



## Review

# Elucidation and genetic intervention of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration mechanism in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* for increased plant primary productivity

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The rising global population is forcing the need for adapting alternative sustainable technologies for enhanced crop productivity. The CO<sub>2</sub> Concentration Mechanisms (CCMs) evolved in algae to counter the inefficient CO<sub>2</sub> fixing enzyme, RuBisCo and slower diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in water offers good scope for the above purpose. The CCMs are single-celled CO<sub>2</sub> supply mechanisms that depend on multiple CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters and acclimation states and accumulate 100-fold more CO<sub>2</sub> than low CO<sub>2</sub> environments. Although some insights have been obtained regarding the CCMs of blue-green algae and green algae like *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, further progress needs to take place to understand the molecular and biochemical basis for intracellular transport of CO<sub>2</sub>. In this review, complete information pertaining to the core CCM is presented and discussed in light of the available literature. In addition to this, information on CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> sensing, photo-acclimation in low CO<sub>2</sub>, liquid-like nature of pyrenoid, untapped potential of high CO<sub>2</sub> responses and high CO<sub>2</sub> requiring mutants, and prospects of engineering CCM components into higher plants are presented and discussed.

**Keywords.** *Chlamydomonas*; CO<sub>2</sub>; concentration mechanism (CCM); ruBisCo; pyrenoid; plant productivity

## 1. Introduction

The global population is increasing at an alarming rate while agriculture production is not, due to several constraints like decreasing farmland, diseases, drought and dehydration, and changing agro-climatic conditions (Long *et al.* 2015; Ort *et al.* 2015). There are also innate limitations within the plants for increased plant productivity due to inefficient carboxylation enzyme, RuBisCo and less radiation conversion efficiency than theoretical maxima. The above limitations cannot be overcome by classical breeding technologies and

increasing arable land, but can be increased by employing sustainable green technologies, genetic engineering, changing canopy architecture, increasing RuBisCo carboxylation efficiency and exploration of CO<sub>2</sub> Concentration Mechanisms (CCM) of microalgae (Wang *et al.* 2015; Mackinder 2017; Rae *et al.* 2017; Hennacy and Jonikas 2020).

### 1.1 Constraints for evolution and adaptation of CCM

CO<sub>2</sub> as a substrate undergoes reduction in photosynthetic reactions supplying food and energy demands of the entire biosphere. Any change in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in local environments will have a profound

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impact on the photosynthetic growth of plants (Spalding 2009). Microalgae and aquatic plants experience constant CO<sub>2</sub> limitations due to low CO<sub>2</sub> affinity and very slow catalytic turnover of CO<sub>2</sub> fixing enzyme, RuBisCo, slow bicarbonate into CO<sub>2</sub> conversion and 10<sup>4</sup> times slower diffusion of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Spalding 2009) in water. Under high O<sub>2</sub> concentrations, RuBisCo can fix O<sub>2</sub> instead of CO<sub>2</sub>, leading to loss of photosynthetically fixed CO<sub>2</sub> in a photorespiratory reaction. To overcome this deleterious reaction, microalgae, aquatic plants and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* adapted CCM (Raven et al. 2017), by using which, they rapidly scavenge inorganic carbon (Ci=HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>+CO<sub>2</sub>), uptake and maintain high CO<sub>2</sub> at the site of RuBisCo (Wang et al. 2015). Thus, in spite of low environmental CO<sub>2</sub>, cells maintain high CO<sub>2</sub> at the site of RuBisCo by sensing, active uptake and transport of both HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub> (Sultemeyer et al. 1991). The RuBisCo enzyme in *Chlamydomonas* is present in the pyrenoid of chloroplast (Borkhsenius et al. 1998). So as to reach the pyrenoid, inorganic carbon has to move across the plasma and green plastid membranes. Increasing global CO<sub>2</sub> can raise oceanic temperatures, which can in turn reduce the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in water forcing the need of CCMs even in the current scenarios (Katano et al. 2009). CCMs of Cyanophyceae and Chlorophyceae (*C. reinhardtii*) have been well studied. The *C. reinhardtii* CCM is very well investigated because its photo-physiology and biochemistry resembles higher plants (Spalding 2009; Salome and Merchant 2019). In this review, extensive information pertaining to *C. reinhardtii* CCM is presented and discussed in light of latest available literature.

CCMs operating in algae are known as biophysical CCMs as they transport inorganic carbon in the form of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to prevent diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub>; whereas C3 and C4 plants use biochemical CCM and transport CO<sub>2</sub> as organic molecule (malate). CCMs are made possible in different taxa by formation of analogous structures like carboxysomes in blue-green algae, pyrenoids in algae and mosses, kranz-type anatomy in C4 plants, where CO<sub>2</sub>, RuBisCo and carbonic anhydrases are lodged in high concentrations (Hennacy and Jonikas 2020).

## 1.2 Major components of CCM

1. Energy for active uptake and transport of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>.

2. Bicarbonate transporters or CO<sub>2</sub> channels at plasma membrane, chloroplast envelope and thylakoid lumen.
3. Carbonic anhydrases for rapid interconversion of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub> in various compartments of the cell.
4. A physical barrier for CO<sub>2</sub> leakage prevention.
5. A regulatory module for rapidly adjusting to variations in environmental CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

## 2. Induction of CCM

The induction of CCM takes place when *C. reinhardtii* cells are moved from high CO<sub>2</sub> (5%) to low CO<sub>2</sub> (air level or ≤0.04%) or very low CO<sub>2</sub> (below air level or ≤0.01%) (Vance and Spalding 2005) with dramatic changes at various levels of cellular organization (Miura et al. 2004; Yamano et al. 2008). Structural changes involve movement of large mitochondria from center of the cell to the periphery followed by fission into small several mitochondria forming a line in between chloroplast and plasma membranes (Geraghty and Spalding 1996). But the reasons for mitochondrial relocation and fission under low CO<sub>2</sub> is not known exactly. High-CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells and low-CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells show significant differences in inorganic carbon affinity and gene regulation changes. But cells in very low-CO<sub>2</sub> condition differ from those of low-CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells by very slow growth, reduced cell sizes, meager chlorophyll content per cell, and low photosynthetic rate with increased CO<sub>2</sub> affinity (Wang et al. 2015).

### 2.1 Changes associated with induction of CCM

Many CO<sub>2</sub>-responsive genes are identified by transcriptomics and functionally characterized with aid of loss or gain function mutants are the ones that code for putative CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters, carbonic anhydrases and regulatory molecules (Miura et al. 2004; Yamano et al. 2008; Duanmua et al. 2009; Moroney et al. 2011). Recent RNA-seq-based transcriptomic analysis revealed massive global gene expression shifts (14–38%), when cells shifted from high CO<sub>2</sub> to limiting CO<sub>2</sub> (Brueggeman et al. 2012). The need of two Myb transcription factors, LCR1 and LCR2 for regulation of a set of CCM genes, was found by constructing genome-wide gene regulatory network (GRN) in response to limiting CO<sub>2</sub>, but not functionally validated (Winck et al. 2013). Spatial-protein interactome

that operates in response to CCM induction was unveiled recently (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). Metabolic profiling (Renberget *et al.* 2010) of low-CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells led to the identification of differently formed metabolites under CCM conditions. Dynamic metabolic network model to explain the different phenotypes formed in response to various CO<sub>2</sub> levels was announced recently (Mora Salguero *et al.* 2018). The induction of CCM by the transcription factor, CIA5, the ‘master regulator’ was reported (Xiang *et al.* 2001), and *cia5* mutant cells do not show any CCM phenotype under low CO<sub>2</sub> with down-regulation of all known CCM genes.

## 2.2 Regulation of CCM

The complete details of regulation of CCM are not exactly known, except the confirmed roles of two transcription factors, CIA5 (master regulator) and LCR1 in *Chlamydomonas* (Xiang *et al.* 2001; Yoshioka *et al.* 2004). Analysis of CCM transcripts under day–night cycles in synchronized *Chlamydomonas* cells exposed to air-level CO<sub>2</sub> revealed the up-regulation of transcripts related to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporter genes (HLA3, LCI1, CCP1, CCP2 and LCIA) and mitochondrial carbonic anhydrases (CAH4 and CAH5) in light (Tirumani *et al.* 2014), whereas RNAs of chloroplast carbonic anhydrases, CAH3, CAH6 and LCIB are up-regulated in dark followed by high expression at the dawn. Although high expression of CAH3 was found in dark, CAH3 protein expression and pyrenoid localization was noticed in light (Tirumani *et al.* 2014). How transcriptional and translational regulation of CAH3 occurs in CO<sub>2</sub> and light–dark manner needs to be unearthed. Surprisingly, the dark induction of CAH3 is annulled after exposing of cells to high CO<sub>2</sub>, indicating that cells are sensitive to high CO<sub>2</sub> even in dark. This points that though CCM is a light-dependent process, CCM relevant changes do happen in dark. Later on, Mitchel *et al.* (2014) by focusing on dark-to-light transition period of air-level CO<sub>2</sub>-exposed *Chlamydomonas* cells found that CCM induction takes place 1 h before dawn with increased recruitment of CAH3 and RuBisCo into the pyrenoid. This means that the entire CCM machinery waits for the light signal to activate Ci uptake (Mitchel *et al.* 2014). This further supports that though CCM is a light-dependent process, dark relevant changes do happen in the cells for storing and recapture of CO<sub>2</sub>/ HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and for getting ready of CCM machinery just before dawn (Tirumani *et al.* 2014; Mitchel *et al.* 2014). Co-regulation and co-

ordination of transcription and translation of CCM and photorespiration-related genes under light–dark cycles in low CO<sub>2</sub> (but not in high CO<sub>2</sub>) and high light mixotrophic conditions were reported recently (Tirumani *et al.* 2018).

## 3. Sensing of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or CO<sub>2</sub> at the cell surface and CO<sub>2</sub> responsive elements

Unfortunately, information pertaining to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub> sensing in *Chlamydomonas* or in any other plant is very scanty. The physical interaction of HLA3 with a known CO<sub>2</sub> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> sensors, Adenylate and Guanylate Cyclases (CYG63) was recorded recently, indicating that Adenylate and Guanylate Cyclases may aid in sensing CO<sub>2</sub> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> availability at the plasma membrane (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). This observation is further supported by old literature on Adenylate and Guanylate Cyclases. Soluble Adenylate (sACs) mediated synthesis of the ubiquitous secondary messenger, cAMP in response to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and Ca<sup>+2</sup> signals, and external Ca<sup>+2</sup> acting upstream of Adenylate Cyclase were reported. Similar to mammalian sAC, dogfish sAC is activated by HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and is essential for maintaining systemic pH and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> levels in the whole organism (Tresguerres *et al.* 2010). The molecular pathway for environmental CO<sub>2</sub> sensing in animals involves the activation of a receptor type, Guanylate Cyclase, in an evolutionary conserved mechanism (Hallem *et al.* 2011). The membrane-bound Guanylate Cyclase synthesizes cGMP for use as secondary messenger for visual detection of retinal rods and cones, which is stimulated by HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Sensing of CO<sub>2</sub> at sea surfaces controlled by cAMP in diatoms was reported (Harada *et al.* 2006). A deletion analysis of marine diatom Carbonic anhydrase (PtCa1) promoter led to identification of three cAMP/CO<sub>2</sub> *cis*-responsive elements (CCRE1, CCRE2 and CCRE3) (Ohno *et al.* 2012). Crosstalk of light and CO<sub>2</sub> signal on CCRE2 *cis*-elements for transcriptional regulation of beta carbonic anhydrase in a marine diatom was revealed (Tanaka *et al.* 2016). With the aid of reporter gene, various *cis*-elements response to high CO<sub>2</sub> was found to be located at -537/-370 and -724/-537 upstream region of H42 promoter (Baba *et al.* 2011). A transporter protein similar to mammalian counterpart, PtSLC4-2, was shown to function in Ci uptake at limiting CO<sub>2</sub> conditions in diatoms (Matsuda *et al.* 2017).

Recently, regulation of CCM genes by a Ca<sup>+2</sup>-mediated signaling from chloroplast to nucleus in a reverse manner was discovered (Wang *et al.* 2016).

Low CO<sub>2</sub> increased Ca<sup>+2</sup> concentration in the pyrenoid, which in turn caused the movement of calcium binding protein (CAS) from stroma to the pyrenoid tubules (Wang *et al.* 2016), which was later further supported by high-resolution fluorescence imaging of CAS movement (Yamano *et al.* 2018). The essential role of Ca<sup>+2</sup> in CO<sub>2</sub> sensing via retrograde signaling in *Chlamydomonas* was discovered with a CAS mutant (H82) that displayed malfunctioned CCM with misregulation of HLA3 and LCIA HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters (Wang *et al.* 2016). In another study, knock-down of CAS repressed the expression of LHCSR3 protein needed for NPQ in high light, which upon calcium supplementation de-repressed the expression, proving that CAS and Ca<sup>+2</sup> are also needed for control of LHCSR3 expression (Petroustos *et al.* 2011).

The control of stomatal closure by intracellular HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ion-mediated SLAC1 channel activity was discovered in *Arabidopsis*, proving that SLAC1 anion channel is a direct sensor of CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in guard cells (Zhang *et al.* 2018). The role of aquaporins in CO<sub>2</sub> influx was proved by showing the interaction of beta-carbonic anhydrase of *Arabidopsis* with aquaporin protein, PIP2-1. The need for bicarbonate ions in the ignition of S-type ion channels that mediate Cl<sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> efflux in guard cells was revealed (Zhang *et al.* 2018). The above information confirms that multiple channels or transporters might be involved in CO<sub>2</sub> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> sensing at the plasma membrane.

#### 4. Photo-acclimations under low CO<sub>2</sub>

After sensing of low CO<sub>2</sub> levels, *Chlamydomonas* cells exhibits much higher photosynthetic affinity for CO<sub>2</sub> and uptake both forms of Ci and accumulates several folds more CO<sub>2</sub> than environmental CO<sub>2</sub>, a hallmark of CCM. The increased intracellular CO<sub>2</sub> levels are generally measured by silicone oil centrifugation and membrane inlet mass spectroscopy (MIMS). The active uptake (Sultemeyer *et al.* 1989) and transport of both forms of Ci at cell and chloroplast levels are known very early (Sultemeyer *et al.* 1991). The operation of CCM is dependent on ATP energy formed in a cyclic electron transport that is rapidly induced under limiting CO<sub>2</sub> condition (Lucker and Kramer 2013). PSBP4 along with four other proteins, YCF3, YCF4, CGL71 and TAB2, are known to be essential for PSI assembly, a key step in initiation of cyclic electron transport at the periphery of the pyrenoid. PSI protein, PSAH with transmembrane domain enriched within pyrenoid tubule and binding to PSI core where PSII docks in

during state transitions was discovered recently (Mackinder *et al.* 2017).

In light of lack of complete details of how light harvesting takes under various CO<sub>2</sub> levels, Berger *et al.* (2014) studied low CO<sub>2</sub>-mediated regulation of PSII light harvesting, induction of cyclic electron transport and synthesis of NAB1 translational repressor. The latter represses the translation of LHCBMS isoforms, while reducing the antenna size and overexcitation of PSII (Berger *et al.* 2014). In addition to this, low-CO<sub>2</sub>-exposed *C. reinhardtii* cells contained big antenna and dissipated excess energy in high light, while high-CO<sub>2</sub> grown cells contained small antenna and a smaller number of pigments (Polukhina *et al.* 2016). The CO<sub>2</sub>-limitation-imposed translational repression controls the LHCII state transitions to counter PSII overexcitation; separation of LHC-II from PSII to PSI noticed which upon CO<sub>2</sub> supplementation reverses LHCII from PSI and aggregates with quenching. This suggests that LHCII plays a regulatory role in acclimation to low CO<sub>2</sub>-levels (Ueno *et al.* 2018).

#### 5. Changes at the cell surface

In water, CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> are the major sources of inorganic carbon, the dominance and availability of which depends on pH and water currents. This is further hindered by very slow solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in water and inter-conversion of various Ci species. Under active CCM conditions, the rapid uptake of Ci at the plasma membrane results in depletion of Ci levels, making the need of a periplasmic carbonic anhydrase, CAH1, to replenish the depleted Ci levels (Spalding 2009; Wang *et al.* 2015). Extracellular carbonic anhydrases are also needed to recover leaked CO<sub>2</sub> by converting it into HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and also to maintain pH homeostasis. Carbonic anhydrase 1 is a well-investigated limiting CO<sub>2</sub>-inducible protein, but cells without CAH1 did not contain any abnormalities except reduced photosynthetic Ci affinity and changed CO<sub>2</sub> gas exchange kinetics at very low CO<sub>2</sub> (Ohnishi *et al.* 2010). It could be due to redundancy under very low CO<sub>2</sub> (Wang and Spalding 2014), and studies with multiple mutants of Ci uptake systems may reveal actual function of CAH1 (Wang *et al.* 2015).

##### 5.1 Entry at the plasma membrane level

The HLA3 (high light activated 3) and LC11 (low CO<sub>2</sub> induced protein 1) HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters have been

confirmed to be involved in the active uptake of both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at the plasma membrane (Gao *et al.* 2015). LCIB mutants with a smaller number of HLA3 transcripts displayed abnormal growth in very low  $\text{CO}_2$  and used less Ci at high pH (Duanmu *et al.* 2009). However, gain of function mutants of HLA3 in high  $\text{CO}_2$  exposed cells increased photosynthetic  $\text{CO}_2$  affinity in very low  $\text{CO}_2$  (Gao *et al.* 2015). HLA3 contains several structural features like hydrophilic and transmembrane domains of ABC transporters and its function in low  $\text{CO}_2$  confirm that it is working as  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transporter in very low  $\text{CO}_2$  at plasma membrane.

Another novel protein with several transmembrane domains, without known functional motifs and homologues having Ci transporter activity on the plasma membrane, is LCII (Ohnishi *et al.* 2010). Gain of function of LCII increased  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake and photosynthesis, while reduced number of LCII transcripts by RNAi decreased Ci uptake (Ohnishi *et al.* 2010). Immuno-fluorescence and cell fractionation studies confirmed the plasma membrane localization of LCII (Ohnishi *et al.* 2010). Recently, the characterization of LCII loss of function mutant under various  $\text{CO}_2$  levels, genetics and pH conditions led to conclusion that LCII is needed for active  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake in low  $\text{CO}_2$  condition but not for very low  $\text{CO}_2$  (Kono and Spalding 2020). The crystal structure of LCII protein revealed homotrimer organization and chances of forming a plasma membrane gated- $\text{CO}_2$  channel (Kono *et al.* 2020). The *lcil* mutant *in vivo* physiological studies further confirmed that it is essential for active  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake (Kono *et al.* 2020).

The loss of HLA3 under low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions reduced Ci uptake of *Chlamydomonas* cells (Yamano *et al.* 2015), while HLA3 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes increased  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake (Atkinson *et al.* 2015). HLA3 and LCII are known to form a complex with a P-type ATPase (Mackinder *et al.* 2017), a  $\text{H}^+$ -exporting ATPases that can regulate  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake either by forming a proton gradient or by generating localized cytosolic alkaline regions. In addition to this, HLA3 is also known to be interacted by  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase, that could post-translationally regulate HLA3. Because of the above observations, the role of HLA3 and LCII in  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  or  $\text{CO}_2$  transport at plasma membrane is confirmed.

## 5.2 $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3^-$ in the cytoplasm

Nothing is known about CCM-relevant changes in the cytoplasm and no cytosolic carbonic anhydrase could

be detected possibly to minimize the leakage of  $\text{CO}_2$  from hydration of accumulated Ci. The biochemistry and molecular biology of intracellular  $\text{CO}_2$  transport and the role of cargo molecular motor protein in  $\text{CO}_2$  or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport and energy kinetics involved there are completely not known.

The CIA8 protein belonging to sodium acid bile symporter family was identified in a genetic screen that up-regulates under low  $\text{CO}_2$  with the host cell having less growth and affinity for inorganic carbon (Machingura *et al.* 2017). The *cia8* mutant could not survive well due to low photosynthetic rate and Ci uptake under high pH levels, proving that CIA8 is an essential part of CCM, whose molecular basis for functioning is not exactly known (Machingura *et al.* 2017).

## 5.3 Moving into the chloroplast envelope

Very early, the active Ci uptake by isolated chloroplasts of *Chlamydomonas* was demonstrated (Sultemeyer *et al.* 1989). Although many chloroplast Ci transporters are known, but LCIA alone is confirmed to function in active Ci uptake across plastid envelope in very low  $\text{CO}_2$ . It is a member of NAR and FNT protein family, but its expression is regulated by  $\text{CO}_2$ . The *lcia* mutant displayed less affinity to inorganic carbon at high pH (Wang and Spalding 2014). Single mutation of LCIA, or double mutation of LCIA and HLA3 in a *lcib* mutants caused severe growth abnormality in very low  $\text{CO}_2$  (Duanmu *et al.* 2009; Wang and Spalding 2014). This proved that LCIA is needed for active transport of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in very low  $\text{CO}_2$  at plastid envelope. The bacterial FNT proteins are known to form pentameric complexes resembling aquaporin channels (Wang *et al.* 2009). The capability of LCIA to form a channel along with plasma membrane HLA3 for active uptake and transport of inorganic carbon against concentration gradient is experimentally proved by co-regulation, and both loss or gain of function of HLA3 and LCIA proteins (Duanmu *et al.* 2009; Wang and Spalding 2014; Wang *et al.* 2014; Gao *et al.* 2015; Yamano *et al.*, 2015). The aquaporin channel involved in  $\text{CO}_2$  influx was reported while studying the interaction of *Arabidopsis* beta-carbonic anhydrase with the PIP2-1, an aquaporin protein (Zhang *et al.* 2018). Similar expression of LCIA and LCII0 in chloroplast stroma and thylakoids observed, whose role is not exactly known (Mackinder *et al.* 2017).

The active  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake into chloroplast stroma by LCIB proteins was proposed as they showed stromal

localization (Yamano *et al.* 2010), but *lcib* mutants produced cells that die at air-level CO<sub>2</sub> but live normally in very low CO<sub>2</sub>. But, later work on LCIA and LCIB double mutants without growth and photosynthesis proved that LCIB is essential for acclimation to very low CO<sub>2</sub> (Wang and Spalding 2014). The LCIB may function in parallel with HLA3 or LCIA in a CO<sub>2</sub> or HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake pathway in very low CO<sub>2</sub> (Wang and Spalding 2014). Biochemically and molecularly it is not proven how LCIB helps in uptake of inorganic carbon, except the formation of heteromultimeric complex with LCIC (Yamano *et al.* 2010) and its localization in the chloroplast stroma under high CO<sub>2</sub> or dark, and in periphyrenoid under low CO<sub>2</sub> or light.

Jin *et al.* (2016), by structurally and functionally characterizing many LCIB homologs, proved that structurally LCIB proteins resemble classical beta-carbonic anhydrases. They purified and crystallized LCIB and LCIC from *Chlamydomonas* and discovered motifs that are very similar to catalytic sites of classical beta-carbonic anhydrases (Jin *et al.* 2016). However, recombinant LCIB/C complex did not show activity, suggesting the need of regulator or regulation. Both LCIB and LCIC are known to crosstalk with two putative bestrophins that up-regulate under low CO<sub>2</sub> and transfer chloride but are permeable to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> too (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). The need of LCIB and LCIC complex as carbonic anhydrase for uptake of external CO<sub>2</sub> into the stromal HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, as well as for prevention of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage (by forming HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), from the pyrenoid is proposed. At this juncture, it is also essential that the LCIB and LCIC carbonic activity under high HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio should favor the maintenance of enough quantities of Ci in the thylakoid lumen. The scope of post-translational modification of LCIB activity by glycerophosphorylation is proposed as it is found to contain glycerophosphorylation sites in the protein (Jin *et al.* 2016).

The abnormal LCIB localization and starch sheath formation was noticed in an isoamylase-deficient mutant (4-D1) and starch-sheathless mutant *sta11-1*, but not in *sta 2-1* mutant with a thin starch, suggesting the essentiality of starch sheath surrounding the pyrenoid for the correct positioning of LCIB (Toyokawa *et al.* 2020). In addition to this, isoamylase-deficient mutant has also showed retarded growth, lower affinity to Ci and decreased accumulation of HLA3 under very-low-CO<sub>2</sub> conditions.

Another stromal carbonic anhydrase, CAH6, was found by Mitra *et al.* in 2004. As it is found localized in the stroma by immunogold labelling, it is speculated that it might be having a role for converting CO<sub>2</sub> to

HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the stroma to pool up high inorganic carbon concentration or for converting the leaked (from pyrenoid) CO<sub>2</sub> into HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in *Chlamydomonas*. But, a recent study by Mackinder *et al.* (2017) indicated that CAH6 protein is localized to the flagella and absent in stroma. This is further supported by its presence in flagellar proteome and absence in chloroplast and mitochondrial proteome. CAH6 loss of function mutants would reveal its exact role in CCM. Recently, CAH6 has been implicated in Ci sensing as *C. reinhardtii* cells with the aid of flagella moved towards HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Choi *et al.* 2016). By segregating sensing machinery to the flagella, the *C. reinhardtii* cells can easily show chemotaxis to Ci (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). But the spatial-geometry of Ci sensing and uptake on *C. reinhardtii* cell surface needs to be addressed. Locating the position of bicarbonate transporters and CO<sub>2</sub> channels relative to flagella location or flagellar movements is very important for coupling the sensing machinery to uptake machinery, otherwise the detected Ci can diffuse away faster until or otherwise taken up. Earlier work on *Arabidopsis* also showed the sensing of inorganic carbon by carbonic anhydrases (Hu *et al.* 2009).

Until now, HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters operating at the plasma membrane and chloroplast envelope have been identified but not on the thylakoid membrane. Recently, three bestrophin genes (BST1, BST2 and BST3) controlled by master regulator 'CIA5' have been known to be up-regulated in low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions and found in the thylakoid membrane (Mukherjee *et al.* 2019). Knock-down of BST1-3 proteins resulted in slower growth of cells at low CO<sub>2</sub> with reduced affinity and uptake of inorganic carbon (Mukherjee *et al.* 2019). This work proved that bestrophins are needed for delivering the accumulated HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the chloroplast stroma to the CAH3 present in the thylakoid lumen (Mukherjee *et al.* 2019). It will be very interesting to check whether Tat proteins interact with bestrophins (along with CAH3) in the thylakoid in a CO<sub>2</sub> condition-dependent manner as both show similar expression on thylakoid membranes in response to 'CIA5' master regulator (Mukherjee *et al.* 2019; Benlloch *et al.* 2015).

#### 5.4 Role of starch sheath in CCM biology

Algae assemble starch granules in a shell around the pyrenoid, forming a starch sheath. Unlike globular stromal starch, the pyrenoid starch sheath has curved morphology and is made up of distinct plates that wrap around the pyrenoid and appear to form a seal

interrupted by gaps to allow the passage of pyrenoid thylakoid tubules (Meyer *et al.* 2017). Villarejo *et al.* (1996) proposed that the starch sheath was not required for operation of CCM as mutant (*isa1*) did not decrease  $C_i$  affinity. But, later a study on *isa1* mutant found lower rates of photosynthetic  $O_2$  evolution. Recently, the need of the starch sheath for LCIB localization around the pyrenoid and for photosynthetic affinity of  $CO_2$  under very low  $CO_2$  conditions was discovered (Toyokawa *et al.* 2020). Irrespective of  $CO_2$  concentrations, both 4-D1 and *stall1-1* starch mutants displayed decreased inorganic carbon affinity. Likewise, in spite of enough supply of  $C_i$  in both low and high  $CO_2$  conditions, *sagal* mutant cells having starch sheath abnormalities showed a decreased photosynthetic rate (Itakura *et al.* 2019). Interestingly, starch sheath formation was noticed even in high- $CO_2$ -grown cells (Machinder *et al.* 2016); this points out the need of starch sheath as a physical barrier in the stroma to increase  $CO_2$  for RuBisCo and also to protect stroma from the pyrenoid oxygenic reactions, hence spatially separating carboxylation and oxygenation reactions (Toyokawa *et al.* 2020) in all  $CO_2$  conditions.

The starch sheath along with SBM3, CBM48, LCI9 and other protein interactors surrounding the pyrenoid may act as a scaffold for LCIB localization and may lodge LCIB in the periphery of starch sheath (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). LCI9 could degrade starch at the gaps between starch plates, possibly ensuring a close fit for adjacent starch plates and for allowing the entry of pyrenoid tubules. Therefore, the starch sheath may be needed for maintaining inorganic carbon in the surroundings of the pyrenoid by acting as a physical diffusional barrier and also as an efficient  $CO_2$  re-capture system by clustering LCIB near chloroplasts (Itakura *et al.* 2019; Toyokawa *et al.* 2020).

The *Chlamydomonas* cells growing normally accumulate starch as a sheath around the pyrenoid, while the stressed cells show many starch granules in the plastid stroma. Under  $N_2$  starvation, these cells accumulated stromal starch rather than pyrenoid starch and turned into mutants with many starch granules similar to photosynthetic starch (Findinier *et al.* 2019). Genetic and functional analysis led to the identification of *Bi-model Starch Granule (BSG1)* gene responsible for controlling the transition from pyrenoid to stroma starch under  $N_2$  starvation (Findinier *et al.* 2019).

The stromal thylakoids extend into the pyrenoid matrix through distinct gaps in the starch sheath and fuse into reticulated network at the center (Engel *et al.* 2015). Mutants even without pyrenoid matrix still form pyrenoid tubule network at the canonical location

within the chloroplast (Caspari *et al.* 2017). The process of building the pyrenoid tubule network occurs separately from the assembly of the rest of the pyrenoid, and these tubules contain the information about where a pyrenoid should be placed. Therefore, the pyrenoid tubules may actually localize the matrix and starch sheath (Hennacy and Jonikas 2020). The topology of the transition zone between the thylakoid membranes exists as stacked sheaths in the chloroplast and more cylindrical tubules that traverse the pyrenoid is complex (Engel *et al.* 2015), but how its formation is mediated molecularly is unknown (Hennacy and Jonikas 2020). The PSAH protein associated with PSI is enriched in the pyrenoid tubules and may have function there.

### 5.5 Pyrenoid, an embodiment of $CO_2$ assimilation and biological activities

More than 50% of global  $CO_2$  fixation takes place in a non-membrane-bound, phase-separated liquid-like droplet (LLD), pyrenoid (Freeman Rosenzweig *et al.* 2017; Wunder *et al.* 2019). In the early days, pyrenoids were perceived as a RuBisCo containing electron dense and proteinaceous bodies (Borkhsenius 1998). The total RuBisCo of the cell is recruited into the pyrenoid under low  $CO_2$  conditions, while 50% of RuBisCo is retained in the pyrenoid under high  $CO_2$ . RuBisCo complexes are hexagonally packed within the pyrenoid with a gap of 15 nm, indicating the need of linker protein (Engel *et al.* 2015; Mackinder *et al.* 2017). Engel *et al.* (2015) revealed the three-dimensional organization of chloroplast and pyrenoid by cryo-electron tomography and revealed that thylakoids and pyrenoids are joined by pyrenoid tubules and each pyrenoid tubule contains many parallel mini-tubules that are formed by adjoining of two thylakoid membranes. These mini-tubules form a network with chloroplast stroma and the pyrenoid matrix and allow movement of metabolites like ATP, sugars and 3-PGA between those two locations. The pyrenoid thylakoid tubule network, an extension of stromal thylakoid into the pyrenoid matrix is known to contain  $HCO_3^-$  that is later dehydrated into  $CO_2$  by thylakoid lumen CAH3.  $CO_2$  then diffuses out into pyrenoid matrix where it is assimilated into CBB cycle by RuBisCo (Engel *et al.* 2015).

So as to reach the CAH3 present in thylakoid lumen,  $HCO_3^-$  has to cross through impermeable thylakoid membranes aided by some unknown ion channel or carrier located on thylakoid membranes (Spalding

2009). Recently, CAH3 was found to be associated with TAT2 and TAT3 proteins of Twin Arginine Translocation (Tat) pathway that delivers proteins into the thylakoid lumen (Benlloch *et al.* 2015). The CAH3 protein with Tat signal peptide (Benlloch *et al.* 2015) and localization of CAH3 to thylakoid lumen (Karlsson *et al.* 1998) supports the above observation. The direct and strong interaction of CAH3 with N-terminus of STT7 kinase that has a role in state transitions and localizations to the thylakoid lumen were revealed recently (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). Proton pumping during the light reactions of photosynthesis creates an acidic environment within the thylakoid lumen, which promotes the conversion of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  to  $\text{CO}_2$ . It is likely to be catalysed by CAH3 which localizes to thylakoid lumen. Concentrated  $\text{CO}_2$  produced at thylakoid lumen is thought to diffuse across the pyrenoid tubules to feed the RuBisCo in the matrix (Wang *et al.* 2015).

While both large (LSU) and small subunits (SSU) of RuBisCo are needed for pyrenoid assembly (Meyer *et al.* 2012), but small subunits contain regulatory sequences for the above purpose. Later, it was realized that two surface exposed  $\alpha$ -helices of the SSU are mandatory for RuBisCo assembly and pyrenoid formation (Meyer *et al.* 2012). Bleomycin-resistant insertional mutant, *cia6*, growing poorly on limiting  $\text{CO}_2$  and unable to accumulate Ci was generated. The *cia6* mutant was found to be having a protein with SET domain methyltransferase. *Cia6* mutant displayed a highly disorganized pyrenoid with lower expression of CCM genes, confirming that CIA6 (a methyl transferase) is needed for pyrenoid formation as well as for induction of CCM (Ma *et al.* 2011).

The *Arabidopsis* RuBisCo was engineered to incorporate two  $\alpha$ -helices of the *Chlamydomonas* SSU. Leaves of the above *Arabidopsis* mutant formed hybrid RuBisCo complex and displayed similar RuBisCo, growth and photosynthetic performance (Atkinson *et al.* 2017). This proved that Rubisco SSU of *Chlamydomonas* can complement the *Arabidopsis* counterpart. By using yeast two hybrid assay, Atkinson *et al.* (2019) proved that protein–protein interactions between RuBisCo and EPYC1 are dependent on two  $\alpha$ -helices of SSU of RuBisCo. This study also confirmed that *Chlamydomonas* EPYC1 and RuBisCo SSU can be targeted to plant chloroplasts without affecting growth. Higher-plant EPYC1 did not aggregated RuBisCo like in algal pyrenoids (Atkinson *et al.* 2019), but *Arabidopsis* RuBisCo with *Chlamydomonas* SSU could form liquid droplets with recombinant EPYC1 in a test tube, confirming the pyrenoid-like aggregation of higher-plant RuBisCo (Atkinson *et al.* 2019).

The Essential Pyrenoid Component 1 (EPYC1) that connects RuBisCos and forms pyrenoid and colocalizes to the entire pyrenoid was discovered recently (Mackinder *et al.* 2016). EPYC1 is also found to be essential for normal pyrenoid biology, and  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation by RuBisCo at low  $\text{CO}_2$  condition (Mackinder *et al.* 2016). Mutants with no pyrenoid showed reduced CCM proteins and failed to adapt to low- $\text{CO}_2$  environment (Mitchel *et al.* 2017). In addition to this, pyrenoid-less mutant could not accumulate EPYC1, and mis-regulated CCM and primary metabolism genes (Mitchel *et al.* 2017). Pyrenoid mutants from another study also exhibited severe growth and photosynthetic defects and malfunctional CCM (Caspari *et al.* 2017). The amino acid sequence of EPYC1 consist primarily of four nearly identical repeats, each with a predicted  $\alpha$ -helical region followed by a region predicted to be highly disordered. As the aggregation of RuBisCo into pyrenoid depends on two surface-exposed  $\alpha$ -helices found on the *Chlamydomonas* RuBisCo SSU, it is a potential site for EPYC1 binding and pyrenoid biogenesis in higher plants (Meyer *et al.* 2012; Atkinson *et al.* 2017; Hennacy and Jonikas 2020).

The pyrenoid matrix contains RuBisCo holoenzyme, RuBisCo activase and proteins of unknown function. The LCIB/C and PSB4 proteins surrounding the pyrenoid periphery in the form of puncta, Stat2 and Sbe3 proteins in the periphery, and LCI9 that localizes to mesh-like structure of the pyrenoid was discovered in a recent spatial-proteome analysis (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). By breaking the starch at starch plates, LCI9 may form a mesh-like structure at the two junctions of starch plates by interacting with CBM20. A putative methyltransferase (SMM7) located in the pyrenoid matrix along with other known methyl transferase, CIA6, are needed for pyrenoid formation (Ma *et al.* 2011; Mackinder *et al.* 2017). Pyrenoid biogenesis can be better understood after identification of functional targets of two methyl transferases, CIA6 and SMM7 (Mackinder *et al.* 2017), and a serine/threonine protein kinase, KIN4-2, that was found associated with EPYC1. EPYC1 phosphorylation in low- $\text{CO}_2$ -condition-dependent manner was reported earlier.

EPYC1 is also known to interact with FTT1 and FTT2 proteins that are known to bind redox-regulated proteins, and hence EPYC1 phosphorylation status may regulate FTT1 and FTT2, which may in turn regulate the target protein structure, function and localization. Therefore, FTT1/2 may regulate interactions between EPYC1 and RuBisCo by changing of protein–protein interactions and protein-binding domains (Mackinder *et al.* 2017). Pyrenoid proteome

analysis by Zhan *et al.* (2018) revealed the presence of 190 proteins with functions in CCM, starch and RNA metabolism, translation, ribosomal synthesis of RuBisCo LSU, tetrapyrrole, chlorophyll and carotenoid synthesis, confirming that pyrenoid is a hub of metabolism.

The pyrenoid matrix is densely packed with RuBisCo and is believed to be crystalline or amorphous solid. But a recent study by Freeman Rosenzweig *et al.* (2017) demonstrated that pyrenoid matrix of *Chlamydomonas* is not crystalline but behaves as a liquid that dissolves and condenses during cell division. Daughter pyrenoids are formed by fission or *de novo* assembly. This discovery changed our perception of structure, synthesis and regulation of pyrenoids (Freeman Rosenzweig *et al.* 2017). This kind of liquid-liquid-like phase separation (LLPS) occurs as a protein-dense droplet formed by unique multivalent scaffold proteins like RuBisCo and EPYC1 along with other scaffold proteins (Wunder *et al.* 2019). The starch granules and P-bodies are well known to behave like liquid-like droplets. Wunder *et al.* (2018) proved the essentiality and sufficiency of RuBisCo and EPYC1 to phase separate and form dynamic functional pyrenoid liquid droplets that rapidly exchange with bulk solution. This study may help in assembly of pyrenoid components in higher plants for transfer of CCM components.

The unique nature of RuBisCo-EPYC1 phase separation was further analysed by testing RuBisCo from diverse plants and it was found that EPYC1 could interact with many RuBisCo except with that of rice (Wunder *et al.* 2018). Proper pyrenoids were not formed after replacement of endogenous RuBisCo SSU with spinach counterpart (Meyer *et al.* 2012). Chimeric RuBisCo with algal LSU and rice SSU showed different phase separation events, required high amounts of EPYC1 to demix and formed droplets with abnormalities, confirming that SSU plays a pivotal in the formation of liquid droplets (Wunder *et al.* 2019). Cyanobacterial RuBisCo demixed with *Chlamydomonas* EPYC1 as well as with its native linker protein, ccmM (Wang *et al.* 2019). Recently, *E. coli* producing a recombinant plant RuBisCo and *Arabidopsis* plant expressing algal SSUs were developed, paving the way for expression of CCM components in higher plants (Aigner *et al.* 2017; Wilson *et al.* 2019).

LLDs (pyrenoids) represent an opportunity for *in vivo* RuBisCo, RCA, CAH3, protein phosphorylation and protein-protein interaction or enzymes assays that mimic physiological concentrations of stroma. And it will also enable us to understand how metabolites

like ATP, RuBP and 3-PGA affect the pyrenoid phase separation events (Wunder *et al.* 2019) in *Chlamydomonas*.

Another RuBisCo binding protein, Starch Granule Abnormal 1 (SAG1), was found to be essential for starch sheath and pyrenoid structure and function (Itakura *et al.* 2019). The *saga1* mutant had an average of 10 pyrenoids per chloroplast as against to 1 in the wild-type. Starch sheath of mutants are thinner and more elongated than wild-type. SAGA1 with starch binding motif may control starch sheath surface area by interacting with SSU and LSU of RuBisCo and expressing in the pyrenoid (Itakura *et al.* 2019).

### 5.6 CAH3, a thylakoid lumen protein with a dual function?

Karlsson *et al.* (1998) identified and sequenced thylakoid localized  $\alpha$ -CAH, CAH3, that co-purified with PSII. The *cia3* mutant has reduced PSII activity and overproduced PSII reaction centers. Later on, CAH3 protein associated with PSII donor side was found to be needed for functional stabilization of Mn cluster and water oxidizing complex (Villarejo *et al.* 2002). They have also demonstrated that purified thylakoids of *cia3(cah3)* mutants on  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  supplementation formed functional water oxidizing complex of PSII. *Cia3* mutants are impaired in ATP synthesis as compared with wild-type. Shutova *et al.* (2008) discovered that the *cia3* mutant showed malfunctioned  $\text{O}_2$  evolution in the absence of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . Time-resolved fluorescence and  $\text{O}_2$  evolution experiments indicated that CAH3 facilitate proton removal from Mn complex by providing  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  as a source of proton carrier. Thus, proton removal by CAH3 on the donor side of PSII during photolysis of water is very important for  $\text{O}_2$  liberation (Shutova *et al.* 2008).

Markelova *et al.* (2009) found the Western blot lacks cross-reactivity of antibodies to CAH3 in the mutant lacking the PSII RC in contrast to mutant deficient in LHC of PSII. Immuno-electron microscopy revealed that CAH3 is localized to the pyrenoid in low  $\text{CO}_2$ . The PSII  $\text{O}_2$  evolution activity was lower in *cia3* mutant than in wild-type under low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions, confirming that CAH3 is involved in CCM (Markelova *et al.* 2009). This result supported the hypothesis that carboxylation reaction occurs in the pyrenoid that acquires  $\text{CO}_2$  from intrapyrenoid thylakoids (Markelova *et al.* 2009). This result also confirmed that CAH3 is needed for dehydration of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and supply of  $\text{CO}_2$  to RuBisCo (Markelova *et al.* 2009) in the pyrenoid. The

immuno-electron microscopic observation has shed light on CAH3 distribution in thylakoids especially in the intra-pyrenoid thylakoid membranes. Its presence in the above location may favor its function in generating CO<sub>2</sub> from HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the thylakoid lumen; the high CO<sub>2</sub> thus generated diffuses out into the pyrenoid matrix where RuBisCo is lodged (Sinetova *et al.* 2012). CAH3 protein phosphorylation with increased activity was observed when *Chlamydomonas* cells shifted from high-CO<sub>2</sub> to low-CO<sub>2</sub> conditions. It is also correlated with its relocation from PSII in the stroma to pyrenoid (Blanco-Rivero *et al.* 2012). This indicated the need of operating post-translational regulations in CCM while adjusting to limiting CO<sub>2</sub>. Dark induction and up-regulation of CAH3 just 1 h before dawn in synchronized and photoautotrophically grown cells was reported (Mitchel *et al.* 2014; Tirumani *et al.* 2014). Although high CAH3 transcription was noticed in dark, activated translation, protein accumulation and pyrenoid localization was noticed with light (Tirumani *et al.* 2014).

Benlloch *et al.* (2015) with the aid of MIMS proved that CAH3 was active at acidic pH present in thylakoid lumen under light. The crystal structure of CAH3 revealed that it consisted of a dimer with a disulphide bond. Titration with DTT revealed redox regulation of CAH3 with a structural feature to increase PSII function at low pH and CO<sub>2</sub>.

The *Chlamydomonas* wild-type and *cia3* mutants were found to have the same amount of reaction centers, cytochrome, subunits of WOC, Mn<sup>2+</sup> and carotenes (Terentyev *et al.* 2019), but differ in carotenoids, redox forms of cytochrome<sub>b559</sub> and outer LHCs. Functionally, PSII fractions from both mutant and wild-type showed similar photosynthetic activity, but *cia3* (*cah3*) mutants contained more closed reaction centers even at pH 6.5 and showed more pronounced suppression of PSII photosynthetic activity (Terentyev *et al.* 2019).

So as to have a comprehensive understanding of the CCM pathway, the *Chlamydomonas* whole cell along with one big chloroplast having two flagella is shown in figure 1, and a schematic representation of the CCM pathway along with number of new molecules implicated thereof has been depicted in figure 2 for better appreciation of CCM pathway.

## 6. Advantages of algal CCMs

The algal CCMs are unicellular CO<sub>2</sub> supply mechanisms relying on many and diverse Ci uptake systems and CO<sub>2</sub> acclimations that can increase intracellular Ci

several fold. Half of the global primary productivity comes from microalgae (Raven and Beardall 2015). Algae are 2–10 times more efficient at absorbing CO<sub>2</sub> and produce 15–300 times more biomass (Beardall and Stojkovic 2006) than land-based plants due to short life cycle and fast growth rate (Chisti 2008; Tredici 2010). In addition to this, algae can fix CO<sub>2</sub> from different sources, from the atmosphere, industrial exhaust gas and in the form of soluble carbonates. Algae can be grown in many climates, harvested year around and can be used to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> near emission sources and buried as biomass to reduce our carbon footprint (Zeiler *et al.* 1995). As it is well known that CO<sub>2</sub> is the causative agent of the greenhouse effect, using microalgal CCMs, it is possible to sequester CO<sub>2</sub> into biological systems, developing sustainable green technologies with beneficial CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration (Lam and Lee 2013; Zheng *et al.* 2014). In addition to this, it is of great significance to understand how changes in global climate like high heat, CO<sub>2</sub>, UV radiation and temperature are impacting microalgal CCM as an important component of the global carbon cycle.

### 6.1 Untapped potential of high-CO<sub>2</sub>-requiring mutants (HCRMs)

Biomass obtained from microalgae is considered a suitable renewable energy source and many studies have been conducted to develop superior strains for this purpose. *Chlamydomonas* with active CCM is a potential target for drawing down of environmental CO<sub>2</sub> through sustainable green CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> sequestration technologies. But the application of the same for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration was hindered by failure to induce CCM under high-CO<sub>2</sub> and high-light conditions. The mutants of *Chlamydomonas* with ‘constitutively active CCM’ will be a highly desirable phenotype as it fixes more CO<sub>2</sub> in high-CO<sub>2</sub> and high-light environments and will be resistant to photo-damage and ROS production as high CO<sub>2</sub> consumes reducing power generated by high light (Hwangbo *et al.* 2018). Recent studies also indicated that addition of inorganic carbon sources to the culture medium removed oxidative stress by increasing the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> to O<sub>2</sub>, thereby reducing the generation of toxic ROS (Peng *et al.* 2016). The *C. reinhardtii* mutant(s) that need high CO<sub>2</sub> can accumulate more biomass and offer a cheap raw material for production of industrially important molecules through environmentally sustainable CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration green technologies (Salome and Merchant 2019). In the event of lack of complete details on regulation of CCM,

**Table 1.** List of CCM-related genes expressed in higher plants along with their transgenic phenotype

S. No.	CCM gene/Host Cell	Target plant transformed	Phenotype of transformed plant	Reference
1	ictB of <i>Synechococcus</i>	<i>Arabidopsis</i> and tobacco	Faster photosynthetic rate at limiting CO <sub>2</sub>	Lieman-Hurwitz <i>et al.</i> (2003)
2	ictB of Cyanobacterium	Rice	Increased photosynthetic growth and yield	Yang <i>et al.</i> (2008)
3	RuBisCo, RbcX, and ccMM35 of Cyanobacterium	Tobacco	RuBisCo formed complex in stroma with higher rates of CO <sub>2</sub> fixation (fasterRuBisCo)	Lin <i>et al.</i> (2014)
4	CCM components of <i>Chlamydomonas</i>	Transiently in tobacco and stably in <i>Arabidopsis</i>	No growth differences noticed between control and modified plant	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> (2015)
5	Improved Cyanobacteria RuBisCo	Tobacco	Photosynthesis with higher carboxylation rate than control plant	Occhialini <i>et al.</i> (2016)
6	ictB of Cyanobacterium	Soybean	Increased photosynthetic CO <sub>2</sub> uptake and dry mass	Hay <i>et al.</i> (2017)
7	LCIA and CAH3 of <i>Chlamydomonas</i>	Tobacco	Enhanced CO <sub>2</sub> uptake rates, increased PSII, shoot biomass and chlorophyll content	Nolke <i>et al.</i> (2019)
8	BicA bicarbonate transporter of <i>Synechococcus</i>	Tobacco chloroplast	BicA localized into chloroplast without impacting growth and development	(2014)
9	ictB/FBP of Cyanobacteria	Rice	Higher mesophyll conductance and net photosynthetic rate	Gong <i>et al.</i> (2015)
10	S1,6BP, F16B and ictB	Tobacco	Increased the rate of CO <sub>2</sub> assimilation, leaf area, and biomass yield Fixed 12–19% more CO <sub>2</sub> than wild-type	Simkin <i>et al.</i> (2015)

HCRMs thus formed may be the basis for identification of key regulatory molecules involved in CO<sub>2</sub> signal transduction pathway (Wang *et al.* 2014a).

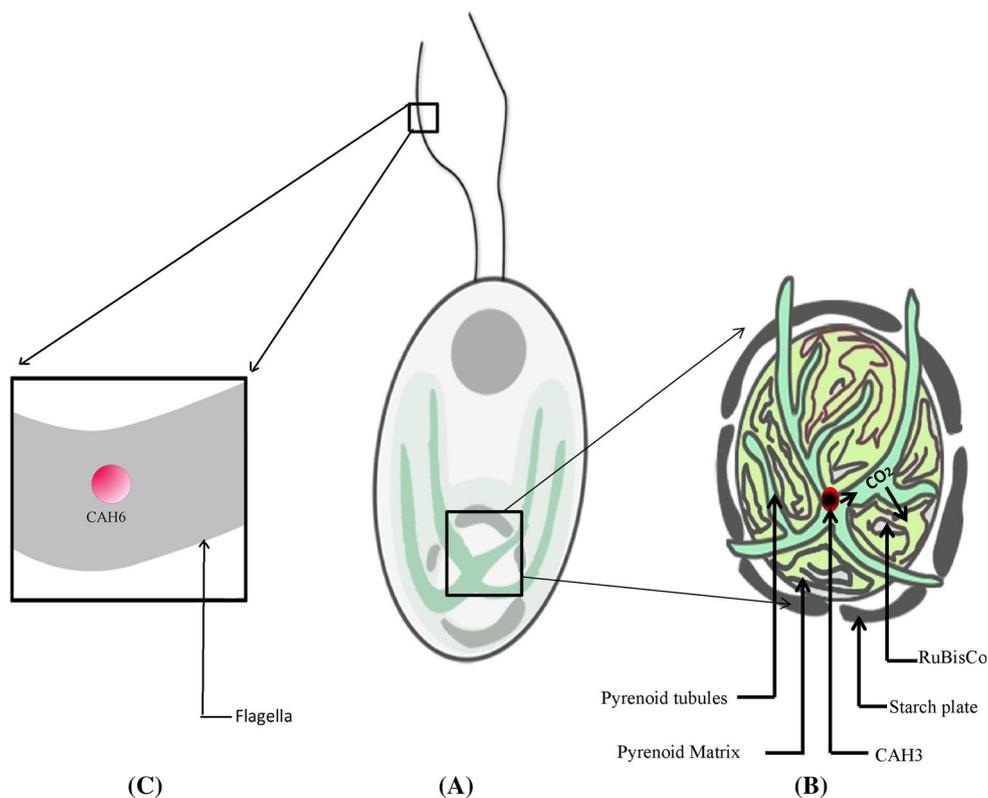
## 6.2 High CO<sub>2</sub> response of *Chlamydomonas* cells

Although *Chlamydomonas* cells response to low CO<sub>2</sub> was extensively studied, but very little or no information is available on the molecular and biochemical basis for cells response and adaptation to high CO<sub>2</sub> conditions. Understanding this process is very important to know how higher plants respond to high CO<sub>2</sub>, which will also be used in modeling of crops to high-CO<sub>2</sub> future environments. As *Chlamydomonas* cells receive enough number of carbon skeletons under high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, the same can be diverted into diverse metabolic pathways to produce several high-value compounds under specific stress conditions. The successful exploration of high-CO<sub>2</sub>-grown cells for production of several industrially important compounds was demonstrated (Solovchenko and Khozin-Goldberg 2013; Ruiz *et al.* 2016; Sathasivam *et al.* 2019).

The high-CO<sub>2</sub>-exposed *Chlamydomonas* cells induce the expression of several proteins (Miura *et al.* 2004) like Rhp1 and Rhp2 (Soupene *et al.* 2004) and periplasmic proteins, CAH<sub>2</sub> and H43 (Hanawa *et al.* 2007). Later work on H43 proved that it is a multitarget protein and shows response to high CO<sub>2</sub>, Fe and cadmium stresses (Hanawa *et al.* 2007; Baba *et al.* 2011) and same has been developed as marker for high CO<sub>2</sub> sensing mechanism. By fusing H43 to reporter gene, *cis*-elements response to high CO<sub>2</sub> was found to be located at the -537/-370 and -724/-537 upstream region of H42 promoter (Baba *et al.* 2011).

## 6.3 Prospects of engineering *Chlamydomonas* CCM components into higher plants

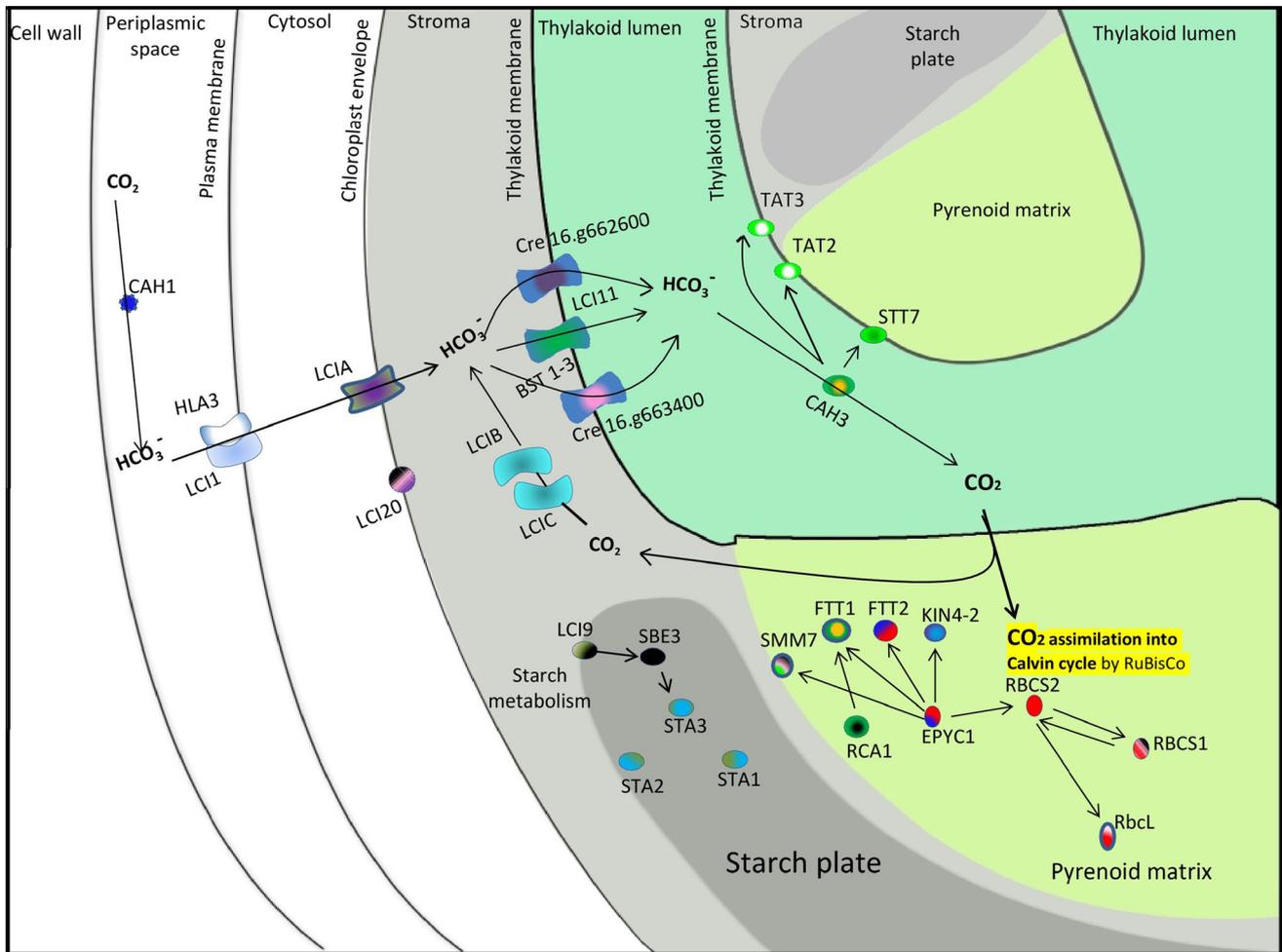
The current world population and changing agro-climatic conditions indicate that there is an imminent need to develop crop plants that require limited space and inputs but give higher yields with less environmental impacts (Ruan *et al.* 2012; Long *et al.* 2015; Mackinder 2017; Rae *et al.* 2017). CCMs of microalgae represent the best option in that direction as they show high photosynthetic rate coupled with good



**Figure 1.** *Chlamydomonas* whole cell. (A) General view of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cell with a single big cup shaped chloroplast and two flagella. (B) Enlarged view of chloroplast pyrenoid. (C) Magnified view of flagella with CAH6 protein.

growth in low-CO<sub>2</sub> environments. So as to realize this potential, Atkinson *et al.* (2015) took 10 major genes of *Chlamydomonas* CCM pathways and did localization studies in *Chlamydomonas*, expressed briefly in tobacco and stably in *Arabidopsis*. Expression of tagged CCM proteins in *Chlamydomonas* revealed that all CCM proteins except CAH3 and CAH6 had similar intracellular localization as in wild-type *Chlamydomonas*. By fusing to chloroplast transit peptide, they are retargeted to the chloroplast. The chloroplast carrier proteins, CCP1 and CCP2, showed expression in mitochondria of both *Chlamydomonas* and tobacco. The expression of LCIA and HLA3 in *Arabidopsis* plant displayed growth similar to wild-type plants (Atkinson *et al.* 2015). Individual transgenic tobacco plants were generated by using CrCAH3 in the thylakoid lumen or bicarbonate transporter CrLCIA in the chloroplast membrane (Nolke *et al.* 2019). The homozygous transgenic plants displayed increased CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, PSII activity and chlorophylls. In addition to this, they accumulated more shoot biomass, carbohydrate and amino acid than wild-types, reflecting the high photosynthetic rates (Nolke *et al.* 2019).

This confirmed that individual CCM genes can be transferred into C3 plants for increased biomass productivity. The present data on CCM genes targeted to higher plants indicates that by stably targeting into their appropriate locations in chloroplast and mitochondria, several CCM genes can be expressed in C3 plants for enhanced productivity. Although limited work (Atkinson *et al.* 2015; Nolke *et al.* 2019) has been done in the direction of transferring *Chlamydomonas* CCM components into higher plants, several CCM genes of prokaryotic cyanobacteria were targeted into many crops with promising results (table 1). This points out that more work needs to be done with the objective of transferring eukaryotic *Chlamydomonas* CCM components into higher plants as the physiology and biochemistry of C3 plants resemble that of *Chlamydomonas*. Engineering pyrenoid biogenesis in higher plants seems to be an attractive option as several *in vitro* studies mentioned earlier offer promising scope. *Chlamydomonas* mutant library, systems and synthetic biology approaches coupled with metabolic pathway engineering could help in transfer of core-CCM components in non-



**Figure 2.** Schematic view of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration mechanism (CCM) pathway in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (modified from Engel *et al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2015; Mackinder *et al.* 2017).

CCM host plant and later into higher plants (Mackinder 2017).

## 7. Future perspectives

Although some crucial leads have been obtained in understanding the mechanistic details of CCM by yeomen services of scientists working in CCM field, further work needs to be done to understand the complete details of CCM. Listed below are some lacunas to be filled in by the future projects.

1. What is the exact biochemical role of LCIB as a directional carbonic anhydrase?
2. Mechanisms of LCIB migration around the pyrenoid is not clear and may respond to changes in CO<sub>2</sub> irrespective of starch sheath.
3. The role of mitochondria in CCM regulation (CCP1/2 and CAH4/5) needs to be unearthed.
4. Comparison of RNA sequencing results of all known mutants and wild-type cells may lead to the finding of missing information.
5. Biochemical and molecular basis for intracellular Ci transport, the role of molecular motors, cytoskeletal proteins and energy involvements for Ci transport need to be understood.
6. Although extensive information is available on epigenetic regulation in stress response and adaptation, the role of microRNAs and methylation in CCM regulation are not completely known.
7. Modulation of CCM by other environmental factors like heat, UVB and temperature should be unearthed.
8. It will be very interesting to know how different types (colors) and fluences of light regulate the CCM process.
9. Studying the pH changes as a function of CCM will be useful in understanding the conversion of

- various forms of Ci in different compartments of the cell.
10. Unraveling the complete molecular mechanistic details of pyrenoid biogenesis is very essential for manipulation of CCM.
  11. The exact functional role of starch sheath in the CCM needs to be unearthed.
  12. More research is needed to understand the molecular details of how pyrenoid tubules are formed from thylakoid membranes as constructing pyrenoid tubules will likely to be an important step towards engineering of algal CCM in the land plants.
  13. Studying the CCM by multi-omics approach may offer insights into simultaneous changes associated with operation of CCM mechanism and it also help in picking the missing pieces and crosstalk among various systems.
  14. Although it is very well known that CAH3 supplies CO<sub>2</sub> to RuBisCo by dehydrating HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, how it delivers and where it is exactly localized are not known completely.
  15. Although signatures pertaining to post-translational regulation of HLA3 and LCIB are known, it is not yet proven.
  16. Recent studies on mutants, differential expression and localization patterns has implicated many new molecules with a possible role in CCM, but are not validated functionally.
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