

Effects of Aminoacetonitrile on Net Photosynthesis, Ribulose-1,5-Bisphosphate Levels, and Glycolate Pathway Intermediates¹

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ABSTRACT

The effects of aminoacetonitrile (a competitive inhibitor of glycine oxidation) on net photosynthesis, glycolate pathway intermediates, and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) levels have been investigated at different O₂ and CO₂ concentrations with soybean (*Glycine max*)[L] Merr. cv Pioneer 1677) leaf discs floated on 25 millimolar aminoacetonitrile (AAN) for 50 minutes prior to assay.

At 2% O₂ and 200 or 330 microliters per liter CO₂, the inhibitor had no effect on the rate of net photosynthesis and RuBP levels when compared with the control levels. At 11% to 60% O₂, AAN caused a decrease in net photosynthesis in addition to the inhibition by O₂. This extra inhibition ranged from 22% to 59% depending on the O₂ and CO₂ concentrations. The levels of RuBP, however, were 1.3 to 2.7 times higher than in the control plants at the same O₂ concentrations. At 40% O₂ and 200 microliters per liter CO₂, the inhibitor caused a 6-fold increase in glycine and more than 2-fold increase in glyoxylate levels, whereas those of glycolate decreased by approximately one-half.

The decrease in net photosynthesis observed with AAN is not the result of the depletion of the RuBP pool due to the lack of recycling of carbon from the glycolate pathway to the Calvin cycle. The higher levels of RuBP caused by AAN in photorespiratory conditions, suggest that RuBP carboxylase was inhibited. Glyoxylate could be a possible candidate for the inhibition of the enzyme but what is known so far about its inhibitory properties *in vitro* may not fit the existing *in vivo* conditions. An alternative explanation for the inhibition is proposed.

Due to the catalytic properties of the enzyme RuBP² carboxylase, photorespiration appears to be an unavoidable process in an atmosphere containing high O₂ and low CO₂ (2). The oxygenation of RuBP leads to the formation of P-glycolate (1) and its subsequent metabolism through the photosynthetic carbon oxidative cycle is viewed as a means of recovering part of that carbon diverted from the Calvin cycle. Under physiological conditions, only 25% of the carbon entering P-glycolate is lost as CO₂ (19) and the remaining is available for the synthesis of amino acids and sucrose or reentry into Calvin cycle. In the past, it seemed feasible to increase photosynthetic productivity by inhibiting some steps of the glycolate pathway. This idea, however, has been supported by little experimental data (29, 30). It is now well substantiated that once P-glycolate has been synthesized, it must be metabolized through the complete photorespiratory pathway

in order to avoid detrimental effects of photosynthesis. This has been shown through the use of inhibitors of glycolate oxidase such as BHB (7, 14, 24) and of glycine decarboxylase such as INH (9, 14, 24) and AAN (27). Also the requirement of the complete functioning of the glycolate pathway has been demonstrated in studies involving mutants deficient in specific enzymes of the glycolate pathway (25, 26). In photorespiratory conditions, these mutants are simply not viable. Earlier studies on ¹⁴CO₂ fixation with chloroplasts showed that, in conditions of low CO₂ and high O₂, glycolate was the main labeled product of photosynthesis. Its accumulation led to a decrease in net CO₂ uptake and a reduced amount of radioactivity incorporated into insoluble material and Calvin cycle intermediates (13). An analogy has been made between chloroplast preparations in which glycolate is an end product and leaves or protoplasts specifically inhibited at one step of the glycolate pathway in which glycolate or glycine accumulates. From this analogy it has been proposed that the observed decrease in the rate of net photosynthesis may be due to the shortage of Calvin cycle intermediates caused by the lack of recycling of carbon (23, 24, 27).

Our objective was to test this hypothesis using soybean leaves and aminoacetonitrile, an analog of glycine, which is a competitive inhibitor of both glycine decarboxylase and serine hydroxymethyl transferase (8, 27). We wanted to know whether or not, at least in short-term experiments, some regulatory mechanism would come into effect to prevent or overcome the shortage of carbon due to the continuous drain in Calvin cycle intermediates caused by the accumulation of carbon in glycine. We studied the effects of the inhibitor AAN on net photosynthesis and RuBP levels at different O₂ and two different CO₂ concentrations and compared these with the untreated leaves. We also measured the levels of glycine, glyoxylate, and glycolate to check whether or not intermediates of the glycolate pathway could be involved in the regulation of RuBP carboxylase.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material. Soybean plants (*Glycine max* [L] Merr. cv Pioneer 1677) were grown in 20-cm diameter pots (two plants per pot) with sterilized soil, in controlled environment chambers with 16 photoperiod at approximately 1000 μE m⁻²s⁻¹ PAR of mixed daylight fluorescent and incandescent lights and 27°C day, 21°C night. They were watered every other day with modified double-strength Hoagland solution supplemented with iron chelate Sequestrene 138 Fe (Ciba-Geigy) at 16.6 mg/l. For each experiment, 12 2-cm diameter discs were punched with a corkborer from the fourth or fifth trifoliates of 1-month-old plants.

Gas Exchange. Net CO₂ exchange rates were measured in an open gas exchange system. Gas mixtures were made from pressurized gas cylinders of O₂ and N₂ and 2% CO₂ (v/v) in N₂. O₂ content of the inlet gas mixture was measured with an O₂ electrode (Yellow Springs Instrument, Yellow Springs, OH) immersed in the inlet gas stream humidifier flask and CO₂ content with a

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² Abbreviations: RuBP, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate; BHB, butyl-2-hydroxy-3-butyrate; INH, isonicotinic acid hydrazide; AAN, aminoacetonitrile.

nondispersive IR gas analyzer (AR500, Anarad, Santa Barbara, CA).

For CO₂ gas exchange measurements the same IR gas analyzer was used in a differential mode and the gas stream was split so that half of it would serve as the reference. The flow rate was 2.2 l/min and the incident quantum flux 1200 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ PAR. The light, provided by two 150-w projector floods, was filtered through an OCLI (Optical Coatings Laboratory Incorporated, Santa Rosa, CA) wide band hot mirror and 4 cm of water. The experiments were conducted at $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$.

Twelve leaf discs were placed on a wire screen in a thermostated Plexiglass chamber (25 ml) equipped with 20 gas inlets and outlets. The chamber was made airtight by a vacuum between two concentric O rings and a Plexiglass cover. At the end of the experiment, vacuum release allowed a rapid chamber opening and removing of the samples (≤ 2 s). The discs were allowed to photosynthesize for approximately 10 min, then were placed in the dark for 4 min to measure the postillumination burst and the dark respiration rate. The lights were turned on again and the discs were allowed to reach steady rates of photosynthesis. After 10 to 15 min they were quickly removed and immediately plunged into liquid N₂, then freeze dried.

Extraction and Separation of Metabolites. The dried discs were ground in a mortar and pestle with ground glass. The resulting powder was extracted at 0°C with 4 ml 0.5 N HCl and sonicated for 30 s. The extract was centrifuged and filtered.

RuBP was measured on crude extracts, glycine, glyoxylate, and glycolate after partial purification on Dowex-50-H+. The column was rinsed with water and the eluate containing glyoxylate and glycolate was made basic with NH₄OH and lyophilized. Glycine was eluted from the column with 2 N NH₄OH and air dried.

RuBP Measurements. RuBP was purchased as a tetrasodium salt and standardized according to Racker (22).

RuBP carboxylase was partially purified from spinach by the method of Racker (22) with slight modifications (11).

RuBP was measured using a radiochemical assay (16) modified as follows: 0.5 ml of the HCl extract kept at 0°C was brought to pH 8 by the addition of 75 μl of Tris base 2 M and 44 μl KOH 4 N. The serum stoppered vials were degassed under N₂ and 0.5 ml of the following enzyme mixture which had been previously reactivated by incubation at 50°C for 25 min was added: 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.6), 20 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM NaH¹⁴CO₃ (11 kBq/ μmol , 1 kBq = 27 nCi), and 1.4 mg/ml RuBP carboxylase. After 2 h at room temperature the reaction was terminated by the addition of 200 μl 6 N CH₃COOH and the mixture evaporated under an air stream with this operation repeated once to ensure the complete removal of ¹⁴CO₂. The dried residue was suspended in 2 ml water and acid stable ¹⁴C content of 1-ml aliquots determined with a Beckman DPM 100 liquid scintillation spectrometer, after the addition of 10 ml of scintillation liquid (toluene, Triton, PPO 1000/500/4, v/v/w). A standard curve with 5 to 50 nmol RuBP per assay was run with each set of experiments in the same conditions.

The extraction of RuBP by HClO₄ instead of HCl did not give significantly different results and the latter method avoiding the precipitation of KClO₄ and centrifugation was more convenient.

Glycine Determination. Glycine was measured by a specific colorimetric assay according to Ohmori (17). It was benzoylated into hippuric acid which was then extracted with ethyl acetate. After evaporation of ethyl acetate, hippuric acid was reacted with acetic anhydride, *p*-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde in pyridine for color development and the A₄₅₈ measured. A calibration curve with 1 to 8 μg of glycine was run with the experiment.

Glycolate and Glyoxylate Measurements. Glycolic acid oxidase and catalase were purchased from Sigma. Glycolate was converted to glyoxylate as in Laing (15) with glycolic acid oxidase in presence of catalase, and glyoxylate transformed to glyoxylate hydrazone

with phenylhydrazine, then oxidized by ferricyanide to give 1,5-diphenylformazan (28). The method has been modified as follows: the lyophilized eluate containing glycolate and glyoxylate was dissolved in 50 mM Hepes K buffer (pH 8.3). To 0.1 ml aliquot containing no more than 50 nmol glycolate were added 0.25 ml Hepes K buffer, 0.1 ml catalase (20 U), and 0.05 ml glycolate oxidase (0.18 U). The mixture was incubated 1 h at 30°C . For glyoxylate measurements glycolate oxidase was omitted. Then 0.2 ml phenylhydrazine (25 mM in 0.5 N HCl) was added and the reaction allowed to take place at room temperature for 15 min. The tubes were chilled to 0°C on ice and 0.5 ml concentrated, cold HCl added followed by 0.3 ml potassium ferricyanide 50 mM. After vigorous mixing the color was developed at room temperature for 30 min and A₅₅₀ determined. Standards containing 10 nmol glycolate or glyoxylate were run simultaneously.

Chl. For each experiment two leaf discs were set aside and Chl extracted with methanol and A₆₅₀ and A₆₆₅ measured.

Inhibitor. Aminoacetonitrile hydrochloride was purchased from Sigma. The leaf discs were floated on AAN (25 mM brought to pH 7 with KOH) for 50 min in the light and air in the growth chamber before CO₂ gas exchange rates were measured.

RESULTS

CO₂ Gas Exchange Analysis. Figure 1 shows a representative recording of CO₂ gas exchange analysis by soybean leaf discs. At 200 $\mu\text{l/l}$ CO₂ and 2% O₂ (Fig. 1a), the rates of net photosynthesis and dark respiration were identical in AAN-treated samples and control samples. When the O₂ concentration was increased to 21% (Fig. 1b), the initial rate of CO₂ uptake was unaffected by AAN but in less than 30 s the rate in AAN-treated discs decreased for 6 to 10 min to a steady-state which was approximately 50% of the control levels. On transition to darkness, we did not observe as rapid CO₂ postillumination burst in the presence of AAN as in the control samples, but a slower release of CO₂ which after 3 min was faster than the dark respiration rate. However, the rate of dark CO₂ release decreased slowly with time and after approximately 15 min reached the same value as in the control samples

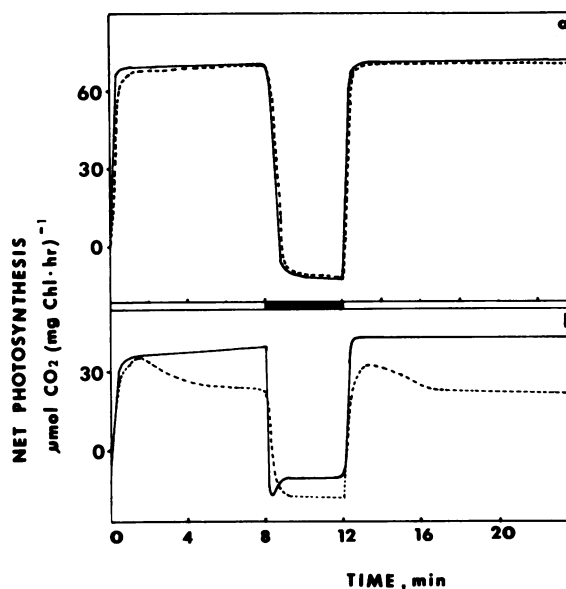


FIG. 1. Effect of AAN on net CO₂ exchange rates by leaf discs of soybean. a, 2% O₂, 200 $\mu\text{l/l}$ CO₂, balance N₂. b, 21% O₂, 200 $\mu\text{l/l}$ CO₂, balance N₂. —, Response of untreated discs; ---, response of AAN-treated discs. Discs had been floated on water or AAN (25 mM, pH 7) in light and air for 50 min, preceding experiment. Open or closed bars between graphs represent light (1200 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ approximately 80% saturation) or dark conditions, respectively.

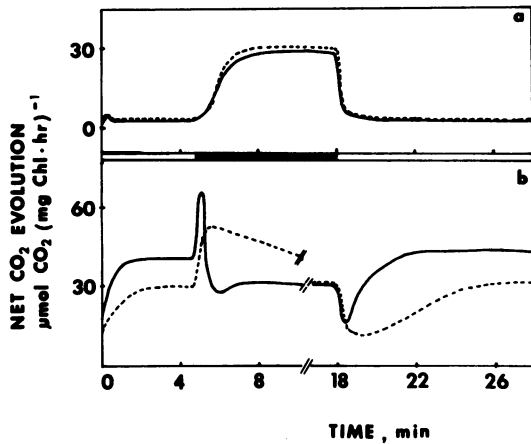


FIG. 2. Effect of AAN on net CO₂ release into CO₂-free gas by leaf discs of soybean. —, response of untreated discs; ---, response of AAN-treated discs (same conditions as in Fig. 1). a, Leaf discs were flushed with 2% O₂, 98% N₂; b, Leaf discs were flushed with 60% O₂, 40% N₂. Open and closed bars represent light and dark conditions, respectively.

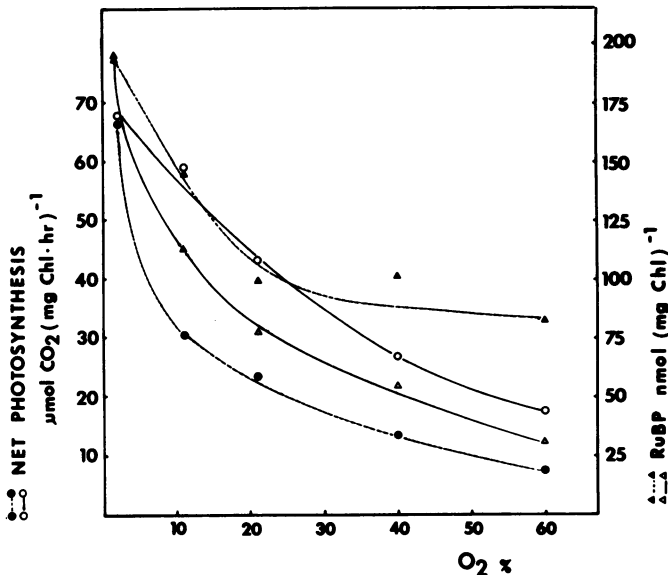


FIG. 3. Effect of O₂ concentration on steady net rate of CO₂ exchange (○, ●) and RuBP levels (Δ, ▲) at 200 μl/l CO₂ in control (—) and AAN-treated samples (---). Light intensity and AAN treatment conditions were same as in Figure 1. For RuBP measurements, samples were taken after they had reached steady-state rates of photosynthesis during second illumination period (see Fig. 1). Each point represents mean value of four to twelve replicates. SE of the mean values for RuBP ranged from 5.2% to 23% and for net photosynthesis from 4.3% to 19.2%.

(data not shown). When switching on the lights again, there was a partial recovery of the photosynthetic capacity, but after 1 min the rate of CO₂ uptake decreased again. These gas exchange patterns are similar to those observed with the mutant of *Arabidopsis thaliana* deficient in serine hydroxymethyl transferase (26).

Figure 2 is an example of CO₂ release in CO₂-free gas. At 2% O₂ (Fig. 2a), there was no significant difference in the rate of CO₂ evolution either in the light or dark between the AAN-treated sample and the control sample. At 60% O₂ (Fig. 2b), the rate of CO₂ release in the light by the AAN-treated sample was approximately 75% of the control values. On darkening, the control leaves showed a rapid postillumination burst which is thought to be the result of the decarboxylation of some glycolate pathway intermediates (6). With the inhibitor however, CO₂ was released

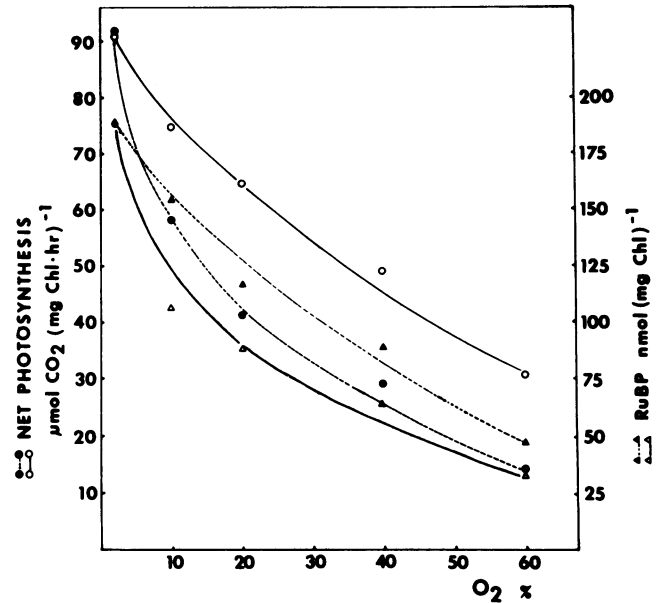


FIG. 4. Effect of O₂ concentration on the steady-state net rate of CO₂ uptake (○, ●) and RuBP levels (Δ, ▲) at 330 μl/l CO₂ in control (—) and AAN-treated samples (---). Except for CO₂ concentration, other conditions were same as in Figure 3. Each point represents mean value of eight replicates and SE of the mean values for RuBP ranged from 5.8% to 18.9% and for net photosynthesis from 13.6% to 20.9%.

at a slower rate but for a much longer time before the same dark respiration steady rate as in the control sample was reached. One can calculate that AAN-treated leaves evolved approximately 10 times more CO₂ than the control plants. When switching on the lights again a steady rate of CO₂ evolution was attained much more slowly than with the control plants.

From the linear portion of the response of net photosynthesis to CO₂ concentration (data not shown), we have determined the CO₂ compensation points at 21% O₂. They were 47.6 ± 5.2 μl/l in the control discs and 57.3 ± 15.8 μl/l in the AAN-treated discs, so they were not significantly different. The carboxylation efficiency which is the slope of the curve relating net photosynthesis to CO₂ concentration was reduced from 0.27 in the control samples to 0.17 in the AAN-treated samples. The light-dependent CO₂ release which is the extrapolation of that curve to CO₂ concentration equal 0 represented again 75% of the control values as it was in Figure 2b.

Figures 3 and 4 show the effect of O₂ and AAN on net photosynthesis at two different CO₂ concentrations. The control samples showed a typical inhibition of net photosynthesis by O₂. The percentage of inhibition by O₂ ranged from 29% to 36% at 21% O₂ and 66% to 75% at 60% O₂ at 330 and 200 μl/l CO₂, respectively. At 11% O₂ and greater, AAN inhibited net photosynthesis in addition to the O₂ effect. When expressed as a percentage of the control values at the same O₂ concentration (Fig. 5), the degree of inhibition caused by AAN was not significantly dependent on the O₂ concentration beyond 11%, at 200 μl/l CO₂. Net photosynthesis was inhibited by approximately 50% compared with the control samples. At 330 μl/l CO₂ however, the inhibition of net photosynthesis caused by AAN seemed to be more dependent on the O₂ concentration varying from 23% at 11% O₂ to 54% at 60% O₂ (Fig. 5).

RuBP Levels. At both CO₂ concentrations (Figs. 3 and 4), the control samples showed a decrease in RuBP levels correlated with the decrease in net photosynthesis when the O₂ concentration was increased from 2% to 60%. The RuBP levels were not significantly different at these two CO₂ concentrations; they were approximately 190 nmol/mg Chl at 2% O₂ and decreased to a value of 30

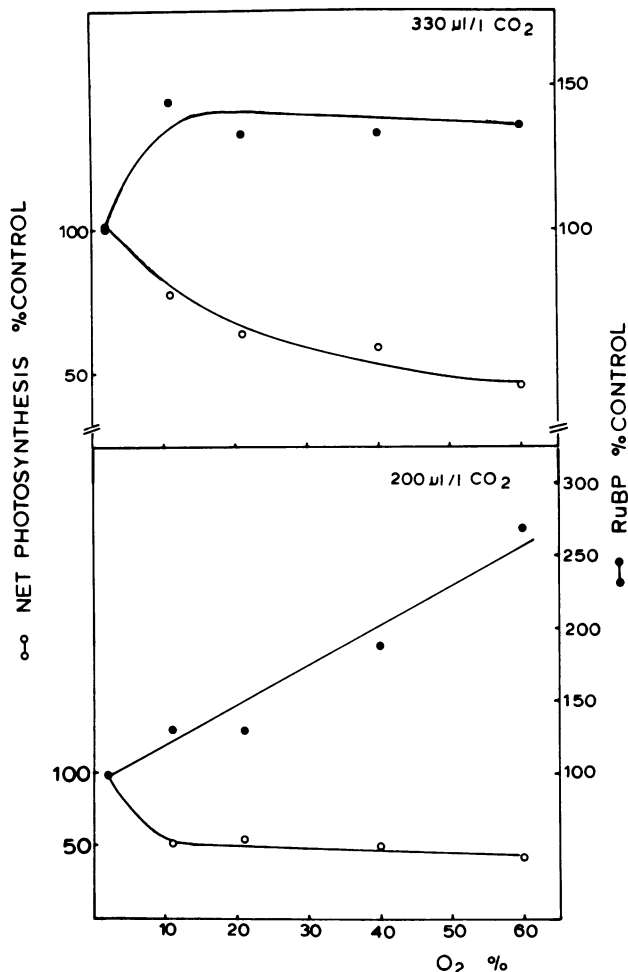


FIG. 5. Effect of AAN on net photosynthesis (○—○) and RuBP (●—●) at different O₂ concentrations and 200 or 300 μl/l CO₂. Results in Figures 3 and 4 are expressed as a percentage of control values at corresponding O₂ concentration.

nmol at 60% O₂. With the addition of the inhibitor, the RuBP levels were unchanged at 2% O₂ but were higher than in the untreated discs at the same O₂ concentration when the latter was increased. At 200 μl/l CO₂ (Fig. 5), they were 1.3 times higher at 11% O₂ and 2.6 times higher at 60% O₂. At 330 μl/l CO₂ (Fig. 5), they were approximately 1.4 times higher than in the control samples whatever the O₂ concentration from 11% to 60%.

Glycolate Pathway Intermediates Levels. As expected, since AAN is an inhibitor of glycine decarboxylase, glycine accumulated in AAN-treated discs (Table I) and its accumulation was partly dependent on the O₂ concentration. However, the values presented are the results of glycine accumulation during the 50-min incubation period in air plus the 30 min of the treatment with the O₂ and CO₂ concentrations indicated, so it is impossible to calculate a rate of synthesis in a given condition, moreover, the degree of inhibition of glycine decarboxylase is not known. Glyoxylate levels were measured at 200 μl/l CO₂ and 2% and 40% O₂. They were very low: 7 to 9 nmol/mg Chl at 2% O₂ and at 40% O₂ 11 nmol/mg Chl in the control samples and 27 nmol/mg Chl with the inhibitor. Thus, AAN caused approximately a 2-fold increase in glyoxylate levels under photorespiratory conditions. At 40% O₂ the levels of glycolate decreased with the inhibitor from approximately 90 nmol/mg Chl in the control disc to 34 nmol/mg Chl in treated discs.

DISCUSSION

The inhibition of net photosynthesis by AAN in photorespiratory conditions confirms many of the studies mentioned before

and clearly shows that inhibiting the glycolate pathway is not a means of increasing photosynthesis. AAN has been shown to be an effective inhibitor of glycine decarboxylase in mitochondria at far lower concentrations than INH, to have no side effects on dark respiration, and no effect on CO₂ fixation in chloroplasts (27). Indeed our experiments conducted at 2% O₂ with the inhibitor did not show any difference in the rates of net photosynthesis or CO₂ evolution in CO₂-free gas as compared with the control samples. One would have expected, however, to measure no more CO₂ release at 60% O₂ than at 2% O₂ in CO₂-free gas when the inhibitor was present; but it was much higher at 60% than at 2%, and the observed rates were approximately 75% of the control at the same O₂ concentration. There may be two possibilities to explain that CO₂ release in the light: (a) the inhibition of the glycine decarboxylase was not complete; as the inhibitor is competitive with respect to glycine, an accumulation of glycine may have overcome the inhibition. This would explain the observation that during the second exposure to light, the rate of CO₂ release gradually increased as the glycine pool built up. (b) The second possibility could be that, due to continuous accumulation of glycine, there was a shortage of NH₂ group donors and as suggested in Ref. 26, glycine being no longer synthesized, glyoxylate instead would have been decarboxylated. This hypothesis could also explain the decrease in net photosynthesis observed in photorespiratory conditions (Fig. 1b) since the decarboxylation of glyoxylate would have released twice as much CO₂ as glycine; but had it been the case in these experiments, one would have observed even more CO₂ release in the light in CO₂-free gas. Moreover, this hypothesis cannot account for the amount of CO₂ released in the dark which at 60% O₂ (Fig. 2b) represented approximately 2 μmol/mg Chl; the glyoxylate pool was small (approximately 30 nmol/mg Chl), and in the dark there should be no more glyoxylate synthesis. We would thus favor the first explanation which is supported by the fact that the amount of glycine accumulated in the light (approximately 5 μmol/mg Chl) can account for the amount of CO₂ released in the dark.

The control leaves showed a decrease in RuBP levels correlated with the decrease in net photosynthesis when the O₂ concentration was increased. It could follow that lower levels of RuBP when increasing O₂ concentration may in part account for the decreased rate of photosynthesis, the other factors intervening in the inhibition by O₂ being an increased release of CO₂ due to an increased production of glycolate and a competitive inhibition of RuBP carboxylase by O₂ with respect to CO₂ (4). RuBP levels measured in air were approximately 90 nmol/mg Chl. If we consider a chloroplast volume of 25 μl/mg Chl (10), that corresponds to a concentration of 3.6 mM in the chloroplasts. In a recent study (21) with wheat seedlings, this concentration of RuBP appeared to limit CO₂ fixation, considering the concentration of binding sites of the RuBP carboxylase. However, it is possible that RuBP carboxylase concentration was lower in soybean; thus RuBP may still have been saturating.

Given these results and the possible limitation of CO₂ uptake by low concentrations of RuBP at high O₂, one would have expected that preventing the recycling of the carbon to the Calvin cycle and storing it in glycine would have further depleted the Calvin cycle intermediates and among them RuBP. Our results do not apparently support this view because, at O₂ levels above 2%, the RuBP levels were higher in the presence of the inhibitor. As we observed a decrease in net photosynthesis, higher RuBP levels would mean that RuBP carboxylase was inhibited. AAN itself did not inhibit RuBP carboxylase since we did not observe any decrease in net photosynthesis at 2% O₂. The inhibition may have been the result of an accumulation of an intermediate of the glycolate pathway in photorespiratory conditions which could then have had a regulatory effect on RuBP carboxylase. Indeed the glycine levels were 7 to 10 times higher than in the control

Table I. Effect of AAN on Glycine Levels at Various O₂ Concentrations

The leaf discs were preincubated in the light and air for 50 min with 25 mM AAN or water as indicated. Samples were taken after they had reached steady-state rates of net photosynthesis in 200 $\mu\text{l/l}$ CO₂ and O₂ as indicated. For details see Figure 3. Glycine was measured as described in "Material and Methods."

	Oxygen				
	2%	11%	21%	40%	60%
	Glycine Content				
	$\mu\text{mol/mgChl}$				
Control	0.18 \pm 0.03 ^a	0.31 \pm 0.06	0.44 \pm 0.18	0.62 \pm 0.11	0.73 \pm 0.15
+ AAN	1.65 \pm 0.2	2.68 \pm 0.24	2.90 \pm 0.26	3.47 \pm 0.72	5.62 \pm 0.56

^a Mean values of four to nine experiments \pm SD.

samples, but this was true also at 2% O₂ (since the incubation period had been conducted in air), in which case there was no inhibition of net photosynthesis and no change in RuBP levels; thus it is unlikely that in photorespiratory conditions high levels of glycine directly affected the RuBP carboxylase activity. Moreover, 4 min in the dark led to a partial recovery of the photosynthetic capacity and during that short period the glycine pool was not depleted considering the rate of CO₂ release in the dark.

Among the other glycolate pathway intermediates measured, glyoxylate increased 2 to 3 times in presence of AAN, but its concentration was still low (approximately 1 mM if it were all present in chloroplasts). A recent study (5) showed that 10 mM glyoxylate caused a reversible inhibition of the RuBP carboxylase-oxygenase; however the inhibition occurred only with the fully activated enzyme in the absence of effectors which may not be the actual state of the enzyme *in vivo* (21). Higher concentrations of glyoxylate have been reported to inhibit photosynthesis by chloroplasts (20), but to stimulate net photosynthesis in tobacco leaf discs (20) and isolated soybean mesophyll cells (18). In these experiments too, the order of addition of CO₂ and glyoxylate was critical. It is thus difficult to interpret these results *in vivo* and further experiments are needed to demonstrate that glyoxylate can be an inhibitor of the carboxylase *in vivo*.

There is some evidence that in severe photorespiratory conditions endogenous carbohydrates are used to provide carbon skeletons for the Calvin cycle and glycolate synthesis (3, 12). This may have happened in our experiments too, and we can imagine that a regulatory mechanism came into effect to cause a partial inhibition of RuBP carboxylase, slowing the wasteful process of using endogenous carbohydrates to synthesize glycine. How this regulatory mechanism may operate cannot be deduced from the present experiments. However, it seems clear that diverting much carbon from the Calvin cycle for the synthesis of glycine instead of mainly starch and sucrose has a negative effect on photosynthesis possibly because of a regulatory effect on RuBP carboxylase.

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