

# Photosynthesis Research

## Quantifying and monitoring functional Photosystem II and the stoichiometry of the two photosystems in leaf segments: Approaches and approximations

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>Given its unique function in light-induced water oxidation and its susceptibility to photoinactivation during photosynthesis, Photosystem II (PS II) is often the focus of studies of photosynthetic structure and function, particularly in environmental stress conditions. Here we review four approaches for quantifying or monitoring PS II functionality or the stoichiometry of the two photosystems in leaf segments, scrutinizing the approximations in each approach. (1) Chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence parameters are convenient to derive, but the information-rich signal suffers from the localized nature of its detection in leaf tissue. (2) The gross O<sub>2</sub> yield per single-turnover flash in CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched air is a more direct measurement of the functional content, assuming that each functional PS II evolves one O<sub>2</sub> molecule after four flashes. However, the gross O<sub>2</sub> yield per single-turnover flash (multiplied by four) could over-estimate the content of functional PS II if mitochondrial respiration is lower in flash illumination than in darkness. (3) The cumulative delivery of electrons from PS II to P700+ (oxidized primary donor in PS I) after a flash is added to steady background far-red light is a whole-tissue measurement, such that a single linear correlation with functional PS II applies to leaves of all plant species investigated so far. However, the magnitude obtained in a simple analysis (with the signal normalized to the maximum photo-oxidizable P700 signal), which should equal the ratio of PS II to PS I centers, was too small to match the independently-obtained photosystem stoichiometry. Further, an under-estimation of functional PS II content could occur if some electrons were intercepted before reaching PS I. (4) The electrochromic signal from leaf segments appears to reliably quantify the photosystem stoichiometry, either by progressively photoinactivating PS II or suppressing PS I via photo-oxidation of a known fraction of the P700 with steady far-red light. Together, these approaches have the potential for quantitatively probing PS II in vivo in leaf segments, with prospects for application of the latter two approaches in the field.</p>

1 REVIEW

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38 **Abstract**

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40 photosynthesis, Photosystem II (PS II) is often the focus of studies of photosynthetic structure and function,

41 particularly in environmental stress conditions. Here we review four approaches for quantifying or

42 monitoring PS II functionality or the stoichiometry of the two photosystems in leaf segments, scrutinizing the

43 approximations in each approach. (1) Chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence parameters are convenient to derive, but

44 the information-rich signal suffers from the localized nature of its detection in leaf tissue. (2) The gross O<sub>2</sub>

45 yield per single-turnover flash in CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched air is a more direct measurement of the functional content,

46 assuming that each functional PS II evolves one O<sub>2</sub> molecule after four flashes. However, the gross O<sub>2</sub> yield

47 per single-turnover flash (multiplied by four) could over-estimate the content of functional PS II if

48 mitochondrial respiration is lower in flash illumination than in darkness. (3) The cumulative delivery of

49 electrons from PS II to P700<sup>+</sup> (oxidized primary donor in PS I) after a flash is added to steady background far-

50 red light is a whole-tissue measurement, such that a single linear correlation with functional PS II applies to

51 leaves of all plant species investigated so far. However, the magnitude obtained in a simple analysis (with the

52 signal normalized to the maximum photo-oxidizable P700 signal), which should equal the ratio of PS II to PS

53 I centers, was too small to match the independently-obtained photosystem stoichiometry. Further, an under-

54 estimation of functional PS II content could occur if some electrons were intercepted before reaching PS I. (4)

55 The electrochromic signal from leaf segments appears to reliably quantify the photosystem stoichiometry,

56 either by progressively photoinactivating PS II or suppressing PS I via photo-oxidation of a known fraction of

57 the P700 with steady far-red light. Together, these approaches have the potential for quantitatively probing

58 PS II *in vivo* in leaf segments, with prospects for application of the latter two approaches in the field.

59

60 **Key words:** Chlorophyll fluorescence • electrochromic signal • oxygen evolution • P700 • Photosystem II

61 • PS II/ PS I stoichiometry

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## 63 Abbreviations

64	Chl	Chlorophyll
65	Cyt	Cytochrome
66	DCMU	3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea
67	ECS	Electrochromic signal
68	$F_o, F_m$	Chl fluorescence corresponding to open and closed PS II traps in the dark-adapted state, respectively
69		
70	$F_v / F_m$	$= (F_m - F_o) / F_m$
71	P700	Special Chl pair in the PS I reaction center
72	PQ	Plastoquinone
73	PS I, II	Photosystem I, II, respectively
74	$\phi_{PSII}$	Effective photochemical yield of PS II
75	$Q_A, Q_B$	primary, secondary quinone acceptor in PS II, respectively
76	$qP$	Indicator of the oxidation state of $Q_A$
77	$\Sigma$	Integrated flash-induced transient flow of electrons from PS II to P700 <sup>+</sup>

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## 79 Introduction

80 Photosynthesis begins with the absorption of light by Photosystem II (PS II) and PS I complexes that span  
81 thylakoid membranes. Light induces the oxidation of water at a catalytic site within the PS II complex, in a  
82 unique reaction that occurs at a thermodynamic driving force needing only a low over-potential:



84 Because of its water-splitting ability, PS II is the subject of intensive and extensive studies (Wydrzynski and  
85 Satoh 2005). In addition, PS II is “intrinsically suicidal” (van Gorkom and Schelvis 1993) during its normal  
86 function (Ewart 1896; Powles 1984; Krause 1988; Barber 1995; Adir et al. 2003; Vass and Cser 2011), and  
87 needs to be repaired after photoinactivation (Kyle et al. 1984; Prásil et al. 1992; Aro et al. 1993; Chow 1994;  
88 Melis 1999; Andersson and Aro 2001; Chow and Aro 2005). For this reason, it is often the most vulnerable  
89 component under environmental stress.

90 Photoinactivation of PS II is sometimes termed chronic photoinhibition to distinguish it from  
91 dynamic photoinhibition in which regulated energy dissipation in the form of heat helps in photoprotection  
92 (Osmond and Grace 1995). Both chronic and dynamic photoinhibition lead to a decline in photochemical  
93 efficiency. Photoinactivation of PS II has been thought to be initiated when the light absorbed by chlorophyll  
94 (Chl) and other accessory pigments is in excess of that needed for the prevailing rate of photosynthesis; this is

95 called the excess-energy mechanism of photoinactivation of PS II (Ögren et al. 1984, Demmig and Björkman  
96 1987, Osmond 1994; Kato et al. 2003). Another school of thought has proposed that a two-step mechanism  
97 leads to photoinactivation of PS II: the initial step is the absorption of light by the Mn cluster that catalyzes  
98 water-splitting within PS II, resulting in Mn being dislodged from the catalytic site; subsequent absorption of  
99 light by Chl molecules then results in photoinactivation of PS II (Hakala et al. 2005, Ohnishi et al. 2005; see  
100 also Takahashi and Badger 2011). These two mechanisms, however, need not be mutually exclusive. Indeed,  
101 both mechanisms can be observed when leaves are illuminated by different coloured lights that are  
102 differentially absorbed by Chl and Mn (Oguchi et al. 2009). Similarly, the photoinhibition gradient inside a  
103 leaf exposed to high light of different colours can be explained only when both mechanisms are involved  
104 (Oguchi et al. 2011).

105         The quantum yield of photoinactivation of PS II is of the order of 1 PS II photoinactivated after leaf  
106 tissue has absorbed  $10^7$  photons (Park et al. 1995b), varying somewhat according to environmental conditions  
107 and plant species (Chow et al. 2005). While this quantum yield appears small, a square metre of leaf area  
108 (containing about  $1 \mu\text{mol}$  PS II) may receive  $>2 \times 10^7 \mu\text{mol}$  photons during a sunny day. Therefore, the entire  
109 population of PS II may undergo photoinactivation during a sunny day. If the rate of repair cannot keep up  
110 with the rate of photoinactivation, net loss of functional PS II ensues. In that case, light is still absorbed by  
111 non-functional PS II complexes which do not split water, resulting in an overall loss of quantum efficiency of  
112 photosynthesis. Not surprisingly, therefore, there is a continuing interest in measuring or monitoring the  
113 functionality of PS II *in vivo*.

114         PS II and PS I work in series in linear electron transport, but PS I also drives cyclic electron flow.  
115 Given the extreme lateral heterogeneity in the distribution of the two photosystems (Andersson and Anderson  
116 1980), there is no reason to expect equal or fixed numbers of the two photosystems. Melis and Brown (1980)  
117 first reported variable ratios of the two photosystems. Indeed, the photosystem stoichiometry is adjusted by  
118 the spectral quality of the growth light environment, thereby optimizing the quantum yield of oxygen  
119 evolution in that particular light environment (Chow et al. 1990a). In general, either the antenna size of each  
120 photosystem or the content of each photosystem, or both, may vary depending on growth conditions; in steady  
121 limiting light when the quantum efficiency of both photosystems is maximal, the quantum efficiency of linear  
122 electron flow will be optimal when the antenna size of PS II multiplied by the PS II content equals the antenna  
123 size of PS I multiplied by the PS I content. Notwithstanding the variability of the photosystem stoichiometry,  
124 an accurate value for the stoichiometry of the two photosystems is needed, for example, for predicting the

125 input of electrons to and the output of electrons from the cytochrome (Cyt) *bf* complex on applying single-  
126 turnover flashes. Thus, there is also a need to quantify the stoichiometry of the two photosystems, particularly  
127 since the stoichiometry has been a controversial topic (Fan et al. 2007).

128 In this mini-review, the advantages and deficiencies of four approaches for quantifying or monitoring  
129 functional PS II or the stoichiometry of the two photosystems *in situ* in leaf tissue will be discussed. These  
130 involve measurements of (1) Chl fluorescence, (2) the oxygen yield per single-turnover, saturating flash  
131 applied repetitively, (3) the cumulative delivery of electrons from PS II to PS I after a single-turnover,  
132 saturating flash, and (4) the electrochromic signal (ECS) induced by a single-turnover, saturating flash. All  
133 are *in vivo* measurements, so they reflect PS II functionality *in situ*, without any potential complication  
134 associated with isolation of thylakoids. This mini-review is largely based on work done in Canberra over a  
135 number of years, mostly during separate visits of most of the co-authors. Emphasis will be given to the  
136 approximations made to arrive at the values, and the pitfalls to beware.

### 137 **Approach 1. Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters**

138 At physiological temperature, Chl *a* fluorescence is predominantly emitted by PS II, with relatively little  
139 contribution from PS I, with the exception of  $F_o$  measurement (Pfündel 1998) where  $F_o$  is the Chl  
140 fluorescence yield when all PS II traps are open. The ratio of variable to maximum Chl fluorescence yield  
141 ( $F_v/F_m$ ) gives the photochemical efficiency of PS II in the dark relaxed state (Demmig and Björkman 1987).  
142 As PS II is progressively photoinhibited, there is a gradual accumulation of non-functional PS II complexes  
143 which, although still absorbing light, are unable to perform useful photochemical conversion. Therefore, the  
144 overall photochemical efficiency is reduced. The decline in  $F_v/F_m$  is correlated with the ability of PS II in  
145 pre-photoinhibited leaf segments to evolve oxygen as revealed by the oxygen yield per repetitive single-  
146 turnover flashes (Fig. 1, taken from Losciale et al. 2008), a technique based on the assumption that each  
147 functional PS II is able to evolve one O<sub>2</sub> molecule after four flashes (see next section); however, the  
148 correlation varies among the various plant species examined, such that a combined plot is highly scattered and  
149 sometimes curvilinear (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, for a given plant species, the ratio  $F_v/F_m$  is a sensitive and  
150 convenient parameter to quantify photoinactivation of PS II, being able to discern, for example during  
151 photosynthetic induction, (1) the exacerbation of photoinactivation of PS II and (2) the absence of reciprocity

152 of irradiance and duration of illumination, i.e., equal light dose does not necessarily give the same extent of  
153 photoinactivation (Shen et al. 1996).

154 Havaux et al. (1991) and Walters and Horton (1993) advocated the use of the parameter  $1/F_o - 1/F_m$   
155 as representing charge separation in PS II. The parameter  $1/F_o - 1/F_m$  could indeed be linearly correlated  
156 with the oxygen yield per repetitive single-turnover flash (Park et al. 1995a; Kim et al. 2001; Lee et al. 2001;  
157 He and Chow 2003). Unfortunately, the linear regression seldom passed through the origin, with the rare  
158 exception of *Capsicum* on occasions (Lee et al. 2001; He and Chow 2003). Nevertheless, once the linear  
159 regression line is known for a particular plant species grown in a given set of conditions, the parameter  $1/F_o -$   
160  $1/F_m$  can be used to infer the functional PS II content when the oxygen yield per flash cannot be used. For  
161 example, in conditions where PS I is preferentially photoinhibited, the plastoquinone (PQ) pool is more  
162 chemically reduced during repetitive flash illumination, such that  $Q_A$  (the primary quinone acceptor in PS II)  
163 is also somewhat reduced. In such conditions, the oxygen yield per flash under-estimates the functional PS II  
164 content, and Kim et al. (2001) had to rely on  $1/F_o - 1/F_m$  as an alternative measure of PS II content in  
165 cucumber leaf segments photoinactivated under conditions of moderately low light and chilling temperature.

166 Because of the ease of measurement,  $1/F_o - 1/F_m$ , once calibrated against oxygen yield per repetitive  
167 flash, could be conveniently used to monitor the recovery of PS II from photoinactivation in a large number of  
168 leaf segments. By contrast, measurement of the oxygen yield per repetitive flash with a gas-phase Clark  
169 electrode is typically very time-consuming. Thus, it was relatively easy to investigate the time course of  
170 recovery using  $1/F_o - 1/F_m$  measured in a large number of *Capsicum* leaf segments, and to derive the rate  
171 coefficients of photoinactivation ( $k_i$ ) and of repair ( $k_r$ ) (He and Chow 2003). In particular, it was shown that  
172  $k_i$  was directly proportional to irradiance (Lee et al. 2001; He and Chow 2003), in confirmation of  
173 observations made by others (Tyystjärvi and Aro 1996; Lee et al. 1999; Kato et al. 2003) and according to  
174 expectation arising from the reciprocity law (Lee et al. 1999). Further, it was shown that  $k_r$  was already high  
175 at a low irradiance, increasing further at moderately high irradiance, but decreasing at much higher irradiance  
176 (He and Chow 2003) probably due to oxidative stress (Nishiyama et al. 2001).

177 Photoinactivation of PS II is frequently accompanied by an increase in  $F_o$ . This fluorescence  
178 parameter indicates PS II reaction centre dysfunction (Franklin et al. 1992; Park et al. 1995a). Trissl and

179 Lavergne (1995) expressed  $F_o$  in terms of the rate coefficients of (1) loss of excitation energy in the antenna  
180 and (2) forward and backward electron transfers within PS II. For example, a decrease in the rate coefficient  
181 for charge separation ( $k_a$ ) or charge stabilization ( $k_b$ ) increases  $F_o$  (symbols as used by Fan et al. 2009).  
182 However, in applying the expression of Trissl and Lavergne (1995) for  $F_o$  to photoinhibited leaves, Chow and  
183 Park (1995) assumed that there was a uniform population of “average” PS II with the “average” rate  
184 coefficients, although in fact there was a mixture of functional and non-functional PS II complexes with  
185 separate sets of rate coefficients. This assumption needs to be borne in mind when interpreting changes in  $F_o$   
186 after photoinhibition.

187           Although modern instrumentation has greatly facilitated the measurement of Chl fluorescence yield,  
188 a fundamental limitation exists in regard to sampling of the signal in leaf tissue. The excitation light is readily  
189 attenuated as it penetrates leaf tissue, such that the fluorescence signal predominantly comes from relatively  
190 shallow depths. Further, any fluorescence signal emitted by Chl *a* molecules in deeper tissue is likely to be  
191 re-absorbed on its way to the detection light guide located near the leaf surface. Therefore, the detected  
192 fluorescence signal is only representative of chloroplasts at a certain depth. Unfortunately, the detection  
193 depth is not even fixed. For example, as PS II is progressively photoinhibited at shallow depths, the  
194 contribution of the signal from greater depths becomes relatively more significant, as photoinhibited  
195 chloroplasts in shallow tissue contribute less to the fluorescence intensity; consequently, the detection depth  
196 increases continually during the time course of photoinhibition (Oguchi et al. 2011). Notwithstanding these  
197 shortcomings, however, the Chl fluorescence technique allows microfiber insertion into the leaf tissue,  
198 enabling the measurement of PS II activity at various depths and demonstrating the highly heterogeneous  
199 photosynthetic activity within an intact leaf.

200           Nevertheless, this fundamental problem of the localized nature of the Chl fluorescence signal in  
201 leaves makes it difficult to compare Chl fluorescence measurement with gas exchange measurements which  
202 involve the whole leaf tissue. For example, there was at first a promising curvilinear relationship between the  
203 photochemical yield of PS II ( $\phi_{PS II}$ ) and the quantum yield of oxygen evolution among a number of plant  
204 species grown under various conditions (Seaton and Walker 1991; Öquist and Chow 1992). Such a  
205 curvilinear curve, if universal, could be used to obtain the quantum yield of oxygen evolution, and hence the  
206 rate of oxygen evolution when the irradiance is known, from Chl fluorescence measurements. However,  
207 correlations for some plants deviated from the “universal” relationship, e.g. those of wild-type barley and a



208 Chl *b*-less mutant of barley. The differential sampling of the chloroplast population within the barley leaf  
209 tissues by the two measurements of oxygen evolution and Chl fluorescence may be partly responsible for the  
210 deviation from a universal relationship (Öquist and Chow 1992).

211 To sum up, Chl fluorescence in leaves is an information-rich but complex signal. It is conveniently  
212 measured with a variety of commercial instruments, but the localized signal from a specific region of  
213 photosynthetic tissue makes it hard to compare with parameters measured for the whole tissue.

## 214 **Approach 2. Flash-induced oxygen evolution**

215 The repetitive-flash technique of quantifying functional PS II via oxygen evolution was originally applied to  
216 algae (Emerson and Arnold 1932; Myers and Graham 1983) and cyanobacteria (Kawamura et al. 1979; Myers  
217 et al. 1982). Later on, the technique began to be applied to leaf segments of higher plants in CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched air  
218 using a gas-phase Clark-type electrode. The gross rate of oxygen evolution was obtained by algebraically  
219 subtracting the dark drift from the rate during repetitive flash illumination; it was then divided by the flash  
220 frequency to obtain the oxygen evolution per flash (Chow et al. 1988, 1989a, 1991; Jursinic and Pearcy 1988).  
221 A small heating artifact due to flash illumination which can be revealed by substitution of green fabric for a  
222 leaf segment, if significant, should be taken into account. The technique of determining functional PS II by  
223 gross oxygen evolution relies on the reasonable assumption that each functional PS II evolves one O<sub>2</sub>  
224 molecule after four single-turnover flashes. Provided photorespiration is suppressed (as is the case in CO<sub>2</sub>-  
225 enriched air), the assumption seems a reasonable approximation. Subsequently, this technique was applied to  
226 examine the loss of functional PS II after photoinhibition treatment (Chow et al. 1989b; Öquist et al. 1992;  
227 Park et al. 1995a, 1995b, 1996a, 1996b, 1996c; Russell et al. 1995; Sinclair et al. 1996). A more sophisticated  
228 O<sub>2</sub> measurement, using a zirconium-oxide analyzer, allowed Oja and Laisk (2000) to measure oxygen  
229 evolution from leaves in response to individual single-turnover flashes, provided that the background [O<sub>2</sub>]  
230 was kept low (2%).

231 Each PS II, whether functional or non-functional, contains one binding site for Q<sub>B</sub>, the secondary  
232 quinone acceptor in PS II, when the binding site has not been photodamaged. Q<sub>B</sub>-binding sites can be  
233 quantified using <sup>14</sup>C-labelled inhibitors that bind to the site in isolated thylakoids (Tischer and Strotmann  
234 1977; Graan and Ort 1986; Chow et al. 1990b). A comparison between binding sites in thylakoids for 3-(3,4-  
235 dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) and functional PS II content in leaf segments determined by the  
236 O<sub>2</sub> yield per flash showed that the former exceeds the latter by about 12% in spinach (Chow et al. 1991), and

237 by <15% among leaves of a number of species (Chow et al. 1989a). Atrazine-binding sites were slightly  
238 (about 16%) less abundant than DCMU-binding sites (Chow et al. 1990b), the number of atrazine-binding  
239 sites being closer to the number of functional PS II complexes obtained from the O<sub>2</sub> per single-turnover flash.  
240 Thus, there is reasonable agreement between Q<sub>B</sub>-binding sites in thylakoids and functional PS II content in  
241 leaf segments. Any discrepancy could be due to either a miss-factor (Chow et al. 1991) or non-functional PS  
242 II that are still able to bind the inhibitor (Graan and Ort 1986). Indeed, during progressive photoinhibitory  
243 treatment of spinach leaf segments at 25°C, both the functional PS II content *in vivo* and the atrazine-binding  
244 sites on isolated thylakoids declined by the same proportion (Osmond and Chow 1988). It was only when the  
245 photoinhibitory treatment of thylakoids was carried out at 0°C (to answer Barry Osmond's question of  
246 whether "Q<sub>B</sub> or not Q<sub>B</sub>" was the primary site of damage that necessarily accompanies the loss of PS II  
247 function) that the functional PS II content declined ahead of that of the atrazine-binding sites (Osmond and  
248 Chow 1988).

249         Significantly, there is also reasonable agreement between the O<sub>2</sub> per flash obtained using leaf  
250 segments and that using thylakoids isolated from the same batch of leaves; the latter was about 94% of the  
251 former when assayed with flashes at 4 Hz (Chow et al. 1991). Allowing for some potential damage upon  
252 isolation of thylakoids, the agreement is excellent. At a higher flash frequency (20 Hz), however, the O<sub>2</sub> per  
253 flash in a thylakoid suspension was about 20 % less than that at 5 Hz (Chow et al. 1991), an observation  
254 which should be borne in mind when making *in vitro* measurements. The isolation of thylakoids could have  
255 de-stabilized PS II to such an extent that PS II electron-transfer steps became limiting at 20 Hz.

256         When the frequency of repetitive flashes was varied between 1 and 40 Hz, the functional content of  
257 PS II in spinach leaf segments, obtained from the O<sub>2</sub> evolved per flash, was essentially constant at 2.9 mmol  
258 PS II (mol Chl)<sup>-1</sup> or 345 Chl (PS II)<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2A). The constancy of the value is reassuring, but at the same  
259 time curious, because of the following observations. The quantum yield of O<sub>2</sub> evolution measured in steady  
260 low light using the method of Björkman and Demmig (1987) and Evans (1987) was linearly correlated with  
261 functional PS II content in wild-type *Arabidopsis* obtained from the O<sub>2</sub> evolved per flash, when both  
262 quantities were varied by photoinhibitory pre-treatment of leaf segments; the regression line could be  
263 comfortably constrained to pass through the origin (Fig. 2B which has been re-plotted from Chow et al. 2002;  
264 see also the linear correlation of Öquist et al. (1992) for a few plant species). Such a linear regression is  
265 easily understandable since any non-functional PS II still absorbed the limiting steady light without  
266 performing useful photochemistry.

267           However, it is known from work with *Eucalyptus* leaves that mitochondrial respiration decreases  
268 from a magnitude in the dark to one that is measurably less in the light, and that the decrease occurs even in  
269 limiting light in which the quantum yield of O<sub>2</sub> evolution is often measured (Atkin et al. 2000). If this  
270 observation is generally true, the quantum yield of O<sub>2</sub> evolution in limiting continuous light may be over-  
271 estimated slightly. Similarly, the gross O<sub>2</sub> evolution rate during flash illumination (e.g. 10 Hz) may also be  
272 over-estimated slightly since the gross rate is obtained as the algebraic difference between flash illumination  
273 and dark. This is because PS II complexes in a leaf segment, present at approximately 1 μmol m<sup>-2</sup>, receive for  
274 example 10 flashes s<sup>-1</sup>, equivalent to being exposed to steady light of absorbed irradiance 20 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>  
275 where the two photosystems share the light equally. Therefore, the functional content of PS II, obtained from  
276 the gross O<sub>2</sub> evolved per flash, may also be over-estimated, the extent of over-estimation expected to increase  
277 somewhat with increase in flash frequency (equivalent to increasing the irradiance of steady low light). If so,  
278 why is the observed functional content of PS II constant over the range of flash frequencies in Fig. 2A?  
279 Could there be a factor which decreases with flash frequency, and which compensated for the increasing over-  
280 estimation associated with lower mitochondrial respiration induced by increasing light associated with  
281 increasing flash frequency? This factor cannot be the Kok model miss parameter ( $\alpha \approx 0.10$ ) which is rather  
282 constant over the range of flash frequencies from 2 Hz to at least 30 Hz in both *Chlorella* and *Spirulina*  
283 (Ananyev and Dismukes 2005). Perhaps an artifact compensated for the effect of mitochondrial respiration  
284 varying with flash frequency. For example, as the flash frequency was increased excessively, there could be  
285 insufficient time to fully recharge the capacitor, resulting in sub-saturating flash intensity and a tendency to  
286 under-estimate the gross O<sub>2</sub> evolved per flash. If so, a more accurate estimation of functional PS II is  
287 obtained at a lower flash frequency, but obviously the signal:noise ratio is poorer, as indicated by the larger  
288 standard error at low flash frequencies (Fig. 2A).

289           Another curious point, made by Myers and Graham (1983), is that the repetitive-flash technique of  
290 quantifying functional PS II via gross oxygen evolution should not work when PS II is more abundant than PS  
291 I. In leaves of higher plants, the photosystem stoichiometry (the ratio of PS II reaction centers to PS I reaction  
292 centers) is considerably greater than unity (see section below on the photosystem stoichiometry). If the flash  
293 is single-turnover for both photosystems, more electrons are delivered to the PQ pool than exiting from PSI.  
294 In that case, one expects that repetitive flash illumination would over-reduce the PQ pool and, therefore,  
295 chemically reduce Q<sub>B</sub> and Q<sub>A</sub> to some extent; if so, PS II complexes containing Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> will not be able to  
296 perform further charge stabilization, and the oxygen yield per flash will under-estimate the functional PS II

297 content. Fortunately,  $Q_A$  seems to be practically completely oxidized during flash illumination at 10 Hz  
298 (photochemical quenching parameter  $qP = 0.99$ ), at least after a leaf segment has undergone induction (Chow  
299 et al. 1991; Kim et al. 2001). A reason for the nearly complete oxidation of  $Q_A$  may be that PS I turns over  
300 more than once during the time of a xenon flash (Myers and Graham 1983). An attempt to test this hypothesis  
301 was made using isolated thylakoids. It was found that, in the presence of DCMU,  $\text{NaN}_3$  and superoxide  
302 dismutase, about 3.2 mmol  $e^-$  per mol Chl per flash (of duration ca. 3  $\mu\text{s}$  at half peak height) were donated  
303 from durohydroquinone to methyl viologen, a value approximately twice the concentration of PS I centers  
304 (Chow et al. 1989a). Therefore, each PS I seems to turn over more than once during a xenon flash, and each  
305 PS II seems to be returned as an open trap before the next flash is applied.

306 To sum up, the gross  $\text{O}_2$  yield per flash in leaf segments seems to be a most direct way of obtaining  
307 an absolute measure of the functional PS II content, though it is time-consuming and may over-estimate the  
308 content at high frequencies of saturating flashes.

### 309 **Approach 3. The use of the P700<sup>+</sup> signal to assay PS II**

310 With the availability of commercial instruments, the absorbance change at 830 nm associated with the photo-  
311 oxidation of P700 in PS I can be measured with excellent time resolution and signal-to-noise ratio  
312 (Klughammer and Schreiber 1994; Laisk et al. 2010). Far-red light, even at a low irradiance, oxidizes P700 to  
313 the extent of 80-90%, being preferentially absorbed by PS I. Complete photo-oxidation of P700 in far-red  
314 light is not observed, however. This could be because a small fraction of P700 is maintained in the reduced  
315 state by (1) reducing equivalents from the chloroplast stroma, (2) slight excitation of PS II by far-red light  
316 and/or (3) any cyclic electron flow in far-red light. Nevertheless, superposition of a saturating single-turnover  
317 flash on steady background far-red light transiently photo-oxidizes the remaining P700. Following a flash, as  
318 electrons from PS II arrive at P700<sup>+</sup>, there is a tendency to reduce P700<sup>+</sup>, while the steady far-red light brings  
319 the oxidation level back to the steady state. Hence the “dip” in the oxidation level of P700 reflects the  
320 number of electrons that arrive from PS II per flash; progressive photoinactivation of PS II gave an  
321 increasingly shallow dip (See Fig. 3A, re-plotted from Losciale et al. 2008).

322 An attempt was made to quantify the number of flash-induced electrons that arrive from PS II at  
323 P700<sup>+</sup>, normalized to the total photo-oxidizable P700 (Losciale et al. 2008). In this approximate analysis, it  
324 was assumed that (1) the rate of photo-oxidation of P700 is directly proportional to [P700]; and (2) the  
325 feeding of reducing equivalents to the PQ pool occurs at a constant rate during illumination with steady far-

326 red light. The integrated transient flow of electrons from PS II ( $\Sigma$ ) that arrive at P700<sup>+</sup> after a flash is  
327 essentially given by the area between the dipping curve and the horizontal line corresponding to the steady  
328 state.  $\Sigma$  declined linearly with the loss of the functional fraction of PS II in a photoinhibition pre-treatment,  
329 though the straight line did not exactly pass through the origin (Fig. 3B, re-plotted from Losciale et al. 2008).  
330 Significantly, the one straight line was obtained for a number of plant species representing C3 and C4 plants,  
331 monocot and dicot plants, herbaceous and woody species, and wild type and a Chl *b*-less mutant of barley.  
332 That is, the “calibration” straight line was apparently independent of leaf anatomy.

333 By contrast, a plot of  $F_v/F_m$  against the functional fraction of PS II was much more scattered (Fig. 1,  
334 re-plotted from Losciale et al. 2008) than the plot of  $\Sigma$  against the functional fraction of PS II, even though the  
335 same samples were used in both measurements. The difference between the two plots in terms of scattered  
336 data is almost certainly due to the fact that  $F_v/F_m$  is a localized signal detected from a certain (variable) depth  
337 of the leaf tissue. By contrast,  $\Sigma$  obtained from the P700<sup>+</sup> signal and functional PS II obtained from flash-  
338 induced oxygen evolution are both whole-tissue measurements. For example, the area between the dipping  
339 curve and the horizontal line corresponding to the steady-state oxidation level of P700 is practically the same  
340 when measured in the reflection mode either from the adaxial side or the abaxial side (Oguchi et al. 2011).  
341 Therefore, the small scatter in Fig. 3B results from a comparison of two parameters both of which are whole-  
342 tissue measurements.

343  $\Sigma$ , being normalized to the total photo-oxidizable P700, should give the ratio of PS II to PS I reaction  
344 centers (i.e. the photosystem stoichiometry), but unfortunately it did not. Instead,  $\Sigma$  was typically only about  
345 0.7 for control leaves (Losciale et al. 2008). The true ratio of PS II to PS I centers in higher plants should be  
346 considerably greater than unity (see next section). Therefore,  $\Sigma$  as derived by the approximate method is only  
347 a semi-quantitative measure of the ratio of PS II to PS I. Another complication may arise if some of the  
348 electrons originating in water photo-oxidation in PS II are either intercepted on their way to PS I (Cleland and  
349 Grace 1999), or are lost in charge recombination with the S-states of the Mn cluster in PS II. Then the  
350 cumulative delivery of electrons to P700<sup>+</sup> will be an under-estimate of the functional PS II content. For these  
351 reasons, further study of the flash-induced cumulative delivery of electrons from PS II to PS I is warranted.

352 To sum up, given the convenience of measuring the P700<sup>+</sup> signal that represents the whole-tissue,  
353 there are advantages in using this PS I signal to monitor PS II functionality. Further, the instrument has  
354 potential for portability for use in the field.

355 **Approach 4. The use of the electrochromic signal to determine the photosystem stoichiometry**

356 The electrochromic signal (ECS) reflects trans-membrane charge transfer through the thylakoid membrane  
357 (Witt 1975). Significantly, it can be measured in leaf segments, thereby allowing *in vivo* monitoring of trans-  
358 membrane charge transfer events (Kramer and Crofts 1989, 1990, 1996; Klughammer et al. 1990; Chow and  
359 Hope 1998, 2004), and acting like a ‘voltmeter’. Further, it is a whole-tissue measurement because the  
360 measuring light (wavelength 520 nm) is scattered and transmitted through the leaf. In flash-induced ECS, a  
361 very fast rise (< 1 ns) is followed by a slow rise in the ms time scale (Joliot and Delosme 1974; Crowther et al.  
362 1979; Hope and Morland 1980); both phases then undergo a very slow relaxation to a baseline in the dark (Fig.  
363 4A). The fast rise is attributed to charge separation across the thylakoid membrane at both PS II and PS I.  
364 The slow rise is attributed to trans-membrane charge transfer (electrons outwards and/or protons inwards) at  
365 the Cyt *bf* complex in leaf discs (Chow and Hope 2004), *Chlorella* (Joliot and Joliot 1998) and  
366 *Chlamydomonas* (Zito et al. 1998; Deniau and Rappaport 2000; Joliot and Joliot 2001; Finazzi 2002). These  
367 charge transfers soon result in the deposition of protons in the lumen and hydroxide anions on the stromal side  
368 of the thylakoid membrane. Both H<sup>+</sup> and OH<sup>-</sup> ions are free to diffuse in their respective compartments, such  
369 that the electric potential difference across the thylakoid membrane is rapidly delocalized; therefore,  
370 regardless of where the charge transfer across the membrane occurs, each transfer is sensed equally by the  
371 pigments, Chl *b* and carotenoids, in the membrane (see Witt 1975).

372 We made use of the magnitude of fast ECS rise to investigate the separate contributions from the two  
373 photosystems (Chow and Hope 1998; Fan et al. 2007). With progressive photoinactivation of PS II in a pre-  
374 treatment, the magnitude of the fast phase declined linearly with the decline in functional PS II content.  
375 Extrapolation to zero functional PS II (see Fig. 4B) gave a residual signal which represented the sole  
376 contribution by PS I ( $ECS_I$ ), whereas the maximum loss of the fast phase ( $ECS_f$ ) represented contribution by  
377 PS II. It is reasonable to assume that extensive photoinactivation of PS II could be brought about without  
378 affecting the charge-separation capability of PS I: when sun and shade leaves of several plant species from a  
379 neotropical forest were exposed to excessive light, PS II suffered a great extent of photoinactivation, but the  
380 potential P700 photo-oxidation activity was unaffected (Barth et al. 2001). Therefore, the ratio  $ECS_f/ECS_I$   
381 should equal the stoichiometry of the two photosystems. In market spinach, the ratio  $ECS_f/ECS_I$  was 1.61  
382 (Table 1). For comparison, the PS II/PS I ratio was 1.66 from electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR)  
383 measurements made with isolated thylakoids, and  $1.46 \pm 0.11$  obtained from (1) quantification of PS II via the

384 O<sub>2</sub> yield per single-turnover flash in leaf segments and (2) quantification of PS I via photo-oxidation of P700  
385 in a thylakoid suspension containing detergent in a cuvette (Table 1). In general, the agreement between  
386  $ECS_i/ECS_r$  and the photosystem stoichiometry determined by other methods is good. Freshly-harvested  
387 spinach leaves gave a slightly higher  $ECS_i/ECS_r$  ratio compared with market spinach (Fan et al. 2007).

388 A variation of this ECS method is to suppress charge separation in the PS I reaction centre by  
389 illumination with background far-red light which photo-oxidizes the majority of P700. The remaining P700  
390 (reduced form) can be ascertained by transient photo-oxidation with a saturating flash. Allowing for the  
391 contribution of charge separation in the remaining PS I complexes that have open traps, the contribution of PS  
392 II to the fast phase can be determined and used to estimate the PS II/PS I ratio (Fan et al. 2007). For market  
393 spinach, the ratio so obtained was  $1.54 \pm 0.12$ , which compares well with the values shown above (Table 1).

394 To sum up, the fast rise in the EC signal is contributed by charge separation in both photosystems.  
395 Hence, the separate contributions by PS II and PS I in leaf tissue can be conveniently obtained to yield the  
396 stoichiometry of the two photosystems.

### 397 **Conclusions**

398 We have reviewed four approaches for quantifying/monitoring PS II functionality in leaf segments, all except  
399 one approach being whole-tissue measurements. Refinements of the methodologies are still needed, but the  
400 approaches show great promise in providing a ready measure of active PS II at work in leaf tissue. In  
401 particular, the development of portable instruments for kinetic spectrophotometric measurements of P700 and  
402 the EC signal in the field will be an important feature for future research in photosynthesis.

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610 **Table 1** Stoichiometry of the two photosystems in market spinach assayed by various methods

<b>Method</b>	<b>PS II/PS I stoichiometry</b>
Progressive photoinactivation of PS II in leaf segments (EC signal)	1.61*
EPR measurements on isolated thylakoids	1.66**
Functional PS II in leaf segments, P700 content in isolated thylakoids	1.46 ± 0.11 (n = 3)
Suppression of PS I in leaf segments via P700 photo-oxidation by far-red light, (EC signal)	1.54 ± 0.12 (n = 6)

611 Values are means ± s.e., taken from Fan et al. (2007). \*This value was obtained by linear extrapolation to  
 612 zero functional PS II using 28 leaf discs which had been photoinhibited to various extents. \*\*This value was  
 613 obtained from one preparation of thylakoids from market spinach; a preparation from fresh garden spinach  
 614 gave a slightly higher value by the same method (data not shown).

615

616 **Figure Legends**

617 **Fig. 1** Approach 1. Correlation of  $F_v/F_m$  (measured on the adaxial side of leaf segments) with the oxygen  
618 yield per single-turnover repetitive flash (relative) representing the functional fraction of PS II. Leaf  
619 segments from various plant species, representing C3 and C4 plants, monocots and dicots, herbaceous and  
620 woody plants, and a wild-type and Chl *b*-less mutant, were photoinhibited to various extents so as to vary the  
621 parameters. Data are re-plotted from Losciale et al. (2008). The plants were nectarine (●), *Arabidopsis* (○),  
622 wild type barley (Δ), Chl *b*-less barley (■), capsicum (▲), and *Flaveria bidentis*, a C4 species (□).

623 **Fig. 2** Approach 2. (A). The content of functional PS II in spinach leaf segments as a function of the  
624 frequency of single-turnover flashes used to assay the gross  $O_2$ /flash in  $CO_2$ -enriched air. Re-plotted from  
625 Chow et al. (1991). (B) Linear correlation of the quantum yield of oxygen evolution in limiting steady light  
626 with the functional fraction of PS II in *Arabidopsis* leaf discs assayed by the gross  $O_2$ /flash after  
627 photoinhibition pre-treatment. Measurements were made in  $CO_2$ -enriched air. The linear regression is  
628 constrained to pass through the origin. Re-plotted from Chow et al. (2002).

629 **Fig. 3** Approach 3. (A) Transient changes in the redox state of P700 on adding a single-turnover flash (at  
630 time 0) to steady far-red light given to nectarine leaf segments. The leaf segments had been photoinhibited  
631 for various durations (0-5 h) prior to measurement. Re-plotted from Losciale et al. (2008). (B) Estimation of  
632 the cumulative delivery of electrons from PS II ( $\Sigma$ ) to  $P700^+$  following a single-turnover flash, plotted against  
633 the functional fraction of PS II. Leaf segments from various plant species, representing C3 and C4 plants,  
634 monocots and dicots, herbaceous and woody plants, and a wild-type and Chl *b*-less mutant, were  
635 photoinhibited to various extents so as to vary the parameters. Data are re-plotted from Losciale et al. (2008).  
636 The plants were nectarine (●), *Arabidopsis* (○), wild type barley (Δ), Chl *b*-less barley (■), capsicum (▲), and  
637 *Flaveria bidentis*, a C4 species (□).

638 **Fig. 4** Approach 4. (A) The electrochromic (EC) signal induced by a single-turnover flash applied at time 0.  
639 Market spinach leaf segments were used either without exposure to high light (Control) or after 4 h exposure  
640 to  $1200 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in the presence of lincomycin. Each trace is an average of 25 scans given at 0.2  
641 Hz. Re-plotted from Fan et al. (2007). (B) Linear correlation of the fast rise of the EC signal with the  
642 functional fraction of PS II in *Populus deltoides* leaves previously subjected to photoinhibition treatment so as  
643 to vary the parameters. Mean values ( $\pm$  SE) are for four leaf discs. Extrapolation to zero functional PS II

644 gives the separate contributions of the two photosystems to the fast-rise signal. Re-plotted from Fan et al.  
645 (2007).









