High-throughput Identification of Novel Heat Tolerance Genes via Genome-wide

Pooled Mutant Screens in the Model Green Alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

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Abstract

Different high temperatures adversely affect crop and algal yields with various responses

in photosynthetic cells. The list of genes required for thermotolerance remains elusive.

Additionally, it is unclear how carbon source availability affects heat responses in plants

and algae. We utilized the insertional, indexed, genome-saturating mutant library of the

unicellular, eukaryotic green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* to perform genome-wide,

quantitative, pooled screens under moderate (35°C) or acute (40°C) high temperatures

with or without organic carbon sources. We identified heat-sensitive mutants based on

quantitative growth rates and identified putative heat tolerance genes (HTGs). By

triangulating HTGs with heat-induced transcripts or proteins in wildtype cultures and

MapMan functional annotations, we present a high/medium-confidence list of 933

Chlamydomonas genes with putative roles in heat tolerance. Triangulated HTGs include

those with known thermotolerance roles and novel genes with little or no functional

annotation. About 50% of these high-confidence HTGs in Chlamydomonas have

orthologs in green lineage organisms, including crop species. *Arabidopsis thaliana*

mutants deficient in the ortholog of a high-confidence *Chlamydomonas* HTG were also

heat sensitive. This work expands our knowledge of heat responses in photosynthetic

cells and provides engineering targets to improve thermotolerance in algae and crops.

Keywords: moderate high temperature, acute high temperature, heat responses, heat

tolerance genes (HTGs), *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, CLiP mutant library, quantitative

pooled screens, DNA barcodes, photobioreactors (PBRs).

Introduction

Global warming increases the frequency of damagingly high temperatures, which

jeopardize plant growth and reduce food/biofuel production (Janni *et al.* 2020). Nine of

the ten hottest years on record have occurred between 2010-2021 (NASA, Goddard

Institute for Space Studies). Global temperatures are predicted to reach 1.5°C above pre-

industrial levels between 2030 and 2052 at the current warming rate (Intergovernmental

Panel on Climate Change, IPCC, 2018) (Jagadish, Pal, Sukumaran, Parani & Siddique

2020). It is estimated that every degree Celsius increase in mean global temperature

reduces global yields of wheat, rice, maize and soybean by 6%, 3.2%, 7.4% and 3.1%,

respectively (Zhao *et al.* 2017). A recent model based on weather information and six

major US crops from 1981-2017 identified high temperatures as the primary climatic driver for yield reduction in crops (Ortiz-Bobea, Wang, Carrillo & Ault 2019). It is essential to understand how plants respond to high temperatures and which genes are required for thermotolerance to engineer heat tolerant crops for the increasing human population.

High temperatures affect many cellular processes in plants (Mittler, Finka & Goloubinoff 2012; Schroda, Hemme & Mühlhaus 2015; Janni *et al.* 2020). They increase membrane fluidity (Martinière *et al.* 2011), ion channel activities, and intracellular calcium concentrations (Saidi *et al.* 2009; Mittler *et al.* 2012), reduce photosynthesis (Zhang & Sharkey 2009; Anderson *et al.* 2021; Zhang *et al.* 2022a), cause protein unfolding/misfolding and modifications (Scharf & Nover 1982; Duncan & Hershey 1989; Schroda *et al.* 2015; Rütgers *et al.* 2017; Wang *et al.* 2020), alter cellular metabolites (Hemme *et al.* 2014; Rysiak *et al.* 2021; Jamloki, Bhattacharyya, Nautiyal & Patni 2021), and affect DNA/RNA stability in the nucleus (Kantidze, Velichko, Luzhin & Razin 2016; Su *et al.* 2018). High temperatures also increase reactive oxygen species (ROS) production from chloroplasts and mitochondria (Pospíšil 2016; Janni *et al.* 2020; Niemeyer, Scheuring, Oestreicher, Morgan & Schroda 2021). Additionally, high temperatures induce heat shock transcription factors (HSFs) which increase the expression of heat shock proteins (HSPs) and other heat response genes (Schroda *et al.* 2015; Guo *et al.* 2016).

Several major questions remain open regarding heat responses in plants, despite our current understanding as mentioned above (Mittler *et al.* 2012; Schroda *et al.* 2015; Vu, Gevaert & De Smet 2019). (1) What are the genes required for heat tolerance? Even with a partial list of such genes, we can better understand heat tolerance in photosynthetic cells and provide engineering targets to make heat tolerant crops. (2) Do different high temperatures require distinct or overlapping genes for heat tolerance? High temperatures have different intensities in nature, which have unique effects on photosynthetic cells (Janni *et al.* 2020; Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Moderate high temperature refers to heat that is slightly above optimal growth temperature, around 35°C for most photosynthetic cells, which causes moderate damages and occurs frequently with prolonged duration in nature

(Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Acute high temperature refers to heat at or above 40°C, which

occurs less frequently but can cause severe damage to cellular processes (Zhang *et al.*

2022a). (3) How does carbon supply affect heat tolerance? Land plants mostly grow

photoautotrophically by fixing atmospheric inorganic carbon via photosynthesis, however,

there are often various organic carbon sources in the soil. Some plant tissues are

mixotrophic (e.g., seed pods) (Koley *et al.* 2022), partially replying on transported carbon

sources from leaves. Most green algae can grow both photoautotrophically and

mixotrophically with supplied organic carbon. How carbon supply affects heat responses

in photosynthetic cells is understudied.

The unicellular green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlamydomonas throughout) is a

powerful model to study heat responses in photosynthetic cells. It has a sequenced,

haploid, and simple genome (111 Mb, 17,741 protein-encoding genes) with smaller gene

families and lower rates of gene duplication compared to land plants, simplifying genetic

analyses (Merchant *et al.* 2007; Karpowicz, Prochnik, Grossman & Merchant 2011). It

grows fast with a 6-8 h doubling time under normal conditions. It can grow solely by

photosynthesis in light or with a supplied carbon source (acetate) in light or dark,

convenient for laboratory experiments and strain maintenance (Harris 2009).

Photosynthesis is one of the most heat sensitive functions in plants (Sharkey 2005;

Sharkey & Zhang 2010). The photosynthesis in Chlamydomonas is highly similar to land

plants (Minagawa & Tokutsu 2015), and its ability to survive on organic carbon enables

the maintenance of photosynthetic mutants, making it a superior model to study heat

effects on photosynthesis. Additionally, several excellent molecular and genetic tools are

available for Chlamydomonas, enabling efficient gene editing (Shimogawara, Fujiwara,

Grossman & Usuda 1998; Greiner *et al.* 2017; Wang *et al.* 2019; Dhokane, Bhadra &

Dasgupta 2020) and molecular engineering (Crozet *et al.* 2018; Emrich-Mills *et al.* 2021).

Specifically, a mapped, indexed, genome-saturating Chlamydomonas insertional mutant

library is available for both reverse and forward genetic screens (Chlamydomonas Library

Project, CLiP, 62,389 mutants, covering 83% of nuclear protein-coding genes) (Zhang *et*

al. 2014, 2022b).

Each CLiP mutant contains at least one unique DNA barcode by the end of the insertional

cassette, allowing for high-throughput, quantitative tracking of cell abundance via deep

sequencing and growth rate calculation of each individual mutant in pooled cultures under

different conditions (Li *et al.* 2016, 2019). If a CLiP mutant is deficient in a gene required

for optimal growth under a condition, this CLiP mutant will have a reduced cell abundance,

barcode abundance, and growth rate under this condition. The unique DNA barcode is

also linked to a mapped insertion site in each mutant, allowing for identification of genes

important for growth under a defined condition.

The Jonikas laboratory, which led the generation of the CLiP mutant library, together with

the Jinkerson/Dinneny groups and other collaborators, employed the CLiP library to

screen for mutants under 121 different environmental/chemical conditions (Fauser *et al.*

2022). The pooled screens by Fauser et al. (2022) have been foundational in using the

CLiP mutant library for functional genomics. They utilized a broad range of experimental

conditions for functional prediction of genes with unknown roles and this work has been

a pivotal advancement in the field. Among 121 conditions, Fauser et al. (2022) included

but did not focus on high temperatures. They included high temperatures of 30°C, 35°C,

37°C and tested the effects of light intensities, CO_2 concentration, and organic carbon

availability on heat responses (Supplemental Dataset 1a). The high-temperature screens

by Fauser et al. (2022) had several limitations. (1) They emphasized 30°C heat which is

a rather mild high temperature for CC-5325, the background strain of the CLiP mutant

library (Zhang *et al.* 2014, 2022), and did not include heat at 40°C, which is acute high

temperature for CC-5325. (2) They did not include heat at 35°C without carbon supply for

parallel comparison with carbon supply at 35°C. (3) Their heat screens were performed

in 2-L medium bottles on heat stirring plates with constant setting-temperature but without

control of culture temperatures, cell density, and nutrient supplies, which may complicate

the screen results. (4) The CLiP mutants were streaked off the algal plates, inoculated

into liquid cultures, and grown under different temperatures directly, without solid to liquid

acclimation process before heat treatments, which may increase the false positive rates

of heat-sensitive mutants. (5) Due to the large-scale nature of their experimental setup,

they had single replicates for 6 out of 11 different heat conditions performed. (6) They did

not have transcriptomes or proteomes under high temperatures to refine their candidate

genes identified in the heat screens.

Our research focused on high temperature conditions using the CLiP mutant library and

the quantitative pooled screens. We advanced the high temperature screens by Fauser

et al. (2022) to identify more genes important for heat tolerance. Based on the growth

rates of the CLiP library background strain, CC-5325, under different temperatures, we

performed pooled CLiP mutant screens under moderate (35°C) and acute high

temperature (40°C) with and without organic carbon supply in photobioreactors (PBRs)

under well-controlled conditions. Our algal cultivation in PBRs had turbidostatic control,

which allowed for precise control of growth environments including temperature

regulation, heating speed, light intensity, air bubbling, cell density, and, importantly,

nutrient supply. In our cultivation method, we can isolate the effects of high temperatures

on algal cells and minimize the complications from other environmental factors, such as

nutrient depletion or light shading. Furthermore, we developed a triangulation approach

to combine CLiP pooled screens, our recently published wildtype (WT) Chlamydomonas

transcriptome and proteome data under 35°C and 40°C, and functional annotations to

identify triangulated, known and novel, heat tolerance genes (HTGs). We further sorted

these triangulated HTGs into high/medium-confidence levels based on the presence of

multiple heat-sensitive alleles. Additionally, our orthology analysis revealed that many of

the triangulated HTGs identified in Chlamydomonas are conserved in land plants. Finally,

Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis throughout) mutants deficient in the orthologous gene

of a Chlamydomonas high-confidence HTG were heat sensitive. Our research provides

engineering targets to improve thermotolerance in both green algae and land plants.

Materials and Methods

Algal cultivation

All Chlamydomonas liquid cultivation used in this paper were conducted in

photobioreactors (PBRs) as described before (Zhang *et al.* 2022a) with minor

modifications. Algal cultures were grown in standard Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP, with

acetate, an organic carbon source) or Tris-phosphate (TP, without acetate) medium with

modified trace elements (Kropat *et al.* 2011) in 1-L PBRs (Photon System Instruments,

FMT 150/1000-RB). Cultures were illuminated with constant 100 µmol photons

m^2 s^{-1} light (50% red: 50% blue) and mixed by bubbling with filtered air. After inoculation,

cultures grew to a target cell density of 2×10^6 cells/mL in log-phase growth at 25°C. Then,

the target cell density was maintained turbidostatically using OD_{680} (monitored every 1

min automatically) by allowing the culture to grow to 8% above the target cell density

before being diluted to 8% below the target cell density with fresh medium provided

through peristaltic pumps. Through the turbidostatic mode, the PBR cultures had constant

nutrient supply, controlled cell density, and exponential growth between dilution events.

The OD_{680} measurements during exponential growth phases in between dilution events

were log_2 transformed, and the relative growth rate was calculated using the slope of

$log_2(OD_{680})$ while the inverse of the slope yielded the doubling time of the culture (Zhang

et al. 2022a). OD_{680} is a non-disruptive, efficient, and automatic measurement with 1-min

resolution and high sensitivity, which is well suited for algal growth measurement under

our cultivation conditions with turbidostatic control and constant dilutions. We used a

small OD_{680} range for turbidostatic control. OD_{680} data is sensitive enough to quantify

algal growth during each short exponential growth phase. The growth rates calculated by

OD_{680} was mostly for us to estimate the stress level of different high temperature

treatments. Different treatments (different temperatures and medium type) were

conducted in individual PBRs. For WT CC-5325 cultures, cells were first acclimated at

25°C for 2-days until reaching steady growth rates before treatments at different high

temperatures. Each high temperature treatment was conducted in individual PBRs with

replicates.

For pooled screens, the CLiP mutant library was pooled as described before (Fauser *et*

al. 2022) with minor modifications. The CLiP library was replicated using a Singer RoToR

robot (Singer Instruments, 704) on 384-format 1.5% TAP agar plates and grown in the

dark. Five-day-old fresh plates with the CLiP mutant library were pooled using sterile

glass spreaders in liquid TAP medium, vortexed to break the colonies, grown on a shaker

in the dark at room temperature overnight before being inoculated into PBRs the next

day. This gave cells time to acclimate from solid agar to liquid cultures before inoculation

to PBRs. Pooled CLiP liquid cultures were diluted using TAP or TP medium before being

inoculated into PBRs at 25°C in TAP or TP medium (initial cell density around 1×10^6 cells

mL^{-1}) and acclimated at 25°C in the light for 2 days to reach steady growth rates with

turbidostatic control before the start of heat treatments. Acclimation at 25°C in the light

was used to reduce false-positive heat-sensitive mutants that have difficulty adjusting

from growth on solid to liquid medium or from dark to light conditions. The heat of 35°C

lasted 4 (TAP) or 5 (TP) days and the heat of 40°C lasted 2 days because the algal

cultures would not survive if heated at 40°C for longer. After 40°C heat, cultures recovered

at 25°C for 3 days. Algal cultures of pooled mutants (2 x 50 mL) were harvested before

and after the heat treatments or by the end of recovery using centrifugation at 4°C for 5

min. Cell pellets were stored at -80°C before DNA extraction and barcode amplification.

DNA extraction and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted for DNA barcode amplification as described before (Li *et al.*

2016) with minor modifications. Frozen cell pellets (from one copy of 50 mL cultures) were

mixed with 800 µL of SDS-EDTA buffer (1% SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 50 mM

Tris-HCL, pH 8) and separated into two equal aliquots for downstream processing. Then,

500 µL of 24:25:1 phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (Sigma, P2069-400ML) was added

to each tube. Samples were vortexed for 2 min, centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 g, and the

aqueous phase was aliquoted into a new PhaseLock tube (VWR, Cat No. 10847-800),

added with 1.6 µL of 100 mg/µL RNaseA (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. No. 1209102),

and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. The phenol/chloroform DNA extraction was repeated

three additional times. After the final extraction, samples were transferred to a new 1.5

mL tube and 2.5 volumes cold 100% ethanol was added. Samples were incubated in a -

20°C freezer for 1 h then centrifuged at 16,000 g for 20 min at 4°C. Supernatant was

decanted and pellets were washed in 1 mL cold 70% ethanol. Supernatant was decanted,

pellets dried for 30 min at room temperature and DNA pellets were resuspended in 50 µL

molecular grade water. Like samples were combined into a single tube then quantified by

high sensitivity DNA Qubit (ThermoFisher scientific, Cat. No. Q32854).

DNA barcode amplification and sequencing

DNA barcodes were amplified as described before (Li *et al.* 2016) with minor
modifications. Barcodes from the 5' and 3' side of the insertional cassette were amplified,
sequenced, and processed separately. PCR reactions of 50 µL were prepared as follows:
PCR 5' side barcodes: 17 µL molecular grade water, 10 µL GC buffer, 5 µL DMSO, 1 µL
dNTPs at 10 mM, 1 µL $MgCl_2$ at 50 mM, 2.5 µL each primer at 10 µM, 1 µL Phusion
HotStart polymerase, and 10 µL DNA at 12.5 ng/µL. Samples were amplified using the
following PCR cycle for 5' side barcodes: $98^{\circ}C$ for 3 min, 10 cycles of $98^{\circ}C$ for 10 s, $58^{\circ}C$
for 25 s, $72^{\circ}C$ for 15 s, 10 cycles of $98^{\circ}C$ for 10 s, $72^{\circ}C$ for 40 s. PCR for 3' side barcodes:
16 µL molecular grade water, 10 µL GC buffer, 5 µL DMSO, 1 µL dNTPs at 10 mM, 2 µL
$MgCl_2$ at 50 mM, 2.5 µL each primer at 10 µM, 1 µL Phusion HotStart polymerase, and
10 µL DNA at 12.5 ng/µL. Samples were amplified using the following PCR cycle for 3'
side barcodes: $98^{\circ}C$ for 3 min, 10 cycles of $98^{\circ}C$ for 10 s, $63^{\circ}C$ for 25 s, $72^{\circ}C$ for 15 s, 9
cycles of $98^{\circ}C$ for 10 s, $72^{\circ}C$ for 40 s.

PCR products were cleaned and concentrated using the MinElute Gel Extraction kit
(Qiagen, Cat. No. 28606). The purified product was separated by gel electrophoresis
using a 1.5% agarose gel performed at 130 V for 65 min. PCR bands of 235 bp (5' side
barcodes) and 209 bp (3' side barcodes) were excised from agarose gel and extracted
with the MinElute Gel Extraction kit. Final purified DNA was eluted with 20 µL elution
buffer. DNA concentration was quantified using Qubit and the quality of DNA was
visualized using 8% TBE gel (Invitrogen, Cat. No. EC62152BOX) performed at 230 V for
30 min. Gel was stained for 5 min with SYBRGold (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. No.
S11494) prior to image acquisition.

Because samples were pooled together for sequencing, barcode amplification primers
contained unique indexes for downstream identification in the data analysis pipeline
(Supplemental Dataset 1b). Prior to sequencing, eight DNA samples were pooled
together for a total of 23.75 ng of each DNA sample in a final volume of 25 µL. Samples
were sequenced at the Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute (DOE JGI) using
the Illumina Hi-seq platform. The prepared libraries were quantified using KAPA
Biosystems' next-generation sequencing library qPCR kit and ran on a Roche LightCycler

480 real-time PCR instrument. Sequencing of the flowcell was performed on the Illumina

NextSeq500 sequencer using NextSeq500 Mid Output kits, v2, following a 1 x 50 indexed

run recipe utilizing a custom sequencing primer. Reads were mapped to each DNA

sample using the index code contained in the PCR amplification primer. Each DNA

sample had an average of 27 million reads and the minimum number of reads was 8

million.

Barcode abundance quantification and normalized read count cutoffs

From the Illumina sequencing reads, common cassette sequences were trimmed using

Geneious v10.1.3, leaving only the unique DNA barcodes. The number of reads from

each unique DNA barcode was quantified, and the total number of reads for each sample

was normalized to 100 million. The unique DNA barcodes were mapped to the CLiP

mutant library with no mismatch bases allowed. Minimum cutoffs of normalized barcode

read count were implemented: ≥150 normalized reads in all T1 samples (beginning of the

treatment period for control and the high temperature treatment) and ≥1 read from T3a or

T3b (end of the screens) in the control condition (Figure S1). Barcodes from heat-

compromised individuals were required to have ≥1 read in T3a or T3b of the high

temperature treatments. Barcodes from heat-depleted individuals had 0 reads in at least

1 biological replicate at T3a or T3b of the high temperature treatments.

Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis was performed on normalized read counts from all

barcodes in all biological replicates using the R package FactoMineR (Lê, Josse &

Husson 2008).

Growth rate calculations

The growth rate from each individual barcode was calculated using the following equation:

$$\frac{\left(\left[\dfrac{log_2\left(d/c\right)}{N}\right]+1\right)}{R}$$

Where d represents the normalized reads at T3a or T3b (end of screens), c represents
the normalized reads at T1 (start of screens), and N represents the estimated number of
generations that occurred in each given biological replicate (see Supplemental Dataset
1c). These calculations were performed for all barcodes in a biological replicate, then
growth rates were divided by R, the mean growth rate of all mutants in the biological
replicate to normalize for effects of different treatments. Each mutant was compared to
all other mutants in the same biological replicate; thus, the calculated growth rate of each
mutant is relative to the whole mutant pool. Relative growth rates were calculated for each
barcode in control and high temperature treatments. The mean doubling time of each
treatment was calculated based on the exponential increase of OD_{680}, as mentioned
above. The number of generations that occurred in each biological replicate was
estimated by the duration of the experiment divided by the mean doubling time
(Supplemental Dataset 1c). The mean growth rate of all mutants in a biological replicate
is inverse of the doubling time. The cell cycle was arrested in $40^{o}C$ (Zhang *et al.* 2022a),
thus for $40^{o}C$ treated cultures, we assumed zero generations occurred during the 2-day
$40^{o}C$ heat, and therefore only estimated the number of generations that occurred during
the $25^{o}C$ recovery period following the $40^{o}C$ heat treatment. Mutants that were depleted
by the end of the 2-day $40^{o}C$ heat were included as heat-depleted mutants (see below).
317

Growth rate validation of individual mutants in monocultures
Ten individual CLiP mutants were selected for monoculture phenotyping. The identities
of these mutants were verified by PCR using primers that bind to the cassette or flanking
genomic regions (Supplemental Dataset 1b) as described before (Li *et al.* 2016). PCR
products were sequenced for confirmation. Mutants were individually grown in PBRs as
mentioned above. Cultures were acclimated for 4 days at $25^{o}C$, then the temperature was
raised to $35^{o}C$ for 4 days. The exponential increase of OD_{680} was used to determine the
doubling time (Td) of the culture, which was then used to calculate the growth rate (1/Td)
as described above. For the growth rate at $25^{o}C$, doubling times from the last 24 hours of
$25^{o}C$ before heat at $35^{o}C$ were used to calculate the average pre-heat growth rate. The
growth rate at $35^{o}C$ was calculated from all doubling times from 6 hours after temperature
increase to $35^{o}C$ to the end of $35^{o}C$ heat. Doubling times from the first 6 hours of $35^{o}C$

heat treatment tended to be inconsistent as the culture adjusted to the higher
temperature. A normalized growth rate was then calculated by dividing the mutant growth
rate by the growth rate of WT CC-5325 (CLiP background) for each temperature
condition.
334
Identification of heat-compromised and heat-depleted mutants
Heat-compromised individuals are required to have a mean normalized growth rate at
25°C ≥0.95 (normal growth) and a mean normalized growth rate at high temperature of
≤0.8 (compromised growth) (Figure S2a-f). Additionally, using the normalized growth
rates of two biological replicates at each treatment condition, we performed a student's
one-sided t-test of unequal variance for each barcode that met normalized read count
cutoffs. Significance was defined as $p < 0.05$ and t-value in the 95th percentile (Figure
S2g-j). Heat-depleted individuals were also required to have a mean normalized growth
rate at 25°C ≥0.95 (normal growth), but because they were completely depleted from at
least one biological replicate at high temperature, a growth rate could not be calculated.
Heat tolerance genes (HTGs) were defined as those with at least one heat-compromised
or heat-depleted mutant. All the pooled screen data with gene IDs, mutant IDs,
phenotypes is in Supplemental Dataset 2.
348
Comparisons between conditions
350 To compare the HTGs between conditions, we filtered the dataset for only those genes
351 that were represented by at least one mutant in all four treatment conditions.
352 Comparisons between conditions were visualized using UpSetR (Conway, Lex &
353 Gehlenborg 2017).
354
MapMan functional enrichment
Functional enrichment analysis was performed using MapMan for different combinations
of conditions including: all HTGs from all conditions, and HTGs overlapping between both
TAP conditions, both TP conditions, both 35°C conditions, both 40°C conditions, or all
four conditions. Gene lists were expanded such that one gene can be associated with

multiple MapMan functional terms. Enrichment was assessed using a Fisher's Exact Test,

FDR < 0.05 (Venn & Mühlhaus 2022; Venn *et al.* 2022; Benjamini & Hochberg 01/1995).

Transcriptome and proteome comparisons

HTGs from all four conditions were compared with previously published RNA-seq data

from WT (CC-1690) Chlamydomonas cells treated for 24 h at either 35°C or 40°C followed

by a 48 h recovery period at 25°C in TAP medium (Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Differentially

expressed genes were sorted into heat induced genes (HIGs, up-regulated in ≥1 time

point during the high temperature period). HIGs were filtered for genes that had ≥1 CLiP

mutant present in pooled mutant screens. HTGs were also filtered for those genes that

met minimum read count cutoffs in the RNA-seq dataset. Overlaps between HTGs and

HIGs, were quantified, and enrichment was determined using a Fisher's exact test, FDR

< 0.05. These RNA-seq data also included modules of genes with similar expression

profiles using Weighted Correlation Network Analysis (WGCNA) (Langfelder & Horvath

2008; Zhang *et al.* 2022a). HTGs from the TAP-35°C, TAP-40°C, and the aggregated

HTGs from all 4 conditions were sorted within these modules. For modules that contained

more HTGs than would be expected by random chance from these groups (Fisher's exact

test, FDR < 0.05), MapMan functional enrichment analysis was performed on the

overlapping WGCNA module list and HTG list as described above.

Heat sensitivity assay of Arabidopsis mutants

Arabidopsis T-DNA insertional mutants were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological

Resource Center (ABRC): *Athmt-1* (SAIL_114_G09) and *Athmt-2* (SALK_106875C), and

the positive control *Athot1* (SALK_066374C). Homozygous insertional mutants were

verified by PCR as described before (Sessions *et al.* 2002; Alonso *et al.* 2003) (see

Supplemental Dataset 1b for primer sequences). WT Col-0 seeds were donated by Dr.

Dan Lin at the Donald Danforth Plant Science Center. Seeds from homozygous lines were

used for heat sensitivity assays. Seeds were sterilized in 500 μL 20% bleach with 1 μL

20% Tween20 followed by five washes using sterile water, then plated on MS-sucrose

plates (0.5X Murashige and Skoog (MS) salts, 1% sucrose), stratified for 3 days in dark

at 4°C, then grown in constant white light of 115 μmol photons m^2 s^{-1} at 25°C in a Conviron

growth chamber. After 7 days of growth, 3 biological replicates of seedlings were heated
at 41°C for 45 min in a pre-warmed water bath. Heat treated plates were returned to the
25°C growth chamber mentioned above for an additional 7 days for recovery before
imaging. Mean plantlet area was measured using ImageJ by dividing the total plantlet
area of each genotype by the number of seeds that germinated for that genotype. Mutant
plantlet area was normalized to that of Col-0 on the same plate. Statistical significance of
mutants compared to WT on the same plates was assessed with a student's one-sided t-
test of unequal variance. Control plates were grown at 25°C in a Conviron growth
chamber as mentioned and images were acquired at 10 days of growth for analysis to
limit the overlapping of neighboring plants. Gene models for *CrHMT* and *AtHMT* were
generated using the Gene Structure Display Server (GSDS2.0) (Hu *et al.* 2015).
402
Results
Pooled mutant screens were conducted at moderate and acute high temperatures
We first grew CC-5325, the background strain of the CLiP mutant library, in
photobioreactors (PBRs) under well-controlled conditions to test our heat screen
conditions. Cells were grown in PBRs under constant light in either Tris-acetate-
phosphate (TAP) medium (contains acetate, the organic carbon source), or Tris-
phosphate medium (TP, no acetate) under different temperatures. With supplied carbon,
the growth rate of CC-5325 increased at 30°C and 35°C but decreased at 40°C as
compared to 25°C (Figure 1a). The increased growth rates at 30°C and 35°C were
abolished without supplied organic carbon source, although the cultures were still very
sensitive to 40°C. We defined 35°C as moderate high temperature, and 40°C as acute
high temperature. We performed genome-wide, quantitative, pooled mutant screens in
PBRs using the CLiP mutant library at 25°C, 35°C, and 40°C with or without carbon source
(Figure 1b). Algal cultures were harvested at the beginning (T1) and end (T3a or T3b) of
the treatment period for DNA extraction, barcode quantification by deep sequencing, and
growth rate calculation for each mutant (Figure 1c). Principal component analysis of
normalized read abundance from all barcodes in each sample showed high reproducibility
between biological replicates (Figure 1d, Figure S1). PC1 explains 40.8% of the dataset
variance and separates samples based on medium condition, with and without carbon

supply. PC2 explains 11.2% of the dataset variance and separates samples based on
both temperature treatments and time points.
424

Growth rates were quantified consistently

We calculated the growth rates of each mutant using the normalized read counts from
DNA barcodes at the beginning and end of the treatment period (see Methods). Because
the cell cycle is arrested during 40°C in WT Chlamydomonas cultures (Zhang *et al.*
2022a), growth rates for these conditions were estimated based on the 3-day recovery at
25°C following the 40°C treatment (Figure 1b, Supplementary Dataset 1c, see Methods).
Growth rates quantified by barcodes were highly reproducible between two different
barcodes from the same mutant (amplified, sequenced, and processed separately,
therefore serving as internal controls for pipeline reproducibility) (Figure 2a, b), and
relatively reproducible between biological replicates (treatments in separate PBRs)
(Figure 2c, d). The relatively lower reproducibility under constant 25°C was partly due to
lack of selection pressure. The observed variations in growth rates between biological
replicates highlights the need for statistical significance between replicates for
downstream analysis (see below). For additional verification, we validated the growth
rates of 10 individual CLiP mutants from the pooled mutant screens in both 25°C and
35°C treatment condition in PBRs using monocultures (Figure 2e). Monoculture growth
rates were highly consistent with those calculated from pooled mutant screens.
442

Heat-compromised and heat-depleted mutants were identified in the screens

We identified heat-compromised and heat-depleted mutants using growth rates for each
of the four screen conditions (Figure 3). Heat-compromised mutants had a mean growth
rate at 25°C ≥ 0.95, mean growth rate with high temperature treatments (35°C or 40°C) ≤
0.8, $p < 0.05$ and t-value in the 95th percentile (student's one-sided t-test of unequal
variance) (Figure 3, Figure S2, Supplementary Dataset 1d). Heat-depleted mutants had
a mean 25°C growth rate ≥ 0.95 but were absent by the end of the screen in at least one
high temperature replicate. The aggregated lists of heat-compromised and heat-depleted
mutants are referred to as heat-sensitive mutants. Because all heat-sensitive mutants

had normal growth rates at 25°C, they had growth defects specifically under high

temperature treatments.

We investigated the aggregated features of the heat-sensitive mutants

All CLiP mutants have mapped insertion sites with insertion features and confidence

levels (Li *et al.* 2016). The distribution of both insertion features and confidence levels

(Figure 4a, b) of heat-sensitive mutants were similar to all CLiP mutants present in our

screens. Because each unique DNA barcode is linked to a disrupted gene in a CLiP

mutant (Li *et al.* 2016, 2019), we generated a list of genes (4,529) with potential roles in

heat tolerance, defined as **Heat Tolerance Genes (HTGs)** based on the identified heat-

sensitive mutants (Supplemental Dataset 1d). Each HTG has at least one heat-sensitive

mutant. While most HTGs had a single mutant allele that was heat sensitive, 5-11% of

them had two or more heat-sensitive mutant alleles in a single condition (Figure 4c).

Genes with multiple independent heat-sensitive mutant alleles have a high likelihood of

being required for thermotolerance.

Next, we investigated the predicted subcellular localizations of the aggregated list of

HTGs from all conditions using published predictions (Venn & Mühlhaus 2022; Venn *et*

al. 2022). We found that significantly more HTGs have a predicted localization in the

secretory pathway than expected by random chance (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.01$)

(Figure 4d, Supplemental Dataset 1d). Of the HTGs with predicted subcellular

localizations, 35.17% (818 genes) had proteins predicted to localize in the secretory

pathway.

We identified genes with known and novel roles in thermotolerance

Our HTGs include genes with known roles in thermotolerance (Supplemental Dataset 1e),

further supporting the effectiveness of our screen conditions and analysis pipeline.

Among these genes were 26 chaperone proteins, which are involved in the proper folding

of proteins and are especially important under high temperatures (Schroda *et al.* 2015;

Rütgers *et al.* 2017). These include HSP22E HSP70A/H/C, and HSP90A. Additionally,

we identified 9 members of the Chlamydomonas carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM)

as HTGs. The CCM is responsible for increasing the CO_2 concentration near the Rubisco
active site, thereby increasing the rate of carbon fixation and decreasing the rate of
photorespiration, a costly process when Rubisco fixes O_2 rather than CO_2 (Mackinder
2018). The CCM is especially important under high temperatures, when the concentration
of dissolved CO_2 to O_2 decreases in liquid cultures (Blankenship 2014). Furthermore, we
identified both forms of Rubisco activase (RCA1/2) as HTGs. RCA is responsible for
removing sugar-phosphate inhibitory compounds from the Rubisco catalytic site, which
occurs with increased frequency under high temperature and reduces Rubisco activity
(Bhat, Thieulin-Pardo, Hartl & Hayer-Hartl 2017; Mueller-Cajar 2017). One of the primary
limiting factors for carbon fixation during high temperatures is the activation state of
Rubisco (Crafts-Brandner & Salvucci 2002; Perdomo, Capó-Bauçà, Carmo-Silva &
Galmés 2017).
495
496   Additionally, we identified 2,510 (48%) of HTGs that have no function annotation
497   (Supplemental Dataset 1d), suggesting novel genes with putative roles in
498   thermotolerance. Furthermore, we identified 75 HTGs as transcription factors (Jin *et al.*
499   2017) (Supplemental Dataset 1f), highlighting the extensive and complex regulation
500   required for coordinating high temperature responses.
501

We identified overlapping HTGs between conditions
We next investigated the overlapping HTGs between the four treatment conditions. For
this analysis, we only considered those HTGs that were represented by at least one
mutant in all four treatment conditions. Consistent with principal component analysis
which showed medium treatment had the largest effect on dataset variance (Figure 1d),
we found that many HTGs are shared within medium treatments, with 401 genes uniquely
having heat-sensitive mutants in TAP conditions and 48 genes uniquely having heat-
sensitive genes in TP conditions (Figure 5a, Supplemental Dataset 1d). When comparing
temperature treatments, we found 189 HTGs unique to 35°C treatment groups and 172
genes unique to 40°C treatment groups.
512

To better understand the biological functions of HTGs, we performed functional enrichment analysis using MapMan annotations (Figure 5b, Supplemental Dataset 3a-f). In the aggregated list of HTGs from all conditions, we found significantly enriched MapMan terms for signaling, chromatin remodeling factors, and callose. We also investigated the functional enrichment of HTGs in overlapping medium and temperature conditions. For those HTGs found in both TAP conditions (TAP-35°C and TAP-40°C), there were many significantly enriched MapMan terms including calcium transport, iron hydrogenases, protein degradation, lipid metabolism, glycolysis, and cell motility. Interestingly, the enrichment of glycolysis MapMan terms was unique to TAP screens, with the supplied organic carbon source. There was not extensive functional enrichment for HTGs found in both TP conditions, except for cell motility. For HTGs found in both 35°C conditions, calcium signaling, iron hydrogenases, ARR transcription factors, and cell motility were among the significantly enriched MapMan terms. For HTGs found in both 40°C conditions, calcineurin-like phosphoesterases, methionine-tRNA ligases, 30S ribosomal subunit, and cell motility were among the significantly enriched MapMan terms. Finally, we found 56 genes with at least one heat-sensitive mutant in all four treatment conditions, which are significantly enriched for MapMan terms related to nutrient/sugar signaling and cell motility (Figure 5a, Supplemental Dataset 1g, 3f).

Some HTGs may be also involved in other stresses

We defined HTGs with high-confidence heat-sensitive mutants (HSMs) as those that had either (a) at least two HSMs in one or more treatment conditions or (b) one HSM with a heat-sensitive phenotype in at least two conditions. We next investigated the behavior of these 1,693 HTGs with high-confidence HSMs in other pooled screen conditions conducted by Fauser *et al.* (2022) to see if these HTGs are heat-specific. These authors investigated the behavior of CLiP mutants in approximately 121 different screen conditions (Fauser *et al.* 2022), which we sorted into 16 broad categories (Figure S3). Fauser *et al.* (2022) used two significance thresholds for analysis, FDR < 0.3 and FDR < 0.05. We reported comparisons for the FDR < 0.3 threshold (Figure S3) and included comparisons for both thresholds in Supplemental Dataset 1i & j. For the 16 broad categories, we reported the percentage of genes identified by Fauser *et al.* (2022) with

sensitive mutants that are also HTGs in our work. Of our 1,693 HTGs with high-confidence
heat-sensitive mutants, we found that 183 also had CLiP mutants there were sensitive to
other screen conditions by Fauser *et al.* (2022) (FDR < 0.3), meaning these genes may
be also involved in other stresses. Our HTGs with high-confidence HSMs overlapped with
10 of the 39 (FDR < 0.3) and 2 of the 10 (FDR < 0.05) HTGs previously identified by
Fauser et al. (2022) (Figure S3, Supplemental Dataset 1i, j), validating our pooled
screens. Because both the treatment conditions and analysis pipelines were different
between Fauser *et al.* (2022) and ours, we would not expect perfect overlap between
HTGs identified. We identified three broad reasons why the remaining 29 out 39 HTGs
(FDR < 0.3) Fauser et al. (2022) identified were not included on our HTG list
(Supplemental Dataset 1j): (1) some corresponding mutants had no phenotypes in our
pooled screen conditions, (2) some mutants had lower growth rates at high temperatures
than control, but did not meet the stringent statistical cutoffs we employed, or (3) some
mutants had reduced growth rate (<0.95) at control conditions, eliminating them in our
analysis pipeline (we required normal growth rates at 25°C ≥ 0.95).

We investigated HTGs using transcriptomes/proteomes under high temperatures
If a gene is up-regulated at the transcript and/or protein level during high temperatures
and disruption of this gene results in a heat sensitive phenotype, this gene likely has an
important role in thermotolerance. Thus, we compared our HTGs with our previously
published transcriptomes and proteomes in WT Chlamydomonas during 24-hours of
moderate (35°C) or acute (40°C) high temperatures followed by 48-hours recovery at
25°C under similar PBR cultivation conditions (Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Our previous RNA-
seq identified 3,960 <u>h</u>eat <u>i</u>nduced <u>g</u>enes (HIGs), up-regulated in at least one time point
during the heat treatments of 35°C or 40°C, and 3,503 of them were also present in our
pooled screen experiments. We found 1,224 genes overlapping between the HIG and
HTG lists, significantly more than expected by random chance (Fisher's exact test, p <
0.001) (Figure 6a). Because some genes were differentially regulated at the protein level
but not the transcript level in our previous data, we were interested in identifying the
overlaps between <u>h</u>eat <u>i</u>nduced <u>p</u>roteins (HIPs, 549 proteins) and HTGs (Figure 6b). We
found 111 genes that were both HIPs and HTGs. Unlike the overlap between HTGs and

HIGs, the overlap between HTGs and HIPs were significantly de-enriched below what
would be expected by random chance (111 observed vs 138 expected). This proteomics
dataset was generated by untargeted mass spectrometry, resulting in identification of
primarily highly abundant proteins. However, the distribution of HTGs is not over-
represented for highly abundant proteins, likely because highly abundant proteins may
also be performing important functions under control temperatures. Our HTGs are
required to have mutants with normal growth rates at 25°C but reduced growth rates
during heat treatments.

Our previous transcriptome analyses also identified common transcriptional patterns
during and after high temperatures using weighted correlation network analysis (WGCNA)
(Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Interestingly, the HTGs identified in our pooled screens were non-
randomly distributed among the WGCNA modules (Figure 6c). Of particular interest is
transcriptome module 1 (TM1), which contains 559 genes that are both in TM1 and have
at least one mutant in our pooled screens (Supplemental Dataset 1k). These genes had
peak expression at the beginning of high temperature and most genes with known roles
in thermotolerance (e.g., HSPs) had this transcriptional pattern. Of those 559 genes, 249
were also identified as HTGs in our pooled screens (defined as TM1-HTGs). Furthermore,
129 and 95 of these TM1-HTGs have heat-sensitive mutants in the TAP-40°C and TAP-
35°C screen condition, respectively. These subsets are all significantly enriched above
random chance ($p < 0.05$, Fisher's Exact Test). We performed MapMan functional
enrichment analysis on these TM1-HTGs to gain further understanding of their functions
(Supplemental Dataset 3g). MapMan terms relating to heat stress, protein folding, PSII
biogenesis, thioredoxins, and lipid metabolism were significantly enriched. Half of TM1-
HTGs have unknown functions, and these genes are of particular interest for future study.
HTGs were also overrepresented in TM3, which contains 459 genes that are present in
the pooled screens, and 178 of them were HTGs ($p < 0.05$, Fisher's Exact Test) (TM3-
HTGs) (Supplemental Dataset 1k). These genes have peaks in expression during both
the early high temperature and early recovery periods. The TM3-HTGs were significantly
enriched for DNA repair, calcium transport, protein degradation, and thioredoxins
(Supplemental Dataset 3h).

A triangulation approach identified HTGs with increased confidence

To increase the confidence in our putative HTGs, we leveraged our previously published

transcriptome and proteome data under high temperatures along with MapMan functional

annotations. By triangulating these three datasets, we have narrowed the candidate list

of HTGs to those with higher confidence. We required triangulated HTGs to meet two of

the three criteria below: (Figure 7a). (**A**) having high-confidence heat-sensitive mutants

(HSMs) in our pooled mutant screens (1,693 genes, HTGs that had at least one heat-

sensitive mutant in at least two conditions or at least two heat-sensitive mutant alleles

across all conditions in our pooled screens). (**B**) The gene was induced by heat in our

previously published RNA-seq or proteomics data (4,344 genes) (Zhang *et al.* 2022a).

(**C**) The gene has a MapMan annotation related to a pathway known to be involved in

heat tolerance or affected by high temperatures (1020 genes, Supplemental Dataset 3j),

including heat response (e.g., HSPs), protein folding, lipid metabolism, calcium signaling,

photosynthesis, the carbon concentrating mechanism, redox, and other stress responses.

Using this triangulation approach, we identified 933 genes that we defined as triangulated

HTGs (meet two of the three criteria mentioned above, Supplemental Dataset 1l). Among

these, 43 HTGs meet all three of the criteria used, including RCA1/2, the CCM subunits

LCI1 and PHC25, heat shock protein HSP70A, and thioredoxin TRXf2. We further refined

the list of 933 triangulated HTGs by sorting into HTGs with at least two heat-sensitive

mutant alleles (high-confidence triangulated HTG, 386 genes, 41% of triangulated HTGs)

and those with a single heat-sensitive mutant allele or present only in the BC overlap

category (medium-confidence triangulated HTG, 547 genes, 59% of triangulated HTGs)

(Figure 7a).

Of particular interest are the 504 genes that meet criteria A and B (heat-sensitive mutants

and heat induced transcripts/proteins), because they have two independent experimental

datatypes pointing to a role in thermotolerance. Among these, 337 are high-confidence

HTGs with at least 2 heat-sensitive mutants. Since this category has no requirement for

functional annotation, 282 genes out 504 genes (56%) have no MapMan annotations,

suggesting novel players in thermotolerance. The remaining 222 genes were significantly

enriched for signaling, transcription regulation, redox, lipid metabolism, starch synthases,

and more (FDR < 0.05) (Figure 7a).

There are 113 genes in the intersection between A and C (heat-sensitive mutants and

MapMan annotations, 80 of which are high-confidence HTGs with at least 2 heat-sensitive

mutants). These genes do not necessarily had increased transcript/protein levels under

high temperatures but may encode proteins that have important functions in

thermotolerance. For example, some proteins may undergo conformational changes to

activate and have no increased abundance to perform their role in thermotolerance.

The intersection between B and C (heat-induced transcripts/proteins and in MapMan

annotation) contained 402 genes. There are several reasons why these genes would not

be identified in the pooled screen analyses but could still be of great interest. (1) The gene

has redundant functionality with another gene, resulting in lack of phenotype in single

mutants; (2) the gene may not be represented by knockout mutants in the pooled screen

because it is an essential gene, as is the case with the master regulator of heat

responses, HSF1; (3) the CLiP mutants have insertions in 3'UTR or introns, thus no

observable phenotypes in our pooled screens. Because these genes were not

represented by heat-sensitive mutants in this screen, we classified these as medium-

confidence triangulated HTGs.

Additionally, we overlayed 933 triangulated HTGs and 386 high-confidence triangulated

HTGs with the ChlamyNET dataset, a transcriptional network based on expression

patterns of Chlamydomonas under various conditions (Romero-Campero, Perez-

Hurtado, Lucas-Reina, Romero & Valverde 2016). Our triangulated HTGs were

overrepresented in four ChlamyNET clusters named "C1: stress response and protein

folding", "C4: photosynthesis and hexoses metabolism", "C6: protein phosphorylation and

carbon/nitrogen metabolism", and "C7: GTPase activity and autophagy" (Figure 7b,

Supplemental Dataset 1m). Our high-confidence HTGs were overrepresented in three

ChlamyNET clusters named "C2: protein phosphorylation and macromolecule synthesis",

"C6: protein phosphorylation and carbon/nitrogen metabolism", and "C7: GTPase activity

and autophagy" (Figure 7c). All triangulated HTGs and high-confidence triangulated

HTGs are enriched in both C6 (protein phosphorylation and carbon/nitrogen metabolism)

and C7 (GTPase activity and autophagy). The ChlamyNET analysis supports the

important roles of our HTGs in thermotolerance.

Our research in Chlamydomonas can inform orthologous HTGs in land plants

We investigated the conservation of 933 triangulated HTGs (high/medium-confidence

levels) in the green lineage. We identified one-to-one, one-to-many, many-to-one, and

many-to-many orthologs with eight species using the JGI In.Paranoid dataset (Remm,

Storm & Sonnhammer 2001) (Figure 8). Hierarchical clustering identified three distinct

classes of conservation for both high-confidence (Figure 8a) and medium-confidence

(Figure 8b) triangulated HTGs: (I) low conservation across all species, (II) green-algae

specific, and (III) high conservation across all/most species tested. The HTGs identified

in class III are of particular interest as our work in Chlamydomonas can be used to infer

the function of these HTGs in land plants, providing engineering targets to improve

thermotolerance in crops. Of the 933 triangulated HTGs, 173 had a one-to-one

orthologous relationship with a gene in the model plant Arabidopsis and 49 of them (28%)

were also up-regulated at the transcript level in Arabidopsis during high temperatures

(42°C for 7 h) (Balfagón *et al.* 2019) (Supplemental Dataset 1n).

To demonstrate that our results from Chlamydomonas can be broadly applied in land

plants, we investigated the heat sensitivity of Arabidopsis mutants disrupted in orthologs

of high-confidence HTGs identified in Chlamydomonas. We required these HTGs to meet

the following criteria: (1) there is a one-to-one homolog in Arabidopsis with a

Chlamydomonas high-confidence triangulated HTG; (2) the transcript or protein of this

HTG is up-regulated during high temperature in Chlamydomonas (Zhang *et al.* 2022a);

and (3) the corresponding Arabidopsis transcript is up-regulated during high temperature

(Balfagón *et al.* 2019). Among HTGs that meet these criteria, we identified one

Chlamydomonas HTG (Cre11.g467752) and its one-to-one ortholog in Arabidopsis

(AT4G26240). The Arabidopsis gene is annotated as a putative histone-lysine N-

methyltransferase (HMT) at The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR) website,

though detailed functional characterization of these two genes is lacking in both
organisms.

CrHMT was up-regulated at the transcript level in both early heat and early recovery in
40°C, and also during early recovery following 35°C (Figure 9a)(Zhang *et al.* 2022a).
AtHMT was also up-regulated approximately 1.5-fold following 7 h at 42°C (Figure 9b)
(Balfagón *et al.* 2019). Three CLiP mutant alleles in *CrHMT* were heat sensitive in our
pooled mutant screens (Figure 9c, d). We obtained two insertional mutant alleles in
AtHMT (Figure 9e) and tested their heat sensitivity as compared to their WT background,
Columbia (Col-0), as well as a well-documented mutant with a heat-sensitive phenotype,
hot-1, which is mutated in the large heat shock protein HSP101 (Queitsch, Hong, Vierling
& Lindquist 2000; Larkindale, Hall, Knight & Vierling 2005; Cha *et al.* 2020). After a 45-
minute heat treatment at 41°C followed by 7-day recovery at 25°C, we found *hot1* and
hmt-2 mutants had significantly lower mean plantlet areas as compared to WT (Figure 9f,
g). No significant difference was identified for any of the Arabidopsis mutants compared
to WT at the control temperature.

Discussion

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We performed genome-wide, quantitative, pooled mutant screens under moderate (35°C)
and acute (40°C) high temperatures in medium with or without organic carbon (TAP or
TP) using the genome-saturating CLiP mutant library. Through these screens, we
identified putative heat tolerance genes (HTGs) in each condition and overlapping
conditions. By overlaying these data with previously published transcriptomic and
proteomic data during high temperatures and MapMan functional annotations, we report
a list of 933 triangulated HTGs (386 and 547 genes at high and medium confidence) in
Chlamydomonas, about 50% of which are conserved in other photosynthetic eukaryotes
and are prime targets for improving heat tolerance in green algae and land plants.
Arabidopsis mutants deficient in the ortholog of a Chlamydomonas high-confidence HTG
were heat sensitive, providing evidence that our results in Chlamydomonas can be used
to infer thermotolerance genes in land plants.

Our research expanded the discovery of novel HTGs

Previous pooled screens utilizing the CLiP mutant library employed a data analysis method testing the number of alleles in each gene with a sensitive phenotype against the number of alleles in that gene with a WT-like phenotype (Fisher's Exact Test) (Li *et al.* 2016, 2019; Fauser *et al.* 2022). Using this method, the authors hope to be confident that the gene of interest is associated with a mutant phenotype in a given condition. However, this method may exclude interesting genes that have many non-phenotypic mutants due to insertions in 3'UTRs or introns, diluting the effect of strong alleles. In our experimental setup, we enabled the use of variance-based statistical methods to identify alleles with consistent heat-sensitive phenotypes. While single mutants showing a heat-sensitive phenotype cannot definitively prove a role of the disrupted genes in thermotolerance, we think these data are valuable for several key reasons: (1) these mutant phenotypes can be combined with other datasets such as multi-omics and functional annotations to add validity to individual mutants; (2) HTGs with strong phenotypes in single CLiP alleles can be used to guide the generation of additional mutants via other mechanisms such as CRISPR (Picariello *et al.* 2020; Dhokane *et al.* 2020) to further characterize the functions of putative HTGs; and (3) these data may be used in the future to characterize the specificity of gene x environment interactions by other groups. Therefore, our triangulation approach comparing our HTGs with heat-induced transcripts/proteins and function annotations increased the confidence of our HTGs with roles in thermotolerance. Nevertheless, to address concerns that heat-sensitive phenotypes may be inaccurately attributed to a gene of interest due to off-target effects, we further refined our triangulated HTGs into those with two or more heat-sensitive alleles (high-confidence, 41%) and those with a single heat-sensitive allele or no CLiP mutants in our screen (medium-confidence, 59%) (Figure 7a). About half of our triangulated HTGs have no or little functional annotation, suggesting novel players with potential roles in thermotolerance.

We identified core HTGs among different heat treatments

We found 56 HTGs with heat-sensitive mutants in all four heat treatment conditions, representing the list of core HTGs (Supplemental Dataset 1g). Fifteen of these genes had no annotations, representing novel putative HTGs of great interest for future

characterization. *CrRCA1* was present in this gene set, highlighting its importance in
thermotolerance. Additionally, this gene set contained the PSII assembly/repair factor
HCF136. In Arabidopsis, HCF136 is required for the proper insertion of the core reaction
center protein, D1, into the PSII complex (Plöchinger, Schwenkert, von Sydow, Schröder
& Meurer 2016). High temperatures reduce photosynthesis, increase ROS production,
and lead to oxidative stress (Fedyaeva, Stepanov, Lyubushkina, Pobezhimova &
Rikhvanov 2014; Babbar, Karpinska, Grover & Foyer 2020; Zhang *et al.* 2022a). The D1
protein is frequently damaged during oxidative stress conditions, resulting in its removal
and insertion of a new D1 protein into the reaction center (Järvi, Suorsa & Aro 2015; Theis
& Schroda 2016). Without the HCF136 protein, these mutants likely cannot cope with the
oxidative stresses caused by high temperatures and perform poorly in pooled screens
with heat treatments. Additionally, the list of core HTGs contained several putative signal
transduction pathway members, including three adenylate/guanylate cyclases and three
3'-5' cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterases. While previous reports have shown that both
unfolded proteins (Rütgers *et al.* 2017) and calcium spikes (Königshofer, Tromballa &
Löppert 2008; Saidi *et al.* 2009; Wu, Luo, Vignols & Jinn 2012) can lead to the activation
of HSFs to induce the heat stress response (Schulz-Raffelt, Lodha & Schroda 2007;
Schmollinger, Strenkert & Schroda 2010; Schroda *et al.* 2015), the signaling cascades
leading to these responses remain unknown. These six genes are prime candidates for
putative members of these signaling cascades.

HTGs are overrepresented in the secretory pathway
We found that HTGs are overrepresented for proteins localizing to the secretory pathway
(Figure 4d). Secretomes are known to contain proteins with a variety of functions including
cell wall maintenance, redox homeostasis, and cell-cell communication (Krause, Richter,
Knöll & Jürgens 2013; Tanveer, Shaheen, Parveen, Kazi & Ahmad 2014). Recent works
across a range of plant species have shown that secretomes vary widely in response to
different environmental stresses, including oxidative (Zhou, Bokhari, Dong & Liu 2011;
Tanveer *et al.* 2014), drought (Pandey *et al.* 2010; Bhushan *et al.* 2011; Krause *et al.*
2013; Tanveer *et al.* 2014), osmotic (Zhang *et al.* 2009; Song *et al.* 2011; Tanveer *et al.*
2014; Ngara *et al.* 2018), and low temperature (Gupta & Deswal 2012; Tanveer *et al.*

2014) stresses. Furthermore, a recent analysis in Chlamydomonas comparing an evolved

salinity-tolerant strain to the parental strain found over 500 differentially accumulated

proteins between the two secretomes (Ves-Urai, Krobthong, Thongsuk, Roytrakul &

Yokthongwattana 2021). Recently, a high temperature secretome of *Sorghum bicolor* cell

cultures identified 31 heat-responsive secreted proteins functioning in protein

modification, detoxification, and metabolism (Ngcala, Goche, Brown, Chivasa & Ngara

2020). Though the Chlamydomonas secretome under high temperatures has not yet been

explored, we hypothesize that some of HTGs in the secretory pathway may enhance the

thermotolerance of Chlamydomonas cells.

Carbon availability affects the thermotolerance of green algae

The background of the CLiP library, CC-5325, exhibited different growth rates at

moderate and acute high temperatures of 35°C and 40°C depending on carbon availability

(Figure 1a). Heat at 30°C and 35°C increased the growth of CC-5325 with supplied carbon

(TAP medium), but this increase was abolished without supplied carbon (TP medium).

These observations led us to hypothesize that the presence of external carbon improves

the thermotolerance of Chlamydomonas, at least under moderate high temperatures in

our experiments. To understand the molecular mechanisms underpinning this

observation, we investigated the functional enrichment of HTGs identified from both the

TAP-35°C and TAP-40°C conditions. We found that genes involved in glycolysis,

particularly pyruvate kinases, were significantly enriched in this gene set and unique to

screen conditions with supplied carbon source (Figure 5b). Glycolysis plays a key role in

the breakdown of starch for cellular energy (Johnson & Alric 2012, 2013). Pyruvate kinase

catalyzes the final step of glycolysis, converting phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP to pyruvate

+ ATP (Baud *et al.* 2007; Wulfert, Schilasky & Krueger 2020). Three pyruvate kinases

were identified in these significantly enriched MapMan terms: PYK3 (Cre05.g234700),

PYK4 (Cre03.g144847), and PYK6 (Cre10.g426292). In plant systems, there are

commonly multiple pyruvate kinase isoforms localizing to either the plastid or the cytosol

(Plaxton 1996; van Dongen *et al.* 2011). Acetate, present in the TAP medium, is up-taken

through the acetate uptake/assimilation pathway then converted to starch via the

glyoxylate and gluconeogenesis cycles in Chlamydomonas (Johnson & Alric 2012, 2013).

Indeed, our previous work in WT Chlamydomonas cells showed that most proteins

involved in acetate uptake/assimilation and glyoxylate and gluconeogenesis cycles were

induced during 35°C heat and starch content increased in 35°C treated cells in TAP

medium (Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Increased starch breakdown through the glycolysis cycle

and production of cellular energy is likely contributing to the enhanced thermotolerance

and increased growth rates of Chlamydomonas in acetate-containing medium during

35°C. The three copies of PYK with heat-sensitive mutants in TAP medium may be

important for catalyzing the breakdown of phosphoenolpyruvate and production of ATP

under high temperatures. Under low oxygen conditions, allosteric regulation leads to

increased activity of PYKs resulting in greater ATP production (van Dongen *et al.* 2011).

While the majority of respiratory ATP production typically comes from oxidative

phosphorylation in mitochondria, the ATP production from glycolysis can be important

under stressful conditions where energy availability is limited (van Dongen *et al.* 2011). A

recent proteomics analysis in barley under heat stress also found that utilization of

glycolysis as an alternative energy source is important for thermotolerance (Rollins *et al.*

2013). The normal growth phenotypes of the *pky* mutants under control conditions may

be explained either by functional redundancy (Chlamydomonas has 6 PYKs), or by

stress-specific need for higher enzyme function to increase ATP production for the

accumulation of HSPs, maintenance of RCA activity, increased ion channel activities, and

other cellular processes under high temperatures.

In comparison to the TAP conditions, there was little functional enrichment for the HTGs

in both TP conditions apart from the flagellar radial spoke head, which has a putative role

in mechanoregulation of ciliary beating (Grossman-Haham *et al.* 2021). This may be

partially explained by the overall smaller overlap between HTGs in both TP conditions as

compared to both TAP conditions. While there were 700 (56+83+160+401, No. above

vertical bars, Figure 5a) HTGs found in both TAP conditions, representing 42% of the

35°C and 36% of the 40°C HTGs, there were only 159 (56+23+32+48) HTGs found in

both TP conditions, representing just 15% of 35°C and 17% of 40°C HTGs. This may be

due to the slower growth rates (thus fewer generations) in TP conditions without organic

carbon source. Alternatively, this trend may reflect a more diverse set of genes required

for tolerance of different high temperatures in the absence of external carbon sources.

Future work expanding the length of the screen in TP conditions, thereby increasing the

number of generations in the screen, may improve the resolution of HTGs during high

temperatures without organic carbon source.

Different high temperature treatments revealed some non-overlapping HTGs

Next, by comparing the functional enrichment of HTGs in both 35°C treatments to those

in both 40°C treatments, we identified functional categories that are differentially required

under the different heat treatments. Unlike the comparison between TAP and TP

conditions, there were a similar number of HTGs identified in each temperature treatment,

with 428 (56+23+160+189) HTGs found in both 35°C conditions and 343 HTGs

(56+32+83+172) found in both 40°C conditions (Figure 5a). Within the overlapping 35°C

HTGs, calcium signaling was significantly enriched (Figure 5b). Calcium signaling

pathways have been frequently implicated in thermotolerance in photosynthetic cells,

however the members involved in this pathway are not well understood (Königshofer *et*

al. 2008; Saidi *et al.* 2009; Wu *et al.* 2012). Of the 62 genes with annotated roles in calcium

signaling represented in this screen, 8 have heat-sensitive mutants in both TAP-35°C and

TP-35°C conditions (Figure 5b, Supplemental dataset 3d**)**. These included four putative

calmodulin-dependent protein kinases, two putative ATPases, one putative copine

protein (Tomsig & Creutz 2002), and one protein with an annotated calmodulin domain

but no other known functions. These genes provide novel insight into the putative calcium

signaling pathways that are important for the thermotolerance of photosynthetic cells. Of

particular interest is FAP39 (Cre02.g145100), a putative cation transporting ATPase

localized to the flagella. Some researchers have hypothesized that a heat sensor may be

flagellar localized or related to flagellar function in green algae and other organisms

(Kamp & Higgins 2011; Sengupta & Garrity 2013; Sekiguchi, Kameda, Kurosawa,

Yoshida & Yoshimura 2018), but the mechanisms remain unknown. Furthermore, we

identified several cell motility MapMan terms significantly enriched in the 35°C HTGs.

The 40°C HTGs were significantly enriched for calcineurin (CaN) like phosphoesterases.

Of the three CaN-like phosphoesterases in this screen, two were identified as HTGs in

the 40°C condition (Figure 5b). These calmodulin-dependent serine/threonine
phosphoesterases do not have clearly defined roles in Chlamydomonas, but we
hypothesize that they are involved in thermotolerance-related signaling pathways. It is
possible that these proteins are somehow involved in distinguishing between different
intensities of temperature stresses, but the mechanisms of this are unclear. Future work
to identify the molecular function of these proteins could provide novel insight into the
signaling pathways involved in thermotolerance.

Our research can be used to improve thermotolerance in land plants
To translate our algal research to land plants, we identified orthologs of triangulated HTGs
in key land plants of interest (Figure 8) and about 50% of them are highly conserved in
land plants, suggesting we can study the function of these HTGs in Chlamydomonas to
infer the function of the orthologous genes in land plants. We highlighted the functionality
of our study in Chlamydomonas by testing the heat sensitivity of Arabidopsis mutants
deficient in the *AtHMT* gene, which is ortholog to a high-confidence Chlamydomonas
HTG. The Arabidopsis mutant *hmt-2* displayed significantly reduced plant size as
compared to WT following heat treatments, demonstrating the translatability of our work
in Chlamydomonas to land plants. The *AtHMT* gene is annotated as histone-lysine N-
methyltransferase, although its detailed function is unknown. Histone post-translational
modifications alter nucleosome properties, affect chromatin structure, and impact gene
regulation (Crisp, Ganguly, Eichten, Borevitz & Pogson 2016; Ueda & Seki 2020). Histone
methylation can either increase or decrease transcription, depending on the amino acid
position of the methylation and the number of methyl groups attached to specific histone
tails. In Arabidopsis, H3K4me3 (trimethylation of histone H3 at lysine 4) is associated with
actively transcribed genes while H3K27me3 is often associated with lowly expressed
genes (Oberkofler, Pratx & Bäurle 2021; Friedrich *et al.* 2021; Hu & Du 2022). *CrHMT*
has no function annotation. Besides Arabidopsis, *CrHMT* also has one-to-one orthologs
in *Setaria viridis, Sorghum bicolor, Volvox carterii, Glycine max,* and *Oryza sativa*
(Supplemental dataset 1o). If the annotation of *AtHMT* is correct, it is possible that the
epigenetic modifications performed by *AtHMT* and *CrHMT* are required for the regulation
of heat responses in photosynthetic cells, which needs function validation in the future.

In summary, Chlamydomonas is an excellent model for the study of thermotolerance in
photosynthetic cells. Our research in Chlamydomonas advanced understanding of heat
responses in photosynthetic cells and identified important engineering targets to improve
thermotolerance in both algae and crops.

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Author Contributions

R.Z. supervised the whole project, conducted pooled mutant screens in photobioreactors, and collected cell samples. E.M.M., W.M., and N.Z. prepared samples for barcode extraction and sequencing. DOE JGI CSP team (C.G.D., M. Z., C.P., J.S., R.C.O.), sequenced the DNA barcodes. E.M.M and W.M. developed data analysis pipeline for identification of heat-sensitive mutants. E.M.M. led the project with data analysis, and figure preparation. C.E.B., W.M., and N.Z. completed growth rate validation of individual mutants in monocultures. J.E., E.M.M., and C.E.B. verified the identity of individual mutants used for monoculture phenotyping. C.C. and J.C. performed ChlamyNET analysis. E.M.M. performed heat-sensitivity assay in Arabidopsis. E.M.M. and R.Z. led the writing of the manuscript. C.E.B. and C.C. wrote their corresponding methods. R.Z., E.M.M., J.E., C.E.B., J.C., and C.C. helped revise the manuscript.

Main text figure legends

Figure 1: We screened the CLiP Chlamydomonas mutant library under either 35°C or 40°C with and without supplied carbon source using quantitative pooled screens. (a) The relative growth rates of Chlamydomonas wild-type cells (CC-5325, CLiP library background strain) at different temperatures with and without supplied organic carbon source. Chlamydomonas cells were grown in photobioreactors (PBRs) in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP, with acetate as a carbon source) or Tris-phosphate (TP, no acetate) medium under turbidostatic conditions at different temperatures with a light intensity of 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} and constantly bubbling of air. Relative growth rates were calculated based on the cycling of OD_{680}, which is proportional to total chlorophyll content in unit of µg chlorophyll mL^{-1}. Each temperature treatment was conducted in an individual PBR and lasted two days. Mean ± SD, $n = 2$-5 biological replicates. Statistical analyses were performed using two-tailed t-test assuming unequal variance by comparing with 25°C with the same carbon condition (*, $p < 0.05$, the color and position of asterisks match the treatment conditions). **(b)** Pooled CLiP mutants were grown in PBRs with either TAP or TP medium under different temperatures using the similar cultivation condition as in panel a. Cultures were acclimated for 2 days at 25°C before high temperature treatments. Heat at 35°C (brown lines) lasted for 4 days (TAP) or 5 days (TP). Heat at

40°C lasted for 2 days then recovered at 25°C for 3 days (red) for both TAP and TP

conditions. Algal cultures grown at 40°C for longer than two days could not survive.

Control cultures were maintained at 25°C for the duration of the experiment (dark blue,

dashed lines). Different treatments were conducted in individual PBRs. Samples were

collected at the beginning (T1) and the end (T3a or T3b) of the treatment period. T3a was

used for the end of TAP-35°C screen, while T3b was used for all other screens due to

their slower growth rates than TAP-35°C. **(c)** Schematic of pooled screens utilizing unique

internal DNA barcodes of the CLiP mutant library. The Chlamydomonas CLiP mutant

library enables high-throughput, quantitative phenotyping in pooled cultures. Three

hypothetical mutants are shown, each with a unique DNA barcode sequence

(represented by purple, brown, and red bars). CLiP mutants are pooled and grown under

the condition as in panel b. Under constant 25°C, three mutants have no change of growth

rates, thus no change of barcode abundance. If the brown (or red) mutant is deficient in

a process essential for optimal growth under a 35°C (or 40°C) screen condition, it will

have reduced cell abundance at the end of the screen. Cell abundance and growth rate

of each mutant in pooled cultures are calculated by quantifying DNA barcodes at the start

and end of the screen using deep sequencing from pooled mutant DNAs. **(d)** Principal

component (PC) analysis of normalized barcode abundance from each sample. The first

two PC displayed represent the largest amount of variance explained in the dataset.

Closed symbols and solid ovals represent TAP conditions; open symbols and dashed

ovals represent TP conditions. Colors represent the different temperature treatment

groups (blue: 25°C; brown: 35°C; red: 40°C) and shapes represent sampling time points

(T1, T3a, T3b). PVE: percent variance explained.

1000

Figure 2: Growth rates calculated from barcode quantification are reproducible. (a,

b) Growth rates of one mutant with two different barcodes were consistent. Each dot

represents one mutant with two different barcodes (from 5' and 3' side of the insertional

cassette or from 2 different insertion sites). Different barcodes from the same mutants

were amplified and sequenced separately. X- and Y-axes are mean normalized growth

rates calculated from two different barcodes of the same mutant in the screens of TAP-

25°C (**a**) and TAP-35°C (**b**). r: Pearson correlation coefficient. **(c, d)** Growth rates of

biological replicates can be calculated consistently. Each dot represents the normalized

growth rate of one mutant from two biological replicates in the screens of TAP-25°C (**c**)

and TAP-35°C (**d**). Because the screen pressure was present under TAP-35°C but not

TAP-25°C, the growth rate plots from the two conditions are different. **(e)** Growth rates

calculated from pooled mutant screens were validated with those calculated from

monocultures for 10 individual CLiP mutants. X: mean relative growth rates of individual

CLiP mutants from TAP-25°C (black) or TAP-35°C (brown) calculated from pooled mutant

screens. Y: relative growth rates of individual CLiP mutants calculated from monoculture

growth experiments normalized to WT CC-5325 under the same condition. For

monoculture experiments, individual CLiP mutants were grown in separate PBRs as in

the pooled screens. Two or three biological replicates were conducted for most of the

CLiP mutants (see mutant IDs and No. of replicates in Supplemental Dataset 1b). Mutants

that were depleted in the heat screens were set to have a growth rate of zero in the pooled

screens for the plot.

1022

Figure 3: Heat-compromised and heat-depleted mutants were identified from

quantitative pooled screens. (a-d) Heat-compromised (comp-) mutants from TAP-35°C

(**a**), TP-35°C (**b**), TAP-40°C (**c**), TP-40°C (**d**) were defined as those with mean normalized

growth rates at 25°C ≥ 0.95, mean normalized growth rates at 35°C or 40°C ≤ 0.8, p-value

< 0.05 and t-values in the 95th percentile (student's one-sided t-test of unequal variance,

red dots). Heat-depleted individuals were defined as those that were absent from the

35°C or 40°C pools at the end of the screen but had normal growth at 25°C (≥0.95),

indicated in the bottom right corner of each panel.

1031

Figure 4: Heat-sensitive mutants disrupted in putative heat tolerance genes (HTGs)

were characterized at the genome-wide level. Each CLiP mutant has a mapped

insertion site, thus a mapped disrupted gene. We identified putative HTGs from heat-

sensitive mutants (HSMs). **(a)** Distribution of insertion features from HSMs (purple) is like

that from the CLiP library screened (gray). Insertion feature refers to the integration sites

of the transforming cassette relative to gene components, e.g., untranslated regions

(UTRs), coding sequence (CDS), or introns. **(b)** Distribution of confidence levels from

HSMs (orange) is like that from the CLiP library screened (gray). Insertion confidence

refers the likelihood of the mapped insertion sites being correctly identified based on

genomic sequences flanking the insertional cassette, with levels 1 and 2 for the highest

confidence (95%) of the mapped insertion sites, level 3 for 73% confidence, level 4 for

58% confidence. **(c)** The number of heat-sensitive alleles for each HTG identified from

each of the four treatment conditions is shown. Green, orange, and purple bars represent

1, 2, or ≥ 3 heat-sensitive alleles, respectively. **(d)** HTGs identified in any of the four

treatment conditions were aggregated and the distribution of predicted subcellular

localizations is displayed. Significant enrichment for the secretory pathway was found (*,

Fisher's exact test, $p < 0.01$). Percentage shown of each localization is the % of HTGs

with this predicted subcellular localization out of all HTGs identified with a predicted

subcellular localization.

1051

Figure 5: Heat tolerance genes (HTGs) were overlapped between conditions for

functional enrichment. (a) HTGs overlap between conditions. To compare between

conditions, only HTGs represented by at least one mutant in all four conditions were

included in this analysis. Horizontal bars represent the total number of HTGs from each

condition. Vertical bars and the number on their top represent the number of genes

included in each overlap. Circles along x-axis represent the conditions included in each

overlap in the vertical bars. TAP, Tris-acetate-phosphate medium; TP, Tris-phosphate

medium (no acetate). Filled circles represent TAP conditions and open circles represent

TP conditions; circle colors represent the temperature of heat treatments, brown for 35°C

and red for 40°C. Genes belong to only a single intersection category and are sorted into

the category with the greatest number of intersections. **(b)** MapMan functional enrichment

of all HTGs identified (those with at least one heat-sensitive mutant in at least one

condition), both TAP conditions, both TP conditions, both 35°C conditions, both 40°C

conditions, and all 4 conditions are shown. Only significantly enriched MapMan terms are

shown (FDR < 0.05). Size of each circle indicates the number of HTGs in a given MapMan

term. Color of the circles represent the FDR adjusted p-value. Numbers in parentheses

after each Mapman term is the total number of genes assigned to the given MapMan term

and present in the pooled screen dataset.

1070

Figure 6: Comparison of heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with transcriptome and proteome data under high temperatures. (a, b) Venn diagrams comparing HTGs with heat induced transcripts/proteins (HIGs/HIPs) from 35°C and 40°C treatments of WT cultures in TAP medium (Zhang *et al.* 2022a). Random, expected overlapping numbers based on random chance. *, $p < 0.05$, Fisher's Exact Test based on the indicated background size. **(c)** Select weighted correlation network analysis (WGCNA) modules modified from Zhang *et al.,* 2022 that were overrepresented for HTGs above random chance (*, $p < 0.05$, Fisher's exact test). TM: transcriptomic module. Consensus transcription patterns from TAP-40°C (red) and TAP-35°C (brown) are shown. Numbers at the top of each module display: the total number (No.) of genes in the given module that were represented by at least one mutant in the pooled screens (before /, black) and the total No. of aggregated HTGs in that module from all four treatment conditions (after /, blue). Numbers at the right of each plot show the No. of HTGs from TAP-40°C (red, top) and TAP-35°C (brown, bottom), respectively. Functional enrichment on right side of each module shows select significantly enriched MapMan terms from TAP-40°C HTGs (top, red), TAP-35°C HTGs (middle, brown) and the aggregated list of HTGs from all four conditions (bottom, blue) that are present in a given module (FDR < 0.05).

Figure 7: A triangulation approach identified heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with increased confidence. (a) Triangulated HTGs were defined based on three criteria: (A): HTGs in our pooled screens that had at least one heat-sensitive mutant (HSMs) in at least two conditions or at least two heat-sensitive mutant alleles in any one condition (defined as high-confidence HSMs); (B): heat inducible during high temperatures based on previously published RNA-seq or proteomic data; (C): MapMan functional annotation in select categories that may be involved in thermotolerance or affected by high temperatures. MapMan functional categories included in this analysis are displayed in cartoon on the right. The number of genes overlapping between any two categories are displayed next to arrows connecting criteria. Of the 504 genes overlapping between criteria A and B, 282 have no MapMan functional annotations (U) and 222 have at least one MapMan functional annotation (K, functional enrichment analysis with abbreviated

MapMan terms is displayed). Size of each circle indicates the number of overlapping
HTGs in a given MapMan term. Color of the circles represent the adjusted p-value. For
full list of MapMan annotations included in this analysis see Supplemental Dataset 3j.
HTGs that meet at least two of these three criteria were considered as triangulated HTGs
(933 genes), which were further divided into genes with at least 2 heat-sensitive mutant
alleles (high-confidence HTGs, 386 genes) and those with a single heat-sensitive mutant
allele or present only in the BC overlap (medium-confidence HTGs, 547 genes). (**b, c**)
Visualization of triangulated HTGs in the transcription network topology of ChlamyNET,
a web-based network tool that was generated based on published transcriptomes in
Chlamydomonas (Romero-Campero *et al.* 2016). Nine gene clusters (abbreviated as C)
with different function enrichment were identified by ChlamyNET, represented by different
colors. The color of a cluster name matches the color of dots in this cluster. The labels of
three clusters, C3, C4, C8 with light colors, have grey background to increase the
contrast. Each dot represents one Chlamydomonas gene in the network. The genes
circled in black are all triangulated HTGs (**b**) or high-confidence triangulated HTGs (**c**).
Stars (*) indicate significant enrichment for indicated HTGs within the ChlamyNET
clusters (FDR < 0.05, p value for enrichment in each cluster is listed on the figures). The
overrepresentation analysis and scatterplot visualization are performed using the R
programming language. More information about ChlamyNET analysis can be seen in
Supplemental Dataset 1m.

1121

Figure 8: Many Chlamydomonas triangulated heat tolerance genes (HTGs) are
conserved throughout the green lineage. Chlamydomonas high-confidence (**a**) and
medium-confidence (**b**) triangulated HTGs were classified by their orthology to *Volvox*
carterii (Volvox), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Arabidopsis), *Oryza sativa* (Rice), *Triticum*
aestivum (wheat), *Glycine max* (Soybean), *Zea mays* (Maize), *Sorghum bicolor*
(Sorghum), and *Setaria viridis* (Setaria) genes using the InParanoid ortholog dataset.
One-to-one or one-to-many, one gene in Chlamydomonas corresponds to a single gene
or many genes in the species listed. Many-to-one or many-to-many, multiple genes in
Chlamydomonas correspond to a single gene or many genes in the species listed.
Hierarchical clustering identified three distinct classes of conservation for triangulated

HTGs: (I) low conservation across all species, (II) green-algae specific, and (III) high

conservation across all/most species tested. Genes were ordered using hierarchical

clustering to show similar patterns of conservation across species using the R package

pheatmap. Not all HTGs are in the In.Paranoid dataset. Only HTGs in the In.Paranoid

dataset with an orthologous relationship with one or more of the species tested are

included in the figures.

1138

Figure 9: A high-confidence triangulated HTG has heat-sensitive mutant alleles in

Chlamydmonas and Arabidopsis. (**a**) Mean transcript per million (TPM) normalized

read counts of the Chlamydomonas putative histone-lysine N-methyltransferase (HMT)

gene during and after high temperatures of 35°C (brown curve) or 40°C (red curve) (data

from Zhang *et. al.* 2022). Mean ± SD, *n*=3. Stars indicate significance in differential

expression modeling. (**b**) Normalized RNA-seq read counts of the Arabidopsis one-to-

one ortholog (*AtHMT*) of *CrHMT* at control (left) and 42°C (right) (data from Balfagón *et*

al. 2019) (**c, d**) Three CLiP alleles of *CrHMT* were heat sensitive in our pooled mutant

screens. Stars indicate significance in our pooled screen data. Mean ± SD, *n*=2. TAP,

Tris-acetate-phosphate medium; TP, Tris-phosphate medium. (**e**) Two mutant alleles of

Arabidopsis *AtHMT*, *Athmt-1* and *Athmt-2* were used for phenotype verification in land

plants. (**f**) Representative plate images of 14-day old seedlings from control (25°C) and

heat treatment (41°C for 45 minutes followed by 7 days of recovery at 25°C). (**g**) Mean

plantlet area relative to wild type (Col-0) of *hmt-1*, *hmt*-2, and *hot1* (positive control, a

well-characterized heat-sensitive mutant, deficient in Heat Shock Protein HSP101) in

control (left, blue) and heat treatment (right, red) conditions. Plantlet area was quantified

using ImageJ and normalized to the total area of Col-0 on the same plate. Mean ± SD,

n=3-13. *, $p < 0.05$, student's one-sided t-test of unequal variance.

1157

1158   **Supplemental Figure Legends**

1159

1160   **Figure S1: Normalized read counts of biological replicates are highly reproducible.**

1161   Normalized reads for each barcode in two biological replicates are shown for every

1162   condition and time point. Linear model of best fit shown in red line. Pearson correlation

coefficient are displayed. Treatment groups are displayed in columns (25°C, 35°C, and 40°C from left to right). Time points are displayed in rows (T1, T3a, T3b from top to bottom. (**a**) All TAP (Tris-acetate-phosphate medium) conditions with supplied carbon source. (**b**) All TP (Tris-phosphate medium) conditions without supplied carbon source.

Figure S2: We used statistical cutoffs to identify heat-sensitive mutants. Heat-sensitive mutants are required to have normal growth rates at 25°C (≥ 0.95) and reduced growth rates at 35°C or 40°C (≤ 0.8), p-value < 0.05, and t-values in the 95th percentile (student's one-sided t-test of unequal variance). (**a-f**) Distribution of mean growth rates of all mutants in each condition. Dashed lines represent growth rates cutoffs, which are displayed at the start of the arrows. Percentage under the arrows quantifies the fraction of barcodes that meet the growth rate cutoffs. (**g-j**) Empirical distributions of t-values for each condition. T-values are based on both the difference between means and the variance between biological replicates. Vertical dashed lines display the 95th percentile mark for each empirical distribution. Numbers above the arrows display the cutoff t-values. Only the top 5% of t-values were considered statistically significant, in addition to p-values < 0.05.

Figure S3: Some heat tolerance genes (HTGs) may be also involved in other stresses. The 1,693 HTGs with high-confidence heat-sensitive mutants (HSMs) identified in our screens were compared with previously published screen data (Fauser et al. 2022) from 121 pooled screen conditions, sorted into 16 broad categories with FDR<0.3. These 1693 HTGs refer to those that have at least one HSM in at least two conditions or at least two HSM alleles in any one condition in our pooled screens. Numbers after horizontal bars are No. of overlapping HTGs with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition (before /) and No. of all genes with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition reported by (Fauser *et al.* 2022) (after /). The ratios of these two numbers are the % presented by the X axis.

Supplemental Dataset 1: (**a**) Overview of screen conditions used in this publication and previous pooled screens by Fauser *et al.* (2022). (**b**) List of primers used in this

publication. (**c**) Number of generations for each biological replicate used to calculate growth rates of pooled cultures. (**d**) Identification of heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with heat-compromised and heat-depleted mutants in each of all four conditions. (**e**) HTGs with known thermotolerance roles. (**f**) HTGs that are putative transcription factors according to the Plant Transcription Factor Database. (**g**) Core HTGs: HTGs with heat-sensitive mutants in all four conditions. (**h**) List of 1,690 HTGs with high-confidence heat-sensitive mutants. (**i**) Number of genes from the high temperature screens of Fauser *et al.* (2022) that were identified as HTGs with high-confidence heat-sensitive mutants in this study. (**j**) Phenotype of HTGs from Fauser *et al.* (2022) in this study. (**k**) Genes in transcriptional modules 1 and 3 from Zhang *et. al.* 2022 that are represented by at least one mutant in our pooled screens in this study. (**l**) All HTGs that meet triangulation cutoffs (at least 2 of 3 criteria). (**m**) ChamyNET analysis of triangulated HTGs. (**n**) One-to-one orthologs of triangulated HTGs in Arabidopsis. (**o**) For all Chlamydomonas triangulated HTGs, lists the orthologous relationship with species from Figure 8 and the corresponding gene IDs.

Supplemental Dataset 2: All pooled screen data calculated from every barcode in this publication.

Supplemental Dataset 3: MapMan functional enrichment outputs for all analyses presented in this publication. MapMan functional enrichment for HTGs that are present in: (**a**) at least one heat screen conditions; (**b**) both TAP-35°C and TAP-40°C; (**c**) both TP-35°C and TP-40°C; (**d**) both TAP-35°C and TP-35°C; (**e**) both TAP-40°C and TP-40°C; (**f**) all four heat screen conditions; (**g**) TM1; (**h**) TM3; (**i**) triangulation criteria A and B. (**j**) List of MapMan terms used to generate criterion C of the triangulation approach.

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High-throughput Identification of Novel Heat Tolerance Genes via Genome-wide Pooled Mutant Screens in the Model Green Alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

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Main figures (9) and supplemental figures (3)

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

(a)

(b)

Figure 6

(a)

HTGs   HIGs

3084   1224*   2279

Random:
1051

Background: 14,354 genes both in pooled screen
and transcriptomics datasets

(b)

HTGs   HIPs

218   111*   438

Random:
138

Background: 1300 genes both in pooled screen
and proteomics datasets

(c)

No. of module genes in pooled
screen / all HTGs in module

Functional enrichment
of HTGs in module

TM1: 559 / 249*

40°C

35°C

129*

95*

40°C: Heat stress, protein folding,
PSII biogenesis, sugar transport

35°C: Heat stress, protein folding

All: Heat stress, protein folding,
PSII biogenesis, thioredoxins,
lipid metabolism

TM3: 459 / 178*

DNA repair, protein degradation,
DNA methyltransferases

DNA repair, calcium transport,
protein degradation, chaperones

DNA repair, calcium transport,
protein degradation, thioredoxins

Arbitrary units

Pre-heat   0   0.5   1   2   4   8   16   24   0   2   4   8   24   48   Time, hours

Heat   Recovery

Figure 7

(a)

Aggregated MapMan term

Transport
Signaling
Secondary metabolism
Transcription regulation
Thioredoxin
Protein synthesis/degradation
Oxidases
Myo-inositol
microRNA
Starch synthase
Lipid metabolism
ABA
CoA-acetylating
Cell motility
S-methyltransferase

p.adjust
0.04
0.03
0.02
0.01

No. of genes
10
20

222 K U 282

Select HSM(s) Pooled screen
A 1693

AB 504

AC 113

ABC 43

B 4344

BC 402

C 1020

Heat induced transcripts/proteins

Select MapMan annotation

Protein folding
Lipid metabolism
Calcium signaling
Ca²⁺
Heat
HSP
Stress
DNA repair
Redox
CCM
Photosynthesis

933 triangulated HTGs (AB, AC, or BC overlap)

386 genes (41%)
High-confidence HTG (≥2 mutant alleles)

547 genes (59%)
Medium-confidence HTGs (1 mutant allele or BC overlap only)

ChlamyNET analysis of triangulated HTGs

○ **All triangulated HTGs**

(b)
C1: p=0.015 *
C9: p=0.999
C2: p=0.414
C3: p=0.99997
C4: p=0.045 *
C5: p=0.077
C8: p=0.998
C7: p=0.028 *
C6: p=0.034 *

○ **High-confidence triangulated HTGs**

(c)
C1: p=0.600
C9: p=0.991
C2: p=0.008 *
C3: p=0.929
C4: p=0.920
C5: p=0.845
C8: p=0.882
C7: p<0.001 *
C6: p=0.0498 *

C1: Stress response and protein folding

C2: Protein phosphorylation and macromolecule synthesis

C3: DNA replication and cell cycle regulation

C4: Photosynthesis and hexoses metabolism

C5: Protein assembly and protein degradation

C6: Protein phosphorylation and carbon/nitrogen metabolism

C7: GTPase activity and autophagy

C8: Chromatin and organization

C9: Translation and lipid metabolism

Figure 8

Figure 9

High-throughput Identification of Novel Heat Tolerance Genes via Genome-wide Pooled Mutant Screens in the Model Green Alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

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Supplemental figures

Figure S1

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3