

Acclimation to Very Low CO₂: Contribution of Limiting CO₂ Inducible Proteins, LCIB and LCIA, to Inorganic Carbon Uptake in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*¹[OPEN]

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The limiting-CO₂ inducible CO₂-concentrating mechanism (CCM) of microalgae represents an effective strategy to capture CO₂ when its availability is limited. At least two limiting-CO₂ acclimation states, termed low CO₂ and very low CO₂, have been demonstrated in the model microalga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, and many questions still remain unanswered regarding both the regulation of these acclimation states and the molecular mechanism underlying operation of the CCM in these two states. This study examines the role of two proteins, Limiting CO₂ Inducible A (LCIA; also named NAR1.2) and LCIB, in the CCM of *C. reinhardtii*. The identification of an LCIA-LCIB double mutant based on its inability to survive in very low CO₂ suggests that both LCIA and LCIB are critical for survival in very low CO₂. The contrasting effects of individual mutations in LCIB and LCIA compared with the effects of LCIB-LCIA double mutations on growth and inorganic carbon-dependent photosynthetic O₂ evolution reveal distinct roles of LCIA and LCIB in the CCM. Although both LCIA and LCIB are essential for very low CO₂ acclimation, LCIB appears to function in a CO₂ uptake system, whereas LCIA appears to be associated with a HCO₃⁻ transport system. The contrasting and complementary roles of LCIA and LCIB in acclimation to low CO₂ and very low CO₂ suggest a possible mechanism of differential regulation of the CCM based on the inhibition of HCO₃⁻ transporters by moderate to high levels of CO₂.

The CO₂ concentration in Earth's atmosphere has declined significantly since the origin of photosynthesis, and the current atmospheric CO₂ level is a major limiting factor for optimal photosynthesis in many plant species. Rubisco, the central enzyme catalyzing CO₂ assimilation, has a low affinity for CO₂ and a slow catalytic turnover rate for the carboxylation reaction, possibly as an evolutionary relic, and also catalyzes the competing oxygenation reaction between O₂ and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate that releases fixed CO₂ through photorespiration. As a result, several adaptive strategies have evolved to improve photosynthetic efficiency by raising the CO₂ concentration at the site of Rubisco to increase the carboxylation rates and to suppress the wasteful photorespiration pathway. Among them, the cyanobacterial/microalgal CO₂-concentrating mechanism (CCM) appears to be one of the most effective strategies for CO₂ enrichment. These CCMs deploy diverse, active inorganic

carbon (Ci) uptake systems, allowing cells to accumulate intracellular Ci up to 1,000-fold from low CO₂ environments (Badger and Price, 2003; Moroney and Ynalvez, 2007; Price et al., 2008; Spalding, 2008). Because microalgae and cyanobacteria contribute a great portion of global CO₂ sequestration through photosynthesis (Behrenfeld et al., 2001), and have shown enormous potential as an alternative future energy source (Sheehan et al., 1998; Wijffels and Barbosa, 2010), enhanced knowledge of the microalgal CCM will provide not only insights into the CCM's influences on natural environments, but also guidance for the potential application of bioengineering approaches to enhance biomass productivity in economically important algae strains, or to improve photosynthetic carbon fixation in crop species that lack a CCM.

Although microalgal and cyanobacterial CCMs exhibit a very high level of diversity with regard to components and mechanisms (Badger and Spalding, 2000), these CCMs share some major molecular characteristics, including Rubisco sequestration in a specialized microcompartment, catalyzed interconversion of Ci species by carbonic anhydrase (CA), and energy-dependent, active Ci uptake systems. The eukaryotic CCM has been extensively studied in the model organism *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* during the last 3 to 4 decades. Compared with the prokaryotic, cyanobacterial CCM, the eukaryotic, microalgal CCM appears complex because of the involvement of additional subcellular compartments and regulatory systems (Wang et al., 2011). Some areas of uncertainty regarding key features of the microalgal CCM remain to be addressed. First, Ci, including the charged species, bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), must cross both the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope to

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reach Rubisco, yet the roles, if any, of proposed and confirmed Ci transporters, including the plasma membrane proteins HLA3 and Limiting CO₂ Inducible1 (LCI1) and the chloroplast envelope proteins LCIA (NAR1.2), CCP1, and CCP2 (Im and Grossman, 2002; Miura et al., 2004; Pollock et al., 2004; Mariscal et al., 2006; Duanmu et al., 2009a; Ohnishi et al., 2010), in acclimation and Ci uptake under different limiting CO₂ conditions are not yet clearly defined. Second, previous physiological studies have demonstrated that active uptake of both CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ occurs in *C. reinhardtii* (Moroney and Tolbert, 1985; Sültemeyer et al., 1989), but the molecular components and the underlying mechanism responsible for active CO₂ uptake are still largely unknown. Third, the tight regulation of CCM functional components is still not well understood (Spalding et al., 2002). Physiological studies in wild-type *C. reinhardtii* cells have suggested that within the range of so-called limiting or low CO₂ (the meaning of low CO₂ is not universally defined in many previous publications, often ranging from air level of CO₂ to nearly zero CO₂), at least two distinct acclimation states, low CO₂ (approximately 0.03%–0.5%) and very low CO₂ (<0.02%), can be defined (Vance and Spalding, 2005). However, recent transcriptome studies (Brueggeman et al., 2012; Fang et al., 2012) failed to identify any changes that occur at the transcription abundance level between low CO₂ and very low CO₂ conditions, so it is still unclear how the CCM is differentially regulated between these two limiting CO₂ acclimation states.

The first line of clear genetic evidence showing multiple, limiting-CO₂ acclimation states came from identification of mutants with an *air dier* growth phenotype (Wang and Spalding, 2006); these mutants die in air level of CO₂ (0.03%–0.05%) but can survive in either high CO₂ (5%) or very low CO₂ (<0.02%), and their ability to accumulate Ci is severely compromised in low CO₂ but fairly normal in very low CO₂. The mutation causing this *air dier* phenotype has been unequivocally linked to the *LCIB* gene (Wang and Spalding, 2006), which encodes a novel chloroplast protein that forms a heteromultimeric complex with its close homolog LCIC (Yamano et al., 2010; Wang and Spalding, 2014). It is unclear how LCIB is involved in Ci accumulation, largely because of its unknown biochemical characteristics and the lack of homologs of known function in other organisms. Genetic analysis of *LCIB/CAH3* double mutants indicated that LCIB functions downstream of CAH3, a thylakoid lumen CA (Duanmu et al., 2009b). Because CAH3 catalyzes dehydration of accumulated HCO₃⁻ to provide CO₂ for Rubisco inside the pyrenoid (Spalding et al., 1983b; Moroney et al., 2011), it has been hypothesized that LCIB captures CO₂ leaked from the pyrenoid, possibly by unidirectionally hydrating CO₂ back to HCO₃⁻ (Duanmu et al., 2009b). If this hypothesis is correct, it also implies that LCIB may also function in active Ci accumulation by unidirectionally hydrating externally diffused CO₂ into the stromal HCO₃⁻ pool (Wang and Spalding, 2014). LCIB and the LCIB/LCIC complex change location within the chloroplast when

cells are transferred from low CO₂ (or high CO₂) to very low CO₂ conditions (Yamano et al., 2010; Wang and Spalding, 2014; Yamano et al., 2014), suggesting that a regulatory mechanism exists to regulate the functions of LCIB, possibly associated with low CO₂ and very low CO₂ acclimation states.

The growth phenotype and physiological characteristics of *LCIB* mutants clearly demonstrate that LCIB is indispensable for Ci acquisition in low CO₂, but is dispensable in very low CO₂ when other Ci uptake systems are still functional. It is also clear, however, that even though it is dispensable, LCIB contributes to viability in very low CO₂ (Duanmu et al., 2009a), although neither its level of contribution to nor its precise role in Ci uptake under these conditions has been established. Two putative Ci transporters have been demonstrated to contribute LCIB-independent Ci uptake in *C. reinhardtii*. Knockdown of *HLA3*, a gene encoding an ATP-binding cassette transporter protein, causes growth defects in *LCIB* mutants in very low CO₂ and decreased Ci accumulation especially at a high pH (Duanmu et al., 2009a). *HLA3* is predicted to be localized on the plasma membrane, and therefore is very likely involved in HCO₃⁻ transport at this location. *LCIA*, another putative Ci transporter that might be involved in Ci uptake in very low CO₂, belongs to a formate-nitrite transporter (FNT) family (Mariscal et al., 2006), and is predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast envelope (Miura et al., 2004). Although it shows significant identity to the *C. reinhardtii* nitrate assimilation-related (*NAR*) gene family and has also been named *NAR1.2*, unlike other *NAR* genes, *LCIA* expression is regulated by CO₂ but not by nitrogen source (Miura et al., 2004; Mariscal et al., 2006), and introduction of an *LCIA* gene into *Xenopus laevis* oocytes reportedly increased HCO₃⁻ uptake (Mariscal et al., 2006). Although no *LCIA* single knockout or knockdown mutants have been reported, simultaneous co-knockdown of *LCIA* with *HLA3* resulted in decreased Ci accumulation and decreased growth in very low CO₂, especially when combined with *LCIB* mutations (Duanmu et al., 2009a). Although it appears that their contribution to Ci uptake may be important for the growth of *C. reinhardtii* under very low CO₂, *HLA3*- or *LCIA*-associated Ci uptake in the absence of *LCIB* cannot support growth of *LCIB* mutants in air-level CO₂, as evidenced by the *air dier* phenotype. This suggests that the primary role for these putative Ci transporters may be in very low CO₂ conditions, but it is not clear whether, or how, *HLA3* and *LCIA* are differentially regulated between very low CO₂ and low CO₂.

This study was undertaken primarily to dissect the molecular mechanisms underlying the functional acclimation to very low CO₂ in *C. reinhardtii*. We identified an *LCIA-LCIB* double mutant that is unable to survive in very low CO₂. The effects of the single *LCIB* mutation, the *LCIA* mutation, and the combined *LCIA* and *LCIB* mutations on growth and Ci-dependent photosynthetic O₂ evolution reveal possible functions of *LCIB* and *LCIA* in the CCM, and demonstrate that both *LCIA* and *LCIB* contribute to Ci acquisition and acclimation under

very low CO₂ conditions but that they play distinct and complementary roles. Analyses of these data also revealed a possible mechanism to explain the curious *air dier* phenotype of *LCIB* mutants and the regulation between low CO₂ and very low CO₂ acclimation states.

RESULTS

Impact of *LCIB* Mutation on Ci-Dependent O₂ Evolution

LCIB mutations cause severe inhibition of Ci uptake and photosynthesis in low CO₂, but appear to have much less impact on photosynthesis in very low CO₂ (Spalding et al., 1983a; Wang and Spalding, 2006; Duanmu et al., 2009a; Yamano et al., 2010; Duanmu and Spalding, 2011). To better understand this dichotomy, we more closely examined the impact of the *LCIB* mutation on very low CO₂ acclimation and Ci species dependence of photosynthesis in the *LCIB* mutant by comparing photosynthetic O₂ evolution in very low CO₂ acclimated cells of the wild type and the *LCIB* mutant *air dier1* (*ad1*; Wang and Spalding, 2006) at two pHs. As shown in Figure 1A, at an acidic pH (pH 6.0), where the relative abundance of CO₂ is higher, O₂ evolution in *ad1* was severely inhibited in 10 to 100 μM Ci but regained wild type rates at 200 μM Ci. However, at pH 7.3, where HCO₃⁻ is much more abundant than CO₂, O₂ evolution rates in *ad1* were very similar to those of wild-type cells at 0 to 50 μM Ci but were inhibited relative to the wild type in 50 to 200 μM Ci. Furthermore, photosynthetic rates in *ad1* actually decreased as Ci concentration was increased between 50 μM and 200 μM. The different responses of *ad1* at these two pHs suggest that the function of *LCIB*, which is absent in *ad1*, is Ci species dependent. When the photosynthetic O₂ evolution rates are plotted as a function of the calculated CO₂ or HCO₃⁻ concentrations (Fig. 1, B and C), the apparent inhibition of O₂ evolution in *ad1* relative to the wild type occurs in the same CO₂ concentration range, but in different total Ci or HCO₃⁻ concentration ranges, at both pHs, and this CO₂ range corresponds to CO₂ concentrations associated with the low CO₂ acclimation state (Vance and Spalding, 2005), even though the algae were acclimated to very low CO₂. These results suggest that the *LCIB* mutant is compromised strictly in CO₂ uptake and specifically in the low CO₂ range. Furthermore, the different responses of *ad1* at two pHs also suggest that another element, possibly a HCO₃⁻ transport pathway, is responsible for the apparently normal photosynthetic O₂ evolution at lower Ci concentrations (<50 μM at pH 7.3; <10 μM at pH 6.0), equivalent to < 7 μM CO₂ at either pH, which corresponds to the range of CO₂ concentrations associated with the very low CO₂ acclimation state (Vance and Spalding, 2005). The rates of photosynthetic O₂ evolution in *ad1* are very similar at either pH when plotted as a function of the HCO₃⁻ concentration, but not the total Ci or CO₂ concentration (Fig. 1, D–F), which supports the suggestion that a HCO₃⁻ transport system is responsible for the growth and Ci uptake of the *LCIB* mutant in very low CO₂.

Generation of Additional Mutations in an *LCIB* Mutant Background

Although the *LCIB*-associated Ci uptake is missing in *LCIB* mutants, other Ci uptake systems appear still functional, as evidenced by the nearly normal photosynthetic rates of *ad1* in the lowest Ci concentrations (<50 μM at pH 7.3; <10 μM at pH 6.0; Fig. 1A) and by its apparently normal growth in very low CO₂ (Fig. 2). To facilitate identification of Ci uptake systems responsible in *LCIB* mutants for active Ci uptake and growth in very low CO₂, *ad1* was mutagenized by random insertion of an aminoglycoside 3-phosphotransferase (*Aph8*) gene-bearing plasmid (Sizova et al., 2001), selected for paromomycin resistance (*para*^R) and screened for inability to grow in very low CO₂. Five mutants with the target phenotype were identified from about 2,000 screened *para*^R transformants. Whereas *ad1* shows a typical *air dier* growth phenotype and thus can still grow in very low CO₂, these new mutants were unable to grow in either very low CO₂ or low CO₂, but grew as well as the wild type in high CO₂ (Fig. 2). The genomic DNA flanking the *Aph8* insert from these new double mutants was isolated and sequenced, which confirmed that all were independent mutants. One mutant in which the insert was found to have disrupted the *LCIA* gene was named *lab1* (*LCIA-LCIB* double mutant), and was further characterized.

LCIA Mutation in *lab1* Responsible for the Lethal Growth Phenotype in Very Low CO₂

The plasmid bearing *Aph8* in *lab1* is inserted in the sixth exon of *LCIA*, causing a 243 base deletion, including 133 nucleotides in the coding sequence and 110 nucleotides in the 3' untranslated region (UTR; Fig. 3A). The insertion in *LCIA* was confirmed by PCR with a pair of primers that amplify the genomic DNA in this region (Fig. 3B). In wild-type cells, expression of the *LCIA* protein is induced by limiting CO₂. However, even though the insertion in *lab1* is located near the 3' end of *LCIA* and causes a deletion of only 44 C-terminal amino acids, western immunoblots were unable to detect any *LCIA* protein in *lab1* (Fig. 3C), either because *LCIA* is not properly transcribed or not properly translated or because its transcripts or polypeptides are quickly degraded.

A genetic cross between *lab1* and wild-type strain CC620 was performed to confirm whether the lethal growth phenotype in *lab1* is caused by the mutation in *LCIA*. Because *lab1* has both a bacterial phleomycin resistance (*Ble*) gene, (confers zeocin resistance [*zeo*^R]) insert (causing the *LCIB* deletion) and an *Aph8* insert (causing the *LCIA* truncation), progeny carrying both *LCIB* and *LCIA* mutations were selected for both *zeo*^R and *para*^R. More than 50 random progeny were tested for growth in different CO₂ concentrations, and all progeny carrying both mutations (confirmed by PCR) showed the same growth phenotype as *lab1* (lethal in both low CO₂ and very low CO₂), indicating that the inability of *lab1* to grow in very low CO₂ is genetically linked to the insertion in *LCIA*. We further cloned a genomic DNA fragment containing the

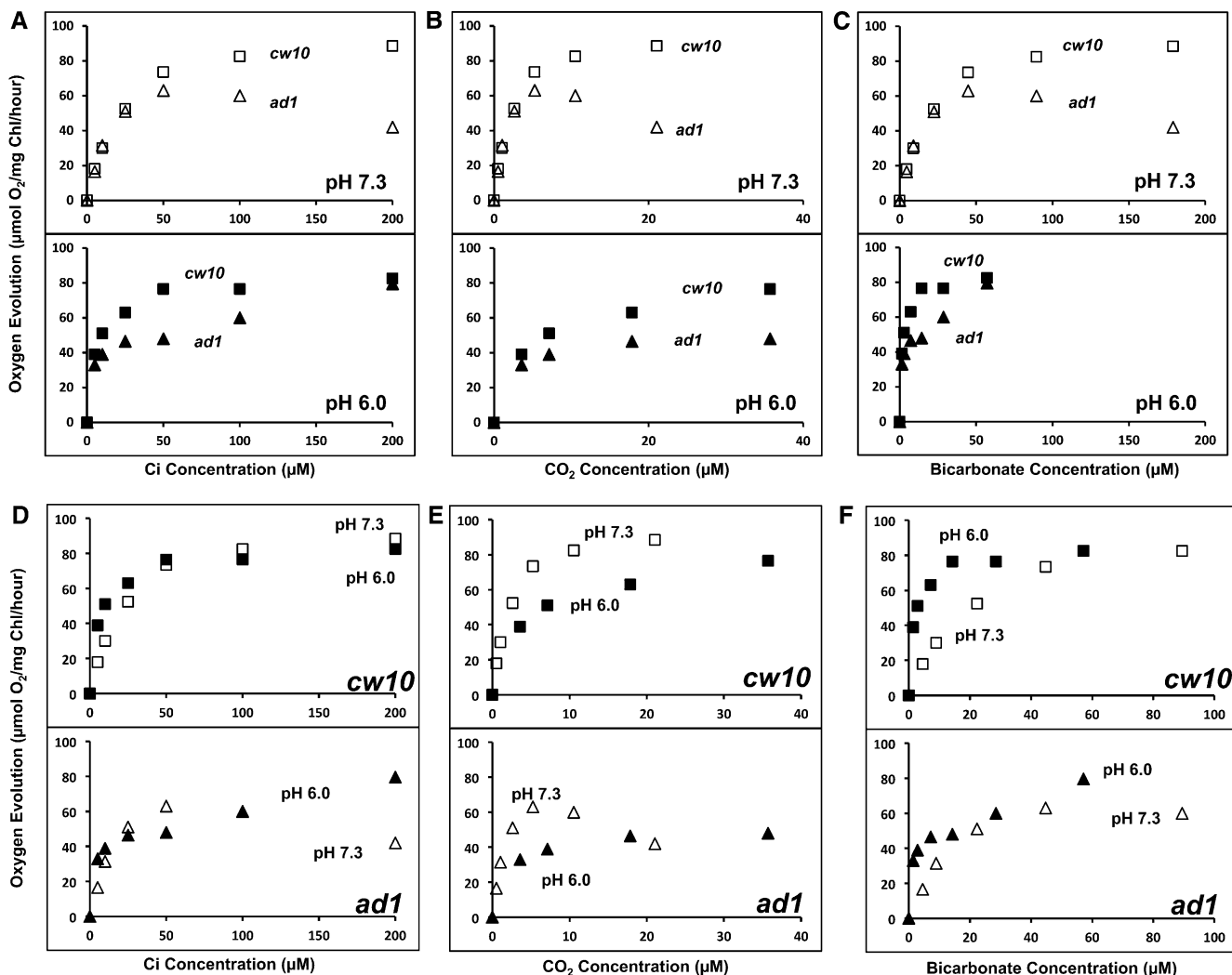


Figure 1. Photosynthetic activity in the wild type and the *LCIB* mutant *ad1*. A, Ci-dependent O_2 evolution at pH 7.3 and 6.0. Strains *lcia1* (squares) and *ad1* (triangles) were grown in high CO_2 and then switched to very low CO_2 for 24 h before the measurement. Two hundred units per milliliter of bovine CA was present to ensure the equilibrium of CO_2 and HCO_3^- . B and C, The photosynthetic activities were plotted against CO_2 (B) and HCO_3^- (C) concentrations calculated from total Ci at pH 6.0 (black squares for *lcia1* or black triangles for *ad1*) and pH 7.3 (white squares for *lcia1* or white triangles for *ad1*). D to F, Comparison of the photosynthetic activities of *lcia1* and *ad1* at pH 7.3 and 6.0 plotted against total Ci (D) or CO_2 (E) and HCO_3^- (F) concentrations calculated from total Ci. The experiments showed similar results with two independent cultures, although results from only one experiment are shown. Each data point represents an average of three technical replicates, and the coefficient of variation for each data point, the ratio of the sd ($n = 3$) to the average, is less than 10% for all data. The O_2 evolution rates in *lcia1* and *ad1* at 4,000 μM Ci are as follows: in pH 7.3, *lcia1* (101 ± 2) and *ad1* (97 ± 5); and in pH 6.0, *lcia1* (93 ± 3) and *ad1* (91 ± 6).

wild-type *LCIA* gene, including 1.1 kb of the upstream sequence (presumably including the *LCIA* promoter region) and the entire 3' UTR, introduced this gene into the *lab1* mutant, and found that this *LCIA* genomic clone complemented growth of *lab1* in very low CO_2 . All complemented lines restored the *air dier* growth phenotype of the host strain *ad1* (Fig. 2), and the presence of a wild-type *LCIA* gene and the expression of *LCIA* protein induced by limiting CO_2 in these lines were confirmed by PCR and western immunoblots (Fig. 3D). These results demonstrate that the lethal

growth phenotype in very low CO_2 in the *LCIA-LCIB* double mutant is caused by the *LCIA* mutation.

Defective Photosynthesis in *lab1* Double Mutants

The inability of *lab1* to grow in very low CO_2 suggests that photosynthesis driven by active Ci uptake systems may be defective. Compared with that of the wild type, Ci-dependent O_2 evolution in *lab1* was severely inhibited in Ci concentrations $\leq 200 \mu\text{M}$ at pH 7.3 and markedly decreased in Ci concentrations $\leq 100 \mu\text{M}$

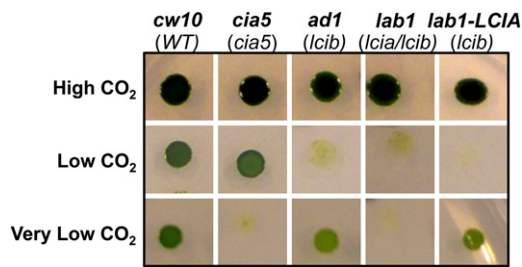


Figure 2. Identification of *lab1*, an *LCIA-LCIB* double mutant. A, Growth of the wild type (*cw10*) and mutant strains on minimal medium agar plates in different concentrations of CO₂: high CO₂ (5%), low CO₂ (0.04%), and very low CO₂ (0.01%). The mutant genes are shown in parentheses below the strain names. *lab1-LCIA* is a cell line generated from *LCIA*-complemented *lab1*. Strain *cia5* is a classic mutant lacking a limiting CO₂ acclimation response. WT, Wild type.

at pH 6.0 (Fig. 4A). Photosynthetic O₂ evolution in *lab1* was similar at either pH when plotted as a function of the calculated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 4B), suggesting that photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation remaining in the absence of both *LCIB* and *LCIA* is largely supported through Ci diffusion (Spalding and Ogren, 1983). Because photosynthesis in *LCIB* single mutants appears to be dependent on HCO₃⁻ uptake, as evidenced by the apparent dependence of photosynthetic O₂ evolution in *ad1* on the concentration of HCO₃⁻ (Fig. 1C), the highly reduced and apparently CO₂-dependent photosynthesis in *LCIA-LCIB* double mutants implies that *LCIA* is required for much of the active HCO₃⁻ uptake in *ad1*.

Decreased HCO₃⁻-Dependent Photosynthesis in *LCIA* Single Mutants

The impacts of an *LCIA* single mutation on growth and photosynthesis were evaluated in progeny bearing only the *LCIA* mutation. These were identified as para^R but zeocin-sensitive progeny from the genetic cross of *lab1* with CC620 described above. PCR and western-blot analysis confirmed that these para^R but zeocin-sensitive progeny carry the *LCIA* mutation but retain the wild-type *LCIB* gene (Fig. 5, B and C). In contrast with *lab1* or *ad1*, the *LCIA* single-gene mutants did not show any obvious growth defect in spot tests at either low CO₂ or very low CO₂ (Fig. 5A), indicating that loss of *LCIA* alone has no gross impact on growth and photosynthesis under these conditions.

Ci-dependent photosynthetic O₂ evolution in several *LCIA* mutant progeny was similar to that of wild-type cells at pH 7.3, as illustrated by the comparison between one *LCIA* mutant, *lcia90*, and its wild-type parent CC620 (Fig. 6). Although the Ci-dependent photosynthetic activities of *lcia90* and the wild type are very similar at pH 7.3, photosynthesis was significantly inhibited in *lcia90* relative to the wild type at pH 9.0. Because almost all Ci at pH 9 is in the form of HCO₃⁻, decreased photosynthesis under these conditions is consistent with the mutation in *LCIA* causing a defect in active HCO₃⁻ uptake.

DISCUSSION

We have demonstrated that two *C. reinhardtii* proteins, *LCIA* and *LCIB*, both contribute to CCM-mediated Ci assimilation in very low CO₂, exemplified by growth and photosynthesis of mutants defective in *LCIB* and *LCIA*. Whereas *LCIB* or *LCIA* single-gene mutants show no obvious growth defects in very low CO₂, combination of these mutations in the *LCIA-LCIB* double mutant results in a lethal phenotype under very low CO₂ conditions. This demonstrates that *LCIB*- and *LCIA*-associated Ci uptake systems act either complementarily or synergistically in Ci uptake. The effects of *LCIA* or *LCIB* single mutations and *LCIA-LCIB* double mutations on Ci-dependent photosynthesis at different pHs reveal that *LCIA* and *LCIB* play distinct roles in different active Ci uptake processes. Whereas *LCIB* appears involved in active CO₂ uptake, *LCIA* is more likely involved in a HCO₃⁻ transport pathway.

LCIB-Based CO₂ Uptake System

The essentiality of *LCIB* in CCM-mediated Ci accumulation was demonstrated by a number of earlier studies with *LCIB* mutants, and *LCIB* was previously proposed to function in direct Ci transport, Ci transport regulation, recapture of CO₂ escaping from the pyrenoid

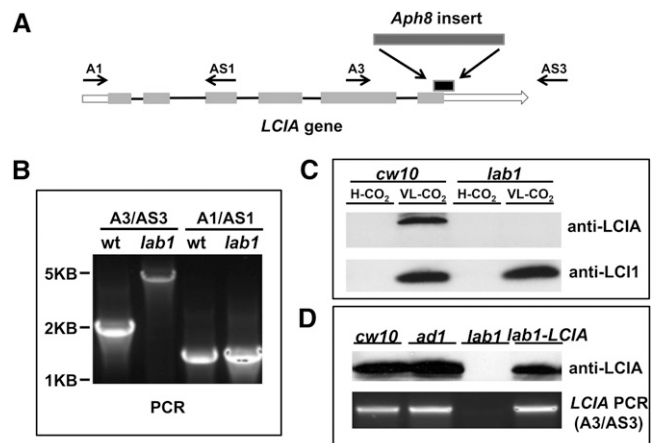


Figure 3. Analysis of *lab1*, an *LCIA-LCIB* double mutant. A, Insertion of *Aph8* in *lab1*. The region of deletion in *LCIA* caused by the *Aph8* insertion is shown with a black box above the *LCIA* gene. B, Amplification of genomic DNA fragments in *LCIA* by PCR from *cw10* and *lab1*. The locations of primers in *LCIA* are shown in A. The primers A1 and AS1 were used to amplify a region without insertion; A3 and AS3 were used to amplify a region disrupted by the *Aph8* insert in *lab1*, and the larger size of PCR product in *lab1* confirmed the insertion. C, Western-blot analysis of expression of *LCIA* and *LC11* in cells acclimated to high CO₂ or very low CO₂. *LC11* is a protein encoded by *LC11*, a limiting CO₂-induced gene, and was used as the control. No difference in *LC11* induction was observed between the wild type and *lab1*. D, Recovery of induced expression of *LCIA* in *LCIA*-complemented *lab1*. Wild-type *cw10* and mutants *ad1*, *lab1*, and *LCIA*-complemented *lab1* were grown in high CO₂, and then shifted into very low CO₂ for 12 h. *LCIA* protein was detected by western immunoblots with a specific *LCIA* antibody.

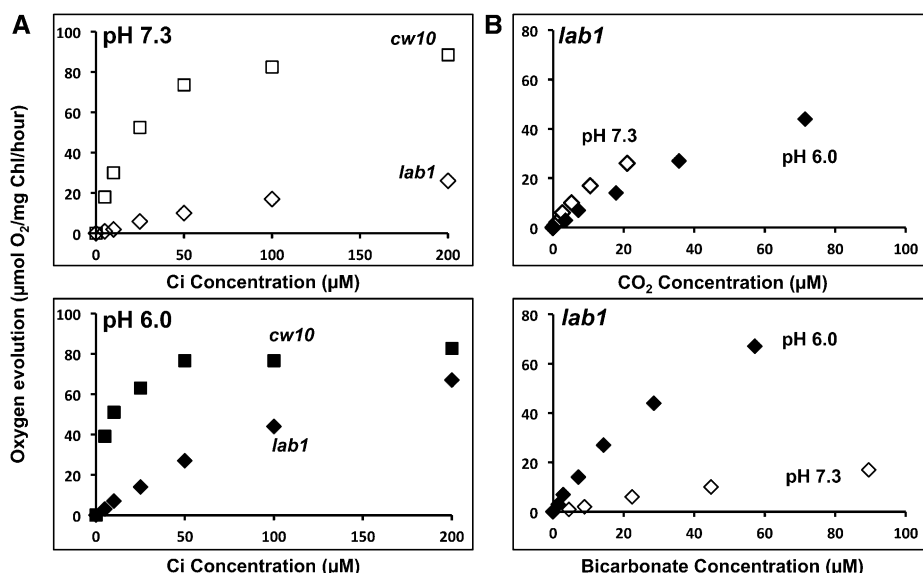


Figure 4. Ci-dependent photosynthetic oxygen evolution in *cw10* and *lab1*. A, Ci-dependent O₂ evolution at pH 7.3 and 6.0. Strains *cw10* (squares) and *lab1* (diamonds) were grown in high CO₂ and then switched to very low CO₂ for 24 h before the measurement. Two hundred units per milliliter of bovine CA was present to ensure the equilibrium of CO₂ and HCO₃⁻. B, The photosynthetic activities of *lab1* measured at pH 7.3 (white diamonds) and pH 6.0 (black diamonds) were plotted against CO₂ or HCO₃⁻ concentration calculated from total Ci. The experiments showed similar results with two independent cultures, although results from only one experiment are shown. Each data point represents an average of three technical replicates, and the coefficient of variation for each data point, the ratio of the sd ($n = 3$) to the average, is less than 10% for all data. The O₂ evolution rates of *lab1* at 4,000 μM Ci are as follows: (78 ± 3) in pH 7.3 and (79 ± 6) in pH 6.0. The rates of *cw10* are the same in Figure 1.

and/or the thylakoid lumen, or physically preventing CO₂ escape from pyrenoids (Spalding et al., 1983a; Miura et al., 2004; Wang and Spalding, 2006, 2014; Duanmu et al., 2009b; Yamano et al., 2010). Here we demonstrate that the absence of LCIB causes photosynthetic defects under low Ci conditions that correlate with CO₂ concentrations. At a slightly acidic pH (pH 6.0), where CO₂ comprises more than one-half of the total Ci, Ci-dependent photosynthetic O₂ evolution in the LCIB mutant *ad1* was significantly inhibited at 10 to 100 μM Ci (approximately 7–70 μM CO₂), but at pH 7.3, where HCO₃⁻ dominates, photosynthetic O₂ evolution was not affected below 50 μM Ci (approximately 6 μM CO₂), but showed progressively greater inhibition at higher Ci concentrations. Yamano et al. (2010) reported an inhibition of photosynthetic O₂ evolution in the LCIB mutants above 200 μM Ci at pH 7.8 (approximately 7 μM CO₂), but no obvious inhibition was observed below 100 μM Ci. It is clear that the lack of LCIB in *ad1* results in an apparent inhibition of O₂ evolution at similar CO₂ concentrations regardless of the pH, and that the lower limit of those CO₂ concentrations in all cases (6–7 μM or approximately 0.02%; Fig. 1C) is very similar to the gas-phase CO₂ concentration of 0.02% that we previously defined as the upper limit of the very low CO₂ acclimation state based on physiological characteristics in a wild-type strain and on the *air dier* phenotype (Vance and Spalding, 2005; Wang and Spalding, 2014). Below this CO₂ concentration, LCIB mutants grow, and above

this concentration, up to at least air CO₂ level (0.03%–0.05% CO₂), LCIB mutants cannot survive.

When CO₂ significantly exceeds air CO₂ level, CO₂ diffusion alone may be enough to allow the mutants to survive. The CO₂ concentration at which LCIB mutants regained wild-type O₂ evolution rates at pH 6.0 (Fig. 1A; 200 μM Ci, corresponding to 140 μM or 0.42% CO₂) is also close to the Ci concentration at pH 7.8 where cells were reported by Yamano et al. (2010) to regain wild-type photosynthetic rates (4500 μM Ci at pH 7.8, corresponding to 170 μM or 0.5% CO₂). This CO₂ concentration is also close to the upper limit of the low CO₂ acclimation state according to the previous physiological study with wild-type cells by Vance and Spalding (2005). On the basis of these data, LCIB likely plays a major role in the CCM via active CO₂ uptake, especially in the range of low CO₂ (0.02%–0.5%), although the underlying biochemical mechanism is not clear.

We recently proposed that LCIB may function similarly to the cyanobacterial ChpX/Y proteins in converting CO₂ to HCO₃⁻ (Duanmu et al., 2009b; Wang and Spalding, 2014). ChpX/Y proteins in cyanobacteria are proposed to convert CO₂ to HCO₃⁻ unidirectionally, in contrast with the bidirectional activity of CAs, via their linkage to NADH dehydrogenase complexes (Price et al., 2002). If LCIB does function in this manner, it should also accelerate HCO₃⁻ accumulation by hydrating externally diffused CO₂ in the chloroplast stroma, which has an alkaline pH in light. Although this proposed active role

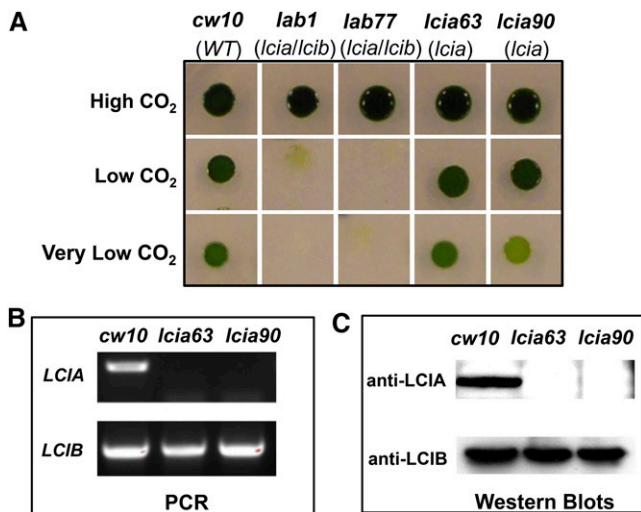


Figure 5. Generation and analysis of LCIA single mutants. A, Growth of the wild type, *lab1* double mutant, and LCIA single mutants. Strains *lab77* (an LCIA-LCIB double mutant progeny), *Icia63*, and *Icia90* (LCIA single-mutant progeny) were derived from a genetic cross between *lab1* and wild-type strain CC620. B, PCR with specific primers amplifying the disrupted regions in LCIA or LCIB. C, Western immunoblots with specific LCIA or LCIB antibody. Wild-type cells and mutants *Icia-63* and *Icia90* were grown in high CO₂, and then shifted into very low CO₂ for 12 h prior to analysis. WT, Wild type.

of LCIB in CO₂ uptake into the accumulated HCO₃⁻ pool is consistent with and can explain the observed physiological characteristics of LCIB mutants, LCIB/CAH3 double mutants (Duanmu et al., 2009b), and LCIB/LCIA double mutants, it is still speculative and needs to be rigorously tested at the biochemical level.

Function of LCIA in Ci Uptake

In contrast with the photosynthetic effect of LCIB mutations, the impact of an LCIA mutation, either alone or in combination with an LCIB mutation, on photosynthetic O₂ evolution is more significant at higher pH, indicating that LCIA is likely involved in HCO₃⁻ uptake. LCIA has a predicted chloroplast envelope location (Miura et al., 2004), which we confirmed by immunolocalization (see Fig. 8A). Although active Ci uptake across the chloroplast envelope has been demonstrated (Sültemeyer et al., 1988; Moroney and Mason, 1991; Amoroso et al., 1998) and LCIA was previously identified as a possible chloroplast envelope Ci transporter (Miura et al., 2004; Mariscal et al., 2006; Duanmu et al., 2009a), no clear, direct evidence links LCIA to active, chloroplast envelope Ci uptake. In addition to the lack of direct evidence for Ci transport by LCIA, other potential Ci transporters, such as CCP1 and CCP2, are also present on the chloroplast envelope (Ramazanov et al., 1993). In addition, chloroplast Ci uptake also might be explained by the activity of LCIB.

LCIA belongs to an FNT family (Mariscal et al., 2006). Multiple recent studies have shown that the bacterial FNT proteins form a pentameric complex with a structure

similar to aquaporin and behave more like channels than active transporters (Wang et al., 2009; Lü et al., 2012a, 2013). Nonselective permeability of FNT proteins to several structurally similar small, anionic molecules also has been demonstrated in artificial lipid membranes (Lü et al., 2012b). It seems improbable that LCIA would function as a HCO₃⁻ channel in the chloroplast envelope, because the membrane potential of the chloroplast envelope is inside negative (Demmig and Gimmler, 1983; Wu et al., 1991; Fuks and Homblé, 1999), meaning that HCO₃⁻ (or any anion) would have to move against an electrical gradient to enter the chloroplast. However, if LCIA does function as a channel to facilitate passive entry of HCO₃⁻ into the chloroplast, it would have to depend on the activity of plasma membrane Ci transporters (e.g. HLA3 and LC11; Duanmu et al., 2009a; Ohnishi et al., 2010) to generate a sufficiently high HCO₃⁻ concentration in the relatively small volume between the plasma membrane and chloroplast envelope to establish a HCO₃⁻ concentration gradient sufficient to overcome the electrical gradient and push HCO₃⁻ across the inner envelope. An LCIA channel would also have to be highly regulated to prevent reversed flow when the HCO₃⁻ gradient was not favorable for uptake. Ci uptake studies with isolated chloroplasts from LCIA mutants and

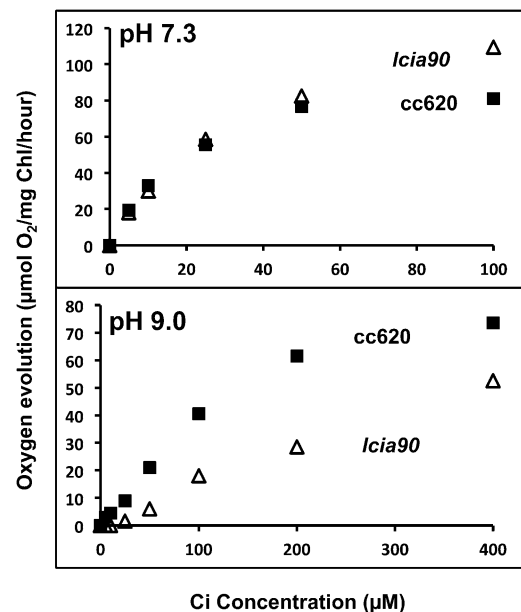


Figure 6. Ci-dependent photosynthesis in the LCIA mutant. Ci-dependent photosynthetic O₂ evolution measured at pH 7.3 and 9.0. Strains CC620 (black squares) and *Icia90* (white triangles) were grown in high CO₂ and then switched to very low CO₂ for 24 h before the measurement. The experiments showed similar results with two independent cultures, although results from only one experiment are shown. Each data point represents an average of three technical replicates, and the coefficient of variation for each data point, the ratio of the SD ($n = 3$) to the average, is less than 10% for all data. The O₂ evolution rates of CC620 and *Icia90* at 4,000 μM Ci are as follows: in pH 7.3, CC620 (95 ± 2) and *Icia90* (132 ± 4); and in pH 9.0, CC620 (87 ± 4) and *Icia90* (112 ± 2).

LCIA overexpression lines will help to clarify whether *LCIA* is directly responsible for HCO_3^- uptake into chloroplasts and, if so, whether it performs as an active *Ci* transporter or as an anion channel. Future biochemical, biophysical, and structural characterizations of *LCIA* will also be required to clarify the molecular mechanism underlying *LCIA*-associated *Ci* uptake.

CO_2 Inhibition of *LCIA*-Mediated *Ci* Uptake

As shown in Figure 1B, the photosynthetic O_2 evolution in an *LCIB* mutant progressively decreased as the *Ci* concentration increased beyond $50 \mu\text{M}$ at pH 7.3. The O_2 evolution rate of *ad1* at $200 \mu\text{M}$ *Ci* (approximately $22 \mu\text{M}$ CO_2) was significantly reduced compared with that at $50 \mu\text{M}$ at this pH. Yamano et al. (2010) reported similar responses at a higher pH (pH 7.8) in *LCIB* mutants, in which the mutants showed O_2 evolution rates similar to those of the wild type at 0 to $100 \mu\text{M}$ *Ci*, but reduced rates at higher *Ci* concentrations. The most significant inhibition occurred at 500 to $700 \mu\text{M}$ *Ci* (approximately $19\text{--}27 \mu\text{M}$ CO_2). In these higher pHs (pH 7.3 or pH 7.8), the dominant *Ci* species is HCO_3^- , and the reduced activity at higher *Ci* concentrations cannot be simply explained by a defect in CO_2 uptake caused by an *LCIB* mutation, because the *Ci*-dependent photosynthetic rates in these mutants should then at least remain constant, if not increase, with increased *Ci* concentrations. Because it seems clear that an *LCIA*-associated system contributes significant *Ci* uptake in cells lacking *LCIB*, this observed *Ci* inhibition of photosynthetic O_2 evolution must represent inhibition of *LCIA*-associated *Ci* uptake activity.

We reasoned that if *LCIA*-mediated *Ci* uptake activity is inhibited by *Ci*, this should be evident in the calculated difference in photosynthetic activity between *ad1* and *lab1*, which should represent the contribution of *LCIA* to the photosynthetic performance of *ad1*. When we calculate this *LCIA* contribution from O_2 evolution data obtained at pH 6.0 and pH 7.3 and plot it as a function of calculated CO_2 and HCO_3^- concentrations (Fig. 7, A and B), it becomes evident that *Ci* inhibition of *LCIA*-associated *Ci* uptake activity responds to CO_2 rather than to either HCO_3^- or total *Ci* concentrations. Furthermore, the apparent minimum inhibitory CO_2 concentration occurs just above that defined as very low CO_2 (approximately $7 \mu\text{M}$ CO_2 at room temperature), and becomes more significant at a CO_2 concentration range equivalent to air level (approximately $12 \mu\text{M}$ CO_2 at room temperature) and above, implying that air level or low CO_2 inhibits the *LCIA*-associated *Ci* uptake system.

The *Ci* response of the *LCIB* mutant at lower pH (pH 6.0) is different from that at higher pH, in that the photosynthetic O_2 evolution rates of *ad1* are inhibited relative to the wild type at pH 6.0 but plateau rather than decreasing with increasing CO_2 concentration, as observed at pH 7.3 (Fig. 1). In this CO_2 concentration range, the rate of O_2 evolution is much higher at pH 7.3 than that at pH 6.0 (Fig. 1B), possibly because the HCO_3^- concentration is higher at pH 7.3 and can support a much higher rate of HCO_3^- transport. Therefore, the inhibition of this higher

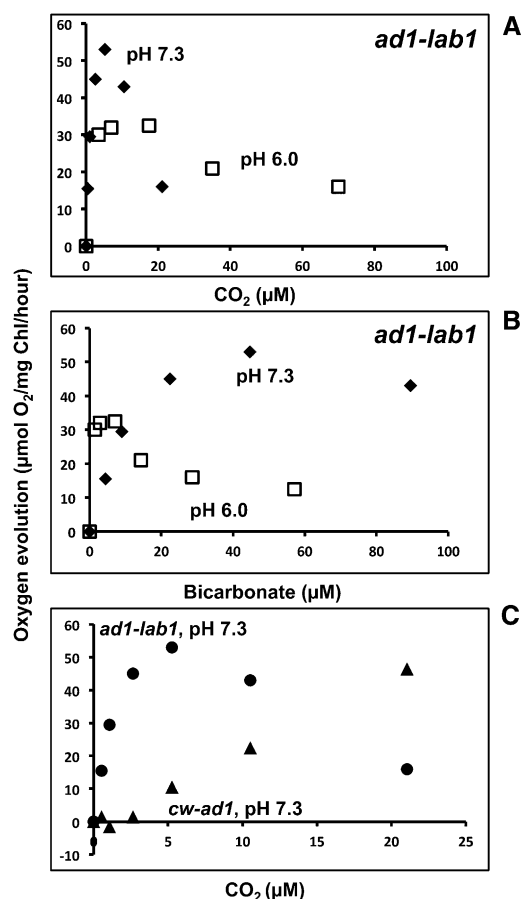


Figure 7. Contributions of *LCIA* and *LCIB* to O_2 evolution and CO_2 inhibition of *LCIA*-dependent photosynthesis. A and B, Contributions to O_2 evolution activities of *LCIA* and *LCIB*. Contribution of *LCIA* to O_2 evolution activities in *ad1* as a function of CO_2 (A) or HCO_3^- (B) concentration at pH 6.0 (white squares) and pH 7.3 (black diamonds). The *LCIA* contribution was calculated by subtracting photosynthetic O_2 evolution activity in *lab1* from that in *ad1*. C, Contributions of *LCIA* and *LCIB* to photosynthesis as a function of the CO_2 concentration. The contribution of *LCIA* (black circles) was calculated as above, and the contribution of *LCIB* (black triangles) was calculated by subtracting photosynthetic O_2 evolution activity in *ad1* from that in wild-type (*cw10*) cells. In all cases, CO_2 and HCO_3^- concentrations are calculated from total *Ci* concentration and pH, assuming that the addition of CA maintains $\text{CO}_2\text{-HCO}_3^-$ equilibrium.

HCO_3^- transport rate at pH 7.3 has a greater impact on the overall rate of O_2 evolution, resulting in a quantitative decrease in the O_2 evolution rate. The observation that the rate of O_2 evolution at about $20 \mu\text{M}$ CO_2 is the same at pH 6.0 and pH 7.3 supports this interpretation.

The inhibition of *LCIA* activity by air level of CO_2 could explain the puzzling *air dier* growth phenotype of *LCIB* mutants, because HCO_3^- uptake associated with *LCIA* (and other *Ci* transporters) should otherwise allow *LCIB* mutants to survive in low CO_2 as it does in very low CO_2 . This CO_2 inhibition appears to occur very quickly, because it can be seen almost immediately after *Ci* concentrations exceed the inhibitory CO_2 concentration

in photosynthetic O₂ evolution measurements. If CO₂ is responsible for the apparent inhibition of LCIA activity, this inhibition could be caused directly by CO₂ itself or through an unidentified CO₂ sensor protein, and this inhibition might extend to other target proteins, such as other Ci transporters. If this inhibition occurs and impacts survivability of LCIB mutants in air CO₂ level (i.e. is responsible for the *air dier* phenotype), it must take place at the post-translational or allosteric level, because it occurs so rapidly, and because no significant changes beyond those detected in low CO₂ conditions have been detected for LCIA or other potential Ci transporter genes at the transcriptional level under very low CO₂ conditions, (Brueggeman et al., 2012; Fang et al., 2012).

We can use logic similar to that we used to calculate the contribution of LCIA to *ad1*, and plot the apparent contribution of LCIB to photosynthetic O₂ evolution of the wild-type strain *cw10* (i.e. subtract the O₂ evolution rate of *ad1* from that of *cw10*). If we then compare that calculated LCIB contribution with the apparent contribution of LCIA to *ad1* (Fig. 7C), it becomes evident that the apparent LCIA contribution declines at CO₂ concentrations where the apparent LCIB contribution becomes substantial. This relationship would explain why LCIA and LCIB both contribute to growth in very low CO₂ but only LCIB appears essential for growth in low CO₂ (e.g. air level of CO₂).

Distinct Roles Played by LCIA and LCIB in Low CO₂ and Very Low CO₂ Acclimation States

Because of slow diffusion of CO₂ in water, Ci concentration can often change dramatically on a daily basis in an aquatic environment, especially in the natural soil environment of *C. reinhardtii* when cell population increases and photosynthesis activities are high. The presence of multiple limiting CO₂ acclimation states in microalgae may reflect an evolutionary adaptation to this aspect of

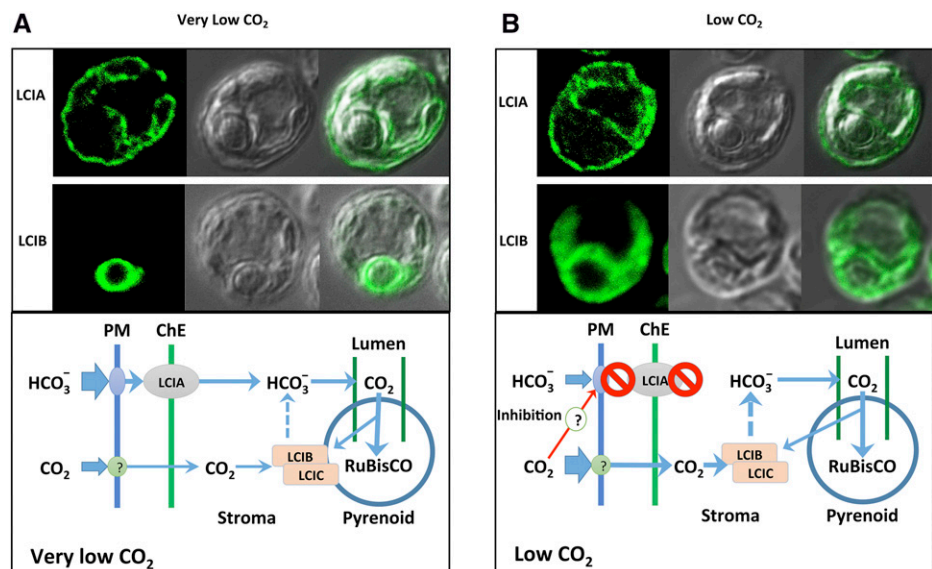
their natural habitats. The apparent inhibition of LCIA activity by CO₂ concentrations at and above air level, together with the subcellular localizations of and apparent complementary roles for LCIA and LCIB (Fig. 8), suggest a possible explanation for how and why *C. reinhardtii* acclimates to different limiting CO₂ conditions. Figure 8 illustrates a proposed working model that could explain the functions of LCIA and LCIB in the *C. reinhardtii* CCM in these two acclimation states.

In this hypothetical model, at very low CO₂ (Fig. 8A), both LCIB and LCIA contribute to Ci accumulation. An LCIA-associated HCO₃⁻ transport pathway is largely responsible for HCO₃⁻ uptake into the chloroplast, possibly in concert with other HCO₃⁻ transporter(s) on the plasma membrane and/or the chloroplast envelope. LCIB, located around the pyrenoid, traps CO₂, either escaping from the pyrenoid or entering from outside the cell, into the stromal HCO₃⁻ pool. This stromal HCO₃⁻ pool then provides substrate to the pyrenoid thylakoid tubules for CAH3-catalyzed dehydration to CO₂ for Rubisco, as described in previous CCM models (Spalding et al., 1983b; Mitra et al., 2005; Spalding, 2008; Moroney et al., 2011).

In low CO₂ (Fig. 8B), the majority of LCIB protein complex in chloroplasts are located throughout the stromal space. In this condition, the hypothetical model predicts that LCIB-associated CO₂ uptake into the stromal HCO₃⁻ pool plays a more dominant role, and Ci uptake associated with LCIA and other HCO₃⁻ transporters is inhibited by CO₂ in the low CO₂ concentration range. Again, the stromal HCO₃⁻ accumulated through LCIB activity provides substrate to the pyrenoid thylakoid tubules for CAH3-catalyzed dehydration to CO₂ for Rubisco as described in previous CCM models.

Assuming that the LCIB-mediated CO₂ uptake system provides an adequate supply of substrate CO₂ for Rubisco in the low CO₂ range and that simple CO₂ diffusion can do so at higher CO₂ concentrations, such CO₂ inhibition of HCO₃⁻ transport at air concentrations

Figure 8. Models for acclimation to low and very low CO₂ in *C. reinhardtii*. A and B, Immunolocalization of LCIA and LCIB and working models illustrating possible roles played by the LCIA-associated HCO₃⁻ uptake system and the LCIB-associated CO₂ uptake system in very low CO₂ grown cells (A) and low CO₂ grown cells (B). No obvious changes of LCIA localization were observed between low and very low CO₂ conditions. Dashed lines represent the hypothesized function of the LCIB-LCIC complex in conversion of CO₂ to HCO₃⁻, which is then delivered to CAH3 within the lumen of the pyrenoid-associated thylakoid tubules for dehydration to CO₂. A detailed explanation is provided in "Discussion." ChE, Chloroplast envelope; PM, plasma membrane.



and above may reflect a versatile regulatory mechanism present in eukaryotic algae for acclimating quickly to changes in CO₂ availability that frequently occur in their natural environments. By switching rapidly from energy-intensive HCO₃⁻ transport systems to a CO₂ uptake system (possibly energetically less costly) when CO₂ becomes more abundant, algae cells can divert more solar energy for photosynthetic carbon fixation and other metabolic reactions to enable faster growth at a lower energy cost.

The well-documented regulation by transcript abundance should prevent even the synthesis of the HCO₃⁻ transporters under high CO₂ conditions, in which the transporters clearly are not needed. However, in lower CO₂ concentration ranges, such as 5 to 50 μM (0.015%–0.15%) CO₂, it may be advantageous for the cells to have the capacity to respond quickly to either activate or inactivate HCO₃⁻ transport in response to CO₂ availability. Fluctuations in CO₂ concentration near the surface of the natural soil environment of *C. reinhardtii* may occur over time frames too short for transcriptional regulation to act effectively, but the post-translational or allosteric regulation proposed here would allow HCO₃⁻ transporters to shift rapidly between active and inactive states in response to CO₂ concentration fluctuations. Further research will be required to determine whether this rapid regulation actually occurs via CO₂ inhibition of the CCM HCO₃⁻ transporter pathway.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cultures and Growth Conditions

The wild-type strain *cw10* (CC849) and CC620 and the mutant strains of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* were maintained and grown as previously described (Wang and Spalding, 2006). For inducing very low CO₂ acclimation, liquid cell cultures were first grown in minimal medium (pH 7.3) to late log phase in high CO₂ gas (5% CO₂ [v/v] in air), and then switched to very low CO₂ by bubbling very low CO₂ gas through the liquid phase for 20 to 24 h. The very low CO₂ (0.008%–0.01%) gas was obtained by passing normal air through a saturated sodium hydroxide solution and remixing with normal air to achieve the desired final concentration.

Isolation of Mutants, Identification of Mutation, and Genetic Analysis

Spot growth testing, mutant screening, and transformation were performed as previously described (Wang and Spalding, 2006). Strain *ad1* was transformed with linearized pSI103d plasmid (Sizova et al., 2001). Transformed cells were kept in high CO₂ and selected on minimal medium plates supplemented with 10 μg mL⁻¹ paromomycin. Paromomycin-resistant transformants were transferred to duplicate plates for screening by growth spot tests in high CO₂ and very low CO₂.

The genomic DNA fragments flanking the insertion in mutants were identified by the restriction enzyme site-directed amplification PCR (González-Ballester et al., 2005). The primary PCR was carried out in a volume of 25 μL containing 2.5 μL of 10× PCR buffer (Invitrogen), 0.25 μL of Taq polymerase (Invitrogen), 1 μL of 25 mM MgCl₂, 0.4 μL of 10 mM deoxynucleotides, 0.75 μL of dimethyl sulfoxide, 5 pmol of primer RB1, 15 pmol of degenerate primers (González-Ballester et al., 2005), and 50 ng of genomic DNA as the DNA template. The secondary PCR was carried out in a volume of 25 μL with the same reagents as the primary PCR except 5 pmol of Q₀ primer was used to replace the degenerate primers and 1 μL of 25:1 diluted PCR product from the primary reaction was used as the DNA template. The parameters for the PCR cycle were set up according to Dent et al. (2005).

The genetic crosses between *lab1* and CC620 were performed according to Harris (2009). The progeny bearing both *Ble* and *Aph8* were selected on agar plates

made from Tris-acetate-phosphate medium supplemented with 10 μg mL⁻¹ paromomycin and 10 μg mL⁻¹ zeocin. The progeny bearing only *Aph8* was selected on agar medium supplemented with 10 μg mL⁻¹ paromomycin, and then their *zeo*^R was tested on plates supplemented with 10 μg mL⁻¹ of zeocin. PCR amplification with primers specific for *LCIB* or *LCIA* was used to confirm the defects in *LCIA* or *LCIB* in these progeny. To complement *lab1*, a genomic DNA fragment including the *LCIA* coding sequence, putative promoter region, and 3' UTR was cloned into pBluescript vector, and used to transform *lab1*. The successful transformants were directly selected in very low CO₂ on minimal medium plates and untransformed *lab1* was used as the control. The genomic DNA from the transformants was isolated and PCR amplified with specific primers in the region of *LCIA* where the insertion is located.

Measurements of Photosynthetic O₂ Evolution

Photosynthetic O₂ evolution was measured at 25°C with a Clark-type oxygen electrode controlled by an Oxy-Lab unit (Hansatech). Cells from liquid cultures were collected by centrifugation and suspended in 4 mL of N₂-saturated buffers to a final chlorophyll concentration of 20 μg mL⁻¹. The buffers used were MOPS-Tris (25 mM, pH 7.3), MES-KOH (25 mM, pH 6.0), or AMP-PSO (25 mM, pH 9.0). For each cell preparation, internal and external Ci were depleted under illumination (500 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) as judged by cessation of O₂ evolution before each measurement. The Ci-dependent O₂ evolution was initiated by addition of various concentrations of NaHCO₃. For most measurements, the subsequent addition of Ci was delayed until the previous O₂ evolution rate approached zero. When O₂ evolution rates were extremely slow, such as in high pH or in *lab1* mutants, the subsequent Ci was added to a desired concentration after previous O₂ evolution proceeded at least 1 min or longer; and the Ci concentration at each next addition was calculated based on the amount of Ci consumed from the previous Ci addition as reflected by the amount of O₂ evolved. Because O₂, when reaching high levels, appears to have negative influence on photosynthesis, the O₂ level in cell suspension was kept low by flushing with N₂ gas when it exceeded 200 nmol mL⁻¹. Two hundred units per milliliter of bovine CA (C2624; Sigma) was present in the measurements at pH 6.0 and 7.3 to ensure the equilibrium of CO₂ and HCO₃⁻.

Western-Blot Analysis and Immunolocalization

For protein analyses, harvested cells were directly dissolved in a 1× SDS-PAGE buffer in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol at 80°C for 5 min. The resulting lysates were passed through a 26-gauge needle to reduce viscosity and then separated on 12% (v/v) SDS-polyacrylamide gels. Immunoblotting with specific antibodies was performed to detect the specific proteins by chemiluminescence (SuperSignal Wester Pico; Thermo Scientific).

To generate LCIA-specific antibodies, five *LCIA* complementary DNA fragments encoding different predicted soluble portions in LCIA protein were PCR amplified from a complementary DNA library (Wang and Spalding, 2006) and combined by recombination PCR. The resulting mini-LCIA sequence was cloned into pET-28a vector, and transformed into BL21 (DE3) *Escherichia coli* cells for overexpression. The expressed mini-LCIA was purified from *E. coli* and used to raise LCIA polyclonal antiserum. An LCIA monoclonal antibody against a synthetic peptide ENAINVGAYK was also generated (Abmart). LCIB antiserum against purified LCIB was previously described (Duanmu et al., 2009b). LCII antiserum was a gift from James V. Moroney (Louisiana State University).

For immunolocalization, cell suspension was placed on precharged microscope slides (ProbeOn Plus; FisherBiotech) for 1 to 3 min, and then quickly fixed in -20°C methanol for 10 min. Immunofluorescence staining was performed according to Cole et al. (1998). Antiserum against LCIA or LCIB was used at a dilution of 1:1,000 as primary antibody, and fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG or goat anti-mouse IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) was used at a dilution of 1:150 as the secondary antibody for immunofluorescence. After final washing with phosphate-buffered saline, the slides were mounted using ProLong Gold reagents (Invitrogen), and digital images of stained cells were acquired with a Leica SP5 X MP confocal microscope.

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