), which is consistent with reduction of photosynthesis due to increased photorespiration. *Flaveria pringlei* has a high pool of Ser at low O₂, where photorespiration is expected to be low. In wheat (C₃) the rate of synthesis of

Ser, measured by incorporation of ¹⁸O₂, is five-fold higher at 21% O₂ compared with 2% O₂ as expected for O₂-dependent synthesis of Ser by photosynthesis; yet the size of the Ser pool was similar at the two O₂ levels (de Veau & Burris 1989). Thus, changes in the Gly pool may be a better indicator of the occurrence of photorespiration than changes in the Ser pool.

In summary, these results from analysis of metabolite pools suggest that while some photorespiration occurs in *A. edulis* in response to increasing O₂, O₂ is also utilized for maximizing the C₄ cycle activity. The net CO₂ assimilation response of *A. edulis* with respect to varying O₂ may result from the balance of these two opposing effects of O₂. This is illustrated in Fig. 3, where O₂ is proposed to increase the production of ATP in mesophyll chloroplasts of NAD-ME type species and to increase the conversion of Pyr to PEP.

Among the three C₄ subgroups, including C₄ monocots and dicots, there is a similar requirement for O₂ (5–10%) to obtain maximum rates of photosynthesis, and at lower O₂ levels there is a decrease in PSII yield and over-reduction of Q_A (Maroco *et al.* 1997; Fig. 1). A common feature may be O₂ dependence for C₄ cycle function in relation to PPK (common to all subgroups) and an O₂ requirement in relation to cyclic/pseudocyclic photophosphorylation, which is considered necessary to meet the extra demands for ATP in C₄ plants (Edwards & Walker 1983; Hatch 1987; Furbank, Jenkins & Hatch 1990). However, there are obvious differences in the way the additional demands for ATP are met in the C₄ subtypes. For example, in NADP-ME type species, there is a relatively high demand for ATP in bundle sheath chloroplasts which is provided by cyclic photophosphorylation. In this case, the C₄ cycle primarily shuttles malate to bundle sheath cells and Pyr to mesophyll cells. Malate decarboxylation via NADP-ME donates both CO₂ and reductive power to bundle sheath chloroplasts. The primary photochemical function of bundle sheath chloroplasts is generation of ATP by cyclic photosynthesis for CO₂ fixation in the C₃ pathway. Further studies on the effect of O₂ on photochemistry and metabolite pools (both *in vivo* and with isolated cells) will be required to elucidate the mechanism of

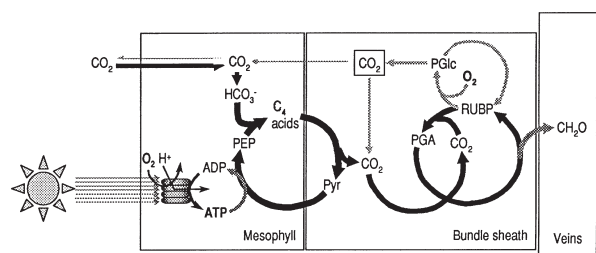


Figure 3. Schematic integration of the O₂ effects on C₄ photosynthesis. NAD-ME type C₄ plants like *A. edulis* are proposed to make use of O₂ to effectively supply the extra ATP required by the C₄ cycle in mesophyll chloroplasts to concentrate CO₂ in the bundle sheath cells and to reduce the reaction of O₂ via RuBP oxygenase.

O₂ enhancement of C₄ photosynthesis in different C₄ species.

Effect of 5 versus 21% O₂ on biomass

The effects of growth under 5 versus 21% O₂ on accumulated biomass of *F. pringlei* versus *A. edulis* were evaluated (Fig. 4). In *F. pringlei*, the biomass of the low-O₂ grown plants was 40% higher compared to that of the high-O₂ grown plants ($P < 0.01$), which can be interpreted as low O₂ enhancement of growth in this C₃ species by restriction of photorespiration. In contrast, an opposite response was observed in *A. edulis*. Growth under 21% O₂ was enhanced by about 30% compared with that at 5% O₂ ($P = 0.01$). In a study with another Amaranth species, *A. paniculatus*, growth under 21% O₂ was stimulated up to 75% compared with that under 4% O₂ (Knacker & Schaub 1982); although, the C₄ species *Panicum miliaceum* (another NAD-ME type species) had similar vegetative growth under 10, 21 and 40% O₂ (Quebedeaux & Chollet 1977). In *Sorghum bicolor* (NADP-ME type) there was no apparent effect of O₂ on vegetative growth over a range of 5 to 21%, although there was considerable variation between individual treatments (Quebedeaux & Hardy 1973). Enhancement of growth, or lack of inhibition of growth, of C₄ plants by O₂ levels above 5 or 10% may, in part, be the result of O₂ having a positive effect on the C₄ cycle.

The negative effect of O₂ on photosynthesis and growth in the C₃ *F. pringlei* is in contrast to the positive effect of O₂ on photosynthesis and growth in *A. edulis*. However, in *A. edulis* the maximum rates of photosynthesis were obtained at 5 to 10% O₂, whereas growth under 21% O₂ was higher than under 5% O₂. The measurements on photosynthesis were made on individual mature leaves over the course of a few hours, whereas the long-term exposure to different O₂ levels during growth included whole plants and

leaves at different stages of development. Thus, the optimum level of O₂ for enhancement of photosynthesis during growth of whole plants of *A. edulis* may be different than that under short-term experiments with individual leaves. Alternatively, there may be some other positive effects of O₂ on growth which are not linked to photosynthesis, as previously reported for reproductive growth (Quebedeaux & Hardy 1973). Even the O₂-dependent rise in PEP might have consequences other than in the C₄ cycle. PEP is also a substrate for the shikimic acid pathway, leading to the formation of secondary and defence compounds that may render these plants more resistant to environmental stresses and thus improve growth (Weaver & Herrman 1997).

In conclusion, in this study we show that while increasing O₂ results in some photorespiration in the C₄ species *A. edulis*, it is also required for maximizing the function of its C₄ cycle. C₄ plants evolved in response to O₂-dependent losses through photorespiration, which was a selection pressure (a function of the concentration of CO₂ and O₂ in the atmosphere, the temperature-dependent CO₂/O₂ solubility ratio and Rubisco kinetic properties). The positive effect of O₂, which is suggested to improve C₄ cycle function, may contribute to the ability of C₄ plants to grow without O₂ inhibition, or even with O₂ enhancement, under current, ambient levels of O₂.

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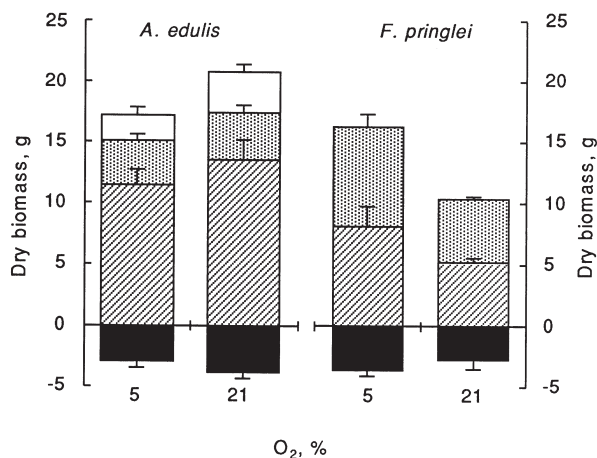


Figure 4. Accumulated dry biomass in *A. edulis* (C₄) and *F. pringlei* (C₃) grown at 5 and 21% O₂. ■, roots; ▨, stems; ▩, leaves; □, inflorescences. Error bars are the SE of the means.

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