

THE C₂ OXIDATIVE PHOTOSYNTHETIC CARBON CYCLE

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ABSTRACT

The C₂ oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle plus the C₃ reductive photosynthetic carbon cycle coexist. Both are initiated by Rubisco, use about equal amounts of energy, must regenerate RuBP, and result in exchanges of CO₂ and O₂ to establish rates of net photosynthesis, CO₂ and O₂ compensation points, and the ratio of CO₂ and O₂ in the atmosphere. These concepts evolved from research on O₂ inhibition, glycolate metabolism, leaf peroxisomes, photorespiration, ¹⁸O₂/¹⁶O₂ exchange, CO₂ concentrating processes, and a requirement for the oxygenase activity of Rubisco. Nearly 80 years of research on these topics are unified under the one process of photosynthetic carbon metabolism and its self-regulation.

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Introduction

I chose the subject of the C_2 cycle for my prefatory chapter because this part of photosynthetic carbon metabolism needs to be better understood. It represents a part of my research that occurred in bits and pieces over many years. This synthesis is hindsight. For a long time I did not foresee conclusions to be drawn from research on glycolate metabolism. Now the term " C_2 oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle" parallels the nomenclature for the " C_3 reductive photosynthetic carbon cycle" (Figure 1). The term "photorespiratory carbon cycle" should not be used for the C_2 cycle, because that implies photorespiration is a separate process with separate CO_2 and O_2 pools. Rather, there is one process of photosynthetic carbon metabolism that is the sum of the C_2 plus C_3 cycles. Less informative nomenclature based on names of investigators, such as Calvin/Benson or Hatch/Slack cycles, is slowly disappearing. Topics related to the C_2 cycle started at about the dates shown in Table 1, which also lists some events of my life. Metabolic pathways and enzymatic properties to support the C_2 cycle are in the references. Our recent report of an O_2 compensation point (Γ) during photosynthesis (10) has extended our viewpoint, but because it has not yet been extensively debated, those parts of this chapter addressing this are more speculative. A more extensive review of the O_2 Γ may be found in a manuscript in preparation with Erwin Beck. For 50 years, investigators have studied glycolate and P-glycolate synthesis and its function, regulation, and inhibition. I am extending this with speculation on regulation of global CO_2 and O_2 concentrations. It will not be easy to overcome 150 years of dogma that photosynthesis is only O_2 evolution and CO_2 fixation (it is O_2 and CO_2 exchange), and the physiological impact that Rubisco is also an oxygenase. Most difficult of all is to understand that at the recent low atmospheric CO_2 and high O_2 about half of photosynthetic energy has been used by the C_2 cycle.

Photosynthesis has been divided into two parts: light reactions for ATP synthesis plus NADP reduction with O_2 evolution and photosynthetic carbon metabolism to use the ATP and NADPH. There are two parts to carbon metabolism as initiated by the dual activities of ribulose biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco). It catalyzes carboxylation of ribulose biphosphate (RuBP) with $^{14}CO_2$ to form two molecules of carboxyl labeled 3-P-glycerate of the C_3 reductive photosynthetic carbon cycle. Rubisco is also an oxygenase that catalyzes oxidation of RuBP by addition (fixation) of an $^{18}O_2$ to RuBP to form one carboxyl [$^{18}O_2$]P-glycolate and one 3-P-glycerate of the C_2 oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle. The C_2 and C_3 cycles coexist and together are photosynthetic carbon metabolism (Figure 1). The ratio of CO_2 and O_2 con-

centrations in the chloroplast determines the flow of carbon between the two cycles.

At low global CO₂ equilibrium level of <0.03% CO₂ and ~21% O₂, CO₂ fixation by the C₃ cycle in C₃ plants is about three times more than CO₂ production by the C₂ cycle. Thus we have net CO₂ fixation and O₂ evolution. However, the C₂ cycle uses about three times more energy per CO₂ turnover. Thus, in air with high light intensity nearly equal amounts of photosynthetic energy are used by the C₃ cycle for net photosynthesis as are consumed by the C₂ cycle (2, 9). A lower limit of CO₂ and an upper limit of O₂ are compensation points (Γ), beyond which net photosynthesis is zero and plants senesce from excess photooxidation of storage carbohydrates by oxygenase activity of Rubisco and the C₂ cycle. The O₂ Γ with 220 ppm CO₂ at 20°C is about 23%

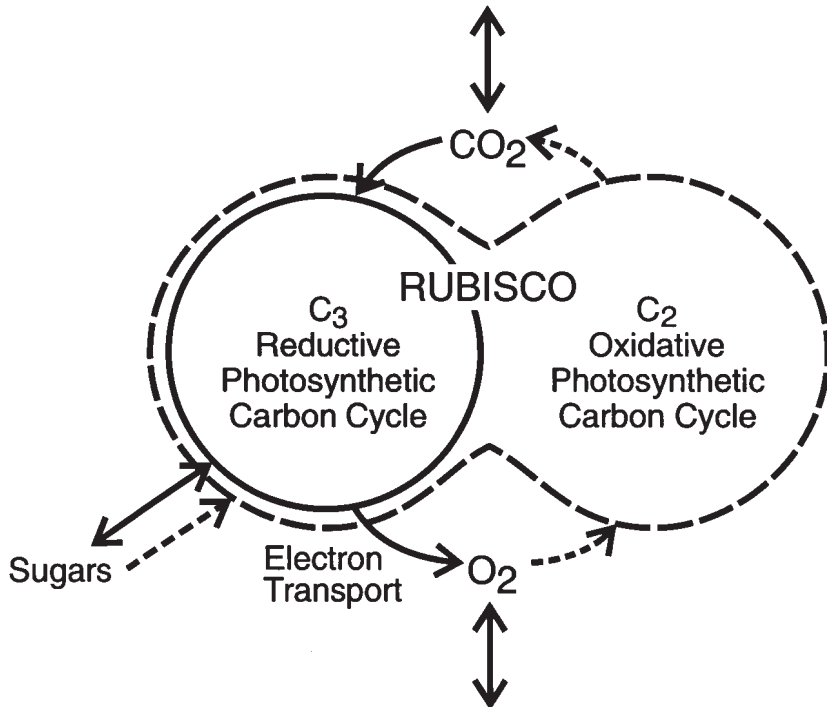


Figure 1 The C₂ and C₃ cycles of photosynthetic carbon metabolism. This scheme (9, 10) emphasizes that the two cycles coexist, that both represent about equal parts of the process, that carboxylase and oxygenase activities of Rubisco initiate both, and that there is just one CO₂ and one O₂ pool. Although the C₂ cycle has been called photorespiration, it is not a separate process. Rather, the two cycles create a necessary balance during photosynthesis for net CO₂ and O₂ exchange.

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Table 1 Glycolate oxidase, glycolate synthesis, glycolate pathway, and other related events of my life

1920	O Warburg published that O ₂ inhibited photosynthesis. That year I was one year old in Twin Falls, Idaho
1930–1950	Photosynthetic investigators considered O ₂ inhibition of electron transport
1940–1941	Ruben's search for the first product of ¹¹ CO ₂ fixation. My BS, Department of Chemistry, University of California, Berkeley
1941–1943	University of California, Davis, Department of Viticulture and Enology, a diversion for me to use the carbon products of photosynthesis
1943–1946	World War II, Captain, US Air Force Intelligence
1946–1949	Glycolate oxidase, PhD thesis with RH Burris, University Wisconsin
1950	In Calvin's group with Benson and Bassham. ¹⁴ CO ₂ fixation by the C ₃ cycle and [¹⁴ C] glycolate, glycine, and serine found to be major early products
1950–1952	US Atomic Energy Commission grants for plant science. Glycolic oxidase light activation at USDA, Beltsville
1952–1958	Glycolate metabolism and glycolate excretion by algae. Biology Division at Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Organizer of Gatlinburg Photosynthesis Conferences
1958–1962	Professor of Biochemistry Michigan State University. Glycolate pathway; P-glycolate phosphatase. Concept of photorespiration developed by many investigators
1960–1968	The CO ₂ compensation point. C ₄ cycle and C ₄ plants. Construction of biochemistry building with RG Hansen and WA Wood
1968–1975	P-glycolate synthesis by oxygenase activity of Rubisco. Glycolate metabolism in peroxisomes from leaves or liver
1975	The C ₂ oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle. Algal CO ₂ concentrating processes. Effect of increasing atmospheric CO ₂ on plants
1989	Professor Emeritus—too soon
1996	The oxygen compensation point. Glycolate metabolism in chloroplasts. Regulation of the ratio of atmospheric CO ₂ and O ₂ by Rubisco

O₂ for C₃ plants (10). The ratio of CO₂ and O₂ concentration in the chloroplast limits net photosynthesis, as well as sets the CO₂ and O₂ atmospheric ratio on a short-term basis. Long-term, i.e. centuries, geological global carbon and O₂ cycles provide sources of CO₂ and sinks for O₂, a process that slowly establishes atmospheric equilibrium levels. Besides the ratio of CO₂ and O₂ concentrations, many other plant growth factors also determine rate of net photosynthesis. These are not integrated into this summary, but among them are temperature, light intensity, water, nutrient, stomata openings, canopy coverage, processes for concentrating CO₂ and exclusion of O₂, membrane diffusion, and geological storage reservoirs of CO₂ and O₂. Changes in any of these alter

total photosynthesis, but the short-term CO₂ and O₂ equilibria are based on kinetic properties of the immense amount of Rubisco.

From the time of the discoveries of O₂ inhibition of CO₂ fixation, glycolate oxidase, photorespiration, oxygenase activity of Rubisco, and leaf peroxisomes (Table 1), a continuing question has been their purpose. These phenomena occur at 21% O₂ and increase at higher O₂ levels, as if they were the result of O₂ toxicity. Many of us sought ways to reduce this O₂ inhibition to increase crop yield. So far there has been no evidence that research targeted at modifying Rubisco has been agronomically successful. This may be because O₂ inhibition of CO₂ fixation is now an essential, environmental part of photosynthesis. In addition, incomplete data have limited our understanding, and even now we are just publishing about the O₂ Γ (10) and a second glycolate oxidizing system in chloroplasts (1). Earlier, G Lorimer & J Andrews pointed out that oxygenase activity of Rubisco was probably unavoidable because there are no binding sites for CO₂ or O₂ substrates, and I am adding that this dual specificity is an essential part of photosynthetic carbon metabolism. The O₂ Γ is a consequence of oxygenase activity of Rubisco and is an upper limit on the permissible atmospheric O₂ level for plant growth, just as the CO₂ Γ limits lowering the atmospheric CO₂.

My Start in Low CO₂

The story about O₂ regulation of photosynthesis began in 1920, a year after I was born, when Otto Warburg published that air (21% O₂) inhibited CO₂ fixation by algae. I grew up on a farm at Twin Falls, Idaho, where recreation was fishing and hunting in canyons along the Snake River. From then till well past my graduate school, photosynthesizers discussed how O₂ might oxidize chloroplast electron transport components. Rabinowitch wrote that if O₂ inhibition effected respiration, all their hypotheses were off. It did, because O₂ inhibition of CO₂ fixation is the C₂ cycle, which is glycolate synthesis and metabolism.

The small rural grade school that I attended, at first by a horse-drawn covered wagon as a school bus, taught only the three basics and baseball, but my mother supplemented the basics with nightly drills around kerosene lamps. I read Zane Grey, but I never learned to spell well or master languages, even later after suffering through Latin, French, and German. I must have been a disappointment to my mother, who had a Master's degree in English from the University of Chicago. I am not an extrovert, but I became a daydreamer from sitting all day on a farm cultivator. I do best when talking about science.

On the farm, my father trained me to do irrigation and stack hay. It was somehow assumed that we would go to college, and I, being the oldest, led all four of us to major in science. In the first two years at the University of Southern Idaho in Pocatello, I remember best Sunday hikes up the canyons into the mountains. After two years, my father suggested that if I returned home, he would buy a sheep ranch for us near Ketchum or Sun Valley. That temptation has often been remembered, but I went instead to the University of California, Berkeley, where I was a B+ student with that inferiority complex. I deviated once from chemistry, when I took an intensive course in biochemistry for premed majors and pulled my only C. Thus, I was challenged. At this time, the first radioactive, ^{14}C photosynthetic experiments were done by Ruben (until he was killed by phosgene gas) while I was in a nearby lab. Melvin Calvin, another assistant professor in the Chemistry Department, replaced him. At graduation in 1941, I was told to find employment at Shell Oil Research down by the Bay, near Berkeley. Upon going there, the aromas from their labs and mud flats made me long for a sheep ranch in Idaho. Returning from that interview, I stopped at the student employment office on campus and learned that the Head of Viticulture and Enology at UC Davis was there looking for an organic chemist. Within half hour I had a job, conceptually nearer the farm, to analyze brandy for \$150 a month. My first publications were in the *Journal of Food Research*, on pH and tannins. Maynard Amerine, Professor of Enology and American's foremost wine connoisseur, invited AD Webb and me to live with him in Davis while he taught us wine tasting. Until then I had been a teetotaler, but suddenly I was a wine and brandy expert. My parents may have been in shock, but they said nothing.

At that time (about 1940), the atmospheric CO_2 level was around 300 ppm. It had been first measured in 1890 at about 290 ppm and concern was expressed even then that it might be rising. In graduate school in the late 1940s we used 303 ppm as the CO_2 level. In 1957, when the CO_2 level was 315 ppm, NSF began funding measurements of the CO_2 concentrations atop Mauna Loa volcano in Hawaii. Atmospheric CO_2 is now about 380 ppm. I use CO_2 levels in Arctic ice cores to indicate an atmospheric CO_2 equilibrium for the past 165,000 years that oscillated around 235 ± 45 ppm with 21% O_2 . This seems to have been an equilibrium whose highs of 280 ppm CO_2 corresponded with interglacial periods and whose lows around 190 ppm occurred during glacial periods. I hope this chapter will promote discussion about whether competition between atmospheric CO_2 and O_2 levels for Rubisco catalysts during photosynthesis limited CO_2 level on the downside and maintained global O_2 level at 21%. Now we are in the midst of a mammoth atmospheric experiment in which the CO_2 concentration has been raised about 50% to 380 ppm. At this

current CO₂ level, the permissible O₂ level from an equilibrium based on the specificity of Rubisco could rise over a long period of time to around 28% O₂ (10).

In the Chemistry Department at Berkeley my senior thesis for M Randall, coauthor of the textbook on physical chemistry, listed the literature citations in Beilstein and Chem Abstracts on light-activation of silver halides. In 1942, as my draft number rose toward the top, I applied to the Air Force for officer training as a photographic expert on the basis of that compilation. After boot camp in Florida and classes at Yale University, assignments were New England photo lab at Bradley Field, Connecticut; photo intelligence school at Orlando, Florida; briefing B-24 crews at Muroc Air Force Base in Southern California; air force intelligence in the Philippines (purple heart); and Japan. This captain had traveled a long way from that sheep ranch in Idaho. Following the war, I settled down as a graduate student in biochemistry at the University of Wisconsin in Madison with RH Burris as PhD advisor, mentor, and long-time friend. He started me on polyphenol oxidase, which seemed to be responsible for browning of potato tubers. O₂ and CO₂ gas exchange measurements were run with a Warburg apparatus with 18 manometers. Today, Warburg analyses have fallen into complete oblivion, because they are deemed too complicated. Instead, O₂ changes are measured one at a time in an O₂ electrode, and CO₂ concentrations are assayed by an IR analyzer. For uptake of ¹⁴CO₂ and metabolism of ¹⁴C-labeled substrates, Warburg flasks and Thunberg tubes have some distinct advantages. After I started graduate school, Burris, one of the authors of *Manometric Techniques*, invented the circular Warburg, and I was his first graduate student to use it. It was a real advancement to sit in one place while rotating and reading the rack of oscillating manometers.

I have been helped greatly by my brother, Bert, and sister, Marian. Bert and I shared the same room at home and at college and took the same courses. He became an expert on synthesis and use of ¹⁴C-labeled compounds in biological research. He made 1- and 2-[¹⁴C]glycolates, which I used to determine the glycolate pathway. M Calvin felt that glycolate was labeled from ¹⁴CO₂ via the sugar phosphates of the C₃ cycle (he was right), and so glycolate was relegated to the discard heap. Thanks! This left me the other half of photosynthetic carbon, the C₂ cycle.

The C₂ Cycle

In the 1950s, glycolate and photorespiration topics were not mainstream, and we had to struggle to be heard. At the Brookhaven Photosynthesis Symposium

of 1963, Bessel Kok put his arm around me after my talk outlining reactions of the glycolate pathway (4) and said, "Ed, why keep working on that glycolate? You know it is not an early product during photosynthesis. There are many other more important things to do." Fortunately, I did not follow his advice.

My traditional biochemical research approach has been first to find and characterize enzymes and second to place them in metabolic pathways by studies with isotopically labeled substrates. A third approach, starting in the 1960s, was to use mutants to confirm or predict biochemical pathways. C_2 cycle mutants in *Arabidopsis* were developed by CR Somerville. It was gratifying that reactions of the C_2 pathway, as determined earlier, were confirmed with several mutants. We can now speculate that failure to isolate a mutant of peroxisomal glycolate oxidase is consistent with alternate glycolate metabolism in the chloroplast (1). The techniques of molecular biology became available as we worked on the algal CO_2 pump. For a complete research program, all four approaches should be used.

In 1948, Carl Clagett finished his PhD thesis with RH Burris on glycolate oxidase, and I continued my PhD research on this new oxidase, function unknown. Glycolate ($CH_2OH-COOH$) is oxidized with O_2 uptake to glyoxylate ($CHO-COOH$) and H_2O_2 . Glyoxylate was trapped as a hydrazone or oxidized to CO_2 and $HCOOH$ depending on the amount of catalase remaining to remove H_2O_2 . From the start we thought that a glycolate/glyoxylate system might be a terminal oxidase to waste energy, which was then a popular concept. For that, I Zelitch and S Ochoa in 1957 characterized a glyoxylate reductase, which turned out to be the same as a glycerate dehydrogenase isolated in 1956 by B Vennesland. From our studies in the 1960s and 1970s this enzyme became known as hydroxypyruvate reductase, because it had a low K_m of 10 μM for hydroxypyruvate ($CH_2OH-CO-COOH$), but a high K_m of about 500 μM for glyoxylate, which was rapidly transaminated to glycine instead. However, possible peroxidation of glyoxylate and hydroxypyruvate by H_2O_2 has been considered numerous times by others. Conceptually, the C_2 cycle is a highly regulated, complex, terminal oxidase system involving extensive metabolic reactions to use excess photosynthetic energy, but it is not two, unregulated, coupled reactions of an oxidase and a reductase. For 20 years these enzymes were considered to be soluble or cytosolic, and it was not until 1968 that we realized that their cellular location was in the fragile, single-membrane-bound peroxisomes (5, 6).

The glycolate pathway part of the C_2 cycle is channeled irreversibly toward glycine and serine formation (2–7, 11). Enzymatic reactions by Rubisco and P-glycolate phosphatase in the chloroplast, glycolate oxidase and glyoxylate:glutamate aminotransferase in peroxisomes and glycine decarboxylase in

mitochondria are physiologically irreversible, consecutive reactions that start carbon flow around the C₂ cycle. The glycolate pathway only occurs in light because ATP and NADPH are needed to regenerate RuBP for the C₂ and C₃ cycles. When continuing around the C₂ cycle, serine hydroxymethyltransferase in mitochondria converts two glycines to one serine, NH₃, NADH, and a CO₂. An aminotransferase in peroxisomes converts the serine into hydroxypyruvate, which is reduced to glycerate. I consider these reactions as a reversible, glycerate pathway that can occur in light or darkness. ¹⁴C metabolic studies with WA Wood showed that 3-carbon serine or glycerate were condensed to a 6-carbon hexose and ended up in sucrose. Because glycerate kinase is in chloroplasts, we assumed that the 3-P-glycerate entered that pool shared with the C₃ cycle. If you think the C₂ cycle is complex, so does everyone else, and at about this point many elect to disregard further the complete C₂ cycle. To consider the whole cycle, one needs to add: (a) regeneration of RuBP from 3-P-glycerate or from refixing CO₂ or from storage carbohydrate via the pentose phosphate pathway (a part of the C₃ cycle); (b) refixation of NH₃ in the chloroplast; (c) an aspartate:malate shuttle for balancing reducing equivalents among cell compartments; and (d) a glycolate/H⁺ and/or glycolate/glycerate exchange, the triose phosphate shuttle, and glutamate transport for movement across chloroplast membranes.

Step-wise details of the glycolate pathway part of the C₂ cycle were elaborated in the 1950s and 1960s with B Rabson, E Jimenez, P Kearney, F Snyder, K Richardson, J Hess, G Orth, W Bruin, WT Chang, and A Baker. Reactions in the leaf peroxisomes and other organelles were first investigated in the 1970s with A Oeser, C Scharrenberger, T Kasaki, W Chang, D Rehfeld, R Yamasaki, R Gee, P Gruber, S Federick, Y Nakamura, J Hanks, and B Ho. Generally, each person concentrated on one phenomenon or step of the C₂ cycle by isolating and characterizing enzymes involved. For example, the properties and physiological role of P-glycolate phosphatase and P-glycerate phosphatase were investigated in the 1960s and 1970s with P Kearney, K Richardson, Y Yu, D Anderson, D Randall, J Christeller, and D Husic.

Rubisco: Phosphoglycolate and Glycolate Biosynthesis

Regulation of one enzyme for one reaction can be complicated, but regulation at a metabolic branch point by an enzyme with dual activities, as Rubisco, is indeed complex. Rubisco has a binding site for RuBP and for an activating CO₂ but has no known binding site for its other substrates, CO₂ and O₂. Thus catalysis is very slow and dependent on CO₂ and O₂ concentrations in the chloroplast. Our emphasis has been on understanding glycolate biosynthesis

and metabolism, which developed into the C_2 cycle and then later into regulation of photosynthetic carbon metabolism relative to the CO_2 to O_2 ratio. More recent topics have dealt with increasing the CO_2 to O_2 ratio from the atmosphere by C_4 plants and the algal CO_2 and HCO_3^- pumps.

In my lab, the 1970s was a decade of productive research on Rubisco and on peroxisomes with funds from NSF and NIH. Properties and regulation of Rubisco were studied with G Lorimer, J Andrews, J Pierce, C Peach, F Ryan, S McCurry, N Hall, R Gee, R Houtz, RM Mulligan, K Cook, and others (2, 3, 5–7, 11). The oxygenase activity of Rubisco in vivo has been underestimated by [^{14}C] glycolate formation during $^{14}CO_2$ fixation or by O_2 uptake. Because of O_2 competition, the carboxylase $K_m(CO_2)$ increases from $\sim 12 \mu M$ CO_2 in nitrogen to 26–42 μM CO_2 in air (21% O_2). V_{max} with high CO_2 and air does not change, but high enough CO_2 concentrations (perhaps 1000–1500 ppm) for V_{max} are not available in vivo except in C_4 plants or algae with activated DIC pumps. Thus, in vivo activity of the carboxylase in a C_3 plant is decreased by the O_2 level in air. Likewise, CO_2 inhibits the oxygenase activity of activated Rubisco, but exclusion of CO_2 from oxygenase assays is hard or impossible to do. Activation of both activities of Rubisco requires a high activating CO_2 concentration of 27 μM CO_2 , yet this much CO_2 inhibits the oxygenase. If CO_2 is removed to measure the oxygenase, the enzyme inactivates. DB Jordan & WL Ogren devised an isotopic (^{14}C and ^{32}P) procedure for simultaneous chromatographic measurement of 3-PGA and P-glycolate, and from them calculated the K_m and V_{max} and a substrate specificity factor to compare Rubisco from various sources. The factor is approximately 80 for Rubisco from C_3 and C_4 plants, 60 for unicellular green algae, and from ~ 48 to 9 for photosynthetic bacteria. CO_2 activation of Rubisco is not competitive with O_2 , because the activating CO_2 forms a HCO_3^- lysine complex to structure the active site. There is little conjecture on Rubisco inactivation in vivo at low CO_2 . With increasing CO_2 concentration, the oxygenase activity of Rubisco will be more fully activated, and the storage carbohydrates can be photo-oxidized by the C_2 cycle at high O_2 levels. On the other hand, at low CO_2 concentration of the CO_2 Γ of a C_3 plant, both activities of Rubisco may be low, because the enzyme may not be fully CO_2 activated. Fixation of HCO_3^- by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) is not O_2 sensitive and seems to account for much of the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) fixation even by C_3 plants, because the CO_2 to O_2 ratio decreases at either the CO_2 or O_2 Γ s.

Voluminous literature over the past 50 years on photorespiration and photosynthetic carbon metabolism contains proposed systems for glycolate synthesis and metabolism and energy balances. Only the oxygenase of Rubisco accounts for all known facts about glycolate synthesis and photorespiration.

An early concern was rapid formation of uniformly [¹⁴C] glycolate during ¹⁴CO₂ fixation in light. This led to proposals for an alternate CO₂ fixation pathway involving condensation of two CO₂. Because amounts of glycolate were not generally measured, it was not emphasized that S.A. of glycolate was much less (<25%) than S.A. of ¹⁴CO₂. In addition, [¹⁴C] glycolate was labeled with ¹⁴CO₂ slower than intermediates of the C₃ cycle. Later we showed that glycolate is formed photosynthetically in light, even in absence of ¹⁴CO₂, and of course, the S.A. had dropped to zero. Thus, glycolate synthesis is a photo-synthetic, light-dependent photo-oxidation of carbohydrates, whether RuBP comes from newly fixed ¹⁴CO₂ in the C₃ cycle or from storage reserves. Carbons 1 and 2 of RuBP are uniformly labeled during ¹⁴CO₂ fixation and form uniformly labeled [¹⁴C]P-glycolate when RuBP is oxidized by the oxygenase. Calvin's group labeled the first major ¹⁴C product on their paper chromatograms as PGA, which can stand for and contained 3-P-glyceric acid and 2-P-glycolic acid. My contribution to that era in Calvin's lab was made the first week I got there in 1950. These chemists were trying to acid hydrolyze ¹⁴C-labeled phosphate esters from their chromatograms, but this produced too much salt for rechromatography. As a biochemist, I suggested hydrolysis by a pinch of phosphatase, Polidase S.

A second major requirement for glycolate synthesis during photosynthesis is that one O₂ is incorporated into its carboxyl group, which, in turn, leads to carboxyl ¹⁸O-labeled glycine and serine. P-glycolate synthesis by Rubisco is enhanced with higher oxygen or with decreasing CO₂ concentrations. *K_m*(O₂) for the oxygenase activity of Rubisco has been reported between 260 and 400 μM, or about the O₂ level in aerated water. CO₂ to O₂ ratio becomes the governing factor for the amount of glycolate synthesis relative to net CO₂ fixation.

Papers in the 1960s also proposed glycolate synthesis by peroxidation of carbohydrates formed during photosynthesis. Specifically, transketolase in the C₃ cycle transfers the top two carbon atoms of sedoheptulose-7-P or xylulose-5-P to its cofactor, thiamine pyrophosphate, to form a C₂ complex, which can be nonenzymatically oxidized by H₂O₂ to form glycolate. This reaction, however, would not incorporate ¹⁸O₂ into the carboxy group nor form P-glycolate. In 1965, an NIH sabbatical fellowship took me to Freiburg, Germany, with H Holzer, an expert on transketolase in yeast. Angelica Oser assisted me in countless Warburg measurements of O₂ uptake by isolated spinach chloroplasts. We found much O₂ uptake without a time lag, upon adding P-glycolate or glycolate. She continued on this puzzle at Michigan until we heard C de Duve and H Beever lecture on peroxisomes and realized that our chloroplast preparations were contaminated with peroxisomes. The transketolase hypothe-

sis was dropped, and we became experts on leaf peroxisomes. My associates for 30 years afterward know that I never ceased to wonder how chloroplasts could oxidize P-glycolate as fast as glycolate without a time lag to hydrolyze it to glycolate. Never ignore data. The explanation may be in our recent paper (1) on an alternate system in chloroplasts, which oxidizes either P-glycolate or glycolate.

O₂ and CO₂ Compensation Points

By decreasing the CO₂ concentration while the O₂ level remained constant at 21%, J Decker in the 1950s found that at about 50 ppm CO₂, net CO₂ uptake by C₃ plants had declined to zero. This has been called the CO₂ Γ in 21% O₂. At lower CO₂ levels in light there was CO₂ evolution, which became greater than dark respiration, and the C₃ plants senesced. The CO₂ Γ increases with increasing O₂ concentrations (10). With a given level of O₂, there is a lowest concentration of CO₂ at which net photosynthetic CO₂ exchange is zero, and with even lower CO₂ or higher O₂, net CO₂ evolution occurs. In a simplification, the CO₂ Γ has been considered as the CO₂ concentration with a given level of O₂, when CO₂ evolution from the C₂ cycle equals the rate of CO₂ fixation by the C₃ cycle. Historically, the CO₂ Γ became well known in the 1960s from an unsuccessful search for C₄-like varieties of C₃ wheat and soybean plants in closed, survival chambers with C₄ corn plants. With funds from Union Carbide (D Manning), W Smith and HS Ku with us likewise surveyed unsuccessfully hundreds of compounds with C₃ plants for altering the CO₂ Γ to see if they differentially effected the dual activities of Rubisco (notebooks of unpublished data). After that failure we became involved with processes to alter the CO₂ to O₂ ratio and thus the C₂ and C₃ cycles.

The immense O₂ level in air does not significantly vary, but small changes in the very low CO₂ level would alter the CO₂ to O₂ ratio and should change Rubisco reactions. Since O₂ diffuses extremely rapidly out of the leaf, O₂ exclusion does not appear to exist except for the thick-walled bundle sheath cells of C₄ plants that separate Rubisco inside from O₂ generated in the chloroplasts of the mesophyll cells. Four processes are known to change the CO₂ concentration around Rubisco. These are the C₄ cycle in C₄ and CAM plants, algal DIC concentrating processes, altering atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, and carbonic anhydrase in the chloroplast to accelerate HCO₃⁻ conversion to CO₂. The algal CO₂ or HCO₃⁻ pumps appear to directly import DIC, and although less is known about them, they should be simpler than the C₄ cycle. The algal DIC pumps use photosynthetic energy and are suppressed by high CO₂. Our group in this area has included J Moroney, D Husic, DW

Husic, A Goyal, Y Shiraiwa, J Thielman, S Dietrick, R Togasaki, and B Wilson.

The CO₂ Γ of C₄ plants is ~2 ppm CO₂. By concentrating CO₂ and partially excluding O₂ from bundle sheath cells of C₄ plants, the oxygenase activity of Rubisco is suppressed. Furthermore, C₄ plants initially fix HCO₃⁻ by PEPC, which has a much lower $K_m(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ than the $K_m(\text{CO}_2)$ for Rubisco. In addition, at pH > 8, there is at least a 100-fold higher concentration of HCO₃⁻ than CO₂. Important, but unrecognized earlier, is that HCO₃⁻ fixation by PEPC is not inhibited by O₂! No wonder C₄ plants are more CO₂ efficient at low CO₂ or high O₂. Part of photosynthetic energy used by the C₂ cycle in C₃ plants is used for the C₄ cycle. An ecologically exciting part of this C₄ story (9) is that as long as atmospheric CO₂ level remains less than ~380 ppm CO₂, the C₄ plant has been more CO₂ efficient than C₃ plants. However, above ~380 ppm CO₂, the C₄ plant is nearly light saturated and does not further increase its rate of CO₂ fixation with more CO₂, because it must use energy for its CO₂ pump to get CO₂ to Rubisco in the bundle sheath cells. At ~380 ppm CO₂, C₃ and C₄ plants are about equal in photosynthetic efficiency for CO₂ fixation. As CO₂ continues to rise, C₃ plants will increase their CO₂ fixation rate with the excess energy that they no longer use on the C₂ cycle, and become more efficient than C₄ plants. This change has occurred in a geological moment of one century, as CO₂ level has increased from 280 to 380 ppm. From now on with further increases in CO₂, the C₃ plant should be photosynthetically superior to a C₄ plant.

With all the work over 35 years on C₄ plants and CO₂ Γ and realization that Rubisco and the C₂ cycle involved O₂ uptake, you can ask what the reasons were that no one found an O₂ Γ to match a CO₂ Γ . After all, Rubisco is both a carboxylase and an oxygenase. First, we have all considered photosynthesis as only CO₂ fixation. To do an experiment to measure the O₂ Γ , the CO₂ concentration must be held constant, and small changes in the high O₂ concentration must be measured over long periods. This is technically difficult and requires an O₂ leak-proof chamber. Second, when the CO₂ level is held constant at 220 or 350 ppm, rates of CO₂ fixation are reduced between 5% O₂ up to 100% O₂, but are never completely inhibited. To repeat: because of O₂ inhibition, rate of net CO₂ fixation and O₂ evolution decreases with increasing O₂, but not to a zero rate of CO₂ fixation. Investigators of ¹⁸O₂/¹⁶O₂ exchange likewise either used low O₂ or found increasing O₂ exchange with increasing O₂ or decreasing CO₂, but never zero CO₂ fixation. Thus, it was implied that there was no photosynthetic compensation point at high O₂. Wrong! Although there is no CO₂ Γ with higher O₂, there is an O₂ Γ based on zero net O₂ change (10), which also limits net photosynthesis and plant growth just as much as the CO₂

Γ at low CO_2 . The O_2 Γ may be thought of as that O_2 concentration when the rate of O_2 evolution has decreased to the rate of O_2 uptake in a given CO_2 concentration.

I was honored by a Senior Scientist award from the German Humbolt Foundation. First, I spent six months with H Senger at the University of Marburg examining with J Thielman the DIC pump in *Scenedesmus*. Then at the University of Bayreuth, with Erwin Beck, we pondered why there was no O_2 Γ for plants. A photosynthetic chamber was built with controls for light, temperature, and CO_2 and O_2 concentrations. While holding CO_2 constant, the rate of O_2 change was measured at different O_2 concentrations from 2 to 90% with young tobacco or spinach plants. With increasing O_2 , net rate of CO_2 fixation and of O_2 evolution decreased as expected from O_2 inhibition. With 220 ppm CO_2 , the O_2 evolution had decreased to zero at 23% O_2 or with 350 ppm CO_2 at 27% O_2 (10). These are the O_2 Γ s, when net rate of O_2 exchange at a fixed CO_2 level and temperature is zero. Nevertheless, at the O_2 Γ , the rate of CO_2 fixation had only fallen ~60% because of O_2 inhibition, although O_2 evolution had fallen 100%. With O_2 levels over the O_2 Γ , net O_2 uptake occurred (no O_2 evolution), and at 30 to 40%, O_2 rates of O_2 uptake increased to rates nearly equal to CO_2 uptake at low O_2 . At first, one might say "impossible if photosynthesis is occurring." This were as if at low O_2 and/or sufficient CO_2 , CO_2 fixation was the acceptor of the photosynthetic energy, but at high O_2 over the O_2 Γ , O_2 was the sole acceptor of photosynthetic energy. Above the O_2 Γ , plants slowly senesced. Our first conclusion is that an O_2 Γ exists and limits plant growth not far above present 21% O_2 with past low levels of CO_2 . At a low CO_2 to high O_2 ratio, O_2 fixation by Rubisco functions as the alternate electron acceptor during photosynthesis rather than CO_2 . GC-MS analysis of the products in tobacco leaves after several hours in high O_2 over the O_2 Γ found a big increase in malate. So E Beck and I proposed that increasing O_2 inhibition of the carboxylase of Rubisco reached a point where net photosynthesis, when measured as O_2 evolution, reached zero. Continued fixation of CO_2 could be due to O_2 -insensitive, HCO_3^- fixation by the abundant PEPC in C_3 plants. The products, oxaloacetate and malate, are not reduced by the C_3 cycle to carbohydrate with accompanying O_2 evolution. For O_2 evolution by photosynthetic electron transport, NADP reduction must occur and be used for CO_2 reduction by the C_3 cycle. In the absence of enough CO_2 in air or the presence of too much O_2 , net O_2 exchange in the light became O_2 uptake, and the plants senesced. The concept of an O_2 Γ opens up a new field dealing with photosynthetic limitation of the atmospheric O_2 levels, just as the CO_2 Γ limits CO_2 removal. Our research on this is being done after my retirement and without a grant. Unhappiness is at the lack of under-

standing, earlier, of all the physiological aspects of Rubisco and, now, at the lack of financial support for plant physiology research.

Photosynthetic Quotient and Quantum Efficiency

Earlier studies on photosynthesis had decreed a photosynthetic quotient of one CO₂ fixed and one O₂ evolved from photolysis of water. As long as the CO₂ level was high, over ~1500 ppm, and/or the O₂ level low, the oxygenase activity of Rubisco would be suppressed. As the O₂ level increases toward 21% with low CO₂ or surpasses the O₂ Γ , a higher percentage of DIC fixation is for HCO₃⁻ by O₂-insensitive PEPC. Because the complete C₂ cycle results in no net CO₂ or O₂ exchange as long as the O₂ level is below the O₂ Γ (7, 9), the C₂ cycle is normally a Hill process and only reduces the amount, but it does not change the ratio of one CO₂ uptake to one O₂ evolved. However, the quantum efficiency decreases from O₂ inhibition because of consumption of energy by the C₂ cycle. At O₂ levels above the O₂ Γ , which blocks the C₃ cycle, there is continued CO₂ fixation into malate and net O₂ uptake, so the ratio of CO₂ evolution to O₂ uptake becomes meaningless. Past avoidance of these problems is illustrated in a quote by my colleague, N Good, in his prefatory chapter in the *Annual Review of Plant Physiology* (1986, pp. 5–6):

We succeeded by using isotopically labeled oxygen as the substrate for respiration, since the oxygen produced from water by photosynthesis is, of course, unlabeled. The problem was of considerable importance in those days because the great Otto Warburg had decreed that photosynthesis requires an immense uptake of oxygen, reconsuming three quarters of the photosynthetically produced oxygen. We succeeded in showing that Warburg was wrong....I have sometimes been asked how we came to miss the phenomenon of photorespiration since our instrument was ideally suited for detecting it. The simple answer is that we did not miss photorespiration at all. We observed it and adjusted conditions to eliminate it, using low concentrations of oxygen and high concentrations of carbon dioxide. We chose these conditions specifically to avoid a phenomenon that was already well known but irrelevant to our concerns. Photorespiration has been described many years before by Warburg, who called it “photocombustion.”

Warburg was right for air with 21% O₂ and low CO₂. He worked with algae in small closed Warburg flasks in light, which led to rapid accumulation of high O₂, high pH, a low CO₂/O₂ ratio, and domination by the oxygenase activity of Rubisco for P-glycolate synthesis. I prize a letter in 1958 from Warburg congratulating us on discovering glycolate excretion by algae, because “its less reduced state would explain low quantum efficiency of 4.” He then published that up to 80% of CO₂ fixed by *Chlorella* during photosynthe-

sis was glycolate. At the time, I had no explanation for this, but I now can speculate that the glycolate would have come from oxidation of storage carbohydrate by Rubisco and did not represent newly fixed and reduced CO₂. Thus, Warburg calculated a high quantum efficiency on much glycolate formation during low CO₂ fixation or O₂ evolution. These two examples are from past dogma by top scientists in photosynthesis. They did not know about the oxygenase activity of Rubisco nor consider photosynthesis to be both "CO₂ fixation and evolution" as well as "O₂ evolution and O₂ fixation."

Booby Traps with Algae

Much research in photosynthesis has been conveniently done with algae. In order to use small amounts of ¹⁴CO₂ because of expense and radioactivity, cultures were used in small closed flasks. Rapid growth on 2 to 5% CO₂ suppressed the algal CO₂ pump so they were like a C₃ plant. When first put on low CO₂, O₂ accumulated as the CO₂ level dropped, and the CO₂ to O₂ ratio favored the C₂ cycle with glycolate and malate formation. This trapped Warburg and every one else. After I and P Zill published that algae specifically excrete glycolate, T Fogg, other marine biologists, and we visualized a photosynthetic glycolate symbiosis with flora in the ocean. However, in lakes mere traces of glycolate were much lower than expected, as the algae are adapted to low, free CO₂ and do not excrete much glycolate.

Unicellular green algae do not have peroxisomes or glycolate oxidase but rather appear to metabolize glycolate at the slow rate of ~1 μmole • mg Chl⁻¹ • hr⁻¹ by a mitochondrial glycolate dehydrogenase (work done with E Nelson, S Frederick, DW Husic, A Goyal, P Kehlenbeck, N Selph). However, when glycolate metabolism is blocked by an aminotransferase inhibitor (aminoxyacetate) for glyoxylate conversion to glycine, algae excrete at a rate of up to 15 μmole glycolate and some glyoxylate. This high excretion rate, which varies with the CO₂ to O₂ ratio, has been used to indicate the rate of glycolate production. For 20 years we have procrastinated about these data. Either we could not assay the mitochondrial glycolate dehydrogenase or there was another enzyme for oxidizing glycolate. Now we think the latter may be the case (1).

Leaf type peroxisomes are present in the multicellular charophyceae line of algae, which is the only line of algae that evolved into higher plants. In many other unicellular algae, these peroxisomal enzymes appear to be in their mitochondria. The small multicellular *Mougoetia* in the Charophyceae, as well as *Chara* and *Nitella*, have peroxisomes with enzymes for the C₂ cycle (8). Is there some special reason why leaf-type peroxisomes had to be present before higher plants could evolve? Rubisco is in all algae along with much P-glyco-

late phosphatase, as studied with D Husic and D Randall. The $K_m(\text{O}_2)$ for Rubisco oxygenase and for peroxisomal glycolate oxidase is about 260 μM , which is obtained by bubbling water with air, and both activities increase with higher O_2 (8). Thus, leaf type peroxisomes in green algae should not have functioned before the atmospheric O_2 increased (nor plants evolve?).

Before the above was known about algae, I proposed in 1970 a comparison of photorespiration in plants with that in marine algae. Up to that time, most work on glycolate had been done with plants or freshwater algae. NSF funded a three-month study of photorespiration by 20 plant physiologists and algologists aboard the *Alpha Helix* research vessel at Lizard Island on the Great Barrier Reef, before there were many tourists. This was a scientific trip that proved I had been right in not returning to the farm in Idaho. Our papers occupied an issue of *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology*, but we did not find much evidence of photorespiration or glycolate excretion. This resulted in turning my attention to CO_2 -concentrating processes in algae. I need to emphasize how much such field research taught us bench scientists, and how it rewarded us for a lifetime of hard research.

Other topics that were discussed on the Barrier Reef were coral deposits and symbiosis between algae and the polyps for fixed nitrogen, fixed CO_2 (glycerol), and phosphate. CaCO_3 deposits represent immense reservoirs of CO_2 that have formed during algal photosynthesis, just as fossil fuels are reduced carbon deposits. Many algae produce an external carbonic anhydrase to accelerate the conversion of HCO_3^- to CO_2 plus OH^- . As the CO_2 is fixed, the OH^- titrates a second HCO_3^- to $\text{CO}_3^{=}$, which forms insoluble salts (8). In an unbuffered culture of green algae in the light with NaHCO_3 , the pH quickly rises to 8.5 to 9, and CO_2 fixation stops. When the pH is high, the CO_2 concentration is low and the algae turn to O_2 fixation with the excretion of glycolate, which acid ($\text{P}k_a$ of 3.8) might neutralize some of the HCO_3^- and $\text{CO}_3^{=}$. Carbonate deposits during photosynthesis are a sink for atmospheric CO_2 , but these topics have not been pursued vigorously, and funds for work like our Great Barrier Reef trip are sadly not now in vogue.

What If? Is Photorespiration the Best Term?

I tell this story to emphasize that Rubisco is both an oxygenase and a carboxylase and that O_2 and CO_2 fixation coexist. Remember that compounds of the C_2 cycle are not labeled by $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ as fast as in the C_3 cycle, and that $^{18}\text{O}_2$ labels the C_2 cycle but not the C_3 cycle. In 1940, Ruben used radioactive $^{11}\text{CO}_2$ and Calvin and colleagues from 1946 on used $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ to find the first products of photosynthetic CO_2 fixation. About 20 years later, G Lorimer, J Andrews, and I, using $^{18}\text{O}_2$ with GC-MS analyses, examined the first products

of $^{18}\text{O}_2$ fixation (P-glycolate, glycolate, glycine, and serine) as expected from the C_2 cycle. Now just suppose that Calvin's group could have used a radioactive isotope of oxygen or that my major professor, RH Burris, who had a home-made mass spectrometer at that time for ^{15}N analyses, had used $^{18}\text{O}_2$. The C_2 cycle might have been discovered first and be the photosynthetic carbon cycle. This story is not a criticism, Dr. Burris, just a lament. One reason the reverse did not happen was that during the preceding 150 years, photosynthesis was conceptually CO_2 fixation, and no one conceived of O_2 fixation. After all, photosynthesis evolves O_2 , and measurements of net O_2 uptake in the light never occurred until now (10). Terms such as photodecomposition by O Warburg and photorespiration by J Decker, G Krotkov, W Jackson and R Volk, M Gibbs, I Zelitch, W Ogren, B Osmond, myself, and others were not considered as photosynthesis. $^{18}\text{O}_2/^{16}\text{O}_2$ exchange and O_2 as an energy acceptor was considered photorespiration and as a wasteful, protective mechanism when CO_2 was low. Photosynthesis was by dogma only O_2 evolution but not O_2 fixation. We must recognize that during photosynthesis, CO_2 and O_2 are both fixed and evolved (Figure 1) to arrive at net gas exchanges. Old dogma obscured CO_2 and O_2 exchange by the dual reactions of Rubisco. ^{14}C -labeling and analyses of the components of the C_2 cycle greatly underestimated their amount (especially from unlabeled storage carbohydrate). The term photorespiration implies distinct processes for O_2 uptake and CO_2 evolution that are masked by refixation of CO_2 and O_2 evolution. Calculations that were made of the energy consumed by photorespiration were based on the glycolate pathway, but not on the complete C_2 cycle. Total energy consumed should have included RuBP oxidation by the glycolate pathway followed by CO_2 refixation and resynthesis of RuBP. Both C_2 and C_3 cycles require regeneration of RuBP by reactions of the C_3 cycle for continued cycling (Figure 1). The energy used for resynthesis of RuBP is a major cost of either cycle. In a complete turn of the C_2 cycle, there is as much O_2 uptake as O_2 evolution and as much CO_2 evolution as CO_2 refixation. This is the case normally when there is sufficient CO_2 for net CO_2 fixation and O_2 evolution. In a closed box when the CO_2 concentration is less than the CO_2 Γ , there is net CO_2 evolution, or when O_2 is higher than the O_2 Γ , there is net O_2 uptake in the light from oxidation of the carbohydrate reserve. Then the C_3 cycle is blocked, and O_2 fixation is an alternate energy consumer to CO_2 assimilation.

If the term photorespiration has been confusing to others, it has also misled investigators. I have used photorespiration as a crutch to refer to several related processes (1, 5, 8, 9, 11). It has been used for glycolate biosynthesis, glycolate pathway, peroxisomal respiration, C_2 oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle, O_2 inhibition of photosynthesis, $^{18}\text{O}_2/^{16}\text{O}_2$ exchange, and the dark CO_2 burst.

The two processes of photosynthesis and photorespiration have been considered so different that we used two abbreviations for them, PS and PR, and two pools of CO₂ and two of O₂ that change in opposite manner. These facts miss the purpose and function of the C₂ cycle and the reason Rubisco is an oxygenase. Let us develop the realization that the oxygenase activity of Rubisco and the subsequent C₂ cycle are essential and equal parts of photosynthetic carbon metabolism as the CO₂ decreases or the O₂ increases. The combination of the C₂ and C₃ cycles provides a check and balance on net photosynthesis and atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ and O₂. Photosynthetic carbon metabolism has its own Hill process or alternate electron acceptor in O₂ fixation. Photosynthesis is self-limiting by balancing the atmospheric CO₂ to O₂ ratio within limits set by the specificity of Rubisco. At lower CO₂ or higher O₂ than the Γs, plants cannot grow. We all should be proud to be a part of the plant science community as these concepts evolve. This group includes plant physiologists and photosynthesizers who have investigated CO₂ fixation and the C₃ cycle, and O₂ fixation and the C₂ cycle. Although photosynthetic carbon metabolism, as a section or symposium topic, has disappeared from national biochemistry meetings, it flourishes at plant physiology meetings, International Photosynthetic Congresses, the Gordon Conferences, and other special symposia.

The question I am raising is whether the term “photorespiration” is appropriate to represent the oxygenase activity of Rubisco, because the oxygenase is as much a part of photosynthesis as is the carboxylase activity. It would be more informative to use “O₂ exchange or CO₂ exchange” during photosynthesis. In this chapter, I have also used the term “O₂ fixation” to parallel “CO₂ fixation.” This could be confusing, because normally there is no measurable net O₂ fixation even though O₂ exchange as well as CO₂ exchange is occurring. Emphasis is needed in photosynthetic carbon metabolism that Rubisco is both a carboxylase for CO₂ fixation with O₂ evolution, as well as an oxygenase for O₂ fixation with CO₂ evolution. Both cycles consume photosynthetic energy. We need to comprehend that the two Rubisco reactions together establish a ratio of CO₂ to O₂ in the atmosphere that is based upon its specificity. The CO₂ to O₂ ratio only recently reached an atmospheric equilibrium, with the geological pools. Maintenance of this ratio is a primary result of photosynthetic CO₂ and O₂ exchange. We should not imply that the oxygenase activity of Rubisco is wasteful, unavoidable, undesirable, or a separate process. Instead, for the global CO₂ and O₂ balance, both the C₂ and C₃ cycles coexist and are essential. Understanding this will be difficult for every one—ecologists, geologists, and legislators. However, first scientists like us must agree on these interpretations.

Regulation of Atmospheric CO₂ and O₂ Levels

Plant scientists are not geologists, yet our research is important to environmental regulation. Recognizing this, I asked JCG Walker, a leading geologist, to speak at my retirement symposium on the role of photosynthesis in regulating atmospheric CO₂ and O₂ levels. His paper (in Reference 12) is a superb summary of the global carbon and oxygen cycles. He used photosynthesis to supply the atmosphere with O₂ and to remove CO₂, but he concluded that otherwise photosynthesis has absolutely nothing to do with regulating the CO₂ and O₂ concentration in air. This conclusion indicates a need to understand one another's data. We need to consider the great mass of plants and algae and great differences in the kinetics of enzymatic reactions (seconds), such as Rubisco, versus geological times for nonphotosynthetic changes in the storage pools. Do rapid photosynthetic changes in low CO₂ concentrations alter the atmosphere CO₂ and O₂ ratio on a short time basis, while the nonbiological changes may take centuries? The Mauna Loa data on CO₂ show a short-term decrease in summer of about 15 ppm in atmospheric CO₂, even in the presence of CO₂ replacement from CO₂ pools in the global carbon cycle. This rapid photosynthetic CO₂ depletion must be replaced, otherwise the CO₂ level would quickly decrease to where plants would have little net photosynthesis in 21% O₂. Lowering of CO₂ much below past equilibria levels of 235 ± 45 ppm may not be possible for C₃ plants, because oxygenase of Rubisco would dominate in 21% O₂. The O₂ Γ with lower CO₂ levels, rather than the extremely low CO₂ Γ from PEPC, may be the short-term limiting factor in 21% O₂ for plant growth. Fortunately, now that CO₂ is rising, the oxygenase activity is decreasing relative to the carboxylase. I propose that the short-term CO₂ to O₂ ratio in the atmosphere over decades is set by the O₂ and CO₂ specificity of Rubisco, whereas the large storage reserves of carbon and oxygen more slowly alter these gases over many centuries. In the distant past, as long as there were low O₂ and/or high atmospheric CO₂ to lower the oxygenase of Rubisco, the CO₂ to O₂ equilibrium ratio from its specificity was not reached. Now our grand environmental experiment with increasing CO₂ may have started from a low CO₂ to O₂ equilibrium and is being conducted in the presence of high O₂ and rising temperatures. Considerable thought will be needed to evaluate whether or how fast an increase might occur in the O₂ level toward a higher O₂ Γ .

Photosynthetic investigators have justified their research as the basic process for plant growth for food, fuel, and fiber and O₂ for life. We have also expressed concern about increasing atmospheric CO₂ with an increase in the greenhouse effect. Another dimension with which we have not dealt is regula-

tion of atmospheric O₂ concentration or ratio of CO₂ and O₂. The CO₂ level of the past 165,000 years, as found in the ice cores, has shifted between 190 ppm to 280 ppm. The activity of Rubisco and distribution of C₃ and C₄ plants should have varied within this CO₂ to O₂ range because of changes only in the CO₂ level, as the O₂ concentration probably did not fluctuate very fast. 300 mya, atmospheric O₂ level was about 35%, much higher than today. To reach 35% O₂ as the O₂ Γ, C₃ plants must have ~700 ppm CO₂ (10). As the CO₂ decreased, the O₂ level must have also decreased to 21%. Decreasing CO₂ would have affected the CO₂ and O₂ competition for activities of Rubisco unless the O₂ also decreased to maintain a near constant ratio. C₃ plants cannot live in 300 ppm CO₂ and 35% O₂. This research area becomes a new topic for photosynthetic carbon metabolism, ecology, and geology to understand how the CO₂ and O₂ balance in the atmosphere is maintained by Rubisco.

As I drafted this prefatory chapter, I realized what a small part of this story (even work done by my associates) could be told in this limited length. It will take a lot of work to assemble all the previous papers from the past 80 years on O₂ and CO₂ effects on photosynthesis and plants and put them into perspective. In addition, the data are not all in, and different investigators will certainly continue to disagree on some points. Younger investigators can be excused for not understanding our past turmoil.

Eclectic Research

There are constant temptations to spread one's research program too broadly. Such dilution has been dignified by claims of being a generalist in plant physiology. Our annual national meetings, textbooks, and Annual Reviews promote diversification. Many younger plant scientists do not have a focused plan in research but follow general areas and techniques. The most focused postdoc I had was W Outlaw, who would only work on guard-cell metabolism, although I knew nothing about it. I used much of my time and energy on many other topics besides those discussed in this prefatory chapter on the C₂ cycle. Those other associates were equally competent and appreciated. For the record, I have selected the reason and results of six of these other areas.

1. Research on phosphorylcholine in the 1950s and 1960s was started with H Wiebe under the general Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) theme of using radio isotopes for studies of metabolism. Only one ³²P-labeled phosphate ester had a unique paper chromatographic RF of ~0.9 with 80% phenol-water (it was a Zwitter ion at the pH of phenol) but only ~0.15 with butanol-propionic acid (like other ionized phosphate esters). AA Benson's lab joined us in identifying it, and then B Martin, K Tanaka, and A Golke

studied its metabolism over 10 years. It is an immense, rapidly labeled pool (~20% of the total P) in plants moving in the xylem sap to the leaves, after formation in the roots. It is the only phosphate ester in plants that is transported. Much more needs to be done on its general role in regulating phosphate and lipid metabolism.

2. When searching for the importance of phosphorylcholine, I substituted a chlorine for the phosphate by synthesizing chlorocholine chloride, which was trivialized to CCC or Cycocel. CCC turned out to be an effective plant growth regulator for thick, short-stem wheat, rice, chrysanthemums, and poinsettias (work with S Wittwer). CCC was considered an antigibberellin after H Kende and colleagues found that it blocked GA synthesis, but alas, CCC had no apparent effect on phosphorylcholine metabolism. My bad guess led to a successful commercial product and I joined the Plant Growth Regulatory Society. You never know.
2. During my brief postdoc stay in Calvin's lab in 1950, P Pearson, Chief of the Biology Branch at the AEC, came to the lab looking for an assistant in plant physiology. Because most of Calvin's people were chemists with strong convictions about staying in California, it took but a moment for Calvin to decide that I should go to Washington, DC. That was a complete diversion from studying glycolate metabolism. At first I learned a lot from travel to projects in the USA, AEC labs, and Einewetok. Within two years, I wised up to the fact that giving out dollars was not going to get me much further in science. That was the first and last administrative job I ever took. I adopted the attitude that the perfect scientific environment is to be blessed with supportive, competent, leave-you-alone administrators. One such person, A Hollander, Director of Biology Division at AEC Oak Ridge National Lab, let me return to full-time research in plant physiology, meaning glycolate and sedoheptulose metabolism with P Zill, A Krall, and others. R Rabson, a postdoc with us, did valuable ^{14}C tracer work on the reactions of the glycolate pathway. He later proved me wrong about Washington, DC, by building a highly significant career supervising Department of Energy grants for research on plants.
4. When I was administering plant physiology grants, S Hendricks, at USDA, Beltsville, and R Withrow, at Smithsonian, told me I was too young and rather stupid to have gotten out of research so early. Hendricks found me space and a technician in his lab, and I moonlighted studies on activation of glycolate oxidase in etiolated leaves with his spectrometer for whole plants. The action spectra was the same as photosynthesis—no big surprise even then. However, I was grateful for being kept scientifically alive. These two were experts on light action spectra for phytochrome and seed germination,

and their interest rubbed off on me, as indicated by latter publications with postdocs on seed germination.

5. After publications beginning in 1968 about leaf peroxisomes, I fancied myself a peroxisome biochemist. Michigan State University had established a medical school, and even though I avoided teaching medical students, NIH provided us funds for research on liver peroxisomes (6). Just as we all incorrectly thought that leaf peroxisomal metabolism was just a wasteful process, we also wondered whether peroxisomal respiration in animals, in contrast to mitochondrial respiration, might be controlling body weight. That grabbing hypothesis has not been supported by enough research to be accepted. Peroxisomes from liver, kidney, and elsewhere in the body have glycolate oxidase, and they oxidize long-chain fatty acids as do peroxisomes in germinating fatty seeds. How glycolate is formed in animals is not proven nor is its metabolic function understood. This research deviation from plants probably decreased our productivity in photosynthetic carbon metabolism, but striking similarities between leaf and liver peroxisomes augmented our peroxisomal studies with M Markwell, J Krahling, E McGroarty, R Donaldson, M Redinbaugh, S Furuta, J Uhlig, P Murphy, S Haas, S Vandor, and B Hsieh. Our lab and those of H Beevers and E Newcomb became places for research on plant peroxisomes. One of the most striking comparisons between plant and animal peroxisomes is how acetate from peroxisomal, long-chain fatty acid β oxidation is utilized. Animals form carnitine fatty acyl carrier complexes to move acetate and medium-length fatty acids from peroxisomes to other parts of the cell (work done with L Bieber's group). In the mitochondria, these carnitine derivatives are transferred to CoA and metabolized by the TCA cycle. Plant peroxisomes do not use carnitine as a carrier for fatty acids but rather completely degrade the fatty acid in their peroxisomes to acetyl CoA and condense it with glyoxylate to form malate. When this research on the glyoxylate cycle was initiated by H Beevers, he called peroxisomes by the term glyoxysomes. I followed de Duve's nomenclature for peroxisomes, which he originally discovered. In plants, this difference in nomenclature is not resolved and is confusing to others, so we have sometimes used "leaf peroxisomes" for the C₂ cycle. However, some peroxisomes are in all tissues of plants and animals.
6. I initially got interested in glycerol synthesis from the Great Barrier Reef expedition. Glycerol is an end product, just as is sucrose, of photosynthetic CO₂ fixation by symbiotic algae, zooxanthellae, which excrete it along with some glycolate to feed coral polyps. The triose phosphate shuttle between chloroplasts and cytosol transports the photosynthate, and there is just one

reduction step needed to form glycerol-P from dihydroxyacetone-P (DHAP). I was challenged by remarks from my contemporaries that there was no glycerol-P dehydrogenase in leaves. The secret, which R Gee and G Santora discovered for us, is that the plant enzyme is severely inhibited by trace amounts of any fats, lipids, and detergents in homogenates. A Goyal, RU Byerrum, T Kirsch, and D Gerber joined our project. There are major forms in the cytoplasm, in chloroplast, and in algae. They are very active as DHAP reductases for glycerol-P synthesis at pH 7.5, but nearly inactive as a glycerol-P dehydrogenase even at pH 9.5, so we call them DHAP reductases. A glycerol-P/glycerol metabolic cycle exists in algae for glycerol accumulation, and a longer-term goal would be to put this algal system in plants for stress protection.

Reviews, References

With the proliferation of research, the number of references to a given topic becomes immense. A review seldom can include all references that are pertinent. An excuse to cite mainly your own is to say the number is restricted by the editor. Some particularly important paper(s) of your competitors need to be cited to show modesty and to appease in a grant application. The older literature is generally not cited because those authors are no longer around to review your paper or argue. In fact, by ignoring the older literature you can claim more originality (but also ignorance). Thus, older literature is never adequately covered, and your own work is never given enough credit.

I had thought that after retirement I would keep busy by writing reviews, but that was false thinking. In the first place, there is no inspiration to write reviews if you cannot experimentally test out the new ideas that float to the top. I am grateful to E Beck in Bayreuth, Germany, for doing our experiments on measuring the O_2 Γ , because otherwise I would be less motivated to write about nearly 80 years of work on O_2 inhibition of photosynthesis. Another issue is that it is horrifying how fast one becomes obsolete in research if you stop working on it. Keeping up requires attending meetings, scanning journals, and discussing research every day with active laboratory investigators. If one stops these activities for a year or even a few months, you are completely out, including the writing of reviews. Good reviews cannot be done in the absence of research. If you are a Distinguished Emeritus Professor, you might get away with memoirs without references about once, as in a prefatory chapter.

So then, what do you do with your office files? There is nothing so dear, yet so cold, as old lab notebooks, nothing so nostalgic as one's reprint and card file—but only to you. I have a collection since 1945 of most of the important

reprints on photosynthetic carbon metabolism, peroxisomes, and photorespiration, but it is of little value to others. However, I will hang on to it just as dearly as to life. With this tirade about references, I follow the editor's instructions to maybe cite a few, and, of course, they are all my own.

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This research occurred over a long period of time that was robbed from my family. I am most grateful to them for tolerating my single-minded devotion to it, which remains my only work and hobby. In the first draft of this chapter, I tried to mention names and results of all graduate students, postdocs, and visitors, who did the work. The review was far too long. For each of these associates our paths ran together for a valuable time, and I am forever grateful.

Life hereafter continues in our genes; memory rests in our writings.

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