

## Review

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# Energizing the plasmalemma of marine photosynthetic organisms: the role of primary active transport

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## Abstract

Generation of ion electrochemical potential differences by primary active transport can involve energy inputs from light, from exergonic redox reactions and from exergonic ATP hydrolysis. These electrochemical potential differences are important for homeostasis, for signalling, and for energizing nutrient influx. The three main ions involved are  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  (efflux) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (influx). In prokaryotes, fluxes of all three of these ions are energized by ion-pumping rhodopsins, with one archaeal rhodopsin pumping  $\text{H}^+$  into the cells; among eukaryotes there is also an  $\text{H}^+$  influx rhodopsin in *Acetabularia* and (probably)  $\text{H}^+$  efflux in diatoms. Bacteriochlorophyll-based photoreactions export  $\text{H}^+$  from the cytosol in some anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria, but chlorophyll-based photoreactions in marine cyanobacteria do not lead to export of  $\text{H}^+$ . Exergonic redox reactions export  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  in photosynthetic bacteria, and possibly  $\text{H}^+$  in eukaryotic algae. P-type  $\text{H}^+$ - and/or  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPases occur in almost all of the photosynthetic marine organisms examined. P-type  $\text{H}^+$ -efflux ATPases occur in charophycean marine algae and flowering plants whereas P-type  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPases predominate in other marine green algae and non-green algae, possibly with  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPases in some cases. An F-type  $\text{Cl}^-$ -ATPase is known to occur in *Acetabularia*. Some assignments, on the basis of genomic evidence, of P-type ATPases to  $\text{H}^+$  or  $\text{Na}^+$  as the pumped ion are inconclusive.

## Introduction

Transport of solutes and water across the plasmalemma is vital for homeostasis and growth of all organisms. For many of these solutes, and perhaps water in some cases, the movement of the ions and molecules is in the direction opposite to that dictated by the free energy difference across the plasmalemma for that ion or compound: this is the strict definition of active transport. For neutral solutes and water, the free energy difference is the difference in chemical activity (concentration times activity coefficient). For ions there is the additional component of electrical potential difference in the overall free energy difference. Active transport necessitates an input of free energy per molecule or ion transported in excess of the free energy difference per molecule or ion. We follow here the distinction made by Mitchell (1979) between primary and secondary active transport (see also Saier, 2000; Saier *et al.*, 2015). In primary active transport the energy input to the transporter is an exergonic scalar chemical reaction (e.g. oxidation of NAD(P)H by  $\text{O}_2$ ; hydrolysis of ATP to produce ADP and Pi) or photons absorbed by a chromophore component of the transporter (e.g. the retinal component of ion-pumping rhodopsins). In secondary active transport the energy input to the transporter is from the energetically downhill transmembrane flux of a driving ion or ions, with re-energization by primary active transport of those driving ions.

The three major ions involved in primary active transport at the plasmalemma of Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarya are  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Table 1 shows what is known of the distribution of these pumps among the three higher taxa and the immediate energy sources. In marine photosynthetic (including photoheterotrophic) organisms there are examples of all of the pumps in Table 1 located in the plasmalemma. It is these ions that are the focus of the subsequent discussion in this paper. Other important ions subject to primary active transport are  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , transported out of cells by P-type ATPases, that also pump, in various organisms,  $\text{Na}^+$  out:  $\text{K}^+$  in,  $\text{K}^+$  in,  $\text{Na}^+$  out,  $\text{H}^+$  out and  $\text{H}^+$  out:  $\text{K}^+$  in (Kuhlbrandt, 2004; Bublitz *et al.*, 2011; Chan *et al.*, 2011, 2012; Palmgren & Nissen, 2011; Søndergaard & Pedersen, 2015; Palmgren *et al.*, 2020). As well as variants pumping  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (topological type II: Thever & Saier, 2009, in prokaryotes and eukaryotes), there are also P-type ATPases (topological type I, Thever & Saier, 2009, not considered further here) that pump out metal cations such as Cu(I), Ag(I), Zn(II), Cd(II) and Pb(II) (Kuhlbrandt, 2004; Thever & Saier, 2009; Bublitz *et al.*, 2011; Palmgren & Nissen, 2011; Søndergaard & Pedersen, 2015). There is also an F-type  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx ATPase in the plasmalemma of some marine algae, as well as P-type  $\text{Cl}^-$ -ATPases as found in metazoans (Gerencser & Zhang, 2003; Raven, 2017). There



**Table 1.** Energy sources for primary active transporters of H<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in the Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarya

Energy source	Archaea	Bacteria	Eukarya	Reference
Light Rhodopsin	H <sup>+</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup>	H <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup>	H <sup>+</sup>	Larkum <i>et al.</i> (2018), Gleason <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Redox	H <sup>+</sup>	H <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup>	H <sup>+</sup>	Larkum <i>et al.</i> (2018), Gleason <i>et al.</i> (2019)
ATP	H <sup>+</sup>	H <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup>	H <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup>	Larkum <i>et al.</i> (2018), Gleason <i>et al.</i> (2019)

See also Kuhlbrandt (2004), Bublitz *et al.* (2011), Palmgren & Nissen (2011), Søndergaard & Pedersen (2015).

are also ATP (adenosine triphosphate) binding cassette proteins (sometimes referred to as ABC transporters) involved in active solute influx at the plasmalemma, although there is little evidence of these in marine photosynthetic organisms (Chan *et al.*, 2011, 2012; but see Badger & Price, 2003 for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> accumulation in freshwater and marine cyanobacteria).

### Possible original functions of primary active H<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> pumps at the plasmalemma

An argument for the early origin and functions of primary active H<sup>+</sup> pumps (ATP-driven; light-driven via rhodopsins) is intracellular acid-base regulation in early cells related, for example, to fermentation of neutral substrates (e.g. sugars) to organic acids (e.g. lactic acid) (Raven & Smith, 1981, 1982) in anoxic environments. Occurrence of the redox-driven or light-driven H<sup>+</sup> pumps and ATP-driven H<sup>+</sup> pumps in the plasmalemma of the same cell permits the use of redox or light energy to phosphorylate ADP to ATP, granted appropriate free energy differences and stoichiometries (Raven & Smith, 1981, 1982). Early chemolithotrophy could generate the H<sup>+</sup> free energy difference across the plasmalemma, and thence phosphorylate ADP (Russell & Hall, 1997; Martin & Russell, 2007; Mulkidjanian *et al.*, 2008; Duchazeau *et al.*, 2014; but see Jackson, 2016). In seawater at the present pH, and with intracellular (cytosolic) pH about 0.5 units lower than seawater (Raven & Smith, 1981, 1982), the electrical potential difference across the membrane must be more negative than is found in most marine eukaryotes to definitely need active H<sup>+</sup> efflux (see below). The requirement for intracellular pH regulation in oxygenic photolithotrophic marine cells involves several metabolic reactions assimilating inorganic nutrient solutes and is shown in Table 2. Volume regulation of wall-less marine cells by active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux would, in the case of primary active H<sup>+</sup> transport, involve H<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> antiport (Raven & Smith, 1982; Katz *et al.*, 1991; Gimmler, 2000).

Well characterized in the, mainly freshwater, green algal macrophytes of the Characeae (Walker *et al.*, 1980), localized active efflux of H<sup>+</sup> across the plasmalemma causes a localized acidification in the cell wall and diffusion boundary layer. This shifts the CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> equilibrium in favour of CO<sub>2</sub>, increasing the rate of uncatalysed HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> and thereby improving cellular CO<sub>2</sub> supply (Raven & Beardall, 2016). A similar mechanism is thought to occur in many marine macrophytes as a mechanism of using external HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Raven & Hurd, 2012). However, the evidence for this in marine macroalgae is indirect and based on effects of buffers on HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> use, inhibition of external carbonic anhydrase using membrane-impermeant inhibitors or a lack of effects of inhibitors of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transport (Raven & Hurd, 2012; Raven & Beardall, 2016). It is considered unlikely that this process occurs in microalgae, however, as their size would mean they have a thinner diffusive boundary layer and

greater proton leakage (Flynn *et al.*, 2012; Raven & Beardall, 2016).

For primary active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux at the plasmalemma of wall-less cells, the higher intracellular K<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> ratio in the cytosol than in a high-salinity medium such as seawater, driven by the primary active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux, could be involved in cell volume regulation, countering the Donnan effect of negative charge in the cytosol (Raven & Smith, 1982). The high K<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> in the cytosol is attributed by Dibrova *et al.* (2015) to the origin of life at inland hot springs with high K<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup>, resulting in a requirement for high (about 100 mol m<sup>-3</sup>) K<sup>+</sup> for activity of many enzymes. When life invaded the much more widespread freshwater and marine habitats with low K<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> ratios, active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux maintained high internal K<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> ratios despite a finite Na<sup>+</sup> permeability of the plasmalemma and, in some bacteria, significant energy storage as a Na<sup>+</sup> electrochemical potential gradient (Na<sup>+</sup> motive force) (Skulachev, 1984; Skulachev, 1989; Mulkidjanian *et al.*, 2008; Dibrova *et al.*, 2015). Primary active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux in the marine species of the wall-less chlorophycean *Dunaliella* spp. is involved in osmoregulation with varying external osmolarities (Ehrenfeld & Cousin, 1984; Gimmler, 2000; Popova *et al.*, 2005; Popova & Balnokin, 2013). The Na<sup>+</sup> electrochemical potential gradient is widely used in marine (and some other) photosynthetic organisms to energize the influx of nutrients and osmolytes by Na<sup>+</sup> co-transport (Raven, 1984; Chan *et al.*, 2011, 2012). A further function of the Na<sup>+</sup> electrochemical potential difference is in the action potentials in marine diatoms (Taylor, 2009; Helliwell *et al.*, 2019) and, from genomic evidence, the marine phaeophycean *Ectocarpus* and the marine prasinophyceans *Micromonas* and *Ostreococcus*, as well as freshwater chlorophyceans (Fux *et al.*, 2018). Recovery of the resting state after an action potential requires active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux, either by primary active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux, or by Na<sup>+</sup>:H<sup>+</sup> antiport following primary active H<sup>+</sup> efflux.

Primary active transport of Cl<sup>-</sup> at the plasmalemma of walled marine ulvophycean algal cells is involved in turgor generation, and in action potentials (Bisson *et al.*, 2006; Raven, 2017). At least the turgor generation role could be performed by Cl<sup>-</sup> influx coupled to H<sup>+</sup> or Na<sup>+</sup> influx and primary active H<sup>+</sup> or Na<sup>+</sup> efflux. The roles of Cl<sup>-</sup> as an essential micronutrient in photosynthesis (Raven, 2017) can be satisfied by passive Cl<sup>-</sup> distribution between seawater and the cytosol even with an inside-negative electrical potential of 150 mV, but not the role established in terrestrial flowering plants as a beneficial nutrient (Raven, 2017).

Not considered in detail here is active Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux at the plasmalemma that maintains the very low free Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration in the cytosol (100–200 μmol m<sup>-3</sup>) used in preventing damage to proteins and in signalling (Roberts *et al.*, 1994; Thompson *et al.*, 2007; Wheeler *et al.*, 2019). Ca<sup>2+</sup>-H<sup>+</sup> antiporters and Ca<sup>2+</sup> P-ATPases that are involved in Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux from the cytosol are known, on genomic evidence, to be very widespread among algae (Emery *et al.*, 2012; Palmgren *et al.*, 2020).

### Energetics of primary active transport

An important aspect of analysing primary active ion transport at the plasmalemma is the electrochemical potential difference for ions across that membrane. The electrochemical potential difference is defined by equation (1) (Mitchell, 1979; Raven, 1984; Nobel, 2009; Nichols & Ferguson, 2013).

$$\Delta(\bar{\mu})_{j^{+/-}NP} = zF\Psi_{NP} + RT \ln \frac{[j^{+/-}]_N}{[j^{+/-}]_P} \quad (1)$$

where  $\Delta(\bar{\mu})_{j^{+/-}NP}$  = electrochemical potential of ion  $j^{+/-}$  in phase N relative to that in phase P; N = electrically negative phase (cytosol for the plasmalemma); P = electrically positive phase (aqueous medium

**Table 2.** Intracellular H<sup>+</sup> production and consumption in redox reactions, and calcification, in marine phytoplankton

Element	Solute entering cell	Product	$\Delta H^+$	Elemental content, atoms relevant to P	$\Delta H^+$ inside the cell: += H <sup>+</sup> production, -= H <sup>+</sup> consumption
C	CO <sub>2</sub>	1 C in (CH <sub>2</sub> O)	0	106	0
C	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	1 C in (CH <sub>2</sub> O)	-1	106	-106
N	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	1 N in organic matter	+1 to +1.3	16	16–20.8
N	N <sub>2</sub>	1 N in organic matter	0 to +0.3	16	0–4.8
N	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	1 N in organic matter	-0.7 to -1	16	11.2–16
S	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	1 S as -SH in organic matter	-2	1	-2
C	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup>	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	+1	106	+106

Elemental atomic ratios based on the Redfield ratio, with a upper limit on reduced S from Ksionzek *et al.* (2016) since values are for total S and not all S in the cell is reduced to the -SH level. For intracellular calcification in coccolithophores (Taylor *et al.*, 2017) and some dinoflagellates (Van de Waal *et al.*, 2013), a particulate inorganic C: particulate organic C ratio of 1.0 is assumed. Other references for H<sup>+</sup>:N are assimilated from Brewer & Goldman (1976), Smith & Raven (1979) and Raven (2013).

for the plasmalemma);  $j^{z/-}$  = ion under consideration, either a cation ( $j^+$ ) or anion ( $j^-$ );  $z$  = numerical charge on the ion (+1 for H<sup>+</sup> or Na<sup>+</sup>, +2 for Ca<sup>2+</sup>, -1 for Cl<sup>-</sup>);  $F$  = Faraday constant (96,485 Joule V<sup>-1</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>);  $\Psi_{NP}$  = electrical potential of phase N relative to phase P;  $R$  = gas constant (8.314 Joule mol<sup>-1</sup>°K);  $T$  = temperature (°K);  $\ln$  = natural logarithm;  $[j^+]_N$  = concentration of  $j^+$  in phase N (mol m<sup>-3</sup>);  $[j^-]_P$  = concentration of  $j^-$  in phase P (mol m<sup>-3</sup>).

The sign of the electrochemical potential difference defines the direction of active transport of the ion, i.e. in the energetically uphill direction, requiring an input of energy from coupling to photons, exergonic redox reactions, or ATP conversion to ADP and phosphate in primary active transport, or coupling to exergonic ion fluxes in secondary active transport. The magnitude of the electrochemical potential difference defines the minimum energy input to primary or secondary active transport. As will be seen in the rest of the paper, Na<sup>+</sup> invariably, and H<sup>+</sup> very widely, are actively transported by marine photosynthetic organisms from the cytosol to the medium. If only one of these ion species, e.g. H<sup>+</sup>, is subject to primary active transport, then antiport coupling exergonic H<sup>+</sup> re-entry to secondary active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux must have a H<sup>+</sup>:Na<sup>+</sup> stoichiometry consistent with the antiport being overall exergonic.

Hereinafter, the electrical potential of the cytosol (N phase) relative to the outside medium (P phase) is represented as  $\Psi_{CO}$ .

### Organisms with ion-pumping rhodopsins

Ion-pumping rhodopsins are light energy transducers that bring about active ion transport as the sole product of the photochemical reaction usable in cell metabolism (Oesterhelt & Stoekenius, 1973). The photoreaction and ion transport occurs using a single retinol-binding opsin protein, and brings about positive charge (H<sup>+</sup> or Na<sup>+</sup>) flux from the N to the P side of the membrane, or negative charge (Cl<sup>-</sup>) flux from the P to the N side of the membrane, where 'N' and 'P' are as defined by Mitchell (1979). For the plasmalemma, the cytosol is the N side and the outside medium is the P side (see equation (1)).

Some marine bacteria have rhodopsins that pump H<sup>+</sup> or Na<sup>+</sup> out of the cells, or Cl<sup>-</sup> into the cells; some marine Archaea have been shown to have H<sup>+</sup> efflux or Cl<sup>-</sup> influx rhodopsins, but there are no reports of Na<sup>+</sup> efflux rhodopsins in Archaea (Oesterhelt & Stoekenius, 1973; Bejá & Lanyi, 2014; Yoshizawa *et al.*, 2014; Larkum *et al.*, 2018). Unexpectedly, there is an inwardly directed H<sup>+</sup> pump driven by xenorhodopsin in *Nanosalina* (Shevchenko *et al.*, 2017); the significance of this energized, but energetically downhill, flux is not clear. Some marine Archaea and bacteria have autotrophic CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation pathways, but none of these are energized entirely by ion-pumping rhodopsins

despite the possibility of such energization (Raven & Smith, 1981; Raven, 2009a, 2009b; Berg *et al.*, 2010; Bejá & Lanyi, 2014; Larkum *et al.*, 2018). A marine aerobic anoxygenic photoheterotrophic bacterium, with bacteriochlorophylls, also has an H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsin, presumably in the plasmalemma (Larkum *et al.*, 2018). There seem to be no reports of ion-pumping rhodopsins in marine aerobic or anaerobic anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria, or in marine photosynthetic cyanobacteria, although a freshwater/terrestrial cyanobacterium (*Gloeobacter*) has a H<sup>+</sup> efflux rhodopsin, with respiratory and photosynthetic H<sup>+</sup> pumps, in the plasmalemma (Larkum *et al.*, 2018). In an analysis of the energetics of phototrophic marine picoplankton, ion-pumping rhodopsins are major energy-transducing pigments in the ocean in organisms that are small enough to pass through a 2 µm filter (Gómez-Consarnau *et al.*, 2019; see also Kirchman & Hanson, 2013).

Ion-pumping rhodopsins also occur in eukaryotes. Among marine photosynthetic eukaryotes, the best-characterized case of ion-pumping rhodopsin in the plasmalemma is in *Acetabularia*, which contains an H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsin. Paradoxically, this rhodopsin moves H<sup>+</sup> into the cytosol, rather than the expected direction of acting as a H<sup>+</sup> efflux pump (Raven, 2009a; Wada *et al.*, 2011; Bejá & Lanyi, 2014; Tamogami *et al.*, 2017; Larkum *et al.*, 2018), i.e. in the same direction as the inwardly directed H<sup>+</sup> pump driven by xenorhodopsin in the bacterium *Nanosalina* (Shevchenko *et al.*, 2017). The Cl<sup>-</sup> ATPase in the plasmalemma of *Acetabularia* generates a  $\Psi_{CO}$  of -180 mV, inside negative, in the light that, with a probable cytosol pH between 7 and 8, means an inwardly directed H<sup>+</sup> electrochemical difference. This means that the H<sup>+</sup>-transporting rhodopsin 'pumps' H<sup>+</sup> downhill. Other cases, where it is thought that the H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsin is in the plasmalemma and functions in H<sup>+</sup> efflux, are found in some diatoms where it is thought to be an Fe-sparing way of energizing the plasmalemma (Raven, 2009a; Slamovits *et al.*, 2011; Marchetti *et al.*, 2015; Cohen *et al.*, 2017; Larkum *et al.*, 2018). In at least one case (the dinoflagellate *Noctiluca* which lacks oxygenic photosynthesis, except by symbiosis) the H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsin is found in a digestive vacuole; H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsins also occur in dinoflagellates with oxygenic photosynthesis (Slamovits *et al.*, 2011; Vader *et al.*, 2018).

It is clear that there is a significant variation in the phylogenetic analysis, and the richness of relevant data available among taxa. This is also the case for data considered below for organisms with bacteriochlorophylls and chlorophylls.

### Organisms with bacteriochlorophylls

The anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria function as photolithotrophs with reductants other than water in anaerobic environments

or photoheterotrophically by assimilating CO<sub>2</sub> with an organic reductant more oxidizing than H<sub>2</sub> in anaerobic environments. In both of these cases autotrophic CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation pathways are used (Larkum *et al.*, 2018). These photolithotrophic organisms occupy geographically limited benthic marine anoxic illuminated habitats. The other marine bacteria with bacteriochlorophyll are the planktonic aerobic anoxygenic bacteria (Kolber *et al.*, 2001) that lack autotrophic CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation pathways, and so are photoheterotrophs (Larkum *et al.*, 2018; Gómez-Consarnau *et al.*, 2019). Bacteriochlorophylls are less significant in terms of photon absorption than ion-pumping rhodopsins or than chlorophylls as energy-transducing pigments in the ocean in organisms capable of passing through a 2 µm filter (Gómez-Consarnau *et al.*, 2019; see also Kirchman & Hanson, 2013).

Bacteriochlorophylls, like chlorophylls but unlike ion-pumping rhodopsins, are light energy transducers that indirectly bring about active transport of H<sup>+</sup>. The primary photochemistry moves an electron from a high potential electron donor on the P side of the membrane (*sensu* Mitchell, 1979) to a low potential acceptor on the N side of the membrane (*sensu* Mitchell, 1979) (equation (1)). H<sup>+</sup> active transport from the P to the N side of the membrane is a result of secondary, thermodynamically downhill, redox reactions.

The freshwater and marine Chlorobi and Chloroflexi and, in inland hot springs, Acidobacteria, are photolithotrophic bacteria with light-harvesting bacteriochlorophyll *c* in chlorosomes. These organisms have no intracellular membranes, and have either Type 1 (Chlorobi, Acidobacteria) or Type 2 (Chloroflexi) reaction centres and associated redox catalysts, and the (photo-)redox H<sup>+</sup> pumps and H<sup>+</sup> electrochemical difference-driven F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> ATP synthases, are in their plasmalemma (Adams *et al.*, 2013; Larkum *et al.*, 2018). This plasmalemma location of photochemistry is also the case for the firmicute *Heliobacterium* without chlorosomes and with Type 1 reaction centres. H<sup>+</sup> efflux across the plasmalemma is driven by light energy in the photoperiod, and by non-photochemical redox reactions in the scotophase. The H<sup>+</sup> free energy difference across the plasmalemma in the light is large enough to synthesize ATP, granted the H<sup>+</sup>:ATP ratio of the bacterial F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> ATP synthase (Larkum *et al.*, 2018).

The marine photosynthetic Proteobacteria with Type 2 reaction centres are the anaerobic photolithotrophic purple sulphur bacteria, and the anaerobic or aerobic photoheterotrophic purple non-sulphur bacteria. These organisms have their Type 2 reaction centres in plasmalemma invaginations and/or intracellular vesicles or flattened thylakoids (Larkum *et al.*, 2018). These structural features mean that most, or all, of the photochemistry and associated H<sup>+</sup> pumping is in membranes other than the plasmalemma that directly exchanges solutes with the bulk medium. It is, however, unclear what primary ion pumps occur in those parts of the plasmalemma that are not invaginated, and so are involved in nutrient uptake.

The marine anaerobic anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria of the Chlorobi, Chloroflexi and Proteobacteria make a very small contribution (less than 0.1%) to global marine primary productivity (Johnson *et al.*, 2009; Raven, 2009b). Photons absorbed by marine aerobic anoxygenic photoheterotrophic bacteria probably make a larger contribution (0.5–5%) to global marine primary productivity than the anaerobic anoxygenic photolithotrophic bacteria (Kolber *et al.*, 2000, 2001; Goericke, 2002; Johnson *et al.*, 2009; Raven, 2009b; Kirchman & Hanson, 2013; Gómez-Consarnau *et al.*, 2019).

## Organisms with chlorophylls

### Cyanobacteria

Some phylogenetic evidence is consistent with a freshwater/terrestrial origin of cyanobacteria (Blank & Sánchez-Baracaldo, 2010;

Blank, 2013b; Sánchez-Baracaldo *et al.*, 2014). Data from freshwater cyanobacteria show that respiratory and photosynthetic redox and proton pumping reactions, and the associated CF<sub>0</sub>CF<sub>1</sub> ATP synthase, occur in thylakoids. The exception is in *Gloeobacter*, where there are no thylakoids and photosynthesis and respiration, and ion-pumping rhodopsin, as well as nutrient transporters, occur in the plasmalemma (Mullineaux, 2014; Lea-Smith *et al.*, 2016). The plasmalemma of thylakoid-containing freshwater Cyanobacteria has vanadate-sensitive (presumably ATP-driven) H<sup>+</sup> efflux (Scherer & Böger, 1984; Kaplan *et al.*, 1989; Schultze *et al.*, 2009), and can oxidize NAD(P)H and reduce O<sub>2</sub>; and contains plastoquinone (PQ) and ATP synthase (Mullineaux, 2014; Lea-Smith *et al.*, 2016), and moves protons out of the cell (Scherer *et al.*, 1984). While this is consistent with primary active H<sup>+</sup> efflux at the plasmalemma in freshwater cyanobacteria, the work of Ritchie (1992) shows that there is an electrogenic Na<sup>+</sup> efflux pump at the plasmalemma of *Synechococcus* R2, and that the H<sup>+</sup> efflux involves a Na<sup>+</sup>:H<sup>+</sup> antiporter. This Na<sup>+</sup> active efflux occurs over a wide range of external pH (5–10), K<sup>+</sup> (0.1–300 mol m<sup>-3</sup>) and Na<sup>+</sup> (0.1–300 mol m<sup>-3</sup>). The halophilic, alkalophilic cyanobacterium *Aphanothece halophytica* has a Na<sup>+</sup>-dependent F<sub>0</sub>F<sub>1</sub> ATP synthase which, working as an ATPase in the plasmalemma, could act in active Na<sup>+</sup> efflux (Wiangno *et al.*, 2007; Soontharapirakkul & Incharoensakdi, 2010; Soontharapirakkul *et al.*, 2011; see prediction by Mitchell, 1979). Gabbay-Azaria *et al.* (2000) demonstrated cytochrome oxidase activity in the plasmalemma of the marine cyanobacterium *Spirulina subsalsa* (now *Arthrospira subsalsa*) that could be involved in active H<sup>+</sup> efflux (Gabbay-Azaria *et al.*, 1992). Bergman *et al.* (1993) found cytochrome oxidase in the plasmalemma as well as the thylakoid membranes of the marine diazotrophic cyanobacterium *Trichodesmium thiebaultii*. A P-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> ATPase has been found in a marine cyanobacterium that can excavate solid CaCO<sub>3</sub> (Garcia-Pichel *et al.*, 2010).

Na<sup>+</sup> symport of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is one of the means of concentrating inorganic C in freshwater cyanobacterial cells, although these organisms also have other HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters, one of which is an ABC transporter (Omata *et al.*, 1999; Badger & Price, 2003). Freshwater cyanobacteria also use ABC transporters for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Maeda & Omata, 1997). However, the HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporters in marine cyanobacteria are not ABC transporters such as occur in their freshwater counterparts (Wang *et al.*, 2000; Badger & Price, 2003; Maeda *et al.*, 2015).

### Eukaryotic algae: relation to the supergroups in the New Tree of Life

Almost all eukaryotic photolithotrophs have a photosynthetic apparatus most of whose core genes were derived from endosymbiosis of a freshwater β-cyanobacterium with a non-photosynthetic unicellular eukaryote to comprise the Archaeplastida (Burki *et al.*, 2020; Palmgren *et al.*, 2020). 'Green' Archaeplastida with chlorophyll *b* produced, by endosymbiosis in an Excavate cell, the secondarily photosynthetic Euglenophyta and, by endosymbiosis in a cell of the Rhizaria in the TSAR (Telonemia, Stramenopila, Alveolata, Rhizaria) supergroup, the secondarily photosynthetic Chlorarachniophyta. In a further set of secondary endosymbioses, 'Red' Archaeplastida with phycobilins produced, in cells of the Cryptista, the phycobilin-containing Cryptophyta and, with the loss of light-harvesting phyobilins, in cells of the Haptista to produce the Haptophyta, and in cells of the TSAR supergroup to produce the chromerids and dinoflagellates in the Alveolata, and the Ochista in the Stramenopila. A very small minority of photolithotrophic eukaryotes (the genus *Paulinella*) arose by endosymbiosis of an α-cyanobacterium in a rhizarian (TSAR supergroup) (Nowack, 2014).

*Eukaryotic algae: Archaeplastida (Glaucophyta, Rhodophyta, Chlorophyta, algal members of the Streptophyta)*

The primary endosymbiosis of a  $\beta$ -cyanobacterium in an aerobic eukaryote that gave rise to chloroplasts of the Archaeplastida involved a cyanobacterium whose closest living relative is the freshwater *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (Brasier, 2013; Blank, 2013a; Lewis, 2017; Ponce-Toledo *et al.*, 2017; Sánchez-Baracaldo *et al.*, 2017). The basal extant Archaeplastida are the freshwater Glaucophyta; the basal Rhodophyta, the Cyanidiphyceae, are non-marine, but their habitat of acid hot springs cannot be described as freshwater (Dittami *et al.*, 2017). There have been numerous freshwater–marine transitions in the Rhodophyta and, especially, in the Chlorophyta, but less so in the predominantly freshwater algal Streptophyta (Dittami *et al.*, 2017). These habitat variations make it difficult to predict which primary active ion transporters occur in the plasmalemma of these organisms.

In the Rhodophyta, the non-marine (acid hot spring) *Cyanidium caldarium*, *Cyanidioschyzon merolae* and *Galdieria sulphuraria* (Cyanidiphyceae) have P-type  $H^+$ -ATPases but not  $Na^+$ -ATPases (Ohta *et al.*, 1997; Lee *et al.*, 2017). Two  $Na^+$ -ATPases (PyKPA1 and PyKPA2) have been characterized in the marine bangiophycean *Porphyra yezoensis* (now *Pyropia yezoensis*) (Barrero-Gil *et al.*, 2005; Uji *et al.*, 2012a, 2012b; see also Chan *et al.*, 2012; Kishimoto *et al.*, 2013). This organism also has two plasmalemma  $Na^+/H^+$  antiporters (Uji *et al.*, 2012b). An  $Na^+:H^+$  antiporter has also been described in *Pyropia haitanensis* by Chen *et al.* (2019), who assume, on the basis of vanadate inhibition, that there is a  $H^+$ -ATPase at the plasmalemma of this alga. However, vanadate inhibition is the case for all P and F ATPases (Müller *et al.*, 1999; Araki & González, 1998; Kuhlbrandt, 2004; Hong & Pedersen, 2008; Pedersen *et al.*, 2012), but to a much smaller extent for V ATPases (Müller *et al.*, 1996; Araki & González, 1998). Accordingly, vanadate is a general inhibitor of  $H^+$ ,  $Na^+$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  P-ATPases, and is not specific for  $H^+$  ATPases. Reed *et al.* (1981) and Reed & Collins (1981) examined the energetics of ion transport in *Porphyra purpurea* over a wide range of hypo- and hyper-saline (relative to seawater) media. Under all salinities (1/16 seawater to 3 $\times$  seawater) there is active  $Na^+$  efflux (Reed *et al.*, 1981). It should be noted that the measurement of  $\Psi_{CO}$  in the essentially non-vacuolate *Porphyra purpurea* cells by Reed and co-workers was determined using the distribution of the lipophilic cation TPMP $^+$ ; there are reservations about the use of this method of measuring transplasmalemma electrical potential differences in eukaryotes (Ritchie, 1982, 1984). The floridiophycean *Chondrus crispus* has a P-type  $Na^+$ -ATPase but no  $H^+$ -ATPase (Lee *et al.*, 2017). There seem to be no relevant data for freshwater red algae.

In the Chlorophyta, the microalgal Prasinophyceae occur in marine and also freshwater habitats (Tragin & Vault, 2018; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). There is functional evidence for the presence in the plasmalemma of the marine *Tetraselmis* (= *Platymonas*) *viridis* of an ATP-driven  $Na^+$  pump (Balnokin & Popova, 1994; Balnokin *et al.*, 1997, 1999, 2004; Gimmler, 2000; Pagis *et al.*, 2001, 2003; Popova & Balnokin, 2013) and an ATP-driven  $H^+$  pump (Popova & Balnokin, 1992; Gimmler, 2000; Pagis *et al.*, 2003). There is genomic evidence of a P-type  $Na^+$ -ATPase in the marine *Ostreococcus tauri* (Rodríguez-Navarro & Benito, 2010). Gimmler (2000) provides an energetic background to infer the presence of active  $H^+$  and  $Na^+$  efflux in *Tetraselmis viridis*, although there are no data from that organism on the electrical potential difference across the plasmalemma, or  $Na^+$  and  $H^+$  concentrations in the cytoplasm.

The Chlorophyta: Chlorophyceae are mainly freshwater but with some marine representatives (Tragin & Vault, 2018; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020), the P-type ATPases of the genus

*Dunaliella* has been the subject of considerable investigation (Wolf *et al.*, 1995; Weiss & Pick, 1996; Popova *et al.*, 2018). Sequences encoding P-type  $H^+$ -ATPases have been found in the genomes of the halophilic *Dunaliella bioculata* (Smahel *et al.*, 1990; Wolf *et al.*, 1995), *Dunaliella salina* (Weiss & Pick, 1996; Katz *et al.*, 2007), *Dunaliella bioculata* (Bertucci *et al.*, 2010) and *Dunaliella tertiolecta* (Popova *et al.*, 2018), as well as the acidophilic *Dunaliella acidophila* (Weiss & Pick, 1996; Bertucci *et al.*, 2010). While Popova *et al.* (2018) could not find a P-type  $Na^+$ -ATPase in the genome of *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, Popova *et al.* (2005; see also Shumkova *et al.*, 2000) functionally identified an electrogenic  $Na^+$ -translocating ATPase in *Dunaliella maritima* using inside-out plasmalemma vesicles (see also Popova & Balnokin, 2013). The possibility of a primary  $H^+$  pump with  $H^+:Na^+$  antiport was ruled out by the observation of stimulation, rather than inhibition, of  $Na^+$  transport by the uncoupler CCCP (m-chlorophenyl carbonyl cyanide phenylhydrazone). Popova *et al.* (2005) did not attempt to identify whether the catalyst of  $Na^+$  transport was a P-type ATPase. Further investigation is needed into the possibility of direct redox energization of  $Na^+$  efflux from *Dunaliella salina* (Katz & Pick, 2001). The freshwater *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* has a P-type  $Na^+$ -ATPase (Barrero-Gil *et al.*, 2005; Rodríguez-Navarro & Benito, 2010), as well as a P-type  $H^+$ -ATPase (Campbell *et al.*, 2001; Barrero-Gil *et al.*, 2005; Bertucci *et al.*, 2010).

An important aspect of the functioning of primary active transport of  $H^+$  and  $Na^+$  in driving symport, antiport and uniport of other solutes by *Dunaliella* is the free energy difference across the plasmalemma. There are several reports of intracellular  $Na^+$  concentrations (Katz & Avron, 1985; Bental *et al.*, 1986; Pick *et al.*, 1986; Wegmann, 1986; Gimmler, 2000), cytoplasmic pH (Burns & Beardall, 1987; Gimmler *et al.*, 1988; Ginzburg *et al.*, 1988; Gimmler, 2000) and  $\Psi_{CO}$  (Gimmler & Greenway, 1983; Oren-Shamir *et al.*, 1990; see the critique by Ritchie, 1982, 1984) in a variety of halophilic *Dunaliella* species.  $\Psi_{CO}$  of *Dunaliella acidophila* has been measured using the preferable microelectrodes method (Remis *et al.*, 1992), but not so far for halophilic *Dunaliella* species. The thermodynamic analysis by Gimmler (2000) dealt with *Dunaliella salina* and suggested active efflux of both  $H^+$  and  $Na^+$ , and pre-dates the discovery of the electrogenic  $Na^+$  ATPase in *Dunaliella maritima* (Popova *et al.*, 2005; see also Shumkova *et al.*, 2000). Khranov *et al.* (2019) showed increased transcript abundance of a putative  $H^+$  P-ATPase under hypersaline conditions in *Dunaliella maritima*.

As with the Chlorophyceae, the Chlorophyta: Trebouxiophyceae are mainly freshwater but with some marine members (Tragin & Vault, 2018; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). There is genomic evidence of both  $Na^+$ -ATPase and  $H^+$ -ATPases in the halotolerant *Picochlorum* sp. (Foflonker *et al.*, 2014). The only contribution to a thermodynamic analysis of the need for active  $H^+$  and/or  $Na^+$  efflux is the work of Bock *et al.* (1996) who, using  $^{31}P$  NMR, found a cytoplasmic pH of 7.8 in the high intertidal–supralittoral macroalga *Prasiola crispa*. For a freshwater *Chlorella* sp. there is genomic evidence of a  $Na^+$ -ATPase (Uji *et al.*, 2012a), and functional evidence consistent with a  $H^+$ -ATPase (Komar *et al.*, 1989).

The earliest Chlorophyta: Ulvophyceae fossils are from marine sediments, and most extant ulvophyceans are marine, exceptions being the freshwater *Dichotomosiphon* and some species of *Cladophora* and the terrestrial Trentepohliales (Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). Blount & Levedahl (1960) found active electrogenic  $Na^+$  efflux and  $Cl^-$  influx in the marine gametophyte *Halicystis ovalis* phase of the marine ulvophycean *Derbesia marina*. There is genomic evidence for a P-type  $Na^+$  ATPase of the marine ulvophycean *Flabellia petiolata* (formerly *Udotea petiolata*) (Rodríguez-Navarro & Benito, 2010), and for a number of

P-type ATPases in *Ulva* (Zhang *et al.*, 2012; De Clerck *et al.*, 2018).

Blinks (1940, 1949) showed that *Halicystis ovalis* (the giant-celled coenocytic gametophyte phase of *Derbesia marina*) had a potential difference between the vacuole and seawater medium ( $\Psi_{VO}$ ) of  $-75$  to  $-80$  mV; for *Halicystis osterhoutii* (the gametophyte phase of *Derbesia osterhoutii*) the value is  $-65$  to  $-70$  mV. Replacing external  $Cl^-$  with  $NO_3^-$  (or  $SO_4^{2-}$ , or a number of organic anions) caused the potential difference to become negligible, or positive. This is consistent with the short-circuit current experiments of Blount & Levedahl (1960) showing the occurrence of an electrogenic  $Cl^-$  influx pump in *Halicystis ovalis*. Graves & Gutknecht (1976, 1977a, 1977b) examined ion concentrations and fluxes, and the effects of decreased external  $Cl^-$  and low temperatures and of clamped  $\Psi_{VO}$ , in the gametophyte *Halicystis parvula* phase of *Derbesia tenuissima*, and also concluded that there is an electrogenic  $Cl^-$  influx pump. Graves & Gutknecht (1976, 1977a, 1977b) infer that the  $Cl^-$  pump is at the plasmalemma, as is the case for *Acetabularia*, discussed below.

Saddler (1970a, 1970b) measured ion ( $K^+$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $Cl^-$ ) fluxes between uninucleate giant-celled marine *Acetabularia* and the seawater medium, and electrical properties of the cell, concluding that there was an electrogenic  $Cl^-$  influx pump. The occurrence of active electrogenic  $Cl^-$  influx was confirmed by Mummert & Gradmann (1976) and by Gradmann *et al.* (1982). The  $\Psi_{CO}$  in the light is  $-170$  mV (Saddler, 1970a) to  $-180$  mV (Amtmann & Gradmann, 1994). Saddler (1970a, 1970b) suggested that cytoplasmic  $Cl^-$  in *Acetabularia* is the same ( $500 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ ) as that in seawater, although this is not consistent with observed inhibitory effects of  $Cl^-$  on metabolism (Raven, 2017). Using the value of  $500 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$  for cytoplasmic  $Cl^-$ , the electrochemical potential gradient for  $Cl^-$  is  $17$ – $18 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , driving  $Cl^-$  from the cytoplasm to the medium (Saddler, 1970a, 1970b). Mummert & Gradmann (1991a) showed the role of  $Cl^-$  in the action potential of *Acetabularia*, and also (Mummert & Gradmann, 1991a, 1991b) discovered the role of vesicular transport of ions across the cytosol to the vacuole. The  $Cl^-$  influx is driven by a  $Cl^-$ -ATPase (Gradmann *et al.*, 1982; Goldfarb & Gradmann, 1983; Ohhashi *et al.*, 1992) inhibited by vanadate (Smahel *et al.*, 1992; see discussion of vanadate inhibition of primary active ion-pumping ATPase under 'Rhodophyta' above). Goldfarb *et al.* (1984) reported that the  $Cl^-$  pump can be reversed, coupled to net ATP synthesis (as in the prediction of Mitchell, 1979). Ikeda *et al.* (1990a, 1990b) showed that the  $Cl^-$ -ATPase was not identical with the (C)F ATPase of the  $F_0F_1/CF_0CF_1$  ATP synthase, but Ikeda *et al.* (1997) demonstrated the interchangeability of the b subunit of the *Acetabularia*  $Cl^-$ -ATPase and the  $\beta$ -subunit of the *Escherichia coli* F-ATPase. Finally, Moritani *et al.* (1997) determined the primary structure of the b subunit of the *Acetabularia*  $Cl^-$ -ATPase. There seems to have been no further work on this  $Cl^-$ -ATPase other than studies on action potentials (Raven, 2017).

For the major ions commonly subject to primary active transport,  $Na^+$  and  $H^+$ , the cytoplasmic  $Na^+$  concentration in *Acetabularia* is  $60 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$  (Amtmann & Gradmann, 1994), and the cytoplasmic pH is estimated at 8.0–8.4 using pH indicators, and pH 7.6–7.7 from the pH at which isolated intact chloroplasts exhibit their highest rate of photosynthesis (Dodd & Bidwell, 1971). If external  $Na^+$  is  $450 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ , the internal:external  $Na^+$  concentration difference is 0.133, the electrochemical potential difference for  $Na^+$  is  $22 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  and will drive  $Na^+$  into the cell. For  $H^+$ , the indicator dye-measured cytoplasmic pH of 8.0–8.2 (Dodd & Bidwell, 1971) is essentially identical to that of seawater, so the electrochemical potential difference for  $H^+$  is  $17 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , driving  $H^+$  into the cell. No evidence is available for the occurrence of primary active transport processes at

the plasmalemma of *Acetabularia* other than the inward  $Cl^-$  pump and the inward  $H^+$  pump. If secondary active efflux of  $Na^+$  is driven by  $Cl^-$  symport, granted the electrochemical potentials for the two ions calculated above, the  $Cl^-:Na^+$  ratio must be not less than 2. Active  $H^+$  efflux cannot be driven by the inwardly directed  $H^+$ -pumping rhodopsin. Since the calculated electrochemical potential differences for  $H^+$  and  $Cl^-$  are equal and opposite, net  $H^+$  efflux driven by  $Cl^-$  efflux requires a ratio of  $Cl^-:H^+ > 1.0$ .

Other large-celled ulvophyceans include the Siphonocladales and Cladophorales, mainly marine and comprising one or more coenocytic cells. In the cases examined, the vacuole-positive electrical potential difference across the tonoplast is much greater than in other vacuolated organisms, in some cases making the inside-positive tonoplast–medium electrical potential difference greater than the inside-negative cytosol–medium electrical potential difference (Hope & Walker, 1975). There are data for the giant-celled marine *Chaetomorpha darwinii* (now *Chaetomorpha coliforme*) on the  $\Psi_{CO}$  of  $-72$  mV, cytoplasmic  $Na^+$  concentration ( $25 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ ) and cytoplasmic pH (pH 8.0–8.3 in the light; pH 7.5–7.8 in the dark), with external  $Na^+$   $500 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$  and external pH 8.0. The free energy difference across the plasmalemma, cytosol relative to medium, for  $H^+$  is  $-7.6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , driving  $H^+$  into the cell, and  $-12.6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for  $Na^+$ , also driving  $Na^+$  into the cell (Dodd *et al.*, 1966; Findlay *et al.*, 1971; Raven and Smith, 1980), in the light. No data are available for electrical potentials, or intracellular ion concentrations, in the dark. Less information is available for the closely related large-celled alga, i.e. species of *Valonia*, *Valoniopsis* and *Ventricularia* (Bisson *et al.*, 2006), but the available information is consistent with a situation similar to that in *Chaetomorpha darwinii*.

Finally among the Ulvophyceae, there are important data on *Ulva* spp., now incorporating the genera *Ulva* and *Enteromorpha* (Hayden *et al.*, 2003). *Ulva* is multicellular, with small cells of which half or less of the volume is taken up by a vacuole. Ritchie (1985) examined the energetics of ion transport in *Enteromorpha* (= *Ulva*) *intestinalis*. The cytoplasmic pH was not measured in that study so Ritchie (1985) used a value of pH 7.3 from a wide range of studies on (mostly non-marine) cyanobacteria, eukaryotic algae and plants, with an external pH of 8.0. With the measured  $\Psi_{CO}$  of  $-54 \pm 5$  mV in seawater in the light, and  $-30 \pm 5$  mV in the dark, the proton electrochemical potential difference across the plasmalemma is not significantly different from zero (Ritchie, 1985). For  $Na^+$ , the ion most likely to be subject to primary active efflux in *Ulva*, the electrochemical potential difference (cytosol relative to medium) across the plasmalemma is  $-15.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the light and  $-13.1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the dark (Ritchie, 1985).

There are also data for the closely related *Ulva lactuca*. Reed & Collins (1981) used the distribution of the lipid-soluble cation TPMP<sup>+</sup> to measure  $\Psi_{CO}$  for *Ulva lactuca* cells in seawater; they found values of  $-54 \pm 1.8$  mV in the light and  $-44 \pm 3.5$  mV in the dark. Ritchie (1988), using microelectrodes, showed that  $\Psi_{CO}$  of *U. lactuca* in seawater was  $-39 \pm 1.1$  mV in the light and  $-25 \pm 1.9$  mV in the dark. In view of the comments by Ritchie (1982, 1984) on problems with the use of lipid-soluble cations to estimate the electrochemical potential difference between cells and the medium in eukaryotes, the following calculations use the electrical potential difference values of Ritchie (1988). Thus, using intracellular and extracellular  $Na^+$  concentrations, we calculate the electrochemical potential difference for  $Na^+$  (cytosol relative to medium) across the plasmalemma to be  $-13.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the light and  $-12.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the dark. Ritchie (1988) does not give values for the electrochemical potential differences for  $H^+$  across the plasmalemma, but with the assumption made by Ritchie (1985) for cytoplasmic pH (7.3), the  $H^+$

electrochemical potential difference (cytosol relative to medium) across the plasmalemma is  $+0.30 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the light and  $+1.65 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  in the dark. The choice of using the cytoplasmic pH value of Ritchie (1988) is supported by Lundberg *et al.* (1989) who, using  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR, found a cytoplasmic pH of 7.2 in *U. lactuca*.

The algal members of the Streptophyta are the Charophyceae *sensu lato* (Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). The most morphologically complex of the Charophyceae are the Charales with most of the thallus volume occupied by giant cells (Beilby, 2015; Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018). Most of the Charales are freshwater, although some species occur in brackish waters (e.g. in the Baltic) and *Lamprothamnium* spp. grows in coastal lagoons with very large changes in salinity, with the highest values twice that of seawater (Beilby, 2015). Energization of transport at the plasmalemma of *Lamprothamnium*, like that of freshwater Charales, involves a P-type  $\text{H}^+$  efflux ATPase, with active  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux driven by  $\text{H}^+$  antiport and active  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx driven by  $\text{H}^+$  symport (Beilby, 2015). The electrochemical potential difference across the plasmalemma for  $\text{H}^+$ , with external pH of 8 and cytoplasmic pH of 7.7 and a  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  of  $-160 \text{ mV}$  (Kirst & Bisson, 1982) at  $25^\circ \text{C}$ , is  $-13.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . For the major ions the electrochemical potential differences, cytosol relative to medium, are  $-24.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  ( $\text{Na}^+$ ),  $-3.14 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  ( $\text{K}^+$ ) and  $+9.27 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ) (Kirst & Bisson, 1982). The primary active efflux of  $\text{H}^+$  energizes, directly or indirectly, the active efflux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  and active influx of  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

#### Eukaryotic algae: organisms with secondary and tertiary chloroplast endosymbiosis

The earliest fossils of the diatoms (Bacillariophyceae *sensu lato*; Ochrophyta) are from marine habitats, with later invasion of fresh waters (Falkowski *et al.*, 2004; Siver *et al.*, 2018). There is functional evidence of a plasmalemma  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPase in the colourless marine diatom *Nitzschia alba* (Bhattacharya & Volcani, 1980). The work of Flynn *et al.* (1987) on plasmalemma vesicles of *Phaeodactylum tricorutum* is also consistent with the occurrence of an  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPase. The available evidence on cytoplasmic pH is for pH 7.6 in a non-vacuolate marine pennate diatom *Phaeodactylum tricorutum* (Burns & Beardall, 1987), and pH 7.3 in the centric marine diatom *Thalassiosira weissflogii* at an external pH of 8 (Hervé *et al.*, 2002). The  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  is  $-60$  to  $-90 \text{ mV}$  for the marine centric diatom *Coscinodiscus wailesii* (Gradmann & Boyd, 1995, 1999a, 1999b) and  $-84 \text{ mV}$  for the marine centric diatom *Odontella sinensis* (Taylor *et al.*, 2017). These values for a range of marine diatoms are consistent with the occurrence of active  $\text{H}^+$  efflux. For  $\text{Na}^+$  the only intracellular concentration values are for whole cells of the marine *Coscinodiscus granii* ( $46 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ ) and *Coscinodiscus wailesii* ( $125 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ ) (Kessler, 1974). Boyd & Gradmann (1999) assume that these mean intracellular concentrations, dominated by the concentration in the largest cell compartment, the vacuole, also apply to the cytosol. With this assumption, and  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  of  $-75 \text{ mV}$  across the plasmalemma in the marine *C. wailesii* (Gradmann & Boyd, 1999a, 1999b), the  $\text{Na}^+$  free energy difference across the plasmalemma is  $12 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , inside negative. Jones & Morel (1988) suggested that redox reactions in the plasmalemma of *Thalassiosira weissflogii* can act as an  $\text{H}^+$  efflux pump. Bertucci *et al.* (2010) cite genomic evidence for a P-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*. Diatoms also have vacuolar  $\text{H}^+$  pyrophosphatases and V-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPases (Bussard & Lopez, 2014). While there is evidence from metazoans for the expression of V-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPases in the plasmalemma (Beyenbach & Wicczorek, 2006), there is no evidence as to whether this occurs in diatoms (Wicczorek *et al.*, 1999; Bussard & Lopez, 2014).

Almost all of the extant Ochrophyta: Phaeophyceae are marine. For the marine phaeophycean *Ectocarpus siliculosus* there is genomic evidence for a P  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPase (Uji *et al.*, 2012a, 2012b). The only estimates of the electrochemical potential differences across the plasmalemma of the Phaeophyceae are for the development of the just-fertilized eggs of the fucoid *Pelvetia fastigiata* (Allen *et al.*, 1972; Gibbon & Kropf, 1993) and the unfertilized eggs of the fucoid *Fucus serratus* (Taylor & Brownlee, 1993). Gibbon & Kropf (1993) used microelectrodes to measure the  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  of  $-60 \text{ mV}$ , inside negative), and the pH difference (0.5 units, inside low) between the cytosol and seawater medium. Gibbon & Kropf (1993) calculated the proton motive force across the plasmalemma, equivalent to an electrochemical potential difference, cytosol relative to medium for  $\text{H}^+$  of  $-2.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , i.e. close to electrochemical equilibrium. The data for ion content of Allen *et al.* (1972) are for the whole zygote, rather than the cytosol, so calculations of electrochemical potential difference across the plasmalemma for  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are less accurate than the value for  $\text{H}^+$  (Gibbon & Kropf, 1993). The calculations of Gibbon & Kropf (1993) show that while  $\text{K}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are near electrochemical equilibrium, the electrochemical potential difference, cytosol relative to medium, for  $\text{Na}^+$  is  $-14 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . Gibbon & Kropf (1993) therefore suggest that the primary active transport at the plasmalemma is for  $\text{Na}^+$ , with  $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$  antiport generating the much smaller  $\text{H}^+$  electrochemical potential difference. Taylor & Brownlee (1993) examined the electrical properties of the plasmalemma, and the ion content, of unfertilized eggs of *Fucus serratus* in seawater. The  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  using microelectrodes is  $-40$  to  $-65 \text{ mV}$ , with a mean of  $-50 \text{ mV}$ . With the same cautions as for *Pelvetia fastigiata* zygotes, the driving force for  $\text{H}^+$  is  $1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  directed inwards, for  $\text{Na}^+$   $12 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , directed inwards, and for  $\text{Cl}^-$ , zero  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ , i.e. equilibrium. These values are consistent with the occurrence of a  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux, with very weak evidence of a  $\text{H}^+$  efflux pump, and for  $\text{Cl}^-$  at equilibrium. However, replacement of external  $\text{Cl}^-$  by isethionate $^-$  makes the plasmalemma electrical potential difference  $20 \text{ mV}$  less negative, consistent with active electrogenic  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx, and a lower  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration in the cytosol than in some other intracellular compartments. Further experiments are needed to examine this possibility.

Klenell *et al.* (2002, 2004) suggested that *Laminaria digitata* and *Laminaria saccharina* (now *Saccharina latissima*) have a P-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase that is involved in acidifying part of the thallus surface; however, the evidence (inhibition by vanadate) does not distinguish a P-type  $\text{H}^+$  ATPase from a P-type  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPase in parallel with a  $\text{H}^+:\text{Na}^+$  antiporter (see discussion above for Rhodophyta). Klenell *et al.* (2004) also used erythrosin B as an inhibitor of the plasmalemma P-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase; however, erythrosin B also inhibits a range of other processes (Gimmler, 1988).

In the Ochrophyta: Raphidophyceae, inverted plasmalemma vesicles of the marine *Heterosigma akashiwo* show ATP-dependent  $\text{Na}^+$  accumulation. The  $\text{Na}^+$  accumulation was inhibited by vanadate, and was shown not to be an accumulation down an inside-negative electrical potential, or a result of  $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$  exchange following  $\text{H}^+$  accumulation by an  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase (Shono *et al.*, 1995, 1996). These findings are supported by genomic evidence of a  $\text{Na}^+$ -ATPase (Shono *et al.*, 2001; Jo *et al.*, 2010; Uji *et al.*, 2012a).

For the Haptophyta the earliest known fossils of the calcified coccoliths of coccolithophores in the Class Prymnesiophyceae are from marine strata, and there is no evidence that the coccolithophores ever invaded fresh waters (Falkowski *et al.*, 2004). The coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* (Haptophyta: Prymnesiophyceae) has a putative P-type  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase in the plasmalemma (Lohbeck *et al.*, 2014). The  $\Psi_{\text{CO}}$  of a calcifying strain of *Emiliania huxleyi* (Sikes & Wilbur, 1982) is  $-81 \text{ mV}$

using K<sup>+</sup>-valinomycin and −145 mV using a fluorescent dye (cf. Ritchie, 1982, 1984). However, using the preferable microelectrode technique, Taylor *et al.* (2011) found a  $\Psi_{CO}$  of −46 mV. There are conflicting reports on the intracellular pH of *Emiliania huxleyi* (Dixon *et al.*, 1989; Nimer *et al.*, 1994; see also Suffrian *et al.*, 2011). Using the fluorescent dye method the internal pH was determined as 7.28 (Dixon *et al.*, 1989), 7.03 (Nimer *et al.*, 1994) and 7.0 (Gibbin *et al.*, 2014), at an external pH of 8 in the presence of 2 mol m<sup>−3</sup> inorganic carbon. Lower values for internal pH are found with the DMO method and/or in the absence of inorganic C (Dixon *et al.*, 1989; Nimer *et al.*, 1994). Another coccolithophore, *Pleurochrysis* sp., has a P-type Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase (Araki & González, 1998).

The earliest known fossil Dinophyta (Alveolata) are from marine sediments with subsequent invasion of fresh waters (Lenz *et al.*, 2002; Falkowski *et al.*, 2004). Symbiotic dinoflagellates of the Symbiodiniaceae may have a Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in the plasmalemma (Goiran *et al.*, 1997), although a H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and H<sup>+</sup>-Na<sup>+</sup> antiporter has not been ruled out as the mechanism of Na<sup>+</sup> efflux. Bertucci *et al.* (2010) and Mies *et al.* (2017a, 2017b) showed that the gene for a plasmalemma-located P-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in the Symbiodiniaceae shows increased expression during symbiosis with corals, possibly related to acidification of the perisymbiotic space (Bertucci *et al.*, 2010). It is not clear which ion is pumped by the P-ATPase in the calcifying dinoflagellate *Thoracosphaera helmii*, but it is probably Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Van de Waal *et al.*, 2013).

#### Submerged marine flowering plants: seagrasses

Fernández *et al.* (1999), García-Sánchez *et al.* (2000) and Rubio *et al.* (2011) provided electrophysiological evidence of a H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase of the leaf and root cell plasmalemmas of *Zostera marina*. The  $\Psi_{CO}$  is −150 to −160 mV, inside negative, and is hyperpolarized by fusicoccin, a compound known to stimulate non-halophytic flowering plant plasmalemma H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases; the cytosolic pH is 7.3 (Fernández *et al.*, 1999; García-Sánchez *et al.*, 2000). With an external seawater pH of 8.0 and the cytosol −160 mV negative relative to the seawater, the H<sup>+</sup> electrochemical potential difference, cytosol relative to medium, across the plasmalemma is thus −13.7 kJ mol<sup>−1</sup> kJ per mol, favouring H<sup>+</sup> entry. Rubio *et al.* (2005) showed that the cytosol Na<sup>+</sup> concentration (measured with Na<sup>+</sup>-selective microelectrodes) of 10.7 ± 3.3 mol m<sup>−3</sup> in cells of *Zostera marina* in seawater has a  $\Psi_{CO}$  of −150 mV, so the electrochemical potential difference across the plasmalemma is 25 kJ mol<sup>−3</sup>, driving Na<sup>+</sup> into the cytosol. Following Pak *et al.* (1995), Fukuhara *et al.* (1996) and Muramoto *et al.* (2002) characterized a salt-tolerant P-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase in the plasmalemma of *Zostera marina*. Generation of the −25 kJ mol<sup>−1</sup> gradient (cytosol relative to medium) for Na<sup>+</sup> using a Na<sup>+</sup>:H<sup>+</sup> antiporter and a −13.7 kJ mol<sup>−1</sup> gradient for H<sup>+</sup> requires a Na<sup>+</sup>:H<sup>+</sup> ratio of 0.5 or lower. Rubio *et al.* (2017, 2018) showed that the cytosol pH and the electrical potential difference across the plasmalemma of the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica* are very similar to those of *Zostera marina*.

#### Emergent marine flowering plants: tidal (=salt) marsh plants (herbaceous) and mangroves (trees)

Brügemann & Janiesch (1989) compared the plasma membrane ATPase from control specimens and those grown with added NaCl of the tidal marsh plant *Plantago maritima*. Wu & Seliskar (1998) investigated salinity adaptations in the H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase of the tidal marsh plant *Spartina patens*. The H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase also energizes NaCl secretion by salt glands in recretohalophytic tidal marsh plants and mangroves (Yuan *et al.*, 2016; Dassanayake & Larkin, 2017). The suggestion that the *Limonium* salt gland has primary active transport involving a Cl<sup>−</sup>-ATPase has not been substantiated (Raven, 2017).

**Table 3.** Phylogenetic distribution of plasmalemma ion transport ATPases in marine photosynthetic eukaryotes

Phylum, Class	H <sup>+</sup> efflux	Na <sup>+</sup> efflux	Cl <sup>−</sup> influx
Rhodophyta	–	P-ATPase	
Chlorophyta Prasinophyceae	(P-ATPase?)	P-ATPase	
Chlorophyta Chlorophyceae	P-ATPase	(P-ATPase?)	
Chlorophyta Trebouxiophyceae	(P-ATPase?)	(P-ATPase)	
Chlorophyta Ulvophyceae		(P-ATPase)	F-ATPase
Streptophyta Charophyceae	P-ATPase	–	
Streptophyta flowering plants	P-ATPase	–	
Ochrophyta Bacillariophyceae	(P-ATPase?)	(P-ATPase?)	
Ochrophyta Phaeophyceae		P-ATPase	
Ochrophyta Raphidophyceae		(P-ATPase?)	
Haptophyta Prymnesiophyceae	P-ATPase		
Alveolata Dinophyceae	(P-ATPase?)		

For references see text.

#### Evolutionary aspects of primary active ion pumps in marine photosynthetic organisms

The occurrence of primary active H<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>−</sup> at the plasmalemma of marine photosynthetic organisms is summarized in Table 3, encapsulating the outcomes of the analysis in the previous section. Among the Archaeplastida, the brackish Characeae and brackish and marine flowering plants only have P(II)-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases. However, the Streptophyta are not basal among the Archaeplastida, so it cannot be concluded that P(II)-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase is the ancestral energizer of the plasmalemma. No data seem to be available for Glaucophyta; among Rhodophyta, marine representatives have P(II)-type Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPases and acidophilic ‘freshwater’ Cyanidiophyceae have P(II)-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases. Marine Chlorophyta have both P(II)-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases and P(II)-type Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPases. In these two phyla of Archaeplastida it is likely that horizontal gene transfer has been involved, e.g. via virus-encoded P-ATPases: an example is a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase in a freshwater *Chlorella* virus (Bonza *et al.*, 2010). A range of transporters are encoded by other viruses (Greiner *et al.*, 2018) and horizontal gene transfer has been shown for ATPases in prokaryotes (Hilario & Gogarten, 1993) and other transporters in eukaryotic algae (Chan *et al.*, 2011, 2012). Similar horizontal gene transfer is required to account for the distribution of P(II)-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases and P(II)-type Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPases among marine algae with plastids derived from secondary or tertiary endosymbiosis (Chan *et al.*, 2011, 2012; Burki *et al.*, 2020). The origin of the F-ATPase that pumps Cl<sup>−</sup> in some ulvophycean Chlorophyta (Table 3) is unclear; metazoan Cl<sup>−</sup>-ATPases seem to be P-ATPases (Gerencser & Zhang, 2003).

#### Conclusions

In Archaea there are ion-pumping rhodopsins that actively transport H<sup>+</sup> out of, and Cl<sup>−</sup> into, the cells; in one archaeon there is an inward H<sup>+</sup>-pumping rhodopsin. In Bacteria all three of the ions H<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>−</sup> are moved (H<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> out, Cl<sup>−</sup> in) by ion-



pumping rhodopsins. There is an H<sup>+</sup> influx rhodopsin in *Acetabularia*, and (probably) H<sup>+</sup> efflux rhodopsins in diatoms. Photochemistry based on bacteriochlorophyll exports H<sup>+</sup> from the cytosol in some marine anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria, but chlorophyll-based redox reactions do not export H<sup>+</sup> from cells of marine cyanobacteria. Exergonic redox reactions export H<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> in photosynthetic bacteria, H<sup>+</sup> in cyanobacteria and possibly H<sup>+</sup> in eukaryotic algae. H<sup>+</sup>-and/or Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPases occur in the plasmalemma of all photosynthetic marine organisms tested. P-type H<sup>+</sup> efflux ATPases occur in the marine Streptophyta, i.e. marine charophycean algae and seagrasses and emergent marine flowering plants. P-type Na<sup>+</sup>-ATPases are the main primary active ion pumps in the plasmalemma of other marine green algae and non-green algae. However, there may be P-type H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases in some cases, and a F-type Cl<sup>-</sup>-ATPase occurs in the ulvophycean *Acetabularia*. Some assignments of P-type ATPases as H<sup>+</sup> or as Na<sup>+</sup> pumps using genomics are not conclusive. Despite the insights that genomics can provide, it seems that there are still large gaps in the availability of electrophysiological data from many of the ecologically (and economically) important marine (and freshwater) phototrophs. There is thus a need for more such data to improve our understanding of the functioning of primary active transport in these organisms.

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