Starches from A to C

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii as a Model Microbial System to Investigate the Biosynthesis of the Plant Amylopectin Crystal

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Wide-angle powder x-ray diffraction analysis was carried out on starch extracted from wild-type and mutant Chlamydomonas reinhardtii cells. Strains containing no defective starch synthases as well as mutants carrying a disrupted granule-bound starch synthase structural gene displayed the A type of diffraction pattern with a high degree of crystallinity. Mutants carrying a defect for the major soluble starch synthase (SSS), SSS II, were characterized by a switch to the B type of diffraction pattern with very low crystallinity. Mutant strains carrying SSS I as the only glucan elongation enzyme regained some of their crystallinity but switched to the C type of diffraction pattern. Differential scanning calorimetry analysis correlated tightly with the x-ray diffraction results. Together with the electron microscopy analyses, these results establish C. reinhardtii as a microbial model system displaying all aspects of cereal starch synthesis and structure. We further show that SSS II is the major enzyme involved in the synthesis of crystalline structures in starch and demonstrate that SSS I alone builds a new type of amylepectin structure.

Starch is by far the major storage compound accumulated by plants, making it one of the most abundant polysaccharides present on earth. Above all, it remains the most important source of calories in the human and animal diet and has also become a major source of plant raw material for nonfood purposes. Over 600 different commercial products are generated by the starch extraction and processing industry.

In contrast to its economic importance, our understanding of starch biosynthesis is limited to the extent that further genetic improvements are dependent on additional understanding of how the final structure is built. Microbial genetics has until very recently been of little help in understanding how the complex granule structure is built (for reviews, see Müller-Röber and Kossmann, 1994; Ball et al., 1996; Preiss and Sivak, 1996; Smith et al., 1997). This is mainly because starch accumulates only in photosynthetic eukaryotes, whereas model microorganisms such as bacteria or yeasts synthesize glycogen as a far less organized form of storage polysaccharide. Yet, as shown by the relatedness in primary structure of many enzymes in the pathway, there is little doubt that starch metabolism has emerged in the chloroplast from the preexisting cyanobacterial glycogen pathway.

Because the glycogen-accumulating cyanobacteria are not useful in explaining the building of the crystalline structures present in starch granules, we have recently established Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, a unicellular eukaryotic green alga of the order Volvocales, as a suitable model microorganism with which to investigate the genetics of plant starch biosynthesis. Studies in C. reinhardtii have indeed helped to ascertain the in vivo function of many of the starch biosynthetic enzymes (Ball et al., 1991; Delrue et al., 1992; Fontaine et al., 1993; Maddelein et al., 1994; Mouille et al., 1996; Van den Koornhuyse et al., 1996). Among these, mutants defective for two out of the three ADP-Glc α-1,4-glucan α-4-glucosyltransferases, known as starch synthases, have been selected (Delrue et al., 1992; Fontaine et al., 1993). Mutants with a defect in the one of the two SSSs (SSSII) witness a major defect in the synthesis of amylopectin. The remaining polysaccharide displays a large decrease in chains, the lengths of which range between 10 and 40 Glc residues and a relative increase of very short chains with a clear maximum of chains of 6 Glc residues. Mutants in the major GBSS are characterized by

Abbreviations: DP, degree of polymerization; DSC, differential scanning calorimetry; GSSS, granule-bound starch synthase; SSS, soluble starch synthase; 

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the disappearance of amylose, whereas modifications in
the chain-length distribution of amylopectin are restricted
to a decrease in the extra-long (above 50 Glc residues in
length) chain fraction. Culture conditions could even be
found that mimic the synthesis of plant leaf starch (trans-
sient starch) or that of storage starch occurring in the
amyloplast (Ball et al., 1990; Libessart et al., 1995).

The evidence from biochemical studies that has accumu-
lated over the years suggests that the structure of C.
reinhardtii starch extracted from nitrogen-starved cultures
could not be distinguished from that of maize endosperm
storage starch, the major crop for both human nutrition
and starch extraction. Plant starches are generally classi-
fied into three types (A, B, and C) according to the kind of
x-ray diffraction pattern given by their amylopectin crys-
talline lattices. A-type starches can be found in cereal
endosperms, whereas B and C types were reported for
tubers and pea embryos, respectively (for review, see
Imberty et al., 1991).

Three-dimensional structures involving parallel double
helices have been published for both the A and B patterns
(Fig. 1). It is suspected that the C type is due to a mix of
both kinds of crystals in a single or distinct granule and
that it does not define a structure of its own. The three-
dimensional structures of these crystals are of paramount
importance in determining most of the functional and in-
dustrial properties of starches. The generalization of the
results obtained in Chlamydomonas sp. to higher plants
requires that both build the same kind of polysaccharide
secondary and tertiary structures.

In this paper we show that C. reinhardtii accumulates a
storage polysaccharide of the A type, thereby affirming the
analogy that was previously drawn with maize endosperm
starch. As with higher plants, mutants lacking amylose
because of a defect in the major GBSS display the very
same three-dimensional arrangement of the amylopectin
glucans. However, in the absence of SSSI the crystallinity
collapses and switches to the B type. Starches built by
mutants that lack both activities and that have thus re-
tained SSSI as sole elongation enzyme have regained some
crystallinity but gave the C type of x-ray diffraction pat-
tern. We believe that these results establish a major func-
tion for SSSI in the building of the amylopectin crystalline
lattice of the wild-type C. reinhardtii cell.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

[U-14C]ADP-Glc was purchased from Amersham. The
starch determination kit was purchased from Boehringer
Mannheim. Rabbit liver glycogen was supplied by Sigma.
Percoll was from Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology (Uppsala,
Sweden).

Strains, Media, Incubation, and Growth Conditions

Our reference strains are 137C, (mt nit1 nit2), II52 (mt
nit1 nit2 sta3-1), BAFR1 (mt nit1 nit2 sta2-29::ARG7 sta3-1),
sta2-29::ARG7), and IJ2 (mt sta2-29::ARG7 sta3-1). Starch
was always prepared from nitrogen-starved media. Media
and culture conditions used in our starvation experiments
were as described by Ball et al. (1990). Recipes for TAP
and HSA media and genetic techniques can be found in Harris
(1989a, 1989b). All experiments were performed under con-
tinuous light (40 μE m⁻² s⁻¹) in the presence of acetate at
24°C in liquid cultures that were shaken vigorously with-

Figure 1. Three-dimensional representation of amylopectin crystal-
line structures. A, Cross-section of the A-type lattice of parallel
glucan double helices after Imberty et al. (1988). The position of
water molecules are displayed as orange spheres. B, Cross-section of
the B-type lattice of parallel glucan double helices after Imberty and
Perez (1988). Water molecules are displayed in blue.
Amylopectin Crystalline Structure of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii

Starch Purification

Pure native starch was prepared from nitrogen-limited (8 mg L\(^{-1}\)\([\text{NH}_4\text{]}_2\text{SO}_4\]) cultures, inoculated at 10\(^5\) cells mL\(^{-1}\), and harvested after 5 d of growth under continuous light (40 \(\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}\)) in otherwise HSA or TAP medium (Harris, 1989a, 1989b). Algae were ruptured by sonication at a density of 10\(^8\) cells mL\(^{-1}\). A crude starch pellet was obtained by spinning the lysate at 2000g for 20 min. The pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of the same buffer per 10\(^8\) starting cells, and passed twice through a Percoll gradient (9 mL of Percoll per milliliter of crude starch pellet). The purified starch pellet was rinsed by two centrifugations at 2000g, washed twice with distilled water and was kept at 4°C for immediate use or was dried for subsequent analysis. Starch amounts were measured using the amylloigosidase assay described in Delrue et al. (1992).

X-Ray Diffraction Measurements

Samples (5-20 mg) were sealed between two pieces of aluminum foil to prevent any significant change in water content during the measurement. Diffraction diagrams were recorded using x-ray equipment (Inel, Artenay, France) operating at 40 keV and 30 mA. CuK\(_\alpha\) radiation (\(\lambda=0.15405 \text{ nm}\)) was selected using a quartz monochromator. A curved, position-sensitive detector (CPS120, Inel) was used to monitor the diffracted intensities using 2-h exposure periods. Relative crystallinity was determined after bringing all recorded diagrams at the same scale using normalization of the total scattering between 3 and 30° (2\(\theta\)), following a method derived from Murthy and Minor (1990). Dry extruded starch was used as the amorphous standard. The respective amounts of A and B types in starches presenting mixed diagrams were calculated using a multilinear regression, assuming that the experimental diagram is a linear combination of elementary diagrams of amorphous A and B types. Recrystallized amylose was used for A and B standards.

DSC

Samples (about 20 mg) were weighed in stainless steel high-pressure pans and about 80 \(\mu\text{L}\) of distilled water was added before sealing. An automated heat-flux differential scanning calorimeter (DSC 121, Setaram, Caluire, France) was used, and scans between 20 and 180°C were run at 3°C/min and ±40 mW full scale. Calibration was checked using indium (429.6 K) and gallium (302.7 K) melting. The reference cell contained 100 \(\mu\text{L}\) of water. Melting enthalpies were calculated with respect to dry matter, after water content determination, using subsequent drying at 50°C during one night and 130°C during 6 h.

Scanning Electron Microscopy

Dried starch granules were stuck onto brass stubs with double-sided carbon-conductive adhesive tape and covered with a 30-nm gold layer using a 1100-ion sputtering device (Jeol). The specimens were then examined with a 840A scanning electron microscope (Jeol) operating at an accelerating voltage of 5 keV with a current probe of 0.1 nA. The working distance was 15 mm.

Transmission Electron Microscopy

Samples were first embedded at 45°C in a 3% agar gel to prevent heterogeneous distribution and small, solidified cubes of agar-containing samples were cut (1 mm³) (Gallant, 1974). The PATAg staining procedure for carbohydrates was used before resin embedding; the samples were first stained by immersion in a 1% periodic acid solution for 5 min, followed by saturated thiosemicarbazide for 24 h, and then immersed in a 1% silver nitrate solution for 2 d (Gallant, 1974). The stained samples were then dehydrated in an ethanol series, infiltrated with propylene oxide, and embedded in Epon. Sections of 0.1 \(\mu\text{m}\) thickness were mounted on copper grids previously coated with carbon and examined with a 100S transmission electron microscope (Jeol) operated at 80 keV.

Zymogram Analysis

Soluble crude extracts were prepared as previously described (Fontaine et al., 1993) and immediately stored at -70°C. The lysate was cleared by spinning at 10,000g for 10 min at 4°C. Proteins were measured using the Bio-Rad protein assay kit. One-hundred to 500 \(\mu\text{g}\) of protein in 100 \(\mu\text{L}\) of 25 mM Tris-Gly, pH 8.3, 1% SDS, 5% \(\beta\)-mercaptoethanol was denaturated by boiling in a water bath for 4 min. The denatured proteins can be stored at 4°C without subsequent loss of enzyme activity or immediately loaded on a 30:1 (acrylamide: bisacrylamide), 7.5% (0.75-mm-thick) polyacrylamide gel, run under denaturing (0.1% SDS) conditions, and containing 0.3% of rabbit liver glycogen (Sigma). Electrophoresis was carried out at room temperature at 15 V/cm for 120 min, using the Mini-Protean II cell (Bio-Rad) in 25 mM Tris-Gly, pH 8.3, 1 mM DTT, and 0.1% (w/v) SDS buffer. At the end of the run, the gel was washed twice with gentle shaking for 1 h in 100 mL of 0.04 mM Tris at room temperature to remove SDS and to renature proteins. The gel was then incubated overnight in 50 mM glycollic acid/NaOH, pH 9.0, 100 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 15 mM \(\beta\)-mercaptoethanol, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mg/mL BSA, and 4 mM ADP-Glc at 25°C. The reaction was stopped and the gel was stained by adding 0.25% KI and 0.025% I₂. The zymogram was immediately photographed. The molecular mass of each enzyme activity detected on zymogram was measured on the same polyacrylamide gel. Some sections of the gel were stained with Coomassie blue, whereas others were renatured and incubated as described above.

Western Blotting

Proteins of the soluble extract were separated by electrophoresis on classical SDS-PAGE gel (7.5% acrylamide and 0.1% SDS). Before blotting the proteins onto the nitrocellulose membrane (Protran BA, Schleicher & Schuell), the gels were incubated for 15 min in a western-blot buffer (48 mM...
Tris, 39 mM Gly, 0.0375% [w/v] SDS, and 20% methanol. The transfer was carried out using the semidy electroblotting apparatus (Multiphor II, LKB-Pharmacia) for 45 min at 250 mA and 4°C. After incubation overnight with the specific antiserum PA55 directed against the synthetic peptide GTGGLRDTTVENC, a biotin and streptavidin/alkalin phosphatase kit (Sigma) was used for immunodetection following the supplier's instructions.

RESULTS

Mutants Defective for the STA3 Locus Lack a 115-kD Protein That Cross-Reacts with Antibodies Directed against a C-Terminal Peptide of Higher Plant Starch Synthases.

Table I summarizes the phenotypes of mutants lacking either the major GBSS, the major SSSII, or both. Although genetic evidence was sufficient to conclude that the STA2 locus encodes the 76-kD GBSS protein (Delrue et al., 1992), the evidence that STA3 is a structural gene for the SSSII is presently suggestive and relies on gene-dosage experiments (Fontaine et al., 1993). To characterize better the missing synthase from the sta3 mutants, we have applied a zymogram technique that allows for denaturation of the proteins before migration and renaturation after SDS-PAGE. Comparisons of native and SDS-PAGE zymograms shown in Figures 2 and 3 were conclusive and pointed to the disappearance of a 115-kD starch synthase in all sta3-carrying mutants. This result was confirmed by western blotting using an antibody directed against the GTGGLRDTTVENC consensus peptide sequence found in the C-terminal third of all starch synthases examined to date (Fig. 3A).

The antibody also cross-reacted with a few other proteins containing similar sequences. For instance, a strong reaction was found with a Chlamydomonas sp. protein homologous to acetyl-CoA acyltransferases containing the KRGGRLDTA sequence (C. D'Hulst, personal communication). In addition, a strong cross-reaction with the 76-kD GBSS was also found when starch-bound proteins eluted from the granule were assayed by western blotting. However, to date we have found no traces of the protein in the soluble phase. Therefore, the number of cross-reacting bands displayed in Figure 3A does not reflect the number of different synthases. Only two bands of 75 and 115 kD appear in zymograms after denaturation and renaturation (Fig. 3B). A number of additional bands were detected in native gels (Fig. 2A). It is clear that all dark-staining upper bands in the zymogram disappear in the three independent sta3 mutant alleles. The set of lighter-staining bands coeluted on the DEAE-Trisacryl anion-exchange columns (Fig. 2B) that we have previously described (Fontaine et al., 1993). In addition, this set of SSSI...
bands coeluted with a single 75-kD sharp band on our zymograms after denaturation, SDS-PAGE, and subsequent renaturation.

Under native conditions the syntheses from crude or semipurified extracts never failed to give the differences in staining patterns seen in Figure 2. One exception was the starches extracted from the wild-type strain 137C containing all three elongation enzymes, strain 115 of sta3-1 genotype containing GBSSI and SSSI, strain BAFR1 carrying sta2-29::ARG7 containing SSSI and SSSII, and strain 11 of sta3-1 sta2-29::ARG7 double-mutant genotype containing SSSI only. The double-mutant starches displayed both A- and B-type staining patterns and thus can be defined as a C type.

X-Ray Diffraction of Wild-Type and Mutant Starches

In maize, most genotypes tested to date have displayed the A type of crystalline lattice (Shannon and Garwood, 1984). A noticeable exception consists of the amylose-extender high-amylose mutants that have switched to the B type. To examine the function of the three distinct synthases in the building of the amylopectin crystals, we subjected the starches extracted from either the wild-type strain 137C containing all three elongation enzymes, strain 115 of sta3-1 genotype containing GBSSI and SSSI, strain BAFR1 carrying sta2-29::ARG7 containing SSSI and SSSII, and strain 11 of sta3-1 sta2-29::ARG7 double-mutant genotype containing SSSI only, to x-ray diffraction analysis. The diffraction diagrams obtained on the four samples are shown in Figure 4 and the corresponding relative crystallinities are listed in Table II. Both the wild type and the sta2-29::ARG7-carrying mutant have pure A-type crystalline structures (with diffraction peaks at 2θ values of 9.9°, 11.2°, 15°, 17°, 18.1°, and 23.3°). The crystallinities cannot be determined precisely since the water content of the different samples was impossible to adjust because of the low quantity of substrate available. Nevertheless, it is quite clear that wild type and sta2 mutants have the highest crystallinity, respectively, of 28 and 32%. The double mutant has a lower crystallinity (20%), whereas the lowest value was found for the mutant carrying the sta3-1 defect. In that case, the determination of the crystallinity was very tricky and did not exceed 5 to 10%. The major peak visible in the diffractogram from the sta3-1-carrying mutant is that of the B-type structure (classical B-type peaks are at 2θ values of 5.6°, 15°, 17°, 22°, and 24°). The double mutant displays both A- and B-type diffraction peaks and can thus be defined as a C type.

DSC

The DSC thermograms are displayed in Figure 5. The corresponding melting parameters shown in Table III are averages from three separate experiments (± 0.2°C). Wild type and mutants of the STA2 locus exhibit a single endotherm with T_{max} at 55.3 (± 0.2°C) and 57.3°C (± 0.2°C), respectively, corresponding to starch gelatinization. The

![Figure 4](https://www.plantphysiol.org/...
corresponding enthalpies are 8.4 (± 0.4) and 11.9 (± 0.6) J/g, respectively. This difference could be related to the slightly higher crystallinity determined for the sta2 mutant. Moreover, the gelatinization endotherm obtained for the wild type is narrower \((T_e - T_m = 36.3°C)\), which suggests that the crystal size distribution in the wild type is more homogeneous. The two other samples yield multiple endotherms (Fig. 5) with maximum at 60°C (± 0.2°C) and 87.4°C (± 0.2°C) for the sta3-1 mutant and at 53.3°C (± 0.2°C) and 106.3°C (± 0.2°C) for the double mutant. The first endotherms at 60 and 53.3°C correspond to starch gelatinization temperatures, and the second at a temperature ranging between 90 and 120°C is usually attributed to melting of amylose-lipid complexes formed during heating of lipid-containing starches in DSC (Biliaderis, 1992). The lipids able to be complexed by amylose are mainly fatty acids and monoglycerides (Godet et al., 1993), but the nature of the lipids present in the algal substrates studied is not well known. In the case of the sta3-1 mutant, the second endotherm appears as a shoulder and further work is required to confirm that it is due to the melting of an amylose-lipid complex. Moreover, the double mutant contains no traces of amylose and still displays a second endotherm. The melting temperatures reported for the high amylose sta3-1 mutant are much lower than those usually observed for high amylose maize or wrinkled pea starches (Colonna et al., 1982), which are both defective for one branching enzyme isoform. This can be related to a smaller chain length involved in the crystalline regions or a greater cooperativity in the melting process. The melting enthalpies of the sta3-1 mutant and double-mutant starches are quite low, i.e. 3.1 and 4.2 J/g, respectively. Moreover, for the latter, the endotherm width is quite large, which probably shows a large distribution of crystal size or an independent gelatinization process for A and B types in the C mixture.

**Electron Microscopy**

After extraction from *C. reinhardtii* cells, the purified starch granules show somewhat the same characteristics as those displayed in vivo. Most of the wild-type starch granules are lenticular, more or less flat (Fig. 6a), and irregular in shape and size (in the range of 0.5–2.5 μm). Such irregularity in the shapes is particularly visible by transmission electron microscopy (Fig. 6b), which shows two distinct morphologies; the first group shows larger, “skullcap-like” starch granules, exceptionally up to 5 μm (probably synthesized around the pyrenoid), whereas the second group contains lenticular starch granules. Starch granules of the lenticular type are more numerous and are probably synthesized within the stroma, although further study is required for confirmation.

The starch granules of the GBSS-defective (sta2) mutant are smaller (0.7–1.5 μm) and have more regular shapes (Fig. 6c), similar to those of the wild-type strain. Transmission electron microscopy of sta2 mutant granules (Fig. 6d) reveals two morphologies very close to that of smooth pea starch granules (Duprat et al., 1980), i.e. kidney and kidney-multilobed-shaped starch granules.

The starch granules of the SSSII-defective (sta3) mutant, which are amylose rich, show a large variety of shapes (Fig. 6, e and f) from lenticular (lens-positive) to lens-meniscus-like. A small number of starch granules are skullcap-like but they are smaller than in the wild-type strain. The size of most of the sta3-1 starch granules varies from 0.5 to 2 μm.

The starch granules of the double mutant, which are the smallest in size (0.2–1 μm), display very distorted forms, being mostly skullcap- or ring-shaped (Fig. 6g). As reported previously (Maddelein et al., 1994), this double mutant contains numerous smaller starch granules of various, very irregular shapes and sizes (Fig. 6h).

Growth shells as seen in potato, cereals, or the legume starch granules were never found in our transmission electron microscopy experiments. However, in the same set of experiments and by using the same staining techniques, growth rings of wheat and maize starch were indeed visible and are published elsewhere (Gallant, 1974; Gallant et al., 1997). We therefore conclude that similar growth rings are absent from *Chlamydomonas* sp. starch extracted from cultures grown under continuous light and constant temperature.

**DISCUSSION**

Starch chromatograms on Sepharose CL-2B and TSK-HW75 and distribution of chain-lengths of debranched...
Amylopectin crystalline structure of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii

Table III. DSC of starches extracted from strains defective for GBSS and SSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>$T_{\text{max}}$</th>
<th>$T_\alpha - T_\beta$</th>
<th>$\Delta H$</th>
<th>$T_{\text{max}}$</th>
<th>$T_\alpha - T_\beta$</th>
<th>$\Delta H$</th>
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<td>°C</td>
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<td>°C</td>
<td>°C</td>
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<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>106.3</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sta2-Δ1++</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ sta3-1</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>nd(^*)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>87.4</td>
<td>nd</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sta2-Δ1 sta3-1</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>106.3</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
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\(^*\) sta2-Δ1, sta2-29::ARG7. \(^b\) nd, Not determined.

Amylopectin could not distinguish maize endosperm starch from that of wild-type Chlamydomonas reinhardtii grown under nitrogen starvation (Libessart et al., 1995). We therefore suspected that the algal polysaccharide structure and composition were identical to those of maize endosperm storage starch. Indeed, many more differences in molecular weight of amylose and amylopectin chain-length distribution could be witnessed between maize and potato than between C. reinhardtii and maize.

In this work we take the analogy further by looking at the three-dimensional packing of glucans by wide-angle x-ray diffraction. There is no doubt that the glucans found in C. reinhardtii amylopectin adopt the A-crystalline lattice shown in Figure 1A. Moreover, as in maize (French, 1984) or rice (Ong et al., 1994), it is shown that it is the amylopectin fraction that is responsible for the crystallinity of starch, since mutants with no GBSS activity and consequently no amylose adopt the very same pattern and display an increase in crystallinity. The high-amylose sta3-1 mutant with no SSSII activity has a pure B-type crystalline structure with very low crystallinity, as do most of the high-amylose starches from mutants defective for branching enzyme II (Colonna et al., 1982; Blanshard, 1987; Shi and Seib, 1995).

However, in the case of wild-type potato tuber starch and in the case of branching-enzyme-defective, high-amylose mutants, the switch to the B type was attributed to the increase in size of the unit amylopectin chains. The high-amylose sta3-1 mutant does not contain longer amylopectin chains but, rather, accumulates both extra-short (Fontaine et al., 1993; Maddelein et al., 1994) and extra-long chains (Table I). This can be witnessed by a net decrease in $T_{\text{max}}$ during DSC of the mutant starch, which can be due to either a decrease or shortening of the double-helical structures. This observation clearly distinguishes the SSS-defective strains from the pea and maize high-amylose, branching-enzyme-defective mutants. Moreover, the double-mutant (sta3 sta2) starch yields wide-angle x-ray diffraction diagrams characteristic of a mixture of A- and B-type structures. The double-mutant polysaccharide was reported to have an original chain-length distribution that was shown to be intermediate between glycogen and amylopectin with a net increase in overall branching (Maddelein et al., 1994). The C type of x-ray diffraction observed together with the low melting temperature reported in DSC confirms this polysaccharide as novel and establishes that an amylopectin with a significantly lower average chain length can lead to the formation of B-type crystals in the C mixture. Our previous and present results clearly identify two SSS in C. reinhardtii. No evidence for a third enzyme could be found. We cannot of course exclude the presence of traces of a third enzyme. However, if present, this activity should indeed be very minor and fall below the level of detection afforded by our zymograms under native conditions. Because the absence of SSSII in sta3 mutants leads to a decrease of over 90% in total amylopectin synthesis, we believe our results demonstrate that it is chiefly this enzyme that is responsible for the synthesis of the abundant A-type crystals in the wild-type starch of Chlamydomonas sp. These results further suggest that SSS are only partly redundant in function. Together with the experiments reported by Maddelein et al. (1994), they point to different contributions of these enzymes in biogenesis of the starch granule, a conclusion that we believe will hold true for higher plants.

Morphological studies of granules from C. reinhardtii reported in this work confirm that algal starch is very small and can adopt very irregular shapes. Some of these can be attributed to the sheath of starch that surrounds the pyrenoid. Irregular shapes and small size can also be found in both transient and some storage starches from higher plants. Indeed, rice endosperm starch granules can be even smaller than those accumulated by C. reinhardtii. In maize the ae (amylose extender) mutants defective for branching enzyme II synthesize starch granules with very high amylose percentages. Starch granules from ae mutants with an amylose content ranging between 38 and 64% were much smaller than those from normal maize (24% amylose). Mutants were characterized by numerous irregular, filamentous-shaped starch granules, and the higher the amylose content, the higher the number of abnormal starch granules (Gallant and Bouchet, 1986). Such abnormal starch granules have not been found in the high-amylose, SSSII-defective mutant, although the starch is characteristically different from the wild type.

Another interesting observation is the absence of detectable growth rings in transmission electron microscopy of sliced and stained granules. Following the work of Buttrrose (1962), the growth shells of the wheat starch granules which, through structural features, are the expression of starch biosynthesis, were originally attributed to the variations in light intensity occurring during the day-night cycles. Experiments in a controlled environment (Gallant, 1974), however, have proven that the growth rings are not due to light variations but to temperature variations occurring during the day-night periods. Absence of growing shells inside the starch granules from the different strains.
Figure 6. Electron microscopy of starches purified from mutants carrying various combinations of GBSS and SSS. a, Scanning electron microscopy of starch purified from the wild-type reference strain 137C. b, Transmission electron microscopy of sections of wild-type starch granules stained with PATAg. c, Scanning electron microscopy of starch purified from the mutant strain BAFR1 lacking GBSS activity. d, Transmission electron microscopy of sections of starch granules stained with PATAg purified from strain BAFR1 lacking GBSS activity. e, Scanning electron microscopy of starch purified from the mutant strain 1152 lacking SSSII activity. f, Transmission electron microscopy of sections of starch granules stained with PATAg purified from the mutant strain 1152 lacking SSSII activity. g, Scanning electron microscopy of starch purified from the mutant strain IJ2 lacking both GBSS and SSSII activities. h, Transmission electron microscopy of sections of starch granules stained with PATAg purified from the mutant strain IJ2 lacking both GBSS and SSSII activities. Bars = 1 μm.
of Chlamydomonas sp. cells could reflect either the stable temperature during culture or the fact that the cells were grown under continuous light. We believe that as is the case for all other aspects of starch biosynthesis and degradation, C. reinhardtii will prove to be an invaluable tool to study the appearance of such growth rings.

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