

1

2

3 *Running head:*

4

5 **Systemic Regulation of Photosynthetic Performance in Sorghum**

6

7 *Corresponding author:*

8 Professor Wah Soon Chow

9 Division of Plant Science, Research School of Biology, College of Medicine, Biology and  
10 Environment, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 0200, Australia

11

12 Tel: +61 2 6125 3980

13 Email: Fred.Chow@anu.edu.au

14

15

16

17 Category: Focus Issue “Enhancing Photosynthesis (January 2011)”

18

19

20

21

22

23 Systemic Regulation of Leaf Anatomical Structure,  
24 Photosynthetic Performance and High-light Tolerance in  
25 Sorghum<sup>1</sup>

26

27 Chuang-Dao Jiang<sup>†</sup>, Xin Wang<sup>†</sup>, Hui-Yuan Gao, Lei Shi, and Wah Soon Chow<sup>\*</sup>

28

29 Institute of Botany, The Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100093, China (C.-D.J., X.W.,  
30 L.S.); State Key Lab of Crop Biology, Shandong Agriculture University, Tai'an 271018, China  
31 (X.W., H.-Y.G.); Research School of Biology, Australian National University, Canberra, ACT  
32 0200, Australia (W.S.C.)

33

34

35

36 <sup>1</sup>This work was supported by Projects of the National Natural Science Foundation of China  
37 (30770223 and 30871455); Project of State Key Lab of Crop Biology, Shandong Agriculture  
38 University (2010KF04); and the Australian Research Council (DP1093827).

39

40 \*Corresponding author; Fred.Chow@anu.edu.au

41 †The authors contributed equally to this work

42

43 Leaf anatomy of C<sub>3</sub> plants is mainly regulated by a systemic irradiance signal. Since the  
44 anatomical features of C<sub>4</sub> plants are different from that of C<sub>3</sub> plants, we investigated whether the  
45 systemic irradiance signal regulates leaf anatomical structure and photosynthetic performance in  
46 sorghum, a C<sub>4</sub> plant. Compared with growth under ambient conditions (A), no significant  
47 changes in anatomical structure were observed in newly-developed leaves by shading young  
48 leaves alone (YS). Shading mature leaves (MS) or whole plants (S), on the other hand, caused  
49 shade-leaf anatomy in newly-developed leaves. By contrast, chloroplast ultrastructure in  
50 developing leaves depended only on their local light conditions. Functionally, shading young  
51 leaves alone had little effect on their net photosynthetic capacity and stomatal conductance, but  
52 shading mature leaves or whole plants significantly decreased these two parameters in  
53 newly-developed leaves. Specifically, the net photosynthetic rate in newly-developed leaves  
54 exhibited a positive linear correlation with that of mature leaves, as did stomatal conductance.  
55 In MS and S treatments, newly-developed leaves exhibited severe photoinhibition under high  
56 light. By contrast, newly-developed leaves in A and YS treatments were more resistant to high  
57 light relative to those in MS and S treated seedlings. We suggest that (1) leaf anatomical  
58 structure, photosynthetic capacity and high-light tolerance in newly-developed sorghum leaves  
59 were regulated by a systemic irradiance signal from mature leaves; and (2) chloroplast  
60 ultrastructure only weakly influenced the development of photosynthetic capacity and high-light  
61 tolerance. The potential significance of the regulation by a systemic irradiance signal is  
62 discussed.

63

64 **Keywords** : Sorghum; Photosynthetic rate; Photoinhibition; Photochemical efficiency of  
65 photosystem II; Systemic regulation

66

67

68 Light is one of the most important environmental factors that regulate the development of the  
69 photosynthetic apparatus in higher plants. In high or low light, plants develop sun or shade  
70 leaves, respectively (Boardman 1977, Anderson 1986). The differences between typical sun  
71 and shade leaves in relation to anatomy and physiology have been extensively studied.  
72 Generally, leaves developed under high light are thicker and smaller, with more developed  
73 palisade tissue and higher stomatal density on both adaxial and abaxial surfaces compared with  
74 shade leaves (Anderson and Osmond 1987, Murchie and Horton 1997, Chen et al 2002).  
75 Similarly, chloroplast ultrastructure also changes with growth irradiance. Sun-type  
76 chloroplasts have less appression of thylakoid membranes, while shade-type chloroplasts have  
77 more appressed thylakoid membranes (Anderson 1986, Anderson and Osmond 1987, Terashima  
78 1995, Chow et al 2005, Anderson et al 2008). Functionally, sun leaves have higher  
79 photosynthetic capacity, higher amounts of ribulose biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase and of  
80 electron transfer carriers than shade leaves on a leaf area basis. Accordingly, sun leaves have a  
81 strong high-light tolerance owing to high rates of carbon assimilation and enhanced ability to  
82 dissipate excess light energy, whereas shade leaves exhibit an increased susceptibility to  
83 damage by high light (Demmig and Adams 1992, Osmond and Förster 2008).

84

85 Previous investigations focused on leaf structure and function in plants grown fully under  
86 high or low light. However, in practice, close planting of crops always leads to a weak-light  
87 environment around the lower mature leaves, while the upper developing leaves are exposed to  
88 high light. Karpinski et al. (1999) demonstrated that partial exposure of low light-adapted  
89 Arabidopsis plants to excess light resulted in a systemic acclimation to excess excitation energy  
90 and to consequent photooxidative stress in untreated leaves kept in low light. Since then, some  
91 studies have reported that stomatal density, leaf thickness and the development of stomatal and  
92 palisade tissue in newly-developed leaves are independent of their local irradiance in  
93 Arabidopsis, poplar and tobacco, but instead depend on the light environment of mature leaves  
94 (Lake et al., 2001, Coupe et al., 2006, Thomas et al., 2004, Miyazawa et al., 2006). This  
95 long-distance signal from mature to developing leaves is defined as a systemic irradiance signal.  
96 However, all these studies were conducted in C<sub>3</sub> plants but, to our knowledge, no attention has  
97 been paid to C<sub>4</sub> plants.

98

99       The anatomical features of C<sub>4</sub> plants are largely different from those of C<sub>3</sub> plants. For most  
100 C<sub>3</sub> plants, the mesophyll differentiates into the palisade layer (lying beneath the adaxial  
101 epidermis) and the spongy layer (lying above the abaxial epidermis), while isobilateral leaves of  
102 C<sub>4</sub> plants have palisade layers on both sides of leaves, or only have parenchyma cells, without  
103 differentiation into palisade and spongy tissue. Most importantly, C<sub>4</sub> leaves are characterized  
104 by Kranz-type anatomy, in which the vascular bundle is surrounded by organelle-rich bundle  
105 sheath cells, which are in turn surrounded by radially-arranged mesophyll cells. Functionally,  
106 in C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is initially fixed in the mesophyll cells, followed by  
107 decarboxylation and refixation of CO<sub>2</sub> in the bundle sheath cells (Rowan 2002, Wojciech and  
108 Klaas 2009). Given the differences in anatomical structure between C<sub>4</sub> plants and C<sub>3</sub> plants,  
109 we wondered whether the regulation of the anatomical structure of developing leaves by a  
110 systemic signal in a C<sub>4</sub> plant occurs in the same way as in C<sub>3</sub> plants. In addition, although leaf  
111 anatomical structure may be markedly regulated by systemic signaling, the ultrastructure of  
112 chloroplasts depends on their local light environment during leaf development (Yano and  
113 Terashima 2001). Since both leaf anatomy and chloroplast ultrastructure provide a structural  
114 framework for photosynthetic performance, in this study we also investigated whether  
115 photosynthetic capacity and tolerance of high light in developing leaves are determined by the  
116 systemic irradiance signal from mature leaves.

117

118       Sorghum, a typical C<sub>4</sub> plant with isobilateral leaves, is one of the most important energy crops  
119 in the world with a very high yield of biomass. Using sorghum seedlings, we addressed the  
120 following questions by analyzing leaf anatomy, chloroplast ultrastructure, gas exchange and  
121 chlorophyll *a* fluorescence: (1) how the systemic irradiance signal influences leaf anatomy in a  
122 typical C<sub>4</sub> plant, and (2) whether the systemic irradiance signal regulates photosynthetic  
123 capacity and high-light tolerance. This study will give a new perspective for understanding  
124 both leaf development and the relationship between the photosynthetic apparatus in different  
125 locations within the plant.

126

## 127 **RESULTS**

### 128 **Changes in Stomatal Density**

129 The stomatal density in newly-developed leaves on sorghum plants after the YS treatment  
130 (only young leaves shaded) showed no significant changes compared with the A treatment  
131 (plants grown in ambient conditions without shading); in contrast, shading mature leaves (MS)  
132 or whole plants (S) caused a marked reduction in stomatal density of newly-developed leaves in  
133 the MS or S treatment (Fig. 1-A, B). In the MS treatment, shading mature leaves decreased the  
134 stomatal density by 30% on the adaxial surface and 15% on the abaxial surface in  
135 newly-developed leaves, compared with the respective A treatment. These results suggest that  
136 stomatal density in young leaves is mainly controlled by the light environment of mature leaves.  
137 Interestingly, in newly-developed leaves, the stomatal density on the adaxial surface was more  
138 influenced by the light environment of mature leaves than was that on the abaxial surface (Fig.  
139 1).

140

### 141 **Changes in Leaf Anatomical Structure**

142 The leaf anatomical features of typical C<sub>4</sub> plants, with no differentiation into palisade tissue  
143 and spongy tissue, are very different from those of C<sub>3</sub> plants with dorsio-ventral leaves. The  
144 effects of shading treatments on cross-sections of newly-developed sorghum leaves are shown  
145 visually in Fig. 2. Newly-developed leaves after MS and S treatments were thinner than those  
146 after A and YS treatments (Fig. 3-A), indicating that the thickness of newly-developed leaves  
147 was determined by the light environment of mature leaves. However, the mesophyll thickness  
148 of adaxial and abaxial sides responded differentially (Fig. 3-C, D). The adaxial mesophyll  
149 thickness decreased by 16% and 23% in MS and S treatments compared with that in A treatment,  
150 respectively; by contrast, the decrease of mesophyll thickness on the abaxial side was less than  
151 10% in either treatment. This observation implies that the adaxial mesophyll thickness in  
152 newly-developed leaves was more sensitive than the abaxial mesophyll thickness in response to  
153 shading of mature leaves.

154

155 Usually, C<sub>4</sub> leaves are characterized by Kranz-type anatomy, in which the vascular bundle is

156 surrounded by organelle-rich bundle sheath cells, and this tissue layer is further surrounded by  
157 radially-arranged mesophyll cells. In  $C_4$  photosynthesis, atmospheric  $CO_2$  is initially fixed in  
158 the mesophyll cells, and then delivered to the bundle sheath cells. It is in the bundle sheath  
159 cells that decarboxylation and re-fixation of  $CO_2$  occur (Rowan 2002, Wojciech and Klaas  
160 2009). Apparently, metabolite transfer between the bundle sheath and mesophyll cells is a  
161 central factor for the regulation of  $C_4$  photosynthesis (von Caemmerer & Furbank 1999). The  
162 contact area between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells, indicated by  $S_b$ , is related to the ability  
163 to transfer the metabolites that ensure the efficient operation of  $C_4$  photosynthesis  
164 (Soares-Cordeiro et al., 2009). A higher value of  $S_b$  indicates a more rapid metabolite transfer  
165 between bundle sheath and mesophyll (Sowiński et al., 2008, Soares-Cordeiro et al., 2009).  
166 Therefore, the contact area between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells was determined. We  
167 observed that shading mature leaves caused a distinct decline in  $S_b$  in newly-developed leaves in  
168 the MS and S treatments (Fig. 3-B); by contrast, little or no change was observed in the YS  
169 treatment, suggesting that the surface area of contact between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells  
170 is regulated by the light environment of mature leaves.

171

### 172 **Changes in Chloroplast Ultrastructure**

173 Changes in the ultrastructure of chloroplasts are shown visually in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5.  
174 Newly-developed leaves after A and MS treatments had thinner granal stacks compared with  
175 YS and S treatments (Fig. 5-A). To further quantify the degree of thylakoid stacking, the ratio  
176 of the cross-sectional area of all appressed thylakoids ( $S_g$ ) to that of the chloroplasts ( $S_c$ ) was  
177 determined, this ratio reflecting the extent to which the chloroplast volume was occupied by  
178 appressed thylakoids. Shading developing leaves, but not mature leaves, increased  $S_g/S_c$  in  
179 newly-developed leaves (Fig. 5-B). These data indicate that the chloroplast ultrastructure in  
180 developing leaves depended on their local light condition and was relatively independent of the  
181 light environment of mature leaves.

182

### 183 **Changes in Gas Exchange**

184 The net photosynthetic rates ( $P_n$ ) of mature and newly-developed leaves at irradiances 800  
185 and 1200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  are shown in Fig. 6-A and Fig. 6-C, respectively. There was little



186 difference between  $P_n$  of mature leaves in the A and YS treatments (Fig. 6-A). By contrast,  $P_n$   
187 in mature leaves with MS and S treatments decreased significantly compared with those in A  
188 and YS treatments under both 800 and 1200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6-A). When subjected to 1200  
189  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , the net photosynthetic rate of mature leaves in MS and S treatments were  
190 20.6 and 21.1  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively, which were 35% and 33.6% lower than those in A  
191 treatments under 1200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6-A). For newly-developed leaves, the net  
192 photosynthetic rates in seedlings after MS and S treatments were also lower than those after A  
193 and YS treatments (Fig. 6-C). Stomatal conductance in both mature leaves and  
194 newly-developed leaves showed similar trends to net photosynthetic rates in all treatments (Fig.  
195 6-B, D). These results suggest that the light environment of mature leaves had a strong impact  
196 on the net photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance not only in themselves but also in  
197 developing leaves.

198

#### 199 **Changes in Chlorophyll *a* Fluorescence**

200 As shown in Fig. 7, the initial chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence yield ( $F_o$ ), maximum Chl  
201 fluorescence yield ( $F_m$ ) or maximum quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry ( $F_v/F_m$ )  
202 were each similar among all treatments at 6:00 am (Fig. 7), indicating that all shading  
203 treatments did not bring about significant differences in the pre-dawn photochemical efficiency  
204 of photosystem II (PSII), whether in mature or newly-developed leaves. During early  
205 afternoon (14:00 hours), however, an obvious increase in  $F_o$  together with a significant decline  
206 in  $F_m$  occurred in shaded mature leaves with MS and S treatments after exposure of  
207 horizontally-held leaves to high irradiance, while the values of  $F_o$  and  $F_m$  in mature leaves with  
208 A and YS treatments remained relatively constant (Fig. 7-A, B). Consequently,  $F_v/F_m$  at early  
209 afternoon decreased significantly in shaded mature leaves in MS and S treatments but did not  
210 decrease significantly in exposed mature leaves in A and YS treatments (Fig. 7-C). In  
211 newly-developed leaves, all these parameters showed similar trends to those of the mature  
212 leaves (Fig. 7-D, E, F). Therefore, shading mature leaves induced an increased susceptibility  
213 of PSII to photoinhibition upon exposure to high light, not only in themselves but also in  
214 newly-developed leaves.

215

## 216 **DISCUSSION**

### 217 **Systemic Regulation of Leaf Morphology and Anatomy**

218 In most previous investigations on light acclimation, the regulation of photosynthesis in a  
219 single leaf has been extensively studied. To our knowledge, no attention has been paid to the  
220 impact of shading a single leaf of a C<sub>4</sub> plant on the photosynthetic apparatus and performance of  
221 leaves elsewhere on the same plant. In this study, we demonstrated that the anatomy of  
222 newly-developed leaves on a typical C<sub>4</sub> plant changed significantly after shading mature leaves  
223 (in the MS treatment), as if the young leaves had developed in weak light though exposed to  
224 high irradiance. By contrast, shading developing leaves alone caused little change in the  
225 anatomical characteristics of newly-developed leaves themselves (in the YS treatment). Our  
226 results demonstrate that in sorghum seedlings, it is the light environment of the mature leaves,  
227 not the local light environment of developing leaves, which controls the development of  
228 anatomical structure in newly-developed leaves. Therefore, we suggest that there is a systemic  
229 irradiance signal from mature leaves to developing leaves in C<sub>4</sub> plants, as has been suggested for  
230 some C<sub>3</sub> plants (Lake et al., 2001; Thomas et al., 2004; Coupe et al., 2006; Miyazawa et al.,  
231 2006).

232  
233 Specifically, we observed a significant decrease in stomatal density (Fig. 1) and in leaf  
234 thickness (Fig. 3-A) of newly-developed leaves due to the systemic irradiance signal from  
235 mature leaves. The systemic irradiance signal also resulted in a decrease in the contact area  
236 between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells in newly-developed leaves in the MS treatment (Fig.  
237 3-B). Accordingly, we suggest that changes in stomatal density, leaf thickness and the contact  
238 area between bundle sheath and mesophyll are the main targets of systemic regulation of leaf  
239 morphology and anatomy in sorghum seedlings. Moreover, the regulation of the morphology  
240 and anatomy of isobilateral leaves of sorghum by the systemic irradiance signal was  
241 asymmetrical: the adaxial stomatal density and mesophyll thickness in newly-developed leaves,  
242 compared with the abaxial stomatal density and mesophyll thickness, were much more sensitive  
243 to shading of mature leaves (Fig. 3-C, D). Long et al (1989) demonstrated that there is a  
244 physical CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion barrier between adaxial and abaxial sides of C<sub>4</sub> isobilateral leaves;

245 therefore, the adaxial and abaxial sides of C<sub>4</sub> isobilateral leaves can be viewed as separate  
246 compartments in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion and assimilation. The two separate compartment  
247 system is useful not only in the optimization of whole leaf photosynthesis, but also allows the  
248 separation in the signaling of stress and in the effects of stress factors (Long et al.' 1989, Soars  
249 et al., 2009). In our study, it was the systemic irradiance signal from mature leaves that played  
250 a key role in the regulation of morphology and anatomy in newly-developed leaves. Probably,  
251 the transportation and distribution of systemic irradiance signal molecules coming from mature  
252 leaves may be asymmetrical between the adaxial and abaxial sides of leaf, or the two sides of a  
253 leaf have different sensitivity to the systemic irradiance signal. The asymmetrical regulation of  
254 morphology and anatomy in newly-developed C<sub>4</sub> leaves, observed in our investigation, and its  
255 detailed mechanisms need further investigation.

256

257 Besides the anatomical differences, sun and shade leaves differ in their chloroplast  
258 ultrastructure. The ultrastructure of chloroplasts (Fig. 4, 5) in our study responded only to the  
259 local light environment of the developing leaf, not a systemic irradiance signal; that is, the  
260 chloroplasts differentiated into sun- or shade-type organelles according to the local light  
261 environment. Therefore, our data provide clear evidence that sun- or shade-type chloroplast  
262 development is independent of the anatomical differentiation of the tissue in the developing  
263 leaves. Our conclusion on chloroplast ultrastructural changes obtained with sorghum seedlings  
264 is consistent with that obtained with the C<sub>3</sub> plant *Chenopodium album* (Yano and Terashima  
265 2001). Of course, the development of chloroplasts may influence the development of the leaf  
266 under extreme conditions, as reported previously (Chatterjee et al 1996, Keddie et al 1996).  
267 However, this phenomenon was not observed in this study.

268

### 269 **Systemic Regulation of Photosynthetic Capacity and High-light Tolerance**

270 In this study, shading developing leaves alone had little effect on their photosynthetic  
271 capacity and stomatal conductance in the YS treatment, while the photosynthetic capacity and  
272 stomatal conductance of newly-developed leaves in MS and S treatments declined with the  
273 decrease in net photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance of mature leaves. Significantly,  
274 we observed a positive linear correlation between a functional parameter ( $P_n$  or  $G_s$ ) in

275 newly-developed leaves and that in mature leaves (Fig. 8). Therefore, we suggest that the  
276 development of photosynthetic capacity and stomatal conductance in developing leaves is also  
277 regulated by systemic irradiance signal from mature leaves.

278

279 In our investigation, photoinactivation of photosystem II in both mature and newly-developed  
280 leaves in MS and S treatments was also clearly exacerbated following exposure to high  
281 irradiance (Fig. 7-C, F), owing to their depressed photosynthetic capacity. There are two  
282 mechanisms which are primarily responsible for initiating the photoinactivation of photosystem  
283 II, one of which operates when excess light energy is not utilized by photosynthesis (Oguchi et  
284 al., 2009). The lower the photosynthetic capacity, as was the case in the MS and S treatments,  
285 the greater was the excess energy, consistent with the exacerbation of photoinactivation of PS II.  
286 On the other hand,  $F_v/F_m$  in newly-developed leaves in the YS treatment was hardly affected by  
287 exposure to high light; this is consistent with there being little or no effect of the YS treatment  
288 on  $P_n$  (Fig. 6-C). Therefore, we conclude that not only photosynthetic capacity, but also  
289 high-light tolerance in newly-developed leaves are determined by a systemic irradiance signal  
290 from mature leaves.

291

292 Leaf morphological characteristics and anatomical structure play a crucial role in the  
293 regulation of photosynthetic performance, providing a structural framework for the diffusion of  
294 gases and the optimization of photosynthetic activity (Terashima and Inoue 1985). For  
295 developing leaves, stomatal density, leaf thickness and  $S_b$  in MS treatment were all regulated by  
296 systemic irradiance signal in the present study. Therefore, we deduce that the changes in  
297 morphological characteristics and anatomical structure of newly-developed leaves in  $C_4$  plant  
298 may be at least partially responsible for the alteration of photosynthetic capacity and high-light  
299 tolerance. On the other hand, for fully expanded leaves under weak light, the role of leaf  
300 anatomy in the acclimation of photosynthesis to high light is very limited (Oren et al 1986,  
301 Oguchi et al 2003). Accordingly, during shading treatment, decreased photosynthetic capacity  
302 in mature leaves in MS and S treatments probably resulted from physiological acclimation to  
303 low light, rather than leaf morphology and anatomy which are fixed in mature leaves.

304

305 On an ultrastructural level, changes also occurred in chloroplasts. The membranes in  
306 chloroplasts of higher plants are differentiated into granal and stromal thylakoids: shade-type or  
307 sun-type chloroplasts are formed according to growth irradiance, such that an increase in growth  
308 irradiance decreases granal stacking in chloroplasts (Anderson 1986, Anderson and Osmond  
309 1987, Terashima 1995, Chow et al 2005, Anderson et al 2008). Recently, it was hypothesized  
310 that the functions of granal stacking include a potential increase of photosynthetic capacity.  
311 This is because, all else being equal, better formation of grana should allow more space for free  
312 diffusion of large enzyme complexes of the Calvin-Benson cycle in a very crowded stroma  
313 (Chow et al 2005, Anderson et al 2008). That is, the formation of large grana should not  
314 diminish, but probably enhance, photosynthetic capacity, all else being equal. Interestingly, in  
315 the YS treatment, we observed that newly-developed leaves were like sun leaves with  
316 shade-type chloroplast ultrastructure, exhibiting high net photosynthetic capacity and strong  
317 tolerance of high light but possessing large granal stacks. It appears from this observation that,  
318 indeed, large grana did not diminish photosynthetic capacity. In the MS treatment,  
319 newly-developed leaves were like shade leaves exhibiting a low photosynthetic capacity and an  
320 increased susceptibility to high-light stress, but possessing sun-type chloroplasts with small  
321 granal stacks. It appears from this observation that poor granal formation did not aid in  
322 increasing photosynthetic capacity. Together, the data suggest that the ultrastructure of  
323 chloroplasts or granal stacking observed in the YS and MS treatments was consistent with  
324 photosynthetic capacity and high-light tolerance. However, in the S treatment, although the  
325 grana of newly-developed leaves were large, the photosynthetic capacity was small.  
326 Presumably, other more dominant factors in the S treatment over-rode any positive granal effect  
327 on photosynthetic capacity.

328

329 Our data demonstrated that the weak light environment around mature leaves is adverse to the  
330 development of photosynthetic capacity and high-light tolerance in developing leaves owing to  
331 the existence of a systemic irradiance signal in plants. Therefore, achieving an appropriate  
332 planting density and decreasing mutual shading among adjacent mature leaves would enhance  
333 the photosynthetic capability in both mature leaves and developing leaves and consequently  
334 their resistance to strong light.

335

## 336 **Conclusion**

337 In a C<sub>4</sub> plant, we demonstrated that anatomical structure, photosynthetic capacity and  
338 high-light tolerance in newly-developed leaves were regulated by a systemic irradiance signal  
339 originating in mature leaves, just as in C<sub>3</sub> plants. During leaf development, chloroplast  
340 ultrastructure played only a weak role in the regulation of photosynthetic capacity and high-light  
341 tolerance. This study could provide a new perspective for understanding the relationship  
342 between leaf development and photosynthetic performance.

343

## 344 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 345 **Plant Growth**

346 *Sorghum* (*Sorghum bicolor* L., cv. Liaozha 10) seeds were imbibed on wet paper for one day.  
347 The germinated seeds were sown in a 30 cm × 20 cm containers filled with vermiculite. Plants  
348 were watered every second day. One week later, seedlings were transplanted into pots (15 cm  
349 in diameter, 20 cm in height) containing Hoagland solution and grown in water culture in a  
350 greenhouse with a maximum irradiance of  $1217 \pm 26 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and a day/night temperature  
351 of 35/22°C. Relative humidity was 40-60%. The nutrient solution contained 5 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>, 1  
352 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.08 mM FeEDTA, plus trace  
353 elements (0.05 mM H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>4</sub>, 0.009 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.0008 mM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.0004 mM  
354 CuSO<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.0009 mM H<sub>2</sub>M<sub>07</sub>O<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O), pH 5.5. The seedlings, with the developing true  
355 leaf number 6 about 5 cm in length (soon after it had emerged), were then divided into four  
356 groups for different shading treatments, and grown for a further 14-d period. During the  
357 experiment, the Hoagland solution was topped up every three days.

358

### 359 **Shading Treatments**

360 Four treatments were used: plants growing in ambient conditions (A), young leaves shaded  
361 (YS), mature leaves shaded (MS) and the whole plants shaded (S). The irradiance at the  
362 exposed leaves was about  $1200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at noon; target leaves or seedlings were shaded by  
363 a piece of nylon net (Fig. 9), the maximum attenuated irradiance being about  $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

364 Two weeks later, when the true leaf number 6 became fully expanded, the middle section of true  
365 leaf number 4 (mature leaves) and number 6 (newly-developed leaves) were used for all  
366 measurements in this experiment. Every treatment had at least 6 replicates.

367

### 368 **Measurement of Gas exchange**

369 Gas exchange measurements were carried out using a portable gas-exchange system  
370 (CIRAS-2, PP-Systems, UK) with ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (350 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>) at an irradiance  
371 of 800 or 1200 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate ( $P_n$ ) and stomatal conductance ( $G_s$ )  
372 were recorded when the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake had become steady.

373

### 374 **Measurement of Chlorophyll *a* Fluorescence**

375 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence was measured with a Handy Plant Efficiency Analyzer  
376 (Hansatech, UK). Fully dark adapted seedlings (12 h) were used to determine the maximum  
377 quantum yield of photosystem II ( $F_v/F_m$ ) at 6:00. After the initial Chl fluorescence yield ( $F_o$ )  
378 was measured in modulated measuring light of negligible irradiance, a 1-s pulse of saturating  
379 red light (3500 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) was applied to obtain the maximum Chl fluorescence yield ( $F_m$ )  
380 and  $F_v/F_m$  was calculated as  $(F_m - F_o)/F_m$  where  $F_v$  is the variable Chl fluorescence yield)  
381 (Genty et al., 1989, Bilger and Björkman 1990). Plants were then placed under natural  
382 irradiance (1400-1600 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) with leaves stretched horizontally from 8:00 to 14:00 for 6  
383 h.  $F_v/F_m$  at 14:00 was measured after dark adaptation for 10 min.

384

### 385 **Counting of Stomata**

386 Stomatal density was determined followed the method of Coupe et al (2006). Once the  
387 developing leaves had become fully expanded, nail polish was applied to dental imprints to  
388 obtain a replica of the leaf surface. The replicas were observed under a light microscope  
389 (Nikon-E800) and a digital camera was used to photograph the replicas. The number of  
390 stomata was counted in 6 fields of view from the 6 marked leaves of 6 individual plants for each  
391 treatment.

392

### 393 **Measurement of Leaf Thickness, Mesophyll Thickness and Contact Area of Bundle Sheath**

394 **Cells**

395 Leaf segments ( $2 \times 2$  mm) without major veins were cut from the basal part of the leaf lamina  
396 with a razor blade. The segments were fixed in a solution containing 5% formalin, 5% acetic  
397 acid and 90% ethanol at 4°C. The fixed segments were dehydrated in a graded series of  
398 ethanol solutions and embedded in Spurr resin (Ladd, Burlington, Vermont, USA).

399

400 Light microscopy was carried out with 1- $\mu$ m thick transverse sections of the leaf cut with a glass  
401 knife on an ultramicrotome (Leica Ultracut R) and stained with 0.5% toluidine blue. Light  
402 micrographs were taken with a digital camera (BH-2, Olympus). Leaf thickness and  
403 mesophyll thickness were obtained using Photoshop software and 6 different positions were  
404 measured in each segment. The adaxial and abaxial mesophyll thickness was measured  
405 separately relative to the middle of the bundle sheath, which in general corresponded to the  
406 middle of the leaf. In Fig 10, the measurement of the adaxial and abaxial mesophyll tissues is  
407 shown in a cross-section micrograph, and calculation of the contact area of bundle sheath cells  
408 ( $\mu\text{m} \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ ) is explained in the legend.

409

410 **Chloroplast Ultrastructure**

411 Leaves were sampled within 2 h from the start of the light period. The segments ( $1 \times 1$  mm)  
412 were fixed at 4°C in 3% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2), and then treated  
413 with 1% osmium tetroxide overnight at 4°C. The fixed segments were dehydrated in a graded  
414 acetone series and embedded in Spurr resin (Ladd, Burlington, Vermont, USA). Transmission  
415 electron microscopy of chloroplast ultrastructure was done with 40-nm ultra-thin sections cut  
416 with a diamond knife on the ultramicrotome (Leica Ultracut R) and stained with uranyl acetate  
417 and lead citrate double staining. Chloroplasts of the uppermost part of the leaf sections were  
418 viewed under an electron microscope (JEM 1230; JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) and electron  
419 micrographs were taken with a digital camera (BH-2, Olympus). Photographs of chloroplasts  
420 were analyzed for the calculation of the thickness of granal stacks and the ratio of the  
421 cross-sectional area of granal to that of chloroplasts (%).

422

423 **Statistical Analysis**



424 Data were compared with the Duncan multiple comparison test using SPSS (Version 13.0) at  
425 the level of 0.05. Correlations of linear regressions were calculated using SigmaPlot (Version  
426 10.0).

427

## 428 **LITERATURE CITED**

429 **Anderson JM** (1986) Photoregulation of the composition, function, and structure of thylakoid  
430 membranes. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol* **37**: 93-136

431 **Anderson JM, Osmond CB** (1987) Shade-sun responses: compromises between acclimation  
432 and photoinhibition. In Kyle DJ, Osmond CB, Arntzen CJ (eds), *Photoinhibition*. Elsevier  
433 Amsterdam. New York, Oxford. pp: 1-38

434 **Anderson JM, Chow WS, De Las Rivas J** (2008) Dynamic flexibility in the structure and  
435 function of photosystem II in higher plant thylakoid membranes: the grana enigma.  
436 *Photosynth Res* **98**: 575-587

437 **Bilger W, Björkman O** (1990) Role of the xanthophyll cycle in photoprotection elucidated by  
438 measurements of light-induced absorbance changes, fluorescence and photosynthesis in  
439 *Hedera canariensis*, *Photosynth Res* **25**: 173-185

440 **Boardman NK** (1977) Comparative photosynthesis of sun and shade plants. *Annu Rev Plant*  
441 *Physiol* **28**: 355-377

442 **Chatterjee M, Sparcoli S, Edmunds C, Garosi P, Findlay K, Martin C** (1996) DAG, a gene  
443 required for chloroplast differentiation and palisade development in *Antirrhinum majus*.  
444 *EMBO J* **15**: 4194-4207

445 **Chen XY, Jiang CD, Zou Q, Gao HY** (2002) The steric structure of thylakoid and its  
446 regulation to distribution of excitation energy. *Plant Physiol Commun* **38**: 307-312

447 **Chow WS, Kin E-H, Horton P, Anderson JM** (2005) Granal stacking of thylakoid  
448 membranes in higher plant chloroplasts: the physicochemical forces at work and the  
449 functional consequences that ensue. *Photochem Photobiol Sci* **4**: 1081-1090

450 **Coupe SA, Palmer BG, Lake JA, Overy SA, Oxborough K, Woodward FI, Gray JE, Quick**  
451 **W** (2006) Systemic signalling of environmental cues in *Arabidopsis* leaves. *J Exp Bot* **57**:  
452 329-341

453 **Demmig-Adams B, Adams III WW** (1992) Photoprotection and other responses of plants to  
454 high light stress. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol* **43**: 599-626

455 **Genty B, Briantais JM, Baker NR** (1989) The relationship between the quantum yield of  
456 photosynthetic electron transport and quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence. *Biochim*  
457 *Biophys Acta* **990**: 87-92

458 **Karpinski S, Reynolds H, Karpinska B, Creissen G, Wingsle G, Mullineaux P** (1999)  
459 Systemic signalling and acclimation in response to excess excitation energy in Arabidopsis.  
460 *Science* **284**: 654-657

461 **Keddie JS, Carol B, Jones JD, Guissem W** (1996) The DCL gene of tomato is required for  
462 chloroplast development and palisade cell morphogenesis in leaves. *EMBO J* **15**: 4208-4217

463 **Lake JA, Quick WP, Beerling DJ, Woodward FI** (2001) Plant development: signals from  
464 mature to new leaves. *Nature* **411**: 154

465 **Long SP, Farage PK, Bolhár-Nordenkampf HR, Rohrhofer U** (1989) Separating the  
466 contribution of the upper and lower mesophyll to photosynthesis in *Zea mays* L. leaves.  
467 *Plants* **177**: 207-216

468 **Miyazawa SI, Living NJ, Turpin DH** (2006) Stomatal development in new leaves is related to  
469 the stomatal conductance of mature leaves in poplar. *J Exp Bot* **57**: 373-380

470 **Murchie EH, Horton P** (1997) Acclimation of photosynthesis to irradiance and spectral quality  
471 in British plant species: chlorophyll content, photosynthetic capacity and habitat preference.  
472 *Plant Cell Environ* **20**: 438-448

473 **Oguchi R, Hikosaka K, Hirose T** (2003) Does the photosynthetic light-acclimation need  
474 change in leaf anatomy? *Plant Cell Environ* **26**: 505-512

475 **Oguchi R, Terashima I, Chow WS** (2009) The involvement of dual mechanisms of  
476 photoinactivation of photosystem II in *Capsicum annuum* L. plants. *Plant Cell Physiol* **50**:  
477 1815-1825

478 **Osmond B and Förster B** (2008) Photoinhibition: Then and Now. In Demmig-Adams B, Adams  
479 III WW, Mattoo AK (eds), *Photoprotection, Photoinhibition, Gene Regulation, and*  
480 *Environment* pp: 11-22

481 **Oren R, Schulze ED, Matyssek R, Zimmermann R** (1986) Estimating photosynthetic rate and

482       annual carbon gain in conifers from specific leaf weight and leaf biomass. *Oecologia* **70**:  
483       187-193

484       **Rowan FS** (2002) C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis in terrestrial plants does not require Kranz anatomy.  
485       *Trends in Plant Sci* **7**: 283-285

486       **Soares-Cordeiro AS, Driscoll SP, Pellny TK, Olmos E, Arrabaca MC, Foyer CH** (2009)  
487       Variations in the dorso-ventral organization of leaf structure and Kranz anatomy coordinate  
488       the control of photosynthesis and associated signaling at the whole leaf level in  
489       monocotyledonous species. *Plant, Cell Environ* **32**: 1833-1844

490       **Sowiński P, Szczepanik J, Minchin EH** (2008) On the mechanism of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis  
491       intermediate exchange between Kranz mesophyll and bundle sheath cells in grasses. *J Exp*  
492       *Bot* **59**: 1137–1147

493       **Thain JF** (1983) Curvature correction factors in the measurement of cell surface areas in plant  
494       tissues. *J Exp Bot* **34**: 87-94

495       **Terashima I, Inoue Y** (1985a) Palisade tissue chloroplasts and spongy tissue chloroplasts in  
496       spinach: Biochemical and ultrastructural differences. *Plant Cell Physiol* **26**: 63-75

497       **Terashima I, Hikosaka K** (1995) Comparative ecophysiology of leaf and canopy  
498       photosynthesis. *Plant, Cell Environ* **18**: 1111-1128

499       **Thomas PW, Woodward FI, Quick WP** (2004) Systemic irradiance signalling in tobacco.  
500       *New Phytol* **161**: 193-198

501       **von Caemmerer S, Furbank RT** (1999) Modeling C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis. In Sage RF and Monson  
502       RK (eds), *C<sub>4</sub> Plant Biology*. Academic Press, San Diego, CA, USA. pp: 313–373

503       **Wojciech M, Klaas J van W** (2009) Cell-type-specific differentiation of chloroplasts in C<sub>4</sub>  
504       plants. *Trends in Plant Sci* **14**: 100-109

505       **Yano S, Terashima I** (2001) Separate localization of light signal perception for sun or shade  
506       type chloroplast and palisade tissue differentiation in *Chenopodium album*. *Plant Cell*  
507       *Physiol* **42**: 1303-1310

508

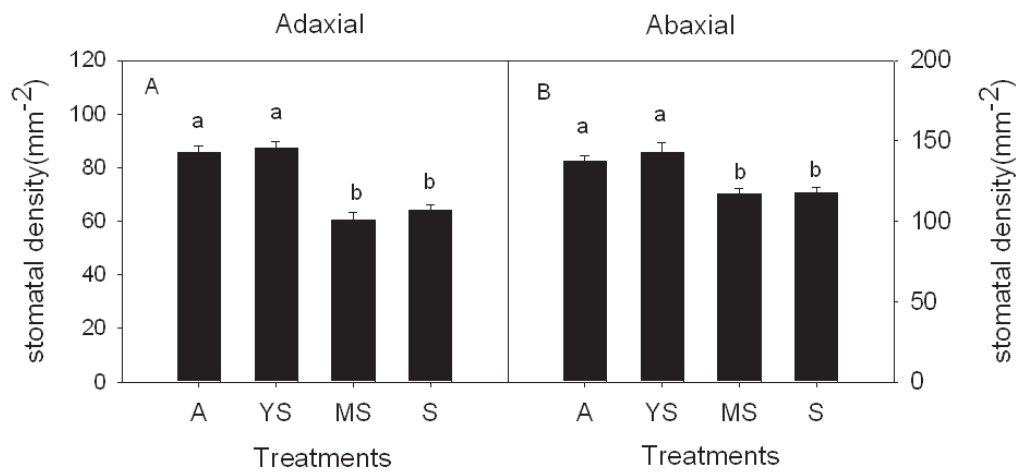


Fig. 1. Effects of shading treatments on stomatal density on adaxial (A) and abaxial (B) surfaces in newly-developed leaves. The shading treatments were: A, ambient conditions with no shading; YS, shading of young leaves; MS, shading of mature leaves; S, shading the whole plant. Data are means  $\pm$  SE of six replicates.

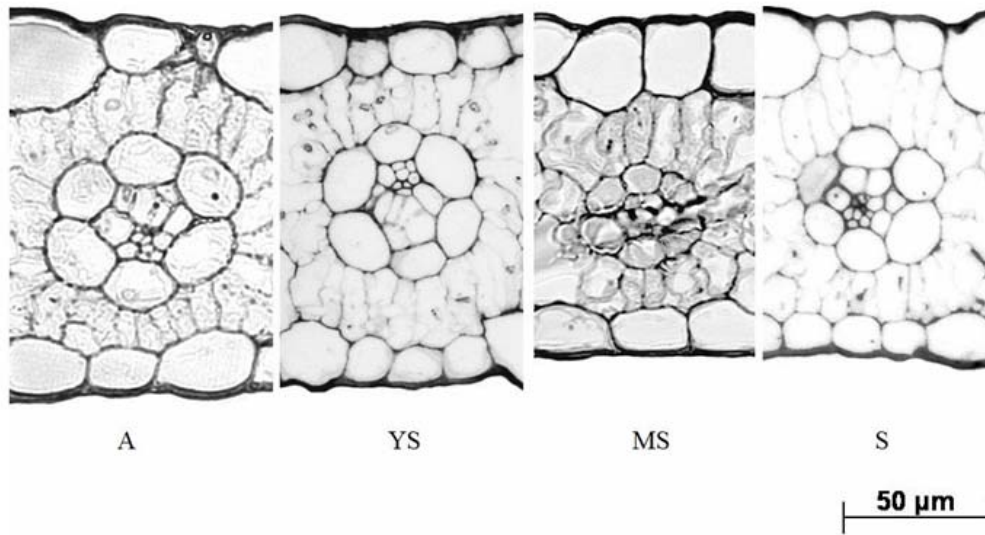


Fig. 2. Light micrographs of cross-sections of newly-developed leaves after four different shading treatments designated by symbols as given in Fig. 1.

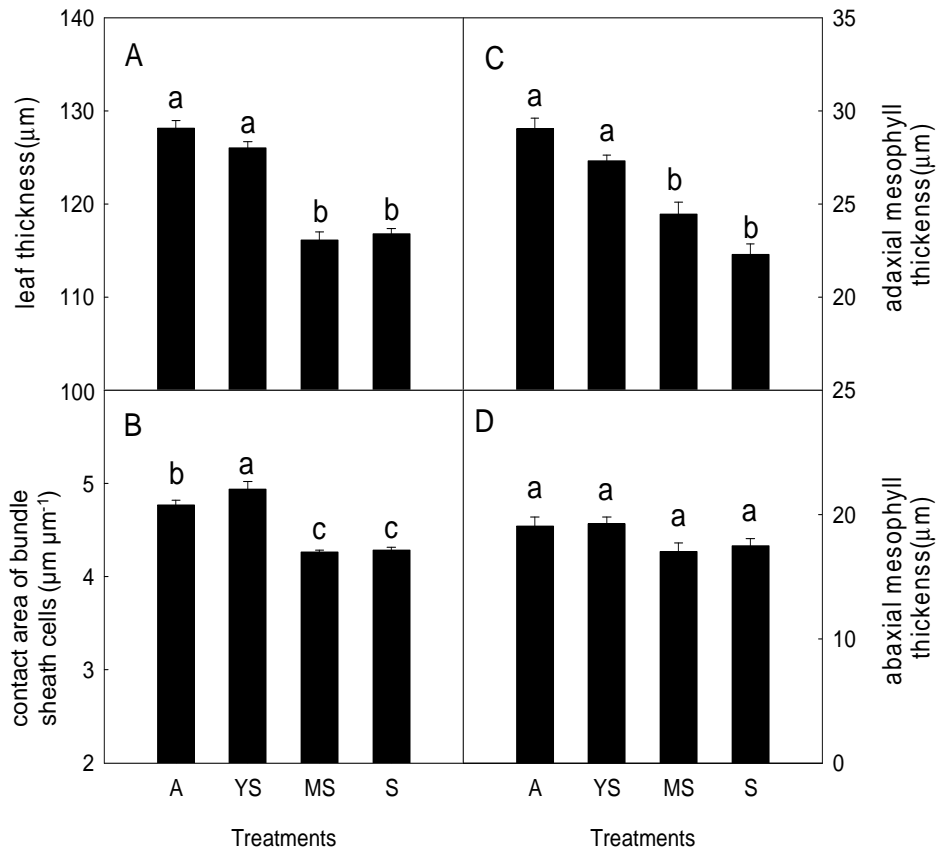


Fig. 3. Effects of shading treatments on leaf thickness (A), contact area of bundle sheath cells ( $S_b$ ) (B), adaxial (C) and abaxial (D) mesophyll thickness in newly-developed leaves. Data are means  $\pm$  SE of six replicates. Note that the y-axis on some panels does not begin at zero.

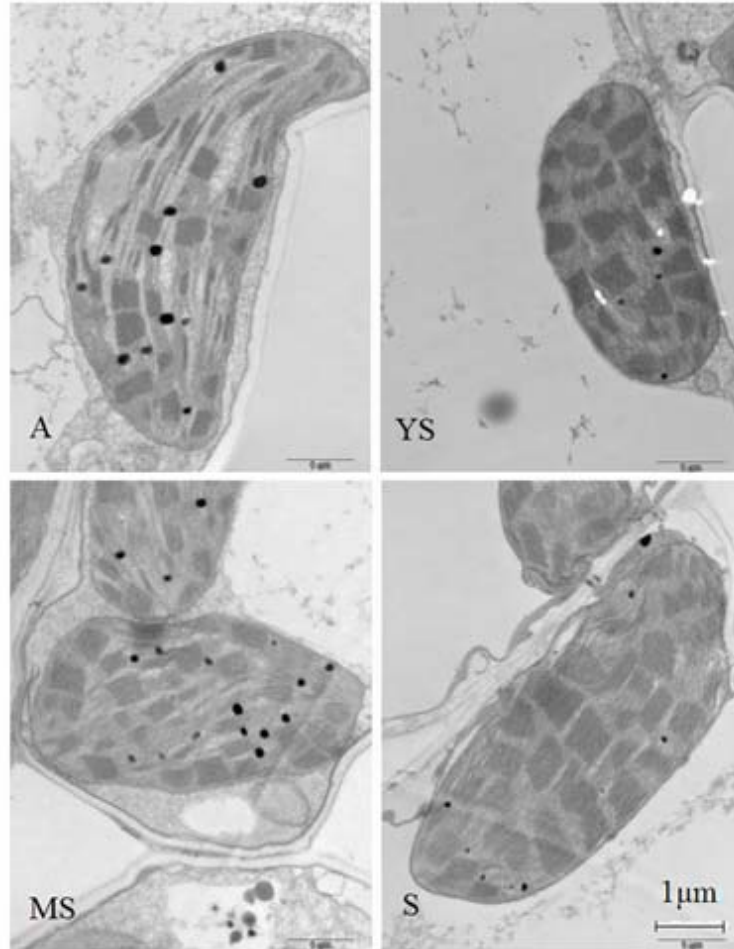


Fig. 4. Representative electron micrographs of chloroplasts in the uppermost mesophyll cells of newly-developed leaves after four different shading treatments of sorghum seedlings.

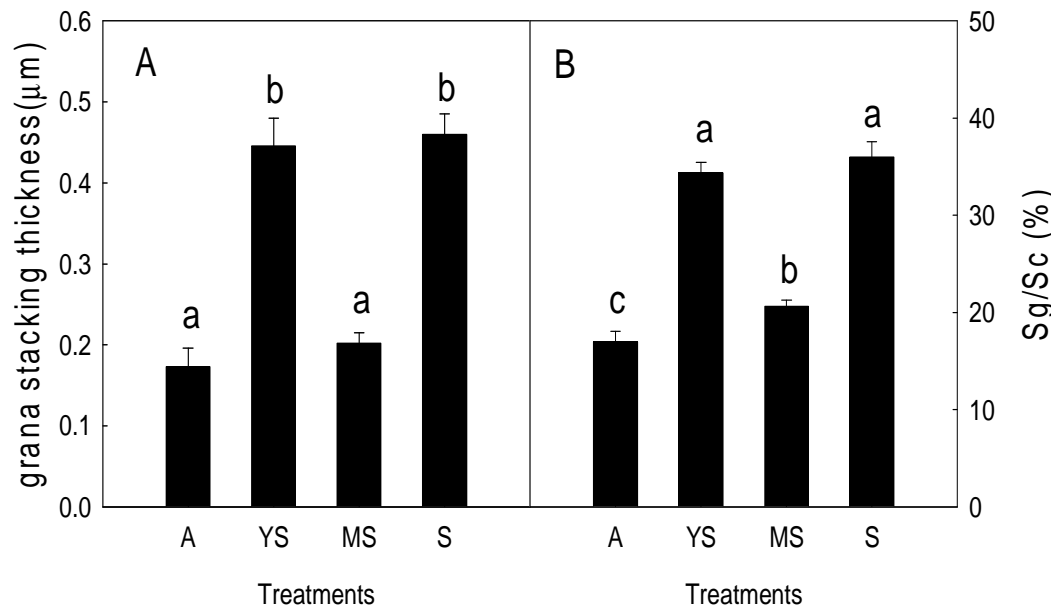


Fig. 5. Effects of shading treatments on the thickness of granal stacks (A) and the ratio of the cross-sectional area of all appressed thylakoids to the cross-sectional area of the chloroplasts ( $S_g/S_c$ ) (B) in newly-developed leaves. Data are means  $\pm$  SE of six replicates.



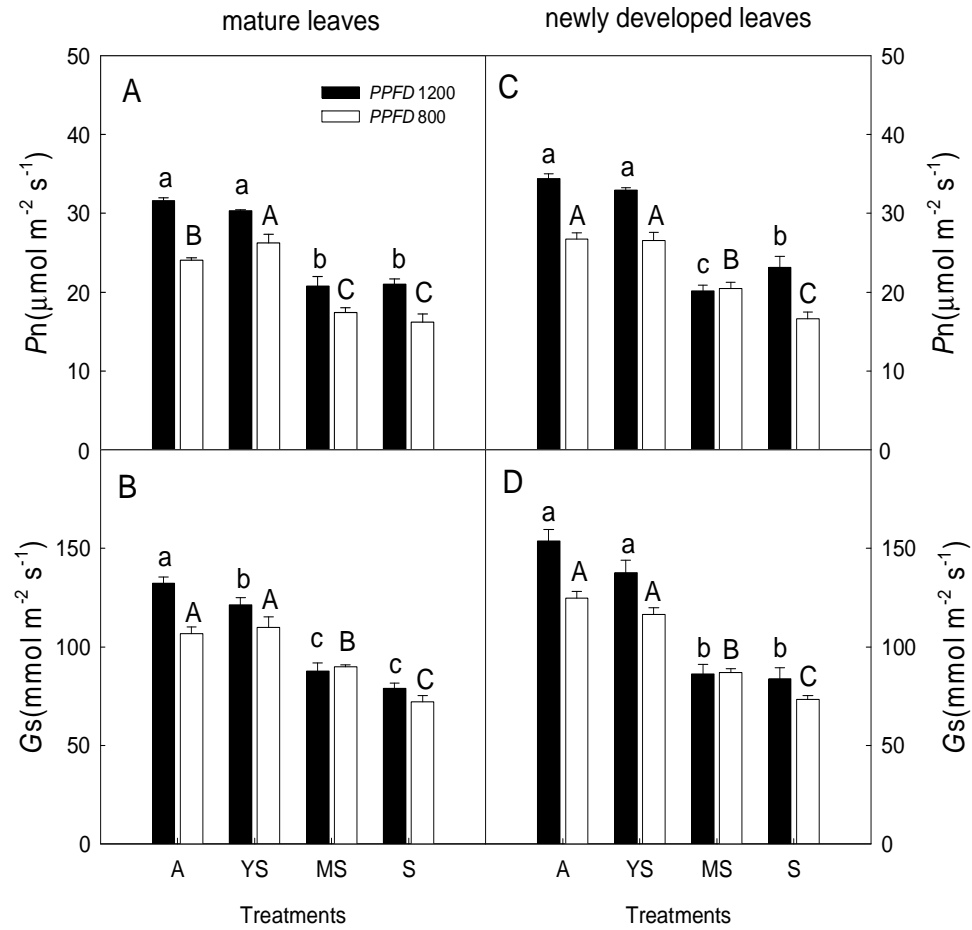


Fig. 6. Effects of shading treatments on net photosynthetic rate ( $P_n$ ) and stomatal conductance ( $G_s$ ) in mature leaves (A, B) and newly-developed leaves (C, D). The irradiance (PPFD) was controlled at 1200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (black bars) or 800  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (white bars). Data are means  $\pm$  SE of six replicates.

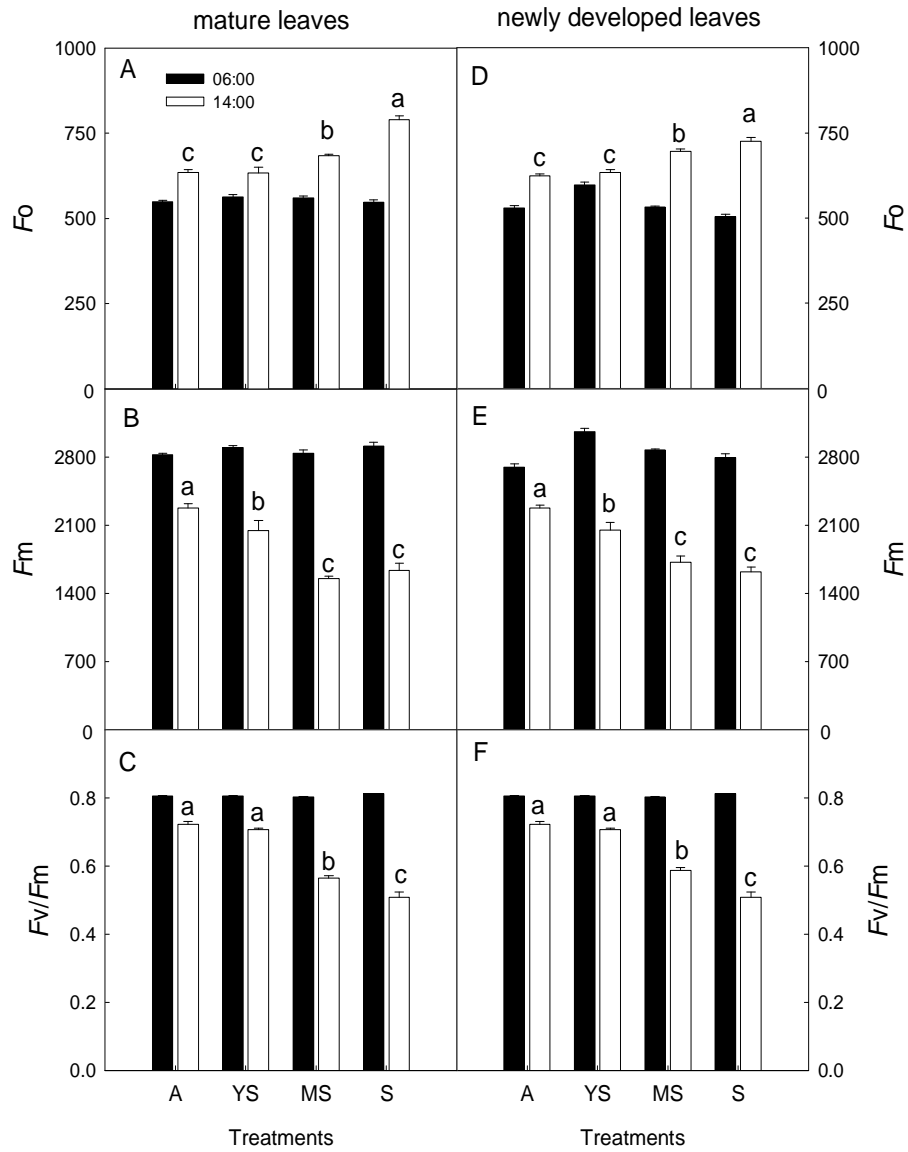


Fig. 7. The minimum fluorescence ( $F_0$ ), the maximal fluorescence ( $F_m$ ) and the maximum quantum yield of PSII photochemistry ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of mature leaves (A,B,C) and newly-developed leaves (D, E, F) at 6:00 hours (predawn, black bars) and at 14:00 (white bars). Data are means  $\pm$  SE of ten replicates.

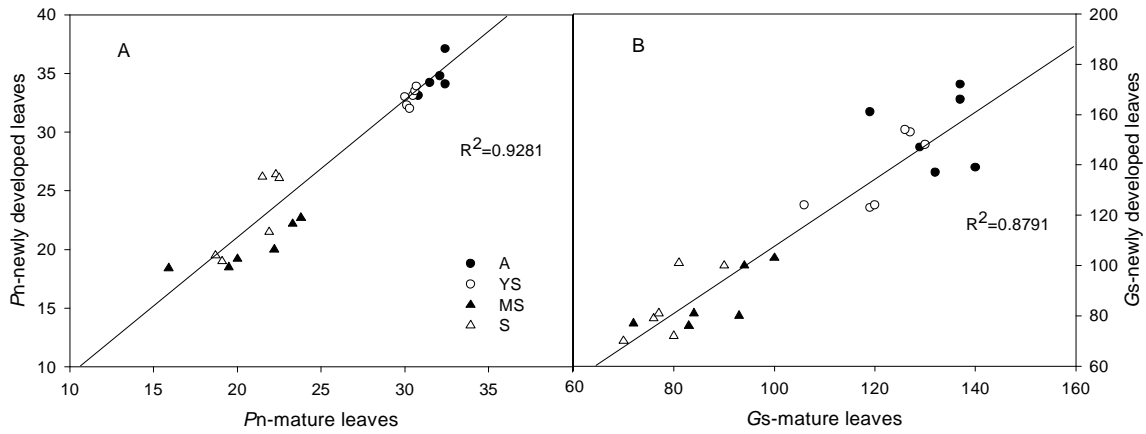


Fig.8. (A) Relationship between net photosynthetic rate ( $P_n$ ) in mature leaves and that in newly-developed leaves for different treatments; (B) relationship between stomatal conductance ( $G_s$ ) in mature leaves and that in newly-developed leaves for different treatments. Data were obtained from Fig. 6. Note that the y-axis does not begin at zero.

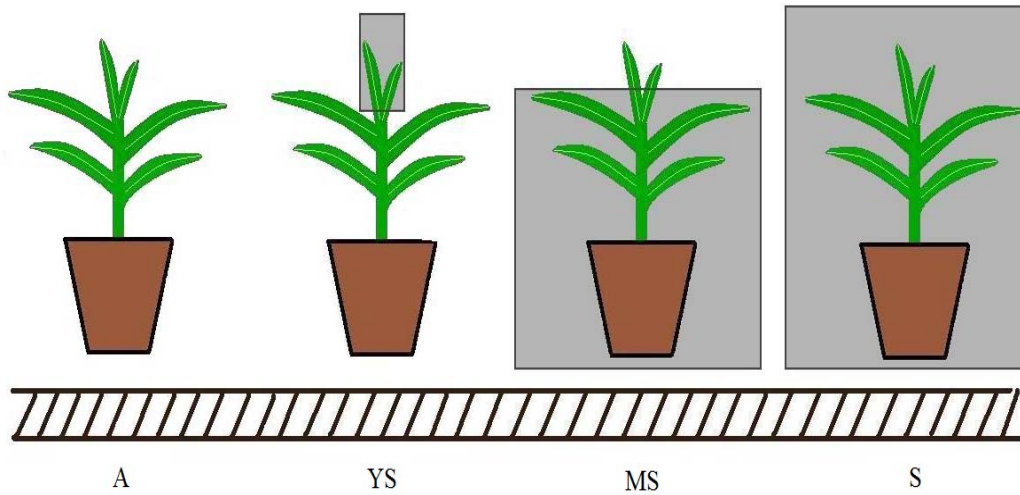


Fig. 9. Design of shading treatments. A: plant growing in ambient conditions; YS: young leaves shaded; MS: mature leaves shaded; S: the whole plant shaded.

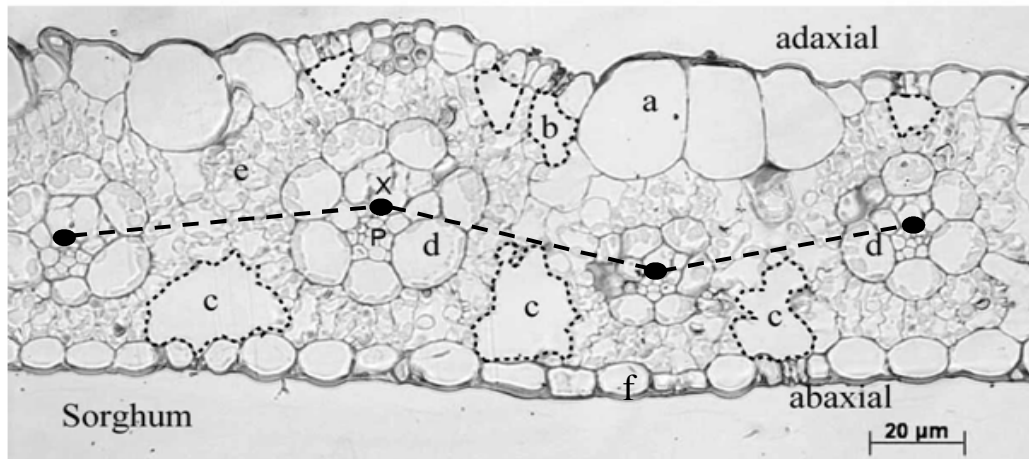


Fig. 10. An illustration of an image used to measure the adaxial (upper) and abaxial (lower) mesophyll tissues in a cross-section light micrograph. The adaxial and abaxial mesophyll thickness was measured separately relative to the middle of the bundle sheath as shown by the dashed-line, which in general corresponded to the middle of the leaf. Only mesophyll cells were included in the measurement of mesophyll thickness. The contact area of bundle sheath cells ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ ) was calculated using the method of Thain (1983) with the assumption that the bundle sheath cells were spheroid. The estimation was based on the total contact length between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells ( $L$ ), the bundle sheath width ( $W$ ) in the cross-section. The curvature factor ( $F$ ) was taken as 1.29-1.42 (Thain 1983). The contact area between bundle sheath and mesophyll cells ( $S_b$ ) was determined as:  $S_b = L \times F/W$ . a, motor cell; b, stomatal cavity at the adaxial side of leaf; c, stomatal cavity at the abaxial side of leaf; d, bundle sheath cells; e, mesophyll cells; f, epidermal cell; x, xylem; p: phloem.