Partitioning of CO₂ Fixation in the Colonial Cyanobacterium Microcystis aeruginosa: Mechanism Promoting Formation of Surface Scums

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Constraints on inorganic carbon (C_i) availability stimulated buoyancy in natural, photosynthetically active populations of the colonial blue-green alga (cyanobacterium) Microcystis aeruginosa. In nonmixed eutrophic river water and cultures, O₂ evolution determinations indicated C_i limitation of photosynthesis, which was overcome either by CO_2 additions to the aqueous phase or by exposure of buoyant colonies to atmospheric CO₂. Microautoradiographs of *M. aeruginosa* colonies revealed partitioning of ¹⁴CO₂ fixation and photosynthate accumulation between peripheral and internal cells, particularly in large colonies. When illuminated colonies were suspended in the aqueous phase, peripheral cells accounted for at least 90% of the ¹⁴CO₂ assimilation, whereas internal cells remained unlabeled. However, when ¹⁴CO₂ was allowed to diffuse into colonies 15 min before illumination, a more uniform distribution of labeling was observed. Resultant differences in labeling patterns were most likely due to peripheral cells more exclusively utilizing CO_2 when ambient C_i concentrations were low. Among colonies located at the air-water interface, internal cells showed an increased share of photosynthate production when atmospheric ${}^{14}CO_2$ was supplied. This indicated that C_i transport was restricted in large colonies below the water surface, forcing internal cells to maintain a high degree of buoyancy, thus promoting the formation of surface scums. At the surface, C_i restrictions were alleviated. Accordingly, scum formation appears to have an ecological function, allowing cyanobacteria access to atmospheric CO₂ when the C_i concentration is growth limiting in the water column.

Recent independent studies have critically examined the role that inorganic carbon (C_i) availability plays in promoting aquatic blue-green algal (cyanobacterial) blooms (5, 7, 12, 13). Blooms can lead to the formation of surface scums, which are of environmental concern, because a rapid deterioration in water quality often results. Walsby (15) and Reynolds and Walsby (12) attributed scumming to excess buoyancy brought on by intracellular gas vacuole formation. The major freshwater scum-forming genera Anabaena, Aphanizomenon, Microcystis, and marine Oscillatoria (Trichodesmium) all exhibit gas vacuolation. Buoyancy regulation has been linked to cellular turgor pressure; when turgor pressure is high, gas vacuolation, and thus buoyancy, is low, whereas low turgor pressure promotes gas vacuolation (12). Cellular turgor pressure is controlled by the production of osmotically active substances, the foremost of which are recently produced products of photosynthesis (photosynthate). Hence, when photosynthate pools are depleted, gas vacuola-

tion commonly increases in these genera (4, 16). Control of photosynthesis is, therefore, a potential mechanism for explaining buoyancy regulation and resultant scum formation. The three most commonly observed environmental constraints on photosynthesis are: (i) photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) availability, (ii) nutrient (most often nitrogen and phosphorus) availability, and (iii) access to a source of CO_2 . In focusing on the relationship (in either time or space) of these factors to buoyancy, some relevant information exists. Previous studies have shown that PAR requirements of natural cyanobacterial populations are similar to those of eucaryotic phytoplankton (12). Therefore, it seems unlikely that unusual PAR requirements might initiate the dramatic surface accumulations reported in aquatic environments. Field studies revealed that diel surface scum appearances of Anabaena and Microcystis populations were poorly related to PAR intensity in a variety of nutrient-rich Canadian and New Zealand lakes (6). Booker and Walsby (1) subsequently

showed that, although minimal PAR intensities were essential for eliciting photosynthetically driven buoyancy alteration, the diffusion of CO₂ into Anabaena cultures ultimately limited buoyancy regulation. Later, we (10) observed that buoyancy alteration in natural Anabaena and Microcystis populations was independent of the intensity or direction of PAR and the magnitudes of nitrogen and phosphorus enrichment but heavily dependent on ambient pH and C_i concentrations. In a separate study, Klemer et al. (8) reported that limitation of the C_i concentration enhanced buoyancy (independent of PAR), whereas limitation of nitrogen decreased buoyancy in Oscillatoria populations. Collectively, these recent studies point to C_i concentration constraints, and particularly to CO₂ availability, as a potential environmental factor promoting cyanobacterial surface scums. This possibility was examined in natural and laboratory populations of Microcystis aeruginosa.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The colonial genus Microcystis is extremely buoyant and prolific during blooms (12). Because of this it was chosen as a relevant genus. Natural M. aeruginosa populations were taken from surface waters of the Neuse River, North Carolina, a slow-flowing eutrophic river currently receiving excessive nitrogen and phosphorus loading, while having relatively low C_i concentrations ranging from 1 to 5 mg of $\dot{C} \cdot \text{liter}^{-1}$ (1,000 to 5,000 ppb). During sampling, M. aeruginosa accounted for 92% of the phytoplankton biomass, typical of monospecific blooms in the Neuse River. Excessive buoyancy was observed in M. aeruginosa throughout summer bloom periods. In situ primary productivity measurements made during sampling periods indicated that surface populations had high photosynthetic rates, revealing maximal specific (per unit of chlorophyll a) rates of CO₂ fixation when compared with subsurface populations (H. W. Paerl, J. Tucker, and P. T. Bland, Limnol. Oceanogr., in press). This indicated that scums were formed by actively growing populations. Surface populations were successfully grown in xenic 500-ml batch laboratory cultures, using ASM-J (11) medium at 28°C and 700 microeinsteins of PAR (cool white fluorescent) $\cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$. To detect constraints on C_i concentration availability, O₂ evolution was monitored in response to CO2 enrichment in triplicate filled and sealed 125-ml glass jars, each fitted with a magnetic stirrer, a pH electrode (Fisher Scientific Co. combination type), and a Clark-type O_2 electrode (YSI Co. model 5750). A 0.005 M Tris buffer addition was made through a septum in the polyethylene jar lid to minimize pH shifts after CO₂ additions. By stabilizing pH conditions, the effects of CO₂ additions on photosynthesis could be examined independent of pH influences. This Tris concentration assured effective buffering without significantly altering O₂ evolution rates (10). A 700-microeinstein $\cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ PAR source was provided for illumination. The chlorophyll a content of M. aeruginosa was determined for colonies sonically disrupted in 90% acetone. Spectrophotometric absorbances entered into a trichromatic

formula were used to quantify chlorophyll *a* concentrations (2).

The assimilation of ¹⁴CO₂ in similar-size jars was followed by microautoradiography. NaH14CO3 (5 µCi; Amersham Corp.), having a specific activity of 58 $mCi \cdot mmol^{-1}$, was injected into the jar, followed by incubation identical to that of O₂ evolution experiments. Additions of NaH14CO3 were made both before and during illuminated periods to examine the diffusion of ¹⁴CO₂ into colonies under light and dark conditions. Formalin (2% [vol/vol])-killed suspensions were treated identically to live samples as a check on abiotic ¹⁴C retention by colonies, as well as on chemography and background labeling in microautoradiographs. In additional experiments, jars were partially filled with M. aeruginosa suspensions, leaving 60 ml of headspace. A 2.5-µCi ¹⁴CO₂ (generated from NaH¹⁴CO₃) sample was added to the headspace and was incubated. Microautoradiographs were prepared by gravity filtering 1.5-ml subsamples of suspension on 25-mm HA membrane filters (Millipore Corp.). Suspensions were allowed to filter for 1 to 2 min until approximately 2 mm of liquid remained on top of the filter. Filters were then quickly placed on 25-mmdiameter metal stubs and immersed in liquid N_2 , followed by thin sectioning and freeze-dry fixation. Sectioning was performed immediately on the frozen concentrate left on each filter. Frozen stubs were mounted in a cooled (-20°C) International Cryostat CTI sectioning apparatus, in which 10-µm-thick sections were cut, followed by freeze-drying. Dried sections were then placed on clean HA Millipore filters, which were optically cleared by exposure for 1 s to acetone fumes (9). This technique has been shown to be ideal for retention of fixed ¹⁴C as well as preservation of phytoplankton cell integrity, including gas vacuoles (H. W. Paerl, manuscript in preparation). Microautoradiographs were prepared from filters by a thin-emulsion-layer grain density technique described by Paerl and Stull (9). Isotopic labeling was observed both on a colony-wide basis ($\times 200$) and at the cellular level (×1,000) with a phase-contrast Zeiss model K research-grade microscope having oil immersion objectives. Photomicrographs were recorded on Illford Pan-F film developed with Agfa Rodinal, an ultrafine grain developer. Because autoradiographic emulsions and Microcystis sections were situated in different planes, high-magnification photography generally proved to be difficult. Accordingly, low-magnification photographs revealing acceptable colony, as well as silver grain, development detail were used for illustrative purposes. In interpreting microautoradiographs, background exposure and potential chemography were taken into consideration. The number of silver grains exposed per cell was used as a measure of relative photosynthetic activities in various regions of colonies. Silver grains appearing within a 3-µm distance of cells minus background grain development were considered in evaluating cellular radioactivity (9)

Earlier experiments with natural and laboratory Anabaena populations revealed increased buoyancy in response to CO_2 depletion (10). Similar experiments were conducted with both natural and cultured *M*. *aeruginosa* populations. Buoyancy responses were tested by distributing a homogeneous sample among a set of 200-ml Pyrex graduated cylinders, each cylinder



FIG. 1. O₂ evolution and pH changes in freshly sampled Neuse River surface water dominated by M. aeruginosa colonies incubated in filled jars (no headspace). M. aeruginosa accounted for 92% of phytoplankton biomass at this time. The chlorophyll a content was 3.80 mg \cdot liter⁻¹. At point A (0 min), jars were sealed and measurements were initiated. The effects of C_i availability on photosynthesis became apparent within 12 min. At this point (B), CO₂ at 5 mg of C \cdot liter⁻¹ was introduced through a septum, and an immediate stimulation of O₂ evolution followed. The slope of CO₂-stimulated O₂ evolution proved to be 2.7 times the slope of O_2 evolution, given natural C_i conditions. The pH remained virtually constant during O₂ evolution measurements due to Tris buffering; however, a slight gradual decline in pH was observed (due to CO_2 hydration) after the time of CO_2 enrichment.

containing 150 ml of river or culture water. Cylinders were illuminated from all sides by a 700-microeinstein \cdot m⁻² \cdot s⁻¹ PAR source (cool white fluorescent) to avoid vertical illumination gradients. Contents of all cylinders were buffered to pH 9 with 0.005 M Tris. A range of NaHCO₃ concentrations was then added, in triplicate, for each concentration. Relative buoyancy changes were measured by sampling the upper 10 ml of each cylinder for chlorophyll *a* accumulation after 1 h of exposure to each NaHCO₃ concentration.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Oxygen evolution determinations were used to test for C_i concentration constraints on photosynthesis. In filled jars, freshly sampled *M. aeruginosa* populations immediately exhibited constraints in C_i concentration availability significant enough to impair photosynthetic O evolution. Oxygen evolution rates at natural C_i concentrations determined within 1 min after sealing the jars were consistently lower than rates after CO₂ additions (CO₂ was added to bring the C_i concentration from 2.1 to 7.1 mg of $C \cdot \text{liter}^{-1}$) (Fig. 1). Triplicate assays gave excellent agreement, with O₂ evolution rates under both natural C_i concentrations and CO₂-amended conditions having standard errors not exceed-

TABLE 1. Oxygen evolution rates in freshly
sampled M. aeruginosa populations exposed to a
natural C _i concentration, which was 2.1 mg of
$C \cdot liter^{-1}$, and equimolar additions (5 mg of
$C \cdot liter^{-1}$) of various C sources ^a

Treatment	$\begin{array}{c} O_2 \text{ evolution} \\ \text{rate (mg } O_2 \cdot \text{mg} \\ \text{of chlorophyll} \\ a^{-1} \cdot h^{-1})^b \end{array}$
Natural C _i concn	4.45 ± 0.15
CO_2 addition of 5 mg of C \cdot liter ⁻¹	11.12 ± 0.12
HCO_3^- addition of 5 mg of C \cdot liter ⁻¹	6.91 ± 0.23
CO_3^{2-} addition of 5 mg of C \cdot liter ⁻¹	4.65 ± 0.18

 a A 0.005 M Tris addition was used to buffer suspensions at pH 8.50. All rate measurements were made during the first 3 min of exposure to various C_{i} regimes.

^b Standard errors of triplicate determinations are given.

ing $\pm 1.5\%$ (Fig. 1). A paired Student *t* test of O₂ evolution rates revealed a highly significant (*P* < 0.005) difference between natural C_i concentrations and CO₂-amended conditions. Because the time required for CO₂ hydration (CO₂ + H₂O \rightarrow H₂CO₃) is relatively long (the time required for half a CO₂ addition of 5 mg of C \cdot liter⁻¹ to hydrate in Neuse River water was 4.9 min at 28°C), O₂ evolution rates could be determined within the time required for CO₂ hydration; hence, measurements allowed for direct observations of CO₂ utilization by *M. aeruginosa*.

Additions of HCO_3^- , as NaHCO₃, likewise stimulated O_2 evolution over natural C_i concentration conditions, although to a lesser extent per milligram of carbon liter⁻¹ than CO₂ (Table 1). This is likely because a strong preference for CO₂ over HCO_3^- as a C_i source occurs in *M. aeruginosa* as well as other natural bloom-form-

TABLE 2. Effects of various pH regimes (established by 0.005 M Tris buffering) on O_2 evolution rates after CO₂ enrichment of 5 mg of $C \cdot \text{liter}^{-1}$ to Neuse River water"

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Treatment (pH)	O ₂ evolution rate (mg of O ₂ · mg of chlorophyll $a^{-1} \cdot h^{-1})^b$	
7.20	10.55 ± 0.23	
8.15	$. 10.34 \pm 0.19$	
8.62	$. 10.45 \pm 0.31$	
9.23	10.11 ± 0.43	
10.05	10.16 ± 0.27	
8.15 (no CO_2 addition)	5.02 ± 0.18	

^{*a*} All rate measurements were made during the first 3 min of exposure to CO_2 enrichment.

^b Standard errors of triplicate determinations are given.



FIG. 2. Autoradiographs of ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ assimilation patterns in freeze-sectioned *M. aeruginosa* colonies. (A) Intact Formalin-killed (control) colony sectioned and processed for autoradiography. Note that silver grain development (shown as a darkening of the photographic emulsion overlaying colony sections) is absent in this sample, indicating no chemography or excessive background exposure problems. (B) Small, irregular (linear dimensions, 25 by 75 μ m) colony showing near-uniform ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ assimilation among internal and peripheral cells after 4 h of incubation. Autoradiographic exposures can be seen as a general darkening of photographic emulsion overlaying the colony. (C) Partitioning of ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ assimilation in large (200- μ m-diameter) colonies incubated for 4 h in aqueous medium. Approximately 90% of the silver grain deposition was seen overlaying peripheral cells, whereas internal cells remained virtually free of labeling. (D) Large (185- μ m-diameter) buoyant colony incubated in a jar having a 60-ml headspace supplied with atmospheric ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$. Under these conditions, colonies became more uniformly labeled.

ing cyanobacteria (10). In this study, both forms of C_i enrichment significantly and consistently stimulated photosynthesis in natural *M. aerugin*osa bloom populations. Cultured *M. aeruginosa* revealed similar C_i -limited characteristics.

Since pH changes after CO_2 (and HCO_3^-) additions were within 0.3 U, CO_2 stimulation of O_2 evolution due to pH alterations could probably be ruled out. In an earlier study of cyanobacterial populations in the Chowan River, North Carolina, pH was likewise eliminated as having a significant impact on O_2 evolution (10). The C_i concentration, and specifically the CO_2 , levels present dictated on O_2 evolution rates in these studies. To further examine potential effects of pH changes on O_2 evolution rates, 0.005 M Tris



FIG. 3. Comparison of O_2 evolution and pH changes in *M. aeruginosa* incubated in jars having a 60-ml headspace (+HS) versus no headspace (-HS). The chlorophyll *a* content (3.20 mg · liter⁻¹) was identical for each treatment. Error bars show the variability among triplicate samples.

was employed to create a range of pH regimes typical of Neuse River conditions. After buffering, CO₂ additions of 5 mg of C \cdot liter⁻¹ were made, followed by O₂ evolution rate determinations. Results (Table 2) showed that ambient pH regimes had little consequence on rates of O₂ evolution per unit biomass, whereas the presence of CO₂ enrichment was a dominant factor in enhancing these rates. It is therefore concluded that the C_i concentrations, and specifically the CO₂ concentrations, present in Neuse River water were insufficient for maintaining optimal photosynthetic rates during blooms.

Microautoradiography revealed the fate of ¹⁴CO₂ assimilated by *M. aeruginosa* colonies. Colony diameters varied from 20 to well over 200 μ m, with a weighted mean of 110 μ m. During a 2-h incubation of freshly sampled Neuse River water a contrasting pattern of ¹⁴C labeling was observed between small ($<40-\mu m$) or irregular and large (>40-µm) freeze-sectioned colonies. In suspensions incubated for 15 min with NaH¹⁴CO₃ in the medium, slightly higher labeling (10 to 20%) was observed in peripheral than in internal cells in small or irregular colonies. After 15 min, nearly uniform labeling was observed among all cells in these colonies, and this pattern persisted through 4 h of incubation (Fig. 2B). In terms of silver grain counts per cell corrected for background exposure, peripheral cells averaged from 18 ± 6 grains per cell (outermost layer of cells) to 16 ± 5 grains per cell (inner portions of peripheral regions). Within the same colonies the internal cells averaged 14 ± 3 grains per cell. Large colonies, however, showed a sharp division in labeling between peripheral and internal cells (Fig. 2C). This division remained intact for at least 4 h. Peripheral cells averaged from 20 ± 7 grains per cell (outermost layer) to 12 ± 4 grains per cell (inner portions of peripheral regions). Internal cells averaged from 4 ± 3 grains per cell to no detectable grains per cell in the colony centers. Chemography and abiotic ¹⁴C retention were not detected in any microautoradiographs. Accordingly, no corrections for false exposures were necessary. Microautoradiographs indicated that access to ambient C_i in aqueous medium was restricted in large *M. aeruginosa* colonies. The restrictions were alleviated when ¹⁴CO₂ was supplied in the headspace of jars containing buoyant colonies (Fig. 2D). Thus, when ¹⁴CO₂ was only available in the aqueous phase, major



FIG. 4. Autoradiographs revealing differences in the ${}^{14}CO_2$ assimilation patterns between sectioned *M. aeruginosa* colonies initially exposed to a 15-min dark period after the NaH ${}^{14}CO_3$ addition before illumination (A) and colonies illuminated immediately after the NaH ${}^{14}CO_3$ addition (B).

portions of large *M. aeruginosa* colonies experienced limited access to this carbon source. Even with gentle stirring, the internal cells received only 10 to 15% of the ¹⁴C labeling in peripheral cells. In contrast, ¹⁴CO₂ supplied in the atmospheric phase was more effectively utilized by internal cells. Initial slopes of O₂ evolution were significantly (P < 0.01) higher in jars provided with a 60-ml headspace than in headspace-free jars, substantiating the above CO₂ assimilation results (Fig. 3).

Among large colonies, C_i concentration availability constraints could have been due to photosynthetically active peripheral cells assimilating a bulk of the available ambient CO_2 supplies, thereby impairing diffusive transport of CO_2 to internal cells. By adding NaH¹⁴CO₃ in the dark, such blockage should have been alleviated, allowing free ¹⁴CO₂ to diffuse into the internal regions of colonies. When NaH¹⁴CO₃ was added at the start of a 15-min dark period followed by a 15-min illumination (700-microeinstein $\cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$) period, microautoradiographs of colonies revealed nearly uniform ¹⁴C photosynthate labeling throughout the colonies (Fig. 4). In contrast, when NaH14CO3 was supplied during continuous illuminated periods, peripheral cells became exclusively labeled, as observed in previously discussed field and laboratory samples (Fig. 2 and 4). When Neuse River water was initially enriched with unlabeled NaHCO₃, increasing the C₁ concentration from 2.1 to 10 mg of $C \cdot liter^{-1}$, and NaH¹⁴CO₃ was subsequently added during illuminated periods, ¹⁴C labeling was more uniform throughout large colonies.

The above experiments indicate that CO_2 transport to internal portions of *M. aeruginosa* colonies is constrained when relatively small amounts of the C_i concentration are present in waters supporting actively growing colonies. During periods of vigorous photosynthesis in the Neuse River, CO_2 demands by peripheral cells are high enough to set up a CO_2 diffusion barrier to internal cells. When colonies are situated near atmospheric CO_2 supplies at the air-water interface or when CO_2 is directly added to the aqueous phase, these constraints are minimized.

The degrees of buoyancy were closely related to the C_i concentrations in Neuse River water. At a buffered pH of 9.00, increased C_i concentration enrichment led to a steady decrease in buoyancy (Fig. 5). Hence, gas vacuole formation, the mechanism assuring buoyancy in *Microcystis* populations (14), appeared to be inversely related to C_i availability. Highmagnification views of *Microcystis* colonies sampled from buoyancy experiments substantiated this relationship. Detailed observation of large *Microcystis* colonies also showed differ-



FIG. 5. Buoyancy of freshly sampled *M. aerugino*sa colonies in pH 9.00 Tris-buffered Neuse River water in response to increasing dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) (as HCO_3^{-1}) additions. The natural river dissolved inorganic carbon concentration was 1.8 mg of C · liter⁻¹. Decreased buoyancy, reported here as the decreased chlorophyll a (Chl. a) accumulation in the upper 10 cm of graduated cylinders, occurred with increasing dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations.

ences in degrees of gas vacuolation between peripheral and internal cells (Fig. 6). Since higher photosynthetic activities were confined to peripheral cells (Fig. 2), the finding that gas vacuolation is inversely related to photosynthetic (photosynthate) production (4, 15) can be confirmed in *M. aeruginosa*. Buoyancy among large colonies found in the Neuse River was repeatedly attributable to a high degree of gas vacuolation in internal cells; the same proved to be true in cultures maintained under relatively low C_i concentration conditions. Very large colonies (150 to 300 μ m) constituted a bulk of the surface-dwelling *Microcystis* populations in this river as well as in other freshwater habitats thus far examined (10).

Ecological implications. Autoradiographic and O₂ evolution results point to similar conclusions, namely, that access to naturally occurring C_i and CO_2 can be restricted in *M. aeruginosa* colonies. Such restrictions are likely to be most profound in low C_i concentration and high-nutrient (both nitrogen and phosphorus) systems as typified by the Neuse and other large river systems in eastern North Carolina. To obtain optimal O₂ evolution rates, CO₂ supplementation is necessary (Fig. 1). This implies that photosynthetic performance in natural populations is limited to some extent by CO₂ availability to the internal cells of colonies. The most likely explanation for such limitation of photosynthesis is that CO₂ transport constraints commonly occur in inter-



FIG. 6. Phase-contrast observations of freshly sampled large, freeze-fixed, whole (unsectioned) *M. aeruginosa* colonies. (A) Vacuole-free peripheral cells near the edge of the colony. (B) Highly vacuolated internal cells. Vacuoles appear as bright, white cellular inclusions. Since whole colonies were three-dimensional, cells in the edge of each field are out of the focal plane.

nal portions of colonies. Small or irregular colonies experience minimal problems with regard to CO_2 transport from the ambient environment to internal cells.

Consideration of free CO₂ supplies in aqueous and atmospheric phases is helpful in developing a rationale for scum formation. During calm nonmixed periods, when surface scums occur and a pH of 8.0 to 9.5 characterizes Neuse River water, virtually no free CO₂ would be expected in solution. An influx of "new" CO₂ would have to come from the atmosphere, invading surface waters by molecular diffusion, an extremely slow process (14). The dominant C_i sources under these conditions are HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} . This study, as well as earlier studies, has shown a strong preference for CO_2 over HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} as a photosynthetic carbon source among a variety of cyanobacteria, including Microcystis populations (10). Under such circumstances the atmosphere represents an attractive source of CO₂. At a mean pH of 9.00 and a C_i concentration of 3 mg of C \cdot liter⁻¹ during *M. aerugino*sa blooms in nonmixed Neuse River water, free (CO₂) in the aqueous phase is approximately 0.009 mg of C \cdot liter⁻¹. In contrast, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration is approximately 330 μ g/ml. As a result, during nonmixed periods, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration is at least $10^{\circ} >$ the concentration of river water. This calculation incorporated the assumption that molecular diffusion and microbial recycling were the main routes of CO₂ replenishment in the water column during such bloom periods. The direct utilization of atmospheric CO₂ by Microcystis colonies at the air-water interface would therefore represent an alternative to diffusion-limited transport of CO₂ and the resultant limitation of photosynthesis in nonturbulent aqueous media.

The ¹⁴C labeling patterns and buoyancy characteristics observed here are similar to the observations of Carpenter and Price (3) of marine Oscillatoria (Trichodesmium) colonies. Like Microcystis colonies in stagnant river waters, surface Trichodesmium colonies (trichomes) predominated in calm ocean waters. By autoradiography, they also found that peripheral cells were more heavily labeled with fixed $^{14}CO_2$ than were internal cells, indicating that photosynthate production was largely confined to peripheral cells. They noted that internal cells appeared to be less pigmented than were peripheral cells. Poor pigmentation of internal cells could have been due, in part, to a relatively high proportion of cell volumes being occupied by gas vacuoles. Their findings may therefore be related to the explanation for a high degree of buoyancy in *Microcystis* colonies presented here.

I have presented a rationale, based on microscopic examinations of localized photosynthetic activity, for excessive buoyancy in *Microcystis*

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colonies. Excess buoyancy is most likely a response to CO₂-limited growth conditions, bringing colonies to the air-water interface where atmospheric CO_2 can be readily intercepted and can be utilized by peripheral and internal cells. The persistence of surface blooms, therefore, appears to be an ecological strategy poised at optimizing photosynthetic production. One question this work raises is that if CO₂ transport is restricted to internal cells, then why are all Microcystis colonies not small or irregular to circumvent this limitation. It would seem likely that a large colony size is advantageous for other reasons. Perhaps the inability of zooplankton grazers to consume large colonies and the intimate association of large colonies with attached bacteria and protozoans serve to benefit the survival and proliferation of Microcystis blooms.

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