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

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

Erin M. Mattoon[1,2], William McHargue[1,2], Catherine E. Bailey[1], Ningning Zhang[1], Chen

Chen[3], James Eckhardt[1,6], Chris G. Daum[4], Matt Zane[4], Christa Pennacchio[4], Jeremy

Schmutz[4], Ronan C. O'Malley[4&5], Jianlin Cheng[3], Ru Zhang[1,*]

*Corresponding author: Ru Zhang (rzhang@danforthcenter.org)

[1]Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St. Louis, Missouri 63132, USA;

[2]Plant and Microbial Biosciences Program, Division of Biology and Biomedical Sciences,

Washington University in Saint Louis, St. Louis, Missouri 63130, USA;

[3]Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, University of Missouri,

Columbia, Missouri 65211, USA;

[4]U.S. Department of Energy, Joint Genome Institute, Lawrence Berkeley National

Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA;

[5]Environmental Genomics and Systems Biology, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory,

Berkeley, CA, USA;

[6]Current address: University of California Riverside, Riverside, California, 92521, USA.

Abstract

High temperatures adversely affect crop and algal yields. Photosynthetic cells show

varying physiological responses to different heat intensities. The specificity of genes

required for thermotolerance at different temperatures in photosynthetic cells remains

elusive. Additionally, organic carbon sources are present in nature for both plants and

algae, but it is unclear how environmental availability of carbon sources interface with

heat responses. We utilized the insertional mutant library of the unicellular, eukaryotic
green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (CLiP) to perform genome-wide, quantitative,
pooled screens under moderate (35°C) or acute (40°C) high temperatures with or without
organic carbon. We screened for heat sensitive mutants based on growth rate
quantification and identified putative heat tolerance genes (HTGs). By triangulating HTGs
with heat-induced transcripts/proteins in wildtype cultures and MapMan functional
annotation data, we present a high-confidence list of 933 *Chlamydomonas* genes with
putative roles in heat tolerance. These include genes with known roles in thermotolerance
and those with little or no functional annotation, suggesting novel players in
thermotolerance. About 50% of these high-confidence HTGs in Chlamydomonas have
orthologs in green lineage model organisms, including crop species. *Arabidopsis thaliana*
mutants deficient in the ortholog of a *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: heat responses, heat tolerance genes, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*,
CLiP mutant library, pooled screens, DNA barcodes

Introduction
Global warming increases the frequency of damaging high temperatures, which
jeopardizes plant growth and reduces 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 warming is predicted to reach 1.5°C above pre-
industrial levels between 2030-2052 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 temperature as the primary climatic driver
for yield reduction in crops (Ortiz-Bobea, Wang, Carrillo & Ault 2019). To engineer heat
tolerant crops for the increasing human population, it is essential to understand how
plants respond to high temperatures and which genes are required for thermotolerance.

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 in chloroplasts (Zhang & Sharkey 2009; Anderson *et al.* 2021; Zhang *et al.* 2022), 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). In addition, high temperatures induce phosphorylation and SUMOylation of heat shock factors (HSFs) which increase the expression of heat shock proteins (HSPs) and other heat response genes (Schroda *et al.* 2015; Guo *et al.* 2016).

After many years of research, several major questions remain open regarding heat responses in plants, despite of 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 intensities of high temperatures require distinct genes for heat tolerance? High temperatures have different intensities in nature, which have unique physiological effects on photosynthetic cells (Janni *et al.* 2020; Zhang *et al.* 2022). Moderate high temperature refers to heat that is slightly above optimal growth temperature, around 35°C for most photosynthetic cells, which causes moderate damage and occurs frequently with prolonged duration in nature (Zhang *et al.* 2022). 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.* 2022). It is unknown whether different high temperatures require unique or overlapping set of genes for thermotolerance. (3)

How does carbon supply affect heat tolerance? Land plants mostly grow
photoautotrophically by fixing atmospheric inorganic carbon using photosynthesis,
however, there are often various organic carbon sources in the soil. Most green algae
can grow both photoautotrophically and mixotrophically with supplied organic carbon.
How carbon supply affects heat responses in photosynthetic cells has not been well
studied.
92
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). Its
6-8 h doubling time under normal conditions and ability to grow by photosynthesis but
also with supplied carbon source is powerful 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 in Chlamydomonas, enabling efficiency 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 mutant library is available for both reverse and forward genetic screens
(Chlamydomonas Library Project, CLiP) (Li *et al.* 2016, 2019).
111
CLiP mutants each contain 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). Chlamydomonas cells are haploid, so the
abundance of a barcode in pooled sequencing data is proportional to the abundance of

the CLiP mutant containing this barcode in pooled cultures. If a CLiP mutant is deficient
in a gene required for optimal growth under a condition, this CLiP mutant will have
reduced growth rate and cell abundance 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
collaborators, employed the CLiP library to screen for mutants deficient in photosynthesis
(Li *et al.* 2019) and 121 other different environmental/chemical conditions, including high
temperatures (Fauser *et al.* 2022). Fauser et al. (2022) included high temperatures of 30,
35, 37°C and also tested the effects of light intensities, CO_2 concentration, and organic
carbon availability on heat responses (Supplemental Dataset 1a). The pooled screens by
Fauser et al. (2022) have been foundational in using the CLiP mutant library under various
screen conditions 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. However, their high temperature screens had several
limitations (Supplemental Dataset 1a): (1) They emphasized 30°C heat which is a rather
mild high temperature for CC-5325, the background wildtype (WT) 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 35°C with carbon supply. (3) Their heat screens were
performed in 2 L medium bottles on constant temperature heat blocks (heat stirring
plates) 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 did not have biological replicates for some of the conditions
tested. (6) They did not have heat transcriptome/proteomes to refine their candidate
genes identified in the heat screens.

Our research focused on high temperature conditions using the CLiP mutant library and
advanced the high temperature screens by Fauser et al. (2022) to identify a high
confidence list of genes important for heat tolerance. Based on the temperature effects
on the growth rates of WT CC-5325, 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. Additionally, we
leveraged our recently published Chlamydomonas transcriptome/proteome data under
35°C and 40°C to increase confidence in heat tolerance genes (HTGs) identified from our
pooled mutant screens. If a gene or protein is induced during heat and a mutant deficient
in this gene has heat sensitive phenotype, we have high confidence that this gene has a
role in thermotolerance. Furthermore, we developed a triangulation approach to combine
CLiP pooled screens, transcriptome/proteomics data, and functional annotations to
identify high confidence genes with known and novel roles in heat tolerance. Finally, our
ortholog analysis revealed that many of the HTGs identified in Chlamydomonas are
conserved in land plants and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Arabidopsis throughout) mutants
deficient in the orthologous gene of a Chlamydomonas HTG were heat sensitive. Our
research can provide engineering targets to improve thermotolerance in both green algae
and land plants.
171

Materials and Methods
Algal cultivation
All Chlamydomonas liquid cultivation used in this paper was conducted in
photobioreactors (PBRs) as described before (Zhang *et al.* 2022) 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), 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. 2022). Different treatments (different heat and medium type) were conducted in
individual PBRs. For WT CC-5325 cultures, cells were first acclimated at 25°C until
reaching steady growth rates before switching to different high temperatures.

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 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 shaker in 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 inoculated into PBRs
at 25°C in TAP or TP medium (initial cell density around 1×10^6 cells mL^{-1}), acclimated at
25°C in light for 2 days to reach steady growth rates before the start of heat treatments
at 35°C or 40°C. Acclimation at 25°C in light was used to reduce false-positive heat
sensitive mutants. 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 frozen in liquid nitrogen and 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°C for 3 min, 10 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 58°C

for 25 s, 72°C for 15 s, 10 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 72°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°C for 3 min, 10 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 63°C for 25 s, 72°C for 15 s, 9

cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 72°C for 40 s.

PCR products were cleaned and concentrated using the MinElute Gel Extraction kit

(Qiagen, Cat. No. 28606). 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 and the minimum number of reads was 8 million.

Barcode abundance quantification and normalized read count cutoffs

From the deep 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.
280

281 **Principal component analysis**
282 Principal component analysis was performed on normalized read counts from all
283 barcodes in all biological replicates using the R package FactoMineR (Lê, Josse &
284 Husson 2008).
285

286 **Growth rate calculations**
287 The growth rate from each individual barcode was calculated using the following equation:

288
$$\frac{\left(\left[\dfrac{log_2\left(d/c\right)}{N}\right] + 1\right)}{R}$$

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°C (Zhang *et al.* 2022),
thus for 40°C treated cultures, we assume zero generations occurred during the 2-day
40°C heat, therefore only estimated the number of generations that occurred during the
25°C recovery period following the 40°C heat treatment. Mutants that were depleted by
the end of the 2-day 40°C heat were included as heat-depleted mutants (see below).
307

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°C before raising the
temperature to 35°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°C, doubling times from the last 24
hours of 25°C before changing to 35°C were used to calculate the average pre-heat
growth rate. The growth rate at 35°C was calculated from all doubling times from 6 hours
after temperature increase to 35°C to the end of 35°C heat. Doubling times from the first
6 hours of 35°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.
324

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.

Comparisons between conditions

340   To compare the HTGs between conditions, we filtered the dataset for only those genes

341   that were represented by at least one mutant in all four treatment conditions.

342   Comparisons between conditions were visualized using UpSetR (Conway, Lex &

343   Gehlenborg 2017).

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 or both TP conditions or both 35°C conditions or 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.* 2022). Differentially

expressed genes were sorted into heat induced genes (HIGs, upregulated 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.* 2022). 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 from 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 sterilized and stratified as described above,

then grown at 25°C in a Conviron growth chamber as mentioned above for 14 days. No

observable phenotype differences were found between mutants and Col-0 under 25°C .

Gene models for *CrHMT* and *AtHMT* were generated using the Gene Structure Display

Server (GSDS2.0) (Hu *et al.* 2015).

Results

Pooled mutant screens were conducted at moderate and acute high temperatures

We first grew CC-5325, the WT 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.

Growth rates can be calculated consistently

We calculated the growth rates of each mutant using the normalized read counts from barcodes at the beginning and end of the treatment period (see Methods). Growth rates were highly reproducible between two different barcodes from the same mutant (amplified, sequenced, and processed separately, therefore serving as internal controls for pipeline reproducibility), as well as between biological replicates (Figure 2a-d). Furthermore, we validated the growth rates of 10 individual CLiP mutants from the pooled mutant screens at 25°C or 35°C treatment condition in PBRs using monocultures (Figure

424 2e). Monoculture growth rates were highly consistent with those calculated from pooled

425 mutant screens.

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 4 screen conditions (Figure 3). Heat-compromised mutants have mean growth rate

at 25°C ≥ 0.95, mean growth rate at high temperature (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 have mean 25°C growth

rate ≥ 0.95 but were absent by the end of the treatment period in at least one high

temperature replicate (Figure 3, Supplementary Dataset 1d). The aggregated lists of heat-

compromised and heat-depleted mutants are referred to as heat sensitive mutants.

Because all heat sensitive mutants have normal growth rates at 25°C, they specifically

have growth defects 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 is similar to all CLiP mutants present in our

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

genes 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. Because each unique DNA barcode is linked to a

disrupted gene in a CLiP mutant (Li *et al.* 2016, 2019), based on the identified heat

sensitive mutants, we generated a list of genes (4,529) with potential roles in heat

tolerance, defined as **Heat Tolerance Genes (HTGs)** (Supplemental Dataset 1d). Each

HTG has at least one heat-sensitive mutant. 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 predicted localization in the secretory pathway than expected by random

chance (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 4d). Of the HTGs with predicted subcellular

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

pathway. Additionally, we identified at least 25 genes with known roles in thermotolerance

in our list of HTGs, including 14 chaperone proteins, 9 members of the algal carbon

concentrating mechanism, and both copies of rubisco activase (RCA) (Supplemental

Dataset 1e). We identified 2,510 (48%) of HTGs that have no function annotation,

suggesting novel genes with putative roles in thermotolerance. Furthermore, we identified

75 HTGs as transcription factors (Jin *et al.* 2017) (Supplemental Dataset 1f), highlighting

the extensive and complex regulation required for coordinating high temperature

responses.

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). When comparing temperature treatments,

we found 189 HTGs unique to 35°C treatment groups and 172 genes unique to 40°C

treatment groups.

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 glycolysis MapMan terms are 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 (Figure 5a,
Supplemental Dataset 1g), which are significantly enriched for MapMan terms related to
nutrient/sugar signaling and cell motility (Supplemental Dataset 3f).
494
Some heat tolerance genes (HTGs) may be also involved in other stresses
We defined HTGs with high confidence heat sensitive mutants (HSMs) as those that
either (a) had at least two HSMs in one or more treatment conditions or (b) had 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.
Previous pooled screens 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 high confidence 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. Out of the 39 genes with
putative roles in heat tolerance that were identified in the heat screens of Fauser et al.
2022 (FDR < 0.3), 10 are present on our HTG list with high confidence HSMs (16 overlap
if considering all HTGs) (Supplemental Dataset 1i&j).
514
We investigated HTGs using high temperature transcriptomes and proteomes

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 with heat treatments

under the same cultivation conditions (Zhang *et al.* 2022). Our previous RNA-seq analysis

identified differentially regulated genes and proteins during 24-hours of moderate (35°C)

or acute (40°C) high temperatures followed by 48-hours of recovery at 25°C (Zhang *et al.*

2022). Our previous RNA-seq identified 3,960 heat induced genes (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. Among our HTGs, 4,308 met the

minimum read count cutoffs used in the RNA-seq experiment. 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 heat induced proteins (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.* 2022). 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 have

peak expression at the beginning of high temperature and most genes with known roles

in thermotolerance (e.g., HSPs) have 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-

$40^{\circ}C$ and TAP-$35^{\circ}C$ 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).

564 A triangulation approach identified high confidence heat tolerance genes (HTGs)

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 our highest confidence. We required high confidence 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

in any one condition 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.* 2022). (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 define as high

confidence HTGs (Supplemental Dataset 1l); 43 of these genes meet all three of the

criteria used, including rubisco activases 1 and 2 (RCA1/2), the CCM subunits LCI1 and

PHC25, heat shock protein HSP70A, and thioredoxin TRXf2 (Supplemental Dataset 1m).

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. 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).

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

MapMan annotations). These genes do not necessarily have increased transcript/protein

levels under high temperatures. We expect some genes to encode proteins that have

important functions in thermotolerance but may not change transcript/protein abundance,

or via other post-translational regulation. For example, some proteins may undergo

conformational changes to activate and not need to increase in 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.

Additionally, we overlayed our set of 933 high-confidence 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). We found that our high-confidence HTGs were overrepresented in three

ChlamyNet modules named "stress response and protein folding", "protein

phosphorylation and carbon/nitrogen metabolism", and "GTPase activity and autophagy"

(Figure 7b), supporting the important roles of our HTGs in thermotolerance.

616   Our research in Chlamydomonas can inform orthologous HTGs in land plants

We investigated the conservation of 933 high-confidence HTGs that met triangulation

cutoffs 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 8a). For most species investigated, approximately

half of the high-confidence Chlamydomonas HTGs had orthologs in land plants,

suggesting the HTGs identified in Chlamydomonas can be used to infer the function of

these HTGs in land plants and provide engineering targets to improve thermotolerance in

crops. Of the 933 high confidence HTGs, 173 had a one-to-one orthologous relationship

with a gene in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Arabidopsis) and 49 of these 173

genes (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 HTG; (2) there are at least two heat sensitive mutants

in this HTG in Chlamydomonas; (3) the transcript or protein of this HTG is up-regulated

during high temperature in Chlamydomonas (Zhang *et al.* 2022); and (4) 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 8b). Three CLiP mutant

alleles in *CrHMT* were heat sensitive in our pooled mutant screens (Figure 8c, d). We

obtained two insertional mutant alleles in *AtHMT* (Figure 8e) 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 7 days at 41°C as compared to WT (Figure 8f, g).

Discussion

We performed genome-wide, quantitative, pooled mutant screens under moderate (35°C)

and acute (40°C) high temperatures in medium with either organic carbon (TAP) or no

organic carbon (TP) using the Chlamydomonas 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

transcriptomics and proteomics data during high temperatures and MapMan functional

annotations, we report a list of 933 high confidence HTGs in Chlamydomonas, about 50%

of which are conserved in land plants and are prime targets for improving the heat

tolerance in green algae and land plants. Arabidopsis mutants deficient in the ortholog of

a Chlamydomonas HTG were heat sensitive, providing evidence that our results in

Chlamydomonas can be used to infer thermotolerance genes in land plants.

Our research enables high-sensitive discovery of novel heat tolerance genes

Previous pooled screens utilizing the CLiP mutant library employed a data analysis

method testing the number of alleles in each gene with a phenotype against the number

of alleles in that gene without a mutant 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, in

doing so 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) strong phenotypes in

individual mutants 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 interesting genes; 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

and proteins and function annotations increased the confidence of our HTGs with roles in

thermotolerance.

We advanced the CLiP pooled screens under high temperatures in several ways.

Previous high temperature pooled mutant screens did not have a corresponding high

temperature transcriptome/proteome dataset for similar analyses (Fauser *et al.* 2022).

Additionally, our screens were performed in PBRs with well-controlled conditions to avoid

complicated effects due to nutrient deficiency and/or light shading, yielding reproducible

and consistent screen results. The heat treatments by Fauser et al. (2022) were provided

by heat blocks which were set at either 30°C or 35°C, without temperature probes inside

the algal cultures for temperature regulation. Thus, we suspect the actual temperature of

the algal cultures in the 2-L medium bottles they used may be lower than their targeted

high temperatures. In comparison, we grew the algal mutants in PBRs with precise

temperature regulation using sterile temperature probes inside each algal culture, so the

temperatures of our algal cultures were at or very close to our target temperatures.

Additionally, we included heat screens under 40°C which was absent from Fauser et al.

(2022) and they emphasized the mild high temperature of 30°C (Supplemental Dataset

1a). Thus, we identified more high confidence heat sensitive mutants (HSMs) than Fauser

et al. (2022). Finally, by requiring heat sensitive mutants to have normal growth rates

under the control condition of 25°C, we excluded genes that are essential under normal

growth conditions and only focused on genes with roles in thermotolerance.

Our 1,693 HTGs with high confidence HSMs overlapped with 10 of the 39 heat tolerance

genes (FDR < 0.3) and 2 of the 10 heat tolerance genes (FDR < 0.05) previously identified

by Fauser et al. (2022) (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 heat

tolerance genes identified. We identified three broad reasons why the remaining 29 genes

Fauser et al. (2022) identified were not included on our HTG list (Supplemental Dataset

1j): (1) due to differences in treatment conditions, some corresponding mutants had no

phenotypes in our pooled screen conditions, (2) some mutants had lower growth rates at

high temperatures than control, but didn't 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 25oC ≥

0.95). Nevertheless, we are confident that our methods built upon Fauser et al. (2022),

identified more high confidence HTGs (933 vs 39), and will advance our understanding

of thermotolerance in green algae.

We identified genes with known 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). Introducing the CCM into plant cells has frequently been proposed to increase thermotolerance, especially of C_3 plants (Mackinder 2018; Hennacy & Jonikas 2020). High temperature is one of the driving forces for the evolution of CCM in C_4 plants in warm or tropical regions (Sage 2004).

We identified both forms of Rubisco activase (RCA) as high confidence HTGs in Chlamydomonas. 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). Thermostable RCAs have been frequently reported in plants grown in warm environments (Scafaro, Haynes & Atwell 1/2010; Shivhare & Mueller-Cajar 07/2017; Wang *et al.* 05/2010). Many plant species express two RCA isoforms: the larger, redox regulated RCA-α and shorter RCA-β (Zhang & Portis 1999; Bhat *et al.* 2017; Nagarajan & Gill 2018; Kim, Slattery & Ort 2020). In both C_3 and C_4 plants, high temperature induces the transcript and protein level of RCA-α and the rate of RCA-α induction is associated with the recovery rate of Rubisco activation and photosynthesis (Kim *et al.* 2020; Anderson *et al.* 2021; Wang *et al.* 05/2010), suggesting the important roles of RCAs in thermotolerance of photosynthesis under high temperatures. Chlamydomonas has two copies of RCA, CrRCA1 and CrRCA2. Chlamydomonas knockout mutants of CrRCA1 cannot grow well in air-level CO_2, demonstrating its importance in photosynthesis (Pollock, Colombo, Prout, Godfrey & Moroney 2003). The function of CrRCA2 is unknown. The CLiP CrRCA1 mutant have insertions in 3' UTR, explaining it normal growth rate at the control 25°C with air and supplied carbon. The protein sequence of CrRCA1 has higher similarity to the RCAs in Arabidopsis than CrRCA2. CrRCA1 is the shorter RCA-β form, exhibiting redox regulation

despite lacking the regulatory C-terminal disulfide found in the RCA-α isoform of many
plant species (Pérez-Pérez *et al.* 2017; McConnell, Werth & Hicks 2018). At the transcript
level, *CrRCA1* is 30x more abundant than *CrRCA2* (Zhang *et al.* 2022). The transcripts
of both *CrRCA1/2* were induced during 40°C heat, and the protein of RCA1 was induced
during and after 40°C (Zhang *et al.* 2022), suggesting their important roles for heat
tolerance. Induced RCAs may help maintain photosynthesis under high temperatures,
alleviating over-reduced photosynthetic electron transport chains.
771

We identified core heat tolerance genes among different heat treatments
We found 56 HTGs with heat sensitive mutants in all of our four conditions, representing
the list of core heat tolerance genes (Supplemental Dataset 1g). Fifteen of these genes
had no annotations, representing novel putative HTGs of great interest for future
characterization. *CrRCA1* was again 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. 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.
786

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 (Supplemental Dataset 1g). 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 heat shock transcription factors 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 stresses (Gupta & Deswal 2012; Tanveer
et al. 2014). Furthermore, a recent analysis in Chlamydomonas comparing an evolved
salinity-tolerant strain to the parental strain found over 500 differentially expressed
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 WT background of the CLiP library, CC-5325, exhibits 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 for 2 days in our heat 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 is an important part of the central carbon

metabolism and plays a key role in the breakdown of starch for utilization as cellular

energy (Johnson & Alric 2012, 2013). Pyruvate kinase catalyzes the final step of

glycolysis, which converts phosphoenolpyruvate and one ADP to pyruvate and one 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). The carbon source, 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.* 2022). Increased starch breakdown through the glycolysis cycle

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

and growth rates of Chlamydomonas in acetate-supplied conditions. 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 other stress conditions, for example low oxygen, 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 the production of ATP for use

in production 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. This may also 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 result in 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 high confidence

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 these 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. Histone post-translational modifications alter
nucleosome properties, affect chromatin structure and its interactions with other proteins,
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). The *AtHMT* gene is annotated as histone-lysine N-methyltransferase, although its
detailed function is unknown. We hypothesize 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.

Chlamydomonas is not only a powerful model organism for production of algal biofuels
and bioproducts, but also an excellent model for the study of thermotolerance in
photosynthetic cells. Our research in Chlamydomonas advances understanding of heat
response in photosynthetic cells and identifies important engineering targets to improve
thermotolerance in both algae and crops.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by start-up funding from the Donald Danforth Plant Science
Center (DDPSC), and sequencing service support from the Department of Energy (DOE)
Joint Genome Institute (JGI) Community Science Program (CSP, 503414), and the DOE
Biological & Environmental Research (BER) grant (DE-SC0020400) to R.Z. The work
(proposal: 10.46936/10.25585/60001126) conducted by the U.S. Department of Energy
Joint Genome Institute (https://ror.org/04xm1d337), a DOE Office of Science User
Facility, is supported by the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy operated
under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. E.M.M. is supported by the William H.
Danforth Plant Sciences Fellowship, DDPSC startup funding to R.Z. and Washington
University in St. Louis. J.C. and C. C. was supported by DOE grant (DE-SC0020400) and
NIH grant (R01GM093123). J.E was partially supported by the National Science

Foundation (NSF) Research Experience for Undergraduates (REU) program at DDPSC,

NSF grant DBI-1659812. We are grateful for Dr. Martin Jonikas for using the CLiP mutant

library for our pooled screens. We would like to thank Dr. Friedrich Fauser, Dr. Xiaobo Li,

Dr. Robert Jinkerson, and Weronika Patena for discussion about the CLiP mutant library,

Jeff Berry for helpful suggestions for statistical analyses, Maria Sorkin and Natasha Bilkey

for advice regarding experiments in Arabidopsis, Dr. Dan Lin for donation of wild type Col-

0 Arabidopsis seeds, Drs. Saima Sahid, Kaushik Panda, and Benedikt Venn for their

helpful suggestions regarding functional enrichment analyses, Riya Patel for helping with

photobioreactor maintenance and sample harvesting, Luisa Galhardo for helping with

medium preparation, and Margarita Ramirez for her preliminary analysis of comparing

novel heat tolerance genes with previously published RNA-seq data.

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. completed analysis of genes

with ChlamyNet database. E.M.M. performed heat sensitivity assay in Arabidopsis

mutants. 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 edit 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 wildtype cells (CC-5325, CLiP

library background strain) at different temperatures with and without supplied carbon

source. Chlamydomonas cells were grown in photobioreactors (PBRs) in Tris-acetate-

phosphate (TAP, with acetate, 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 temperature treatments with turbidostatic conditions.

Cultures were acclimated for 2 days at 25°C under 100 µmol photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ light 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). 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 or T3b marked

the end of the screens, but T3a was one day shorter than T3b. 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. Algal cells are harvested at the start and end of the

screen for DNA extraction and barcode amplification. Cell abundance and growth rate of

each mutant in pooled cultures are calculated by quantifying DNA barcodes 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.

1015

Figure 2: Growth rates calculated from barcode quantification are reproducible. (a,
b) Growth rates of one mutant with two different barcodes were consistent. Some mutants
have 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. Each dot represents one mutant with two different barcodes. 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. The identity of mutants used for monocultures were
validated by PCR. For monoculture experiments, individual CLiP mutants were grown in
PBRs as mentioned in Figure 1b, like the pooled screens. Two or three bio-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.

1038

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.

1047

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
similar to 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 similar to 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)** For HTGs identified from each of the four
treatment conditions, the number of alleles that were significantly heat sensitive are
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.

1067

Figure 5: Heat tolerance genes (HTGs) were overlapped between conditions for
functional enrichment. (a) HTGs overlap between conditions. From the identified heat

sensitive mutants, we generated a list of genes with potential roles in heat tolerance,

defined as HTGs, which are those with at least 1 heat-compromised or heat-depleted

mutant in a screen condition under high temperatures. To compare between conditions,

only genes 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.

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.

1088

Figure 6: Comparison of heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with transcriptome and

proteome data under high temperature. (a, b) Venn diagrams comparing HTGs with

heat induced genes/proteins (HIGs/HIPs) from 35°C and 40°C treatments of WT cultures

in TAP medium (Zhang *et al.* 2022). Exp, 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 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).

1106

Figure 7: A triangulation approach was used to identify high confidence heat

tolerance genes (HTGs). (**a**) High confidence HTGs were defined using a triangulation

approach 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 the high temperature treatment of 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. Genes that meet at least

two of these three criteria were considered as high confidence HTGs. 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 had no MapMan

functional annotations (U) and 222 had at least one MapMan functional annotation (K).

Of the 222 genes with functional annotations, functional enrichment analysis with

abbreviated MapMan terms is displayed (right). 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. (**b**) Visualization of high confidence 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

with different function enrichment were identified by ChlamyNET, represented by different

colors. Each dot represents one Chlamydomonas gene in the network. The genes circled

in black are the high confidence HTGs. Of the 933 high confidence HTGs, 594 were

present in the ChlamyNET network of 9,171 genes. Stars (*) indicate significant

enrichment for high confidence HTGs within the three ChlamyNet clusters (FDR < 0.05).

The overrepresentation analysis and scatterplot visualization are performed using the R

programming language.

1134

Figure 8: Many Chlamydomonas high confidence heat tolerance genes (HTGs) are

conserved throughout the green lineage. (a) Chlamydomonas high confidence 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. **(b)** 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) (modified

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

expression modeling. (**c, d**) Three CLiP alleles of *CrHMT* were heat sensitive in our

pooled mutant screens. Stars indicate significance in pooled screen data. Mean ± SD,

n=2. (e) Two mutant alleles of Arabidopsis AtHMT (one-to-one ortholog), *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 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). Plantlet area was quantified using ImageJ and

normalized to the total area of Col-0 on the same plate. Mean ± SD, *n*=3. *, p < 0.05,

student's one-sided t-test of unequal variance.

1154

1155   **Supplemental Figure Legends**

1156

1157   **Figure S1: Normalized read counts of biological replicates are highly reproducible.**

1158   Normalized reads for each barcode in two biological replicates are shown for every

1159   condition and time point. Linear model of best fit shown in red line. Pearson correlation

1160   coefficient are displayed. Treatment groups are displayed in columns (25°C, 35°C, and

1161   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 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). **(a-f)** Distribution of mean growth rates of all mutants in each condition. Dashed lines represent growth rates cutoffs. Growth rate cutoff values 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 all tests per 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 heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with high confidence heat sensitive mutants (HSMs) identified in our screens were compared with previously published screen data (Fauser et al. 2022) from approximately 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. Bars quantify the % of overlapping HTGs with sensitive mutants in the given condition (numerator) out of all genes with sensitive mutants in that condition (denominator). Numbers after horizontal bars are No. of genes with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition and also overlap with our HTGs (before /) and No. of genes with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition (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 per biological replicate used to calculate growth rates of mutants in 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 also HTGs in this study. **(l)** All HTGs that meet triangulation cutoffs (at least 2 of 3 criteria). **(m)** HTGs that meet all three triangulation criteria. **(n)** One-to-one orthologs of high-confidence HTGs in Arabidopsis.

Supplemental Dataset 2: All pooled screen data calculated from every barcode represented in pooled mutant screens presented 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.

References

Alonso J.M., Stepanova A.N., Leisse T.J., Kim C.J., Chen H., Shinn P., … Ecker J.R. (2003) Genome-wide insertional mutagenesis of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Science* **301**, 653–657.

Anderson C.M., Mattoon E.M., Zhang N., Becker E., McHargue W., Yang J., … Zhang R. (2021) High light and temperature reduce photosynthetic efficiency through

1225 different mechanisms in the C$_4$ model Setaria viridis. *Communications Biology* **4**,
1226 1092.

Balfagón D., Sengupta S., Gómez-Cadenas A., Fritschi F.B., Azad R.K., Mittler R. &
Zandalinas S.I. (2019) Jasmonic acid Is required for plant acclimation to a
combination of high light and heat stress | Plant Physiology. *Plant physiology* **181**,
1668–1682.

Baud S., Wuillème S., Dubreucq B., de Almeida A., Vuagnat C., Lepiniec L., … Rochat
C. (2007) Function of plastidial pyruvate kinases in seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana*.
The Plant journal: for cell and molecular biology **52**, 405–419.

Benjamini Y. & Hochberg Y. (1995) Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and
powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society.
Series B, Statistical methodology* **57**, 289–300.

Bhat J.Y., Thieulin-Pardo G., Hartl F.U. & Hayer-Hartl M. (2017) Rubisco Activases: AAA+
Chaperones Adapted to Enzyme Repair. *Frontiers in molecular biosciences* **4**, 20.

Bhushan D., Jaiswal D.K., Ray D., Basu D., Datta A., Chakraborty S. & Chakraborty N.
(2011) Dehydration-responsive reversible and irreversible changes in the
extracellular matrix: comparative proteomics of chickpea genotypes with
contrasting tolerance. *Journal of proteome research* **10**, 2027–2046.

Blankenship R.E. (2014) *Molecular Mechanisms of Photosynthesis, Second Edition*.
Wiley Blackwell, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester,
West Sussex, PO19 8SQ, UK.

Cha J.-Y., Kang S.-H., Ali I., Lee S.C., Ji M.G., Jeong S.Y., … Kim W.-Y. (2020) Humic
acid enhances heat stress tolerance via transcriptional activation of Heat-Shock
Proteins in Arabidopsis. *Scientific reports* **10**, 15042.

Conway J.R., Lex A. & Gehlenborg N. (2017) UpSetR: an R package for the visualization
of intersecting sets and their properties. *Bioinformatics* **33**, 2938–2940.

Crafts-Brandner S.J. & Salvucci M.E. (2002) Sensitivity of photosynthesis in a C$_4$ plant,
maize, to heat stress. *Plant physiology* **129**, 1773–1780.

Crisp P.A., Ganguly D., Eichten S.R., Borevitz J.O. & Pogson B.J. (2016) Reconsidering
plant memory: Intersections between stress recovery, RNA turnover, and
epigenetics. *Science advances* **2**, e1501340.

Crozet P., Navarro F.J., Willmund F., Mehrshahi P., Bakowski K., Lauersen K.J., …
Lemaire S.D. (2018) Birth of a photosynthetic chassis: A MoClo toolkit enabling
synthetic biology in the microalga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *ACS synthetic
biology* **7**, 2074–2086.

Dhokane D., Bhadra B. & Dasgupta S. (2020) CRISPR based targeted genome editing
of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* using programmed Cas9-gRNA ribonucleoprotein.
Molecular biology reports **47**, 8747–8755.

van Dongen J.T., Gupta K.J., Ramírez-Aguilar S.J., Araújo W.L., Nunes-Nesi A. & Fernie
A.R. (2011) Regulation of respiration in plants: a role for alternative metabolic
pathways. *Journal of plant physiology* **168**, 1434–1443.

Duncan R.F. & Hershey J.W. (1989) Protein synthesis and protein phosphorylation during
heat stress, recovery, and adaptation. *The Journal of cell biology* **109**, 1467–1481.

Emrich-Mills T.Z., Yates G., Barrett J., Girr P., Grouneva I., Lau C.S., … Mackinder L.C.M.
(2021) A recombineering pipeline to clone large and complex genes in
Chlamydomonas. *The Plant Cell* **33**, 1161–1181.

Fauser F., Vilarrasa-Blasi J., Onishi M., Ramundo S., Patena W., Millican M., … Jinkerson
R.E. (2022) Systematic characterization of gene function in the photosynthetic alga
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *Nature genetics* **54**, 705–714.
Friedrich T., Oberkofler V., Trindade I., Altmann S., Brzezinka K., Lämke J., … Bäurle I.
(2021) Heteromeric HSFA2/HSFA3 complexes drive transcriptional memory after
heat stress in Arabidopsis. *Nature communications* **12**, 3426.
Greiner A., Kelterborn S., Evers H., Kreimer G., Sizova I. & Hegemann P. (2017)
Targeting of photoreceptor genes in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* via zinc-finger
nucleases and CRISPR/Cas9. *The Plant cell* **29**, 2498–2518.
Grossman-Haham I., Coudray N., Yu Z., Wang F., Zhang N., Bhabha G. & Vale R.D.
(2021) Structure of the radial spoke head and insights into its role in
mechanoregulation of ciliary beating. *Nature structural & molecular biology* **28**, 20–
28.
Guo M., Liu J.-H., Ma X., Luo D.-X., Gong Z.-H. & Lu M.-H. (2016) The Plant Heat Stress
Transcription Factors (HSFs): Structure, Regulation, and Function in Response to
Abiotic Stresses. *Frontiers in plant science* **7**, 114.
Gupta R. & Deswal R. (2012) Low temperature stress modulated secretome analysis and
purification of antifreeze protein from Hippophae rhamnoides, a Himalayan wonder
plant. *Journal of proteome research* **11**, 2684–2696.
Harris E.H. (2009) The Chlamydomonas Sourcebook: Introduction to Chlamydomonas
and Its Laboratory Use: Volume 1. Academic Press.
Hemme D., Veyel D., Mühlhaus T., Sommer F., Jüppner J., Unger A.-K., … Schroda M.
(2014) Systems-wide analysis of acclimation responses to long-term heat stress
and recovery in the photosynthetic model organism *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*.
The Plant cell **26**, 4270–4297.
Hennacy J.H. & Jonikas M.C. (2020) Prospects for engineering biophysical CO_2
concentrating mechanisms into land Plants to enhance yields. *Annual review of*
plant biology **71**, 461–485.
Hu B., Jin J., Guo A.-Y., Zhang H., Luo J. & Gao G. (2015) GSDS 2.0: an upgraded gene
feature visualization server. *Bioinformatics* **31**, 1296–1297.
Hu H. & Du J. (2022) Structure and mechanism of histone methylation dynamics in
Arabidopsis. *Current opinion in plant biology* **67**, 102211.
Jagadish S.V.K., Pal M., Sukumaran S., Parani M. & Siddique K.H.M. (2020) Heat stress
resilient crops for future hotter environments. *Plant Physiology Reports* **25**, 529–
532.
Jamloki A., Bhattacharyya M., Nautiyal M.C. & Patni B. (2021) Elucidating the relevance
of high temperature and elevated CO2 in plant secondary metabolites (PSMs)
production. *Heliyon* **7**, e07709.
Janni M., Gullì M., Maestri E., Marmiroli M., Valliyodan B., Nguyen H.T. & Marmiroli N.
(2020) Molecular and genetic bases of heat stress responses in crop plants and
breeding for increased resilience and productivity. *Journal of experimental botany*
71, 3780–3802.
Järvi S., Suorsa M. & Aro E.-M. (2015) Photosystem II repair in plant chloroplasts—
regulation, assisting proteins and shared components with photosystem II
biogenesis. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Bioenergetics* **1847**, 900–909.

Jin J., Tian F., Yang D.-C., Meng Y.-Q., Kong L., Luo J. & Gao G. (2017) PlantTFDB 4.0:
toward a central hub for transcription factors and regulatory interactions in plants.
Nucleic acids research **45**, D1040–D1045.
Johnson X. & Alric J. (2012) Interaction between starch breakdown, acetate assimilation,
and photosynthetic cyclic electron flow in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *The Journal*
of biological chemistry **287**, 26445–26452.
Johnson X. & Alric J. (2013) Central carbon metabolism and electron transport in
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii: metabolic constraints for carbon partitioning between
oil and starch. *Eukaryotic cell* **12**, 776–793.
Kamp H.D. & Higgins D.E. (2011) A protein thermometer controls temperature-dependent
transcription of flagellar motility genes in Listeria monocytogenes. *PLoS pathogens*
7, e1002153.
Kantidze O.L., Velichko A.K., Luzhin A.V. & Razin S.V. (2016) Heat Stress-Induced DNA
Damage. *Acta naturae* **8**, 75–78.
Karpowicz S.J., Prochnik S.E., Grossman A.R. & Merchant S.S. (2011) The GreenCut2
resource, a phylogenomically derived inventory of proteins specific to the plant
lineage. *The Journal of biological chemistry* **286**, 21427–21439.
Kim S.Y., Slattery R.A. & Ort D.R. (2020) A role for differential Rubisco activase isoform
expression in C_4 bioenergy grasses at high temperature. *GCB Bioenergy* **13**, 211–
223.
Königshofer H., Tromballa H.-W. & Löppert H.-G. (2008) Early events in signaling high-
temperature stress in tobacco BY2 cells involve alterations in membrane fluidity
and enhanced hydrogen peroxide production. *Plant, cell & environment* **31**, 1771–
1780.
Krause C., Richter S., Knöll C. & Jürgens G. (2013) Plant secretome - from cellular
process to biological activity. *Biochimica et biophysica acta* **1834**, 2429–2441.
Kropat J., Hong-Hermesdorf A., Casero D., Ent P., Castruita M., Pellegrini M., …
Malasarn D. (2011) A revised mineral nutrient supplement increases biomass and
growth rate in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *The Plant journal: for cell and molecular*
biology **66**, 770–780.
Langfelder P. & Horvath S. (2008) WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation
network analysis. *BMC bioinformatics* **9**, 559.
Larkindale J., Hall J.D., Knight M.R. & Vierling E. (2005) Heat stress phenotypes of
Arabidopsis mutants implicate multiple signaling pathways in the acquisition of
thermotolerance. *Plant physiology* **138**, 882–897.
Lê S., Josse J. & Husson F. (2008) FactoMineR: An R package for multivariate analysis.
Journal of statistical software **25**, 1–18.
Li X., Fauser F., Jinkerson R.E., Saroussi S., Meyer M.T., Ivanova N., … Jonikas M.C.
(2019) A genome-wide algal mutant library and functional screen identifies genes
required for eukaryotic photosynthesis. *Nature genetics* **51**, 627–635.
Li X., Zhang R., Patena W., Gang S.S., Blum S.R., Ivanova N., … Jonikas M.C. (2016)
An indexed, mapped mutant library enables reverse genetics studies of biological
processes in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *The Plant cell* **28**, 367–387.
Mackinder L.C.M. (2018) TheChlamydomonasCO_2-concentrating mechanism and its
potential for engineering photosynthesis in plants. *The New phytologist* **217**, 54–
61.

Martinière A., Shvedunova M., Thomson A.J.W., Evans N.H., Penfield S., Runions J. &
McWatters H.G. (2011) Homeostasis of plasma membrane viscosity in fluctuating
temperatures. *The New phytologist* **192**, 328–337.
McConnell E.W., Werth E.G. & Hicks L.M. (2018) The phosphorylated redox proteome of
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii: Revealing novel means for regulation of protein
structure and function. *Redox biology* **17**, 35–46.
Merchant S.S., Prochnik S.E., Vallon O., Harris E.H., Karpowicz S.J., Witman G.B., …
Grossman A.R. (2007) The *Chlamydomonas* genome reveals the evolution of key
animal and plant functions. *Science* **318**, 245–250.
Minagawa J. & Tokutsu R. (2015) Dynamic regulation of photosynthesis in
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. *The Plant journal: for cell and molecular biology* **82**,
413–428.
Mittler R., Finka A. & Goloubinoff P. (2012) How do plants feel the heat? *Trends in*
biochemical sciences **37**, 118–125.
Mueller-Cajar O. (2017) The diverse AAA+ machines that repair inhibited Rubisco active
sites. *Frontiers in Molecular Biosciences* **4**, 31.
Nagarajan R. & Gill K.S. (2018) Evolution of Rubisco activase gene in plants. *Plant*
molecular biology **96**, 69–87.
Ngara R., Ramulifho E., Movahedi M., Shargie N.G., Brown A.P. & Chivasa S. (2018)
Identifying differentially expressed proteins in sorghum cell cultures exposed to
osmotic stress. *Scientific reports* **8**, 8671.
Ngcala M.G., Goche T., Brown A.P., Chivasa S. & Ngara R. (2020) Heat Stress Triggers
Differential Protein Accumulation in the Extracellular Matrix of Sorghum Cell
Suspension Cultures. *Proteomes* **8**.
Niemeyer J., Scheuring D., Oestreicher J., Morgan B. & Schroda M. (2021) Real-time
monitoring of subcellular H2O2 distribution in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *The*
Plant cell.
Oberkofler V., Pratx L. & Bäurle I. (2021) Epigenetic regulation of abiotic stress memory:
maintaining the good things while they last. *Current opinion in plant biology* **61**,
102007.
Ortiz-Bobea A., Wang H., Carrillo C.M. & Ault T.R. (2019) Unpacking the climatic drivers
of US agricultural yields. *Environmental research letters: ERL [Web site]* **14**,
064003.
Pandey A., Rajamani U., Verma J., Subba P., Chakraborty N., Datta A., … Chakraborty
N. (2010) Identification of extracellular matrix proteins of rice (Oryza sativa L.)
involved in dehydration-responsive network: a proteomic approach. *Journal of*
proteome research **9**, 3443–3464.
Perdomo J.A., Capó-Bauçà S., Carmo-Silva E. & Galmés J. (2017) Rubisco and Rubisco
Activase Play an Important Role in the Biochemical Limitations of Photosynthesis
in Rice, Wheat, and Maize under High Temperature and Water Deficit. *Frontiers in*
plant science **8**.
Pérez-Pérez M.E., Mauriès A., Maes A., Tourasse N.J., Hamon M., Lemaire S.D. &
Marchand C.H. (2017) The Deep Thioredoxome in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii:
New Insights into Redox Regulation. *Molecular plant* **10**, 1107–1125.

Picariello T., Hou Y., Kubo T., McNeill N.A., Yanagisawa H.-A., Oda T. & Witman G.B. (2020) TIM, a targeted insertional mutagenesis method utilizing CRISPR/Cas9 in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *PloS one* **15**, e0232594.

Plaxton W.C. (1996) The Organization and Regulation of Plant Glycolysis. *Annual review of plant physiology and plant molecular biology* **47**, 185–214.

Plöchinger M., Schwenkert S., von Sydow L., Schröder W.P. & Meurer J. (2016) Functional Update of the Auxiliary Proteins PsbW, PsbY, HCF136, PsbN, TerC and ALB3 in Maintenance and Assembly of PSII. *Frontiers in plant science* **7**.

Pollock S.V., Colombo S.L., Prout D.L., Godfrey A.C. & Moroney J.V. (2003) Rubisco Activase Is Required for Optimal Photosynthesis in the Green Alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* in a Low-CO2 Atmosphere. *Plant Physiology* **133**, 1854–1861.

Pospíšil P. (2016) Production of reactive oxygen species by photosystem II as a response to light and temperature stress. *Frontiers in plant science* **7**, 1950.

Queitsch C., Hong S.W., Vierling E. & Lindquist S. (2000) Heat shock protein 101 plays a crucial role in thermotolerance in Arabidopsis. *The Plant cell* **12**, 479–492.

Remm M., Storm C.E.V. & Sonnhammer E.L.L. (2001) Automatic clustering of orthologs and in-paralogs from pairwise species comparisons. *Journal of molecular biology* **314**, 1041–1052.

Rollins J.A., Habte E., Templer S.E., Colby T., Schmidt J. & von Korff M. (2013) Leaf proteome alterations in the context of physiological and morphological responses to drought and heat stress in barley (Hordeum vulgare L.). *Journal of experimental botany* **64**, 3201–3212.

Romero-Campero F.J., Perez-Hurtado I., Lucas-Reina E., Romero J.M. & Valverde F. (2016) ChlamyNET: a Chlamydomonas gene co-expression network reveals global properties of the transcriptome and the early setup of key co-expression patterns in the green lineage. *BMC genomics* **17**, 227.

Rütgers M., Muranaka L.S., Schulz-Raffelt M., Thoms S., Schurig J., Willmund F. & Schroda M. (2017) Not changes in membrane fluidity but proteotoxic stress triggers heat shock protein expression in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Plant, cell & environment* **40**, 2987–3001.

Rysiak A., Dresler S., Hanaka A., Hawrylak-Nowak B., Strzemski M., Kováčik J., … Wójciak M. (2021) High Temperature Alters Secondary Metabolites and Photosynthetic Efficiency in Heracleum sosnowskyi. *International journal of molecular sciences* **22**.

Sage R.F. (2004) The evolution of C_4 photosynthesis. *The New phytologist* **161**, 341–370.

Saidi Y., Finka A., Muriset M., Bromberg Z., Weiss Y.G., Maathuis F.J.M. & Goloubinoff P. (2009) The heat shock response in moss plants is regulated by specific calcium-permeable channels in the plasma membrane. *The Plant cell* **21**, 2829–2843.

Scafaro A.P., Haynes P.A. & Atwell B.J. (1/2010) Physiological and molecular changes in Oryza meridionalis Ng., a heat-tolerant species of wild rice. *Journal of experimental botany* **61**, 191–202.

Scharf K.D. & Nover L. (1982) Heat-shock-induced alterations of ribosomal protein phosphorylation in plant cell cultures. *Cell* **30**, 427–437.

Schmollinger S., Strenkert D. & Schroda M. (2010) An inducible artificial microRNA system for *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* confirms a key role for heat shock factor 1 in regulating thermotolerance. *Current genetics* **56**, 383–389.

Schroda M., Hemme D. & Mühlhaus T. (2015) The Chlamydomonas heat stress response. *The Plant journal: for cell and molecular biology* **82**, 466–480.

Schulz-Raffelt M., Lodha M. & Schroda M. (2007) Heat shock factor 1 is a key regulator of the stress response in *Chlamydomonas*. *The Plant journal: for cell and molecular biology* **52**, 286–295.

Sekiguchi M., Kameda S., Kurosawa S., Yoshida M. & Yoshimura K. (2018) Thermotaxis in Chlamydomonas is brought about by membrane excitation and controlled by redox conditions. *Scientific reports* **8**, 16114.

Sengupta P. & Garrity P. (2013) Sensing temperature. *Current biology: CB* **23**, R304-7.

Sessions A., Burke E., Presting G., Aux G., McElver J., Patton D., … Goff S.A. (2002) A high-throughput Arabidopsis reverse genetics system. *The Plant cell* **14**, 2985–2994.

Sharkey T.D. (2005) Effects of moderate heat stress on photosynthesis: importance of thylakoid reactions, rubisco deactivation, reactive oxygen species, and thermotolerance provided by isoprene. *Plant, cell & environment* **28**, 269–277.

Sharkey T.D. & Zhang R. (2010) High temperature effects on electron and proton circuits of photosynthesis. *Journal of integrative plant biology* **52**, 712–722.

Shimogawara K., Fujiwara S., Grossman A. & Usuda H. (1998) High-efficiency transformation of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* by electroporation. *Genetics* **148**, 1821–1828.

Shivhare D. & Mueller-Cajar O. (07/2017) In vitro characterization of thermostable CAM Rubisco activase reveals a Rubisco interacting surface loop. *Plant physiology* **174**, 1505–1516.

Song Y., Zhang C., Ge W., Zhang Y., Burlingame A.L. & Guo Y. (2011) Identification of NaCl stress-responsive apoplastic proteins in rice shoot stems by 2D-DIGE. *Journal of proteomics* **74**, 1045–1067.

Su Z., Tang Y., Ritchey L.E., Tack D.C., Zhu M., Bevilacqua P.C. & Assmann S.M. (2018) Genome-wide RNA structurome reprogramming by acute heat shock globally regulates mRNA abundance. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **115**, 12170–12175.

Tanveer T., Shaheen K., Parveen S., Kazi A.G. & Ahmad P. (2014) Plant secretomics: identification, isolation, and biological significance under environmental stress. *Plant signaling & behavior* **9**, e29426.

Theis J. & Schroda M. (2016) Revisiting the photosystem II repair cycle. *Plant signaling & behavior* **11**, e1218587.

Tomsig J.L. & Creutz C.E. (2002) Copines: a ubiquitous family of Ca^{2+}-dependent phospholipid-binding proteins. *Cellular and molecular life sciences: CMLS* **59**, 1467–1477.

Ueda M. & Seki M. (2020) Histone Modifications Form Epigenetic Regulatory Networks to Regulate Abiotic Stress Response. *Plant physiology* **182**, 15–26.

Venn B. & Mühlhaus T. (2022) *CSBiology/OntologyEnrichment: Release 0.0.1*.

Venn B., Mühlhaus T., Schneider K., Weil L., Zimmer D., Ziegler S., … venkashank (2022) *fslaborg/FSharp.Stats: Release 0.4.7*.

Ves-Urai P., Krobthong S., Thongsuk K., Roytrakul S. & Yokthongwattana C. (2021)
Comparative secretome analysis between salinity-tolerant and control
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii strains. *Planta* **253**, 68.
Vu L.D., Gevaert K. & De Smet I. (2019) Feeling the Heat: Searching for Plant
Thermosensors. *Trends in plant science* **24**, 210–219.
Wang D., Li X.-F., Zhou Z.-J., Feng X.-P., Yang W.-J. & Jiang D.-A. (2010) Two Rubisco
activase isoforms may play different roles in photosynthetic heat acclimation in the
rice plant. *Physiologia plantarum* **139**, 55–67.
Wang F., Liu Y., Shi Y., Han D., Wu Y., Ye W., … Yang C. (2020) SUMOylation Stabilizes
the Transcription Factor DREB2A to Improve Plant Thermotolerance. *Plant*
physiology **183**, 41–50.
Wang L., Yang L., Wen X., Chen Z., Liang Q., Li J. & Wang W. (2019) Rapid and high
efficiency transformation of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* by square-wave
electroporation. *Bioscience reports* **39**, BSR20181210.
Wu H.-C., Luo D.-L., Vignols F. & Jinn T.-L. (2012) Heat shock-induced biphasic Ca2+
signature and OsCaM1-1 nuclear localization mediate downstream signalling in
acquisition of thermotolerance in rice (Oryza sativa L.). *Plant, cell & environment*
35, 1543–1557.
Wulfert S., Schilasky S. & Krueger S. (2020) Transcriptional and Biochemical
Characterization of Cytosolic Pyruvate Kinases in Arabidopsis thaliana. *Plants* **9**.
Zhang L., Tian L.-H., Zhao J.-F., Song Y., Zhang C.-J. & Guo Y. (2009) Identification of
an apoplastic protein involved in the initial phase of salt stress response in rice root
by two-dimensional electrophoresis. *Plant physiology* **149**, 916–928.
Zhang N., Mattoon E.M., McHargue W., Venn B., Zimmer D., Pecani K., … Zhang R.
(2022) Systems-wide analysis revealed shared and unique responses to moderate
and acute high temperatures in the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.
Communications biology **5**, 460.
Zhang N., Pazouki L., Nguyen H., Jacobshagen S., Bigge B.M., Xia M., … Zhang R.
(2022) Comparative Phenotyping of Two Commonly Used Chlamydomonas
reinhardtii Background Strains: CC-1690 (21gr) and CC-5325 (The CLiP Mutant
Library Background). *Plants* **11**, 585.
Zhang N. & Portis A.R. Jr (1999) Mechanism of light regulation of Rubisco: a specific role
for the larger Rubisco activase isoform involving reductive activation by
thioredoxin-f. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United*
States of America **96**, 9438–9443.
Zhang R., Patena W., Armbruster U., Gang S.S., Blum S.R. & Jonikas M.C. (2014) High-
throughput genotyping of green algal mutants reveals random distribution of
mutagenic insertion sites and endonucleolytic cleavage of transforming DNA. *The*
Plant cell **26**, 1398–1409.
Zhang R. & Sharkey T.D. (2009) Photosynthetic electron transport and proton flux under
moderate heat stress. *Photosynthesis research* **100**, 29–43.
Zhao C., Liu B., Piao S., Wang X., Lobell D.B., Huang Y., … Asseng S. (2017)
Temperature increase reduces global yields of major crops in four independent
estimates. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States*
of America **114**, 9326–9331.

Zhou L., Bokhari S.A., Dong C.-J. & Liu J.-Y. (2011) Comparative proteomics analysis of
the root apoplasts of rice seedlings in response to hydrogen peroxide. *PloS one* **6**,
e16723.o

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

Erin M. Mattoon[1,2], William McHargue[1,2], Catherine E. Bailey[1], Ningning Zhang[1], Chen Chen[3], James Eckhardt[1,6], Chris G. Daum[4], Matt Zane[4], Christa Pennacchio[4], Jeremy Schmutz[4], Ronan C. O'Malley[4&5], Jianlin Cheng[3], Ru Zhang[1,*]

*Corresponding author: Ru Zhang (rzhang@danforthcenter.org)

[1]Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St. Louis, Missouri 63132, USA;

[2]Plant and Microbial Biosciences Program, Division of Biology and Biomedical Sciences,

Washington University in Saint Louis, St. Louis, Missouri 63130, USA;

[3]Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65211, USA;

[4]U.S. Department of Energy, Joint Genome Institute, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA;

[5]Environmental Genomics and Systems Biology, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA;

[6]Current address: University of California Riverside, Riverside, California, 92521, USA.

Main figures (8) and supplemental figures (3)

Figure 1

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 wildtype cells (CC-5325, CLiP library background strain) at different temperatures with and without supplied carbon source. Chlamydomonas cells were grown in photobioreactors (PBRs) in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP, with acetate, 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 temperature treatments with turbidostatic conditions. Cultures were acclimated for 2 days at 25°C under 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} light 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). 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 or T3b marked the end of the screens, but T3a was one day shorter than T3b. 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. Algal cells are harvested at the start and end of the screen for DNA extraction and barcode amplification. Cell abundance and growth rate of each mutant in pooled cultures are calculated by quantifying DNA barcodes 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.

Figure 2

Figure 2: Growth rates calculated from barcode quantification are reproducible. (a, b) Growth rates of one mutant with two different barcodes were consistent. Some mutants

have 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. Each dot represents one mutant with two different barcodes. 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. The identity of mutants used for monocultures were validated by PCR. For monoculture experiments, individual CLiP mutants were grown in PBRs as mentioned in Figure. 1b, like the pooled screens. Two or three bio-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.

Figure 3

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.

Figure 4

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 similar to 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 similar to 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)** For HTGs identified from each of the four

treatment conditions, the number of alleles that were significantly heat sensitive are 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.

Figure 5

(a)

(b)

Figure 5: Heat tolerance genes (HTGs) were overlapped between conditions for functional enrichment. (a) HTGs overlap between conditions. From the identified heat sensitive mutants, we generated a list of genes with potential roles in heat tolerance, defined as HTGs, which are those with at least 1 heat-compromised or heat-depleted mutant in a screen condition under high temperatures. To compare between conditions, only genes 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. 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.

Figure 6

Figure 6: **Comparison of heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with transcriptome and proteome data under high temperature. (a, b)** Venn diagrams comparing HTGs with heat induced genes/proteins (HIGs/HIPs) from 35°C and 40°C treatments of WT cultures in TAP medium (Zhang *et al.* 2022). Exp, 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 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

Figure 7: A triangulation approach was used to identify high confidence heat tolerance genes (HTGs). (**a**) High confidence HTGs were defined using a triangulation approach 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 the high temperature treatment of 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. Genes that meet at least two of these three criteria were considered as high confidence HTGs. 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 had no MapMan functional annotations (U) and 222 had at least one MapMan functional annotation (K). Of the 222 genes with functional annotations, functional enrichment analysis with abbreviated MapMan terms is displayed (right). 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. (**b**) Visualization of high confidence 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 with different function enrichment were identified by ChlamyNET, represented by different colors. Each dot represents one Chlamydomonas gene in the network. The genes circled in black are the high confidence HTGs. Of the 933 high confidence HTGs, 594 were present in the ChlamyNET network of 9,171 genes. Stars (*) indicate significant enrichment for high confidence HTGs within the three ChlamyNet clusters (FDR < 0.05). The overrepresentation analysis and scatterplot visualization are performed using the R programming language.

Figure 8

Figure 8: Many Chlamydomonas high confidence heat tolerance genes (HTGs) are conserved throughout the green lineage. (a) Chlamydomonas high confidence 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. **(b)** 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) (modified from Zhang et. al., 2022). Mean ± SD, *n*=3. Stars indicate significance in differential expression modeling. (**c, d**) Three CLiP alleles of *CrHMT* were heat sensitive in our pooled mutant screens. Stars indicate significance in pooled screen data. Mean ± SD, *n*=2. (e) Two mutant alleles of Arabidopsis AtHMT (one-to-one ortholog), *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 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). Plantlet area was quantified using ImageJ and normalized to the total area of Col-0 on the same plate. Mean ± SD, *n*=3. *, $p < 0.05$, student's one-sided t-test of unequal variance.

Supplemental figures

Figure S1

Figure S1

Figure S1: Normalized read counts of biological replicates are highly reproducible.
Normalized reads for each barcode in two biological replicates are shown for every
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

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 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). **(a-f)** Distribution of mean growth rates of all mutants in each condition. Dashed lines represent growth rates cutoffs. Growth rate cutoff values 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 all tests per 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

Figure S3: Some heat tolerance genes (HTGs) may be also involved in other stresses. The 1,693 heat tolerance genes (HTGs) with high confidence heat sensitive mutants (HSMs) identified in our screens were compared with previously published screen data (Fauser et al. 2022) from approximately 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. Bars quantify the % of overlapping HTGs with sensitive mutants in the given condition (numerator) out of all genes with sensitive mutants in that condition (denominator). Numbers after horizontal bars are No. of genes with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition and also overlap with our HTGs (before /) and No. of genes with significantly sensitive mutants in that condition (after /). The ratios of these two numbers are the % presented by the X axis.