Title:

Crystal structure of a Photosystem II-related, Manganese-binding, TPM-domain protein at a 1.6 Å resolution

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Abstract:

Conserved proteins across oxygenic phototrophic organisms are important players in photosynthetic acclimation, yet many remain poorly or completely uncharacterized. In the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* we identified Cre15.g636050, previously annotated as *CPLD31*, that encodes such an uncharacterized, conserved, thylakoid lumenal protein belonging to the "TPM" domain family (PF04536). TPM refers to a protein fold named after the three founding proteins of this family, TLP18.3, Psb32, and MOLO-1, with the first two being Photosystem II-related proteins. We also found a paralogue of *CPLD31*, Cre03.g154600, previously annotated as *TLP15.2*. In this work, we generated knock-out mutants of these genes in Chlamydomonas and produced the recombinant proteins. We showed both proteins are regulated by light and phototrophy, and while the former binds manganese in a TPM-domain metal binding site, the latter does not. Therefore, we reannotated them as **L**umenal **M**n-binding **T**PM-domain **P**rotein **1** (LMTP1) and **T**hylakoid **L**umenal **P**rotein **26** kDa (TLP26), respectively.

Keywords:

Crystal structure; Thylakoid lumen; Photosystem II; Manganese; TPM domain; Sll1071; CPLD31; At5G52970; TLP15; LMTP1; TLP26.

Introduction

Under high light stress, Photosystem II (PSII) can become damaged due to the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), particularly at the level of D1 (Didaran et al., 2024). The repair of D1 subunits is a tightly regulated process that involves migration of PSII from grana to the stromal lamellae, before D1 degradation and replacement by a new subunit (Baena–González and Aro, 2002). Different redox-regulated lumenal proteins participate in this process, including proteases (such as FtsH and Deg) and immunophilins (Järvi et al., 2013). Immunophilins are a group of two different families of proteins (annotated as either CYPs or FKBPs) highly abundant in the lumen, that mediate the maintenance and turnover of PSII, Cytochrome b_6f, and Photosystem I (He et al., 2004). Although canonical immunophilins are characterized by having a PPIase activity, which facilitates protein folding by an interaction with proline residues, CYPs and FKBPs from the thylakoid lumenal space typically have lost that activity (Shapiguzov et al., 2006). One of the best characterized immunophilins from the lumen without PPIase activity is CYP38 from *A. thaliana* (Fu et al., 2007; Sirpiö et al., 2008).

In *Δcyp38* plants, which have stunted growth and show accumulation of reactive oxygen species, the levels of D1 are diminished, as well as the amount of PSII super complexes (Fu et al., 2007). Additionally, the phosphorylation levels of D1, D2, and LHCIIs are increased in these mutants, suggesting that CYP38 plays a role in the regulation of the phosphorylation state of these proteins (Sirpiö et al., 2008). CYP38 is divided in two main domains, an N-terminal domain that is proposed to control an autoinhibitory mechanism of CYP38, and a C-terminal domain that may be responsible for the catalytic function of this immunophilin as a chaperone for different lumenal targets working as protein complexes (Vasudevan et al., 2012). Using an *A. thaliana* thylakoid lumen library for yeast-two-hybrid screenings, 15 soluble and membrane-bound protein candidates were proposed to assist CYP38 in the regulation of PSII assembly and repair via interaction with the C-terminal domain (Hao et al., 2021). Two proteins of the TPM-domain family of proteins could be identified amongst the candidate proteins: TLP18.3 and the uncharacterized protein AtTLP15.

The TPM-domain superfamily of proteins is named after the three founding proteins of this domain: **T**LP18.3, **P**sb32, and **M**OLO-1; formerly known as DUF477, this family of proteins is broadly conserved in prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms, and it is characterized by a conserved secondary structure (a central hydrophobic β-sheet, made of four β-strands, flanked by four amphiphilic α-helices), even though the aminoacid sequence between different TPM-domain proteins is rather variable (Eletsky et al., 2012; Cerutti et al., 2017). TLP18.3 is involved in PSII repair at the level of D1 turnover, as

Δtlp18.3 mutants from Arabidopsis have slower D1 degradation rates (Sirpiö et al., 2007);
the cyanobacterial homologue of TLP18.3, Psb32, also plays a similar role in PSII repair
during high light acclimation. These proteins are not regarded as essential subunits of
PSII, as mutants of those proteins are still viable, but rather as accessory proteins required
to confer fitness and aid in the process of acclimation (Sirpiö et al., 2007; Wegener et al.,
2011).

Given that all proteins in the TPM domain family share a similarly organized domain
(Pellizza et al., 2016), it is plausible that other proteins in the thylakoid lumen possessing
a TPM domain may also play a role in the regulation of PSII. TLP15, part of a subfamily of
TPM-domain containing proteins (PTHR35514 / Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like), came to
our attention because a bioinformatics approach predicts its conservation across all
oxygenic phototrophic organisms and associates its conservation with PSII (Chazaux et
al., 2020). The green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* encodes two putative paralogues
of this family of proteins, one encoded by Cre15.g636050 and annotated as CPLD31, and
another encoded by Cre03.g154600, annotated as TLP15.2.

Based on the atomic resolution of the 3D structure of CPLD31, and functional
findings within this manuscript, we propose that the two paralogues are distinct proteins
that evolved from a common, cyanobacterial, ancestor. Thus, the annotation of these
proteins was updated to **L**umenal **M**n-binding **T**PM-domain **P**rotein **1** (LMTP1) and
Thylakoid **L**umenal **P**rotein **26** kDa (TLP26), respectively. Part of the findings reported in
this manuscript were presented as a poster in the Second European Congress on
Photosynthesis Research (Vidal-Meireles et al., 2024).

Results

Genomics is a powerful tool to analyze the origins of oxygenic photosynthesis and predict
which genetic factors could be the most relevant to photoprotection and the control of
photosynthetic yields (Mulkidjanian et al., 2006; Merchant et al., 2007; Heinnickel and
Grossman, 2013; Beck et al., 2018). A coarse filtering of all oxygenic phototrophs
sequenced to date identified some 85 gene families split into 50 genes coding for known
protein subunits and regulators of the photosynthetic apparatus, and another 35 gene
families with unknown function (Mulkidjanian et al., 2006). In (Chazaux et al., 2020) we
applied a fine filter to this subgroup, by comparison against the cyanobacterial genomes
analyzed by (Beck et al., 2018) where we searched for conserved genes that have evolved

with photosynthesis but were lost in the cyanobacterial accessions that have lost PSII. In
this analysis we identified *slr0575* and *sll1071* in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803. The
Chlamydomonas homologue of *sll1071* at chromosome 15, Cre15.g636050, was
annotated as *Conserved in the Green Lineage and Diatoms 31* (*CPLD31*). We identified
a paralogue of Cre15.g636050 in the green alga genome at chromosome 3,
Cre03.g154600, annotated as *Thylakoid Lumenal 15.0 kDa Protein 2* (*TLP15.2*). Our work
on the function and localization of these proteins went along with reannotating
Cre15.g636050 as **L**umenal **M**n-binding **T**PM-domain **P**rotein **1** (LMTP1) and
Cre03.g154600 as **T**hylakoid **L**umenal **P**rotein **26** kDa (TLP26). These annotations are
consistently used throughout the manuscript.
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Generation of C. reinhardtii Δlmtp1 and Δtlp26 mutants via CRISPR/Cas9
No mutants were available in the CLiP library (Li et al., 2019) with a clear insertion in the
coding region of either target genes, so we generated *C. reinhardtii Δlmtp1* (encoded by
Cre15.g636050) and *Δtlp26* (encoded by Cre03.g154600) mutants via CRISPR/Cas9. The
first exons of each gene were targeted using *in vitro* assembled RNP particles. Based on
bioinformatics predictions (Naito et al., 2015; Concordet and Haeussler, 2018) for
Cre15.g636050, we selected CCTCGGCACGCTGGAAGTTA<u>CGG</u>, located at the 5'UTR
of the gene's first exon, as the sole target, while for Cre03.g154600 two targets were
selected, CAAATGGCAGCGAGCTACAG<u>CGG</u> at the 5'UTR of the gene's first exon and
AGTTGAGCTTGTCACGCTTG<u>CGG</u> at the second exon (Fig. 1a). Gene disruption was
confirmed using a PCR-based approach, using primers upstream and downstream of the
target site (Figure 2b).
Antibodies against LMTP1 and TLP26 were raised, using recombinant proteins
produced in *E. coli* (full-length for LMTP1 and without predicted transmembrane helices
for TLP26 – see Supplemental Figure 1a), which we show are specific to their paralogue
(Figure 1c). The *Δlmtp1* and *Δtlp26* CRISPR mutants confirmed that the LMTP1 antibody
is very specific against total protein extracts of *C. reinhardtii*, showing a single band around
17kDa in the WT strain which is completely absent from the *Δlmtp1* mutant. The antibody
raised against TLP26 shows several unspecific bands, one of which is missing in the
Δtlp26 mutants, at around 26kDa, which is the predicted protein molecular weight (Figure
1d).
Both LMTP1 and TLP26 are predicted to be localized in the thylakoid lumen using
TargetP 2.0 (Almagro Armenteros et al., 2019), with DeepTMHMM (Hallgren et al., 2022)
predicting LMTP1 to be a soluble protein and TLP26 to have three C-terminus
transmembrane α-helices (Supplemental Figure 1a). Additionally, using a Venus-tagged

construct, LMTP1 has been shown to co-localize mostly to the chloroplast of *C. reinhardtii*
(Wang et al., 2023). To show the chloroplast localization of TLP26, we performed
immunoblot analyses on isolated thylakoids, where no signal was detected for LMTP1,
and a clear signal was visible for TLP26 (Figure 1e).

LMTP1 and TLP26 likely plays a regulatory role during photosynthetic acclimation
Sll1071 and LMTP1 have been predicted as regulators of PSII activity in *Cyanobacteriota*
(former *Cyanobacteria*) and plants in previous bioinformatics and proteomics analyses
(Mulkidjanian et al., 2006; Dahlgren et al., 2021; Hao et al., 2021). We also suggest they
are similar to other auxiliary proteins highly conserved in oxygenic phototrophs. Like APE1,
TLP18.3, and Psb32 (Sirpiö et al., 2007; Wegener et al., 2011; Chazaux et al., 2020), they
are required for photosynthetic acclimation rather than being constitutive subunits of PSII
or essential biogenesis proteins. To evaluate the accumulation levels of both LMTP1 and
TLP26 during acclimation to photoautotrophic conditions, and to determine if these
proteins are essential for PSII activity, we grew WT *C. reinhardtii* cells under
photomixotrophic conditions (TAP medium) with 20 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1} illumination
before shifting them into photoautotrophic conditions (MIN medium) with 40 µmol photons$\cdot$
m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1} illumination for 4 days, and then for 250 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1} for additional 3 days.
At each time-point samples were collected for protein isolation on whole cells extracts,
which were then analyzed via immunoblotting. We have observed that both proteins
accumulate constitutively in *C. reinhardtii*, and that LMTP1 accumulation increases upon
a shift to photoautotrophic conditions and TLP26 accumulation increases upon a shift to
high light (Figure 2a). Under photoautotrophic conditions and moderate light illumination
Δlmtp1 and *Δtlp26* divide at a rate similar to WT (with an exponential division rate of around
4 days for cells grown in MIN medium at 40 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1} illumination), and their
photosynthetic Chl *a* fluorescence parameter F_V/F_M was the same as the WT (Figure 2b).
When analyzing circadian regulation data from *C. reinhardtii* datasets (Zones et al., 2015),
we observe that *LMTP1* transcripts follow a circadian rhythm similarly observed for
TLP18.3: the transcript abundance increases from dawn to the middle of the day,
decreasing then to a basal level that is maintained during the night-period. On the other
hand, *TLP26* transcript abundance follows a different trend, in the same group of genes
such as those involved in the accumulation of antioxidant species such as Vitamin C: at
dawn, *TLP26* mRNA transcript abundance spikes, and then quickly decreases to a basal
level that is close to the detection limit (Figure 2c). This suggests that while both proteins
may be involved in photosynthetic acclimation, they are implied in different processes.

The crystal structure of recombinant LMPT1 and fluorescence measurements reveals a
TPM-domain metal-binding site

Although some progress has been made in the understanding of the cellular role of TPM-containing proteins, the relationship between structure and function is not clear. While several structures have been elucidated, there appears to be no consensus on the role of TPM-domain containing proteins, nor is there a single clearly attributable function to the structural motif that is a TPM-domain. The structure of six TPM domain containing proteins have been determined either by X-ray crystallography or NMR: BA42 from *Bizionia argentinensis* [PDB codes: 2MPB and 4OA3], BA41 from *B. argentinensis* [PDB code: 5ANP], TLP18.3 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* [PDB code: 3PTJ] (Wu et al., 2011; Aran et al., 2014; Cerutti et al., 2017), and Rhom172_1776 from *Rhodothermus marinus* [PDB code: 7TBR], CG2496 from *Corynebacterium glutamicum* [PDB code: 2KPT], and PG0361 from *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [PDB code: 2KW7 (all unpublished structures at the time of this submission).

To gain more insights into the molecular function of LMTP1, we obtained crystals and performed X-ray diffraction experiments, which were complemented with fluorescence measurements on the recombinant protein. Recombinant tagged proteins were purified using affinity chromatography, followed by cleavage of the His-tag and size exclusion chromatography (SEC). A buffer range from pH 5 to pH 7 was tested by thermal melting with optimal stability obtained in a 20 mM MES,150 mM NaCl buffer at pH 6.5. This buffer was therefore used for further SEC purifications and *in vitro* characterization. Recombinant proteins were obtained at a final concentration of about 1 mg/ml and further concentrated to 6 mg/ml for protein crystallography. Crystal screening results revealed 0.2 M $CaCl_2$, 0.1 M HEPES/KOH (pH 7.0), and 20% PEG 6000 as the most successful and reproducible condition for obtaining needle-like crystals. The successfully obtained LMTP1 crystals were resolved by X-ray diffraction at 1.6 Å (Figure 3). The crystal structure presents with a near canonical TPM fold – a central hydrophobic β-sheet, made of four β-strands, flanked by amphiphilic α-helices on each side (Cerutti et al., 2017). Interestingly, the secondary structure motifs present in this structure are generally shorter than in the canonical fold, resulting in a structure with generally more loop structures. Additionally, the LMTP1 structure contains a metal co-factor binding site in a region which is generally structurally conserved in other TPM-domain proteins, but which is mostly uncharged in other structures. Using Alphafold3 (Abramson et al., 2024), we predicted a similar fold and metal binding site to our recombinant LMTP1 structure (Supplemental Figures 1b and 1c).

As mentioned, the structure of LMTP1 shows a near canonical TPM fold with a three-layered α/β architecture composed of a four-stranded β-sheet flanked by four of the five helices present in the structure. Three α-helices are present on one side and a single small helix on the other side of the β-sheet which runs from the N-terminus through to the C-terminus with the topology A($\uparrow$)B($\uparrow$)C($\uparrow$)D($\downarrow$). α-Helices I, IV, and V are packed against one side of the β-sheet, while α-helix II is located on the opposite side, constituting an αβα sandwich structure. α-Helix III is perpendicular to the plane of the β-sheet, which represents the middle layer of the sandwich. The locations of all these regular secondary structure elements are: β-strands A (residues 95-98), B (125-127), C (169-176), and D (163-167), and α-helices I (102-121), II (138-144), III (179-188), IV (191-196), and V (198-214). A notable difference in the αβα sandwich structure is in the "lack of substance" in the second α-layer of the sandwich which is composed of the very small, 6 amino acid, α-Helix II and loops. In the canonical TPM domain two and three longer α-helices are present on each side of the β-sheet.

Of the six structures deposited in the Protein Data Bank, 3 appear as metal binding proteins Rhom172_1776, AtTLP18.3, and BA42. A cofactor-binding site is identifiable at one of the N-terminus loops of the LMTP1 protein between β-strands A and α-helices I. Notably, this does not correspond to the proposed Ca^{2+}-binding site in AtTLP18.3 (Wu et al., 2011) or the Ca^{2+}/ Mg^{2+} sites in BA42 (Aran et al., 2014; Pellizza et al., 2016), but is conserved as a Mg^{2+} binding site, with a conserved coordination sphere for the metal, in Rhom172_1776. Unfortunately, Rhom172_1776 has been deposited without being published thus far, making it difficult to infer a function uniquely based on this structure. The binding site in LMTP1 is occupied by a divalent hexa-coordinated metal coordinated by waters, side chains of protein residues Asp97, Glu107, and the carbonyl group of Leu102 (Asp44, Leu49, and Glu54 in the recombinant protein sequence) which are all conserved in the *Cyanobacteriota* and Arabidopsis homologues, but not in the algal paralogue TLP26 nor in TLP18.3 (see Figure 3 inset). The crystal also shows that the cysteine pair at the C-terminus of the protein is oxidized, forming an intra-molecular disulfide bridge, which could be important for the function and stability of the protein.

The modelled divalent ion in the LMTP1 structure is Ca^{2+}, but as we suspected this may be a crystallization artefact, to determine what divalent metal really binds to recombinant LMTP1, and to determine if the same metal could also bind to TLP26, we used nano-differential scanning fluorimetry (nanoDSF) with an array of different divalent metals in a 1:5 (protein:metal) ratio. For LMTP1, Cu^{2+} decreased the thermal stability of the protein, whereas Ca^{2+} and especially Mn^{2+} significantly increased the thermal stability of LMTP1 (Figure 4a); for TLP26, no tested divalent metal caused a significant shift in the

thermal stability of the protein (Figure 4b). Based on the coordination spheres of Cu^{2+},
Ca^{2+}, and Mn^{2+}, Mn^{2+} typically displays a hexa-coordination, in agreement with the cofactor
binding site of the LMTP1 structure; Finally, Alphafold3 modelling of LMTP1 with a Mn^{2+}
added as a cofactor result in an identical prediction for binding site as found in our
structure, coordinated by the same residues (Supplemental Figure 1c). As for the other
divalent metals that trigger thermal stability shifts on LMTP1, Ca^{2+} should rather be
octahedrally coordinated, thus not fitting into the cofactor binding site, and even though
Cu^{2+} can be hexa-coordinated, when modelling the interaction via Alphafold3 the metal is
predicted to bind to different protein residues (Supplemental Figure 1d), thus it is unlikely
that Cu^{2+} could be the cofactor of LMTP1.

As we observed that the recombinant LMTP1 cysteines enable the formation of
intramolecular disulfide bridges, we investigated the effect of the redox status of these
residues on the protein conformation. We incubated the protein under oxidizing (+ H_2O_2)
or reducing (+ TCEP) conditions, and in the absence or presence of selected divalent
metals. Under reducing conditions, the thermal stability of LMTP1 increases, even without
adding any metals, while it seems to remain unchanged for oxidizing conditions; for all
tested conditions, incubation with manganese significantly increased the thermal stability
of the protein vs. the condition with no metals added (Figure 4c).

LMTP1 and TLP26 exhibit very low phosphatase activity
The TPM-domain family of proteins is also annotated as "Thylakoid acidic phosphatase"
(TAP) domain in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (TPM domain (IPR007621) - InterPro entry -
InterPro), based on the activity of one member of this family of proteins, TLP18.3 (Wu et
al., 2011). Based on this annotation, LMTP1 was proposed as another potential functional
partner required for the phosphatase action of a luminal complex regulated by CYP38
(Hao et al., 2021). Here, we have tested the phosphatase activity of our recombinant
LMTP1 and TLP26 against the substrate *p*NPP.

When incubating the recombinant protein with different concentrations of substrate
(with or without the addition of 2 molar equivalents of Mn^{2+} for LMTP1) we observed a very
low activity, from 0.2 to 0.4 nmol phosphate·mg^{-1}·min^{-1}, which is in line with the activity
reported for other TPM domain proteins (Wu et al., 2011; Pellizza et al., 2016; Cerutti et
al., 2017). As a comparison, 1 unit of the commercial Alkaline Phosphatase showed the
expected activity of 1 μmol of substrate per minute (1000 nmol phosphate·mg^{-1}·min^{-1}).
If this very low phosphatase activity is specific to TPM-domain proteins it follows that a
conserved set of amino acids should be identifiable within the putative TAP domain. When
aligning the sequences of different homologues of LMTP1 from different species with

CrTLP26 and CrTLP18.3 we did not identify a clearly conserved region between the
different proteins (Supplemental Figure 2).
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LMTP1 is the paralogue conserved in all oxygenic phototrophs and TLP26 is only present
in a cluster of primary endosymbionts
LMTP1 and TLP26 have different metal-binding affinities and structural differences,
namely the presence or absence of C-terminus transmembrane helices. We then
hypothesized that the two paralogues could be two distinct proteins with a common
ancestor that have evolved to play different roles during light acclimation in phototrophic
organisms. To this end, we compared the mature sequences (i.e., without transit peptides
as predicted by TargetP 2.0 (Almagro Armenteros et al., 2019)) of both our *C. reinhardtii*
paralogues with the LMTP1 homologues from *A. thaliana* and Synechocystis, as well as
the sequence of another TPM-domain protein from *C. reinhardtii*, TLP18.3 (Supplemental
Figure 2).
Based on multiple sequence alignments, CrLMTP1 is the homologous protein that
has the strongest sequence similarity with those of both Synechocystis and Arabidopsis.
In all these proteins, we have identified that the manganese-binding site is conserved, as
well as a tyrosine residue that has been shown to be phosphorylated *in vivo* in A*. thaliana*
(Gollan et al., 2021). CrTLP26 and TLP18.3 do not share either the conserved metal-
binding site, or the phosphorylated residue, thus LMTP1 is likely the conserved paralogue
throughout oxygenic phototrophs.
To strengthen this hypothesis, we built phylogenetic trees using a maximum
likelihood method for LMTP1 and TLP26 (Figure 6, Supplemental Figure 3). The trees
were drawn based on the protein family PTHR35514 (Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like),
which is conserved in photosynthetic organisms only, including *Cyanobacteriota*. Given
the evolutionary history of photosynthesis (Hohmann-Marriott and Blankenship, 2011;
Cardona, 2019), it is very likely that this family of proteins in photosynthetic eukaryotes
emerged from an endosymbiotic *Cyanobacteriota* ancestor, followed by a duplication
event in the last common ancestor to all *Streptophyta* (including green algae, mosses, and
land plants). *C. reinhardtii* harbors two paralogous proteins: **(i)** LMTP1 (encoded by
Cre15.g636050 and previously annotated as CPLD31) that clusters with proteins of land
plants and that is conserved in all oxygenic photosynthetic organisms, and **(ii)** TLP26
(encoded by Cre03.g154600 and previously annotated as TLP15.2) that clusters with
membrane-docked proteins conserved only in primary endosymbionts. The longer
external branches, indicative of higher evolutionary rates, support the neofunctionalization

of TLP26, that we predict to have arisen after the duplication event and primary
endosymbiosis, while LMTP1 function remained similar to that of the prokaryotic ancestor.
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Discussion

The TPM-domain superfamily of proteins (InterPro entry IPR007621) is widely conserved
across *Bacteriota* and is limited to invertebrates and phototrophs amongst *Eukaryota*. The
given name "TPM" is based on the first three proteins studied from this family: TLP18.3
from *A. thaliana*, Psb32 from *Synechocystis sp. PCC6803*, and MOLO-1 from *C. elegans*
(Pellizza et al., 2016). Despite the low conservation in primary sequences of TPM domain
proteins, they can be identified by their conserved and unique secondary structure,
composed of a central hydrophobic β-sheet, made of four β-strands, flanked by four
amphiphilic α-helices (Cerutti et al., 2017). While the function and role of most TPM-
domain proteins is unknown, as well as the relationship between protein structure and
physiological role (Pellizza et al., 2016), some proteins of this family have been proposed
to play a role in PSII repair and acclimation to high light (Sirpiö et al., 2007; Wegener et
al., 2011).
The uncharacterized family of TPM-domain proteins, PTHR35514
(Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like) were included in the GreenCut library published with the
Chlamydomonas genome, highlighting their conservation (Merchant et al., 2007; Chazaux
et al., 2020). Members of the PTHR35514 family of proteins have been detected as
peptides in proteomics studies in *C. reinhardtii (Colina et al., 2020)*, *A. thaliana* (Gollan et
al., 2021), and *Cyanobacteriota* (Dahlgren et al., 2021). In *A. thaliana,* the AT5G52970
protein was proposed to be a constituent of the soluble fraction of the thylakoid lumen
(Gollan et al., 2021), and in *Cyanobacteriota* Sll1071 peptides form part of the interactome
of the PsbU subunit of PSII, equally in the thylakoid lumen (Dahlgren et al., 2021). The
green algae *C. reinhardtii* encodes two paralogues of proteins from these family, LMTP1
(encoded by Cre15.g636050) and TLP26 (encoded by Cre03.g154600). Based on TargetP
2.0 predictions (Almagro Armenteros et al., 2019), both proteins are addressed to the
thylakoid lumen, and according to their predicted secondary structure via Alphafold3
(Hallgren et al., 2022) LMTP1 is a soluble protein, while TLP26 is membrane-docked via
three C-terminus transmembrane alpha-helices (Supplemental Figure 1a).
We generated knock-out mutants of *LMTP1* and *TLP26* in *C. reinhardtii* via
CRISPR/Cas9, confirmed by PCR (Figure 1b) and immunoblot analysis (Figure 1d). We
have confirmed the secondary structure predictions for both proteins (Supplemental Figure

1a), as TLP26 is detected in thylakoid membrane protein extracts, unlike for LMTP1. Under

photoautotrophic conditions at non-saturating light intensities, the mutants divide at WT

rates and have functional PSII centers, as assessed by F_V/F_M levels (Figure 2b). This is

not unexpected, as *tlp18.3*, involved in photosynthetic acclimation, has normal growth

under standard conditions (Sirpiö et al., 2007). During the shift from photomixotrophy to

photoautotrophy the accumulation of LMTP1 increases in WT *C. reinhardtii* cells, and upon

shift to high light illumination both LMTP1 and TLP26 protein contents increase (Figure

2a). Additionally, when filtering data from circadian regulation of *C. reinhardtii* genes

(Zones et al., 2015) we can observe that *LMTP1* mRNA transcript abundance follows a

circadian pattern, like *TLP18.3*, whereas *TLP26* seems to increase on the onset of

illumination and immediately decrease for the remaining day (Figure 2c); the behavior of

TLP26 resembles *VTC2*, a gene that encodes GDP-L-galactose phosphorylase, a key

enzyme in the biosynthesis of Vitamin C in *C. reinhardtii* (Vidal-Meireles et al., 2017). Like

TLP18.3 (Sirpiö et al., 2007), LMTP1 may play a role in PSII turnover during phototrophic

acclimation, while TLP26 may play a role during the dark-to-light transition, ensuring the

fitness of the cells while the photosynthetic apparatus is not yet fully active.

We showed the presence of a TPM-fold in LMTP1 by resolving its crystal structure

(Figure 3), and found a novel metal binding site, coordinated by Asp97, Glu107, and

Leu102 that are conserved in LMTP1 homologues from different species (Asp44, Leu49,

and Glu54 in the recombinant protein sequence). However, in TLP26 and TLP18.3 Glu107

is replaced by an arginine. Of the few TPM-domain containing protein crystal structures

available in the PDB, only one shares the same coordination sphere as observed for

LMTP1, but this structure is deposited as a magnesium binding protein and remains

unpublished. Based on fluorescence emission thermal denaturation assays (Figure 4a),

the most likely metal that occupies the cofactor site at LMTP1 is Mn^{2+}; this is also a novel

finding within the TPM-domain family of proteins, as Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} have been the only

divalent metals reported as cofactors of BA42 and TLP18.3 (Wu et al., 2011; Pellizza et

al., 2016). Interestingly, Mn^{2+} was suggested to play a role in the activity of BA41, but no

direct proof of protein binding was shown in that work (Cerutti et al., 2017). Mn^{2+} typically

binds to hard atoms such as oxygen (O) and nitrogen (N), with a generally hexa-

coordinated geometry, as observed in our crystal structure (Figure 3). The amino acids

involved in this binding mainly include aspartic acid (Asp) and glutamic acid (Glu), through

the oxygen atoms of their side chains (Khrustaleva, 2014). These observations further

support that Mn^{2+} is the cofactor of LMTP1. The specificity of the observed interaction and

the dissociation constant between metal and protein remain to be determined. It is worth

commenting that Cu^{2+} impacts the thermal stability of LMTP1, which we attribute to a likely

oxidizing effect of Cu^{2+} on the protein (McCann and Stahl, 2015). We have not yet resolved
the structure of TLP26, but the change of one of the key aminoacids at the metal-binding
site (E54R) and the absence of changes to thermal stability upon incubation with different
divalent metals (Figure 4b) suggest that the metal-binding site of LMTP1 is not conserved
in TLP26.

The crystal structure of LMTP1 also revealed that the cysteines at the C-terminus
of the protein form disulfide bridges. As LMTP1 expression responds to high light (Figure
2a) and it has been proposed as a thioredoxin target (Pérez-Pérez et al., 2017), we
evaluated the effect of redox changes on the thermal stability of the protein (Figure 4c).
Under reducing conditions, the thermal stability of LMTP1 was the highest, increasing in
the presence of Mn^{2+}. This result is not surprising, as thylakoid lumen proteins are known
to be more stable in their reduced inactive form, being transported across the thylakoid
membrane in this state and only getting oxidized when triggered by rapid changes to ROS
content or acidification (Hoh et al., 2024). The change in the redox status of the cysteines
can occur upon interaction with thioredoxins, probably at long distance via signal
transduction from the stroma (Hoh et al., 2024). In *A. thaliana*, nearly half of all lumenal
proteins have been identified as targets of thioredoxin in *in vitro* studies; this contrasts with
the chloroplast stroma, where only about 2% of the proteins are regulated in this manner
(Lindahl and Kieselbach, 2009; Hall et al., 2010). Examples of redox regulation in the
lumen include several proteins that are essential for light acclimation, such as STN7,
FKBP13, and VDE (Gopalan et al., 2004; Lemeille et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2015; Wu et al.,
2021). Besides thioredoxin regulation, proteins also respond to lumen acidification upon
high light exposure. The changes in the lumenal pH trigger shifts in the protein redox
potentials, and also impact the protonation of different protein residues, which promote
conformational changes that shift the accessibility of these residues in the protein,
including cysteine pairs (Hoh et al., 2024).

TLP18.3, BA42, and Rv2345, three TPM-domain proteins, have been proposed to
function as phosphatases, albeit with very low activities (Wu et al., 2011; Sinha et al., 2015;
Pellizza et al., 2016); this lead to an annotation of "Thylakoid Acidic Phosphatase" (TAP)
within the TPM domain (Supplemental Figure 2). This is connected to *A. thaliana* CYP38
involvement in PSII core and antenna protein de-phosphorylation, a function that was
outsourced to interacting proteins and speculated as LMTP1 or TLP18.3, based on *in vitro*
pull-down assays (Sirpiö et al., 2008; Hao et al., 2021). To evaluate if LMTP1 and TLP26
are acidic phosphatases, we used the general phosphorylated substrate *p*NPP, which
when incubated under acidic conditions showed 5000 times less activity for our
recombinant proteins than the positive control used (Alkaline Phosphatase). The rate of

pNPP hydrolysis was in the same range (0.2-0.4 nmol phosphate·mg^{-1}·min^{-1}) as that
observed for the other proteins of the TPM-domain superfamily (Wu et al., 2011; Sinha et
al., 2015; Pellizza et al., 2016), suggesting that the TPM-fold may be responsible for the
conserved, yet exceptionally feeble, phosphatase activity of these proteins. That addition
of Mn^{2+} to LMTP1 does not have an effect on its activity further supports that TPM-domain
proteins are constitutively able to hydrolyze phosphate residues, even without the
presence of a cofactor. When comparing the sequence alignment of different homologues
of LMTP1 with TLP26 and TLP18.3, we were unable to identify conserved regions that
could support the presence of a common domain responsible for the phosphatase activity
of these proteins (Supplemental Figure 2). A second, equally low, activity as hydrolases of
di- and triphosphate nucleotides has also been shown for Rv2345 and BA41, with an
enhanced activity after Mn^{2+} incubation for BA41 (Sinha et al., 2015; Cerutti et al., 2017).
The physiological relevance of this very low phosphatase activity remains yet to be
determined.

To understand the evolutionary history of LMTP1 and TLP26, and to correctly
annotate them, we have compared them to other members of its protein family
(PTHR35514 – Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like) from various prokaryotic and eukaryotic
oxygenic phototrophs and built both unrooted (Figure 6) and rooted (Supplemental Figure
3) phylogenetic trees. When unrooted (Figure 6), we have two clear groups of proteins,
one containing TLP26 from *C. reinhardtii* and homologues from primary *Chlorophyte*
endosymbionts, and another containing LMTP1 from *C. reinhardtii*, the cyanobacterial
homologue Sll1071, and the *A. thaliana* homologue AT5G52970. This division is coherent
with the sequence alignment of the different homologues, because TLP26 is the most
divergent (Supplemental Figure 2). Key residues, such as the metal-binding site identified
in this manuscript and an *in vivo* phosphorylatable Tyr residue, identified via proteomics
studies in *A. thaliana* (Gollan et al., 2021), are highlighted in Figure 3 and Supplemental
Figure S2.

We also noted that the distance between cysteines appears to depend on the
presence or absence of the C-terminus transmembrane helices: for CrLMTP1 and
AtLMTP1 (soluble proteins), the distance between these aminoacids is longer than for
CrTLP26 and Sll1071 (membrane-docked proteins). As there are no cysteines in TLP18.3,
these are clearly not a requirement for the formation of the TPM-domain and rather may
play a specific role on LMTP1 and TLP26 regulation. Additionally, the transmembrane
domains of both CrTLP26 and Sll1071 share some degree of similarity, and CrLMTP1,
although it is a soluble protein, has some amino acids at its C-terminus that align to this
transmembrane region, hinting that it was originally a membrane-docked protein that has

eventually evolved to be fully soluble. Data also suggest that both proteins evolved from a
common, cyanobacterial, ancestor, which was duplicated in the early endosymbiotic
species, followed by the specialization of each paralogue. Why plants and algal secondary
plastid endosymbionts do not have TLP26 is intriguing and may hold the key to
understanding the functionality of these paralogues.

When rooting the trees (Supplemental Figure 3) using a homologue of Sll1071 as
the last common ancestor of the PTHR35514 family of proteins, we observe the same
branch distribution of the homologues, further strengthening the hypothesis that LMTP1 is
the conserved homologue in all oxygenic photosynthetic organisms.

Finally, the previous annotations of LMTP1 and TLP26 from *C. reinhardtii* are
incorrect. LMTP1, encoded by Cre15.g636050 was previously annotated as "Conserved
in the Plant Lineage and Diatoms 31" (CPLD31), which excludes the homologues present
in *Cyanobacteriota*; TLP26, encoded by Cre03.g154600, was annotated as "Thylakoid
Lumenal 15.0 KDa Protein 2, Chloroplastic" (TLP15.2), which did not match its actual
molecular weight – 26.3 kDa.

We therefore reannotate the TPM-domain homologue encoded by Cre15.g636050
Lumenal **M**n-binding **T**PM-domain **P**rotein **1** (LMTP1); all other homologues throughout
the green lineage and *Cyanobacteriota*, such as Sll1071 and AT5G53970, share this
conserved manganese-binding site. The other TPM-domain protein, encoded by
Cre03.g154600 (and all the homologues in the Chlorophyta clade), with a yet unknown
structure and function, should be annotated as **T**hylakoid **L**umenal **P**rotein **26** kDa
(TLP26).

Materials and Methods

Cell culture
The wild-type strain (T222 mt+) used in this study is a progeny of 137c backcrosses
(Bujaldon et al., 2017). Maintained cultures were always cultivated at 20 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1}
in TAP + 2 % agar media plates. For experimental setups, liquid cell cultures were
grown in Tris-Acetate-Phosphate (TAP) medium at 25°C under ambient air at continuous
25 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1} illumination in incubation shakers (photomixotrophic conditions),
and when stated, shifted to photoautotrophic conditions by centrifugation and
resuspension in minimal (MIN) media under ambient air at the described light intensities.

Standard recipes for media preparation were used as in (Harris, 1989). Experiments were
performed using batch cultures in 100- or 500-ml Erlenmeyer flasks. Cell division rates
were estimated via absorption changes at 720 nm.
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Generation of C. reinhardtii CRISPR/Cas9 mutants
The transformation was performed based on (Yu et al., 2017; Kelterborn et al., 2022), with
some modifications. Briefly, specific gRNAs and Alt-R^{TM} S.p. Cas9 Nuclease V3 were
ordered from IDT-DNA and used to assemble _in vitro_ RNP particles. _C. reinhardtii_ wild-
type cells were harvested at early exponential stage ($2x10^6$ cells$\cdot$ml^{-1}) via centrifugation
(1600 g, 5 min, RT), and re-suspended in "MAX Efficiency™ Transformation Reagent for
Algae" (Thermo Fisher Scientific), supplemented with 20 % sucrose, to a final
concentration of $2x10^8$ cells$\cdot$ml^{-1}. A heat-shock (40 ºC, 30 min, 450 rpm shaking) was then
applied to the cells, followed by a 20-min recovery at RT, before 120 µl of cells were added
to a pre-cooled 2-mm gap electroporation cuvette together with 15 µl of RNP particles and
1 µg of paromomycin-resistance plasmid for electroporation (600 V, 50 µF, infinite external
resistance). Cells were allowed to recover overnight in TAP medium supplemented with
20 % sucrose and 1 mg$\cdot$l^{-1} Vitamin B12 at 33 ºC in the dark before being plated in TAP +
2 % agar + 10 mg$\cdot$l^{-1} paromomycin and incubated under 20 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1}
illumination until colonies could be picked.
519
DNA isolation and PCR
Total genomic DNA and PCR were done using the "Phire Plant Direct PCR Master Mix" kit
(Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, a small
amount of cells was solubilized with 20 µl of "Dilution buffer" (included in the PCR kit) via
agitation, before centrifugation (4000 g, 10 min, RT) to obtain the DNA in the soluble
fraction. The PCR master mix was prepared by mixing 5 µl of 2X reagent with 3 µl of 3 M
betaine, 1 µl of each primer, and 1 µl of DNA template (or ddH$_2$O as a negative control),
and amplification was done during 35 cycles. PCR products were loaded on a 3 % TAE-
agarose gel and the DNA was stained for visualization with ClearSight (Euromedex). The
primers used to amplify the _lmtp1_ gene are 5'-TTGTCAACATGCAGAGCCTC-3' and 5'-
TAGTTGCAGCCAGTAGTCGT-3' (corresponding to an WT-sized amplicon of 249 bp) and
for the _tlp26_ gene are 5'- ATGCAAGTTTACGGGAATGCA-3' and 5'-
GATGCCAGTACACCACGTCTT-3' (corresponding to an WT-sized amplicon of 748 bp).
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Protein isolation

Protein extraction was based on (Riché et al., 2024) with minor modifications. Briefly, 5-ml
of culture was collected at each time-point, centrifuged (20800g, 1 min, RT), and the pellets
were frozen in liquid N_2 before being re-suspended in 350 µl of lysis buffer (50mM Tris pH
6.8, 2% SDS, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 1X cOmplete protease inhibitor without EDTA –
Sigma Aldrich) and incubated at 37 ºC for 30 min with strong agitation. Chlorophyll content
was determined via methanol extraction (Porra et al., 1989).

Thylakoid isolation
Thylakoid extraction was done according to the standard method (Chua and Bennoun,
1975) and the thylakoids were resuspended in a final 5 mM HEPES/KOH pH 7.5 at 1
mg/mL chlorophyll for subsequent immunoblot analysis.

Immunoblot analysis
Western blot analysis was performed as in (Chazaux et al., 2020) with minor modifications.
Briefly, proteins were separated under denaturing conditions on 15% SDS-PAGE gels
supplemented with 4 M Urea. Samples were loaded based on chlorophyll content (100 %
equals 1 µg protein). Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes (BioTrace
NT, Pall Corporation) using liquid transfer. Primary LMTP1 and TLP26 antibodies were
generated in rabbit against the recombinant protein (ProteoGenix) and used at a 1:5000
ratio; primary Atpβ antibody was a kind gift from S. Bujaldon and used at a 1:100000 ratio.
Secondary antibodies used were always HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit (Invitrogen). HRP-
peroxidase chemiluminescent substrate (SuperSignal™ West Pico PLUS, Thermo Fisher
Scientific) was used to reveal the antibody signal, using a GBOX imaging system
(Syngene).

Chlorophyll a fluorescence analysis
Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence kinetics were determined using the Joliot-type
Spectrophotometer (JTS-Biologic). Dark-adapted cells were subjected to a saturating
pulse (8 000 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1}) to measure F_V/F_M.

Recombinant protein production
The protocol for production of recombinant proteins was based on (Chazaux et al., 2020).
The synthetic DNA sequences of *C. reinhardtii lmtp1* (corresponding to the residues R77
to K246 of Cre15.g636050) and *tlp26* (corresponding to the residues A82 to V226 of
Cre03.g154600) genes, flanked by complementary *BsaI* restriction sites sequences, were

ordered from Twist Bioscience and sub-cloned into the plasmid pNIC28-Bsa4
(Addgene#26103) using GoldenGate cloning technique. The pNIC28-Bsa4 vector
contains a 6×His-tag and a TEV protease-cleavage site followed by the suicide
gene *sacB* (flanked by *BsaI* restriction sites), which is replaced by our synthetic gene
sequences. 20 fmol of vector was used with 20 fmol synthetic DNA for three successive
rounds of digestion (*BsaI*, 37°C, 10 min) and ligation (T4 DNA ligase, 16°C, 10 min) in the
same mix. TOP10 *E. coli* cells (NEB) were then transformed with the ligation products for
vector amplification, screening and sequencing. 50 ng of vector were then used to
transform chemically competent *E. coli* BL21(DE3) cells (Invitrogen) for protein
expression.

Bacterial cells were cultured at 37 °C in Luria Broth (Lennox) supplemented with
50 µg·ml^{-1} of kanamycin. Expression was induced once cells reach an OD_{600} of 0.6-0.8 by
addition of 500 µM IPTG, and the cultures were left overnight at 17 °C. Cells were collected
by centrifugation and re-suspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Sodium-Phosphate buffer,
300 mM NaCl, 10 mM Imidazole, pH 8.0) supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail
(Sigma-Aldrich) and DNase. Lysis buffer was used in the ratio of 1.5 ml buffer per 1 g of
wet cell pellet. Re-suspended pellets were stored at -80 °C.

Cells were disrupted twice by French Press at 1000 psi and clarified by
centrifugation at 40000 x *g* for 45 min. Purification of the His-tagged proteins was
performed in two steps, using Ni-charged HisTrap HP (Cytiva) and HiLoad 16/60 Superdex
200 pg columns (Cytiva) on an ÄKTA Pure FPLC protein purification system (Cytiva); the
columns were pre-equilibrated with IMAC buffer (50 mM Sodium-Phosphate, 300 mM
NaCl, 10 mM Imidazole, pH 8.0) and gel filtration buffer (20 mM MES, 150 mM NaCl, pH
6.5), respectively. The 0.45 µM filtered lysates were loaded onto the HisTrap HP
column and washed with IMAC buffer. Bound protein was eluted with IMAC buffer
containing 250 mM imidazole and cleavage of the 6xHis-tag was done overnight at 4 ºC,
using recombinant TEV protease at a 1:20 (TEV:target protein) ratio by dialysis
against IMAC buffer without imidazole. Cleaved protein was separated from the tag and
the TEV protease by a second run on Histrap HP column and loaded onto the pre-
equilibrated gel filtration column. Fractions containing the target proteins were pooled and
concentrated using a VIVASPIN centrifugal filter device with a cut-off size of 10 kDa.
Protein purity was confirmed by SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and protein
samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

Crystallization, data collection, structure determination and validation

Native crystals were obtained by the "sitting drop vapour" diffusion method in a 96-well

plate. 0.5 µl of protein solution (at a concentration of 6.3 mg·ml^{-1}) in gel filtration buffer

(20 mM MES, 150 mM NaCl, pH 6.5) was mixed with 0.5 µl of "well solution", consisting of

0.2 M CaCl$_2$, 0.1 M HEPES/KOH pH7.0 and 20% (w/v) PEG 6000. The plate was

incubated at 20 °C and crystals were obtained after 12-14 days. Crystals were quickly

transferred to cryogenic solution containing well solution with 20 % glycerol, and flash

frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Native data were collected to 1.6 Å on beamline BM07 at the ESRF Synchrotron

facility (France). Data integration and scaling were performed with the EDNA auto-

processing pipeline on the beamline. The structure was solved by the MrBUMP (Keegan

and Winn, 2007) in the CCP4 suite (Collaborative Computational Project, Number 4,

1994).

Models were generated by successive rounds of building and refinement with Coot

and Refmac5, respectively (Murshudov et al., 1999; Emsley and Cowtan, 2004). Structure

validations were performed using the Molprobity server

(http://molprobity.biochem.duke.edu/) and Procheck from the CCP4 suite (Collaborative

Computational Project, Number 4, 1994). Coordinates and structure factors have been

deposited in the Protein Data Bank under PDB ID 9H70.

Thermal unfolding experiments via nano-differential scanning fluorimetry _(nanoDSF)_

For thermal unfolding experiments, proteins were diluted to a final concentration of 10 µM

and incubated with 5 molar excess of each divalent metal. In redox experiments (Figure

4c), proteins were first incubated for 4 h at 25 ºC with freshly prepared 2 mM H$_2$O$_2$ or 2

mM tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP). For each condition, 10 µl of sample per

capillary were required for one thermal unfolding profile. The samples were loaded into

Prometheus capillaries (NanoTemper Technologies) and experiments were carried out

using the Prometheus NT.48. The temperature ramp was set to an increase of 1 °C/min in

a range from 20 °C to 90 °C. Protein unfolding was measured by detecting the

temperature-dependent change in tryptophan fluorescence at emission wavelengths of

330 and 350 nm. For calculation of Melting Temperature (Tm), the first derivative data of

the F_{350}/F_{330} fluorescence ratio unfolding curves were used.

Phosphatase activity assays

The hydrolysis rate of _p_-nitrophenyl phosphate (_p_NPP, NEB) was determined based on

(Wu et al., 2011). Briefly, 10 µg (about 0.6 nmol) of recombinant protein were mixed with

different concentrations of substrate, and the volume was completed with recombinant

protein buffer (20 mM MES, 150 mM NaCl pH 6.5) up to 100 µl; when applicable, 2 molar

excess of Mn^{2+} were added to the reaction. As a positive control, 1 U of Alkaline

phosphatase was used instead of recombinant protein. The samples were incubated at

RT for 1 h before quenching the reaction with 100 µl of 1 N NaOH and measuring

absorbance at 405 nm.

Phylogenetic analysis

A phylogenetic tree of the thylakoid acid phosphatase family was built from sequences of

the PANTHER entry PTHR35514 / Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like, some of which are also

classified in the InterPro entry IPR007621 / TPM_dom family. A set of homologous amino-

acid sequences representing the major taxa were selected in the dbUniProtKB reference

proteomes and Swiss-Prot databases, including eukaryotic lineages from the

Streptophyta, *Chlorophyta*, *Rhodophyta*, and the *Stramenopiles-Alveolata-Rhizaria* group.

A multiple sequence alignment was performed with MAFFT v7.49 (Katoh and Standley,

2013) using the L-INS-i strategy, and filtered for saturation with BMGE v1.12 (Criscuolo

and Gribaldo, 2010) using the BLOSUM30 matrix and removing sites with > 50% gaps, to

get a final alignment containing 189 sites and 51 sequences. The tree was built using the

Maximum-Likelihood (ML) algorithm with IQ-TREE (Minh et al., 2020) and the

Q.pfam+I+R4 substitution model selected by ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017)

with the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) (Supplementary Figure S3). The statistical

support of the branches was estimated using a (UFBoot) approximation (Hoang et al.,

2018) implemented in IQ-TREE with 1000 replicates. A second tree was built from a

reduced dataset of 36 sequences aligned and trimmed to get an alignment of 215 sites,

and representing *Embryophyta*, *Chlorophyta* and *Cyanobacteriota* only (Figure 6).

Statistical analysis

When applicable, data is presented as Average ± Standard deviation. Statistical

significance was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett multiple

comparison posttests (GraphPad Prism 9.3.0; GraphPad Software). Changes were

considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ and presented as: $p < 0.05$, 1 symbol; $p <$

0.01, 2 symbols; $p < 0.001$, 3 symbols.

Author contributions

AV-M, MS, XJ designed the research; AV-M, SM, YH, CM, MS, XJ performed research;
AV-M, SM, CM, MS, JA, XJ analyzed data; AV-M, CM, MS, XJ wrote the paper.
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Accession numbers

Sequence data for the proteins referred in this article can be found in Uniprot under the
following accession numbers: LMTP1: A8JDW2_CHLRE; TLP26: A0A2K3DVX2_CHLRE;
Sll1071: P73281_SYNY3; AT5G52970: TL15B_ARATH; CrTLP18.3: A8JH60_CHLRE.
The coordinates of the recombinant LMTP1 crystal were deposited on the RCSB Protein
Data Bank (RCSB PDB) under the PDB ID 9H70.

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Figure 1 – Generation of *C. reinhardtii Δlmpt1* and *Δtlp26* mutants via CRISPR/Cas9. (a) Schematic representation of the 5' region of Cre15.g636050 (encoding LMTP1) and Cre03.g154600 (encoding TLP26) gene models, indicating the chosen PAM sites for the CRISPR/Cas9 knock-out mutants generated. **(b)** PCR fragments using specific primers spanning the CRISPR target sites, confirming the presence of a large insertion (> 1 kbp) within the target genes of selected mutants. **(c)** Immunoblot analysis of recombinant CrLMTP1 and truncated (i.e. only soluble/TPM domain – see Supplemental Figure 2) CrTLP26 proteins, showing that the antibodies recognize their specific recombinant protein. **(d)** Immunoblot analysis of different *C. reinhardtii* strains, showing that the CRISPR/Cas9 mutants cannot accumulate LMTP1 or TLP26, as well as the antibody specificity. **(e)** Immunoblot analysis of thylakoid membranes from different *C. reinhardtii* strains, showing TLP26 signal and no LMPT1 detection. Anti-Atpβ was used as a loading control; 100 % corresponds to 1 µg Chl (*a+b*). * indicates the expected protein migration band.

Figure 2 – LMTP1 and TLP26 protein accumulation increases during acclimation to photoautotrophic conditions; mutants are phototrophic under non-stressful conditions. (a) Immunoblot analysis of the acclimation of *C. reinhardtii* wild-type cells from photomixotrophic conditions (TAP medium) to photoautotrophic growth (MIN medium), first under low light (40 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1}), and then under high light (250 µmol photons$\cdot$m$^{-2}\cdot$s^{-1}) constant illumination, showing the accumulation of LMTP1 and TLP26; 100 % corresponds to 1 µg Chl (a+b); * indicates the expected protein migration band; the amidoblack staining corresponds to the upper fraction of the blotted membraned (35-90 kDa). **(b)** Exponential doubling time (white bars) and F_V/F_M Chl *a* fluorescence parameter (gray bars) of different *C. reinhardtii* strains acclimated to photoautotrophic growth under low light constant light intensity. Data is represented as mean ± standard deviation (n = 3 biological replicates). **(c)** Circadian regulation of the mRNA abundance of *LMTP1* (Cre15.g636050) and *TLP26* (Cre03.g154600), in comparison with *TLP18.3* (Cre03.g182150) and *VTC2* (Cre13.g588150); data was obtained from (Zones et al., 2015) and represented as reads per kilobase of exon model per million mapped reads (RPKM).

Figure 3 – Crystal structure of recombinant CrLMTP1. The crystal structure of the recombinant protein, resolved to 1.6 Å, showed the presence of a TPM-domain fold and revealed a metal-binding site at one of the N-terminus loops of the protein, hexa-coordinated, and interacting with the recombinant protein residues Asp44, Leu49, and Glu54. At the protein C-terminus, the cysteine pair forms an intra-molecular disulfide bridge. The inset shows the conservation of the coordination residues between homologues of LMTP1 in different species against CrTLP26 and TLP18.3 from *C. reinhardtii*, where the green arrows show amino acids conserved in all of the TPM domain proteins and the red arrow shows that Glu54 is only conserved in LMTP homologues.

Figure 4 – Recombinant CrLMTP1 shows binding to manganese (Mn^{2+}) and its thermal stability increases under reducing conditions. Nano-DSF thermal denaturation assays for recombinant **(a)** LMTP1 or **(b)** TLP26, showing variations in the protein melting temperature (Tm) upon incubation with 5 molar equivalents of different divalent metals. **(c)** Denaturation assays for LMTP1 incubated under reduced (+ TCEP) or oxidized (+ H$_2$O$_2$) conditions in the absence or presence of 5 molar equivalents of the selected divalent metals. Data is represented as mean ± standard deviation (n = 3 replicates). Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA test (* shows statistical significance vs. "LMTP1 No metal", + shows statistical significance vs. "LMTP1 + 2 mM TCEP", and ς shows statistical significance vs. "LMTP1 + 2mM H$_2$O$_2$").

Figure 5 – Recombinant LMTP1 and TLP26 exhibit very low phosphatase activity. Rate of phosphate release evaluated by colorimetric assay upon incubation of the recombinant proteins with different concentrations of the non-specific substrate pNPP; as a positive control, Alkaline Phosphatase (Sigma-Aldrich) was used. Data is represented as mean ± standard deviation (n = 2 replicates).

Figure 6 – Maximum likelihood unrooted tree of the TPM-domain family (PANTHER entry PTHR35514 / Thylakoid_lumenal_15kDa-like) showing its distribution in green and red algae, land plants and cyanobacteria. Unrooted tree with green *Chlorophyta* (C), *Cyanobacteriota* (Cy) and *Embryophyta* (E) clades. The first three letters of the acronyms indicate the species (*Ahe, Aphanothece hegewaldii; Ath, Arabidopsis thaliana; Cde, Chlorella desiccata; Cin, Chlamydomonas incerta; Cob, Coccomyxa sp.; Cre, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Csc, Chlamydomonas schloesseri; Cso, Chlorella sorokiniana; Cwa, Crocosphaera watsonii; Dsa, Dactylococcopsis salina; Ede, Edaphochlamys debaryana; Esa, Eutrema salsugineum; Gci, Gloeothece citriformis; Ghi, Gossypium hirsutum; Gli,; Mae, Microcystis aeruginosa; Nsy, Nicotiana sylvestris; Osa, Oryza sativa; Pav, Prunus avium; Pim, Panicum miliaceum; Ror, Rippkaea orientalis; Pst, Pleodorina starrii; Rsa, Raphanus sativus; Ssp, Salvia splendens; Syn, Synechocystis sp.; Tso, Tetrabaena socialis; Vca, Volvox carteri*). Accessions numbers are given in Figure S3. The tree was drawn to scale and the scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site. Tree topology was tested using an ultrafast bootstrap approximation approach with 1000 replicates; gray circles represent bootstrap values and are drawn to scale.