

Effects of Atmospheric O₃ on *Azolla*–*Anabaena* Symbiosis

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Cultures of water fern *Azolla pinnata* R. Br. exposed for 1 week to either 30, 50 or 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ showed significant reductions in rates of growth and N₂ fixation, and had fewer heterocysts. Although the levels of glutamine synthetase (GS) and glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) activity were decreased by low concentrations of O₃ exposures (30 or 50 nl l⁻¹), significant increases in levels of the same enzymes were caused by higher concentrations of O₃ (80 nl l⁻¹). Increased levels of total protein, polyamines (putrescine and spermidine), and the xanthophyll-cycle precursor of abscisic acid (ABA), violaxanthin, were also found with higher levels of O₃ (80 nl l⁻¹). Levels of ABA itself were significantly increased by low level O₃ fumigation (30 nl l⁻¹) but significantly decreased by exposure to 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃. This may indicate that higher levels of atmospheric O₃ inhibit the final stages of ABA biosynthesis from violaxanthin.

Key words: Abscisic acid, nitrogen assimilation, nitrogen fixation, ozone pollution, polyamines, violaxanthin.

INTRODUCTION

Ozone (O₃) is a major component of photochemical air pollution which causes foliar injury and permanent damage to many plant species including several economically-important crops (Heagle, 1989). Atmospheric O₃ may either increase or decrease stomatal conductance depending upon species, cultivar and exposure conditions (Darrall, 1989) and reduced stomatal conductance has been suggested to be responsible for decreases of photosynthesis by limiting available CO₂ (Saxe and Murali, 1989). However, few studies have been carried out to investigate atmospheric O₃ effects on levels of abscisic acid (ABA) which is principally involved in the regulation of stomatal movements in response to water stress.

Change in plasma membrane permeability is an early event which leads to atmospheric O₃ injury (Heath, 1980). This is mediated by oxidative free radicals which are capable of attacking both lipids and thiol groups of membrane protein although some of them are scavenged by a variety of antioxidative systems beforehand (Heath, 1988). Levels of polyamines are known to increase during exposure to O₃ (Rowland-Bamford *et al.*, 1989) and may also act as free radical scavengers (Smith, 1985). This is supported by the fact that feeding polyamines to plants reduces visible injury caused by atmospheric O₃ (Bors *et al.*, 1989).

Effects of O₃ on nitrogen metabolism are still poorly understood. Changes in nitrogen metabolism as a consequence of accelerated senescence induced by O₃ have been detected (Grandjean and Futhrer, 1989; Adams, Edwards and Taylor, 1990). Furthermore, effects of atmospheric O₃ on nitrogen metabolism may have important consequences

for other physiological processes (Manderscheid, Jäger and Kress, 1992).

Azolla is a genus of floating aquatic fern which normally contains a N₂-fixing symbiotic cyanobacterium, *Anabaena* (or *Nostoc*) *azollae* (sp.). This provides the association with its total N requirement (Peters, 1977) and allows *Azolla* to grow in relatively low N environments. There is a close relationship between photosynthesis and N₂ fixation in the *Azolla*–*Anabaena* symbiosis, photosynthesis in *Azolla* being the source of ATP and reductant for the nitrogenase in *Anabaena*. *Azolla* has also proved to be a useful lower plant system for study of the effects of different atmospheric pollutants. In the case of SO₂, the symbiosis between *Azolla* and *Anabaena* is rapidly disrupted because N₂ fixation is highly sensitive to very low levels of atmospheric SO₂ (Hur and Wellburn, 1993). However, the symbiosis can tolerate quite large additional inputs of N from atmospheric NO₂ before changes (e.g. increased polyamine synthesis) are detected (Hur and Wellburn, 1994). In the experiments with atmospheric O₃ described here, similarities in response to those of atmospheric SO₂, rather than those of NO₂, were detected in different areas of N metabolism but significant changes in ABA levels were also detected which may have wider environmental implications.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material, growth conditions, and exposure system

Growth conditions for *Azolla pinnata* R. Br. and the pollutant exposure system have been described earlier (Hur and Wellburn, 1993). Dark green and healthy-looking fronds were transferred to fresh culture media 1 week before exposure to one of three relatively low mean concentrations of O₃ (30, 50 or 80 nl l⁻¹) – the highest level being within the range of atmospheric O₃ concentrations experienced in a

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TABLE 1. Effects of atmospheric O₃ on growth and nitrogen assimilation of Azolla

Parameter	30 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃		50 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃		80 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃	
	treated	% of control	treated	% of control	treated	% of control
Mean relative growth rate (d ⁻¹)	0.081* ±0.006	75.0	0.087** ±0.004	76.3	0.059*** ±0.010	51.8
N ₂ fixation rate (C ₂ H ₂ reduction) (mmol g ⁻¹ f.wt h ⁻¹)	1.45* ±0.08	86.3	1.30*** ±0.05	76.3	1.42** ±0.07	82.6
Heterocyst frequency (%)	20.0*** ±0.24	92.6	20.2** ±0.20	96.2	20.0*** ±0.24	93.0
Glutamine synthetase (GS) activity†	51.6 ±6.39	92.1	57.9 ±5.69	101	83.4* ±7.78	148
Glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) activity‡	31.1 ±4.38	114	29.9 ±1.21	115	33.4** ±1.11	123
Protein content (mg g ⁻¹ f.wt)	4.19 ±0.17	95.2	4.16 ±0.19	97.0	5.53*** ±0.21	128
Putrescine level (nmol g ⁻¹ f.wt)	387.5 ±29.7	110	411.6 ±61.0	115	546.3* ±72.2	147
Spermidine (nmol g ⁻¹ f.wt)	355.3 ±34.4	112	331.2 ±24.5	98.8	562.9** ±48.3	163

The data are the means of *n* replicates ± standard errors of the mean, where *n* = 5 (growth rates), 20 (acetylene reductions), 15 (enzyme assays, protein contents and polyamine determinations) and 150 (heterocyst frequencies). The asterisks indicate significant differences in *P* values between control and fumigation of * < 0.05, ** < 0.01 and *** < 0.001.

† nmoles γ-glutamylhydroxamate formed mg⁻¹ protein min⁻¹; ‡ nmoles NADH oxidized mg⁻¹ protein min⁻¹.

typical UK summer (UK PORG, 1987). O₃ was generated from pure O₂, using a silent electric discharge apparatus, diluted with activated charcoal- and Purafil[®]-filtered air, and added to the fumigation chamber between 1000 and 1800 h GMT each day over the week to mimic a natural episode of atmospheric O₃ outdoors. Flow rates of O₃ into the chamber were controlled by fine needle valves and concentrations of O₃ were monitored continuously using an O₃ analyzer (Monitor Labs., USA, Model 8810).

Three different concentrations of O₃ (30, 50 and 80 nl l⁻¹) were used in the chamber at different times and five replicate flasks of each treatment (clean-air controls *vs.* those fumigated) were placed alongside each other in the same light fluence and temperature, etc. Whole *Azolla* fronds in individual flasks were taken as the experimental unit and the Student's *t*-test was used to compare fumigated samples and clean-air controls.

Enzyme assays and other parameters

Measurement of mean relative growth rates, heterocyst frequencies, C₂H₂ reduction rates (N₂ fixation rates), total soluble protein contents, pigment determinations, and levels of GS and GDH activities were carried out according to Hur and Wellburn (1993) and levels of polyamines as described by Hur and Wellburn (1994).

Abscisic acid (ABA) levels

Azolla fronds, freeze-dried for 3 d, were ground to a fine powder in liquid N₂, and shaken overnight at 4 °C with ultra-pure water [extraction ratio 40:1, water (ml): plant dry weight (mg)]. Supernatant fractions, after centrifugation

at 4000 *g* for 15 min, were then radioimmunoassayed for ABA as described by Quarrie *et al.* (1988).

RESULTS

Effects of O₃ on the growth of Azolla

Exposure to O₃ significantly reduced the growth rate of *Azolla* at all three concentrations (Table 1). Growth rates of *Azolla* exposed to 30 or 50 nl l⁻¹ O₃ were reduced by 25% by comparison to controls but *Azolla* exposed to 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ showed almost 50% less growth.

Effects of O₃ on nitrogen assimilation by the Azolla–Anabaena system

N₂ fixation rates in *Anabaena* were decreased by a similar extent (about 20%) at all three concentrations of O₃ (Table 1). Heterocyst frequencies of the *Anabaena* were also significantly decreased to a similar extent (4–7%) by all three O₃ exposures.

Fumigations with O₃ at 30 or 50 nl l⁻¹ had no apparent effect on levels of glutamine synthetase (GS) activity but they rose significantly with 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (48% greater than controls, Table 1). Responses of glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) activity were similar and again significantly higher at 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (23%). Significant increases in total soluble protein also occurred at 80 nl l⁻¹ (27%, Table 1).

Effects of O₃ on levels of polyamines in Azolla

Cellular levels of ammonium and spermine in *Azolla* exposed to O₃ were unaffected (data not shown) but levels

TABLE 2. Effects of atmospheric O₃ on abscisic acid (ABA), violaxanthin and antheraxanthin contents of Azolla

Parameter	30 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃		50 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃		80 nl l ⁻¹ O ₃	
	treated	% of control	treated	% of control	treated	% of control
Abscisic acid (ABA) (μg g ⁻¹ f.wt)	2.13*** ±0.02	116	1.73 ±0.05	95.2	1.60* ±0.08	84.7
Violaxanthin (μg g ⁻¹ f.wt)	8.87 ±0.28	107	9.64* ±0.41	117	10.1* ±0.42	121
Antheraxanthin (μg g ⁻¹ f.wt)	15.9* ±0.54	120	15.8*** ±0.52	126	14.0 ±0.42	95.2
Violaxanthin/Antheraxanthin ratios	0.56 ±0.02	88.9	0.61 ±0.02	96.8	0.72*** ±0.02	126

The data are the means of 15 replicates ± standard errors of the mean and asterisks indicate significant differences in *P* values between control and fumigation of * < 0.05 and *** < 0.001.

of putrescine and spermidine were significantly higher after fumigation with 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (47 and 63%, respectively, Table 1).

Effects of O₃ on pigment levels and their ratios in Azolla

There were no significant changes in levels of chlorophyll *a* and *b* or most carotenoids to increasing O₃ concentrations (data not shown) but violaxanthin levels were significantly higher at 50 or 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (Table 2). Antheraxanthin levels were increased significantly at 30 and 50 nl l⁻¹ O₃, but were slightly lower than controls at 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃. Consequently, higher violaxanthin/antheraxanthin ratios were found in Azolla exposed to 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (Table 2).

Effects of O₃ on the levels of ABA (abscisic acid) in Azolla

Levels of ABA were increased significantly at 30 nl l⁻¹ O₃ but significantly lower at 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃ (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

The responses of Azolla to atmospheric O₃ reported here are similar to those induced by atmospheric SO₂ described earlier (Hur and Wellburn, 1993). Both gases inhibit rates of growth and N₂ fixation, and reduce the frequencies of heterocysts even at levels in the atmosphere normally regarded as below ambient for semi-urban conditions. Such findings rule out the possible use of the Azolla–Anabaena system as a specific bioindicator for sulphur deposition in the field although there is no doubt that this system is highly sensitive to certain types of air pollution such as SO₂, O₃, and also mixtures of SO₂ and NO₂ (unpublished data). In a sense, the similarity in response of N₂ fixation, as indicated by C₂H₂ reduction rates and reduced heterocyst frequencies, to atmospheric O₃ and SO₂ (and mixtures of SO₂+NO₂) conforms to the mechanism of inhibition we postulated earlier whereby the barrier to inwards diffusion of O₂ of the heterocyst envelopes is destabilized by air pollutant-induced free radicals (Hur and Wellburn, 1993).

Inhibition of N₂ fixation by atmospheric O₃ (80 nl l⁻¹ relative to 'controls' containing 30 nl l⁻¹) has been detected earlier in ladino clover (*Trifolium repens* L. cv. Tillman) using the ¹⁵N method (Montes *et al.*, 1983) but linear decreases in N₂-fixation rates with increasing O₃ levels were not found in our study. This may be partly due to structural differences between the Azolla–Anabaena system and clover and partly due to the accessibility and subsequent reactions of O₃ with cell components and their fate inside cells. When O₃ enters solution in plant tissues, it rapidly decomposes to oxyradicals and peroxides in the liquid layer surrounding the mesophyll cells which react with the components of cell wall and plasma membranes (Heath, 1988). Consequently, intercellular O₃ levels are close to zero over a wide range of external atmospheric O₃ concentrations (Laisk, Kull and Moldau, 1989). If these oxyradicals and peroxides then penetrate as far as the heterocyst without being scavenged away then the integrity of the heterocyst envelope as a barrier to O₂ will be disrupted and the mechanism of N₂ fixation inside much reduced as a result.

Most of the other significant disturbances in N assimilation caused by atmospheric O₃ probably reflect reduced N₂ fixation. For example, increases in levels of GS activity might have been predicted but additional formation of polyamines and extra GDH activity, both of which are characteristic of oxidative stress, are likely to exacerbate the problem by draining away available N despite the fact that extra protein is formed. Robinson *et al.* (1991) have suggested that GDH is involved in the catabolism of glutamine, having a regulatory function between nitrogen and carbon metabolism. This enzyme is involved in NADH formation and in the supply of carbon skeletons to the tricarboxylic acid cycle under conditions when carbon is limited. Further evidence of this hypothesis is supported by the observation that O₃-induced increases of GDH are due to increased oxidative deamination rates of glutamate. (Manderscheid *et al.*, 1992).

Polyamines are known to play an important role in maintaining membrane permeability and rigidity (De Agazio, Gardinia and Grego, 1987) and respond to O₃-induced Ca²⁺/K⁺ imbalances or pH changes in the cell wall by stabilizing membranes which re-establishes ionic balances across the plasmalemma (Smith, 1985; Heath, 1988).

Consequently, increased levels of polyamines in *Azolla* may indicate a metabolic response which minimizes damage at the initial site of injury.

Stomatal responses to atmospheric O₃ are complex and may operate at several different physiological levels (Winner, 1989). Most experimental studies of crop plants have found that stomata close and transpiration rates decline in response to O₃ exposure (Olszyk and Tingey, 1986; Reich and Lasoie, 1984) but there are also reports of increased stomatal conductance in response to O₃ exposure (Olszyk and Tibbitts, 1981). ABA is now recognized to be a major regulator of stomatal aperture and the significant changes in levels of ABA may well be a response to atmospheric O₃. It has been known for some time, for example, that applications of exogenous ABA to primary bean leaves close stomata and reduce the phytotoxicity of O₃ (Fletcher, Adepipe and Ormrod, 1972). Consequently, increased levels of endogenous ABA at low levels of O₃ may also protect *Azolla* by restricting access of the pollutant. However, when levels of ABA are lower in *Azolla* at high levels of O₃, this protection may have been lost. Moreover, reductions in ABA levels due to O₃ (80 nl l⁻¹) are not confined to *Azolla*. Significant depressions in ABA levels in both well-watered tomato and cherry leaves have also been detected recently in the presence of similar levels of O₃ (A. Sier and W. J. Davies, pers. comm.).

Low ratios of violaxanthin/antheraxanthin at 30 and 50 nl l⁻¹ O₃ also imply that the scavenging (i.e. by the xanthophyll cycle) of free radicals induced by air pollutants is effective. However, the situation is reversed at high O₃ levels (80 nl l⁻¹) when violaxanthin/antheraxanthin ratios are significantly increased. Little is yet known about the effects of O₃ on ABA biosynthesis, especially in relation to violaxanthin. Our observation of reduced levels of ABA may be related to the increases in violaxanthin and violaxanthin/antheraxanthin ratios in *Azolla* at high levels of O₃. Recently, Parry and Horgan (1991) have suggested that 9'-*cis*-neoxanthin and 9-*cis*-violaxanthin are potential precursors of ABA and both are derived from all-*trans*-violaxanthin. Consequently, if ABA levels fall in *Azolla* due to high levels of O₃, this may be because the synthesis of 9'-*cis*-neoxanthin from all-*trans*-violaxanthin is inhibited by higher levels of atmospheric O₃.

Further studies are needed to investigate O₃-induced stomatal changes in relation to bulk ABA biosynthesis. The possibility that ABA acts as a metabolic messenger which triggers physiological responses (e.g. changes in levels of free Ca²⁺) towards atmospheric O₃ is worth investigating. ABA levels in plants rise in dramatic fashion in certain cellular compartments in response to water stress and minor changes in water potential may blot out the detection of specific ABA responses to air pollutants. This may well have been the problem when Kobriger, Tibbitts and Brenner (1984) failed to relate stomatal apertures to ABA levels when peas were fumigated with O₃ and SO₂. By using *Azolla*, which floats on water, this possibility is excluded.

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