**BBA 41770** 

# Photosystem-I-driven inorganic carbon transport in the cyanobacterium, Anacystis nidulans

# Teruo Ogawa, Akira Miyano and Yorinao Inoue

Solar Energy Research Group, The Algatron, The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research (RIKEN), Wako-shi, Saitama 351-01 (Japan)

(Received October 29th, 1984)

Key words: Carbon transport; Photosystem I; Electron transport; (Anacystis)

Anacystis nidulans grown at air levels of CO<sub>2</sub> accumulates high concentrations of inorganic carbon within the cells, which effluxes as CO<sub>2</sub> after a light period. The effect of inhibitors and electron acceptors of photosynthesis on the postillumination CO<sub>2</sub> burst was studied to identify the photosynthetic reaction(s) involved in the inorganic carbon transport. The following results were obtained. (i) In the presence of iodoacetamide, an inhibitor of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, the CO<sub>2</sub> burst was greater and was insensitive to 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea. The inorganic carbon accumulation in the presence of iodoacetamide showed an action spectrum of Photosystem (PS) I reaction. The results demonstrate that a PS-I-mediated cyclic electron flow is involved in the inorganic carbon transport. (ii) Draining of electrons to 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzo-quinone (DMQ), p-nitrosodimethylaniline (PNDA), O<sub>2</sub> or nitrite and phenazinemethosulfate (PMS)-bypassed cyclic electron flow inhibited the CO<sub>2</sub> burst. This is ascribed to the inhibition of the cyclic electron flow involved in the inorganic carbon transport. (iii) The electron flow to DMQ and PNDA or PMS-bypassed cyclic electron flow produced ATP actively. Thus, the inorganic carbon transport does not proceed by ATP supply only. (iv) Uncouplers and inhibitors of ATP synthesis had a strong inhibitory effect on the CO<sub>2</sub> burst. From these results, we concluded that both PS-I-cyclic electron flow and ATP are required to drive the inorganic carbon transport.

# Introduction

Cyanobacteria and green algae have a mechanism to transport exogenous inorganic carbon and concentrate it internally [1–7]. The CO<sub>2</sub>-concentrating mechanism is considered to involve an active inorganic carbon transport. Three models have been proposed to explain the transport: (i) a

Abbreviations: PS, Photosystem; Chl, chlorophyll; Hepes, 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid; DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea; DMQ, 2,5-dimethyl-p-benzoquinone; PNDA, p-nitrosodimethylaniline; CCCP, carbonylcyanide-m-chlorophenylhydrazone; DCCD, N, N'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide; PMS, phenazinemethosulfate.

primary electrogenic HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> pump, (ii) H<sup>+</sup>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> symport or OH<sup>-</sup>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> antiport secondary to an H<sup>+</sup> extrusion pump [6] and (iii) Na<sup>+</sup>HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> symport secondary to a Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchange [8]. Photosynthesis supplies energy for the transporting mechanism. However, the photosynthetic reaction involved in the mechanism is not yet understood. It is assumed that photosynthesis produces ATP to drive the inorganic carbon transporting mechanism [9]. A number of papers have shown that DCMU inhibits the accumulation of inorganic carbon in cyanobacteria, suggesting a requirement of the linear electron transport [2,4,9]. Contradictory results have been obtained with high CO<sub>2</sub>-grown cells of *Anabaena variabilis* [7,10]. The ac-

cumulation of inorganic carbon in these cells was insensitive to DCMU and showed an action spectrum of PS I reaction.

In order to identify the photosynthetic reaction(s) involved in the CO<sub>2</sub>-concentrating mechanism, we have examined the effect of inhibitors and electron acceptors of photosynthesis on the accumulation of inorganic carbon in Anacystis nidulans. The inorganic carbon accumulated within Anacystis cells effluxes as CO2 immediately after a light period. Such postillumination CO<sub>2</sub> burst has been observed in Synechococcus sp. [4] and A. variabilis [7,10]. A previous paper has shown that the total amount of CO2 evolved as the burst is equal to the amount of inorganic carbon accumulated within the cells in the light and indicated that the CO<sub>2</sub> burst is a quantitative measurement of the internal inorganic carbon [11]. We report here the effect of inhibitors and electron acceptors of photosynthesis on the CO<sub>2</sub> burst and internal ATP levels in low CO2-grown Anacystis cells together with the action spectrum for CO<sub>2</sub> burst generation and show that the inorganic carbon transport requires both PS I-mediated cyclic electron flow and ATP.

#### Materials and Methods

Gas exchange measurement

Anacystis nidulans from the algal collection of the Institute of Applied Microbiology, University of Tokyo, was grown at 30°C in 1.5 l shake flask containing Kratz–Myers' medium C [12]. The cells were aerated with air (500  $\mu$ l CO<sub>2</sub>/l). Continuous illumination was provided by fluorescent lamps (120  $\mu$ E·m<sup>-2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>). Cells were harvested by centrifugation (3000 × g, 5 min) at room temperature, resuspended in 30 ml 40 mM Hepes-NaOH buffer (pH 7.0), to a Chl concentration of 3–6  $\mu$ g/ml, and then placed in a reaction vessel for gas exchange measurements.

The gas exchange of the cells was measured with an open gas analysis system [11,13], which records the rate of gas exchange directly, Otherwise stated, all the measurements were done under  $N_2$ -containing 200  $\mu$ l  $CO_2/l$ . The gas was led into the reaction vessel at a flow rate of 1.0 l/min. The exchanged gas was dried and then measured with an infrared  $CO_2$  analyzer (model ZAP; Fuji Elec-

tric CO., Tokyo) and a trace oxygen analyzer (model 316; Teledyne Analytical Instrument Co., USA). The cell suspension in the reaction vessel was illuminated with orange light (1.38 mE·m<sup>-2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>). A solid glass filter (VO-52, Toshiba Kasei Co., Tokyo) was used to obtain the orange light. Interference filters (bandwidth and half-height, 12–15 nm) were used to provide various wavelengths of monochromatic light. The light source was a 650 W halogen lamp with a fan-cooled heat-absorbing filter. The light intensity was measured with a quantum sensor (L1-190S, LiCor, Inc., Lincoln, NE) or a thermocouple (model E2, Kipp en Zonen, Delft, The Netherlands).

Determination of internal inorganic carbon concentration

The amount of inorganic carbon accumulated within the cells was estimated from the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> evolved in darkness after the light period, as reported previously [7,11]. The concentration of internal inorganic carbon was calculated using the sorbitol impermeable space determined according to the procedure described by Heldt and Sauer [14].

# Determination of ATP and NADP

Approx. 1 ml of cell suspension was drawn rapidly from the reaction vessel into a 1.5 ml syringe containing 125 µl of 70% perchloric acid. Complete and immediate mixing of the cell suspension with the acid occurred, ensuring that rapid cellular breakage and metabolic quenching occurred. The exact volume of suspension sample was determined by weighing the syringe after removing the needle and the unquenched suspension contained therein. The extracts of cell suspensions were neutralized by adding a predetermined amount of 5 M KOH/1 M trithanolamine. The concentration of ATP in the neutralized extracts was determined by the firefly luciferase procedure using an SAI luminometer and Boehringer HS luciferin/luciferase reagents, as described by Lilley et al. [15].

NADP was extracted from cells by perchloric acid as described above. The extract was kept at room temperature at least for 5 min to decompose NADPH and then neutralized. The amount of NADP was determined by enzymatic cycling [16].

The total amount of NADP plus NADPH was determined after oxidizing intracellular NADPH as described by Takahama et al. [17].

#### Results

Postillumination CO, burst

Curves A and A' in Fig. 1 show typical traces of the changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> levels, respectively, observed in the external gaseous phase of a cell suspension upon switching the light on and off. When the light was switched on there was a decline in CO<sub>2</sub> followed by gradual rise to a steadystate level. Switching the light off resulted in a sharp increase in CO<sub>2</sub> to a level higher than the initial level followed by a decline to the initial level (curve A). The O<sub>2</sub> concentration increased slowly upon illumination to reach a maximal level after 3 min (A'). The rate at  $O_2$  evolution at this level was equal to the steady-state rate of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. The uptake and postillumination burst of CO<sub>2</sub> were enhanced by iodoacetamide, an inhibitor of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation [18] (B), which completely abolished the  $CO_2$ -dependent  $O_2$  evolution (B'). Thus, the accumulation of inorganic carbon proceeds even in the

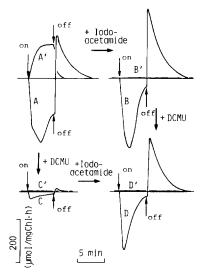


Fig. 1. Changes of  $CO_2$  (A-D) and  $O_2$  (A'-D') concentrations in the gaseous phase of a cell suspension upon switching the orange light (1.38 mE·m<sup>-2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>) on and off. A, A', no addition; B, B', with 3 mM iodoacetamide; C, C', with 10  $\mu$ M DCMU; D, D', with 3 mM iodoacetamide plus 10  $\mu$ M DCMU.

absence of photosynthetic  $CO_2$  fixation or  $O_2$  evolution.

The intracellular inorganic carbon concentration calculated from the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> evolved as the burst of curve A in Fig. 1 was 63 mM (sorbitol impermeable space, 145 µl/mg Chl). A previous paper has shown that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> evolved as the burst agreed with that of acid-labile <sup>14</sup>C accumulated within the cells in the light, as determined using the silicon oil centrifugation [11].

Involvement of cyclic electron flow in inorganic carbon transport

Several evidences were obtained which indicate that the inorganic carbon transport is driven by a cyclic electron flow mediated by PS I. The first evidence is the insensitivity of the CO<sub>2</sub> burst to DCMU in the presence of iodoacetamide (curve D in Fig. 1). The CO<sub>2</sub> burst showed 70% of the control activity at 10 µM DCMU. In the absence of iodoacetamide DCMU inhibited the CO<sub>2</sub> burst strongly (C), being consistent with the results obtained with Synechococcus [4] and Coccochloris [2]. The inhibition was relieved when iodoacetamide was added to the DCMU-treated cells. Thus, in the presence of iodoacetamide, the inorganic carbon transport does not require linear electron flow and is driven only by PS I. The results clearly demonstrate that a cyclic electron flow mediated by PS I is essential for the inorganic carbon transport.

Regarding the inhibitory effect of DCMU on the CO<sub>2</sub> burst in the absence of iodoacetamide, we inferred that DCMU changes the redox-state of the electron carriers, which results in the inhibition of the PS I cyclic electron flow. To test whether the redox-state of the electron transport system is affected by DCMU or iodoacetamide, we have examined the effect of these inhibitors on NADP+ level in the cells under the conditions for gas exchange measurement, and the results are shown in Fig. 2. In the absence of these inhibitors, NADP+ level was high in darkness and low in the light. DCMU inhibited the reduction of NADP+ and kept the NADP<sup>+</sup> level high even in the light. In the presence of iodoacetamide, the NADP<sup>+</sup> level was low even in darkness and did not change on illumination. The NADPH/NADP+ ratio

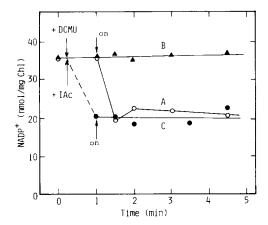


Fig. 2. Changes of NADP<sup>+</sup> level in *Anacystis* cells by illumination under anaerobic conditions ( $N_2 + 200 \mu l CO_2/l$ ) in the presence or absence of inhibitors. A, no addition; B, with 10  $\mu$ M DCMU; C, with 3 mM iodoacetamide (IAc).

measured after 3 min of illumination was 2.2, which was decreased to 0.9 by DCMU. In the presence of iodoacetamide, the ratio was 2.9, which was not affected by DCMU. These observations suggest that the PS I cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport operates when NADPH/NADP<sup>+</sup> ratio is high, but is inhibited when the ratio is low. The inhibitory effect of DCMU in the absence of iodoacetamide can be ascribed to the inhibition of NADP<sup>+</sup> reduction which keeps the NADPH/NADP<sup>+</sup> ratio low and thereby inhibits the cyclic electron flow.

Another evidence for the involvement of PS I reaction is given by the action spectrum for inorganic carbon transport. The action spectrum for CO<sub>2</sub> burst generation (curve A in Fig. 3), obtained by measuring the CO<sub>2</sub> burst in the presence of iodoacetamide following 5 min illumination with various wavelengths of monochromatic light, showed a peak around 684 nm (due to Chl a in PS I), while that for PNDA-supported O<sub>2</sub> evolution measured in the presence of iodoacetamide (curve B) showed a broad peak around 630 nm (due to phycocyanin and allophycocyanin in PS II); the latter is essentially the same as the reported spectrum for O<sub>2</sub> evolution [19]. These spectra clearly show that the inorganic carbon transport is driven by PS I, being consistent with the conclusion drawn from the DCMU experiments (Fig. 1).

The third evidence which supports the involve-

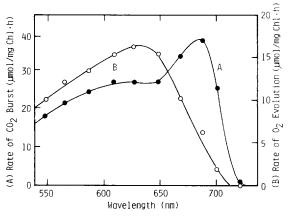


Fig. 3. Action spectra for  $CO_2$  burst generation (A) and PNDA-supported  $O_2$  evolution (B). These spectra were obtained by measuring the initial rate of the  $CO_2$  burst in the presence of 3 mM iodoacetamide (A) and the steady-state rate of  $O_2$  evolution in the presence of 0.25 mM PNDA and 3 mM iodoacetamide (B). The initial rate of the burst was calculated from  $CO_2$  exchange profile as previously reported [7,10]. We assumed that this rate is equal to the steady-state rate of the inorganic carbon transport in the light. The rates are normalized to those at a quantum fluxes of  $10~\mu E \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ . The incident fluxes of monochromatic light were  $78-127~\mu E \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ .

ment of PS I cyclic electron flow in inorganic carbon transport is saturation of the postillumination  $CO_2$  burst at low light intensity (Fig. 4). The rate of  $CO_2$  burst was half the saturation level at  $80~\mu E \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ , which was below the intensity,  $200~\mu E \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ , for half saturation of the  $O_2$  evolution. Cyclic photophosphorylation saturates at lower light intensities than non-cyclic photophosphorylation [20]. The low light saturation of the  $CO_2$  burst thus supports the above conclusion that the inorganic carbon transport is driven by cyclic electron flow mediated by PS I.

### Inhibition of cyclic electron flow

The CO<sub>2</sub> burst was inhibited when the electrons were drained into DMQ and PNDA which accept electrons from plastoquinone and ferredoxin, respectively [21,22]. The inhibition occurred even in the presence of iodoacetamide (Fig. 5). *Anacystis* cells treated with iodoacetamide showed high activity of PNDA-supported O<sub>2</sub> evolution, indicating that the electron transport from water to ferredoxin is not affected by iodoacetamide. The catalyzer of PS-I-cyclic electron flow, PMS, also strongly

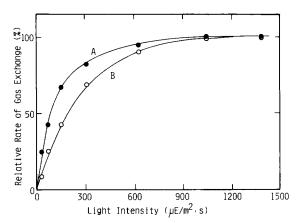


Fig. 4. Effect of light intensity on the rates of  $CO_2$  burst (A) and  $O_2$  evolution (B). The  $CO_2$  burst was measured in the presence of 3 mM iodoacetamide. The initial rate of  $CO_2$  burst and the steady-state rate of  $O_2$  evolution at saturation levels were 203 and 210  $\mu$ mol/mg Chl per h, respectively.

inhibited the CO<sub>2</sub> burst. It is evident that the draining of electrons to DMQ and PNDA or PMS-bypassed cyclic electron flow strongly inhibit the cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport.

A similar inhibition was effected by O<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, which accept electrons from ferredoxin (Fig. 5). Fig. 6 shows the concentrations of intracellular

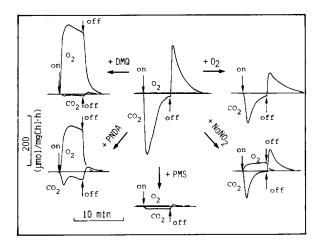


Fig. 5. Effect of DMQ, PNDA, O<sub>2</sub>, NaNO<sub>2</sub> and PMS on the rates of CO<sub>2</sub> exchange and O<sub>2</sub> evolution in iodoacetamide-treated cells. The concentrations were: iodoacetamide, 3 mM; DMQ, 1 mM; PNDA, 0.25 mM; O<sub>2</sub>, 21%, NaNO<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM; PMS, 10 μM.

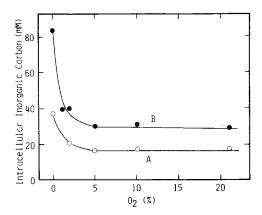


Fig. 6. Dependence of inorganic carbon accumulation on O<sub>2</sub> concentration in gaseous phase of a cell suspension. A, no addition; B, with 3 mM iodoacetamide.

inorganic carbon in the light as a function of O<sub>2</sub> concentration in the gaseous phase, and indicates that the accumulation of inorganic carbon is much more active under anaerobic conditions than under aerobic conditions. The concentrations of intracellular inorganic carbon obtained under anaerobic conditions in the presence or absence of iodoacetamide were more than twice those, respectively, obtained at 21% O2. Nitrite had an effect similar to O<sub>2</sub> on the CO<sub>2</sub> burst. When 5 mM NaNO<sub>2</sub> was added to iodoacetamide-treated cells, O<sub>2</sub> evolution occurred, and the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> burst became less than half the control (Fig. 5). Thus, the draining of electrons from ferredoxin to O<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub> also inhibits the PS-I-cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport. The inhibition by  $O_2$  and  $NO_2^-$  was at most 60%; in contrast, DMQ and PNDA inhibited the CO<sub>2</sub> burst almost completely.

# Requirement of ATP

The uncoupler, CCCP, and the ATP synthesis inhibitor, DCCD, had a strong inhibitory effect both on the CO<sub>2</sub> burst and O<sub>2</sub> evolution and lowered the ATP level significantly (Table I). Desaspidine and tributyltin had an effect similar to CCCP and DCCD, respectively. The results indicate that ATP is required for the inorganic carbon transport. When CCCP or DCCD was added to the cell suspension during illumination, CO<sub>2</sub> evolution occurred in the light (Fig. 7). Thus, energy is

TABLE I EFFECTS OF INHIBITORS, ELECTRON ACCEPTORS AND MEDIATOR OF PHOTOSYNTHESIS ON ATP LEVEL,  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  BURST AND  $\mathrm{O}_2$  EVOLUTION

Sample	Iodoacet- amide	ATP level	CO <sub>2</sub> burst	O <sub>2</sub> evo- lution
	(3 mM)			
No addition	-	100 b	100 °	100 <sup>d</sup>
No addition	+	101	138	0
Dark <sup>a</sup>	_	24	0	0
+ 10 μM DCMU	_	84	8	0
	+	103	105	0
+1 mM DMQ	_	95	< 5	145
	+	100	< 5	131
+0.25 mM PNDA	_	115	< 5	156
	+	103	< 5	129
+ 10 μM PMS	_	120	0	19
	+	122	0	0
+ 10 μM CCCP	_	46	0	0
	+	18	0	0
+ 0.1 mM DCCD	_	24	0	0
	+	17	0	0

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The sample was incubated in darkness for 5 min. Other samples were illuminated for 5 min with orange light (1.38 mE·m<sup>-2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>).

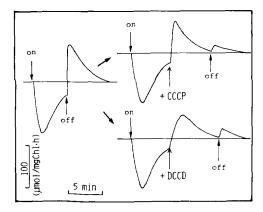


Fig. 7. Effect of CCCP and DCCD on the rate of  $CO_2$  exchange in iodoacetamide-treated cells. CCCP (10  $\mu$ M) or DCCD (0.1 mM) was added to the cell suspension in the light. The concentration of iodoacetamide was 3 mM.

required to maintain high concentration of inorganic carbon accumulated within the cells.

The electron transport from water to DMQ or PNDA is coupled to ATP formation and produced high internal ATP level in the light either in the presence or absence of iodoacetamide (Table I). The cyclic electron flow bypassed by PMS also produced ATP actively, as shown by the internal ATP level which was higher than the control value. The strong inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> burst by these chemicals, in spite of the high ATP production (Table I), clearly demonstrates that the inorganic carbon transport does not proceed by ATP supply only. The results indicate that both PS-I-cyclic electron flow and ATP are required to drive the inorganic carbon transport.

#### Discussion

Data presented in Figs. 1, 3 and 4 clearly demonstrated that the inorganic carbon transport in A. nidulans is driven by cyclic electron flow mediated by PS I. The results are consistent with the previous observations on A. variabilis, strain M-2, that the inorganic carbon transport in this species was insensitive to DCMU and showed an action spectrum of PS I reaction [7,10]. In A. nidulans, the inorganic carbon transport was inhibited by DCMU (Fig. 1). However, this does not necessarily mean that a linear electron flow mediated by PS I and II is essential for the inorganic carbon transport, since DCMU did not inhibit the inorganic carbon transport when photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> fixation was inhibited by iodoacetamide. Heber et al. [23] have reported that PS-I-mediated cyclic electron flow in intact chloroplasts is under delicate redox control, and its operation requires 'poising' of the electron carriers. They also showed that DCMU could upset the 'poising' under certain conditions. Peters et al. [24] have shown that high NADPH level favors cyclic electron flow. The cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport may also be under redox control and require high NADPH level. The low NADP+ (high NADPH) level produced by iodoacetamide (Fig. 2) may be favorable for the operation of cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport. In contrast, the high NADP+ level in the presence of DCMU might be inadequate for the

b Values expressed in percent of the controls (153-165 nmol ATP/mg Chl).

c Initial rates of CO<sub>2</sub> burst expressed in percent of the controls (210-275 μmol CO<sub>2</sub>/mg Chl per h).

d Steady-state rates of O<sub>2</sub> evolution expressed in percent of the controls (219-238 μmol O<sub>2</sub>/mg Chl per h).

cyclic electron flow. The requirement of linear electron flow in the inorganic carbon transport in *Anacystis* cells, as indicated by the DCMU inhibition of the CO<sub>2</sub> burst (Fig. 1), may be to produce high NADPH level required for the cyclic electron flow.

The cyclic electron flow driving the inorganic carbon transport was sensitive to electron drainage; the  $CO_2$  burst was almost completely inhibited by draining of electrons to DMQ or PNDA and was decreased by substances such as  $O_2$  and nitrite which accept electrons from ferredoxin (Fig. 5). Similar inhibition by  $O_2$  or nitrite has been observed for cyclic electron flow in intact chloroplasts [23]. Thus, the electron acceptor of the cyclic pathway has a lower electron affinity than that of PNDA,  $O_2$  or nitrite.

Regarding an ATP requirement in the inorganic carbon transport, we obtained contradictory results. The strong inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> burst by uncouplers and ATP synthesis inhibitors (Fig. 7, Table I) indicated that the inorganic carbon transport is fueled by ATP. In contrast, the inorganic carbon transport did not proceed under the conditions where ATP production is active but cyclic electron flow is inhibited (Fig. 5, Table I). A compromise between these will be that both cyclic electron flow and ATP are required for the inorganic carbon transport.

The mechanism of inorganic carbon transport is poorly understood. It is unlikely that the inorganic carbon transport is driven by a change in the cytoplasmic pH, as previously described [7]. Recently, Kaplan et al. [8] proposed a model for inorganic carbon transport which involves Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchange and Na<sup>+</sup>HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> symport. Following model can be considered by modifying their model. ATP supplies energy for Na<sup>+</sup> efflux and cyclic electron transport is linked to H<sup>+</sup> influx. Since inorganic carbon transport and H<sup>+</sup> influx occur on the cytoplasmic membranes, we have to assume that there exists an electron transport between cytoplasmic and thylakoid membranes. Such assumption may be justified by the following results. (i) Cytoplasmic membranes of A. nidulans contain cytochrome(s) and plastoquinones which can be the electron carriers of the cyclic pathway [25]. (ii) When Anacystis cells grown at high levels of CO<sub>2</sub> were adapted to low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions, the activity of inorganic carbon transport increased several fold. The polypeptide composition of the cytoplasmic membranes changed during the adaptation but that of the thylakoid membranes and cell wall did not change [11]. Further studies are required to verify the above hypothesis.

## Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. M. Kimimura for her help in preparing the manuscript. This study was supported by a grant for Solar Energy Conversion by Means of Photosynthesis from the Science and Technology Agency of Japan.

#### References

- 1 Kaplan, A., Badger, M.R. and Berry, J.A. (1980) Planta 149, 219-226
- 2 Miller, A.G. and Colman, B. (1980) J. Bacteriol. 143, 1253–1259
- 3 Badger, M.R., Kaplan, A. and Berry, J.A. (1980) Plant Physiol. 66, 407-413
- 4 Badger, M.R. and Andrews, T.J. (1982) Plant Physiol. 70, 517-523
- 5 Spalding, M.H., Spreitzer, R.J. and Ogren, W.L. (1983) Plant Physiol. 73, 273-276
- 6 Lucas, W.J. (1983) Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. 34, 71-104
- 7 Ogawa, T. and Inoue, Y. (1983) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 724, 490-493
- 8 Kaplan, A., Volokita, M., Zenvirth, D. and Reinhold, L. (1984) FEBS Lett. 176, 166-168
- 9 Kaplan, A., Zenvirth, D., Reinhold, L. and Berry, J.A. (1982) Plant Physiol. 69, 978-982
- 10 Ogawa, T., Inoue, Y., Lilley, R.McC. and Ogren, W.L. (1984) in Advances in Photosynthesis Research (Sybesma, C., ed.), Vol. II, pp. 723-726, Martinus Nijhoff/Dr. W. Junk Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands
- 11 Ogawa, T., Omata, T., Miyano, A. and Inoue, Y. (1985) in Biocarbonate Utilization by Photosynthetic Organisms (Berry, J.A., ed.), American Society of Plant Physiologists, in the press
- 12 Kratz, W.A. and Myers, J. (1955) Am. J. Bot. 42, 282-287
- 13 Ogawa, T. (1982) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 681, 103-109
- 14 Heldt, H.W. and Sauer, F. (1971) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 234, 83-91
- 15 Lilley, R. McC., Stitt, M. and Heldt, H.W. (1982) Plant Physiol. 70, 965-970
- 16 Slater, T.F. and Sawyer, B. (1962) Nature 193, 454
- 17 Takahama, U., Shimizu-Takahama, M. and Heber, U. (1981) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 637, 530-539
- 18 Calo, N. and Gibbs, M. (1960) Z. Naturforschg. 15b, 287-291

- 19 Wang, R.T., Stevens, C.L.R. and Myers, J. (1977) Photochem. Photobiol. 25, 103–108
- 20 Gimmler, H. (1977) in Encyclopedia of Plant Physiology, New Series (Trebst, A. and Avron, M. eds.), Vol. 5, pp. 448-472, Springer-Verlag, Berlin
- 21 Trebst, A. (1980) Methods Enzymol. 69, 675-715
- 22 Elstner, E.F. and Zeller, H. (1978) Plant Sci. Lett. 13, 15-20
- 23 Heber, U., Egneus, H., Hanck, U., Jensen, M. and Köster, S. (1978) Planta 143, 41-49
- 24 Peters, F.A.L.J., Van Spanning, R. and Kraayenhof, R. (1983) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 724, 159–165
- 25 Omata, T. and Murata, N. (1984) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 766, 395-402