changed during an experiment lasting at least 1 h. Under these conditions muscle DO_2 was $14.9\pm0.5~\mu l/min/g$ and the resting $\dot{V}O_2$ was $594.5 \pm 21.0 \, \mu l/h/g$. The hematocrit value for undiluted blood was 60.4±2.1%. Various dilutions obtained by substitution of the dextran solution for blood resulted in hematocrit values between 44.4 and 18.0%. Under these conditions the perfusion flow rate spontaneously increased up to a maximum of 208.3 µl/ min/g. Depending on the extent of hemodilution, DO₂ either increased (moderate hemodilution) or decreased (severe hemodilution) with respect to its initial value, within the range 7.0-35.4 μ l/min/g. Q and arterial O_2 concentration were respectively 202.3 µl/min/g and 17.5 ml $O_2/100$ ml at maximum DO_2 , and 120.7 μ l/min/g and 5.8 ml $O_2/100$ ml at minimum $\dot{D}O_2$.

A distinct relationship was found between DO₂ and VO₂ (fig.). VO₂ increased proportionally to DO₂ in the range of 7.0 to about 16 μ l/min/g. The O_2 extraction coefficient remained submaximum in this DO2 range (which is in accordance with the ability of noradrenaline to increase it while stimulating $\dot{V}O_2^{1,3}$). The rise of $\dot{D}O_2$ above the level of 16 µl/min/g did not, in itself, increase muscle respiration. Thus, at DO2 values beyond 16 µl/min/g and up to 35.4 μ l/min/g the O₂ extraction coefficient decreased from 0.617 to 0.314.

VO₂ was not found to be a simple function of Q, since at the same Q, different VO₂ were achieved when the muscle was supplied with different amounts of O2. Conversely, to any given VO2 value corresponded different Q values: for example, at the VO_2 corresponding to $DO_2 = 15 \mu l/min/g$, Q varied from about 65 to about 160 µl/min/g, the last value being obtained at 25% hematocrit level.

Discussion. Previous studies indicated that VO₂ of the rat skeletal muscle may change according to changes in Q. Our results show, however, that rather than the Q, the product of Q and arterial O₂ concentration (i.e. O₂ delivery - DO₂) is the decisive factor determining VO2 in resting skeletal muscles, because the same VO_2 may be obtained at different Q, depending on arterial O_2 concentration. This is true, however, only when DO2 to the muscle is less than 16 μ l/min/g. Above this value the muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ becomes independent on DO_2 .

This finding is in contrast with the data reported by Honig et al.5, who observed that after denervation the rat muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ increased with the increase of $\dot{D}O_2$ even above 16 μ l/ min/g. These results have been interpreted as a physiological limitation of resting muscle VO₂ by O₂ transport, due to the inhomogeneity of capillary function and uneven distribution of O₂ within the organ. At present it cannot be decided whether or not such a limitation really takes place in the normal resting muscle, because methods for measuring the heterogeneity of O2 distribution to muscle cells are still inadequate⁶. In any case, our data show that the mean DO₂ to the innervated, vascularly isolated muscle, perfused physiologically by undiluted blood achieves the value above which the DO₂ ceases to further control the muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ (fig.).

The objection still exists that the vascularly isolated muscle may have more open capillaries than the intact resting muscle and thus it may have a larger VO2, because it is known that Q and functional capillary density are controlled independently⁷. This does not seem to be the case in our experiments, however; our unpublished data demonstrate that the vascular isolation used in this work does not change functional capillary density and capillary spatial distribution in the gracilis muscle (271.1 ± 25.0) and 265.7 ± 17.8 capillaries/mm² in intact and isolated muscle, respectively).

In conclusion, we assume that the metabolic rate of the resting rat skeletal muscle is not limited by O2 transport in the range corresponding to physiological values, like in the dog^{5,8,9} and the cat¹⁰. Adams et al.¹¹ came to the same conclusion. They observed no change of whole body VO₂ of the rat when the total O2 transport was increased above the normal level.

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Sensitivity of *Botrytis cinerea* Pers. to elemental sulfur in the presence of surfactants

R. Pezet and V. Pont¹

Swiss Federal Agricultural Research Station of Changins, CH-1260 Nyon (Switzerland), 2 May 1983

Summary. The sensitivity of Botrytis cinerea Pers. to elemental sulfur is enhanced in surfactant solutions (Triton X-100 or SDS). The role of surfactants in the change of permeability to sulfur is discussed.

Botrytis cinerea Pers. is a major grape pathogen in Swiss vineyards. Growers know that it is insensitive to elemental sulfur, and this fungicide has never been used to control the Grey Mould of grapes.

Investigations on the metabolism of endogenous and ex-

ogenous elemental sulfur in *Phomopsis viticola* Sacc.^{2,3} and *Monilia fructicola*⁴ showed that this product interferes with some vital biochemical pathways, such as cell respiration and the resulting oxidative phosphorylation. Thus we can postulate that the sensitivity to elemental sulfur is correlated with the ability of this product to penetrate the cell. Since both cell wall and plasma membrane may be involved in cell permeability, we decided to circumvent this potential permeability barrier by adding surfactants to elemental sulfur applied to *B. cinerea*.

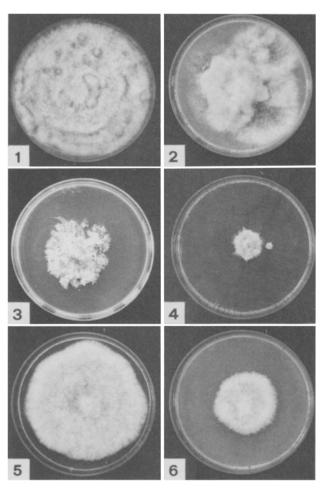
B. cinerea, strain BC 13, sensitive to cyclic dichlorphenyl-Nimide fungicides, was cultivated on potato dextrose agar (PDA, Oxoid) under laboratory conditions. Conidia were harvested by shaking aerial mycelia cut from sporulating cultures in distilled water, then separated from mycelia by filtration through glass wool. The conidial suspension was adjusted with distilled water to 106 conidia per ml. The surfactants used were sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS, Fluka) and Triton X-100 (TX-100, Calbiochem). Colloidal elemental sulfur was prepared as described by Miller et al.5. All these compounds were used at a final concentration of 10⁻³M in water-agar (WA) or PDA. The effects of elemental sulfur and surfactants on germination were observed on slide-cultures (WA) and on colonies growing on PDA in Petri dishes. Miller et al.⁵ showed that the fungicidal activity of elemental sulfur is correlated with the amount of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) produced by fungi in the presence of sulfur. On this basis, penetration of elemental sulfur into the cell was measured quantitatively by determining the amount of H₂S emitted by a suspension of conidia grown in the presence of colloidal sulfur (35S), with or without surfactant.

Conidia and sulfur mixtures were placed in the glass apparatus described by Pezet et al.⁶. H₂S produced by the conidia was trapped on a round filter paper impregnated with lead acetate. The radioactivity of the resulting Pb-35S sulfur was quantitatively analysed by integrating the counts during a transit of the filter (300 mm/h) under a TLCscanner detector (Dünnschicht-Scanner II, Berthold, Switzerland, proportional counter). The standard curve was established from known amounts of elemental sulfur (35S) transformed into H₂S, by the method of Fromageot⁷, and trapped as described above. The linear correlation between the radioactivity of ³⁵S and the integration of the counts of Pb³⁵S recovered was 0.997 from 3 to 300 nCi of ³⁵S. The effect of elemental sulfur and surfactants on cell respiration was determined by measuring the oxygen consumption of a suspension of spores incubated at 20 °C (±0.01 °C) (Clark electrode, PO₂ Analyzer Bachofer).

The results are presented in the table and the figure. They show that surfactants alone had no effect on the percentage of germination of conidia after 20 h of incubation on slide cultures placed in a damp chamber and a slight to medium effect on mycelial growth. Synergism was observed with the mixture of sulfur and surfactants, in comparison with sulfur or surfactants alone. Sulfur in TX-100 is the best inhibitory mixture of mycelial growth, whereas in SDS it strongly affects conidial germination. The different natures of the surfactants used, nonionic (TX-100) or anionic (SDS), and the structural differences between conidia and mycelium of

Botrytis cinerea, are probably an explanation for these results.

These experiments demonstrate that sulfur is more fungitoxic when it can penetrate the cells. The surfactants used disturb the structure of the cell plasma membrane and consequently its permeability^{9,10}. Synergism observed between sulfur and surfactants suggests that fungicidal activity of elemental sulfur is correlated with its ability to reach mitochondria, where it is reduced by interfering with hydrogenation and dehydrogenation reactions which occur in the cell respiratory pathway^{4,11}.



Influence of surfactants (10^{-3} M) and elemental sulfur (10^{-3} M) on the mycelial growth of *Botrytis cinerea* Pers. *I* Control on potato dextrose agar (PDA). 2 PDA+S°. 3 PDA+TX-100. 4 PDA+TX-100+S°. 5 PDA+SDS. 6 PDA+SDS+S°.

Effect of colloidal elemental sulfur (S°) (10^{-3} M) in water, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), or Triton X-100 (TX-100) aqueous solutions (10^{-3} M) on germination, germ tube length, rate of reduction of sulfur, oxygen consumption of conidia and mycelial growth of *Botrytis cinerea* Pers.

	Water (W)	$S^{o} + W$	SDS	S° + SDS	TX-100	S° + TX-100
Percent of conidial germination ^a	90	60	90	17	90	55
Germ tube length (µm) ^b	90	77.5	90	27.5	90	57
Sulfur reduced by 10 ⁸ conidia (μg) ^c		2.64		4.55		3.19
Oxygen consumption (nmoles $O_2/\min/10^8$ conidia)	2.2	1.72	1.35	0.17	1.65	0.59
Mycelial growth ^d	8.5	8.5	7.9	4.1	3.8	1.9

^a Average of 3 estimates on 100 conidia each. Spore germination is considered effective when the germ tube is as long as the diameter of the spore. (Slide-cultures on water-agar, 20 h of incubation). ^b Average of 100 conidia (slide-culture on water-agar, 20 h of incubation). ^c Measured only when sulfur was added. ^d Colony diameter (cm) of cultures on Petri dishes (PDA) after 7 days of incubation in laboratory conditions (maximum for control is 8.5 cm).

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Localization of pyruvate carboxylase in the cells of Neurospora crassa

K. Nishikawa and H. Kuwana

Faculty of Science, Kwansei Gakuin University, Nishinomiya, Hyogo 662 (Japan), 3 June 1983

Summary. The cell wall of Neurospora crassa was digested enzymatically and the cytosolic and the mitochondrial fractions were separated. The activity of pyruvate carboxylase (EC 6.4.1.1) was detected entirely in the cytosolic fraction. This indicates that the location of pyruvate carboxylase of N. crassa is in the cytosol, but is not in the mitochondria; this is different from the situation in animal tissues.

Pyruvate carboxylase is known to exist in a wide variety of organisms, including mammals^{1,2}, birds^{1,3,4}, and bacteria⁵⁻⁹. Fungal pyruvate carboxylase has been reported in *Aspergillus niger*¹⁰, *Neurospora crassa*^{11,12}, *Penicillium camemberti*¹³, *Rhizopus nigricans*¹⁴ and yeasts¹⁵⁻¹⁷. In some cases, the enzyme was purified and molecular architecture was studied^{4,6,8,9,15,17}. Pyruvate carboxylase in most animal tissues is chiefly a mitochondrial enzyme^{1,18}. In yeast, on the other hand, this enzyme is reported to be localized in the soluble cytosol¹⁶. In the course of the study on the relationships between the *suc* gene and pyruvate carboxylase of *Neurospora crassa*, we noticed that the location of the enzyme in *Neurospora* is not in the mitochondria but in the cytosol.

Materials and methods. Mycelium of the wild type strain KG1967a of Neurospora crassa was grown in a 1.5 l Roux bottle containing 1 l of Vogel's minimal medium¹⁹ supplemented with 2% sucrose and 0.3% sodium acetate under aeration at 34 °C for 1 day. About 8–9 g of wet mycelium were obtained from a bottle. Mitochondria were obtained by essentially the same method as that used by Greenawalt et al.²⁰. Cell wall was digested by β -glucuronidase (crude solution from Helix pomatia) from Sigma. Wet mycelium weighing 8–9 g was treated in 33 ml of reaction medium containing sorbitol, 0.63 M; citric acid – K_2HPO_4 buffer (pH 5.8), 0.1 M with respect to citric acid; 2-mercaptoethylamine HCl, 0.03 M; EDTA, 0.4 mM;

and 300,000 units of β -glucuronidase for 1 h at 30°C. Treated cells were washed twice with 60 ml cold, 0.9 M sorbitol, and collected by centrifugation.

The pellet was resuspended in 60 ml of 0.02 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, containing 0.25 M sucrose, 5 mM EDTA and 0.15% bovine serum albumin (BSA buffer). The suspension was homogenized using a glass homogenizer with a Teflon pestle. The crude homogenate was diluted with BSA buffer to 150 ml and centrifuged at 1000 x g for 15 min to remove unbroken cells. The supernatant was centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 20 min, and its supernatant fraction (C1S) was recentrifuged at 180,000 × g for 25 min and the final supernatant was obtained (fraction C18S). The pellet obtained between 1000 and 10,000 × g, which contained essentially all mitochondria, was washed with BSA buffer and suspended in 12 ml of 0.02 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.5 (fraction M1P). The suspension was treated with a Tomy model UR-150P sonicator for 1 min at the power setting of 5. The treated suspension (fraction M1P-S) was again centrifuged at $180,000 \times g$ for 25 min and the supernatant was obtained (fraction M18S). Pyruvate carboxylase activity was determined spectrophotometrically by the citrate synthase-coupled method described by Payne and Morris⁵. Citrate synthase activity was determined by the method of Parvin²¹. Fumarate hydratase activity was

determined by the method of Hill and Bradshaw²², measuring

Activities of the 3 enzymes in various preparations from disrupted Neurospora cell. The naming for each preparation is described in the text

	Preparation	Specific activity (µmol mg ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Total protein (mg)	Total activity (µmol h ⁻¹)
Pyruvate carboxylase from 9.1 g wet mycelium	C1S	1.80	221	398
	C18S	2.23	161	359
	M1P	0	54	0
	M1P-S	0	49	0
	M18S	0	26	0
Citrate synthase from 8.1 g wet mycelium	C1S	37.6	184	6920
	C18S	43.0	148	6 3 6 0
	M1P	37.1	63	2 340
	M18S	221.4	31	6 8 6 0
Fumarate hydratase from 8.1 g wet mycelium	C1S	59.0	184	10860
	C18S	70.8	148	10480
	M1P	57.7	63	3 640
	M18S	268.8	31	8 3 3 0