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Challenges and advances towards the rational design of microalgal synthetic promoters in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

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Abstract

Microalgae hold the enormous potential to provide a safe and sustainable source of high-value compounds, acting as carbon-fixing biofactories that could help to mitigate rapidly progressing climate change. Bioengineering microalgal strains will be key to optimizing and modifying their metabolic outputs, and to render them competitive with established industrial biotechnology hosts, such as bacteria or yeast. To achieve this, precise and tunable control over transgene expression will be essential, towards which a key strategy is the development and rational design of synthetic promoters. Among green microalgae, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* represents the reference species for bioengineering and synthetic biology; however, the repertoire of functional synthetic promoters for this species, and for microalgae generally, is limited in comparison to other commercial chassis, emphasizing the need to expand the current microalgal gene expression toolbox. Here, we discuss state-of-the-art promoter analyses and highlight areas of research required to advance synthetic promoter development in *C. reinhardtii*. In particular, we exemplify high-throughput studies performed in other model systems that could be applicable to microalgae and propose novel approaches to interrogating algal promoters. We lastly outline the major limitations hindering microalgal promoter development, while providing novel suggestions and perspectives for how to overcome them.

Keywords

bioengineering, bioinformatics, *Chlamydomonas*, nuclear gene expression, high-throughput approaches, microalgae, promoter, synthetic biology, transcriptional regulation

Highlight

Here we provide an overview on synthetic promoter studies in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, a reference microalgal species for bioengineering purposes and synthetic biology, outlining key obstacles and ways to overcome them.

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1. Introduction

Microalgae represent one of the most ancient and diverse groups of organisms on Earth, whose extraordinary genetic and chemical biodiversity confer them the ability to adapt to and survive within a wide variety of environments (Dorrell and Smith, 2011). Thanks to their metabolic versatility, they are natural sources of many high-value compounds and are considered key players in the green revolution, i.e. the increasingly urgent transition from fossil fuels to sustainable and renewable plant-based energy sources (Mehariya et al., 2021). However, the quantities produced by wild-type strains are typically too low for large-scale production, necessitating metabolic engineering to boost product yields (Hamilton et al., 2014).

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (hereafter referred to as *Chlamydomonas*) is an established model organism for the study of various cellular processes including photosynthesis, flagella structure/function, metabolic engineering and more recently as a promising synthetic biology (SynBio) chassis (Scaife et al., 2015). The chloroplast, mitochondrial and nuclear genomes have been sequenced and annotated, with efficient transformation techniques available for each (Merchant et al., 2007; Scaife et al., 2015; Craig et al., 2022). Such techniques allowed the establishment of the chloroplast of *Chlamydomonas* as a successful target for recombinant protein expression due to its homologous recombination machinery enabling targeted gene insertion, a lack of transgene silencing, and high protein product yields (Doron et al., 2016). Moreover, genome editing and SynBio tools are available for *Chlamydomonas*, and their number is vertiginously increasing, thus placing this species in an advanced position as a metabolic engineering chassis compared to other, less characterized, microalgal species (Crozet et al., 2018; Ghribi et al., 2020; Li et al., 2016; Emrich-Mills et al., 2021). In addition, this microalga carries GRAS (generally recognized as safe) status since it does not produce any endotoxin and/or infectious agent, making the purification process much simpler, less expensive, and safer compared to hosts not certified as GRAS. Also, cell wall-deficient *Chlamydomonas* strains can be used, allowing even easier product recovery using GRAS solvents such as ethyl acetate or mineral oil (Perozeni et al., 2020).

Despite the advantages of *Chlamydomonas* as an industrial host and the relevant progress reached in relatively recent years, bioengineering this organism is still inefficient compared to other expression models, such as *E. coli* and yeast. Indeed, although the chloroplast offers a powerful target for transgene expression, potentially crucial post-translational modifications such as glycosylation, as well as organellar and secretory protein targeting mechanisms, are not attainable with chloroplast transformation (Mayfield et al., 2007). This reduces the range of possible applications such as complex, multi-enzyme metabolic engineering, and costly downstream processing is required for recombinant protein recovery. Furthermore, transgene integration and high protein production in the chloroplast can also dramatically reduce or abrogate algal photosynthetic activity (Gimpel et al. 2015;

Gregory et al. 2012; Surzycki et al. 2009). These issues can be circumvented by expressing transgenes in the nuclear genome, from which glycosylation and secretion are achievable (Lauersen et al., 2015; Mathieu-Rivet et al., 2013). Several native promoters, both constitutive and inducible, have been employed for nuclear transgene expression in *Chlamydomonas* (Scaife et al., 2015), the strongest being a fusion of two native promoters, heat shock protein 70A (*HSP70A*) and small subunit 2 of the ribulose biphosphate carboxylase (*RBCS2*), henceforth referred to as the AR promoter (Schroda et al., 2000).

However, nuclear transgene expression using the AR promoter in *Chlamydomonas* is still inferior and cumbersome compared to other established unicellular eukaryotic expression systems, partially due to positional effects and gene silencing mechanisms (Schroda, 2019). This exposes the need for powerful genetic elements that can enhance gene expression beyond the possibilities of nature. This lack of strong, diverse, and reliable regulatory devices in *Chlamydomonas* not only limits simple transgene expression, but also more sophisticated SynBio applications, such as the construction of artificial metabolic networks, the implementation of Boolean logic circuits, and the design of molecular feedback controllers, thus highlighting the necessity of precisely tunable and tightly controllable expression tools (Filo et al., 2022; Mori and Shirai 2018; Tas et al. 2021).

In this review article, we aim to provide an overview of synthetic promoter studies for improving gene expression in *Chlamydomonas*. In particular, we will list currently available constitutive and inducible synthetic promoters, as well as the general rules and strategies for their rational design. We will also describe the native promoters used in *Chlamydomonas*, and their *cis*-regulatory elements (CREs), which can be used as templates to design synthetic promoters. We will finally discuss the potential of high-throughput approaches guided by next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies and computational pipelines for promoter studies, and how studies performed in other species can be applied to microalgae to bolster their commercial value and competitiveness with other biotechnological expression platforms.

2. Synthetic promoters

A synthetic promoter is a DNA regulatory sequence that does not exist in nature, and which has been specifically designed to obtain robust and predictable expression of a target gene. Synthetic promoters can either be assembled entirely artificially or from existing parts in a non-natural way, always including a core promoter region, containing DNA elements to recruit the basic transcriptional machinery, and an upstream proximal promoter region, containing targets for additional transcription factors (TFs) (**Figure 1**). The type, copy number, and spacing of specific *cis*-regulatory elements (CREs) define the specific regulatory output (Venter, 2007). The main advantage of synthetic promoters compared to their native counterparts is represented by the possibility to design sequences

with minimal footprints allowing the reduction of the expression cassette size, thus simplifying typical SynBio applications such as the *de novo* construction of metabolic pathways. Moreover, synthetic promoters can offer broader sequence diversities and activity ranges compared to native promoters and are more resistant to homology-dependent gene silencing (Kumar et al., 2013; Einhaus et al., 2021).

In the following subchapters we will describe the main strategies used for synthetic promoter construction and the currently available synthetic promoters for *Chlamydomonas*.

2.1 Top-down and bottom-up strategies for the development of synthetic promoters

Synthetic promoters can be created by two fundamentally different strategies: top-down and bottom-up approaches (**Figure 2**). Top-down design takes advantage of well-characterized native promoters, using them as templates and modifying them accordingly. Modifications can be simple, such as point mutations to modify CREs, or promoter truncations to isolate the minimal functional sequence, removing irrelevant components (**Figure 2A**). Furthermore, introducing full novel motifs or multiplying pre-existing ones, as well as altering the spacing between motifs, can change transcriptional properties (Einhaus et al., 2021). A simple, yet effective approach is to hybridize whole, or parts of, native promoters to generate chimeric constructs with novel characteristics (Schroda et al., 2000). Finally, error-prone PCR can randomize sequences and lead to large-scale promoter libraries (Gilman and Love, 2016).

In contrast, bottom-up promoter design involves constructing promoters entirely from scratch, generating completely new assemblies (**Figure 2C**). Thereby it can start from collections of standardized parts, which can be assembled with known CREs to a minimal core promoter, containing at least the TATA box insulated by nucleotide stretches (Cai et al.; 2020; McQuillan et al., 2022). Moreover, these design workflows can employ randomized approaches like shuffling DNA sequences upstream of the transcription starting site (TSS) with the help of degenerate oligonucleotides (Jensen and Hammer, 1998). Another bottom-up way to generate synthetic promoters is computational design followed by gene synthesis (Kotopka and Smolke, 2020).

Since the construction of synthetic promoters is only constrained by the creativity of their designer, a virtually infinite variety of transcriptional outputs can be obtained, achieving a precise constitutive, inducible, or spatiotemporal control of gene expression (Liu et al., 2013). This is a great advantage of synthetic promoters compared to their native counterparts. Indeed, although strong promoters are often required to obtain the maximum yield of the desired product, fine-tuned gene expression is necessary for more nuanced applications, such as engineering metabolic pathways and genetic circuits controlling cellular behavior. Thus, the development of minimal synthetic control elements with defined strengths is helpful to facilitate the generation of consistent and expectable transcriptional

outputs with reduced noise compared to long endogenous promoters, which might harbor unknown TF binding sites that counteract the experimental goal (**Figure 2B**).

2.2 Currently available synthetic promoters for *Chlamydomonas*

The synthetic assembly of native promoters can be considered the first generation of synthetic promoters. For instance, the fusion of *HSP70A* promoter with other high-expression promoters, i.e. *RBCS2*, *TUB2* (β -tubulin 2) and *HSP70B*, represents the first successful example of synthetic promoter design in *Chlamydomonas*. Indeed, when placed upstream to other promoters, *HSP70A* works as a transcriptional activator, leading to strong constitutive expression under physiological conditions, and conferring inducibility under high light or heat-shock conditions (Schroda et al., 2000). The *HSP70A-RBCS2* (AR) hybrid promoter is particularly effective and has been further characterized, revealing the key CREs conferring inducibility (Schroda et al., 2002). AR is currently used as the strong promoter in most laboratories working with *Chlamydomonas* and is used as the reference strong promoter when comparing the strength of newly designed synthetic promoters.

Later it became evident that to fully exploit the potential of synthetic promoter generation, a more sophisticated assembly of genetic elements responsible for constitutive and/or inducible regulation would have been necessary.

Scranton et al. (2016) generated 25 new synthetic promoters via *de novo* assembly of a synthetic core promoter sequence joined to *in silico* identified CREs. In particular they assembled CREs from native promoters in minimal promoters, i.e. 500 bp long, mimicking the -450 bp upstream and 50 bp downstream the TSS where important motifs for transcriptional activity in *Chlamydomonas* are typically found (Scranton et al., 2016). The synthetic promoters were placed upstream of an mCherry fluorescent reporter, then screened for promoter activity by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS) of live *Chlamydomonas* cells. The synthetic promoters exhibited a wide activity range compared to the AR promoter, seven of which drove mCherry expression to levels >2-fold higher than those regulated by AR (Scranton et al., 2016). One of the strongest promoters, sap-11 (synthetic algal promoter-11), was later repurposed as a core promoter to test the activity of putative CREs identified in *Chlamydomonas*, leading to the identification of novel CREs capable of driving high gene expression, and which can be incorporated into rational synthetic promoter designs (McQuillan et al., 2022). These constitutive synthetic promoters have the potential to drive stable gene expression at high levels.

Along with these constitutive synthetic promoters, various inducible synthetic promoters have been generated. Indeed, the control of expression under a specific circumstance is often preferable over constitutive expression to avoid any eventual toxic effect of the produced protein or compound in the bioengineered cells. Inducible promoters can be broadly classified as chemically regulated (induced

by a chemical e.g. a hormone or metal) or physically regulated (induced by physical stimuli such as changes in temperature or light) (Ali and Kim, 2019). An example of an inducible synthetic promoter is the fusion of the *TUB2* core promoter with the zygotic response element (ZYRE), which succeeded in driving zygotic gene expression in *Chlamydomonas* (Hamaji et al., 2016). Also, the light-inducible protein (LIP) promoter of *Dunaliella* was successfully modified for use in *Chlamydomonas*, by generating a synthetic truncated version containing several copies of a putative light inducible motif (Baek et al., 2016).

The main synthetic promoters developed so far for *Chlamydomonas*, as well as known CREs responsible for their function and/or induction, are listed in **Table 1**.

3. Advances and opportunities towards the rational design of microalgal synthetic promoters

Despite recent advances in developing synthetic promoters in microalgae, only a small set of these regulatory genetic sequences have actually been utilized for transgene expression in *Chlamydomonas* compared to their development and usage in other organisms (Redden et al., 2015; Romanova and Noll, 2017). In this chapter, we will summarize current knowledge regarding CREs identified from *Chlamydomonas* endogenous promoters that can be used for synthetic promoter construction and describe the methods available for their development. We will explore the state-of-the-art and limitations of experimental and computational methods for promoter studies, as well as high-throughput approaches necessary to interrogate these regulatory regions.

Finally, we will propose tools and infrastructures that will help to advance the field of SynBio with regard to transcriptional regulation in *Chlamydomonas* and provide an outlook on synthetic TFs.

3.1 Advanced knowledge about endogenous natural promoters

Synthetic promoter design requires a deep understanding of the endogenous machinery of transcriptional regulators, especially within the promoter regions. Although this is still lacking, a considerable number of endogenous promoters and their CREs have been identified and tested. These findings will be of great help in designing synthetic promoters.

3.1.1 Main endogenous constitutive and inducible promoters

Endogenous constitutive promoters from *Chlamydomonas* that have been utilized for transgene expression include *TUB2* and *RBCS2* promoters (Davies et al., 1992; Stevens et al., 1996). The *PSAD* (photosystem I subunit D) promoter is also commonly used to regulate transgene expression (Fischer and Rochaix, 2001). However, the most frequently used endogenous element is the *HSP70A* promoter, which activates gene expression when placed upstream of other promoters (Schroda et al.,

2000). A relatively recent discovery is the *RPL23* (ribosomal protein L23) regulatory region which showed expression capacities similar to those of other commonly used elements (López-Paz et al., 2017). Constitutive expression elements like the ones previously mentioned can be used to extract features to create synthetic promoters of various strengths.

Several inducible promoters have also been characterized in *Chlamydomonas*. Examples include the nickel and cobalt ion-activated *CYC6* (cytochrome c6) promoter (Quinn et al., 2003), *NITI* (nitrate reductase), which is induced by ammonium deficiency (Loppes et al., 1999), and *FEA1* (Fe-assimilation protein), induced by iron deficiency (Allen et al., 2007). Although most inducible systems are positively regulated, negatively inducible systems also exist in *Chlamydomonas*, such as the *METE* (cobalamin-independent methionine synthase) promoter, which is repressible by the presence of cobalamin in the growth medium (Helliwell et al., 2014). Other elements enable control via physical factors such as the *CAH1* (carbonic anhydrase) promoter, which is induced by light and low levels of CO₂ (Villand et al., 1997). Synthetic inducible promoters can be constructed from motifs of such regulatory regions that are responsible for driving condition-specific expression. Endogenous promoters and their characteristics are listed and described in **Table 2 and 3**.

3.1.2 Native *cis*-regulatory elements (CREs)

Genomic sequences that govern transcript generation from DNA can be partitioned into CREs which contain binding motifs for TFs (Wittkopp and Kalay, 2012). The vast majority of information about CREs in *Chlamydomonas* has been acquired by dissecting existing promoters through deletion analyses and mutational experiments.

In general, basal transcription in eukaryotes begins with the recruitment of the pre-initiation complex by core promoter elements (**Figure 1**). In *Chlamydomonas*, the regulatory region surrounding the TSS often contains an initiator element (Inr) and/or a TATA box to recruit the pre-initiation complex (Fischer et al., 2009). Additional core CREs such as CAAT- and CCAAT-boxes, MYB binding sites and G-boxes can also be present (Li et al., 2022; Kropat et al., 1995; Sawyer et al., 2015). *In silico* analyses showed that TC-rich motifs are enriched around the TSS of many highly-transcribed genes in *Chlamydomonas* (Scranton et al., 2016), which is particularly interesting, because a TC-rich motif positioned close to the TSS in plants functions similarly to the TATA box (Bernard et al., 2010).

Generally, *Chlamydomonas* regulatory sequences tend to differ from those of higher plants. For example, plant promoters commonly possess Y patches (pyrimidine-rich regions), which are missing from *Chlamydomonas* regulatory regions (Yamamoto et al., 2007). Moreover, the regions upstream of

highly-expressed genes in microalgae are AT-rich near to the TSS, whereas in plants GC enrichment adjacent to the TSS is instead observed (Fujimori et al., 2005; Calistri et al., 2011; Scranton et al., 2016).

However, it is reasonable to assume that key core promoter motifs remain to be discovered.

Besides these basic elements, several inducible CREs have been characterized in detail. This may facilitate the construction of inducible synthetic promoters, a hitherto underexplored area of applied transcriptional research in microalgae. CREs of particular interest include the heat shock elements (HSE) of the *HSP70A* promoter, which function both as inducible and constitutive expression elements, by attracting heat shock factors (Lodha et al., 2008). Other CREs identified from endogenous promoters of *Chlamydomonas* are listed in **Table 2 and 3**. These may be optimized and combined for synthetic promoter design, and future discovery thereof deserves special attention.

3.2 High-throughput experimental approaches for promoter studies

The regulation of gene expression constitutes a complex network of interactions between various regulatory elements, acting in a *cis*- and *trans*-manner, to precisely determine the spatio-temporal synthesis of a certain amount of transcript. Sequence motifs in promoters act as binding sites for TFs, thus playing a crucial role in modulating transcription. Considering this, we still know little regarding how the location, orientation and affinity of CREs quantitatively influence gene expression. To complicate this picture, the motifs do not act alone, but their function is the result of their co-evolution with coding and non-coding regions of the DNA regulatory structure (Zrimec et al., 2020). Therefore, low-throughput methods like promoter shuffling and individual characterization cannot solve this complex problem, highlighting the necessity to involve high-throughput approaches.

High-throughput techniques are generally based on modern biotechnological tools, such as DNA synthesis technology, FACS, and NGS, which enable the study of gene expression activity of a massive amount of promoter variants simultaneously (**Figure 3**). In several prokaryotic model organisms, these approaches facilitated the *de novo* detection of key motifs that determine transcription, thereby paving the way for synthetic promoter design (Kinney et al., 2010; Levy et al., 2017; Yus et al., 2017). In unicellular eukaryotic systems, high-throughput methods were successfully used to investigate the activities of promoter libraries of vast size, giving mechanistic insights into gene regulation processes (Kotopka and Smolke, 2020; Lubliner et al., 2015). These deep mutational screenings pave the way towards building accurate computational models for predicting gene expression from DNA sequences and to design synthetic sequences for the desired rate of gene expression.

However, no such high-throughput promoter study has been conducted in microalgae so far. Here, we will present several trailblazing methods to both measure promoter strength and identify TF binding sites in a massively parallel manner.

Synthetic saturation mutagenesis of promoters can be conducted as a reporter gene-free method, which allowed exploring the effects of mutagenized bacterial and mammalian promoters on *in vitro* transcription efficiency (Patwardhan et al., 2009). Sharon et al. (2012) set up a high-throughput method to obtain gene expression levels from thousands of synthetic promoters *in vivo* in yeast cells, by using fluorescent markers and barcoding, with a high accuracy (**Figure 3A**). The relatively novel technique termed ELM-seq (expression level monitoring by DNA methylation) is based on bacterial Dam protein (DNA adenine methylase) and NGS technology (Yus et al., 2017) (**Figure 3F**). In particular, promoter (or 5'UTR) libraries are constructed, placing the Dam encoding gene downstream the promoter region (or the 5'UTR region). Thus, the methylation level of close GATC sequences, the targets of Dam activity, will depend on the promoter (or 5'UTR) strength regulating Dam expression. DNA extraction followed by restriction digestion with methylation-sensitive enzymes, and NGS, allows the determination of a Dam ratio and to the identification of the regulatory sequences responsible for strong/weak transcription (or translation). This method has the advantages of providing a high dynamic range, minimal toxicity, and no need for fluorescent reporters. Moreover, it has the potential, with some optimization, to be applied to any prokaryotic and eukaryotic system to unravel sequence determinants for gene expression (Yus et al., 2017). STARR-seq (self-transcribing active regulatory region sequencing) is a massively parallel reporter assay originally developed for the identification of transcriptional enhancers (Arnold et al., 2013), which was later adapted for application in plants (Jores et al., 2020) (**Figure 3B**). By driving the expression of a barcoded reporter gene and subsequent identification of barcodes by RNA-seq, the experimental scope was recently expanded to allow systematic measurement of core promoter activity (Jores et al., 2021). This adapted technique has the capacity to measure the strength of several tens of thousands of regulatory elements simultaneously. As a result, it can identify key determinants of transcription in plants and likewise, holds great promise for future applications in microalgae.

Although several CREs have been experimentally validated and are available for the construction of synthetic promoters, a systems level understanding of the cistrome of *Chlamydomonas* is currently missing. The application of high-throughput methods to discover TF binding sites, such as DNA affinity purification sequencing (DAP-seq), could systematically reveal the binding relationship between TFs and their corresponding motifs, thereby helping to create new promoters with desirable characteristics (O'Malley et al., 2016) (**Figure 3C**). Furthermore, large-scale chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP-seq) and deep cap analysis gene expression (CAGE) are interesting tools in this regard (**Figure 3D and 3E**). While the former technique is based on the enrichment of target DNA sites through TF-specific immune reagents (Johnson et al., 2007), the latter reverse-transcribes

capped mRNA and physically traps the resulting polynucleotide in order to sequence a short tag corresponding to the 5' of the mRNA (Kawaji et al., 2014). In particular, CAGE coupled with high-throughput sequencing allows the identification of known and novel promoters, their TF-binding motifs, as well as the quantification of the expression levels of the downstream genes (de Hoon and Hayashizaki, 2018).

3.3 Computationally-aided search of transcription determinants

Even though the previously discussed high-throughput techniques are auspicious and indispensable tools to study the fundamental factors of promoter strength, their application is usually challenging, laborious, and expensive. Bioinformatic prediction tools offer help in this regard: progress in the computational field has allowed the establishment of machine learning methods with the potential to distinguish between regulatory and non-regulatory regions and thus identify promoters, as well as to predict their activity performance (Wang et al., 2020).

Within the multitude of available machine learning methods, Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) are becoming increasingly popular in biology, especially Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), a subtype thereof (Yang et al., 2020). Although being a powerful method for feature extraction from continuous signals, like DNA sequences, this network type has several limitations, including high computational cost and output of difficult interpretability (Wang et al., 2020). For an easier interpretation of DNA sequences, k-mer (or k-tuple) approaches are preferable over CNNs even though having lower feature extraction capability. A good strategy is combining both k-mers and CNNs, a method successfully used to generate prediction models of transcription binding sites (Shen et al., 2018). Using a combination of CNNs and FastText N-grams, a Facebook library for text representation and classification, Le et al. (2019) identified promoters and relative strengths with high accuracy. Notably, other types of ANNs architectures beyond CNNs have been successfully used to predict gene expression regulation, such as Deep Neural Networks and Recurrent Neural Networks (Min et al., 2016). Known promoter features, like TATA box, Inr motif, and GC-rich regions, have been used to build predictive models for the identification of promoters. Some pioneering examples are Promoter2.0 (Knudsen, 1999), able to distinguish vertebrate promoters from non-promoter sequences and available online, and the time-delay neural network model created by Reese (2001), having two feature layers (TATA and Inr) but extendible with other features like the downstream promoter element (DPE), CAAT, and GC boxes. Other recently released machine learning tools for promoter prediction from sequence information are iProEP (Lai et al., 2019), CNNProm (Umarov and Solovyev, 2017), DeeReCT-PromID (Umarov et al., 2019), DeePromoter (Oubounyt et al., 2019), and Depicter (Zhu et al., 2021), all four based on deep learning algorithms.

Different methods use spatial information between base pairs, i.e. the genetic context of promoters rather than their exact location, like PromoterInspector (Scherf et al., 2000), and MCPromoter1.1 (Ohler et al., 1999). Abeel et al. (2008) built an Easy Promoter Prediction Program (EP3), which uses GC content and many other structural features of DNA, like bendability, duplex-free energy, and DNA denaturation, proved to be highly informative for promoter prediction (Gan et al., 2012), and resulted in a powerful software with no training needed and applicable to any eukaryotic genome.

The release of genome data for *Chlamydomonas* and the development of a computational approach called MERCED (modeling evolution rate across species for cis-regulatory element discovery) allowed the identification of 317 CREs (Ding et al., 2012). With a completely different approach, López García de Lomana et al. (2015) used the cMonkey algorithm on an available RNA-seq dataset and detected more than 400 CREs regulated by nitrogen starvation and summarized in the Chlamy Network Portal. This semi-supervised biclustering algorithm can identify co-regulated genes within a gene expression dataset and use this information for the *de novo* detection of motifs within the gene groups (Reiss et al., 2006). Besides the findings of these two studies, the usage of computational methods to unravel mechanisms of transcription in microalgae is a rather underexploited field, leaving great room for future research harnessing the available machine learning methods.

3.4 Synthetic biology (SynBio) tools and infrastructures

In order to advance the development of synthetic promoters in *Chlamydomonas*, it is important not only to have a deep knowledge of the transcriptional regulatory landscape, but also to have efficient sets of genetic engineering tools for reliable and reproducible genetic transformation, as well as for large-scale DNA construction and screening of synthetic promoter activities. SynBio provides useful DNA assembly toolkits that draw from libraries of existing parts and thus streamline engineering efforts. Currently, there is a wide array of available methods and standards for the purpose of systematic DNA assembly, such as BioBrick, modular cloning (MoClo) or GoldenBraid (Shetty et al., 2008; Vazquez-Vilar et al., 2020, Weber et al., 2011). The underlying methodologies thereby include restriction and ligation cloning, long-overlap-based assembly and Golden Gate Cloning. Due to the advantages of enabling scar-free assembly with a defined workflow, relative ease and high success rates, Golden Gate cloning has become one of the most popular methodologies for DNA assembly (Casini et al., 2015).

A complete golden gate-compatible set of standardized genetic parts has been specifically designed to endow *Chlamydomonas* with new molecular tools (Crozet et al., 2018). This toolkit was successfully used for sustainable recombinant polyamine synthesis and production and secretion of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein in *Chlamydomonas* (Freudenberg et al., 2021; Kiefer et al., 2022). At present, the number of available standard parts is still considerably low if compared to other model organisms, but

recent efforts are contributing to increase the number of available MoClo-compatible parts, including promoters (Einhaus et al., 2021; Niemeyer et al., 2021). These efforts will accelerate the emergence of SynBio applications based on *Chlamydomonas*. In that respect, a golden gate-compatible collection of CREs would enable the effortless assembly of synthetic promoters for *Chlamydomonas* and lead to a substantial advance in microalgal bioengineering.

In recent years, the emergence of molecular biology automation platforms and other high-performance technologies has led to the establishment of biofoundries worldwide, pursuing a highly centralized and specialized approach. These entities provide powerful SynBio infrastructures facilitating the engineering of biological systems according to the Design-Build-Test-Learn cycle. They are open to the research community and organized in the non-profit Global Biofoundries Alliance (GBA) (Hillson et al., 2019). By combining the hardware of robotic liquid-handling devices and high-throughput analytical instruments with softwares, data analysis tools and trained specialists to operate the system, GBA puts forth an integrated molecular biology facility (Holowko et al., 2021). These biofoundries evidently outperform non-automatized approaches, thereby offering a means to harness the power of microalgal SynBio for future challenges such as the global climate crisis.

3.5 Synthetic transcription factors (TFs) and other gene expression regulators

A strategy that has not yet been exploited in *Chlamydomonas* but holds future promise, due to encouraging results in plant species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* and other eukaryotic organisms, are synthetic TFs. These would facilitate the development of completely novel promoter sequences with high levels of predictable regulation, which would be independent of or have minimal interference from endogenous TFs, but depend on the synthetically introduced ones. Synthetic TFs are usually chimeric proteins consisting of activation or repression domains fused to the DNA binding domains of programmable TFs. Initially, zinc-finger (ZF) TFs or transcription activator-like effector (TALE) TFs were utilized for that purpose (Liu et al., 2013). However, the application of TF-based methods to different model systems and different target genes can be quite demanding, necessitating the synthesis and optimization of proteins.

The discovery of endonucleases based on the CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats)-Cas9 system that can be easily programmable to bind virtually any DNA sequence provided the framework for tools whose development is much faster than those based on ZF or TALE TFs (Bhardwaj and Nain, 2021). By rendering the endonuclease Cas9 catalytically dead (dCas9) while maintaining its high sequence binding specificity, it can be fused to effector proteins or domains thereof to regulate gene transcription in a controllable way (Liu and Stewart, 2016). However, a previous attempt to constitutively express dCas9 in *Chlamydomonas* indicates some degree of toxicity that might complicate its application as a modulator (Jiang et al., 2014). In addition

to dCas9, other types of endonucleases, like inactivated meganucleases, have proven to be an auspicious tool for modulating transcription in recent years, thus amplifying the toolbox of retrofittable transcriptional regulators (Suzuki et al., 2020). Overall, the choice of effector domains fused to the inactivated nuclease of choice is not limited to simple activators or repressors. Enzymatically active protein segments fused to deactivated nucleases can trigger local DNA methylation, histone modification and chromatin loop reorganization in the targeted locus (Pandelakis et al., 2020). The control of such epigenetic modifications is especially interesting for future applications in *Chlamydomonas*, as the main reasons for its poor transgene expression capabilities are transcriptional gene silencing mechanisms based on histone alterations and repressive chromatin structures (Schroda, 2019).

4. Challenges and current obstacles and ways to overcome them

Despite the number of molecular tools available for *Chlamydomonas*, the discovery of transcriptional determinants and subsequently, synthetic promoter design and testing efforts, are complicated by several organism-specific bottlenecks. In this chapter we will address several limitations of *Chlamydomonas* as a model system for the development of synthetic promoters, and at the same time we will outline strategies to resolve them.

4.1 Incomplete knowledge on promoter annotation and regulatory networks

As previously mentioned, a deep understanding of transcription regulation in *Chlamydomonas* is still missing, especially with regard to promoter and TSS annotation, as well as TF-DNA binding specificities and TF-TF interactions (**Figure 4A**). In eukaryotic transcription, a certain degree of variability can commonly be observed with regard to the TSS position, resulting in a cluster of sites called transcription starting region (TSR) within a promoter. Moreover, one gene can harbor multiple TSRs, leading to alternative transcription initiation to regulate gene expression at specific times, like during zebrafish development (Haberle et al., 2014), or in response to environmental factors, such as blue light in plants (Kurihara et al., 2018). Due to the importance of TSS selection for gene expression regulation, a plethora of methods have been developed for genome-wide TSS identification (Policastro and Zentner, 2021). The previously mentioned CAGE-seq method can be used to identify TSS activity at nucleotide resolution and, consequently, promoters and enhancers (Morioka et al., 2020). CAGE-seq was successfully applied in plants to demonstrate the occurrence of rare promoter upstream transcripts, a result of the RNA polymerase II activity on the reverse strand of gene promoters (Thieffry et al., 2020). TSS mapping data generated in plants by using CAGE (Tokizawa et al., 2017; Ushijima et al., 2017), deep CAGE (Cumbie et al., 2015), oligo capping, and PEAT (paired-end analysis of transcription start sites, Morton et al., 2014) technologies has enabled the annotation of more than 20,000 promoters in *A. thaliana* (<https://epd.epfl.ch/arabidopsis/arabidopsis>

[database.php](#)). The annotation of TSS selection mechanisms for *Chlamydomonas* and the development of TSS prediction databases would provide a great advance for precise promoter mapping and help to identify key regulatory elements.

Despite the abundance of available information about native CREs, we still lack a comprehensive understanding of their role in transcriptional regulatory networks (TRN) in *Chlamydomonas*, which comprise the interactions between TFs and CREs in the target gene promoter regions. TRN in microalgae could be inferred using high-throughput methods like the aforementioned CHIP-seq. However, this approach is limited by the availability of antibodies for specific TFs, and the high and constant level at which the target TFs must be expressed *in vivo* (Mendoza-Parra et al., 2016). Yeast two- (Y2H) and three-hybrid (Y3H) screenings facilitate the identification of protein-protein and protein-RNA interactions, thereby overcoming such limitations. By coupling these techniques with the power of modern sequencing technologies it is possible to generate comprehensive datasets with minimum outlay (Yu et al., 2011; Weinmann et al., 2013). The least laborious of these methods, while remaining highly precise, is recombination-YnH (rec-YnH), which provides a new tool to determine many-by-many interactions in protein libraries. It uses the yeast recombinase system to fuse prey and bait library counterparts, whose combined protein coding sequences are used for paired-end NGS to provide information about interacting pairs (Yang et al., 2018). In the future, techniques like rec-YnH could be harnessed to determine the TF-promoter interactions in microalgae on a systems level and construct TRN databases from this information (**Figure 4A**).

4.2 Position effects

When transforming transgenes into *Chlamydomonas*, commonly less than 1% of transformed cells yield clones that express these genes at a reasonably high degree (Sproles et al., 2022). Hence, vast numbers of colonies need to be screened after each experiment to find transformants with stable protein expression capabilities. Besides gene silencing mechanisms, this phenomenon can be largely attributed to the random nature of integration of heterologous DNA in the nucleus of this organism *via* non-homologous recombination (Zhang et al., 2014). This consequently results in a multitude of possible different transcriptional activities by the same construct (**Figure 4B**), being primarily dependent on the genomic context of the insertion site and complicating the usage of deep mutational screenings to systematically explore transcription determinants. These types of screenings typically involve thousands of different promoters or variants thereof (Kinney et al., 2010; Levy et al., 2017). To test a promoter library of such size, the level of reporter gene expression is usually determined, which should correspond to the strength of a particular promoter variant. However, when position effects are strong as in *Chlamydomonas*, reporter gene expression is not only determined by the promoter variant strength but also by the specific locus of integration. Assuming an exemplary library

size of 1,000 promoters, according to the findings of Lodha et al. (2008), at least 240,000 individual transformants should be analyzed to equalize the position effects for each promoter.

Thus, one solution to equalize the positional effects when testing the activity of promoter libraries in *Chlamydomonas* is to achieve a very high transformation efficiency, such to have a large coverage of the mutation variants and be able to screen massive numbers of colonies. The use of innovative electroporation technologies is a promising approach in that respect. Square wave electroporation systems, in contrast to traditional glass bead transformation or exponential decay wave electroporators, have proven high efficiency in both standard transformation procedures and sophisticated gene-editing protocols (Greiner et al., 2017; Yamano et al., 2013). Additionally, continuous-flow devices based on microfluidic droplet electroporation hold great promise due to their efficiency and adaptability for high-throughput protocols (Im et al., 2015; Yoo et al., 2018). Another approach to minimize position effects is the usage of specific strains for testing promoter collections. For example, UVM4 and UVM11, two mutant strains both carrying a defective histamine deacetylase gene reported to be responsible for suppressed gene silencing mechanisms (Neupert et al., 2009; Neupert et al., 2020), can offer a solution in this respect. On the other hand, partial position effects have still been detected in these strains (Hammel et al., 2020; Niemeyer et al., 2021). Thus, their suitability for large-scale promoter library testing remains to be verified.

Direct targeting of the specific insertion location is a third strategy to prevent variation of expression levels in transformants carrying the same DNA cassette. This can be achieved by imposing homologous recombination during transformation via ssDNA-based nuclear gene targeting or a Cas9-assisted technique (Angstenberger et al., 2020; Zorin et al., 2005). Anchoring landing pads in the *Chlamydomonas* genome for site-specific insertion of DNA also holds great promise for this purpose and proved to be effective in other biotechnologically important eukaryotic expression systems (Bourgeois et al., 2018; Gaidukov et al., 2018). However, the efficiency of these targeted insertion approaches needs to be explored.

Lastly, instead of mitigating position effects, such effects could be accounted for in large-scale promoter screenings by mapping the insertion sites of the transforming DNA cassette on the genome. Techniques such as *Chlamydomonas* MmeI-based insertion site sequencing (ChlAMmeSeq) and linear and exponential amplification of insertion site sequence coupled with paired-end sequencing (LEAP-Seq) enable the insertion sites of randomly integrated DNA cassettes to be mapped in the *Chlamydomonas* nuclear genome (Li et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2014).

4.3 Interference of endogenous nucleases

Besides the inconvenience resulting from position effects, the cleavage of expression cassettes by endogenous nucleases released during transformation complicates heterologous gene expression efforts further (Zhang et al., 2014). This results in complex insertion events where DNA is rearranged, truncated, or concatenated, which ultimately leads to an inherent degree of inconsistency when carrying out genetic modifications in the *Chlamydomonas* system (Li et al., 2016). Thus, these unexpected events make it difficult to analyse the experimental outputs, particularly in high-throughput experiments for measuring the activities of many promoter variants. To solve this problem, Sproles et al. (2022) have developed a vector system tailored to dual antibiotic selection, where two selective markers enclose the transgene of interest. They showed it can have a significantly positive effect on the anticipated phenotype, but it has the disadvantage of increasing the size of the transforming cassette as well as requiring double antibiotic selection. Advances in this respect may be provided by implementing ‘AND’ logic gates which, per definition, only result in an output if both input elements are present (**Figure 4C**). For example, protein-fragment complementation systems could be developed, composed of short interacting parts that facilitate selection only if brought together (Jillette et al., 2019).

4.4 Crosstalk between promoter and other genetic elements

A fundamental problem at the intersection between nature and engineering is the lack of predictability. Comprehensive analyses of various promoter-terminator combinations have shown synergistic interactions between them (**Figure 4D**), which in certain cases result in substantially altered promoter activity when different terminator elements are used in plants (Andreou et al., 2021). In *Chlamydomonas*, recent studies yielded somewhat contrasting information, thereby highlighting the necessity of further research to clarify the extent to which gene expression under the control of a certain promoter can be influenced by different terminators. Geisler et al. (2021) investigated the influence of nine terminators of three different size classes, tested the constructs in three commonly used strains of *Chlamydomonas* and observed only minor differences in the expression of a reporter gene. Other findings, however, showed massive differences in the performance of the same promoter with different terminator elements and support the hypothesis that the behavior of a given genetic element can be highly context dependent *Chlamydomonas* as in other systems (Crozet et al., 2018; Einhaus et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2013; López-Paz et al., 2017). Beyond promoters and terminators, other regulatory elements and/or expression systems, like the expression plasmid or the genetic background of the microalgal strain, can be expected to lead to crosstalk with the rest of the entity. It is furthermore known from various other eukaryotic taxa that promoters interact with neighbouring promoters (Hampf and Gossen, 2007), introns (Agarwal and Ansari, 2016), enhancers or other distal elements (Bulger and Groudine, 2011; Matharu and Ahituv, 2015; Sanyal et al., 2012), and thereby

vastly influence the transcriptional output. To what extent these molecular mechanisms take effect in *Chlamydomonas* however, remains an open question. Therefore, a community-wide effort is needed to not only construct uniformly performing components with minimal biological interactions, but also to test existing elements in a wide variety of contexts. In this regard, the MoClo system will be of great help by facilitating straightforward assembly of a plethora of different gene regulative components combinations.

5. Conclusions

In this review, we covered several aspects regarding the challenges and advances in promoter engineering and key strategies for strain optimization and biotechnology in microalgae. In this context, synthetic promoters will enable predictable transcriptional output and a wide activity range required for precise and tuneable gene regulation in microalgal bioengineering. We focused on synthetic promoters developed in *Chlamydomonas* due to its current standing as a model microalgal system, but the tools described here for interrogating promoter architecture can be applied as a framework for developing synthetic promoters in other, less established microalgal species.

Although synthetic promoters are currently being generated for *Chlamydomonas*, future efforts will be needed to improve this field, aided by computational strategies, such as prediction models linking sequence information to expression level, as well as high-throughput methods allowing fast screening of large and complex libraries, and NGS technologies. Moreover, to achieve real advancements in the biotechnological use of microalgae, essential knowledge gaps should be filled. These include a deep understanding of transcriptional regulation and crosstalk between different genetic elements, such as promoters and terminators, as well as developing effective ways to evade position effects in transgene expression and interference by endogenous endonucleases. In addition, although this review is mainly focused on promoters as gene regulative components, the picture is further complicated by additional genetic elements that were not discussed in this article, but that have or might have an important role in determining the transcriptional output when engineering *Chlamydomonas*, such as enhancers/silencers and insulators. Enhancers/silencers may be located remotely from the TSS but helped by chromatin remodelling, can come to interact with TFs and enhance/repress the expression of distantly located genes, with insulators working as moderators of such interactions (Riethoven, 2010). Their function is relatively well understood in plants, with insulators being thought to neutralize position effects and prevent gene silencing by heterochromatin (Bilas et al., 2016). The occurrence and function of these gene regulatory elements, as well as the understanding of how they interact with each other in microalgae, may be key to boosting their potential for biotechnology and synthetic biology.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that the work was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Table 1. Constitutive and inducible synthetic promoters and putative CREs. The main features of the synthetic promoters developed in *C. reinhardtii* are summarized, including name, origin (species/construction strategy), size, CREs, inducibility, and responsiveness to environmental conditions.

Na me	Origin	Size (bp)	CREs	Description	Refere nces
Alc R- P _{alc} A	AlcR-Palca system from <i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>	246	Three AlcR binding sites	Alcohol inducible; Co-expression of <i>alcR</i> under <i>psaD</i> promoter is required	Lee et al., 2018
AR	Hybrid of <i>HSP70A</i> and <i>RBCS2</i> promoter from <i>C. reinhardtii</i>	461	see table 2 for CREs of the promoter parts.	Constitutive; Light and heat-shock increase transcription	Schroda et al., 2000, 2002
A β SA P(i)	Hybrid of <i>HSP70A</i> and a synthetically optimized version of <i>TUB2</i> promoter from <i>C. reinhardtii</i>	473 (+268 of intronized 5' UTR)	ATANTT, CCCATGCA	Constitutive; Light and heat-shock increase transcription	Einhaus et al., 2021
pC RE -12	<i>In silico</i> identified CREs for <i>C. reinhardtii</i>	116	GGGCCCATTC; (6 motif repeats, connected to a 50 bp core promoter)	Constitutive	McQuillan et al., 2022
RI A3/ Pr om C	Hybrid of core promoter and a salt-responsive element of the <i>GPDH3</i> promoter from <i>C. reinhardtii</i>	1230 (+285 of 5' UTR)	see table 3 for CREs of the promoter parts.	Salt inducible; Concentrations of above 5 mM NaCl or 100 mM KCl are necessary	Beltran-Aguilar et al., 2019

sap 11	Computationally generated from CREs of <i>C. reinhardtii</i>	500	CCCATGCA	Constitutive	Scranton et al., 2016
SO RL IP X2	Hybrid of core promoter and two light-responsive elements of the <i>LIP</i> promoter of <i>Dunaliella</i> sp.	139	GGGCCAC	Light inducible; Strong induction through intensities above 300 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	Baek et al., 2016

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Table 2. Endogenous constitutive promoters and putative CREs. The main features of the natural promoters identified in *C. reinhardtii* are summarized, including name, motifs, and responsiveness to environmental conditions.

Name	Motifs and elements	Description	References
<i>ARG7</i>	Unknown	Constitutive Strength reported as high as that of the AR promoter	Specht et al., 2015
<i>FDX1</i> (also known as <i>PETF</i>)	Unknown	Constitutive	López-Paz et al., 2017
<i>HSP70A</i>	5 HSE ^C 4 CCAAT boxes (1 regular, 3 inverted) ^C TGAAG (-146 to -141, probably involved in light regulation) ^A	Constitutive; Transcription increases following: - Heat shock - Light	^A Kropat et al., 1995 ^B Schroda et al., 2000 ^C Lodha and Schroda, 2005
<i>IDA5</i>	Unknown	Constitutive	Kumar et al., 2013
<i>PSAD</i>	Unknown	Constitutive	Fischer and Rochaix, 2001
<i>RBCS2</i>	1 Heat-shock element (HSE) (3 nGAAn repeats in alternating orientations to make one functional HSE) ^B	Constitutive	^A Schroda et al., 2000 ^B Lodha and

	3 CCAAT (1 regular, 2 inverted) ^B		Schroda, 2005
<i>RPL23</i>	Unknown	Constitutive	López-Paz et al., 2017
<i>RPL35a</i>	Unknown	Constitutive	López-Paz et al., 2017
<i>TUB2</i>	GC rich region 10-11 bp long, between TATA box and TSS ^A 7 copies of “Tub box” (GCTC(G/C)AAGGC) ~150 bp upstream of the TSS ^{A, D}	Constitutive; Activity increases: - After deflagellation - In the mitotic phases of the cell cycle	^A Brunke et al., 1984 ^B Bandziulis and Rosenbaum, 1988 ^C Davies et al., 1992 ^D Davies and Grossman, 1994

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Table 3. Endogenous inducible promoters and putative CREs. The main features of the natural inducible promoters identified in *C. reinhardtii* are summarized, including name, motifs, inducible factors, and responsiveness to environmental conditions.

Name	Motifs and elements	Inducible factors	References
<i>AOXI</i>	Unknown	- Nitrate - Sodium azide - Nitrate and copper in combination	Baurain et al., 2003
<i>ATXI</i>	GTCGCACTGGCATGT (-529 to -515) GCAGCGATGGCATT (-300 to -286) Consensus sequence: GNNGCNNTGGCATNT	- Iron deficiency	Fei and Deng, 2007
<i>CAHI</i> (<i>Ca1</i>)	GGGTTGAANTCCC (-553 to -541) ^A CGCGCC (-319 to -313) ^A AACCCNGNTGCA (-157 to -145) ^A CAAT box ^A	- Low CO ₂ - Light	^A Kucho et al., 1999 ^B Villand et al., 1997
<i>CPXI</i>	GTAC (copper responsive element)	- Copper deficiency - Oxygen deficiency - Nickel - Cobalt	^A Quinn et al., 2000 ^B Quinn et al., 2003
<i>CYC6</i>	GTAC (-124 to -121, copper responsive element)	- Copper deficiency - Nickel - Cobalt-Oxygen deficiency	^A Quinn and Merchant, 1995 ^B Quinn et al., 2000 ^C Quinn et al., 2003
<i>FEAI</i>	CTGCGGTGGCAAAGT (-273 to -259) ^C CCGCCGNNNTGGCACCAGCCT (-106 to -85) ^C Core motif: TGGCAC	Repressed by: - Iron deficiency	^A Allen et al., 2007 ^B Barjona do Nascimento Coutinho et al., 2019 ^C Fei et al., 2009 ^D Kumar et al., 2013
<i>FOX1</i>	CACACG (-87 to -82) CACGCG (-65 to -60)	- Iron deficiency	Deng and Eriksson, 2007
<i>FTRI</i>	ATGCAGGCT (-287 to -279) AAGCGATTGCCAGAGCGC (-253 to	- Iron deficiency	Fei et al., 2010

	-236)		
<i>GPDH</i> 3	11 putative CAAT boxes Salt-responsive motif unknown	- NaCl above 100 mM - KCl above 100 mM	Beltran-Aguilar et al., 2019
<i>GPX5</i>	16 bp palindrome (GCGCCAACGTTGACGC) CRE/AP-1 binding site (TGACGCCA) GC-box or Sp1 element (CCGCCC) two CAAT boxes (CAAT and ATTG)	- Rose bengal (RB) - High light	Fischer et al., 2009
<i>HSP90</i> <i>B</i>	6 CAAT boxes 17 GC boxes 3 HSE	- Heat - ER stress	Traewachiwiphak et al., 2018
<i>LHCB</i> <i>M6</i>	Unknown	- Light - Heat shock	^A Blankenship and Kindle, 1992 ^B Kindle, 1987
<i>LHCB</i> <i>M9</i>	Unknown	- Sulfur deficiency - Combined anaerobiosis and sulfur deficiency - Light	Sawyer et al. 2015
<i>METE</i>	Unknown	Repressed by: - Cobalamin	Helliwell et al., 2014
<i>NIA1</i> (<i>NIT1</i>)	No TATA box ^B 2 repeated GGA/TAGGGT (-231 to - 219, -76 to -65 upstream TSS) ^B CGAACTT (-51 to -42) GGCCCCGGG (-33 to -8) ATGGTAGGGT (-232 to -223) AGGGAAGGGT (-80 to -69) HSEs (CNNGAANN TTC, -131 to -46) GA/TAG (-231 to -219 and -76 to -65, light induction)	- Light - Ammonium deficiency - Nitrate - Nitrite	^A Loppes et al., 1999 ^B Loppes and Radoux, 2001
<i>SQD2</i>	Unknown	- Phosphorus deficiency	Iwai et al., 2014
<i>TRXH1</i>	TCACG...TCACT (-384 to -368) TCACG...TGGCG (-360 to -344) Consensus sequence: TGACG (activation sequence-1 element)	- Mercury - Cadmium	Lemaire et al., 1999

Figure 1: A schematic microalgal promoter. The core promoter encompasses the region surrounding the transcription start site (TSS), directly upstream of the gene of interest. The pre-initiation complex (PIC), which forms the basic transcriptional machinery and contains RNA polymerase II (RNAPolII), is recruited to the core promoter to initiate transcription, guided by regulatory DNA elements such as the TATA box. Transcription factors (TFs) bind to specific DNA sequence motifs, or cis-regulatory elements (CREs), within the proximal promoter region, where they interact with the PIC to modulate transcription. Distal promoter regions can also influence transcription by stabilizing or disrupting the PIC, mediated by TFs.

Figure 2: Design strategies for synthetic genetic control elements. (A) Summary of top-down approaches. Synthetic promoters are generated by modifying native ones either by motif mutation, modification (insertion, deletion, reorganization), promoter truncation or hybridization. CREs and TSSs are represented by geometric shapes and arrows, respectively. (B) Schematic overview of key features of measured transcriptional output from synthetic promoters and their native counterpart. (C) Summary of bottom-up approaches. Synthetic promoters are generated *de novo* by computational design (model-driven strategies), assembly from motif collections, or nucleotide randomization.

Figure 3. High-throughput experimental techniques to interrogate endogenous and synthetic promoters. (A) Workflow for fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) coupled to promoter sequencing (FACS-seq). Constructs containing a promoter library and a fluorescent protein reporter gene are transformed into cells; cells are then isolated according to *in vivo* fluorescence intensity using FACS, and the barcoded promoters sequenced. (B) Overview of self-transcribing active regulatory region sequencing (STARR-seq). Constructs comprising a promoter library and barcoded reporter gene are transformed into cells; mRNA is then extracted, analyzed and quantified by NGS. (C) Workflow for DNA affinity purification sequencing (DAP-seq). Genomic DNA (gDNA) is extracted and fragmented, followed by adapter ligation; the gDNA library is affinity purified using immobilized transcription factors (TFs) fused to affinity tags. Captured DNA containing transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) are eluted and subjected to NGS. (D) Overview of chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq). Proteins and gDNA are chemically cross-linked, extracted and fragmented. TF-bound DNA fragments are immunoprecipitated using TF-specific antibodies and sequenced. (E) Overview of cap analysis of gene expression sequencing (CAGE-seq). Extracted mRNA is reverse transcribed and the cap regions biotinylated, enabling ‘cap-trapping’ of cognate single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), which is sequenced and matched to the reference genome. (F) Overview of expression level monitoring by DNA methylation sequencing (ELM-seq). Constructs comprising a promoter library, 4x GATC motifs, and DNA methylase reporter gene (*dam*) are

transformed into the host; gDNA is then extracted and digested with two restriction enzymes that discriminate between methylated and unmethylated GATC motifs; the ratio between methylated and unmethylated constructs, determined via sequencing, reveals promoter efficiency. (G) Typical outputs and more related techniques of the high-throughput experiments for promoter studies: Gene expression quantification (A, B, E, F), motif discovery and TFBS identification (A, B, C, D, E, F), promoter and TSS determination (A, E)

Figure 4. Challenges and current obstacles of *Chlamydomonas* promoter study. (A) Incomplete knowledge on promoter annotation and regulatory networks. TSS and TSR represent the transcription start site and transcription starting region, respectively. Conceptual physical interaction network of TFs (transcription factors) and CREs (cis-regulatory elements) are shown here with black lines if TFs bind to specific CREs. Also, TFs are connected with each other with blue lines if they have physical interaction. (B) Positional effect. Schematic figure showing the nucleus and transgene incorporated in a various location of the genome. Arbitrary gene expression level is represented by color. (C) Interference of endogenous nucleases. GOI represents the gene of interest. The input and output of 'AND' logic gate is represented by a table. (D) Crosstalk between promoter and terminator. Schematic representation of the transcription cycle of RNA polymerase II. Nascent mRNA is represented as the red curved line. The transcription reinitiation is started by recycling RNA polymerase after releasing terminated RNA.

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Figure 1

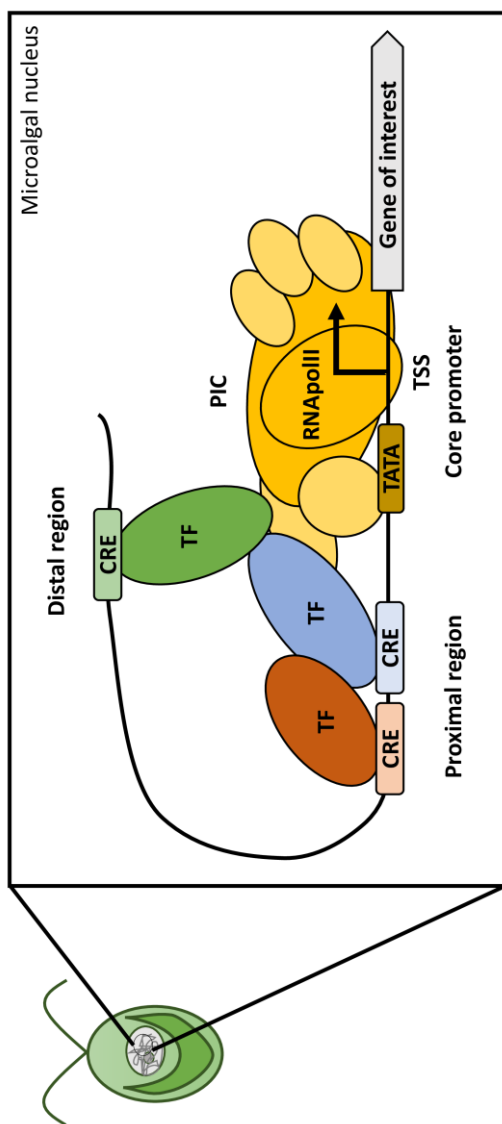


Figure 2

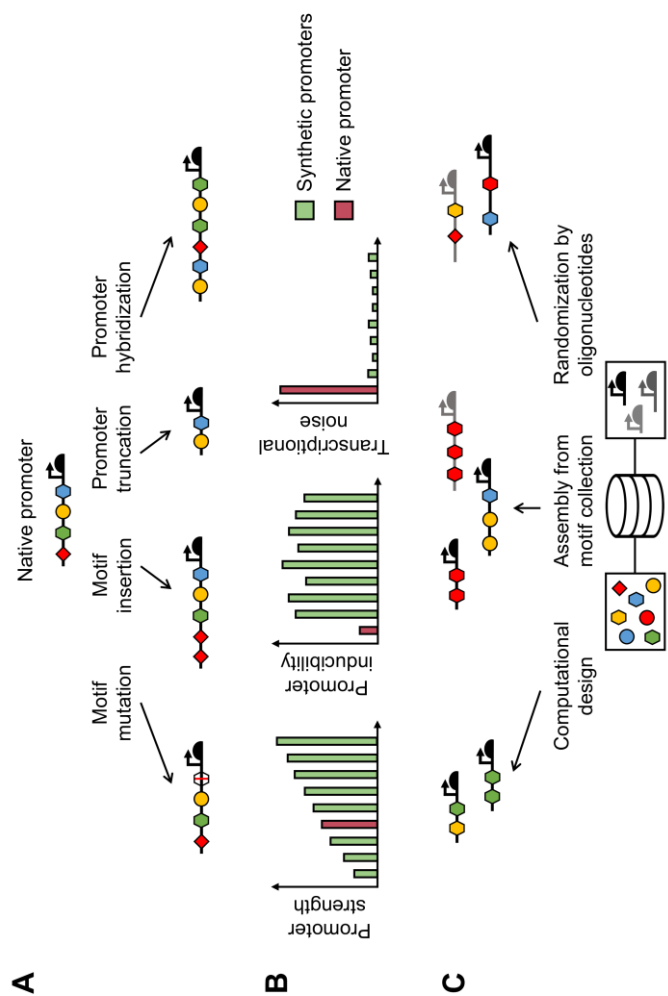


Figure 3

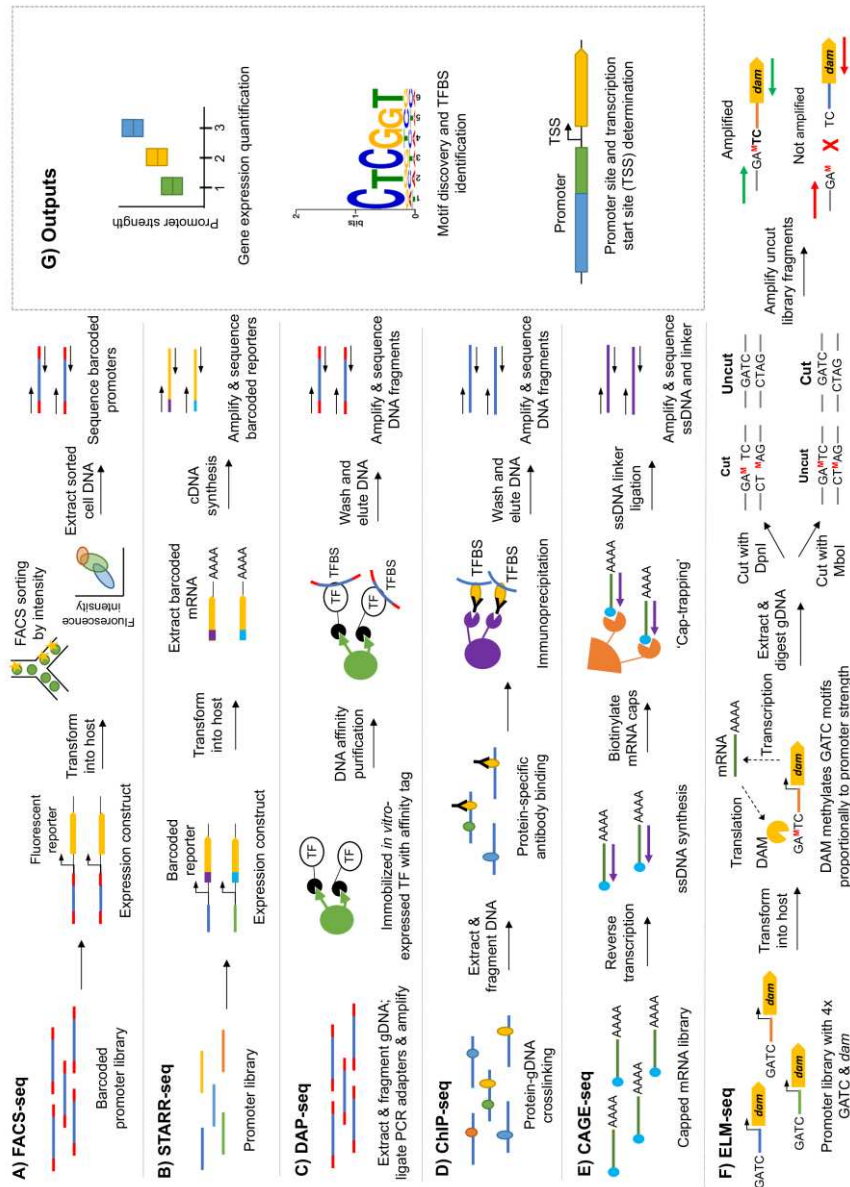
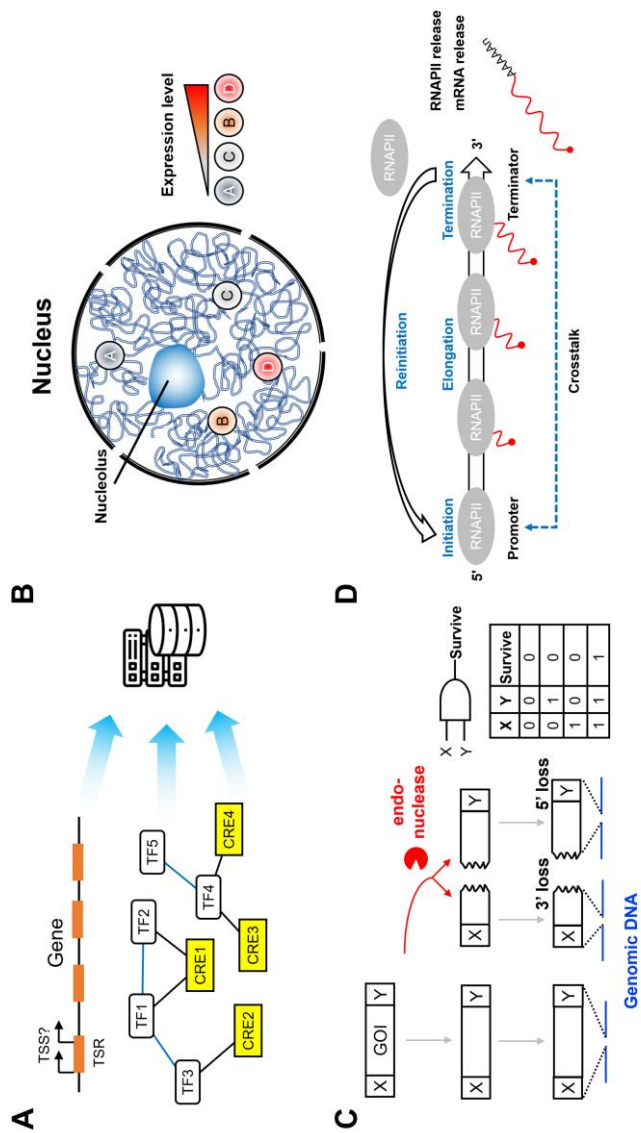


Figure 4



Accepted