Quantification of the Contribution of CO,, HCO;, and External Carbonic Anhydrase to Photosynthesis at Low Dissolved lnorganic Carbon in *Chlorella saccharophila'*

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An equation has been developed incorporating whole-cell rate constants for CO₂ and HCO₃ that describes accurately photosyn**thesis (Phs) in suspensions of unicellular algae at low dissolved inorganic carbon. At pH 8.0 the concentration of CO, available to the alga1 cells depends on the rate of supply from, and the loss to, HCO; and the rate of use by the cells. At elevated cell densities** $(>30$ mg chlorophyll [Chl] L⁻¹), at which $CO₂$ use by the cells is **high, the slope of a graph of absolute Phs versus Chl concentration approaches the rate of Phs on a milligram of Chl basis because of HCO₃** use alone. The slope of a graph of Phs versus HCO₃ will be **the rate constant for HCO;, and for** *Cblorella saccbaropbila* **it was** 0.16 L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. The difference between the constants for **dissolved inorganic carbon (measured in cells with external carbonic anhydrase) and HCO,-' is the constant for CO,, which was** 26 L mg^{-*i*} Chl h⁻¹. This difference causes the half-saturation con**stant for Phs to increase 5- to 6-fold at high cell densities. The** increase in CO₂ use as a result of external carbonic anhydrase is **described mathematically as a function of cell density.**

The ability to accumulate DIC has been shown to occur in many algae and cyanobacteria (Raven, 1991, and refs. therein). The physiological implications of DIC accumulation include low $CO₂$ -compensation points (Birmingham and Colman, 1979), high whole-cell affinity for DIC (Berry et al., 1976; Kaplan et al., 1980), and suppression of photorespiration (Colman, 1989). The DIC-concentrating mechanism is thought to consist of HCO_3^- and/or CO_2 transport as distinct processes (Miller and Canvin, 1985; Thielmann et al., 1990).

In some green algae the use of $HCO₃⁻$ has been correlated with the presence of external CA activity (Miyachi et al., 1983; Moroney et al., 1985; Aizawa and Miyachi, 1986; Nara et al., 1990). In these cases external CA is thought to facilitate the use of $HCO₃⁻$ by maintaining equilibrium between $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ and thereby maintaining the supply of $CO₂$ to a $CO₂$ transporter (Aizawa and Miyachi, 1986). Direct $HCO₃⁻$ transport, however, has also been demonstrated in cells that have external CA activity (Williams and Turpin, 1987; Gehl et al., 1990). External CA could increase overall DIC supply at alkaline pH if $CO₂$ is the preferred species of DIC as has been shown in some green algae (Shelp and Canvin, 1980; Siiltemeyer et al., 1989). The precise contribution of external CA, $HCO₃⁻$ transport, and CO, transport to Phs has yet to be elaborated.

In the unicellular green alga *Cklorella sacckaropkila* the accumulation mechanism includes both CO, (Rotatore and Colman, 1991) and $HCO₃⁻$ (Gehl et al., 1990) transporters. *C. sacckaropkila* also has an external form of CA (Williams and Colman, 1993) that is suppressed by growth at acid pH (Gehl et al., 1990). Transport of HCO₃ in *C. saccharophila* has been shown using the kinetic method of Miller and Colman (1980). This method involves showing that in the absence of external CA activity a dense culture of cells photosynthesizes more rapidly than the theoretical maximum spontaneous production of $CO₂$ from $HCO₃^-$. Phs above that of the $CO₂$ production rate is presumably the result of $HCO₃⁻$ transport. This method, although yielding strong evidence for the presence of HCO_3^- transport, does not quantify how much direct $HCO₃₃$ transport is contributing to Phs. The isotopic disequilibrium method described by Espie and Colman (1986) is powerful at discerning $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ use but does so at elevated DIC levels and is quantitative only if a single species of DIC is used by an organism.

The transport of CO, in *C. sacckaropkila* has been demonstrated using MS (Rotatore and Colman, 1991). The CO, concentration in a suspension of cells was monitored after illumination, and it was shown that acid-grown cells of C. *sacckaropkila* were able to remove CO, to approximately a zero concentration within 2 min. The inorganic carbon species were maintained out of equilibrium as shown by the increase in CO, upon addition of exogenous CA.

Both of these methods use the fact that the uncatalyzed interconversion of HCO_3^- and CO_2 is slow relative to photosynthetic requirements for CO₂. These ideas can be extended to an extreme case in which the demand for $CO₂$ is far greater than the spontaneous supply rate, at which point the cells would photosynthesize as a function of the supply of HCO₃ alone. At very high cell-density $CO₂$ supply to total Phs will approach a constant rate at or near the theoretical maximum supply rate from $HCO₃^-$. This allows the examination of the contributions of $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ to Phs and changes in whole-cell affinity for DIC as Phs becomes dependent on $HCO₃⁻$.

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Abbreviations: CA, carbonic anhydrase; DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon; Phs, photosynthesis; P_{\max} maximum photosynthetic rate.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION

If Phs at low DIC is a function of transport of CO, and $HCO₃⁻$ and these processes are independent and are reasonably described by a linear relationship, then a simple equation can be derived to describe Phs at low DIC.

$$
Phs = k_1 [CO_2] + k_2 [HCO_3^-]
$$
 (1)

where Phs is Phs as μ mol O₂ mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ assuming a photosynthetic quotient of unity; k_1 is the whole-cell rate constant for Phs due to CO_2 as L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹; k_2 is the whole-cell rate constant for Phs due to HCO_3^- as L mg⁻¹ Chl h^{-1} ; [CO₂] is the CO₂ concentration outside the cell; and $[HCO₃⁻]$ is the HCO₃⁻ concentration outside the cell.

If Phs is given as the absolute rate of O_2 evolution, then the equation becomes

$$
Phsabs = k1[Chl][CO2] + k2[Chl][HCO3]
$$
 (2)

where Phs_{abs} is O_2 evolution as μ M O_2 h⁻¹ and [Chl] is Chl concentration as mg Chl L^{-1} .

If DIC is added to a suspension of cells at alkaline pH (8.0) as $HCO₃$, then the $CO₂$ concentration will be a function of the supply of $CO₂$ from HCO₃, its loss in the backreaction to HCO_3^- , and its use by the cells. Let us assume that a steady state between and $CO₂$ supply occurs much more rapidly than total DIC is used through Phs. Since at pH 8.0 98% of DIC is in the form of $HCO₃⁻$, Phs as a function of $HCO₃⁻$ may remain written as stated in Equation 2. $CO₂$ will be supplied from two reactions involving $HCO₃⁻$. The first is

$$
HCO_3^- + H^+ \rightleftharpoons H_2CO_3 \stackrel{k_3}{\rightleftharpoons} H_2O + CO_2
$$
 (3)

The initial part of this reaction occurs almost instantaneously and so the concentration of H_2CO_3 may be written as a function of the equilibrium constant for the dissociation of H_2CO_3 .

$$
[H_2CO_3] = \frac{[HCO_3^-][H^+]}{K_{\text{eq}}}
$$
 (4)

The other reaction involved in the supply of $CO₂$ from $HCO₃⁻$ is

$$
HCO_3^- \underset{k_{-4}}{\overset{k_4}{\rightleftharpoons}} OH^- + CO_2 \tag{5}
$$

The loss of $CO₂$ through the backreactions can be easily described by rate equations. The loss of $CO₂$ as a result of Phs is a function of the whole-cell affinity for $CO₂$ and the number of cells present as described by Chl concentration (see Eq. 2). The concentration of $CO₂$ at steady state thus becomes

$$
[CO_2] = \frac{k_4[HCO_3^-] + k_3[H_2CO_3]}{[Ch]} + k_{-3} + k_{-4}[OH^-]}
$$
 (6)

Substituting using Equation 4 we obtain

[
$$
CO_2
$$
] = $\frac{[HCO_3^-]k_4 + \frac{k_3[HCO_3^-][H^+]}{K_{eq}}}{[Chl]k_1 + k_{-3} + k_{-4}[OH^-]}$ (7)

By rearranging and collecting constants at pH 8.0 we obtain

$$
[CO_2] = \frac{k_f [HCO_3^-]}{k_I [Chl] + k_b}
$$
 (8)

where
$$
k_f = k_4 + k_3 \frac{10^{-8}}{K_{eq}}
$$
 and $k_b = k_{-3} + k_{-4} 10^{-6}$.

By substituting Equation 8 into Equation 2, the absolute rate of $O₂$ evolution becomes

$$
\text{Phs}_{\text{abs}} = \frac{k_f \, [\text{HCO}_3^-]}{k_1 [\text{Chl}] + k_b} [\text{Chl}] k_1 + k_2 [\text{HCO}_3^-] [\text{Chl}] \quad (9)
$$

The contribution of $CO₂$ to Phs takes the form of a rectangular hyperbola when DIC (HCO $_{3}^{-}$) is kept constant and cell density is changed (Fig. 1). As $[Ch]k_1$ becomes large relative to the rate of loss of $CO₂$ in the backreactions (represented by k_b), then the contribution of $CO₂$ to Phs approaches an asymptote defined by the maxirnum rate of $CO₂$ supply from $HCO₃⁻$ as described by Miller and Colman (1980). With the addition of the contribution of $HCO_3^$ a line describing total O_2 evolution as a function of [Chl] is obtained (Fig. 1).

The presence of external CA activity will increase the P_{max} in a manner dependent on [Chl]. External CA, at a concentration sufficient to establish equilibrium, would

Relatlve Chlorophyll Concentration

Figure 1. Relative contributions of $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$ to Phs_{abs} as a function of [ChI] as given in Equation **9. As** [Chll increases, DIC is drawn farther out of equilibrium and $[CO₂]$ will approach zero. The contribution of $CO₂$ thus approaches the maximum dehydration rate of HCO₃. The contribution of HCO₃ is [Chl] independent and so Phs_{abs} will increase in a linear manner with [Chl]. The addition of the two lines gives Phs_{abs} as a function of [Chl] for total [DIC].

maintain the contribution of $CO₂$ to Phs at

$$
\frac{k_f}{k_b} [DIC]k_1 [Chl] \tag{10}
$$

where the ratio k_f/k_b represents the equilibrium proportion of CO₂ at pH 8.0. A small proportion of DIC will be present as $CO₃$ at pH 8.0 (approximately 0.5%), but this will have little effect on the model. Since the supply of CO, in the absence of external CA activity is defined by Equation 9, then CA will increase use of $CO₂$ by a factor of

$$
\frac{k_1[\text{Ch}])}{k_b} + 1 \tag{11}
$$

Values for the rate constants for Equations 3,4, and 5 were obtained from Miller and Colman (1980). It must be stated that the temperature used in these experiments was 22"C, which is 3°C lower than the temperature at which the rate constants were determined. This difference was deemed insignificant in comparison with variability in the reported values for these constants (Pocker and Bjorkquist, 1977; Stumm and Morgan, 1981). When these constants are used to determine theoretical rates of reactions, they must be used with the knowledge that they are simply good approximations. Given this, the values for k_f and k_b were determined to be 4.5 h^{-1} and 164 h^{-1} , respectively.

Values for k_1 and k_2 can be derived experimentally. The slope of the line described by Equation 9 when [DIC] is held constant and as [Chl] becomes large will approach the P_{max} on a milligrams of Chl basis as a result of HCO₃ alone. By creating a number of graphs at different $[HCO₃$] values, we can create a Phs versus $[HCO₃⁻]$ graph, the initial slope of which will be k_2 .

When external CA is added or the cells are grown at alkaline pH so that they exhibit external CA activity, the use of CO, will become independent of [Chl] and the slope of a graph of Phs versus [DIC] will yield a rate constant for total DIC at equilibrium. Since

$$
k_{\rm DIC} = k_1 + k_2 \tag{12}
$$

where k_{DIC} is whole-cell rate constant of Phs due to total DIC, then k_1 can be be obtained by difference.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chlorella sacckarophilu (UTCC 91, UTEX 2496) was obtained from the culture collection at the University of Toronto and maintained on Bold's basal medium (Gehl et al., 1990). Cells were grown at pH 8.0 buffered with 10 mM Bicine and at pH 5.0 in semicontinuous culture with the pH maintained by a pH-stat system (Cole-Parmer Co., Chicago, IL). The latter was necessary because the biological buffer Mes was found to suppress CA activity independently of pH and was, therefore, avoided in case other processes were are also affected. Bicine had no effect on external CA acfivity when compared to cells grown at alkaline pH in the pH-stat system.

CA activity was measured using the potentiometric technique of Wilbur and Anderson (1948) as modified by Williams and Colman (1993). Approximately 30 mL of cell culture were centrifuged, washed once with 10 mL of barbital buffer (pH 8.3), and resuspended in a final volume of either 3.0 or 1.5 mL. CA assays were performed on 1.5-mL aliquots of either 30 mg Chl L⁻¹ or 60 mg Chl L⁻¹ final concentration. The higher concentrations were used for acid-grown cells to ensure that no CA activity was measurable. Chl concentration was measured as described previously (Williams and Colman, 1993).

O, evolution was monitored using a Clarke-type electrode (Hansatech Inc., Norfolk, UK). Cells were centrifuged and washed once with distilled water before being resuspended in low-DIC 25 mM Bicine buffer (pH 8.0) in fresh Bold's medium. Low-DIC buffer was obtained by boiling the buffer while bubbling with N_2 for 1 h. Volume was maintained by the addition of distilled water. Aliquots (1 mL) of cell suspension were placed in the electrode chamber, and the cells were allowed to reach a point at or near to the C0,-compensation point, at which time the total DIC was measured (approximately $5-10 \mu$ M total DIC in both acid- and alkaline-grown cells) using the gas chromatographic technique of Birmingham and Colman (1979). $O₂$ evolution was then monitored upon incremental addition of NaHCO₃. DIC used by the cells was accounted for by assuming a photosynthetic quotient of unity and then subtracting the used DIC from the total added. Phs was determined after a steady rate of $O₂$ evolution was observed (minimum time approximately 30 s). Chart speeds of up to 15 cm min^{-1} were required at the elevated Chl concentrations. The photosynthetic kinetics were also monitored in acid-grown cells with the addition of 100 μ g mL⁻¹ bovine CA (Sigma). Illumination was provided by two Fiber-Lite high-intensity illuminators (Dolan-Jenner Industries, Inc., Woburn, MA) equipped with two fiber-optic cables each. The maximum intensity supplied by each cable was approximately 2800 μ E m⁻² s⁻¹. Intensity was varied to avoid light limitation or photoinhibition.

Since rates of DIC-dependent Phs were not measured at exactly the same DIC concentrations at each cell density, comparisons were made between Phs values predicted by fitting the empirical data obtained at low DIC (those below and just above the level yielding half-maximal Phs) to a rectangular hyperbola using a double-reciproca1 plot. The actual concentration of DIC that yielded half-maximal Phs ($K\mathscr{D}IC$) was determined mathematically using the derived equations after measuring P_{max} empirically.

RESULTS

Acid-grown cells exhibited no detectable CA activity when assayed at 60 μ g Chl mL⁻¹, whereas cells grown at pH 8.0 had 40 units mg⁻¹ Chl. To examine changes in DIC-limited Phs with changing cell density, it was first necessary to show that light did not become limiting at elevated densities. This was established by showing that maximum P_{max} did not change over the range of Chl concentrations used with either alkaline-grown cells or acid-grown cells (Fig. 2). The P_{max} for alkaline-grown cells was lower than that of acid-grown cells, probably as a result of a slower growth rate.

Figure 2. Variation in P_{max} in alkaline-grown cells (\blacklozenge), acid-grown cells $(\blacksquare, \square, \blacktriangle)$, and acid-grown cells with the addition of 100 μ g CA mL^{-1} (\diamond) as a function of cell density. The different symbols within the acid treatment represent results from different experiments.

Absolute rates of O_2 evolution as a function of Chl concentration are shown in Figure **3** for acid-grown cells, alkaline-grown cells, and acid-grown cells with the addition of bovine CA for a single DIC concentration of 50 μ M. The slope through all points associated with Chl concentrations greater than $36 \text{ mg } L^{-1}$ is shown for acid-grown cells and was 8.07 μ mol O_2 mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. The regression through points associated with alkaline-grown cells

Figure 3. Total O_2 production in alkaline-grown cells $(•)$, acid grown cells (\blacksquare , \blacksquare , \blacktriangle), and acid-grown cells with 100 μ g CA mL⁻¹ (\Diamond) as a function of Chl concentration (a measure of cell density) at 50 μ _M DIC. The different symbols for acid-grown cells represent results from different experiments. The line drawn through points associated with acid-grown cells between 36 and 192 μ g Chl mL⁻¹ was determined by linear regression, as was the line drawn for alkaline-grown cells.

yielded a slope of 30 μ mol O_2 mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹. The addition of external bovine CA to acid-grown cells shifted the Phs values of acid-grown cells to that of alkaline-grown cells (Fig. **3).**

The rates of Phs due to $HCO₃⁻$ were calculated at a number of DIC concentrations as described in Figure **3.** Rates of Phs due to HCO_3^- alone as a function cf [DIC] are shown in Figure **4.** The slope of this line *(k,* as given in Eq. 1), as determined by regression, is 0.16 L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ assuming a photosynthetic quotient of 1. The initial slope of the Phs versus DIC regression was 0.74 L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹, giving (by difference) a slope for CO_2 of 0.58 L mg⁻¹ Chl h^{-1} . If we assume equilibrium conditions in the presence of external CA activity where the CO, is **2.2%** of total DIC, the slope for CO_2 in terms of CO_2 was 26 L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹ $(k_1$ as given in Eq. 1). The affinity for CO, in C. *saccharophila* is, therefore, 160 times higher than that for $HCO₃$.

The graph of Phs_{abs} versus [Chl] as created by Equation 9 for a single [DIC] of 50 μ m is plotted with the measured rates of O, evolution in Figure *5.* Phs generally 's described as μ mol O₂ mg⁻¹ Chl⁻¹ h⁻¹. A three-dimensional graph of Phs on a milligram of Chl basis versus [DIC] arid [Chl] can be produced from Equation 9 and by subsequently dividing the Phs_{abs} by [Chl] (Fig. 6). This graph represents the initial portion of Phs versus DIC curves at varying Chl concentration. Phs increases linearly with DIC, and the slope of this function increases as Chl concentration (cell density) decreases.

Whereas the P_{max} did not change with increasing cell density the K~ADIC increased by a factor of **6** in acid-grown cells and increased only slightly in alkaline-grown cells (Fig. 7).

Figure 4. Phs as a function of DIC concentration as a result of HCO₂ use **(A;** from the slopes of Fig. 3 at different [DIC] ior acid-grown cells) and DIC (**I**; from the slopes of Fig. 3 for alkaline-grown cells). The *r2* values for all slopes as calculated by linear regression were all greater than 0.93.

Figure 5. Phs as a function of Chl concentration for cells grown at acid pH $(\blacksquare, \square, \blacktriangle)$ at 50 μ M DIC. The different symbols represent results from different experiments. The line drawn was created by using the values of *k,* and *k,* calculated from Figure 4 in Equation 9 at 50 μ _M DIC.

DISCUSSION

From previous work it is known that C. *saccharophila* has the ability to use $CO₂$ (Rotatore and Colman, 1991) and $HCO₃⁻$ (Gehl et al., 1990) as substrates for Phs. $HCO₃⁻$ is transported directly into the cell and will also act to supply the CO, transporter at a rate determined by the rate of chemical reactions and by the degree of catalysis due to the presence of CA.

C. *saccharophila* cells grown at acid pH exhibit no external CA activity (Gehl et al., 1990; Williams and Colman, 1993). Previous studies of $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ use have relied on inhibition of external CA using CA inhibitors (Moroney et al., 1985; Williams and Turpin, 1987; Gehl et al., 1990). Although these experiments have enabled conclusions to be drawn regarding the presence of $HCO₃⁻$ transport, it is difficult to interpret the effects of CA inhibitors on whole-

Figure *6.* Phs as a function *of* cell density ([Chll) and DIC concentration as calculated using Equation 9 and standardized to [Chl]. The constants k_1 and k_2 were calculated from Figure 4.

Figure 7. Variation in $K_{1/2}$ DIC in alkaline-grown cells (\triangleleft) , acid-grown cells $(\blacksquare, \square, \triangle)$, and acid-grown cells with the addition of 100 μ g CA mL⁻¹ (\Diamond) as a function of cell density. The different symbols within the acid treatment represent results from different experiments.

cell Phs since these compounds may inhibit interna1 CA activity (Williams and Turpin, 1987), PSII activity (Swader and Jacobsen, 1972), or transport activity (Price and Badger, 1989). The use of acid-grown C. *saccharophila* enables the examination of Phs and the role of external CA without the use of inhibitors. The underlying assumption is that fully activated air-grown cells will have the same capacities for $CO₂$ and $HCO₃⁻$ use regardless of the pH at which they were grown. Since the addition of external bovine CA to acid-grown cells alters the photosynthetic kinetics of acid cells to that of alkaline cells (Fig. 7), it is probable that the major, if not only, difference between acid cells and alkaline cells in relation to their abilities to use DIC is the presence of external CA.

The precise nature of the use of $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$ in the absence of external CA activity can be described mathematically (Eq. 9) assuming a linear relationship between DIC and Phs at low DIC and that the transporters of $HCO₃$ and $CO₂$ act independently. Previous work has shown that, in a cyanobacterium, the shape of the Phs versus DIC function at low DIC is governed by transport processes and is linear (Mayo et al., 1989). The curved nature of the function at DIC concentrations above half-saturation is a result of limitation of $CO₂$ fixation by ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate levels (Mayo et al., 1989). This type of result was also seen in the Phs versus DIC functions in this study, wherein the rectangular hyperbolas fitted to the data at DIC concentrations below and just above that required for halfsaturation of Phs consistently predicted P_{max} values far in excess of the measured P_{max} data (data not shown). Therefore, Phs is described well by a linear relationship at [DIC] values below the $K\llcorner$ DIC. However, as [Chl] becomes low, the concentration of DIC required to violate the assumption of linearity will also decrease so that the model will overestimate Phs at [DIC]s of 70 to 100 μ M when DIC is at equilibrium (i.e. when [Chl] is very low, see Fig. **6).**

The transport of $CO₂$ and $HCO₃$ in a green alga (Thielmann et al., 1989) and a cyanobacterium (Miller and Canvin, 1985) have characteristics suggesting that they are independent processes. Price and Badger (1989) suggested that in a cyanobacterium the transport of $HCO₃⁻$ may be through the mediation of a subunit attached to the CO, transporter. If this were the case, there could be a control mechanism whereby the $HCO₃⁻$ transport is stopped when *(30,* is readily available. The availability of CO, is a function of both the $[HCO₃⁻]$ and the [Chl] as described in Equation 6. The model described by Equation 9 fits the data of the present study quite well (Fig. *5),* suggesting that the assumption may be valid. It is arguable, however, as to whether this method could detect the suppression of $HCO₃⁻$ transport at very low cell density given that the percentage contribution of $HCO₃⁻$ to Phs is low when $CO₂$ availability is high.

The estimates of the contribution of $HCO₃⁻$ alone to Phs (Fig. 4) will only be accurate if the contribution of CO, has become constant and, therefore, close to the maximum spontaneous supply of $CO₂$ from $HCO₃⁻$. This will only be the case if the $CO₂$ concentration is approximately zero. This has been shown to be true in acid-grown cells of *C. sacckarophila* in which a suspension of cells having a cell density of 8 mg Chl L⁻¹ removed CO₂ to about 0.45 μ M in a suspension of 100 μ m DIC at pH 7.5. The data for Figure **4** were derived from the slopes of Figure 3 at concentrations greater than 36 μ g mL⁻¹ and so the CO₂ supply rate is certainly very close to the maximum rate. The rate constant for whole-cell use of HCO₃ (0.16 L mg Chl⁻¹ h⁻¹) is probably accurate. The estimate for the rate constant for $CO₂$ (26 L mg⁻¹ Chl h⁻¹) may be less accurate because there was a small density effect on Phs independent of $CO₂$ and HCO₃ supply (Fig. 7). The values of k_{DIC} and consequently k_1 would therefore be underestimated. Even given these limitations, other data of inorganic carbon fluxes versus $[CO₂]$ observed by Palmqvist et al. (1994) using MS for *Cklamydomonas* and *Scendesmus* would suggest that the estimate of k_1 is reasonable. Since these workers were observing inorganic carbon fluxes as opposed to $O₂$ evolution in this study, it is clear that, although there may be other factors involved, Phs at low DIC is largely a function of the ability of transporters to maintain supply of inorganic carbon to the cell, as has been clearly shown in a cyanobacterium (Mayo et al., 1989).

Given that the P_{max} did not change with cell density (Fig. 2), it is evident from Figure 6 that, as cell density decreases and the initial slope of the Phs versus [DIC] curve increases, there should be a concomitant decrease in the $K₂DIC$ even if there is some deviation from the assumption of linearity. This is evident in Figure 7, which shows that the $K \nleftrightarrow$ DIC increases 5 to 6 times as cell density increases. The K₁₂DIC for cells with external CA was about 150 μ m at high cell density and approximately 500 μ M in cells without CA. When expressed in terms of $CO₂$ the K $\frac{1}{2}$ DIC for cells with CA was 3.3 μ M, which is 150 times lower than the $K_{1/2}$ DIC for cells without CA. The decrease in affinity for DIC in cells without external CA at high cell density, therefore, is accounted for by the fact that they are reliant on $HCO₃⁻$, for which they have an affinity that is 160 times lower than for $CO₂$. In light of the fact that K¹/₂DIC values are strongly dependent on cell density, especially between 0 and 50 mg Chl L^{-1} (Fig. 7), concentrations at which most studies have been performed, it is necessary to evaluate past data with the knowledge of the cell density at which the experiments were performed.

The presence of external CA activity in alkaline cells allows the cells to maintain DIC at equilibrium (Rotatore and Colman, 1991). As mentioned by Tsuzuki and Miyachi (1991), the effects of adding CA to whole cells will only be seen at higher cell densities. The present model allows the quantification of this effect. By maintaining equilibrium, external CA activity will increase CO, use as given in Equation 11. For *C. saccharophila* CA increases CO, use by a factor of 0.16 [Chl] $+ 1$ at low DIC. As [Chl] approaches 0, the DIC will approach equilibrium and CA will have an increasingly small impact on the rate of Phs. The model's applicability at very low [Chll may be weak, since it is unlikely, even around a single cell, that DIC is at perfect equilibrium. The degree of disequilibrium around a single cell will begin to depend on diffusional resistance to $CO₂$, especially as a function of boundary layer thickness. Although the model may or may not hold at low [Chl], it is clear that more dilute cultures will have a niuch lower requirement for CA to increase affinity for DIC:. The presence and level of external CA in microalgae may well depend not only on the $CO₂$ concentration in the medium as controlled by CO, concentration in the air stream bubbling through a culture but on the density of cells in suspension.

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