Carbon dioxide gas exchange and the energy status of leaves of *Primula palinuri* under water stress

Karl-Josef Dietz and Ulrich Heber

Lehrstuhl Botanik I der Universität, Mittlerer Dallenbergweg 64, D-8700 Würzburg, Federal Republic of Germany

Abstract. The photosynthetic rate of water-stressed leaves of Primula palinuri was reduced drastically by stomatal closure, not by limitations imposed on the capacity of the photosynthetic apparatus, when water loss exceeded 20% of the water content of turgid leaves. The sudden decrease in phtosynthesis was not observed when the lower epidermis of the leaves had been removed. In these 'stripped' leaves, inhibition of photosynthesis increased only gradually during the wilting caused by increasing water stress and was complete when the relative water content was as low as 20% compared with the initial value. This corresponded to a water potential of about -40 bar. The light intensity at which half-maximum rates of photosynthesis were observed decreased as stress increased. In intact leaves photosynthesizing in the presence of CO₂, light scattering, which is a measure of thylakoid energization, increased steeply during stomatal closure. The observed increase corresponded to the light scattering level measured in the absence of CO_2 . When the lower epidermis was removed, no sudden increase in thylakoid energization could be observed during dehydration. Thylakoid energization remained high even at low water potentials. It decreased drastically only below a relative water content of 20%. Irrespective of the extent of water stress, CO₂ fixation of stripped leaves increased when the oxygen content of air was reduced from 21% to 2%. Usually the transition from 21 to 2% O₂ was accompanied by increased thylakoid energization. The increase in energization was more pronounced below than above a relative water content of 50%. The data show that energy-dissipating photorespiratory CO₂ turnover in the intercellular space of water-stressed leaves whose stomata are closed decreases only slowly as water stress in-

Abbreviation: RWC = relative water content

creases. Respiratory CO_2 production by leaves in the dark was even more resistant to water stress than photosynthesis. It was still significant at water potentials as low as -80 bar.

Key words: Leaf $(CO_2 \text{ exchange})$ – Light scattering (leaf) – Photosynthesis (water stress) – Photorespiration – *Primula* – Water stress (photosynthesis).

Introduction

During water stress, photosynthetic carbon assimilation is known to be reduced. There are different possibilities to explain this inhibition of photosynthesis. In leaves, water stress results in partial or complete closure of stomata. In consequence, the CO_2 -diffusion resistance is increased. In air and under high-intensity illumination photosynthesis is CO_2 -limited even when the stomata are open. While improving the water economy of the leaves, stomatal closure must therefore decrease photosynthesis (Moldau 1973; O'Toole et al. 1977; Settler et al. 1980). However, from calculations of the CO_2 concentration in the intercellular space, it has been suggested that the rate of photosynthesis may in some cases control stomatal aperture rather than reverse (for review see Farquhar and Sharkey 1982). If this were correct, water stress might affect photosynthesis directly and stomatal closure would be the secondary phenomenon.

In previous work with isolated spinach chloroplasts, spinach protoplasts and thin leaf slices from different plants which were suspended in media of different osmotic potentials, it could be demonstrated that osmotic dehydration indeed reduced photosynthesis and that the extent of inhibition depended on the extent of water loss. However, 350

inhibition was severe only after considerable dehydration. While the resistance to water loss differed in different plant species, comparable water loss produced comparable inhibition of photosynthesis in hygro-, meso- and xerophytes (Kaiser et al. 1981a, b; Kaiser and Heber 1981; Kaiser 1982). In the present study, we were interested to know whether the observations made on osmotically dehydrated organelles or cells were valid also for leaves subjected to dehydration in air. Furthermore, we wished to know whether photorespiration, a process known to dissipate energy rather than generating it, was affected by dehydration to a similar extent as photosynthesis. Photorespiration has been proposed to play a role in preventing photooxidative damage to the photosynthetic apparatus (Heber and Krause 1980; Osmond 1981). Such a role would be particularly important in water-stressed leaves in which stomatal closure precludes the dissipation of light energy accompanying a net gain in reduced carbon.

For our work, we have used excised leaves of *Primula palinuri*, a mediterranean mesophyte, whose lower epidermis can be easily removed (Bertsch 1969). We have examined light scattering and gas exchange by epidermis-free and intact leaves under conditions of water stress. Light-induced changes in light scattering by the leaves are an indicator of chloroplast energization in the light (Heber 1969; Krause 1973). They reveal changes in the chloroplastic ATP/ADP ratio (Köster and Heber 1982; Kobayashi et al. 1982) which is an important factor in the driving force for carbon reduction.

Material and methods

Primula palinuri L. was grown in a greenhouse. Leaves were harvested in the morning. Leaf fragments were cut out with razor blades. If desired, the lower epidermis was removed and the fresh weight of the leaf fragment was immediately determined. Gas exchange and light scattering were measured simultaneously in a plexiglas cuvette of volume 7 ml. Gases were taken from cylinders and, if necessary, mixed with a Wösthoff pump. The gas stream was divided into a reference and a measuring stream, which passed through the cuvette. The gas was moistened in a long, thin, glass tube with wet filter paper before entering the cuvette. After passage, the water content of the air was reduced by CaCl₂ and CO₂-concentration changes between the reference and the measuring stream were recorded by an infrared gas analyzer (BINOS 1 type Leybold-Heraeus, Köln, FRG). The flow rate was 151 h^{-1} .

The very weak 535-nm light needed to measure light-scattering changes was recorded by a photomultiplier, which was protected against actinic light (half band width 625 to 675 nm, RG 610 (Schott, Mainz, FRG) + KG 65 (Balzers, Liechtenstein) + heat filter (Toshiba, Japan)) by a suitable filter combination (Corning filter 9780, 9782, Corning, New York, N.Y., USA; BG 18, Schott, Mainz, FRG). The difference between light scattering in light and in dark was taken as a relative measure for the energization of the photosynthetic apparatus (Heber 1969; Kobayashi et al. 1982).

Standard series of measurements were performed in five different gas mixtures; air $(21\% O_2) + 380 \ \mu l l^{-1} CO_2$; air + 500 $\mu l l^{-1} CO_2$; air - CO₂; $2\% O_2 - CO_2$; and $2\% O_2 + 500 \ \mu l l^{-1} CO_2$. Light (5 min) was followed by darkness (5 min), during which the gas composition was changed. During one series of measurements the epidermis-free leaf fragments lost about 10% of their cellular water, as determined by weighing at the end. When gas-exchange and light-scattering data were plotted as a function of water loss, it was assumed that dehydration was linear with time between the first and the second weighing procedure. Between the measurements, leaves lost water in air of a relative humidity between 40 and 55% at 20° C. Relative water contents (RWC) were calculated according to

$$\mathrm{RWC} = (w_{\mathrm{a}} - w_{\mathrm{d}}) / (w_{\mathrm{f}} - w_{\mathrm{d}}),$$

where w_a , w_f and w_d are the weights of leaves after partial water loss, of fully turgescent leaves and of dried leaves respectively. Dry weights (w_d) were determined after 24 h at 95–100° C.

Osmotic potentials were calculated from the freezing-point depression of cell saps as determined with a Knauer semi-micro osmometer type M 2120 (Knauer, Berlin).

Results

Figure 1 shows simultaneous recordings of CO₂ gas exchange (A) and of the apparent absorbance (B) of a leaf, whose lower epidermis had been removed, during a standard series of measurements (see Material and methods) under different atmospheric conditions. Changes in the apparent absorbance of a green measuring beam by a leaf illuminated with (red) actinic light gives information on both the light-generated membrane potential and on the transthylakoid proton gradient which are believed to drive light-dependant ATP synthesis in chloroplasts. The membrane potential gives rise to the rapid absorption changes seen on illumination and darkening. They peak at 518 nm but are still clearly visible at 535 nm (for review see Junge 1977).

Slow changes in the apparent absorbance are caused by changes in light scattering which indicate formation or breakdown of the transthylakoid proton gradient. Both components of the signal are kinetically distinguishable as can be seen from the traces of Fig. 1.

When the leaf was illuminated in air containing CO_2 , massive CO_2 uptake replaced the respiratory CO_2 production observed in the dark. The highest assimilation rate was found in 2% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ CO_2 . Under these conditions, photorespiration does not decrease net CO_2 uptake in the light. In a stream of air from which CO_2 had been removed, respiratory CO_2 production was decreased in the

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Fig. 1. Simultaneous recordings of light scattering and CO_2 gas exchange by a *Primula* leaf, whose lower epidermis had been removed, in five different gas mixtures at approx. 100% RWC. It should be noted that the sensitivity of the BINOS gas analyzer to different CO_2 concentrations is not linear. Dashed line referes to the signal obtained in the absence of the leaf; to the left of dashed line: net CO_2 uptake; to the right of dashed line: net CO_2 gas exchange in dark and light in µmol CO_2 mg⁻¹ Chlorophyll h⁻¹

light, and it was almost completely suppressed when the O_2 concentration was reduced to 2%.

The slow light-scattering changes and the fast electrochromic shifts between light and dark were large in the absence of CO_2 and in low O_2 ; they were small in the presence of 21% O_2 (air), when CO_2 was also available. This indicates the decrease of thylakoid energization (or of the proton motive force) during rapid ATP consumption in photosynthesis (Köster and Heber 1982; Kobayashi et al. 1982). The decrease in energization observed in 21% O_2 compared with that in 2% O_2 is interpreted to be caused by photorespiratory energy consumption in 21% O_2 . It is often more clearly seen that in the experiments of Fig. 1 (compare Fig. 3 and Heber 1969).

In Fig. 2, the CO_2 gas exchange of intact *Primula* leaves is shown as a function of the relative water content (RWC). Between 100 and about 75% RWC, photosynthetic gas exchange followed



Fig. 2. CO₂ uptake by intact leaves in 0, 2% O₂+500 µl l⁻¹ CO₂; •, 21% O₂+500 µl l⁻¹ CO₂; □, 21% O₂+380 µl l⁻¹ CO₂; \diamond , 2% O₂-CO₂; and •, 21% O₂-CO₂ as a function of water loss (0% RWC = complete water loss). Light intensity: 35 W m⁻²; the rate of CO₂ production by respiration in the dark represented by zero on the ordinate. *Chl*, chlorophyll



Fig. 3A–E. Light scattering by intact leaves as a function of RWC in different gas mixtures (A–E); in F the curves of A to E are combined to show the effects of alterations in gas composition. Light intensity: 35 W m^{-2}

the pattern shown in Fig. 1. Below 75% RWC, the CO_2 fixation was diminished in all gas mixtures containing CO_2 . Near 20% RWC, the transition from dark to light no longer led to observable changes in CO_2 gas exchange, and both in the dark and in the light only CO_2 production by dark respiration could be seen (see also Fig. 9).

Light-dependent changes in light scattering measured simultaneously with gas exchange are shown in Fig. 3. In the absence of CO_2 and in the presence of low oxygen concentration, fully turgescent leaves exhibited large scattering changes

as a result of illumination (Fig. 3D). The lightscattering changes were small when CO_2 (380 and 500 μ l 1⁻¹) was present and the oxygen concentration was high (Fig. 3B, C). In 21% $O_2 - CO_2$ and in 2% $O_2 + CO_2$ the changes were between both extremes. The well-known decrease of light scattering by CO₂ (Heber 1969) was clearly visible between 80% and 100% RWC. Below 80% RWC, light scattering by leaves in atmospheres containing CO_2 increased to the levels which were close to those observed in the absence of CO_2 . It should be noted that this increase coincided with stomatal closure as apparent from the gas exchange measurements of Fig. 2. In water-stressed intact leaves, light scattering in 21% O₂+380 µl l⁻¹ or 500 μ l l⁻¹ CO₂ was similar to that observed in air from which CO₂ had been removed. Likewise, light scattering in 2% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l l^{-1} CO_2$ was not much different from that measured in $2\% O_2$ in the absence of CO₂. Below 30% RWC, light scattering tended to increase before extreme water loss prevented energization of the photosynthetic apparatus in the light. Generally, light scattering remained high even in severely wilted leaves until RWC values dropped below 20%. After such extreme dehydration, Primula leaves did not recover when supplied with water.

The removal of the lower epidermis of the leaves (which, for reasons of simplification, will be called stripped leaves) led to an altered response of CO_2 gas exchange and light scattering to water stress. This is shown in Figs. 4 and 5. Photosynthesis gradually declined as the stripped leaves lost water. The differences in gas exchange between the different gas mixtures were maintained in stripped leaves until photosynthesis was completely inhibited at RWC values below 20% (Fig. 4). The highest rates of photosynthesis were observed in 2% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l^{-1} CO_2$. Oxygen inhibition of photosynthesis and photorespiratory processes decreased net CO₂ uptake in 21% O₂+380 or 500 μ l l⁻¹ CO_2 . The drastic restriction of CO_2 assimilation observed with intact leaves at RWC values below 80% (Fig. 2) was not seen in stripped leaves. However, as in intact leaves, light-dependent changes in the CO_2 gas exchange were absent below 20% RWC.

While photosynthetic CO₂ uptake by stripped leaves was inhibited during progressive dehydration, CO₂ lost the ability to lower the energy status of the water-stressed leaves. This is shown in Fig. 5 where the ratio of light scattering observed in the presence of $380 \,\mu l \, l^{-1} \, \text{CO}_2$ to that measured in its absence is plotted as a function of RWC. Between 100 and 60% RWC, the ratio remained es-



Fig. 4. CO_2 uptake by 'stripped' leaves in 0, 2% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ CO_2 ; •, 21% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ CO_2 ; \Box , 21% $O_2 + 380 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ CO_2 ; \diamond , 2% $O_2 - CO_2$; \blacksquare , 21% $O_2 - CO_2$. See also legend to Fig. 2



Fig. 5. Effect of water stress on the ratio of light scattering with and without CO_2 in the gas stream. All points represent the mean \pm SD (N=3-5). The ascent of the curve was because of an increase of the light-scattering change in air + 380 µl l⁻¹ CO_2

sentially unchanged. Further water loss increased it significantly from 0.3 to 0.7.

In Fig. 6, CO₂ assimilation by stripped leaves is shown as a function of oxygen partial pressure at approx. 100 and 25% RWC. The response of photosynthesis to oxygen and to anaerobiosis was similar in turgescent leaves and in water-stressed leaves. Net photosynthesis was maximal at 2% O₂. It was suppressed in nitrogen + 500 μ l 1⁻¹ CO₂ and by high O₂ concentrations.

In Fig. 7 the relative increase in CO_2 uptake following a transition from 21 to 2% O_2 is plotted against the RWC of stripped leaves. Between 100 and about 50%, the ratio of photosynthesis in 2% O_2 to that measured in 21% O_2 remained essentially constant. Assimilation increased by about 15% when the O_2 content of an atmosphere containing 500 µl 1⁻¹ CO₂ was decreased from 21 to 2%. Below 50% RWC, it increased more.

A double reciprocal plot of the light dependence of photosynthesis in $2\% O_2$ at three different



Fig. 6. CO₂ uptake by a *Primula* leaf, from which the lower epidermis was removed at different O₂ concentrations. Light intensity: 35 W m⁻²; CO₂ content: 500 μ l l⁻¹. o, 100% RWC; \Box , 25% RWC. *Chl*, chlorophyll



Fig. 7. Percent increase of CO_2 uptake by stripped *Primula* leaves as measured during the transition from 21 to 2.1% O_2 as a function of RWC. Light intensity: 35 W m⁻²; CO_2 concentration in the gas stream: 500 μ l 1⁻¹



Fig. 8. Light intensity dependence of CO₂ fixation by a stripped *Primula palinuri* leaf at approximately 100% (▼), 45% (■), 25% (●) RWC as double reciprocal plot

water states of a leaf is shown in Fig. 8. The maximum rate of CO_2 fixation as well as the light intensities that led to half maximal photosynthesis were reduced by water stress (Table 1).



Fig. 9. Dark respiration and photosynthetic CO_2 uptake of a stripped *Primula* leaf under water stress as a function of water potential: the rates at 100% RWC (=7.5 bar osmotic potential) were set to 100%. Light intensity: 35 W m⁻²; CO_2 concentration: 380 µl l⁻¹ CO₂

Table 1. Maximal CO₂ fixation rate and light intensities that lead to half-maximum activities of the photosynthetic apparatus of *Primula* leaves at 100, 45, 25% RWC in 2% O₂+ 500 μ l l⁻¹ CO₂ as taken from the double reciprocal plot in Fig. 8. k_1 = light intensity; f_{max} = maximum rate of CO₂-fixation

RWC (%)	k_1 (W m ⁻²)	$f_{\max} \ (\mu mol \ CO_2/mg^{-1} \ chl \cdot h^{-1})$	
100	71	200	
45	48	91	
25	35	37	

Figure 9 compares the sensitivity of dark respiration and photosynthesis to increasing osmotic potentials of the leaf cell sap. At 100%, RWC *Primula palinuri* leaves usually had an osmotic potential of about 7.5 bar. At 20 bar, photosynthesis was reduced to 50% of the control; at 50 bar, inhibition was nearly complete. In contrast, dark respiration was reduced by only one half at 60 bar and there was still respiratory activity left at 80 bar.

Discussion

1. CO_2 fixation. When initially water-saturated leaves of *Primula palinuri* lost more than 20% of their cellular water, closure of the stomata lead to decreased CO₂-fixation rates (Fig. 2). Experiments with stripped leaves made it unlikely that the drastic response observed was caused by a primary inhibition of photosynthesis by water stress. Rather, the capacity of the photosynthetic apparatus for CO₂ reduction was only gradually diminished (Fig. 4). The removal of the lower epidermis by stripping reduced the weight of the leaves by about 6% and the chlorophyll content by about 0.1%. Apparently, there was no substantial destruction of mesophyll cells during stripping (Bertsch 1969). If the assimilation rate of leaves which no longer exhibit a substantial resistance to CO_2 diffusion (e.g. stripped leaves) is termed A_0 , and that of leaves after a stress treatment which limits CO_2 fixation is termed A, $(A_0 - A)/A_0$ is a measure of stomatal limitations on photosynthesis (Farquhar and Sharkey 1982). On the basis of the results shown in Figs. 2 and 4, one can compute that at an RWC of 80% the still-open stomata reduce photosynthesis by only about 20%. The values obtained for 70, 50 and 30% RWC are comparable and indicate an inhibition of photosynthesis by stomata of about 90%.

Responses of CO₂ fixation to reduced water potentials similar to those observed in stripped leaves of P. palinuri (Fig. 4) were also described by Kaiser et al. (1981a, b), Kaiser and Heber (1981) and Kaiser (1982), who bypassed stomatal diffusion resistance by using thin leaf slices suspended in media of different osmotic potentials. In spinach, 50% inhibition of oxygen production or ${}^{14}CO_2$ fixation in the light could be observed at osmotic potentials as high as 25 and 30 bar, and complete inhibition at about 50 bar (Kaiser et al. 1981 b). Cell saps of well watered P. palinuri and spinach leaves have comparable osmotic potentials (7–11 bar). Relating the osmotic inhibition of photosynthesis to the total protoplast volume of vacuum-infiltrated leaf discs as measured by the difference between ³H₂O-labeled space and ¹⁴[C]sorbitol-labeled space, Kaiser (1982) found a similar response of photosynthesis to water loss in xerophytes, hygrophytes and mesophytes. Complete inhibition of CO₂ fixation was observed at 20% relative protoplast volume. These results, which were obtained in an osmotic system, are very similar to our data with Primula leaves subjected to water stress by exposure to dry air. Also, when leaf slices of Commelina africana, Nerium oleander and Spinacia oleracea were gradually dried in air, severe inhibition of CO_2 fixation was measurable at 60% RWC and was complete at 20% RWC (data not shown).

2. Thylakoid energization. Changes in light scattering on illumination and darkening of chloroplasts are related to the formation and decay of the transthylakoid proton gradient (Köster and Heber 1982). In the absence of amines such as NH_4Cl , increases in ATP/ADP ratios accompanied increases in light scattering not only in chloroplasts but also in leaves (Kobayashi et al. 1982). In Fig. 3, an increase in light scattering was observed when stomatal closure decreased photosynthesis. This may indicate increased leaf phosphorylation poten-

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tials as a consequence of decreased ATP consumption. Light scattering remained high in intact leaves between 80 and 20% RWC. This indicates a high energization of the photosynthetic apparatus even during extensive wilting. In stripped leaves illuminated in air, light scattering increased during dehydration while photosynthesis declined (Fig. 5). It was always high when ATP demand was low in the absence of CO₂ (Fig. 1).

A comparison of the light scattering data (Fig. 3) with CO₂ reduction by stripped Primula leaves (Fig. 4) indicates that leaf energization, which is based on electron transport, is more resistant to water stress than CO_2 reduction. The data in Fig. 8 are consistant with the view that dark reactions limit photosynthesis under water stress. The light intensities needed for half-saturation of CO_2 reduction decreased with increasing water stress. Apparently, formation of the light products NADPH and ATP limited photosynthesis less than the dark reactions did. Still, it should be noted that high thylakoid energization at low water potentials, as shown in Fig. 3, does not necessarily indicate a particular resistance of ATP synthesis to water stress. Inhibition of ATP synthase (Younis et al. 1979) might decrease the supply of ATP without decreasing the proton gradient which gives rise to increased light scattering.

3. Energy dissipation and CO₂ turnover by photorespiration. In intact leaves, a large difference between the light-scattering levels in air and in 2% O₂ were maintained at RWC values ranging between 80 and 30%. Although stomata are closed in these leaves it must be emphasized that this does not stabilize intercellular oxygen levels during large changes in the external oxygen concentration. Closed stomata effectively control CO₂ fluxes, because diffusion gradients for CO_2 are small. They exert poor control on oxygen diffusion because of much larger diffusion gradients when the gas composition is changed from 21 to $2\% O_2$ or vice versa. In 2% O_2 , photorespiration is known to be largely inhibited, while significant photorespiration can proceed in 21% O₂. The complete oxidation of a sugar or sugar phosphate to CO_2 does not yield but consumes energy in the form of ATP and NADPH. The CO_2 liberated by photorespiration into the intercellular space of water-stressed leaves can be reassimilated. This process also consumes energy. The difference in energization of waterstressed leaves in 21 and 2% O₂, therefore, indicates energy dissipation by CO₂ turnover.

While CO_2 fixation by stripped leaves was decreased with increasing water stress both in 21%

 $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l \ l^{-1} \ CO_2$ and in 2% $O_2 + 500 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ CO_2 , inhibition was less pronounced in 2% O_2 at very low water potentials (Fig. 7). This indicates increased oxygenation of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) relative to carboxylation under very severe water stress, although the solubility of O_2 is decreased more than that of CO_2 when solutes such as KCl are concentrated by loss of water (May 1967). Increased oxygenation of RuBP under heat stress has been reported by Laing et al. (1974). Vapaavuori and Valanne (1982) failed to observe changes in the ratio of oxygenase to carboxylase activity of RuBP carboxylase (from Salix spp.) which was inhibited at low water potentials. In wilted leaves, the rate of intercellular CO₂ turnover is determined by the intercellular CO₂ concentration and by the effectiveness of the cells to produce CO_2 by photorespiration and to refix it by photosynthesis. Dark respiration which is very resistant to water stress (Fig. 9) could also be a potential source for CO_2 , if the suppression of dark respiration by light is relieved under conditions of water stress.

In a simplified calculation, it is possible to get an impression of the role photorespiration plays in dissipating light energy by permitting CO₂ turnover in wilted leaves. Table 2 shows CO₂ turnover rates in wilted leaves as calculated on the assumption (not really correct) that the CO_2 dependence of photosynthesis of a leaf is adequately described by Michaelis-Menten kinetics. In 21% oxygen, half-maximum photosynthesis of spinach protoplasts was observed at CO₂ concentrations between 8 and 12 μ M or 220 to 320 μ l l⁻¹ in the gas phase (Kaiser and Heber 1983). If $300 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$ is used together with the values for the maximum rate of CO_2 -fixation for photosynthesis in 21% O2 (data not shown, but similar to those of Table 1), CO_2 -turnover rates can be calculated for the different CO_2 compensation concentrations listed in Table 2. Plaut and Bravdo (1973) and Lawlor (1976) have measured CO_2 compensation concentrations in water-stressed leaves. At an RWC of about 50%, the CO_2 compensation concentration of spinach leaves was increased by about 30% compared with that of turgescent leaves (Plaut and Bravdo 1973). In wheat, Lawlor (1976) observed a similar increase; at 23% RWC, the CO₂ compensation concentration even reached $300 \ \mu l \ l^{-1}$. For the different RWC values listed in Table 2, CO_2 turnover was therefore calculated for three different assumptions of intercellular CO_2 concentrations.

Since production of $1 \mod CO_2$ in the photorespiratory carbon cycle consumes about twice as

Table 2. Internal CO₂ turnover (and associated ATP consumption) during water stress as calculated by $v = v_{max}/(1 + k_m s^{-1})$. v is the turnover rate in µmol CO₂ mg chl⁻¹ · h⁻¹, v_{max} is derived from the f_{max} values given in Table 1 which were corrected for the 15% inhibition of photosynthesis observed when 2% O₂ + 500 µl l⁻¹ CO₂ were substituted by 21% O₂ + 500 µl l⁻¹ CO₂ were substituted from 500 µl l⁻¹ CO₂ to saturating CO₂. k_m is the CO₂ concentration (300 µl l⁻¹) at which half-maximum rates of photosynthesis were observed in spinach protoplasts at 20° C and 0.28 mM O₂ (=21% O₂). The calculations of internal ATP turnover were based on the assumption that photosynthetic fixation of 1 CO₂ consumes 3 ATP and photorespiratory production of 1 CO₂ consumes 6 ATP

RWC (%)	Compensation concentration $(\mu l l^{-1})$	$v_{\rm CO_2}$	v _{ATP}
		$(\mu mol mg^{-1} chl h^{-1})$	
100	30	25	225
	50	39	351
	80	57	513
45	50	18	162
	80	26	234
	150	41	369
25	50	8	72
	150	20	180
	300	30	270

much ATP (and NADPH) (Heber and Krause 1980) as its refixation in photosynthesis, ATP turnover rates can also be estimated. They turn out to be very appreciable (Table 2). It should be noted that alternative calculations not based on leaf cell parameters as in Table 2 but on known k_{mCO_2} (17 µM CO₂; Badger and Andrews 1974), k_{IO_2} (350 µM O₂; Badger and Andrews 1974) and V_{max} (1,000 µmol CO₂ mg⁻¹ chl h⁻¹; Lilley and Walker 1975) values for ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase activity yield turnover rates which were even higher than those given in Table 2.

The CO_2 turnover indicated in Table 2 permits dissipation of light energy and may be one of the means to prevent photooxidative damage to the photosynthetic apparatus when net photosynthesis is not possible.

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