Stimulation of Ammonia and 2-Oxoglutarate-Dependent O_2 Evolution in Isolated Chloroplasts by Dicarboxylates and the Role of the Chloroplast in Photorespiratory Nitrogen Recycling

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ABSTRACT

Intact chloroplasts isolated from spinach (Spinacia oleracea L.) leaves showed a light-dependent O_2 evolution (5.5 \pm 0.75 micromoles per milligram chlorophyll per hour) when supplied with ammonia and 2-oxoglutarate. This (ammonia, 2-oxoglutarate)-dependent $O₂$ evolution was stimulated 2. to 4-fold by the dicarboxylates, malate, succinate, fumarate, glutarate, and L-tartarate. Evolution of $O₂$ in the presence of malate was dependent on the presence of both 2-oxoglutarate and NH₄Cl; malate with only either 2-oxoglutarate and NH₄Cl alone did not support O_2 evolution. Furthermore, in the presence of malate, the amount of $O₂$ evolved was solely dependent on the amount of NH₄Cl or 2-oxoglutarate added and malate did not affect the ratio of O_2 evolved to NH₄Cl or 2-oxoglutarate consumed. Studies with inhibitors (2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethyl urea, methionine sulfoximine, and azaserine) indicated that the above activity was directly linked to glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthase activity in the chloroplast and was not caused by the metabolism of malate. The $V_{max}/2$ of (ammonia, 2-oxoglutarate)-dependent O_2 evolution was reached at 32 micromolar NH4Cl and 6 millimolar (approximately) 2 oxoglutarate in the absence of malate, and at 22 micromolar NH4CI and 73 micromolar 2-oxoglutarate when malate (3 millinolar) was present.

Intact chloroplasts isolated from pea (Piswn sativum) leaves also showed a stimulation of (ammonia, 2-oxoglutarate)-dependent O_2 evolution by malate. However glutamine was required for this activity even though glutamine with only either NH4CI or 2-oxoglutarate did not respond to malate stimulation.

The measured rates of (ammonia, 2-oxoglutarate)-dependent O_2 evolution in isolated spinach chloroplasts in the presence of malate were about 19.5 \pm 4.5 micromoles O_2 evolved per milligram chlorophyll per hour. This is adequate to sustain photorespiratory NH₃ recycling and the refixation of NH₃ arising from NO₃ under ambient conditions in the light. The role of the chloroplast in photorespiratory NH3 recycling and the nature of the associated transport of 2-oxoglutarate into the chloroplast is discussed.

The $GS¹/GOGAT$ pathway is the primary route of $NH₃$ assimilation in leaves of higher plants (13, 16). In the chloroplast, photosynthetic electron transport provides the ATP and reduced ferredoxin required for GS/GOGAT activity (13). During photosynthesis in C_3 plants, the refixation and recycling of photorespiratory NH3 released during mitochondrial glycine decarboxylation (25) involve this pathway (12, 26). However, studies with a reconstituted system have shown that NH₃ released during glycine decarboxylation in isolated mitochondria could be reassimilated into glutamine in the presence of glutamine synthetase (12). In protoplasts from Pisum sativum, 40% of the total GS activity was found to be associated with the cytosolic fraction (23). For this reason, it has been proposed that the initial photorespiratory NH3 refixation involves the cytosolic GS, while the subsequent reduction of glutamine by GOGAT takes place in the chloroplast (12, 22). If this is the case, the rate of glutamine transport into the chloroplast must, at least, be equivalent to the rate of photorespiratory NH3 release. Recent studies indicate that the rate of glutamine transport into chloroplasts as mediated by the dicarboxylate carrier could be limiting (3), and might be inadequate to support photorespiratory NH3 refixation under physiological conditions. On the other hand, $NH₃$ could presumably move freely from mitochondria to chloroplasts under conditions of high $NH₃$ flux in the leaves during photorespiration. If this were so, part of the photorespiratory NH3 would be reassimilated in the chloroplast.

The transport and supply of 2-OG is an integral part of the GS/GOGAT pathway, irrespective of whether the chloroplast or cytosolic GS is involved in the initial $NH₃$ assimilation. The chloroplast inner envelope contains a dicarboxylate carrier with wide substrate specificity (7, 10), and, presumably, this carrier is involved in the transport of 2-OG into the chloroplast. But the nature of this 2-OG transport that is linked to $NH₃$ assimilation via the GS/GOGAT pathway remains to be determined.

The chloroplast also contains a NADP⁺-specific glutamate dehydrogenase (14), but evidence shows that, in pea chloroplasts, NH3 assimilation in the presence of glutamate (17) and 2-OG occurred via the GS/GOGAT pathway (1, 2). Furthermore, this activity could be directly linked to photosynthetic O_2 evolution, with 0.5 mol O_2 evolved/mol NH₃ and 2-OG fixed (1).

In this study, we have reexamined (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent $O₂$ evolution in isolated spinach and pea chloroplasts, to evaluate and determine the role of the chloroplast for photorespiratory NH₃ assimilation and the role of the dicarboxylate carrier for 2-OG transport directly linked to photorespiratory NH₃ assimilation. This study reports the stimulation of $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution by dicarboxylic acids. The nature and significance of this stimulation by dicarboxylates in relation to 2-OG transport and the photorespiratory NH₃ pathway is discussed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plants were grown in a glasshouse under natural daylight. Only young leaves were used for chloroplast isolation. Spinach and pea chloroplasts were isolated according to the procedures of Heber (8) and Anderson and Done (2), respectively. O_2 evolution was

^{&#}x27;Abbreviations: GS, glutamine synthetase; GOGAT, glutamate synthase; 2-OG, 2-oxoglutarate; MSO, methionine sulfoximine; OAA, oxaloacetate; FCCP, p-trifluoromethoxy (carbonylcyanide) phenyl hydrazone.

measured at 25°C with an 02 electrode (Rank Bros., Cambridge, England). The standard assay medium contained 0.33 M sorbitol, 50 mm Hepes-NaOH (pH 7.6), 0.5 mm K_2HPO_4/KH_2PO_4 , 1 mm $MnCl₂$, 2 mm EDTA, and catalase (600 U) in a total volume of 3 ml.

For $CO₂$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution, the assay also contained 10 mm NaHCO₃, 5 mm NaP₂O₇, and 1 mm MgCl₂ and measurements were made at $1,300 \,\mu\mathrm{E\,m^{-2}s^{-1}}$. And for measurements of (NH₃, 2- OG)-dependent O_2 evolution, the assay medium also contained ¹⁰ mm malate plus ¹⁰ mM DL-glyceraldehyde to inhibit endogenous O_2 evolution (19). Measurements were made at 600 μ E $m^{-2}s^{-1}$. Chloroplast intactness was determined by the ferricyanide reduction test (9). All acid compounds were adjusted to pH 7.0 with NaOH before use.

RESULTS

Chloroplasts isolated from spinach leaves showed a light-dependent O_2 evolution when supplied with NH₄Cl and 2-OG (trace A, Fig. 1). There was an initial fast rate which lasted ¹ to 2 min followed by a slower steady rate. In contrast, Anderson and Done (1) observed a long lag period of about 10 min for (NH3, 2-OG) dependent O_2 evolution (8.3 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) in isolated pea chloroplasts. These authors also reported a high rate of $O₂$ evolution (10.6 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) with glutamine and 2-OG (2). But, in spinach chloroplasts (Gln, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution is low (2-3 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) and glutamine did not affect (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent \mathbf{O}_2 evolution significantly (trace B and C, Fig. 1). On the other hand, malate increased (NH3, 2-OG)-dependent 02 evolution dramatically, both in the absence and in the presence of glutamine (traces D and E, Fig. 1). The above activity was sensitive to DCMU and FCCP (trace C and D, Fig. 1). The

FIG. 1. Effect of glutamine, malate, DCMU, and FCCP on (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O₂ evolution in intact spinach chloroplasts. Standard assays containing ² mM 2-OG were used. Additions: NH4Cl, ^I mM; glutamine, 5 mm; malate, 3 mm; DCMU, 10 μ M; FCCP, 10 μ M. Values beside curves are rates of O_2 evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Chloroplasts containing 124 μ g Chl were used in each assay; intactness, 65%. Rate of $CO₂$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution of chloroplast preparation was 129 μ mol mg^{-1} Chl h^{-1} .

inhibition by DCMU indicates the involvement of photosynthetic electron transport for the observed (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent $O₂$ evolution. The inhibition by FCCP was apparently not related to its uncoupling effect on photosynthetic electron transport since the presence of glutamine and 2-OG would have supported $O₂$ evolution under these conditions. Rather, the inhibitory effect of FCCP suggests the requirement of a membrane potential or proton transport across the chloroplast inner envelope presumably for the transport of the metabolites involved. Such a requirement could be associated with the ATPase activity reported to be present in chloroplast envelope preparations from spinach leaves (6).

Figure 2 shows the response of $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution in spinach chloroplasts to increasing malate concentration. Maximum stimulation was achieved by about ² mm malate and the concentration required for half-maximal velocity was about 0.3 M. The stimulation by malate required the presence of both NH₄Cl and 2-OG (Fig. 3). Malate, with either NH₄Cl or 2-OG alone, did not support O_2 evolution (traces C and D, Fig. 3). This observation suggests that the stimulation of $O₂$ evolution by malate was associated directly with the metabolism of $NH₃$ and 2-OG in the chloroplast per se and was not caused by the metabolism of malate in the chloroplast.

The above suggestion is supported by the evidence that, in the presence of malate and NH₄Cl, the amount of O_2 evolved was determined by the amount of 2-OG present (trace A, Fig. 4). Conversely, in the presence of 2-OG, with or without malate, the amount of O_2 evolved was determined by the amount of NH₄Cl added (traces B and C, Fig. 4). It is assumed that the limiting substrate added was totally consumed when $O₂$ evolution ceases. Table I shows that there was little difference in the ratio of $O₂$ evolved to NH4Cl and 2-OG added either in the presence or absence of malate. These values are comparable to the expected ratio of 0.5 and are similar to those obtained by Anderson and Done (1) in pea chloroplasts.

Figure 5 shows that $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution was abolished by MSO and azaserine, which are specific inhibitors of GS and GOGAT, respectively. Malate did not restore O_2 evolution in these chloroplasts. In contrast, O_2 evolution resumed in the presence of OAA, which was presumably reduced to malate by

FIG. 2. The response of (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution to malate in intact spinach chloroplasts (176 μ g Chl; 56% intactness). The activity of control treatments was 2.9 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹.

FIG. 3. Requirements for 2-OG and NH4C1 in the stimulation of (NH3, 2-OG)-dependent O₂ evolution by malate in intact spinach chloroplasts (116 μ g Chl; 75% intactness). Additions: 2-OG, 2 mm; NH₄Cl, 1 mm; malate, 3 mm. Values beside curves are rates of O_2 evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h^{-1} . Rate of CO₂-dependent O₂ evolution of chloroplast preparations was 104 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹.

NADP+-malate dehydrogenase. These data suggest that MSO and azaserine did not significantly affect either photosynthetic electron transport or malate dehydrogenase activity.

Figure 6 shows the response of $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution to NH4Cl concentration in the presence and absence of malate; the $K_{1/2}$ (NH₄⁺) was 32 and 22 μ M, respectively. In contrast, the apparent affinity for 2-OG in (NH3, 2-OG)-dependent O₂ evolution was increased by about two orders of magnitude in the presence of malate compared to treatments in which malate was absent (Fig. 7). This increase in the apparent affinity of (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution for 2-OG in the presence of malate could account for the observed stimulation of $O₂$ evolution by malate. The double reciprocal plot gave a linear slope for the activity determined in the presence of malate and a $K_{1/2}$ (2-OG) of 73 μ m. This K_{1/2} (2-OG) value obtained is comparable to a value of 150 μ M obtained for partially purified GOGAT from leaves of Vicia faba (24). In contrast, a hyperbola was obtained in the set of data for 2-OG determined in the absence of malate. Evidently, the kinetics of the reaction for 2-OG during (NH3, 2- OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in the absence of malate are very complex. Under these conditions, 2-OG could act both as a substrate and an activator since it could potentially substitute for malate in the dicarboxylate carrier.

 $(NH₃, 2-OG)$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution was also stimulated by other dicarboxylates (succinate, fumarate, glutarate, L-tartarate)

FIG. 4. Effect of limiting (300 nmol) 2-OG and NH₄Cl supply on (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in intact spinach chloroplasts (148 μ g Chl; 77% intactness). Trace A contained ¹ mm NH4Cl and ³ mm malate; trace B, ¹⁰ mm 2-OG; and trace C, ² mm 2-OG and ³ mm malate. Values beside curves are rates of O_2 evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Rate of CO₂dependent O_2 evolution of chloroplast preparation was 103 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h^{-1} .

Table I. Relationship of O_2 Evolution to NH₄Cl and 2-Oxoglutarate Consumed in $(NH₃, 2-OG)$ -Dependent $O₂$ Evolution in Isolated Spinach Chloroplasts

Assays contained ² mm 2-OG (10 mm 2-OG when malate is not present), 3 mm malate, and 1 mm NH₄Cl when these are present as nonlimiting substrates.

FIG. 5. Effect of MSO and azaserine on (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O₂ evolution in intact spinach chloroplasts (116 μ g Chl; 75% intactness). All assays contained ² mM 2-OG and ¹ mm NH4C1. Additions: malate, ³ mM; OAA, 0.2 mm; FCCP, 10μ m; MSO, 2.5 mm; azaserine, 2.5 mm. For trace D, chloroplasts were preincubated with 0.5 mm azaserine for ¹⁰ min in the dark. Values beside curves are rates of O_2 evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Rate of CO₂-dependent O₂ evolution of chloroplast preparation was 104 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹.

to about the same extent as malate (Fig. 8). All these dicarboxylates are transported by the dicarboxylate carrier (10). In contrast, maleate and malonate, which are not transported by the dicarboxylate carrier, had only a very small effect on O_2 evolution (data not shown).

Malate also stimulated (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in isolated pea chloroplasts (Fig. 9). But, in contrast to spinach chloroplasts (Fig. 1), glutamine was required for malate stimulation in these pea chloroplast preparations (trace A, Fig. 9). This requirement for glutamine suggests that these pea chloroplast preparations probably contained a very low level of glutamine and glutamate compared to isolated spinach chloroplasts. There was no increase in $(Gln, 2-OG)$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution in the presence of malate unless NH4Cl was also present (trace B, Fig. 9). Presumably, ADP was limiting in the absence of NH4Cl. As in spinach chloroplasts, the above activity was sensitive to DCMU and FCCP (traces A and B, Fig. 9).

DISCUSSION

Chloroplasts isolated from spinach and pea leaves showed a light-dependent O_2 evolution in the presence of NH₄Cl and 2-OG (and glutamine). This O_2 evolution was sensitive to MSO and azaserine inhibition, indicating that it was directly linked to GS/

FIG. 6. Response of (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution to NH₄Cl in the absence (O) and in the presence (O) of malate in intact spinach chloroplasts (140 μ g Chl; 60% intactness). Assays contained 2 mm 2-OG in the absence and presence of malate (3 mM).

FIG. 7. Response of (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O₂ evolution to 2-OG in the absence (O) and in the presence (O) of malate in intact spinach chloroplasts (150 μ g Chl; 78% intactness). Assays contained 1 mm NH₄Cl and, when present, ³ mm malate.

GOGAT activity in the chloroplast. The dicarboxylates, malate, succinate, fumarate, glutarate, and L-tartarate, stimulated (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution 2- to 4-fold. This stimulation was associated with a dramatic increase in the affinity for 2-OG in (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution. The apparent $K_{1/2}$ (2-OG) decreased from about 6 mm to 73 μ m in the presence of malate. This decrease could in part be due to a stimulation of the transport of 2-OG into the chloroplast. In addition, there is evidence that GS from rat liver was activated by 2-OG (20), but to our knowledge, there is no evidence of such an activation of the GS isolated from plant tissue.

The transport of 2-OG into the chloroplast involves a carrier in the chloroplast inner envelope. In contrast to plant and animal

FIG. 8. Stimulation of $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution by dicarboxylates in intact spinach chloroplasts (136 μ g Chl; 83% intactness). Assays contained 2 mm 2-OG and 1 mm NH₄Cl. Additions: malate, succinate and fumarate, ⁵ mm; glutarate and L-tartarate, 10 mm. Values beside curves are rates of O_2 evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Rate of $CO₂$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution of chloroplast preparation was 148 μ mol mg^{-1} Chl h^{-1} .

FIG. 9. Effect of malate, glutamine, FCCP, and DCMU on (NH₃, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in intact pea chloroplasts (156 μ g Chl; 65% intactness). All assays contained ² mm 2-OG and ¹ mM ADP. Additions: NH₄Cl, 1 mm; malate, 3 mm; glutamine, 5 mm; DCMU, 10 μ m; FCCP, 5 μ M. Values beside curves are rates of O₂ evolution in μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. Rate of $CO₂$ -dependent $O₂$ evolution of chloroplast preparation was 66 μ mol mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹.

FIG. 10. Proposed pathway for the recovery of photorespiratory NH₃ via the chloroplast glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthase pathway. This recovery is shown coupled, via a (glutamate, 2-OG) shuttle, to the (NH2) requirements of the peroxisome. Note that only one of 2 mol of glycine are shown in this scheme; the $(NH₂)$ requirement for the synthesis of the 2nd mol of glycine is satisfied by serine-glyoxylate transaminase in the peroxisome (21).

mitochondria, which have specific carriers for 2-OG transport (4, 5), the transport of 2-OG into chloroplasts is mediated by a dicarboxylate carrier with wide substrate specificity (10). It has been suggested that this dicarboxylate carrier might function, physiologically, as a shuttle for the transport of 2-OG and aspartate into the chloroplast in exchange for malate and glutamate, thereby leading to an effective transfer of reducing equivalents from the chloroplast to the cytosol (7). Recent studies in pea chloroplasts (3) have indicated that, to maintain electroneutrality, exchange transfers by the dicarboxylate carrier might be coupled to proton movements. In the light, it seems likely that the dicarboxylate carrier could function basically as a transporter of 2-OG for (photorespiratory) NH₃ assimilation. Under these conditions, the dicarboxylate shuttle could conceivably have 2-OG/OAA moving into the chloroplast in exchange for malate/glutamate, with protons moving in to maintain electroneutrality. Such a shuttle would be sensitive to uncoupler inhibition (trace D, Fig. 1), but OAA reduction would not be affected (trace A, Fig. 5) since the stoichiometric exchange of OAA and malate alone, via the carrier, would be electroneutral. Alternatively, a different carrier specific for 2-OG transport and stimulated by dicarboxylates could be involved.

In the light, the refixation and recycling of photorespiratory NH3 involves the GS/GOGAT pathway (12, 26). Alloenzymes of GS are present in the chloroplast and cytosol (22). GS activity was also reported to be present in the mitochondria (11), but subsequent studies by Wallsgrove et al. (22) failed to confirm this observation. In barley leaves, very little GS activity was detected in the cytoplasm (15), but this has not been supported by recent studies (22). The refixation of NH₃ released during mitochondrial glycine decarboxylation in a reconstituted system containing mitochondria, glutamine synthetase, and ATP has led Miflin and coworkers (12, 22) to propose that the cytosolic alloenzyme was

involved in the initial refixation of photorespiratory NH₃ and that the product, glutamine, was subsequently transported to the chloroplast for reduction by GOGAT. This suggests that the rate of glutamine transport into the chloroplast must, at least, be equivalent to the rate of photorespiratory $NH₃$ release.

Glutamine transport into chloroplasts also involves the dicarboxylate carrier, but the measured rate was only about 4.2 μ mol mg^{-1} Chl h⁻¹ at 1 mm glutamine (3). Furthermore, this transport was competitively inhibited by dicarboxylates. Comparable rates $(0.6-4.2 \mu \text{mol mg}^{-1}$ Chl h⁻¹) of light-dependent glutamate synthesis from 2-OG and glutamine were obtained in intact chloroplasts isolated from different species (24). In contrast, rates of about 10.6 μ mol O₂ evolved mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ were reported by Anderson and Done (2) for (Gln, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in isolated pea chloroplasts, suggesting that glutamine transport into pea chloroplasts was substantial. However, in these chloroplast preparations, it is uncertain whether a carrier-mediated transport process was involved. Our studies show that the rates of (Gln, 2-OG)-dependent O_2 evolution in the absence of NH₄Cl in both isolated spinach (trace D, Fig. 1) and pea (trace B, Fig. 9) chloroplasts were low and inhibited by malate even though high rates were obtained when NH4Cl was present.

In contrast, our studies indicate that the GS/GOGAT pathway in the chloroplast can sustain high rates of $NH₃$ assimilation in the presence of dicarboxylates. When this activity was corrected for chloroplast breakage, in nine separate spinach chloroplast preparations, the rate of $(NH_3, 2-OG)$ -dependent O_2 evolution in the absence and in the presence of malate was 5.5 ± 0.75 and 19.5 \pm 4.5 μ mol O₂ evolved mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹, respectively. These values are equivalent to 11 and 39 μ mol NH₃ and 2-OG fixed mg⁻¹ Chl h^{-1} , respectively. The higher rates obtained are adequate to account for the estimated rate of photorespiratory NH₃ recycling (25, 26). Thus, like the cytosol, the chloroplast is a potential site for the refixation and recycling of photorespiratory NH₃ release during photosynthesis in C_3 plants.

The above evidence also suggests a physiological involvement for malate (and other dicarboxylates) in photorespiratory NH₃ reassimilation. Such a role is apparently consistent with the observed light activation of $NAD\hat{P}^+$ -malate dehydrogenase in chloroplasts (18) . Furthermore, if photorespiratory NH₃ refixation is linked to the modified dicarboxylate shuttle outlined above, then there would be an extra cost of 1 mol NADPH/mol NH₃ refixed.

In conclusion, our evidence suggests that the chloroplast has the capacity to directly reassimilate the $NH₃$ released during photorespiration in leaf mitochondria via the GS/GOGAT pathway. In this scheme (Fig. 10), glutamine formed in the chloroplast could be shuttled to the peroxisome for glycine synthesis and the 2-OG returned to the chloroplast for NH₃ refixation. In contrast, a system relying on glutamine transport into the chloroplast (12, 22) does not appear, at least in spinach chloroplasts, to have the capacity of sustaining high rates of photorespiratory NH₃ recycling. It is probable that, in vivo, both pathways would be involved and the relative role and contribution of each pathway would depend, to a large extent, on the relative positions of the mitochondria and chloroplasts and the concentrations of the reactants involved.

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