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**Chl  $a$  FLUORESCENCE AND  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  TRANSPORT IN THE  
CYANOBACTERIUM SYNECHOCOCCUS UTEX 625**

Christopher M. Crotty

A Thesis  
in  
The Department  
of  
Biology

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Science at  
Concordia University  
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

June 1992

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **Chl *a* FLUORESCENCE AND $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT IN THE CYANOBACTERIUM *Synechococcus leopoliensis* UTEX 625**

**Christopher M. Crotty**

Chl *a* fluorescence was quenched under conditions where active transport of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was occurring in air grown cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* UTEX 625. Quenching of chl *a* fluorescence was observed to occur under conditions where  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation and  $\text{O}_2$  evolution was prevented by the Calvin cycle inhibitor, glycolaldehyde. The  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport capacity of the cells was not diminished by this inhibitor, indicating that chl *a* fluorescence quenching was not specifically dependent on electron flow to  $\text{CO}_2$ , but rather more indicative of the size of the internal pool of DIC ( $\text{CO}_2 + \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{CO}_3^{=}$ ). The requirement of air grown cells for mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was characterized using both chl *a* fluorescence as an indirect monitor for DIC transport and the more direct silicone fluid centrifugation method. Measurements using either method revealed that increasing the extracellular pH in the range between 8.0 - 9.5 resulted in an decrease in the  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  from 8.3 to 1.2 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC present. Similarly, the  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  for photosynthesis decreased from 5.5 to 1.3 mM as extracellular pH was increased from 8.0 to 9.5 with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC present. The relation between the initial rate of fluorescence quenching and the initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was examined by linear regression analysis and found to be highly significant ( $r = 0.785$ ,  $n = 43$ ,

$p < 0.005$ ) by the students t-test.

An inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase, ethoxycarbonyl diethylamine (EZA), was used to characterize DIC transport in cyanobacteria grown under three different growth DIC concentrations. Both  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown and standing culture cells possessed a  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism which was  $\text{Na}^+$  independent and sensitive to low levels of EZA ( $K_i = 58 \mu\text{M}$ ) whereas air grown cells were  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent and EZA insensitive ( $K_i > 200 \mu\text{M}$ ). Both  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  and standing culture cells possessed residual  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulated  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport capability which enabled these cells a measure of relief from EZA inhibition when  $25 \text{ mM Na}^+$  was present. Measurements of photosynthesis, DIC transport, and chl *a* fluorescence quenching were consistent in establishing the effects of  $\text{Na}^+$  and EZA on DIC transport in the three different cell types, indicating the usefulness of chl *a* fluorescence as an indirect monitor for DIC transport.

The results favour a model of DIC transport where at least two, and possibly three separate and distinct pathways for DIC transport occur in Synechococcus UTEX 625.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

DIC, Dissolved inorganic carbon ( $\text{CO}_2 + \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ); BTP, 1,3 - bis(tris[hydroxymethyl] methylamine - propane; CA, carbonic anhydrase; EZA, ethoxyzolamide;  $F_m^*$ , maximum fluorescence yield;  $F_v^*$ , variable fluorescence  
 $F_o$ , minimum fluorescence; chl *a* , chlorophyll *a*; Rubisco, ribulose biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase; DCMU, 3- (3,4 - dichlorophenyl) -1 dimethyl urea; DMSO, dimethylsulfoxide

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **REQUIREMENT FOR A DIC CONCENTRATING MECHANISM**

Cyanobacteria are aquatic phototrophic prokaryotes which fix  $\text{CO}_2$  by the Calvin cycle of reductive photosynthesis. The ability of cyanobacteria to utilize inorganic carbon efficiently for photosynthesis is limited by the poor catalytic efficiency of the primary  $\text{CO}_2$  fixing enzyme in the cycle, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RUBISCO, EC 4.1.1.39). RUBISCO isolated from cyanobacteria possesses a  $K_m(\text{CO}_2)$  of 200-300  $\mu\text{M}$  (Kaplan *et al.*, 1980, Andrews and Abel, 1981) which is 10-30 fold higher than that found in C-3 or C-4 terrestrial plants. The effect of  $\text{O}_2$  as a competitive and alternative substrate for RUBISCO is to further reduce the apparent affinity of RUBISCO for  $\text{CO}_2$  under natural conditions. Further deleterious effects of  $\text{O}_2$  are associated with carbon and energy losses incurred through the metabolism of phosphoglycolate, a product of RuBP oxygenation (Lorimer, 1981). In this regard, Shelp and Canvin (1984) calculated that, based on a  $\text{CO}_2/\text{O}_2$  substrate specificity factor of 36, and with 10  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  and 250  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{O}_2$  (air-equilibrium, 25°C) in solution, the ratio of carboxylase to oxygenase activity ( $v_c/v_o$ ) would be about 1.7, leading to substantial rates of photo-respiration in comparison to photosynthesis. By way of contrast, C3 plants typically have specificity factors of around 80 (Ogren, 1984) and at ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  levels, the  $v_c/v_o$  is about 2.5 (Canvin, 1990). Similar considerations apply to an efficient C3 - C4 intermediate plant with a specificity factor of around 90, leading to  $v_c/v_o$  of around 4.3.

The photosynthetic properties of cyanobacteria are in direct contrast with the decidedly sub-optimal catalytic efficiency of RUBISCO. Most notably, cyanobacteria

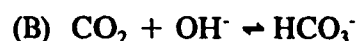
grown at low concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon ( $< 500 \mu\text{M DIC}$ ,  $\text{DIC} = \Sigma [\text{CO}_2] + [\text{HCO}_3^-] + [\text{CO}_3^{=}]$ ) possess very high rates of photosynthesis, low  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation points (Birmingham and Colman, 1979), low levels of phosphoglycolate production (Ingle and Colman, 1976) and high photosynthetic affinity for  $\text{CO}_2$  (Kaplan *et al.*, 1980; Miller and Colman, 1980; Badger and Andrews, 1982; Miller *et al.*, 1984a).

It has become increasingly clear that cyanobacteria can photosynthesize and grow at very low ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, which are subsaturating for RUBISCO because of their ability to transport DIC, thus elevating the level of  $\text{CO}_2$  around RUBISCO. Intracellular DIC concentrations of as high as 100 mM, and accumulation ratios ( $[\text{DIC}]_i/[\text{DIC}]_o$ ) on the order of 2000 fold have been measured (Badger and Andrews, 1982; Badger *et al.*, 1985; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Furthermore, active  $\text{CO}_2$  transport has been shown to occur against a concentration gradient of approximately 18000 fold ( $[\text{CO}_2]_i/[\text{CO}_2]_o$ ) (Miller *et al.*, 1988b). The  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration at equilibrium with other DIC species at an intracellular pH of 7.5 (Coleman and Colman, 1981) will be approximately 6 % of the total DIC. It can be calculated that intracellular DIC concentrations of as low as 5 mM will provide intracellular  $\text{CO}_2$  levels which approach the  $K_m$  of cyanobacterial RUBISCO. At a  $\text{pH}_o$  of 8.0, where cyanobacteria photosynthesize and grow quite readily, the measured  $\text{pH}_i$  of 7.5 and membrane potential of -120 mV (Miller *et al.*, 1984b) precludes the possibility of passive equilibration of either  $\text{CO}_2$  or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  being responsible for such large accumulation ratios. The intracellular accumulation of DIC thus requires the input of metabolic energy.



## CARBONIC ANHYDRASE AND DIC SPECIES IN SOLUTION

The interconversion of DIC species in solution will proceed according to the following reactions;



For the hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  to form  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{H}^+$  by way of  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$  formation, the rate limiting step is known to be (A)1 ( $t_{1/2} = 7$  sec. at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ , Badger, 1987; Miller, 1990 and references therein). Reactions (A)2 and (A)3 are essentially instantaneous and can thus be considered to be at equilibrium at all times (Miller and Colman, 1980). Reaction (B) becomes important at pH 8.0 and predominant at around pH 10.0.

The utilization of  $\text{CO}_2$  by RUBISCO acts as a drawdown on the intracellular DIC pool. The rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply by uncatalyzed  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration can thus potentially limit the rate of photosynthesis. If it is assumed that  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is the DIC species arriving in the cytosol following transport, it can be calculated that a  $[\text{DIC}]_i$  of 2 M would be required to support  $\text{CO}_2$  saturated rates of photosynthesis in the absence of rapid (ie. catalyzed) interconversion of DIC species (Badger *et al.*, 1985). Regardless of which species arrives internally, there is evidence for very rapid hydration-dehydration cycles of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  occurring inside the cell, based on measurements of  $^{18}\text{O}$  exchange between  $^{18}\text{O}$  labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  in whole cells (Badger *et al.*, 1985; Tu *et al.*, 1987; Miller *et al.*, 1990). Further evidence of catalyzed interconversion of intracellular DIC has been provided by electrometric studies of cell-free extracts of cyanobacteria (Yagawa *et al.*, 1984; Lanaras *et al.*, 1985). It has now been well established that this intracellular

conversion of DIC in cyanobacteria is catalyzed by carbonic anhydrase, an ubiquitous enzyme found in, among other locations, mammalian red blood cells, spinach chloroplasts, and the periplasmic space of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, an eukaryotic green algae (Silverman, 1991). In the model proposed by Badger *et al.* (1985), the presence of low amounts of intracellular carbonic anhydrase activity allows for maximal rates of photosynthesis at intracellular [DIC] (30 - 60 mM) similar to what has been observed experimentally. The flow of DIC in cyanobacteria has been shown to be from the external medium, to the intracellular DIC pool, to carbon fixation products. Furthermore, the rate of carbon fixation has been shown to be dose dependent on the magnitude of the intracellular DIC (Kaplan *et al.*, 1980; Shelp and Calvin, 1984; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Thus the function of internal carbonic anhydrase in cyanobacteria is to equilibrate the  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  concentrations in the immediate environment of RUBISCO, providing a supply of  $\text{CO}_2$  which is proportional to the intracellular DIC concentration.

Early evidence for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in cyanobacteria was based on a consideration of the theoretical supply rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  from uncatalyzed dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  present in the medium and the comparison of this rate to the measured rate of photosynthesis (Miller and Colman, 1980). Measured rates of photosynthesis in excess of the theoretical rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration were suggestive of an active  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism. Calculations of the dehydration rate assumed the absence of extracellular carbonic anhydrase which, in the absence of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, would allow for DIC uptake rates in excess of the theoretical supply rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  through either active or passive  $\text{CO}_2$

influx. The possibility of extracellular carbonic anhydrase in cyanobacteria has been investigated exhaustively using a variety of techniques including; mass spectrometry (Badger and Andrews,1982; Miller *et al*,1988b), isotopic disequilibrium (Badger and Andrews,1982; Espie and Canvin,1987; Miller and Canvin,1987) and electrometric assay (Yagawa *et al*,1984). No evidence of extracellular carbonic anhydrase in cyanobacteria has been reported to date.

In air equilibrated solutions or in most natural aquatic environments, the relative amounts of each of the three most stable DIC species,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{CO}_3^{=}$  will vary with pH. The concentration of dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  in air-equilibrated solution is generally 10-12  $\mu\text{M}$ , however at pH 8.0 and at 30°C this amount is 1.6 % of the total DIC species (Miller, 1990; and references therein). The percentage of  $\text{CO}_2$  in solution decreases sharply as pH increases above pH 7.5. Since the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in solution is pH independent, the end result is that the total DIC in solution increases roughly 10-fold for each pH unit increase (Badger,1987; Miller,1990). As alkalophiles, cyanobacteria can be expected to encounter much less  $\text{CO}_2$  in solution than either  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  or  $\text{CO}_3^{=}$ . For this reason, and in view of the absence of extracellular carbonic anhydrase, the nature of the inorganic carbon species utilized by the DIC transport mechanism(s) has important consequences for cyanobacterial photosynthesis.

## **$\text{CO}_2$ TRANSPORT**

The active transport of  $\text{CO}_2$  was first demonstrated conclusively by Badger and Andrews (1982).Using mass spectrometry to monitor extracellular  $\text{CO}_2$ , these investigators showed that the illumination of a cell suspension of cyanobacteria resulted

in the rapid depletion of  $[\text{CO}_2]_o$  to levels approaching zero. Similar evidence for  $\text{CO}_2$  transport in cyanobacteria was presented by Miller *et al.* (1988b). That the drop in  $[\text{CO}_2]_o$  following illumination was due to the selective removal of  $\text{CO}_2$  by the cells was indicated by the restoration of pre-illumination levels of  $\text{CO}_2$  by the addition of carbonic anhydrase (Miller *et al.*, 1988b). The conditions used by Miller *et al.* (1988b) for these experiments ensured that  $\text{CO}_2$  was the only DIC species being transported. The fact that  $[\text{CO}_2]_o$  was close to zero in the experiments of Badger and Andrews (1982) and Miller *et al.* (1988b) indicated that the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration rate was limiting with respect to  $\text{CO}_2$  transport. The addition of carbonic anhydrase to cell suspensions relieves this kinetic limitation to the  $\text{CO}_2$  supply rate, ensuring maintenance of the equilibrium between  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ . With CA present, the rate limiting step in DIC uptake is at the level of the active  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism in cells without active  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport capacity (Miller *et al.*, 1988b).

Cyanobacteria have been shown to transport  $\text{CO}_2$  against a concentration gradient on the order of 18000:1 ( $[\text{CO}_2]_i: [\text{CO}_2]_o$ ) (Miller *et al.*, 1988b). The maintenance of chemical disequilibrium between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  outside the cell, and the magnitude of the accumulation ratio of  $\text{CO}_2$  require the expenditure of metabolic energy. The source of this energy is not known with any certainty, however  $\text{CO}_2$  transport is known to be blocked by DCMU, CCCP, by the ATPase inhibitor DES, and by darkness (Badger and Andrews, 1982; Miller *et al.*, 1988b).

The active transport of  $\text{CO}_2$  is not strictly dependent on extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$ . However it has been shown that 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  will stimulate  $\text{CO}_2$  transport approximately

2-fold at pH 8.0 (Espie *et al.*, 1988b; Miller *et al.*, 1988b). This effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  is specific since neither  $\text{Cl}^-$  nor  $\text{K}^+$  were effective at stimulating  $\text{CO}_2$  transport.

Growth at low [DIC] ( $< 500 \mu\text{M}$ ) produced cells possessing high transport affinity for  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $0.2 \mu\text{M}$  at pH 8.0) (Espie *et al.*, 1991) This high affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism is responsible in large part for the high photosynthetic affinity for  $\text{CO}_2$  of these cells.

### **$\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT**

The active transport of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in cyanobacteria was first demonstrated by Miller and Colman (1980). These investigators showed that measured rates of photosynthesis were much faster than those which could have been supported by  $\text{CO}_2$  formation from dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . Direct measurements of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique were subsequently reported (Kaplan *et al.*, 1980) and provided confirmation of the results of Miller and Colman (1980). A  $\text{Na}^+$  requirement for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dependent photosynthesis (Miller *et al.*, 1984b; Espie *et al.*, 1988b) and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Reinhold *et al.*, 1984; Espie *et al.*, 1988b) has been demonstrated for air-grown cyanobacteria. The dose dependence of photosynthesis and transport with respect to mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  exhibits a hyperbolic relation typical of Michaelis-Menten kinetics. It has been shown that there exists a complex interaction between  $\text{pH}_o$ ,  $[\text{Na}^+]_o$ , and  $[\text{DIC}]_o$  for photosynthesis in *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 (Espie *et al.*, 1988b). Reinhold *et al.* (1984) had previously argued that the effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  was to increase the affinity of the transport mechanism for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . It is known that high concentrations of DIC ( $> 1 \text{ mM}$ ) can overcome the requirement for  $\text{Na}^+$  in air-grown cells (Miller *et al.*, 1984b; Espie and

Canvin, 1987; Espie *et al.*, 1988b). At these high concentrations of DIC both the absolute amount and the rate of formation of  $\text{CO}_2$  (from dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) are substantial enough to allow  $\text{CO}_2$  transport rates which are sufficient to supply RUBISCO with saturating levels of  $\text{CO}_2$ . At pH 8.0, the DIC required for half saturation of photosynthesis ( $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$ ) in air - grown cells has been shown to be 30  $\mu\text{M}$  and 600  $\mu\text{M}$ , in the presence and absence of 20 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , respectively (Canvin *et al.*, 1990). This effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on the affinity for DIC can be explained solely by consideration of  $\text{CO}_2$  formation from dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . Similarly, for measurements of photosynthesis, the  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration required for half-saturation at a given DIC concentration decreased with increasing DIC (Espie *et al.*, 1988b). The decrease in the  $\text{Na}^+$  requirement at higher DIC is thought to reflect the increasing contribution of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport to DIC uptake at DIC concentrations higher than 100  $\mu\text{M}$  (Espie *et al.*, 1988b).

The effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  has been shown to be specific,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{K}^+$  are ineffective and  $\text{Li}^+$  acts as a competitive inhibitor (Reinhold *et al.*, 1984; Miller *et al.*, 1984b; Espie *et al.*, 1988b).

#### **POSSIBLE EFFECT(S) OF $\text{Na}^+$ ON $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT**

The mechanism of action of  $\text{Na}^+$  on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in air-grown cells of *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 is unknown. Four possible roles for  $\text{Na}^+$  can be identified:

(1)  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport occurs in these cells via a  $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport. This is thermodynamically plausible in view of the calculated  $\text{Na}^+$  motive force (Ritchie, 1992). However,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  stimulated  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake has not been shown for air-grown cells. A recent study of  $\text{Na}^+$  fluxes in high  $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells of *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 indicates that

$\text{Na}^+$  is actively extruded from the cell, thus forming a  $\text{Na}^+$  gradient capable of driving solute uptake (Ritchie, 1992). The details of this process remain speculative. No evidence has yet been presented which would eliminate  $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport as a mechanism for DIC uptake. In support of the symport hypothesis, it has been shown that 50  $\mu\text{M}$  monensin, which collapses the  $\text{Na}^+$  gradient by exchanging  $\text{Na}^+$  for  $\text{H}^+$ , will inhibit  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent but not  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake (R. Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991).

(2)  $\text{Na}^+$  binds to the transport protein and alters the kinetic parameters without itself being transported. This possibility has not been discounted by any evidence arguing against it, however it should be stated that there is no evidence for an allosteric effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. Furthermore, the progressive increase in the transport affinity for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  with increasing  $\text{Na}^+$  (Reinhold *et al.*, 1984) can be explained by the relative contributions of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  transport at varying DIC concentrations (Espie *et al.*, 1988b; Calvin *et al.*, 1990; Miller, 1990) without necessarily invoking that the affinity for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  of the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transporter varies as a function of the external  $\text{Na}^+$ .

(3)  $\text{Na}^+$  acts by assisting in  $\text{pH}_i$  regulation through  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiport activity. This possibility does not affect directly  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport per se.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiport activity has been shown in salt stressed cyanobacteria (Blumwald *et al.*, 1984) and in high  $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells capable only of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport (Kaplan *et al.*, 1989). The physiological significance of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiporter activity in cyanobacteria remains unclear. A study by Ritchie (1992) indicates that the proton motive force cannot support  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux at alkaline pH in *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 grown on 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ . On the other hand,  $\text{H}^+$  efflux driven

by  $\text{Na}^+$  influx down its electrochemical gradient would exacerbate the problem encountered by the cell during steady state photosynthesis when  $\text{OH}^-$  ions are generated stoichiometrically with carbon fixation.

(4) The passive influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  acts as a counter-ion flux to balance the primary electrogenic influx of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . It has been calculated that influx of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  through a primary electrogenic pump mechanism would hyperpolarize the cell by 9 mV/msec (Miller, 1990). Thus a charge balancing ion flux would appear to be necessary to prevent excessive hyperpolarization.

#### **$\text{Na}^+$ INDEPENDENT $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT**

The  $\text{Na}^+$  requirement for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in cyanobacteria is not absolute. Slowly growing cells maintained in culture without bubbling of  $\text{CO}_2$  (standing culture cells) possess the ability to transport  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in the absence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  (Espie and Canvin, 1987; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). The  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism has also been shown to be independent of  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , or  $\text{Li}^+$  concentration (Espie and Canvin, 1987). In fact,  $\text{Li}^+$  acts as a competitive inhibitor with respect to  $\text{Na}^+$ , of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dependent photosynthesis in air-grown cells (Espie *et al.*, 1988b) and has been shown to have no effect on transport and photosynthesis in standing culture cells (Espie *et al.*, 1987; R.Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991). The  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism also appears to be unaffected by monensin, which inhibits  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulated  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake in air-grown cells (R.Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991).

#### **MODELS OF $\text{HCO}_3^-$ AND $\text{CO}_2$ UPTAKE**

Four characteristic modes of DIC transport can be resolved based on; (1) affinity



for substrate ( $\text{CO}_2$  or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) (2)  $\text{Na}^+$  dependence or independence (Price and Badger, 1989b; Badger and Gallagher, 1987; Espie *et al.*, 1991). The differential effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 grown under different growth DIC (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992) as well as the differential effect of specific inhibitors of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake, argue in favour of separate and distinct  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanisms, one  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent and the other not. As well, high and low affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transporters can be resolved on the basis of measurements of transport and photosynthesis (Badger and Gallagher, 1987; Miller and Calvin, 1987; Price and Badger, 1989a,b; Espie *et al.*, 1991). The low affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  pump is evident in cyanobacteria grown under high DIC ( $> 1\text{mM}$ ) ( $K_{1/2} \text{CO}_2 = 5\text{-}15 \mu\text{M}$ , Price and Badger, 1989b; Mayo *et al.*, 1989) whereas the high affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  pump is evident in cells grown at low DIC ( $< 200 \mu\text{M}$ ) ( $K_{1/2} \text{CO}_2 = 0.2 \mu\text{M}$ , Espie *et al.*, 1991).

The possibility that  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport share a common trans-membrane pathway has been proposed, based on the finding that  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport appear to be equally inhibited by ethoxycarbonyl diethylamine (EZA), an inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase (Price and Badger, 1989a). In their version of the transport process, Price and Badger (1989a) speculate that the transport of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  proceeds through a "front-end" mechanism which converts  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  to  $\text{CO}_2$  at a site close to the active site of the  $\text{CO}_2$  transporter (see Fig 1a). Both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport would proceed by the translocation of  $\text{CO}_2$ . Based on evidence consistent with the hypothesis that  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is the DIC species entering the cytosol, regardless of the DIC species supplied externally, Price and Badger proposed that the translocation of DIC requires a "carbonic anhydrase like moiety" to hydrate  $\text{CO}_2$ ,

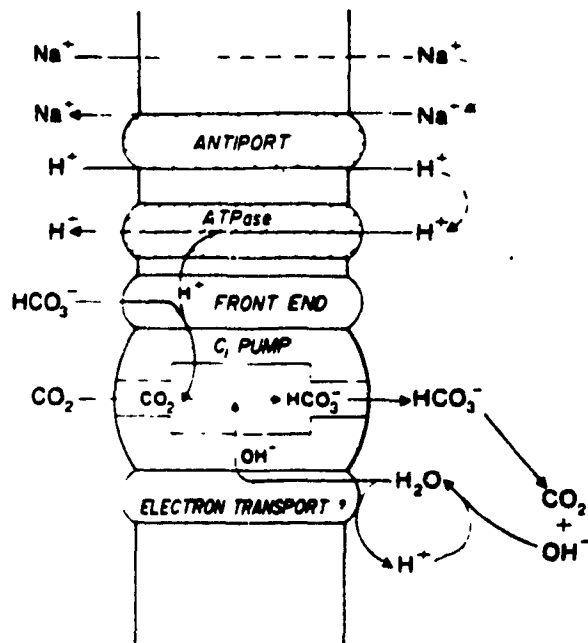
converting it to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  as it enters the cytosol. Thus the transport of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  requires a dehydration and then a rehydration reaction before entering the cytosol, while  $\text{CO}_2$  transport requires a hydration reaction (Fig.1a). The hydration reaction is thus the common step in the transport of both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  according to Price and Badger. It is supposed that this is the basis for the equal levels of inhibition of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by EZA.

If  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport share a common pathway, then there should be some interaction between simultaneous  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport such that high rates of transport of one substrate would interfere with the transport of the other substrate. Although no information is available for competition experiments between  $\text{CO}_2$  transport and  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, it has been shown, based on  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake measurements in the presence of varying levels of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , that the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism is not likely to contribute to  $\text{CO}_2$  transport via a "front-end" mechanism (Espie *et al.*, 1991). The distinction between  $\text{CO}_2$  transport and  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport can also be made on the basis of studies using inhibitors of carbonic anhydrase such as COS and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , which inhibited high-affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport but which did not greatly affect  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Miller *et al.*, 1989, Espie *et al.*, 1989). In experiments using the  $\text{CO}_2$  transport inhibitor  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , it was shown that this inhibitor had no effect on the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). In the absence of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  competition experiments where the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism is the primary means of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake, and  $\text{CO}_2$  transport is monitored, the possibility that the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism shares

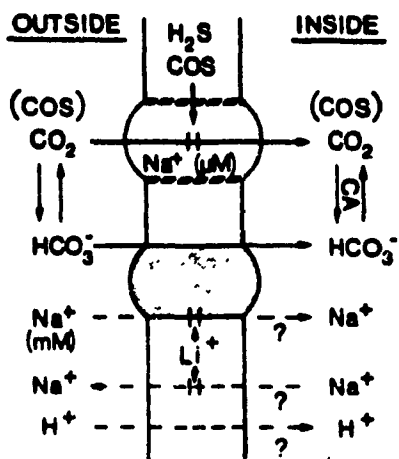
### **FIGURE 1**

Models of DIC transport in cyanobacteria: (A) shows the model of Price and Badger (1989a) postulating a common translocatory step for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (B) shows the model of Espie *et al* (1989) indicating separate uptake mechanisms for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport.

**A**



**B**



a common pathway with  $\text{CO}_2$  transport cannot be completely excluded. Thus, two major models have evolved for DIC transport in cyanobacteria as indicated in Fig 1. The "common pathway" model of Price and Badger (1989a) is shown in Fig 1a, and a model which depicts  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport as being separate and distinct processes (Espie *et al.*, 1989) is shown in Fig 1b.

### **EFFECT OF GROWTH DIC**

Previous results have shown that there exists a complex interaction between photosynthetic affinity for DIC ( $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$ ), growth rate ( $\mu$ ) and the exogenous DIC experienced by the cells during growth (Turpin *et al.*, 1985). With respect to photosynthetic affinity for DIC, chemostat cultures of cyanobacteria exist in either a fully induced state (low  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  at low  $\mu$ ) or a repressed state (high  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  at high  $\mu$ ) and the transition between these two states occurs abruptly at around  $\mu = 1.7 \text{ day}^{-1}$  (Miller *et al.*, 1984a). For chemostat culture cells with fully induced high-affinity for DIC ( $\mu < 1.7 \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  was found to be independent of growth rate (Turpin *et al.*, 1985). The growth rate, however, varied with exogenous DIC according to the Monod relation for growth rate as a function of a nutrient present in growth limiting quantities, in this case DIC (Turpin *et al.*, 1985). Studies with batch culture grown cells of *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 have revealed that cyanobacteria can vary their photosynthetic affinity for DIC in response to the exogenous DIC (Mayo *et al.*, 1986; Badger and Gallagher, 1987). This process of photosynthetic adaptation manifests itself across a wide range of exogenous DIC concentrations (10  $\mu\text{M}$  - 2 mM) independently of the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration present in the growth medium (Mayo *et al.*, 1986). The variation in photosynthetic affinity

has been shown to be due to variation in the transport kinetics in response to exogenous DIC experienced during growth (Mayo *et al.*, 1989).

The exogenous DIC experienced during growth also has an influence on the quantity, size, and distribution of intracellular polyhedral bodies within Synechococcus UTEX 625 called carboxysomes (McKay *et al.*, in press). Carboxysomes contain most if not all of the functional RUBISCO in cyanobacteria (Shively, 1988). The electron microscopy study by McKay *et al.* (in press) has revealed that growth at low DIC (30  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC) resulted in a large number of small carboxysomes positioned at the interface between the centropilasm and the thylakoid membranes whereas growth at high DIC resulted in a smaller number of large carboxysomes per cell. The carboxysomes of cells grown on high DIC were observed to be more random and irregular in their morphology and distribution. The functional significance of the size and distribution of carboxysomes bears on the possibility that carboxysomes act as a barrier preventing the diffusion of recently transported  $\text{CO}_2$  back into the extracellular medium (Reinhold *et al.*, 1991).

Growth of Synechococcus UTEX 625 at high DIC has been shown to increase the active site density of RUBISCO by about 3 fold (Mayo *et al.*, 1989). Consequently, cells grown at low DIC ( $< 30 \mu\text{M}$ ) exhibit low values of  $P_{\text{max}}$  ( $150 - 300 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \text{ chl. h}^{-1}$ ) while high DIC grown cells (1-2 mM DIC) exhibit higher  $P_{\text{max}}$  values ( $500 - 600 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \text{ chl. h}^{-1}$ ) (Mayo *et al.*, 1989). Combining the results of Mayo *et al.* (1989) and McKay *et al.* (in press) indicates that low DIC grown cells possess an increased number of carboxysomes, each containing 1/3 less RUBISCO.

## CHL a FLUORESCENCE QUENCHING AND DIC TRANSPORT

Studies conducted with Synechococcus UTEX 625 have shown that the transport and accumulation of DIC causes quenching of chl a fluorescence (Miller and Canvin, 1987b; Miller et al., 1988a; 1988c; 1991; Espie et al., 1991). The addition of glycolaldehyde or iodoacetamide, both of which block CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, does not prevent chl a fluorescence quenching (Miller and Canvin, 1989; Miller et al., 1991). This result indicates that chl a fluorescence quenching is not strictly dependent on events associated with CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (ie. electron transport resulting in NADP<sup>+</sup> reduction). The addition of 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) results in a rapid and monophasic recovery of fluorescence yield, indicating that chl a fluorescence quenching responds to changes in the red-ox status of Q<sub>A</sub>, the primary electron acceptor of PSII (Miller and Canvin, 1987b).

Both CO<sub>2</sub> (via NADP<sup>+</sup>) and O<sub>2</sub> can act as electron acceptors, providing a means for the re-oxidation of Q<sub>A</sub> (Miller et al., 1991). The reduction of O<sub>2</sub> has been proposed to occur via a Mehler type reaction (Miller et al., 1988c; Miller et al., 1991). The photoreduction of O<sub>2</sub> is stimulated by DIC transport and explains how Q<sub>A</sub> can be re-oxidized (and thus chl a fluorescence quenched) in the absence of electron flow to CO<sub>2</sub> (ie. when Calvin cycle inhibitors are present) (Miller et al., 1991).

Measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> transport rate have been shown to be linearly related to measurements of initial rates of chl a fluorescence quenching over a wide range of CO<sub>2</sub> transport rates (Espie et al., 1991; Miller et al., 1991). Similarly, calculated intracellular DIC concentrations were correlated with the extent of chl a fluorescence quenching

(Miller *et al.*, 1988a; Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). The mechanistic basis underlying these empirical correlations is not known at present. One possibility which has been advanced relates to the " $\text{HCO}_3^-$  effect" on electron flow as discussed by Blubaugh and Govindjee (1988). In support of this proposal, the re-oxidation of  $\text{Q}_\text{A}^-$ , as well as  $\text{O}_2$  evolution, have both been shown, in  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  depleted thylakoids of *Synechocystis* 6803, to be stimulated by the addition of mM levels of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (Cao and Govindjee, 1988). The molecular mechanism of this  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  effect on electron transport is proposed to be; (A) as a proton donor to plastoquinone, (B) as a ligand to the non-heme iron in  $\text{Q}_\text{A}$ -Fe- $\text{Q}_\text{B}$  (Blubaugh and Govindjee, 1988). A requirement for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in electron transport localized to the oxidizing side of plastoquinone in *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 is consistent with the following observations. First, in the absence of internal  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (ie. at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point), Miller *et al.* (1988c) observed that  $\text{O}_2$  photoreduction did not occur. Only when DIC was accumulated internally as a result of active transport did fluorescence quenching (indicating electron transport) and  $\text{O}_2$  photoreduction occur. Second, the chl *a* fluorescence yield in *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 did not decrease at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point (Miller *et al.*, 1991;). A state - 2 transition, resulting from the reduction of PQ (Mullineaux and Allen, 1989) would be expected to result in a decrease in the chl *a* fluorescence yield if the flow of electrons to PQ were not interrupted by the absence of intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point (Miller *et al.*, 1991). Thus, the requirement for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in electron transport in cyanobacteria, as well as the observations described above, are the basis for the possibility that chl *a* fluorescence quenching is related to DIC transport by an association



- dissociation reaction between intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and the  $\text{Q}_\text{A}$  binding site (Miller *et al.*, 1991).

In the present investigation, I have first described the relationship between chl *a* fluorescence quenching,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, and photosynthesis in air - grown cells of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* UTEX 625. Studies of the interaction between these three phenomena, as well as previous studies relating the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching to the initial rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport (Espie *et al.*, 1991), provided a rationale for the use of chl *a* fluorescence quenching as an indirect monitor for DIC transport under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is the DIC species being transported. The effects of  $\text{Na}^+$ , and  $\text{pH}_\text{o}$  on photosynthesis, chl *a* fluorescence quenching and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport are described in terms of a possible model for  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. Finally, studies with an inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase, ethoxzolamide (EZA), on DIC transport in cells grown under three different conditions allowed an accurate assesment of the specificity of this inhibitor with regard to  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake mechanisms.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **ORGANISM**

The unicellular cyanobacterium Synechococcus leopoliensis UTEX 625 (University of Texas Culture Collection, Austin, Texas) was maintained at 30°C on 1.4 % (v/v) agar plates made with unbuffered Allen's medium (Allen, 1968). Illumination was provided at 25  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  (PAR).

### **GROWTH CONDITIONS**

Synechococcus UTEX 625 was grown autotrophically under three different conditions for experimental purposes. (1) Standing cultures were initiated by aseptically introducing 3-4 transfer loops of cells from agar plate colonies, into 50 mL of unbuffered Allen's medium contained in a foam-stoppered 125 mL erlenmeyer flask. These cells, initially at 0.3 - 0.6  $\mu\text{g. chl } a .\text{mL}^{-1}$ , were grown at 30°C and illuminated at 25  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  (PAR). Diffusion of  $\text{CO}_2$  from the atmosphere through the foam stopper was the only source of  $\text{CO}_2$  for growth. Under these conditions, the cells attained 4 - 6  $\mu\text{g. chl } a .\text{mL}^{-1}$  after 4 - 7 days, at which time they were harvested for experiments. At harvest, the pH of the growth medium was about 10. The exogenous DIC in the medium was about 20  $\mu\text{M}$ . (2) Air - grown cells were started by adding a volume of mid-log phase standing culture cells to 50 mL. of unbuffered Allen's medium in a 20 x 2.5 cm. (i.d.) cylindrical glass culture tube. The initial chl *a* concentration was typically 0.2 - 0.4  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ . The cells were illuminated with 50  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  (PAR) and maintained at 30°C.  $\text{CO}_2$  was supplied by bubbling the cultures with air (0.03%  $\text{CO}_2$  v/v) which was delivered through a sterile glass tube (3.0 mm i.d.) at a rate of 70  $\text{mL.min}^{-1}$ .

Under these conditions the cells reached a chl *a* concentration of 4 - 6  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  after 36 - 48 hours during which time the cells were harvested for experiments. The pH of the medium at this time was 10.0 to 10.5 and the exogenous DIC was between 60 and 200  $\mu\text{M}$ . (3) Finally, 30  $\mu\text{L} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells were grown by adding approximately 10 to 20  $\mu\text{g}$  chl *a* of standing culture cells to 50 mL of Allen's medium buffered with 25 mM BTP/HCl at either pH 8.0 or 9.5. The media was contained in a 20 x 2.5 cm (i.d.) cylindrical glass culture tube. These cells were maintained at 30°C and illuminated at 50  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ .  $\text{CO}_2$  was supplied by bubbling the cells with 30  $\mu\text{L} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  (0.003 % v/v)  $\text{CO}_2$  in air at a flow rate of 270  $\text{mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ . The gas was passed through a sterile glass tube (7 mm i.d.) with a sintered glass tip that allowed for an even and diffuse distribution of gas bubbles throughout the solution. Under these conditions the cells were at 4 - 6  $\mu\text{g}$  chl *a*  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  after 60 - 72 hours. The exogenous DIC at this time was about 3  $\mu\text{M}$ . The gas flow through both air-grown and 30  $\mu\text{L} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells was regulated by a flow-meter (Cole-Parmer). Illumination in all cases was provided by a combination of Sylvania Gro-Lux and cool white fluorescent lamps. Photosynthetically active light radiation (PAR, 400 - 700 nm) was measured with a Li - Cor (Lincoln, Nebraska) Li - 185B quantum sensor and meter and is expressed as  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ .

#### **PREPARATION OF LOW DIC BUFFER**

Low DIC buffer was prepared by first adding a predetermined amount of 2N HCl to 100 mL of distilled  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . The solution was then bubbled with  $\text{N}_2$  for 20 minutes to dissipate dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  and thus remove DIC. Solid bis-tris-propane (BTP) (0.706

g/100mL) was subsequently added to the solution and the flask was quickly closed with an air tight stopper. This procedure enabled preparation of a 25 mM BTP solution of appropriate pH which contained approximately 10-20  $\mu$ M DIC and less than 8  $\mu$ M Na<sup>+</sup>. The level of contaminant DIC in the buffer was measured by allowing standing culture cells to consume the DIC photosynthetically in an O<sub>2</sub> electrode cuvette. The amount of DIC present was assumed to be stoichiometrically equal to the amount of O<sub>2</sub> evolved. Alternatively, the DIC concentration in the buffer or in the cell - free growth medium at harvest was determined by gas chromatography as described by Birmingham and Colman (1979).

## EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

Cells were removed from the growth medium and centrifuged for 1 min. at 12000 x g in a Beckman microfuge E. The supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was resuspended in low DIC, BTP/HCl buffer. This procedure was repeated three times in order to remove Na<sup>+</sup> and DIC from the cell suspension. Cells prepared in this way were used in subsequent experiments.

The chl *a* concentration of cell suspensions was determined as described by Mackinney (1941). Cells were pelleted by centrifugation, the supernatant discarded and chl *a* was extracted with 1.4 mL of methanol. The methanol extraction was carried out at -10°C in the dark for at least 30 minutes. The methanol extract was separated from cell debris by centrifugation for 1 min. at 12000 x g. The [chl *a*] was determined spectrophotometrically at 665 nm. For a 1 mL suspension of cells the equation is:

$$\text{chl } a \text{ } (\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}) = 13.42 \times A_{665} \times 1.4$$

## **O<sub>2</sub> EVOLUTION**

O<sub>2</sub> evolution was measured using a thermostatted (30°C) Clark type oxygen electrode (Hansatech, Norfolk, U.K.). Washed cells (1.5 mL, 7 - 15 µg chl *a*.mL<sup>-1</sup>) were placed in the electrode chamber and purged with N<sub>2</sub>. The chamber was then closed to the atmosphere and the cells were allowed to consume the residual DIC present (approx. 20 µM) in the medium. The medium was stirred using a magnetic stirrer. Additions to the medium were made using a Hamilton syringe inserted into a capillary inlet in the plunger used to seal the chamber. The calibration of the electrode was carried out by adjusting the electrode signal under conditions where the O<sub>2</sub> concentration was known to be zero (vigorous gassing with N<sub>2</sub> for 5 mins.) and 230 µM O<sub>2</sub> (gassing with 20.8% O<sub>2</sub> for 5 mins.). At 30°C, 20.8% O<sub>2</sub> yields 230 µM O<sub>2</sub> in aqueous solution at equilibrium (Truesdale and Downing, 1956). The range of signal output, measured on a chart recorder, thus corresponded to a defined range of O<sub>2</sub> concentration.

Actinic light to drive photosynthesis was provided by a quartz halogen projector lamp. The light intensity at the surface of the cuvette was 125 µmol photons.m<sup>-2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup> (PAR).

## **FLUOROMETRY**

Changes in chl *a* fluorescence yield were measured using a pulse amplitude modulation fluorometer (PAM 101 H. Walz, Effeltrich, FRG) developed by Schreiber (Schreiber *et al.*, 1986). A weak (2 - 5 µmol photons.m<sup>-2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup>), pulse - modulated (1 µsec flashes at 100 kHz) red light beam (λ = 650 nm) generated by a light emitting diode (LED) was used to repetitively excite chlorophyll *a* in PSII. The pulsed light beam

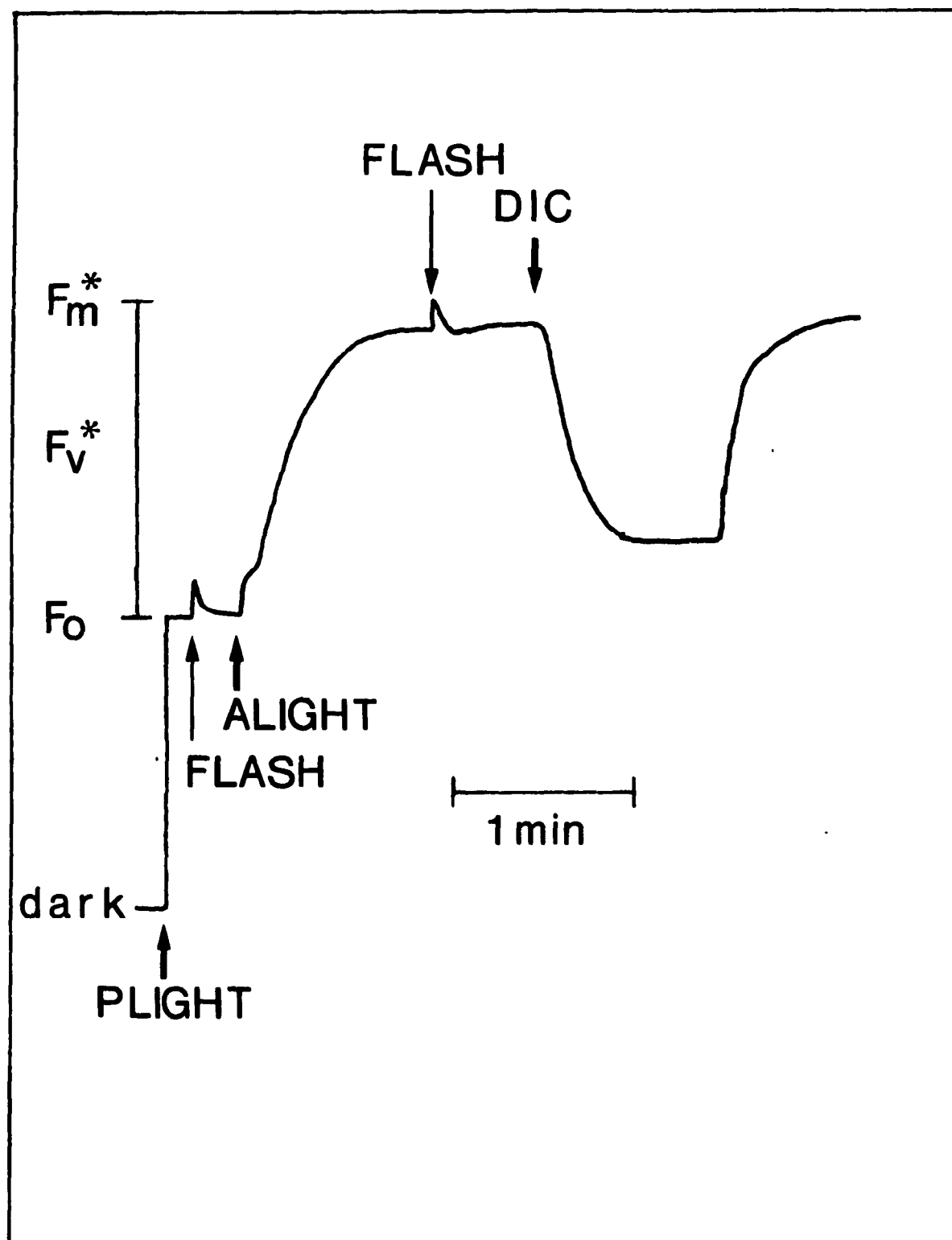
was passed through a short pass filter ( $\lambda < 680$  nm) to eliminate long wavelength radiation. Fluorescence emitted from chl *a* in PSII was received by a photo-diode detector shielded by a long pass ( $\lambda > 700$  nm) filter. The pulsed fluorescence signal was amplified in two steps by a pulse amplifier and a "selective window amplifier" and further processed to give a continuous output signal that was directed to a strip chart recorder. Only the pulse modulated fluorescence signal (@ 100 kHz) was amplified by the system. Continuous (non-modulated) fluorescence caused by the actinic light used to drive photosynthesis was not amplified and not recorded. Consequently, the signal directly reflects chl *a* fluorescence yield, which may vary between a minimum value,  $F_0$ , and a maximum value  $F_m^*$ , depending on the oxidation-reduction status of  $Q_A$  (Schreiber *et al.*, 1986). The weak, pulse modulated light is insufficient to cause any significant change in the red - ox status of  $Q_A$  (Schreiber *et al.*, 1986).

Generally, fluorescence transients were recorded from cells in the  $O_2$  electrode chamber in order to facilitate simultaneous measurements of fluorescence yield and photosynthesis. The cell suspension was optically connected to the emitter and detector by a fiber optic bundle which passed light in both directions.

The  $F_0$  was determined by illuminating dark adapted cells (5 mins.) with the pulse modulated light beam alone (Fig 2). Under these circumstances,  $Q_A$ , the primary quinone electron acceptor in PSII is mostly oxidized in the absence of significant electron flow through PSII (Miller *et al.*, 1991). When these cells are then exposed to actinic light ( $125 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ) and provided they are at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point, the fluorescence yield gradually, over a period of 60 - 90 seconds, increases to a level near

## **FIGURE 2**

The chl *a* fluorescence of *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 was measured as described in the text. Cells were dark - adapted for 5 minutes in the O<sub>2</sub> electrode chamber in 25 mM BTP/HCl buffer (pH 8.0 - 9.5) at 30°C. The F<sub>o</sub> or minimal fluorescence yield was obtained after illumination of the cells with a weak pulse modulated light (PLIGHT, 2 - 5  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ). With the pulse light on, and while the cells were still in the dark, a brief (1s) flash of high intensity light (FLASH, 1600  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ) was insufficient to obtain the highest fluorescence yield (F<sub>m</sub><sup>\*</sup>). The cells were subsequently exposed to actinic light (ALIGHT, 100  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ) resulting in a gradual increase in fluorescence yield which plateaued after 1 - 2 minutes. The maximum fluorescence yield (F<sub>m</sub><sup>\*</sup>) was then obtained by providing the cells with a brief flash (FLASH) of saturating light intensity (1600  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ). The addition of DIC (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) caused a rapid decrease in the fluorescence yield ("quenching"). The decrease in fluorescence yield subsequently reversed, eventually plateauing at a level close to F<sub>m</sub><sup>\*</sup>. In all subsequent experiments, the addition of DIC to cell suspensions was done while the cells were at the CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point (ie. fluorescence yield was at a steady - state near F<sub>m</sub><sup>\*</sup>).





maximum (Fig 2). The maximum fluorescence yield ( $F_m^*$ ) is obtained by providing a brief (1 sec.) flash of saturating white light ( $1600 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ) which has the effect of fully reducing  $Q_A$ . The  $F_m^*$  can alternately be measured by adding  $20 \mu\text{M}$  3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethyl urea (DCMU), which has the effect of blocking electron flow out of  $Q_A$ .  $F_m^*$  is found therefore under conditions where  $Q_A$  is fully reduced, either by a saturating pulse of light or by adding DCMU. The difference between  $F_m^*$  and  $F_o$  is the variable fluorescence,  $F_v^*$  (Fig 2).

The intracellular accumulation of inorganic carbon in certain cyanobacteria causes quenching of chl *a* fluorescence (Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie *et al.*, 1991, see also Fig 2). Estimates of the initial rate of fluorescence quenching were obtained over 10 - 15 second time intervals after the addition of inorganic carbon to cell suspensions at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point, by determining the slope of a tangent drawn to chart recorder traces of fluorescence transients.

## SILICONE FLUID CENTRIFUGATION

The direct measurement of DIC transport, intracellular DIC accumulation and carbon fixation was carried out using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique. The experiments were carried out in  $400 \mu\text{L}$  microcentrifuge tubes containing  $100 \mu\text{L}$  of terminating solution (2N KOH in 10 % v/v methanol) over which was layered a less dense silicone fluid mixture (AR 20 : AR 200, 1.75:1 (v/v), Wacker-Chemie, FGR). The top layer consisted of 80 or  $90 \mu\text{L}$  of cell suspension (app.  $10 \mu\text{g chl } a.\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point. The tubes were capped and placed in a microcentrifuge. Illumination was provided at  $300 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  (PAR) and the temperature was maintained at

30°C.  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled DIC (10 - 20  $\mu\text{L}$ ) was introduced into the cell suspension using a Hamilton syringe to give a final volume of 100  $\mu\text{L}$ . Trial runs using coloured dye solutions indicated that rapid and uniform distribution of the  $^{14}\text{C}$  could be obtained when a 10  $\mu\text{L}$  volume was injected into the cell suspension. At timed intervals following the addition of  $^{14}\text{C}$  the cells were separated from the reaction medium by centrifugation (12000 x g) for 60 seconds. Recovery of the cells at the bottom of the tube by this method was 95 %. Following centrifugation the tubes and contents were frozen in liquid  $\text{N}_2$  and stored at -10°C until processed.

The frozen tubes were cut at the silicone fluid/KOH-MeOH interface and the KOH-MeOH as well as the cell pellet were removed and collected. The tube tip was washed with 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of 10 mM KOH and this was added to the KOH-MeOH-pellet mixture. Of this 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of solution, 50  $\mu\text{L}$  was added to 5 mL of scintillation fluid (Universol, ICN), mixed, and stored in the dark for at least 3 hours. The radioactivity of the sample was determined by scintillation counting (Beckman LS 7500). Of the remaining 150  $\mu\text{L}$  of KOH-MeOH-pellet mixture, a 50  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquot was removed and placed in a 5 mL scintillation vial. Acetic acid (300  $\mu\text{L}$ ) was added to the 50  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquot and the mixture was incubated at 92°C for three hours, during which time the unfixed inorganic carbon was evaporated as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ . Once the acetic acid was evaporated, the dry residue containing acid stable  $^{14}\text{C}$  photosynthetic products was dissolved in 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of distilled  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . To this was added 5 mL scintillation fluid. The radioactivity of the sample was determined by scintillation counting. Total  $^{14}\text{C}$  present in the cell pellet was obtained from the first treatment (50  $\mu\text{L}$  MeOH-KOH-pellet). Knowing the specific activity of the

added  $^{14}\text{C}$ , the measured radioactivity in dpm was converted to  $\mu\text{mol C}_i.\text{mg chl}^{-1}$  using the equation:

$$\mu\text{mol C}_i.\text{mgchl}^{-1} = (4.2\text{dpm} - \alpha\text{dpm})(\text{S.A.} \times \text{mgchl}^{-1} \times 2.22 \times 10^6)^{-1}$$

Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) in this equation refers to the proportion of the total incubation volume which remains with the cells in passing through the silicone fluid layer. Since this is a source of radioactivity which is external to the cell volume, this fraction of the activity was subtracted in order to determine the radioactivity present in the cells. The dpm's are multiplied by 4.2 as a consequence of the fractional recovery (95 %) and the fact that 1/4 of the total  $^{14}\text{C}$  label recovered was counted ( $4/0.95 = 4.2$ ). Acid stable counts were converted to  $\mu\text{moles C}_i.\text{mg chl}^{-1}$  using a variation of equation (2), without the alpha correction factor since extracellular  $^{14}\text{C}$  is removed prior to counting. Pool formation ( $\text{mM DIC}_i$ ) was calculated by subtracting acid stable counts from total C counts and dividing by the intracellular volume. The intracellular volumes for air-grown, standing culture, and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells were taken as 48.5, 62.0, and  $62.9 \mu\text{L.mg chl}^{-1}$ , respectively (Kandasamy, R.A., M.Sc. Thesis, 1991; Price and Badger, 1989a). The alpha values for air-grown and standing culture cells were taken as 0.00212 and 0.00266, respectively (Kandasamy, R.A., M.Sc. Thesis, 1991). The alpha value for  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells was not determined but was assumed to be 0.00266.

The preparation of stock solutions of  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  of defined concentration and specific activity for  $\text{DI}^{14}\text{C}$  uptake experiments required measuring the level of contaminant DIC in the stock buffer. This was done by measuring the amount of  $\text{O}_2$  evolved as is described under "PREPARATION OF LOW DIC BUFFER". The level of

contamination was generally 10 - 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC. Experimental stock solutions of 50, 200, and 500  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC were prepared by adding a defined volume of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  from a manufacturer's stock solution (56  $\mu\text{Curies} \cdot \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , 33 mM DIC, Amersham, Toronto) to the stock buffer (pH 8.75, 5 mM BTP/HCl) in a stoppered, 1 mL glass vial. Additions through the rubber stopper were made with a Hamilton syringe. The specific activity of the experimental stock solutions was determined by counting 10  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquots of each stock in a liquid scintillation counter, and dividing by the total DIC (including contaminant).

Experiments to determine the uptake of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  involved essentially the same experimental set up as for  $\text{H}^{14}\text{CO}_3^-$  uptake. The experimental stock solution of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  required a low pH buffer (10 mM phthallic acid, pH 4.0) to maintain the added  $^{14}\text{C}$  label as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ . The successive removal of aliquots of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  from the stoppered vial resulted in successively increasing the head space. Loss of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  into the head space was measured by removing, periodically, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  aliquots to be counted in a liquid scintillation counter. The loss of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  into the head space could be compensated for by successively increasing the volume of the  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  solution to be added to the cells to obtain a consistent, desired concentration of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ . When the concentration of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  declined by 50%, the stock was discarded and a new stock was made up.

## INHIBITORS

Glycolaldehyde was prepared as a 3M stock in distilled  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Ethoxylamide was prepared in dimethylsulfoxide at concentrations up to 200 mM. The addition of 1% dimethylsulfoxide had no effect on either photosynthetic  $\text{O}_2$  evolution or chl *a* fluorescence.

## **CHEMICALS**

Glycolaldehyde, ethoxyzolamide, and BTP (Bis-Tris-Propane) and phthallic acid were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (St.Louis, Mi). Compressed gas (0.003% v/v CO<sub>2</sub>, 20.8% v/v O<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>) was obtained from Union Carbide (Montreal) and Linde (Toronto).

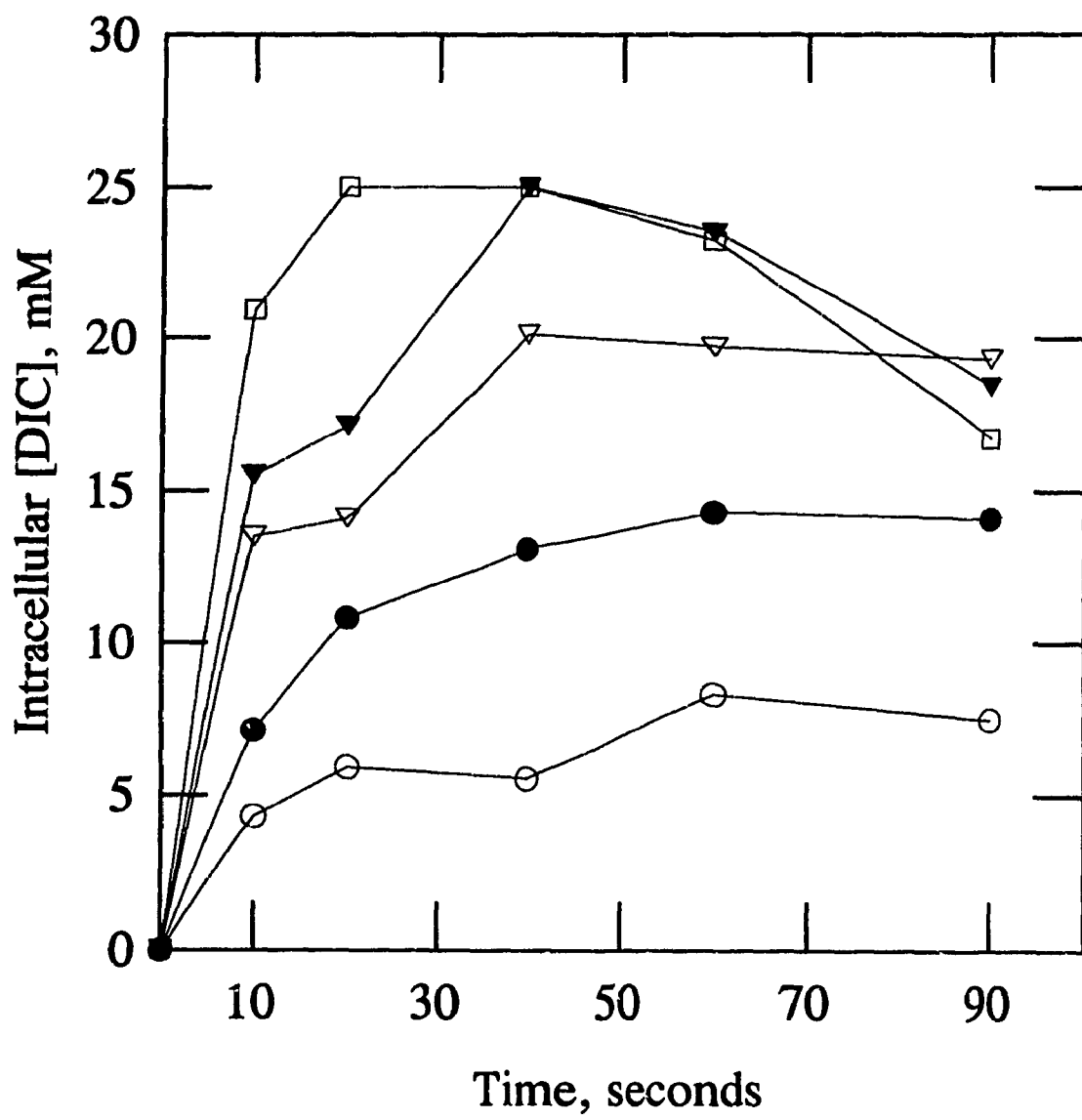
## **RESULTS**

### **RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PHOTOSYNTHESIS, DIC POOL FORMATION, AND FLUORESCENCE QUENCHING**

Cyanobacteria grown with air-bubbling are strictly and specifically dependent on mM levels of extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  for photosynthesis at low DIC ( $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ ) and alkaline pH ( $> \text{pH } 7.0$ ) (Miller *et al.*, 1984; Espie *et al.*, 1988b; Reinhold *et al.*, 1984). The results depicted in Fig. 3 indicate that, for air-grown cells provided with  $20 \mu\text{M}$  DIC at pH 9.1, both the initial rate of intracellular DIC accumulation and the maximum pool size attained were dependent on the levels of added  $\text{Na}^+$  in the range from 1-25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , as measured using the silicon fluid centrifugation technique. With 25 mM extracellular NaCl, the maximum pool size (25 mM DIC) was attained approximately 20 to 40 seconds after DIC addition. After 40 seconds, the calculated [DIC] remaining in the medium was  $8.9 \mu\text{M}$ . The accumulation ratio ( $[\text{DIC}]_i/[\text{DIC}]_o$ ) at 20 seconds was thus 2810. Taking a membrane potential of -120 mV (Miller *et al.*, 1984b), the free energy difference ( $\Delta G^\circ$ ) for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at 20 seconds was calculated to be  $+7.08 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ . Thus, DIC transport was proceeding against a very large electrochemical gradient indicating active transport. Active  $\text{CO}_2$  transport is also known to occur in air-grown cells even in the absence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  (Miller *et al.*, 1988b). However in the absence of extracellular CA, the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply is limited by the rate of spontaneous dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . For the experiment shown in Fig. 3, the total  $\text{C}_i$  uptake measured over the first ten seconds, with 1 mM extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  present, exceeded the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply by 45 fold. Thus, in the presence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$ , the primary pathway for DIC

### FIGURE 3

Time course of intracellular DIC accumulation in air grown cells provided with (○) 1 mM, (●) 2 mM, (▽) 5 mM, (▼) 10 mM, and (□) 25 mM NaCl. Data represent the average of duplicate or triplicate measurements. Experiments were conducted at pH 9.08, 30°C, and light was supplied at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The [chl] ranged from 6.8 to 8.2  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ . The initial [DIC] was 20  $\mu\text{M}$  with a specific activity of 48.7  $\mu\text{Ci.}\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ .





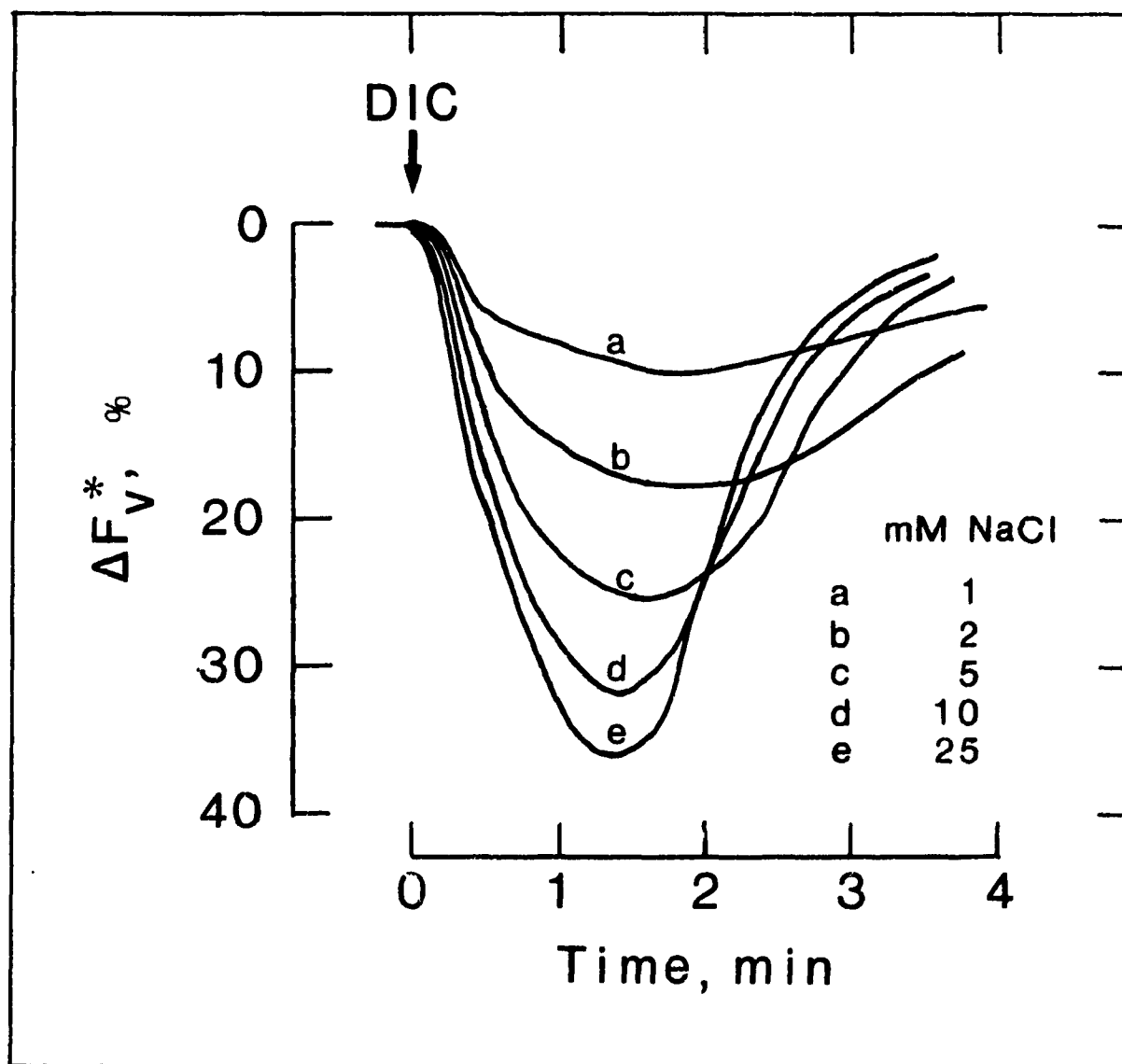
entry into air-grown cells was the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism.

When a low [DIC] ( $20\ \mu\text{M}$ ) was added to air-grown cells at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point in the absence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$ , very little change in the yield of chl *a* fluorescence was observed (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). There was only a small DIC pool formed under these circumstances and the rate of photosynthesis was attributable entirely to  $\text{CO}_2$  transport supported by  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration in the medium (Espie *et al.*, 1988b; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). The addition of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  resulted in a rapid quenching of chl *a* fluorescence (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992; Fig. 4). Figure 4 illustrates that both the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and the extent of quenching were responsive to increasing levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  in the range 1 - 25 mM.

The relationship between the extent of fluorescence quenching (expressed as  $\%F_v^*$ ) and the maximum intracellular DIC concentration attained by air-grown cells at  $20\ \mu\text{M}$  DIC and varying  $\text{Na}^+$ , is depicted in Fig. 5. The data shown in Fig. 5 were obtained from Figs. 3 and 4. Analysis of the two sets of data indicated that they were highly correlated ( $r = .987$ ) by linear regression ( $y = 1.5x - 3.36$ ). Statistical analysis (Students *t*-test) revealed that the probability of obtaining an *r* - value this high by chance alone is less than 0.2 % ( $P < 0.002$ ). No data was obtained at intracellular DIC concentrations lower than 7.5 mM, however extrapolation of the linear regression (and the 95 % confidence intervals) predicted that fluorescence quenching would be absent in the absence of an intracellular DIC pool. In fact, at the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point where the intracellular DIC pool was small, chl *a* fluorescence was always near its maximum and little quenching was observed (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992).

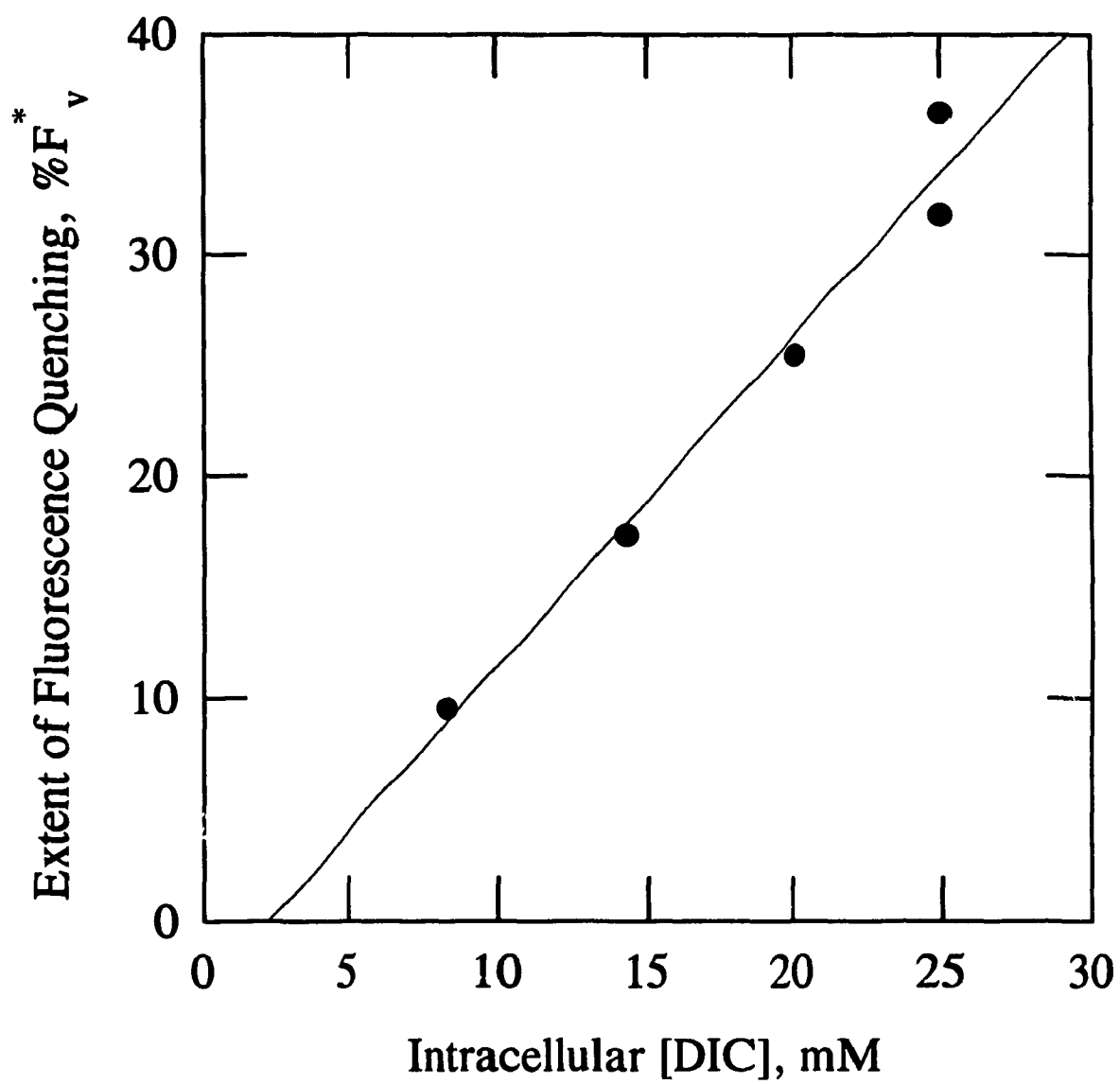
#### FIGURE 4

Effect of 1 - 25 mM Na<sup>+</sup> on the time course of chl *a* fluorescence quenching in air - grown cells. Experiments were conducted at pH 9.08, 30°C, and light was supplied at 100  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The initial DIC was 20  $\mu\text{M}$  (added at time indicated by arrow) and the chl concentration was 5.8  $\mu\text{g.ml}^{-1}$ . Individual time courses have been overlaid to facilitate comparison.



### FIGURE 5

Correlation between the extent of chl *a* fluorescence quenching ( $\% F_v^*$ , obtained from Fig 4 and the maximum intracellular DIC accumulated (mM DIC, obtained from Fig 3) in air-grown cells. Increases in both quenching and maximum pool size were obtained by varying extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  from 1 - 25 mM while holding [DIC] constant at 20  $\mu\text{M}$ . At pH 9.1 and 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC,  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport is the predominant mechanism of DIC acquisition. The data were correlated ( $r = .987$ ) by linear regression ( $y = 1.5x - 3.36$ ). Shown is the linear regression and 95 % confidence intervals.



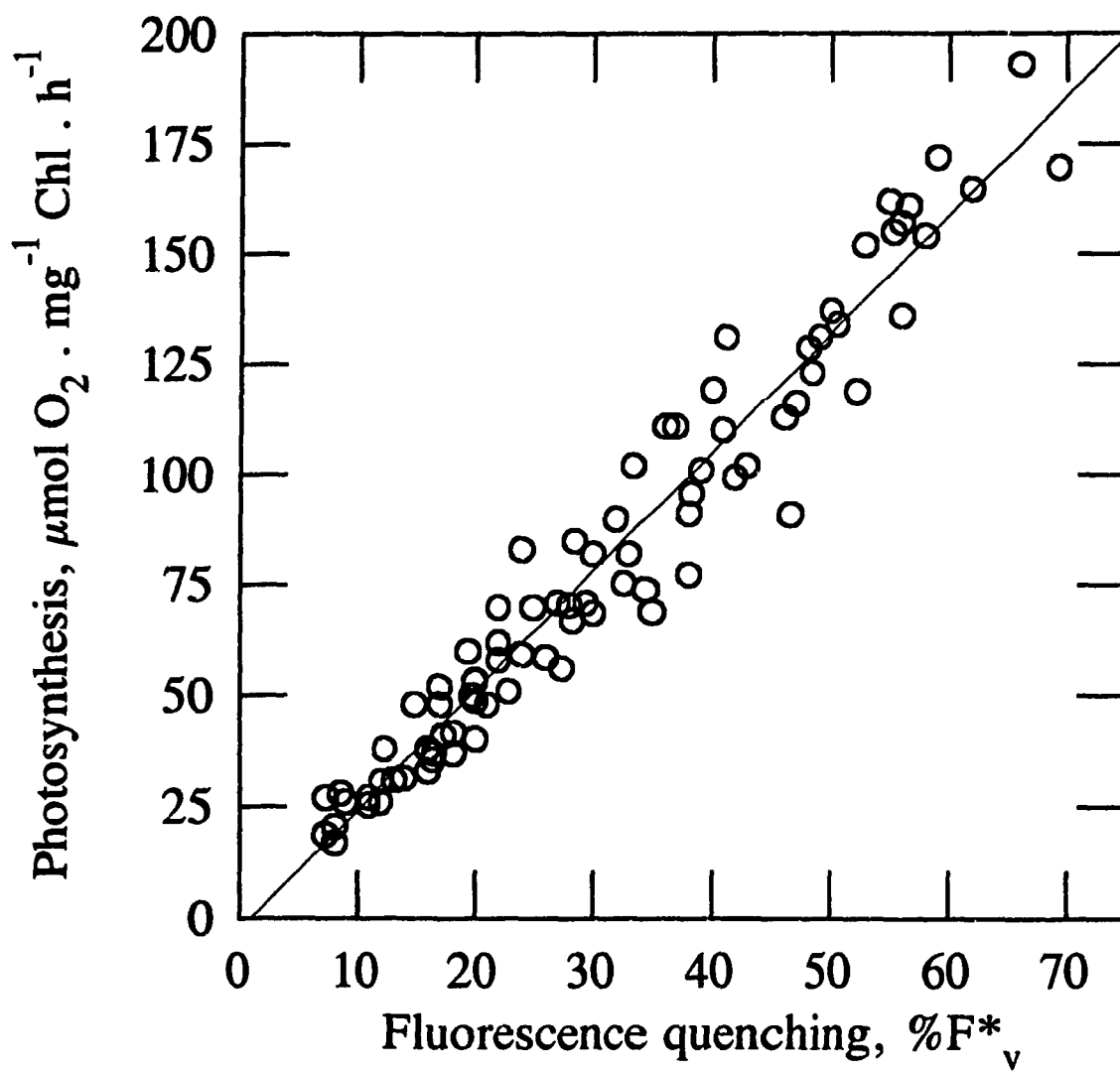
The data shown in Figs.3,4,& 5 were obtained under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was the main [DIC] species being transported. A similar correlation, obtained under conditions where  $\text{CO}_2$  transport was the main route for DIC acquisition from the extracellular medium has recently been presented (Miller *et al*,1991; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). It can be concluded that; (1) fluorescence quenching provided a quantitative and accurate indicator of the size of the internal DIC pool, regardless of the DIC species being transported (2) the absence of fluorescence quenching can be taken to indicate that little or no DIC pool formation occurred.

The flow of DIC in cyanobacterial photosynthesis has been shown to proceed from the external environment to the internal pool and then to carbon fixation products of photosynthesis (Kaplan *et al*,1980; Shelp and Calvin, 1984; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). It has also been shown that the rate of carbon dioxide fixation is proportional to the size of the internal DIC pool (Kaplan *et al*. 1980; Shelp and Calvin, 1984; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). If the extent of fluorescence quenching is an indication of the size of the pool, then there should be a relation between the extent of fluorescence quenching ( $\%F_v$ ) and the rate of photosynthesis. The data presented in Fig. 6 indicate that the rate of photosynthesis was linearly related to the extent of fluorescence quenching. The data provide further evidence that the fluorescence quenching technique monitored the size of the intracellular [DIC] pool under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was the main [DIC] species being transported.

The fluorescence quenching technique has been shown to monitor the accumulation of intracellular DIC, even when  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation is blocked by Calvin cycle

## FIGURE 6

Correlation between the extent of fluorescence quenching ( $\%F_v^*$ ) and photosynthesis ( $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \text{ chl. h}^{-1}$ ) in air-grown cells. Photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching were measured simultaneously at 30°C. Illumination was provided at  $100 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . Both parameters were varied by varying the initial extracellular [DIC] (4 - 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ), the extracellular pH (8.0 - 9.5), and the extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  (1 - 25 mM). Results shown are from six separate experiments using four separate batches of cells.



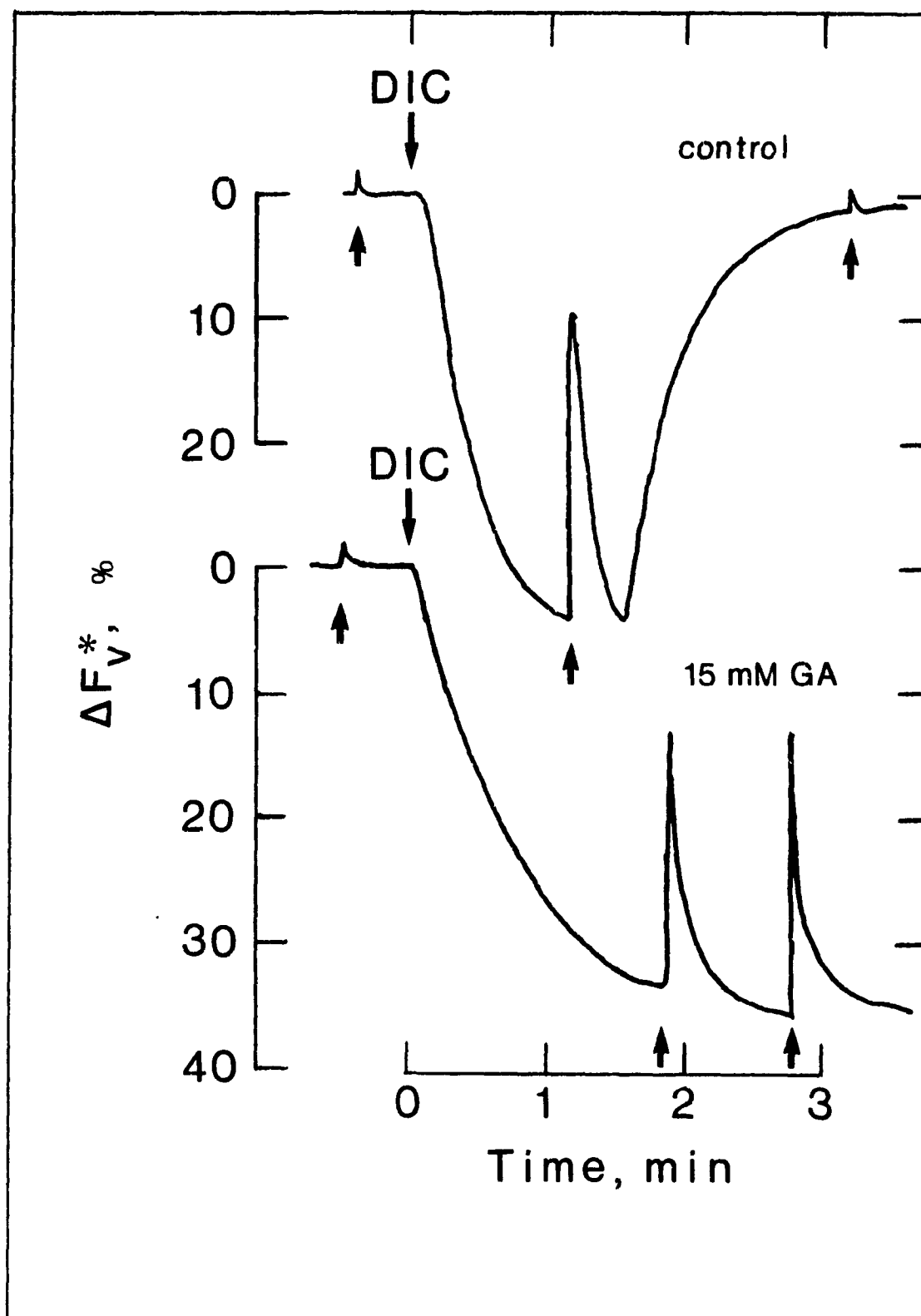


inhibitors such as glycolaldehyde (Miller and Calvin, 1989; Fig. 7) or iodoacetamide (Miller *et al.*, 1988c). Figure 7 shows that the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching was reduced by about 50 % by 15 mM glycolaldehyde, however the maximal extent of quenching was little affected. The effect of glycolaldehyde on chl *a* fluorescence quenching is variable since, in some instances the initial rate of quenching is unaffected (Espie, unpublished observation). The variability is likely due to varying levels of O<sub>2</sub> in the medium (see below).

Saturating flashes of high intensity light ( $1600 \mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ) resulted in the recovery of about 70 % of  $F_v^*$  without glycolaldehyde, and about 60 % of  $F_v^*$  with glycolaldehyde present. Without glycolaldehyde present, the dissipation of the pool through CO<sub>2</sub> fixation resulted in a rapid recovery of fluorescence yield after approximately 90 seconds. With glycolaldehyde the inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation prevented the dissipation of the pool and the fluorescence remained quenched. In Fig. 7 the maximum extent of quenching was not affected by glycolaldehyde however in some experiments the addition of glycolaldehyde reduced the maximum extent of quenching by up to 40 % (Miller and Calvin, 1989). It is known that DIC transport will stimulate electron flow to O<sub>2</sub> (Miller *et al.*, 1988c), and in the absence of electron flow to CO<sub>2</sub>, the quenching of chl *a* fluorescence will vary with the O<sub>2</sub> concentration in the medium (Miller *et al.*, 1991). The results of Fig. 7 indicate that a substantial portion of the chl *a* fluorescence quenching induced by DIC transport was independent of the events associated with CO<sub>2</sub> fixation. The presence of 15 mM glycolaldehyde did not affect total DIC uptake (Fig. 8). The inhibition of carbon dioxide fixation by glycolaldehyde (Fig.

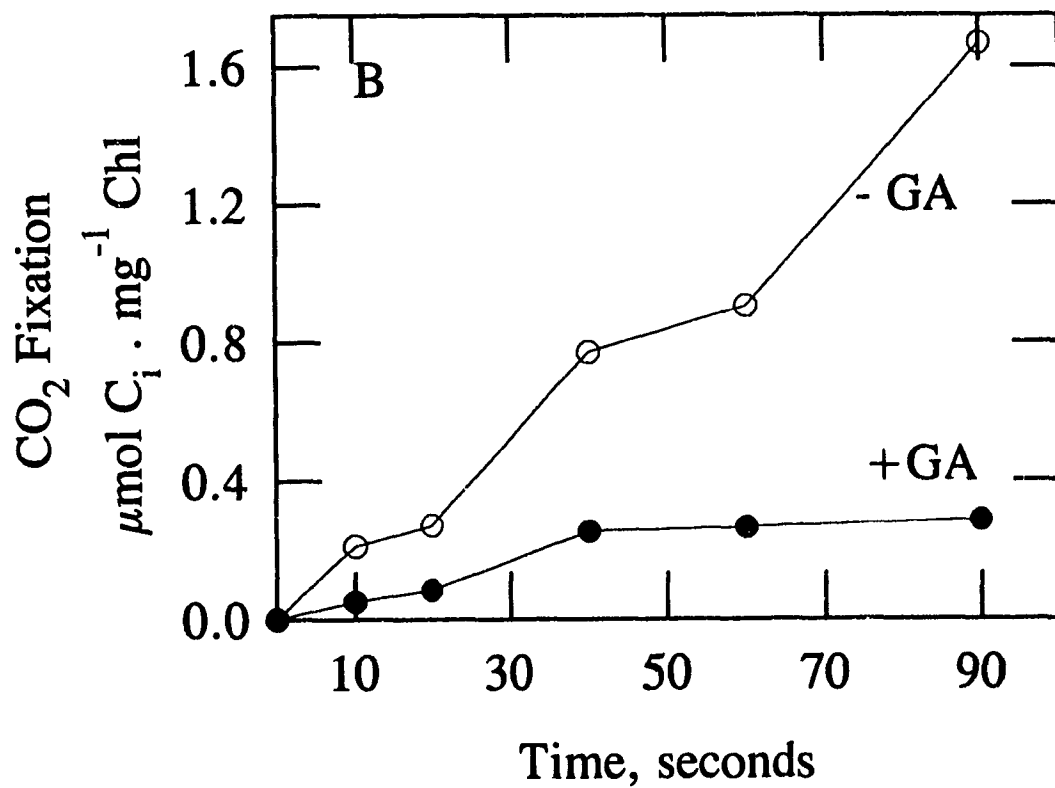
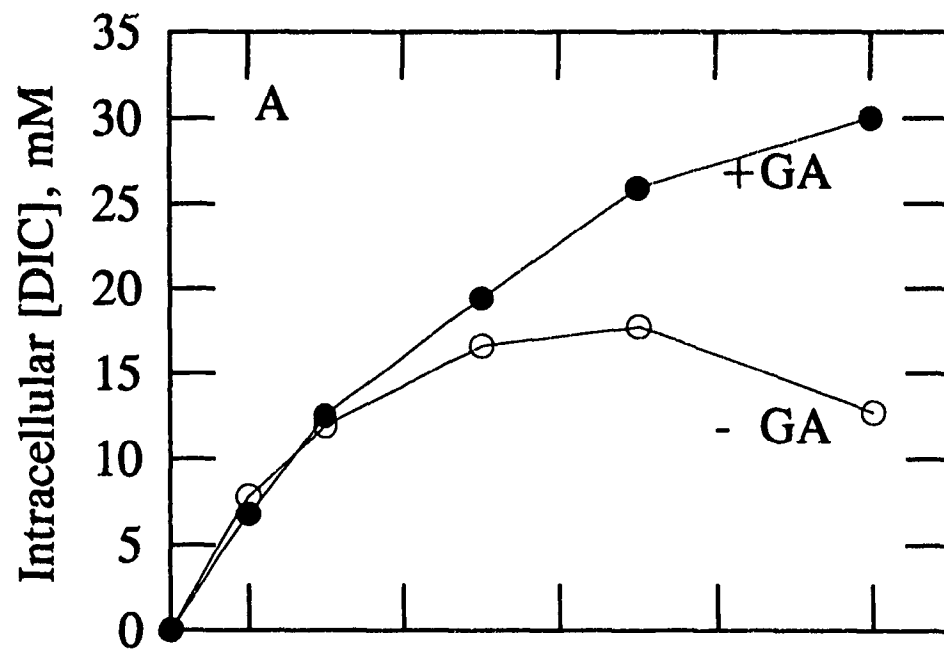
### FIGURE 7

Effect of 15 mM glycolaldehyde on chl *a* fluorescence quenching initiated by the addition of 20  $\mu$ M DIC in air-grown cells. Experiment was conducted at pH 8.1, 30 $^{\circ}$  C, with 25 mM NaCl, and light was supplied at 100  $\mu$ mol photons. $\text{m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . A saturating, 1 second flash of high intensity white light (1600  $\mu$ mol photons. $\text{m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ ) was provided to the cells periodically in order to fully reduce  $Q_A$ , and to estimate  $F_m^*$ .



### FIGURE 8

Time course of (A) intracellular DIC accumulation and (B) carbon dioxide fixation in air grown cells in the (●) presence and (○) absence of 15 mM glycolaldehyde. Data represent the average of triplicate measurements. Experiments were conducted at pH 8.1, 30°C, with 25 mM NaCl and light was supplied at  $300 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The [chl] ranged from 8 - 10  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ . The initial [DIC] was 20  $\mu\text{M}$  with a specific activity of 50  $\mu\text{Ci.}\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ .



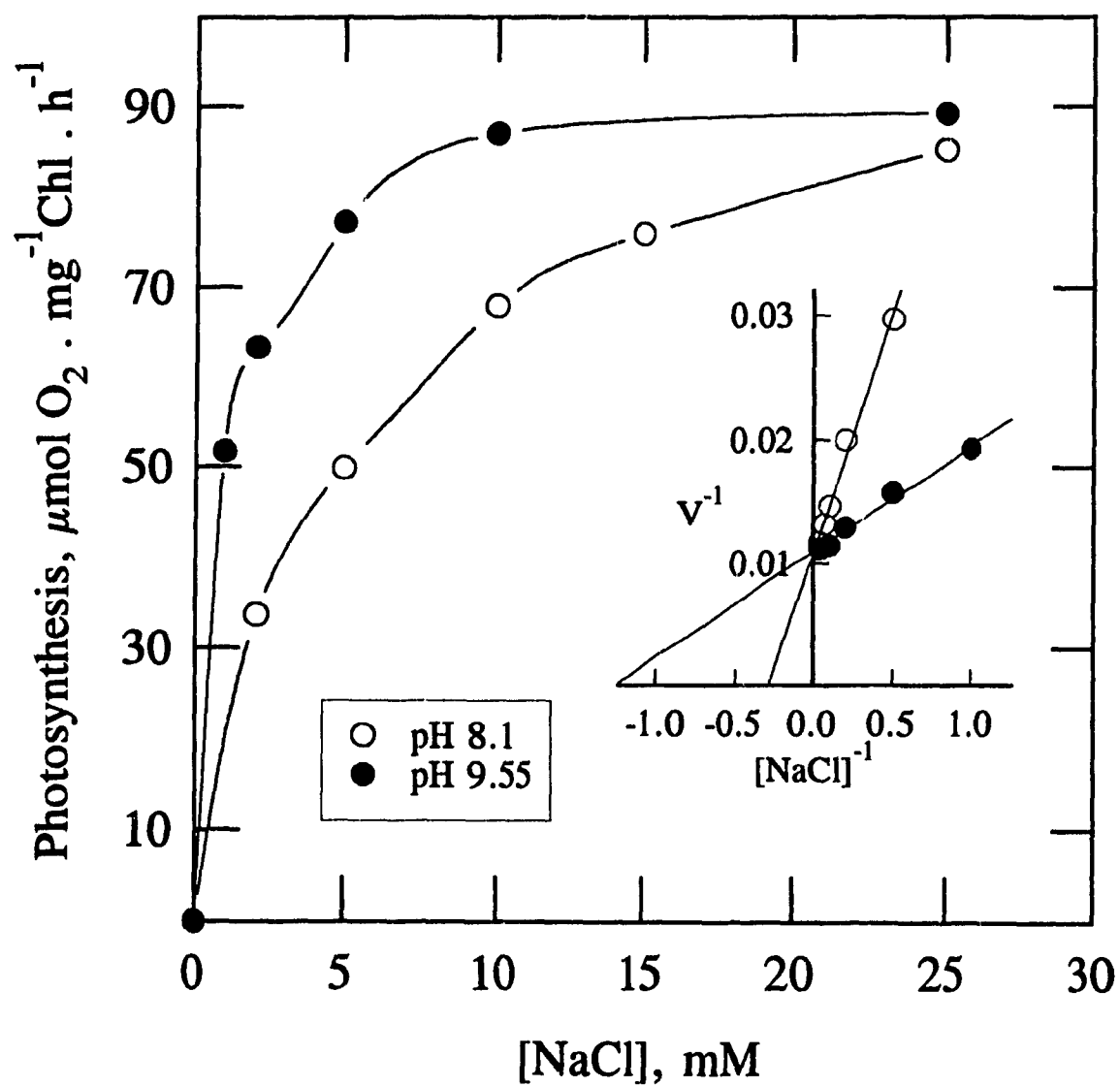
8b) prevented the drawdown of the internal DIC pool, resulting in a larger steady state internal DIC pool (Fig. 8a). The fact that the larger DIC pool was not reflected in a corresponding increase in chl *a* fluorescence quenching indicates that some portion of the quenching was associated with electron flow to NADP<sup>+</sup> and beyond.

#### **INTERACTION BETWEEN EXTRACELLULAR pH AND Na<sup>+</sup>**

The photosynthetic response of air-grown cells to Na<sup>+</sup> is shown in Fig. 9. At a fixed concentration of DIC (20  $\mu$ M), increasing levels of Na<sup>+</sup> stimulated the rate of photosynthesis up to a saturation level beyond which further Na<sup>+</sup> addition had no effect. As shown in Fig. 9 (inset) the amount of Na<sup>+</sup> required for half saturation varied with the extracellular pH. The double reciprocal plot in the inset of Fig. 9 also indicates that there was no effect of extracellular pH on the  $V_{\max}$  for photosynthesis at a fixed DIC. For the experiment shown in Fig. 9, at pH 8.1 the  $K_{1/2}$  for Na<sup>+</sup> was 4.0 mM while at pH 9.6 it was 0.8 mM. A number of experiments were carried out to determine the trend of the relationship between the  $K_{1/2}$  for Na<sup>+</sup> and extracellular pH at 20  $\mu$ M DIC and the results are summarized in Fig. 10. This figure indicates that the photosynthetic affinity for Na<sup>+</sup> increased with increasing pH. The  $K_{1/2}$  for Na<sup>+</sup> at around pH 8.0 was  $5.5 \pm 1.5$  mM ( $n = 3$ ) and declined to  $1.3 \pm 0.7$  mM ( $n = 5$ ) at around pH 9.5. Intermediate values of  $K_{1/2}$  were found at intermediate pH. The inset to Fig. 10 depicts the variation of  $V_{\max}$  for photosynthesis with extracellular pH at 20  $\mu$ M DIC. The largest difference in  $V_{\max}$  between two pH values would appear from the inset of Fig. 9 to be between pH 8.5 and pH 9.5, however, statistical analysis (ANOVA using the F-test) revealed that the two means were not significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ). Furthermore, statistical analysis

### FIGURE 9

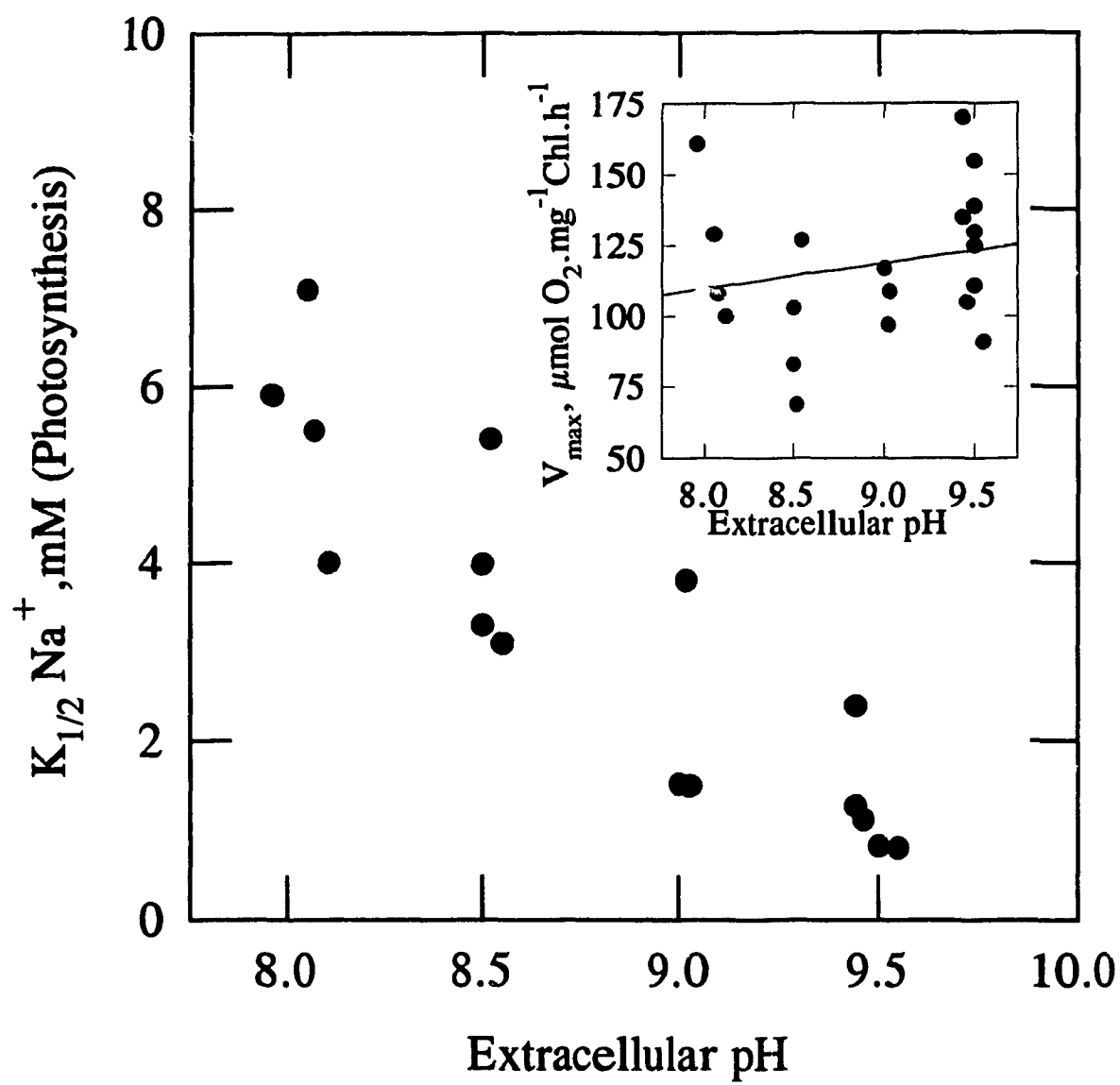
Effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  and pH on photosynthesis in air grown cells. Oxygen evolution was measured at 30°C and illumination was provided at  $100 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . Measurements were carried out at ( $\circ$ ) pH 8.1 and ( $\bullet$ ) pH 9.55. DIC was provided at an initial concentration of  $20 \mu\text{M}$ . The  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  was 4.0 and 0.8 mM at pH 8.1 and pH 9.55, respectively. The maximum rate of photosynthesis at  $20 \mu\text{M}$  DIC was  $100 \mu\text{mol O}_2.\text{mg}^{-1}\text{chl.h}^{-1}$  and  $91 \mu\text{mol O}_2.\text{mg}^{-1}\text{chl.h}^{-1}$  at pH 8.1 and pH 9.55, respectively. The  $K_{1/2}$  and maximum rate of photosynthesis were determined by linear regression analysis of double reciprocal plots of the data (inset). The  $[\text{chl}]$  was between 9 and  $10 \mu\text{g chl.mL}^{-1}$ .





### FIGURE 10

Effect of extracellular pH on  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $V_{\max}$  (inset) for photosynthesis (measured as  $\text{O}_2$  evolution) at  $20\ \mu\text{M}$  DIC. The extracellular pH was varied between 8.0 and 9.55 and extracellular  $\text{Na}^+$  was varied between 1 - 25 mM. Kinetic parameters were determined from linear regression analysis of double reciprocal plots of the data. Experiments were carried out at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ , illumination was provided at  $100\ \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ , and the  $[\text{chl}]$  ranged between 7 -  $12\ \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ .

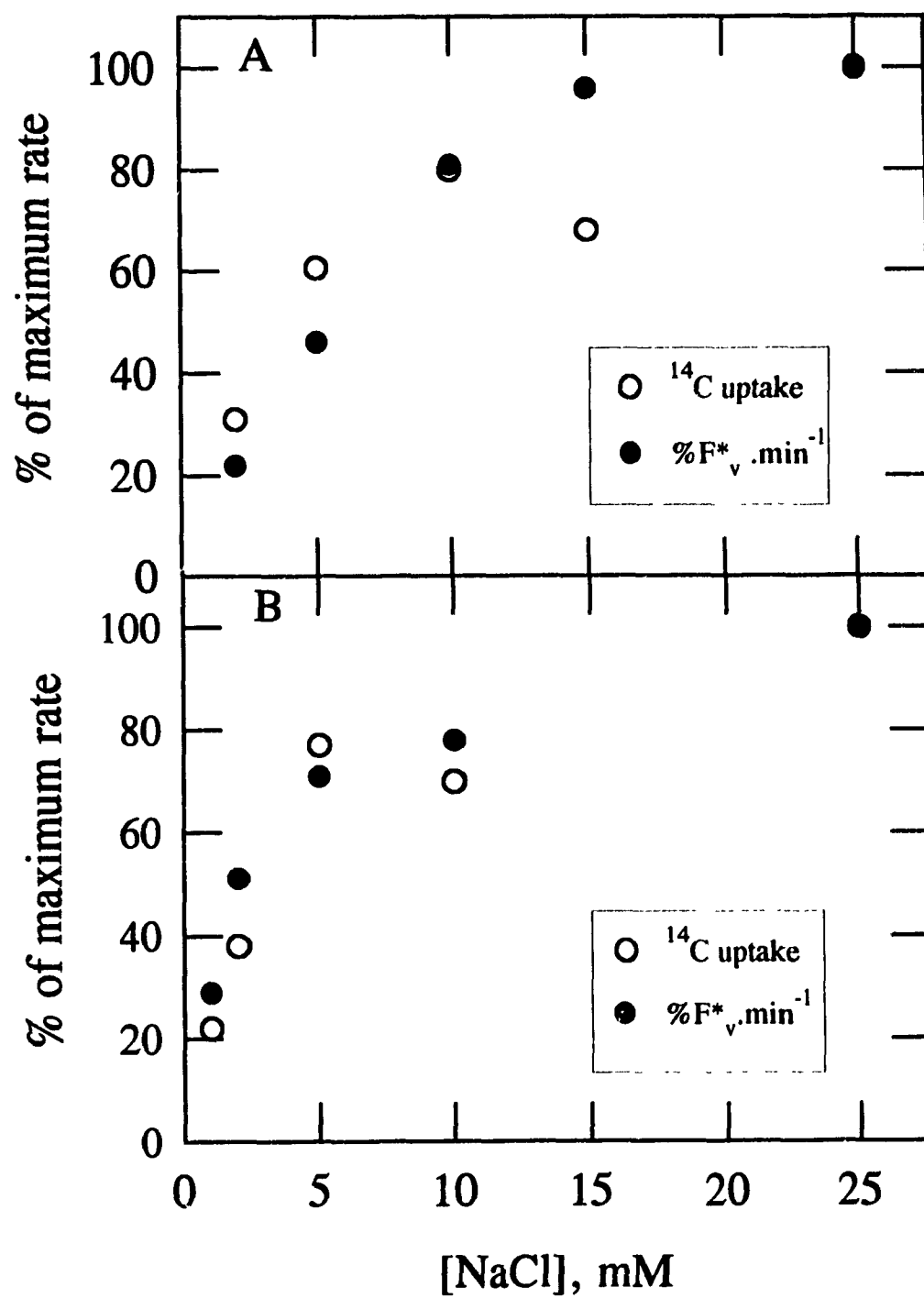


(Students-t) showed that the linear regression line through the data had a slope not significantly different from zero.

The changes in photosynthetic affinity for  $\text{Na}^+$  with varying external pH presumably arose from changes in transport processes, since transport would appear to be the limiting factor in cyanobacterial photosynthesis at low DIC (Mayo *et al.* 1989). This possibility was investigated using both the silicon fluid centrifugation technique and chl *a* fluorescence quenching as an indirect monitor for transport. Using air-grown cells, with varying levels of  $[\text{NaCl}]$ , and at constant DIC ( $20 \mu\text{M}$ ), the initial rates (10 - 15 seconds) of quenching and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake (10 seconds) were plotted as a function of extracellular  $[\text{NaCl}]$  (Fig. 11a and b). The initial rates for both measurements were normalized as a % of the maximum rate obtained. The  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  at pH 8.1 was 10.3 mM using the initial rate of fluorescence quenching and 5.5 mM using the silicone-fluid method (Fig. 11a). At pH 9.1 the  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  was 2.6 mM using fluorescence quenching and 4.3 mM using the silicon-fluid method (Fig. 11b). The response of  $K_{1/2}$  for  $\text{Na}^+$  to extracellular pH for both fluorescence quenching and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport is shown in Fig. 12. This figure shows that the apparent affinity of the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport system for  $\text{Na}^+$  increased with increasing extracellular pH. This response mirrored that of the  $K_{1/2}\text{Na}^+$  for photosynthesis with varying pH (Fig 10). These results (Figs 10 & 12) are consistent with an effect of pH and  $\text{Na}^+$  being exerted directly at the level of the transport mechanism in air grown cells.

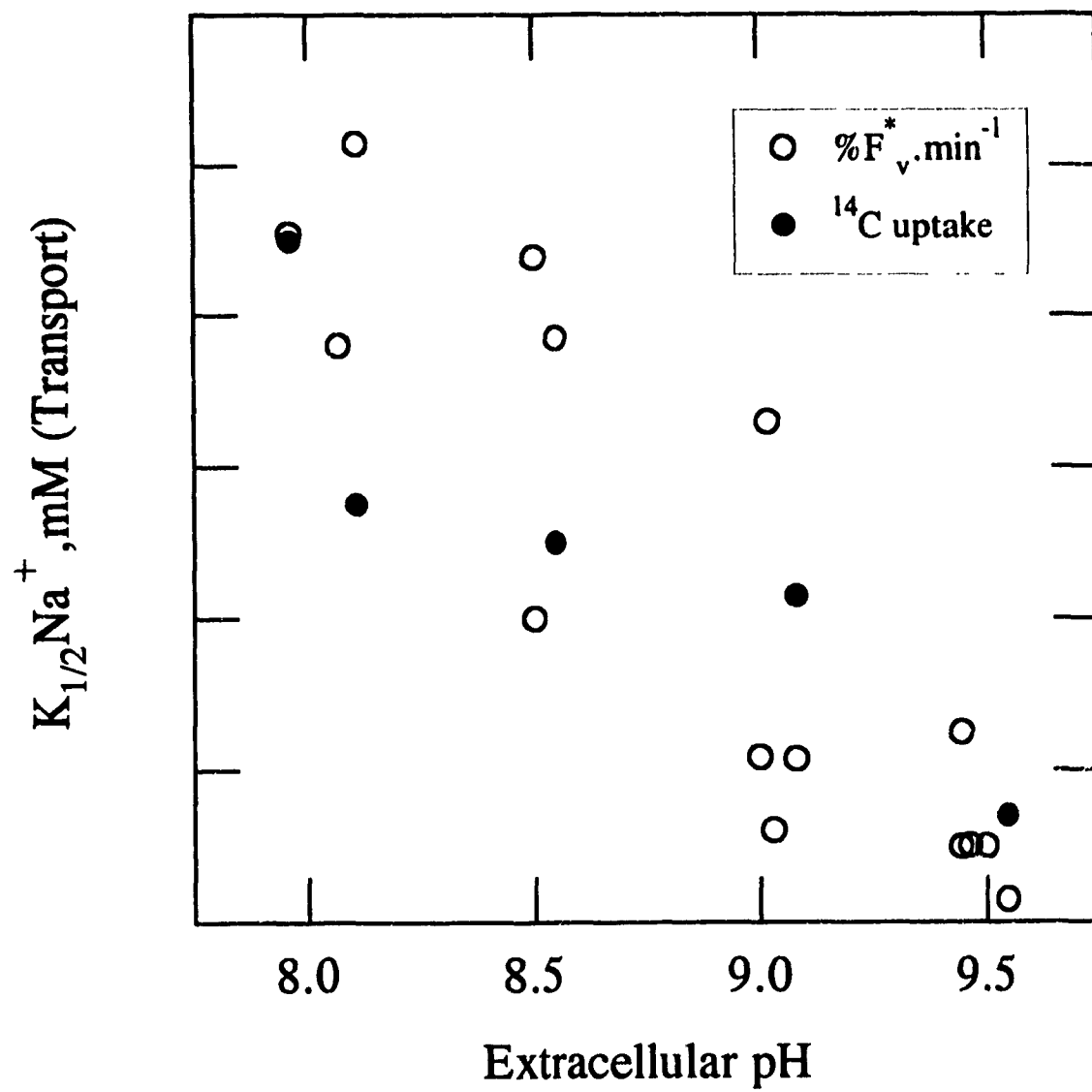
### FIGURE 11

Effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  and pH on (●) initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and (○) initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake measured using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique. Initial rates (10 - 15 seconds) using both methods were determined at (A) pH 8.1 and (B) pH 9.1 (B). Measurements are normalized as a percent of the maximum rate obtained (at 25 mM NaCl). Maximum rates of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake at 20  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC were 133  $\mu\text{mol C}_i\cdot\text{mg chl}^{-1}\cdot\text{hr}^{-1}$  and 215  $\mu\text{mol C}_i\cdot\text{mg chl}^{-1}\cdot\text{hr}^{-1}$  at pH 8.1 and pH 9.1, respectively.  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake was measured at 30°C and with illumination at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ . Fluorescence quenching was measured at 30°C and with illumination at 100  $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ . The [chl] ranged between 9 - 12.5  $\mu\text{g chl}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ .



## FIGURE 12

Effect of extracellular pH on  $K_{1/2}^{Na^+}$  for (○) initial rates of fluorescence quenching and (●) initial rates of  $HCO_3^-$  uptake measured using the silicon fluid centrifugation technique. The pH was varied between pH 8.0 and pH 9.55 and extracellular  $Na^+$  was varied between 1 and 25 mM at a constant initial [DIC] (20  $\mu$ M).  $K_{1/2}$  was determined by linear regression analysis of double reciprocal plots. Experiments were carried out at 30°C, illumination was provided at 100  $\mu$ mol photons. $m^{-2}.s^{-1}$  for fluorescence experiments and 300  $\mu$ mol. $m^{-2}.s^{-1}$  for silicone fluid centrifugation experiments.



## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RATES OF chl *a* FLUORESCENCE QUENCHING AND RATES OF HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> UPTAKE

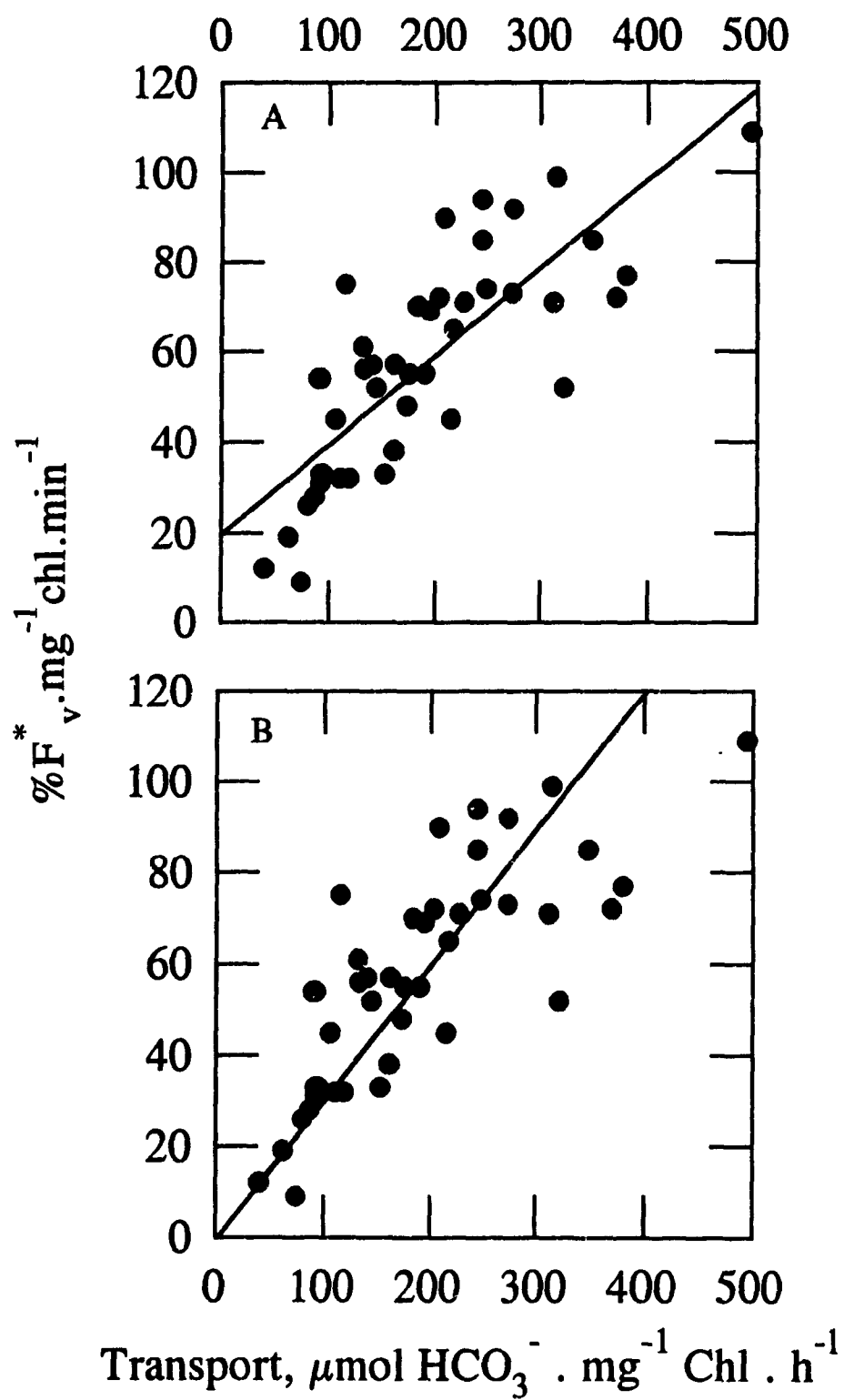
The initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching has been shown to be highly correlated with the initial rate of CO<sub>2</sub> disappearance from the medium as measured by mass spectrometry (Espie *et al.*, 1991). A series of experiments were performed to determine whether or not a similar correlation would apply under conditions where HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport was the primary means of DIC acquisition. The data are shown in Fig. 13a and b where the correlation between the initial rate of fluorescence quenching (%F<sub>v</sub>.mg<sup>-1</sup>chl.n<sup>-1</sup> on the y-axis and initial rate of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake (μmoles C<sub>i</sub>.mg chl<sup>-1</sup>.hr<sup>-1</sup>) on the x-axis is depicted. The data were well correlated ( $r = .785$ ) by linear regression ( $y = .188x + 21.8$ ) (Fig 13a). The computed  $r^2$  for the regression (0.62) indicated that 62 % of the variation in initial rates of fluorescence quenching could be explained by variation in the initial rate of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake. Statistical analysis (t-test) revealed that this correlation was highly significant ( $p < .001$ ). The regression predicted that at zero rate of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport there would still be a substantial rate of quenching (21.8 %F<sub>v</sub>.mg<sup>-1</sup>chl.h<sup>-1</sup>). In fact, at the CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point, where no net DIC transport occurred, fluorescence was always near its maximum level and no quenching independent of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport under these circumstances (Figs 2 & 7, Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Based on this observation, a forced-fit linear regression through the origin was performed (Fig 13b). The correlation co-efficient for the regression through the origin (Fig 13b) indicated a better fit to the data ( $r = 0.957$ ) than for the simple linear regression (Fig 13a).

The large y-intercept predicted by simple linear regression (Fig 13a) can perhaps



### FIGURE 13

Relationship between the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching ( $\%F_v \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$  chl) as measured using the PAM fluorometer and initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport as measured by the silicone fluid centrifugation method. The data were obtained from eight separate experiments using six separate batches of air-grown cells. For each point, parallel measurements of fluorescence quenching and transport were made. The initial rates were measured at various  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (5 - 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ),  $\text{Na}^+$  (1 - 25 mM), and pH (8.0 - 9.55). The temperature was maintained at 30°C and illumination was provided at 100  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  for fluorescence measurements and 300  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake experiments. The data were correlated by (A) simple linear regression or (B) linear regression through the origin.



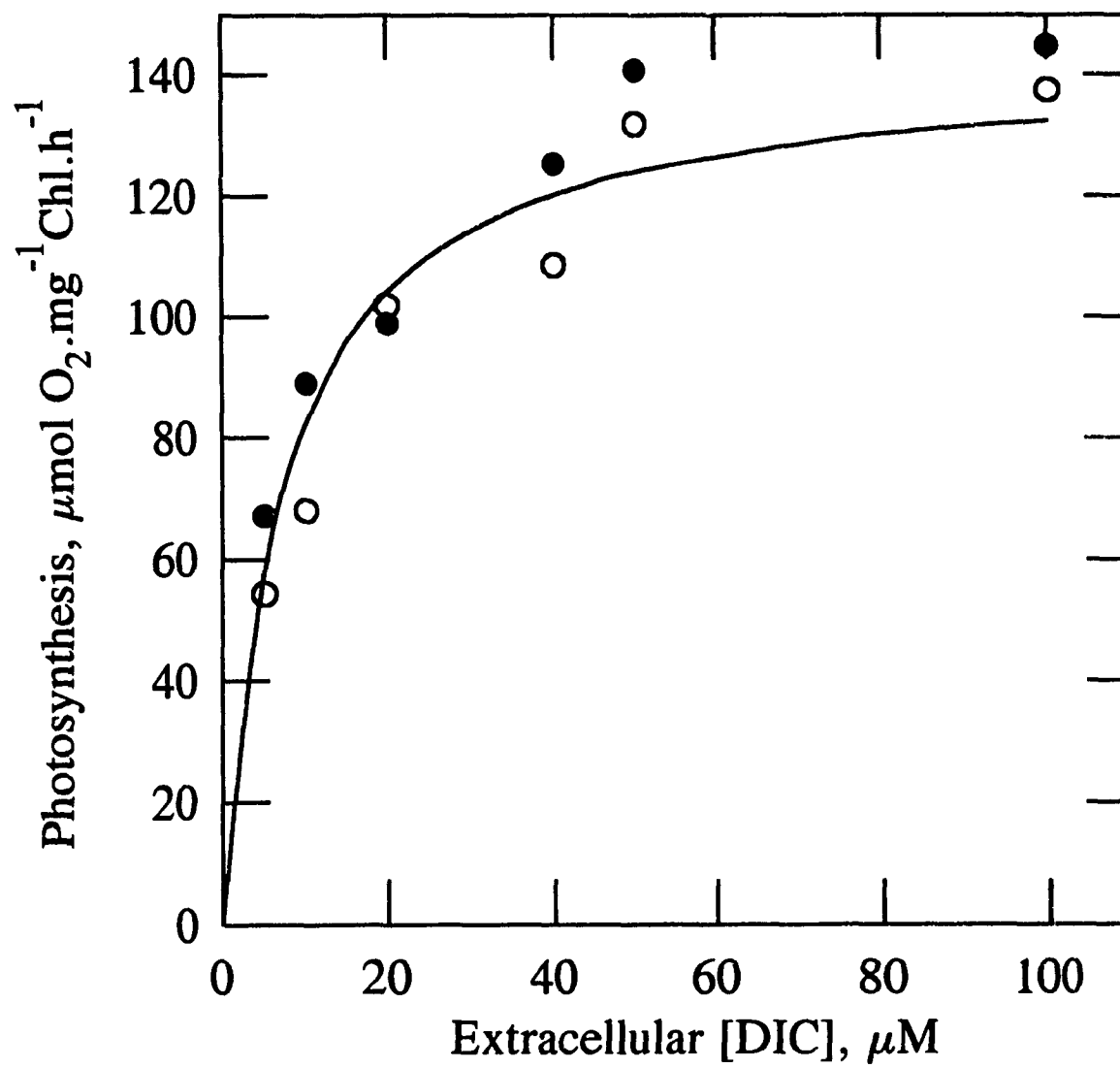
be explained if it is assumed that the fluorescence quenching technique loses some of its resolution at very high transport rates, leading to an underestimation of the transport rate at very high quenching rates. If this is the case then some of the variation in quenching rates which is not accounted for by changes in the transport rates might also be due to a loss of resolution at high quenching rates. A recent report (Miller *et al.*, 1991) has shown that more chl *a* fluorescence quenching was evident in the presence of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  than in the presence of  $CO_2$  alone. The experiments shown in Fig 13 were performed at  $O_2$  concentrations between 20 and 100  $\mu M$  to control for the effects of  $O_2$ . Clamping the  $O_2$  concentration at a fixed and constant level was not possible due to ongoing photosynthesis. Chl *a* fluorescence quenching was partially dependent on electron flow to  $CO_2$  rather than strictly dependent on the rate of  $HCO_3^-$  transport (Figs 7 - 8). These factors were probably responsible for the residual variability in chl *a* fluorescence quenching which cannot be accounted for by variability in  $HCO_3^-$  transport rates. Nonetheless, the results shown in Fig. 13 indicate that there was a significant correlation between initial rates measured using these two methods.

#### **PHOTOSYNTHESIS IN LOW DIC ( $30 \mu L.L^{-1} CO_2$ ) GROWN CELLS**

The photosynthetic response to extracellular DIC of cells grown at pH 8.0 and bubbled with low  $CO_2$  ( $30 \mu L.L^{-1} CO_2$ ) is shown in Figs. 14 and 15. Fig. 14 depicts the rates of photosynthesis as measured by  $O_2$  evolution in the presence and absence of 25 mM NaCl at pH 8.0. At 10  $\mu M$  DIC, the  $CO_2$  supply rate from  $HCO_3^-$  dehydration would initially be 1.3 nmoles. $ml^{-1}.min^{-1}$ . The actual rate of photosynthesis observed in the absence of  $Na^+$  was 9.4 nmoles  $O_2 ml^{-1}.min^{-1}$ . The rate of photosynthesis at 10  $\mu M$

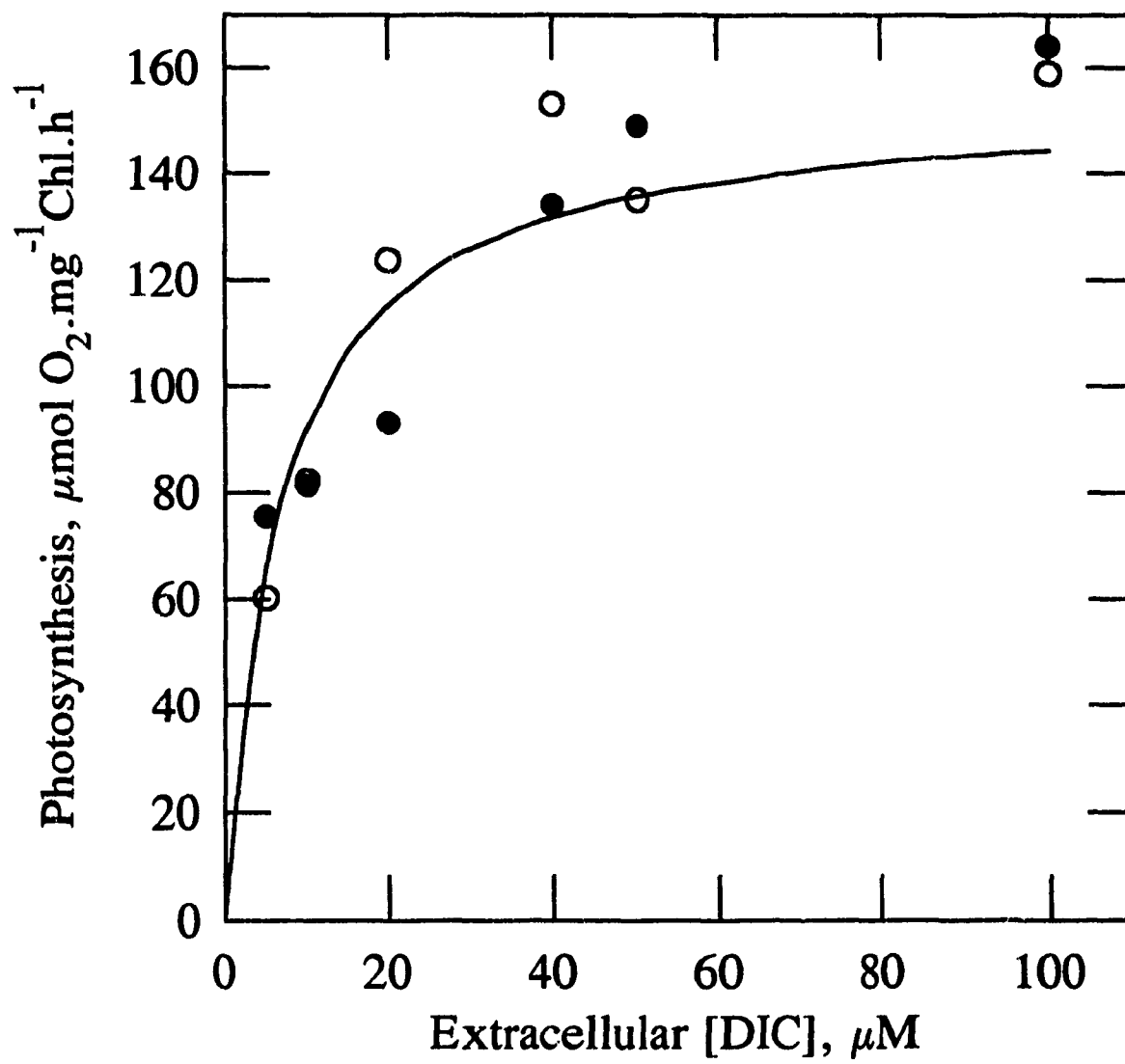
#### FIGURE 14

DIC response curves for photosynthesis (measured as  $O_2$  evolution) in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells in the (●) presence and (○) absence of 25 mM NaCl at pH 8.0. The cells were grown in buffered (25 mM BTP/HCl, pH 8.0) Allen's medium bubbled with  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  and were harvested at  $6 - 8 \mu\text{g chl.mL}^{-1}$ . For the experiment shown, linear regression through double-reciprocal plots of the data resulted in  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  values of 6.0 and  $8.5 \mu\text{M}$  in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , respectively. Maximum photosynthetic rates predicted by double-reciprocal plots were  $143$  and  $141 \mu\text{mol } O_2.\text{mg}^{-1} \text{chl.hr}^{-1}$  in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , respectively.



### FIGURE 15

DIC response curve for photosynthesis (measured as  $O_2$  evolution) in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells in the ( $\circ$ ) presence and ( $\bullet$ ) absence of 25 mM NaCl at pH 9.5. The cells were grown in buffered (25 mM BTP/HCl, pH 8.0) Allen's medium with  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  and were harvested at  $6 - 8 \mu\text{g chl.mL}^{-1}$ . For the experiment shown, linear regression through double reciprocal plots of the data resulted in  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  values of 5.4 and  $8.1 \mu\text{M}$  in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , respectively. Maximum photosynthetic rates predicted by double - reciprocal plots were 145 and  $163 \mu\text{mol C}_i.\text{mg}^{-1} \text{chl.h}^{-1}$  in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively.



DIC, in the absence of  $\text{Na}^+$ , thus exceeded the rate of photosynthesis which could be sustained by  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake by 7.2 fold. Over the range of external DIC from 5-100  $\mu\text{M}$ , and in the absence of added  $\text{Na}^+$ , low DIC grown cells were able to photosynthesize at rates which were considerably in excess of the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply from  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration (Fig 14). The rate of photosynthesis was not greatly stimulated by the addition of 25 mM NaCl. The average stimulation for the data shown in Fig. 14 was 1.14 fold and did not exceed 1.3 fold.

When photosynthesis was measured at an extracellular pH of 9.5 (Fig. 15), there was no evidence of  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation greater than that which was seen at pH 8.0. The average  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation by 25 mM for the range of DIC between 5 - 100  $\mu\text{M}$  was 1.1 fold and did not exceed 1.3 fold. Since the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply from  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is known to decrease with increasing pH (Miller and Colman, 1980) the factor by which the rate of photosynthesis exceeded the  $\text{CO}_2$  supply rate was more pronounced at pH 9.5 than at pH 8.0. Accordingly at pH 9.5, with 10  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC, the rate of photosynthesis exceeded the  $\text{CO}_2$  supply rate by 35 fold compared to 7 fold at pH 8.0. The  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  and  $V_{\text{max}}$  were not greatly affected by 25 mM NaCl at either pH 8.0 or 9.5 (Figs. 14 and 15). Cells grown at 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  under the same conditions with the exception of being buffered during growth at pH 9.5 exhibited identical photosynthetic kinetics with respect to  $\text{Na}^+$  and DIC (data not shown).

These low DIC grown cells would thus appear to be very similar to standing culture cells, which exhibit  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Espie and Calvin, 1987; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Standing culture cells have been shown to be devoid of



any measureable extracellular carbonic anhydrase activity by the isotopic disequilibrium method (Espie and Canvin, 1987). A conventional electrometric assay for the presence of extracellular carbonic anhydrase activity indicated that this enzyme was not present in the extracellular space of low DIC grown cells (data not shown). Mass spectrometry has also shown that  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$  cells of Synechococcus PCC7942 lack extracellular CA (Badger and Price, 1989). Since the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  formation from  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dehydration was not catalyzed, photosynthesis in excess of the dehydration rate provides strong evidence for the presence of a high affinity  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells.

### GROWTH DIC AND PHOTOSYNTHESIS

Table 1 outlines some of the features which distinguish Synechococcus UTEX 625 grown under three different conditions (ie. air-grown, standing culture, and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells). There was a significant decline in the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  for photosynthesis which corresponded to a decline in the measured growth DIC. This response of photosynthetic affinity for DIC in response to exogenous DIC is consistent with the results obtained by Mayo et al (1986) for Synechococcus UTEX 625 grown in batch culture. In contrast there was no pattern relating growth rate to the exogenous DIC concentration. This can be explained if it is assumed that the growth rate varied according to the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply to the medium. The 25 fold difference in the growth rates between standing culture cells and air-grown cells tends to support this assumption since the major difference in growth conditions between these two cell types was the rate of air supply to the medium. Air-grown cells were supplied with  $50 \mu\text{mol photon}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  of light during

**TABLE 1**

Photosynthetic parameters ( $K_{1/2}^{DIC}$  and  $Na^+$  stimulation) and growth rates of Synechococcus UTEX 625 grown under various growth DIC. All measurements carried out at pH 8.0.

CELL TYPE	$K_{1/2}^{DIC}$	MEASURED DIC	$\mu$ ( $d^{-1}$ )	$Na^+$ STIMULATION (25 mM)
$30 \mu L.L^{-1}$ $CO_2$	$9.7 \pm 0.5$ (n = 3)	$3 \mu M$	$0.31 \pm 0.09$ (n = 3)	1.0 - 1.3
SCC	$19.5 \pm 6.5$ (n = 4)	$21 \mu M^a$	$0.09^b$	1.0 - 1.6
AGC	$39.0 \pm 13$ (n = 8)	$60 - 200 \mu M^a$	$2.22 \pm 0.28$ (n = 2)	7 - 10

<sup>a</sup> McKay *et al.*, in press

<sup>b</sup> Kandasamy, R., M.Sc. thesis, 1991

growth, compared to  $25 \mu\text{mol photon}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  for standing culture cells, therefore the possibility that the difference in the growth rate was due in part to differences in light intensity cannot be discounted. However this possibility seems remote in view of the fact that the light intensity dose response for photosynthesis shows a lower than two-fold stimulation of photosynthesis between 25 and  $50 \mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  for both high and low DIC grown cells (Badger and Andrews, 1982). The fact that  $30 \mu\text{L}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells, which were supplied with 0.003 %  $\text{CO}_2$  (v/v) at a high flow rate ( $250 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ), exhibited growth rates which were 3 times higher than standing culture cells, which were provided with 0.03 %  $\text{CO}_2$  (v/v) at a very low rate (diffusion through a foam stopper) also supports the hypothesis that growth rate is determined in part by the  $\text{CO}_2$  supply rate. It can be concluded that the photosynthetic affinity for DIC was correlated with exogenous DIC, while the growth rate was dependent on a complex interaction between the DIC supply rate and photosynthetic affinity for DIC.

The  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of photosynthesis at pH 8.0 and at low DIC (5 - 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) followed a graded response with respect to the growth DIC (Table 1). Air-grown cells, which exhibited partially induced high affinity kinetics, are strictly and specifically dependent on the  $\text{Na}^+$  ion for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Miller *et al.*, 1984; Espie and Calvin, 1987; Figs. 3 and 4). In contrast  $30 \mu\text{L}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  cells, which exhibited fully induced high affinity kinetics, typically showed a  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation which did not exceed 1.3 fold. Standing culture cells appeared to be intermediate with respect to both photosynthetic affinity for DIC, and  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of photosynthesis, which can be as high as 1.6 fold (Espie and Calvin, 1987; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). It should be noted that dilution

of log - phase  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells into unbuffered Allen's medium, followed by bubbling with air (0.03 %  $\text{CO}_2$  v/v) resulted in the loss of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (data not shown).

#### **THE EFFECT OF ETHOXYZOLAMIDE ON PHOTOSYNTHESIS AND DIC TRANSPORT IN STANDING CULTURE AND $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$ $\text{CO}_2$ GROWN CELLS**

Previous studies have shown that a sulfonamide inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase, ethoxyzolamide (EZA), inhibited  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in both high and low DIC grown cells of *Synechococcus* PCC7942 (Price and Badger, 1989a). An extensive study of the effect of EZA and  $\text{Na}^+$  on standing culture cell photosynthesis and chl *a* fluorescence quenching has also recently been conducted by Tyrrell and Espie (unpublished). To facilitate comparison of the results of EZA and  $\text{Na}^+$  treatment on  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells with standing culture cells I have repeated some of the work of Tyrrell and Espie (as indicated).

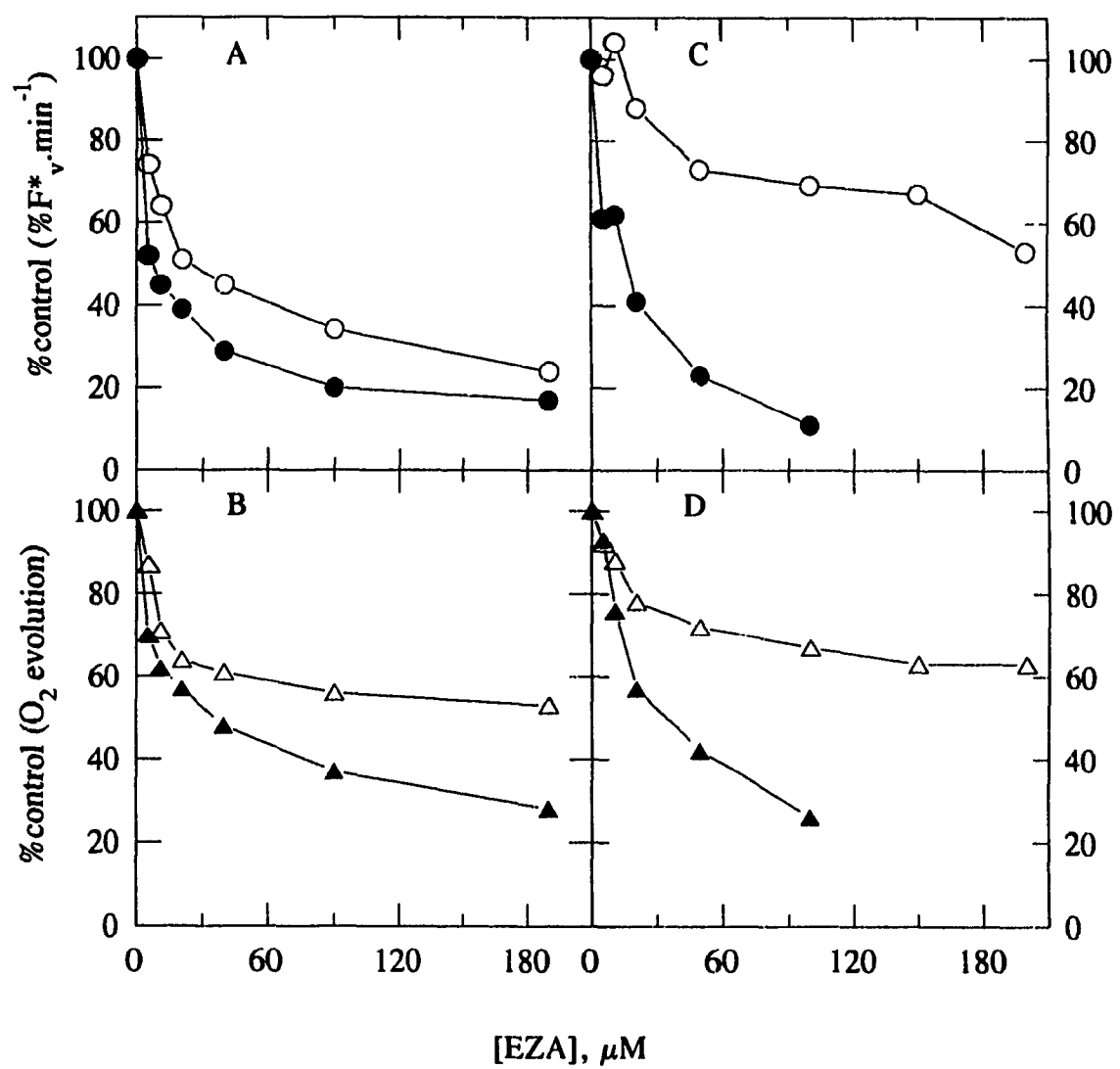
Figure 16 shows the effects of EZA on initial rates of fluorescence quenching (Fig. 16,a and c) and photosynthesis (Fig. 16,b and d) in both  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells (Fig. 16 a and b) and standing culture cells (Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished; Fig. 16, c and d), when  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added as the predominant DIC species. In all cases, the inhibition by EZA in the range of concentration between 5 and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA could be partially reversed by the addition of 25 mM NaCl. Photosynthesis was less sensitive to EZA inhibition than was the initial rate of fluorescence quenching. The extent of fluorescence quenching, however, was inhibited to the same degree as photosynthesis (data not shown). The relief of EZA inhibition by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was more pronounced in

standing culture cells than in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells. This applied to both photosynthesis and the initial rate of fluorescence quenching. It has already been shown that both standing culture and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells possess residual levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992; Figs. 14 and 15). The restoration of both photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching by  $\text{Na}^+$  suggests that the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism was less sensitive to EZA inhibition than the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism. The larger relief afforded by 25 mM NaCl in standing culture cells as compared to  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells is consistent with the lower levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of photosynthesis of  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells compared to standing culture cells (Figs 14 and 15; Table 1).

In standing culture cells, 50 % inhibition of photosynthesis was estimated to occur at 35  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the absence of mM levels of NaCl (Fig. 16d). The stimulation by 25 mM NaCl at this concentration of EZA was approximately 1.5 fold. At 100  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, the  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation increased to 2.6 fold. Similar results were obtained by Tyrrell and Espie (pers. comm.). In  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells, 50 % inhibition of photosynthesis was also estimated to occur at 35  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the absence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  (Fig. 16b). The stimulation by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was approximately 1.2 fold at 35  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA. At 90  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, this stimulation increased to 1.8 fold. These observations also applied equally for measurements of the initial rate of fluorescence quenching (Fig. 16, a and c). These observations led to the question of whether or not the increased stimulation by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  at progressively higher EZA concentrations was due to a feedback mechanism which increased the activity of the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism under conditions where the

## FIGURE 16

Effect of ethoxyzolamide (EZA) on (A and C) the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and (B and D) photosynthesis in (A and B)  $30\ \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}\ \text{CO}_2$  grown cells and (C and D) standing culture cells under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was the primary means of DIC acquisition. The initial DIC provided was  $10\ \mu\text{M}$  for  $30\ \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}\ \text{CO}_2$  grown cells (A and B) and  $20\ \mu\text{M}$  for standing culture cells (C and D). Experiments were carried out at pH 8.0,  $30^\circ\text{C}$ , in the ( $\bullet$ ,  $\blacktriangle$ ) presence of  $100\ \mu\text{M}\ \text{Na}^+$  and in the ( $\circ$ ,  $\triangle$ ) presence of  $25\ \text{mM}\ \text{Na}^+$ . EZA was added from stock solutions of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) such that the DMSO concentration did not exceed 1 % (v/v). Light was provided at  $100\ \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  and the [chl] ranged between  $13 - 14\ \mu\text{g chl.mL}^{-1}$  for  $30\ \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}\ \text{CO}_2$  grown cells and  $8 - 11\ \mu\text{g chl.mL}^{-1}$  for standing culture cells.



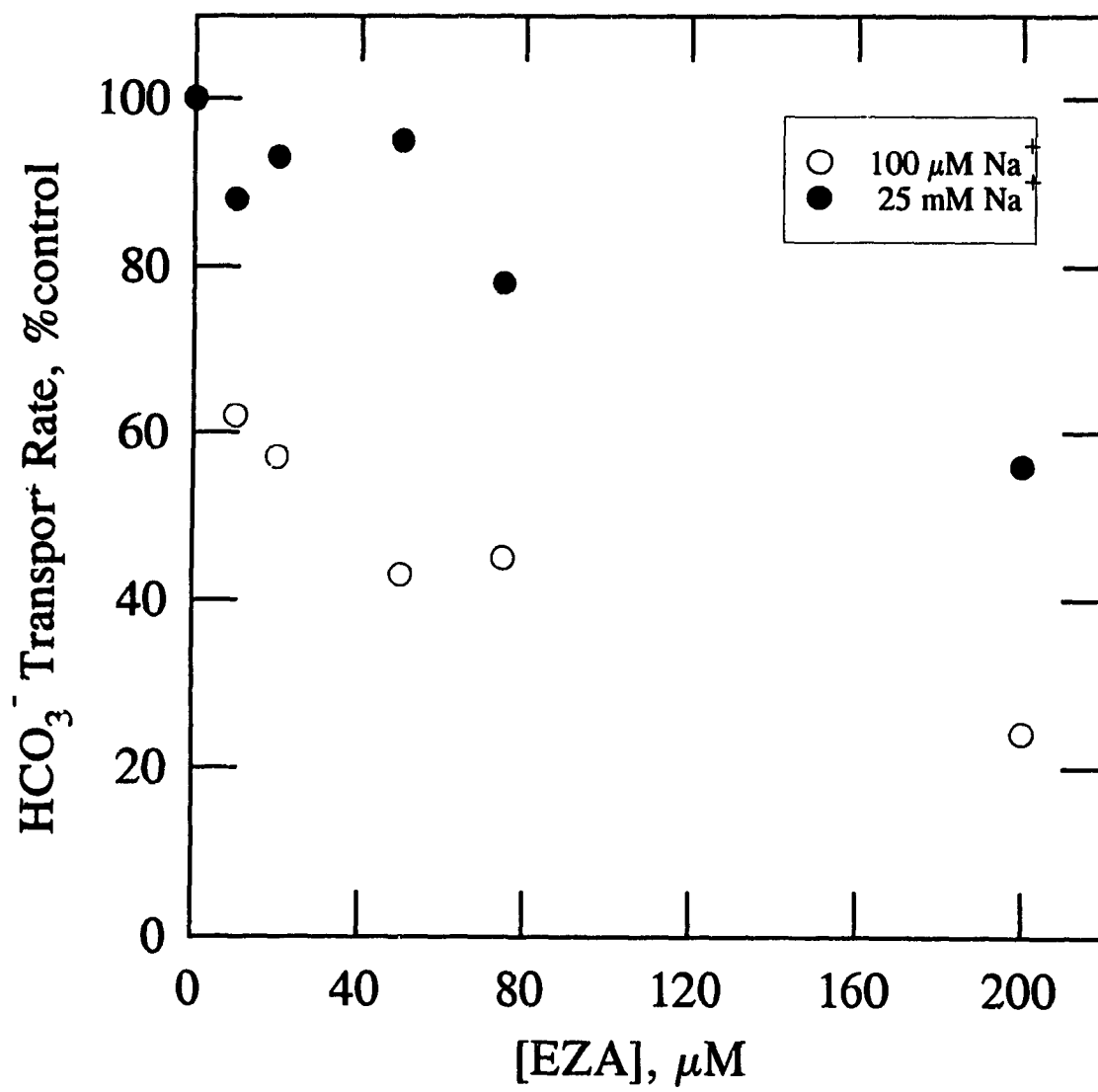
$\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism was progressively inhibited. It should be noted, however, that the increased stimulation by  $\text{Na}^+$  at progressively higher EZA concentrations, over and above the stimulation which was seen in the absence of EZA, can be entirely accounted for by a model where the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent pathway was fully and equally active at all concentrations of EZA (as long as 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was present). As the EZA concentration was increased, and in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , the proportion of sites which were insensitive to EZA accounted for a progressively greater proportion of the total photosynthetic or fluorescence quenching activity, resulting in an increase in the  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation as the EZA concentration was increased.

The inhibition of the initial rate of fluorescence quenching by  $\mu\text{M}$  amounts of EZA (Fig. 16, a and c) is strong evidence that EZA exerts its effect at the site of DIC uptake. The effect of EZA on the initial rate (10 sec. time points) of  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake in standing culture cells is shown in Fig. 17. These results confirm that EZA inhibits photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching by inhibiting the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism. The relief of inhibition by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was also evident in direct measurements of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Fig 17). In the absence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$ , 50 % inhibition can be estimated to occur at between 30 and 40  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, which is consistent with the results obtained for the inhibition of photosynthesis in standing culture cells (Fig. 16d). The rate of  $^{14}\text{C}$ - $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake was less sensitive to inhibition by EZA than the initial rate of fluorescence quenching (Fig. 16c and Fig. 17). This could either be due to an effect of EZA on the ability of chlorophyll fluorescence to monitor transport or due to the differences in experimental conditions for the two different systems. This



### FIGURE 17

Effects of ethoxyzolamide on the initial rate (10 second time points) of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake in standing culture cells in the (●) presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  and in the (○) presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$ . Measurements were made using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique and  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . Ethoxyzolamide was added from stock solutions of DMSO so that a constant (1 % v/v) amount of DMSO was added to each treatment, including the controls. Control rates of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake were 120 and 117  $\mu\text{mol C.mg chl}^{-1}.\text{hr}^{-1}$  in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  and 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively. The initial DIC was 20  $\mu\text{M}$  with a specific activity of 54  $\mu\text{Ci}.\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ . The experiment was conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C, and light was provided at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . Data shown are the average of triplicate measurements.



question was not pursued further.

The results also indicate that, in this case, there was no apparent stimulation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in the absence of EZA (Fig 17, legend). Since there was a relief of EZA inhibition upon the addition of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , these cells do possess  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport capacity. As indicated in Table 1, it is sometimes observed that there is no apparent stimulation of photosynthesis by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in both standing culture and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells. The variability between batches of cells in their  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  capacity is probably due to variability in the growth DIC (Table 1).

The effects of EZA and  $\text{Na}^+$  on the maximum pool size attained by standing culture cells are shown in Table 2. When  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was added as the predominant DIC species, and with 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  present, the addition of 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA was sufficient to reduce the maximum pool size by 56 % (Table 2). When 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA was added in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , the maximum pool size was inhibited by only 32 % (Table 2). Similarly, with 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present, 63 % inhibition of maximum pool formation was observed in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  while in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$ , the maximum pool size was inhibited by 83 % (Table 2). Furthermore, in the absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , 50% inhibition of pool formation was obtained at between 50 and 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA whereas 50% inhibition of pool formation in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  required over 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA (Table 2). These results confirm that the effect of EZA on photosynthesis in standing culture cells (Fig 16d) was due to a reduction in the ability of the cells to form the intracellular DIC pool, through an impairment of the transport mechanism,

**TABLE 2**

Effect of EZA and Na<sup>+</sup> on the maximum internal DIC in standing culture cells presented with 20  $\mu$ M DIC at pH 8.0. Shown are the means  $\pm$  standard error for triplicate measurements.

[EZA], $\mu$ M	MAXIMUM INTERNAL [DIC], mM	
	100 $\mu$ M Na <sup>+</sup>	25 mM Na <sup>+</sup>
0	7.94 $\pm$ 3.7	9.48 $\pm$ 3.1
10	5.67 $\pm$ 2.7	8.83 $\pm$ 2.25
50	4.60 $\pm$ 1.3	9.17 $\pm$ 2.8
75	3.44 $\pm$ 0.1	7.49 $\pm$ 1.0
200	2.86 $\pm$ 0.3	5.62 $\pm$ 1.9
400	1.38 $\pm$ 0.04	4.07 $\pm$ 0.6

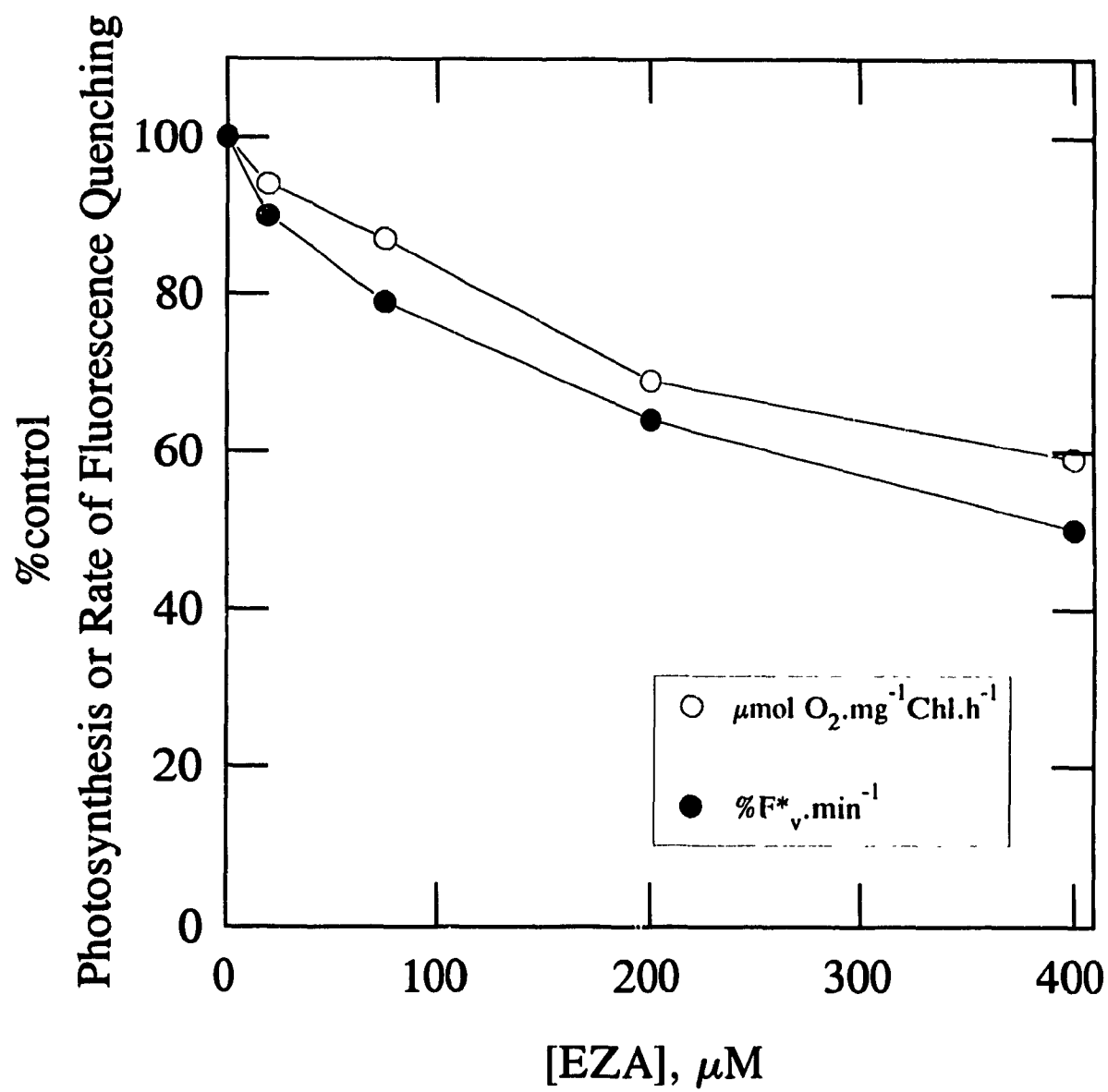
rather than through an inability of the cells to utilize the pool for photosynthesis, as might be expected if intracellular carbonic anhydrase was the main site of inhibition by EZA. These results also confirm that the main effect of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was to enhance the ability of the cells to form and maintain an intracellular DIC pool through a  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism rather than through an effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on the ability of the cells to utilize the pool for photosynthesis. It should also be noted that both the inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by EZA and the relief of this effect by  $\text{Na}^+$  were evident and indeed predicted by the chl *a* fluorescence quenching technique (Fig 16,c and d).

#### **THE EFFECT OF EZA ON PHOTOSYNTHESIS AND FLUORESCENCE QUENCHING IN AIR - GROWN CELLS**

The apparent relief of EZA mediated inhibition of photosynthesis and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown and standing culture cells can be attributed to the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport activity which both of these cell types possess. Air-grown cells are strictly and specifically dependent on mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Miller *et al.*, 1984; Reinhold *et al.*, 1984; Figs. 3 and 4) and therefore possess only the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism for transporting  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . It was, therefore, desirable to examine the effects of EZA on photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching in air-grown cells. These results are depicted in Fig. 18 and they show that air-grown cells were relatively insensitive to inhibition by EZA in the range of EZA concentrations from 20 - 200  $\mu\text{M}$ . At 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, the rate of photosynthesis in air-grown cells was inhibited by 30 % (Fig. 18) whereas in standing culture cells, the rate of photosynthesis was inhibited by 75 % and 35 % in the absence and presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ ,

### FIGURE 18

Effect of ethoxyzolamide on (○) photosynthesis and (●) the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching in air grown cells. Experiments were conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C and the initial [DIC] was 20  $\mu\text{M}$ .  $\text{Na}^+$  was present throughout at 25 mM. EZA was added from stock solutions of DMSO such that the final concentration was less than 1 % (v/v) DMSO. The control rate of photosynthesis was 64  $\mu\text{mol O}_2\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}\text{chl}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ . Light was provided at 100  $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  and the [chl] was 13  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ .



respectively (Fig 16d). Similarly, the initial rate of fluorescence quenching in air-grown cells was relatively unaffected by low levels of EZA (20-100  $\mu\text{M}$ ). At 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, the initial rate of fluorescence quenching in air-grown cells was inhibited by 30 % (Fig. 18) whereas in standing culture cells the initial rate of quenching was reduced by 47 % and > 75 % in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  (Fig. 16c), respectively.

#### **THE EFFECT OF EZA ON $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT IN AIR-GROWN CELLS**

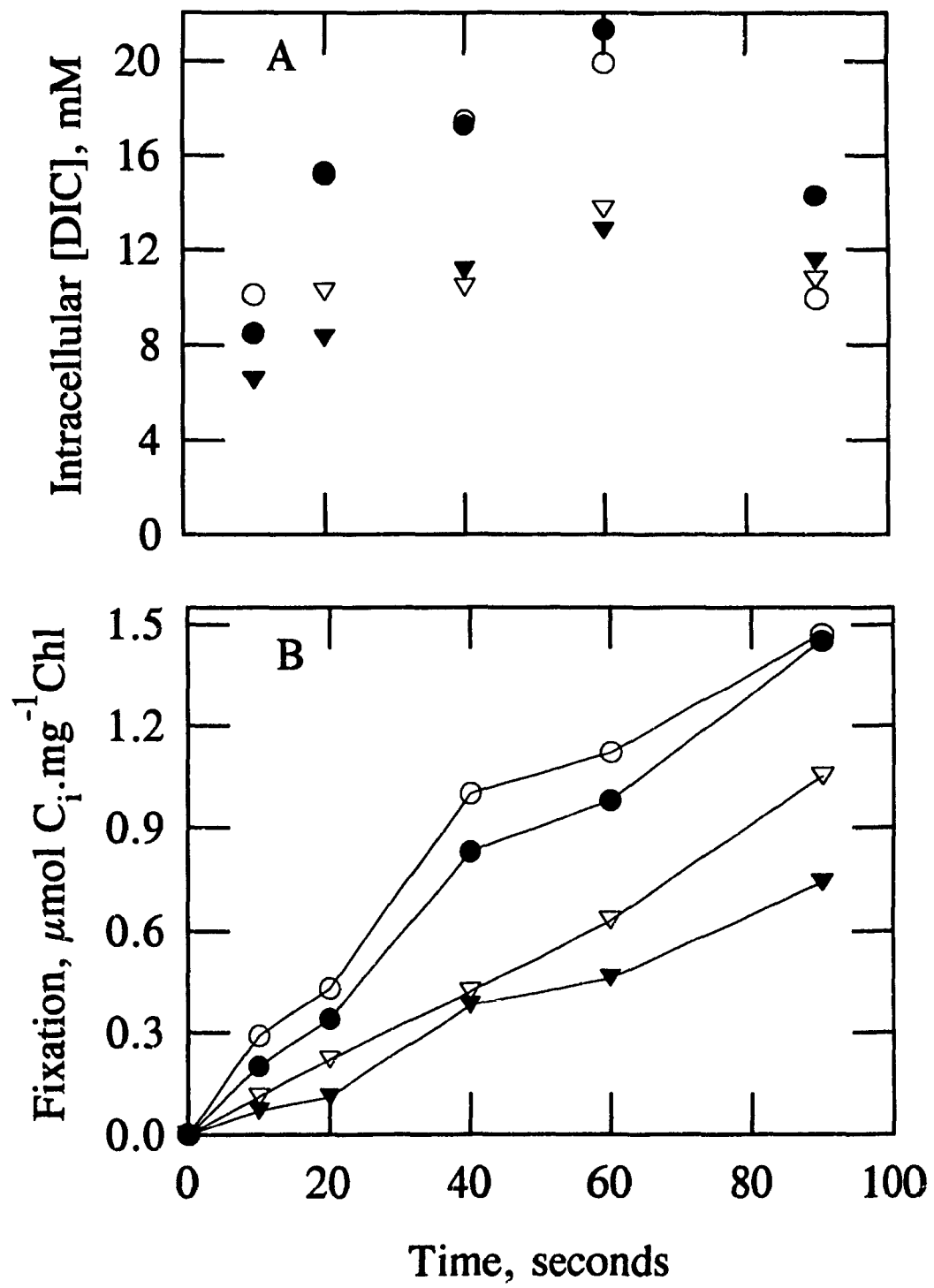
The relatively smaller effect of low concentrations of EZA (20 - 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) on the initial rate of fluorescence quenching in air-grown cells (Fig 18), and the relief from EZA inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in standing culture and 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$  cells (Figs. 16 and 17), are evidence that the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism is much less sensitive to EZA inhibition than the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. Direct measurements of intracellular DIC accumulation and  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation in the presence of 0 - 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA and 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in air-grown cells confirmed these findings (Fig. 19). These results indicate that 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA had virtually no effect on intracellular DIC pool formation (Fig. 19a) and little effect on  $\text{C}_i$  fixation (Fig 19b). Even at 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, which was sufficient to reduce photosynthesis by 90 % in standing culture cells (when  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added) in the absence of  $\text{Na}^+$  (Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished results), the maximum pool formation in air-grown cells in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was reduced by less than 50 % (Fig 19a). Similarly, the rate of  $\text{C}_i$  fixation was only reduced by approximately 50 % in the presence of 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA (Fig 19b).

The previously documented evidence for EZA inhibition of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in Synechococcus PCC 7942 was interpreted as supporting a mechanism for



### FIGURE 19

Effect of EZA on (A) intracellular DIC accumulation and (B) carbon fixation in air grown cells as measured using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique with  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . EZA was added at ( $\circ$ ) 0, ( $\bullet$ ) 75, ( $\nabla$ ) 200, and ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) 400  $\mu\text{M}$  from stock solutions with DMSO (present at 1 % v/v throughout). Experiments were conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C, and with 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ .  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added at an initial concentration of 10  $\mu\text{M}$  with specific activity 35.3  $\mu\text{Ci} \cdot \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ . The [chl] ranged between 4.9 and 6.8  $\mu\text{g chl} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ . Data are the average of triplicate determinations.



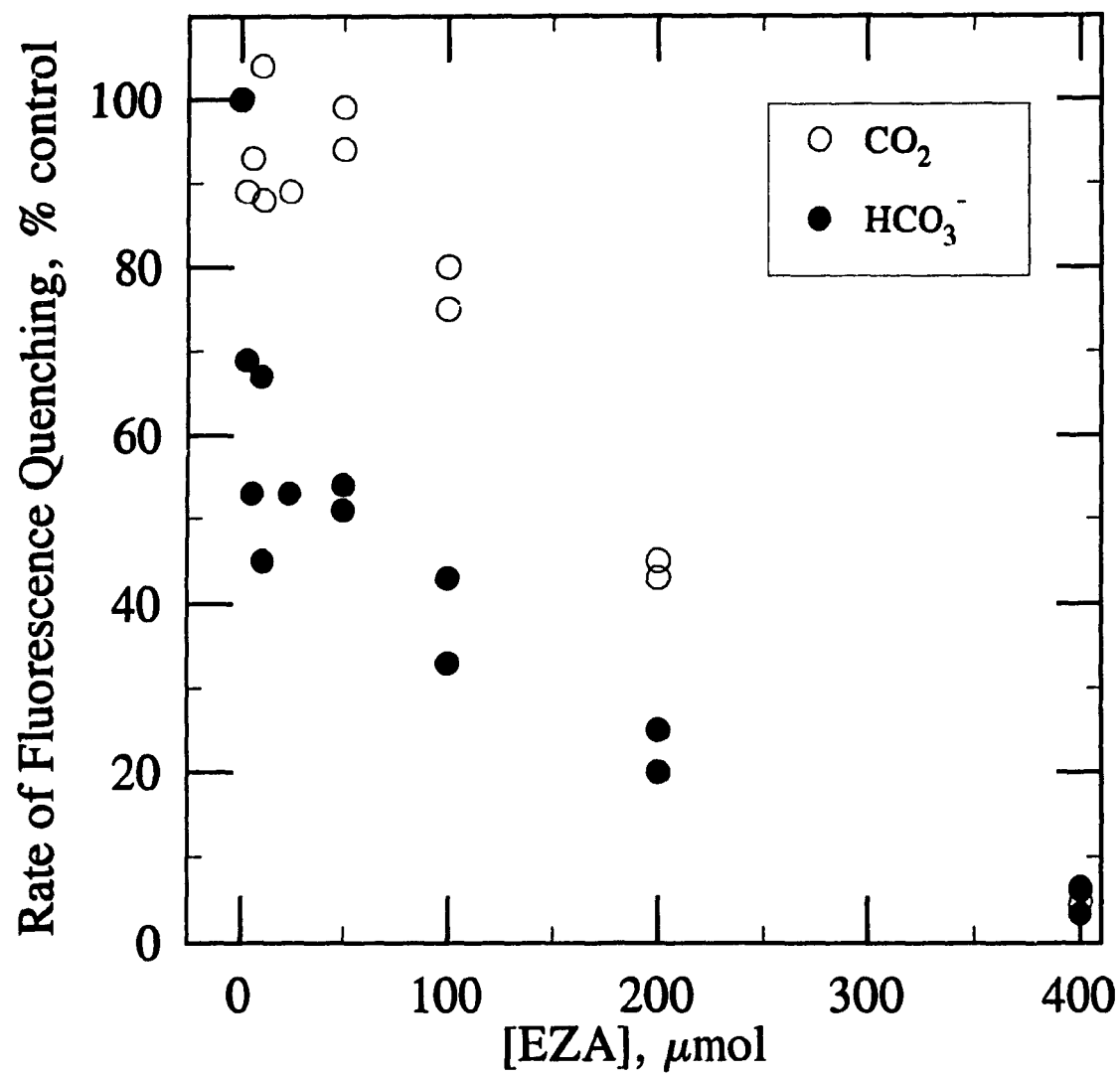
$\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport which involved a "front-end mechanism", converting  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  to  $\text{CO}_2$  prior to the translocation step (Fig 1a; Price and Badger, 1989a). The results presented in Figs. 16 - 19 and the data of Espie and Kandasamy (1992) and Tyrrell and Espie (unpublished) indicate that the situation is more complex than the model proposed by Price and Badger (1989a) in that there are two separate and distinct mechanisms for transporting  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . One mechanism was independent of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  and susceptible to inhibition by low doses of EZA ( $< 50 \mu\text{M}$ ) while the other was specifically dependent on mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  but relatively insensitive to low levels of EZA. In view of the inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by low concentrations of EZA, this transport mechanism is more likely to include a "carbonic anhydrase - like step", as proposed by Price and Badger (1989a) in its reaction sequence than the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism.

#### **INHIBITION OF $\text{CO}_2$ AND $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT BY EZA**

EZA has been reported to inhibit  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport equally well in Synechococcus PCC7942 (Price and Badger, 1989a). The experiments supporting this claim were conducted with  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  and  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at pH 8.0 (Price and Badger, 1989a). At pH 8.0 and at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ , the hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  is relatively rapid ( $t_{1/2} = 5 - 8 \text{ sec.}$ , Miller *et al.*, 1988b). The uptake experiments performed by Price and Badger (1989a) utilizing  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  as the "active species" probably reflected a large component of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake. When  $\text{CO}_2$  was provided at an initial concentration of  $10 \mu\text{M}$ , uptake was rapid and the intracellular DIC pool reached its maximum level within 10 seconds (Miller *et al.*, 1988b). The rapid depletion of extracellular  $\text{CO}_2$  was due to the

## FIGURE 20

Effect of 0 - 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on the initial rate of chl fluorescence quenching induced by (○) 10  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  or (●) 10  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells. EZA was added from stock solutions made up in DMSO. Experiments were performed with 100  $\mu\text{M}$  NaCl present at pH 8.0, 30°C, and light was supplied at 100  $\mu\text{mol photon.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The [chl] ranged between 8 and 12  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ .



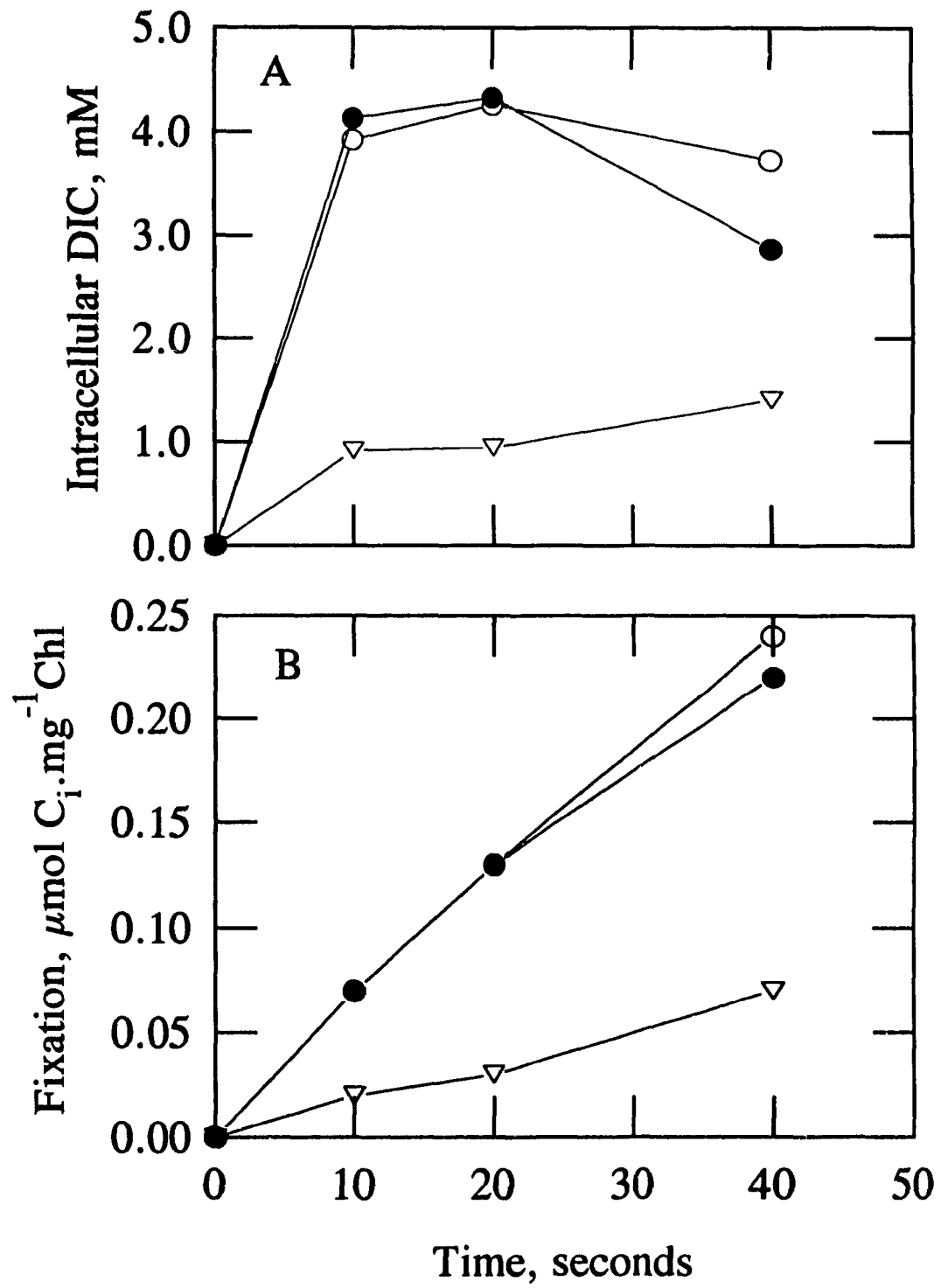
high affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport system ( $K_{1/2} \text{CO}_2 = 0.2 \mu\text{M}$ , Espie *et al.*, 1991). This rapid depletion ensured that extracellular hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  (to form  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) was kept at a minimum. Consequently,  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake is more accurately determined at  $10 \mu\text{M CO}_2$  than at  $100 \mu\text{M CO}_2$ . In order to determine whether  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport were inhibited to the same extent by EZA,  $10 \mu\text{M CO}_2$  or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added to  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$  cells in the presence of  $100 \mu\text{M NaCl}$  and with varying levels of EZA (Fig. 20). These results indicate that the initial rate of fluorescence quenching was much more sensitive to EZA when  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added than when equal amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$  were added (Fig. 20). The presence of as low as  $5 \mu\text{M EZA}$  inhibited fluorescence quenching by 50 % when  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added. In contrast,  $200 \mu\text{M EZA}$  was required to inhibit fluorescence quenching by 50 % when  $\text{CO}_2$  was added to initiate quenching (Fig. 20). Very similar results have been found for standing culture cells (Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished results).

When uptake was initiated using  $^{14}\text{C}$  labelled  $\text{CO}_2$ , direct measurements of pool formation and carbon fixation revealed that  $75 \mu\text{M EZA}$  had a relatively negligible effect on  $\text{CO}_2$  transport in standing culture cells (Fig 21, a and b). The presence of  $400 \mu\text{M EZA}$  resulted in a lag phase in intracellular DIC pool formation and the maximum pool size was reduced by 67 % compared to the control (Fig 21a). The rate of carbon fixation was reduced by 72 % in the presence of  $400 \mu\text{M EZA}$  (Fig 21b). In the absence of inhibitor, as well as with  $75 \mu\text{M EZA}$  present, pool formation was essentially complete by the first sampling time (10 sec.), in agreement with previous results utilizing low  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) to initiate uptake (Miller *et al.*, 1988b).

Since the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism was inhibited by more

### FIGURE 21

Effect of (○) 0, (●) 75, and (▽) 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on (A) internal DIC pool formation and (B) carbon fixation in standing culture cells as measured using the silicon fluid centrifugation technique. Transport was initiated using 10  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  (spec. act = 56  $\mu\text{Ci} \cdot \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , added from a stock solution of  $\text{CO}_2$  in 10 mM phthallic acid, pH 4.0). Experiments were conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C and with 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  present. Light was provided at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . The chl ranged from 10 - 13  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ . Data are the average of triplicate determinations.





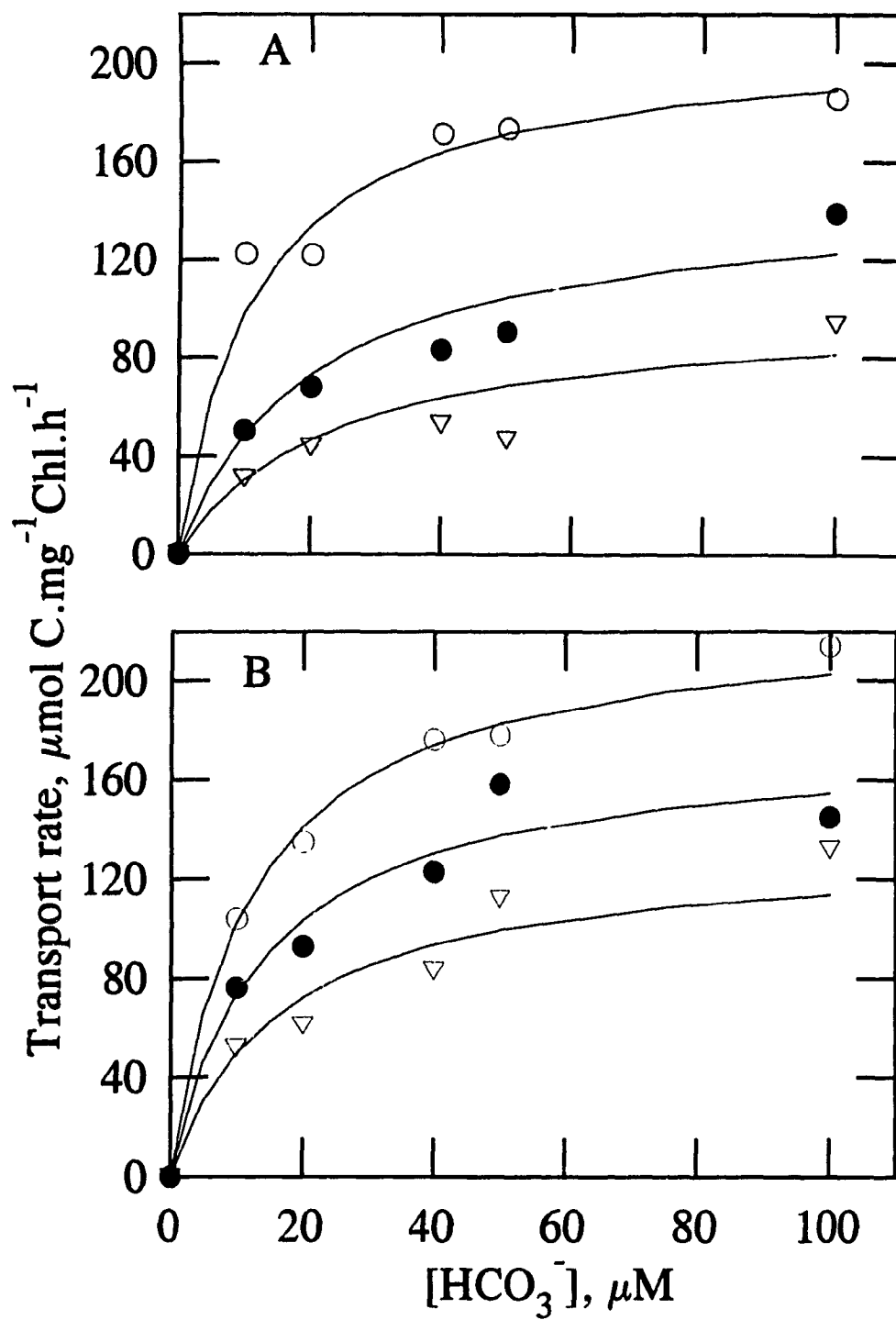
than 50 % in the presence of 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA (Figs 16 & 17, Table 2), the lack of inhibition of pool formation initiated by  $\text{CO}_2$  pulsing in the presence of 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA indicated that there was virtually no  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport occurring under these conditions. It follows that  $\text{CO}_2$  transport was much less sensitive to 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA than was  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport when both were presented at low (10 - 20  $\mu\text{M}$ ) concentrations. Only at higher concentrations of EZA (> 400  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was there evidence for an equal inhibitory effect of EZA on both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Fig 20). Experiments using mass spectrometry to monitor  $\text{CO}_2$  disappearance from the medium have confirmed that relatively low levels of EZA (< 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) do not affect  $\text{CO}_2$  transport in air-grown cells in either the absence or presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  (Tyrrell, Skleryk, and Espie, unpublished results).

#### **EFFECT OF EZA ON $\text{Na}^+$ INDEPENDENT $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT KINETICS**

The effect of 75 and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport kinetics of 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells is shown in Fig 22, a and b. The addition of 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  resulted in a maximum inhibition of the initial transport rate of 60 % while the addition of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA resulted in a maximum inhibition of 75 % (Fig 22a). In the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , the maximum inhibition of transport was 30 % with 75  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present and 50 % with 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present (Fig 22b). Thus, the transport-substrate relation for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was affected in a dose dependent fashion by EZA. The partial relief of EZA mediated inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells inferred from fluorescence experiments (Fig 16a) was confirmed using direct measurements of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport and was shown to be valid in the range of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  from 10-100  $\mu\text{M}$  (Fig 22, a and b). In the absence of EZA, the

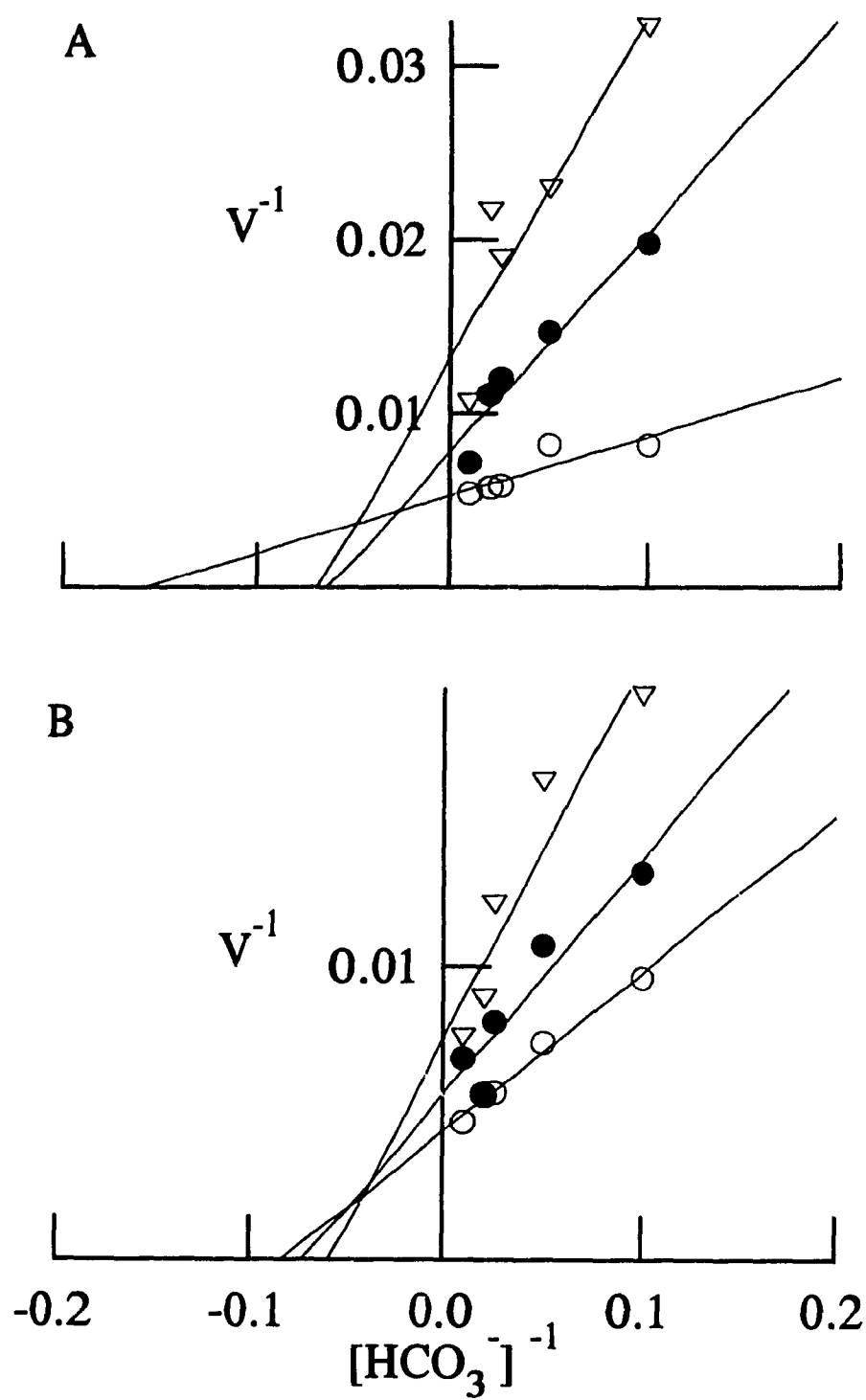
## FIGURE 22

Effect of (○) 0, (●) 75, and (▽) 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on the DIC dose response of transport in the presence of (A) 100  $\mu\text{M}$  and (B) 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells. The initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (10 sec. time points) was measured using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique.  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added from three different stock solutions of 50, 200, and 500  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC having specific activities of 27, 50, and 55  $\mu\text{Ci.}\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. The experiments were conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C, and the light was supplied at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The chl ranged from 7 - 15  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ . Data shown are the average of triplicate measurements.



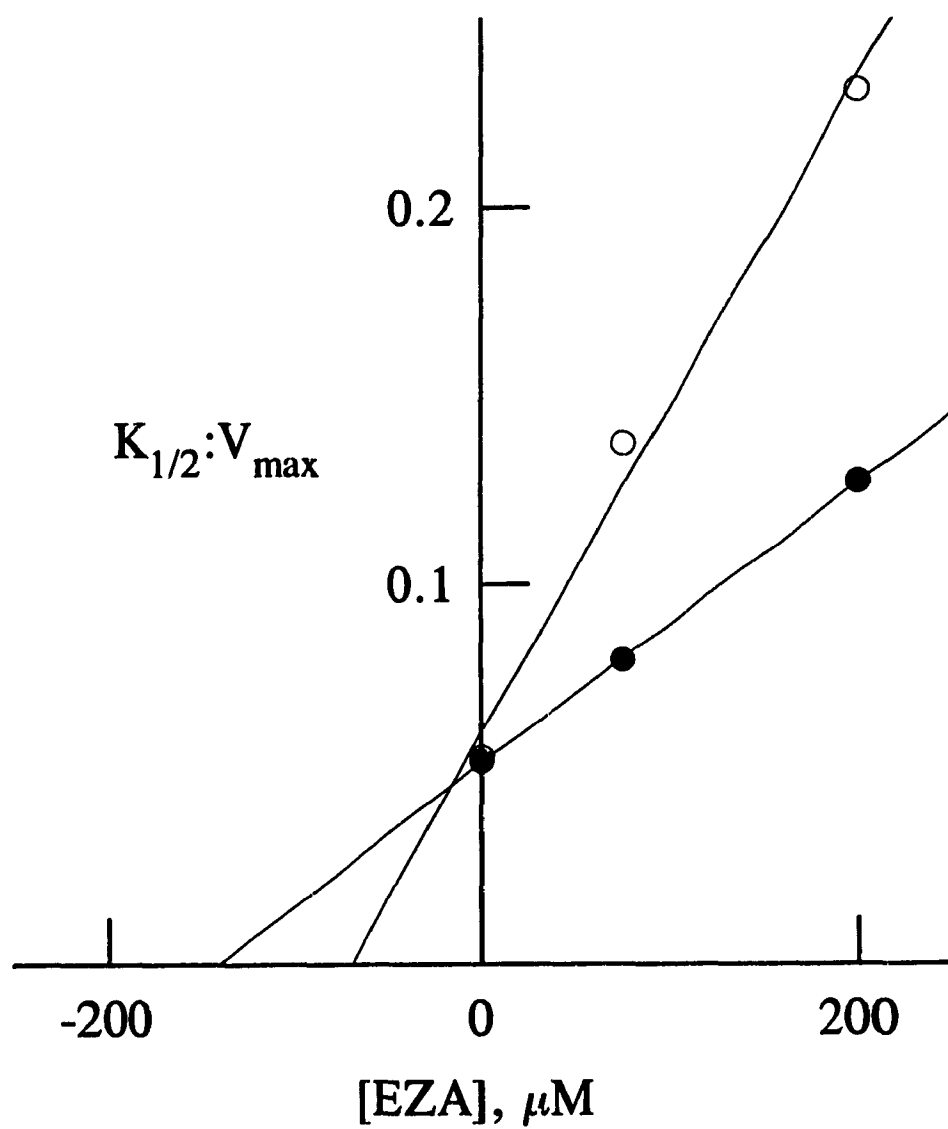
### FIGURE 23

Double reciprocal plots of transport vs  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$  in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells with ( $\circ$ ) 0, ( $\bullet$ ) 75, and ( $\nabla$ ) 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the presence of (A) 100  $\mu\text{M}$  and (B) 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ . The  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  were found by linear regression to be: (A) 11.3, 20.2, and 22.9  $\mu\text{M}$  with 0, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present, respectively. (B) 12.2, 14.0, and 16.9  $\mu\text{M}$  with 0, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present respectively. The  $V_{\text{max}}$  were found to be (in  $\mu\text{mol C}_i \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \text{chl.h}^{-1}$ ) (A) 210, 147, and 100 with 0, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present respectively, (B) 227, 176, and 133 with 0, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present respectively.



### FIGURE 24

Plots of  $K_{1/2}:V_{\max}$  versus [EZA] for the kinetic parameters obtained from Figure 23 by linear regression analysis. The  $K_i$  for transport was found to be (○) 70  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  and (●) 142  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ .



stimulation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was less than 1.3 fold at all concentrations of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  tested (Fig 22, a and b). This is consistent with the lack of substantial  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation observed for both photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$  cells (Figs 14-16, Table 1). In the presence of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, the  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation varied between 1.4 and 2.4 fold, thus confirming the fluorescence results of Fig 16a, which indicated that the  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of fluorescence quenching in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells increased with increasing EZA concentration.

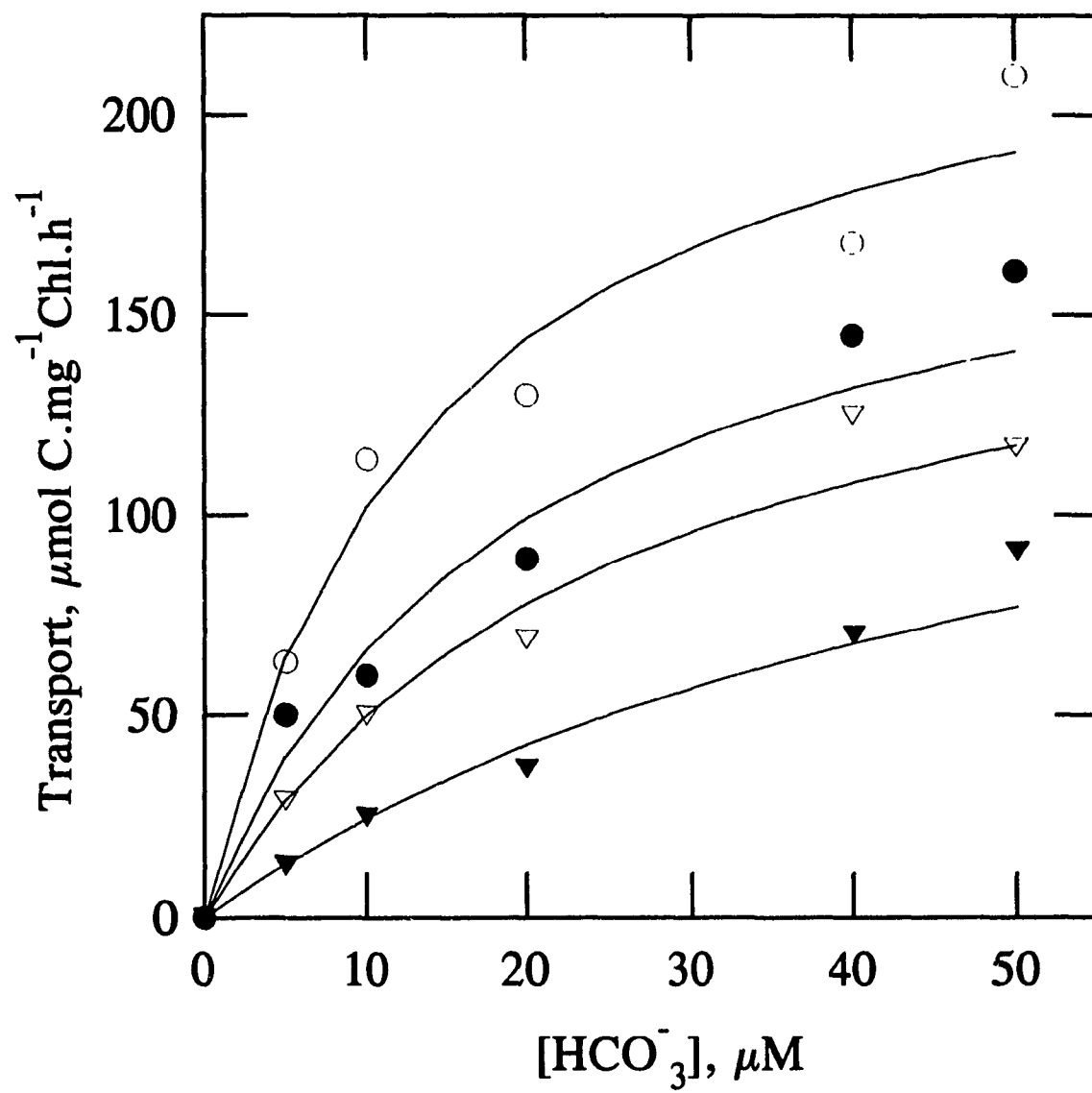
Double reciprocal re-plots of the data shown in Fig. 22 are shown in Fig. 23. The effect of EZA, both in the presence and absence of 25 mM  $\text{NaCl}$ , was to increase the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  and to lower the  $V_{\max}$  for transport (Fig. 23). The pattern of inhibition can therefore best be described as mixed non-competitive (Segel, 1988). The apparent  $K_i$  can be estimated by plotting the ratio of  $K_{1/2}:V_{\max}$  versus the inhibitor concentration, as is shown in Fig. 24. The  $K_i$  in the absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  was 57  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA whereas in the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  it was found to be 142  $\mu\text{M}$  (Fig 24).

The effect of 20, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport kinetics of standing culture cells in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  is shown in Fig 25. Increasing the EZA concentration in the range 20-200  $\mu\text{M}$  was increasingly inhibitory for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in the range of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  concentrations 5-50  $\mu\text{M}$ . The presence of 20  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA resulted in a maximum inhibition of transport of 47 % whereas with 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present the maximum inhibition observed was 79 % (Fig. 25). A double reciprocal plot of the data in Fig 25 is shown in Fig 26. The effect of EZA was to increase the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  while lowering the  $V_{\max}$  (Fig 26). The  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  for transport was observed to increase



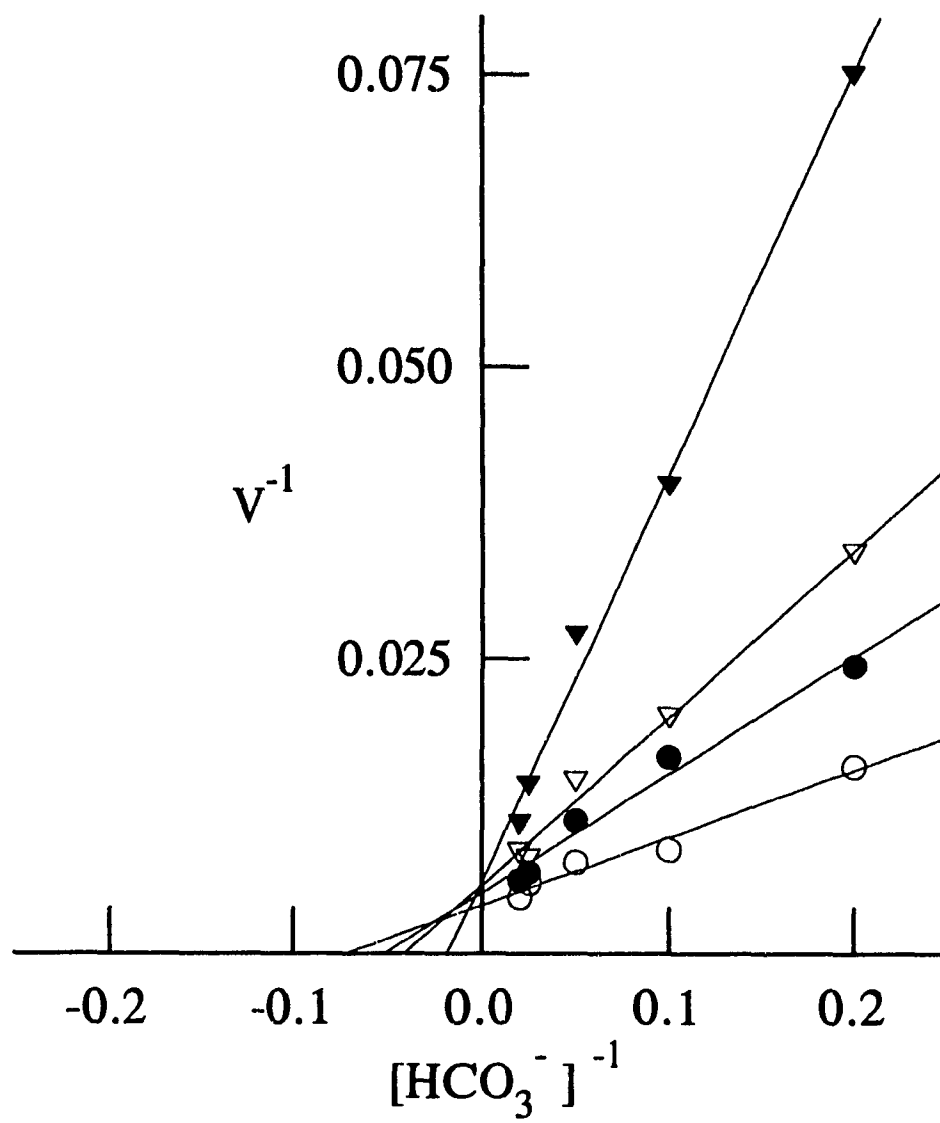
### FIGURE 25

Effect of (○) 0, (●) 20, (▽) 75, and (▼) 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA on the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dose response of transport in the presence of 100  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  in standing culture cells. The initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (10 sec time points) was measured using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique.  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added from three different stock solutions of 50, 200 and 500  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC having specific activities of 40, 50, and 54  $\mu\text{Ci}.\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. The experiments were conducted at pH 8.0, 30°C, and light was supplied at 300  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The chl ranged from 8 - 12  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ . Data shown are the average of triplicate measurements.



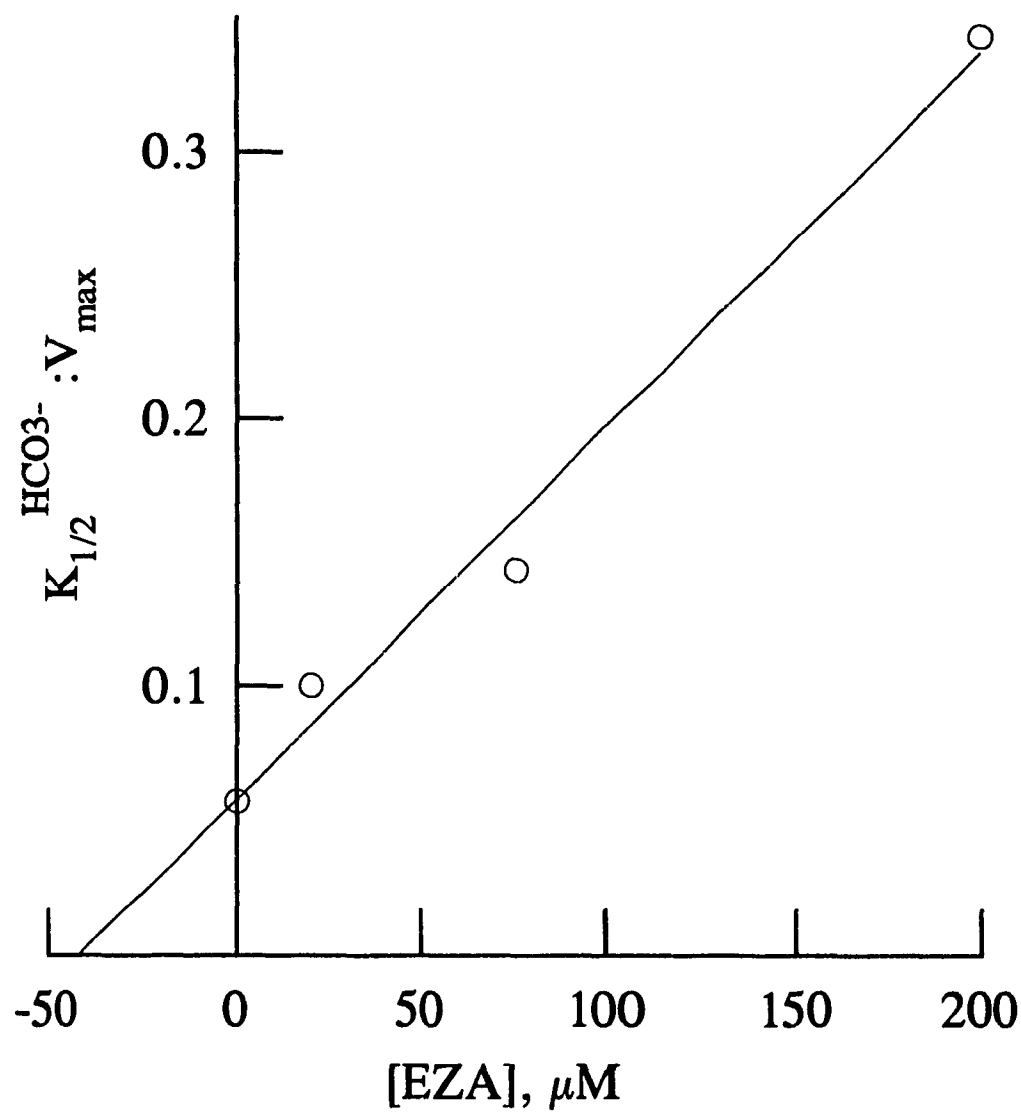
### FIGURE 26

Double reciprocal plots of the data shown in Figure 25. The  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  for transport were determined by linear regression analysis to be; 13.9, 19.5, 25.4, and 57.1  $\mu\text{M}$  in the presence of ( $\circ$ ) 0, ( $\bullet$ ) 20, ( $\nabla$ ) 75, and ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, respectively. The  $V_{\text{max}}$  for transport ( $\mu\text{mol HCO}_3^- \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \text{chl.h}^{-1}$ ) were found to be 244, 196, 177, and 165 in the presence of 0, 20, 75, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, respectively.



### FIGURE 27

Plot of the  $K_{1/2} \cdot V_{max}$  versus [EZA] for the kinetic parameters obtained from Figure 26 by linear regression analysis. The  $K_i$  for EZA was found to be 41.3 by extrapolation of the linear regression to the x - axis.



from 14  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC in the absence of EZA to 57  $\mu\text{M}$  DIC in the presence of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA. Similarly, the  $V_{\text{max}}$  for transport was observed to decrease from 243 to 165  $\mu\text{mol C.mg}^{-1}\text{chl.h}^{-1}$  in the absence and presence of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, respectively. Intermediate increases in  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  and decreases in  $V_{\text{max}}$  for transport were observed at intermediate concentrations of EZA. The inhibitory pattern can be best described as mixed non-competitive, and is similar to the situation for 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$  cells (Figs. 23 - 24). The  $K_i$  for EZA inhibition in standing culture cells was estimated by plotting the ratio of  $K_{1/2}^{\text{HCO}_3^-} : V_{\text{max}}$  versus EZA and, in the absence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , the  $K_i$  was estimated to be 41  $\mu\text{M}$  (Fig 27).

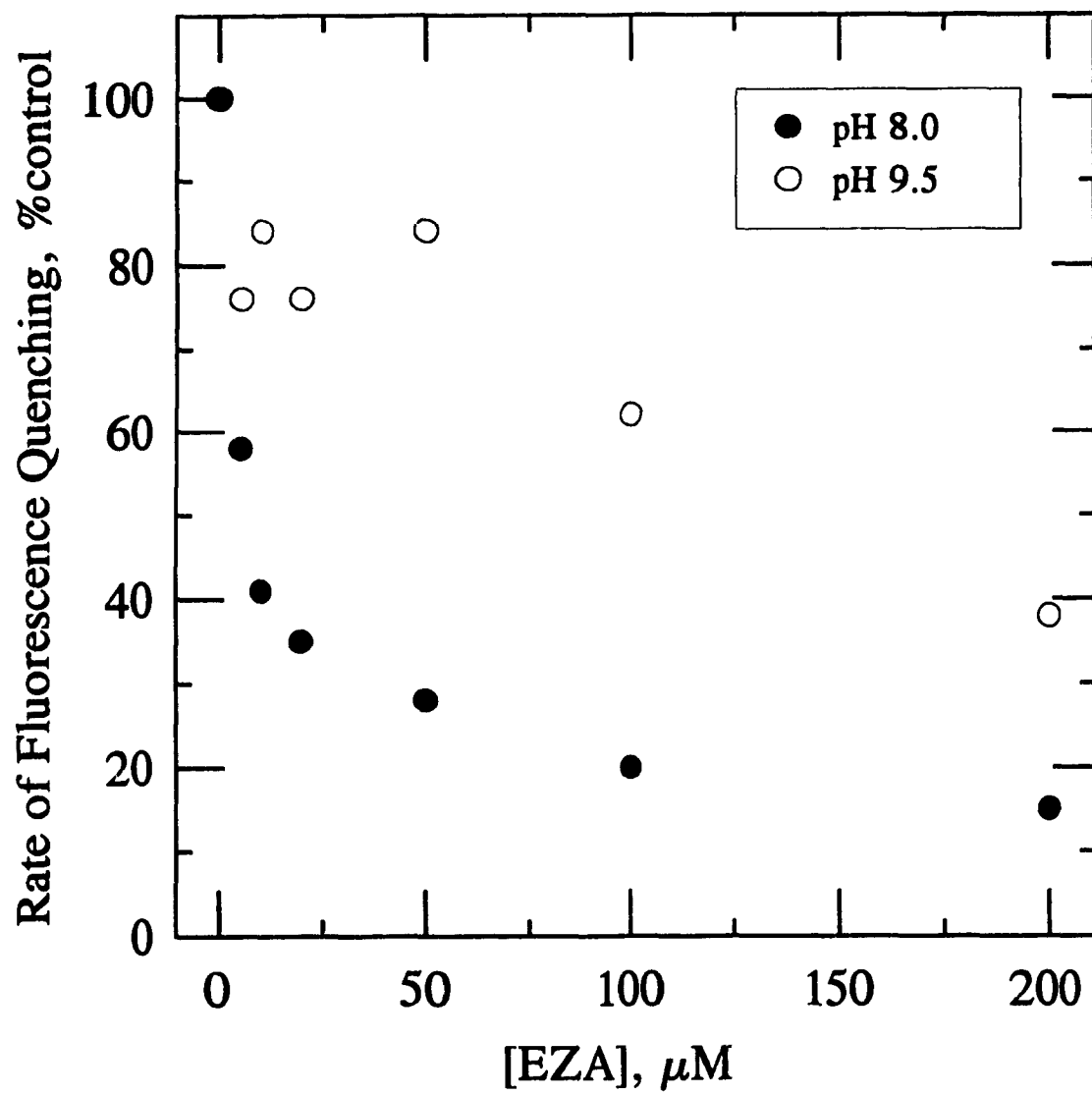
#### INHIBITORY SPECIES OF EZA

EZA is a sulfonamide drug with a  $\text{pK}_\text{A}$  of 8.1 (Maren, 1967). The sulfonamides (including EZA) have been shown to bind to the active site  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ion of carbonic anhydrase through the deprotonated sulfonamido nitrogen (Coleman, 1975). In the case of ethoxyzolamide, the deprotonated active inhibitory species is negatively charged. It was therefore of interest to verify the pH dependence of EZA inhibition of the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism. The chl *a* fluorescence quenching technique was used as a monitor for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport and the results of an experiment conducted at pH 8.0 and 9.6 with total EZA in the range 5-200  $\mu\text{M}$  are shown in Fig. 28. The inhibition by EZA of the initial rate of fluorescence quenching was more evident at pH 8.0 than for an equal concentration of EZA at pH 9.6. Experiments conducted in the pH range 8.0 - 9.5 will have less of the protonated species in solution as the pH is increased. To investigate the pH dependence of inhibition in more detail, measurements of the initial

## FIGURE 28

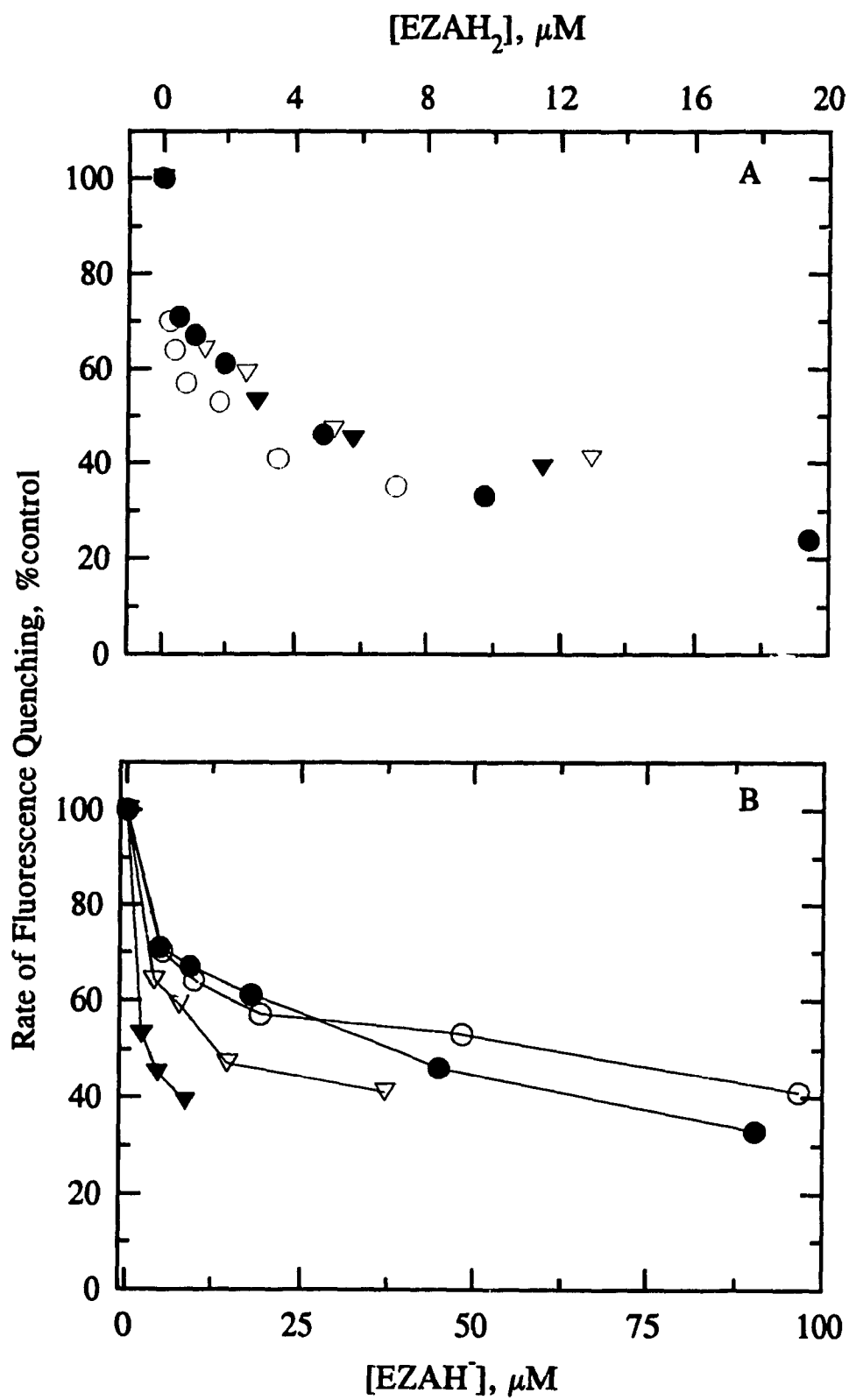
Effect of EZA on the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching in  $30\ \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells at ( $\circ$ ) pH 8.0 and at ( $\bullet$ ) pH 9.5. EZA was added from stock solutions made up in DMSO. Experiments were conducted at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ , with  $100\ \mu\text{M Na}^+$  present. Transport was initiated by the addition of  $10\ \mu\text{M DIC}$ . Light was provided at  $100\ \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ . The chl ranged from  $10 - 11\ \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ .





## FIGURE 29

Effect of  $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  on the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching in  $30\ \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells. Experiments were conducted as in Figure 28 at ( $\circ$ ) pH 7.97, ( $\bullet$ ) pH 8.56, ( $\nabla$ ) pH 9.07, and ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) pH 9.56, with  $10\ \mu\text{M}$  DIC and over a range of total EZA from 0 -  $200\ \mu\text{M}$ . The data were plotted as a function of (A)  $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$  or (B) as  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  using a  $\text{pK}_a$  for EZA of 8.1. The chl ranged from 9 -  $13\ \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ .



rate of fluorescence quenching were conducted at four different  $\text{pH}_0$  in the range from 7.97 to 9.54 and with total EZA from 0 - 200  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $[\text{EZA}\text{H}_2]:[\text{EZA}\text{H}] = 1.35$  to 0.036, respectively) (Fig 29). When the initial rate of fluorescence quenching (expressed as a percentage of the control) was plotted as a function of the protonated species ( $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$ ), the data fell along a single inhibition curve (Fig 29a). The same data plotted as a function of the charged species revealed four separate pH dependent inhibition curves (Fig 29b). It can be concluded that the protonated species of EZA plays a central role in the inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **RELATION BETWEEN DIC TRANSPORT AND CHL *a* FLUORESCENCE QUENCHING**

The addition of increasing levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  to air-grown cells of *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 at constant DIC and extracellular pH served to increase the maximum intracellular DIC concentration (Fig 3). Corresponding measurements of chl *a* fluorescence revealed that the extent of fluorescence quenching was responsive to  $\text{Na}^+$  over the same range of external  $\text{Na}^+$  (Fig 4; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Previous results have indicated that the calculated internal DIC, based on measurements using mass spectrometry, was linearly related to the change in  $F_v'$  when both were measured simultaneously (Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). The data shown in Fig. 3 represent a direct measurement of the internal DIC concentration using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique and were obtained under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was the main route for DIC transport. The correlation between the maximum extent of quenching, and the maximum internal DIC pool, shown in Fig 5, thus extends and confirms previous correlations which were obtained under conditions where either  $\text{CO}_2$  transport or both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport were the operative pathways for DIC uptake (Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie *et al.*, 1991; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). The use of chl *a* fluorescence thus provides a reliable indicator of changes in the magnitude of the internal DIC pool, regardless of the transport mechanism involved or the DIC species being transported.

The underlying basis for the relation between the magnitude of change in chl *a*

fluorescence yield and the internal DIC concentration is not known. One possibility is the "HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> effect", which involves a direct physical effect of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> on photosynthetic electron flow through Q<sub>A</sub> and Q<sub>B</sub> in PS II (Blubaugh and Govindjee, 1988). A requirement for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in photosynthetic electron transport has been demonstrated with isolated thylakoids from the cyanobacterium Synechocystis PCC 6803 (Cao and Govindjee, 1988). The requirement for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in electron transport in higher plants and algae has been proposed as being due to its role as; (a) a ligand to the non-heme iron found between Q<sub>A</sub> and Q<sub>B</sub> which acts to keep the D1 and D2 subunits of PS II in their proper functional conformation (b) a source of protons for the protonation of Q<sub>B</sub> to Q<sub>B</sub>H<sub>2</sub> (Blubaugh and Govindjee, 1988). Since the inhibition of Q<sub>A</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidation in Synechocystis PCC 6803 by HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> depletion in the presence of formate is reversed by mM levels of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Cao and Govindjee, 1988), it has been speculated that the "HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> effect" could be the basis for the correlation between the internal DIC concentration and chl *a* fluorescence quenching (Miller *et al.*, 1991). If binding of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> between Q<sub>A</sub> and Q<sub>B</sub> is the basis for the observed changes in chl fluorescence, the K<sub>D</sub> for binding must be several orders of magnitude higher in Synechococcus UTEX 625 than in spinach, where it was found to be on the order of 35 - 60 μM (Blubaugh and Govindjee, 1988). By contrast, chl *a* fluorescence quenching responds linearly to internal DIC in the mM range (Fig 5; Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie *et al.*, 1991; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992).

Chl *a* fluorescence quenching in higher plants and algae is due mainly to two components, termed Q<sub>q</sub> and Q<sub>E</sub> (Sivak and Walker, 1985). Q<sub>q</sub> reflects changes in the redox status of Q<sub>A</sub> and can be correlated with rates of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (Sivak and Walker,

1985; Genty *et al.*, 1989; Holmes *et al.*, 1989). The rapid and monophasic recovery of fluorescence yield by a saturating flash of high-intensity light (Fig 7; Miller *et al.*, 1991) or by the addition of DCMU (Miller *et al.*, 1991) indicates that chl *a* fluorescence quenching in *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 is due to  $Q_A$  (photochemical quenching).  $Q_E$ , or non-photochemical quenching, due to the build up of the proton-motive force across the thylakoid membrane, has not been observed in cyanobacteria (Miller and Calvin, 1987).

The fact that the maximum extent of quenching was positively correlated with the rate of photosynthesis as measured by  $O_2$  evolution (Fig 6) would appear to confirm that  $Q_A$  in *Synechococcus* was dependent on the rate of  $CO_2$  fixation, as in higher plants and algae. The results in Figs 7 and 8 indicate that chl *a* fluorescence quenching occurred even under conditions where  $CO_2$  fixation was prevented by the presence of glycolaldehyde, a Calvin cycle inhibitor. Furthermore, DIC transport was not inhibited by glycolaldehyde (Fig 8; Miller and Calvin, 1989). It has previously been shown that the relation between fluorescence quenching and internal DIC remained valid under conditions where  $CO_2$  fixation was inhibited (Miller *et al.*, 1988a). Direct measurements of  $O_2$  uptake while DIC transport was occurring in the presence of iodoacetamide, another Calvin cycle inhibitor, indicated that photosynthetic electron flow was diverted to  $O_2$  by a Mehler type reaction, thus providing a means for the re-oxidation of  $Q_A$  (Miller *et al.*, 1988c).

Since the rate of photosynthesis depends on the internal DIC pool in a dose dependent fashion (Kaplan *et al.*, 1980; Shelp and Calvin, 1984), the linear relation between the extent of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and the rate of  $O_2$  evolution (Fig 6)

provides an indirect confirmation of the ability of chl *a* fluorescence to monitor changes in the internal DIC. Since chl *a* fluorescence is quenched even in the absence of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (Fig 7), the ability of chl fluorescence to monitor the internal DIC is largely independent of events associated with CO<sub>2</sub> fixation. This does not mean that CO<sub>2</sub> fixation does not result in some fluorescence quenching as electron flow from H<sub>2</sub>O to NADP<sup>+</sup> will surely oxidize Q<sub>A</sub>. Rather, it would appear (Figs 7 & 8) that only a small portion of the fluorescence quenching observed during active photosynthesis (NADP<sup>+</sup> reduction) is due to CO<sub>2</sub> fixation and the majority is due to DIC accumulation. Both the absence of Q<sub>E</sub> and the relative independence of Q<sub>q</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fixation are in direct contrast with chl *a* fluorescence in higher plants and algae (Sivak and Walker, 1985; Miller *et al.*, 1991).

The relative independence between carbon fixation and chl *a* fluorescence quenching allows for the use of measurements of the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching to be used as estimates of the initial rate of DIC uptake (Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie *et al.*, 1991). The correlation between the initial rate of Na<sup>+</sup> dependent HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport as measured using the silicone fluid centrifugation technique, and the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching was determined using simple linear regression (Fig 13a) and a forced fit linear regression through the origin (Fig 13b). The highly significant (Students - *t*, *P* < 0.001) correlation co-efficient for the simple linear regression (Fig 13a, *r* = 0.79) attests to the ability of measurements of the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching to provide estimates of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport rates. The residual variability in %F<sub>v</sub>.mg<sup>-1</sup>chl.min<sup>-1</sup> which is unaccounted for by variation in the transport rate ( $1 - r^2 = .36$ ) might be due to varying levels of O<sub>2</sub> in the medium since



photoreduction of  $O_2$ , and therefore  $O_2$  dependent photosynthetic electron transport has been found to be significant under conditions where DIC transport is occurring (Miller *et al.*, 1991).

Since fluorescence quenching independent of  $HCO_3^-$  transport does not occur at the  $CO_2$  compensation point (Figs 2 & 7; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992), a relation between initial rates of fluorescence quenching and  $HCO_3^-$  transport can be expected to intercept the y-axis at the origin. A linear regression based on this assumption (forced fit through the origin, Fig 13b) resulted in a higher correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.958$ ). This can be interpreted as meaning that the linear relation shown in Fig 13b represents a closer approximation to the "true" relation between quenching and transport as compared to Fig 13a.

The possibility that a small, but significant portion of chl *a* fluorescence quenching is due to  $CO_2$  fixation cannot be completely excluded. The possibility that  $CO_2$  fixation affects chl *a* fluorescence quenching, as well as the known effect of  $O_2$  on chl *a* fluorescence (Miller *et al.*, 1991), probably introduces an element of variability in the correlation between initial rates obtained using the two methods (Fig 13). These possibilities however do not detract from the overall conclusion that chl *a* fluorescence can provide a monitor for DIC transport rates, regardless of the DIC species utilized in transport (Fig 13; Miller *et al.*, 1991; Espie *et al.*, 1992). Further studies of the effects of photoreduction of  $O_2$  and  $C_i$  fixation on chl *a* fluorescence quenching should yield insights into the mechanism underlying the basis between DIC transport and fluorescence quenching.

It should be noted that silicon fluid experiments and chl *a* fluorescence experiments were performed under different actinic light intensities (300 and 100  $\mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively). These conditions were chosen because; (1) at higher actinic light intensities,  $Q_A$  becomes more oxidized, thus decreasing the effective span of  $F^*$ , (G.S. Espie, pers. comm.) (2) the nature of silicon fluid experiments precludes mixing of the tube contents after injection of  $\text{H}^{14}\text{CO}_3^-$ , thus the attenuation of the light intensity through the tube became a concern and it was decided to increase the light intensity so that DIC transport was not light limited. The differing light conditions did not adversely affect the correlation between DIC transport and fluorescence quenching since the effects of pH,  $\text{Na}^+$ , and EZA on chl *a* fluorescence as a reporter for DIC transport were essentially confirmed by silicon fluid experiments (Figs. 3 - 5, 7, 8, 11 - 13, 16 - 19).

#### **EFFECT OF $\text{Na}^+$ ON $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT IN AIR-GROWN CELLS**

The initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in air-grown cells of Synechococcus UTEX 625 was found to increase with increasing  $\text{Na}^+$  in an apparent Michaelis-Menten fashion (Figs 3 & 11). Similar results have been obtained with air-grown cells of Anabaena variabilis (Reinhold et al., 1984). Corresponding  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent increases in the initial rates of chl *a* fluorescence quenching indicated that chl *a* fluorescence is a useful means of estimating the kinetic behaviour of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Figs 4 & 12). The  $\text{Na}^+$  requirement for photosynthesis,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, and chl *a* fluorescence quenching was found to decrease with increasing pH in the range from 8.0 - 9.5 (Figs 10 & 12). Previous results have indicated that at lower pH (6.5 - 7.0) and at higher DIC ( $> 100 \mu\text{M}$ ), there is also a decrease in the  $\text{Na}^+$  requirement for photosynthesis (Espie and

Canvin, 1987; Canvin *et al.*, 1990). Low pH and high DIC tend to privilege CO<sub>2</sub> transport over HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport, resulting in a larger contribution of the Na<sup>+</sup> independent CO<sub>2</sub> transport mechanism to total DIC uptake (Espie *et al.*, 1988). By contrast, at pH  $\geq$  8.0 and with 20  $\mu$ M DIC, the observed DIC uptake can be largely considered to be due to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport. Thus, the lower K<sub>1/2</sub><sup>Na+</sup> for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport with increasing pH observed for air - grown cells is particular to the Na<sup>+</sup> dependent HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport mechanism.

The close correspondence between the pH dependence of K<sub>1/2</sub><sup>Na+</sup> for photosynthesis (Fig 10) and the pH dependence of the K<sub>1/2</sub><sup>Na+</sup> for measurements of either HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport or chl *a* fluorescence quenching (Fig 12) results from the fact that photosynthesis is limited by the rate of transport at low external DIC (Mayo *et al.*, 1989). The possibility that the pH dependence of K<sub>1/2</sub><sup>Na+</sup> for photosynthesis was due to a combined effect of pH and Na<sup>+</sup> on the utilization of the internal DIC can be discounted based on the observation of a similar pH effect on the K<sub>1/2</sub><sup>Na+</sup> for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport (Fig 12) and also based on evidence indicating that the relation between CO<sub>2</sub> fixation and internal DIC is unaffected by external Na<sup>+</sup> in both air-grown and standing culture cells (Espie and Kandasamy, 1992).

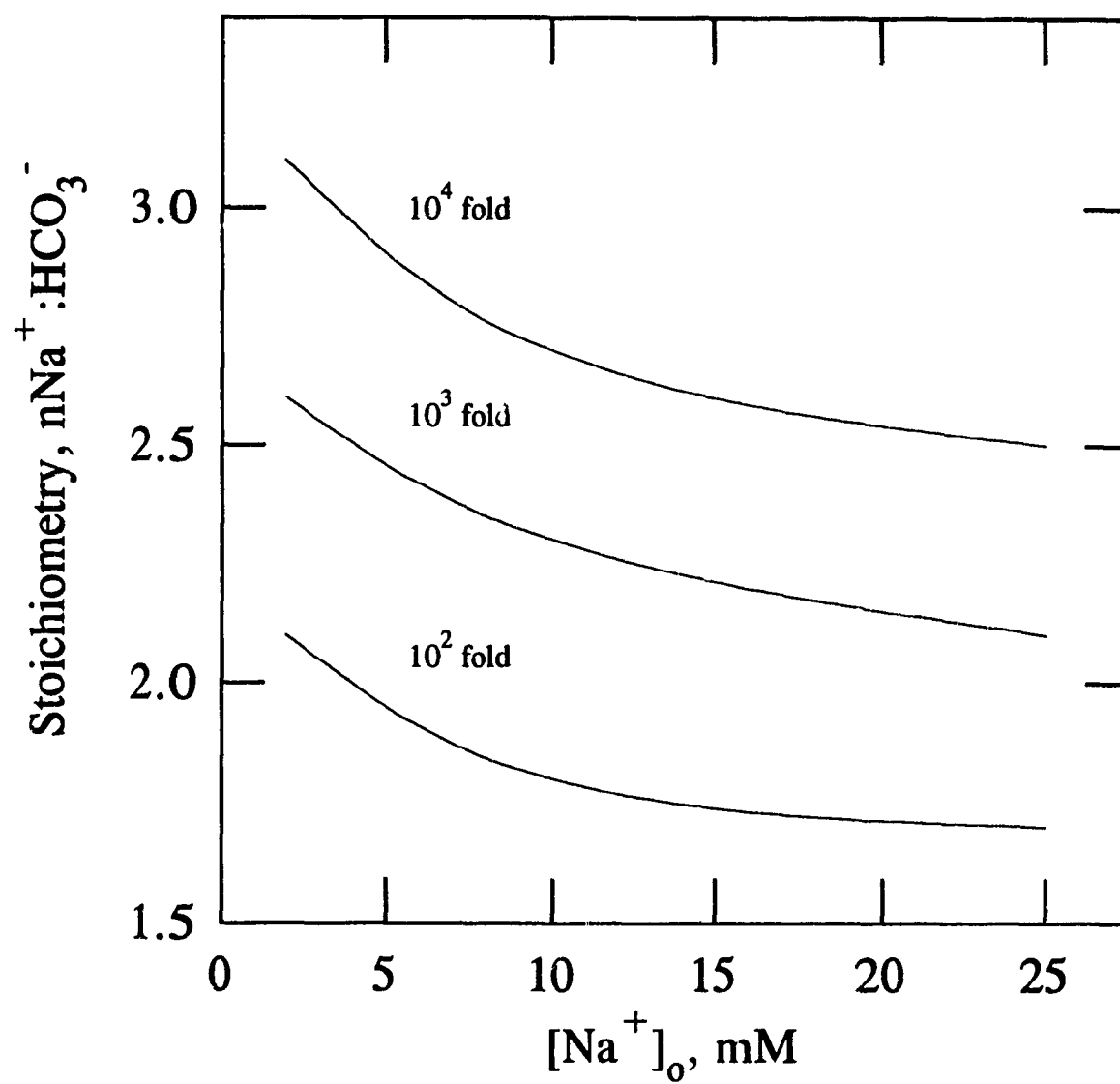
Recent work has shown that Synechococcus R2 (PCC7942) actively extrudes Na<sup>+</sup> and thereby generates a Na<sup>+</sup> motive force ( $\Delta\mu_{\text{Na}^+} = -150$  mV, negative inside) with Na<sup>+</sup><sub>o</sub> at 50 mM (Ritchie, 1992). The possibility that Na<sup>+</sup> dependent HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport is driven by a Na<sup>+</sup>:HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> symport is thus consistent with this evidence for a substantial Na<sup>+</sup> motive force in cyanobacteria. The data of Ritchie (1992) was used to calculate the

theoretical stoichiometries for  $\text{Na}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport (Fig 30). The accumulation ratios for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake in the range which has previously been observed corresponded to theoretical stoichiometries for  $n\text{Na}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  of between 1.7 and 3.1. Even with the extreme accumulation ratio for DIC uptake of 10,000 fold, the stoichiometry did not greatly exceed 3. By contrast, the stoichiometry of  $n\text{H}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  with under 1000 fold accumulation of DIC at  $\text{pH}_o$  of 9.5 was found to be 17 (Zenvirth *et al.*, 1981). The substantial influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  which would result from the postulated  $\text{Na}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport would presumably have to be disposed of by an active efflux mechanism. The results of Ritchie (1992) favor a model where a  $\text{Na}^+$  ATPase pump is the efflux mechanism rather than a  $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$  antiport. At  $\text{pH}_o$  of 9.5, the contribution of the measured membrane potential (-130 mV) to  $\Delta\mu_{\text{H}^+}$  was effectively cancelled by the effect of  $\Delta\text{pH}$ , reducing the  $\Delta\mu_{\text{H}^+}$  to less than -10 mV, and thereby reducing the driving force for  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux by  $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$  antiport (Ritchie, 1992).

The theoretical stoichiometries shown in Fig 30 also predict that depolarization of the membrane potential would occur under conditions of active  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by  $\text{Na}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport. This is contrary to the evidence for a transient hyperpolarization concomitant with DIC transport in *Anabaena variabilis* (Kaplan *et al.*, 1982). However, DIC transport in their experiments was initiated with 1 mM DIC which results in considerable ambiguity as to the main DIC species being transported. The experiments of Kaplan *et al.* (1982) need to be repeated with  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent cells and lower DIC (<100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) in order to determine whether any changes in membrane potential result from  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport.

### **FIGURE 30**

Theoretical stoichiometries of putative  $n\text{Na}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport mechanism for  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport as a function of  $\text{Na}^+_{\text{o}}$ . Thermodynamic parameters ( $\Delta\psi$  and  $\Delta\mu_{\text{Na}^+}$ ) were obtained from Figure 4 of Ritchie (1992).  $\Delta\mu_{\text{HCO}_3^-}$  was calculated for three different ratios of  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{i}}/[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{o}}$  ( $10^2$ ,  $10^3$ ,  $10^4$ ) using  $\Delta\psi$  from Ritchie 1992.



Unfortunately, the experiments conducted by Ritchie (1992) were performed on Synechococcus grown on 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> (v/v), thus it is likely that these cells were incapable of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport (Price and Badger, 1989b). Nonetheless, since the major component of  $\Delta\mu_{\text{Na}^+}$  in Ritchie's (1992) study was found to be  $\Delta\psi$ , and since  $\Delta\psi$  has previously been shown to be in the range of -90 to -120 mV in air-grown cells (Zenvirth *et al.*, 1981; Miller *et al.*, 1984b), the possible stoichiometries for  $\text{rNa}^+:\text{HCO}_3^-$  symport shown in Fig 30 are likely to be valid for air-grown cells of Synechococcus UTEX 625 if this is the mechanism for Na<sup>+</sup> dependent HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport in these cells.

The possibility that Na<sup>+</sup> is required for pH regulation in Synechococcus UTEX 625 cannot be completely discounted by the findings of Ritchie (1992). Alkalophilic, heterotrophic bacteria are known to require Na<sup>+</sup> for pH homeostasis at pH 10.5 and higher (Krulwich and Guffanti, 1989). The active efflux of Na<sup>+</sup> is thought to be driven by localized H<sup>+</sup> gradients which are generated by high concentrations of respiratory chain components present in the plasma membrane of these bacteria (Krulwich and Guffanti, 1989). An increase in the intracellular pH in Synechococcus UTEX 625 has previously been observed upon incubation in Na<sup>+</sup> free medium at pH 9.6 and in the absence of DIC transport (Miller *et al.*, 1984b). It is difficult, however, to reconcile the effect of bulk pH<sub>o</sub> on the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{Na}^+}$  for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport (Fig 12) if the Na<sup>+</sup> effect is due solely to a requirement for Na<sup>+</sup> in pH homeostasis requiring the use of localized H<sup>+</sup> gradients. Moreover, during steady-state photosynthesis the generation of intracellular OH<sup>-</sup> from the dehydration of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to form CO<sub>2</sub> would exacerbate the pH regulatory problem confronted by a cell generating substantial localized H<sup>+</sup> gradients as a driving force for

active  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux. The results of Figs 10 and 12 are therefore more consistent with a mechanism whereby  $\text{Na}^+$  is bound to a titratable group on the extracellular face of the transport mechanism. A  $\text{Na}^+$  binding site would presumably carry a negative charge to favour electrostatic interactions with  $\text{Na}^+$ . Increasing the pH in the range 8.0 to 9.5 would increase the proportion of negatively charged binding sites if this site contains an amino acid with a  $\text{pK}_a$  in this range.  $\text{Na}^+$  could act to stimulate  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake either by a conformational change in the transport protein which stimulates coupling of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake to the expenditure of an energy source such as ATP hydrolysis, or by being passively transported itself, with  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport being energized by the flow of  $\text{Na}^+$  down its electrochemical gradient. Recent work, (R. Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991) has shown that  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was inhibited by the ionophore monensin. Monensin is a polyether carboxylic acid which catalyzes the electroneutral exchange of  $\text{Na}^+$  for  $\text{H}^+$ , thereby collapsing the  $\text{Na}^+$  gradient between the cells and the medium. Inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by monensin, therefore, strongly suggests a role for the  $\text{Na}^+$  electrochemical gradient in  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake. No evidence was found in this study for an allosteric effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on either photosynthesis or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport.

The uptake of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  by a primary active transport mechanism has been predicted to result in membrane hyperpolarizations of approximately 9 mV.msec<sup>-1</sup> (Miller, 1991). The opening of  $\text{Na}^+$  channels in the plasma membrane of cyanobacteria could thus provide a mechanism for maintaining electrical homeostasis during DIC transport since the reversal potential for  $\text{Na}^+$  has been found to be at least 100 mV positive of the resting potential in high DIC grown cells of Synechococcus PCC 7942 (Ritchie, 1992).



Thus the depolarizing effect of an increase in membrane permeability to  $\text{Na}^+$  could conceivably counteract the hyperpolarization induced by  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake.

### **THE EFFECT OF EXOGENOUS DIC ON PHOTOSYNTHESIS AND $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT**

The requirement for mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport is not a constitutive feature of DIC transport. Both  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown and standing culture cells are capable of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Figs 22 & 25; Espie and Canvin, 1987; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992), and both of these cell types experience a low exogenous DIC concentration during the log phase of growth (Table 1). Standing culture cells would appear to possess a residual amount of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport since both DIC transport and photosynthesis initiated by the addition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  are stimulated by up to 60 % upon the addition of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  (Espie and Canvin, 1987; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). By contrast, the  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport and photosynthesis by 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells did not exceed 30 % (Figs 14, 15, and 22). The lower exogenous DIC experienced by  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells during log phase as compared to standing culture corresponded to a decrease in the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  for photosynthesis and also corresponded with lower levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of photosynthesis (Table 1). The level of exogenous DIC experienced by the cells during growth would thus appear to be an environmental cue not only for regulating the affinity for DIC transport but also for the suppression or prominence of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport.

## THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECT OF EZA ON $\text{Na}^+$ DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT $\text{HCO}_3^-$ TRANSPORT MECHANISMS

Based on evidence that both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport were equally inhibited by the carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, EZA, Price and Badger (1989a) proposed a transport mechanism for DIC uptake whereby  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport shared a common pathway. These investigators proposed an obligate dehydration-hydration cycle for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake (Fig 1a). In contrast to the model proposed by Price and Badger (1989a) where only one  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport pathway is described, two pathways for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport are evident in Synechococcus UTEX 625 grown under different conditions. The  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism is strictly and specifically dependent on mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  for activity (Espie *et al.*, 1988b), inhibited by amiloride or monensin (Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991), and relatively insensitive to treatment with low levels of EZA ( $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ ; Fig 19). The  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism is relatively insensitive to both amiloride and monensin (Kandasamy, M.Sc. thesis, 1991), however low levels of EZA ( $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ ) exert an inhibitory effect on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by this mechanism (Figs 17, 22, and 25, Table 2; Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished data).

The inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by EZA was evident in measurements of photosynthesis and chl *a* fluorescence quenching in both standing culture and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells (Fig 16). The inhibitory effect of EZA on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport could be seen in direct measurements of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  using the silicon fluid centrifugation technique (Figs 17, 22, and 25, Table 2). The possibility that photosynthetic electron transport was inhibited by EZA, possibly at the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  binding

located on the reducing side of PQ can be discounted based on the observation that low concentrations of EZA ( $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ ) were relatively innocuous in measurements of chl *a* fluorescence in air - grown cells (Fig 18). Furthermore, the direct measurement of electron transport through PS II revealed only 20 % inhibition with  $600 \mu\text{M}$  EZA present (Price and Badger, 1989b). The ability of chl *a* fluorescence to monitor the size of the internal DIC pool even when EZA was present was further confirmed by the observation that the inhibition of chl *a* fluorescence quenching by EZA could be reversed by the addition of 5 mM DIC (Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished data).

If EZA exerted an inhibitory effect on internal carbonic anhydrase, then the relation between internal DIC and carbon fixation would show reduced carbon fixation for similar internal DIC levels when EZA was present. Price and Badger (1989a) showed that the utilization of the internal DIC pool was not affected by  $200 \mu\text{M}$  EZA. Measurements of carbon fixation in relation to internal DIC in standing culture cells led to the same conclusion (data not shown).

The differential effect of EZA on the two different  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanisms was evident in cell types which manifested both types of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. Thus, the relief of EZA inhibition of photosynthesis and fluorescence quenching afforded by the presence of 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  in standing culture and  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells resulted in lower levels of inhibition by EZA as compared to when only  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}^+$  was present (Fig 16). Direct measurements of pool formation and initial rates of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport indicated that the protective effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on the inhibition of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and photosynthesis was exerted at the level of the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism

(Figs 17 and 22, Table 2) and did not result from an effect of  $\text{Na}^+$  on either photosynthetic electron transport or on the utilization of the DIC pool for use in photosynthesis.

The lower level of  $\text{Na}^+$  protection against EZA inhibition in  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells as compared to standing culture cells is not surprising considering that  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  grown cells typically possess less residual  $\text{Na}^+$  stimulation of photosynthesis and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport as compared to standing culture cells (Figs 22 & 25, Table 1).

The difference between the results shown in this study and the results of Price and Badger (1989a) with regards to EZA inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport can be reconciled by the fact that Price and Badger (1989a) conducted all of their experiments with 18 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  present and did not conduct any experiments in the absence of  $\text{Na}^+$ . Furthermore, the cyanobacteria used in the study by Price and Badger (1989a) were grown at  $30 \mu\text{L.L}^{-1} \text{CO}_2$  and thus more than likely possessed marginal levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. Initial rates of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport reported by Price and Badger (1989a) were inhibited by 51 % in the presence of  $400 \mu\text{M}$  EZA with  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , which compares favourably to the 40 % inhibition of the initial rate of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by  $200 \mu\text{M}$  EZA with  $100 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and 25 mM  $\text{Na}^+$  present (Fig 25b). Thus, the different interpretations with regard to the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanisms based on the data presented in this study and the data presented by Price and Badger (1989a) are probably not due to quantitative differences in the inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in the two systems, but are more likely based on the selective use of EZA on cells grown under varying growth DIC and in the absence and presence of mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$ .

## CO<sub>2</sub> AND HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> TRANSPORT: SEPARATE OR COMMON PATHWAYS ?

The model for DIC uptake proposed by Price and Badger (1989a) predicts that inhibition of the common step in the translocation of either HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or CO<sub>2</sub> (hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> as/before it enters the cytosol as HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) (Fig 1a) would result in the equal inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport. The large amounts of both either CO<sub>2</sub> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (100 μM) used by these investigators would lead to the presence of a large amount of the other DIC species in the external medium before the first sampling time (10 sec). The half-time for the hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> at pH 8.0 and 30°C is approximately 8 seconds (Miller *et al.*, 1988a). "Active species" experiments conducted with the intention of comparing CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake rates are thus less ambiguous when low levels of DIC are used. Uptake of DIC initiated by the addition of 10 μM CO<sub>2</sub> by cells possessing the high-affinity CO<sub>2</sub> transporter was rapid and essentially complete by the first sampling time (10 sec.; Fig 21; Miller *et al.*, 1988b). Since CO<sub>2</sub> represents only 1.6% of the total DIC at equilibrium at pH 8.0 and 30°C, uptake initiated by the addition of 10 μM HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> results in a negligible amount of extracellular CO<sub>2</sub> and therefore does not confound the interpretation of possible effects regarding the inhibition of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport by EZA. Accordingly, the substantial inhibition of Na<sup>+</sup> independent HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport by 75 μM EZA (Figs 17, 22, and 25, Table 2; Tyrrell and Espie, unpublished data) can unambiguously be compared to the negligible effect of 75 μM EZA on CO<sub>2</sub> transport in standing culture cells when CO<sub>2</sub> was present at 10 μM (Fig 21). The inhibition of the initial rate of fluorescence quenching by EZA was much more evident when HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was added as compared to when CO<sub>2</sub> was added to 30 μL.L<sup>-1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells when both CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were added at

10  $\mu\text{M}$  (Fig 20). Equal inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  induced fluorescence quenching was evident only when 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA was added (Fig 20). Similarly, Price and Badger (1989a) reported equal inhibition of both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in 30  $\mu\text{L.L}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  grown cells with 400  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA present. Thus, the difference in the interpretation of the results obtained by Price and Badger (1988a) and the results reported here are probably due in large part to lower levels of DIC used in this study for the purpose of comparing the effects of EZA on  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport and due to the lower amounts of EZA used in this study.

There was a wide concentration range of EZA for which  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was preferentially inhibited over  $\text{CO}_2$  transport when both were present at 10  $\mu\text{M}$  (Figs 20 & 21). These results by themselves do not discount the possibility that  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport shares a common translocatory step with  $\text{CO}_2$  transport however they are in direct contrast with the results of Price and Badger (1989a) which these investigators present as evidence in favor of a common pathway. Since the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{CO}_2}$  for the high - affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport is on the order of 0.2  $\mu\text{M}$  (Espie *et al.*, 1991), and the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  for the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism is on the order of 10 - 20  $\mu\text{M}$  (Figs 22 & 25), it could be argued that the differential inhibitory effect of EZA on  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport could be due to the fact that the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration used was 50 - 100 fold higher than the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{CO}_2}$  while  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was added at a maximum of 5 - 10 fold higher than  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  in transport experiments.

The  $K_i$  for EZA inhibition for EZA inhibition of the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism was found to be  $58 \pm 17$   $\mu\text{M}$  (SEM,  $n=4$ ) in experiments similar

to the ones shown in Figs 24 & 26. This value agrees well with the EZA concentration required for 50 % inhibition (40 to 50  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA, Fig 17) of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in standing culture cells at a DIC concentration (20  $\mu\text{M}$ ) close to the  $K_{1/2}^{\text{DIC}}$  for transport in these cells ( $21.0 \pm 9.0 \mu\text{M}$ , SEM  $n = 4$ ). If the  $K_i$  of EZA inhibition of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport is similar to the  $K_i$  for EZA inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport, due to a common hydration step being EZA sensitive, then 50 % inhibition of EZA transport should be evident with approximately 50  $\mu\text{M}$  EZA and 0.2  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$ . Alternatively, if  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport share a common pathway, then there should be an effect of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  on  $\text{CO}_2$  transport. Competition experiments of this nature measuring  $\text{CO}_2$  disappearance from the medium against an increasing background of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport should show whether or not  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport interferes with ongoing  $\text{CO}_2$  transport.

$\text{H}_2\text{S}$  has been shown to be inhibitory for the high affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism, yet neither  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent nor  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport were inhibited by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Espie *et al.*, 1989; Espie and Kandasamy, 1992). Carbon oxysulfide (COS) has been shown to selectively inhibit  $\text{CO}_2$  transport, with no effect on  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport (Miller *et al.*, 1989). However, a recent report indicates that  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport may be inhibited by COS with 1/4 the effectiveness seen with  $\text{CO}_2$  transport (Badger and Price, 1990).

The inhibition of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport by COS or  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  under conditions where  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was occurring resulted in an increase in the extracellular levels of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Miller *et al.*, 1989; Espie *et al.*, 1989). These results indicated that intracellular dehydration of recently transported  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  resulted in a massive efflux of internally generated  $\text{CO}_2$ . This

increase in extracellular  $\text{CO}_2$  levels was not evident when the  $\text{CO}_2$  transport inhibitors were not present (Miller *et al.*, 1989; Espie *et al.*, 1989). The  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism thus acts as a  $\text{CO}_2$  "scavenging" mechanism and contributes to DIC transport under normal circumstances of DIC uptake. For this reason, the inhibition of  $\text{CO}_2$  transport by high levels of EZA ( $> 200 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Figs 20 & 21) is probably responsible for the apparent inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport by similar amounts of EZA (Figs 18 & 19). Both the initial rate of fluorescence quenching and DIC transport were less inhibited by  $200 \mu\text{M}$  EZA for  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport as compared to  $\text{CO}_2$  transport (Figs 18 - 21). This is the the pattern of inhibition one would expect to find if the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism were less sensitive to EZA than the  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism, and if  $\text{CO}_2$  transport contributed to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake by virtue of its "scavenging" capacity.

#### **INHIBITORY SPECIES OF EZA**

EZA is a sulfonamide inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase, a  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  metalloenzyme. The deprotonated (anionic) form of the inhibitor is proposed to bind to the active site  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and displace the bound hydroxide ion, which is normally catalytically active in the hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Coleman, 1975). The inhibition of the initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching (as a monitor for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport) by either  $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$  (Fig 29a) or  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  (Fig 29b) revealed that the protonated form of the inhibitor was more likely to play a central role in the inhibition of transport than  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$ . Since it is the anionic form which inhibits CA from animal sources (Coleman, 1975), the results indicate that either the inhibited protein is dissimilar to CA in this regard, or perhaps that the site of inhibition is surrounded by lipid and/or hydrophobic protein moities. The former possibility is not



unanticipated since it has not been shown conclusively that DIC interconversion is an obligatory step in the translocation pathway, and since the active site of the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport pathway could share some structural features with animal or plant carbonic anhydrase without necessarily carrying out the same function. In the latter case, the protonated species ( $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$ ) has greater access to the site of inhibition than  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  and might explain the prominence of this species in the inhibition of chl fluorescence quenching. The equilibrium between  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  and  $\text{EZA}\text{H}_2$  in the membrane environment allows the possibility that  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  is the inhibitory species in this hydrophobic environment, however the  $K_i$  for  $\text{EZA}\text{H}^-$  would have to be orders of magnitude lower than the measured  $K_i$  for EZA inhibition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport ( $58\ \mu\text{M}$ ). Values of  $K_i$  for inhibition of human CAII by acetazolamide, another sulfonamide inhibitor similar to EZA have been found to be as low as 10 nM (Silverman, 1991). It is likely however that the site of inhibition by EZA is in a more hydrophobic environment than would be expected for a peripheral membrane protein.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The rapid response of chl *a* fluorescence to changes in the internal DIC, as opposed to changes in the rate of photosynthesis, allows for its use as a convenient and non-invasive method for measuring DIC transport. The initial rate of chl *a* fluorescence quenching was used to estimate the initial rate of  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport. The  $K_{1/2}^{\text{Na}^+}$  for this transport process was found to be sensitive to changes in external pH, decreasing as external pH was increased. The pH effect on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport was also evident in measurements of chl *a* fluorescence quenching and photosynthesis.

The results presented in this thesis are consistent with the view that  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport in Synechococcus UTEX 625 proceeds through two separate and distinct pathways, one being dependent on mM levels of  $\text{Na}^+$ , and one being independent of the  $\text{Na}^+$  ion. In support of this view, the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent mechanism was found to be very sensitive to low amounts of EZA ( $< 100 \mu\text{M}$ ) while the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent mechanism was found to be largely insensitive to this amount of EZA. The prominence or suppression of the  $\text{Na}^+$  dependent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport mechanism corresponded to changes in the exogenous DIC experienced during the log phase of growth.

The differential effect of EZA on  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport argue in favour of separate transport pathways for the  $\text{Na}^+$  independent  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport pathway and the high-affinity  $\text{CO}_2$  transport mechanism, however the possibility exists that the differential effect is due to the different substrate affinities for these two transport mechanisms.

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