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**A comparison between yellow-green and green cultivars of four vegetable species in pigments, ascorbate, photosynthesis, energy dissipation and photoinhibition**

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1 **A comparison between yellow-green and green cultivars of four vegetable**  
2 **species in pigments, ascorbate, photosynthesis, energy dissipation and**  
3 **photoinhibition**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Yellow-green foliage cultivars of four vegetables grown outdoors, *i.e.*, Chinese mustard  
12 (*Brassica rapa*), Chinese kale (*Brassica oleracea* var. *alboglabra*), sweet potato (*Ipomoea*  
13 *batatas*) and Chinese amaranth (*Amaranthus tricolor*), had lower chlorophyll (29-36% of green  
14 cultivars of the same species), carotenoids (46-62%), ascorbate (72-90%) contents **per leaf area**.  
15 **Furthermore, yellow-green cultivars had smaller PSII antenna size (65-70%) and lower**  
16 **photosynthetic capacity (52-63%), but higher chlorophyll *a/b* (107-156%) and from low (60%)**  
17 **to high (129%) ratios of de-epoxidized xanthophyll cycle pigments per chlorophyll *a* content.**  
18 Potential quantum efficiency of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of all overnight dark-adapted leaves was ca. 0.8,  
19 with no significant difference between yellow-green and green cultivars of the same species.  
20 However, yellow-green cultivars displayed higher degree of photoinhibition (lower  $F_v/F_m$  after  
21 illumination) when they exposed to high irradiance. Although vegetables used in this study are  
22 of either temperate- or tropical-origin and include both  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  plants, with data for all  
23 cultivars combined for statistical analysis,  $F_v/F_m$  after illumination still showed a significant  
24 positive linear regression with  $q_E$ , xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching, and a  
25 negative linear regression with  $q_I$ , photoinhibitory quenching; **but  $F_v/F_m$  was not correlated with**  
26 **NPQ, non-photochemical quenching.** Yet, higher degree of photoinhibition in yellow-green

27 cultivars could recover during the night darkness period, suggesting repair of PSII in  
28 yellow-green cultivars was a rule for could be cultivated in the field.

29

30 *Additional key words:* *Amaranthus tricolor*; ascorbate-deficient; *Brassica oleracea* var.

31 *alboglabra*; *Brassica rapa*; chlorophyll-deficient; energy dissipation; *Ipomoea batatas*;

32 photoinhibition; photosynthesis.

33 \_\_\_\_\_

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35 *Abbreviations:* A - antheraxanthin;  $F_v/F_m$  - potential quantum efficiency of PSII; NPQ -

36 non-photochemical quenching; PPFD - photosynthetic photon flux density; PSII - photosystem

37 II;  $q_E$  - xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching;  $q_I$  - photoinhibitory quenching; V -

38 violaxanthin; Z - zeaxanthin.

39

## 40 **Introduction**

41 Many higher plants have mutants that are depleted in chlorophyll *a* and/or *b* and have light- or

42 yellow-green foliage (e.g. Gilmore *et al.* 1996, Goh *et al.* 2009, Dall'Osto *et al.* 2010). While

43 most of these mutants either do not survive or grow very slowly, a few are able to

44 photosynthesize and grow as rapidly as the wild type (Keck *et al.* 1970, Lin *et al.* 2003). In

45 some Asian countries, yellow-green foliage varieties of Chinese mustard (*Brassica rapa* L.

46 Chinensis Group), Chinese kale (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. *alboglabra* (Bailey) Musil) and

47 Chinese amaranth (*Amaranthus tricolor* L.) are very popular and important vegetables. In

48 addition, sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* (L.) Lam.) of green or yellow-green foliage is also

49 cultured as leaf vegetable. They have homogeneous, lighter colored leaves, compared with the

50 corresponding green cultivars. Some of them have been produced by seed company and could

51 fast-growing in the field (e.g. [http://www.knownyou.com/en\\_index.jsp](http://www.knownyou.com/en_index.jsp)).

52 It has been known that in strong irradiance, leaves absorb more photons than what they  
53 can utilize; and this excessively absorbed energy enhances the formation of reactive oxygen  
54 species that could damage many cellular components, including photosystems  
55 (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1992, Osmond and Grace 1995). Plants can utilize several  
56 mechanisms, such as xanthophyll-dependent non-photochemical quenching (NPQ), to dissipate  
57 the excess energy as heat (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996, Dreuw *et al.* 2003, Jahns *et al.*  
58 2009), and utilize antioxidants to reduce the oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen species  
59 from excessively absorbed energy (Smirnoff 2000). Within the xanthophyll cycle, violaxanthin  
60 (V) is de-epoxidized first into antheraxanthin (A) and then to zeaxanthin (Z) by violaxanthin  
61 de-epoxidase (Hager 1969). NPQ can be divided into at least three different components,  
62 namely,  $q_E$ ,  $q_T$  and  $q_I$ , according to their dark relaxation kinetics (Horton and Hague 1988,  
63 Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2001). Among them,  $q_E$  is the fastest component which relaxes within  
64 seconds to minutes (Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2001, Schansker *et al.* 2006). It is related to the pH of  
65 the lumen and sensitive to the presence of zeaxanthin.  $q_T$ , a state-transition quenching which  
66 relaxes within tens of minutes in vascular plants, was interpreted to represent the inactivation  
67 kinetics of ferredoxin-NADP<sup>+</sup>-reductase (Schansker *et al.* 2006). It is generally the smallest  
68 component of NPQ.  $q_I$  is photoinhibitory quenching which is caused by photoinhibition with  
69 very slow relaxation in the range of hours (Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2001).

70 It has been shown that ascorbate is a cofactor of violaxanthin de-epoxidase and an  
71 important antioxidant in chloroplasts (Hager 1969, Smirnoff 2000). Carotenoids are not only  
72 involved in the xanthophyll cycle, but also can prevent the harmful effects of singlet oxygen  
73 (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996, Dreuw *et al.* 2003, Jahns *et al.* 2009). Mutants lacking  
74 carotenoids cannot survive exposure to even very low level of light (Sager and Zalokar 1958,  
75 Anderson and Robertson 1960). *Arabidopsis* mutants with lower ascorbate content are  
76 sensitive to high light, and exhibit limited NPQ of chlorophyll fluorescence (Noctor *et al.* 2000,

77 Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2002, 2004).

78       Reduction of chlorophyll content reduces the ability of leaves to absorb photons. However,  
79 work on mutants lacking or deficient in chlorophylls in a number of plant species has indicated  
80 that changes in components and organization of the light-harvesting apparatus could also  
81 change the efficiency with which absorbed photons are subsequently used in photosynthesis  
82 (Peng *et al.* 2002, Lin *et al.* 2003, Henriques 2008, Goh *et al.* 2009). Previous studies have  
83 found that some chlorophyll-deficient mutants had lower carotenoids content and were more  
84 sensitive to high light than the wild type (Peng *et al.* 2002, Lin *et al.* 2003, Henriques 2008,  
85 Goh *et al.* 2009); and yet, little or no such difference was observed in some other mutants  
86 (Peng *et al.* 2002). Chlorophyll-deficient mutants insensitive to high light have been found  
87 with high capacity of photo- and/or antioxidative protection (Peng *et al.* 2002, Lin *et al.* 2003,  
88 Štroch *et al.* 2004).

89       Previous studies on this subject used chlorophyll-, carotenoids- or ascorbate-deficient  
90 mutants that would not grow as healthy or fast as wild types, especially under strong lighting  
91 (Sager and Zalokar 1958, Anderson and Robertson 1960, Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2004). In  
92 addition, none investigated the effect of deficiency of all these pigments. Recently, we found that  
93 sweet potato cultivars with yellow-green foliage (chlorophyll-deficient) had lower carotenoids  
94 and ascorbate contents than green-foliage cultivars (Jiang 2007). In this study, yellow-green  
95 foliage cultivars of four vegetables growing normally in the field have been used as materials  
96 to elucidate the characteristics of photosynthesis, energy dissipation and photoinhibition as  
97 related to deficiency in chlorophyll, carotenoids and ascorbate.

98

## 99 **Materials and methods**

100 **Plant materials:** A green-foliage cultivar and a yellow-green foliage cultivar for each of four

101 vegetables, *i.e.*, Chinese mustard, Chinese kale, sweet potato and Chinese amaranth, were used  
102 as materials. Detailed information of these cultivars is given in Table 1. Among them, Chinese  
103 mustard and Chinese kale are of temperate origin, and sweet potato and Chinese amaranth are  
104 of tropical origin. In addition, Chinese amaranth is a C<sub>4</sub> plant and the others are C<sub>3</sub> plants.

105 Sweet potato propagated from cuttings and the other three vegetables propagated from  
106 seeds were planted in pots (16 cm-diameter, 12 cm-depth) filled with sandy loam and placed  
107 outdoors to receive regular water and fertilizers (1/2 strength of Hoagland's nutrient solution)  
108 and full sunlight on the campus of National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan (24°  
109 10' N, 70 m a.s.l.). During the growth period of plants (Sept.-Oct, 2005), mean daily air  
110 temperature was about 27-26°C.

111

112 **Measurements of photosynthesis and chlorophyll fluorescence under artificial**  
113 **illumination:** In October, about a month after sowing or cutting, photosynthesis, chlorophyll  
114 fluorescence, leaf pigments and ascorbate of fully expanded youngest leaves were measured.  
115 Net CO<sub>2</sub> exchange rates were measured on attached fully expanded youngest leaves using a  
116 portable, open-flow gas exchange system (*LI-6400*, *LI-COR Inc.*, USA) with a LED light  
117 source (*6400-02*, *LI-COR Inc.*, USA) under near saturating (1500 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) photosynthetic  
118 photon flux density (PPFD), 25°C, 60-75% relative humidity and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
119 concentration (350-400 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>). Then the plants were dark-adapted overnight in a room  
120 (air temperature about 25°C). On the next day, the chlorophyll fluorescence of these plants  
121 were measured in a growth cabinet, and the surfaces of the same leaves used for photosynthesis  
122 measurement were illuminated with 1000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (sweet potato only) and 2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup>  
123 s<sup>-1</sup> (for all four species) PPFD at 10°C (for all four species), 25°C (Chinese kale and sweet  
124 potato only) or 35°C (Chinese kale and sweet potato only) for 30 min with cool light source

125 (halogen light source plus optical fiber), followed by a 30 min dark recovery period at each  
126 measured temperature. Chlorophyll fluorescence was measured every 2-5 min with a portable  
127 pulse amplitude modulated fluorometer (*PAM-2000*, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) from  
128 immediately before illumination to the end of dark recovery. **The potential quantum efficiency  
129 of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ) was calculated from  $(F_m - F_0)/F_m$ .** The light energy dissipated through NPQ was  
130 calculated from  $F_m/F_m' - 1$ , the light energy dissipated through formation of zeaxanthin from  
131 xanthophyll cycle ( $q_E$ ) was calculated from  $(F_m^d - F_m')/F_m'$ , and photoinhibitory quenching ( $q_I$ )  
132 was calculated from  $(F_m - F_m^t)/F_m'$ .  $F_0$ , the minimal fluorescence of dark-adapted leaves, was  
133 determined by applying a weak pulsed of red light ( $<0.1 \mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ).  $F_m$  and  $F_m'$  are the  
134 maximum fluorescence values of dark-adapted and light-exposed leaves, respectively; which  
135 were determined by applying a 1 s pulse of saturating flashes of approximately  $6000 \mu\text{mol}$   
136  $\text{quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .  $F_m^d$  and  $F_m^t$  are  $F_m$  measured at 2 min and 30 min after dark recovery,  
137 respectively (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996, Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2002).

138

139 **Pigments, ascorbate and PSII antenna size:** When measurements of gas exchange and  
140 chlorophyll fluorescence were completed, the measured leaves were removed for  
141 determination of chlorophyll and carotenoids contents. Three fresh leaf disks ( $0.84 \text{ cm}^2$ ) were  
142 extracted with 80% acetone and contents of chlorophyll *a*, *b* and total carotenoids were  
143 determined using a spectrophotometer (*U-2000*, Hitachi, Japan) using the absorbance at 440.5,  
144 645 and 663 nm by the equations of Arnon (1949) and von Wettstein (1957).

145 In addition, ascorbate and PSII antenna size were determined using fully expanded  
146 youngest leaves harvested at predawn. Ascorbic acid and dehydroascorbate were extracted and  
147 quantified from samples of fully expanded youngest leaves. Frozen leaf material (1 g) was  
148 ground to fine powder in a mortar prechilled with liquid  $\text{N}_2$ , and 2 ml 10% (w/v)

149 trichloro-acetic acid was added to the homogenate. After centrifugation for 15 min at 13,000 x  
150 g (4°C), the supernatant was transferred to a new reaction vessel on ice for immediate assays of  
151 ascorbic acid and dehydroascorbate (Kampfenkel *et al.* 1995).

152 Antenna size of PSII was estimated from the total area enclosed between the fluorescence  
153 induction curve, the vertical axis at time zero, and the maximal fluorescence ( $F_m$ ) horizontal line  
154 of DCMU (3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea)-poisoned leaves (Malkin *et al.* 1981, Maury  
155 *et al.* 1993). Detached fully expanded youngest leaves were infiltrated with 50 mM DCMU for 30  
156 min in darkness; and DCMU was initially dissolved in a small amount of ethanol, and then  
157 diluted in water containing 0.1% Tween 20 (Yi *et al.* 2005). The area over the fluorescence  
158 induction curve was detected using a Handy PEA fluorometer (*Plant Efficiency Analyzer*;  
159 *Hansatech Ltd.*, King's Lynn, Norfolk, UK) run by a Handy PEA software (Aksmann and Tukaj  
160 2008) under red actinic light intensity of 3000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (Yusuf *et al.* 2010).

161 Leaves for analysis of xanthophyll cycle pigments were harvested at noon of a clear day, and  
162 rapidly frozen by liquid  $\text{N}_2$  and stored at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  until use. Frozen sample of 20-30  $\text{cm}^2$  was  
163 homogenized in a mortar prechilled with liquid  $\text{N}_2$ , and pigments were extracted with 5 ml  
164 acetone. After centrifugation (30,000 x g, 4°C for 30 min), pigments were quantified by  
165 high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC, L-7100 and L-7200, Hitachi, Japan) adapted from  
166 Gilmore and Yamamoto (1991).

167

168 **Chlorophyll fluorescence under mid-day sunlight:** From October to January,  $F_v/F_m$  of  
169 Chinese kale and sweet potato was measured every 1 to 5 days at noon. The potted materials  
170 were put outdoors to receive full sunlight until noon, and then they were moved to a darkroom  
171 without air-con for 30 min to avoid an underestimate of  $F_v/F_m$ , because a large  $F_0$  value could  
172 result from the high leaf temperature when the leaf was clipped under high illumination (Weng



173 2006). Chlorophyll fluorescence was measured by a fluorometer (*PAM-2000*).

174 Air temperature and PPFD were measured by copper-constantan thermocouples and  
175 *LI-190SA* sensor (*LI-COR*, USA), respectively. The sensors were connected to a data-logger  
176 (*CR10*, *Campbell Scientific INC.*, USA); and data were collected automatically every 2-minute  
177 and the averaged values of each hour were recorded.

178

179 **Statistics:** Four leaves were measured in each treatment, and data from each leaf was taken as  
180 one replicate in statistical analyses. Data were analyzed by unpaired t-test or linear regression,  
181 and performed with Sigma Plot (*version 9.01*; *Systat Software, Inc.*, Point Richmond, CA,  
182 USA).

183

## 184 **Results**

185 Compared with the corresponding green cultivars, yellow-green cultivars of all four species  
186 contained less chlorophyll (29-36% of green cultivars in the same species), carotenoids (46-62%)  
187 and ascorbate (72-90%) per leaf area. Furthermore, yellow-green cultivars had smaller PSII  
188 antenna size (65-70%) and lower photosynthetic capacity (52-63%), but higher chlorophyll *a/b*  
189 (107-156%) and PSII antenna size/chlorophyll *a* (189-209%) ratios, and from low (60%) to high  
190 (129%) ratios of de-epoxidized xanthophyll cycle pigments (*A+Z*) per chlorophyll *a* content. In  
191 addition, the yellow-green cultivars had (*A+Z*)/(*V+A+Z*) ratios close to (91-97%) their  
192 corresponding green cultivars, except that the yellow-green cultivars of sweet potato showed a  
193 lower ratio (56%) (Table 2).

194  $F_v/F_m$  of all overnight dark-adapted leaves was ca. 0.8, with no significant difference  
195 between yellow-green and green cultivars of the same species (Fig. 1). However  $F_v/F_m$   
196 decreased with the decline of temperature and the increase of light intensity, when leaves were  
197 treated with artificial illumination. Under high irradiance ( $2000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), all tested

198 yellow-green cultivars measured at 10°C, 25°C and 35°C showed significantly lower  $F_v/F_m$  than  
199 the green foliage cultivars of the same species. Under medium irradiance ( $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  
200 only sweet potatoes were measured and there was significant difference between yellow-green  
201 and green cultivars only at 15°C, but not at 25 and 35°C. Merging data obtained from different  
202 levels of temperature and irradiance, the difference of  $F_v/F_m$  between green and yellow-green  
203 cultivars of the same species was higher at lower temperature and higher irradiance (Fig. 1).

204 At outdoors, in spite of a higher variation of air temperature (13-29°C at noon),  $F_v/F_m$  at  
205 noontime showed a significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) negative linear, for both cultivars of sweet potato and  
206 green Chinese kale, or curve-linear, for yellow-green Chinese kale, correlation with PPFD (Fig.  
207 2). At low level of irradiance, both green and yellow-green cultivars could maintain high level  
208 of  $F_v/F_m$ . However, the slope of  $F_v/F_m$ -PPFD regression line was higher in yellow-green foliage  
209 cultivars from low to high (sweet potato) or at high (Chinese kale) irradiance. Therefore, there  
210 was no significant difference for  $F_v/F_m$  between green and yellow-green foliage cultivars at low  
211 level of irradiance. But at higher irradiance, *i.e.* PPFD > 250  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  for sweet potato, and  
212 PPFD > 1000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  for Chinese kale, yellow-green foliage cultivars showed significant lower  
213  $F_v/F_m$  than green foliage cultivars, and the difference of  $F_v/F_m$  between green and yellow-green  
214 foliage cultivars increased with increasing irradiance (Fig. 2).

215 Under artificial illumination, NPQ of yellow-green cultivars for Chinese amaranth, Chinese  
216 mustard and Chinese kale was higher than that of their green cultivars (Fig. 3I-L). For sweet  
217 potato, there was no significant difference in NPQ between the green and yellow-green cultivars  
218 at 25°C and 35°C, but yellow-green cultivar showed lower NPQ than green-foliage cultivar at  
219 10°C. Compared with the green cultivar of the same species, four yellow-green cultivars always  
220 showed either higher  $q_I$  or lower  $q_E$ , or both (Fig. 3A-H).  $F_v/F_m$  after illumination showed a  
221 significant positive linear regression with  $q_E$  ( $r^2 = 0.668$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and a negative one with  $q_I$  ( $r^2 =$

222 -0.613,  $p < 0.001$ ); but  $F_v/F_m$  was not correlated with NPQ ( $r^2 = -0.168$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) when data for  
223 all tested species, illumination and temperature were merged (Fig. 4).

224

## 225 Discussion

226 There are two types of chlorophyll mutants were reported, *i.e.* both chlorophyll *a* and *b*  
227 synthesis were restricted and all chlorophyll *b* synthesis was inhibited (Gilmore *et al.* 1996, Lin *et*  
228 *al.* 2003). Results of the present study indicate that, chlorophyll *a+b* content and *a/b* ratio of  
229 yellow-green cultivars of 4 vegetable species were 29-36% and 107-156% of those of the  
230 corresponding green-foliage cultivars (Table 2). This implies that the 4 yellow-green cultivars  
231 tested in present study were depleted of both chlorophyll *a* and *b* contents. The physiological  
232 characteristics of this type of chlorophyll mutants have been studied widely, and showed  
233 polymorphism among mutants. For example, compared to the wild type, barley *chlorina* mutant  
234 *f<sub>104</sub>* had about 50% less chlorophyll *a+b*; it showed little difference in thermal dissipation and  
235 photoinhibition. The mutant contained high level of de-epoxidation states of xanthophylls, and  
236 required around 2.5 times higher concentration of these xanthophylls relative to chlorophyll *a+b*  
237 to obtain the same levels of xanthophyll cycle-dependent fluorescence quenching (Gilmore *et al.*  
238 1996, Peng and Glimore 2002). A Syrian barley landrace, Tadmor, had about 30% less in the  
239 chlorophyll *a+b* and carotenoid contents; it had a higher ability of converting violaxanthin to  
240 zeaxanthin, and a lower degree of photoinhibition in strong light (Tardy *et al.* 1998). A  
241 chlorophyll-deficient rice mutant showed a lower photon absorption rate, and a stronger  
242 xanthophyll cycle capacity and a lower degree of photoinhibition (Dai *et al.* 2003). On the other  
243 hand, some chlorophyll-deficient rice mutants displayed higher degree of photoinhibition, either  
244 having lower abilities of thermo-dissipation and antioxidative protection (Goh *et al.* 2009) or a  
245 higher level of de-epoxidation states of xanthophylls (Chen *et al.* 2008). The results of the

246 present study indicated that, although vegetables used in this study are of either temperate- or  
247 tropical-origin and include C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> plants, 4 yellow-green cultivars showed the **same tendency**  
248 **on changes in energy dissipation and photoinhibition (Figs. 1-3). However, these results are not**  
249 **entirely consistent with other reported chlorophyll-deficit mutants.** In addition, even though  
250 yellow-green cultivars displayed higher degree of photoinhibition when they exposed to high  
251 irradiance, however, could recover during the night darkness period (Fig. 2). Probably, these  
252 physiological characteristics caused why they could grow normally in the field.

253 It has been reported that several chlorophyll mutants could change their efficiency of energy  
254 dissipation and antioxidative protection in order to adapt to high irradiance (Peng *et al.* 2002,  
255 Štroch *et al.* 2004, Chen *et al.* 2008, Goh *et al.* 2009). The same tendency has also been found in  
256 mutants with low ascorbate content (Noctor *et al.* 2000, Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2002, 2004).  
257 Moreover, the size of light-harvesting complex as well as the capacity of photo- and antioxidative  
258 protection can be modulated in response to changes of lighting in the environment (Kurasová *et*  
259 *al.* 2002, Štroch *et al.* 2004, Chen *et al.* 2008). Therefore, light sensitivity of some chlorophyll  
260 deficient mutants varied with the light condition of growth (Štroch *et al.* 2004).

261 In the present study, plants were placed outdoors to receive full sunlight. Results indicated  
262 that yellow-green cultivars exposed to high irradiance, especially at low temperature, showed  
263 higher degree of photoinhibition (lower  $F_v/F_m$  after illumination) than the corresponding green  
264 cultivars (Figs. 1-2). Photoinhibition is known to be due to the formation of reactive oxygen  
265 species, which is enhanced by excessively absorbed energy, and both high irradiance and low  
266 temperature in turn enhance the absorption of excess energy by the plants (Baker 1994, Leegood  
267 1995). Plants could dissipate excess energy and enhance antioxidative protection to avoid  
268 photoinhibition (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996, Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2004). As described in  
269 the introduction, carotenoids and ascorbate are important for energy dissipation and antioxidative  
270 protection. Reports have pointed out that mutants with low ascorbate content (Noctor *et al.* 2000,

271 Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2002, 2004), or both low chlorophyll and carotenoids contents (Goh *et al.*  
272 2009) have somewhat reduced NPQ levels, because of the limitation of violaxanthin to  
273 zeaxanthin conversion in conditions of excess light. Compared to green cultivars in the same  
274 species, four tested yellow-green cultivars all possessed 46-62% in carotenoids and 72-90% in  
275 ascorbate contents of leaf area level. However, only yellow-green sweet potato had lower  
276 (A+Z)/(V+A+Z) ratio (Table 2), and also showed lower NPQ than green-foilage cultivar at low  
277 temperature (Fig. 3I-L). The variation of (A+Z)/(V+A+Z) and NPQ of the other three  
278 yellow-green cultivars did not agree with the results obtained from sweet potato and mentioned  
279 above pigment mutants. Probably, since yellow-green cultivars had higher carotenoids  
280 (130-198%) and ascorbate (196-251%) contents per chlorophyll *a*, these did not cause the  
281 limitation from violaxanthin conversion to zeaxanthin.

282 Although three yellow-green cultivars (Chinese mustard, Chinese kale and Chinese  
283 amaranth) showed higher NPQ than, and had (A+Z)/(V+A+Z) ratio close to their corresponding  
284 green cultivars (Table 2 and Fig.3), all four tested yellow-green cultivars showed higher degree of  
285 photoinhibition than the corresponding green cultivars, when they were exposed to high  
286 irradiance (Figs. 1-2). What are the possible causes for this inconsistency? One could be due to  
287 the fact that yellow-green cultivars had high PSII antenna size/chlorophyll *a* ratio (189-209%,  
288 Table 2) so that they may receive more light energy per reaction center. The other cause was  
289 possibly related to the components of NPQ. Among three components of NPQ, only  $q_E$  is related  
290 to the xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching, while  $q_I$  is photoinhibitory quenching and  
291  $q_T$  is a state-transition quenching (Müller-Moulé *et al.* 2001, Kalituho *et al.* 2007). Fig. 4 shows,  
292 after illumination, the degree of photoinhibition ( $F_v/F_m$  after illumination) was closely related to  
293  $q_E$  and  $q_I$ , but not to NPQ, when data from all the tested species, illumination and temperature  
294 were merged. These results indicate that, taking into consideration of different effects of  
295 temperature and light intensity on the species and cultivars, the degree of photoinhibition was

296 still closely related to xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching and photoinhibitory  
297 quenching. Moreover, with NPQ mainly comprised of  $q_E$  and  $q_I$ , the values of  $q_E$  and  $q_I$  were  
298 complementary to each other ( $r^2 = -0.632$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, NPQ did not parallel with the  
299 energy dissipated through de-epoxidation of xanthophyll cycle pigments, and  $F_v/F_m$  showed  
300 lower regression with NPQ ( $r = -0.410$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

301 Compared with the green cultivar of the same species, four yellow-green cultivars always  
302 showed either lower  $q_E$  or higher  $q_I$ , or both (Fig. 3A-H), suggesting that yellow-green cultivars  
303 always had lower ability of xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching and higher level of  
304 photoinhibitory quenching. This result is not consistent with the observations that (1) only  
305 yellow-green sweet potato showed lower  $(A+Z)/(V+A+Z)$  ratio (Table 2), and (2)  
306  $(A+Z)/\text{chlorophylls } a$  ratio of four tested yellow-green cultivars varied with species  
307 (60%-129%). Previous reports have demonstrated that energy dissipation is influenced by both  
308 pigments and proteins, such as PsbS (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996, Kalituho *et al.* 2007,  
309 III Dall'Osto *et al.* 2010). The inconsistency between energy dissipation and xanthophyll cycle  
310 pigments contents is probably due to the effect of proteins. However, these were not examined  
311 in our study, but would certainly warrant future investigation. Moreover, Müller-Moulé *et al.*  
312 (2004) pointed out that under high irradiance ascorbate-deficient *Arabidopsis* mutant had  
313 higher level of glutathione, an antioxidant, than the wild type, which might provide a possible  
314 compensation for its lower ascorbate content. Since only ascorbate and carotenoids were  
315 analyzed, the contribution of other antioxidants cannot be evaluated in the current study.

316 The results of the present study indicated that the four yellow-green, carotenoids- and  
317 ascorbate-deficient vegetable cultivars all showed higher degree of photoinhibition than the  
318 corresponding green cultivars. Moreover, these yellow-green cultivars always showed either  
319 lower xanthophyll cycle-dependent energy quenching ( $q_E$ ) or higher photoinhibitory quenching  
320 ( $q_I$ ), or both. However, probably due to the effect of the proteins, the energy dissipation and

321 photoinhibition data of these cultivars are inconsistent with the findings of their xanthophyll  
322 cycle pigment components as well as their per chlorophyll *a* level of carotenoids and ascorbate  
323 contents. In addition, higher degree of photoinhibition in yellow-green cultivars due to high  
324 irradiance could recover during the night darkness period. It suggested that repair of PSII in  
325 yellow-green cultivars was also a rule for could grow normally in the field.

326

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- 435

436 Table 1. Cultivars of four vegetables species used in this study.

Species	Foliage color	Cultivar
Chinese mustard ( <i>Brassica rapa</i> )	Green	Yu-tsai-sum
	Yellow-green	Speedy (Funshan)
Chinese kale ( <i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>alboglabra</i> )	Green	Hei Chiehlan
	Yellow-green	Huang Chiehlan
Sweet potato ( <i>Ipomoea batatas</i> )	Green	Taoyuan No.1
	Yellow-green	CH-1
Chinese amaranth ( <i>Amaranthus</i> <i>tricolor</i> )	Green	Hunshien
	Yellow-green	Baishien

437

438 Table 2. Leaf chlorophyll (Chl), carotenoid, the de-epoxidation level of xanthophyll cycle pigment [(A+Z)/(V+A+Z) and (A+Z)/Chl a] at noon  
 439 of clear day and ascorbate contents, as well as antenna size and photosynthetic capacity ( $P_N$ , measured under  $1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD) of green (G)  
 440 and yellow-green (YG) foliage cultivars of 4 vegetable species.

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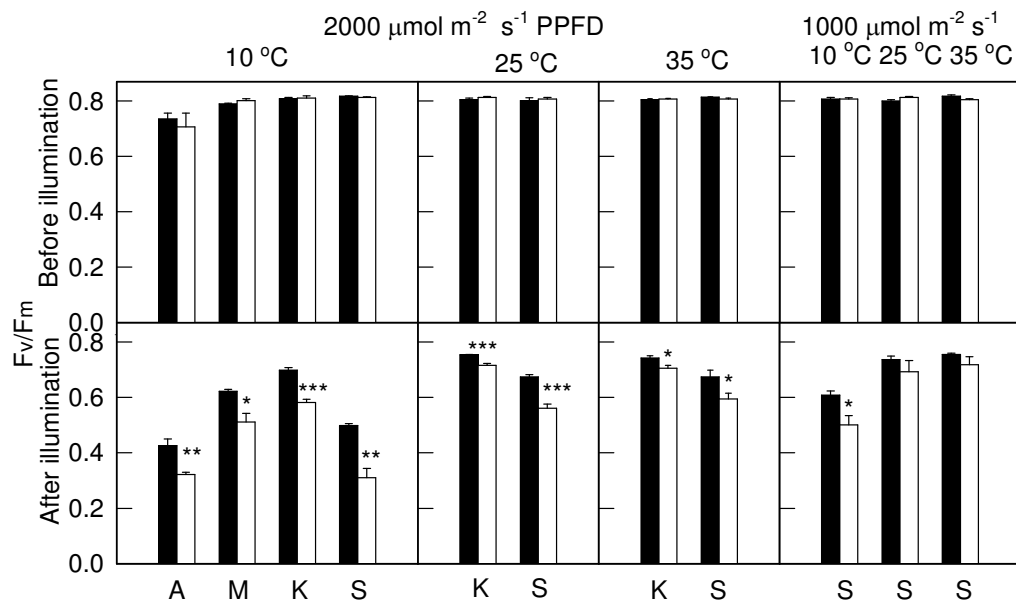
Species	Foliage color	Chl <i>a+b</i> [g m <sup>-2</sup> ]	Chl <i>a/b</i>	Carotenoid. [g m <sup>-2</sup> ]	Ascorbate. [μmol g <sup>-1</sup> ]	(A+Z)/(V+A+Z)	(A+Z)/Chl <i>a</i> [mmol mol <sup>-1</sup> ]	$P_N$ [μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	Antenna size	Antenna size/Chl <i>a</i>
Sweet potato	G	0.337±0.024(100)	3.20±0.07(100)	0.060±0.002(100)	7.01±0.50(100)	0.718±0.017(100)	128.4±10.5(100)	22.18±3.08(100)	217.4±6.9(100)	847(100)
	YG	0.096±0.007(29)**	4.99±0.24(156)**	0.037±0.002(62)**	.04±0.34(72)**	0.401±0.051(56)**	134.0±22.4(105) <sup>ns</sup>	13.66±2.89(62)**	141.3±8.3(65)**	1767(209)
Chinese kale	G	0.307±0.026(100)	2.65±0.11(100)	0.062±0.004(100)	20.32±1.33(100)	0.832±0.080(100)	158.2±37.8(100)	17.62±2.73(100)	433.8±11.4(100)	1946(100)
	YG	0.104±0.011(34)**	2.83±0.21(107) <sup>ns</sup>	0.034±0.002(55)**	16.68±1.16(82)*	0.809±0.067(97) <sup>ns</sup>	203.4±26.2(129) <sup>ns</sup>	9.12±1.69(52)**	290.5±5.9(67)**	3780(194)
Chinese mustard	G	0.278±0.019(100)	3.14±0.10(100)	0.059±0.002(100)	11.79±0.48(100)	0.878±0.036(100)	132.2±11.4(100)	18.73±2.14(100)	265.8±16.7(100)	1261(100)
	YG	0.099±0.003(36)**	3.70±0.24(118)*	0.036±0.001(61)**	8.53±0.69(72)**	0.840±0.040(94) <sup>ns</sup>	139.3±17.3(105) <sup>ns</sup>	11.78±1.94(63)**	186.0±13.3(70)**	2387(189)
Chinese amaranth	G	0.291±0.031(100)	2.52±0.25(100)	0.078±0.006(100)	26.36±0.57(100)	0.942±0.010(100)	133.1±4.9(100)	27.57±4.87(100)	196.7±13.0(100)	944(100)
	YG	0.094±0.013(32)**	3.75±0.45(149)**	0.036±0.003(46)**	23.59±0.39(90)*	0.857±0.027(91)*	79.8±3.2(60)***	16.32±3.21(59)**	136.8±16.3(70)**	1843(195)

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443 \*, \*\* and \*\*\*: Significant differences between green and yellow-green foliage cultivars of the same species at  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.001$ ,

444 respectively, based on unpaired *t*-test. Data are means ± standard errors,  $n = 4$  leaves.

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Fig. 1. The potential quantum efficiency of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ , obtained before illumination and

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after 30 min artificial illumination and a subsequent dark recovery for 30 min) for green (■)

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and yellow-green (□) foliage cultivars of 4 vegetable species at varied light intensity and

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temperature. A: Chinese amaranth; M: Chinese mustard; K: Chinese kale; S: sweet potato.

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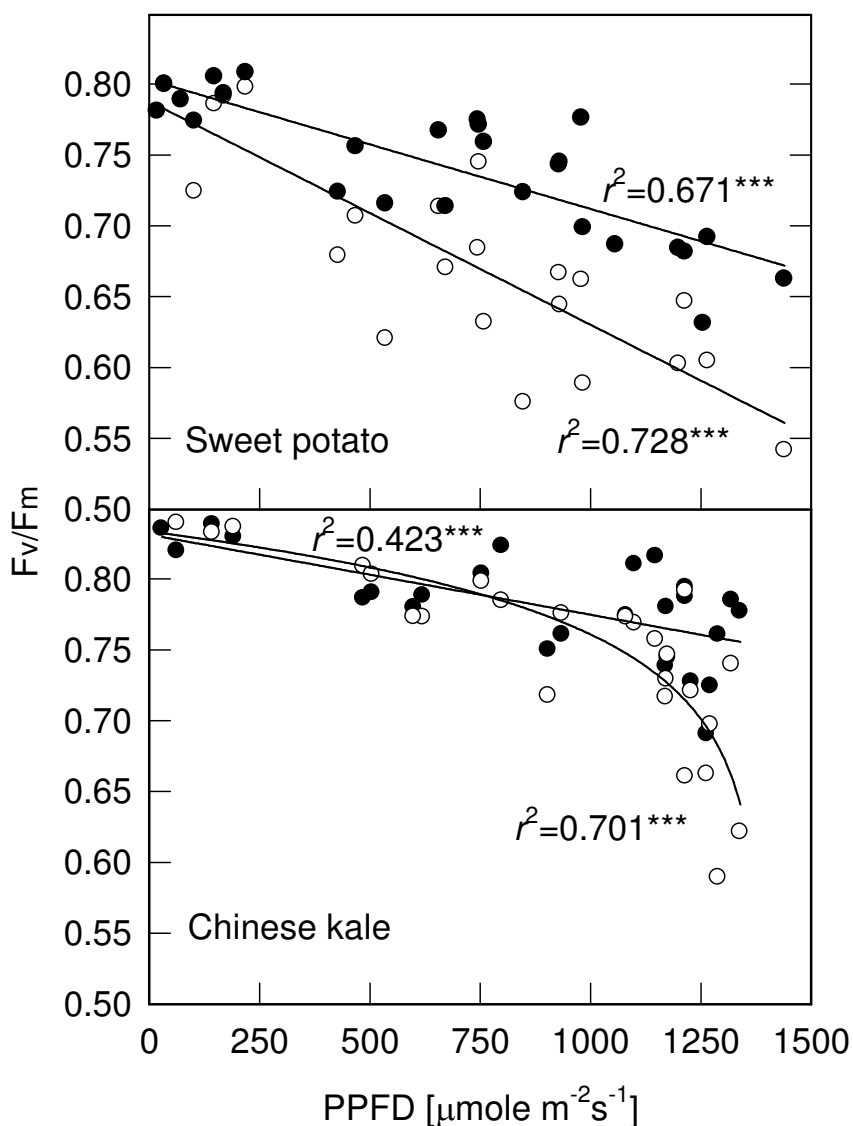
Vertical bars indicate standard errors ( $n=4$  leaves); \*, \*\* and \*\*\*: Significant differences

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between green and yellow-green foliage cultivars of the same species at  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.01$  and

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$p < 0.001$ , respectively, based on unpaired  $t$ -test.



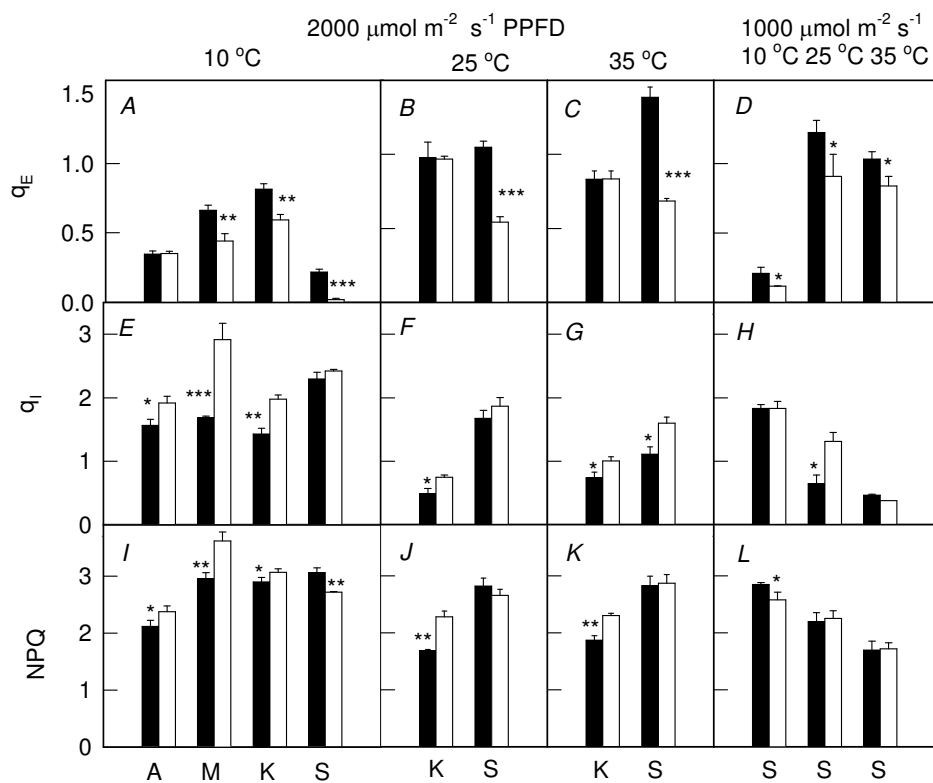
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457 Fig. 2. Effect of sunlight at noon (averaged PPFD from 11:02-12:00 h) on potential quantum

458 efficiency of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of green (●) and yellow-green (○) foliage cultivars in both sweet459 potato and Chinese kale. \*\*\* :  $p < 0.001$ . Significant differences between green and460 yellow-green foliage cultivars for sweet potato when  $PPFD > 250 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), and461 for Chinese kale when  $PPFD > 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), based on unpaired  $t$ -test.

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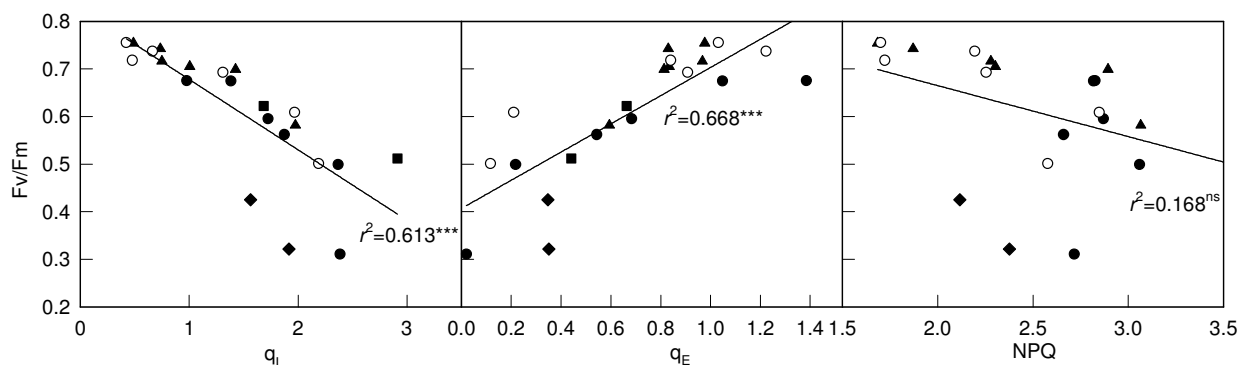
464 Fig. 3.  $q_E$ ,  $q_I$  and NPQ for green (■) and yellow-green (□) foliage cultivars of 4 vegetable  
 465 species at varied illumination and temperature for 30 min. A: Chinese amaranth; M: Chinese  
 466 mustard; K: Chinese kale; S: sweet potato. Vertical bars indicate standard errors ( $n=4$  leaves);  
 467 \*, \*\* and \*\*\*: Significant differences between green and yellow-green foliage cultivars of the  
 468 same species at  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.001$ , respectively, based on unpaired  $t$ -test.

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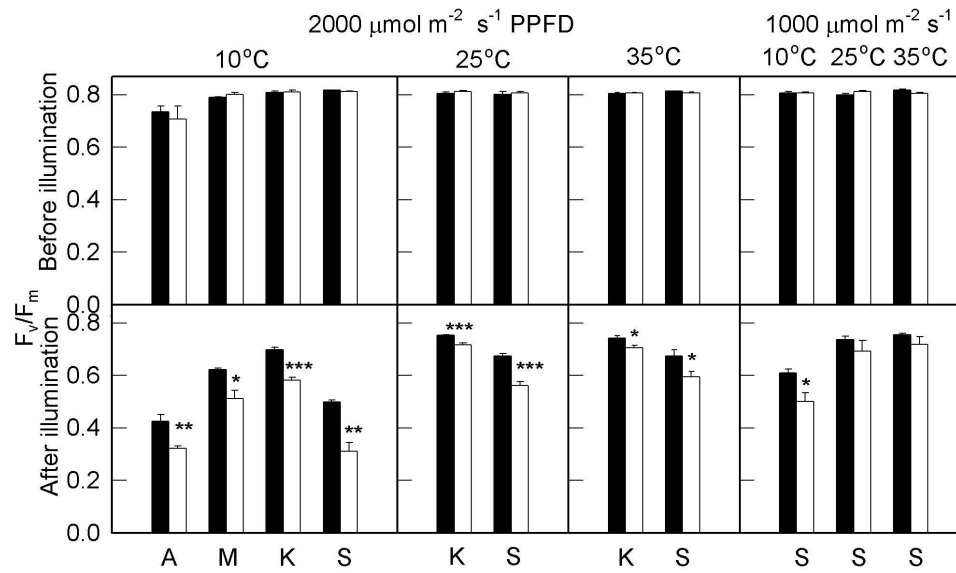
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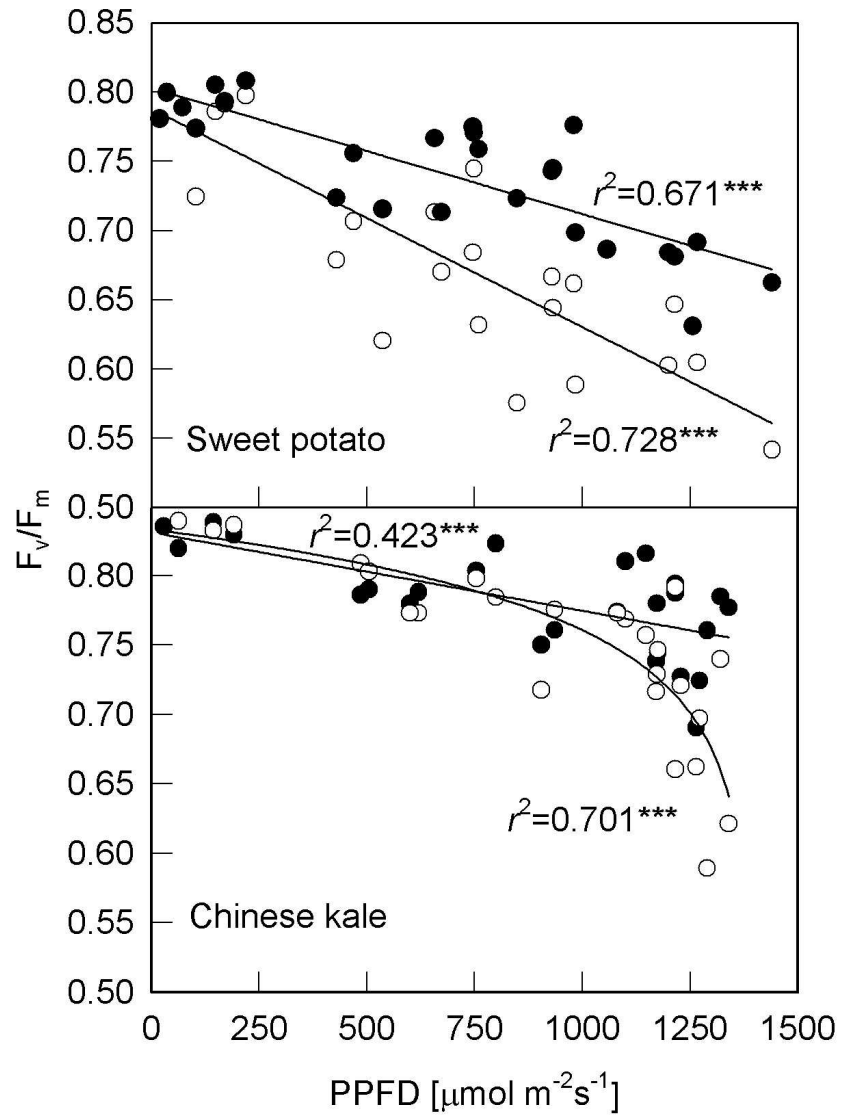
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474 Fig. 4. The relationships of the degree of photoinhibition ( $F_v/F_m$ , obtained at artificial  
 475 illumination for 30 min and then dark recovery for 30 min) to  $q_E$ ,  $q_I$  and NPQ, merging data  
 476 from all tested species and cultivars at varied illumination and temperature.  $\blacklozenge$ : Chinese  
 477 amaranth;  $\blacksquare$ : Chinese mustard;  $\blacktriangle$ : Chinese kale;  $\bullet$  and  $\circ$ : sweet potato; open and close  
 478 symbols indicated measured at 1000 and 2000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPF, respectively; \*\*\* and ns:  $p$   
 479  $<0.001$  and  $p >0.05$ , respectively.

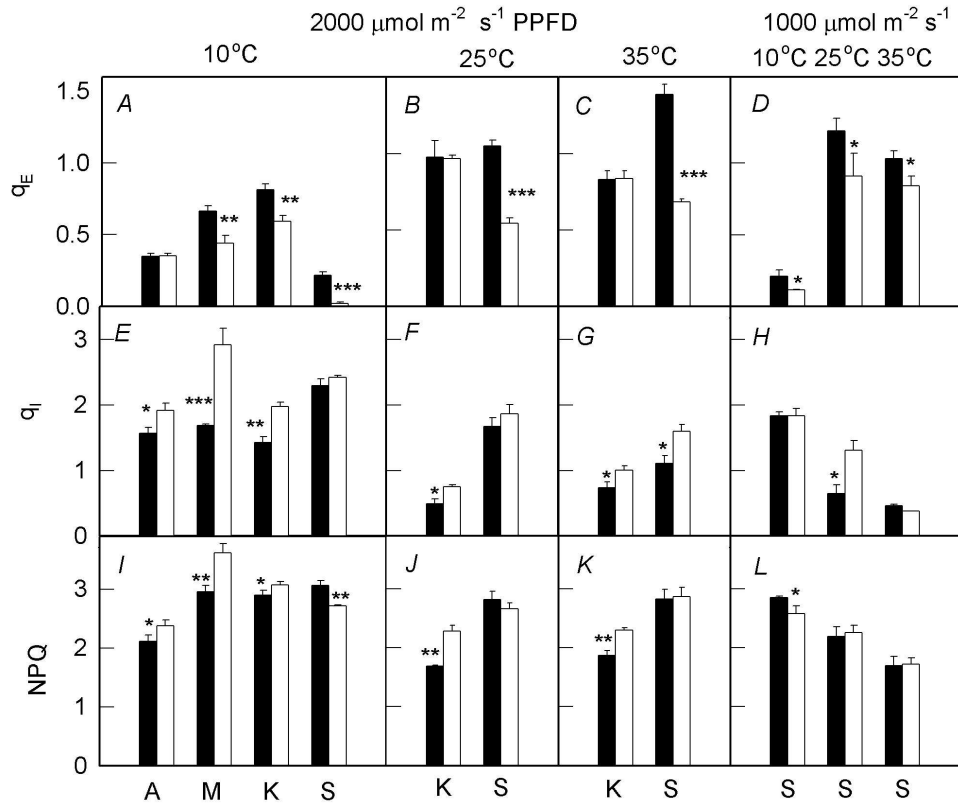


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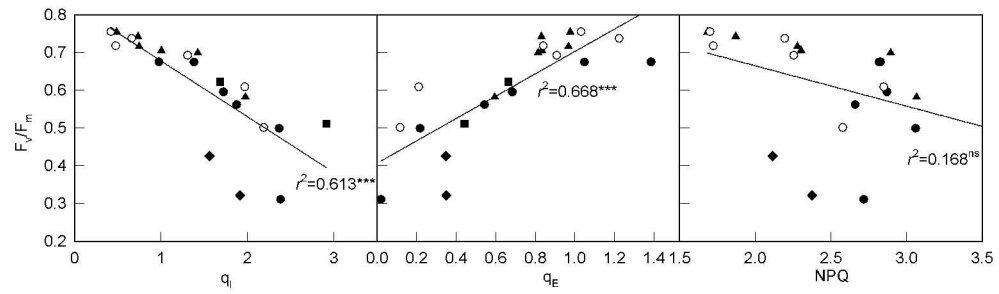


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