



Changes in lipid and carotenoid metabolism in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* during induction of CO₂-concentrating mechanism: Cellular response to low CO₂ stress[☆]

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ABSTRACT

Photosynthetic organisms strictly depend on CO₂ availability and the CO₂:O₂ ratio, as both CO₂/O₂ compete for catalytic site of Rubisco. Green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, can overcome CO₂ shortage by inducing CO₂-concentrating mechanism (CCM). Cells transferred to low-CO₂ are subjected to light-driven oxidative stress due to decrease in the electron sink. Response to environmental perturbations is mediated to some extent by changes in the lipid and carotenoid metabolism. We thus hypothesize that when cells are challenged with changes in CO₂ availability, changes in the lipidome and carotenoids profile occur. These changes expected to be transient, when CCM is activated, CO₂ limitation will be substantially ameliorated. In our experiments, cells were transferred from high (5%) to low (air equilibrium) CO₂. qPCR analysis of genes related to CCM and lipid metabolism was carried out. Lipidome was analyzed both in whole cells and in isolated lipid droplets. We characterized the changes in polar lipids, fatty acids and ketocarotenoids. In general, polar lipids significantly and transiently increased in lipid droplets during CCM. Similar pattern was observed for xanthophylls, ketocarotenoids and their esters. The data supports our hypothesis about the roles of lipids and carotenoids in tackling the oxidative stress associated with acclimation to sub-saturating CO₂.

1. Introduction

Long and short term carbon (C) and energy budgets of photosynthetic organisms are strongly dependent on CO₂:O₂ ratios. This is due to the fact that CO₂ and O₂ compete for the active site of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco), the enzyme

responsible for CO₂ fixation. The relative proportions of carboxylation and oxygenation determine the overall rate and the cost of C fixation [1]. Long term changes in the CO₂:O₂ ratio have exerted a strong selective pressure on photosynthetic organisms, which, most likely polyphyletically, have acquired mechanisms to pump CO₂ into the proximity of Rubisco, the so called CO₂ concentrating mechanisms

[☆] Short summary: A lipidomic approach to find out the changes in the polar lipids, fatty acids and carotenoids during induction of CO₂-concentrating mechanism in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*.

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(CCMs) [2,3].

The unicellular alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* has been used as a model organism for the study of CCMs. The *C. reinhardtii* CCM is a typical biophysical CCM [2,3] which relies on energy-dependent C₄ transport systems, a set of carbonic anhydrases (CAs) and the compartmentalization of Rubisco in the pyrenoid [2,3]. In *C. reinhardtii*, as in most microalgae, the CCM is inducible and its activity is down-regulated when CO₂ concentration increases. *C. reinhardtii* expresses the CCM fairly rapidly, although maximum CCM protein expression is observed within a few hours of the transfer from high to low CO₂ [2,4]. Before the CCM is fully activated, cells transferred to low CO₂ show increased photorespiration and symptoms of oxidative stress, probably because of a decrease in the electron sink constituted by CO₂ fixation [5–7]. Changes in both membrane and non-membrane lipid composition are among the consequences of acclimation to sub-saturating CO₂ [5,6,8–10]. This is not surprising, given the importance of lipids for cell functioning, growth and development [11].

In green algae, stressogenic environmental perturbations often elicit the formation of lipid droplets (LDs) [12–14], which are usually linked to the re-shuffling of carbon from carbohydrates to lipids [12]. LDs are important reservoirs of lipids and likely participate in the maintenance of lipid homeostasis. In line with this function, proteins involved in lipid synthesis, signaling and trafficking are found on the surface of LDs [15]. Lipids mobilized from LDs can serve as a source of energy and participate in membrane synthesis, in thylakoid development and in stress-responses [16]. LDs are composed mainly of sterol esters (SE), diacylglycerols (DAGs), triacylglycerols (TAGs) as well as the polar lipid diacylglycerol-trimethylhomoserine (DGTS), and intermediates in their biosynthesis and catabolism [17,18]. Studies of metabolic pathways leading to fatty acids and TAG biosynthesis in plants and algae have shown that along with lipids, carotenoid production can be altered in stressogenic conditions [12]. Carotenogenesis is enhanced by reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced under severe nutrient deficiency, high light or high salinity. Carotenoids such as β -carotene and astaxanthin can be accumulated in lipid droplets outside the chloroplast [12,19]. This is intriguing, given that carotenoids are part of light-harvesting antennas, act as photoprotectants by quenching singlet oxygen and excited triplets of some molecules and by scavenging free radicals, influence structural and dynamic properties of biomembranes, decrease the susceptibility of membrane lipid to oxidative degradation [20].

Despite the extensive body of research on CCMs and on the pathways of lipid and carotenoid metabolisms in algae, the interaction between CCMs and lipid-carotenoid metabolisms is poorly understood. Acclimation to low CO₂ has been shown to influence carbohydrate [21] and lipid [22] metabolism. In low-CO₂ grown *Chlorella kessleri*, repression of overall fatty acid synthesis and increased synthesis of specific unsaturated fatty acids has been shown [22]. In contrast, studies by Fan et al. [9] suggested that, in *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*, acclimation to low CO₂ induced the accumulation of saturated fatty acids. Previously we have shown that cell number and relative growth of *C. reinhardtii* were not affected until cells had experienced 6 h of limiting CO₂ conditions. However, there was evidence that lipid metabolism could be regulated during early CCM establishment [6]. All these studies have only partially addressed the connection between CCM induction and lipid metabolism. In this study, we aimed at exploring the interaction between acclimation to low CO₂ concentration (via CCM induction) and lipid metabolism, in the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Algal strain and culture conditions

The *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cell-wall-less mutant CW-92 was pre-cultured in high salt medium (HSM) [23] bubbled with air enriched with 5% CO₂, at 22 \pm 2 °C and 220 \pm 20 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ continuous

irradiation from cool, white fluorescent lamps (Philips Master TLD 36 W/830). Cells used for lipidomic analysis were taken from pre-culture and were grown in HSM under the same conditions described above until the logarithmic growth phase was reached, which was confirmed by population growth rate estimation based on cells counting under a microscope. For all analyses the cells derived from mid-logarithmic phase were used. Three independent experiments were conducted. For CCM induction the gas stream was changed from 5% to ambient air (0.04% CO₂ - low CO₂). Cultures bubbled with 5% CO₂ (high CO₂) were used as control.

2.2. Induction of CO₂-concentrating mechanism

At the beginning of each experiment, 5%-CO₂-grown cultures that were in logarithmic growth phase were diluted to an optical density at 750 nm (OD₇₅₀) of 0.95 \pm 0.05 and redistributed into 10, 500 mL flasks. To facilitate acclimation to the experimental conditions (to exclude possibility that culture dilution influenced CCM status in the control cells), a 1.5 h interlude with 5% CO₂ bubbling and a light intensity of 220 \pm 20 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Philips Master TLD 36W/830) was included when cultures were subjected to bubbling with ambient air to start CCM induction. To ensure that in the control cultures CCM does not operate and that low-CO₂ cultures fully induced CCM, western-blot analysis was done to detect the low-CO₂-induced mitochondrial carbonic anhydrase protein (mtCA), according to [6]. The mtCA protein could not be detected under non-inducing conditions, although under CCM inducing conditions this transcript was detected. One of the representative Western blots is shown in Supplementary Fig. S1.

Samples were taken from each bottle after 3 h and 6 h since the onset of CCM induction for lipidomics, western-blots, cell counting and OD measurement. Cells were counted with a light microscope using a standard method [24]. Samples for lipidomic analyses were harvested and immediately quenched according to Bolling and Fiehn [25].

2.3. Lipid droplets fraction (LDF) isolation

A fraction containing lipid droplets was isolated following the protocols described by Moellering and Benning [26] and Ytterberg et al. [27] with some modifications. Five low-CO₂ samples were harvested from culture flasks and immediately centrifuged for 5 min at 2500g, at room temperature. The supernatant was removed and the pellet re-suspended in pre-cooled (on ice) buffer “A” (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0; 5 mM MgCl₂; 5 mM KCl; 0.5 M sucrose; cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche Diagnostics)). Cells were then disrupted using a French press (500 bar, 5 °C); the slurry was transferred to ultracentrifuge tubes, overlaid with pre-cooled (5 °C) buffer “B” (buffer “A” without sucrose) and centrifuged (100,000g, 30 min, 10 °C). The upper (light-yellow) fraction, containing lipids, was collected, transferred to an ultracentrifuge tube, mixed with pre-cooled (5 °C) buffer “C” (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0; 5 mM MgCl₂; 150 mM KCl; 0.5 M sucrose; cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche Diagnostics)) and overlaid first with pre-cooled (5 °C) buffer “D” (buffer “A” with 0.2 M sucrose instead of 0.5 M sucrose) and then with pre-cooled (5 °C) buffer “B”. After centrifugation (100,000g, 60 min, 10 °C), the yellow fraction of lipid floating on the surface of the water column was collected, immediately frozen and kept at -80 °C until required for analysis.

2.4. Lipid extractions

The pellets of freeze-dried cells or isolated LD were extracted in 200 μl of NaCl (0.05 M) and 1 ml of chloroform:MeOH (2:1, v:v.) containing [²H₇]-cholesterol and [¹³C₄]-hexadecanoic acid as internal standards. After incubation (2 h) and centrifugation (4 °C, 5 min, 20,000g), 200 μl of the lower phase was transferred to a LC or GC vial then dried in a speed vac. The extracts were kept at -80 °C prior to

analysis. Total lipid extraction and measurements were performed according to Bligh and Dyer [28].

2.5. Free fatty acid analysis of cell extracts

The dry lipid extracts were dissolved in heptane, derivatized and analyzed by gas chromatography combined with time-of-flight mass spectrometry (Pegasus HT GC-TOFMS; LECO Corp., St Joseph, MI, USA). Alkane series (C₈-C₄₀) was included in the analysis for determination of retention indices [29]. (Detailed methodology is described in supplemental method file SM1).

2.6. Lipidomic analysis of cell and lipid droplets fraction

Lipid analysis was performed on an Agilent 1290 Infinity UHPLC-system (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany) coupled to a Q-TOF mass spectrometer. 1 µl of LD extract was injected onto an Acquity UPLC CSH (2.1 × 100 mm, 1.7 µm C₁₈) column held at 60 °C. The gradient elution buffers were A (60:40 acetonitrile:water, 10 mM ammonium formate, 0.1% formic acid) and B (90:10 2-propanol:acetonitrile, 10 mM ammonium formate, 0.1% formic acid), and the flow-rate was 0.5 ml min⁻¹. The lipids were detected in positive ion mode, *m/z* range was 100–1700. Mass Feature Extraction (MFE) from the data acquired was performed using the MassHunter™ Qualitative Analysis software package, version B06.00. Extracted features were aligned and matched between samples using Mass Profiler Professional™ 12.5 (Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA).

2.7. Lipid identification

Significant metabolites derived from the statistical analysis were selected for identification. The extracts were analyzed on a LC-LTQ Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fischer Scientific; USA) operating in positive ion mode using a data dependent MS2 in which a full scan (*m/z* 100–1500) was followed by fragmentation of the base peak of the resulting mass spectrum. Three strategies were used to identify the classes of lipid and their respective molecular species in the extracts: 1) the high mass accuracy of their fragments produced by higher energy collisional dissociation (HCD) experiments, the presence of diagnostic fragments, adduct forms, sugar neutral loss and retention time; 2) comparison of high mass accuracy and retention time with current literature and available databases; 3) monoisotopic mass predictions of esterification between ketocarotenoids and fatty acids. The identification of the major intact polar lipids (IPL) and their constituent species was based on the presence of diagnostic fragment patterns in the MS2 mass spectra. IPLs with a di- or monoacylglyceryl-trimethylhomoserine (DGTS or AGTS) head group were detected as [M + Na]⁺ or [M + H]⁺. They produced the diagnostic fragment of *m/z* 236.1496 (C₁₀H₂₂O₅N)⁺ (Fig. S2A). IPLs with a sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol (SQDG) head group were ionized as [M + NH₄]⁺ and produced a neutral loss of 261 Da (C₆H₁₁O₈S + NH₄). Di- and monogalactosyl diacylglycerol (DGDG and MGDG) metabolites gave a diagnostic fragment of *m/z* 243.0842 (C₉H₁₆O₆Na)⁺, the sodium adduct and the neutral loss of 162 Da. Di- and triacylglycerol were ionized as [M + NH₄]⁺ or [M + Na]⁺.

2.8. RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR analysis

RNA was extracted from cells grown under high and low CO₂ (as described in the *Induction of CO₂-concentrating mechanism* section) at 1, 3 and 6 h (after transfer to low CO₂ conditions) using three biological replicates for each time point. Total RNA was extracted using Trizol reagent (Life Technologies) and treated and purified using an RNA mini spin column (Qiagen RNAeasy kit). The quality of the RNA preparations was verified using a BioAnalyzer (BioAnalyzer 2100, Agilent Technologies, USA) and they were quantified by a NanoDrop 2000C

UV-Visible spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Purified RNA was reverse-transcribed using iScript™ cDNA synthesis kit (BioRad, USA). Expression levels of selected genes was determined by quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR, Roche LightCycler480) using SYBR Green I Master mix (Roche). Melting curves were generated to confirm that the single product is amplified. The amplification product sizes were between 90 and 120 bp. The relative amplification efficiency of all qPCRs varies between 98% and 99%. *CBLP/RACK1* (Receptor of activated protein kinase C, Phytozome id: Cre06.g278222.t1.1) and *RBCS1* (ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase small subunit 1, Phytozome id: Cre02.g120100.t1.2) were used as housekeeping genes to normalize the expression data. The primer pairs used for qPCR expression analysis are listed in Supplementary Table S1. Annotation of genes was according to Phytozome version 12.1.6.

2.9. Statistical analysis

The Cell and LDF datasets from the lipidomic analysis were analyzed by the multivariate projection methods Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Orthogonal Projections to Latent Structures Discriminant Analysis (OPLS-DA). Valid models were obtained independently for each of the three experiments performed on cells, comparing High CO₂ (H-CO₂) and Low CO₂ (L-CO₂) after 3 and 6 h (Table S2-A). A similar comparison was performed for the LDF dataset: OPLS-DA was performed on the entire dataset (831 features) and valid models could discriminate between LDF from H-CO₂ and L-CO₂ after 3 and 6 h (Table S2-B). Lipids distinguishing the samples were identified using the OPLS-DA loading plots. In all cases, models were judged for quality using the goodness of fit (R²X) and goodness of prediction (Q²) parameters. R²X values vary between 0 and 1 (i.e. they describe 0–100% of the variation in the data). The total explained variance in Y is R²Y (0–1). The predictive ability of the model according to cross-validation is the Q² value (0–1) where 1 equals perfect predictivity. All multivariate analyses were performed using SIMCA-P + 14 (Umetrics AB, Umeå, Sweden).

OPLS-DA was performed on the dataset generated from the levels of expression of 47 genes analyzed by RT-PCR at each time point (1, 3 and 6 h) comparing H-CO₂ and L-CO₂ (Table S2-C). The bi-plot (score x loading plot) of the valid models for each time point was scaled as correlation and the threshold ± 0.5 was used to select significant transcripts. P(corr) values from the loading plots were listed and a heatmap was built to provide better visualization of the results using MATLAB R2014b software.

3. Results

3.1. Changes in lipid composition of entire cells under limiting CO₂ conditions

To test whether the lipid content is modified under limiting CO₂ conditions, we measured total lipids from *C. reinhardtii* cultures grown under high CO₂ (H-CO₂) or low CO₂ (L-CO₂) for 3 and 6 h. We did not observe any significant changes in total lipid content after 3 or 6 h of L-CO₂ treatment compared to H-CO₂ (Fig. S3).

Furthermore, the free fatty acid composition was analyzed in the extracts from entire cells using GC-MS (Fig. S4). Significant changes were observed in free fatty acid composition during CCM establishment at 3 h and that stage the levels of C_{16:0}, C_{18:0}, C_{18:3}, C_{18:4} and C_{17:1} increased, while the levels of C_{16:2}, C_{16:3} and C_{18:2} were reduced. Interestingly, the fatty acids derived from hexadecanoic acid (C_{16:0}) and C_{18:2} were present at reduced levels in the cells grown under L-CO₂ at 6 h.

From the lipidomic approach applied to cell extracts, we found lipids significantly differ between L-CO₂ and H-CO₂; among them were DGTS, MGDG, SQDG, DAG and TAG (Table S3). Changes in DGTS were more pronounced than those in MGDG, DAG, SQDG and TAG. The

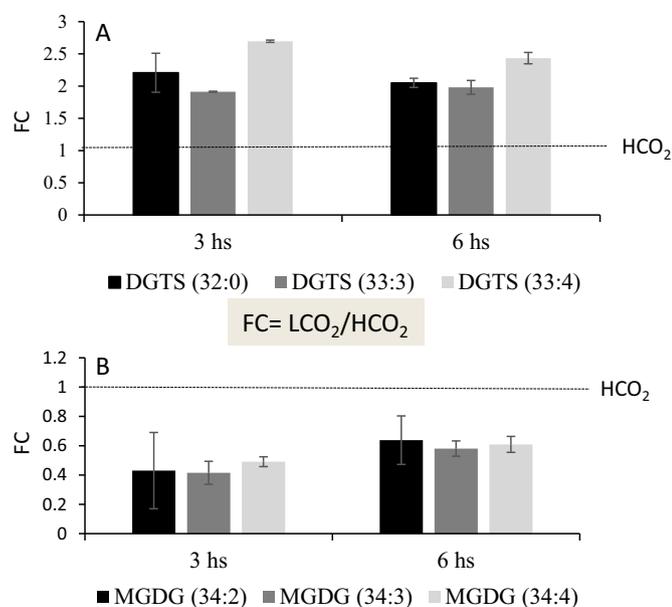


Fig. 1. Changes in Diacylglyceryl-trimethylhomoserine (DGTS) (A) and Monogalactosyldiacylglycerol (MGDG) (B) in *C. reinhardtii* cells after 3 and 6 h under limiting CO₂ conditions. Data is expressed as fold changes (FC) of the mean values (three independent experiments, n = 10), of low CO₂ in relation to control values (LCO₂/HCO₂) ± SD. Relative control level (HCO₂) is shown as a line.

levels of DGTS (C_{32:0}) containing saturated species of hexadecanoyl (C₁₆) in both *sn*-glycerol backbones showed a two-fold increase under L-CO₂. Similarly, levels of DGTS containing heptadecanoyl (C₁₇) and nonadecanoyl (C₁₉) (DGTS 33:3 and 35:4) increased up to 2.7 and 1.5 times respectively compared to the contents of the H-CO₂ cells (Fig. 1A). The presence of these odd chain length molecular species (C₁₇ and C₁₉) was confirmed by the fragments *m/z* 486.3782 (C₂₇ H₅₂ O₆ N)⁺ and *m/z* 514.4083 (C₂₉ H₅₆ O₆ N)⁺ in MSMS experiments.

The levels of MGDG, which is the most abundant class of lipids present in *C. reinhardtii* cells, were altered under L-CO₂ conditions. MGDG (C_{34:2-4}) decreased in cells grown under L-CO₂ conditions for 3 and 6 h (Fig. 1B). Interestingly, we did not detect any changes in MGDG (C_{34:7}), an important chloroplast membrane component [30]. However, SQDG (C_{32:0}) was slightly increased after 6 h under L-CO₂ treatments (Table S3).

Although several studies have shown the accumulation of TAG under adverse conditions [31,32], we found inconsistent results between the three experiments. So, in order to enhance their levels, we decided to analyze the lipid droplets isolated from *C. reinhardtii* cells grown under similar experimental conditions.

3.2. Lipid accumulation in lipid droplets under limiting CO₂ conditions

Lipid droplets fraction (LDF) was isolated from cells grown under H-CO₂ and L-CO₂ conditions for 3 and 6 h. In analysis of these samples, TAG, DAG, DGTS and AGTS were the most abundant glycerolipids detected (Table 1). In contrast to the whole cell extracts, more consistent changes in TAG levels were observed in LDF. TAG containing the acyl combinations C₄₈, C₅₀, C₅₂ and C₅₄, DGTS containing C₃₂, C₃₃ and C₃₄ and DAG (C_{34:2-3}) increased in the first 3 h under L-CO₂ conditions, and then returned to levels similar to those of cells grown in control conditions (H-CO₂) after 6 h (Fig. 2A–H and J).

3.3. Carotenogenesis under limiting CO₂ conditions

Apart from glycerolipids, the level of carotenoid related metabolites (xanthophylls and ketocarotenoids) also changed significantly under L-

CO₂ conditions (Fig. 3). In the biosynthetic pathway, β-carotene is a precursor of zeaxanthin - the component of the xanthophyll cycle, which can be converted into antheraxanthin and further to violaxanthin [33]. Both zeaxanthin and violaxanthin accumulated in the LDF during the first 3 h under L-CO₂, returning to levels similar to those of control cells (H-CO₂) after 6 h. Further oxidation steps of zeaxanthin and violaxanthin can lead to the biosynthesis of either astaxanthin (Ast) or 5,6-epoxy-3-hydroxy-12'-apo-β-carotene-12'-al (EAC) respectively. Astaxanthins, but not EAC, accumulated in LDF after 3 h under L-CO₂ (Fig. 3). This result suggests that the metabolic pathway in the direction of Ast was favored during the early stage of CCM establishment (3 h), resulting in 5-fold accumulation of Ast in the LDF. In contrast, the biosynthetic pathway towards EAC became more active after 6 h under L-CO₂, when the CCM was established. The precursor of β-carotene, *trans*-lycopene can also be directed to oxidation steps resulting in different forms of oxo-spirilloxanthin (SP). These SP forms also accumulated in the LDF during the first 3 h under L-CO₂. Like Ast, the SP levels returned to normal after 6 h (Fig. 3).

Astaxanthin and SP are stored mainly in lipid droplets and can be esterified with fatty acids. Such esterification takes place in the ER prior to transport to LDs [34]. Esterified forms of ketocarotenoids (Ast and SP) with C_{16:0}, C_{16:3}, C_{18:0} and C_{18:2-18:4} were detected and characterized in the LDF extracts. The annotations were based on identification of the neutral loss of acyl group in the MSMS spectra (Fig. S2B). Accumulation of Ast- and SP-fatty acid esters was observed in the LDF during CCM establishment (3 h under L-CO₂); most of these compounds returned to control levels after 6 h (Fig. 4), similarly to what was observed for xanthophylls and glycerolipids (Figs. 2 and 3).

3.4. Impact of limiting CO₂ conditions on gene expression related to lipid metabolism

To confirm the lipidomic results, we carried out a quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis of 56 genes related to CCM and lipid metabolism (Table S4) at 1, 3 and 6 h after cells were transferred from H-CO₂ to L-CO₂. First, we analyzed the transcript levels for seven low CO₂ induced genes, out of which three of them (*CCP1*, *CCP2* and *HLA3*) are known to have direct role in CCM, whereas other four (*CAH4*, *CAH5*, *LCI 1*, *LCIA/NARI.2*) are known to be expressed under LCO₂ conditions ([35–38]). Two mitochondrial beta-CA genes (*CAH4* and *CAH5*), an LCO₂-inducible membrane protein (*LCI1*), two chloroplast envelope proteins (*CCP1* and *CCP2*), and two HCO₃ transporters (*HLA3*, *LCIA/NARI.2*) were analyzed. Although both *CCP1/2* are still named as chloroplast envelope protein on Phytozome but their association with mitochondria is already shown in *C. reinhardtii* and tobacco [39]. Under our experimental conditions, all of these marker genes were highly upregulated after 1, 3 and 6 h of L-CO₂ (Fig. S5). These results confirm that the CCM was induced and established during our experimental conditions.

The expression levels of genes related to lipid metabolism (Table S4) were analyzed in order to investigate whether levels of lipid metabolism gene transcripts could account for the significant changes in lipid composition observed under CCM. The results of transcript level analysis were further analyzed by OPLS-DA, and the data from the valid models were visualized with a combined score-loading bi-plot (Fig. 5A) and as a heatmap (Fig. 5B). The heatmap derived from the OPLS-DA bi-plot shows that the transcript levels of several genes were affected differently across the sampling time points during exposure to the L-CO₂ conditions. After 1 h under L-CO₂ conditions about 48% of the genes analyzed in our experimental set-up already showed changes in transcript levels (Fig. 5C). After 3 h, expression of 34% of the genes had changed but thereafter the percentage of changes increased to similar numbers as after 1 h of L-CO₂. Interestingly, 26% of the genes showed decreases in their transcription levels after 1 h, 10% after 3 h and only 2% after 6 h (Fig. 5C). Overall, this suggests that changes in the transcription of genes associated with lipid metabolism are correlated with

Table 1Lipids annotated in lipid droplets isolated from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cultures grown under limiting CO₂ conditions.

Annotation	RT	Adduct	m/z	m/z (calc)	Δm/z	[M]	Formula
Betaine lipids							
AGTS (16:0)	2.00	[M + H]	474.3797	474.3789	0.0008	473.3711	C ₂₆ H ₅₁ O ₆ N
AGTS (18:3)	1.30	[M + H]	496.3619	496.3632	-0.0013	495.3554	C ₂₈ H ₄₉ O ₆ N
AGTS (18:1)	2.00	[M + H]	500.3954	500.3945	0.0009	499.3867	C ₂₈ H ₅₃ O ₆ N
AGTS (18:0)	3.00	[M + H]	502.4096	502.4102	-0.0006	501.4023	C ₂₈ H ₅₅ O ₆ N
DGTS (32:4)	4.4/4.6	[M + H]	704.5503	704.5459	0.0044	703.5381	C ₄₂ H ₇₃ O ₇ N
DGTS (32:3)	5.0/5.2	[M + H]	706.5631	706.5616	0.0015	705.5538	C ₄₂ H ₇₅ O ₇ N
DGTS (32:2)	5.50	[M + H]	708.5807	708.5772	0.0035	707.5694	C ₄₂ H ₇₇ O ₇ N
DGTS (32:1)	6.00	[M + H]	710.5955	710.5929	0.0026	709.5851	C ₄₂ H ₇₉ O ₇ N
DGTS (34:4)	5.10	[M + H]	732.5817	732.5772	0.0045	731.5694	C ₄₄ H ₇₇ O ₇ N
DGTS (34:3)	5.6/5.80	[M + H]	734.5969	734.5929	0.004	733.5851	C ₄₄ H ₇₉ O ₇ N
DGTS (34:2)	6.00	[M + H]	736.6107	736.6085	0.0022	735.6007	C ₄₄ H ₈₁ O ₇ N
DGTS (34:1)	6.70	[M + H]	738.6279	738.6242	0.0037	737.6164	C ₄₄ H ₈₃ O ₇ N
DGTS (36:7)	4.1/4.2	[M + H]	754.5655	754.5616	0.0039	753.5538	C ₄₆ H ₇₅ O ₇ N
DGTS (36:6)	5.4/5.6	[M + H]	756.5811	756.5772	0.0039	755.5694	C ₄₆ H ₇₇ O ₇ N
DGTS (36:5)	4.9/5.0	[M + H]	758.5972	758.5929	0.0043	757.5851	C ₄₆ H ₇₉ O ₇ N
DGTS (36:4)	5.5/5.7	[M + H]	760.613	760.6085	0.0045	759.6007	C ₄₆ H ₈₁ O ₇ N
DGTS (36:3)	6.0/6.5	[M + H]	762.6282	762.6242	0.004	761.6164	C ₄₆ H ₈₃ O ₇ N
Di/triacylglycerol							
DAG (34:8)	4.30	[M + NH4]	598.4469	598.4466	0.0003	580.4123	C ₃₇ H ₅₉ O ₅ N
DAG (34:7)	4.70	[M + NH4]	600.4626	600.4622	0.0004	582.4284	C ₃₇ H ₆₁ O ₅ N
DAG (34:6)	5.00	[M + NH4]	602.4778	602.4779	-1E-04	584.4441	C ₃₇ H ₆₃ O ₅ N
DAG (34:5)	5.5/5.8	[M + NH4]	604.4936	604.4935	1E-04	586.4597	C ₃₇ H ₆₅ O ₅ N
DAG (34:4)	6.10	[M + NH4]	606.5097	606.5092	0.0005	588.4754	C ₃₇ H ₆₇ O ₅ N
DAG (34:3)	6.7/6.9	[M + NH4]	608.5251	608.5248	0.0003	590.4910	C ₃₇ H ₆₉ O ₅ N
DAG (34:1)	7.90	[M + NH4]	612.5556	612.5561	-1E-04	594.5223	C ₃₇ H ₇₃ O ₅ N
DAG (36:4)	6.9/7.1	[M + NH4]	634.5407	634.5405	0.0002	616.5067	C ₃₉ H ₇₁ O ₅ N
DAG (36:3)	7.70	[M + NH4]	636.5566	636.5561	0.0005	618.5223	C ₃₉ H ₇₃ O ₅ N
TAG (50:11)	8.10	[M + NH4]	830.6316	830.6293	0.0023	812.5955	C ₅₃ H ₈₃ O ₆ N
TAG (50:10)	8.80	[M + NH4]	832.6446	832.6449	-0.0003	814.6111	C ₅₃ H ₈₅ O ₆ N
TAG (50:9)	8.95	[M + NH4]	834.6612	834.6606	0.0006	816.6268	C ₅₃ H ₈₇ O ₆ N
TAG (50:8)	9.6/9.7	[M + NH4]	836.6747	836.6762	-0.0015	818.6424	C ₅₃ H ₈₉ O ₆ N
TAG (50:7)	10.10	[M + NH4]	838.6953	838.6919	0.0034	820.6581	C ₅₃ H ₉₁ O ₆ N
TAG (50:6)	10.60	[M + NH4]	840.7065	840.7075	-0.001	822.6737	C ₅₃ H ₉₃ O ₆ N
TAG (50:5)	10.90	[M + NH4]	842.7238	842.7232	0.0006	824.6894	C ₅₃ H ₉₅ O ₆ N
TAG (50:4)	11.30	[M + NH4]	844.7402	844.7388	0.0014	826.7050	C ₅₃ H ₉₇ O ₆ N
TAG (50:3)	11.80	[M + NH4]	846.7545	846.7545	0	828.7207	C ₅₃ H ₉₉ O ₆ N
TAG (50:2)	12.20	[M + NH4]	848.7713	848.7701	0.0012	830.7363	C ₅₃ H ₁₀₁ O ₆ N
TAG (50:1)	12.60	[M + NH4]	850.7886	850.7858	0.0028	832.7520	C ₅₃ H ₁₀₃ O ₆ N
TAG (52:11)	8.70	[M + NH4]	858.6623	858.6606	0.0017	840.6268	C ₅₅ H ₈₇ O ₆ N
TAG (52:10)	9.0/9.2	[M + NH4]	860.677	860.6762	0.0008	842.6424	C ₅₅ H ₈₉ O ₆ N
TAG (52:9)	9.1/9.6	[M + NH4]	862.6916	862.6919	-0.0003	844.6581	C ₅₅ H ₉₁ O ₆ N
TAG (52:8)	9.90	[M + NH4]	864.7079	864.7075	0.0004	846.6737	C ₅₅ H ₉₃ O ₆ N
TAG (52:7)	10.5/10.7	[M + NH4]	866.722	866.7232	-0.0012	848.6894	C ₅₅ H ₉₅ O ₆ N
TAG (52:6)	11.0/11.1	[M + NH4]	868.7389	868.7388	1E-04	850.7050	C ₅₅ H ₉₇ O ₆ N
TAG (52:5)	11.30	[M + NH4]	870.756	870.7545	0.0015	852.7207	C ₅₅ H ₉₉ O ₆ N
TAG (52:4)	11.70	[M + NH4]	872.7717	872.7701	0.0016	854.7363	C ₅₅ H ₁₀₁ O ₆ N
TAG (54:7)	11.30	[M + NH4]	894.7567	894.7545	0.0022	876.7207	C ₅₇ H ₉₉ O ₆ N
TAG (54:6)	11.60	[M + NH4]	896.7706	896.7701	0.0005	878.7363	C ₅₇ H ₁₀₁ O ₆ N
Xanthophylls/ketocarotenoids							
Violaxanthin	2.21	[M + H]	601.4246	601.4251	-0.0005	600.4168	C ₄₀ H ₅₆ O ₄
Zeaxanthin	5.21	[M + H]	569.4353	569.4353	0	568.4275	C ₄₀ H ₅₆ O ₂
5,6-Epoxy-3-hydroxy-12'-apo-β-caroten-12'-al	3.66	[M + H]	409.2738	409.2737	1E-04	408.266	C ₂₇ H ₃₆ O ₃
β-Cryptoxanthin	8.39	[M + H]	553.4393	553.4403	-0.001	552.4315	C ₄₀ H ₅₆ O
15-cis-phytoene	7.97	[M + H]	545.5081	545.508	1E-04	544.5003	C ₄₀ H ₆₄
Ast_2: (3S, 3'S) 7,8,7',8'-tetrahydroastaxanthin	4.18	[M + H]	593.361	593.3625	-0.0015	592.3552	C ₄₀ H ₄₈ O ₄
Ast_3: (3S, 3'S) 7,8-didehydroastaxanthin	4.54	[M + H]	595.377	595.3781	-0.0011	594.3709	C ₄₀ H ₅₀ O ₄
Ast_4: (3S, 3'S) astaxanthin	5.09	[M + H]	597.391	597.3938	-0.0028	596.3865	C ₄₀ H ₅₂ O ₄
SP1: 2,2'-dioxospirilloxanthin	5.53	[M + H]	625.424	625.4251	-0.0011	624.4178	C ₄₂ H ₅₆ O ₄
SP2: 2-oxo-2'-hydroxyspirilloxanthin	6.49	[M + H]	627.439	627.4407	-0.0017	626.4335	C ₄₂ H ₅₈ O ₄
SP3: 2,2-dihydroxyspirilloxanthin	7.14	[M + H]	629.455	629.4564	-0.0014	628.4491	C ₄₂ H ₆₀ O ₄
Ketocarotenoid esters							
Ast_3_16:0	10.76	[M + H]	833.6061	833.6078	-0.0017	832.5983	C ₅₆ H ₈₀ O ₅
Ast_4_16:0	11.35	[M + H]	835.6217	835.6235	-0.0018	834.6162	C ₅₆ H ₈₂ O ₅
Ast_3_16:3	9.40	[M + H]	827.5602	827.5609	-0.0007	826.5536	C ₅₆ H ₇₄ O ₅
Ast_2_18:3	9.03	[M + H]	853.5756	853.5765	-0.0009	852.5692	C ₅₈ H ₇₆ O ₅
Ast_4_18:4	9.63	[M + H]	855.5915	855.5922	-0.0007	854.5849	C ₅₈ H ₇₈ O ₅
Ast_4_18:3	10.25	[M + H]	857.6071	857.6078	-0.0007	856.6005	C ₅₈ H ₈₀ O ₅
SP_4_18:2	10.26	[M + H]	859.6228	859.6235	-0.0007	858.6162	C ₅₈ H ₈₂ O ₅
SP_3_16:3	11.47	[M + H]	861.6378	861.6391	-0.0013	860.6318	C ₅₈ H ₈₄ O ₅
SP_3_16:0	12.92	[M + H]	867.685	867.6861	-0.0011	866.6788	C ₅₈ H ₉₀ O ₅
SP_2_17:0	12.24	[M + H]	879.687	879.6861	0.0009	878.6788	C ₅₉ H ₉₀ O ₅
SP_2_18:2	11.92	[M + H]	889.6691	889.6704	-0.0013	888.6631	C ₆₀ H ₈₈ O ₅

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Annotation	RT	Adduct	<i>m/z</i>	<i>m/z</i> (calc)	$\Delta m/z$	[M]	Formula
SP 2_18:3	12.42	[M + H]	891.6851	891.6861	-0.001	890.6788	C60 H90 O5
SP 2_18:0	12.88	[M + H]	893.7018	893.7017	1E-04	892.6944	C60 H92 O5
SP 3_18:0	13.21	[M + H]	895.7168	895.7174	-0.0006	894.7101	C60 H94 O5

CCM establishment.

Statistically significant differences (*t*-test, $p < 0.05$; see Table S5 for relative expression and *p* values) were obtained for transcripts encoding desaturases, acyl transferases, ligases, lipases and plastidial oxidases, as well as those of genes encoding enzymes that are part of the photorespiration cycle and fatty acid, glycerolipid and carotenoid biosynthesis (Fig. 5D).

We detected rapid changes in the gene expression associated with FAD desaturases, where decreased expression of *FAD6* and *G6252.t* (also known as *FAD2*) were already observed in the first hour under L-CO₂, followed by increased expression of *G6252.t1* and *FAD5C* at 3 h and 6 h.

FAD desaturases are reported to be chloroplast localized and may be related to the synthesis of $\Delta 4$ and $\Delta 5$ polyunsaturated (PUFA) fatty acids. *FAD6* encodes an isoform of omega-6-fatty acid desaturase known to act upon MGDG (to generate 16:2 and 18:2 fatty acids) and on the SQDG oleate attached to the *sn1* glycerol backbone [30]. The rapid decrease in its expression after 1 h of L-CO₂ is in line with the accumulation of C16:0 and C18:0 as well as the decreased levels of their desaturated molecular species after 3 h of L-CO₂ (Fig. S4).

PGD1 has been shown to be involved in the acyl editing or turnover of galactoglycerolipids during TAG formation in *C. reinhardtii* [40]. The increased expression of *PGD1* during the first hour under L-CO₂ and reduced levels of MGDG after 3 and 6 h of L-CO₂ (Fig. 1B) suggest that galactolipids could be substrates for this lipase.

3.5. CO₂ limiting conditions induce expression of carotenoid biosynthesis genes

We then tested whether changes in expression of carotenoid biosynthesis genes could account for the regulation of carotenogenesis under CCM establishment. While we observed reduced transcript level of *VDR* (violaxanthin synthase) after 1 h and of *CYP97A5* (carotenoid hydroxylase) after 3 h of L-CO₂, *CYP97A6* transcripts were upregulated at all three time points. This is consistent with the accumulation of astaxanthin and spirilloxanthins in the LDF (Fig. 3). Under L-CO₂ conditions we observed a tendency for upregulation of *PTOX2* after 3 and 6 h of L-CO₂ (although this was not statistically significant), contrasting with previously published results from *H. pluvialis*, in which the transcription of *PTOX1* was positively correlated with accumulation of Ast [14].

Enzymes from the DGAT gene family are known to catalyze the acyl-esterification of diacylglycerol (DAG) resulting in TAG [30]. The esterification of astaxanthin produced in *H. pluvialis* cells under stress conditions is also mediated by DGAT enzymes [41]. However, in our study the transcription of DGAT family genes (*DGTT3* and 4) was downregulated under L-CO₂ conditions (Fig. 5). In contrast, increased transcripts levels for *LCL1* (long chain fatty acyl-CoA ligase) [42] were observed at all time points in our experimental setup. Proteome analyses indicated the presence of *LCL1* in lipid droplets, suggesting an active role for *LCL1* in TAG synthesis [30]. The accumulation of Ast has been closely associated with TAG biosynthesis during carotenogenesis [34]. This is in line with our findings that TAG and Ast/SP-acyl accumulate in LDF during CCM induction. The combined results from the lipidomic and qPCR analysis suggests that the transcriptional regulation

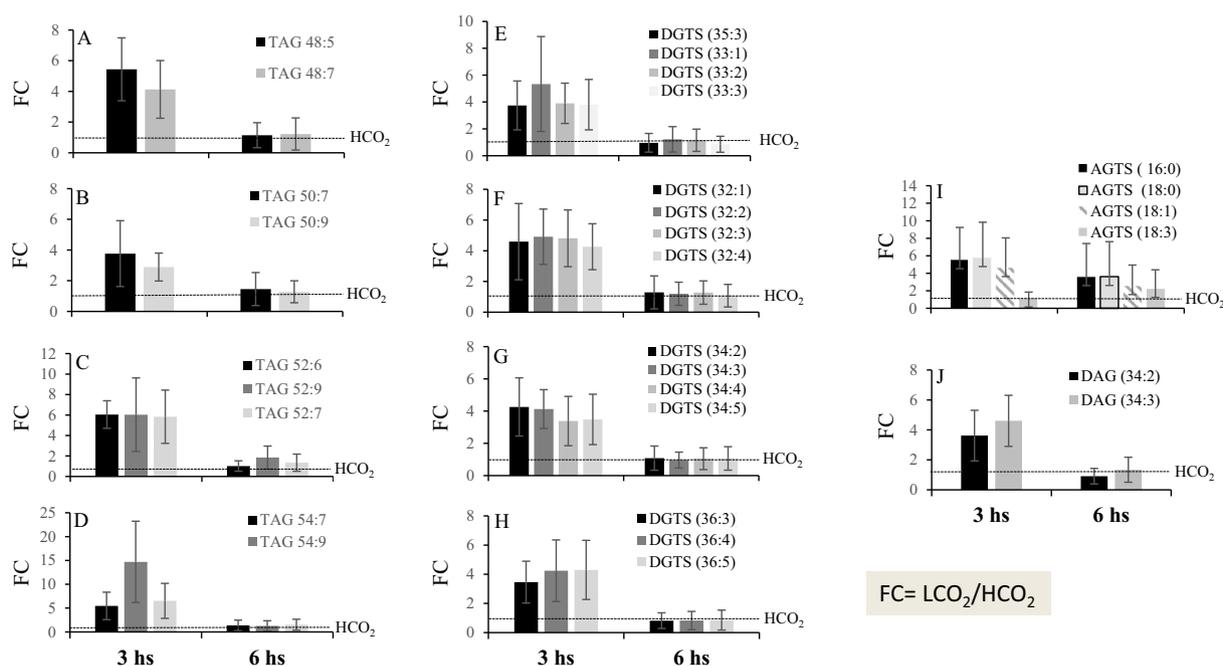


Fig. 2. Changes in lipid composition in lipid droplets fraction (LDF) isolated from *C. reinhardtii* cells grown under limiting CO₂ conditions at 3 and 6 h: A–D: Triacylglycerols (TAGs); E–H: Diacylglycerol-trimethylhomoserine (DGTS); I: Monoacylglycerol-trimethylhomoserine (AGTS); J: Diacylglycerols (DAGs). Data is expressed as fold change (FC) of the mean value ($n = 5$) of low CO₂ in relation to the control conditions (HCO₂) \pm SD. Relative control level (HCO₂) is shown as a line.

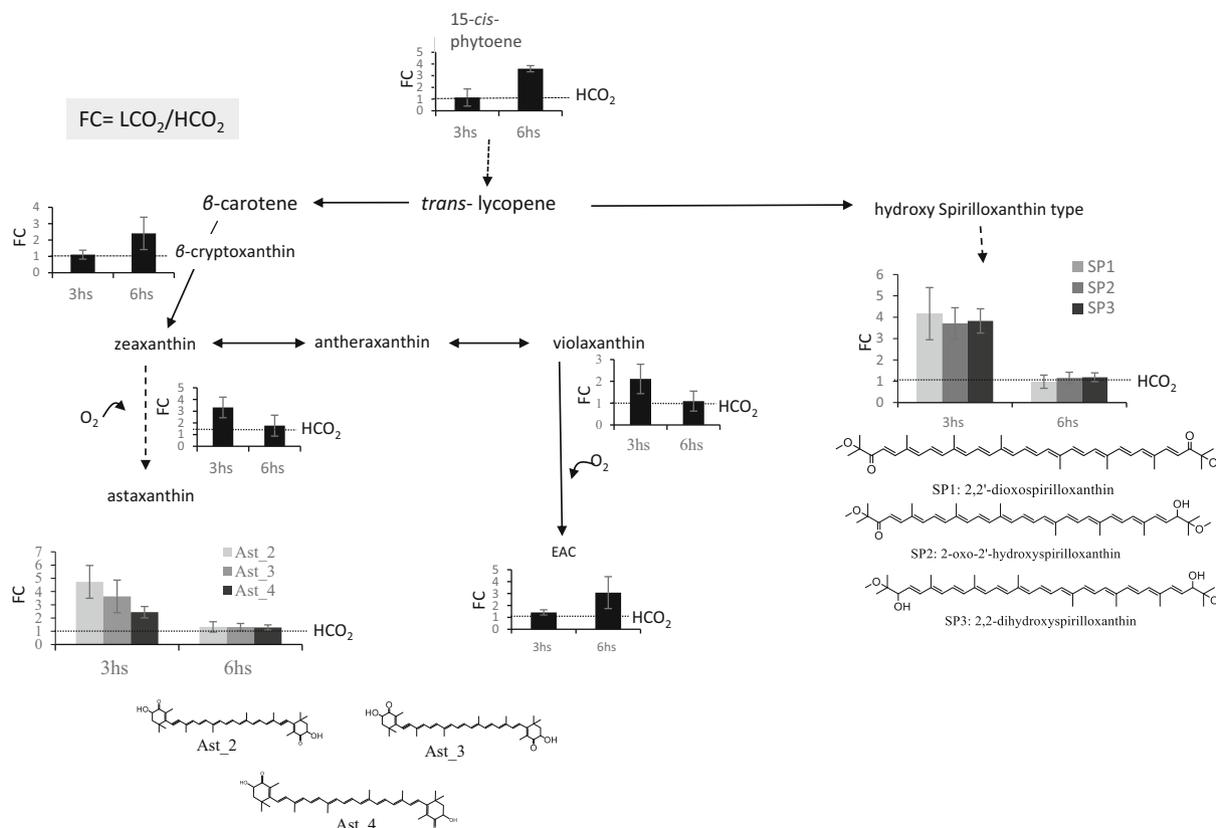


Fig. 3. Overview of xanthophylls and ketocarotenoids changes in lipid droplets fraction (LDF) isolated from *C. reinhardtii* cells grown under limiting CO₂ conditions. Ast_2 (7,8,7',8'-Tetradehydroastaxanthin); Ast_3 (7,8-Didehydroastaxanthin); Ast_4 (astaxanthin); SP1 (2,2'-dioxospirilloxanthin); SP2 (2-oxo-2'-hydroxyspirilloxanthin); SP3 (2,2-dihydroxyspirilloxanthin); EAC (5, 6-epoxy-3-hydroxy-12'-apo- β -caroten-12'-al). Data is expressed as fold change (FC) of the mean value (n = 5) of low CO₂ in relation to the control conditions (HCO₂) \pm SD. Relative control level (HCO₂) is shown as a line.

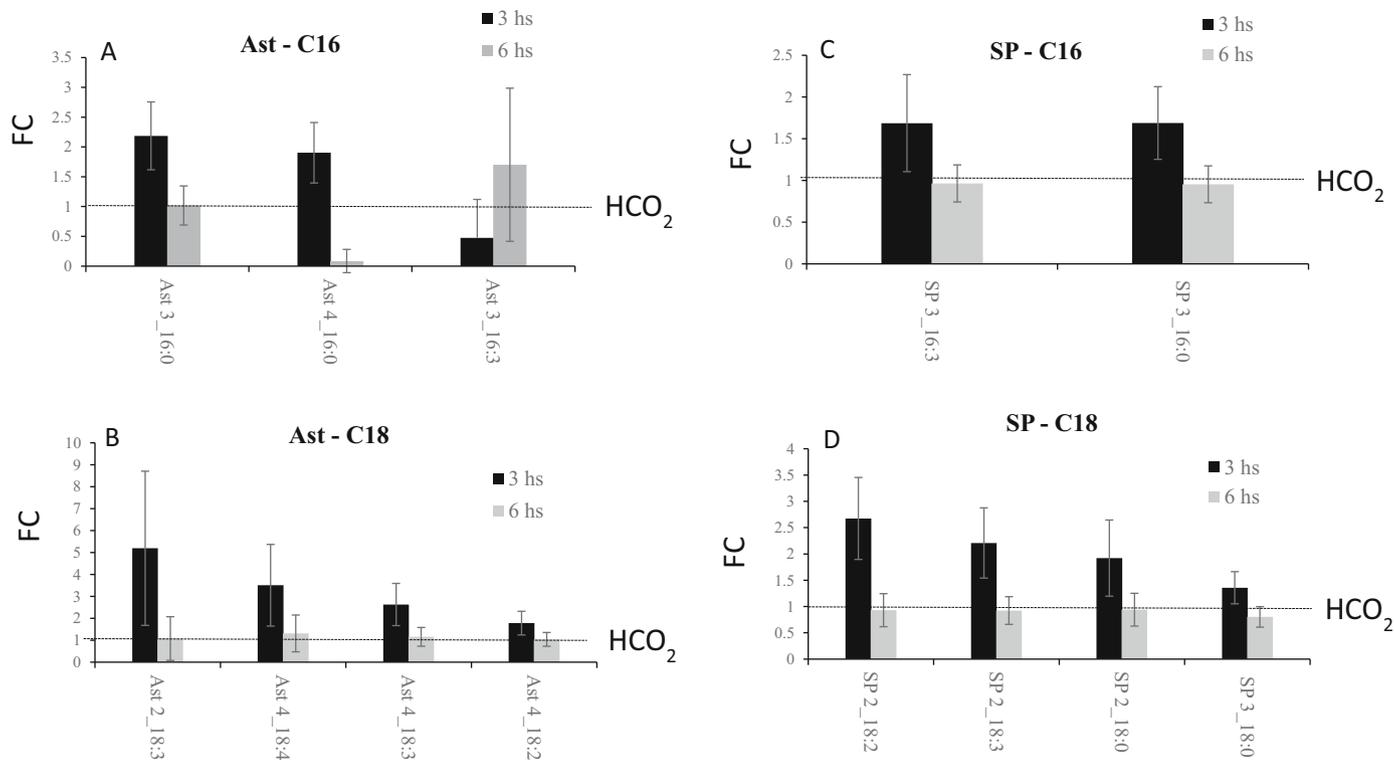


Fig. 4. Ketocarotenoid-esters changes in lipid droplets fraction isolated from *C. reinhardtii* cells grown under limiting CO₂ conditions. A) Astaxanthin- C16; B) Astaxanthin - C18; C) oxospirilloxanthin -C16; D) oxospirilloxanthin -C18. Data is expressed as fold change (FC) of the mean value (n = 5) of low CO₂ in relation to the control conditions (HCO₂) \pm SD. Relative control level (HCO₂) is shown as a line.

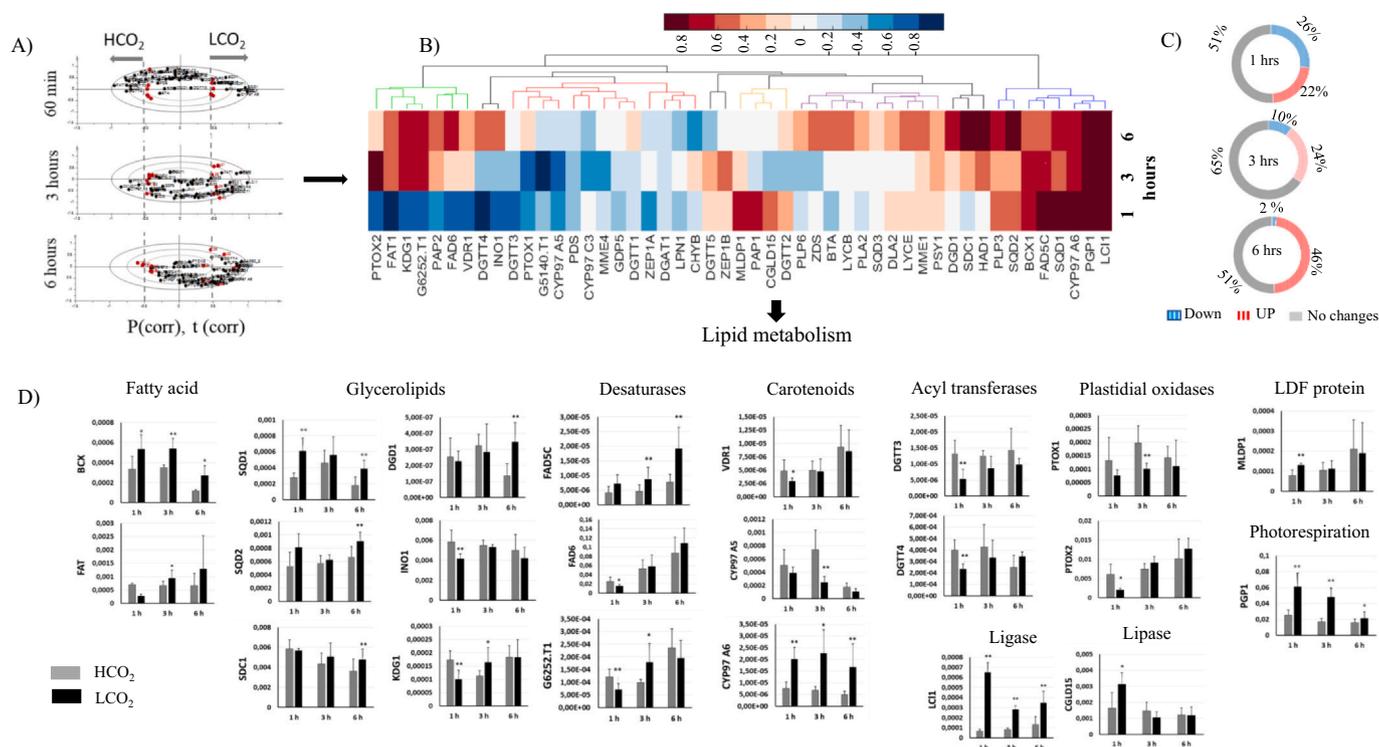


Fig. 5. Impact of limiting CO₂ conditions on expression of *C. reinhardtii* lipid metabolism related genes – A) HeatMap based on P(corr) from the OPLS-DA Bi-plots of 49 genes under high and low CO₂ at 1, 3 and 6 h; B) percentage of genes that were up-regulated (red), down-regulated (blue) or no changes (grey) in the OPLS-DA; C) Illustration of the relative expression of the significant genes (classified accordingly to their enzyme functions in lipid metabolism); data represent mean values (n = 6) ± SD; asterisks mean significant differences (t-test) at p < 0.05 (*) or p < 0.01 (**). The relative expression levels of different genes analyzed in this work and their respective p values are available in Table S5.

of lipid and carotenoid biosynthesis genes can, to a certain extent, explain changes in lipid composition during CCM establishment.

4. Discussion

Carbon concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) are crucial for algal cells when the CO₂ concentration is insufficient to saturate Rubisco [2,43]. During CCM induction, the expression of several genes encoding carbonic anhydrases (CAs), bicarbonate transporters [44], and other low-CO₂ induced (*LCI*) genes are modulated [39]. However, transcriptome data obtained from *C. reinhardtii* and *Cyanophora paradoxa* indicate that during CCM establishment a set of stress-response genes are also up-regulated, probably due to the oxidative stress to which cells are exposed after transfer to L-CO₂ conditions because of the reduced capacity of CO₂ fixation to act as electron acceptor [6,8,35]. It has been known for many years that CO₂ is limiting for electron transport under most “natural” conditions, and that the regulation of electron transport between photosystems II and I is sensitive to the availability of CO₂ [45]. The rate of electron transport under low CO₂ can be down-regulated up to 50% relative to the maximum rate achievable in saturating CO₂ and this down-regulation can be explained by regulation of the electron transport chain itself, e.g. via CO₂-limitation at the level of Rubisco, which decrease the overall flux through the Calvin cycle [45]. Furthermore, low chloroplastic CO₂/O₂ ratio and/or reduced cell capacity to assimilate CO₂ has been shown to cause an increase in photosynthetic electron flux to O₂, resulting in the increased production of superoxide, H₂O₂, and hydroxyl radicals [46–49]. On the other hand, high CO₂ has been reported to promote both PS II and PS I photochemistry under stress conditions, by alleviating the limitations in both donor and acceptor sides of the photosystems and preventing ROS overproduction [50].

When cells are transferred from H-CO₂ to L-CO₂, a temporary stimulation of photorespiration is expected. Before the CCM is fully

induced, the intracellular CO₂:O₂ ratio is too low to saturate Rubisco with CO₂ thus Rubisco catalyzes oxygenation of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate, with the production of 2-phosphoglycolate (2-PGL) [6], which after dephosphorylation by 2-phosphoglycolate phosphatase (PGP) is further metabolized in *C. reinhardtii* mitochondria to recover part of the C allocated to 2-PGL [51]. In our study, the expression of *PGP1* was increased and its increased expression was still observed after 6 h of the L-CO₂ treatment; this may indicate that full CCM induction requires more time than is necessary for the abundance of CCM marker gene transcripts to reach a steady state (Fig. S5). This is in line with our previous report that major differences in metabolites between H-CO₂ and L-CO₂ cells can persist until 12 h after the CCM is induced [6]. Furthermore, we were able to analyze in detail the changes in lipid metabolism that were briefly referred by Renberg et al. [6], in order to elucidate the role of lipid remodeling in L-CO₂ acclimation.

A characteristic feature of the *C. reinhardtii* membranes is the lack of phosphatidylcholine (PtdCho), which in embryophytes is a key intermediate in the endoplasmic-reticulum (ER) pathway of lipid synthesis [52]. In *C. reinhardtii*, PtdCho is replaced by the non-phosphorus betaine lipid DGTS [30]. DGTS is found mainly in non-plastidial membranes, with much smaller amounts detected in the plastid fraction, where it is believed to play the same role as the PtdCho in plant outer chloroplast envelopes [53]. The lack of PtdCho may be the reason why in *C. reinhardtii* chloroplast lipids are synthesized mainly in plastids [18]. Here, we detected plastid MGDG, DGDG and SQDG containing C₁₆ in the *sn2*-position of the glycerol backbone, a feature typical of lipids derived from the plastid biosynthetic pathway [30]. Although the glycerolipid composition of photosynthetic membranes is believed to be evolutionally conserved [54], the photosynthetic apparatus must undergo fast lipid turnover in response to environmental perturbation. During high to low CO₂ transition we observed a decrease in total MGDG, whereas DGDG and SQDG did not show noteworthy variations (Fig. 1, Table S3). These polar membrane lipids have different phase

properties with water, DGDG and SQDG are lamellar (L) and MGDG is a hexagonal II (HII) phase lipid respectively. The general role of the HII lipid is to give the membrane a high internal lateral pressure among the fatty acyl chains and a pressure on the membrane proteins [55]. Due to the non-bilayer lipid properties of MGDG, different ratios of DGDG/MGDG will affect the lateral pressure on membrane proteins [55], and thereby might affect the photosynthetic apparatus, as have been shown e.g. in *Arabidopsis* with reduced MGDG levels [56–58]. Furthermore, it has been shown that a lower DGDG/MGDG ratio reflects increased sensitivity of *C. reinhardtii* to environmental stressors, e.g. high salinity or low temperature [53]. Here, the DGDG/MGDG ratio increased due to the decrease in MGDG, which can be a manifestation of stressogenic effect caused by photosynthesis reduction during L-CO₂ acclimation [46–49]. The above is in a line with the results of meta-analysis reported by Xiaoxiao et al. [58] that under various abiotic stresses, such as salt, low temperature and drought stresses, the DGDG/MGDG ratio in plant cells changes, mainly due to the more pronounced decrease in MGDG amount, compared with the reduction in DGDG.

The decrease in MGDG during L-CO₂ acclimation correlates with the high level of expression of the TAG-lipase-encoding gene *PGD1* in L-CO₂ cells (Fig. 5) and with the evidence provided by Legeret et al. [42] that in stressed *C. reinhardtii* cells MGDGs are converted into storage lipids (TAG) via DAG intermediates. Further support for this suggestion is given by Legeret et al. [42] who also observed that the level of membrane lipids decreased and the TAG level increased, while the total cellular fatty acid content did not vary, under heat-stress conditions. In agreement with the above, the total lipids in our L-CO₂ cells did not differ significantly from those of H-CO₂ cells (Fig. S3), indicating that membrane lipids were not degraded but rather converted to storage lipids. The fact that some TAGs in LDF contain C₁₆ in the *sn2* of the glycerol backbone points to the plastid reassembly of these TAGs.

Since stressogenic conditions cause an increase in LDs and the lipid monolayer of LDs contains mainly DGTS [18,59,60], it is not surprising that DGTS showed the most pronounced increase of all the glycerolipids during CCM induction (Figs. 1 and 2, Table S3). We did not detect any differences in expression of *BTA1*, the gene encoding the enzyme diacylglycerol-*N,N,N*-trimethylhomoserine synthesis protein (BTA1) which is involved in DGTS biosynthesis in *C. reinhardtii* [15,26]. The lack of *BTA1* upregulation may be because its regulation is at the post-translational level. Among the DGTS species, of which the level significantly increased in L-CO₂ cells, we found DGTS 32:0, containing C₁₆ in the glycerol *sn2* position. This means that it originated not from the ER, as is typical for DGTS synthesis [30], but reassembled in the chloroplast as for TAG; this has not previously been reported for *C. reinhardtii*.

Under L-CO₂ we observed the induction of *MLDP1* transcription. *MLDP1* encodes the major lipid droplet protein (MLDP), which is an important structural component of the surface of *C. reinhardtii* LDs [18]. Moreover, transcription of *BCX1*, a gene encoding a β -subunit of the acetyl-CoA carboxylase that converts acetylCoA to malonylCoA, was upregulated under L-CO₂ (Fig. 5C). MalonylCoA can be converted to malonyl ACP and further to other acyl-ACPs such as palmitoyl-ACP or steroyl-ACP. Acyl-ACPs can be directly hydrolyzed into free fatty acids by the enzyme FAT1 or diverted to phosphatidic acid (PA) and then directed to DAG biosynthesis. Although we observed decreased expression of genes encoding enzymes of phospholipid biosynthesis, including *KDG1* (diacylglycerol kinase), *INO1* (inositol-3-phosphate synthase) and *SDC1* (serine decarboxylase – phosphatidylethanolamine), the increased expression of *FAT1* suggests that, during the induction of the CCM, the carbon flow was diverted in the direction of free fatty acids and then, transferred to DAG via LCL1 for subsequently TAG biosynthesis (Fig. 6). The above is consistent with bioenergetics analyses indicating that *C. reinhardtii* prefers to maximize lipid production when it is difficult to generate new cells, e.g. under nutrient limitation [61].

One known effect of stressogenic factors on *C. reinhardtii* metabolism is the co-occurrence of lipid remodeling and carotenoid

biosynthesis [12]. Our analysis of the LD fraction revealed ketocarotenoids, xanthophylls and carotenes common in LDF (astaxanthin, β -carotene), but also species that are typically present in the chloroplast. Only astaxanthin and β -carotene have previously been detected in *H. pluvialis* LDs [34,62]. However, *C. reinhardtii* cells contain two different classes of LDs: cytoplasmic and plastidial [63]. The cytoplasmic LDs tend to accumulate greater amounts of neutral lipids and they are usually larger than plastidial LDs (plastoglobules), which are probably involved in stress responses, especially in protecting membranes from photooxidation and protecting photosystem II from photoinactivation [16,64]. Disruption of microalgal cells during the LDF isolation usually damages both the plasmalemma and envelope membranes, making it almost impossible to separate the different LDs classes and rendering contamination of the LD fraction with cytoplasmic, plastidial and mitochondrial lipids highly probable [15,26]. The methodology used for LDF isolation in the present study did not allow us to avoid such a possibility.

The transcript analysis performed in this work also revealed changes in the transcription of genes related to carotenoid biosynthesis during the CCM induction. Transcription of *CYP97A6*, encoding a carotenoid hydroxylase involved in zeaxanthin production [65], was highly upregulated throughout the L-CO₂ treatment. The enhanced synthesis of zeaxanthin is common in cells subjected to perturbations such as the transient CO₂ limitation we applied: zeaxanthin is one of the key antioxidants in the chloroplast membranes and a major component in the deactivation of excited singlet chlorophyll (¹Chl*) [66]. Zeaxanthin is generated in the xanthophyll cycle from violaxanthin via antheraxanthin; it typically accumulates when electron transport is over-saturated. In our dataset, both zeaxanthin and violaxanthin increased during L-CO₂ acclimation (Figs. 3, 6) indicating low efficiency of the violaxanthin – zeaxanthin interconversion. This seems to be supported by the low abundance of the transcript of violaxanthin de-epoxidase (*VDRI*) (Fig. 6). Inefficient violaxanthin de-epoxidation could be connected with the low level of MGDG noted in L-CO₂ cells, since loss of MGDG results in higher conductivity of the thylakoid and an increase in luminal pH, causing the activity of violaxanthin de-epoxidase decrease [56]. MGDG is also necessary to release violaxanthin from the membrane and make it available for violaxanthin de-epoxidase [67]. In addition to its role in the energy dissipation in the xanthophyll cycle, violaxanthin is thought to be a protector of antenna pigments; zeaxanthin is involved in the thylakoid lipid protection under photo-inhibitory condition [20]. Thus, the balance violaxanthin/zeaxanthin is an important element of cellular acclimation to environmental perturbations.

Another stress-induced carotenoid [34] accumulated in L-CO₂ cells was astaxanthin (Fig. 6) which is believed to be the end-product of a multicomponent protection processes [68]. It has been shown that the reducing power (as NADPH) required for the synthesis of TAGs and fatty acid molecules needed for astaxanthin esterification serves as an electron sink under photo-oxidative stress [68]. Our data showed the presence of both free and esterified species of ketocarotenoids in the LDF. Furthermore, the biosynthesis of astaxanthin has been shown to diminish ROS production by lowering the cellular oxygen concentration due to the formation of oxygen-rich molecules and by channeling electron transport from the carotenogenic desaturation steps to the plastoquinones and then to the plastidial terminal oxidase (PTOX) [69]. Wang et al. [14] have shown that in *Haematococcus pluvialis* the transcription of *PTOX1* was positively correlated with astaxanthin accumulation. In contrast, we observed upregulation of *PTOX2* under L-CO₂ conditions. In *C. reinhardtii* *PTOX1* is involved in the regeneration of oxidized plastoquinone for phytoene desaturation, while *PTOX2* operates in chlororespiration and protects cells from light stress [70]. It therefore seems that, during CCM induction, *PTOX2*-mediated chlororespiration is a component of the stress response system preventing over-reduction of the electron transfer chain, as has been described for responses to high/low temperature, water deficiency and high

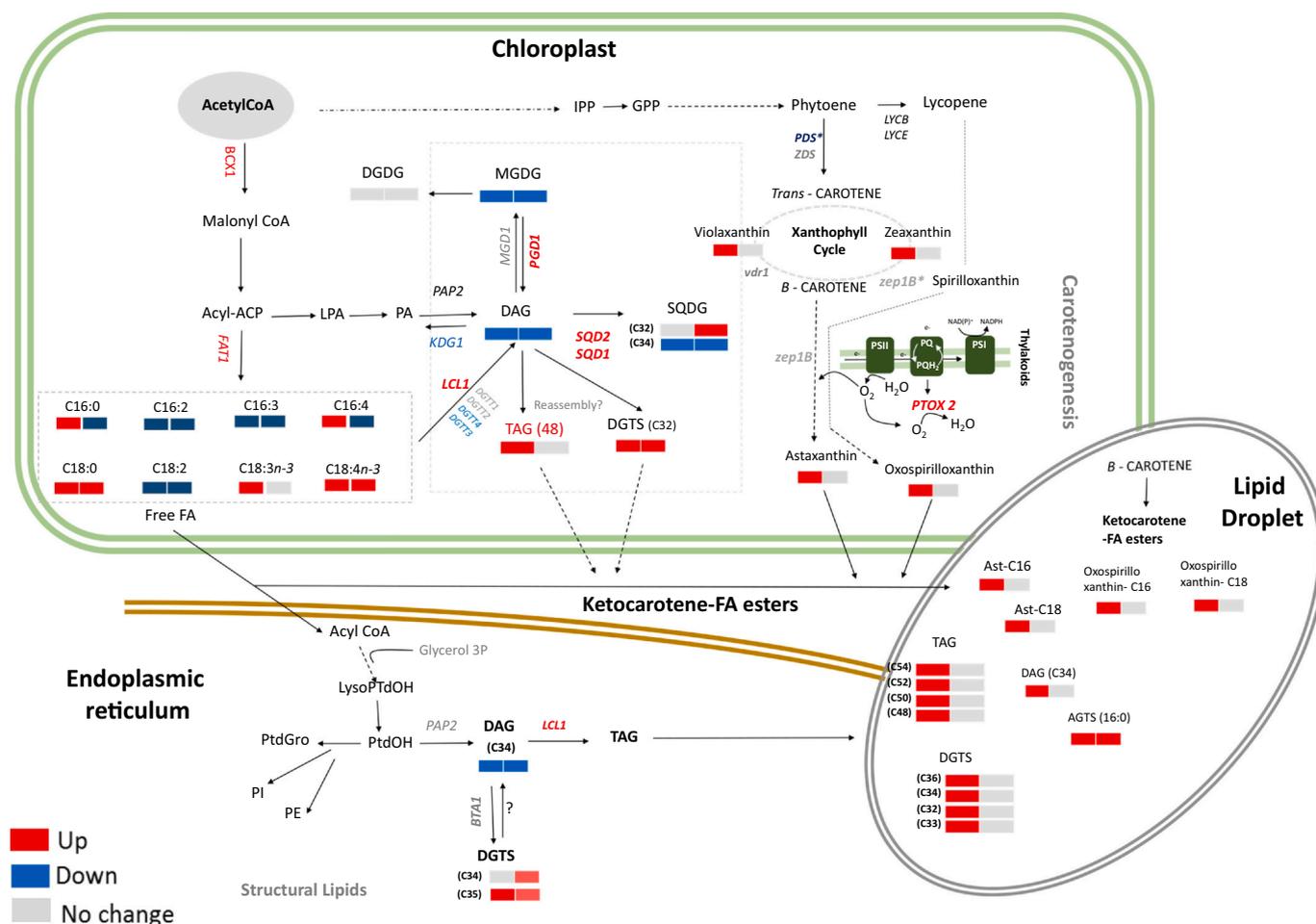


Fig. 6. Model of lipid metabolism changes in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* under limiting CO₂ conditions.

irradiance [71].

In conclusion, the results presented here also support our previous work [6] where we proposed a model in which CCM is the result of “several relatively small but orchestrated changes in metabolite profiles”. Here, the model is enhanced with lipidomic and transcript data, enabling us to suggest that some of these metabolic changes, including lipid remodeling and carotenoid biosynthesis, are directed towards reducing the effects of oxidative stress caused by transient CO₂ shortage. Thus, CCM establishment seems to consist of two parallel processes. The first, which includes stimulation of carbonic anhydrases, CO₂/HCO₃⁻ transporters etc., prepares the cell for living in a low-CO₂ environment. The second, which involves photorespiration, chlororespiration, lipid remodeling and carotenoid synthesis/conversion, enables the cell to survive the oxidative stress until its CCM reaches maximum efficiency.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.algal.2020.102099>.

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Statement regarding informed consent, human/animal rights

No conflicts, informed consent, human or animal rights applicable for this work.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Ilka N. Abreu: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, visualization, writing- reviewing and editing; Anna Aksmann: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing- reviewing and editing; Amit K. Bajhaiya: investigation; Reyes Benlloch: Maurizio Giordani: conceptualization, writing- reviewing and editing; Wojciech Pokora: investigation; Eva Selstam: investigation, writing- reviewing and editing; Thomas Moritz: conceptualization, methodology, writing- reviewing and editing, supervision.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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