the cell. While marginal folds may occur in addition, the structures which we describe here and which we have compared by scanning and transmission electron microscopy are not folds but rather projections with a circular profile in transverse section. It is unlikely that these fingerlike projections function in conjunction with the process of pinocytosis by engulfing plasma as suggested for the marginal folds (1). Although the projections may reflect onto and fuse with the main body of the cell, their cylindrical shape would make them no more efficient than an apposed thumb and forefinger for holding water. On the other hand, the projections could possibly enmesh small chylomicra.

The functions of the endothelial surface projections are not known. Clearly, the projections vastly increase the surface area of endothelial cells and cannot fail to affect fluid dynamics. Their density and the irregular meshwork which they form are such that they could have the effect of producing an eddying flow of cell-free plasma along the surface of the cell body. This possibility is of special interest in relation to large vessels with a high flow such as the pulmonary artery, where nutrient capillaries enter the adentitia and outer media but do not penetrate to the endothelium. A retarded flow of plasma along the surface of the cell could provide conditions of flow and pressure favorable for the exchange of metabolites and, possibly, for the metabolism of circulating hormones.

UNA SMITH JAMES W. RYAN

Department of Medicine, University of Miami, and Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Miami, Florida 33152

DAVID D. MICHIE Division of Thoracic and Cardiovascular Surgery, University of Miami School of Medicine, Miami, Florida 33152 DAVID S. SMITH Department of Medicine,

University of Miami, and Papanicolaou Cancer Research Institute, Miami, Florida 33152

References and Notes

- 1. D. W. Fawcett, The Cell (Saunders, Philadelphia, 1966), p. 394; G. Majno, Handbook of Physiology (American Physiological Society,
- Physiology (American Physiological Society, Washington, D.C., 1965), vol. 3, p. 2293; G. E. Palade, Anat. Rec. 136, 254 (1960).
 Z. J. W. Ryan, J. Roblero, J. M. Stewart, Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 8, 263 (1970); Biochem. J. 110, 795 (1968); —, W. P. Leary, Chest 59, 88 (1971); J. W. Ryan, J. M. Stewart, W. P. Leary, J. G. Ledingham, Biochem. J. 120, 221 (1970); U. Smith and J. W. Ryan, Phar-

3 SEPTEMBER 1971

macol. Res. Commun. 1, 197 (1969); Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 8, 249 (1970a); J. Cell Biol. 47, 196a (1970b); Chest 59, 12S (1971).

- 3. Dogs were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (25 mg per kilogram of body weight) administered intravenously. A portion of the pulmenary artery near the pulmonary valve was removed, immediately dropped into 0.25M glutaraldehyde in 0.05M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 0.17M sucrose, and prepared 1.4) containing 0.1/M sucrose, and prepared for transmission electron microscopy. For scanning electron microscopy, material was transferred from the cacodylate buffer to 1 percent 0.50_4 in the same buffer. The small tissue blocks were frozen in liquid Freon 12 cocled by liquid nitrogen end debudget under cooled by liquid nitrogen and dehydrated under vacuum. The specimens were then attached to glass cover slips with the luminal surface of the endothelium uppermost. The material was shadowed by evaporation of a gold and platinum alloy on the surface and examined in a Philips AMR 900 microscope.
- G. Majno, S. M. Shea, M. Leventhal; J. Cell Biol. 42, 647 (1969).

- 5. D. W. Fawcett, in The Peripheral Blood Vessels, J. L. Orbison and D. E. Smith, Eds. (Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore, 1963), p. 17.
- G. Gabbiani and G. Majno, Z. Zellforsch. Mikrosk. Anat. 97, 111 (1969).
- W. Bloom and D. W. Fawcett, A Textbook of Histology (Saunders, Philadelphia, 1968), p. 358; R. S. Cotran, in Physical Basis of Circula-tory Transport, E. B. Reeve and A. C. Guytory Transport, E. B. Reeve and A. C. Guy-tcn, Eds. (Saunders, Philadelphia, 1967), p. 249. U. Smith and J. W. Ryan, unpublished micrographs.
- 9. Supported by the Florida Heart Association, PHS research grant HE 12843, NSF grant GB-12117X, and the Council for Tobacco Research. We thank Dr. S. B. Moll, Advanced Metals Research, Inc., Burlington, Massachusetts. for taking the scanning electron micrographs, and Research Division, Electron Micro-scopy Laboratory, Veterans Administration Hospital, Miami, Florida, for use of the Hospital, Miami Philips EM 300.
- 12 July 1971

Plasmalemma: The Seat of Dual Mechanisms of Ion Absorption in Chlorella pyrenoidosa

Abstract. Dual mechanisms of absorption of rubidium were demonstrated in a nonvacuolate unicellular alga, Chlorella pyrenoidosa, in both the light and the dark. The two mechanisms were sensitive to metabolic inhibitors. At high concentrations rubidium enhanced the respiration of Chlorella cells. The findings support the conclusion that the mechanisms of rubidium absorption in both the low and high concentration ranges are active processes and reside in the plasmalemma.

Epstein et al. (1) discovered that the rate of ion absorption by plant cells followed two distinct patterns possibly due to two different mechanisms, one operating over a concentration range of the ion up to 1 mM, and the other extending from 1 mM upward. Later, a theory proposed by Laties and his coworkers (2, 3) suggested that the first mechanism is located at the plasmalemma and the second at the tonoplast. It is further held that ions in the high concentration range enter the plasmalemma by diffusion. However, this theory has been questioned by others (4-6) who hold that both mechanisms are located in the plasmalemma and operate in parallel. Welch and Epstein (6) consider that the Laties theory contradicts the classical view of the semipermeability and ion selectivity properties of the plasma membrane.

Dual patterns of absorption have been recorded for a number of ions in tissues of several higher plants (4, 7)and for carbohydrate in microorganisms (8). Studies made so far with Chlorella pyrenoidosa relate to the membrane potentials and the kinetics of potassium influx (9, 10). Dual patterns of rubidium absorption in C. pyrenoidosa are reported here. It is further demonstrated that both mechanisms reside in the plasmalemma and that absorption of rubidium in the high concentration range (1 to 50 mM) is metabolically mediated.

The alga C. pyrenoidosa was grown in aerated nutrient culture (11) at 20°C, under 5000 lu/m² of fluorescent light. The cells were washed thrice with deionized distilled water before use. The procedures for incubation and measurement of ion absorption were those

Table 1. Effects of metabolic inhibitors on rubidium absorption by Chlorella cells from 0.2 and 10 mM RbCl in the light and the dark. The inhibitors $(10^{-6}M)$ were presented along with RbCl. Values are means \pm standard errors of the means.

	Rubidium absorption (nmole/mg per hour)			
Treatment	0.2 mM RbCl		10 mM RbCl	
	Light	Dark	Light	Dark
Control Antimycin A <i>m</i> -ClCCP <i>p</i> -CF ₃ OCCP	$\begin{array}{c} 25.5 \pm 0.4 \\ 12.7 \pm .8 \\ 21.2 \pm 1.2 \\ 21.5 \pm 0.6 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrr} 9.5 \pm 0.1 \\ 2.5 \pm & .3 \\ 7.6 \pm & .6 \\ 7.9 \pm & .7 \end{array}$	37.0 ± 2.8 28.8 ± 1.2 29.8 ± 1.1 30.1 ± 1.8	$\begin{array}{r} 23.1 \pm 0.9 \\ 8.0 \pm .9 \\ 15.3 \pm .1 \\ 14.5 \pm .1 \end{array}$

reported for isolated leaf cells (12). The absorption medium contained 50 mg dry weight equivalent of cells per 50 and 25 ml, in the low (0.01 to 0.5 mM) and high (1 to 50 mM) concentration ranges, respectively, and ⁸⁶RbCl. The flasks containing the experimental solution were shaken in a reciprocating water bath at $20^{\circ} \pm 2^{\circ}$ C. At the end of the absorption period, the cells were rapidly centrifuged and washed thrice with equimolar unlabeled RbCl at 5°C, and air-dried triplicate samples were radioassayed. The pH of the experimental solution ranged from 6.5 to 7. All experimental solutions contained 0.1 mM CaCl₂. For experiments in which the effects of metabolic inhibitors were studied, the inhibitors were presented along with RbCl.

Efflux studies were carried out by first allowing the cells (500 mg dry weight equivalent) to absorb from 250 ml of 0.2 or 10 mM ⁸⁶RbCl for 4 hours under light. The cells were rapidly centrifuged and resuspended in unlabeled RbCl. Portions (10 ml) of the suspension were centrifuged, and the radioactivity retained in the cells was measured. The suspensions were vigorTable 2. Effects of different concentrations of RbCl on the respiration of *Chlorella* cells. Respiration was measured manometrically in Warburg flasks, containing 50 mg dry weight equivalent of cells, over a period of 3 hours. Values are means \pm standard errors of the means.

RbCl concen-	Respiration $(\mu l \text{ of } O_2 \text{ per 50 mg of cells})$			
(mM)	1 hour	2 hours	3 hours	
Control	43.4 ± 2.3	74.1 ± 5.8	105.8 ± 4.7	
0.1	42.7 ± 0.6	73.1 ± 0.8	103.8 ± 1.3	
0.5	44.8 ± 2.2	79.9 ± 1.9	113.0 ± 1.8	
10.0	44.4 ± 2.2	87.7 ± 4.9	125.7 ± 5.8	
30.0	45.6 ± 2.3	93.3 ± 1.7	130.3 ± 2.1	

ously aerated during the absorption and efflux.

Respiration of *Chlorella* cells was measured manometrically in Warburg flasks, each of which contained 50 mg dry weight equivalent of cells, and RbCl as a variable, in a final volume of 4.4 ml.

The absorption of rubidium by *Chlorella* follows two patterns, one in the low and the other in the high range (Figs. 1 and 2). Furthermore, the dual uptake pattern is observed in both the

light and the dark. The first mechanism has a high affinity for the ion [Michaelis constant $(K_m) = 0.038 \text{ m}M$ and maximum velocity (V_{max}) = 28.6 nmole/mg per hour in the light; and $K_{\rm m} = 0.182$ mM, $V_{\text{max}} = 11.11$ nmole/mg per hour in the dark]. The V_{max} for uptake of rubidium in the dark, in the low concentration range, is very close to that reported for the uptake of potassium (4). The mechanism in the high concentration range, however, has a low affinity for rubidium ($K_{\rm m} = 6.45$ mM, $V_{\text{max}} = 86.9$ nmole/mg per hour in the light; and $K_{\text{m}} = 12.38$ mM, $V_{\text{max}} =$ 56.49 nmole/mg per hour in the dark). Absorption of rubidium from 0.2 and 10 mM RbCl is inhibited by antimycin A, carbonyl cyanide chlorophenyl hydrazone (m-Cl-CCP), and p-trifluoromethoxyphenyl hydrazone (p-CF₃O-CCP), especially in the dark (Table 1). Antimycin A is found to be most inhibitory among the inhibitors used. Absorption of rubidium from 10 mM RbCl in the dark is nearly equally inhibited by the two phenylhydrazones. The results of efflux studies show that there is very little loss of rubidium absorbed either from 0.2 or from 10 mM



Fig. 1 (above). Absorption of rubidium by *Chlorella* in the low concentration range, in the light and the dark. Insets: Reciprocal plots of the rate of uptake V (in nanomoles per milligram per hour) versus substrate S (in millimoles per liter). Vertical bars represent standard deviations of the mean.

Fig. 2 (right). Absorption of rubidium by *Chlorella* in the high concentration range, in the light and the dark. Insets: Reciprocal plots of the rate of uptake V (in nanomoles per milligram per hour) versus substrate S (in millimoles per liter).



928



Fig. 3. Efflux of rubidium absorbed by Chlorella from 0.2 and 10 mM RbCl. Chlorella cells (500 mg dry weight equivalent) were allowed to absorb from ⁸⁶RbCl for 4 hours under light and were then transferred to 1 liter of unlabeled RbCl of equimolar concentrations. Samples were drawn at different times to measure the radioactivity retained in the cells.

RbCl, even at 3 hours (Fig. 3). Respiration of Chlorella is significantly enhanced by 10 and 30 mM RbCl (Table 2).

A dual isotherm for the absorption of a given ion points to two transport systems and raises the question of the location of each system, whether they operate in parallel at the same membrane or function consecutively across the plasmalemma and tonoplast. The evidence in support of the sequential transport through the two membranes is derived mainly from the absorption isotherms of nonvacuolate root tips and vacuolated segments of corn roots (13). Nonetheless, it has been admitted that the distinctions made on this basis cannot be absolute since the subapical cells differ from the apical ones for reasons other than vacuolation. Furthermore, the conclusion that the compartments into which the ions move are subcellular in origin is drawn from the kinetic analysis of ion absorption by multicellular systems (3, 13), which consist of cells differing morphologically and physiologically between themselves. The unicellular alga. C. pyrenoidosa is nonvacuolate (9) and hence devoid of an inner tonoplast membrane. The mechanisms for the dual pattern of rubidium absorption observed in this system therefore must reside in the plasmalemma. Chloroplasts are known to accumulate ions. However, these are functionally and anatomically different from the vacuoles. The occurrence of a dual pattern of absorption by Chlorella cells in the dark is evidence that the chloroplast is not implicated in the two ionabsorption mechanisms.

It has been contended that ions at high concentrations readily negotiate the plasmalemma by diffusion (2). However, sensitivity to metabolic inhibitors

and nonexchangeability of the ion clearly support the view that the uptake, in the low and high concentration ranges, is energy-dependent. The energy for the operation of dual mechanisms in both the light and the dark (Figs. 1 and 2) is presumably derived from photosynthesis and respiration. The implication of respiration with rubidium absorption in the high concentration range (Table 2), which has been observed in higher plants (salt respiration) (14, 15), suggests that ion absorption by the second mechanism is not diffusive.

SESHADRI KANNAN

Biology Division, Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Bombay 85, India

References

- 1. E. Epstein, D. W. Rains, O. E. Elzam, Proc.
- Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S. 49, 684 (1963). 2. G. G. Laties, Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. 20,
- 89 (1969).
- 3. U. Luttge and G. G. Laties, Plant Physiol. 41, 1531 (1966).
- 4. E. Epstein, Nature 212, 1324 (1966).
- R. M. Welch and E. Epstein, Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S. 61, 447 (1968).
 6. —, Plant Physiol. 44, 301 (1969).
- 7. S. Kannan, Planta 96, 262 (1971).
- H. S. Min, Life Sci. 7, 1105 (1968). 8.
- J. Barber, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 150, 618 9. (1968).
- 10. ibid. 163, 141 (1968).
- S. H. Hutner, L. Provasdi, A. Schotg, C. P. Haskin, Proc. Amer. Phil. Soc. 94, 152 (1950).
 S. Kannan, Plant Physiol. 44, 1457 (1969).
- 13. K. Torii and G. G. Laties, ibid. 41, 863 (1966).
- 14. H. Lundegardh and H. Burstrom, Biochem. Z. 261, 235 (1933).
- R. N. Robertson and M. J. Wilkins, Aust. J. Sci. Res. Ser. B. 1, 17 (1948).

30 April 1971; revised 15 June 1971

Receptive Field Organization of Units in the First Optic Ganglion of Diptera

Abstract. Centripetal spike potentials were recorded from two classes of units (transient and sustained) in the intermediate chiasma of flies. On-off units were characterized by a transient discharge after the onset and cessation of a light spot presented within its elliptical receptive field. Receptive fields of sustaining units were composed of three roughly circular regions arranged adjacently along a line; stimulation of the center region elicited a sustained discharge, whereas stimulation of either adjacent region elicited an off discharge. Adjacent regions antagonized the central region, for stimulation of either inhibited the discharge resulting from stimulation of the central region.

The retina and first optic ganglion of flies have highly ordered structures. The retina is comprised of an array of several thousand ommatidia, each consisting of eight retinular cells; the first optic ganglion is composed of a corresponding array of synaptic compartments, called cartridges, each containing endings of six retinular cell axons and several second-order neurons (1, 2). Within each cartridge numerous synaptic contacts are made between the six retinular cell axons and two second-order neurons (type I monopolar cells) which send their axons to the second optic ganglion (2). Furthermore, the presence of elements conceivably capable of supporting interaction between neighboring cartridge elements (2-4) suggests that more than simple summation may occur within the first optic ganglion. Although slow potentials (5, 6) have been recorded from the cartridge region of flies, the fact that no spike potential has ever been observed raises the question of how neural signals are transmitted to the second optic ganglion. Experiments were performed which show that, indeed, spike poten-

tials are carried by fibers en route to the second optic ganglion. Two types of fibers were identified whose spatial and temporal characteristics of discharge indicated complex integration mechanisms.

Several species of flies, principally Phaenicia sericata, were studied, and no species differences were observed. A specimen was prepared for an experiment by removal of a small triangular flap of exoskeleton from the posterior surface of the head capsule, which exposed one optic lobe. The preparation was placed at the center of a reflecting sphere (2 m in diameter) upon which stimulus patterns were projected. Tungsten microelectrodes (noise level 20 μ v, peak-to-peak) were placed in the intermediate chiasma, and centripetal discharges representing two distinctly different classes of units were recorded (7).

One type is an on-off unit which responds to a diffuse light pulse with a transient discharge following the onset and cessation of stimulation. The other type is a sustaining unit which is quiescent in the dark, as is the onoff unit, but a diffuse light pulse elicits