

## COMPARATIVE KINETICS OF NITRATE

# UPTAKE BY FRESHWATER ALGAE

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## Thesis Approved:

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#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen is important in the biosphere because it is a primary constituent of protein and nucleic acids, which are major components of living material. Nitrogen is particularly significant in aquatic communities, because it is one of the factors limiting the growth rate of phytoplankton (Rhodhe 1948), especially in marine environments (Thomas 1966 and 1967). Nitrogen is also one of the elements necessary for the production of chlorophyll (Rabinowich 1945). Rhodhe (1948) showed that upon exhaustion of nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) from algal culture media, chlorophyll production by the algae quickly ceased and soon thereafter the concentration of chlorophyll within the cells began to decrease. Gerking (1962) argued that protein synthesis is the most characteristic feature of animal growth, and Dugdale and Goering (1967) maintained that measurements of algal population growth using nitrogen may show less scatter than using carbon or phosphorus because the latter two elements are not only structural components, but are turned over in the energetics processes . Emphasis, therefore, should be placed on the study of production processes in terms of nitrogen.

The metabolic processes directly relating nutrients to algal production are uptake, assimilation and growth. Mechanisms and rates, as well as the influence of environmental conditions, have been examined. Algal ecologists are particularly interested in growth, the ultimate

measure of competition and succession. In part, growth is a function of nutrient utilization. However, the exact relationship between nutrient uptake and growth is not clearly understood. Nutrients first pass through the cell membrane, afterwhich they are either stored or used for maintenance and growth. Growth is partially dependent upon the rates, determined by genetic and environmental factors, by which nutrients are taken across the cell membrane and assimilated.

The study presented here is a determination of the rates of  $NO_3^-$  uptake by 18 species of freshwater algae. It is difficult to compare the absolute nutrient uptake rates of different species of algae; how-ever, comparisons of uptake kinetics provide a means of a quantitative comparison of competitive abilities of algae (Dugdale 1967).

Nutrient uptake kinetics resemble Michaelis-Menten enzyme kinetics; i.e., when uptake rate is plotted against nutrient concentration, the resulting curve is hyperbolic. The concentration of nutrient at which the uptake rate equals one half of the maximum possible uptake  $(V_m)$  is the half-saturation constant  $(K_s)$ , and is considered to be a measure of the ability of a species of algae to take up nutrients occurring at low concentrations (Dugdale 1967).

Although considerable attention has been directed to studies of the uptake kinetics of  $NO_3^-$  by marine algae (Dugdale 1967, Dugdale and Goering 1967, Eppley and Coatsworth 1968, Eppley et al. 1969a, Eppley and Renger 1974, Falkowski 1975, Lehman et al. 1975 and Underhill 1977), there has been little work on similar uptake kinetics by freshwater algae. Toetz (1973), Toetz et al. (1973), Toetz (1976), Toetz et al. (1977), and Cole (1977) studied uptake kinetics of mixed natural populations of algae in reservoirs. They found  $K_s$  to be about 3  $\mu$ m  $NO_3^-N/1$ .

Hatori (1962), studying uptake by monocultures of <u>Anabaena cylindrica</u>, estimated the  $K_s$  to be 70  $\mu$ m/l. Little is known about the  $NO_3^-$  uptake capability of freshwater algae, especially for individual species as determined by studies on monocultures.

The data obtained from the work described here could be of use in predicting the outcome of competition between algae species when  $NO_3^-$  is limiting. Furthermore, the K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> values presented here could be compared to the uptake constants of cultures perturbed by pollutants, thus serving as a possible diagnostic tool for evaluating a physiological impact of pollution. Data on K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> for  $NO_3^-$  could also be of use in developing mathematical ecosystem models.

#### CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Forms of Nitrogen

Nitrogen (N) exists in many forms in aquatic ecosystems. Nitrogen compounds are found as cellular constituents, nonliving particulate matter in the form of organic compounds, and inorganic ions. All these forms of N are related by the complex of reactions known as the nitrogen cycle (Figure 1).

Inorganic dinitrogen  $(N_2)$  can be fixed by some members of the Phylum Cyanophyta (Wolk 1973, and the references therein, Tyagi 1975). The rest of the Cyanophyta, as well as all other algae, must use inorganic N as either nitrate  $(NO_3^-)$ , nitrite  $(NO_2^-)$  or ammonia  $(NH_4^+)$ (Syrett 1962). Some algae can also use organic N, i.e., urea, amino acids, amides, uric acid and xanthine.

The processes involving the incorporation of inorganic N into phytoplankton are examined here. These processes fall into two categories, uptake and assimilation.

#### Uptake and Assimilation

Uptake is the transfer of a nutrient from the environment into a cell. The uptake of nutrients by phytoplankton often occurs against a concentration gradient, precluding simple diffusion as the mechanism by

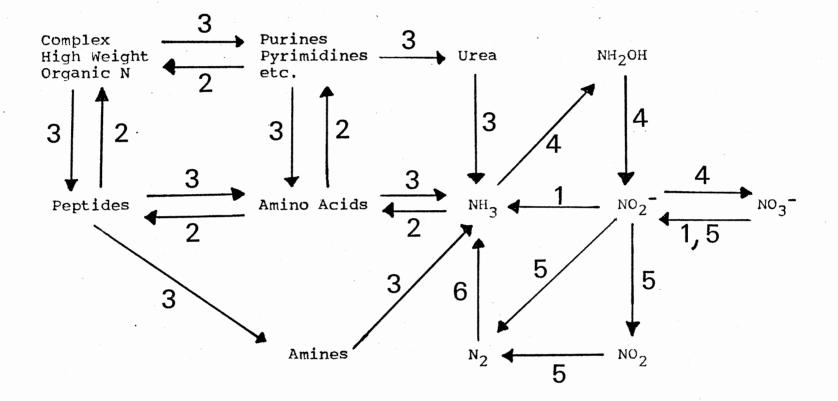


Figure 1. The Nitrogen Cycle. 1. Nitrate Assimilation, 2. Ammonia Assimilation, 3. Ammonification, 4. Nitrification, 5. Denitrification, 6. Nitrogen Fixation (Brezonik 1972) which these substances cross the plasmalema. The exact mechanisms of the active transport processes for inorganic ions, including N compounds, are not completely understood. A carrier-ion complex as described by Epstein (1973) appears to be the most widely accepted model for transfer across the membrane. The complex, formed at the outer surface of the membrane, traverses the membrane or undergoes some spatial rearrangement within it, and the substrate ion is brought through the membrane. In his monograph, Hodges (1973) presented a model, based on the evidence of many workers, describing the transport of inorganic anions and cations across the plasma membrane into root cells. The model contains two separate types of carriers, one for cations and one for anions. Hodges also reviewed considerable evidence indicating that ATP, or in some tissues, electron transfer reactions, serve as the energy source for ion-transport.

Histochemical studies by Hall (1969) and Hodges and Leonard (1973) have shown that isolated cell membranes of oat roots possess ion-stimulated ATPase. Falkowski (1975) reported a membrane-bound anion ( $NO_3^$ and Cl<sup>-</sup>) activated ATPase which appears to be responsible for  $NO_3^-$  transport across the plasmalema of the marine diatom <u>Skeletonema costatum</u>. MacRobbie (1970), however, summarized findings that indicate ATP is the source for cation transport ( $K^+$ ), but not for anion transport (Cl<sup>-</sup>).

Assimilation refers to the series of reactions by which nutrients are transformed into organic cellular material. Ammonia is the form of inorganic N which enters into assimilatory synthetic reactions. Before  $NO_3^-$  or  $NO_2^-$  can enter assimilatory pathways they must be reduced to  $NH_4^+$ . Figure 2 shows a simplified version of the processes of inorganic N metabolism for <u>Ditylum brightwelli</u> presented by Eppley and Rogers

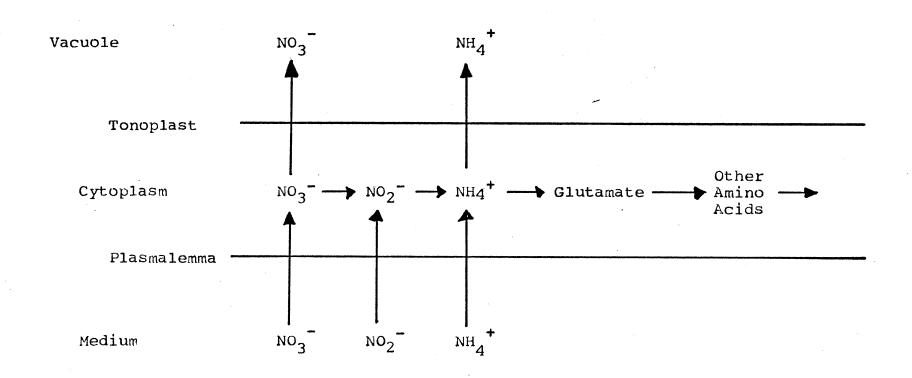


Figure 2. Proposed Pathways of Nitrogen Incorporation in Alagae (Eppley and Rogers 1970)

(1970). Nitrate is reduced to  $NO_2^-$  by the inducible enzyme NADHnitrate reductase (NR). Reduction to  $NO_2^-$  is the rate-limiting step in the assimilation of  $NO_3^-$  in higher plants (Beevers and Hageman 1972). As shown in Figure 2,  $NO_3^-$  is accumulated in the cell, either in the cytoplasm or in the vacuole. Eppley and Thomas (1970) compared the rates of  $NO_3^-$  uptake and reduction, and concluded that the intra-cellular pool of  $NO_3^-$  serves as the substrate for reduction.

Solomonson and Spehar (1977) presented a model in which  $CO_2$  fixation and  $NO_3$  assimilation in algae are coordinately controlled by the intra-cellular ratio. of the concentration of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$ . A central feature of the model is that the assimilation of  $NO_3$  can be initiated via the activation of NR by cyanide.

Nitrite taken into cells is not stored in the vacuole, but is reduced to  $NH_4^+$  by the inducible enzyme nitrite reductase (NiR) in both higher plants (Hewitt et al. 1968) and in algae (Eppley and Rogers 1970).

Ammonia assimilation appears to take place by way of several different routes. In many organisms  $NH_4^+$  is assimilated by the enzyme glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) which catalyzes the reductive amination of  $\infty$ -ketoglutarate (or 2-oxoglutarate) to form glutamic acid (Bassham and Kirk 1964). Other amino acids are formed by analagous reactions, but they are considered secondary to the glutamic dehydrogenase pathways. For blue-green algae, however, no GDH activity (Hoare et al. 1967), or very low levels of GDH (Pearce et al. 1969) have been reported. The action of glutamine synthetase, catalyzing the synthesis of glutamine, appears to mediate most of the initial metabolism of  $NH_4^+$ in blue-green algae (Meeks et al. 1977). They report that in <u>Anabaena</u>

cylindrica the principal initial product of  ${}^{13}N-NH_4^+$  metabolism, grown with either N<sub>2</sub> or  $NH_4^+$  as the N source, was amide-labeled glutamine.

It is generally believed that phytoplankton are limited in their capabilitiy to utilize organic N (Brezonik 1972). Algae in the Sargasso Sea could assimilate only small quantities of urea-N (Carpenter and McCarthy 1975). Eppley et al. (1971), however, showed that mixed natural populations of marine algae off the coast of southern California could grow in N-depleted cultures with urea added as the sole N-source. Growth and increase in chlorophyll <u>a</u> concentration, however, was not as rapid for urea-grown cells as with  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$ -grown cells.

The primary source of N for algae is inorganic N;  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NH_4^+$ , and to a much lesser extent,  $NO_2^-$  (Round 1965). Eppley and Coatsworth (1968) demonstrated that  $NO_3^-$  inhibited  $NO_2^-$  uptake, presumably by competition for cofactors or enzyme sites involved in intracellular reduction. Uptake of  $NO_3^-$  on the other hand, has been shown to be inhibited by  $NH_4^+$  in the culture medium. Morris and Syrett (1972) observed a very rapid decrease in  $NO_3^-$  uptake when  $NH_4^+$  was added to algal cultures. Nitrate assimilation is also repressed by the presence of  $NH_4^+$ . Eppley et al. (1969b), using several species of marine phytoplankton, observed that when the concentration of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in culture media were both 5 to 15  $\mu$ m/1,  $NH_4^+$  was preferentially assimilated. It was only when the concentration of  $NH_4^+$  decreased to 0.5 to 1.0  $\mu$ m/1 that  $NO_3^-$  assimilation began. It was also observed by Eppley et al. (1969b) that the presence of  $NH_4^+$  inhibited the synthesis of NR.

### Kinetics

The absorption rates of ions by roots of higher plants increase

as the external ion concentration increases until saturation occurs. When ion uptake rate is plotted against ion concentration, a hyperbolic curve results (see reviews by Hodges 1973 and Epstein 1973). Epstein and Hagen (1952) applied Michaelis-Menten enzyme kinetics analysis to quantitatively describe ion absorption. They likened the carrierion complex, thought to be involved in uptake, to an enzyme-substrate complex.

The relationship between ion concentration and uptake by algae has been shown to be hyperbolic, i.e., following saturation or Michaelis-Menten kinetics. This relationship has been demonstrated for unialgal cultures of marine phytoplankton (Dugdale 1967, Eppley and Coatsworth 1968, Carpenter and Guillard 1971), mixed populations of marine algae (MacIsaac and Dugdale 1972), unialgal cultures of freshwater algae (Hatori 1962), and mixed natural populations of freshwater algae (Toetz et al. 1973).

The relationship between  $NO_3^-$  uptake rate (v) and  $NO_3^-$  concentration (S) can be described by the Michaelis-Menten equation:

$$v = \frac{V_{\rm m} S}{K_{\rm s} + S} \tag{1}$$

where  $V_m$  is the maximum uptake rate and  $K_s$  is the half-saturation constant for uptake and equals S when v is  $\frac{1}{2}$  of  $V_m$  (Figure 3).

The value of  $K_s$  for a given nutrient provides a means by which quantitative comparisons might be made of the ability of different species of phytoplankton to use low levels of nutrients. The lower the  $K_s$ , the greater the efficiency of uptake (Eppley and Coatsworth 1968); that is, the lower the  $K_s$ , the lower are the concentrations of  $NO_3^-$  which

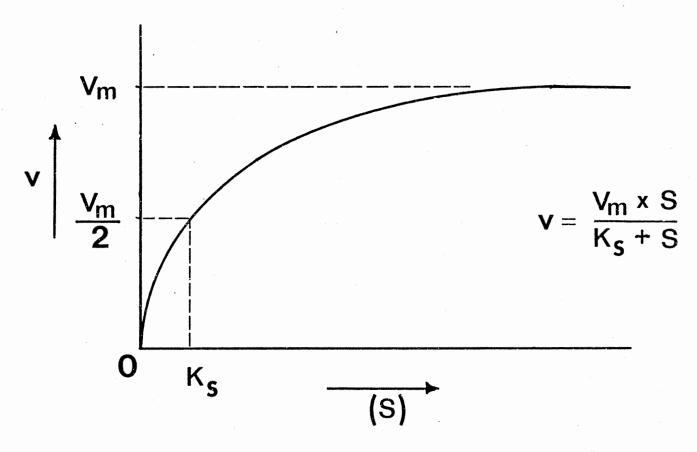


Figure 3. Hyperbolic Uptake Curve for an Algal Nutrient with Half-Saturation Constant (K<sub>s</sub>) and Maximum Uptake Velocity (V<sub>m</sub>) Illustrated

saturate the carriers responsible for uptake.

There is ecological significance in  $K_S$  values for different species of algae. Margalef (1956) observed that the decline in concentration of nitrogenous nutrients accompanied the seasonal succession of algal species; therefore, utilization of low levels of nutrients appears to be a significant factor regulating species succession. Menzel et al. (1963) drew similar conclusions from enrichment experiments with Sargasso Sea water, stating that the ability of algal species to utilize nutrients in limited supply reflects competitive ability. Eppley and Coatsworth (1968) and Eppley et al. (1969a) have agreed that there is ecological significance in  $K_S$  since low or high values appear to determine the succession of algal species when  $NO_3^-$  is limiting.

Eppley and Renger (1974) suggested that for  $K_s$  to be a factor in competition between species it must be related to growth rate. Dugdale (1967) proposed a model for the dynamics of nutrient-limited productivity. The essential element of the model is that the rate of uptake of nutrients by phytoplankton follows Michaelis-Menten kinetics, and this rate of uptake governs the rate of population growth. The model was based on an expression utilizing both uptake rate and growth rate, mainly:

$$V_{N_4} = N_4 \cdot \frac{V_m}{K_{s_q} + N_4}$$
 (2)

where  $V_{N_4}$  is the specific growth rate of the phytoplankton in terms of the limiting nutrient,  $N_4$  is the concentration of the limiting nutrient,  $V_m$  is the maximum uptake velocity and  $K_s$  is the half-saturation constant for growth, that is, the substrate concentration at which  $V_{N_4}$  is

equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$  V\_m. The equation for growth (µ) is:

$$\mu = \frac{U_{\rm m} S}{K_{\rm sg} + S}$$
(3)

in which  $\mu$  is the specific growth rate,  $U_{\rm m}$  is the maximum specific growth rate,  $K_{\rm sg}$  is the half-saturation constant for growth, and S is the nutrient concentration. Equation 3 does not incorporate uptake rates and therefore differs from equation 2. A hyperbolic response of growth rate to nutrient concentration has been observed in batch cultures (Caperon 1967, Eppley and Thomas 1969) and chemostats (Caperon 1968). However, the relationship between growth and uptake of  $NO_3^-$  is not well understood. In some cases  $K_{\rm s}$  for uptake is found to be an order of magnitude higher than the  $K_{\rm s}$  for growth (Droop 1968, Caperon and Meyer 1972, Rhee 1973), although Eppley and Thomas (1969) have obtained good agreement between both constants. Several workers consider that the specific growth rate is due to the nutrient of cells rather than to the external concentration of nutrient (Droop 1968, Caperon 1968, Caperon and Meyer 1972, Fuhs 1969, Rhee 1973).

Dugdale (1967) related competitive ability to uptake characteristics and growth rates at high and low  $NO_3^-$  concentrations. Curves (hypothetical) were presented for  $NO_3^-$  uptake vs  $NO_3^-$  concentration, incorporating  $V_m$  for growth calculated from data presented by Riley (1963). The effect of a low K<sub>s</sub> value in compensating for low maximum growth rates, under conditions of low  $NO_3^-$  concentration, was shown for <u>Chaetoceros socialis</u> ( $V_m$  for growth, 0.68/hr; K<sub>s</sub>, 2.6 µm/10 and <u>Rhizosolenia alata</u> ( $V_m$  for growth, 0.034/hr; K<sub>s</sub>, 0.25 µm/1). <u>Rhizo-</u> selenia, with a maximum growth rate half of Chaetoceros, would show higher instantaneous growth rates at concentrations of  $\rm NO_3^-$  less than 2.0  $\mu m/1.$ 

Eppley et al. (1969a) reported an apparent relationship between cell size (diameter) and  $K_s$ . They observed that large-celled species had high  $K_s$  values and small-celled species had low  $K_s$  values. Parsons and Takahashi (1973) discussed the relationship between cell size,  $K_s$ and available nutrient levels. They concluded that in areas of low nutrient concentrations the predominant species have small cells and low  $K_s$  values. Conversely, large species with high  $K_s$  values predominate in areas of higher nutrient concentrations.

Knowledge of nutrient uptake and growth constants alone are not sufficient to accurately predict the outcome of competition between different species of algae. Eppley et al. (1969a) predicted the competitive advantage of one species over another by calculating growth rates as a function of nutrient concentration for species with known growth responses to light, temperature and photoperiod. Their results showed that competitive advantage shifts from species to species as light and nutrient concentrations change.

Computer simulation of phytoplankton competition based on formulae incorporating loss rates (O'Brien 1974) demonstrated the importance of zooplankton grazing and algal cell sinking in determining the outcome of phytoplankton competition. The influence of variable death rates may be very important in the seasonal succession of phytoplankton, possibly more important than light and temperature.

It is important to realize that the studies discussed above (relating competition and growth to environmental influences) do not discount the importance of uptake constants in determining competitive

ability. They demonstrate that various environmental parameters such as temperature, light and loss rates are coupled with physiological constants such as  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  to determine growth rates in a rather complex manner.

### CHAPTER III

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Half-saturation and V<sub>m</sub> values were determined for 17 species of algae. Eighteen species were tested; they are listed by source below. U. S. Environmental Protection Agency, Corvalis, Oregon

#### Selenastrum capricornutum

Microcystis aeruginosa

U. S. Environmental Protection Agency, Athens, Georgia. Isolated from the Black Warrior River, Alabama by J. O'Kelly and T. Deason.

Carteria sp

Golenkiniopsis sp

<u>Monoraphidium</u> sp

<u>Actinastrum</u> sp

<u>Koliella</u> sp

Nitzschia w-31

Nitzschia w-32

Richard Starr Algal Collection, University of Texas

Chlorella vulgaris262\*Chlorella pyrenoidosa26Scenedesmus obliquus393Chlamydomonas reinhardi90Chlorococcum hypnosporum

\* strain number

<u>Gloeocapsa alpicola</u> 589 <u>Navicula pelicullosa</u> <u>Hantzschia amphioxis</u> Anabaena A7214

#### Algal Culture Methods

Unialgal cultures were grown in Woods Hole MBL liquid medium (Stein 1969) with 25  $\mu$ m NO<sub>2</sub>/l as the N source instead of of NO<sub>3</sub> (Table I). The algae were cultured at 20 C ±0.5 C at light saturation (Table II). Light was provided by Westinghouse 30 W cool white flourescent lamps. Light levels were regulated by Powerstat variable autotransformers. Continuous illumination was utilized throughout all uptake experiments to avoid the complications of periodicity in assimilation (Eppley et al. 1971), light induced NR activity (Hageman et al. 1961, Beevers et al. 1965, Shibata et al. 1969) and periodicity in phytoplankton growth (Tamiya 1966, Pirson and Lorenzen 1966). The cultures were stirred and aerated continuously with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-free air obtained by bubbling the air through dilute H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and KOH.

### Experimental Procedures

It was beyond the scope of the study to determine the growth rates of the algae cultured for the experiments discussed here. Experimental evidence gathered on several species, however, verified that under the conditions described above, the cells were undergoing exponential growth when the  $NO_2^-$  was depleted from the media. After the  $NO_2^$ was depleted (when it was no longer detected in the culture medium),  $1 \ \mu m NO_3^-$  per liter of culture medium was added to the cultures. If  $NO_3^-$ 

a.	Macronutrients	
	CaCl <sub>2</sub> .2H <sub>2</sub> 0	36.76 g/l
	MgS04.7H20	36.97
	NaHCO3	12.60
	K2HPO4	8.71
	KNO2	0.02
	$Na_2SiO_3.9H_2O$	28.42
Ъ.	Micronutrients	
	Na2. EDTA	4.36
	FeCl <sub>3</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> 0	3.15
	CuSO <sub>4</sub> .5H <sub>2</sub> O	0.01
-	ZnS04.7H20	0.022
	CoCl <sub>2</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O	0.01
	MnCl <sub>2</sub> .4H <sub>2</sub> O	0.18
	$Na_2MOO_4.2H_2O$	0.006
c.	Vitamins	
	Thiamine, HCl	0.1 mg/1
	Biotin	0.5 µg/1
	Cyanocobalamin	0.5 µg/1
đ.	Tris- 2ml/l	•
	Tris(hydroxymethyl)- aminomethane	50 g/200 ml

## THE FORMULATION OF WOODS HOLE MBL CULTURE MEDIUM WITH 25+M NITRITE REPLACING NITRATE

TABLE I

# TABLE II

## LIGHT LEVELS USED FOR THE GROWTH OF THE ALGAE CULTURES

.

	1. Second a second					
CHLOROPHYTA	foot-candles					
<u>Carteria</u> sp	500					
Chlamydomonas reinhardi	500					
Chlorococcum hypnosporum	500					
<u>Monoraphidium</u> sp	500					
Chlorella vulgaris	250					
Chlorella pyrenoidosa	500					
Selenastrum capricornutum	400					
<u>Golinkiniopsis</u> sp	500					
<u>Actinastrum</u> sp	500					
Scenedesmus obliquus	500					
<u>Koliella</u> sp	500					
CYANOPHYTA						
Gloeocapsa alpicola	500					
Microcystis aeruginosa	200					
Anabaena A7214	400					
CHRYSOPHYTA						
Navicula pelicullosa	500					
Hantzschia amphioxis	500					
<u>Nitzschia</u> w-31	500					
<u>Nitzschia</u> w-32	500					

was not added immediately, the cells became N-starved and exhibited non-linear uptake (with time), quite uncharacteristic of cells in exponential growth. Uptake experiments were carried out 2 to 3 hr after the addition of the 1  $\mu$ M NO $_3^{-}/1$ . This preincubation eliminated the lag in NO $_3^{-}$  uptake, which results in an inaccurate determination of K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> values (Eppley and Thomas 1968). After preincubation the cultures were subdivided into 90 ml aliquots, each of which was enriched with 10 ml of NO $_3^{-}$ , giving final concentrations ranging from 1 to 20  $\mu$ m NO $_3^{-}$ N/1.

Immediately after each culture was enriched, one half (50 ml) was filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$  membrane filter under vacuum (0.3 atmosphere). The cell-free filtrates were analyzed for NO<sub>3</sub>. The values obtained represented the experimentally determined NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations at the beginning of the uptake experiments. The remaining cells were then incubated at 20 C for 30 to 120 minutes, at the same light intensity as that used for growth. The flasks were shaken by hand every 5 minutes to insure complete distribution of cells within the culture medium. At the end of the uptake period the cells were harvested by filtration and the filtrate was analyzed for NO<sub>3</sub>. Uptake was calculated as the difference between initial and final NO<sub>3</sub> concentration divided by the time interval used. Nitrate was determined as NO<sub>2</sub> after reduction by passage through a copper-cadmium column (Strickland and Parsons 1968). All determinations were made in duplicate.

Observations were made twice with <u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u> to determine the effects of temperature on  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ . Here all experimental conditions were the same as above, but the temperature was 15.5 C (instead of 20.0 C) during growth of the cultures and during measurement of uptake. At the time of each experiment the cells were measured using a "Whipple" grid occular micrometer which had been calibrated with an American Optical stage micrometer. The diameters of spherical cells and the diameters and lengths of cylindrical cells were used to calculate the surface areas of the cells. Cell concentration in each culture was measured with an American Optical "Brightline" hemacytometer. The pH of each culture was measured to 0.1 pH unit with a Corning pH meter.

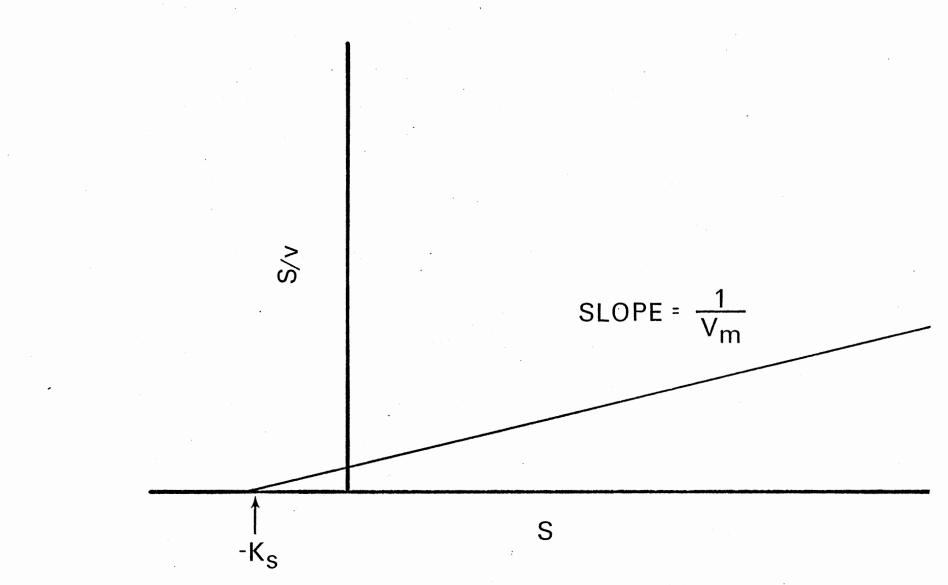
Calculation of  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ 

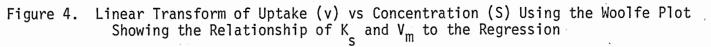
The Woolfe plot, a linear transform of the Michaelis-Menten equation, was used to calculate  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ . In this case S is plotted against (S/v) as shown in Figure 4. Equation 4 describes the curve.

$$S = V_m (S/v) - K_s$$
<sup>(4)</sup>

The  $K_s$  values were calculated by first determining the slope and Y-intercept, and then determining the X-intercept by equation 5. The negative X-intercept is  $K_s$ .

The confidence intervals on  $K_s$  were calculated by the method described in Ott (1977), giving confidence intervals for the value of x for a given value of y. This method was necessary because an estimation of the confidence interval of an independent variable corresponding to a measured value of the dependent variable was needed. The values of  $V_m$ were determined by equation 6.





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Slope = 
$$\frac{1}{V_{\rm m}}$$
 (6)

The popular Lineweaver-Burke (double reciprocal) plot was not used for the reasons of Dowd and Riggs (1965).

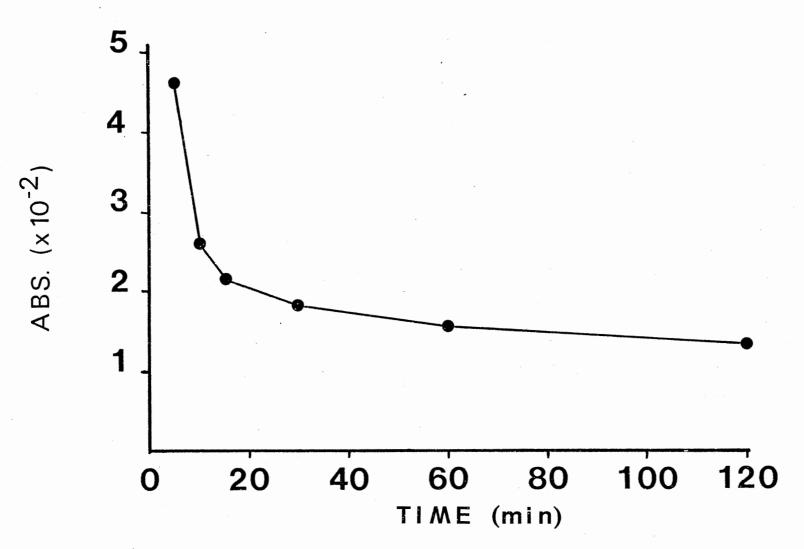
### CHAPTER IV

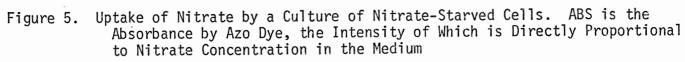
#### RESULTS

Early attempts to determine  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  failed because the cells became N-starved and exponential growth was not maintained. Upon the addition of  $NO_3^-$ , under N-starved conditions, uptake is non-linear. Uptake must be linear, i.e., the uptake rate must remain constant throughout the experiment in order to obtain the reproducible, speciesspecific values necessary for determining meaningful uptake constants.

Figure 5 shows the non-linear rate of disappearance of  $NO_3^-$  when it is added to a culture of N-starved cells. The rates of  $NO_3^-$  uptake so determined were useless in determining  $K_s$ . Figure 6 shows the disappearance of  $NO_3^-$  from a culture which had depleted the original N in the growth medium, but had not been allowed to become N-starved. The latter was characteristic of uptake by cells during the experiments by which  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  were determined here, and resemble optimal conditions suggested by Eppley et al. (1969a) and Carpenter and Guillard (1971) for uptake experiments.

With the exception of <u>Actinastrum</u> (Figure 7) uptake was hyperbolic when graphed against  $NO_3^-$  concentration. Figures 8 and 9 show typical hyperbolae for the algae tested. Superimposed on the same graphs are the Woolfe plot linear transforms by which K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> were derived. Uptake rates at each concentration of  $NO_3^-$  for all species, from which K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> determinations were made, are listed in the Appendix. A corre-





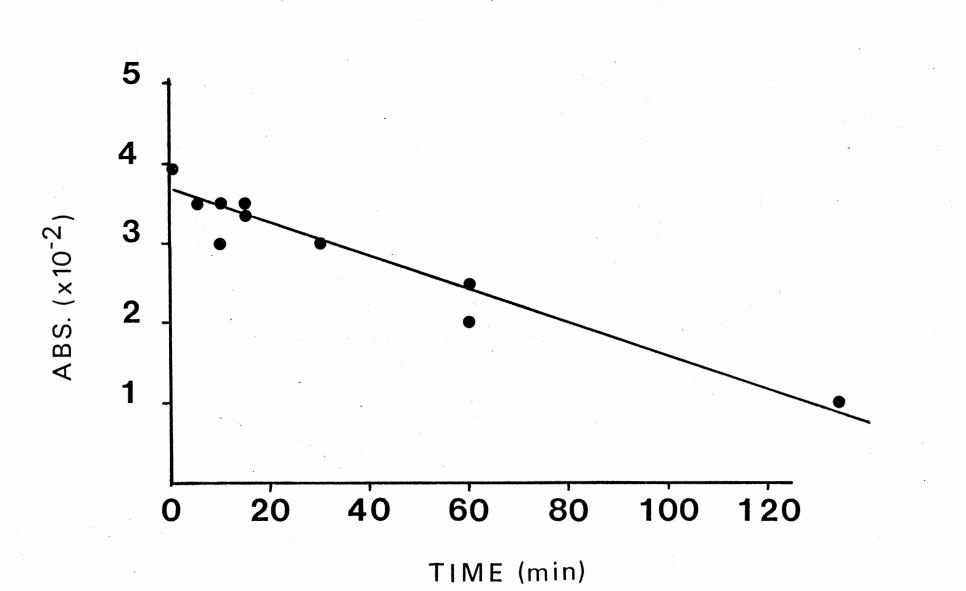
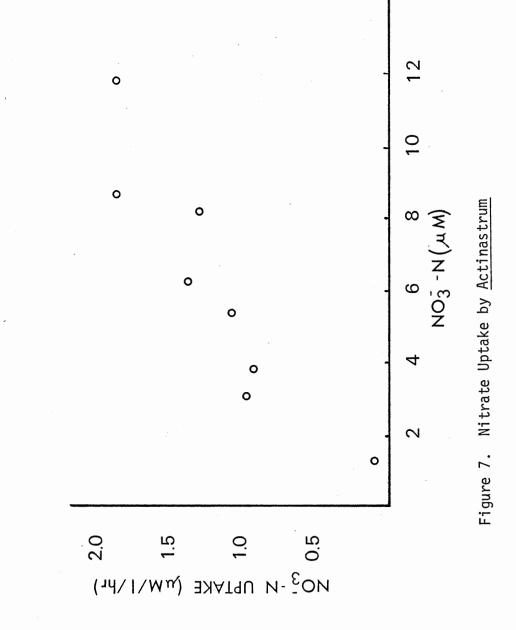
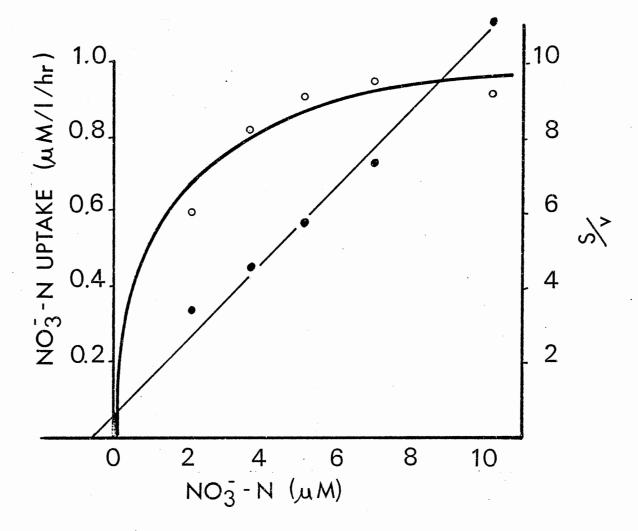
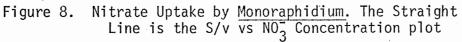
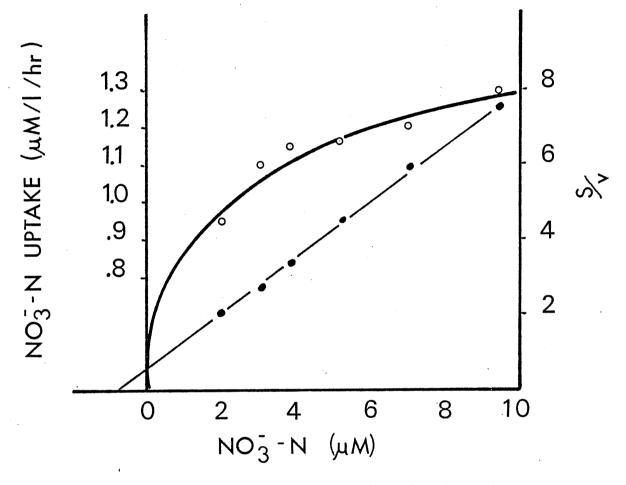


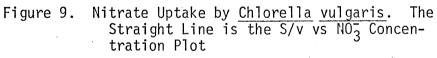
Figure 6. Uptake of Nitrate by Cells in a Nitrate-Depleted Culture in Which the Cells are not Nitrate-Starved. ABS is the Absorbance, by Azo Dye, the Intensity of which is Directly Proportional to Nitrate Concentration in the Medium











correlation coeficient for the transform of 0.95 or more was used to determine if the regression fit the data.

For species with low  $K_s$  values most of the points on the uptake vs concentration plot approach  $V_m$ ; with no points at concentrations less than  $K_s$ . Eppley et al. (1969a) and MacIsaac and Dugdale (1969) also encountered this problem. Therefore, the extrapolation of  $K_s$  depends entirely on the assumed linearity of the S vs (S/v) regression line.

Table III presents  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values determined during this study. The values of  $V_m$  are normalized (100,000 cells) so that comparisons can be made between species. Half-saturation constants for the Chlorophyta range from 0.1  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1 for <u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u> to 4.4  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1 for <u>Chlorococcum hypnosporum</u>. The values for  $V_m$  for the same phylum range from 0.1  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1/hr for <u>Koliella</u> sp to 13.9  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1/hr for <u>Carteria</u> sp. Negative values for  $K_s$  were obtained with two of the algae, <u>Koliella</u> sp and <u>Selenastrum capricornutum</u>. No biological meaning can be attributed to these negative values.

Half-saturation and  $V_m$  values were determined for 4 algae of the Phylum Chrysophyta. Values for K<sub>s</sub> range from 1.3 µm NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1 for <u>Nitzschia</u> w-32 to 7.0 µm NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1 for <u>Navicula pelicullosa</u>. The values of V<sub>m</sub> range from 1.1 µm NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1/hr for <u>Nitzschia</u> w-31 to 4.4 µm NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/1/hr for Nitzschia w-32.

Three algae of the Phylum Cyanophyta were used for uptake determinations; <u>Anabaena</u>, a filamentous algae capable of N-fixation as well as <u>Gloeocapsa alpicola</u> and <u>Microcystis aeruginosa</u>, both incapable of N-fixation. Table III shows the K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> values determined for these three species.

The effects of temperature on  ${\rm K}_{\rm S}$  and  ${\rm V}_{\rm m}$  were determined for

### TABLE III

VALUES OF HALF-SATURATION	CONSTANTS, CONFIDENCE
LIMITS, AND MAXIMUM	UPTAKE VELOCITIES
FOR THE UPTAKE	OF NITRATE

CHLOROPHYTA	K <sub>s</sub> (μm NO <sub>3</sub> -N/1)*	V <sub>m</sub> (µm NO <sub>3</sub> -N/1/hr)**
<u>Carteria</u> sp	(0.4) 1.4 (2.5)	13.9
Chlamydomonas reinhardi	-(1.2) 0.6 (2.8)	1.1
Chlorococcum hypnosporum	(1.9) 4.4 (8.0)	-
Monoraphidium sp	-(0.1) 1.1 (2.5)	0.4
<u>Chlorella</u> <u>vulgaris</u>	(0.4) 0.8 (1.2)	0.2
Chlorella pyrenoidosa	-(0.6) 0.3 (1.3)	0.3
Selenastrum capricornutum	-(1.4) -0.2 (1.2)	0.2
<u>Golenkiniopsis</u> sp	(2.4) 4.4 (7.2)	1.8
Actinastrum sp***	•	
Scenedesmus obliquus	-(1.9) 0.1 (2.6)	0.6
Scenedesmus obliquus	(1.5) 4.0 (6.9)	0.6
<u>Koliella</u> sp	-(1.9) -0.1 (2.0)	0.1
***** MEAN	1.6	1.9
CYANOPHYTA		
Gloeocapsa alpicola	(2.3) 6.2 (12.6)	0.4
<u>Microcystis</u> <u>aeruginosa</u>	-(0.4) 0.8 (2.3)	0.4
Anabaena A7214	-(5.7) -2.1 (2.4)	0.1
***** MEAN	3.5	0.3

\* upper and lower confidence limits in parenthesis
\*\* data normalized to 100,000 cells
\*\*\* hyperbolic uptake not observed
\*\*\*\* run at 15.5 C, all others at 20 C
\*\*\*\*\* negative K<sub>s</sub> values not included in the mean

TABLE III, (Continued)

ĊHRYSOPHYTA	K <sub>s</sub> (μm NO <sub>3</sub> -N/1)	V <sub>m</sub> (µm NO <sub>3</sub> -N/1/hr)
<u>Navicula pelicullosa</u>	(5.6) 7.0 (8.6)	1.7
<u>Hantzschia</u> <u>amphioxis</u>	(1.2) 4.3 (10.2)	2.5
<u>Nitzschia</u> w-31	(1.9) 2.8 (3.7)	1.1
<u>Nitzschia</u> w-32	-(1.0) 1.3 (4.4)	4.4
MEAN	3.8	2.4

<u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u>. Experiments were run at 20 C and 15.5 C. The lower temperature appeared to cause  $K_s$  to increase (lowered the efficiency of uptake) from 0.1  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub>-N/1 to 4.0  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub>-N/1. The value of  $V_m$ , however, was 0.6  $\mu$ m NO<sub>3</sub>-N/1/hr at both 20 and 15.5 C. Since the confidence intervals on the values of  $K_s$  for the different temperatures overlap slightly, the differences cannot be considered highly significant. However, Carter and Lathwell (1967) observed similar results in studies on the uptake of low levels of phosphorus (P) by corn roots. Studies at 20 and 30 C resulted in  $K_s$  values of 3.56 and 6.09  $\mu$ m P/1 respectively, with the same  $V_m$  value for both temperatures. However, at high P concentrations, increased temperatures resulted in an increase in both  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ .

The Appendix summarizes the cell sizes (surface area) of the cells in each culture during the uptake experiments. Figure 10 shows the relationship between cell surface area and  $K_s$  values. No correlation was seen between  $K_s$  and surface area (Figure 10) or cell diameter (not shown).

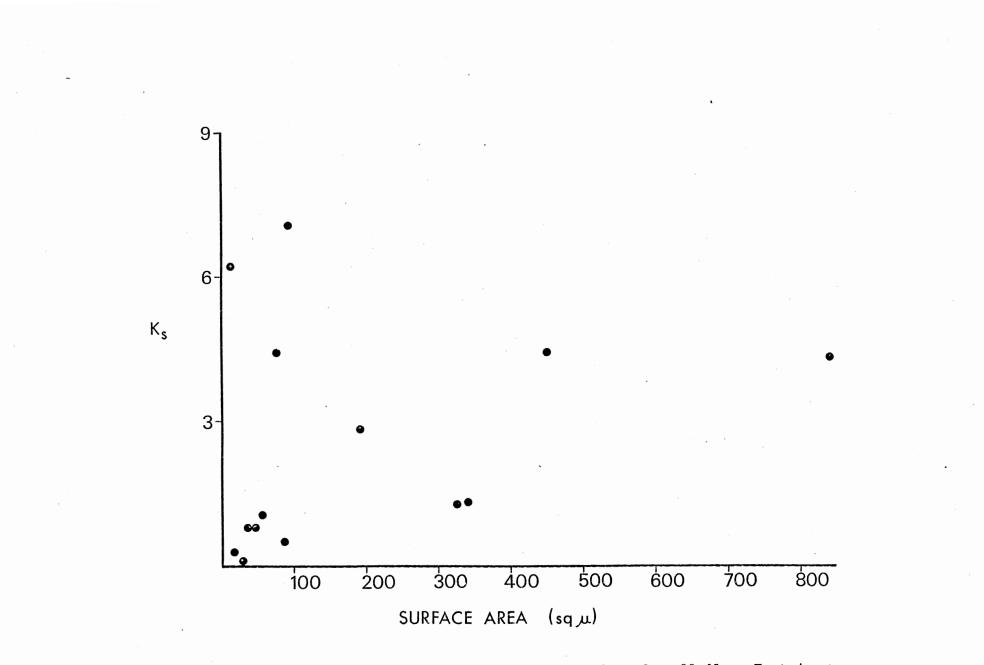


Figure 10. Half-Saturation Constant vs Surface Area for all Algae Tested

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

Freshwater algae vary greatly in their ability to take up  $NO_3$ . These differences reflect variations in the evolution of mechanisms by which algae compete for a nutrient,  $NO_3^-$ , when it is limiting growth. Although P is generally believed to limit algal growth in freshwaters, there are times when N is the limiting nutrient (Keeney 1974). However, since it has been demonstrated that  $NH_4^+$  inhibits  $NO_3^-$  uptake and assimilation (Eppley et al. 1969b, Morris and Syrett 1972), the data given here would apply to conditions under which a) N is limiting growth and b)  $NH_{4}^{+}$  is at extremely low concentrations (or not present) and  $NO_{3}^{-}$  is present. In many lakes the concentration of  $NH_4^+$  is generally higher than that of  $NO_3^-$ . However, the reverse can be true in surface waters of summer-stratified lakes. Hutchinson (1975) presented data in which  $NO_3^-$ N was about 1.4  $\mu$  m/l while NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> -N was about 0.8  $\mu$  m/l. Faust (1973) reported summer  $\text{NO}_{3}^{-}\text{N}$  concentrations ranging from undetectable to  $4\,\mu\,\text{m/l}$ in an Oklahoma reservoir. Although no  $NH_4^+$  concentrations were reported, the results of  $NO_{3}^{-}$  enrichment algal assays led him to believe  $NO_{3}^{-}$  N was limiting the growth of some species of algae. In shallow streams  $NH_4^{\tau}$ can be oxidized to  $NO_3^-$  by nitrifying bacteria on the surface of the substrate and vegetation (Tuffey et al. 1974). Lopez-Bernal et al. (1974), Tuffey et al. (1974) and Ruane and Krenkal (1978) have reported complete oxidation of  $NH_4^+$  to  $NO_3^-$  in streams.

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Under conditions in which  $NO_3^-$  could be limiting growth, it could be predicted that the succession of algae parallels changes in  $NO_3^-$  concentration. In part this would be the result of the variation in competitive abilities caused by differences in K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> for  $NO_3^-$  uptake. These arguments are supported by the observation that almost all of the values of K<sub>s</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> reported here fall into the range of  $NO_3^-$  concentrations present during those times when it is most likely to be limiting algal growth.

The values of  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  are taken as measures of uptake and are most useful in making quantitative comparisons of competitive ability. However, it must be noted that a "high" or "low" value for a species is relative, having little ecological meaning unless that species is compared to another species. In the absence of confounding responses to light, temperature or loss rates, predictions can be made as to the outcome of competition at various  $NO_3^-$  concentrations. Such predictions can be made based on the data by comparing uptake values listed in Table III. Therefore, a discussion about which species would win in competition will not appear here. Instead, the patterns of uptake kinetics that occur in the data are discussed, as well as some thoughts concerning the possible evolution of those patterns. Secondly, the trends that occur with regard to uptake capabilities of the major taxonomic groups are illustrated.

High and low values of  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  are relative in terms of predicting the outcome of competition. It would be arbitrary and artificial to group the values into high, low or intermediate categories, especially in light of the large confidence intervals of the  $K_s$  values of some of the species. However, since the values of  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  are proposed as a means to compare the competitive abilities evolved by each species, it is necessary to consider certain patterns apparent in the data.

The species discussed here fall into a continuum of combinations of low to high values of both  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ . That is, there is a range from species with low  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values to species with high values for both  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ . Rather than impose static limitations to the continuum by grouping the species, the extremes are discussed as being representative of the evolutionary strategies to be outlined.

First, several species are characterized by a low  $K_s$  and a low  $V_m$  value. Examples of this combination are <u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u> ( $K_s$ = 0.1  $\mu$ m/l and  $V_m$ = 0.6  $\mu$ m/l/hr) and <u>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</u> ( $K_s$ = 0.3  $\mu$ m/l and  $V_m$ = 0.3  $\mu$ m/l/hr). These species have apparently evolved an efficient mechanism for uptake when  $NO_3^-$  is in low concentrations, but at the expense of the ability to take up  $NO_3^-$  rapidly when it occurs at high concentrations. It could therefore be predicted that these species would be dominant in waters in which  $NO_3^-$  concentration is very low.

Second, at the other extreme are those species which have evolved mechanisms by which they can take up  $NO_3^-$  very efficiently (rapidly) at high concentrations, but at the expense of rapid uptake at low concentrations. These species are characterized by high  $V_m$  and  $K_s$  values. <u>Hantzschia amphioxis</u> with a  $K_s$  of 4.3  $\mu$ m/l and a  $V_m$  of 2.5  $\mu$ m/l/hr is a good example. It could be predicted that species in this category would be dominant in waters with high  $NO_3^-$  concentrations.

Finally, several of those species studied fall into a group characterized by high K<sub>s</sub> values (poor uptake at low concentrations) and low  $V_m$  values (poor uptake at high concentrations). They have not evolved efficient mechanisms for NO<sub>3</sub> uptake at high or low concentrations.

<u>Gloeocapsa alpicola</u> with a  $K_s$  of 6.2 µm/l and  $V_m$  of 0.4 µm/l/hr is characteristic of this third category. These species have possibly evolved under conditions in which  $NO_3^-$  was not limiting. Therefore, there would have been no selective pressure for the evolution of efficient  $NO_3^-$  uptake mechanisms. Studies on their growth responses to light and temperature, however, might reveal secondary mechanisms by which they could successfully compete.

When considering the means of the  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values for the three phyla studied another trend is evident. The green algae and the bluegreen algae have lower  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values than do the diatoms (Table III). This indicates the possibility that the greens and blue-greens would be better at taking up  $NO_3^-$  at low concentrations, but are not able to take it up as efficiently as diatoms when  $NO_3^-$  is present at high concentrations. The diatoms, with higher  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values would not be as efficient as the other two groups at taking up  $NO_3^-$  at low concentrations, but are adapted to take it up more rapidly at high concentrations.

These findings agree with the observation that diatoms are often dominant in lakes in April and May, after "turnover", when  $NO_3^-$  is abundant, and are replaced by green and blue-green algae after nutrient concentrations decrease (Fogg 1965). The presence of diatoms in nutrient-rich waters in marine environments was suggested by Dugdale (1969) to be due to a high V<sub>m</sub>, evolved at the cost of a correspondingly high K<sub>s</sub> value. It appears that diatoms in both freshwater and marine environments have evolved similar strategies for uptake of  $NO_3^-$ .

The study on the effect of temperature on uptake kinetics indicated a possible increase in the value of  $K_s$  with a decrease of temperature. The 95% confidence interval on the two  $K_s$  values overlapped, however,

so the difference is not interpreted as being highly significant. Others, however, have seen variations in uptake constants as a function of temperature (Carter and Lathwell 1967). Further studies must be conducted before the relationship between temperature and nutrient uptake capabilities (as indicated by  $K_s$  and  $V_m$ ) can be fully described.

If temperature, or any variable, affects the uptake capabilities of algae, it is important that studies be conducted in which environmental factors are coupled to physiological factors when attempting to determine the ability of algae to compete for nutrients. It is likely that the factors involved in species succession are more complex than just differences in  $K_s$  and  $V_m$  values. It is, however, beyond the scope of this study to couple observed uptake kinetics with growth responses to light, temperature, loss rates or any other environmental factors. This area, which has been studied with some marine algae (Eppley et al. 1969a, Lehman et al. 1975), has not been studied with freshwater forms and is a fertile field for further study.

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# APPENDIX

# TECHNICAL DATA FOR UPTAKE EXPERIMENTS

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	S (µm NO <u>3</u> -N/1)	v (µm NO3-N/1/hr)
<u>Carteria</u> sp r <sup>*</sup> =0.99 pH= 7.5 cell size= 346 sq µ cell density=13,000/ml bacterial contamination- slight	1.1 2.5 3.5 5.0 8.1 10.3	0.7 1.3 1.3 1.5 1.5 1.6
Chlamydomonas reinhardi r= 0.98 pH= 7.3 cell size=86.8 sq μ cell density= 195,556/ml bacterial contamination- not observed	3.5 4.5 4.3 5.0 13.2 16.3	2.3 1.6 1.8 1.5 2.0 2.0
Chlorococcum hypnosporum r= 0.95 pH= not recorded cell size= 452.4 sq μ cell density= not observed bacterial contamination- none	2.2 3.4 4.5 5.9 7.0 12.5	0.8 0.9 0.9 1.2 1.1 1.5
<u>Monoraphidium</u> sp r= 0.99 pH= 7.5 cell size= 58.8 sq µ cell density= 268,333/ml bacterial contamination- none	2.1 3.7 5.2 7.0 10.2	0.6 0.8 0.9 1.0 0.9

 $\star$  correlation coefficient of the S vs (S/v) regression

Chlorella vulgaris r= 0.99 pH= 7.3 cell size= 36.3 sq μ cell density= 685,000/ml bacterial contamination- none	2.0 3.1 3.9 5.2 7.0 9.5	1.0 1.1 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.3
Chlorella pyrenoidosa r= 0.99 pH= 7.2 cell size= 18.9 sq μ cell density= 492,500/ml bacterial contamination- none	2.4 3.1 4.0 5.8 8.2	1.2 1.1 1.1 1.3 1.2
Selenastrum capricornutum r= 0.98 pH= not recorded cell size= 58.4 sq μ cell density= 508,333/ml bacterial contamination- not observed	1.4 2.7 3.0 7.5 8.2	0.7 1.2 1.2 1.5 1.4
Golenkiniopsis sp r= 0.97 pH= 7.4 cell size= 75.4 sq μ cell density= 141,667/ml bacterial contamination- not observed	5.1 5.8 6.8 8.6 9.8	1.3 1.4 1.6 1.7 1.7
<u>Actinastrum</u> sp r= non-hyperbolic uptake pH= 7.7 cell size= 63.2 sq μ cell density= 466,667/ml bacterial contamination- none	1.2 3.0 3.7 5.3 6.2 8.1 8.6 11.7	0.1 1.0 1.0 1.1 1.4 1.3 1.9 1.9

S

	S	v
<u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u> (15.5 C) r= 0.98 pH= 7.9 cell size= 30.7 sq μ cell density= 250,000/ml bacterial contamination- slight	1.1 3.0 4.0 5.5 7.4 12.4 16.2	0.3 0.7 0.9 0.8 0.9 1.2 1.2
<u>Scenedesmus obliquus</u> (20 C) r= 0.98 pH= 7.2 cell size= 30 sqµ cell density= 231,666/m1 bacterial contamination- not observed	2.5 3.4 4.6 6.1 10.5 15.7	1.0 1.2 1.1 1.4 1.3 1.4
<u>Koliella</u> sp r= 0.99 pH= 7.3 cell size= 26.5 sq μ cell density= 616,667/ml bacterial contamination- slight	1.1 4.3 6.2 11.0 15.0	0.5 0.8 0.8 0.8 0.7
<u>Gloeocapsa alpicola</u> r= 0.95 pH= 7.1 cell size= 11 sqµ cell density= 318,333/ml bacterial contamination- none	4.1 7.5 9.3 11.2 15.5	0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0
Microcystis <u>aeruginosa</u> r= 0.98 pH= 7.5 cell size= 46.6 sq μ cell density= 240,000/ml bacterial contamination- not observed	1.3 2.4 2.9 4.4 9.9	0.5 0.9 0.8 0.9 1.1

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S	v
2.6 6.2 9.8 19.2	0.6 0.6 0.6 0.4
3.0 5.0 6.9 9.3 15.2 19.9	0.8 1.1 1.3 1.5 1.8 2.0
2.8 3.9	0.3 0.4

0.6

0.5

0.6

1.1

2.0

2.2

2.3

2.6

2.7

2.8

2.9

3.2

3.8

4.6

4.1 4.0

5.5

7.0

9.0

5.3

7.1

9.1

12.4

15.7

r= 0.91 pH= 7.2
cell size= 841.4 sq μ
cell density= 31,667/ml
bacterial contamination-
moderate

Anabaena A7214

cell size= 33.2 sq µ cell density= 697,500/ml bacterial contaminationnot observed

Navicula pelicullosa

cell size= 91.3 sq µ cell density= 155,000/ml bacterial contamination-

Hantzschia amphioxis

none

r = 0.97pH= 7.3

r = 0.99pH= 7.2

<u>Nitzschia</u> w-31	1.3
r= 0.99 pH= not recorded cell size= 192.3 sq μ cell density= 290,000/ml bacterial contamination- very slight	5.2 8.1 9.9 12.4 15.5
Nitzschia w-32	4.1

r = 0.97pH= 7.2 cell size= 324 sq  $\mu$ cell density= 103,333/ml bacterial contaminationvery slight

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