A. Corzo · F. X. Niell

Nitrate-reductase activity and in vivo nitrate-reduction rate in *Ulva rigida* illuminated by blue light

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Abstract In the marine green alga *Ulva rigida* C. Agardh, nitrate reductase (NR) is synergetically induced by blue light and nitrate. The present study examines the effect of blue light and a large NO_3^- pulse (0.3 mM) on relevant variables of NO₃-assimilation such as NO₃-uptake, intracellular NO₃-storage, NR activity, in vivo NO₃-reduction rate and NO₂ and NH₄⁺-accumulation. Nitrate uptake started immediately upon addition of NO3, suggesting the presence of a constitutive carrier, however in the first 1.5 to 2 h, periods of net NO₃ efflux were frequent. After this time, NO₃-uptake and intracellular NO₃-accumulation proceeded linearly with time, suggesting the existence of a different NO₃-uptake mechanism, which seems to be inducible. Our results indicate that in vivo NO₃-reduction is not exclusively dependent on the potential NR activity. In U. rigida, during the first 2 h after a NO_3^- pulse (300 μM) there were clear indications that the induction state of the NO₃-carrier limits the reduction rate of NO₃. Once the induction of the NO₃-transporter had been completed (1.5 to 2 h), the NO₃-assimilation pathway reached a steady state, NO₃-uptake rate, NO₃-reduction rate and NO₂ and NH₄accumulation being linear with time. Since the reduction of NO₃ leads mainly to the accumulation of NH₄, we conclude that, after the NO₃-reduction itself, NH₄-fixation into carbon skeletons is the limiting step in the assimilation of NO_3^- by *U. rigida* under blue light.

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A. Corzo (≅)
Departamento de Biología y Ecología,
Facultad de Ciencias del Mar,
Universidad de Cádiz,
E-11510 Puerto Real,
Spain

F. X. Niell Departamento de Ecología, Universidad de Málaga, Campus Universitario de Teatinos s/n, E-29071 Málaga, Spain

Introduction

Blue light acts on a number of physiological processes, triggering different morphogenetic responses in fungi. higher plants and algae, e.g. the development of functionally active chloroplasts, the formation of whorls and caps in the genus Acetabularia, and many other processes (Senger 1984; Galland and Senger 1988). As protein synthesis is required for the completion of all photomorphogenic responses, it is of interest to study the assimilation of NO₃ under blue light. In addition, nitrate reductase (NR), a key enzyme in the inorganic nitrogen metabolism, is inducible by blue light, involving de novo NR synthesis in higher plants (Rao et al. 1982). Additionally, NR from green algae, fungi and higher plants may be activated by blue light in vitro (Aparicio et al. 1976; Roldán and Butler 1980; Aryan et al. 1983; Fritz and Ninnemann 1985). The enzymebound FAD (flavin adenine dinucleotide) appears to be the photoreceptor, photoreactivation being caused by the excited triplet flavins (Fritz and Ninnemann 1985; Maldonado and Aparicio 1987). The same mechanism has been suggested to exist in vivo (Maldonado and Aparicio 1987). Despite the economical importance of marine macroalgae both as food for human consumption and as a source of phycocolloids, the information available on the regulation of the key enzymes of inorganic nitrogen metabolism such as nitrate reductase is so far very limited. According to our previous work (Corzo and Niell 1992b), in Ulva rigida, blue light-enhancement of NR occurs mainly through the induction of de novo NR synthesis, since the response is inhibited by cycloheximide. Actinomycin D and rifampicin are considerably less effective, suggesting that a mRNA pool coding for NR is already present. The accomplishment of NR-enhancement by blue light is dependent on either newly synthesized carbohydrates, reducing power, or ATP-derived from photosynthesis, since it is inhibited by 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (Corzo and Niell 1992b).

Nitrate assimilation involves the uptake of NO₃ from the medium, the reduction of NO₃ to NH₄ catalyzed by the successive operation of nitrate reductase and nitrite reductase (NiR), and NH₄⁺ fixation to carbon skeletons catalyzed mainly by the glutamine synthetase-glutamate synthase (GS-GOGAT) pathway. Plants in general can use both NO₂ and NH₄⁺ as alternative nitrogen sources. The uses of both NO₂ and NH₄⁺ saves energy in the form of reducing equivalents; however, neither of them can be stored to a large amount within the cell (Ullrich and Novacky 1990).

The present paper deals with the effect of blue light-enhancement of NR activity in N-starved algae, given a simultaneous pulse of NO_3^- , on a number of relevant variables of inorganic nitrogen metabolism such as NO_3^- -uptake, intracellular NO_3^- pool, NO_2^- -production, NH_4^+ -production, NR activity and NO_3^- -reduction rates.

Materials and methods

Plant material

Ulva rigida C. Agardh was collected in 1988 from a rocky shore in the south of Spain (Algeciras, Cadiz). It was maintained in the laboratory at 15 °C in aerated artificial sea water (Kalle 1945 in Riley and Skirrow 1975) for different periods of time (up to 9 d), in 3-litre glass containers, the biomass: media ratio being =5 g fresh wt 1^{-1} . In order to exhaust the NO $_3$ internal pool, the alga was kept in white light at high intensity (200 μ mol m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$). Previous to the experiment, the alga was transferred to low irradiance (4 μ mol m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$) for 12 h. White light was provided with Sylvania F 18 W/GRO.

Experiments

Experiments were performed in a cool chamber at constant temperature (15 °C). Blue-light irradiation (160 $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$) began when pieces of blade (=0.6 g fresh wt) were transferred to a flask containing 200 ml of artificial sea water +0.3 mM KNO3. In order to illuminate a large area with the same photon fluence rate, blue light was obtained with Sylvania blue + blue plastic filter and checked with a Spectroradiometer Li-Cor 1800 UW. The maximal transmission wavelength was at 440 nm and the spectral distribution of the photon fluence rate (PFR) was 67.3% from 400 to 500 nm, 26% from 500 to 600 nm and 6.7% from 600 to 800 nm. PFR was measured with a Quantum Radiometer LI-Cor (LI-1000 data logger).

In situ NR assay

Immediately after light treatment, 0.16 g of fresh tissue were introduced into test tubes containing 5 ml of assay medium previously flushed for 2 min with N_2 ; after introduction of the alga, the test tubes were again flushed with N_2 for a further 2 min. The test tubes were immediately sealed and incubated in the dark for 30 min at 30 °C. At the end of that time, 1 ml of assay medium was sampled and assayed for NO_2^- (Snell and Snell 1949). Two independent in situ NR assays were run for each light treatment. The assay medium consisted of 30 mM KNO3, 0.01 mM glucose, 0.1% 1-propanol. 0.5 mM Na-EDTA, 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 8) (Corzo and Niell 1991).

Determination of external and internal nitrate, nitrite and ammonium

At different times, samples of medium (5 ml) were removed and stored frozen until analysis. NO₃⁻ (Wood et al. 1967), NO₂⁻ (Shinn 1941) and NH₄⁺ (Slawyk and MacIsaac 1972) concentrations were determined by means of a Technicon Autoanalyser. Intracellular NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations were determined as follows. Samples of fresh tissue (0.1 g fresh wt) were taken and immediately dried overnight (100 °C). After being ground in a mortar, 0.05 g of dry powder were introduced into a test tube containing 5 ml of deionized water. Test tubes were incubated in a shaking water bath

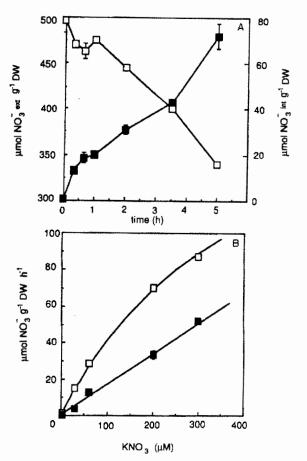


Fig. 1 Ulva rigida. A Nitrate-depletion from external solution (\square) and internal NO $_3^-$ (\blacksquare) time-courses in blue light (160 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹); B external NO $_3^-$ -depletion rate (\square) and intracellular NO $_3^-$ -replenishment rate (\blacksquare) as a function of external NO $_3^-$ -concentration. U. rigida was N-starved for 7 to 9 d. Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol (DW dry weight)

(30 °C) for 1 h to allow complete dissolution of NO $_3^-$, NO $_2^-$ and NH $_4^+$. Finally, the powder was removed by filtration (Whatman GF/C) and NO $_3^-$, NO $_2^-$ and NH $_4^+$ concentrations were determined by the analytical methods detailed above.

Results

Nitrate uptake and internal pool of nitrate

After a period of N-starvation, 300 μM KNO₃ was added to the medium and *Ulva rigida* immediately started taking up NO₃ from the external medium. Over the time interval studied (5 h), the uptake proceeded linearly over time (33.6 μmol NO₃ g⁻¹ dry wt h⁻¹). However, an initial phase (1.5 to 2 h duration) was detected during which a net NO₃-efflux occurred in different experiments (Fig. 1 A). The existence of a lag period for NO₃-uptake following NO₃-starvation has been reported for a number of species, and has been interpreted as the time required to induce the NO₃-transporter (Ullrich and Novacky 1981; Deane-Drummond 1984). *U. rigida* did not show any lag period,

suggesting that a constitutive system for nitrate uptake exists in N-deprived cells.

The internal NO $_3^-$ pool ([NO $_3^-$]_{int}) in *Ulva rigida* was exhausted by keeping the alga in a medium without any available N source at high light-intensity (200 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹). After this treatment, the [NO $_3^-$]_{int} level was very low (0.8±0.15 μ mol NO $_3^-$ g⁻¹ dry wt). The [NO $_3^-$]_{int} increased (12.6 μ mol NO $_3^-$ g⁻¹ dry wt h⁻¹) after NO $_3^-$ addition (300 μ M), correspondingly to NO $_3^-$ depletion from the external medium (Fig. 1 A). Intracellular concentrations may be expressed in terms of ml of cell water by dividing by 3.5 (this factor was calculated by assuming that cell water has a density of 1.0 and that cell water is equal to the fresh weight minus the dry weight). According to Grandsted and Huffaker (1982), 58% of the intracellular NO $_3^-$ is located within the vacuole, hence cytosolic concentrations are lower.

Blue-light induction of NR activity has been shown to be linearly dependent on the initial NO₃ pulse (Corzo and Niell 1992b). It has been argued that NO₃ has a double role: (1) as an inductor of NR only minor amounts of NO₃ are probably required; (2) however, if it is to constitute a N-source as well, then larger amounts will be necessary. Two points are particularly important if the main role of NO₃ is that of a N-source: (i) NO₃ entry into the cell, and (ii) the fate of NO₃ within the cell (is it stored in vacuoles or reduced rapidly?) Nitrate consumption rates (calculated for 2 h) were, as predicted, concentration-dependent in a hyperbolic manner. The apparent kinetic parameters were $K_{0.5} = 0.4 \text{ mM}$, $V_{\text{max}} = 208 \,\mu\text{mol NO}_3^- \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ dry wt h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1 B). In contrast, the rate of [NO₃]_{int}-replenishment under blue light was linearly dependent on external NO₃-concentration over the range studied (Fig. 1B). Ulva rigida is capable of storing NO₃ in large concentrations. After 2 h in blue light, with an initial NO₃ concentration in the external medium of 300 μM , the $[NO_3^-]_{int}$ pool increased from 1.4 to 105 µmol NO₃ g⁻¹ dry wt. No saturation was observed, although the external concentrations were at least an order of magnitude higher than those frequently measured in coastal marine environments.

Nitrate reductase activity and nitrate-reduction rate

Blue-light enhanced NR activity in *Ulva rigida* mainly through induction of de novo synthesis of NR-protein (Corzo and Niell 1992b). Parallel to the NO₃ depletion from the external medium and the increase of [NO3] int pool after an NO₃ pulse (see previous subsection), blue light induced NR activity. In the dark control, the increase in NR activity was only 12% of that achieved under blue light. The increase in NR activity saturates with time (Fig. 2). The time at which the half-maximal activation level is reached is dependent on the N-status of the alga, being longer in N-starved algae (Corzo and Niell 1992b). Since presumably only the NO₃ incorporated in the cells actually induces NR, it is of interest to investigate the relationship between NR activity and the amount of NO3 incorporated into the cell. NR activity showed a hyperbolic relationship with the total amount of NO₃ incorporated into

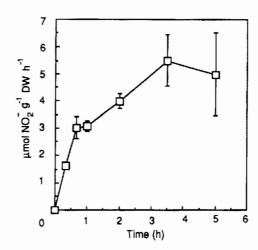


Fig. 2 Ulva rigida. Time-course of nitrate reductase (NR)-enhancement by blue light (160 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) after pulse of 300 μM KNO₃. U. rigida was N-starved for 9 d. Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol

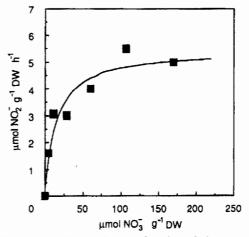


Fig. 3 Ulva rigida. NR activity as a function of nitrate content of algal tissue. Data fitted to Michaelis-Menten equation $(K_{0.5}=14.56 \, \mu \text{mol NO}_3 \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{dry wt}, \, V_{\text{max}}=5.55 \, \mu \text{mol NO}_3 \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{dry wt h}^{-1})$

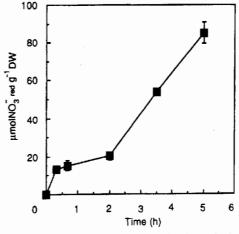


Fig. 4 Ulva rigida. Nitrate-reduction rate in vivo calculated as difference between incorporated NO₃ and internal NO₃. Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol

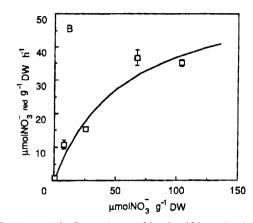


Fig. 5 Ulva rigida. Dependence of in vivo NO₃-reduction rate on internal NO₃-concentration in blue light. Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol

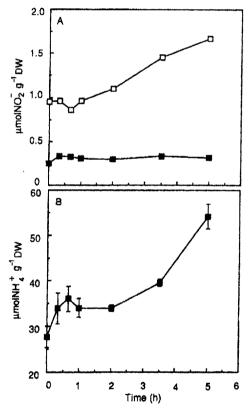


Fig. 6 Ulva rigida. Time-courses of A external $NO_2^-(\square)$ and internal $NO_2^-(\square)$ and B internal NH_4^+ . Experiments performed in blue light (160 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹). Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol

the cell $(K_{0.5}=14.56 \, \mu \text{mol NO}_3^- \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{dry wt}, \, V_{\text{max}}=5.55 \, \mu \text{mol NO}_3^- \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{dry wt h}^{-1})$ (Fig. 3). Obviously, a similar relationship was found between NR-enhancement by blue light and $[NO_3^-]_{\text{int}}$. In this case, the $K_{0.5}$ was larger (22.75 $\mu \text{mol NO}_3^- \, \text{g}^{-1} \, \text{dry wt}$).

As pointed out previously for higher plant systems, NR activity (determined either in vitro, or by the in situ method

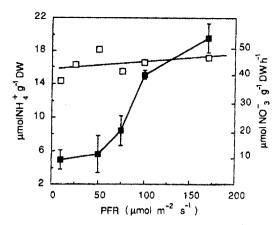


Fig. 7 Ulva rigida. NO $_3$ -uptake rate (\square) and total NH $_4$ -production (\blacksquare) as a function of photon fluence rate (PFR) in blue light. Standard deviation shown as bar if greater than size of symbol

as in the present study) does not always accurately represent the real rate of NO₃-reduction. The in vivo NO₃-reduction rate can be calculated as the difference between the total amount of NO₃ taken up by the alga and the intracellular NO₃-concentration after a given period of time. The time-course of NO₃-reduction suggests the existence of two phases (Fig. 4). An initial phase which reached an almost stable level after 40 min, and a second phase which began after 2 h and was characterized by a linear increase up to 80 μmol NO₃ reduced g⁻¹ dry wt after 5 h. The NO₃reduction rate in N-starved Ulva rigida was hyperbolic, with both the external NO₃-concentration ($K_{0.5} = 158.96$ μM KNO₃, $V_{\text{max}} = 57.47 \,\mu\text{mol NO}_3^{-1} \text{ reduced g}^{-1} \text{ dry wt}$ h^{-1}) (result not shown) and [NO₃]_{int} ($K_{0.5} = 57.7 \mu mol NO_3$ g^{-1} dry wt. $V_{\text{max}} = 58.1 \, \mu \text{mol NO}_3 \text{ reduced } g^{-1}$ dry wt h⁻¹; Fig. 5). The amount of NO_3^- reduced represents $53\pm9\%$ (n=10) of the incorporated NO₃.

Since it has been claimed that in vivo NO₂-reduction may be limited by factors (i.e., NO₃-availability and NADH) other than active NR levels, it was of interest to study the relationships between NR activity and NO₃-reduction. In *Ula rigida*, the ratio NO₃-reduction rate: NR activity varied greatly between different experiments $(11\pm7, n=10)$. Variations in this ratio were also observed for the same experiment both as a function of different external NO₃ concentration and with time course (results not shown). Therefore, as previously shown for higher plants. the in vivo rate of NO₃-reduction cannot be directly assessed for *U. rigida* through the determination of NR activity. Various authors have suggested that the in vivo NO₃reduction rate may be limited by the NO₃-uptake rate (Eisele and Ullrich 1977, Morgan et al. 1985). Our results sup port this idea, since although 40% of maximum NR activ ity had been reached after 20 min, only 15.7% of maxi mum NO₃-reduction had been achieved at this time.

Nitrite and ammonium production

Under blue light, *Ulva rigida* is not able to assimilate int its carbon skeleton all the NO_3^- incorporated into the cell

and reduced by NR after a large pulse of NO_3^- (300 μM). The excess NO_2^- produced is released to the medium rather than being accumulated in the cell (Fig. 6 A), thus maintaining the internal NO_2^- -concentration constant and avoiding toxicity effects (Vennesland and Guerrero 1979). However, excess reduced NO_3^- is mainly accumulated within the cell as NH_4^+ (Fig. 6 B). The release of NH_4^+ was undetectable (Fig. 6 B) or very low (3.5 μ mol g⁻¹ dry wt after 2 h) in some other experiments (results not shown).

In *Ulva rigida* under blue light, NR activity increased with increasing PFR (Corzo and Nicll 1992b). Either a stimulation of the NO $_3$ -uptake system by the PFR in blue light (Calero et al. 1980), or an increase of reducing power could be responsible for such dependence. We tested the first possibility. NO $_3$ -uptake rate was practically independent of PFR in blue light (Fig. 7). Similar results were obtained previously using a lower NO $_3$ -concentration (<10 μ M; Corzo and Niell 1992 a). However, in the same experiment, the ammonium production rate (intracellular plus released) was dependent on PFR under blue light (Fig. 7), demonstrating further the enhancement of NR activity by PFR in blue light. Therefore under blue light, NH $_4$ -fixation in carbon skeletons appears to constitute the limiting step in NO $_3$ -assimilation.

Discussion

In *Ulva rigida*, blue-light stimulation of NR activity occurs mainly through induction of de novo enzyme synthesis (Corzo and Niell 1992 b). Any de novo synthesis of protein requires nitrogen. *U. rigida*, like other marine macroalgae, may store large amounts of NO_3^- (Fig. 1 A); therefore, its intracellular NO_3^- pool may constitute a source of nitrogen. In this study we examined the situation in which, since *U. rigida* was N-starved, the only source of N was NO_3^- in the external medium; in such case, NO_3^- -uptake plays a major role.

For higher plants, evidence suggests that NO₃ is transported into the cell by means of a secondary coupling with ATP hydrolysis (Ullrich and Novacky 1981, 1990; McClure et al. 1990 a, b). The NO₃-transporter is considered to be a membrane protein inducible by NO₃ (Agüera et al. 1990). Induction of the NO₃-carrier by NO₃ can be prevented by RNA and protein-synthesis inhibitors; thus, a de novo synthesis of the NO₃-transporter has been suggested (MacKown and McClure 1988; Hole et al. 1990). After a period of NO₃-starvation, two different types of responses have been observed: (1) a diminution of the NO₃uptake rate to very low values (MacKown and McClure 1988; Agüera et al. 1990), and (2) an increase in the plant's capacity to incorporate NO₃ (Ullrich and Novacky 1981); this latter response is typical for microalgac. The response of the green macroalgae Ulva rigida resembles that of the microalgae. After a high concentration pulse of NO₃ (0.3 mM) to N-starved U. rigida, NO₃ depletion in the external medium occurs immediately at a high rate. An increase of 12 µmol g⁻¹ dry wt was detected in [NO₃]_{int} after 20 min (Fig. 1 A). However, this high rate of NO_3^- -uptake led to a subsequent net NO_3^- efflux later and a short phase of $[NO_3^-]_{int}$ saturation (Fig. 1 A). A net NO_3^- efflux is frequent in many species including U. rigida (Corzo and Niell 1992a). Various explanations have been offered for this experimental observation (Deane-Drummond 1984). After 1.5 or 2 h, depending on the experiment, NO_3^- uptake proceeds linearly, and is paralleled by an $[NO_3^-]_{int}$ increase. Nitrate, besides being an inductor of its own transporter, is also an inductor of nitrate reductase. There is no information available on the way in which both processes are related in marine macroalgae. Blue-light-enhancement of NR is linearly dependent on external nitrate concentration, but it saturated with respect to the amount of incorporated NO_3^- , the $K_{0.5}$ being 14.56 μ mol $NO_3^ g^{-1}$ dry wt.

After a period of N-starvation, NR activity decreased to 4-16% of the inducible activity. This remaining NR activity may be considered as constitutive. Similar levels of constitutive NR have been reported by other investigators (Tischner et al. 1989; Corzo et al. 1991) for NH+4-grown microalgae. The existence of a constitutive NR permits the immediate reduction of NO₃ in N-starved algae after a NO₃-pulse (Fig. 4), providing NO₃ can reach the reduction site, which is located intracellularly. While NR activity reached 54% of its maximal activation level in 1 h. NO₃-reduction was only 16% of maximum values. It seems that during the first 2 h, NO₃-reduction is limited by NO₃uptake; this would provide a simple explanation for the initial plateau observed in the NO3-reduction time-course (Fig. 4). This initial limitation in NO₃-reduction is also visible in the NO₂ and NH₄ accumulation time-courses (Fig. 6).

After 2 h under blue light, the inorganic nitrogen assimilation pathway reached a steady state characterized by constant rates of NO_3 -uptake, NO_3 -reduction and NO_2 and NH_4^+ -production (Figs. 1, 4, 6). In this steady state, the rates of NO_2^- -reduction and NH_4^+ -fixation may be calculated as the difference between NO_3 -reduction rate and total NO_2^- -pool increase (internal+external), and the difference between NO_2^- -reduction rate and the total NH_4^+ -pool increase.

The internal NO₂-pool was kept constant (Fig. 6A), the excess of NO₂ being released to the external medium. Cells maintain a low level of [NO₂]_{int} in order to avoid its toxic effects (Vennesland and Guerrero 1979). Therefore, the NO₂-reduction rate (20.79 μmol NO₂ reduced g⁻¹ dry wt h⁻¹) can be calculated as the difference between the NO₃reduction rate and the NO₂-release rate. In contrast, ammonium accumulates intracellularly rather than in the external medium. Hence, the NH₄-fixation rate (14.09 μmol NH₄ fixed g⁻¹ dry wt h⁻¹) was calculated as the NO₂-reduction rate minus the [NH+4]int increase rate. According to this calculation, only 41.9% of NO₃ is incorporated into primary amines (Fig. 8). Nitrate can be stored intracellularly in large amounts, probably within the vacuole (Granstedt and Huffaker 1982). The NO₃-accumulation rate represents 37.6% of the NO₃-uptake rate in a steady state. The accumulation of a metabolic intermediary is the result of an imbalance between its rates of synthesis and transfor-

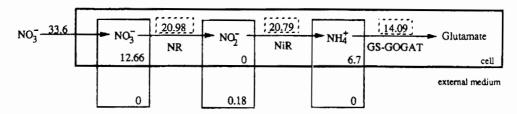


Fig. 8 Ulva rigida. Directly measured and calculated (in dashed boxes) rates for processes involved in assimilation of NO₃ into glutamate. (NR nitrate reductase; NiR nitrite reductase; GS-GOGAT glutamine synthetase-glutamate synthase pathway) NO₃, NO₂ and NH₄ pools are divided into two compartments – extracellular (external medium) and intracellular (cell). Rate of increase is shown in bottom right-hand corner of each compartment

mation, synthesis rates being necessarily higher than those of transformation. The larger the accumulation rate of a product, then the more limiting the subsequent enzymatic reaction. Bearing this in mind, NO₃-reduction seems to be the limiting step in the assimilation of NO₃ in N-starved Ulva rigida under blue light. The total removal of inorganic nitrogen as NO₃, NO₂ and NH₄ from the main assimilatory pathway due to storage in internal compartments or release to the external medium was 19.54 µmol N g⁻¹ dry wt h⁻¹. Of this, NO₃ storage was 64.8%, the [NH₄⁺]_{int} increase 34.2%, and the NO₂ release rate 0.9%. Therefore, in the NO₃-assimilation pathway under blue light, reduction of NO₃ is the limiting step, followed by NH₄-fixation. NR activity has been long considered the limiting step in the assimilation of nitrate. Our results indicate that this is also valid for blue light, even though it has been claimed that blue light may activate NR in vivo (Maldonado and Aparicio 1987). Ammonium fixation is considered to occur in algae and higher plants through the GS-GOGAT pathway. Obviously, the increase of [NH⁺₄]_{int} could be a result of catabolic processes; however a high rate of protein and amino acid catabolism after the addition of NO₃ to Nstarved cells appears unlikely. Besides, ammonium accumulation is dependent on the photon fluence rate in blue light (Fig. 7), and this dependence is parallel to that of NR activity (Corzo and Niell 1992b), hence NH₄-accumulation would appear mainly to be the result of an imbalance between NO₃-reduction and NH₄-fixation, the GS-GOGAT pathway being unable to cope with the internal availability of NH₄. Ammonium is a repressor of NR synthesis; therefore, an inhibitory effect on both NR activity and NO₃-reduction rate could be expected. However, a different behavior was observed in our study: while the NO₃reduction rate was not affected, blue-light-enhancement of NR activity saturated after 3.5 h. Long periods of time in blue light frequently lead to a decrease in the NR activity plateau level in *U. rigida* (results not shown). However, the NO₃-reduction rate seemed to be unaffected by saturation or even by a drop in the NR activity levels in blue light, which suggests that NR activity is not a limiting factor for the in vivo reduction of NO₃. If the potential NR activity does not limit NO₃-reduction in blue light, the

question arises – what is limiting the reduction of NO₃? The diminished availability of reducing power has been claimed to limit NO₃-reduction under certain circumstances (Wallace 1987).

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