Active $CO₂$ Transport by the Green Alga Chiamydomonas reinhardtii'

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ABSTRACT

Mass spectrometric measurements of dissolved free ${}^{13}CO₂$ were used to monitor $CO₂$ uptake by air grown (low $CO₂$) cells and protoplasts from the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. In the presence of 50 micromolar dissolved inorganic carbon and light, protoplasts which had been washed free of extemal carbonic anhydrase reduced the $13CO₂$ concentration in the medium to close to zero. Similar results were obtained with low $CO₂$ cells treated with 50 micromolar acetazolamide. Addition of carbonic anhydrase to protoplasts after the period of rapid $CO₂$ uptake revealed that the removal of $CO₂$ from the medium in the light was due to selective and active CO₂ transport rather than uptake of total dissolved inorganic carbon. In the light, low $CO₂$ cells and protoplasts incubated with carbonic anhydrase took up $CO₂$ at an apparently low rate which reflected the uptake of total dissolved inorganic carbon. No net CO₂ uptake occurred in the dark. Measurement of chlorophyll a fluorescence vield with low CO₂ cells and washed protoplasts showed that variable fluorescence was mainly influenced by energy quenching which was reciprocally related to photosynthetic activity with its highest value at the CO₂ compensation point. During the linear uptake of $CO₂$, low $CO₂$ cells and protoplasts incubated with carbonic anhydrase showed similar rates of net $O₂$ evolution (102 and 108 micromoles per milligram of chlorophyll per hour, respectively). The rate of net $O₂$ evolution (83 micromoles per milligram of chlorophyll per hour) with washed protoplasts was 20 to 30% lower during the period of rapid CO₂ uptake and decreased to a still lower value of 46 micromoles per milligram of chlorophyll per hour when most of the free $CO₂$ had been removed from the medium. The addition of carbonic anhydrase at this point resulted in more than a doubling of the rate of O_2 evolution. These results show low CO_2 cells of Chlamydomonas are able to transport both $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$ but $CO₂$ is preferentially removed from the medium. The external carbonic anhydrase is important in the supply to the cells of free $CO₂$ from the dehydration of HCO₃⁻.

Green algae and cyanobacteria possess a high apparent affinity for $DIC³$ when grown at low DIC concentrations (low $CO₂$ cells: 2, 5, 9, 17), and DIC accumulation has been

demonstrated for these organisms (2, 4, 9, 15). In the case of cyanobacteria, both $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ are substrates for active transport $(2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 15)$ with $CO₂$ being selectively and preferentially used by the cells (2, 6, 16). In Chlamydomonas, $HCO₃$ ⁻ is actively transported (4, 25, 29), but $CO₂$ uptake has been considered to be passive (18, 20). Carbon dioxide, however, is taken up from the medium faster than $HCO₃$ by Chlamydomonas (13, 28, 29) and several authors (13, 29) have considered the possibility of active $CO₂$ transport.

Studies on the DIC transport mechanism of green algae are complicated by their cellular compartmentation. Recently, it was shown that isolated chloroplasts of low $CO₂ Chlamvdo$ monas reinhardtii were able to accumulate DIC (19) and a model was presented where the only active DIC transport mechanism was located on the chloroplast envelope (18, 19). In that model the plasma membrane was suggested to be only a diffusion barrier for $CO₂$ generated by external carbonic anhydrase. In contrast, by comparison of the apparent affinities for DIC of whole cells and purified chloroplasts, Suiltemeyer *et al.* (26) came to the conclusion that active transport by the chloroplast alone may not be responsible for the photosynthetic characteristics of whole cells.

Another difficulty in examining the DIC species taken up by whole cells is the presence of an external carbonic anhydrase (10) which catalyzes the rapid equilibrium between $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$, thus making a direct discrimination between $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ uptake impossible (7, 13). However, using inhibitors for external carbonic anhydrase or the cell-wall less mutant CW-15, some authors came to the conclusion that $CO₂$ and not $HCO₃⁻$ (13) or that both $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ (29) were actively transported.

Confusion about which DIC species is actively taken up from the medium may also be caused by methods which only measure total rates of transport rather than transport of $CO₂$ or $HCO₃⁻$ individually. Using MS, which measures free dissolved gases in liquid, several authors presented direct evi-

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³ Abbreviations: DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon; AZA, acetazolamide; BTP, 1,3-bis-(tris[hydroxymethyl]methylamino)-propane;

 F_{max} , maximum fluorescence yield; k_{D} , dehydration rate constant of $HCO₃^-$ to CO₂; F_V , variable fluorescence yield; K_Y (DIC), concentration of DIC required to maintain O_2 evolution at one-half its maximum rate; K_{ν_1} (CO₂), CO₂ concentration where O₂ evolution is half maximum; PFR, photon fluence rate; Q, primary electron acceptor of photosystem II; q_E , quench coefficient for nonphotochemical quenching; q_o , quench coefficient for photochemical quenching; Rubisco, D-ribulose-l,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase; TAPS, tris[hydroxymethyl] methyl amino propane sulfonic acid.

dence consistent with an active $CO₂$ transport in cyanobacteria (2, 6, 16). We have used mass spectrometry (2, 16) for measuring $CO₂$ and $O₂$ exchange in C. reinhardtii. To overcome the problem of external carbonic anhydrase we used protoplasts of low $CO₂$ C. reinhardtii which were washed free of external carbonic anhydrase activity. The results presented in this paper will show that both $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ are actively taken up from the medium but that $CO₂$ is preferentially used. Further, we shall present evidence that the function of external carbonic anhydrase is to supply the cells with free $CO₂$.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Growth of Algae

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (Dangeard) strain 11/32b (obtained from the Sammlung fiir Algenkulturen, Gottingen, FRG) was grown in 50 mL glass tubes at 32°C in a medium described by Kreuzberg et al. (12), except that 50 mm TAPS was added in order to maintain pH 8.0. The cultures were either gassed with air (low $CO₂$ cells) or with air enriched with 5% $CO₂$ (high $CO₂$ cells). During growth, the algae were continuously illuminated by a PFR of 150 μ mol photons m⁻² s^{-1} .

Preparation of Cells and Protoplasts

For each measurement, an aliquot of algae containing about $30 \mu g$ of total Chl was harvested and washed three times by centrifugation in 1 mL of 25 mm BTP/HCl buffer (pH 8.0). This buffer contained only small amounts (15 μ M) of DIC (14).

For preparations of protoplasts, an aliquot of low $CO₂$ grown cells (total Chl about 30 μ g) was harvested, washed in ²⁵ mm Hepes KOH (pH 7.8), and incubated in ⁵ mL of autolysin which was prepared according to Schlösser et al. (22). At room temperature protoplast formation was completed within 10 min. Isolated protoplasts were washed six times in ¹ mL BTP/HCl-buffer (pH 8.0) to ensure complete removal of external carbonic anhydrase activity (Fig. 1).

Fluorometry

Fluorescence measurements were carried out with a pulse modulated Chl fluorometer (24) at the same time as $O₂$ and $13CO₂$ exchanges were measured by MS. The pulsed measuring beam (100 kHz) and the actinic light to drive ${}^{13}CO_2$ uptake and O_2 evolution were about 1 and 220 μ mol photons m^{-2} s⁻¹, respectively. The latter was provided by a tungstenhalogen projector lamp. The oxidation state of Q was monitored at 10 s intervals with a high intensity light flash (1600 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) for 1 s. F_{max} was obtained by pulsing dark adapted cells with one single high intensity light flash and the quenching coefficients for photochemical (q_0) and nonphotochemical (q_E) fluorescence quenching were calculated using the formulas of Schreiber et al. (24).

Mass Spectrometry

The uptake of ${}^{13}CO_2$ (m/e = 45) and the release of O₂ (m/ $e = 32$) by cells and protoplasts were continuously recorded

using the closed system described by Miller et al. (16). It consists of a water-jacketed cuvette which is coupled to a magnetic sector MS (VG Gas Analysis, model MM 14-80 SC; Middlewitch, England) via an aqueous membrane inlet system.

Washed cells and protoplasts were resuspended in ⁶ mL BTP/HCl-Buffer (pH 8.0; final Chl content 4-6 μ g mL⁻¹) and introduced into the cuvette thermostated at 30°C. The chamber was closed with a plexiglas stopper which contained a small capillary and was darkened for temperature equilibration. The suspension was continuously stirred during the measurements.

Measurements of Carbonic Anhydrase

The activity of external carbonic anhydrase was monitored by MS by following the time course of ${}^{13}CO_2$ formation after addition of K_2 ¹³CO₃. The chamber was filled in the dark at 30° C with 6 mL of BTP/HCl buffer (pH = 8.0) containing the cell material (final Chl concentration = $4-6 \mu g$ mL⁻¹) and closed. Subsequently, 3 μ L of K₂¹³CO₃ stock solution (100 mM) were added to yield an initial concentration of 50 μ M and the increase in the signal at mass $45(^{13}CO₂)$ was followed. For a further comparison, buffer without cells was measured either in the absence or presence of bovine carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL^{-1}).

Chemicals

Bovine carbonic anhydrase and BTP were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. K_2 ¹³CO₂ (99 atom % ¹³C) was purchased from MSD Isotopes, Montreal, Canada. Other chemicals were of reagent grade.

RESULTS

The possibility of measuring selective $CO₂$ uptake by mass spectrometry $(2, 16)$ in low $CO₂$ grown C. reinhardtii is complicated by the presence of an external carbonic anhydrase (trace b, Fig. 1). This activity could be abolished by addition of 50 μ M AZA, a potent inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase (trace e, Fig. 1) where the rate of $CO₂$ formation was similar to that in BTP buffer without cells (trace c, Fig. 1). Similar to AZA treated low $CO₂$ cells, high $CO₂$ grown algae and washed protoplasts from low $CO₂$ grown C. reinhardtii did not show any measurable carbonic anhydrase activity (traces d and f, Fig. 1). The initial rates of $CO₂$ appearance in traces c to f (Fig. 1) showed a rate constant k_D of 0.88×10^{-3} s^{-1} , which is in close agreement to values reported previously $(6, 16)$ for the uncatalyzed dehydration of HCO₃⁻.

To examine the ability for $CO₂$ uptake, cells and protoplasts were illuminated after being incubated in the dark for several minutes with 50 μ M K₂¹³CO₃ (0.8 μ M ¹³CO₂ at pH 8.0). High $CO₂$ cells could use the inorganic carbon only to a small degree (trace d, Fig. 2), whereas low $CO₂$ algae were more effective (trace b, Fig. 2) indicating a higher affinity for DIC. This is supported by the $K_{1/2}$ (DIC) values which were 12 μ M DIC (0.19 μ M CO₂ at pH 8.0) and 332 μ M DIC (5.2 μ M CO₂ at pH 8.0) for low and high $CO₂$ cells, respectively (not shown). When 50 μ M AZA was added to low CO₂ cells to inhibit the

Figure 1. Time course of ${}^{13}CO₂$ formation in the dark after injection of 50 μ m K₂¹³CO₃ (DIC) as measured by mass spectrometry at 30^oC and pH 8.0. a, BTP-buffer + carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL $^{-1}$); b, low CO₂ grown cells; c, 25 mm BTP/HCI buffer; d, high CO₂ grown cells; e, low CO₂ grown cells treated with 50 μ M AZA; f, washed protoplasts from low $CO₂$ grown cells.

Figure 2. Measurement of $^{13}CO₂$ uptake by mass spectrometry during illumination at pH 8.0 in the presence of 50 μ M K₂¹³CO₂ (0.8) μ M ¹³CO₂). b, Low CO₂ grown cells; d, high CO₂ grown cells; e, AZA (50 μ M) treated low CO₂ grown cells; f, washed protoplasts from low CO₂ grown cells; g, washed protoplasts from low CO₂ grown cells incubated with carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL^{-1}).

external carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 1) a rapid decrease in the extracellular ${}^{13}CO_2$ concentration was observed (trace e, Fig. 2). A similar drop of the external ${}^{13}CO_2$ content was obtained with washed protoplasts of low $CO₂$ algae (trace f, Fig. 2) which did not possess external carbonic anhydrase activity (Fig. 1). However, this latter result with washed protoplasts could be changed to a pattern similar to that observed with

low $CO₂$ cells by the addition of bovine carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL^{-1} ; trace g, Fig. 2).

In order to investigate the nature of the rapid ${}^{13}CO_2$ disappearance from the external medium, further experiments were conducted with washed protoplasts from low $CO₂$ cells. Complications due to AZA, such as possible inhibition of intracellular carbonic anhydrase (29) could thus be avoided.

After a period of ${}^{13}CO_2$ uptake in the light, darkening of the protoplasts resulted in a reappearance of ${}^{13}CO_2$ in the medium (Fig. 3A). Estimation of the velocity by which ${}^{13}CO_2$ was formed after darkening (Fig. 3A) led to a k_D value similar to that for spontaneous dehydration of $HCO₃⁻$ to $CO₂$ (Fig. 1). Thus, the reappearance of ${}^{13}CO_2$ in the medium upon darkening was due mainly to reequilibration of the $HCO₃⁻/$ $CO₂$ system. Addition of carbonic anhydrase in the light caused a rapid increase in the ${}^{13}CO_2$ concentration in the external medium (Fig. 3B) indicating a disequilibrium of the $HCO₃⁻/CO₂$ system prior to carbonic anhydrase addition similar to that observed in cyanobacteria (6, 16). Because the fixation period (1.5 min) was short, dark respiration was not likely to contribute to the reappearance of ${}^{13}CO_2$ and because of the kinetics in the absence and presence of carbonic anhydrase, leakage of ${}^{13}CO_2$ from the internal pool could at most make a minor contribution to the reappearance of ${}^{13}CO_2$.

Since carbonic anhydrase catalyzes a fast equilibration between HCO_3^- and CO_2 , it appears from these results that at least one function of carbonic anhydrase is to ensure the availability of $CO₂$. In order to check this hypothesis, we compared the O_2 evolution, CO_2 uptake, and fluorescence quenching patterns of whole cells and protoplasts (Figs. 4-6).

Figure 3. Time courses of ${}^{13}CO_2$ uptake by washed protoplasts of low CO₂ cells of C. reinhardtii. Protoplasts were incubated with 50 μ M K₂¹³CO₃ (0.8 μ M ¹³CO₂) for several minutes in the dark. The transport of $13CO₂$ was induced by switching the light on as indicated (L). Reequilibration was achieved by: A, dark; B, addition of carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL^{-1}). Each horizontal and vertical bar represents 10 s and 0.16 μ M ¹³CO₂, respectively.

In the presence of 50 μ M DIC, low CO₂ cells reached CO₂ compensation (about 50-60 nm $CO₂$) within 8 min following illumination (Fig. 4). This was indicated by the cessation of $O₂$ evolution and $CO₂$ uptake. Simultaneously, the nonphotochemical quenching (q_E) drastically increased from 0.2 (at maximal photosynthesis) to 0.76 (at $CO₂$ compensation) which is indicative of an enhanced thylakoid membrane energization at $CO₂$ limitation (24). The photochemical quenching (q_O) was not affected over the same time period.

In the presence of carbonic anhydrase, rapid equilibration between HCO_3^- and CO_2 occurs, and the $[CO_2]$ measured by MS then represents the uptake of total DIC. At ^a known pH $(pH = 8.0)$, it is possible to calculate rates of DIC uptake from the decline of the CO₂ trace. DIC uptake was 93 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ and O₂ evolution was 108 μ mol mh⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ in low $CO₂$ cells (Fig. 4). When protoplasts were incubated with carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL^{-1}), they exhibited similar rates (93 and 102 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) of DIC uptake and O_2 evolution (Fig. 5) as low CO_2 cells (Fig. 4). The fluorescence yield pattern in protoplasts with carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 5) was essentially the same as that in whole

Figure 4. Changes in the fluorescence, ${}^{13}CO_2$ concentration and total $O₂$ content during illumination in low $CO₂$ cells of C. reinhardtii in the presence of 50 μ m DIC. The coefficients q_0 and $q_{\rm E}$ are indicated when maximal photosynthesis, declining photosynthesis and CO₂ compensation occurred. The fluorescence yield of dark-adapted cells after the first light flash was taken as F_{max} according to Schreiber et al. (24). Numbers in parentheses indicate the rates of total DIC uptake and O_2 evolution expressed as μ mol mg⁻¹ Chi h⁻¹. Horizontal bars represent 1 min and the vertical bar indicates $0.16 \mu \text{m CO}_2$ and 9.2μ μ M O₂, respectively.

Figure 5. Changes in fluorescence, ${}^{13}CO_2$ concentration and total O_2 content during illumination by washed protoplasts of C. reinhardtii in the presence of 50 μ m DIC and carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL⁻¹). Horizontal bars represent 1 min and the vertical bar indicates 0.16 μ M CO₂ and 8 μ M O₂, respectively. For further details see Figure 4.

cells (Fig. 4) showing an increase in q_E when the CO₂ compensation point was approached. Again, q_Q was little changed.

Figure 6 shows the changes of fluorescence yield and ${}^{13}CO_2$ and $O₂$ concentrations during photosynthesis in the absence and presence of carbonic anhydrase by washed protoplasts. Without carbonic anhydrase, $\rm ^{13}CO_2$ was initially taken up at a rate of about 16 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ (since CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ were not in equilibrium this rate cannot be expressed in terms of DIC). Simultaneously, $O₂$ was evolved but at a lower rate (83 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) than with whole cells and carbonic anhydrase-treated protoplasts (Figs. 4 and 5). Before addition of carbonic anhydrase, the rate of $O₂$ production had declined to 46 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Oxygen evolution increased about 2.5-fold after addition of carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 6). Carbonic anhydrase reequilibrated the $CO₂/HCO₃$ system and this reequilibration indicated that about one-half of the initial [DIC] (50 μ M) had been taken up and fixed by the cells.

As was observed for the $CO₂$ and $O₂$ gas exchanges, the fluorescence yield patterns also responded to the addition of carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 6). Without carbonic anhydrase, q_E was relatively high ($q_E = 0.45$) 2 min after onset of illumination (Fig. 6) compared to whole cells and carbonic anhydrase treated protoplasts (Figs. 4 and 5). It slowly increased during $CO₂$ depletion and cessation of $O₂$ evolution and reached 0.58

Figure 6. Changes in fluorescence, ${}^{13}CO_2$ concentration and total O_2 content during illumination of washed protoplasts from C. reinhardtii. Five and one-half min after onset of illumination carbonic anhydrase (50 Wilbur-Anderson units mL-1) was added as indicated. The quenching coefficients q_Q and q_E are shown for maximal and limited photosynthesis before and after carbonic anhydrase addition. Horizontal bars represent 1 min and the vertical bar indicates $0.16 \mu m$ $CO₂$ and 8 μ M $O₂$, respectively. For further details see Figure 4. The initial rate of $CO₂$ uptake was 16.3 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹.

just before the addition of carbonic anhydrase. After addition of carbonic anhydrase, q_E immediately declined to 0.29 within 1 min. Thereafter, it increased to 0.74 at $CO₂$ compensation. The q_Q was little changed by carbonic anhydrase addition (Fig. 6). The q_E was always about 0.75 when CO_2 compensation was reached (Figs. 4-6).

DISCUSSION

The adaptation of C. reinhardtii to low DIC concentrations is accompanied by an increased affinity for DIC (5), which is correlated with increased levels of carbonic anhydrase (10) and an increased ability to actively accumulate DIC (4, 18, 20, 25). Most of the carbonic anhydrase activity that appears is due to increased amounts of extracellular carbonic anhydrase (10). It has been suggested that the function of the external carbonic anhydrase is to provide the cells with $CO₂$ (8, 18, 20, 28) but photosynthesis could be sustained when the external carbonic anhydrase was inhibited (13, 29). The question of the role of the external carbonic anhydrase is strongly associated with the question of which DIC species is taken up by the cells. Some authors (18-20, 28) propose that only $CO₂$ diffuses across the plasmalemma but other authors propose that both $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ may be actively accumulated (13, 25, 29).

Removal of the extracellular carbonic anhydrase activity is necessary in order to investigate which forms of DIC are transported into the cells (6, 7, 16). This was accomplished by two methods. In the first method the cells were treated with AZA, a potent inhibitor of carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 1, trace e). In the second method protoplasts were made from low CO₂ cells and washed extensively until no carbonic anhydrase activity could be detected (Fig. 1, trace f).

In the absence of external carbonic anhydrase, cells and protoplasts rapidly removed $CO₂$ from the medium with an initial rate of about 16 μ mol CO₂ mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ (Figs. 2, 3, 6). $CO₂$ uptake occurred faster than $CO₂$ could be supplied to the medium by $HCO₃⁻$ dehydration and the $CO₂$ concentration dropped to the level of the $CO₂$ compensation point (50-60) nm $CO₂$). That the $CO₂/HCO₃⁻$ system was removed from equilibrium was shown by the increase in mass 45 ($^{13}CO_3$) upon addition of carbonic anhydrase (Figs. 3B and 6). Maintenance of the $CO₂/HCO₃⁻$ system out of equilibrium cannot be explained by simple diffusion of $CO₂$ across the plasma membrane (18-20, 25, 28) but could only occur by the input of energy, presumably to a $CO₂$ transport system.

The specific and rapid removal of $CO₂$ by protoplasts cannot be attributed to passive uptake of $CO₂$ into a more alkaline compartment because the external pH of 8.0 was higher than the intracellular pH values (7.1-7.5) that have been reported $(4, 25)$, and such a mechanism of initial $CO₂$ removal could not maintain the $CO₂/HCO₃$ system out of equilibrium for any length of time. It also cannot be attributed to fixation by Rubisco because with a $K_m(CO_2)$ of 57 μ M (5) the activity of this enzyme would be slight at the $CO₂$ concentration of 0.8 μ M and of even less significance at the CO₂ compensation point of 50 to 60 nm $CO₂$. Moreover, high $CO₂$ cells without carbonic anhydrase activity (Fig. 1) could not remove $CO₂$ from the medium (Fig. 2) even though the $K_m(CO_2)$ of Rubisco in these cells is similar to that in low $CO₂$ cells and the total activity is higher (5).

The location of active $CO₂$ transport is not known, and results such as those presented would be obtained if a $CO₂$ transporter(s) was located either on the plasma membrane or the chloroplast envelope or both. The results could also be obtained through the diffusion of $CO₂$ to the cytoplasm, rapid conversion to $HCO₃^-$, and active transport of $HCO₃^-$ at the chloroplast envelope if the rate of transport of $HCO₃⁻$ at the chloroplast envelope was sufficient to maintain the $HCO₃$ concentration in the cytoplasm at a level less than $1 \mu M$. Such a low concentration would be required to obtain a cytoplasmic CO2 concentration that would maintain the diffusion gradient for $CO₂$ from the external medium where the $CO₂$ concentration is about 50 nm. Such a mechanism would require an extremely efficient $HCO₃⁻$ transporter in the chloroplast envelope. While we think this mechanism is unlikely, until the capability of the chloroplast for inorganic carbon transport is known, the possibility cannot be ruled out.

The possibility of active $CO₂$ transport by *Chlamydomonas* was proposed by Marcus et al. (13) and Williams and Turpin (29). The latter authors demonstrated that low $CO₂$ cells treated with AZA accumulated DIC up to ²⁵ times the external DIC concentration. In terms of $CO₂$ the accumulation was at least 100-fold the external $CO₂$ concentration assuming an internal pH of 7.5 (25), internal equilibrium between CO_2 and HCO_3^- , and an external CO_2 content of 0.8 μ M. The internal DIC pool reached a maximum value within 30 ^s after the onset of illumination (29), which is the same as the time course of the rapid $CO₂$ uptake by AZA-treated cells and protoplasts (Figs. 2, 3, and 6). Thus, the observed $CO₂$ transport undoubtedly occurred against a concentration gradient. Since there is no reason to assume that the fast $CO₂$ disappearance of AZA-treated cells is different from that observed with carbonic anhydrase free protoplasts, we conclude from the present data that $CO₂$ transport is an active uptake mechanism coupled to metabolic energy. Preliminary studies with inhibitors suggest that it is photosynthetic electron flow rather than mitochondrial respiration which is involved in providing the energy for the $CO₂$ transport (DF Siiltemeyer, unpublished results).

The measurement of fluorescence showed that inorganic carbon transport and fixation primarily affected nonphotochemical quenching (q_E) rather than photochemical quenching (q_o) (Figs. 4, 5, and 6). As expected (11, 24) q_E was smaller when carbon was available for fixation and increased to a high value (0.75) when the inorganic carbon supply was exhausted (Figs. 4, 5, and 6). In the absence (Fig. 6) of carbonic anhydrase, q_E was larger (0.45) than in the presence (Fig. 5) of carbonic anhydrase (0.16) about 2 min after the start of the experiment, indicating that the DIC was not as effectively used when carbonic anhydrase was not present. The decrease in q_E to 0.29 when carbonic anhydrase was added to the protoplasts (Fig. 6) supports this view. When the $[CO₂]$ in the medium was close to zero before the addition of carbonic anhydrase (Fig. 6), q_E only increased to 0.58 and not to 0.75, the value that was observed when all the inorganic carbon had been used (Figs. 4 and 5). This value (0.58) probably reflects not only the use of $CO₂$ formed from the dehydration of $HCO₃⁻$ but also the direct transport and utilization of the $HCO₃$ ion. The small changes in photochemical quenching (q_Q) are puzzling. The high values of q_Q (0.54-0.75), even at the $CO₂$ compensation point, indicate that oxidized Q was available and that there still must exist a substantial flow of electrons from it to an oxidant. In the absence of inorganic carbon, a high rate of O_2 uptake was observed in C. reinhardtii (27) suggesting that, in these circumstances, oxygen may be reduced as has been proposed for higher plants (23).

In the absence of carbonic anhydrase, the rates of $CO₂$ uptake measured with Chlamydomonas (Fig. 6) were similar to those reported for cyanobacteria under similar conditions (6, 16). Unfortunately, it is not yet possible to prevent the use of $HCO₃$ ⁻ in *Chlamydomonas*, and the rate of $O₂$ evolution (83 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) compared to the rate of CO₂ use (16) μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) suggests that in *Chlamydomonas* the direct uptake of the $HCO₃⁻$ ion contributed about 4 times as much carbon to photosynthesis as did the $CO₂$. The direct transport of $HCO₃⁻$ was also supported by the high rate of $O₂$ evolution (46 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) that was observed when the $[CO₂]$ had been reduced to close to zero (Fig. 6, just before addition of carbonic anhydrase). Under these conditions the maximum rate of $CO₂$ supply from the spontaneous dehydra-

tion of $HCO₃⁻$ (calculated according to Espie *et al.* [61] could only be responsible for about 29% of the observed rate of $O₂$ evolution, again suggesting that the transport of $HCO₃⁻$ ion supplied the additional carbon. Consequently, while we have directly demonstrated the active transport of $CO₂$ (Figs. 2, 3, and 6), our results are fully consistent with earlier publications $(8, 13, 29)$ that suggested the active transport of both $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ in *Chlamydomonas* and other green algae.

In the presence of carbonic anhydrase where $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$ ⁻ are kept in equilibrium, it is impossible to determine the proportion of photosynthesis sustained by $CO₂$ transport and that sustained by $HCO₃⁻$ transport. In the absence of carbonic anhydrase, when the $CO₂$ concentration was less than 0.1 μ M (Fig. 6, just before the addition of carbonic anhydrase), the maximum rate of $CO₂$ supply by spontaneous dehydration of $HCO₃⁻$ (78 nmol mL⁻¹ h⁻¹) could only support 29% of the observed rate of photosynthesis (273 nmol mL^{-1}) h^{-1}). In these circumstances, $HCO₃⁻$ transport was presumably supplying the remaining carbon for photosynthesis. As has been discussed previously (6) , the proportion of $CO₂$ or $HCO₃$ ⁻ that will be used by the cells for photosynthesis will not be constant but will depend upon the availability of each species. The availability of each species will, in turn, depend upon the DIC concentration, the pH, and the presence or absence of carbonic anhydrase. The proportion of $CO₂$ or $HCO₃⁻$ used will also depend upon whether or not there is a separate transporter for each species and the affinity and maximum capacity of the transporters.

Although Palmqvist et al. (21) used a method for measuring DIC uptake that depends upon external carbonic anhydrase maintaining the $CO₂/HCO₃$ equilibrium, they and other authors (1, 18, 20, 25, 28, 29) have questioned the essentiality of the external carbonic anhydrase to photosynthesis of low $CO₂$ grown *Chlamydomonas* and other green algae. Our results show that, indeed, the external carbonic anhydrase was not essential for a measurable rate of photosynthesis (Fig. 6, just before the addition of carbonic anhydrase) and, of course, it would not be required at all in the special case where, because of low cell density or low photosynthetic rates (29), the rate of $CO₂$ removal from the medium was equal to or less than the rate of spontaneous dehydration of $HCO₃⁻$ to CO2. But, in our experimental conditions, when carbonic anhydrase was added, the rate of photosynthesis was more than doubled (Fig. 6, just after addition of carbonic anhydrase) and the rate of photosynthesis at the beginning of the experiments was 25% higher when carbonic anhydrase was present (Figs. 4 and 5) than when carbonic anhydrase was absent (Fig. 6). These results, then, show that while the external carbonic anhydrase is not essential for photosynthesis of low $CO₂$ grown Chlamydomonas, it is essential for the maintenance of maximum rates of photosynthesis under low DIC conditions by ensuring that both the $CO₂$ transporter and the $HCO₃⁻$ transporter are operating at their maximum capacity under the existing conditions. In the absence of external carbonic anhydrase, the $CO₂$ transporter could be limited by a lack of substrate so that, as Findenegg (8) stated, the external carbonic anhydrase is "an important factor in the regulation of the use of $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ for photosynthesis."

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