# Light-independent regulation of algal photoprotection by CO₂ availability

## Authors

M. Águila Ruiz-Sola[1,†,‡], Serena Flori[1,†], Yizhong Yuan[1,†], Gaelle Villain[1], Emanuel Sanz-Luque[2,3],

Petra Redekop[2], Ryutaro Tokutsu[4], Anika Kueken[5,6], Angeliki Tsichla[1], Georgios Kepesidis[1],

Guillaume Allorent[1], Marius Arend[5,6], Fabrizio Iacono[1], Giovanni Finazzi[1], Michael Hippler[7],

Zoran Nikoloski[5,6], Jun Minagawa[4], Arthur R. Grossman[2], Dimitris Petroutsos[1, *]

## Affiliations

[1]Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, CEA, INRAE, IRIG-LPCV, 38000 Grenoble, France

[2]The Carnegie Institution for Science, Department of Plant Biology, Stanford, CA 94305, USA

[3]University of Cordoba, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Cordoba, Spain

[4]Division of Environmental photobiology, National Institute for Basic Biology (NIBB), Nishigonaka 38, Myodaiji, Okazaki 444-8585, Japan

[5]Bioinformatics Group, Institute of Biochemistry and Biology, University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany.

[6]Max-Planck-Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology, Potsdam, Golm, Germany

[7]Institute of Plant Biology and Biotechnology, Westfälische Wilhelms Universität, 48143 Münster, Germany

† these authors contributed equally to this work

‡ Current address: Instituto de Bioquímica Vegetal y Fotosíntesis, Universidad de Sevilla-CSIC, 41092, Sevilla, Spain and Departamento de Bioquímica Vegetal y Biología Molecular, Facultad de Biología, Universidad de Sevilla, 41012 Sevilla, Spain.

*Corresponding Author. Email: dimitrios.petroutsos@cnrs.fr

**Abstract**

Photosynthetic algae have evolved mechanisms to cope with suboptimal light and $CO_2$ conditions. When light energy exceeds $CO_2$ fixation capacity, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* activates photoprotection, mediated by LHCSR1/3 and PSBS, and the $CO_2$ Concentrating Mechanism (CCM). How light and $CO_2$ signals converge to regulate these processes remains unclear. Here, we show that excess light activates photoprotection- and CCM-related genes by altering intracellular $CO_2$ concentrations and that depletion of $CO_2$ drives these responses, even in total darkness. High $CO_2$ levels, derived from respiration or impaired photosynthetic fixation, repress *LHCSR3*/CCM genes while stabilizing the LHCSR1 protein. Finally, we show that the CCM regulator CIA5 also regulates photoprotection, controlling *LHCSR3* and *PSBS* transcript accumulation while inhibiting LHCSR1 protein accumulation. This work has allowed us to dissect the effect of $CO_2$ and light on CCM and photoprotection, demonstrating that light often indirectly affects these processes by impacting intracellular $CO_2$ levels.

## Introduction

A major challenge for photosynthetic organisms is to efficiently acclimate to highly dynamic light and nutrient conditions that occur in natural environments. While light provides the energy that fuels photosynthetic $CO_2$ fixation, excess light can cause oxidative damage and ultimately result in cell death. Therefore, light absorption must be precisely managed via photoprotective mechanisms that help integrate the use of light energy with $CO_2$ availability and the potential of the organism to grow and store fixed carbon. A dominant photoprotective mechanism, called qE (energy dependent quenching), results in the harmless dissipation of excess absorbed light energy as heat[1,2]. Triggering qE requires the synthesis of specific proteins and pigments that are controlled both transcriptionally and post-transcriptionally.

In the green microalga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (hereafter *Chlamydomonas*), qE depends on the nucleus-encoded, chloroplast-localized Light Harvesting Complex-Stress Related (LHCSR) proteins LHCSR1, LHCSR3 and Photosystem II Subunit S, PSBS, which are present in many algae and lower plants[3] and belong to the Light Harvesting Complex protein superfamily[4]. The *LHCSR3.1* and *LHCSR3.2* genes in *Chlamydomonas* encode identical LHCSR3 proteins[5], while *PSBS1* and *PSBS2* encode proteins that differ by only one amino acid of the chloroplast transit peptide[6]. While LHCSR1 and LHCSR3 are present in algae but not in vascular plants, PSBS is present in both[4]. PSBS in *Chlamydomonas* is transiently expressed in cells exposed to high light (HL)[6,7] and accumulates in cells exposed to UV-B irradiation[8]. LHCSR3 is the main qE effector protein in HL[5], although LHCSR1 can significantly contribute to qE under certain conditions[9]. In *Chlamydomonas*, expression of *LHCSR3* has been reported to increase upon absorption of blue-light by the photoreceptor phototropin (PHOT1)[10] and involves calcium ion signaling[11], active photosynthetic electron transport (PET)[10,11] and the transcriptional factor CONSTANS, which is also required for activation of the *LHCSR1* and *PSBS* genes[12,13].

Similar to the dynamic light cue, the concentration of inorganic carbon ($HCO_3^-$, $CO_2$ and $CO_3^{2-}$, together designated Ci) in aquatic environments varies spatially and temporally; aquatic $CO_2$ levels can also fluctuate from extremely high (hyper-saturated) to extremely low[14]. Because low $CO_2$ levels limit photoautotrophic growth, microalgae have evolved a $CO_2$ Concentrating Mechanism (CCM) that elevates the level of $CO_2$ at the site of fixation by Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO). Major components of the CCM are carbonic anhydrases (CAH), which facilitate interconversions among the different Ci species, and Ci transporters. The genes encoding many Ci transporters and CAHs are under the control of the zinc-finger type

potential transcription regulator CIA5 (also CCM1)[15,16], which is localized in the nucleus[17] and

controls expression of low-$CO_2$ responsive genes.

In addition to the use of $CO_2$ to support phototrophic growth in the light, *Chlamydomonas* can also

use the two-carbon molecule acetate either in the dark to support heterotrophic growth, or in the

light, to support photoheterotrophic or mixotrophic growth[18]. Acetate is incorporated into acetyl-

CoA either in a one-step reaction catalyzed by acetyl-CoA synthetase (ACS), or in two steps that

use acetate kinase (ACK) and phosphate acetyltransferase (PAT), which sequentially catalyze the

formation of acetyl-phosphate and acetyl-CoA[19]. Acetyl-CoA can then enter the glyoxylate cycle,

a shunt of the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle[20], recently characterized in *Chlamydomonas* [21], where

it can be converted to metabolites that are used for anabolic metabolism. Alternatively, acetyl-CoA

enters the TCA cycle to feed the respiratory chain with reducing equivalents. Both, the glyoxylate

cycle and respiration are essential for growth in the dark since *Chlamydomonas* mutants affected in

either of these processes are unable to grow heterotrophically[21,22].

Despite the evident connection between light and $CO_2$ levels, the physiological responses to

different light and $CO_2$ availabilities have been traditionally studied separately. However, several

lines of evidence indicate that both acetate and Ci abundance impact not only qE but also the

establishment of the CCM in *Chlamydomonas*[23-26], while *LHCSR3* transcripts accumulation have

been reported to be CIA5-dependent[26-28]. Yet, the mechanism(s) associated with carbon-dependent

regulation of qE and CCM induction and the intimate link between the two processes have still not

been clearly defined.

Here, using genetic and mathematical modelling approaches, we demonstrate that inhibition of

LHCSR3 accumulation and CCM activity by acetate is at the level of transcription and a

consequence of metabolically produced $CO_2$. We also show that exposure of *Chlamydomonas* to

HL triggers not only HL-responses, but also low-$CO_2$ responses, and we report the discovery of a

novel $CO_2$- and CIA5-dependent mechanism that activates *LHCSR3* gene expression even in

complete darkness. Finally, we propose that PET is critical for activation of *LHCSR3* transcription

because it sustains $CO_2$ fixation, consuming intracellular $CO_2$ and thereby relieving its inhibitory

effect. This work emphasizes the importance of $CO_2$ in regulating photoprotection and the CCM,

and demonstrates that light often indirectly affects these processes by altering intracellular $CO_2$

levels.

## Results

**$CO_2$ generated from acetate metabolism inhibits *LHCSR3***

To gain insights into the effect of carbon metabolism on photoprotection, we explored the impact of acetate and high $CO_2$ on *LHCSR3* mRNA and protein levels in wild type (WT) cells and in two mutants impaired in acetate metabolism; the *icl* mutant, which lacks isocitrate lyase, a key enzyme of the glyoxylate cycle[21], and the *dum11* mutant, which is defective in the ubiquinol cytochrome c oxidoreductase (respiratory complex III)[29]. The presence of acetate in the medium of WT cells inhibited accumulation of the *LHCSR3* transcript (**Fig. 1a**, note the logarithmic scale) in both low light (LL) and high light (HL) conditions. No protein was detected in WT under any condition in LL, but inhibition by acetate was apparent in HL (**Fig. 1b**), as previously reported[25]. However, in the *icl* mutant, acetate had no inhibitory effect on accumulation of LHCSR3 mRNA (**Fig. 1a**) or protein (**Fig. 1b**) in either HL or LL, while the *icl::ICL*-complemented line, designated *icl-C*, exhibited similar behavior to that of WT cells (**Fig. 1a** and **b**). Additionally, acetate did not alter LHCSR3 transcript or protein accumulation in HL treated *dum11* mutant cells (**Fig. 1c** and **d**), while under LL, acetate inhibited *LHCSR3* transcript in the *dum11* mutant but to a much smaller extent than in WT (**Fig. 1c**). Together, these results suggest that the acetate administered to the cells must be metabolized for it to have a suppressive effect on accumulation of LHCSR3 transcript and protein in HL. We also sparged WT, *icl, icl-C* and *dum11* cells with 5% $CO_2$ both in LL and HL. $CO_2$ strongly repressed accumulation of LHCSR3 mRNA and protein in all genotypes, including the metabolic mutants *icl* and *dum11* for which expression of *LHCSR3* was unaffected by acetate (**Fig. 1a-d**).

We evaluated the impact of carbon availability on the photosynthetic properties of cells. The presence of acetate in the medium of WT cells enhanced photosynthetic electron transport (rETR) and strongly suppressed qE (**Supplementary Fig. 1**). In the *icl* mutant, acetate enhanced the extent of rETR only by ~10% compared with 60% for WT cells. Additionally, acetate caused less pronounced suppression of qE in the *icl* mutant (by 40%) compared to the level of suppression in WT cells (by 95%); *icl-C*, behaved similarly to WT cells. As expected, $CO_2$ enhanced rETR and suppressed qE in WT, *icl* and *icl-C* (**Supplementary Fig. 1**).

The similarity between the impact of acetate and 5% $CO_2$ on *LHCSR3* expression in WT and *icl-C* cells (**Fig. 1a**) as well as on their photosynthetic properties (**Supplementary Fig. 1**) raised the possibility that both treatments elicited a common mechanism of *LHCSR3* control, possibly reflecting a change in the $CO_2$ concentration within the cell or growth medium. This possibility is

plausible based on the finding that acetate metabolism leads to the generation of $CO_2$[30]. To investigate whether the generation of $CO_2$ via acetate metabolism can explain repression of LHCSR3 transcript and protein levels, we monitored the levels of transcripts from the *RHP1* gene in the mutant and WT cells; *RHP1* (aka *RH1*) encodes a $CO_2$ channel shown to be $CO_2$ responsive and to accumulate in cells grown in a high $CO_2$ atmosphere[31]. Acetate or 5% $CO_2$ were introduced to WT and *icl* mutant cells acclimated in LL and air and the levels of the *LHCSR3* and *RHP1* transcripts were assayed over a period of 8 h in LL (**Fig. 2a** and **b**). The *LHCSR3* transcript accumulation patterns observed agreed with the findings presented in **Fig. 1a** (LL panel). In WT cells, acetate and $CO_2$ caused a reduction in *LHCSR3* mRNA accumulation over the LL period relative to the control (no acetate, air). Additionally, in the *icl* mutant, acetate did not affect accumulation of this transcript while $CO_2$ efficiently repressed the *LHCSR3* transcript level (**Fig. 2a**). Under these experimental conditions, acetate levels in the medium decreased in WT cultures but remained unchanged in cultures of the *icl* mutant (**Fig. 2c**). Lastly, *RHP1*expression increased in WT and *icl* mutant cells when the culture was sparged with $CO_2$, but only in the WT cells when the cultures were not sparged with $CO_2$ and only supplemented with acetate, suggesting that acetate metabolism resulted in higher intracellular $CO_2$ levels (**Fig. 2b**).

In another experiment, LL acclimated cells were shifted to HL (t=0) and *LHCSR3* and *RHP1* transcript levels were assayed over a period of 9 h; acetate or high $CO_2$ were introduced 1 h after the shift to HL (**Fig. 2d** and **e**, note the 1 h time point highlighted in green on the x-axis). In agreement with **Fig. 1** (HL panel), *LHCSR3* transcript accumulation increased by two orders of magnitude after 1 h exposure to HL in both WT and the *icl* mutant (**Fig. 2d**), while *RHP1* transcripts rapidly decreased **(Fig. 2e)**, which likely resulted from a reduction in the concentration of intracellular $CO_2$ as a consequence of enhanced photosynthetic $CO_2$ fixation in the HL. Introduction of acetate or $CO_2$ to the cultures caused a rapid reduction in the level of *LHCSR3* expression in WT (**Fig. 2d**), with the decline much more pronounced with $CO_2$ supplementation. Supplementation with $CO_2$ or acetate also caused an increase of *RHP1* transcript relative to the control. In contrast, in the *icl* mutant, the decline in the level of the *LHCSR3* transcript and the increase in the level of the *RHP1* transcript was the same in cells with and without acetate supplementation, while the effect of $CO_2$ was similar to that of WT cells (**Fig. 2d** and **e**). Furthermore, WT cells consumed about half of the acetate in the medium over the course of the experiment while none of the acetate was consumed by the *icl* mutant (**Fig. 2f**). These results strongly suggest that $CO_2$ inhibits accumulation of the *LHCSR3* transcript and that the decline of *LHCSR3* mRNA in WT cells supplemented with acetate is a consequence of the $CO_2$ released as the acetate is metabolized. The

extent of this inhibition by acetate-derived $CO_2$ appears to depend mostly on the rate of photosynthetic $CO_2$ fixation (consumption of $CO_2$) because acetate was taken up by WT cells at similar rates under both LL and HL conditions (**Fig. 2c** and **f**). Indeed, under LL conditions, where $CO_2$ fixation is slow, acetate and $CO_2$ repressed *LHCSR3* to the same extent (**Fig. 2a**); under HL conditions, where $CO_2$ fixation is much faster, the effect of acetate on the *LHCSR3* transcript level was much smaller than that of $CO_2$, which was continuously provided in excess (5%) via sparging (**Fig. 2d**).

We also employed constraint-based metabolic modelling to assess *in silico* whether acetate metabolism in *Chlamydomonas* leads to an increase in the concentration of intracellular $CO_2$ under different growth conditions (**Supplementary Note 1, Supplementary Fig. 2, Supplementary Tables 1-3, Supplementary Datasets 1-3**). The findings from this approach support the hypothesis that there are changes in the internal $CO_2$ concentration under autotrophic and mixotrophic growth conditions at different light intensities. These predicted changes in internal $CO_2$ levels under the different conditions for the WT and mutant cells are congruent with the levels of accumulation of *LHCSR3* transcripts that were measured.

**CIA5 links HL and low $CO_2$ responses**

The responses to HL and low $CO_2$ have been traditionally studied separately, despite several lines of evidence suggesting that they are integrated[26,27,32]. To elucidate the molecular connection between photoprotection and CCM, we analyzed mRNA accumulation of twelve genes implicated as functionally involved in the CCM, previously shown to be strongly expressed under low $CO_2$ conditions[33,34] and/or to be under the control of CIA5[26]. Specifically, we analysed twelve CCM-related genes encoding LOW-$CO_2$-INDUCIBLE PROTEIN B (LCIB) and E (LCIE), involved in $CO_2$ uptake; HIGH-LIGHT ACTIVATED 3 (HLA3), LOW $CO_2$-INDUCED 1 (LCI1), CHLOROPLAST CARRIER PROTEIN 1 (CCP1), CCP2, LCIA, BESTROPHINE-LIKE PROTEIN 1 (BST1), acting as Ci transporters; carbonic anhydrases CAH1, CAH3, CAH4; the nuclear regulator LOW-$CO_2$ -STRESS RESPONSE 1 (LCR1).

When LL-acclimated, air sparged WT, *icl* and *icl-C* strains were exposed to HL (experiment described in **Fig. 1**) a marked increase (5 to 600-fold) in CCM transcript levels was observed in WT cells (**Supplementary Fig. 3**), in accordance with recent studies[28,32]; this increase was strongly suppressed by $CO_2$ and to a lesser extent by acetate, which did not affect CCM gene expression in the *icl* mutant (**Supplementary Fig. 3**). This pattern of mRNA accumulation was essentially identical to that of *LHCSR3* (**Fig. 1a**), highlighting the tight connection between HL and low-$CO_2$

responses in *Chlamydomonas*. The $CO_2$-mediated repression was more pronounced for most of the CCM genes relative to *LHCSR3* (**Fig. 1a** and **c, Supplementary Fig. 3**).

CIA5 has been shown to regulate accumulation of transcripts from both the CCM genes[26,27] and *LHCSR3*[28]. To obtain a comprehensive view of the photoprotection capacity of the *cia5* mutant, air sparged WT and *cia5* cells grown in LL were shifted to HL, and the transcript and protein levels from the qE effector genes were monitored. Remarkably, a lack of *CIA5* resulted in much lower accumulation of *LHCSR3* mRNA than in WT cells; 50 times lower at LL and over 200 times lower at HL. This phenotype was fully reversed by ectopic expression of the WT *CIA5* gene (**Fig. 3a**). *PSBS* also showed a significant CIA5 dependent control at the mRNA level, although at a smaller extent (**Fig. 3a**). The *cia5* mutant accumulated slightly more *LHCSR1* mRNA in both LL and HL (~2 fold), however this phenotype was not restored in the complemented *cia5-C* strain (**Fig. 3a**); we conclude that *LHCSR1* mRNA accumulation is CIA5-independent. We also quantified accumulation of mRNAs of *CAH1* and *LCIA*, which are known to be strongly dependent on CIA5[27,35]. As expected, the *cia5* mutant cells failed to activate either of those genes in HL while their activation was fully restored in the complemented *cia5-C* strain (**Fig. 3a**).

At the protein level, no LHCSR3 protein was detected in the *cia5* mutant in either LL or HL **(Fig. 3b)**. We were unable to immunologically detect the PSBS protein under these experimental conditions, in agreement with previous findings showing that PSBS protein accumulation is highly transient in cell cultures bubbled with air[6]. Importantly, the LHCSR1 protein accumulated to high levels in the mutant under both LL (conditions in which no protein is apparent in the WT) and HL conditions; this phenotype was fully reversed by ectopic expression of the WT *CIA5* gene (**Fig. 3b**). This result suggests that CIA5 acts as a suppressor of LHCSR1 translation (and/or decreases protein stability) in both LL and HL. Our data additionally suggest that accumulation of LHCSR1 protein occurs through a compensatory, CIA5-controlled posttranscriptional mechanism that provides photoprotection under conditions in which the cells have almost no LHCSR3 protein (compare LHCSR1 and LHCSR3 immunoblots in **Fig. 3b**). Supporting this idea, the qE levels in *cia5,* although lower than WT and *cia5-C* (**Fig. 3c** and **Supplementary Fig. 4**), they were unexpectedly high considering the absence of LHCSR3 protein (**Fig. 3b**); we attribute this result to overaccumulation of LHCSR1 in this mutant (**Fig. 3b)**. Together, our results demonstrate a key role of CIA5 in regulating photoprotection, activating *LHCSR3* and to a lesser extent *PSBS* transcription and suppressing LHCSR1 protein accumulation.

**CIA5 and CO$_2$ availability regulate LHCSR1 protein stability**

The high levels of accumulation of LHCSR1 protein in the *cia5* mutant (**Fig. 3b**) suggest that CO$_2$ availability could be the key determinant for LHCSR1 protein accumulation, as CIA5 is not functional under high CO$_2$ levels[15-17]. Given the novelty of this finding, we decided to perform additional experiments to provide more details concerning LHCSR1 regulation. LL-acclimated WT cells sparged with air were exposed to HL sparged with air or 5% CO$_2$ and the mRNA and protein levels were quantified over a 25-h period. Upon initial exposure to HL, *LHCSR1* mRNA rapidly increased (2 orders of magnitude in 1 h) and then decreased to the initial level (between 4 and 8 h), in agreement with a previous report[36], in the presence or absence of high CO$_2$ (**Fig. 4a**). In contrast, the presence of high CO$_2$ sustained high levels of LHCSR1 protein over the 25-h incubation period relative to cultures sparged with air (**Fig. 4b**). These results suggest that elevated CO$_2$ either promotes translation of *LHCSR1* mRNA or is involved in stabilizing the protein once it is synthesized. This contrasts with the behaviour of LHCSR3 for which there was a strong correlation between the level of mRNA and protein (the RNA was 3 orders of magnitude lower in 5% CO$_2$ and the protein was no longer detected) (**Fig. 4**). The kinetics of *PSBS* transcript accumulation in HL very much resembled those of *LHCSR1*, with CO$_2$ not having a strong impact on transcript accumulation (**Fig. 4a**). PSBS protein accumulation was not detectable under the experimental conditions used. Taken together, our data demonstrate the critical importance of CIA5 and CO$_2$ in regulating the different qE effectors, mainly *LHCSR3* and less strongly *PSBS* at the transcript level, and LHCSR1 at the protein level.

**Intracellular CO$_2$ levels regulate photoprotective and CCM gene expression in the absence of light**

To de-convolute the light and CO$_2$ signals regulating *LHCSR3*, we exposed the cells to different light intensities and CO$_2$ concentrations (**Supplementary Fig. 5**). High CO$_2$ levels completely abolished accumulation of LHCSR3 protein at all light intensities, in accord with the results of **Fig. 1b** and **d** and **Fig. 4b**. On the contrary, low CO$_2$ levels led to very high accumulation of LHCSR3 protein at 150 and 300 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$. Under low CO$_2$, LHCSR3 protein was also detectable even at the very low light intensity of 10 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ (**Supplementary Fig. 5**), as previously demonstrated[6].

Prompted by this result, we tested whether changes in CO$_2$ levels could activate transcription of *LHCSR3* in complete darkness. We shifted air sparged cells to sparging with CO$_2$-free air (Very

low CO2; VLCO$_2$) in complete darkness and to our surprise, we observed that despite the absence of light, that a drop in CO$_2$ availability was sufficient to trigger *LHCSR3* mRNA accumulation by ~ 700-fold (**Fig. 5a**), with an increase in accumulation of the protein by 3-fold (**Fig 5b** and **c**; compare WT air with WT VLCO$_2$). In addition, when HL was combined with VLCO$_2$, which is expected to result in an even greater reduction in the intracellular CO$_2$ concentration, the levels of *LHCSR3* mRNA and protein further increased, reaching levels of ~4500-fold (mRNA) and 21-fold (protein) compared to air dark conditions (**Fig. 5a-c**). Interestingly, this light-independent regulation of mRNA accumulation was under the control of CIA5 as accumulation of *LHCSR3* transcripts was abolished in the *cia5* mutant (**Fig. 5a**) and a full reversal of these phenotypes (gene expression and protein levels) was observed in the *cia5-C* strain (**Fig. 5a** and **b**). We also observed significant *LHCSR3* transcript accumulation in the *cia5* mutant when cells were shifted from dark-air to HL-VLCO$_2$, which was however 9-fold lower compared to the WT (**Fig. 5a**), and that was rescued to WT-levels in the *cia5-C* complemented line. This CIA5-independent regulation of mRNA in the presence of light could account for the contribution of light signaling in *LHCSR3* gene expression, possibly via phototropin[10] or via the generation of reactive oxygen species[28].

We could observe that *LHCSR1* transcripts were also induced in the dark (shift from dark-air to dark-VLCO$_2$), but this induction was very low (7-fold) and appeared to be CIA5 independent (**Supplementary Fig. 6a**). At the protein level however, LHCSR1 over-accumulated in the *cia5* mutant under all conditions tested (**Supplementary Fig. 6b**), confirming our previous findings (**Fig. 3b**). *PSBS* also showed a CIA5-dependent dark induction of transcripts (shift from dark-air to dark-VLCO$_2$), although this induction was low (5-fold); complementation with the CIA5 *gene* (*cia5-C* strain) did not rescue the phenotype in dark-air conditions and only partially rescued it under dark-VLCO$_2$ (**Supplementary Fig. 6a** and **b**). Both mRNA and protein accumulation of PSBS accumulated in a CIA5-dependent manner when cells were shifted from dark-air to HL-VLCO$_2$ (**Supplementary Fig. 6a** and **b**); under these conditions the phenotypes were fully reversed in the *cia5-C* strain. This CIA5-dependent regulation of PSBS can most likely explain previously reported findings that PSBS protein accumulation was responsive to CO$_2$ abundance, with its accumulation reaching maximum levels under low CO$_2$ and HL conditions[6].

We also measured CCM-related gene expression in the dark. As shown in **Fig. 5a** and **Supplementary Fig. 6a**, high levels of CCM-related transcripts were observed in the dark when the cells experienced VLCO$_2$ conditions (compare "dark air" with "dark VLCO$_2$"). The combination of HL and VLCO$_2$ conditions, either elicited very small (less than two-fold) or no additional increase (compare "HL VLCO$_2$" to "dark VLCO$_2$") in their level of the mRNA

accumulation (**Fig. 5a** and **Supplementary Fig. 6a**). As expected CIA5 was critical for expression of the CCM genes under all conditions tested (**Fig. 5a** and **Supplementary Fig. 6a**).

Our data points out that the LHCSR1 protein overaccumulation in *cia5* was fully reversed only when *cia5-C* cells were pre-acclimated in the light (**Fig. 3b**); when pre-acclimation took place in the dark the phenotype was only partially rescued (**Supplementary Fig. 6b**). The same is true for the mRNA accumulation of *PSBS* (compare LL; **Fig. 3a** with air-dark; **Supplementary Fig. 6a**), *CAH1* (compare LL; **Fig. 3a** with air-dark; **Supplementary Fig. 6a**), *LCIA* (compare LL; **Fig. 3a** with air-dark; **Fig. 5a**), while in the case of LHCSR3 a full reversal of the CIA5-dependent phenotype was seen no matter what pre-acclimation strategy was followed (**Fig. 3a**, **b** and **Fig. 5a, b**). A plausible explanation for these results is the differential accumulation of CIA5 protein in the different acclimation regimes due to the promoter used. In line with this explanation, CIA5 expression in *cia5-C* is driven by the light-inducible promoter of the *PSAD* gene, and, as a result, less CIA5 protein accumulated in the dark-acclimated *cia5-C* compared to the LL-acclimated (**Supplementary Fig. 7a**). This in turn affects the relative abundance of CIA5 available for binding with its target molecules (DNA binding sites or CIA5-interacting proteins), ultimately affecting the reversal of the CIA5-related phenotypes.

Overall, these data challenge the view concerning the regulation of photoprotection and CCM and bring $CO_2$ to the forefront as a crucial signal controlling *LHCSR3* and CCM-related genes induction in the absence of light.

**Link between photosynthetic electron transfer and $CO_2$ intracellular concentration**

Our finding that *LHCSR3* is regulated by light-independent $CO_2$ availability has guided us in revising the way in which we view the impact of photosynthetic electron transfer (PET) on LHCSR3 accumulation; i.e. inhibition of LHCSR3 accumulation in photosynthetic mutants or WT cells treated with photosynthetic inhibitors[10,11].

We propose that enhanced PET, occurring under HL conditions, facilitates $CO_2$ fixation, draws down the intracellular $CO_2$ concentration and induces *LHCSR3* transcription. In contrast, when PET is impaired, intracellular $CO_2$ levels increase, thus promoting *LHCSR3* transcript inhibition. In accordance, there is a marked increase of $CO_2$ in cultures treated with DCMU, an inhibitor of photosystem II[37], measured either as dissolved $CO_2$ in the culture medium[38], or as $CO_2$ in the air stream coming from the headspace of the column bioreactor (**Fig. 6a**). In order to test our hypothesis, we analyzed the combined effect of DCMU and $CO_2$ on the accumulation of mRNA

from the *LHCSR3* and two CCM genes in WT cultures shaken without or with VLCO$_2$ sparging. In accord with previous reports[10,39], DCMU completely blocked the HL elicited accumulation of *LHCSR3* mRNA; *LHCSR3* mRNA after 1h exposure to HL diminished to ten times lower levels than the initial LL levels (shown as dotted line in graph) (**Fig. 6b**), which most likely reflects degradation of the transcripts following inactivation of the gene after the addition of DCMU. Previous work has shown that *LHCSR3* transcripts are rapidly lost once the gene becomes inactive[10] which has also been observed for the *CAH4* transcript[40]. However, when the cultures were sparged with VLCO$_2$ air, which would result in maintenance of a continuous VLCO$_2$ concentration in the cultures, a large part of the DCMU elicited inhibition was relieved (**Fig. 6b**), supporting the idea that light primarily impacts *LHCSR3* transcript levels by altering CO$_2$ consumption and the intracellular (and/or extracellular) CO$_2$ concentration. In contrast to *LHCSR3*, sparging with VLCO$_2$ only partly relieved the suppression of transcript accumulation for the CCM genes in the presence of DCMU (**Fig. 6b**). This difference may reflect the fact that CCM gene expression is solely regulated by CO$_2$ via CIA5 (**Fig. 5a**) and that sparging with VLCO$_2$ in the presence of DCMU does not reduce the CO$_2$ levels enough to attain full gene activation. It is also possible that longer incubation time with VLCO$_2$ would have relieved a larger part of the DCMU-elicited inhibition of CCM genes (**Fig. 6b**) as implied by the slow kinetics of *CAH4/5* mRNA accumulation when cells are shifted from 5% CO$_2$ to air[40].

**Discussion**

In this work, we presented findings that advance our understanding of integration between CO$_2$- and light-dependent signaling in *Chlamydomonas*. We propose that the intracellular level of CO$_2$, defined by the equilibrium between light-driven CO$_2$ fixation in chloroplasts and the generation of CO$_2$ by mitochondrial metabolism (e.g. acetate assimilation), is a key regulator of two major processes in photosynthetic organisms: the CCM and photoprotection (**Fig. 7**).

To better understand the role of CO$_2$ in regulating photoprotection and its integration with light, we designed experiments to separate the effects of the two signals (**Fig. 5-7**); we reduced the concentration of CO$_2$ in the microalgae medium by sparging it with VLCO$_2$ in complete darkness. This abrupt change in CO$_2$ levels experienced by the cultures in the dark may be considered a condition only encountered in the laboratory. However, in certain ecological niches, such as soil or catchments with elevated levels of organic matter[33], *Chlamydomonas* would encounter changes in the levels of CO$_2$ that would be dependent on the microbes and the ratio between respiration and

photosynthesis in the environment. Our experimental setup allowed us to observe a strong increase of *LHCSR3* transcript levels when cells were shifted from air-$CO_2$ to $VLCO_2$ levels in the dark (**Fig. 5**), a very surprising result as the accumulation of *LHCSR3* mRNA was considered so far to be strictly light-dependent[5,11,39]. Moreover, with this strategy we can disentangle light from $CO_2$ signalling effects; while dark induction of *LHCSR3* under $CO_2$-depletion was completely dependent on CIA5, light could still strongly impact expression of all photoprotective genes in the *cia5* mutant, which was not the case for CCM gene expression that was completely abolished in the light or dark in the absence of CIA5 (**Fig. 5** and **Supplementary Fig. 6**). This impact of light on qE gene expression may be the consequence of photoperception (e.g. PHOT1)[10], but also the generation of light-dependent signals such as reactive oxygen species[28]. Furthermore, a CIA5-independent regulation (also observed in **Fig. 3a**) explains *LHCSR3* induction in high $CO_2$-acclimated WT cells (cells in which CIA5 is not functional[15-17]) as they transition from LL to HL (**Fig. 1a**), which was not observed for CCM genes tested under identical conditions (**Supplementary Fig. 3**); it also explains why the $CO_2$-mediated repression was more pronounced for most of the CCM genes relative to LHCSR3 (**Fig. 1a** and **c**, **Supplementary Fig. 3**). $CO_2$ and CIA5 appear to be of paramount importance in signal integration and transduction, regulating expression of both photoprotection and CCM genes. For instance, $CO_2$ represses the UV-B elicited, UVR8-mediated expression of *LHCSR3*, and CIA5 is absolutely required for this expression[28]. Moreover, our results have shown that high $CO_2$ levels or the absence of CIA5 have a severe impact on *LHCSR3* gene expression and, although HL can still induce *LHCSR3* transcription, no protein is detected (**Fig. 1, 3** and **5**).

Besides transcriptionally controlling *LHCSR3*, CIA5 post-transcriptionally controls LHCSR1. Our view on LHCSR1 regulation by light and CIA5 is as follows: under LL conditions, LHCSR1 protein accumulates in *cia5* while it is non-detectable in WT and *cia5-C* (**Fig. 3b**), suggesting that CIA5 suppresses LHCSR1 protein accumulation. Exposure to HL triggers a CIA5-independent *LHCSR1* mRNA accumulation (**Fig. 3a**), possibly driven by reactive species, previously shown to favor *LHCSR1* mRNA accumulation[41]. As a result, LHCSR1 protein accumulates in WT and *cia5-C* in HL, despite the fact that suppression of LHCSR1 protein by CIA5 still occurs; indeed, LHCSR1 accumulates to higher levels in the *cia5* mutant as compared to WT and *cia5-C* under HL conditions (**Fig. 3b**). In line with the above observations in the *cia5* mutant, high levels of LHCSR1 protein accumulate in WT under high $CO_2$, conditions that inactivate CIA5 (**Fig. 4b**). Put together, our findings unveil a multilevel role of CIA5 in regulating qE; inactivation of CIA5 in high $CO_2$ or by eliminating the CIA5 gene blocks *LHCSR3* transcript accumulation, while it promotes LHCSR1

protein accumulation (**Fig. 3** and **4**). Further investigation will be required to explain how a single nuclear factor, CIA5, can control cellular processes happening in different cellular compartments; transcription in the nucleus and translation in the cytosol.

Our results provide an interpretation of the findings that PET is required for LHCSR3 accumulation[11], activation of the CCM and expression of CCM genes[42]. We propose that $CO_2$, either provided directly or indirectly through metabolic generation, represents a critical link between PET and transcriptional regulation of *LHCSR3* and the CCM genes (**Fig. 6**). Photosynthesis draws down cellular $CO_2$ levels, and therefore, blocking photosynthesis with DCMU leads to the accumulation of $CO_2$ (**Fig. 6a**) which elicits *LHCSR3* repression, while sparging DCMU-treated cells with $VLCO_2$ almost fully derepresses *LHCSR3* (and partially CCM) expression (**Fig. 6b**). DCMU also upregulates genes of the leucine degradation pathway[43] leading to the generation of acetoacetate and acetyl-CoA, which can lead to oxidative $CO_2$ production. Whether leucine itself has a regulatory role or $CO_2$ is the key regulator deserves further attention. It is tempting to propose that $CO_2$ is a retrograde signal that readily diffuses through the cell and impacts nuclear gene expression, which would integrate both mitochondrial and chloroplastic metabolic activities.

The way in which *Chlamydomonas* senses $CO_2$ is not clear. Our data, i.e. accumulation of *LHCSR3* and CCM genes in the dark, exclude the possibility that a metabolite produced by photorespiration plays a major signalling role, as previously proposed [44]. $CO_2$ itself might also serve as the metabolite being recognized by a putative sensor that could be controlled by carbamylation, a $CO_2$-mediated post-translational modification that regulates, among others, the activation of Rubisco[45]. Furthermore, the large number of adenosine and guanylyl cyclases in *Chlamydomonas*[46] suggests that cyclic nucleotides play an important role in controlling various processes in this alga; these metabolites have been shown to be involved in mating[47], regulation of flagellar beating and phototaxis[48-50], in regulating inorganic nitrogen assimilation[51] and in restoring LHCSR3 accumulation in the absence of phototropin[10]. Cyclases have been shown to act as $CO_2$ sensors (as bicarbonate) in mammalian cells[52], making it plausible that they can also serve as sensors in *Chlamydomonas*. As cyclic nucleotide signalling and calcium are tightly linked[52], we anticipate an important role for calcium in $CO_2$ sensing; calcium signalling has already been shown to be involved in the regulation of both *LHCSR3* and CCM genes[11,53].

Overall, our work shows that the intracellular $CO_2$ level is the main factor in regulating CCM genes and *LHCSR3* in *Chlamydomonas* (**Fig. 7**). Exposure to HL increases the $CO_2$ fixation rate which causes a drop in intracellular $CO_2$ which, in turn, actives both photoprotection- and CCM-related

genes. Depletion of $CO_2$ is sufficient to drive high expression levels of CCM genes and *LHCSR3* even in complete darkness. On the other hand, high $CO_2$ levels, either generated through enhanced respiratory activity or impaired photosynthetic electron transport, repress *LHCSR3* and CCM genes while at the same time stabilizing the LHCSR1 protein, which likely acts as a backup photoprotection protein under conditions where LHCSR3 is not expressed. Furthermore, our data reveals a closer interconnection of photoprotection and CCM as CIA5, the CCM master regulator, also exerts control over *LHCSR3* and to a lesser extent over *PSBS* mRNA levels, while repressing LHCSR1 protein accumulation. Our findings highlight the need to develop an integrated approach that examines the role of $CO_2$ and light, not only as substrates of photosynthetic $CO_2$ fixation, but also as signals regulating photoprotection, CCM, and at a wider context genome-wide gene expression.

## Methods

### Chemicals

DCMU (3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea) was purchased from Sigma. Stock solutions of DCMU were prepared in ethanol (40 mM).

### Strains and conditions

*Chlamydomonas* strains were grown under 20 µmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP) medium [54] at 23 ℃ in Erlenmeyer flasks shaken at 125 rpm. For all experiments cells were transferred to Sueoka's High Salt medium[55] supplemented when needed with 10 mM sodium acetate, at 2 million cells $mL^{-1}$ in 80 mL capacity columns, unless otherwise stated, sparged with air, air enriched with 5% $CO_2$, or very low $CO_2$ air (VLCO$_2$; generated by passing the air through soda lime) and exposed to light intensities as described in the text and figure legends. *Chlamydomonas* strain 137c mt+ was used as WT. The *icl* (defective in *ICL1*; gene ID: Cre06.g282800)*, icl-C* (*icl* strain complemented with the WT *ICL* gene), *dum11* (defective in defective in ubiquinol cytochrome c oxidoreductase of the respiratory complex III; geneID: CreMt.g000300) and *cia5* (defective in *CIA5*, aka CCM1; geneID: Cre02.g096300; Chlamydomonas Resource Centre strain CC-2702) mutants were previously generated [15,21,29]. For complementation of *cia5*, a 3.5-kbp genomic DNA fragment from CC-125 containing the *CIA5* coding region was amplified by PCR using Platinum™ SuperFi™ DNA Polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and primers gib-cia5-fw and gib-cia5-rev (**Supplementary Table 4**), gel purified and cloned into pLM005 [56] by Gibson assembly [57] for expression under control of the *PSAD* promoter. Junctions and insertion were sequenced, and constructs were linearized by EcoRV before transformation into *cia5*. Eleven ng/kb of linearized plasmid [56] mixed with 400 µL of 1.0 x$10^7$ cells $mL^{-1}$ were electroporated in a volume of 120 mL in a 2-mm-gap electro cuvette using a NEPA21 square-pulse electroporator (NEPAGENE, Japan). The electroporation parameters were set as follows: Poring Pulse (300V; 8 ms length; 50 ms interval; one pulse; 40% decay rate; + Polarity), Transfer Pulse (20V; 50 ms length; 50 ms interval; five pulses; 40% decay rate; +/- Polarity). Transformants were plated onto solid agar medium containing 10 µg/ml paromomycin and screened for fluorescence using a Tecan fluorescence microplate reader (Tecan Group Ltd., Switzerland). Parameters used were as follows: YFP (excitation 515/12 nm and emission 550/12 nm) and chlorophyll (excitation 440/9 nm and 680/20 nm). Transformants showing a high YFP/chlorophyll ratio were further analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-FLAG antibodies (**Supplementary Fig. 7b**). Among the transformants analyzed the *cia5-C-a1* (*cia5-C* throughout

the text) was retained for further analyses in the present study, after verifying that it grows similarly

with the WT under phototrophic conditions on agar (**Supplementary Fig. 7c**). Unless otherwise

stated, LL conditions corresponded to 20 µmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ while HL conditions corresponded

to 600 µmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ of white light (Neptune L.E.D., France; see **Supplementary Fig. 8** for

light spectrum). All experiments were repeated three times to examine reproducibility, unless

otherwise stated.

**Light acclimation experiments**

497 Cells were acclimated overnight in High Salt Medium (HSM) in LL sparged with air, in the presence

498 or absence of acetate, or sparged with 5% $CO_2$. Following this acclimation period, cells were

499 transferred from LL to HL, with all other conditions identical to those of the acclimation period.

500 Samples were collected after 1 h for RNA analyses and after 4 h for protein analysis and

501 measurements of photosynthetic activity.

**Fluorescence-based measurements**

Fluorescence-based photosynthetic parameters were measured with a a pulse modulated amplitude

fluorimeter (MAXI-IMAGING-PAM, HeinzWaltz GmbH, Germany). Prior to the onset of the

measurements, cells were acclimated to darkness for 15 min. Chlorophyll fluorescence was

recorded under different intensities of actinic light; starting with measurements in the dark

(indicated as D below the x-axis of the graphs), followed by measurements at 21 µmol photons $m^{-2}$

$s^{-1}$ (indicated as L1 below the x-axis of the graphs) and 336 µmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ (indicated as L2

below the x-axis of the graphs) and finishing with measurements of fluorescence relaxation in the

dark. The calculations of the different photosynthetic parameter was performed based on[58] as

follows: The relative photosynthetic electron transfer rate (rETR) was calculated as $(Fm' - F)/Fm$

$' \times I$; $F$ and $Fm'$ are the fluorescence yield in steady state light and after a saturating pulse in the

actinic light, respectively; $I$ is the light irradiance in µmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$; NPQ was calculated as

$(Fm - Fm')/Fm'$; $Fm$ is the maximal fluorescence yield in dark-adapted cells; the effective

photochemical quantum yield of photosystem II was calculated as Y(II) = (Fm'-F)/Fm'; qE was

estimated as the fraction of NPQ that is rapidly inducible in the light and reversible in the dark.

**mRNA quantification**

520 Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and treated with the RNase-Free

521 DNase Set (Qiagen). 1 µg total RNA was reverse transcribed with oligo dT using Sensifast cDNA

Synthesis kit (Meridian Bioscience, USA). qPCR reactions were performed and quantitated in a Bio-Rad CFX96 system using SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad). The primers (0.3 µM) used for qPCR are listed in **Supplementary Table 4**. A gene encoding G protein subunit-like protein (GBLP)[59] was used as the endogenous control, and relative expression values relative to *GBLP* were calculated from three biological replicates, each of which contained three technical replicates.

**CO$_2$ measurements**

CO$_2$ concentration was measured in the air stream coming from the headspace of a HSM or culture containing column using the CO$_2$ Probe GMP251 connected to the MI70 data logger from Vaisala (Vantaa, Finland).

**Immunoblotting**

Protein samples of whole cell extracts (0.5 µg chlorophyll or 10 µg protein) were loaded on 4-20% SDS-PAGE gels (Mini-PROTEAN TGX Precast Protein Gels, Bio-Rad) and blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes. Antisera against LHCSR1 (AS14 2819, 1:15000 dilution), LHCSR3 (AS14 2766, 1:15000 dilution), ATPB (AS05 085, 1:15000 dilution) were from Agrisera (Vännäs, Sweden); previously described was antisera against *C. reinhardtii* PSBS [6] (used at a dilution of 1:1000). ATPB was used as a loading control. An anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase–conjugated antiserum was used for detection at 1:10000 dilution. Mouse monoclonal antibody against FLAG was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (F3165, St. Louis, MO, USA) and was used at a dilution of 1:15000. An anti-mouse horseradish peroxidase conjugated antiserum (Jackson Immuno Research Europe LTD) was used as a secondary antibody for 3xFLAG immunoblotting (1:10000 dilution). The blots were developed with ECL detection reagent, and images of the blots were obtained using a CCD imager (ChemiDoc MP System, Bio-Rad). For the densitometric quantification, data were normalized with ATPB.

**Statistical analyses**

Statistical methods were not used to predetermine the sample size. The experiments were not randomized, and the investigators were not blinded to allocation during experimental procedures and data assessment. All statistical tests were performed using the computing environment Prism 9 (Graphpad Software, LLC), at a significance level of 0.05. In order to conform mRNA accumulation data to the distributional assumptions of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), i.e. the

residuals should be normally distributed and variances should be equal among groups, two-way

ANOVA was performed with log-transformed data $Y = \log X$ where X is mRNA accumulation [60].

**Data availability**

The source data underlying Figures 1-6 and Supplementary Figures 1, 3, 4, 6, 7 are provided as a

Source Data file. The Source Data file also includes the exact p-values for figures 1a, 1c, 2a, 2b,

2d, 2e, 3a, 3c, 4a, 5a, and Supplementary figures 1a-b, 3, 6a. All biological material described in

this study is available upon request.

**References**

1. Li, Z., Wakao, S., Fischer, B. B. & Niyogi, K. K. Sensing and responding to excess light.
*Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* **60,** 239–260 (2009).
2. Bennett, D. I. G. *et al.* Models and mechanisms of the rapidly reversible regulation of
photosynthetic light harvesting. *Open Biol* **9,** 190043 (2019).
3. Alboresi, A., Gerotto, C., Giacometti, G. M., Bassi, R. & Morosinotto, T. Physcomitrella
patens mutants affected on heat dissipation clarify the evolution of photoprotection
mechanisms upon land colonization. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **107,** 11128–11133
(2010).
4. Niyogi, K. K. & Truong, T. B. Evolution of flexible non-photochemical quenching
mechanisms that regulate light harvesting in oxygenic photosynthesis. *Curr. Opin. Plant*
*Biol.* **16,** 307–314 (2013).
5. Peers, G. *et al.* An ancient light-harvesting protein is critical for the regulation of algal
photosynthesis. *Nature* **462,** 518–521 (2009).
6. Correa-Galvis, V. *et al.* Photosystem II Subunit PsbS Is Involved in the Induction of
LHCSR Protein-dependent Energy Dissipation in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *J. Biol.*
*Chem.* **291,** 17478–17487 (2016).
7. Tibiletti, T., Auroy, P., Peltier, G. & Caffarri, S. Chlamydomonas reinhardtii PsbS Protein
Is Functional and Accumulates Rapidly and Transiently under High Light. *Plant Physiol.*
**171,** 2717–2730 (2016).
8. Allorent, G. *et al.* UV-B photoreceptor-mediated protection of the photosynthetic
machinery in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **113,** 14864–14869
(2016).
9. Dinc, E. *et al.* LHCSR1 induces a fast and reversible pH-dependent fluorescence
quenching in LHCII in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **113,**
7673–7678 (2016).
10. Petroutsos, D. *et al.* A blue-light photoreceptor mediates the feedback regulation of
photosynthesis. *Nature* **537,** 563–566 (2016).
11. Petroutsos, D. *et al.* The chloroplast calcium sensor CAS is required for photoacclimation
in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Plant Cell* **23,** 2950–2963 (2011).
12. Tokutsu, R., Fujimura-Kamada, K., Matsuo, T., Yamasaki, T. & Minagawa, J. The
CONSTANS flowering complex controls the protective response of photosynthesis in the
green alga Chlamydomonas. *Nat Comms* **10,** 655–10 (2019).
13. Gabilly, S. T. *et al.* Regulation of photoprotection gene expression in Chlamydomonas by a
putative E3 ubiquitin ligase complex and a homolog of CONSTANS. *Proc. Natl. Acad.*
*Sci. U.S.A.* **116,** 17556–17562 (2019).

14.    Maberly, S. C. & Gontero, B. Ecological imperatives for aquatic CO2-concentrating
mechanisms. *J. Exp. Bot.* **68,** 3797–3814 (2017).

15.    Moroney, J. V. *et al.* Isolation and Characterization of a Mutant of Chlamydomonas
reinhardtii Deficient in the CO2 Concentrating Mechanism. *Plant Physiol.* **89,** 897–903
(1989).

16.    Fukuzawa, H. *et al.* Ccm1, a regulatory gene controlling the induction of a carbon-
concentrating mechanism in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii by sensing CO2 availability.
*Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **98,** 5347–5352 (2001).

17.    Xiang, Y., Zhang, J. & Weeks, D. P. The Cia5 gene controls formation of the carbon
concentrating mechanism in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **98,**
5341–5346 (2001).

18.    Harris, E. H. Chlamydomonas as a Model Organism. *Annu. Rev. Plant. Physiol.* (2001).
doi:10.1146/annurev.arplant.52.1.363

19.    Wolfe, A. J. The acetate switch. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **69,** 12–50 (2005).

20.    Kornberg, H. L. & Krebs, H. A. *Synthesis of cell constituents from C2-units by a modified*
*tricarboxylic acid cycle. Nature* **179,** 988–991 (Nature, 1957).

21.    Plancke, C. *et al.* Lack of isocitrate lyase in Chlamydomonas leads to changes in carbon
metabolism and in the response to oxidative stress under mixotrophic growth. *Plant J.* **77,**
404–417 (2014).

22.    Salinas, T., Larosa, V., Cardol, P., Marechal-Drouard, L. & Remacle, C. Respiratory-
deficient mutants of the unicellular green alga Chlamydomonas: A review. *Biochimie*
(2013). doi:10.1016/j.biochi.2013.10.006

23.    Fett, J. P. & Coleman, J. R. Regulation of Periplasmic Carbonic Anhydrase Expression in
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii by Acetate and pH. *Plant Physiol.* **106,** 103–108 (1994).

24.    Moroney, J. V., Kitayama, M., Togasaki, R. K. & Tolbert, N. E. Evidence for Inorganic
Carbon Transport by Intact Chloroplasts of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Plant Physiol.* **83,**
460–463 (1987).

25.    Polukhina, I., Fristedt, R., Dinc, E., Cardol, P. & Croce, R. Carbon supply and
photoacclimation crosstalk in the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Plant Physiol.*
1494–1505 (2016). doi:10.1104/pp.16.01310

26.    Fang, W. *et al.* Transcriptome-wide changes in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii gene
expression regulated by carbon dioxide and the CO2-concentrating mechanism regulator
CIA5/CCM1. *Plant Cell* **24,** 1876–1893 (2012).

27.    Miura, K. *et al.* Expression profiling-based identification of CO2-responsive genes
regulated by CCM1 controlling a carbon-concentrating mechanism in Chlamydomonas
reinhardtii. *Plant Physiol.* **135,** 1595–1607 (2004).

28.    Redekop, P. *et al.* Transcriptional regulation of photoprotection in dark-to-light transition-
more than just a matter of excess light energy. *Sci Adv* (2022).

29.    Colin, M. *et al.* Mutations affecting the mitochondrial genes encoding the cytochrome
oxidase subunit I and apocytochrome b of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Molec. Gen. Genet.*
**249,** 179–184 (1995).

30.    Hanawa, Y., Watanabe, M., Karatsu, Y., Fukuzawa, H. & Shiraiwa, Y. Induction of a high-
CO2-inducible, periplasmic protein, H43, and its application as a high-CO2-responsive
marker for study of the high-CO2-sensing mechanism in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.
*Plant Cell Physiol.* **48,** 299–309 (2007).

31.    Soupene, E. *et al.* Rhesus expression in a green alga is regulated by CO(2). *Proc. Natl.*
*Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **99,** 7769–7773 (2002).

32.    Scholz, M. *et al.* Light-dependent N-terminal phosphorylation of LHCSR3 and LHCB4 are
interlinked in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Plant J.* **99,** 877–894 (2019).

33.　Wang, Y., Stessman, D. J. & Spalding, M. H. The CO2 concentrating mechanism and
photosynthetic carbon assimilation in limiting CO2 : how Chlamydomonas works against
the gradient. *Plant J.* **82,** 429–448 (2015).

34.　Mukherjee, A. *et al.* Thylakoid localized bestrophin-like proteins are essential for the CO2
concentrating mechanism of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*
**116,** 16915–16920 (2019).

35.　Yoshioka, S. *et al.* The novel Myb transcription factor LCR1 regulates the CO2-responsive
gene Cah1, encoding a periplasmic carbonic anhydrase in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.
*Plant Cell* **16,** 1466–1477 (2004).

36.　Aihara, Y., Fujimura-Kamada, K., Yamasaki, T. & Minagawa, J. Algal photoprotection is
regulated by the E3 ligase CUL4-DDB1DET1. *Nature Plants* **5,** 34–40 (2019).

37.　Trebst, A. Inhibitors in the functional dissection of the photosynthetic electron transport
system. *Photosyn. Res.* **92,** 217–224 (2007).

38.　Hanawa, Y., Watanabe, M., Karatsu, Y., Fukuzawa, H. & Shiraiwa, Y. Induction of a high-
CO2-inducible, periplasmic protein, H43, and its application as a high-CO2-responsive
marker for study of the high-CO2-sensing mechanism in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.
*Plant Cell Physiol.* **48,** 299–309 (2007).

39.　Maruyama, S., Tokutsu, R. & Minagawa, J. Transcriptional regulation of the stress-
responsive light harvesting complex genes in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. Plant Cell*
*Physiol.* **55,** 1304–1310 (2014).

40.　Eriksson, M., Villand, P., Gardeström, P. & Samuelsson, G. Induction and Regulation of
Expression of a Low-CO2-Induced Mitochondrial Carbonic Anhydrase inChlamydomonas
reinhardtii. *Plant Physiol.* **116,** 637–641 (1998).

41.　Roach, T., Na, C. S., Stöggl, W. & Krieger-Liszkay, A. The non-photochemical quenching
protein LHCSR3 prevents oxygen-dependent photoinhibition in Chlamydomonas
reinhardtii. *J. Exp. Bot.* **71,** 2650–2660 (2020).

42.　Spalding, M. H. in *The molecular Biology of Chloroplasts and Mitochondria in*
*Chlamydomonas* (eds. Rochaix, J. D., Goldschmidt-Clermont, M. & Merchant, S. S.)
(1998).

43.　Hemschemeier, A. *et al.* COPPER RESPONSE REGULATOR1-dependent and -
independent responses of the Chlamydomonas reinhardtii transcriptome to dark anoxia.
*Plant Cell* **25,** 3186–3211 (2013).

44.　Santhanagopalan, I., Wong, R., Mathur, T. & Griffiths, H. Orchestral manoeuvres in the
light: crosstalk needed for regulation of the Chlamydomonas carbon concentration
mechanism. *J. Exp. Bot.* **72,** 4604–4624 (2021).

45.　Linthwaite, V. L. *et al.* The identification of carbon dioxide mediated protein post-
translational modifications. *Nat Comms* **9,** 3092 (2018).

46.　Merchant, S. S. *et al.* The Chlamydomonas genome reveals the evolution of key animal
and plant functions. *Science* **318,** 245–250 (2007).

47.　Hasegawa, E., Hayashi, H., Asakura, S. & Kamiya, R. Stimulation of in vitro motility of
Chlamydomonas axonemes by inhibition of cAMP-dependent phosphorylation. *Cell Motil.*
*Cytoskeleton* **8,** 302–311 (1987).

48.　Pasquale, S. M. & Goodenough, U. W. Cyclic AMP functions as a primary sexual signal in
gametes of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *J. Cell Biol.* **105,** 2279–2292 (1987).

49.　Gaillard, A. R., Fox, L. A., Rhea, J. M., Craige, B. & Sale, W. S. Disruption of the A-
kinase anchoring domain in flagellar radial spoke protein 3 results in unregulated axonemal
cAMP-dependent protein kinase activity and abnormal flagellar motility. *Mol. Biol. Cell*
**17,** 2626–2635 (2006).

50. Boonyareth, M., Saranak, J., Pinthong, D., Sanvarinda, Y. & Foster, K. W. Roles of cyclic AMP in regulation of phototaxis in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Biologia* **64,** 1058–1065 (2009).

51. de Montaigu, A., Sanz-Luque, E., Galván, A. & Fernández, E. A soluble guanylate cyclase mediates negative signaling by ammonium on expression of nitrate reductase in Chlamydomonas. *Plant Cell* **22,** 1532–1548 (2010).

52. Beavo, J. A. & Brunton, L. L. Cyclic nucleotide research -- still expanding after half a century. *Nature* **3,** 710–718 (2002).

53. Wang, L. *et al.* Chloroplast-mediated regulation of CO2-concentrating mechanism by Ca2+-binding protein CAS in the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **113,** 12586–12591 (2016).

54. Gorman, D. S. & Levine, R. P. Cytochrome f and plastocyanin: their sequence in the photosynthetic electron transport chain of *Chlamydomonas reinhardii. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **54,** 1665–1669 (1965).

55. Sueoka, N. Mitotic replication of deoxyribonucleic acid in *Chlamydomonas reinhardii. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **46,** 83–91 (1960).

56. Mackinder, L. C. M. *et al.* A repeat protein links Rubisco to form the eukaryotic carbon-concentrating organelle. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **113,** 5958–5963 (2016).

57. Gibson, D. G. *et al.* Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. *Nat. Methods* **6,** 343–345 (2009).

58. Genty, B., Briantais, J.-M. & Baker, N. R. The relationship between the quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport and quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)* **990,** 87–92 (1989).

59. Schloss, J. A. A Chlamydomonas gene encodes a G protein beta subunit-like polypeptide. *Molec. Gen. Genet.* **221,** 443–452 (1990).

60. Schlesselman, J. J. Data Transformation in Two-Way Analysis of Variance. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* (2012). doi:10.1080/01621459.1973.10482435

**Acknowledgments**

We are grateful to Dr. Konomi Fujimura-Kamada for performing experiments to validate the dark induction of LHCSR3 in the Minagawa lab; to Claire Remacle for sharing the *icl* and *icl-C* strains and Pierre Cardol for the *dum11* strain. We thank Eric Soupene for valuable insights in the RHP1 induction conditions. We thank Dimitra Karageorgou for performing preliminary experiments in the project and Gilles Curien for fruitful discussions on aspects of microalgae metabolism. We would like to thank the following agencies for funding: The Human Frontiers Science Program through the funding of the project RGP0046/2018 (DP, ARG, PR, ES-L, ZN, AK); the French National Research Agency in the framework of the Young Investigators program ANR-18-CE20-0006 through the funding of the project MetaboLight (DP); the French National Research Agency through the funding of the Grenoble Alliance for Integrated Structural & Cell Biology GRAL project ANR-17-EURE-0003 (DP, MAR-S, GV, YY); the French National Research Agency in the framework of the Investissements d'Avenir program ANR-15-IDEX-02, through the funding of the "Origin of Life" project of the Univ. Grenoble-Alpes (DP, YY) ; the Prestige Marie-Curie

co-financing grant PRESTIGE-2017-1-0028 (MAR-S); the International Max Planck Research School "Primary Metabolism and Plant Growth" at the Max Planck Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology (MA, ZN); the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie grant agreement no. 751039 (ES-L); the program 'Plan Propio UCO' from University of Cordoba, Spain for postdoctoral Support (ES-L); the Carnegie Institution for Science and the Department of Energy, DE-SC0019417 (ARG); the Marie Curie Initial Training Network Accliphot FP7-PEPOPLE-2012-ITN; 316427 (SF, GF, DP); the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, JSPS, for the grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research, KAKENHI, 21H04778 and 21H05040 (JM) and the German Research Foundation DFG HI 739/9.2 (MH).

**Author contributions:**

Conceptualization: MAR-S, ES-L, PR, MH, ZN, JM, ARG, DP

Methodology: MAR-S, YY, GV, PR, ES-L, ZN, DP

Investigation: MAR-S, SF, YY, GV, RT, AK, AT, GK, GA, MA, FI

Supervision: GF, ZN, JM, ARG, DP

Writing—original draft: MAR-S, DP

Writing—review & editing: all authors

**Competing interests**

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

**Figure 1: Acetate needs to be metabolized to inhibit LHCSR3 accumulation**. WT, *icl*, *icl-C* and *dum11* strains were acclimated for 16 h in LL (15 μmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in HSM; sparged with air (labelled as "air"); sparged with air and supplemented with 10 mM sodium acetate (labelled as "acet"); sparged with air enriched with 5% $CO_2$ (labelled as "$CO_2$"). After sampling for the LL conditions, light intensity was increased to 600 μmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ (HL); samples were taken 1 h (RNA) or 4 h (protein) after exposure to HL. **a**, **c**. Accumulation of *LHCSR3* mRNA at the indicated conditions normalized to WT LL ctrl ($n = 3$ biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for the comparisons of acetate and $CO_2$ conditions to air are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*, $P < 0.005$, **, $P < 0.01$, ***, $P < 0.001$, ****, $P < 0.0001$, ns, not significant). Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file. **b**, **d**. Immunoblot analyses of LHCSR3 and ATPB (loading control) under the indicated conditions. Representative datasets of experiments repeated three times.

779
780
**Figure 2: LHCSR3 inhibition is driven by CO$_2$ derived from the metabolism of acetate.**
**Experiment at LL: a**, **b** mRNA accumulation of *LHCSR3* and *RHP1* and **c** concentration of sodium acetate in the growth medium in WT and *icl* strains. Cells were acclimated overnight at LL (15 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in HSM sparged with air. At t=0 cells either continued being sparged with air (labelled "air"); or sparged with air and supplemented with 10 mM sodium acetate (labelled "acet"); or sparged with air enriched with 5% CO$_2$ (labelled "CO$_2$"). The addition of acetate or CO$_2$ is indicated with a green mark on the x-axis. Samples were taken at t= 0, 1h, 4h and 8h.
**Experiment at HL: d**, **e** mRNA accumulation of *LHCSR3* and *RHP1* and **f** concentration of sodium acetate in the growth medium in WT and *icl* strains. Cells were acclimated overnight at LL (15 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in HSM sparged with air; at t=0 light intensity was increased to 600 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$. At t=1h cells either continued being sparged with air (labelled "air"); or sparged with air and supplemented with 10 mM sodium acetate (labelled "acet"); or bubbled with air enriched with 5% CO$_2$ (labelled "CO$_2$"), always at 600 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$. The time of addition of acetate or CO$_2$ is highlighted in green on the x-axis. Samples were taken at t= 0, 1h, 2h, 5h and 9h. ($n$ = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for the comparisons of acetate and CO$_2$ conditions to air (LL; t = 1, 4, 8h, HL; t = 2, 5, 9h) are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*, P < 0.005, **, P < 0.01, ***, P < 0.001, ****, P < 0.0001, ns, not significant), following the color-code of the datasets. Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file. Please note that in some cases the error bars are smaller than the data point symbols.
801
802

803
804

**Figure 3: Cross-talk of responses to HL and low-CO$_2$.**

**a** CC-125 WT, *cia5* and *cia5*-c strains were acclimated for 16 h in LL (15 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in
HSM bubbled with air (labelled as "LL"); after sampling for the LL conditions, light intensity was
increased to 600 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ (HL); samples were taken after 1h (RNA) and 4h (protein
and photosynthesis measurements). Accumulation of mRNA of genes at the indicated conditions
were normalized to WT LL ctrl. (*n* = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for the
comparisons of WT with *cia5* and *cia5* with *cia5-C* are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple
comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs. **b** Immunoblot
analyses of LHCSR3, LHCSR1 and ATPB (loading control) under the indicated conditions; PSBS
was non-detectable at these experimental conditions. Representative dataset of experiment repeated
three times. **c** qE of WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C* under LL and HL conditions (*n* = 3 biological samples,
mean ± s.d.). The statistical analyses (two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparison test) are
shown in the graph. Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file. Raw fluorescence and
NPQ curves can be seen in Supplementary Fig. 4.
818
819
820

**a**

821
822
**Figure 4: Kinetic resolution of photoprotective gene and protein expression at different light**
**and $CO_2$ availabilities.** Cells were acclimated overnight at LL (15 μmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$) bubbled
with air (labelled "air"). At t=0 the light intensity was raised to 600 μmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ under air
bubbling or bubbling with 5% $CO_2$ and mRNA and protein were followed for 25h. **a** *LHCSR1,*
*LHCSR3* and *PSBS* mRNA accumulation. ($n$ = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for
the comparisons of $CO_2$ conditions to air for t=1, 4, 8, 24 and 25h are based on two-way ANOVA
Šídák's multiple comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*,
$P < 0.005$, **, $P < 0.01$, ***, $P < 0.001$, ****, $P < 0.0001$, ns, not significant). Exact p-values can
be found at the Source Data file. **b** Immunoblot analyses of LHCSR1, LHCSR3 and ATPB (loading
control). Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times.
833
834

835
836
**Figure 5: Low CO₂ levels can trigger qE and CCM genes in the absence of light.** WT, *cia5* and
*cia5-C* cells were bubbled with air overnight in darkness; next day air bubbling was either
maintained or replaced by $CO_2$-limited-air bubbling in the darkness or in the presence of 600 µmol
photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ light. Sampling was performed after 1 h (RNA) or 4 h (protein). **a** mRNA
accumulation of *LHCSR3.1* (qE gene) and *CAH4, LCIA, LCI1* (CCM genes) in WT, *cia5* and *cia5-*
*C*. Data were normalized to WT air dark; ($n$ = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for
the comparisons of WT with *cia5* and *cia5* with *cia5-C* are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple
comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*, P < 0.005, **, P
< 0.01, ***, P < 0.001, ****, P < 0.0001, ns, not significant). Exact p-values can be found at the
Source Data file. **b** Immunoblot analyses of LHCSR3 and ATPB (loading control) under the
indicated conditions. Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times. **c** Immunoblot
analyses of LHCSR3 and ATPB (loading control) of WT samples presented in **b**. Above the
immunoblot shown are the amount of protein loaded per lane and the quantification of LHCSR3
protein accumulation (calculated as LHCSR3 /ATPB ratio) normalized to the air dark conditions.
Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times.
852
853
854

**Figure 6: Photosynthetic electron transfer draws down the intracellular CO$_2$ concentration, relieving inhibition of *LHCSR3* transcription. a** CO$_2$ concentration measured in the air stream coming out of the headspace of a column filled with 50 mL of HSM, sparged with air under HL. The two arrows in the graph indicate the addition of cells or DCMU. **b** WT cells were acclimated to LL HSM overnight shaken in flasks; the next day they were exposed to 300 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ light in the presence or absence of 40 µM DCMU, shaken in flasks without or with sparging with VLCO$_2$. Samples were taken after 1 h. Presented are mRNA accumulation of *LHCSR3*, *CAH4*, *LCIA*. Data were normalized to LL (shown as dotted line in graph); $n = 2$ biological samples.

867
868
**Figure 7. CO$_2$- and light-dependent signals converge to regulate photoprotection and CCM**
**in Chlamydomonas.** The intracellular levels of CO$_2$, defined by the equilibrium between CO$_2$
fixation in chloroplasts and the generation of CO$_2$ by mitochondrial metabolism (e.g. acetate
assimilation) is the key determinant of the regulation of gene expression controlling two major
processes of photosynthetic organisms: CCM and photoprotection. Changes in light availability
have a direct impact on intracellular CO$_2$ levels; exposure to HL increases CO$_2$ fixation rates leading
to depletion of CO$_2$ and to activation of not only photoprotection- but also CCM-related genes.
Conversely, depletion of CO$_2$ is sufficient to drive high expression levels of CCM genes and
*LHCSR3* even in complete darkness (indicated by the black arrows). High CO$_2$ levels, either
exogenously supplied by sparging or metabolically produced via acetate metabolism or by
inhibiting photosynthetic electron flow using DCMU, repress *LHCSR3* and CCM genes while at
the same time they stabilize LHCSR1 protein levels. The close interconnection of photoprotection
and CCM is further corroborated by the fact that CIA5, the regulator of expression of genes
associated with the CCM, also exerts control over *LHCSR3* and to a lesser extent over *PSBS* mRNA
levels and acts as repressor of LHCSR1 protein accumulation. Independent of CIA5, light strongly
impacts expression of all of these photoprotective genes (yellow arrows). This impact can be the
consequence of both photoperception (e.g. phototropin) and the production of reactive oxygen
species.
887

# Supplementary Information

**This PDF file includes:**

Supplementary Note 1
Supplementary Figs 1 to 8
Supplementary Tables 1 to 4

**Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:**
Supplementary Datasets 1 to 3 (to be downloaded as excel file)

**Supplementary Note 1**

**Application of flux balance analysis to investigate proxies for internal $CO_2$ concentration.**
We used flux balance analysis (FBA)[1] to test whether the genome-scale model of *Chlamydomonas* *i*Cre1355[2] could accurately predict the specific growth rates (generation time) of the *icl* and *dum11* strains under autotrophic LL, autotrophic HL and mixotrophic (acetate) HL conditions. We first constrained the specific growth rates of WT to the measured values under LL and HL[3] and determined the respective minimum photon uptake supporting the specific growth rates (Methods). Assuming that the photon uptake is not altered in the mutants, the determined minimum photon uptake was then used as a bound in the FBA-based prediction of generation times for the *icl* and *dum11* strains. In line with the experimentally observed values, we found that the predicted generation times for the *icl* and *dum11* strains grown autotrophically under LL did not differ from those of LL grown WT cells (**Supplementary Table 1**). In comparison to LL conditions, the predicted generation time of the *icl* and *dum11* strains grown autotrophically under HL decreased by 1.8- and 1.6-fold, respectively, which was also similar to that of WT cells (**Supplementary Table 1**). However, the predicted generation time for the WT grown under mixotrophic HL conditions further declined by 2-fold, to 11 h while the mutants under mixotrophic HL conditions had a generation time similar to that observed under autotrophic HL conditions (19 h, **Supplementary Table 1**). These findings showed that the FBA-based modeling with the condition-specific constraints can reproduce experimental findings regarding strain- and condition-specific generation times.
We next examined whether the $CO_2$-producing reactions show flux differences between the WT and the mutant strains under the specific growth conditions used. To this end, we followed two strategies, one based on the differences in the flux ranges and another based on the differences in the sampled steady-state flux distributions. By using the first strategy, we found a number of reactions whose steady-state flux ranges did not overlap between the WT and modelled mutants under the investigated conditions (**Supplementary Dataset 1**), suggesting clear redistribution of fluxes between WT and mutant. The second strategy allowed us to identify reactions that showed both significant differences in the distributions of the sampled flux values, using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and significant difference in means between WT and the mutants, based on t-tests (**Supplementary Dataset 2**). The Fisher's exact test was in turn used to assess if the set of reactions showing differences are enriched with $CO_2$-producing reactions. Our findings showed that there is a significant difference (p-value = 0.003) in the flux of $CO_2$-producing reactions between WT and mutants for mixotrophic growth under HL conditions; analogous conclusions were made when only focusing on the $CO_2$-producing reactions in the chloroplast (p-value= 6.4e-04; **Supplementary Table 2**). However, this could not be observed under LL and HL photoautotrophic conditions. In addition, we ask if the observed difference in flux of $CO_2$-producing reactions for the mixotrophic HL condition is a result of (in)activation of certain reactions between WT and mutant. To test this hypothesis, we calculated the Jaccard distance between the sets of active $CO_2$-producing reactions. We found that the set of active reactions is the same for all strains indicated by a Jaccard distance of zero. Next, we aim to investigate if the change in flux for $CO_2$-producing reactions is due to an altered relative contribution of reaction fluxes to production of $CO_2$. Therefore, we compute flux splits[4] and find that the relative contribution cannot explain the difference in the phenotype (**Supplementary Table 3**). To further investigate how this observation may propagate to other pathways, i.e., model subsystems, we investigate which pathways show the largest differences between the mutants and the WT for

mixotrophic growth under HL. As a result, we calculate the percentage of reactions that show a significant difference in flux between WT and mutants only under mixotrophic HL condition (**Supplementary Dataset 3**). We found the highest percentage of reactions with significant change for mixotrophic HL condition, but no change under autotrophic LL and HL, for the following pathways: N-Glycan biosynthesis (100%, 26 reactions) and protein synthesis (100%, 1 reaction), followed by tyrosine metabolism (57%, 4 reactions) and valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation (52%, 17 reactions). In addition, pathways like fatty acid biosynthesis (47%, 29 reactions), nitrogen metabolism (45%, 10 reactions), photosynthesis (44%, 4 reactions) as well as starch and sucrose metabolism (40%, 6 reactions) and glycerolipid metabolism (40%, 138 reactions) fall in the highest ranked pathways with respect to percentage of reactions with significant change for mixotrophic HL. These observed changes in fluxes may be explained by transcriptional reprogramming that affect downstream enzyme abundances who support the flux changes. As demonstrated in our experimental validation, $CO_2$ can serve as a signal for these transcriptional reprogramming. In addition, other mechanisms related to allosteric regulation of reaction rates cannot be excluded.

Prompted by these findings, we interrogated whether or not changes in flux are associated with changes in the internal $CO_2$ concentration. Since FBA cannot be used to predict concentrations of metabolites, we used a technique employed in the design of metabolic engineering strategies to modulate the production (and hence concentration) of a metabolite of interest. This technique entails insertion of a synthetic 'demand' reaction for the metabolite of interest, which exports the metabolite out of the network. In our case, we inserted a demand reaction for $CO_2$ from the chloroplast to the environment, and used its maximum flux, at the specific condition associated with strain-specific-growth constraints, as a proxy for intracellular $CO_2$. We then inspected the condition-specific flux through the added demand reaction for different combinations of $CO_2$ and acetate uptake rates (**Supplementary Fig. 2**). We observed the same flux pattern for the $CO_2$ demand reaction with varying rates of $CO_2$ uptake from the environment across all strains under autotrophic LL and HL. We hypothesized that under LL more $CO_2$ can accumulate because of slow carbon fixation in comparison to HL conditions, where $CO_2$ fixation is faster. In support of this hypothesis, we found that all strains showed larger flux through the $CO_2$ demand reaction, as a proxy for the internal $CO_2$ levels, under LL than HL conditions when the $CO_2$ uptake rates were larger than 0.2 mmol/gDW/h (**Supplementary Fig. 2a-c**). Under mixotrophic HL conditions, with the assumption of no change in $CO_2$ uptake from the environment and a decrease of at least 10% in acetate uptake for both mutants in comparison to WT, we found that both the *icl* and *dum11* mutants showed smaller flux through the $CO_2$ demand reaction, i.e. lower internal $CO_2$ concentration than what was observed for WT (**Supplementary Fig. 2d-f**). Furthermore, the same pattern holds with the assumption that $CO_2$ uptake under HL is at least as high as under LL and acetate uptake rates are below 0.3 mmol/gDW/h. In contrast, only few combinations of $CO_2$ and acetate uptake rates for which the mutant strains showed $CO_2$ demand that is similar under autotrophic LL and mixotrophic HL conditions, but larger than the $CO_2$ demand in the WT under auxotrophic LL conditions. Therefore, we concluded that larger $CO_2$ demand flux under autotrophic LL than HL conditions for each strain can be observed with the assumptions that: (i) the $CO_2$ uptake was not affected by the mutation, (ii) $CO_2$ uptake is the same for phototrophic HL and mixotrophic HL, (iii) $CO_2$ uptake under HL is at least as high as under LL and (iv) the acetate uptake rate is low (i.e., below 0.3 mmol/gDW/h) for the mutants (as indicated in **Fig. 2c** and **f**). Moreover, under mixotrophic HL conditions, both mutants exhibited $CO_2$ demand rates that were smaller than those under autotrophic LL conditions. In contrast, the WT showed a marked increase

in the $CO_2$ demand flux under mixotrophic HL conditions in comparison to autotrophic LL and HL, indicating higher internal $CO_2$ concentrations in the presence of acetate. In conclusion, genome-scale metabolic modelling supports the hypothesis that there are changes in the internal $CO_2$ concentration under autotrophic and mixotrophic growth conditions at different light intensities. These changes are congruent with the changes in the accumulation of *LHCSR3* transcripts under the different media conditions and in the WT and mutant cells.

*Condition and strain-specific metabolic models*

Simulations of different strain, $s = \{WT, icl, dum11\}$, and conditions, $c = \{LL, HL, HL + acetate\}$, are based on the genome-scale metabolic network reconstruction *i*Cre1355 of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* metabolism [2]. The reconstruction provides the underlying structure of the metabolic reactions captured in the stoichiometric matrix, $N$, where rows correspond to metabolites and columns denote reactions. Each entry in the stoichiometric matrix indicates the molarity with which a metabolite is consumed (negative value) or produced (positive value) by the respective reaction. In addition, condition-specific lower and upper bounds on reaction flux, $v_{min}^{WT,c} \leq v \leq v_{max}^{WT,c}$, for autotrophic (LL, HL) and mixotrophic (HL + acetate) growth are provided with the model. To obtain models for the mutants *icl* and *dum11* we used the gene-protein-reaction rules, provided along the network reconstruction, to identify reactions related to knocked-out genes Cre06.g282800 and CreMt.g000300, respectively. Gene Cre06.g282800 relates to reaction isocitrate lyase and therefore, flux through this reaction is blocked in the simulations of *icl*. For the mutant *dum11* the knocked-out gene CreMt.g000300 was not part of the model. However, it is known that this mutant shows no activity of respiratory complex III, therefore the corresponding model reaction was blocked in the simulation of *dum11*.

The strain and condition-specific simulations, together with constraint-based modeling approaches were used to investigate steady state flux distributions, $v$. First, we used the WT model under autotrophic conditions to obtain estimates for photon uptake rates under LL and HL conditions, later used as constraints in the mutant models and for the WT model under HL + acetate condition. Therefore, we take generation time ($g$) of *Chlamydomonas* WT under LL and HL measured by Bonente et al. [3] and converted them into growth rates (μ) assuming that $g = \frac{log(2)}{\mu}$. The respective growth rate was used to constrain the WT model under LL and HL conditions. To estimate photon uptake in units mmol gDW$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ under low and high light conditions, we found the minimum photon uptake rate that supports the condition-specific WT growth rate ($bio_c^{WT}$) under LL and HL, respectively (Eq. 1). The resulting photon uptake rates were used as constraints for the simulation of mutants as well as under HL mixotrophic growth for the WT (were no measured growth rates were available). The following is the linear program that we solve:

$$z_{photon_{uptake}}^c = \min v_{photon_{uptake}}$$
$$s.t.$$
$$Nv = 0 \qquad\qquad (1)$$
$$v_{bio} = bio_c^{WT}$$
$$v_{min}^{WT,c} \leq v \leq v_{max}^{WT,c}.$$

Next, we used the observation that mutants cannot grow on acetate in darkness to find acetate uptake rates that allow simulation of no growth in darkness for both mutants. Acetate uptake for both mutants were reduced by 90% in comparison to the WT rate (0.2 mmol gDW$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ in mutants and 2 mmol gDW$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ in WT), since this rate is the minimum uptake rate for which no growth was simulated in darkness.

*Flux balance analysis*

To simulate maximal growth rates for WT under HL + acetate as well as *icl* and *dum11* under LL, HL and HL + acetate respectively, we applied flux balance analysis (FBA; [5,6]) We found maximal growth rates (Eq. 2) by using the model biomass reaction for mixotrophic and photoautotrophic growth and the respective light constraints. Moreover, acetate uptake for mutant models under HL + acetate was set to 0.2 mmol gDW$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$, the minimum acetate uptake rate for which no growth was simulated in darkness. To this end, we used the following program:

$$z_{bio}^{s,c} = \max v_{bio}$$
$$s.t.$$
$$Nv = 0 \hspace{3cm} (2)$$
$$v_{photon_{uptake}} = z_{photon_{uptake}}^{c}$$
$$v_{min}^{s,c} \leq v \leq v_{max}^{s,c}.$$

*Flux ranges*

The solution of the linear programming problem in Eq. (2), above, is the maximum growth, i.e. flux value of the strain and condition-specific biomass reaction, $z_{bio}^{s,c}$. Flux variability analysis (FVA) allows determining the minimum and the maximum value of flux that a given reaction can carry while ensuring maximum flux through the biomass reaction[7]. These values can be obtained by solving the following linear program for a given reaction $i$. The flux through the condition-specific biomass reaction was set to 99% of the optimum to avoid numerical instabilities. To conduct FVA, we solved the following linear programs:

$$z_{i,\max(\min)}^{s,c} = \max(\min) v_i$$
$$s.t.$$
$$Nv = 0$$
$$v_{photon_{uptake}} = z_{photon_{uptake}}^{c} \hspace{2cm} (3)$$
$$v_{min}^{s,c} \leq v \leq v_{max}^{s,c}$$
$$v_{bio} = z_{bio}^{s,c} * 0.99$$

Moreover, we sample 5000 feasible steady-state flux distributions from the flux cone of the strain and condition-specific models by applying the function *gpSampler* from the COBRA toolbox[8]. Here, too, biomass was set to 99% of its optimum.

*Non-overlapping flux ranges*

Flux ranges between wild type and mutants are considered to not overlap for condition $c$ if (1) $z_{i,max}^{WT,c} < z_{i,min}^{\{icl,dum11\},c}$ or $z_{i,max}^{\{icl,dum11\},c} < z_{i,min}^{WT,c}$, i.e. the minimum flux obtained from FVA (see Eq. 3) in a mutant is larger than the maximum flux obtained for the wild type or the minimum flux in the wild type is larger than the maximum flux for the mutant; i.e. there is no intersection between the flux ranges; (2) minimum flux for WT and mutants is greater than 0.01 mmol gDW$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$, to avoid considering reactions with low absolute flux; and (3) in line with differential expression analysis, where one considers genes differentially expressed above a preselected fold-change (e.g. of at least 2, in nominal values), for the flux ranges that do not overlap, we use a threshold on the relative difference between the lower bounds of at least 5% (we used 5% to be less restrictive) to filter for cases were flux ranges are close to each other; this condition is meant to remove any numerical artifacts.

*Maximize CO$_2$ demand*

We introduce a demand reaction for CO$_2$ in the chloroplast and maximize its flux given constraints described in the linear program in Eq. (4), which include the fixation of condition-specific growth as well as uptake rates of CO$_2$ and acetate. The obtained flux through CO$_2$ demand will serve as a proxy for internal CO$_2$ concentration in the chloroplast:

$$z^c = \max v_{CO_2\ demand}$$

s.t.

$$Nv = 0$$

$$v_{photon_{uptake}} = z^c_{photon_{uptake}}$$

$$v_{CO_2\ uptake} = CO_2\ uptake^c \qquad (4)$$

$$v_{acetate\ uptake} = acetate\ uptake^c$$

$$v_{min}^{S,c} \le v \le v_{max}^{S,c}$$

$$v_{bio} = z_{bio}^{S,c} * 0.99$$

**Supplementary References**

1. Varma, A. & Palsson, B. O. Metabolic capabilities of Escherichia coli: I. synthesis of biosynthetic precursors and cofactors. *J. Theor. Biol.* **165,** 477–502 (1993).
2. Imam, S. *et al.* A refined genome-scale reconstruction of Chlamydomonasmetabolism provides a platform for systems-level analyses. *Plant J.* **84,** 1239–1256 (2015).
3. Bonente, G., Pippa, S., Castellano, S., Bassi, R. & Ballottari, M. Acclimation of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii to different growth irradiances. *J. Biol. Chem.* (2011). doi:10.1074/jbc.M111.304279
4. Aurich, M. K., Fleming, R. M. T. & Thiele, I. MetaboTools: A Comprehensive Toolbox for Analysis of Genome-Scale Metabolic Models. *Front Physiol* **7,** 327 (2016).
5. Orth, J. D., Thiele, I. & Palsson, B. Ø. What is flux balance analysis? *Nat. Biotechnol.* **28,** 245–248 (2010).
6. Bordbar, A., Monk, J. M., King, Z. A. & Palsson, B. Ø. Constraint-based models predict metabolic and associated cellular functions. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **15,** 107–120 (2014).
7. Gudmundsson, S. & Thiele, I. Computationally efficient flux variability analysis. *BMC Bioinformatics* **11,** 489–3 (2010).
8. Heirendt, L. *et al.* Creation and analysis of biochemical constraint-based models using the COBRA Toolbox v.3.0. *Nature Protocols* **14,** 639–702 (2019).

**Supplementary Fig. 1: Effect of carbon availability on the photosynthetic properties of WT,** *icl* **and** *icl-C* **cells. a** relative photosynthetic electron transfer rETR measured at 336 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ and **b** qE of WT, *icl* and *icl-C* cells exposed to 600 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ in HSM for 4h; sparged with air (labelled as "air"); sparged with air and supplemented with 10 mM sodium acetate (labelled as "acet); sparged with air enriched with 5% $CO_2$ (labelled as "$CO_2$"), (*n* = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The statistical analyses (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons tests) of **a** and **b** are shown in the graph; * = *P* value < 0.05, ***=P value <0.001. Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file. **c** Raw data of *in vivo* chlorophyll fluorescence (normalized to the highest Fm') for WT, *icl* and *icl-C*. Chlorophyll fluorescence was recorded in the dark (labelled as "D"), at 21 (labelled as "L1") and 336 (labelled as "L2") µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ as indicated in the graphs. Shown are one representative trace of three biological replicates. **d** Y(II) values calculated as (Fm'-F)/Fm' (*n* = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). **e** NPQ values calculated as (*F*m − *F*m')/*F*m (*n* = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). Please not that in **d** and **e** most of the error bars are smaller than the data points and are therefore not visible.

**Supplementary Fig. 2: Large-scale metabolic modeling supports the change in internal CO₂ concentration under mixotrophic conditions.** The maximum flux through the CO₂ demand reaction is used as a proxy for concentration of free CO₂ in the chloroplast. **a-c** Flux through CO₂ demand reaction under low light (LL) and high light (HL) for varying CO₂ uptake rates for wild type (wt), *icl*, and *dum11*. **d-f** Contour plots of flux through CO₂ demand reaction under HL and acetate for varying CO₂ and acetate uptake rates for the three respective strains. The area between the two red lines indicates combinations of CO₂ and acetate uptake rates that show (i) in the case of mutants: CO₂ demand level under HL acetate conditions similar to those under LL conditions and (ii) in the case of the WT: CO₂ demand level under HL acetate conditions above what is observed under LL conditions.

**Supplementary Fig. 3: HL and low-CO₂ responses cross-talk.** WT, *icl* and *icl-C* strains were acclimated for 16 h in LL (15 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) in HSM; bubbled with air (labelled "ctrl"); bubbled with air and supplemented with 10 mM sodium acetate (labelled "acet); bubbled with air enriched with 5% CO₂ (labelled "CO₂"). After sampling for the LL conditions, light intensity was increased to 600 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ (HL); samples were taken after 1h. Accumulation of mRNA of selected CCM genes at the indicated conditions normalized to WT LL ctrl. Please note that these data derive from analyses of the RNA samples of the experiment described in **Fig. 1** (*n* = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for the comparisons of acetate and CO₂ conditions to air are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*, P < 0.005, **, P < 0.01, ***, P < 0.001, ****, P < 0.0001, ns, not significant). Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file.

**Supplementary Fig. 4: Detailed view of photosynthetic measurements of Fig. 3c.**
WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C* strains were acclimated for 16 h in LL (15 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in HSM bubbled with air (labelled as "LL"); after sampling for the LL conditions, light intensity was increased to 600 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ (HL); samples were taken after 4 h for photosynthesis measurements). **a-c** *In vivo* chlorophyll fluorescence (normalized to the highest Fm') of HL-acclimated WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C* cells (for a complete description of the experimental setup please refer to the legend of **Fig. 4.**) Just prior to the onset of the measurements, cells were acclimated to darkness for 15 min. Chlorophyll fluorescence was recorded in the dark (labelled as "D"), at 21 (labelled as "L1") and 336 (labelled as "L2") µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ as indicated in the graphs. **d** NPQ values calculated as $(Fm − Fm')/Fm'$ ($n = 3$ biological samples, mean ± s.d.).

**Supplementary Fig. 5: Light and CO₂ availability define expression levels of LHCSR3**. WT cells, acclimated in LL (10 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) sparged with air were shifted to 10, 150, and 300 µmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ of light and were sparged with 0 (100% O$_2$), 0.04 (air), and 5% CO$_2$ (95% O$_2$) for 4 hours. Shown are the immunoblot analyses of LHCSR3 and ATPB (loading control) under the indicated conditions. Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times.

**Supplementary Fig. 6: Low CO₂ levels can trigger CCM genes in the absence of light.** WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C* cells were bubbled with air overnight in darkness; next day air bubbling was either maintained or replaced by $CO_2$-limited-air bubbling in the darkness or in the presence of 600 μmol photons $m^{-2}$ $s^{-1}$ light. Sampling was performed after 1 h (RNA) or 4 h (protein). **a** mRNA accumulation of *LHCSR1* and *PSBS1* (qE genes) and *LCIB, LCIE, CAH1, HLA3, CAH3, CCP1, CCP2, LCR1, BST1* (CCM genes) in WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C*. Data were normalized to WT air dark; ($n$ = 3 biological samples, mean ± s.d.). The p-values for the comparisons of WT with *cia5* and *cia5* with *cia5-C* are based on ANOVA Dunnett's multiple comparisons test of log10 transformed mRNA data as indicated in the graphs (*, P < 0.005, **, P < 0.01, ***, P < 0.001, ****, P < 0.0001, ns, not significant). Exact p-values can be found at the Source Data file. **b** Immunoblot analyses of LHCSR1, PSBS and ATPB (loading control) under the indicated conditions.

**Supplementary Fig. 7: Complementation of *cia5* mutant. a** Immunoblot analyses of CIA5-FLAG and ATPB (loading control) from whole cell extracts of *cia5-C*. The first two lanes, were loaded with *cia5-C* samples from the experiment presented in **Fig. 3b** (pre-acclimated in LL); the last three lanes contain *cia5-C* samples from the experiment presented in **Fig. 5b** (pre-acclimated in the dark). Above the immunoblot shown is the quantification of CIA5-FLAG protein accumulation (calculated as FLAG /ATPB ratio). Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times. **b** Immunoblot analyses of LHCSR3, CIA5-FLAG and ATPB (loading control) from whole cell extracts of WT, *cia5* and four *cia5-C* complemented lines after exposure at 300 μmol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ for 4 hours. Among the transformants analyzed the *cia5-C-a1* (*cia5-C* throughout the text) was retained for further analyses in the present study. Representative dataset of experiment repeated three times. **c** A total of 24, 12 and 6 x 10$^3$ cells of WT, *cia5* and *cia5-C-a1* were spotted on high-salt media agar plates and grown under 100 μE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ for four days.

**Supplementary Figure 8:** Light Spectrum of the LED light system (Neptune L.E.D., France) used in the present study.

**Supplementary Table 1. Predicted and observed generation time (h) for wild type and mutant strains under different growth conditions.** Wild type and mutant strains were grown photoautotrophically under low light (LL) and high light (HL) conditions and cells grown mixotrophically on HSM medium were supplemented with acetate under high light (HL + acetate) conditions. Values followed by an asterisk represent constraints based on measurements, the rest of the values were simulated.

|          | LL  | HL  | HL + acetate |
|----------|-----|-----|--------------|
| **WT**   | 36* | 20* | 11           |
| *icl*    | 36  | 20  | 19           |
| *dum11*  | 36  | 22  | 19           |

**Supplementary Table 2. Overview number of reactions producing $CO_2$ with significant changes in flux between mutants (*icl* and *dum11*) and WT.** (A) Across all model reactions; (B-D) compartment-specific reactions producing $CO_2$ - (B) cytosol, (C) chloroplast, (D) mitochondria. A significant enrichment in reactions with flux differences between mutants and WT for reactions that produce $CO_2$ under HL + acetate conditions (based on two-sided Fisher exact test) only was observed considering reactions in the chloroplast and considering all model.

**A – all model reactions**

|  | $CO_2$ producing | not $CO_2$ producing | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| **LL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 24 | 499 | 0.13 |
| no change in flux | 64 | 1807 | |
| **HL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 19 | 504 | 0.57 |
| no change in flux | 69 | 1802 | |
| **HL + acetate condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 59 | 1186 | **0.003** |
| no change in flux | 29 | 1120 | |

**B - cytosol**

|  | $CO_2$ producing | not $CO_2$ producing | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| **LL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 7 | 313 | 0.48 |
| no change in flux | 24 | 1192 | |
| **HL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 7 | 318 | 0.49 |
| no change in flux | 24 | 1187 | |
| **HL + acetate condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 18 | 840 | 0.48 |
| no change in flux | 13 | 665 | |

**C - chloroplast**

|  | $CO_2$ producing | not $CO_2$ producing | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| **LL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 9 | 71 | 0.37 |
| no change in flux | 21 | 206 | |
| **HL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 8 | 68 | 0.48 |
| no change in flux | 22 | 209 | |
| **HL + acetate condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 24 | 133 | **6.4e-04** |
| no change in flux | 6 | 144 | |

**D - mitochondria**

|  | $CO_2$ producing | not $CO_2$ producing | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| **LL condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 8 | 80 | 0.45 |
| no change in flux | 17 | 198 | |
| **HL condition** | | | |

| change in flux | 4 | 70 | 0.9 |
| no change in flux | 21 | 208 | |
| **HL + acetate condition** | | | |
| change in flux | 17 | 138 | 0.06 |
| no change in flux | 8 | 140 | |

**Supplementary Table 3. Relative contribution of reaction flux to production of CO₂.** The set of reactions with non-zero contribution is the same for all strains and conditions.

| Reaction ID | LL | | | HL | | | HL+ac | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | WT | icl | *dum11* | WT | icl | *dum11* | WT | icl | *dum11* |
| 'HCO3Em' | 0.42 | 0.25 | 0.34 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.27 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.35 |
| 'ICDH_nad' | 0.38 | 0.49 | 0.29 | 0.49 | 0.50 | 0.45 | 0.28 | 0.29 | 0.28 |
| 'GLYDHD' | 0.19 | 0.25 | 0.35 | 0.25 | 0.24 | 0.27 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.35 |
| 'PPCKm' | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| 'HCO3Ehi' | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.01 |

**Supplementary Table 4. RT-qPCR primers for the genes analyzed in this study**

| Gene ID | Gene Name | Sense Primer | Anti-sense Primer |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cre01.g016600 | PSBS1 | TAAACCGTGTATTGGAACTCCG | CTCTGCACGCGGCGTGTT |
| Cre08.g367500 | LHCSR3.1 | CACAACACCTTGATGCGAGATG | CCGTGTCTTGTCAGTCCCTG |
| Cre08.g365900 | LHCSR1 | GAGTCTGAGATCACCCACGG | CCGATCTGCTGGAAGTGGTA |
| Cre06.g278222 | GBLP | TGGCTTTCTCGGTGGACAAC | CTCGCCAATGGTGTACTTGC |
| Cre06.g309000 | LCIA | AGATTTGATAACGGCAGGACC | CCTATCCCATGTCATTCCCAC |
| Cre10.g452800 | LCIB | TGCATAAGAGCGGATGTAGC | CGGTAGTCAGCATCAGTCATC |
| Cre04.g223250 | LCIE | TGCCGCCATAGATGTTGTGT | CCGCTCTTCTCTTTCGCTCA |
| Cre09.g399552 | LCR1 | GCACCAGCATACACCAAAATC | CAGAAAACAGAACGACCAAAGC |
| Cre03.g162800 | LCI1 | TTGCGGTTTTTGTACGAGCG | GTGCAAAGCCACGTCATCTC |
| Cre02.g097800 | HLA3 | CAGTGGCATGTTCCCTTTTG | GGTGCTCATGGTTCTTGTTTG |
| Cre03.g162800 | CAH1 | GCTTTGCTTCACGGTTTGGT | CCGGTACTGTGTGTATGCGT |
| Cre09.g415700 | CAH3 | AACCTGGAAGGGTGTGTGTG | CACTTCTCGAAGCTGCCGTA |
| Cre05.g248400 | CAH4 | CGAAAAGCTGCATGAACTCACC | GCCCGTAGGCTACAGTTTTC |
| Cre04.g223300 | CCP1 | TGGCATGACAACATGGCTCA | AGTGCATCCACTGGCTTGTT |
| Cre04.g222750 | CCP2 | AACGTGGAGCACATCTACGG | ATAAGCCGTCAAGCCTTGCT |
| Cre16.g662600 | BST1 | GCTGTGTGGCATTGAGGAGA | GGATGAGGCTGATGAGTCCG |
| Cre06.g284100 | RHP1 | GCAGTCGCAGGCAGTAACTA | CGCTTCAGCGCTCATAGAGA |
| gib-cia5 | | gctactcacaacaagcccagttATGGAAGCCTTAGACGCGC | gagccacccagatctccgttATCGCAGGACTGCAGCAG |

**Supplementary Dataset 1** (available as downloadable Microsoft Excel file). Reactions whose minimum flux in the mutant was above the maximum flux of the WT (up-regulation) or the maximum flux in the mutant was below the minimum observed in the WT (down-regulation). Marked cells for down regulation under HL + acetate represent reactions also down regulated under LL in *dum11*.

**Supplementary Dataset 2** (available as downloadable Microsoft Excel file). Flux ranges obtained from flux variability analysis as well as mean and median flux from sampling of 5000 flux distributions. Reactions marked in green show significant difference under HL+acetate but not under LL and HL conditions.

**Supplementary Dataset 3** (available as downloadable Microsoft Excel file). Percentage of reactions per model pathway that show significant change in sampled flux values in both mutants, *icl* and *dum11* for the respective condition.