

NITROGEN FIXATION BY BLUE-GREEN ALGAE^a

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1) INTRODUCTION

Certain prokaryotes have the ability to fix dinitrogen by converting it into ammonia. Among these, blue-green algae are prominent N₂-fixers in terrestrial and aquatic systems. They fix N₂ both in free-living state and symbiosis with a wide range of partners. There are more genera of blue-green algae known to fix N₂ than there are of heterotrophic and photosynthetic bacteria combined (Stewart, 1973a). Furthermore, it is now generally accepted that the contribution by blue-green algae to the nitrogen status of natural ecosystems is probably much more important than the contribution by heterotrophic microorganisms.

2) METHODS FOR MEASURING N₂-FIXATION

N₂ fixation can be measured by total nitrogen analysis, measurement of gas ratios, ¹⁵N₂ gas incorporation, natural isotopic abundance and acetylene reduction assay. The earliest technique was to measure increase in total combined nitrogen by Kjeldahl method when the algae were grown in medium free of combined nitrogen (Fogg, 1942).

This technique is recognized as a standard procedure. Nitrogen analysis by the Kjeldahl technique is also used in field or pot nitrogen balance studies. The use of this method to distinguish between phototrophic N₂ fixation by parallel light and dark treatment is suitable only for long-term trials for gross measurements.

Measurement of decrease in the N₂/argon ratio by mass spectrometry (Fay and Fogg, 1962) or by manometer (Cox, 1966) was employed to assess N₂ fixation by blue-green algae. It is not a common method. The use of ¹⁵N₂ as tracer (Burriss et al., 1943) is a more sensitive method to demonstrate N₂-fixation. In this method, the blue-green algae are incubated in the presence of ¹⁵N₂ enriched atmosphere, and the ¹⁵N incorporated in algal proteins is measured by mass spectrometry. ¹⁵N techniques are expensive and difficult to use in the field. Nitrogenase reduces a variety of substances including acetylene in addition to elemental nitrogen (Dilworth, 1966; Schollhorn and Burriss, 1966). Ethylene formed due to reduction of acetylene by nitrogenase can be measured with a gas chromatograph. The acetylene reduction assay was first used with blue-green algae by Stewart et al. (1967, 1968). This technique is a simple and inexpensive rapid-scan method for detecting potential N₂-fixing microorganisms. For blue-green algae, the rates of acetylene reduction: nitrogen reduction is frequently near to 3:1 (Stewart et al., 1968). Since this ratio is not constant under all environmental conditions, it was advised that the usage of the technique to quantify N₂ fixation in the field should be calibrated, at least

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sometimes, with ¹⁵N₂ measurements (Stewart, 1973a). Measurements of algal acetylene reducing activity in soil are reliable when the incubation is brief, the problem of gas diffusion and greenhouse effects are minimized, and statistically valid sampling methods are adopted. However, the method is generally considered suitable for qualitative estimate only.

3) N₂ FIXING BLUE-GREEN ALGAE

Both free-living and symbiotic blue-green are found to fix N₂. Three groups of free-living N₂-fixing blue-green algae are recognized: heterocystous algae, nonheterocystous filamentous algae and unicellular algae.

31) Heterocystous blue-green algae

These algae fix N₂ aerobically and microaerobically. The most common N₂-fixing species belong to the genera *Anabaena*, *Aulosira*, *Calothrix*, *Cylindrospermum*, *Nostoc*, *Scytonema*, *Tolypothrix*, *Fischerella*, *Mastigocladus*, and *Stigonema*. These algae usually differentiate vegetative cells into heterocysts only when grown in the absence of combined nitrogen.

This observation led Fogg (1949) to suggest that heterocysts are the sites of N₂ fixation. Subsequent studies have shown that nitrogenase is located in the heterocysts under aerobic growth conditions (Stewart et al., 1969; Fleming and Haselkorn, 1973; Peterson and Wolk, 1978a, b).

Heterocysts appear to be suitable sites for the efficient functioning of an oxygen-sensitive enzyme such as nitrogenase because oxygen evolving Photosystem II is absent in them (Fig. 1). There are evidences that vegetative cells of heterocystous forms express nitrogenase activity under anaerobic conditions (Smith and Evans, 1971; Rippka and Stanier, 1978).

32) Nonheterocystous filamentous blue-green algae

Most of these algae fix N₂ only under microaerobic conditions.

Trichodesmium (Taylor et al., 1973) and *Microcoleus* (Pearson et al., 1979) are exceptions to this general observation, since they were found to fix N₂ in aerobic conditions. The observations on the ability of nonheterocystous filamentous algae to fix N₂ were under dispute for a long time. Early reports of fixation by species of *Lyngbya*, *Phormidium*, *Plectonema*, *Oscillatoria* and *Trichodesmium* (see Stewart, 1971; 1973b) were in doubt either because they were based on studies with non-axenic cultures or else critical tests for nitrogenase activity had not been carried out.

The discovery (Stewart and Lex, 1970) that *Plectonema boryanum* 594 could fix N₂ but only under microaerobic conditions resolved the position to some extent, and pure cultures of various species of *Phormidium*, *Raphidiopsis* (Singh, 1972), *Oscillatoria*, *Lyngbya* and *Plectonema* (Kenyon et al., 1972) were shown to fix N₂ under microaerobic conditions only.

By creating strict anaerobic conditions, particularly by blocking the photosynthetic O₂-evolution by DCMU, Rippka and Stanier (1978) demonstrated that more than 50% of filamentous nonheterocystous forms have the capacity to synthesize nitrogenase.

33) Unicellular blue-green algae

Five strains of *Gloeocapsa* (= *Gloeothecae*) (Wyatt and Silvey, 1969; Rippka et al., 1971, 1979) and a strain of *Aphanothece* (Singh, 1973) fix N₂ in aerobic conditions while three strains of *Synechococcus* perform N₂ fixation under anaerobiosis. Remarkably, in *Gloeocapsa* no structural differences exist in cells grown on N₂ or on combined nitrogen (Rippka et al., 1971) and there is no evidence of the elaborate membrane systems, as

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reported in N₂-fixing *Azotobacter* (Oppenheim and Marcus, 1970) and in heterocysts (Lang and Fay, 1971).

34) Symbiotic blue-green algae

Some heterocystous and unicellular blue-green algae develop in symbiosis. They are found in association with diatoms (*Richelia*(end- und)/*Calothrix* in *Rhizosolenia*), fungi (*Nostoc*, *Calothrix*, *Scytonema*, *Fischerella*, and *Gloeocapsa* in lichens), bryophytes (*Nostoc* in *Anthoceros*), ferns (*Anabaena* in *Azolla*), gymnosperms (*Nostoc* in *Macrozamia* and angiosperms (*Nostoc* in *Gunnera*) (see Stewart et al., 1980). The importance of *Azolla* containing *Anabaena azollae* has been recognized by farmers of the Southeast Asian countries for centuries. *Azolla* is commonly used as a green manure to improve the nitrogen balance in rice fields. Contribution of blue-green algae of liverworts and lichens to the global nitrogen economy is probably of major importance (Stewart et al., 1980). Some organisms like *Cyanophora paradoxa*, *Glaucocystis geitleri*, *Glaucocystis nostochinearum*, *Rhopalodia gibba* and *Glaucosphaera* contain cell inclusions which resemble blue-green algae and these inclusions are referred to as cyanells (Drum and Pankratz, 1965; Schnepf et al., 1966; Robinson and Preston, 1971; Schnepf and Brown, 1971; Kies, 1980). Of all these organisms, only *Rhopalodia gibba* was found to fix N₂ (Drum and Pankratz, 1965; Bothe and Floener, 1980).

4) BIOCHEMISTRY OF N₂ FIXATION

41) Nitrogenase

Nitrogenase from bacteria and blue-green algae exhibit almost similar properties. It is a complex enzyme and consists of two iron-sulphur proteins, which, individually, have no detectable activity but together can catalyse the reduction of a variety of substrates (N₂, N₃⁻, N₂O, HCN, CH₃NC, CH₃CN, C₂H₂, H₃O⁺ and Cyclopropene).

The larger protein (= fraction I, protein 1, MoFe-protein or dinitrogenase) of nitrogenase has high molecular mass (200000 - 270000 daltons), contains 18-36 iron, probably the same amount of acid-labile sulphur, one/two molybdenum atoms and consists of four subunits of two different types (structures).

The smaller protein component (= fraction II, protein 2, Fe-protein or dinitrogenase reductase) has relatively low molecular mass (about 60000 daltons), contains a single cluster having four atoms each of iron and sulphur and consists of two subunits which are always identical.

The MgATP₂- activated Fe-protein accepts reducing equivalents from ferredoxin/flavodoxin and transfers to MoFe-protein with concomitant hydrolysis of ATP into ADP and inorganic phosphate. The Mo cofactor of MoFe-protein binds N₂ and catalyses its reduction with reducing equivalents received from Fe-protein. For every molecule of N₂ fixed, about 12-15 molecules of ATP are expended.

42) Requirement for reductant and energy

To reduce N₂ into ammonia, the enzyme has to be supplied with reducing equivalents and energy (ATP). The reducing equivalents for N₂ fixation may be generated via both Photosystem I (PSI) and Photosystem II (PSII) from water or via PSI alone or via dark reactions while ATP may be provided by cyclic and noncyclic photophosphorylation, oxidative or substrate level phosphorylation (Bothe, 1982). However, experimental evidences have ruled out some of these possibilities.

N₂ fixation in blue-green algae is light dependent. It was found that C₂H₂ reduction takes place in far red light and in the presence of DCMU which inhibited CO₂ fixation by blocking PSII (Cox, 1966; Bothe and Loose, 1972). Further, action spectrum of C₂H₂ reduction was similar to that of PSI (Fay, 1970; Thomas, 1970) and C₂H₂ reduction, unlike photosynthetic CO₂ fixation, did not show an Emerson-enhancement effect (Lyne

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and Stewart, 1973). Based on these evidences Lex and Stewart (1973) suggested that reducing equivalents for N₂ fixation came from a pool of reductants composed of fixed carbon compounds and the duration of N₂ fixation depends on the size of this reductant pool which has to be replenished by photosynthetic electron transport.

Thus the dependence of N₂ fixation on photosynthetic water photolysis is indirect (cf. Bothe, 1982). Since heterocysts lack the photosynthetic water-splitting reaction and ribulose - 1, 5-biphosphate carboxylase (Tel-Or and Stewart, 1976), they depend on vegetative cells for the supply of carbohydrates (Fig. 1). The light stimulated C₂H₂ reduction may be dependent on ATP generated in cyclic photosphosphorylation. In addition, light could also be necessary to supply the electrons to nitrogenase in a PSI dependent reaction. Alternatively, the electrons could be generated in the dark. These later two possibilities are difficult to rule out, since an inhibitor specific to PSI is not available. In *Gloeocapsa*, generation of electrons depends on the operation of both photosystems (Gallon, 1980).

In the dark, oxidative phosphorylation may also provide ATP for nitrogenase operation. Substrate level phosphorylation was demonstrated for *Anabaena cylindrica* but is believed to be of rather limited importance in providing ATP to nitrogenase (Bottomley and Stewart, 1976). The immediate electron carrier to nitrogenase is ferredoxin (Bothe et al., 1983). Blue-green algae contain a soluble, typical plant-type ferredoxin which mediate C₂H₂ reduction by nitrogenase (Bothe, 1970). When Fe deficiency limits the biosynthesis of ferredoxin, several microorganisms form flavodoxin (Bothe, 1977) which takes over the function of supplementing electrons to nitrogenase (Bothe, 1969). Since ferredoxins or flavodoxins are continuously transferring electrons to nitrogenase, they must be reduced by electron donors supplied from cell metabolism. The most important electron donor is probably NADPH. The formation of NADPH seems to be via hexosemonophosphate shunt where glucose-6-phosphate is degraded by glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (Bothe, 1982). The sources, other than glucose-6-phosphate, which may reduce ferredoxin are isocitrate (Bothe et al., 1980), pyruvate (Leach and Carr, 1971; Bothe et al., 1974), glycollate, malate and succinate (Murai and Katoh, 1975). The transfer of electrons from all these donors to nitrogenase proceeds either in dark or in a PSI dependent reaction. PSI is definitely involved when H₂ is the electron donor. In fact, H₂ gave the highest activity among all electron donors in C₂H₂ reduction experiments with isolated heterocysts (Eisbrenner et al., 1978; Peterson and Burris, 1978).

43) Strategies to protect nitrogenase from damage by oxygen

Since nitrogenase is highly sensitive to oxygen, N₂-fixing blue-green algae have evolved different mechanisms to protect nitrogenase from oxygen.

431) Compartmentation

Heterocysts function as compartments. These specialized cells are specially suited for activity of nitrogenase since they eliminate oxygen from them and are strongly reducing environments. They lack O₂-evolving PSII. Further, respiratory oxygen consumption may remove the gas from nitrogenase site since the respiratory activity of heterocysts is higher than in vegetative cells (cf. Bradley and Carr, 1966). Hydrogen gas evolved during N₂ fixation by nitrogenase also seem to protect the enzyme from oxygen since C₂H₂ reduction was found to be more stable against O₂ addition in presence of hydrogen (Bothe et al., 1978; Wolk, 1979). With regard to the O₂ of air, a special function in binding O₂ was suggested for four unique glycolipids found in laminated layer of the heterocyst envelope (Lambein and Wolk, 1973). *Gloeotheca* possesses an elaborate system of internal membranes which may represent some intracellular protective compartment (Postgate, 1982). Gallon et al. (1975) suggested that it protects nitrogenase by a temporal separation of N₂ fixation and photosynthesis, by building up a reserve of

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fixed nitrogen with little photosynthesis early in growth and later photosynthesizing without fixing N₂.

432) Aggregation

Clustering as an oxygen-restricting process has been reported in *Trichodesmium* (Carpenter and Price, 1976). The filaments of *Trichodesmium* form bundles, on the outside of which photosynthesis occurs and within which N₂ fixation takes place (cf. Bryceson and Fay, 1979).

433) Mucilage

Massive amount of mucilage produced by colony forming blue-green algae may arrest the diffusion of oxygen thereby protecting nitrogenase.

44) Nitrogenase and hydrogenase relationship

H₂ formation by blue-green algae takes place only under N₂ fixing conditions (cf. Bothe, 1982). The formation of H₂ is largely stimulated by light, but can also proceed in the dark, provided low levels of oxygen are present to allow respiration. These observations indicate that H₂ must be generated by ATP-dependent reduction of H⁺ catalyzed by nitrogenase. H₂ evolved by nitrogenase is not necessarily loss to blue-green algae.

It can be utilized by two different pathways, both of which are catalyzed by hydrogenases (Both et al. 1977; Eisbrenner et al. 1978; Peterson and Burris, 1978; Peterson and Wolk, 1978; Tel-Or et al., 1978; Antarikanonda et al., 1980).

In the major pathway, H₂ is consumed in an oxygen dependent reaction in respiratory chain and supplies organism with extra ATP.

In the second pathway, H₂ is utilized in a strictly light-requiring reaction. In this pathway, the transfer of electrons from H₂ to the substrates has to proceed via PSI (Both, 1982).

45) Regulation of nitrogenase

The regulation of nitrogenase biosynthesis has been extensively investigated in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, where studies have established that glutamine synthetase is key control-molecule. This enzyme turns into adenylylated form due to feed back inhibition by glutamine and stops nitrogenase synthesis. The de-adenylylated form of the enzyme is formed when this inhibition is removed and it is believed to promote nitrogenase biosynthesis at the transcriptional level. However, in *Anabaena*, nitrogenase was not controlled by adenylylation. Furthermore, Rowell et al. (1977) observed poor correlations between the activities of nitrogenase and glutamine synthetase. However, they found an inverse correlation between the intracellular pools of glutamine and aspartate, and therefore concluded that glutamine, or a derived product of glutamine, rather than glutamine synthetase itself, regulates nitrogenase biosynthesis in *Anabaena*. In *Klebsiella* (Brill, 1975; Yates, 1980), O₂ not only destroys nitrogenase activity but also represses enzymes biosynthesis. Regulation by O₂, light and other factors such as temperature, pH or nutrient supply may also occur in blue-green algae. Further, molybdenum deficiency severely decreased nitrogenase activity (Fay and de Vasconcelos, 1974) probably because of the production of inactive form of MoFe-protein under Mo starvation conditions (Nagatani and Haselkorn, 1978).

ECOLOGICAL AND AGRONOMICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF N₂ FIXATION

Biological N₂ fixation is a crucial step in the global nitrogen cycle in that it returns to the biosphere in combined forms, nitrogen that has been lost in the atmosphere mainly through denitrification and ammonia volatilization. Biological N₂ fixation is the major factor determining the productivity of major natural ecosystems and all but most advanced

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agricultural areas of the earth. The following is a brief summarization of the nitrogen contribution by N₂-fixing blue-green algae in major ecosystems (Table 1).

51) Cold dominated ecosystem

The importance of N₂ fixation by free-living and symbiotic (lichens and moss-algal associations) blue-green algae in cold ecosystem is well documented (see Metting, 1981). *Nostoc commune* is probably the most widespread N₂ fixer in tundra and antarctic soils either as free-living or as phycobiont in lichens. In a review on N₂ fixation by blue-green algae in cold dominated ecosystems, Alexander (1975) listed estimated values for nitrogen input into soils. Estimate based on in vitro acetylene reduction ranged from a few grams/ha per year in some tundra soils to 115 kg/ha per year for a mire, in Sweden, dominated by various vascular species. Estimates for soils of diverse habitats in Norway ranged from 1 to 2.5 kg N/ha per year. A value of 24 g N/ha per year was reported from Antarctica (see Metting, 1981).

52) Temperate soils

In temperate soils, blue-green algae have been reported to fix up to 51 (Henriksson, 1971) or 94 (Granhall, 1975) kg N/ha per year. However most estimates are based on quantifications made during the growing season. The best evidence for the importance of asymbiotic N₂ fixation in temperate soils has been provided by the Broadbalk experiment at the Rothamsted Experimental Station in England. The upper 20 cm of soil in stubbed (woody plants continuously cut back) and in wooded plots has been monitored for total nitrogen since 1882. Due in part to algal fixation and in part to bacterial fixation in the soil and the rhizosphere soils exhibited an average increment of 39 kg N/year for the stubbed plot and 49 kg N/year for the wooded plot. (Witty and Dart, 1977).

Whether cultivated or uncultivated temperate soils support more active populations of N₂-fixing algae has not been firmly established. Number of heterocystous blue-green algae were reported to decrease in cultivated soils of eastern Washington while the number of N₂-fixing blue-green algae in temperate soils in the Soviet Union were reported to increase upon cultivation (see Metting, 1981).

53) Tropical soils

Blue-green algae are widely distributed in tropical and temperate areas but seems to be more abundant in the tropics. They are especially abundant and active in submerged soils, which explains why wetland rice can be grown on the same land year after year without N fertilizer and can produce low but constant yield.

The average of 38 quantitative evaluations of N₂ fixation in rice fields recorded in the literature was 27 kg N/ha per crop and the highest value was 50-80 kg N/ha per crop (Roger and Kulasooriya, 1980). (To be compared with values recorded in temperate soils, values expressed in kg N/ha per crop have to be multiplied by three which lead to an average value of about 90 kg N/ha per year).

BGA may also significantly contribute to the nitrogen economy of tropical dryland soils. Singh (1961) reported a profuse growth of N₂ fixing blue-green algae in sugar cane fields in India from beginning of the rainy season. Among the strains, *Cylindrospermum licheniforme* was found to add about 90 kg N/ha in about 75 days. The same species was reported to colonize very successfully the clean soil surface of weed-free maize fields.

54) Freshwater environments

Bloom of N₂-fixing species have been reported from freshwater bodies in many countries (see Fogg et al., 1973). Estimates of N₂ fixation in lakes are difficult because of the uneven distribution of the algae in the water. Estimate of N₂ fixation rates in the surface waters of lakes range from 0 to 125 ug/liter and per day (Fogg et al., 1973).

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55) Marine environments

N₂-fixing blue-green algae are less common in marine environments than in freshwaters. The most studied N₂-fixing marine blue-green alga is *Trichodesmium* (Oscillatoriaceae) which can develop large biomass and fix N₂ when aggregated in bundles. It can occur at depths of 20 to 40 m (see Fogg et al., 1973).

In littoral fringe of West Africa, *Calothrix* sp. was found to colonize large areas of sand (P. Roger unpub.). Annual fixation rates of marine blue-green algae are still very poorly documented. The recent book by Humm and Wicks (1980) do not give any estimates.

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