

EFFECTS OF CO₂ ENRICHMENT ON THE BLOOM-FORMING CYANOBACTERIUM *MICROCYSTIS AERUGINOSA* (CYANOPHYCEAE): PHYSIOLOGICAL RESPONSES AND RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE AVAILABILITY OF DISSOLVED INORGANIC CARBON¹

Baosheng Qiu²

College of Life Sciences, Central China Normal University, Wuhan, Hubei, China 430072 and Institute of Hydrobiology, The Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan, Hubei, P. R. China 430072

and

Kunshan Gao

Institute of Hydrobiology, The Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan, Hubei, P. R. China 430072; and Marine Biology Institute, Science Center, Shantou University, Shantou, Guangdong, P. R. China 515063

Microcystis aeruginosa Kütz. 7820 was cultured at 350 and 700 $\mu\text{L}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ CO₂ to assess the impacts of doubled atmospheric CO₂ concentration on this bloom-forming cyanobacterium. Doubling of CO₂ concentration in the airflow enhanced its growth by 52%–77%, with pH values decreased and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) increased in the medium. Photosynthetic efficiencies and dark respiratory rates expressed per unit chl *a* tended to increase with the doubling of CO₂. However, saturating irradiances for photosynthesis and light-saturated photosynthetic rates normalized to cell number tended to decrease with the increase of DIC in the medium. Doubling of CO₂ concentration in the airflow had less effect on DIC-saturated photosynthetic rates and apparent photosynthetic affinities for DIC. In the exponential phase, CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ levels in the medium were higher than those required to saturate photosynthesis. Cultures with surface aeration were DIC limited in the stationary phase. The rate of CO₂ dissolution into the liquid increased proportionally when CO₂ in air was raised from 350 to 700 $\mu\text{L}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, thus increasing the availability of DIC in the medium and enhancing the rate of photosynthesis. Doubled CO₂ could enhance CO₂ dissolution, lower pH values, and influence the ionization fractions of various DIC species even when the photosynthesis was not DIC limited. Consequently, HCO₃⁻ concentrations in cultures were significantly higher than in controls, and the photosynthetic energy cost for the operation of CO₂ concentrating mechanism might decrease.

Key index words: blue-green alga; carbon dioxide; cyanobacterium; dissolved inorganic carbon; elevated CO₂; growth; *Microcystis aeruginosa*; photosynthesis

Atmospheric CO₂ has risen in the last hundred years as a result of human activities such as fossil fuel burning, cement manufacture, land use, and defores-

tation (Bowes 1993, Stumm and Morgan 1996). Research on the impacts of CO₂ enrichment has mainly focused on terrestrial plants, and studies of aquatic species lag at least 10 years behind (Bowes 1993). Based on laboratory experiments, Riebesell et al. (1993) predicted that the atmospheric CO₂ rise would enhance the growth of marine phytoplankton. Hein and Sand-Jensen (1997) investigated marine phytoplankton communities in the field and also suggested that the elevation of atmospheric CO₂ would enhance the marine primary production. However, the impact of increased atmospheric CO₂ on productivity in fresh waters is poorly understood.

Most lakes are supersaturated with CO₂ and thus are net sources of CO₂ to the atmosphere (Cole et al. 1994, Maberly 1996). This supersaturation is a result of inputs of organic carbon (dissolved and particulate) and inorganic carbon (from plant root and soil respiration) from previously deposited lake sediments and new inputs from the catchment (Cole et al. 1994). Carbon speciation and pH in lakes vary on a diel, episodic, and seasonal basis. The concentration and speciation of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) is strongly linked to the pH value through equilibrium reactions among CO₂, H₂CO₃, HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²⁻. Massive diffusion resistance in waters imposes far greater limitations on CO₂ supply than in aerial systems. Phytoplankton photosynthesis removes CO₂ from the aquatic environment and results in a rise of pH. It also creates local areas that are far from equilibrium with the atmosphere and permits large diurnal fluctuations in pH, DIC, and O₂. Diel variations of up to 1.8 pH units have been recorded in a productive English lake, and the daily changes in concentration of inorganic carbon vary between 4 and 63 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Maberly 1996). The seasonally large biomass of phytoplankton can also cause the pH to rise and the concentration of inorganic carbon to decrease, particularly in summer when phytoplankton activity is high and the availability of inorganic carbon for phytoplankton is reduced because of stratification (Maberly 1996). The situation is further complicated in that two DIC forms (CO₂ and HCO₃⁻) are used, with

¹Received 20 December 2001. Accepted 30 April 2002.

²Author for correspondence: e-mail bsqiu@public.wh.hb.cn.

different affinities for photosynthesis (Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). All these make CO₂-enrichment experiments with freshwater species technically difficult.

The enzyme RUBISCO of cyanobacteria showed low affinities for CO₂, with K_c values of 200–300 μmol·L⁻¹ (Colman 1989). However, they possess effective CO₂-concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) that raise the intracellular CO₂ level around RUBISCO, which could be 1000-fold higher than the external medium (Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). The expression of CCMs in cyanobacteria is influenced by the external DIC concentration. It has been well established that ambient air CO₂ could induce the operation of CCM, whereas cells grown on high levels of CO₂ have a repressed ability to transport DIC (Kaplan et al. 1980, Miller et al. 1984, Mayo et al. 1986). Synthesis of the HCO₃⁻ transport system seems to be repressed by growth at high DIC concentrations, whereas a capacity for active CO₂ transport remains (Abe et al. 1987, Badger and Gallagher 1987, Miller and Canvin 1987). Although the response of cyanobacteria to large changes in the concentration of CO₂ (1%–5% CO₂) has been examined, little study has focused on their responses to increased atmospheric CO₂.

The occurrence of cyanobacterial blooms has increased apparently over the last few decades (Oliver and Ganf 2000). These blooms degrade the recreational value of water surfaces, impair water supply, cause deoxygenation of the water by decomposition, and lead to fish kills. *Microcystis aeruginosa* has been widely recognized as one of the most common bloom-forming cyanobacteria all over the world. The present study investigates its ecophysiological responses to atmospheric CO₂ rise to assess effects of CO₂ enrichment on freshwater blooms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Growth conditions. *Microcystis aeruginosa* Kütz. (strain 7820, Freshwater Algae Culture Collection, China) was cultured at 40 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹ in a plant growth chamber (E7, Conviron, Winnipeg, Canada). The plant growth chamber can stimulate daily fluctuations of light and temperature. Day and night cycles were set as 14:10-h light:dark. The highest temperature was 28° C at noon, and the lowest temperature was 22° C at night. *Microcystis aeruginosa* was grown in 500-mL Erlenmeyer flasks with 400 mL BG₁₁ medium (Stanier et al. 1971) and aerated with sterile filtered ambient (350 μL·L⁻¹) or elevated CO₂ (700 μL·L⁻¹) air at 200 mL·min⁻¹. Aeration was used either in or above the culture medium.

Preparation of DIC-free reaction medium. Bis-Tris Propane or CAPS 30 mmol·L⁻¹ were added to BG₁₁ medium, adjusted to pH 1.0 with 1 N HCl, aerated with pure N₂ gas for 30 min, and then adjusted back to pH 8.0 (or 10.0) with fresh supernatant supersaturated NaOH solution.

General analyses. Cell growth was determined by hemocytometer (3–6 counts for each sample). Chl *a* content was extracted with 80% acetone (Inskeep and Bloom 1985). The pH value was estimated with a pH meter (420A, Orion, Allometrics, Baton Rouge, LA, USA). Samples (5 mL each) were processed with an ultrasonic cleaner (8892, Cole-Parmer Inc., Vernon Hills, IL, USA) at ambient temperature for 2–3 min without disrupting the cells then precipitated by centrifugation (680g, 10 min). Total carbon, DIC, and dissolved organic carbon in the cell-free supernatant medium were measured with a total organic carbon

analyzer (TOC-5000A, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). DIC speciation and concentration were determined according to Stumm and Morgan (1996).

The dissolution of CO₂ into BG₁₁ medium buffered with 30 mmol·L⁻¹ Bis-Tris Propane (pH 8.0) or 30 mmol·L⁻¹ CAPS (pH 10.0) was measured at 25° C. The flow rate of aeration was set at 200 mL·min⁻¹. DIC and pH values were determined at intervals. The relationship between CO₂ dissolution and DIC for a known time interval is as follows:

$$Y = A + B \cdot X \quad (1)$$

where A represents the initial DIC concentration (mg·L⁻¹); B, the rate of CO₂ dissolution (mg·L⁻¹·h⁻¹); X, the time (h); Y, the DIC concentration at time X (mg·L⁻¹).

Photosynthetic measurements. Photosynthetic activities were assayed with a Clark Oxygen Electrode (Rank Brothers, England) with cells in the exponential growth phase. Samples were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in fresh BG₁₁ medium. The oxygen electrode was calibrated with air-equilibrium distilled water for full scale and by adding a little Na₂S₂O₄ powder for the zero point. Temperature was controlled with a Polystat refrigerated bath (Cole-Parmer Instrument Co.) at 25° C. Illumination was provided by a 500-W halogen lamp. Irradiance was measured with a quantum sensor (LI-185B, Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) and controlled by changing the closure of the diaphragm and the distance of lamp from the assimilation chamber and was always elevated from zero to the maximum. Photosynthetic responses to DIC concentration were measured at 25° C and 700 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹. DIC-free reaction solution (30 mmol·L⁻¹ Bis-Tris Propane, pH 8.0) was prepared as described above. Pelleted cells were washed with reaction medium three to four times. Known amounts of NaHCO₃ were added to the cell suspension after depletion of DIC in the medium, as shown by the cessation of O₂ evolution, to determine the relationship of photosynthesis to CO₂ or DIC concentration. The CO₂ supply rate from spontaneous dehydration of HCO₃⁻ was estimated according to Miller and Colman (1980).

Photosynthetic activities (P) [μmol O₂·(mg chl *a*)⁻¹·min⁻¹ or μmol O₂·cell⁻¹·min⁻¹] were determined as follows:

$$P = 1000 \cdot A \cdot D \cdot F / (32 \cdot B \cdot C \cdot E) \quad (2)$$

where A represents the saturated O₂ concentration (mg·L⁻¹) at a given temperature and Cl⁻ concentration; B, the transverse distance that the recorder pen moved from full-scale to zero point during calibration (cm); C, chl *a* content or cell density of samples (mg·L⁻¹ or cell·L⁻¹); D, the transverse distance that the recorder pen moved during measurement (cm); E, the distance that the chart paper moved forward during measurement (cm); and F, the chart speed (cm·min⁻¹).

Parameters for the photosynthetic response to irradiance (P-I curves) were analyzed according to Henley (1993):

$$P = P_m \cdot \tanh(\alpha \cdot I / P_m) + R_d, \\ -I_k = P_m / \alpha, I_c = -R_d / \alpha \quad (3)$$

where I represents irradiance; P, photosynthetic activity at certain irradiance; P_m, light-saturated photosynthesis; I_k, saturating irradiance for photosynthesis; and I_c, light compensation point. The ascending slope at limiting irradiances, α, was calculated to assess the photosynthetic efficiency.

Parameters for the photosynthetic response to DIC were obtained by fitting net photosynthetic rates at various levels of DIC with the Michaelis-Menten formula:

$$v = V_{\max} \cdot [S] / (K_{0.5}(\text{DIC}) + [S]) \quad (4)$$

where K_{0.5}(DIC) is the DIC concentration required to give half maximal photosynthetic rate and V_{max} is the inorganic carbon-saturated photosynthesis.

RESULTS

Growth and changes in the medium. Doubling the CO₂ concentration in the airflow enhanced the growth of *M. aeruginosa* 7820 (Fig. 1A). When being aerated at the surface or at the bottom of cultures, cell densities were, respectively, 77% and 52% higher than controls in the stationary phase ($P < 0.05$, *t*-test). Specific growth rates in the exponential phase were about 0.50–0.60 d⁻¹ and were not affected significantly by raising the CO₂ concentration ($P > 0.05$, *t*-test). The enhancement was seen during the late exponential phase. The pH values of the medium were influenced significantly ($P < 0.05$, ANOVA) by the CO₂ concentration in the airflow and were lowered by an average of 0.21 pH units by doubling of CO₂ (Fig. 1B). The surface aeration reduced pH more than did subsurface aeration. The pH values of cultures increased by about 2.5 pH units during the whole growth period. Final pH values were 10.0 and 9.6, respectively, for the surface and subsurface aerations. The DIC concentrations in the medium increased with time and were elevated to

a higher level with CO₂ enrichment during the growth period (Fig. 1C). The dissolved organic carbon contents in the medium also increased with the growth of the cells from the late exponential phase (Fig. 1D).

Photosynthetic characteristics. The photosynthetic responses of *M. aeruginosa* 7820 to irradiance are shown in Figure 2. No photoinhibition was observed at irradiances up to 930 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹. Saturating irradiance for photosynthesis was low with I_k values of 105–143 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹. Light compensation points were 18–24 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹. Light-saturated photosynthetic rates were about 9.84–10.40 μmol O₂·(mg chl *a*)⁻¹·min⁻¹ or 6.38–10.89 μmol O₂·(10¹⁰ cells)⁻¹·min⁻¹, and dark respiratory rates were about -1.34 to -1.86 μmol O₂·(mg chl *a*)⁻¹·min⁻¹ or -1.19 to -1.63 μmol O₂·(10¹⁰ cells)⁻¹·min⁻¹. The photosynthetic efficiencies (α) were about 0.069–0.092 (μmol O₂·(mg chl *a*)⁻¹·min⁻¹)·(μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹)⁻¹ or 0.062–0.076 (μmol O₂·(10¹⁰ cells)⁻¹·min⁻¹)·(μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹)⁻¹. Doubling the CO₂ concentration had less effect on light-saturated photosynthetic rates

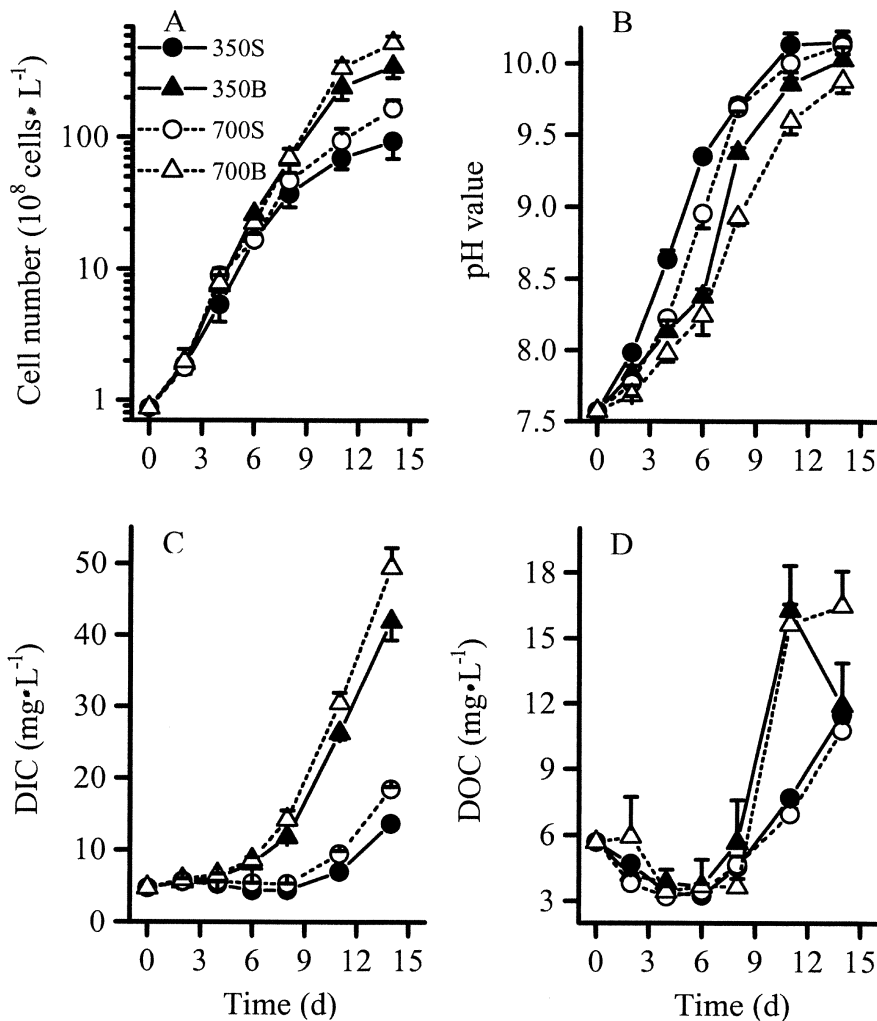


FIG. 1. Growth of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 and changes of pH value, dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in cultures. 350S and 700S, aerating 350 and 700 μL·L⁻¹ CO₂ to the surface of cultures, respectively; 350B and 700B, aerating 350 and 700 μL·L⁻¹ CO₂ to the bottom of flasks, respectively. Data are means ± SD ($n = 3$).

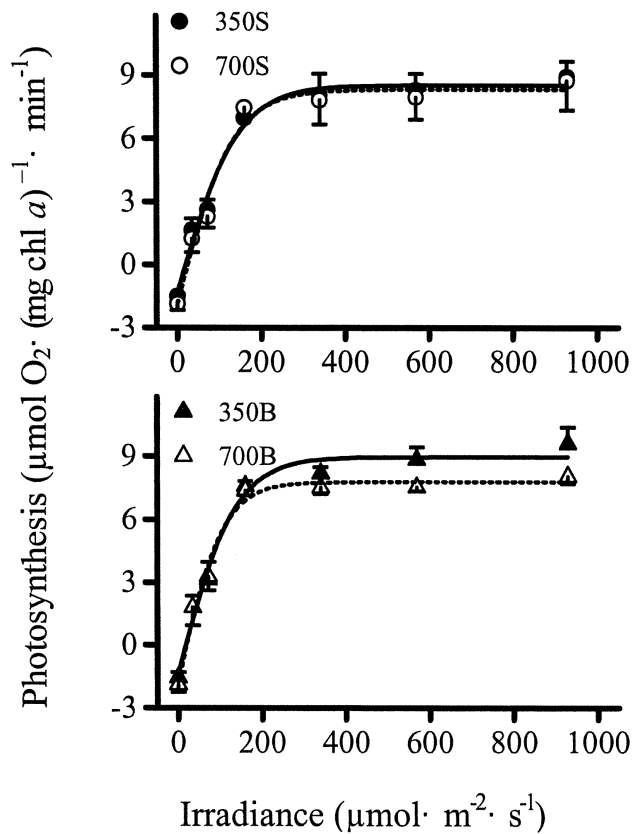


FIG. 2. Photosynthesis of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 as a function of irradiance at 25°C. Data are means \pm SD ($n = 5$). Other details and symbols as in Fig. 1.

on the basis of chl *a*, dark respiratory rates and photosynthetic efficiencies normalized to cell number, and light compensation points ($P > 0.05$, Tukey multiple comparison) (Tables 1 and 2). Photosynthetic efficiencies and dark respiratory rates expressed per unit chl *a* tended to increase with the doubling of CO₂. However, light-saturated photosynthetic rates normalized to cell number and saturating irradiance for photosynthesis tended to decrease with the increase of DIC concentration in the medium.

The observed rates of photosynthetic O₂ evolution in *M. aeruginosa* 7820 at pH 8.0 were compared with

the maximal rate of CO₂ supply from uncatalyzed dehydration of HCO₃⁻ (Fig. 3). The rates of photosynthesis exceeded that of the HCO₃⁻ to CO₂ conversion. This indicates that this organism used HCO₃⁻ in addition to or instead of CO₂ for its photosynthesis. The apparent photosynthetic affinities for DIC and CO₂ were high. The cells required only 27.7–55.4 μmol·L⁻¹ DIC or 0.61–1.21 μmol·L⁻¹ CO₂ to give half maximal photosynthetic rate at pH 8.0 (Fig. 4, Table 3). The DIC-saturated photosynthetic rates were 7.88–9.60 μmol O₂·(mg chl *a*)⁻¹·min⁻¹ or 10.82–14.42 μmol O₂·(10¹⁰ cells)⁻¹·min⁻¹. Doubling of the CO₂ concentration in the airflow had less effect on the DIC-saturated photosynthetic rates and photosynthetic apparent affinities for DIC and CO₂ ($P > 0.05$, Tukey multiple comparison) (Fig. 4, Table 3).

Pigment composition and content. The *in vivo* absorption spectra of *M. aeruginosa* 7820 cultured at ambient and elevated CO₂ showed the same pattern. The CO₂ enrichment had little effect on the contents of chl *a* (439 and 679 nm), carotenoids (490 nm), and phycocyanin (620 nm). Absorption spectra of lipophilic pigments also confirmed that it did not affect the relative contents of chl *a* and carotenoids. However, the chl *a* content per cell tended to decrease at elevated CO₂.

Dissolution of CO₂ in BG₁₁ medium. The speed of CO₂ dissolution doubled when CO₂ concentration in the airflow increased from 350 to 700 μL·L⁻¹ (Fig. 5). It was 1.8 times at pH 8.0 and 1.7–2.1 times that of control at pH 10.0 (Table 4). Subsurface aeration resulted in faster dissolution of CO₂ compared with surface aeration, with the former 12.1 and 4.9–6.2 times the latter at pH 8.0 and 10.0, respectively. The speed of CO₂ dissolution increased when pH value increased from 8.0 to 10.0. It reached to 4.9–5.6 and 2.3–2.5 times of those at pH 8.0 with the surface and subsurface aerations, respectively.

Diurnal changes of pH value and DIC concentration. Daily variation of pH value showed similar patterns independent of CO₂ concentrations in the airflow in that it rose to the highest values during the light period but decreased to the lowest during the dark period. Daily variation of DIC concentration showed the opposite patterns. That assimilation of CO₂ was faster than its dissolution resulted in decreased DIC concentration during the light period. The dissolution and

TABLE 1. Parameters for the photosynthetic irradiance responses (P-I) curves of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 cultured under ambient and elevated CO₂.

Treatments	P_m μmol O ₂ ·(mg chl <i>a</i>) ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹	α (μmol O ₂ ·(mg chl <i>a</i>) ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹)· (μmol photons·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹) ⁻¹	R_d μmol O ₂ ·(mg chl <i>a</i>) ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹	I_k μmol photons·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹	I_c μmol photons·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹
350S	9.84 \pm 0.70 ^a	0.069 \pm 0.004 ^a	-1.34 \pm 0.21 ^a	143 \pm 9 ^a	19 \pm 4 ^a
700S	10.18 \pm 1.00 ^a	0.077 \pm 0.004 ^{a,b}	-1.86 \pm 0.19 ^{b,c}	133 \pm 11 ^{a,b}	24 \pm 3 ^a
350B	10.40 \pm 0.56 ^a	0.079 \pm 0.012 ^{a,b}	-1.43 \pm 0.22 ^{a,c}	134 \pm 25 ^a	18 \pm 3 ^a
700B	9.56 \pm 0.43 ^a	0.092 \pm 0.013 ^b	-1.79 \pm 0.36 ^{b,c}	105 \pm 15 ^b	20 \pm 4 ^a

Photosynthetic oxygen evolution was measured in fresh BG₁₁ medium at 25°C and normalized to chl *a*. Values are means \pm SD ($n = 5$).

^{a,b} Those with different superscript letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$, Tukey multiple comparison.)

TABLE 2. Parameters for the photosynthetic irradiance responses (P-I) curves of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 cultured under ambient and elevated CO₂.

Treatments	P_m $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot (10^{10} \text{ cells})^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$	α $(\mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot (10^{10} \text{ cells})^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}) \cdot$ $(\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})^{-1}$	R_d $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \cdot (10^{10} \text{ cells})^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$	I_k $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	I_c $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$
350S	10.89 ± 2.00 ^a	0.076 ± 0.012 ^a	-1.45 ± 0.22 ^a	143 ± 9 ^a	19 ± 4 ^a
700S	8.79 ± 0.55 ^a	0.067 ± 0.006 ^a	-1.63 ± 0.33 ^a	133 ± 11 ^{a,b}	24 ± 3 ^a
350B	8.73 ± 0.98 ^{a,b}	0.067 ± 0.019 ^a	-1.19 ± 0.25 ^a	134 ± 25 ^a	18 ± 3 ^a
700B	6.38 ± 1.25 ^b	0.062 ± 0.018 ^a	-1.21 ± 0.42 ^a	105 ± 15 ^b	20 ± 4 ^a

Photosynthetic oxygen evolution was measured in fresh BG₁₁ medium at 25° C and normalized to cell number. Values are means ± SD ($n = 5$).

^{a,b,c} Those with different superscript letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$, Tukey multiple comparison.)

respiratory release of CO₂ resulted in the rise of DIC during the dark period. In a light:dark cycle, DIC concentrations and cell densities in the CO₂-enriched cultures were higher, but the pH values were lower than the controls.

In the exponential phase, CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ concentrations in the medium (Table 5) were higher than those required to saturate the photosynthesis (Fig. 4). Thus, inorganic carbon was not a limiting factor for photosynthesis during the period of culture. The variations of DIC in cultures with the subsurface aeration in a light:dark cycle were 0.331 and 0.273 mg·L⁻¹ at ambient and elevated CO₂, respectively. CO₂ dissolution was nearly fast enough to support photosynthetic CO₂ fixation. Therefore, the decrease in DIC concentration was less during the light period. Its rise was also less in the dark period, implying that the dissolution of CO₂ in the medium nearly reached equilibrium concentration. When aerated at the surface of the cultures, the CO₂ dissolution was slower than that being

aerated to the bottom of flask (Table 4). The removal of DIC by CO₂ fixation was much faster than the CO₂ dissolution, which resulted in rapid decrease of DIC in the medium during the light period. During the dark period, DIC concentrations increased because of respiratory CO₂ release and CO₂ dissolution. The variations of DIC in a light:dark cycle were 0.880 and 0.555 mg·L⁻¹ at ambient and elevated CO₂, respectively.

In the stationary phase, DIC in cultures was mainly in the form of HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻ and the availability of free CO₂ was very low (Table 5). The HCO₃⁻ concentrations in cultures aerated at the surface decreased to 40–50 μmol·L⁻¹ after 4–6 h in the light, and then the removal of DIC by CO₂ fixation slowed down. This was different from subsurface aeration where it remained constant in the light. The removal of DIC could reach 7–13 times the rate of CO₂ dissolution at pH 10.0. Although the dissolution of CO₂ increased with the increase of pH value, its rise could not account for the slowdown of DIC removal in the

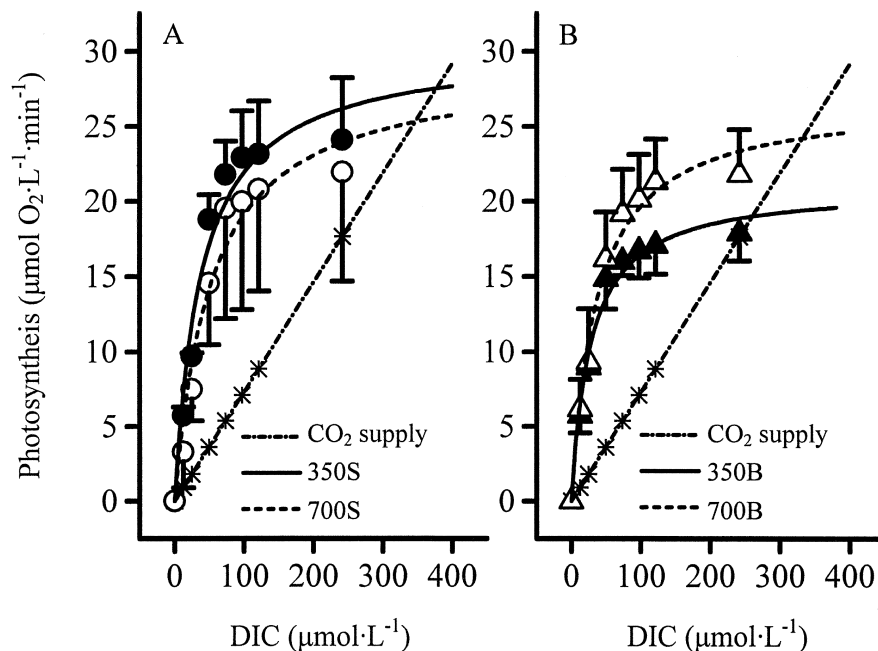


FIG. 3. Comparison of the observed photosynthetic rates of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 at pH 8.0 with the theoretical photosynthetic rates that maximally could be supported by the uncatalyzed conversion of HCO₃⁻ to CO₂. Data are means ± SD ($n = 3$). Other details and symbols as in Fig. 1.

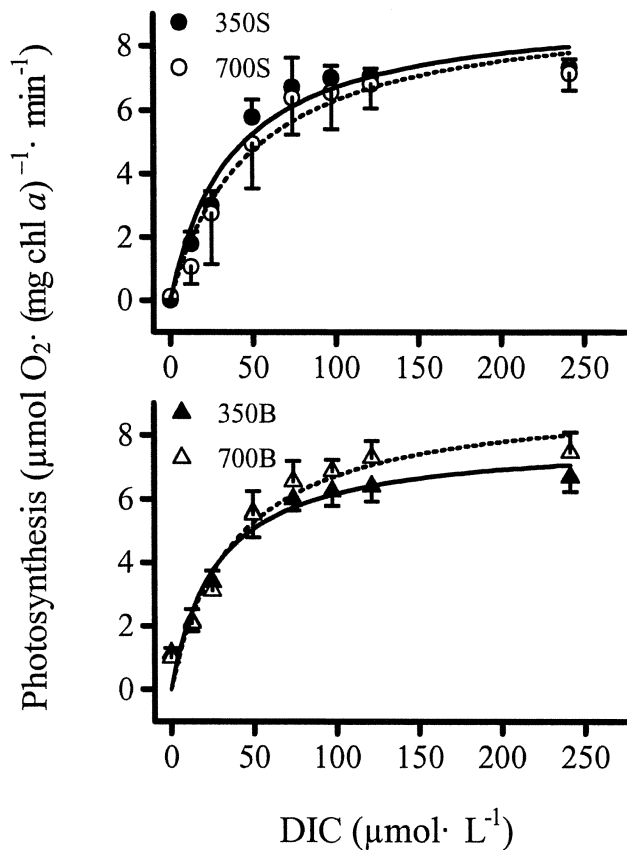


FIG. 4. Photosynthetic CO_2 assimilation as a function of DIC concentration for *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820. The measurements were conducted at $700 \mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and 25°C . Data are means \pm SD ($n = 3$). Other details and symbols as in Fig. 1.

light. It appeared that cultures being aerated at the surface were carbon limited in the stationary phase. Constant DIC removal suggested that cultures with subsurface aeration were not carbon limited. However, doubling of the CO_2 concentration in the airflow enhanced CO_2 dissolution, lowered the pH of cultures, and influenced ionization fractions of various DIC species. Thus, HCO_3^- concentrations in cultures with the elevated CO_2 were 2.3–2.5 times higher than those of the controls (Table 5).

TABLE 3. Parameters for the photosynthetic responses of *Microcystis aeruginosa* 7820 cultured under ambient and elevated CO_2 to dissolved inorganic carbon.

Treatments	V_{\max} $\mu\text{mol O}_2\cdot(\text{mg chl } a)^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$	V_{\max} $(\mu\text{mol O}_2\cdot(10^{10} \text{ cells})^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1})$	$K_m(\text{DIC})$ $(\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1})$	$K_m(\text{CO}_2)$ $(\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1})$
350S	9.28 ± 0.51^a	14.19 ± 5.02^a	38.6 ± 9.8^a	0.85 ± 0.21^a
700S	9.60 ± 0.72^a	14.42 ± 5.71^a	55.4 ± 28.5^a	1.21 ± 0.62^a
350B	7.88 ± 0.56^a	11.77 ± 2.11^a	27.7 ± 1.9^a	0.61 ± 0.04^a
700B	9.29 ± 0.95^a	10.82 ± 2.32^a	38.2 ± 9.8^a	0.84 ± 0.21^a

Photosynthetic oxygen evolution was measured at 25°C and pH 8.0 in BG₁₁ medium buffered with 30 mM Bis-Tris Propane. Values are means \pm SD ($n = 3$).

^a: Those with different superscript letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$, Tukey multiple comparison.)

DISCUSSION

Most inland waters are net sources of CO_2 to the atmosphere when averaged over time, that is, CO_2 concentrations are above air equilibrium (Cole et al. 1994, Maberly 1996). The DIC concentrations of natural fresh waters could be as high as $1.5\text{--}2.2 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Hutchinson 1967, Colman 1989). Cyanobacteria grown in these waters could be expected to have a repressed ability to transport DIC and consequently maintain a low CO_2 affinity. However, the growth of phytoplankton populations in fresh water is accompanied by a decrease in ambient DIC, which may fall to micromolar concentrations, and these low concentrations may be maintained for long periods of time because of the low rate of CO_2 diffusion from air. Meanwhile, the decrease in DIC concentration is accompanied by an increase of pH values, which may rise over pH 10.0, and also by an increase in dissolved O_2 to levels of 100%–200% of the air-equilibrium value. Thus, carbon limitation might develop in intense cyanobacterial blooms even in lakes with high concentrations of DIC. The growth of *M. aeruginosa* 7820 at varied levels of CO_2 indicated that inorganic carbon might limit its growth during the formation of water blooms, especially when the phytoplankton populations were dense.

The atmospheric CO_2 partial pressure is predicted to double in this century. It will not have a parallel effect on the CO_2 concentration in fresh waters because most of them are net sources of CO_2 to the atmosphere (Cole et al. 1994, Maberly 1996). With an increase in CO_2 , plants will differ in growth and competitive interactions. The photosynthetic mechanism of a species is the major determinant of how it will respond to changes in CO_2 . *Microcystis aeruginosa* has the ability to take up HCO_3^- (Talling 1976), which was also confirmed in this study. Thus, it seems that ambient DIC would not limit its growth. However, this study has made it clear that cultures aerated at the surface were carbon limited in the stationary phase. Thus, doubling of CO_2 concentration in the airflow enhanced its photosynthesis via the increase in the availability of DIC and thereafter enhanced its growth significantly. In addition, the operation of the CCM is dependent on the supply of photosynthetic energy (Ogawa et al. 1985, Kaplan et al. 1987, Sültemeyer et al. 1993, Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). Cyclic and linear electron flows have been suggested to support the

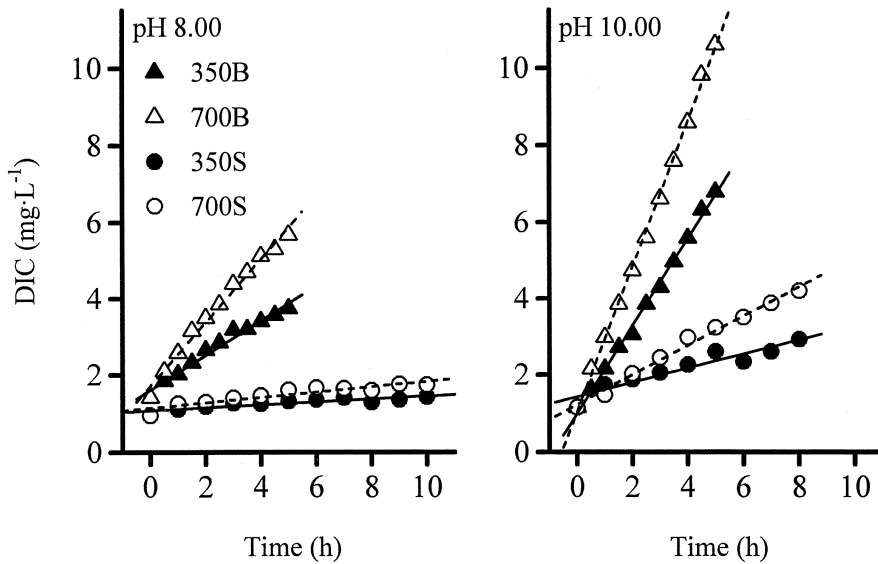


FIG. 5. The dissolution of CO₂ in BG₁₁ medium buffered, respectively, with 30mM Bis-Tris Propane (pH 8.0) and 30 mM CAPS (pH 10.0) at 25° C. Other details and symbols as in Fig. 1.

CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ transports, respectively (Li and Canvin 1998). When *M. aeruginosa* 7820 was not limited by the availability of DIC, doubling of the CO₂ concentration in the airflow could enhance the dissolution of CO₂, lower the pH values of cultures, and influence ionization fractions of various DIC species. Thus, bicarbonate concentrations in cultures were significantly higher than controls (Table 5). Assuming identical internal bicarbonate concentrations and identical transmembrane electrical potential at the plasmalemma, an increased external bicarbonate concentration would decrease the free energy gradient that has to be overcome in pumping bicarbonate into the cell and also the free energy gradient driving any leak of bicarbonate out of the cell. For the first of these to have an impact on energy costs, the stoichiometry of ATP consumed to HCO₃⁻ transported would have to decrease when the energy gradient for HCO₃⁻ is smaller. The energy cost of net bicarbonate influx would also decrease if there were less leakage when the external bicarbonate concentration was higher. These were consistent with the increased photosynthetic efficiencies normalized to chl *a* when DIC concentration was increased in the medium (Table 1). Similar results about energy cost and DIC concentra-

tion for growth have already been published for cyanobacteria (Beardall 1991) and eukaryotic algae (Kübler and Raven 1995).

This study shows that doubling of CO₂ concentration enhanced the growth of *M. aeruginosa* 7820 by 52%–77%. Cells grew faster at elevated CO₂, and the cell size was less than in control cultures. Thus, the enhancements would be less than those mentioned above if dry weight was used to estimate its growth. Although dry weight was not determined in this study, this point is supported partly by the growth rate on the basis of chl *a* content (increased by 24%–55%). Kimball (1983) analyzed 430 prior observations and concluded that crop species had 33% greater yields at doubling of atmospheric CO₂. It has also been suggested that the photosynthetic rate of C₃ species was usually 10%–50% greater than that of their ambient CO₂-grown counterparts (Cure and Acock 1986, Jiang et al. 1997). These works are mainly about C₃ higher plants (without a CCM) and may be of little relevance to *Microcystis*.

Microcystis aeruginosa 7820 has been cultured at low irradiance (40 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹) in this study because optimal growth of phytoplankton is often achieved at irradiances of 40–60 μmol photons·m⁻²·s⁻¹ (Whit-

TABLE 4. Coefficients for the linear regression formula (Y = A + B·X) of data presented in Figure 5.

PH	Treatments	A (mg·L ⁻¹)	B (mg·L ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)	R ²	Sign. Lev.
8.0	350S	1.086 ± 0.041	0.037 ± 0.007	0.764	4.40E ⁻⁴
	700S	1.151 ± 0.056	0.068 ± 0.010	0.853	5.00E ⁻⁵
	350B	1.610 ± 0.070	0.453 ± 0.024	0.976	1.32E ⁻⁸
	700B	1.718 ± 0.094	0.830 ± 0.032	0.987	8.22E ⁻¹⁰
10.0	350S	1.436 ± 0.110	0.185 ± 0.023	0.901	9.00E ⁻⁵
	700S	1.234 ± 0.071	0.384 ± 0.015	0.990	3.49E ⁻⁸
	350B	1.003 ± 0.071	1.143 ± 0.024	0.996	3.89E ⁻¹²
	700B	1.061 ± 0.080	1.890 ± 0.027	0.998	1.26E ⁻¹³

TABLE 5. The concentration (μmol·L⁻¹) and speciation of DIC in the medium in the exponential and stationary phase.

Treatments	Cultures in the exponential phase				Cultures in the stationary phase			
	8:30		18:30		8:30		18:30	
	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₂
350S	480	5.97	443	3.19	195	0.023	33	0.001
700S	512	9.47	477	4.68	281	0.048	40	0.001
350B	496	8.04	493	4.90	851	0.104	222	0.006
700B	523	11.97	510	6.74	2828	2.012	774	0.042

ton and Peat 1969, Silvey et al. 1972). Under natural conditions, photosynthesis often takes place at reduced irradiance (relative to noon at the surface) and is confined to the euphotic zone. Saturating irradiance for photosynthesis in cyanobacteria seems to be lower than for many other algae, and *M. aeruginosa* may be able to maintain autotrophic growth at relatively lower irradiance than their potential competitors (Fogg 1965). The activity of CCMs in eukaryotic algae is affected by the ambient photon flux density, and acclimation to decreasing light level resulted in a loss of some part of the ability to take up inorganic carbon (Kübler and Raven 1995). Several observations on higher land plants indicate that CO₂ enrichment enhances photosynthesis and growth even at limiting irradiance, and sometimes the relative enhancement is greater under such conditions (Sionit et al. 1982, Cure and Acock 1986, Allen 1990, Gifford 1992). Most measurements of the effects of elevated CO₂ on photosynthesis have used relatively high irradiance, where CO₂ supply or RUBISCO capacity is the major limitation. Meanwhile, the levels of nitrogen and phosphorus used in this study are higher than those in natural fresh waters. The annual average concentrations of total nitrogen and total phosphorus in Chaohu Lake, Dianchi Lake, Donghu Lake, and Taihu Lake (all known to have freshwater blooms and eutrophication) in China could reach 7.5 mg·L⁻¹ and 0.417 mg·L⁻¹, respectively (Li et al. 1995, Gou and Yan. 1999, Jin et al. 1999, Zhang et al. 1999). However, plant-level studies that have examined the interaction between elevated CO₂ and mineral nutrition indicate almost without exception that though growth is depressed in a nutrient-poor environment, it is still stimulated by CO₂ enrichment, often to the same degree as in nutrient-sufficient conditions (Wong 1979, Conroy et al. 1986, Cure and Acock 1986, Norby et al. 1986, Allen 1990, Hocking and Meyer 1991, Wong and Osmond 1991, Gifford 1992). Data cited here are mainly on the acclimated responses of higher plants to increased CO₂, and it is not clear, at least in some cases, if the data refer to “balanced” or “unbalanced” growth.

Manipulations of carbon and pH value have resulted in shifts in species dominance to cyanobacteria under conditions of inorganic carbon limitation in field (Shapiro 1990). This ability to compete at low CO₂ concentrations has been construed as the means by which cyanobacteria attain dominance. However, whether CO₂ limitation is essential for the formation of cyanobacterial blooms seems to be contradictory (Shapiro 1997). Nevertheless, carbon limitation may still have a major impact on buoyancy regulation. It is clear that two major aspects are relevant to the bloom formation of cyanobacteria, namely their abundance and buoyancy regulation. Controlled migrations to specific depths permit some cyanobacteria in oligotrophic waters to grow at the expense of nutrients retained at depth. Three mechanisms have been involved in the buoyancy regulation in *Microcystis* cells:

1) regulation of gas vesicle production; 2) changes in cell ballast, particularly carbohydrate; and 3) destruction of gas vesicles by turgor pressure collapse (Reynolds and Walsby 1975, Kromkamp and Mur 1984, Thomas and Walsby 1985, Konopka et al. 1987, Kromkamp et al. 1988, Klemer 1991, Oliver 1994). Although CO₂ limitation of photosynthesis can promote buoyancy in the short term by preventing the collapse of turgor-sensitive gas vesicles and/or by limiting polysaccharide accumulation, sustained carbon limitation restricts buoyancy regulation by limiting gas vesicle and polysaccharide synthesis (Oliver 1994, Klemer et al. 1996). Undoubtedly more information is required on the buoyancy regulation in *Microcystis* cells by inorganic carbon, especially the elevation of atmospheric CO₂.

Supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 39625002 and No. 39830060), by the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangdong, and Hubei Provincial Funding Agencies. We are grateful to Professor John A. Raven and two anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments and suggestions for improving the manuscript.

- Abe, T., Tsuzuki, M. & Miyachi, S. 1987. Transport and fixation of inorganic carbon during photosynthesis of *Anabaena* grown under ordinary air. I. Active species of inorganic carbon utilized for photosynthesis. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 28:273–81.
- Allen, L. H. Jr. 1990. Plant responses to rising carbon dioxide and potential interactions with air pollutants. *J. Environ. Qual.* 19: 15–34.
- Badger, M. R. & Gallagher, A. 1987. Adaptation of photosynthetic CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ accumulation by the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* PCC 6301 to growth at different inorganic carbon concentrations. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 14:189–201.
- Beardall, J. 1991. Effects of photon flux density on the “CO₂-concentrating mechanism” of the cyanobacterium *Anabaena variabilis*. *J. Plankton Res.* 13(Suppl.):133–41.
- Bowes, G. 1993. Facing the inevitable: plants and increasing atmospheric CO₂. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 44:309–32.
- Cole, J. J., Caraco, N. F., Kling, G. W. & Kratz, T. K. 1994. Carbon dioxide supersaturation in the surface waters of lakes. *Science* 265:1568–70.
- Colman, B. 1989. Photosynthetic carbon assimilation and the suppression of photorespiration in the cyanobacteria. *Aquat. Bot.* 34:211–31.
- Conroy, J. P., Smillie, R. M., Küppers, M., Bevege, D. I. & Barlow, E. W. 1986. Chlorophyll a fluorescence and photosynthetic and growth responses of *Pinus radiata* to phosphorus deficiency, drought stress, and high CO₂. *Plant Physiol.* 81:423–9.
- Cure, J. D. & Acock, B. 1986. Crop response to carbon dioxide doubling: a literature survey. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 38:127–45.
- Fogg, G. E. 1965. *Algal Cultures and Phytoplankton Ecology*. University of Wisconsin Press, Wisconsin, 126 pp.
- Gifford, R. M. 1992. Interaction of carbon dioxide with growth-limiting environmental factors in vegetation productivity: implications for the global carbon cycle. In Stanhill, G. [Ed.] *Advances in Bioclimatology*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin/Heidelberg/New York, pp. 24–58.
- Gou, H. G. & Yan Z. S. 1999. Reflection on eutrophication and non-point source control in Dianchi Lake. *Res. Environ. Sci.* 12:43–4 [In Chinese].
- Hein, M. & Sand-Jensen, K. 1997. CO₂ increases oceanic primary production. *Nature* 388:526–7.
- Henley, W. J. 1993. Measurement and interpretation of photosynthetic light-response curves in alga in the context of photoinhibition and diel changes. *J. Phycol.* 29:729–39.
- Hocking, P. J. & Meyer, C. P. 1991. Effects of CO₂ enrichment and

- nitrogen stress on growth, and partitioning of dry matter and nitrogen in wheat and maize. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 18:339–56.
- Hutchinson, G. E. 1967. *A Treatise on Limnology*. Vol. 2: *Introduction to Lake Biology and Limnoplankton*. Wiley, New York, 1048 pp.
- Inskip, W. P. & Bloom, P. R. 1985. Extinction coefficients of chlorophyll *a* and *b* in N,N-dimethylformamide and 80% acetone. *Plant Physiol.* 77:483–5.
- Jiang, G. M., Han, X. G. & Lin, G. H. 1997. Response of plant growth to elevated [CO₂]: a review on the chief methods and basic conclusions based on experiments in the external countries in past decade. *Acta Phytocool. Sin.* 21:489–502 [In Chinese].
- Jin, X. C., Ye, C., Yan, C. Z., Ren, B. X., Zhang, Y. C., Wang, X. Q. & Wang, Y. B. 1999. Comprehensive treatment plan for key-polluted regions of Lake Taihu. *Res. Environ. Sci.* 12:1–5 [In Chinese].
- Kaplan, A., Badger, M. R. & Berry, J. A. 1980. Photosynthesis and the intracellular inorganic carbon pool in the blue green alga *Anabaena variabilis*: response to external CO₂ concentration. *Planta* 149: 219–26.
- Kaplan, A. & Reinhold, L. 1999. CO₂ concentrating mechanisms in photosynthetic microorganisms. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 50:539–70.
- Kaplan, A., Zenvirth, D., Marcus, Y., Omata, T. & Ogawa, T. 1987. Energization and activation of inorganic carbon uptake by light in cyanobacteria. *Plant Physiol.* 84:210–3.
- Kimball, B. A. 1983. Carbon dioxide and agricultural yield: an assemblage and analysis of 430 prior observations. *Agron. J.* 75:779–88.
- Klemer, A. R. 1991. Effects of nutritional status on cyanobacterial buoyancy, blooms, and dominance, with special reference to inorganic carbon. *Can. J. Bot.* 69:1133–8.
- Klemer, A. R., Cullen, J. J., Mageau, M. T., Hanson, K. M. & Sundell, R. A. 1996. Cyanobacterial buoyancy regulation: the paradoxical roles of carbon. *J. Phycol.* 32:47–53.
- Konopka, A., Kromkamp, J. & Mur, L. R. 1987. Buoyancy regulation in phosphate-limited cultures of *Microcystis aeruginosa*. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* 45:135–42.
- Kromkamp, J., Konopka, A. & Mur, L. R. 1988. Buoyancy regulation in light-limited continuous cultures of *Microcystis aeruginosa*. *J. Plankton Res.* 10:171–83.
- Kromkamp, J. C. & Mur, L. R. 1984. Buoyant density changes in the cyanobacterium *Microcystis aeruginosa* due to changes in the cellular carbohydrate content. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 25:105–9.
- Kübler, J. E. & Raven, J. A. 1995. The interaction between inorganic carbon acquisition and light supply in *Palmaria palmata* (Rhodophyta). *J. Phycol.* 31:369–75.
- Li, Q. L. & Canvin, D. T. 1998. Energy sources for HCO₃⁻ and CO₂ transport in air-grown cells of *Synechococcus* UTEX 625. *Plant Physiol.* 116:1125–32.
- Li, Z. S., Liang, X. M., Chen, X. D., Lei Z. H. & Tan, Y. Y. 1995. Status of the water chemistry of the Donghu Lake. In Liu, J. K. [Ed.] *Ecological Research on Donghu Lake*. Chinese Science Press, Beijing, pp. 36–74 [In Chinese].
- Maberly, S. C. 1996. Diel, episodic and seasonal changes in pH and concentrations of inorganic carbon in a productive lake. *Freshw. Biol.* 35:579–98.
- Mayo, W. P., Williams, T. G., Birch, D. G. & Turpin, D. H. 1986. Photosynthetic adaptation by *Synechococcus leopoliensis* in response to exogenous dissolved inorganic carbon. *Plant Physiol.* 80:1038–40.
- Miller, A. G. & Canvin, D. T. 1987. Na⁺-stimulation of photosynthesis in the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* UTEX 625 grown on high levels of inorganic carbon. *Plant Physiol.* 84:118–24.
- Miller, A. G. & Colman, B. 1980. Evidence for HCO₃⁻ transport by the blue-green alga (cyanobacterium) *Coccolhoris peniocyctis*. *Plant Physiol.* 65:397–402.
- Miller, A. G., Turpin, D. H. & Canvin, D. T. 1984. Growth and photosynthesis of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus leopoliensis* in HCO₃⁻-limited chemostats. *Plant Physiol.* 75:1064–70.
- Norby, R. J., O'Neill, E. G. & Luxmoore, R. J. 1986. Effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on the growth and mineral nutrition of *Quercus alba* seedlings in nutrient-poor soil. *Plant Physiol.* 82:83–9.
- Ogawa, T., Omata, T., Miyano, A. & Inque, Y. 1985. Photosynthetic reactions involved in the CO₂-concentrating mechanism in the cyanobacterium, *Anacystis nidulans*. In Lucas, W. J. & Berry, J. A. [Eds.] *Inorganic Carbon Uptake by Aquatic Photosynthetic Organisms*. American Society of Plant Physiologists, Rockville, Maryland pp. 17–37.
- Oliver, R. L. 1994. Floating and sinking in gas-vacuolate cyanobacteria. *J. Phycol.* 30:161–73.
- Oliver, R. L. & Ganf, G. G. 2000. Freshwater blooms. In Whitton, B. A. & Potts, M. [Eds.] *Ecology of Cyanobacteria: Their Diversity in Time and Space*. Kluwer Academic, Dordrecht, pp. 149–94.
- Reynolds, C. S. & Walsby, A. E. 1975. Water-blooms. *Biol. Rev.* 50:437–81.
- Riebesell, U., Wolf-Gladrow, D. A. & Smetacek, V. 1993. Carbon dioxide limitation of marine phytoplankton growth rates. *Nature* 361:249–51.
- Shapiro, J. 1990. Current beliefs regarding dominance by blue-greens: the case for the importance of CO₂ and pH. *Verh. Int. Verein. Limnol.* 24:38–54.
- Shapiro, J. 1997. The role of carbon dioxide in the initiation and maintenance of blue-green dominance in lakes. *Freshw. Biol.* 37:307–23.
- Silvey, J. K., Henley, D. E. & Wyatt, J. T. 1972. Planktonic blue-green algae; growth and odor-production studies. *J. Am. Waterw. Assoc.* 64:35–9.
- Sionit, N., Hellmers, H. & Strain, B. R. 1982. Interaction of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment and irradiance on plant growth. *Agron. J.* 74:721–5.
- Stanier, R. Y., Kunisawa, M. M. & Cohen-Bazire, G. 1971. Purification and properties of unicellular blue-green algae (order Chroococcales). *Bacteriol. Rev.* 35:171–201.
- Stumm, W. & Morgan, J. J. 1996. *Aquatic Chemistry*, 3rd ed. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1040 pp.
- Sültemeyer, D., Biehler, K. & Fock, H. P. 1993. Evidence for the contribution of pseudocyclic photophosphorylation to the energy requirement of the mechanism for concentrating inorganic carbon in *Chlamydomonas*. *Planta* 189:235–42.
- Talling, J. F. 1976. The depletion of carbon dioxide from lake water by phytoplankton. *J. Ecol.* 64:79–121.
- Thomas, R. H. & Walsby, A. E. 1985. Buoyancy regulation in a strain of *Microcystis*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* 131:799–809.
- Whitton, B. A. & Peat, A. 1969. On *Oscillatoria redekei* Van Coor. *Arch. Mikrobiol.* 68:362–76.
- Wong, S. C. 1979. Elevated atmospheric partial pressure of CO₂ and plant growth. I. Interactions of nitrogen nutrition and photosynthetic capacity in C₃ and C₄ plants. *Oecologia* 44:68–74.
- Wong, S. C. & Osmond, C. B. 1991. Elevated atmospheric partial pressure of CO₂ and plant growth. III. Interactions between *Triticum aestivum* (C₃) and *Echinochloa frumentacea* (C₄) during growth in mixed culture under different CO₂, N nutrition and irradiance treatments, with emphasis on below-ground responses estimated using the ¹³C value of root biomass. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 18:137–52.
- Zhang, Z. Y., Wang, P. H. & Zhang, C. D. 1999. Study on the eutrophication in Chaohu Lake and its remediation. *Res. Environ. Sci.* 12:45–8 [In Chinese].