

CO₂ Concentrating Mechanisms in Eukaryotic Microalgae

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ABSTRACT

Many aquatic photosynthetic microorganisms possess inducible CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) that allow them to optimize carbon acquisition in environments with frequently changing and often limiting CO₂ concentrations. The CCMs function by accumulation of a large quantity of intracellular inorganic carbon (Ci) through concerted Ci uptake systems and enzymes catalyzing the interconversion between different species of Ci. In addition, an array of regulatory devices appears present to facilitate the sensing of CO₂ availability and the regulation of metabolic pathways. Over the past several decades, significant advances have been made in understanding the CCM and its regulation. With the aid of mutant studies and the availability of several cyanobacterial and eukaryotic algal genomes, an integrated picture is emerging to reveal many of the molecular details in the microalgal CCMs. This review will focus on the recent advances in identifying and characterizing the major components involved in the CCM, including Ci uptake systems and regulatory pathways in eukaryotic microalgae, especially in the model organism, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*.

Keywords: acclimation, algae, carbonic anhydrase, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, inorganic carbon, signal transduction pathway, transport systems

Abbreviations: CA, carbonic anhydrase; CCM, CO₂ concentrating mechanism; Ci, inorganic carbon

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INTRODUCTION

As the primary machinery for carbon fixation on the earth, photosynthetic organisms constantly confront changing ambient CO₂ concentrations and must adjust themselves accordingly. Although rising levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere have lately been a serious concern, a shortage in CO₂ supply, paradoxically, is often a major stress for photosynthetic organisms, not only due to low ambient CO₂ concentrations for photosynthesis, but also due to the inherent inefficiency of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Ru-

bisco), a key enzyme in carbon fixation. Several strategies have evolved in photosynthetic organisms to accommodate the CO₂ limitation by raising the CO₂ concentration at the site of Rubisco, including the well-known C₄ and CAM photosynthetic pathways adopted in certain higher plants and a unique CO₂ concentration mechanism (CCM) adopted in many aquatic microalgae. While CO₂ enrichment in C₄ or CAM pathways is achieved by spatial or temporal separation of ambient CO₂ fixation into C₄ acids, and re-release of CO₂ into the C₃ pathway at the site of Rubisco, the microalgal CCM relies on active inorganic carbon (Ci)

transport by which a large intracellular C_i pool is created. Because of its ubiquitous existence in photosynthetic microorganisms and its simple and efficient nature, the microalgal CCM has gained significant attentions since it was discovered. First, since microalgal photosynthesis accounts for a significant portion of the carbon capture and sequestration on the earth, the operation of microalgal CCMs has a profound influence on global atmospheric CO_2 concentrations. Therefore, understanding the microalgal CCMs has been of great interest because of their potential influences on global environments and biomass production. Moreover, as microalgal C_i transport systems exhibit a great efficiency in concentrating CO_2 , they appear to be excellent candidates for engineering many traditional C_3 crop plants and other economically important C_3 plants whose photosynthetic performances might be elevated by introducing a microalgal-like CCM. Last, but not the least, because the microalgal CCM represents an exquisite system by which an organism responds and interacts with environmental stresses, understanding the microalgal CCMs helps us to comprehend the acclimation of an organism to changing environments.

Since the discovery of the microalgal CCMs, significant effort has been devoted in understanding the mechanism of their operation and regulation. Knowledge on the CCMs is largely based on studies in some model organisms, including several cyanobacterial species and eukaryotic algal species. Considerable progress has been made thus far with regard to understanding cyanobacterial CCMs. With the aid of genetic and biochemical studies and availability of genome sequences from many cyanobacteria species, an integrated picture is merging, which reveals many fundamental aspects of cyanobacterial CCM functions, including diverse genes and proteins involved in C_i transport systems and carboxysome micro-compartments (Badger and Price 2003; Badger *et al.* 2006). For the CCM in eukaryotic algae, however, the molecular basis of the CCM still remains largely unknown. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, a unicellular green alga with a photosynthetic apparatus similar to that of higher plants, is often used as a model system to study the microalgal CCM, and most of our knowledge of the eukaryotic algal CCM has been derived from physiological and biochemical studies on this organism. *C. reinhardtii* has a well characterized genetic background and many unique physiological and biochemical characteristics which make it an attractive model system for studying the interaction of photosynthetic eukaryotes with their environments. The recent completion of the genome sequences of *C. reinhardtii* and several other eukaryotic microalgae, in combination with increasingly available genetic and molecular tools, is facilitating research that will finally reveal many functional components involved in the eukaryotic CCM. This review will focus on the recent advances in our understanding of the eukaryotic microalgal CCMs, especially in *C. reinhardtii*.

ACCLIMATION TO LIMITING CO_2

The CCM of microalgae was originally recognized as distinguishable physiological states induced by limiting CO_2 conditions (Spalding 1998; Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). One significant acclimation to limiting CO_2 appears as a much higher efficiency in photosynthetic carbon assimilation and the apparent suppression of photorespiration. As well demonstrated, such high photosynthetic efficiency in limiting CO_2 acclimated cells can be attributed to their capacity for accumulating a large intracellular C_i pool, which is resulted from induction of the CCM. The high internal C_i level maintains a saturated or near saturated CO_2 concentration at the site of Rubisco, favoring its carboxylation activity over its oxygenation activity and thus efficiently promoting photosynthesis and suppressing photorespiration. Transport systems for active C_i uptake and enzymatic systems catalyzing rapid interconversion between different C_i species are generally considered to be two essential compo-

nents of the CCM. In a simplified working model, the CCM comprises at least the following elements: active C_i transport and C_i accumulation, interconversion among different C_i species, and final dehydration of accumulated bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) to release CO_2 at the sites of Rubisco (Kaplan and Reinhold 1999; Badger and Spalding 2000; Giordano *et al.* 2005).

C_i CONCENTRATING SYSTEMS

Diversity in C_i transport systems

Active C_i transport plays a vital role and exhibits a great diversity in microalgal CCMs. Five different C_i transport modes have so far been identified in various cyanobacteria species (Badger *et al.* 2006). Eukaryotic C_i transport systems are expected to be of greater complexity than those in cyanobacteria, not only due to the highly compartmented structures in eukaryotic cells, but also due to the heterogeneity of C_i species being transported and the existence of multiple CO_2 -level-dependent acclimation states in these organisms.

In eukaryotic microalgae, active uptake of C_i appears to take place in at least two locations: chloroplast envelope and plasma membrane. In *C. reinhardtii*, C_i species must penetrate these two barriers to reach the pyrenoid, a specialized protein structure in chloroplasts where Rubisco is localized. It has been demonstrated that the induction of an active C_i transport system occurs at both the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope (Goyal and Tolbert 1989; Sülte-meyer *et al.* 1989, 1991; Palmqvist *et al.* 1994). There is still some debate as to whether the plasma membrane or chloroplast envelope is the primary site for C_i transport. However, given the fact that all photosynthetic enzymes are located in the chloroplast, it is commonly accepted that chloroplasts play an irreplaceable role in C_i concentrating (Moroney *et al.* 1987; Amoroso *et al.* 1998; Spalding 1998; Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). The *C. reinhardtii* *pmp1* mutant was identified as conditional lethal in air levels of CO_2 , and was demonstrated to be deficient in C_i transport (Spalding *et al.* 1983a). A plastid localization of the *PMP1* gene product has been predicted (Miura *et al.* 2004; Wang and Spalding 2006), and been recently confirmed by immunolocalization (Wang and Spalding, unpublished). The lethal phenotype caused by a single lesion in *pmp1* supports the essentiality of plastid C_i transport. However, this does not necessarily exclude a requirement for any potential plasma membrane transporters. If the plasma membrane C_i transport functions concomitantly with the plastid transport system, the phenotype of *pmp1* implies no functional redundancy between the plastid transport system and the one on plasma membrane. Nevertheless, it supports a central role played by the chloroplast in active C_i transport in *C. reinhardtii*.

Heterogeneity of C_i species is another possible reason for the requirement of diverse C_i transport systems. HCO_3^- and CO_2 are the two principal C_i species over the physiological pH range, although CO_3^{2-} and other C_i species can not be excluded as potential substrates. The distribution of the individual C_i species vary depending on the pH of the extracellular environments or the intracellular compartments. Different C_i transporters may display distinct substrate specificity. HCO_3^- has been postulated as the primary substrate for chloroplast C_i uptake (Moroney *et al.* 1987; Moroney and Mason 1991), and CO_2 as the species predominantly transported across the plasma membrane, possibly by passive diffusion (Spalding 1998; Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). Mass-spectrometric disequilibrium analyses have apparently demonstrated the active transport of CO_2 by both cells and isolated chloroplasts of *C. reinhardtii* (Amoroso *et al.* 1998). Uptake of both HCO_3^- and CO_2 proceeded at similar rates in isolated chloroplasts from *C. reinhardtii*, although HCO_3^- was the dominant C_i species transported in *Dunaliella tetiolecta*. Similar patterns of active C_i uptake by chloroplasts also were demonstrated in *Tetraedron minimum* and *C. noc-*

tigama (van Hunnik *et al.* 2002). It is not clear whether an individual transport system always displays preferences for certain Ci species, but it appears that existence of substrate specificity is common for many Ci transport systems (Gior-dano *et al.* 2005).

Diversity of Ci transport systems also might be associated with multiple acclimation states. In nature, the ambient CO₂ concentrations for photosynthetic organisms can vary across orders of magnitude due to the diversity of habitats and seasonal or daily changes in environmental CO₂. Accordingly, distinct acclimation states are induced to cope with various levels of Ci supply. Natural habitats for *Chlamydomonas* species include metabolite-rich environments (such as sewage or rich soil) where the levels of Ci or acetate can be considerably high and freshwater aquatic systems (such as freshwater pond) where CO₂ levels are low and diffusion of Ci species are highly restricted. Moreover, extreme low levels of CO₂ or depleted Ci can be resulted in a rapidly growing population with active photosynthesis. In the past, two physiological states corresponding to enriched CO₂ concentrations (1-5% CO₂ in air, high CO₂) and low CO₂ concentrations (air, ~0.03% CO₂) have been well documented. Another physiological state corresponding to very low CO₂ (<0.02% CO₂), perhaps neglected previously, was recently recognized based on an unusual growth phenotype of *pmp1* (Van *et al.* 2001; Spalding *et al.* 2002; Wang and Spalding 2006). The *pmp1* mutant, as well as its allelic mutant *air dier1* (*ad1*), displays an "air-dieing" phenotype: it grows well in either high or very low CO₂, but dies in low (air-level) CO₂. This conspicuous phenotype indicates that at least three distinct CO₂ acclimation states exist in *C. reinhardtii*, associated with high, low, or very low CO₂, respectively. The three distinct CO₂ acclimation states were confirmed by comparisons of physiological and photosynthetic characteristics among high CO₂, low CO₂ and very low CO₂-acclimated cells (Vance and Spalding 2005). The cells acclimated to very low CO₂ exhibited a much lower V_{max}, a longer cell-doubling time and a smaller cell size when compared with those acclimated to low CO₂ and high CO₂.

Despite the common assumption that the CCM is induced only in limiting CO₂, there is evidence indicating that active uptake of Ci may take place also in high CO₂ grown cells. Active transport of HCO₃⁻ has been reported in high CO₂ grown cells from *C. reinhardtii* and *D. tertiolecta*, although with a much lower apparent affinity than that of low CO₂ cells (Palmqvist *et al.* 1994; Amoroso *et al.* 1998). The main reported differences between the transporters from high CO₂ grown cells and low CO₂ grown cells appear to be their substrate affinities (Amoroso *et al.* 1989), since no significant differences in maximal Ci uptake activities were observed. This would be consistent with the observation that high CO₂ cells and low CO₂ cells displayed similar photosynthetic V_{max} (Vance and Spalding 2005).

As discussed in a recent paper, requirement for transport systems with different Ci affinities and transport capacities in *C. reinhardtii* may represent a common survival strategy in eukaryotic microalgae (Wang and Spalding 2006). When grown in very low CO₂, transporters with high Ci affinities may favor uptake of Ci present at a very low concentration, and the low capacities for Ci influx may allow *C. reinhardtii* to maintain some growth without quickly depleting all available Ci. On the other hand, in low CO₂ (air level), a system with low Ci affinity would be sufficient to accommodate the available Ci concentration, and the high Ci transport capacity would maintain a growth rate comparable to that of high CO₂ cells. The ability to acclimate to multiple CO₂ levels in eukaryotes apparently requires a network of transport systems which is elaborately orchestrated.

Candidate Ci transporter genes in *Chlamydomonas*

Although there is substantial evidence demonstrating the

existence of active transport systems in eukaryotic algae, only very few candidate Ci transport genes have been identified, and the functions of their gene products in the CCM are far from being fully characterized.

PMP1/AD1/LCIB and LCIB family

The *pmp1* mutant is one of only a small number of mutants with a lesion directly affecting the CCM, and it has been touted as demonstrating a requirement for active Ci transport in the CCM (Spalding *et al.* 1983a). Recently the gene defective in *pmp1* was identified by genetic characterization of its allelic insertional mutant, *ad1* (Wang and Spalding 2006). PMP1/AD1 protein is encoded by *LCIB*, a gene previously identified as a CO₂ responsive gene (Miura *et al.* 2004). Blast searches and domain searches with *LCIB* revealed no significant recognizable domains or homologies, except for three additional genes in the *C. reinhardtii* genome, *LCIC*, *LCID* and *LCIE* (Wang and Spalding 2006). *LCIB* and *LCIC* show similar expression patterns: very low expression in high CO₂ (5%) and substantial increased expression induced by a wide range of limiting CO₂ (0.15%-0.01%). *LCID* shows a similar CO₂ expression pattern but at a much lower apparent mRNA abundance, while expression of *LCIE* so far has been confirmed only by its existence in a cDNA library.

Although physiological and biochemical characterization of *pmp1* and *ad1* suggests that *LCIB* is involved in active Ci transport, *LCIB* seems unlikely to perform as a Ci transporter by itself, because it is predicted to be a soluble protein lacking any obvious transmembrane regions. It is possible that *LCIB* is an integral component of a multi-subunit transport complex and that its Ci transport function relies on its interaction with other proteins. Plastid localization was predicted for both *LCIB* and *LCIC*. There is evidence indicating a possible physical interaction between *LCIB* and *LCIC* (Wang and Spalding, unpublished). The *air dier* growth phenotype of *pmp1* and *ad1* clearly indicates that the *LCIB* associated Ci transport system is essential for the low CO₂ (air) acclimation state in *C. reinhardtii*. Even though *LCIB* also is expressed in very low CO₂ and high CO₂, obviously it is not essential under such conditions, if it functions at all at those CO₂ concentrations.

YCF10 (Cem A) dependent system

Disruption of the plastid *ycf10* open reading frame was found to cause light sensitivity and decreased Ci uptake in *C. reinhardtii* (Rolland *et al.* 1997). The product of the chloroplast *ycf10* gene is localized in the inner chloroplast envelope and displays sequence homology with the chloroplast CemA protein from plants and cyanobacterial *CotA* product. *Ycf10*, like *CemA* and *CotA*, is a membrane protein with four transmembrane domains. The cyanobacteria *cotA* mutants exhibited a slow growth in limiting CO₂ and decreased CO₂ transport, but it was suggested that the decreased CO₂ transport in the mutants was a result from the impaired proton extrusion (Katoh *et al.* 1996a, 1996b). Even though the *ycf10* mutants display defective CO₂ uptake, their sensitivity to high light in both high CO₂ and low CO₂ argues against the direct involvement of *ycf10* gene product in CO₂ uptake (Kaplan and Reinhold 1999). Whether and how *ycf10* participates in Ci uptake still remains to be determined.

CCP1 and CCP2

CCP1 and CCP2 (Lip36) were first identified as two low CO₂ induced polypeptides in *C. reinhardtii* (Spalding and Jeffery 1989; Ramazanov *et al.* 1993). These proteins are associated with chloroplast envelope and have been suggested as candidates for the involvement in chloroplast Ci transport. *CCP1* and *CCP2* were demonstrated to encode two similar proteins sharing 95.7% identical amino acid sequence (Chen *et al.* 1996). *CCP1* and *CCP2* are predicted

to be membrane proteins with six transmembrane domains, and are similar to the mitochondrial carrier protein super family. Mitochondrial carrier proteins are small proteins catalyzing the translocation of metabolites across the mitochondrial inner membrane, which include ATP/ADP translocators, uncoupling proteins (proton carriers), phosphate carriers and carriers for a variety of metabolites in the mitochondrial carbon/energy metabolism (Kuan and Saier Jr. 1993; Palmieri 1994). It was reported that strains with silenced *CCP1/2* expression by RNA interference (RNAi) grew slower in low CO₂, but exhibited photosynthetic kinetics and Ci affinity similar to those in wild type cells (Pollock *et al.* 2005). The lack of a clear phenotypic link between the *CCP1/2* RNAi knockdowns and CCM function raises questions regarding any essential role for CCP1 and CCP2 in the CCM, although it is possible that their functional importance was masked by the compensating function of other Ci transport systems under the conditions employed, as has been observed for Ci transport in cyanobacteria (Shibata *et al.* 2002).

LCIA/NAR1.2

LCIA, also named as *NAR1.2*, was identified as a low-CO₂ inducible gene that encodes a protein belonging to the *NAR1* multigene family from *C. reinhardtii* (Galvan *et al.* 2002; Miura *et al.* 2004; Mariscal *et al.* 2006). The members of *NAR1* family are related to the formate/nitrite transporter (FNT) family (Miura *et al.* 2004; Mariscal *et al.* 2006). Proteins in FNT family have been found in various bacteria and some eukaryotic organisms such as fungi, yeast, algae and protozoa, but not in plants (Galvan *et al.* 2002; Mariscal *et al.* 2006). *LCIA* is a polypeptide of 336 amino acids with a predicted chloroplast transit peptide and 6 transmembrane domains. *LCIA* has been postulated as a Ci transporter because the expression of *LCIA* is regulated by CO₂ irrespective of the nitrogen sources (Miura *et al.* 2004). *LCIA* also has recently been reported to exhibit transport activities for both bicarbonate and nitrite when expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (Mariscal *et al.* 2006). However, in this research, *LCIA* exhibited a rather low affinity for HCO₃⁻, but a high affinity for nitrite, leaving the question of its importance as a major Ci transporter open.

HLA3/MRP1

Im and Grossman (2001) identified a limiting CO₂-induced gene, *HLA3*, encoding a putative ATP-binding-cassette (ABC)-transporter. *HLA3* also has been named *MRP1*, and its gene product suggested as a prime candidate for a Ci transporter (Miura *et al.* 2004). ABC transporters are ubiquitous membrane proteins that transport a large variety of molecules across membranes, and represent one of the largest protein families (Rea 2007). In cyanobacteria, the best-known Ci transporter belonging to the ABC transporter family is BCT1, an inducible high affinity HCO₃⁻ transporter encoded by the *cmpABCD* operon (Badger and Price 2003; Badger *et al.* 2006). Unlike BCT1, which is a bacterial type, multimeric, four subunit complex, *HLA3* is a whole-molecule ABC transporter with significant homology to members of the multidrug-resistance-related protein (MRP) subfamily of ABC transporters (Im and Grossman 2001). MRP-related transport is often inhibited by vanadate, an inhibitor of the plasma membrane bound ATPase, because ABC-dependent transport is energized by ATPase (Rea 2007). The inhibition of Ci uptake in *C. reinhardtii* by vanadate was reported (Palmqvist *et al.* 1988), which may reflect the sensitivity of *HLA3* associated Ci transport to the inhibitor. Although *HLA3* was first suggested as being a plastid-localized protein, based on protein targeting prediction (TargetP, <http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/>; or PSORT, <http://psort.nibb.ac.jp/>), the *HLA3* gene product was predicted to enter the endomembrane system, and thus may be targeted to the plasma membrane. *HLA3*/MRP1 is the only clear candidate for a plasma membrane Ci trans-

porter identified so far in eukaryotic systems.

LCI1

LCI1 was originally identified as a limiting CO₂ inducible gene encoding a putative protein of 192 amino acids (Burow *et al.* 1996). The expression of *LCI1* was regulated by CIA5, a master regulator in the CCM (Im *et al.* 2003; Miura *et al.* 2004), and by LCR1, a transcriptional factor associated with CO₂ signal transduction pathways (Yoshioka *et al.* 2004). *LCI1* appears to be a membrane protein with three predicted transmembrane domains and a signal peptide (TMHMM, <http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/>; TargetP and PSORT), suggesting that *LCI1* is perhaps targeted to the plasma membrane. No information is currently available with regard to the possible function of *LCI1* in the CCM.

RHP1

C. reinhardtii has two Rhesus (Rh) proteins (RHP1 and RHP2 or Rh1 and Rh2) which are similar to the Rh proteins in the human red blood membrane (Soupene *et al.* 2002). Both RHP1 and RHP2 are predicted to have 12 transmembrane domains. RHP1 has a potential chloroplast transit sequence, and may be associated with the chloroplast membranes (Soupene *et al.* 2002; Kustu and Inwood 2006). The expression of *RHP1* is highly inducible by high CO₂ (3%) with very low expression in low CO₂ (air). RNAi mutants that had no *RHP1* expression exhibited a growth defect in high CO₂, but normal growth in air (Soupene *et al.* 2004). RHP1 apparently functions as bidirectional CO₂ gas channels, which allow quick equilibration of CO₂ under high CO₂ conditions.

Carbonic anhydrase in the CCM

Carbonic anhydrase, being present in three independent evolutionary lines (α -, β - and γ -type), is ubiquitously present over a wide spectrum of living organisms (Hewett-Emmett and Tashian 1996). In the CCM, CA plays a critical role by catalyzing the interconversion between different Ci species. Diverse forms of CAs appear to be involved in various fundamental aspects of the eukaryotic CCM (Spalding 1998; Moroney and Somanchi 1999; Mitra *et al.* 2004; Giordano *et al.* 2005; Mitra *et al.* 2005). In cyanobacteria, one prominent feature regarding the function of CA is the co-localization of CA with Rubisco in the carboxysomes, which is thought to be necessary for dehydrating accumulated intracellular HCO₃⁻ and generating an elevated CO₂ concentration in close proximity to Rubisco. No Rubisco associated CA in pyrenoid has been demonstrated in eukaryotic algae, but the similar role has been proposed for a thylakoid lumenal CA in *C. reinhardtii*. CAs are also necessary to facilitate the uptake of Ci across different membranes (Moroney *et al.* 1985; Spalding 1998; Giordano *et al.* 2005), and perhaps function in concert with various Ci transport systems. Six CAs have by far been characterized in *C. reinhardtii*, including three α -CAs (CAH1, CAH2, and CAH3) and three β -CAs (CAH4, CAH5 and CAH6).

CAH3

Despite multiple CAs present in *C. reinhardtii*, CAH3 is so far the only one that has been confirmed as essential for limiting CO₂ acclimation. Mutants defective in *CAH3* (*cal-1-12-1C*, *cal-2-18-6A*, *cal-3-18-7C*, and *cia3*) cannot survive under limiting CO₂ conditions (Spreitzer and Mets 1981; Spalding *et al.* 1983b; Moroney *et al.* 1986; Suzuki and Spalding 1989; Karlsson *et al.* 1995; Funke *et al.* 1997; Karlsson *et al.* 1998). Even though over-accumulation of internal Ci has been demonstrated in mutant cells with defects in *CAH3*, photosynthesis is still limited by CO₂ in these mutants (Spalding *et al.* 1983b; Hanson *et al.* 2003). *CAH3* is targeted to the thylakoid lumen and may be asso-

ciated with PSII (Karlsson *et al.* 1998; Park *et al.* 1999). This supports a hypothesis with regard to the role played by CAH3 in the CCM; in this model, HCO_3^- is delivered into the thylakoid lumen from the stroma, and then dehydrated by CAH3 upon lumen acidification in the light; the released CO_2 thus diffuses back into stroma and becomes available to Rubisco, which prefers CO_2 , rather than HCO_3^- , as the substrate (Pronina and Semenenko 1992; Raven 1997). This model requires a low CA activity in the stroma, where the alkaline pH would favor formation of HCO_3^- , unless the CO_2 released from lumen can directly reach Rubisco in the pyrenoid without traversing much stromal space. In any case, it requires the absence of CA activity in the pyrenoid. Some researchers also have proposed that CAH3 is involved in PSII function, or in the formation of a proton gradient across the thylakoid membranes (Villarejo *et al.* 2002; van Hunnik and Sültemeyer 2002). However, a recent re-examination of CAH3 still supports the role of CAH3 as providing CO_2 to Rubisco, because PSII electron transport was not affected by the *cia3* mutation (Hanson *et al.* 2003).

CAH1 and CAH2

Under limiting CO_2 conditions, the majority of the CA activity in *C. reinhardtii* is found in the periplasmic space. The products of two genes, *CAH1* and *CAH2*, were identified as α -type CA isoforms associated with the periplasmic CA activity (Fujiwara *et al.* 1990; Fukuzawa *et al.* 1990; Rawat and Moroney 1991). The regulation of *CAH1* and *CAH2* expression by Ci availability shows opposite trends: whereas the less abundant *CAH2* gene product (pCA2) is expressed at high Ci concentrations and repressed by low Ci concentrations, the *CAH1* gene product (pCA1), which accounts for the majority of the extracellular CA activity, is expressed only in limiting Ci concentrations. The regulation of the *CAH1* expression has been closely scrutinized, and different roles for the periplasmic CA in the CCM have been proposed (Spalding 1998; Giordano *et al.* 2005). It appears that the periplasmic CA activity could facilitate the uptake of CO_2 at the plasma membrane (Moroney *et al.* 1985; Spalding 1998; Giordano *et al.* 2005). However, a null-mutant with a disrupted *CAH1* gene did not show any discernable phenotype differing from the wild type cells, questioning the essentiality of pCA1 in the CCM (Van and Spalding 1999).

CAH4 and CAH5

Two mitochondrial CAs encoded by very similar genes, *CAH4* and *CAH5* (βCa1 and βCa2), were identified as members of the β -type CA family (Eriksson *et al.* 1996). The expression of *CAH4* and *CAH5* is regulated by CO_2 at the transcriptional level, with the abundant *CAH4* and *CAH5* transcripts induced by low CO_2 (Eriksson *et al.* 1998). Although *CAH4* and *CAH5* are among the most abundant low CO_2 inducible proteins, their functions in the CCM have not been clearly defined. It has been suggested that they are required for buffering pH in mitochondria to neutralize ammonia released during photorespiration (Eriksson *et al.* 1996). Giordano *et al.* (2003) proposed that *CAH4* and *CAH5* might be involved in anaplerotic carbon recycling in *C. reinhardtii* to balance carbon and nitrogen assimilation. β -type CAs have an ancient evolutionary origin and are ubiquitously distributed in almost all living organisms (Smith *et al.* 1999). A study has showed that a β -type CA is essential for the growth of *Corynebacterium glutamicum* under atmospheric conditions (Mitsubishi *et al.* 2004), as demonstrated by a high CO_2 requiring phenotype caused by a deficiency in the CA. It is possible that the functions of *CAH4* and *CAH5* are related to mitochondrial carbon metabolism, but not directly related to the CCM.

CAH6

CAH6 is another β -type CA recently identified as a probable chloroplast stromal CA (Mitra *et al.* 2004). The presence of CA activity in the stroma indicates that the CCM in eukaryotic microalgae must be different from the cyanobacterial CCMs, which are largely dependent on the absence of CA activity in the cytosol. As demonstrated in the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* PCC7942, heterologous expression of human CA, HCAII, in the cyanobacteria cytosol caused dramatic decreases in photosynthetic Ci affinity and Ci accumulation, and resulted in a high CO_2 requiring phenotype (Price and Badger 1989). As discussed earlier, a stromal CA does not favor the entry of stromal CO_2 into pyrenoids. It would require very close contact between the thylakoid membranes and the pyrenoid so that luminal CO_2 can be directly released into the pyrenoid. Indeed, it has been reported that CAH3, although distributed throughout the chloroplast, is enriched in the thylakoids around the pyrenoid, and also is present in the thylakoid tubules penetrating the pyrenoid (Mitra *et al.* 2005). The function of CAH6 has been proposed to be trapping of CO_2 that diffuses out from the pyrenoid as the more easily confined HCO_3^- , the formation of which would be facilitated by the alkaline stromal pH (Mitra *et al.* 2004, 2005).

Other CAs in *C. reinhardtii*

The recent completion of the *C. reinhardtii* genome sequence has revealed a large number of CAs. Besides of the six CAs mentioned above, at least three additional putative β -type CAs (*CAH7*, *CAH8*, *CAH9*) are present in the *C. reinhardtii* genome, although none of these has yet been fully characterized (Mitra *et al.* 2005; <http://genome.jgi-psf.org/Chlre3/Chlre3.home.html>). Moreover, a γ -CA-like gene, *CAG3* (*GLP1*), also was identified in the genome, but no CA activity was detected in *CAG3* when over-expressed (Mitra *et al.* 2005). Except that *CAH8* was confirmed to exhibit CA activity, no information is available with regard to the biochemical characteristics or intracellular locations of these CAs or the CA-like protein. Villarejo *et al.* (2001) have demonstrated a CA activity associated with the chloroplast envelope, but it is not clear if there is any relationship between this envelope CA and CAH6 or any other identified putative CAs. Further investigation of the CA distribution in chloroplasts is critical to elucidate the CCM model in eukaryotic algae.

REGULATION OF THE CCM AND SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION

Like many other acclimation responses, the CCM is highly regulated to allow the cells to respond the variability of CO_2 supply in an efficient and economical way. During acclimation, rapid changes in gene expression and biochemical events occur, which are believed to be regulated by an array of regulatory devices apparently present to facilitate the sensing of CO_2 availability and monitor carbon metabolism. Many questions with regard to CO_2 sensing and signaling are still unsolved, largely due to lack of knowledge of the molecular components associated with these functions.

Perception of CO_2 and signals controlling the CCM expression

In cyanobacteria, either the external HCO_3^- or the internal Ci pool has been postulated as the signal controlling the expression of the CCM (Mayo *et al.* 1986; Woodger *et al.* 2005). It appears that at least certain types of the eukaryotic microalgal CCMs are not controlled by the internal Ci pool. This can be demonstrated by the *C. reinhardtii* *pmp1* mutant (Spalding *et al.* 1983a; Wang and Spalding 2006). The functional CCM associated with very low CO_2 cannot be induced by low CO_2 in *pmp1*, even though a very low inter-

nal C_i is expected under such conditions because of the defective *LCIB*. However, a very low external C_i is enough to induce the CCM in the same mutant, indicating that the induction of the CCM is not correlated with the internal C_i , at least not in the very low CO_2 acclimation state. It is not clear whether different signals, or different levels of the same signal, triggers the different CO_2 -level-dependant acclimation states. In several Chlorophyta species, it has been proposed that external CO_2 is the primary signal being directly perceived (Matsuda and Colman 1995, 1996; Bozzo and Colman 2000; Bozzo *et al.* 2000; Giordano *et al.* 2005). The conclusion of CO_2 being the signal in these Chlorophyta is based on the absolute correlation between the induction of the CCM by low CO_2 and the external CO_2 concentration over different pH levels, regardless of total C_i or HCO_3^- concentration in the medium. In these cases, the low CO_2 signal appears to be perceived at plasma membrane by a mechanism that has not yet been identified.

Although a change in C_i availability is the primary signal initiating changes in gene expression, some intermediate metabolites in carbon metabolism and some environmental signals also appear to be involved in the regulation of the CCM. Light and O_2 or CO_2/O_2 ratio have been reported to affect the induction of the CCM and the expression of carbonic anhydrase (Spalding and Ogren 1982; Ramazanov and Semenenko 1984; Dionisio-Sese *et al.* 1990; Villarejo *et al.* 1996; Spalding 1998). It has been suggested that the regulation by light or O_2 is associated with photosynthesis and photorespiration (Ramazanov and Cardenas 1992; Spalding 1998; Giordano *et al.* 2005). However, contradictory evidence has also been shown to question the light or O_2 involvements in the regulation of the CCM. Induction of *Cah1* has been reported to be light-independent (Rawat and Moroney 1995). Recent re-examination of O_2 effects on acclimation failed to support any role of O_2 or of photorespiration in regulating gene expression, at least that of *CAH1* and *GDH1*, or the CCM function, as determined by photosynthetic characteristics (Vance and Spalding 2005).

Considering the complexity of interaction among different metabolic pathways and signaling systems in eukaryotes, it is not surprising that the regulation of the CCM is often entangled with other signal pathways. It has been demonstrated that blue light signaling, cell cycle and circadian rhythm are involved in the regulation of gene expression associated with the CCM (Dionisio *et al.* 1989a, 1989b; Rawat and Moroney 1995; Spalding 1998). Dionisio *et al.* (1989a) has proposed two light-requiring-steps, a photosynthesis-dependent step and a photosynthesis-independent (blue light) step, controlling *CAH1* induction during the limiting CO_2 acclimation. The induction of the *CAH1* gene product, pCA1, also was inhibited by potassium iodide, a flavin quencher, indicating that a flavoprotein may be the blue light sensor (Dionisio *et al.* 1989b). Induction of the CCM and the regulation of CO_2 responsive genes also are complicated by the cell cycle, which itself is regulated by circadian rhythm (Marcus *et al.* 1986; Rawat and Moroney 1995; Eriksson *et al.* 1998; Spalding 1998). The expression of *CAH1* and *CAH4/CAH5* has been reported to exhibit a circadian rhythm in synchronously grown cells (Rawat and Moroney 1995; Eriksson *et al.* 1998). This circadian pattern of gene expression may reflect the complex gene regulation by both C_i and the cell cycle in *C. reinhardtii* (Spalding 1998).

Gene expression in the CCM

Many *de novo*-induced genes in the CCM appear to be involved in the fundamental functions in limiting CO_2 acclimation, including C_i transport systems, CA and photorespiration. Moreover, various *C. reinhardtii* genes involved in a wide spectrum of metabolic reactions and acclimation responses have been identified as quantitatively up- or down-regulated by changes in C_i supply.

The most abundant proteins induced by limiting CO_2 include three CAs (*CAH1*, *CAH4* and *CAH5*; Fujiwara *et al.* 1990; Fukuzawa *et al.* 1990; Eriksson *et al.* 1996) and several C_i transporter candidates (*CCP1*, *CCP2*, *LCIB*, *LCIC*, *LCID*, *HLA3/MRP1* and *LCIA/NAR1.2*; Chen *et al.* 1997; Im and Grossman 2001; Miura *et al.* 2004; Wang and Spalding 2006). Some apparent constitutively expressed genes also exhibit CO_2 responses, such as the thylakoid lumenal CA (*CAH3*) which shows 2-fold increases in transcript abundance induced by low CO_2 (Karlsson *et al.* 1998). Several genes involved in photorespiration also have been identified as being either induced or up-regulated by limiting CO_2 , including *AAT1* (alanine: α -KG aminotransferase), *PGPI* (phosphoglycolate phosphatase), *GDH1* (glycolate dehydrogenase), *SHMT1* (serine hydroxymethyltransferase) and several other photorespiration-related genes (Chen *et al.* 1996; Mamedov *et al.* 2001; Im and Grossman 2001; Im *et al.* 2003; Miura *et al.* 2004; Nakamura *et al.* 2005).

Not only is the induction of gene expression associated with limiting CO_2 , the expression of many genes also is induced or up-regulated by high CO_2 . *CAH2* and *RHPI* are two genes which are induced by high CO_2 , and their functions appear to be associated with CO_2 uptake in high CO_2 conditions (Fujiwara *et al.* 1990; Fukuzawa *et al.* 1990; Rawat and Moroney 1991; Soupene *et al.* 1998, 2002; Kustu and Inwood 2006). Other high CO_2 induced genes include H43, coding a periplasmic protein of unknown function (Shiraiwa and Kobayashi 1999; Hanawa *et al.* 2007) and many additional photosynthesis-related and nutrient-related genes (Miura *et al.* 2004).

Translational regulation and post-translational regulation have also been demonstrated to control the expression of limiting C_i acclimation-related and CCM-related genes. Transient translational down-regulation of the large and small subunits of Rubisco is induced by limiting CO_2 (Winder *et al.* 1992), and a posttranslational modification of CIA5 has been postulated to control the CCM (Fukuzawa *et al.* 2001; Xiang *et al.* 2001). Recently, the phosphorylation of some thylakoid proteins was reported in association with limiting CO_2 acclimation (Turkina *et al.* 2006). Interestingly, in this latter research, the authors reported multiple phosphorylations of *LCI5*, the gene product of a previously identified, low CO_2 inducible gene, *LCI5* (Im and Grossman 2003; Miura *et al.* 2004). *LCI5* was found to be peripherally associated to the stroma side of chloroplast thylakoids. It is not clear whether this protein plays any specific role in the CCM or in other aspects of limiting CO_2 acclimation.

The recent applications of genome-wide analyses have revealed a large number of CO_2 -regulated-genes. The functions of these gene products fall into several broad categories which include many metabolic pathways and stress responses (Im and Grossman 2001; Im *et al.* 2003; Miura *et al.* 2004). This is not surprising since, in essence, utilization of C_i affects many fundamental aspects of metabolism, growth and development of photosynthetic organisms. It has been noticed that many CO_2 -responsive-genes also are regulated by light (Im and Grossman 2001; Im *et al.* 2003), although the genes associated with the CCM can be distinct from non- CO_2 -responsive-genes by their sensitivity to CO_2 and are controlled by the *Cia5*-associated signal transduction pathway. Several stress-related genes have been identified to be responsive to C_i change, but their relationship to limiting CO_2 acclimation has not been proven (Im *et al.* 2003; Miura *et al.* 2004).

Signal transduction pathways associated with the CCM

The mechanism underlying the gene regulation associated with the CCM is largely unknown. The major impediment to understanding the signal transduction pathway(s) is inadequate information about the components in the pathway(s). So far only a very few elements associated with the CCM signaling have been identified.

The *cia5* mutant has played an unparalleled role so far in furthering our understanding the signal transduction in the microalgal CCM. This mutant lacks all known limiting CO₂ inducible characteristics, including Ci transport activity, gene regulation, and biochemical and structural changes associated with the limiting CO₂ acclimation (Moroney *et al.* 1989; Marek and Spalding 1991; Spalding *et al.* 1991). Since CIA5 appears to be a master regulator in the CCM, identification of CIA5 must be regarded as the most important advance to date in studying the signal transduction associated with limiting Ci acclimation and the CCM.

Two research groups simultaneously identified the *CIA5* (or *CCM1*) gene, which encodes a putative transcription factor (Fukuzawa *et al.* 2001; Xiang *et al.* 2001). The deduced gene product of *CIA5* is a 699-aa hydrophilic polypeptide with a putative zinc-finger motif in its N-terminal region and a glycine repeat region characteristic of transcriptional activators. Near the C-terminus of CIA5 several putative phosphorylation sites are found, and it was speculated that the C-terminus of CIA5 might be post-translationally modified in response to a limiting CO₂ signal. CIA5 is constitutively expressed irrespective of Ci conditions, and it is still not clear how CIA5 regulates gene expression or how this protein interacts with other members in the signal transduction pathway(s). It seems likely that a limiting CO₂ signal causes modification of the CIA5 protein, and that the modified CIA5 then either directly regulates CO₂ responsive genes or regulates downstream signal transduction components.

CO₂ responsive promoters have been identified in *CAH1* and *CAH4/CAH5* by using the arylsulfatase (*ARS1*) gene as a reporter (Villand *et al.* 1997; Kucho *et al.* 1999, 2003). Two regulatory regions were found to be present in the *CAH1* promoter: a silencer region responsible for repressing transcription in high CO₂, and an enhancer region for activating transcription in low CO₂ (Kucho *et al.* 1999). Present in the enhancer region of *CAH1* are two *cis*-acting elements, EE-1 and EE2, which were found to interact with some nuclear proteins (Kucho *et al.* 2003). Since many CO₂ responsive genes appear to be coordinately regulated, they must share some regulatory elements or be controlled by the same pathway. In deed, the core sequence motif, EEC, in *CAH1* EE-1 and EE-2 elements is also present in the *CAH4* promoter. Recently, Yoshioka *et al.* (2004) identified and characterized LCR1, a Myb transcription factor which binds to the *CAH1* promoter. LCR1 is involved in the regulation of several low-CO₂-inducible genes, including *CAH1*, and its expression is induced by low CO₂ under the control of CIA5. LCR1 appears to be associated with the CIA5 signaling cascades, but it is not clear whether its expression is regulated directly by CIA5, or through other signal mediator(s).

Several lines of evidence have indicated that many low CO₂ inducible genes are differentially regulated. Even though expression of *CAH1*, *CCP1/CCP2* and *CAH4/CAH5* appear to be correlated, they do not always follow the same expression pattern (Villarejo *et al.* 1996, 1997). Whereas *CAH1* could be induced in darkness, *CAH4/CAH5* and *CCP1/CCP2* apparently were induced only in the light. Inhibition of the glycolate pathway appeared to repress the expression of *CAH1* and *CAH4/CAH5*, but had no effect on the expression of *CCP1/CCP2*. Even being highly homologous, the *CCP1* and *CCP2* genes exhibited different timing in their expression upon limiting CO₂ induction (Chen *et al.* 1997). It seems likely that, even sharing some regulatory elements, these CO₂ responsive genes are regulated by divergent pathways. The differential regulation may reflect an association of these genes with different CO₂ acclimation states, or with functions in distinct aspects of limiting CO₂ acclimation.

PROSPECTS

As lack of detailed molecular composition is becoming a bottleneck for our understanding of the CCM in eukaryotic

microalgae and its regulation, it is expected that more future work will continue to focus on identification of the functional components in the CCM. This task can be achieved by identification and characterization of non-acclimating mutants, global analysis of gene expression profiles, genome mining, and identification of proteins interacting with known CCM components. The recent availability of the genome sequences from *C. reinhardtii* and other microalgae, and molecular tools increasingly available for *C. reinhardtii* genetics, provide an immense step forward. Once candidate genes are available, their functions can be characterized by a reverse genetic approach, because RNA interference has been proven successful in silencing *C. reinhardtii* genes. Advances in the understanding of the CCM and its regulatory pathways in *C. reinhardtii* will give us better insight into the integrated network associated with carbon acquisition and utilization in photosynthetic organisms.

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