

## Discrete subcellular localization of membrane-bound ATPase activity in marine angiosperms and marine algae

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**Abstract.** The subcellular distribution of membrane-bound ATPases was compared among terrestrial plants, seagrasses and marine algae by cytochemical techniques. High ATPase activity was detected in the copiously invaginated plasma membrane that was characteristic of transfer cells but not in the tonoplast of epidermal cells in mature leaves of seagrasses. Magnesium- or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent ATPase activity was induced together with the characteristics of transfer cells during the development of leaf tissues able to resist seawater. Northern hybridization revealed the effective induction of the synthesis of mRNA for plasma-membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase during the development of leaves. Such high ATPase activity was not detected in the smooth plasma membranes of marine macro-algae but was found in the membranes of some cytoplasmic vesicles or microvacuoles, providing evidence of the excretion of salts by exocytosis. It appears, therefore, that two essentially different methods for excreting excess salts have developed separately in these two classes of marine plants. The evolution of mechanisms of salt tolerance in the plant kingdom is discussed in terms of the differential subcellular distribution of ATPase activity.

**Key words:**  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase – Marine alga – Ouabain sensitivity – Seagrass – Seawater tolerance – Transfer cell

### Introduction

The ability to tolerate high salinity is one of the most important examples of genetic adaptation in plants. Terrestrial plants have almost entirely lost their tolerance to high salinity and/or their ability to thrive in seawater during the course of their evolution. However, tolerance

mechanisms have evolved anew in some angiosperms, namely seagrasses, and allow such plants to thrive in seawater. Thus, the ability to resist seawater has developed phylogenetically in the plant kingdom, a phenomenon that suggests the presence of highly genetically controlled tolerance mechanisms in these marine plants. It is clearly important to determine whether essential differences exist between the salt-tolerance mechanisms of the two evolutionarily distinct classes of marine algae and marine angiosperms. In addition to advancing studies on various terrestrial halophytes, comparison of the salinity-tolerance mechanisms of these two classes of marine plants may be relevant to attempts at the genetic improvement of resistance in salt-sensitive crops.

Salt-transport systems involving ATPases that are located in cellular membranes are important for a description at the molecular level of the salinity tolerance of plants. It is widely accepted that the various types of ion-pumping ATPase are well conserved among a variety of plants and that tonoplast- and plasma-membrane-bound ATPases have distinct structures (for reviews, see Sze 1985; Nelson 1988). In general, it appears that the former ATPases play more important roles than the latter ones in the restricted salt-tolerance ability of terrestrial plants; when some higher plants are subjected to salt stress, ATPases are often activated in the tonoplast and excess salt is accumulated in the large vacuoles, while the plasma-membrane-bound ATPase activity sometimes decreases (Erdei et al. 1980; Walker and Leigh 1981; Blumwald and Poole 1985; Garbarino and Dupont 1988; Sanchez-Aguayo et al. 1991). However, it has been found, especially in some halophytes, that salt induces enhanced  $\text{H}^+$ -translocation, ATPase activity of the plasma-membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -pump and gene expression of the ATPases (Braun et al. 1986a, b; Niu et al. 1993a). On the other hand, no reports on the subcellular distribution of ATPase activity have been presented for either of these two classes of marine plants, although some ATPases in membrane preparations from several marine algae have been partially characterized (Graves and Gutknecht 1977; Okazaki 1977; Wada et al. 1989; Ikeda et al. 1990).

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Abbreviation: PCR = polymerase chain reaction

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We have found that, in seagrasses, cells isolated from meristematic and immature-leaf tissues that are protected from seawater by tightly enveloping sheaths are more sensitive to salinity, while mature-leaf cells with the morphological characteristics of transfer cells (Jagels 1973, 1983; Birch 1974; Doohan and Newcomb 1976; Barnabas et al. 1977, 1982; Kuo et al. 1988, 1990) are highly resistant to a wide range of osmotic potential and salinity (Arai et al. 1991). Transfer cells of terrestrial plants are highly active in transporting salts and nutrients (for reviews, see Gunning and Pate 1969; Gunning 1977). The highly invaginated plasma membranes of the typical transfer cells are associated with high levels of ATPase activity (Maier and Maier 1972; Bentwood and Cronshaw 1978; Evert et al. 1988; Katz et al. 1988; Parets-Soler et al. 1990; DeWitt et al. 1991; Villaba et al. 1991; Wimmers and Turgeon 1991). Such high invagination of the plasma membrane increases its surface area and, thus, the number of potential pump sites in the plant cell (Wimmers and Turgeon 1991). Hence, the differentiation of transfer-cell-like structures, particularly in the seawater-resistant tissues, suggests that the plasma-membrane-bound ATPases in the epidermal cells of seagrasses are important for the plants to thrive in seawater. On the other hand, no characteristics of transfer cells have ever been observed in marine algal cells, with the exception of the epidermal cells in coralline red algae that function in the accumulation of calcium (Borowitzka and Vesik 1978; Bressan et al. 1981). These observations suggest that there is a primary difference in the mechanisms for salt tolerance of marine algae and seagrasses.

In this report, we describe the discrete subcellular localization of membrane ATPases with particular reference to seagrasses and marine algae. Evolution of salinity-resistance mechanisms is discussed in terms of the subcellular distribution of membrane-bound ATPases in these classes of marine plants and in land plants.

## Materials and methods

**Materials.** *Zostera marina* L. and *Z. japonica* Ascherson were collected at Futtsu in Chiba Prefecture. *Bryopsis* sp., *B. maxima* Okamura, *Ulva arasaki* Chihara, *U. pertusa* Kjellman, *Chaetomorpha crassa* (Agardh) Kuetzing, *Cladophora opaca* Sakai, *Grateloupia filicina* (Wulfen) C. Agardh, and *Eisenia bicyclis* (Kjellman) Setchell were harvested in Tokyo Bay. Samples were kept in the light at 20° C in artificial seawater (Aqua Marine; Yashima Pure Chemical Co. Ltd., Osaka, Japan) or natural seawater. The plants were used for studies within one week of harvest. An established culture of *Porphyra tenera* Kjellman was graciously provided by Dr. S. Araki, Yamamotonori Research Laboratory, Tokyo.

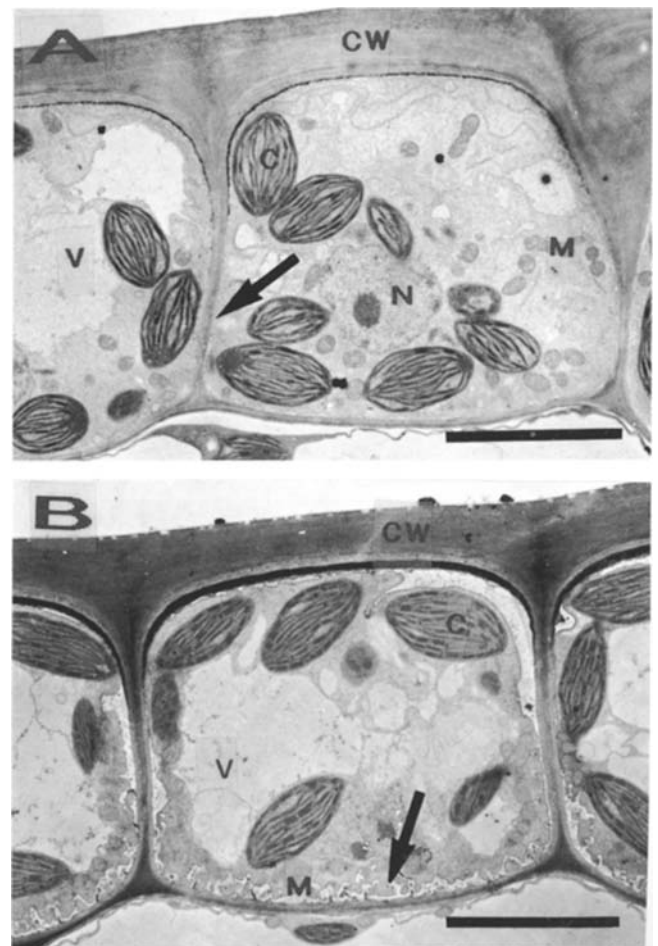
Terrestrial (*Impatiens balsamina* L., *Galium aparine* L., *Statice armeria* L., *Trifolium repens* L., *Cucumis sativas* L. and *Pisum sativum* L.) and limnetic (*Vallisneria spiralis* L.) plants were cultured in a greenhouse.

**Cytochemical detection of ATPases.** For detection of ATPase activity, materials were fixed in 1% (v/v) formaldehyde or 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 50 mM cacodylate buffer, for 1 h at 4° C, and then washed for 1 h at 4° C in the same buffer and for 30 min in 50 mM Tris-malate (pH 7.0). These reagents are known to inhibit the ATPase activity in the mitochondrial membrane but to preserve adequately the enzymatic activities associated with other mem-

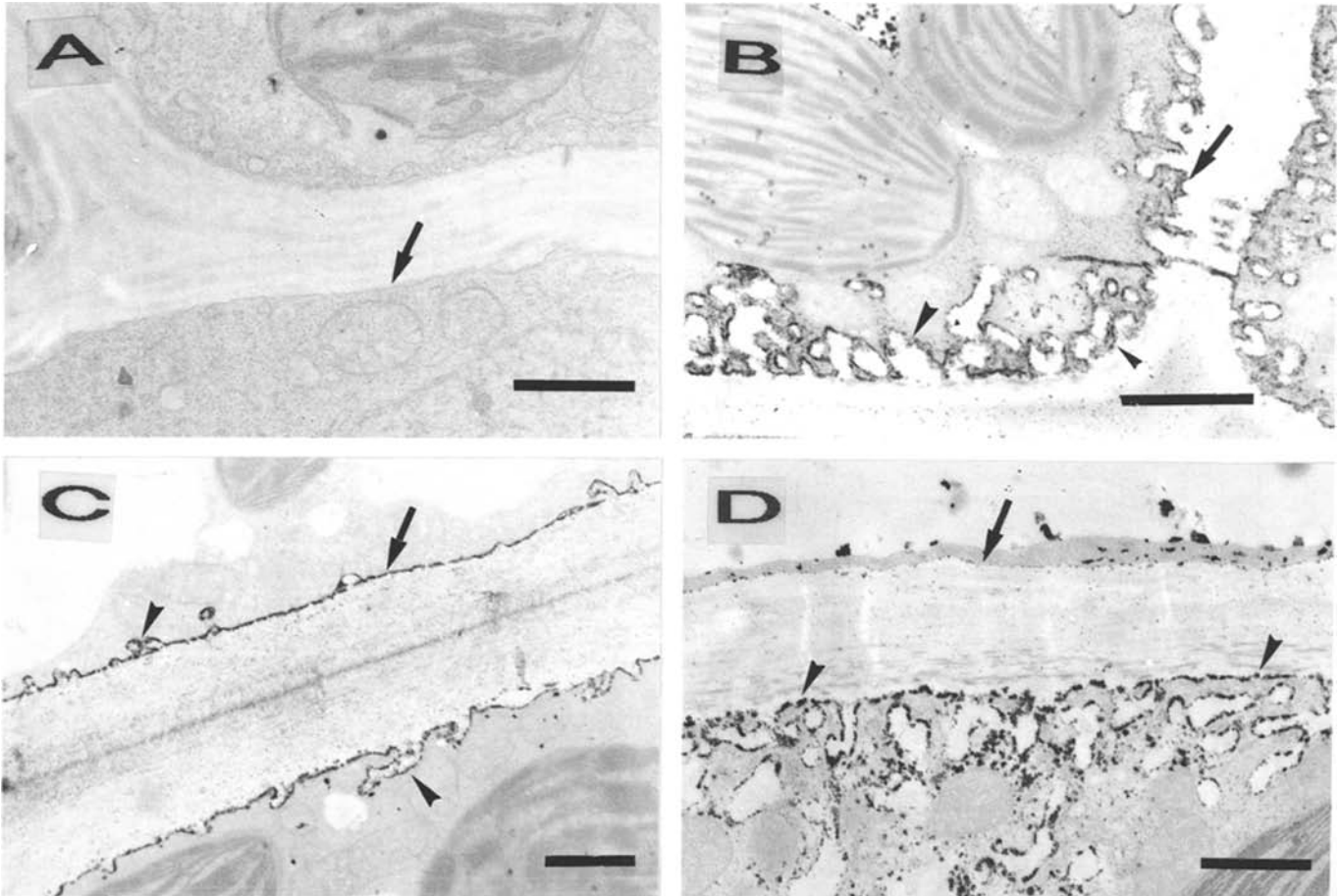
brane systems (Winter-Sluiser et al. 1977; Chauhan et al. 1991). The fixed and washed tissues were placed in an incubation medium with or without 10<sup>-1</sup> mM sodium vanadate, 10<sup>-3</sup> mM ouabain, or 50 mM KNO<sub>3</sub> and were incubated for 2 h at room temperature. Lead precipitation, specific for ATPase activity, was carried out as described by Hall et al. (1980). Although the validity of this procedure itself has often been disputed (Katz et al. 1988; Evert et al. 1988; Chauhan et al. 1991), recent studies by immunolocalization (Parets-Soler et al. 1990; Villaba et al. 1991) and reporter-gene expression (DeWitt et al. 1991) have shown that plasma-membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity is highly concentrated in vascular tissues that contain transfer cells, as suggested by the cytochemical procedure.

Some sections were post-stained with 2% (w/v) uranyl acetate for 15 min. The fixed tissues were dehydrated in a graded acetone or ethanol series, embedded in Spurr's (1969) resin mixture, and sectioned. The sections were observed under an electron microscope (JEOL 100C; Nihon Densi, Co., Tokyo, Japan).

**Northern hybridization.** The radiolabeled probe for hybridization was prepared from pZM7 [which contained a 430-base-pairs (bp), polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-amplified fragment of DNA] with a random-primer labeling kit (Takara, Kyoto, Japan) and  $\alpha$ -[<sup>32</sup>P]dCTP (Amersham, Arlington Heights, Ill., USA). Two oligonucleotides (5'-GAICAGTCTGCTCTIACICG-3' and 5'-GTCC-



**Fig. 1A, B.** Induction of characteristics of transfer cells in epidermal tissues during leaf development of *Zostera marina*. **A** Immature-leaf cells; **B** mature-leaf cells. Note the smooth (**A**) and highly invaginated (**B**) plasma membranes indicated by arrows. *N*, nucleus; *C*, chloroplast; *M*, mitochondria; *CW*, cell wall; *V*, vacuole.  $\times 2300$ ; bars = 10  $\mu$ m



**Fig. 2A–D.** Distribution of ATPase activity in epidermal cells of leaves of *Z. marina*. Post-staining by uranyl acetate was omitted. Plasma membranes are indicated by *arrows* and lead precipitates by *arrowheads*. Bars = 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . **A** Epidermal cells of immature leaves. ATPase activity is undetectable along the smooth plasma membranes ( $\times 16\ 000$ ). **B** Epidermal cells of mature leaves. High ATPase activity is detected along the highly invaginated plasma membranes

( $\times 16\ 000$ ). **C** Epidermal leaf cells just before release of leaves from sheaths. They are in the early stages of the induction of transfer cell-like structures. Both smooth and invaginated plasma membranes are active ( $\times 12\ 000$ ). **D** Parenchymal and epidermal cells of mature leaves. High ATPase activity is found in neither tonoplast nor plasma membrane of the upper parenchymal cell. The lower cell is epidermal ( $\times 14\ 000$ )

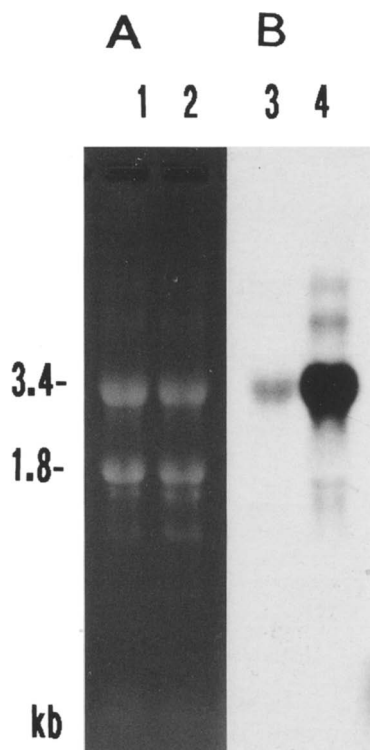
CIGTITGTCACACTICA-3'), designed by reference to consensus amino-acid sequences of the plasma-membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase for higher plants (PQSALTG and CSDKTGT) (Wada et al. 1992), were used as primers for PCR. High-molecular-weight chromosomal DNA that was purified from *Z. marina* leaves by the cetyl trimethylammonium bromide method (Rogers and Bendich 1988) was used as a template for PCR amplification. The nucleotide sequence of the 430-bp fragment of DNA was determined with a Sequenase Ver. 2.0 kit (U.S.A. Biochemical Corp., Cleveland, Ohio, USA). Analysis of nucleotide sequences and the homology search was performed using SDC-GENTYX programs for processing of genetic information (Software Development Co., Tokyo, Japan).

Total RNA was isolated from 5 g of immature or mature leaves of *Z. marina* L. by the acid guanidium-phenol-chloroform method (Chomczynski and Sacchi 1987). Twenty micrograms of isolated RNA was fractionated in a 1.2% (w/v) agarose gel that contained 3-(N-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (Mops) buffer (pH 7.0), 0.66 M formaldehyde and 500  $\text{ng} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$  ethidium bromide. RNA was then transferred to a nylon membrane (Zeta-Probe; BioRad., Richmond, Calif., USA). Hybridization was carried out in hybridization medium (0.25 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2), 1 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA), 7% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA), 1% (v/v) Nonidet P-40 at 65° C for 16 h. The membrane was washed twice with

20 mM sodium-phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) containing 5% SDS at 65° C for 30 min each, and then washed twice again with 20 mM phosphate buffer containing 1% SDS at 65° C for 30 min each.

## Results

*Induction of ATPase activity in epidermal cells with characteristics of transfer cells during development of seagrass leaves.* The meristematic tissues of *Zostera marina*, *Z. japonica* and *Phyllospadix iwatensis* leaves, which are tightly protected from seawater by long leaf sheaths in their basal regions, have no invaginated cell membranes (Arai et al. 1991) (Fig. 1A). The induction of unusual cell structures in the epidermis is found in the zone about 3 cm from the basal meristematic region of leaf blades. The characteristic structures, in particular the copious invagination of the cell membrane, place the cells within the class of transfer cells of terrestrial plants (Fig. 1B). Many mitochondria are localized around the invaginated cell membrane. In leaf-epidermal cells, invaginations of



**Fig. 3A, B.** Expression of the putative gene(s) for a plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase in leaves of *Z. marina*. The hybridization probe was prepared from pZM7 (see text). Samples (20  $\mu$ g) of total RNA isolated from immature leaves (lanes 1, 3) or mature leaves (lanes 2, 4) were analyzed. **A** Agarose-gel electrophoresis; **B** Northern hybridization

the cell membrane are less abundant on the side closest to the cuticle, while on the inner side the cell membrane is highly invaginated.

Because the level of cytochemical detection of ATPase activity by lead precipitation is not very high, enzymatic activity was almost undetectable along the smooth cell membranes of tissues of immature leaves prior to their release from the leaf sheaths (Fig. 2A). However, extremely high ATPase activity in association with the copiously invaginated cell membranes of epidermal tissues was detectable in mature leaves (Fig. 2B). The tonoplast had low levels of ATPase activity in the epidermal cells of both mature and immature leaves. These observations suggest that high ATPase activity is induced exclusively in epidermal cells as the leaves develop the ability to resist seawater. Although the activation of plasma-membrane-bound ATPase and the induction of transfer-cell-like structures appeared to be correlated during leaf development of seagrasses, these two phenomena seem to be regulated independently; both smooth and invaginated plasma membranes were associated with similarly high ATPase activity in one epidermal cell during an early stage in the induction of transfer-cell-like structures (Fig. 2C).

On the other hand, internal parenchymal tissue cells of mature leaves did not have high ATPase activity (Fig. 2D) except sometimes in the tonoplasts of their large vacuoles. Insignificant activity was detectable in the

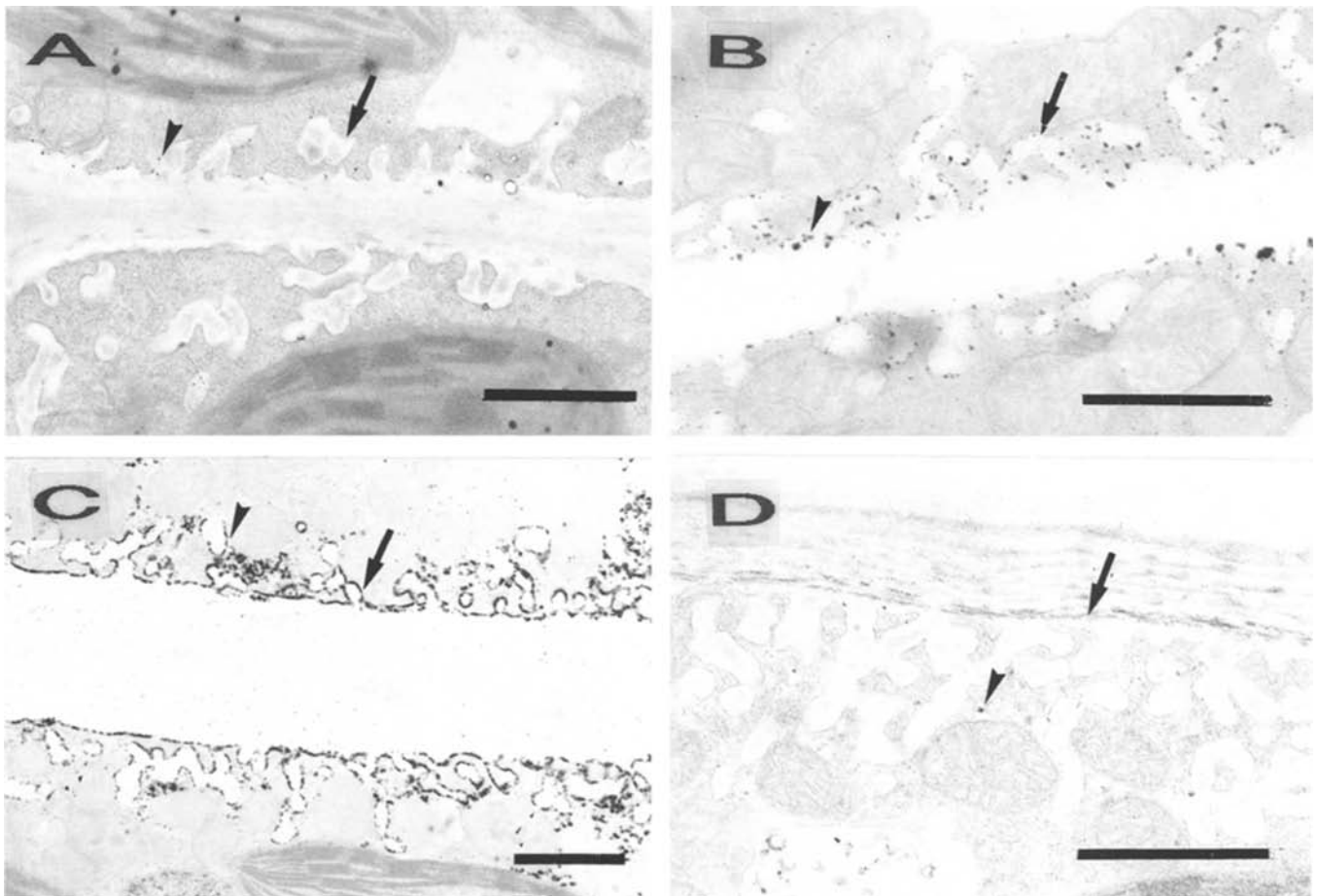
epidermal leaf cells of *Vallisneria spiralis*, a limnetic monocotyledonous plant which has thin leaf blades like seagrasses but no features characteristic of typical transfer cells (not shown).

*Induction of mRNA for plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase in seagrass leaves.* We constructed a probe specific for the gene for the plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase of *Z. marina* using PCR. The probe, pZM7, was designed to contain a 430-bp fragment of this gene. Homologies in terms of nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequence between the 430-bp fragment and the corresponding region of the gene for the plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) (Wada et al. 1992) were 68.7% and 82.5%, respectively.

As shown in Fig. 3 (A, B), putative gene(s) for a plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase in mature-leaf cells was expressed at levels at least ten times higher than in immature-leaf cells. This result is consistent with the observations made by cytochemical methods (Fig. 2A, B). The length of the main mRNA detected by Northern hybridization was estimated to be about 3.4 kb by comparing its mobility with that of 25S rRNA (3.4 kb). The mRNA was similar in length to mRNAs for plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPases in terrestrial higher plants (Boutry et al. 1989; Harper et al. 1989; Ewing et al. 1990; Niu et al. 1993a).

*Specific inhibition of membrane ATPase activity in seagrass cells.* The reaction catalyzed by ATPase in seagrass cell membranes was effectively inhibited by  $10^{-1}$  mM sodium vanadate (Fig. 4A) as is also the case in terrestrial plants (Erdei et al. 1980; Nelson 1988). To our surprise, ouabain, which is a specific inhibitor of animal  $K^+/Na^+$ -ATPases (Jørgensen 1982), considerably reduced the extent of the cytochemical reaction in the fixed seagrass epidermis at  $10^{-3}$  mM (Fig. 4B). The reagent did not inhibit the ATPase activity associated with the tonoplast in seagrass cells. However, the presence of  $K^+$  or  $Na^+$  ions in the reaction medium did not stimulate the ATPase activity of the cell membrane as monitored by the cytochemical procedure.

The ATPase activity in seagrass cell membranes was highly dependent on the presence of 1 mM  $Ca^{2+}$  or  $Mg^{2+}$  in the reaction medium at pH 7–8 (Fig. 4C, D). Cell membranes are a likely target for the toxic effects of high salinity on terrestrial plants and a protective effect of  $Ca^{2+}$  in the presence of excess  $Na^+$  has been observed (Leopold and Willing 1984). In fact, leaf blades of seagrass became brownish in color and most of leaf cells died within several days in 0.5 M NaCl (not shown). This phenomenon could be prevented by the addition of 1 mM  $CaCl_2$  to the medium. Since leaf cells of seagrass remained alive, for several days at least, in a medium that contained 0.5 M sorbitol without  $Ca^{2+}$ , the observed toxic effects on the leaf cells could be attributed to high salinity and not to a lack of  $Ca^{2+}$  in the medium. Thus, cell membranes of seagrasses appear to be essentially as sensitive to high salinity as terrestrial plant cells. However, the toxic effects of high salinity on the seagrass cells could not be protected by  $Mg^{2+}$  (not shown), which can



**Fig. 4A–D.** Inhibition of ATPase activity in plasma membranes of mature leaves of *Z. marina*. Arrows indicate plasma membranes and arrowheads lead precipitates. Post-staining was omitted. For control, see Fig. 2B. Bars = 1  $\mu$ m. A Inhibitory effect of  $10^{-1}$  mM sodi-

um vanadate ( $\times 20\,000$ ). B Inhibitory effect of  $10^{-3}$  mM ouabain ( $\times 25\,000$ ). C Substitution of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  for  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  in the reaction medium ( $\times 15\,000$ ) D Absence of divalent cations in the reaction medium ( $\times 25\,000$ )

be completely substitute for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the reaction medium for membranous ATPases. Anyhow,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in seawater very likely plays an important role in allowing seagrasses to thrive in seawater.

*Differential localization of ATPases in marine algal cells and terrestrial plant cells.* Unlike epidermal cells of seagrass leaves, the cells of the marine green (*Bryopsis* sp., Fig. 5A; *B. maxima*; *Ulva arasaki*; *U. pertusa*, Fig. 5B; *Chaetomorpha crassa*; *Cladophora opaca*), red (*Porphyra tenera*, Fig. 5C; *Grateloupia filicina*) and brown (*Eisenia bicyclis*) macro-algae that we examined had quite low levels of ATPase activity in their plasma membranes. Instead, membranes of some cytoplasmic vesicles and/or tonoplasts of microvacuoles were stained, often somewhat heterogeneously, and some vacuoles were closely associated with each other (Fig. 5A–C). The membrane-bound ATPase activity detectable in various marine algae was insensitive to sodium vanadate and ouabain but it was quite sensitive to  $\text{KNO}_3$ , which inhibits tonoplast-bound ATPases.

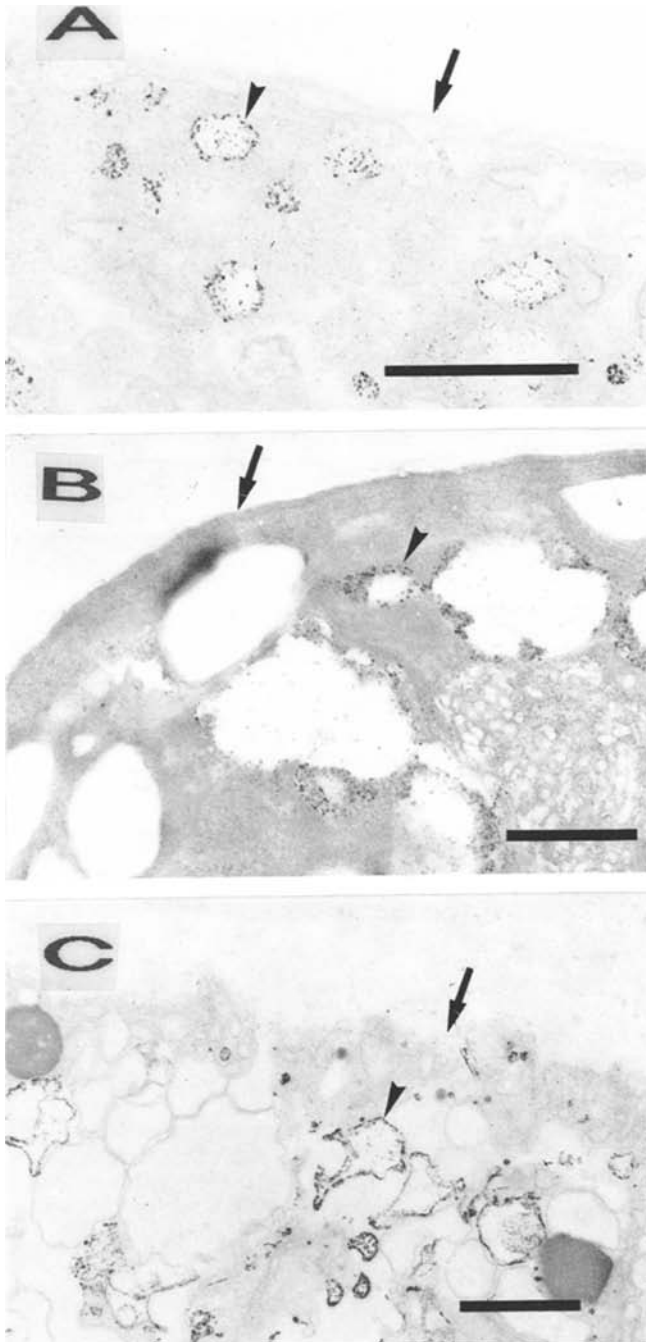
Such high levels of ATPase activity were never found in the epidermal leaf cells of the terrestrial plants (*Impatiens balsamina*, *Galium aparine*, *Statice armeria*, *Trifolium*

*repens*, *Cucumis sativus* and *Pisum sativum*) that we examined by the cytochemical procedure. Enzymatic activity was also undetectable in meristematic tissue cells of these plants. However, in agreement with previous reports (Bentwood and Cronshaw 1978; Hall et al. 1980; Sanchez-Aguayo et al. 1991), considerably high activity was often localized either in the plasma membrane or in the tonoplast depending on the tissues (Fig. 6A, B).

The different subcellular localization of ATPase activity in terrestrial plants, seagrasses and marine algae is related to the importance of each pump type in the primary mechanism for regulating excretion of nutrients and salts and thus, presumably, the salt tolerance of these plant cells.

## Discussion

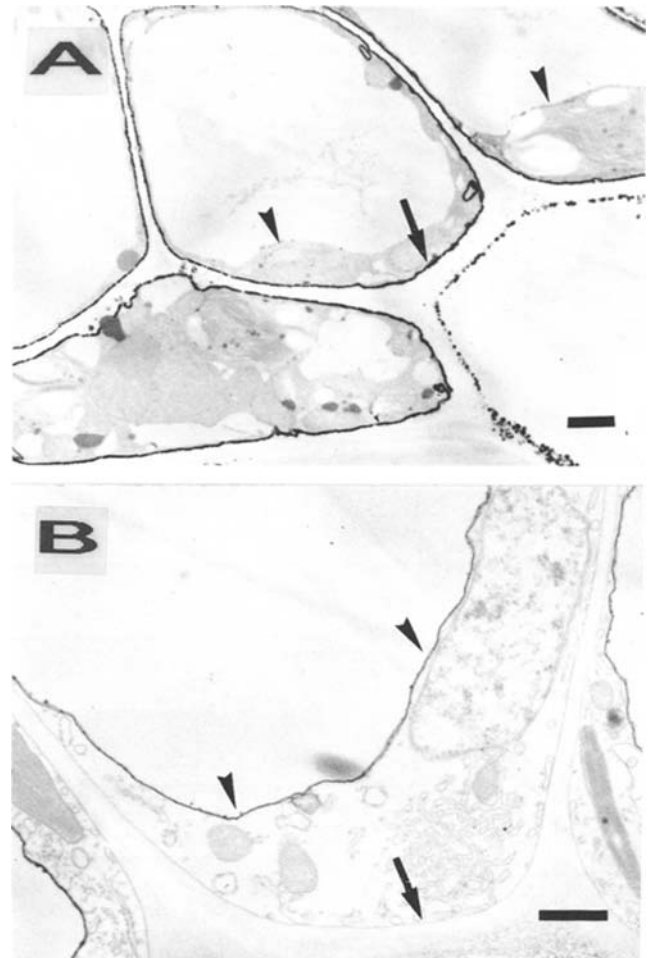
Our cytochemical observations indicate the occurrence of high ATPase activity, very likely responsible for seawater tolerance, in the plasma membrane of seagrass epidermal cells (Fig. 2). In contrast, enzymatic activity was detectable only in the tonoplast of marine algal cells (Fig. 5). The cytochemical procedure was useful for



**Fig. 5A–C.** Distribution of ATPase activity in cells of marine algae. Post-staining was omitted. Bars = 1  $\mu$ m. **A** *Bryopsis* sp. (green alga). No enzymatic activity is detectable along algal plasma membranes. Instead, various types of vesicle can be identified by lead precipitation in the algal cytoplasm ( $\times 25\,000$ ). **B** *Ulva pertusa* (green alga) ( $\times 16\,000$ ). **C** *Porphyra tenera* (red alga). Closely associated vacuoles are visible ( $\times 16\,000$ )

demonstrating the different subcellular localizations of ATPases in these plants. In harmony with the cytochemical observations, Northern hybridization clearly demonstrated high levels of mRNA for plasma membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase in mature seagrass leaves (Fig. 3).

The most significant morphological feature of seawater-resistant epidermal cells of seagrass leaves is the com-



**Fig. 6A, B.** Differential subcellular localization of ATPase activity around vascular tissues (**A**) and parenchymal tissues (**B**) of *Galium asparine* stems. Post-staining was omitted. Plasma membranes are indicated by *arrows* and tonoplasts by *arrowheads*. ATPase activity is detectable either in plasma membranes (**A**) or in tonoplasts (**B**) in the cells of these tissues  $\times 5000$  (**A**),  $\times 8000$  (**B**); bars = 1  $\mu$ m

plex cell membrane, associated with extraordinarily high ATPase activity (Figs. 1, 2). Most of salt-gland cells of various halophytes also have such transfer-cell-like characteristics (for reviews, see Gunning and Pate 1969; Gunning 1977; Lüttge 1971). These observations suggest that transfer cells are utilized for excretion of excess salts from the epidermis of these kinds of salinity-tolerant plants and that the cells are very important if we are to understand the nature and evolution of salinity-tolerance mechanisms in plants.

However, the properties of transfer cells are still scarcely known because typical transfer cells, interspersed along the vascular system of terrestrial plants, are not easily accessible for experimentation. In this regard, the epidermal cells from seagrass leaves are of particular interest; these cells can be isolated in large numbers for direct studies of their properties (Arai et al. 1991). The differentiation of transfer cells in a variety of tissues and organs of terrestrial plants is genetically and physiologically regulated (Pate et al. 1970; Jones and Northcote 1972; Yeung and Peterson 1975; Kramer 1978; Kramer

et al. 1980; Folsom and Cass 1986). Under salt-stress conditions, some transfer cells are induced in the root epidermis of certain terrestrial plants (Kramer 1978; Kramer et al. 1980). Thus, we hypothesize that genetic systems for induction of specialized transfer cells are activated in developing epidermal tissues of seagrasses for development of the ability to tolerate the high salinity and osmolarity of seawater. It will be of interest to determine whether or not the induction of transfer cells in leaves of seagrass is dependent on the presence of seawater.

Transfer cells do not develop in marine macro-algae with the exception of coralline algae (Borowitzka and Vesk 1978; Bressan et al. 1981). Instead, the marine algal cells had numerous cytoplasmic microvacuoles or vesicles with membranes that had rather high ATPase activity (Fig. 5). It is probable that mechanisms for tolerance to salinity involving excretion of excess salts via exocytosis of microvacuoles have evolved effectively in marine algae.

It appears that most terrestrial plant cells develop larger vacuoles and thus lose the ability to excrete salts via the exocytotic membrane-transfer system even if the vacuoles are able to accumulate significant amounts of excess salts. On the other hand, terrestrial plants have developed characteristic vascular systems for translocation of nutrients and salts and thus, in most terrestrial plants, high levels of ATPase activity can be localized in plasma membranes of the vascular tissues and in tonoplasts of other differentiated tissues (Fig. 6).

Thus, plant cells can currently exploit these two primary methods or "strategies" for excreting excess salts and the discrete methods appear to have evolved independently in the two evolutionarily separate groups, seagrasses and marine algae for resisting the high salinity of seawater. It would be a biological paradox if transfer cells, which developed particularly in land plants, helped seagrasses to return to the sea.

The distinct ATPases that marine plants exploit in order to thrive in seawater have not yet been fully characterized because of the extreme difficulty in isolating cellular membranes from these plants. It would be of particular interest to determine whether the plasma-membrane ATPase induced in seawater-resistant seagrasses is distinct from that of terrestrial plants. It has been established that higher plants have no  $K^+/Na^+$ -ATPase that acts as an antiporter across the plasma membrane (for reviews, see Sze 1985; Nelson 1988). Using a cytochemical procedure, however, we found that the high ATPase activity in the cell membrane of seagrass leaf epidermis was quite sensitive to ouabain (Fig. 4B). This reagent is a specific inhibitor of  $K^+/Na^+$ -ATPases, without side effects, in animal cells (Jørgensen 1982) and, as far as we know, there have been no convincing reports of inhibition by this reagent of plant membrane ATPases. However, a probe specific for the mRNA of an animal  $K^+/Na^+$ -ATPase did not detect any such mRNA in seagrass leaf cells (not shown).

The  $H^+$ -translocating ATPase has been widely accepted as the major ion pump in membranes of higher-plant cells. This enzyme is responsible for creating an electrochemical proton gradient which is used for the transport of ions and nutrients that is mediated secondarily

by specific carriers or channels (for reviews, see Sze 1985; Nelson 1988). The remarkably elevated levels of a putative mRNA for plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase during the development of seagrass leaves (Fig. 3) suggest that the  $H^+$ -ATPase is responsible for translocating ions across the invaginated cell membranes of seagrass leaf cells. In roots and old leaves of the halophyte *Atriplex nummularia*, expression of the gene(s) for plasma-membrane  $H^+$ -ATPase is significantly up-regulated with environmental salt (Niu et al. 1993a).

In plasma membrane isolated from most terrestrial plant cells,  $H^+$ -ATPase activity dependent on  $Mg^{2+}$  has been reported to be stimulated by  $K^+$  and to be inhibited effectively by  $Ca^{2+}$  (for reviews, see Sze 1985; Nelson 1988). However, plasma-membrane ATPase activity dependent on both  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  has been demonstrated in some higher-plant cells (Winter-Sluiter et al. 1977; Chauhan and Lar 1980; Blumwald and Poole 1985; Evert et al. 1988; Brüggemann and Janiesch 1989; Sanchez-Aguayo et al. 1991), in particular by lead precipitation at an alkaline pH. No inhibitory effects of  $Ca^{2+}$  were observed also in our cytochemical experiments with the seagrass ATPase (Fig. 4C);  $Ca^{2+}$  could substitute completely for  $Mg^{2+}$  in the reaction medium. We also found a similar effect of  $Ca^{2+}$  on the ATPase activity in transfer cells from some terrestrial plants (not shown).

Thus, the plasma-membrane ATPase responsible for salinity tolerance in seawater-resistant seagrass cells cannot yet be designated as unusual, in spite of the noteworthy substitution of  $Ca^{2+}$  for  $Mg^{2+}$  and the specific inhibition of the enzymatic activity by ouabain in our experiments that involved lead precipitation. These cytochemical results should be re-examined after cloning of all the genes for the cell membrane-bound ATPases together with biochemical characterization using isolated vesicles from the invaginated plasma membranes.

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