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The effect of free  $NH_3$  inhibition on short-term photosynthesis was investigated in three microalgal species: the freshwater chlorophyte *Scenedesmus obliquus*, the marine diatom Phaeodactylum tricornutum and the marine chlorophyte Dunaliella tertiolecta. By performing a series of assays at various concentrations of added  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  and culture pH, we demonstrated that the inhibitory compound was free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and that pH played no role in determining the magnitude of inhibition, other than in establishing the degree of dissociation of nontoxic  $NH_4^+$ to toxic  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ . When corrections were made for pH, all three species displayed the same sigmoidal response curve to free NH<sub>3</sub> concentration; 1.2 mM NH<sub>3</sub> led to 50% reduction in photoassimilation of <sup>14</sup>C. Based on literature values, some marine phytoplankton appear to be significantly more sensitive to free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  than were the test species, which are noted for their excellent growth characteristics. However, the combination of low algal biomass and strong pH buffering commonly found in most marine and many freshwater environments probably limits the possibilities for  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity to low alkalinity freshwaters and intensive algal cultures in which  $NH_4^+$  is the main source of N. Such conditions occur commonly in algal wastewater treatment systems.

Although ammonia is thought to be an excellent source of nitrogen for algal growth (13), virtually no distinction is made between ionic  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> and free NH<sub>3</sub> as N sources, and little is known about which chemical species is the substrate for assimilation or how the actual transport into the cell occurs (15). Part of this problem arises because the equilibration between  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> and NH<sub>3</sub> via the reaction

$$
NH_4^+ + OH^- \rightleftharpoons NH_3 + H_2O
$$
  
\n
$$
pK_a = 9.25 (25^{\circ}C)
$$
 (1)

is so rapid that it is impossible to distinguish on the basis of pH which form of N actually is taken up. On the other hand, the uncoupling effect of ammonia on photosynthetic processes in isolated chloroplasts is a well-established phenomenon (3, 5). Inhibitory effects of ammonia on algal growth and photosynthesis have been occasionally reported (1, 2, 14, 16, 17). However, difficulties in separating the effect of pH on the ratio of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  to  $NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>$  from numerous other adverse effects on growth that are related to increasing pH have plagued most researchers. Moreover, virtually no quantitative data exist to relate free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration calculated for pH to the inhibition of algal metabolism. In this study, by

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varying both the pH and the addition of NH4Cl, we examined the effect of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration on carbon assimilation in the freshwater alga Scenedesmus obliquus and two marine algae, Phaedodactylum tricornutum and Dunaliella tertiolecta.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cultures of the marine species Phaeodactylum tricornutum (TFX-1) Bohlin and Dunaliella tertiolecta (Dun) Butcher were obtained from the culture collection of R. R. L. Guillard at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, and the freshwater chlorophyte Scenedesmus obliquus (Turpin) Kützing Kutz was obtained from the laboratory of M. Gibbs at Brandeis University.

Each species was first grown to steady state at different pH values in continuous cultures maintained at a dilution rate of  $0.5 \text{ day}^{-1}$ . Medium for the marine species was synthetic seawater containing <sup>400</sup> mM NaCl, 20 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 20 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM KCI,  $0.8$  mM KBr,  $0.2$  mM  $H_3BO_3$ , 2 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 5 mM NaNO<sub>3</sub>, 0.5 mM  $KH_2PO_4$ , and vitamins and trace metals plus the sodium iron salt of EDTA in <sup>a</sup> twofold dilution of the amount specified in f-medium (10). The freshwater medium contained 0.4 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$ , 0.4 mM  $MgSO<sub>4</sub>$ , 0.2 mM  $CaCl<sub>2</sub>$ , 2 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 12 mM NaNO<sub>3</sub>, 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, and the same concentrations of EDTA and trace metals as found in the seawater medium.

The continuous culture apparatus (a bank of six 0.5 liter cultures), the culturing protocols, and the experimental analyses were virtually identical to those described previously (9). The cultures were grown under continuous illumination with cool white fluorescent light (3,000 J of visible light per  $m<sup>2</sup>$  per min) and temperature control (20°C for the marine algae and  $25^{\circ}$ C for *S. obliquus*); they were mixed with magnetic bar stirring.

Culture pH was maintained at various levels in the range 8.0 to 9.5 with a pH-stat system described previously (7a). Fluctuations in pH did not exceed  $\pm 0.1$  units from the set value. Upon reaching steady state, samples were withdrawn from each culture and used for a series of short-term incubations to measure photoassimilation of inorganic carbon during exposure to various concentrations of  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$ .

Appropriate buffers were added to the assay chambers during the incubation to maintain constant pH that was similar to the pH of the steady-state culture. The buffers employed were HEPPS (Research Organics, Cleveland, Ohio) for pH 8.0, BICINE (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.) for pH 8.5, and AMPSO (Research Organics) for pH 9.0 to 9.5. All buffers were added to obtain a final concentration of <sup>10</sup> to 20 mM, depending on algal biomass concentration in the assay (biomass levels were varied in some experiments to determine whether the degree of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity was dependent on algal concentration). We were unable to carry out incubations at pH values above 9.5 because the only appropriate buffers, CAPS (Sigma,  $pK_a = 10.4$ ) and CHES (Sigma,  $pK_a = 9.3$ ), were toxic to all three test species. In each experiment an unbuffered control sample was used to test for buffer toxicity. Variations in pH during incubations did not exceed  $\pm 0.05$  units. The experimental assays, in final volume of 40 ml, were placed in 150-ml, water-jacketed, glass incubation vessels (light intensity and temperature were identical to steady-state cultures), and  $NAH<sup>14</sup>CO<sub>3</sub>$  (New England Nuclear Corp., Boston, Mass.) was added to give a final radioisotope concentration of about 0.05  $\mu$ Ci/ $\mu$ mol of the total dissolved inorganic carbon. During the incubation the contents were gently mixed with small magnetic stirring bars. Samples (1 ml) were harvested every 10 min for the first hour of the assay, and a final sample was taken at 90 min. The samples were transferred to a scintillation vial containing 2 ml of methanol (acidified with 5% acetic acid); the contents were evaporated to dryness under an infrared lamp and resuspended in <sup>1</sup> ml of distilled water, and 10 ml of scintillation fluid (Handifluor) was added. Radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation counting on a Beckman LS-100C instrument. Algal particulate carbon was analyzed on precombusted filters (Whatman GF/C) with a Perkin Elmer 240 elemental analyzer. Total dissolved inorganic carbon was measured on a Dohrmann PR-1 analyzer (7).

The effect of  $NH_3$  concentrations on algal photosynthesis was determined by comparing the linear regression analyses of the time course uptake curve. Linear 14C uptake during the incubation period was a prerequisite for making this determination. Concentrations of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  were determined from the pH and the ionization coefficient for equation 1, corrected for temperature and salinity (4, 6).

Most of the experiments were performed with S. obliquus and P. tricornutum in the pH range 8.0 to 9.5 and with NH4Cl additions varying from 0.5 to 16 mM. One set of experiments at  $pH$  9.0 and with NH<sub>4</sub>Cl additions ranging from <sup>2</sup> to <sup>8</sup> mM was performed with D. tertiolecta.



FIG. 1. Time course uptake of  $^{14}CO_2$  by S. obliquus exposed to various additions of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. (A)  $pH$ 8.9;  $\bullet$ , no added NH<sub>4</sub>Cl (control);  $\blacktriangle$ , 2 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\circ$ , 3 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl; **I**, 4 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\triangle$ , 6 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\nabla$ , 8 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. (B) pH 8.4;  $\odot$ , no added NH<sub>4</sub>Cl (control);  $\triangle$ , 8 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\circ$ , 10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\blacksquare$ , 12 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl;  $\triangle$ , 14 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl.

# RESULTS

Linearity of  $<sup>14</sup>C$  uptake. We observed linearity</sup> of 14C uptake in each 90-min incubation regardless of algal species, pH, or concentration of added NH4C1 (Fig. 1). However, as exemplified by the results of the S. obliquus assays at pH 8.9 (Fig. 1A) and pH 8.4 (Fig. 1B), uptake rates of  $^{14}C$  at each pH and biomass level decreased systematically with increasing concentration of added NH4Cl.

Effect of  $pH$  on  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  inhibition. By comparing the  $14C$  uptake rates at a given pH for increased concentrations of added NH4Cl with the rate for no  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  addition (ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$ ), we observed a dramatic effect of pH on the inhibition of  $^{14}$ C uptake by NH<sub>4</sub>Cl addition for S. *obliquus* (Fig. 2). For example, exposure



FIG. 2. Effect of added NH<sub>4</sub>Cl concentration on the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  for S. *obliquus* incubated for 90 min at various pHs.  $V_{\text{max}}$  is the rate of  $^{14}CO_2$  in the absence of added NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. Symbols:  $\triangle$ , pH 8.0; **A**, pH 8.4; ●, pH 8.9; ○, pH 9.4.



FIG. 3. Effect of calculated free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration on the ratio of  $V$  to  $V_{\text{max}}$  for S. obliquus incubated for 90 min at various pHs. Free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration was determined from NH4Cl and pH data in Fig. 2. Symbols:  $\triangle$ , pH 8.0;  $\triangle$ , pH 8.4;  $\bullet$ , pH 8.9;  $\bigcirc$ , pH 9.4.

to <sup>10</sup> mM NH4C1 at pH 8.0 led to <sup>a</sup> slight reduction in the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  to 0.95, but this same NH4CI concentration at pH 8.4 resulted in a dramatic decrease in the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  to 0.50. To reduce the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  to 0.50 at pH 8.9 required only 3.0 mM NH4Cl (Fig.2).

NH<sub>3</sub> inhibition. When the relative uptake results shown in Fig. 2 were plotted as a function of free NH<sub>3</sub> concentration calculated from culture pH rather than as the concentration of added NH4Cl, a single curve relating the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  with NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in the assay chamber was formed (Fig. 3; each point in Fig. 3 represents one point from Fig. 2; the same symbols are used). The curve represented a modified threshold response in which exposure up to  $\sim$ 0.5 mM NH<sub>3</sub> caused no inhibition of <sup>14</sup>C uptake, but between  $0.5$  and  $2.0$  mM NH<sub>3</sub> suppression of <sup>14</sup>C uptake increased dramatically so that the ratio of  $\overline{V}$  to  $V_{\text{max}}$  was <0.05 at free NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations >2.0 mM.

The inhibitory effect of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  on the carbon uptake rates of both marine algae, P. tricornutum and D. tertiolecta, seemed to follow an identical response curve as found for S. obliquus. As seen in Fig. 4, the relative uptake data for the marine species fit the response curve generated from the experiments with S. obliquus very well.

We were unable to discern an effect of algal biomass concentration on ammonia photosynthetic inhibition expressed as a reduction in the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$ . Doubling the biomass concentration of S. obliquus at either pH 8.4 or 8.9 did not change the amount of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  necessary to reduce the ratio of V to  $V_{\text{max}}$  to levels of 0.9, 0.5, or 0.1 (Table 1).



FIG. 4. Effect of calculated free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration on the ratio of  $V$  to  $V_{\text{max}}$  for test algae incubated for 90 min at various pHs. Solid curve is inhibition curve for S. obliquus transposed from Fig. 3. Symbols:  $\bullet$ , P. tricornutum;  $\circ$ , D. tertiolecta.

# DISCUSSION

Although free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  generally is believed to act as an inhibitor of algal photosynthesis, to date most of the evidence to support this conclusion has been circumstantial. Lack of precise pH control, together with difficulties in distinguishing between responses to  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> and  $NH_3$  on the basis of pH and in separating other pH-related effects from those involved with the dissociation of  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> (equation 1), has prevented a clear interpretation of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity data.

One of the possible effects of high pH on algal photosynthesis is the reduction of free  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  in water (Y. A., manuscript in preparation). To eliminate such an interpretation of our results, we did not compare absolute carbon uptake rates but only relative uptake rates  $(V:V_{\text{max}})$ ,

TABLE 1. Effect of algal biomass concentration at two pH values on  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration required to

reduce 14C uptake rate with NH4CI addition relative to maximum uptake rate without NH4CI addition for cultures of  $S.$  obliquus<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Units: algal biomass concentration, milligrams of algal particulate carbon per liter;  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration, millimolar;  $^{14}$ C uptake rate with NH<sub>4</sub>Cl addition, V; uptake rate without NH<sub>4</sub>Cl addition,  $V_{\text{max}}$ .

<sup>b</sup> N.M., Not measured.

where  $V_{\text{max}}$  was determined for each pH value tested from the control assay (without NH4Cl addition). This way we were able to demonstrate that  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  inhibition of algal photosynthesis is not a pH-dependent phenomenon, but rather the dissociation of  $NH<sub>4</sub>$ <sup>+</sup> as a function of pH is the main determinant of how much  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  is available to inhibit photosynthesis.

The biochemical basis for  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  inhibition of algal photosynthesis remains unclear. The best evidence points toward  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  uncoupling of electron transport in photosystem II by the breakdown of proton gradients necessary to drive photophosphorylation (5) or by inhibition via  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  competition with  $H<sub>2</sub>O$  in oxidation reactions leading to  $O_2$  evolution (18), or both. In either case free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  molecules are believed to be the reactive chemical species, a conclusion substantiated by Fig. 3 and 4. Although beyond the scope of this work, the sigmoidal shape of the  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  inhibition curve (Fig. 3) is analogous to the type of inhibition curve that results from allosteric interactions between inhibitors and enzymes (12) and thus indicates a complex mode of inhibition. The form of inhibition, however, does not appear to be related to the biomass present or more appropriately, to total cell surface area (Table 1) as has been demonstrated for mercury, chlorine, and chloramine toxicity in phytoplankton (8, 11). Mercury toxicity in phytoplankton involves initial toxicant accumulation through absorptive mechanisms on cell surfaces (11), whereas chlorine and chloramine inhibition is through total oxidation of organic matter (8). Hence, it is not surprising that the inhibitory effects of some toxicants are biomassdependent and that there is no biomass effect on NH3 toxicity which involves passive transport of NH3 molecules across cell membranes succeeded by complex enzyme inhibition reactions that are concentration-dependent.

A major difficulty in comparing our  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity results with similar data is that in most previous studies either pH was not rigorously regulated or no attempt was made to measure inhibitory effects on the basis of free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration (estimated from added ammonium salt and culture pH), or both. In addition, many of the assay protocols, including ours, deviate widely from each other, particularly the duration of exposure to  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  and the light intensity used during the incubation. For example, we observed linear  $^{14}$ C uptake during relatively short (90-min) incubation periods in response to various additions of NH4C1 (Fig. 1). However, Abeliovich and Azov (1) have found that longer  $(5-h)$  exposure to a given NH<sub>4</sub>Cl concentration at a fixed pH led to significant reductions in photosynthesis, thus leading them to suggest that exposure time is a critical factor in defining



FIG. 5. Effect of culture pH on the total ammonia concentration  $(NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NH<sub>3</sub>)$  required to inhibit photosynthesis of test algae grown at 25°C by 10% (broken curve), 50% (dashed line), and 90% (solid line) level of inhibition as determined by the free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  (data in Fig. 4) required to cause these levels of toxicity.

relationships between  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration and inhibition of photosynthesis. Similarly, whereas we used only one light intensity, Admiraal (2) has found a magnifying effect of increasing light intensity on  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity. If this is true, then NH3 toxicity to microalgae in outdoor conditions, in which both light intensity and exposure duration are unregulated, could be far more severe than represented by the summary  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ toxicity curves shown in Fig. 5. In this figure the concentrations of total ammonia  $(NH_4^+ + NH_3)$ required to produce the 10, 50, and 90% levels of inhibition determined from Fig. 4 are plotted as a function of pH.

It is surprising that the two marine and one freshwater test species which belong to different taxonomic orders are inhibited in a similar fashion by free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  (Fig. 4); yet it is difficult to extrapolate these results into a general model of NH3 toxicity in phytoplankton without more data. A major problem, as mentioned, is the difficulty of comparing our results with the limited  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity data available. However, from our estimates of the free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  concentration necessary to inhibit algal metabolism in previous studies (based on reported pH and added ammonium salts), it appears that some marine phytoplankton are far more sensitive to  $NH_3$  than were the three test species in our study. For example, photosynthesis in a variety of marine diatoms was severely inhibited at free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ concentrations in the range 0.05 to 0.2 mM (2, 14). In the case of the dinoflagellate Gymnodinium splendens, exposure to only about 10  $\mu$ M free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  was lethal (17).

In most natural waters, particularly the marine environment, the combination of low total ammonia  $(NH_4^+ + NH_3)$  and relatively neutral  $pH$  prevents the development of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity to phytoplankton. However, in both low carbonate alkalinity freshwaters and intensive microalgal cultures, in which  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> is the major form of N and bicarbonate is the main source of inorganic carbon, high pH can be expected concomitant with NH<sub>3</sub> toxicity.

The possibilities for extreme  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  inhibition are most likely in algal wastewater treatment systems in which millimolar concentrations of total ammonia are typically present in the influent domestic wastewater. For example, when the pH rises to 9.5 and the temperature is 20 to 25°C, only <sup>2</sup> and <sup>3</sup> mM total ammonia will lead to 50 and  $90\%$  reductions in photosynthesis, respectively (Fig. 5). Moreover, because the equilibrium in equation <sup>1</sup> is shifted towards increased  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  formation with increasing temperature, the problem of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity in outdoor ponds is magnified considerably during the summer. For example, at 25°C only onethird of the total ammonia is required to produce the same free  $NH_3$  as at 10°C.

Our results clearly demonstrate that the role of  $pH$  in  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  inhibition of algal metabolism is to establish the concentrations of free  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  relative to  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> via equation 1. Hence, for most situations,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity will only become important at high pH. For example, according to the summary inhibition curves of Fig. 5, to achieve 50% reduction in algal photosynthesis, more than 15 times less total ammonia is required at pH 10 as is necessary at pH 8. For algal mass culture operation,  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  toxicity is a distinct possibility when  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> and  $HCO_3$ <sup>-</sup> are major nutrient sources. To avoid such conditions, pH control or substitution of ammonium salts with another suitable N source (e.g.,  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  or urea compounds), or both, are required. When algal systems are used for wastewater treatment and the source of N cannot be regulated, pH control will be the only effective method to avoid NH<sub>3</sub> toxicity.

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