Evolutionary origin and functional mechanism of Lhcx in the diatom photoprotection

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Minoru Kumazawa[1,2], Seiji Akimoto[3], Atsushi Takabayashi[2], Ko Imaizumi[1], Shoko Tsuji[1], Hazuki

Hasegawa[4], Atsushi Sakurai[4], Sousuke Imamura[4], Noriko Ishikawa[1], Natsuko Inoue-Kashino[5],

Yasuhiro Kashino[5] & Kentaro Ifuku[1]

[1]Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University, Japan

[2]Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Japan

[3]Graduate School of Science, Kobe University, Japan

[4]Space Environment and Energy Laboratories, NTT, Inc., Japan

[5]Graduate School of Science, University of Hyogo, Japan

The author responsible for the distribution of materials integral to the findings presented in this article,

in accordance with the policy described in the Instructions for Authors, is Dr. Kentaro Ifuku

(ifuku.kentaro.2m@kyoto-u.ac.jp).

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Summary

Diatoms are red-lineage algae that utilize the light-harvesting complex (LHC) subfamily Lhcx for

photoprotection via non-photochemical quenching (NPQ); however, its evolutionary origin and

molecular mechanism remain poorly understood. Through molecular phylogenetic analysis, we show

that diatom Lhcxs and green algal Lhcsrs evolved from a common ancestor, with green plants

subsequently acquiring them via horizontal gene transfer. To investigate the functional role of Lhcx1,

we generated knockout mutants of *Chaetoceros gracilis*, a diatom with low Lhcx redundancy. The

lhcx1 mutants nearly abolished NPQ, and time-resolved fluorescence measurements revealed that

Lhcx1-mediated quenching occurs in energetically detached antenna complexes. Clear-native PAGE

with Amphipol further indicated that CgLhcx1 interacts with the FCP L-dimer, functioning as a

peripheral antenna for the $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII supercomplex. Notably, under high-light acclimation,

lhcx1 mutants exhibited higher PSII effective quantum yields than wild type, attributable to reduced

antenna size and enhanced carbon fixation capacity. The absence of NPQ accelerated high-light

acclimation and was accompanied by increased xanthophyll accumulation, indicating that

compensatory mechanisms can enhance overall photosynthetic efficiency. Together, these findings

reveal the evolutionary origin of Lhcx/Lhcsr proteins and define the molecular basis of Lhcx1-

mediated photoprotection in diatoms, providing fundamental insights into LHC-based photoprotection

across photosynthetic lineages.

Introduction

Photosynthesis consists of photochemical reactions in which two photosystems connected in series convert light energy into chemical energy. Among photosynthetic organisms, red-lineage secondary endosymbiotic algae, which possess plastids derived from red algae acquired through cellular endosymbiosis, are widely adapted to aquatic environments on Earth (Pierella Karlusich et al., 2020; Pierella Karlusich et al., 2025). Light conditions in these environments are as dynamic as those in terrestrial environments, making it extremely important for photosynthetic organisms to protect their photosystems from excess light to suppress the generation of harmful reactive oxygen species caused by the absorption of excessive light energy. Non-Photochemical Quenching (NPQ), which dissipates excess light energy as heat, plays a crucial role in this protective mechanism (Niyogi, 2000).

Multiple NPQ mechanisms with different induction times exist, and these exhibit distinct characteristics depending on the taxonomic group (Goss and Lepetit, 2015; Malnoë, 2018). In particular, energy-dependent quenching (qE) is a major component of NPQ and is carried out by Light-Harvesting Complex (LHC) proteins (Peers et al., 2009; Goss and Lepetit, 2015; Buck et al., 2019). In red-lineage secondary endosymbiotic algae including diatoms, qE depends on the Lhcx subfamily of the LHC family (Buck et al., 2019; Croteau et al., 2025). The diatom LHC is called FCP (Fucoxanthin-Chlorophyll a/c-binding Protein) because it binds pigments such as Chl c, fucoxanthin, diadinoxanthin, and diatoxanthin in addition to Chl a. In addition to Lhcx, xanthophyll cycle pigments play a crucial role in qE induction. In diatoms, the proton gradient (ΔpH) across the thylakoid membrane activates the diadinoxanthin to diatoxanthin converting cycle (Ddx-Dtx cycle) (Lavaud and Kroth, 2006; Goss and Lepetit, 2015). The violaxanthin-antheraxanthin-zeaxanthin (VAZ) cycle, well known in land plants (Niyogi et al., 1998), also functions in diatoms, complementing the Ddx-Dtx cycle (Lohr and Wilhelm, 1999; Giossi et al., 2025). Green algae, on the other hand, utilize qE dependent on the Lhcsr subfamily, which is homologous to Lhcx, as well as state transitions (qT),

where LHCII detaches from photosystem II (PSII) and binds to photosystem I (PSI) through

phosphorylation control to adjust the excitation balance between the two photosystems (Allorent et al.,

2013; Minagawa and Tokutsu, 2015). Despite the well-established sequence homology between Lhcx

and Lhcsr, these proteins exhibit differences in their regulatory mechanisms at the gene expression

level (Allorent et al., 2016; Petroutsos et al., 2016; Tokutsu et al., 2019a; Tokutsu et al., 2019b; Im et

al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024). Furthermore, while land plants require PsbS for qE induction (Li et al.,

2000; Niyogi, 2004), diatoms lack this protein. The evolutionary origin of Lhcx/Lhcsr has not been

extensively discussed due to the lack of comprehensive phylogenetic analyses of LHC subfamilies.

NPQ in red-lineage algae has been studied in diatoms and *Nannochloropsis* belonging to heterokont

algae (Bailleul et al., 2010; Buck et al., 2019; Park et al., 2019; Buck et al., 2021; Giovagnetti et al.,

2022). In model diatom species, multiple Lhcx isoforms are expressed under different conditions and

show functional redundancy. Therefore, almost complete Lhcx-deficient strains have not been created

in diatoms to date, and the physiological responses and details of excitation energy transfer in states

with significantly deficient NPQ have not been fully elucidated. In contrast, *Chaetoceros gracilis* has

low redundancy of Lhcxs, with primarily only CgLhcx1 being expressed (Kumazawa et al., 2022),

providing the possibility that an almost complete Lhcx-deficient strain can be obtained by creating a

knockout of this CgLhcx1. Furthermore, the three-dimensional structures of PSII–FCPII (Nagao et al.,

2019; Wang et al., 2019; Nagao et al., 2022) and PSI–FCPI (Nagao et al., 2020a; Xu et al., 2020)

supercomplexes have already been elucidated in this species, establishing a foundation for structural

biology research. This study aims to investigate the origin of Lhcx phylogenetically and to elucidate

the mechanism of its excitation energy quenching for high light (HL) protection by creating Lhcx1-

deficient mutants in *C. gracilis* using CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing technology.

Results

Origin of LHCs in the Lhcx/Lhcsr Subfamily

To elucidate the origins of the diatom Lhcx and green algal Lhcsr subfamilies, which perform NPQ,

we conducted a comprehensive molecular phylogenetic analysis of light-harvesting complexes

(LHCs) from red algae, green algae, cryptophytes, and diatoms, and represented the estimated

phylogenetic tree as an unrooted tree (Figure 1). Comprehensive retrieval of LHC sequences by

BLAST confirmed that, as in our previous reports, red algae possess only the Lhcr subfamily,

cryptophytes have Lhcr and Lhcz subfamilies, and green algae contain Lhca, Lhcb, and Lhcsr

subfamilies, while diatoms possess Lhcr, Lhcz, Lhcq, CgLhcr9 homolog, Lhcx, and Lhcf subfamilies

(Kumazawa et al., 2022; Kumazawa and Ifuku, 2024). In Figure 1, each LHC subfamily in the red

lineage is separated. However, within the Lhcr subfamily, there exists diversity among the Lhcr

proteins from red algae, cryptophytes, and diatoms, encompassing gene groups with distant

evolutionary relationships.

Lhcx and Lhcsr formed a monophyletic clade with an ultrafast bootstrap value of 100% (Figure 1,

inset). Within this clade, *Thalassiosira pseudonana* Lhcx6_1 and *Cyclotella cryptica* Lhcx6_1,

derived from diatoms belonging to the order Thalassiosirales, clearly branched at the most basal

position and were evolutionarily distant from typical Lhcx and Lhcsr proteins. All Lhcx1–3 proteins

from the diatom *Chaetoceros gracilis* were positioned within the typical Lhcx clade. Additionally, the

Lhcx and Lhcsr clade showed monophyly with the Lhcq, CgLhcr9 homolog, and Lhcf subfamilies,

supported by a high bootstrap value (100%). Within that clade, Lhcq was located at the most basal

position, while the Lhcx/Lhcsr clade was positioned internally. In contrast, the Lhcx/Lhcsr clade did

not show monophyly with the Lhca/Lhcb clade. Furthermore, the Lhcr of red algae and the Lhca and

Lhcb subfamilies, which are responsible for light harvesting in red and green algae possessing primary

plastids, did not form a monophyletic group; between them existed cryptophyte Lhcr, diatom Lhcr,

cryptophyte and diatom Lhcz, as well as other subfamilies of the red evolutionary lineage. These data

suggest that Lhcsr and Lhcx subfamilies are derived from the red-lineage specific subfamilies.

Creating *Lhcx1* Knockout Strains with Ribozyme-Based Genome Editing

C. gracilis has three typical Lhcx genes (*CgLhcx1–3*): according to the genome database of *C.*

gracilis (ChaetoBase v1.1, https://chaetoceros.nibb.ac.jp/), *CgLhcx1* showed the highest transcription

level by a significant margin (Kumazawa et al., 2022). Therefore, we decided to create an *Lhcx1*-

deficient mutant in *C. gracilis* using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. To facilitate the comprehensive

analysis of LHC genes using genome-editing in *C. gracilis,* we have developed the inducible

CRISPR/Cas9 system, in which both Cas9 and guide RNA (gRNA) expression is regulated by the

inducible Pol-II-type promoter. First, we introduced the *Cas9* gene under the nitrate reductase (NR)

promoter into wild-type *C. gracilis* with a vector having the nourseothricin resistance gene (*nat*) via

electroporation (Supplemental Figure 1A, B). Colonies obtained through antibiotic-resistance

selection were further selected for high Cas9 expression in the presence of nitrate by immunoblotting

(Supplemental Figure 1B). The selected hC9_5 strain showed morphology and growth characteristics

equivalent to the wild-type strain (WT) and was established as the host strain for the genome editing

(Supplemental Figure 1C, D). Second, to express mature gRNA in the host hC9_5 under the NR

promoter, we employed a method utilizing ribozymes (Gao and Zhao, 2014; Zhang et al., 2017;

Taparia et al., 2022). This method employed a Ribozyme-gRNA-Ribozyme (RGR) construct in which

a hammerhead ribozyme with self-cleavage activity at the 3' end was attached to the 5' end of the

gRNA, and an HDV ribozyme with self-cleavage activity at the 5' end was attached to the 3' end of

the gRNA. This RGR cassette for the gene of interest can be easily constructed by overlap PCR and

inserted into pCgNRp[ble] vector, having an antibiotic-resistant gene against zeocin (*ble*) for the second

selection.

The transformation of the host hC9_5 strain with the linearized pCgNRp^{ble}-Lhcx1-RGR vector

produced 252 zeocin-resistant colonies, from which 23 strains were randomly selected and 13 strains

had various mutations in the target sequence of the *CgLhcx1* gene (Supplemental Figure 2A, B, C).

Among the strains confirmed for target sequence editing, *lhcx1-7*, *15*, and *234* strains were used for

subsequent analysis. When the nucleotide sequences of the *Lhcx1* region were confirmed by Sanger

sequencing, heterogeneity was observed (Supplemental Figure 2C). Since *C. gracilis* is a diploid

organism like other diatoms, mutagenic events can occur in both alleles to completely inactivate the

target gene. However, simultaneous mutations in both alleles are rare, and in most cases only one allele

is mutated or neutral mutations such as in-frame deletions/insertions may occur, resulting in the

formation of mixed cell populations with different mutation status and types through subsequent cell

divisions (Huang and Daboussi, 2017). Therefore, we examined the accumulation of Lhcx1 protein in

these strains by western blotting using an anti-Lhcx1 antibody (Supplemental Figure 2D). Almost no

accumulation of Lhcx1 protein was observed in the *lhcx1-7* and *lhcx1-15* strains. On the other hand,

the *lhcx1-234* strain showed reduced accumulation of Lhcx1 compared to WT, but it was not a

complete deficiency since *lhcx1-234* may include neutral mutations such as in-frame

deletions/insertions.

Phenotypic Analysis of *Lhcx1* Deficient Strains

WT and *lhcx1-7*, *15*, and *234* strains were cultured with air bubbling for 7–8 days under low light

(LL) at 30 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} and high light (HL) at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. We selected 300

μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} as high light because it is still much higher than the light intensity at the deep

chlorophyll maximum layer, where diatoms are typically most abundant. No significant differences in

growth were observed between WT and genome-edited strains (Supplemental Figure 3). To investigate

the photosynthetic characteristics of WT and *lhcx1* strains, pulse-amplified modulated (PAM)

fluorescence measurements were performed on day 3 and day 7–8 using cells cultured under LL and

HL conditions (Figure 2, Supplemental Figure 4). As a result, *lhcx1-7*, *15*, and *234* were hardly able

to induce NPQ, an indicator of thermal dissipation of excess excitation energy around PSII, under both

LL and HL conditions (Figure 2A, Supplemental Figure 4A). The *lhcx1* strains cultured under LL

showed lower photochemical quenching qP under light exposure compared to WT, indicating a more

reduced state of the plastquinone pool. However, this trend was not clear in the *lhcx1* strains cultured

under HL, because non-regulated energy dissipation due to photoinhibition affects the qP level (Figure

2B). The effective quantum yield of PSII, Y(II), showed higher values in all *lhcx1* strains compared to

the WT strain in cells cultured under HL for 7–8 days (Figure 2C). In cells cultured under HL for 3

days, *lhcx1* strains showed a trend of higher Y(II) compared to WT, but the difference was not

significant (Supplemental Figure 4C). The *lhcx1-7, 15* strains exhibited significantly higher oxygen-

evolving activity compared to WT cells at the same total Chl *a* content of 5 μg (Figure 3). The *lhcx1-*

234 strains showed the tendency towards higher oxygen-evolving activity, though it was not

statistically significant (p = 0.157). This may be due to the mosaic genetic background of *Lhcx1*

mutations in *lhcx1-234*.

Whole-Cell Absorption Spectra and Pigment Analysis

The whole-cell absorption spectra showed no significant differences between WT and *lhcx1*

mutants in cells cultured under LL, while in the cells cultured under HL, the *lhcx1* mutants exhibited

greater absorption in the 400–500 nm region compared to the WT (Supplemental Figure 5). Since this

region corresponds to carotenoid absorption, pigment analysis using HPLC (High Performance Liquid

Chromatography) was performed to examine carotenoid contents. The amount of Chl *a* per cell was

decreased in the mutants compared to WT under LL conditions (Figure 4A). Additionally, under HL

conditions, WT also showed a decrease in Chl *a* content compared to LL conditions, but the decrease

tends to be greater in the *lhcx1* mutants. Since the total absorption spectra were normalized at the Qy

peak of Chl *a*, carotenoid content was quantified per Chl *a* amount. Fucoxanthin, the major carotenoid

in *C. gracilis* FCP, showed no significant differences between WT and mutants under both light

conditions, except for *lhcx1-15* under HL conditions (Figure 4B). The *lhcx1-15* under HL conditions

showed slightly lower fucoxanthin content compared to WT under the same conditions. On the other

hand, for diadinoxanthin (Ddx) and diatoxanthin (Dtx), the major pigments of the diatom xanthophyll

cycle, no significant differences in accumulation were observed between WT and *lhcx1* mutants under

LL conditions (Figure 4C, D). In contrast, under HL conditions, WT showed greater accumulation of

Dtx compared to LL conditions. The mutant strains accumulated significantly more Dtx compared to

the WT under the same conditions. Regarding Ddx, both WT and mutants showed greater

accumulation under HL conditions compared to LL conditions, but significant increases in

accumulation in mutants compared to WT were not observed, except for *lhcx1-15*. Total xanthophyll

cycle pigments (Ddx+Dtx) were also increased in *lhcx1* mutants under HL (Figure 4E). The de-

epoxidation state (DEPS = [Dtx]/([Dtx]+[Ddx])), an indicator of the xanthophyll cycle, was calculated

from the accumulation of Dtx and Ddx (Figure 4F). Under LL, there was no significant difference

between WT and mutants. Under HL, the WT showed a higher DEPS (0.34) compared to LL

conditions. The mutants showed significantly higher DEPS (0.47–0.52) compared to WT under the

same conditions.

Steady-State Low-Temperature Fluorescence and Antenna Size Measurements

WT and *lhcx1* cultured under HL were subjected to 30-minute treatments under either dark

conditions (dark-treated) or HL conditions (HL-treated), then were immediately frozen in liquid

nitrogen, and used for the low-temperature (77K) fluorescence spectra measurements (Figure 5A, B).

WT was measured as two independent samples cultured separately (solid and dashed lines in Figure

5A, B). The 77K steady-state fluorescence spectra well represent the distribution of excitation energy

between photosystems and light-harvesting pigment proteins. The excitation wavelength was 459 nm,

which efficiently excites Chl *c* and fucoxanthin bound to the peripheral antenna FCP in diatoms. The

77K fluorescence spectra of *C. gracilis* showed two peaks derived from CP43 and CP47 of

photosystem II, observed around 686 nm and 694 nm, respectively (Andrizhiyevskaya et al., 2005;

Nagao et al., 2010). In all cells cultured under HL, the mutants showed lower CP43 peaks compared

to the WT in spectra normalized at the CP47 peak (Figure 5A). The fluorescence intensity around 680

nm, which is considered to be the fluorescence from FCP, was smaller in *lhcx1* mutants under dark

conditions compared to the WT. These indicate that energy transfer from the peripheral antenna FCP

via CP43 is prominent in the dark especially in WT. This also suggests that the effective antenna size

of PSII differed between WT and *lhcx1* in the dark. Therefore, the antenna size after dark adaptation

of cells cultured under HL was measured by measuring the induction curve of Chl fluorescence with

a Fluorometer FL 3500 (PSI, Czech Republic) (Nedbal et al., 1999). As a result, it was revealed that

lhcx1 had a significantly smaller effective antenna size of PSII compared to WT in all strains

(Supplemental Figure 6).

Time-Resolved Low-Temperature Fluorescence Spectra

To elucidate the process of excitation energy transfer from the peripheral antenna FCP to the

photosystems, time-resolved fluorescence (TRF) spectra were measured under the same conditions as

the samples subjected to low-temperature steady-state fluorescence spectrum measurements. TRF

fluorescence was measured on samples of whole cells that were frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately

after dark treatment and HL treatment (300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}). This allows observation of

excitation energy transfer and quenching in states where NPQ is not induced and where it is induced

(Chukhutsina et al., 2017). Fluorescence decay-associated spectra (FDAS) were obtained by global

analysis that decomposed the obtained TRF spectra into multiple exponential components with time

as a variable (Figure 6, Supplemental Figure 7). In FDAS, positive peaks (decay) indicate the decay

of fluorescence, while negative peaks (rise) indicate the rise of fluorescence. From the TRF spectra of

the WT, FDAS were constructed with six-time constants. The assignment of each peak followed

previous literature (Andrizhiyevskaya et al., 2005; Nagao et al., 2010). In the dark-adapted WT, the

FDAS with a lifetime of 40 ps showed positive peaks of FCP at <680 nm and a large negative peak

around 687 nm corresponding to CP43 (black solid line in Figure 6 and Supplemental Figure 7). This

reflects excitation energy transfer from FCP to CP43. In the spectrum of the second lifetime of 140 ps,

positive peaks were observed not only at ~680 nm but also around 687 nm corresponding to CP43,

while the waveform around 694 nm corresponding to CP47 showed a convex downward shape. This

is thought to be due to the negative peak of CP47 overlapping with the shoulder of the nearby positive

peak of CP43, and is considered to indicate excitation energy transfer from FCP/CP43 to CP47. Also,

in the second lifetime component, a PSI positive peak at ~710 nm was observed, which, together with

the negative peak of FCP, indicates the excitation energy transfer from FCP to PSI. The third lifetime

of 640 ps continued to show the same trend as 140 ps, suggesting that excitation energy transfer from

FCP/CP43 to CP47 was ongoing. The fourth and fifth lifetimes, at 1.6 ns and 3.8 ns, showed positive

peaks corresponding to CP43 and CP47, indicating simple fluorescence decay. The longest lifetime of

26 ns did not exhibit a prominent positive peak around 710 nm, which is characteristic of PSI

fluorescence, but instead showed positive peaks corresponding to CP43 and CP47, associated with

charge recombination in photosystem II. Therefore, excitation energy transfer from PSII to PSI, so-

called spillover, did not occur.

On the other hand, WT subjected to HL (black dashed line in Figure 6 and Supplemental Figure 7)

showed a similar waveform at 40 ps as the dark-adapted WT. At 140 ps, although the positive peak

around 687 nm was much larger compared to the dark-adapted WT, the value at the dip around 694

nm was larger than that of the dark-adapted WT. In other words, WT acclimated to HL had a smaller

fluorescence rise at CP47 compared to the dark-adapted sample, while the energy decay around 687

nm was larger. The *lhcx1* mutant, which does not induce NPQ, showed spectra similar to the dark-

adapted WT in the first- and second-time constants when dark-adapted (blue, green, and red solid lines

in Figure 6 and Supplemental Figure 7A, B). However, in the third time constant (640 ps), while the

dark-adapted WT showed excitation energy transfer from FCP/CP43 to CP47, *lhcx1* already showed

positive peaks at both 687 nm and 694 nm, indicating fluorescence decay of CP43 and CP47. In

subsequent time constants, 687 nm and 694 nm also showed only positive peaks. The HL-acclimated

lhcx1 (blue, green and red dashed line in Figure 6 and Supplemental Figure 7A, B) also showed spectra

similar to the dark-adapted *lhcx1* at all time constants and did not show the large positive peak around

687 nm at 140 ps observed in the HL-acclimated WT. Furthermore, since energy transfer from FCPII

to CP43 and CP47, and from CP43 to CP47 was completed by 140 ps, similar to the HL-treated WT

and dark-treated *lhcx1*, it was concluded that *lhcx1* has a smaller antenna size compared to the WT

even under HL conditions. From the above, while the decay of fluorescence around 687 nm is normally

attributed to energy transfer from CP43, when looking at the energy transfer of *lhcx1* at the same time

constant, such decay is not observed. Therefore, it is concluded that the decay of fluorescence around

687 nm in the HL-acclimated WT is not decay of CP43 but quenching attributed to Lhcx1.

Molecular interaction of Lhcx1 in thylakoid membranes

To determine the localization of Lhcx, we performed native-PAGE followed by second-dimension

SDS-PAGE and subsequent immunoblotting using anti-Lhcx1 antibody. Since conventional Clear

Native (CN)-PAGE with deoxycholate made it difficult to separate diatom $C_2S_2M_2$ (Core$_2$–S-

tetramer$_2$–M-tetramer$_2$) PSII–FCPII while keeping FCP-A (which contains CgLhcf1 as a major

component) bound to PSII (Nagao et al., 2012), we applied a modified CN-PAGE using Amphipol

A8-35 (Kameo et al., 2021), which enhances the stability of solubilized protein complexes, instead of

deoxycholate as the surfactant that imparts negative charge to proteins (Figure 7A). In the diatom *C.*

gracilis, a dense band was observed at a higher molecular weight position than spinach $C_2S_2M_2$

(Core$_2$–S-trimer$_2$–M-trimer$_2$) PSII–LHCII. Additionally, a broad brown band, which was observed at

a higher molecular weight position than the LHC/FCP monomer, extended to a lower molecular weight

position than the spinach LHCII trimer. This CN-PAGE gel strip was subjected to SDS-PAGE with a

gel containing 6 mol L^{-1} urea to separate each subunit (Figure 7B). Annotation of each spot was based

on previous reports (Nagao et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2024). The amino-acid sequence of

HGRIAQLAFLGN shared with CgLhcf2 and CgLhcf12 was identified from the major FCP fraction

(Ishihara et al., 2015). These reports indicate that FCP-B/C is one of the major FCPs in *C. gracilis*.

Furthermore, since the FCP-B/C heterodimer is presumed to be loosely bound to $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII

and transfer excitation energy, it was designated as L (Loose)-dimer (Figure 7A, B). The thylakoid

membranes of *lhcx1* were also subjected to CN-PAGE (Supplemental Figure YYY). While *lhcx1* has

the $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII as well as WT, *lhcx1* has a slightly paler broad band of L-dimers. Additionally,

immunoblotting was performed to identify the Lhcx1 spot from the spots in the two-dimensional SDS-

PAGE (Figure 7C). The Lhcx1 spot, indicated by the blue arrowhead in Figure 7C, was detected at a

higher molecular weight than FCP-B/C in 2D-SDS-PAGE. In the 1D-CN-PAGE direction, the spot of

Lhcx1 was detected across a wide range of multimers from monomers to higher-order multimeric

complexes, co-migrating with FCP-B/C (Figure 7B). That spot of Lhcx1 in 2D-PAGE with oriole stain

is paler than FCP-A/B/C because of lower accumulation of Lhcx1 than FCP-A/B/C. This result

suggests that Lhcx1 may interact with the FCP-B/C dimers, which function as the loosely associated

antenna of $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII.

Phenotype of *lhcx1* Mutants in High CO₂ Environment

We investigated whether the *lhcx1* mutants, which showed a higher effective quantum yield of PSII

when acclimated to HL under normal atmospheric aeration conditions, would further improve their

PSII effective quantum yield by enhancing downstream electron sink capacity with 3% CO_2 addition.

First, even when cultured with CO_2 aeration, *lhcx1* showed almost no NPQ regardless of light intensity

(Supplemental Figure 9A). The effective quantum yield of PSII, Y(II), increased in *lhcx1* when

cultured with CO_2 aeration even under LL conditions, where no difference was observed with

atmospheric aeration (solid line in Supplemental Figure 9C). This Y(II) under light irradiation

increased with time during the initial irradiation period and reached a constant value after about 2

minutes, which is thought to be due to the activation of the carbon assimilation pathway. Additionally,

an increase in Y(II) was also observed under HL conditions. Photochemical quenching qP, which

indicates the redox state of plastoquinone, was similar between WT and *lhcx1* under LL conditions.

As observed in Figure 2B, qP of *lhcx1* varied among strains, with strains having lower Y(II) showing

lower qP under HL conditions (Supplemental Figure 9B).

To understand the general physiological response of *lhcx1*, we performed RNA sequencing analysis

under LL/HL and ambient/3%-CO₂-supplemented air conditions. Under ambient air conditions, HL

treatment induced 1,494 genes in WT and 1,530 genes in *lhcx1* mutant, with 458 genes commonly

upregulated in both genotypes. Under CO₂-enriched conditions, HL induced substantially more genes:

2,411 in WT and 2,402 in *lhcx1* mutant. To identify responses compensating the absence of NPQ in

lhcx1, we compared the magnitude of HL response (fold-change from LL to HL) between genotypes.

lhcx1 showed enhanced HL response compared to WT in 978 genes under ambient air and 311 genes

under CO₂-enriched conditions, with 105 genes showing this enhanced response under both ambient

and CO_2 conditions. KEGG pathway enrichment analysis reveals that while both WT and *lhcx1*

respond to HL through porphyrin metabolism and photosynthesis pathways (Figure 8A), *lhcx1* mutant

specifically enhances carbon fixation and central carbon metabolism pathways under both ambient air

and CO_2 conditions (Figure 8B).

Discussions

The deficiency of Lhcx, while Lhcx belongs to the LHC family primarily responsible for light harvesting, almost completely suppresses the induction of non-photochemical quenching (NPQ). The NPQ-deficient *lhcx1* strains acclimated by inducing various HL defense systems possessed by *C. gracilis* and showed higher PSII activity compared to the WT. Since the increase in PSII activity was also induced in *lhcx1* with the addition of CO_2, it was revealed that acclimation of downstream electron sinks in the electron transport chain, along with acclimation of the upstream light-harvesting system, plays an important role in HL acclimation of *C. gracilis*. This study suggests that the multiple photoprotection mechanisms can be interrelated and flexibly regulated in response to environmental changes in the marine diatom *C. gracilis*.

Origin of Lhcx

The Lhcx subfamily, which is responsible for non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) in red-lineage secondary endosymbiotic algae such as heterokonts including diatoms, and presumably haptophytes, and the Lhcsr subfamily, which similarly mediates NPQ in green algae, streptophyte algae, and bryophytes, have been considered to share a common ancestral gene as they form a monophyletic group (Koziol et al., 2007). Although the Lhcx/Lhcsr subfamily is suggested to be derived from the red lineage, detailed molecular phylogenetic relationships with other subfamilies have not been thoroughly investigated, likely due to insufficient sequence information (Dittami et al., 2010). In this study as well, the diatom Lhcx subfamily and the basal streptophyte algae and core green algae Lhcsr subfamily formed a monophyletic group (Figure 1). The Lhcx/Lhcsr clade formed by these showed strong support for monophyly with the diatom Lhcq, CgLhcr9 homolog, and Lhcf subfamilies, and was in a different clade from the green algae Lhca/Lhcb subfamily, clearly indicating that it is derived from red-lineage algae. In particular, since the Lhcx/Lhcsr clade showed monophyly with the CgLhcr9

homolog and Lhcf subfamily, it was demonstrated that the Lhcx subfamily is one of the new LHC

subfamily groups that arose in heterokont algae along with Lhcq, CgLhcr9 homolog, and Lhcf

subfamilies. Furthermore, since Lhcsr is conserved in both core green algae and streptophyte algae,

this supports the hypothesis proposed in Dittami et al. that the ancestor of extant green plants acquired

the Lhcx/Lhcsr subfamily through horizontal gene transfer from a red-lineage alga, presumably a

heterokont alga or haptophyte, before the last common ancestor of extant green plants. The estimated

divergence time of extant green plants into Streptophyta and Chlorophyta overlaps with the emergence

of heterokonts (Strassert et al., 2021), indicating that gene transfer of Lhcx/Lhcsr from heterokonts to

ancestral green plants could have occurred prior to this divergence event. It is difficult to determine

whether this gene transfer was merely a horizontal gene transfer or involved the acquisition of a

temporary red-lineage plastid, such as a kleptoplast. Additionally, looking at Figure 1, the

monophyletic clade of the green algae Lhca and Lhcb subfamilies does not form a monophyletic group

with the red algae Lhcr subfamily, and between them exist cryptophyte Lhcr and diatom Lhcr. This

does not negate the possibility that not only Lhcsr but also the Lhca and Lhcb subfamilies were

acquired through horizontal gene transfer. This result calls for reconsideration of the formation and

establishment of early chloroplasts.

Within Lhcx, Lhcx6_1, which exists at the most basal position, is present in *T. pseudonana* and

Cyclotella cryptica but not in *C. gracilis* or *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Figure 1, inset). This

Lhcx6_1 not only has an evolutionary distance from other typical Lhcx in the molecular phylogenetic

tree but also does not show a low NPQ phenotype when deficient (Nakayasu et al., 2024). Furthermore,

Lhcx6_1 directly binds to PSII and has a completely different assembly from *C. gracilis* PSII–FCPII

(Feng et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023). Based on these observations, it is considered that Lhcx6_1 is an

atypical Lhcx and does not mediate NPQ, and we argue that its classification within the Lhcx

subfamily should also be reconsidered.

Spectroscopic Characteristics of Lhcx Quenching

In this study, we successfully obtained NPQ signals at 140 ps around 687 nm by measuring time-resolved fluorescence comparing frozen whole cells immediately after dark adaptation and HL irradiation, reflecting the *in vivo* state (Figure 6, Supplemental Figure 7). By using the *lhcx1* mutant that shows a clear phenotype with almost no NPQ induction, and by optimizing the dark adaptation and HL exposure time to 30 minutes, we were able to clearly distinguish signals attributable to Lhcx-mediated NPQ.

Our results provided the first report measuring the time-resolved fluorescence of mutants with near-complete NPQ deficiency, resulting in a clear signal of NPQ. Even though several similar attempts on diatoms and *Nannochloropsis* have been made, they could not find a clear NPQ signal in this approach in the previous studies. For example, similar analyses were performed for the diatoms *C. meneghinia* and *P. tricornutum* (Miloslavina et al., 2009). A different approach was taken regarding DAS fitting compared to this study, with strong assumptions placed on the fluorescence signals of PSII and PSI, and quenching signals like those observed in this study were not obtained. More detailed observations of quenching using time-resolved fluorescence have been attempted in the diatom *C. meneghiniana*, but the ~200 ps signal around 685 nm observed in this study was not observed; instead, a ~600 ps quenching signal at 695 nm was observed and attributed to PSII (Chukhutsina et al., 2014). However, since they only used WT, they could not conclude the signal of ~600 ps as NPQ depending on Lhcx. In a similar approach, also using only WT of *Nannochloropsis*, a 214 ps signal at 685 nm in *Nannochloropsis gaditana* was attributed to LHCII quenching, but it was not clear whether this was a quenching signal due to the presence of Lhcx (Chukhutsina et al., 2017). A similar approach using *lhcx* mutants has been performed in *P. tricornutum* (Taddei et al., 2018). However, the *lhcx1* knockdown mutant of *P. tricornutum* showed limited decrease in the abundance of Lhcx1 and NPQ.

LL-grown *lhcx1*-knockdown mutants showed a slight decrease in NPQ, and HL-grown *lhcx1-*

knockdown showed no difference in NPQ because of the expression of Lhcx3, which is an isoform of

the Lhcx subfamily in *P. tricornutum*. Therefore, the observation and discussion of NPQ signal in

time-resolved fluorescence was limited in contrast to this study using *lhcx1*-knockout mutants, which

show minimal expression of other Lhcx isoforms (Supplemental Figure 10). Note that Buck and co-

workers created *Lhcx1*-knockout mutants of *P. tricornutum*, which showed a clearer drop in NPQ in

contrast to knock-down mutants; however, they did not report time-resolved fluorescence (Buck et al.,

2019). Considering these things together, this study provided the first clear NPQ signal in time-

resolved fluorescence analysis using almost-complete knock-out of Lhcx in Heterokonts, including

diatoms.

The spectroscopic characteristics of NPQ in diatoms differ notably from those in green algae. In

green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii stt7-9* state-transition-less mutants, NPQ signals were

observed at 150 ps in time-resolved fluorescence and ~100 ps in transient absorption at physiological

temperature, similar to our time constant, but the NPQ signal from fluorescence was detected at 682

nm and attributed to LHCII fluorescence (Tian et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2024). This wavelength

difference (682 nm vs. 687 nm) likely reflects differences in measurement temperatures and distinct

pigment compositions between the two algal groups, rather than fundamental mechanistic differences.

Time-resolved fluorescence measurements in whole cells revealed longer excitation energy transfer

times compared to isolated complexes. While excitation energy transfer from FCPII to the PSII core

in isolated $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII occurs up to a time constant of 210 ps (Nagao et al., 2022), our

measurements in dark-adapted whole cells showed a significantly longer time constant of 640 ps

(Figure 6, Supplemental Figure 7). This threefold increase suggests that PSII–FCPII complexes *in vivo*

possess larger antenna systems than the isolated $C_2S_2M_2$ form, indicating the presence of additional

FCPs connected to the excitation energy network. These peripheral antenna complexes, likely

including L-FCPII dimers, extend the effective antenna size and modify energy transfer kinetics.

The mechanism of Lhcx1-mediated NPQ

The localization of diatom Lhcx has been debated for many years. Except for Lhcx6_1 associated

with PSII core (Feng et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023), the localization of Lhcx has been detected in free

FCP or bulk FCP (Lepetit et al., 2010; Grouneva et al., 2011), except for reports that *P. tricornutum*

Lhcx1/Lhcx2 bind to PSI (Grouneva et al., 2011). Additionally, in SDS-PAGE following CN-PAGE,

T. pseudonana Lhcx1 was detected as a free monomer (Zhou et al., 2024). In the 2D-CN/SDS-PAGE

of the diatom *C. gracilis* by Zhou et al. (2024), Lhcx1 was not detected. In this study, we utilized

Amphipol A8-35, a surfactant that enhances the stability of membrane proteins, to enable the

separation of diatom $C_2S_2M_2$ PSII–FCPII, which had been previously challenging with CN-PAGE

methods (Figure 7A). Under this condition, the dimer (L-dimer) consisting of CgLhcf12/CgLhcf2

(FCP-B/C) showed a broad band in the first dimension (Figure 7B), and a similar band pattern was

observed in the immunoblot for CgLhcx1 (Figure 7C). These findings suggest that CgLhcx1 may

interact with the FCP L-dimer.

Assuming the interaction between L-FCPII dimers and Lhcx1, we propose that Lhcx1-mediated

NPQ operates through two possible mechanisms: either Lhcx1 directly functions as the quenching

center, or quenching occurs through the L-dimer via its interaction with Lhcx1. This mechanism can

be classified within the framework of Q1 and Q2 quenching, where Q1 occurs in detached antenna

complexes and Q2 occurs in minor LHCs bound to the PSII core (Holzwarth et al., 2009; Miloslavina

et al., 2009; Chukhutsina et al., 2014). Given that L-FCPII dimers bind loosely to S/M-FCPII, Lhcx1-

mediated quenching likely represents Q1-type quenching occurring in the peripheral light-harvesting

antenna, although it is unclear whether the L-FCPII dimer detaches from PSII-S/M-FCPII.

The 140 ps quenching time constant observed in HL-treated whole cells is notably faster than

previously reported values for isolated FCP complexes. Isolated FCP-A tetramers and FCP-B/C dimers

have been reported to show characteristic quenching with time constants of 270 ps and 200 ps,

respectively (Nagao et al., 2013). This acceleration in whole cells may result from two factors: first,

isolated FCP-B/C complexes lack Lhcx proteins, which appear crucial for efficient quenching; second,

isolated complexes lack the native membrane environment, including the ΔpH gradient and three-

dimensional protein organization necessary for optimal quenching function. These results highlight

the importance of studying NPQ mechanisms in intact cellular systems rather than relying solely on

isolated protein complexes.

Compensatory mechanisms to the Lhcx1 Deficiency

The *lhcx1* strain, which lacks the most highly expressed Lhcx1 in *C. gracilis* created using genome

editing, induced almost no NPQ and showed higher PSII effective quantum yield and oxygen-evolving

activity compared to the WT when acclimated to HL. Since NPQ mutants in land plants show

decreased PSII electron transport activity, i.e., decreased effective quantum yield, under HL

acclimation (Yang et al., 2022), it is unusual that *lhcx1*, an NPQ mutant in this study, shows a higher

PSII effective quantum yield. Since *lhcx1* has a smaller antenna size even when dark-adapted after HL

acclimation (Figure 6, Supplemental Figure 7), the decrease in excitation energy acquisition per PSII

core is thought to contribute to a higher PSII effective quantum yield. Additionally, since the PSII

effective quantum yield increased even under LL conditions with the addition of CO_2 (Supplemental

Figure 9), and transcriptomic analysis revealed that *lhcx1* specifically enhances carbon fixation and

central carbon metabolism pathways under both ambient air and CO_2 conditions (Figure 8B), it is

likely that the increase in carbon fixation capacity in the downstream electron transport chain also

contributed to the improvement of PSII effective quantum yield. The activation of downstream

electron sinks can be observed under HL conditions (Figure 2C).

HL acclimation in *lhcx1* was also suggested by the pigment analysis (Figure 3C–F). Chl content per

cell decreased in *lhcx1*, and while the amount of Fx per Chl did not change, the amounts of

xanthophylls Dtx and Ddx increased. The de-epoxidation state (DEPS) calculated from Dtx and Ddx

also increased in *lhcx1* under HL, indicating that acclimation responses under HL are enhanced from

the perspective of pigment composition as well. Generally, in WT diatoms, the amount of Dtx is very

well correlated with NPQ intensity (Lavaud and Lepetit, 2013). However, since *lhcx1* strains show

almost no induction of NPQ despite increased Dtx amounts, the correlation between Dtx amount and

NPQ requires the presence of Lhcx. Although it is not clarified whether the increased xanthophylls in

lhcx1 are incorporated in LHC/FCP, they may function as antioxidants in thylakoid membranes and

contribute to photoprotection. The above multiple photoprotection mechanisms that became apparent

in the absence of Lhcx1 would contribute to the adaptation in variable marine environments.

Materials and Methods

Phylogenetic Analysis of LHCs Across Various Photosynthetic Eukaryotic Lineages

LHC sequences were collected from genomes and transcriptomes included in the Phycocosm and

EukProt databases, in addition to our previous dataset (Kumazawa et al., 2022; Kumazawa and Ifuku,

2024), following the previous method (Kumazawa and Ifuku, 2024). The LHCs in the dataset were

obtained from red algae, early-diverging streptophyte green algae (Leliaert et al., 2012): *Mesostigma*

viride NIES-296 (Liang et al., 2020) and *Klebsormidium nitens* NIES-2285 (Hori et al., 2014),

diatoms: *C. gracilis* , *Thalassiosira pseudonana*, *Cyclotella cryptica*, *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, and

cryptophytes: *Guillardia theta* CCMP2712 (Curtis et al., 2012) and Cryptophyceae sp. (*Baffinella* sp.)

CCMP2293 (Dorrell et al., 2023). As reference sequences for Lhcsr, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

Lhcsr1 (UniProt: P93664) and Lhcsr3.1 (UniProt: P0DO19), which is identical to Lhcsr3.2 (UniProt:

P0DO18), were added. Redundant sequences were removed from the LHC protein sequences using

CD-HIT (Fu et al., 2012), and alignment was performed with mafft-einsi v7.525, followed by manual

curation (Katoh and Standley, 2013). The curated dataset was realigned, and trimming was performed

using ClipKit v2.3.0 in smart-gap mode to remove unaligned sites (Steenwyk et al., 2020). The

phylogenetic tree was estimated using IQ-TREE v2.3.6 with the Q.pfam+I+R7 model selected by

ModelFinder based on LG and Q.pfam models (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017; Minh et al., 2020; Minh

et al., 2021), and visualized with iTOL v6 (Letunic and Bork, 2024). Ultra-fast bootstrap

approximation (UFBoot) and SH-aLRT support (%) tests were performed with 1000 replicates each

(Guindon et al., 2010; Hoang et al., 2018). The aBayes support test was also conducted (Anisimova et

al., 2011). The annotation of LHC subfamilies in the phylogenetic tree was based on our previous

studies (Kumazawa et al., 2022; Kumazawa and Ifuku, 2024) and drawn on the tree using InkScape

software.

Cultivation

The marine centric diatom *C. gracilis* (UTEX LB 2658) was used for all analyses. Pre-cultivation

was performed in IMK medium —4% (w/v) sea salt (SIGMA S9883, US) or artificial seawater made

with Daigo's Artificial Seawater SP (Nihon Pharmaceutical MS, Japan) supplemented with 1x Daigo's

IMK medium (Nihon Pharmaceutical MS, Japan) and 0.2 mmol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3— at 20ºC under

fluorescent lights at approximately 30 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} with continuous shaking at 100 rpm.

Seven–eight-day or three-day cultivation was performed in IMK medium at 25ºC under warm white

LEDs at 30 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} (LL) or 300 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} (HL), with continuous aeration

of air or 3% (v/v) CO_2.

Preparation of Thylakoid Membranes from *C. gracilis* and Spinach

Diatom WT cells cultured under HL at 25ºC, 300 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} for three days were

centrifuged at 1,200×*g*, 20ºC for 5 minutes to collect the cells, then resuspended in artificial seawater,

washed, and centrifuged again. After removing the supernatant, the pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of

artificial seawater, transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, and centrifuged at 21,500×*g*, 4ºC for

5 minutes to obtain a pellet. The pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of cell disruption buffer (20 mM

Tricine-KOH (pH 7.6), 0.4 mol L^{-1} sorbitol, 10 (w/v) % PEG-6000, 10 mM EDTA), mixed with 0.5

g of 0.1 mm diameter glass beads, and processed with a bead beater for 10 seconds. The sample was

then well-chilled on ice, and the disruption process was repeated a total of three times. The supernatant

was centrifuged at 21,500×*g*, 4ºC for 5 minutes to obtain a pellet. The pellet was resuspended in 1 mL

of washing buffer (20 mmol L^{-1} Tricine-KOH (pH 7.6), 0.4 mol L^{-1} Sorbitol, 5 mmol L^{-1} $MgCl_2$, 2.5

mmol L^{-1} EDTA) and centrifuged at 50×*g*, 4ºC for 5 minutes. The portion containing thylakoid

membranes was carefully collected, avoiding the upper and lower contaminants, and centrifuged at

21,500×*g*, 4ºC for 5 minutes to obtain a thylakoid membrane pellet. The pellet was resuspended in

solubilization buffer (50 m mol L^{-1} imidazole-HCl (pH 7.0 at 4℃), 20 (v/v) % glycerol), and a portion

was taken to measure the concentrations of Chl *a* and *c* (Jeffrey and Humphrey, 1975). The thylakoid

membrane of spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) was isolated from market spinach based on previously

reported methods (Yamamoto et al., 2011) using the modified buffer (50 mmol L^{-1} tricine-NaOH (pH

7.8 at room temperature), 0.4 L^{-1} sucrose, 10 mmol L^{-1} NaCl, 5 mmol L^{-1} MgCl$_2$). The thylakoid

membranes were adjusted to 1 μg μL^{-1} of Chl *a*+*c* with solubilization buffer (50 mM imidazole-HCl

(pH 7.0 at 4℃), 20 (v/v) % glycerol).

2D-CN/SDS-PAGE

The 4–13% gradient gel used for CN-PAGE was prepared according to existing methods (Järvi et

al., 2011; Kameo et al., 2021), and the entire CN-PAGE procedure followed the modified CN-PAGE

method using Amphipol A8-35 (Kameo et al., 2021). However, 75 mmol L^{-1} imidazole-HCl (pH 7.0

at 4ºC) was used in the 3x gel buffer, and 40 (w/v) % acrylamide/bis solution (37.5:1) (019-25655,

Fujifilm Wako, Japan) was used for acrylamide. The anode buffer contained 25 mmol L^{-1} imidazole-

HCl (pH 7.0 at 4ºC), and the cathode buffer contained 50 mmol L^{-1} Tricine, 7.5 mmol L^{-1} imidazole.

The Chl concentrations in resuspended thylakoids were measured (Jeffrey and Humphrey, 1975), and

thylakoid membranes were adjusted to 1 μg μL^{-1} of Chl *a*+*c* and Chl *a*+*b* with solubilization buffer

(50 mmol L^{-1} imidazole-HCl (pH 7.0 at 4℃), 20 (v/v) % glycerol) and resuspended. An equal volume

of 2 (w/v) % dodecyl-α-D-maltoside (α-DM, Anatrace, OH, USA) was added for solubilization, placed

on ice for 2 minutes, then centrifuged at 21,500×*g* for 2 minutes to remove insoluble residues. The

supernatant was mixed with half the volume of 2 (w/v) % amphipol A8-35 (Anatrace, OH, USA), and

5 μg of Chl in 15 μL was applied to each well. Electrophoresis was performed using MyPowerII 300

power supply (AE-8135, ATTO, Japan) at 40 V, 1 mA for 660 minutes at 4ºC with two mini gels

simultaneously. After electrophoresis, the gels were scanned with the scanner ES2200 (EPSON, Japan).

The CN-PAGE gels were immersed in 50 (v/v) % glycerol on ice, cut into gel strips, and stored at −

80ºC in 50 (v/v) % glycerol until use.

Gel strips were solubilized by immersing them in solubilization buffer (1% SDS and 50 mM

dithiothreitol (DTT) for 30 minutes at room temperature, and then applied to gels with a stacking gel

(pH 6.8) and separation gel (14% acrylamide (37.5:1), 6 mol L^{-1} Urea, pH 8.6). The Laemmli system

was used for electrophoresis. When the dye had electrophoresed to the bottom of the marker well at

250 V, 100 mA, the process was temporarily stopped, and Precision Plus Protein Dual Color Standards

(#1610374, BioRad, CA, USA) were applied. Electrophoresis was then continued at 250 V for 90

minutes. After electrophoresis, gels not used for immunoblotting were fluorescently stained with

Oriole fluorescent gel stain (#1610496, BioRad, CA, USA) for 100 minutes, gently rinsed with

distilled water, and then fluorescence was detected using the ChemiDoc Touch Imaging System (Bio-

Rad).

Construction of hCas9 Vector

The hCas9 sequence was amplified from the hCas9 vector (Addgene, plasmid #41815) using the

InF-hCas9-fw1 primer (TTTATAAAGCGGATCATGGACAAGAAGTACTCCATTGG) and InF-

hCas9-rv1 primer (AACAGCTTGCATGCCTCACACCTTCCTCTTCTTCTTG). The PCR product

was cloned into the linearized pCgNRp vector digested with BamHI and PstI using In-Fusion reaction

according to the manufacturer's protocol. The obtained clone vector was named pCgNRphCas9.

Construction of pCgNRpble-Lhcx1-RGR Vector

A 20-mer genome editing target sequence containing the PAM (protospacer adjacent motif)

sequence (NGG) for gRNA in the CRISPR/Cas9 system, GTTGCTATGCTTGCCGTTAT**TGG** (bold

indicates the PAM sequence), was selected. A system that expresses complete gRNA in cells via a

mRNA-type Pol II promoter by connecting self-processing ribozymes (Gao and Zhao, 2014; Zhang et

al., 2017) was used. This method was adapted to the genome editing system of *C. gracilis*. The genome

editing vector containing gRNA was constructed using three primers: Lhcx1-RGR-F1;

GACGAAACGAGTAAGCTCGTC**GTTGCTATGCTTGCCGTTAT**GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATA

GCAAG (bold indicates the 20-mer sequence for gRNA target recognition excluding the PAM

sequence),   Lhcx1-RGR-F2;

GTCA<u>GGATCC</u>**AGCAAC**CTGATGAGTCCGTGAGGACGAAACGAGTAAGCTCGTC (BamHI

restriction enzyme site is underlined, and bold indicates the complementary sequence of the first six

bases of the 20-mer for gRNA target recognition including the PAM sequence), and PstI-RGR-Rv;

ATAT<u>CTGCAG</u>GTCCCATTCGCCATGCCGAAGC (PstI restriction enzyme site is underlined). The

PstI-RGR-Rv primer is a universal primer in this protocol. The first fragment (199 bp) was amplified

by PCR from pRS316-RGR-GFP (Addgene, plasmid #51056) using the Lhcx1-RGR-F1 and PstI-

RGR-Rv primers. The second fragment (231 bp) was amplified by PCR from the first purified PCR

product using the Lhcx1-RGR-F2 and PstI-RGR-Rv primers. The purified second product was

digested with BamHI (NEB) and PstI (NEB), and ligated with the pCgNRpble vector linearized with

BamHI and PstI. The final product was named pCgNRp^{ble}-Lhcx1-RGR.

Transformation

The electroporation transformation procedure using the Super electroporator NEPA21 Type-II

(NEPAGENE, Japan) followed previous reports (Miyahara et al., 2013; Ifuku et al., 2015; Ifuku and

Yan, 2020). The initial transformation of the *hCas9* gene into *C. gracilis* was performed using the

pCgNRphCas9 vector linearized with DraIII and SapI. Colonies were selected on IMK plates

containing the antibiotic Nourseothricin at 400 μg mL^{-1} (clonNAT; Hans Knoell Institute, Jena,

Germany). The introduced *hCas9* gene was confirmed by PCR using the first set: InF-hCas9-fw1

primer and hCas9-2088-Rv primer: CCTTAAAGGTGAGAGAGTCATCATGGATC, and another set:

hCas9-1965n-Fw primer: ATGAAACAGCTCAAGAGGCGCCGA and InF-hCas9-rv1 primer. The

hCas9 strain (hC9 strain) used for further genome editing was selected from eight transformants

screened by PCR and immunoblotting using anti-Cas9 antibody (described later).

The linearized pCgNRpble-Lhcx1-RGR was introduced into the hC9 strain by electroporation. This

was essentially the same as the transformation of hCas9. Before introducing the RGR vector, the vector

was linearized with HindIII (NEB) and concentrated to 850–1000 ng μL^{-1} by ethanol precipitation.

The amount of linearized vector was 5 μg per electroporation. Colonies were selected on IMK plates

containing the antibiotic Zeocin at 100 μg mL^{-1} (InvivoGen #ant-an-1, US CA). Mutations were

confirmed by Sanger sequencing of the products amplified by PCR using Lhcx1_seq_FW primer:

AGAGACTGTAAGGATTCGGA and Lhcx1_seq_RV primer: GAAGGAAGATCCCTCTACCT.

Immunoblotting

Diatom cells were collected and solubilized in sample buffer containing 62.5 mmol L^{-1} Tris–HCl

(pH 6.8), 2.5% (w/v) SDS, 10% (w/v) glycerol, 2.5% (v/v) 2-mercaptoethanol, and a trace amount of

bromophenol blue (BPB). Solubilization was performed by incubating at 98ºC for 6 minutes, followed

by 30 minutes at room temperature, and then centrifugation. The protein concentration was adjusted

to 30 μg/20 μL. Thirty micrograms of protein was applied to each lane of an 8% acrylamide separation

gel with a 3% acrylamide stacking gel and separated by SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred to an

Immobilon-P PVDF membrane (Millipore, MA, USA) and incubated with anti-Cas9 polyclonal

antibody (632607, Takara, Japan) at a 1:2000 dilution.

For the detection of Lhcx1, SDS-PAGE gels were prepared with a 15% acrylamide separation gel

and a 4.5% acrylamide stacking gel. Two μg of protein was applied to each lane and separated by SDS-

PAGE. The anti-Lhcx1 peptide antibody was produced against the synthetic peptide

"KEEYAPGDLRFDPFGLMP". After electrophoresis, the gel was desalted and equilibrated in

Electron transfer buffer (25 mmol L^{-1} Tris, 192 mmol L^{-1} glycine, 20 (v/v) % methanol, 0.05 (w/v) %

SDS). Subsequently, proteins were transferred from the gel to an Immobilon-P PVDF membrane

(Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and incubated with anti-Lhcx1 antibody at a 1:5000 dilution.

Immunoreactive proteins were detected using the Amersham ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection

Reagent (Cytiva RPN2236) with the ChemiDoc Touch Imaging System (Bio-Rad).

PAM Fluorescence Measurement

Chl fluorescence by pulse-amplitude modulation was detected using an actinic light of 450 or 455

nm (blue) at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} with the NPQ2 protocol (200 seconds of light period and 390

seconds of dark recovery, with the first saturating pulse light in the light period at 10 seconds after the

start of illumination) of AquaPen AP-100 or AP-110 (PSI, Czech Republic) using a bandpass filter

(667 to 750 nm). The measuring pulse was set to 10%, and the super pulse (saturating pulse light) was

set to 30% (equivalent to 900 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}). Cells used in the NPQ2 protocol were dark-

adapted for more than 10 minutes before measurement.

Oxygen-Evolving Activity Measurements

The diatom cells grown under HL conditions (200 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} with rotational shaking at

~22ºC) were adjusted to a concentration of 5 μg Chl a mL^{-1} (Jeffrey and Humphrey, 1975), following

the methods described in Nakayasu et al. (Nakayasu et al., 2024). Using a Clark-type oxygen electrode

(Hansatech, UK) at 25°C, oxygen evolution was measured in the medium supplemented with 10 mM

NaHCO$_3$. Cells were illuminated with white light at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}, and the cell

suspension in the reaction chamber was continuously stirred with a magnetic stirrer during

measurements.

HPLC Pigment Analysis

Cells cultured for 7–8 days under LL or HL conditions were collected by centrifugation at 1,500 x

g for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was removed. The pellet was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80 ºC until extraction. The frozen pellet was extracted using 100% acetone (Wako,

Japan) with sonication for 6 minutes in an ice-water bath. Subsequently, the sample was centrifuged

at 15,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4 ºC. The resulting supernatant was filtered through a 0.45 nm

hydrophilic PTFE filter (SLPT0445NL, Hawach Scientific, IL, USA) and subjected to HPLC. The

HPLC method is based on Nagao, Ueno, et al. (2020) with modifications derived from Manuel Zapata

et al. (2000). The 0.25 mol L^{-1} pyridine contained in solution A was adjusted to pH 5.0 using acetic

acid. A Shimadzu HPLC system equipped with LC-20AD pumps and an SPD-M20A detector was

used for pigment composition analysis. The system was equipped with an Inertsil C8 reverse-phase

column (5020-01228, GL Sciences, Japan). The sample injection volume was 20 μL for each analysis.

Standard pigments of Chl a, fucoxanthin, diadinoxanthin, and diatoxanthin were purchased from DHI

(Denmark), analyzed similarly, and used to create calibration curves.

77K Steady-State Fluorescence Spectra

Cells for measurement were cultured under HL at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} at 25ºC for 3 days.

Samples were diluted with IMK medium and adjusted to 10 μg Chl $a+c$/150 μL. Chl concentration

was measured after extraction with 90% acetone (Jeffrey and Humphrey, 1975). The diluted samples

were treated in the dark or under HL at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} for 30 minutes and immediately

frozen in liquid nitrogen. Low-temperature steady-state fluorescence emission spectra of whole cells

were measured at 77K with excitation at 459 nm using a JASCO FP-8500 equipped with a PMU-130

liquid nitrogen cooling unit. The spectra were integrated from 5 consecutive measurements with a 2.5

nm sampling pitch. The spectra were normalized at the PSII CP47 peak (693–695 nm)

(Andrizhiyevskaya et al., 2005; Nagao et al., 2010).

Time-Resolved Fluorescence and Fluorescence Decay-Associated Spectra

Samples were prepared for time-resolved fluorescence (TRF) spectral measurements using the same

method as for steady-state measurements. TRF spectra were measured using a time-correlated single-

photon counting system in the range of 670 nm to 750 nm with wavelength intervals of 1 nm and time

intervals of 18.3 ps (Hamada et al., 2017). A picosecond pulsed diode laser (PiL047X; Advanced Laser

Diode Systems) operating at 459 nm with a repetition frequency of 3 MHz was used as the excitation

light source to excite Chl c and fucoxanthin, which are the main light-harvesting pigments in diatoms.

Detailed conditions for TRF measurements were described in Nagao et al. (2020). Fluorescence decay-

associated spectrum (spectra) (FDAS) was constructed by global analysis (Ye et al., 2025). The

analysis of fluorescence decay $I_F(\lambda, t)$ at wavelength λ with the instrument response function $I_{IRF}(t)$

followed the function:

$$I_F(\lambda, t) = C \sum_{i=1}^{6} A_i(\lambda) \int_{-\infty}^{t} I_{IRF}(t') \, exp\left(-\frac{t - t'}{\tau_i}\right) dt'$$

The time constants were set to τ_{1-6} = 40 ps, 140 ps, 640 ps, 1.6 ns, 3.8 ns, and 26 ns based on the

analysis results of WT cells cultured under white LED light. $A_i(\lambda)$ represents each FDAS. The rise and

decay components of fluorescence are indicated by negative and positive peaks, respectively. Positive

and negative amplitudes in the same FDAS reflect energy transfer from pigments with positive

amplitude to pigments with negative amplitude (Yokono et al., 2008; Akimoto et al., 2012). Positive

amplitude without accompanying negative amplitude signifies energy quenching. For Figure 6 and

Supplemental Figure 7, FDAS of each sample was normalized as,

$$\frac{A_i(\lambda)}{\int \sum_{i=1}^{6} A_i(\lambda) \, d\lambda} \times 100.$$

For easy viewing, a magnification factor 100 was used.

Measurement of PSII Antenna Size

Chl fluorescence induction curves of wild-type (WT) and three *lhcx1* mutants (*lhcx1-7*, *lhcx1-15*,

lhcx1-234) cultured under HL at 300 μmol photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ at 25ºC for 3 days were measured using

a Fluorometer FL 3500 (PSI, Czech Republic) in the presence of 40 μM DCMU after 10 minutes of

dark adaptation (Nedbal et al., 1999). The cultures were grown in two independent batches. In the

measurement, Flash intensity was set to 50%, and Flash duration was set to 100 μs. The relative

antenna size was determined by measuring the initial slope of fluorescence rise during the first 1 μs

relative to the maximum fluorescence intensity. Four replicate measurements were performed for each

strain.

For data analysis, R statistical software (R version 4.4.0 (2024-04-24)) was used, utilizing the

tidyverse, readr, lme4, emmeans, and ggplot2 packages. To account for batch-specific variations,

antenna size values were normalized by the WT mean value within each batch. A linear mixed model

(LMM) was applied to the normalized data. Estimated marginal means were calculated, and multiple

comparisons were performed using the Tukey method. The threshold for statistical significance was

set at adjusted $p < 0.05$.

RNA sequencing

Cells were harvested during the exponential growth phase after three days of treatment exposure to

LL/HL and ambient/3%-CO_2-supplemented air aeration, frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at −

80ºC until use. The frozen cells were crushed by bead-beating with 3-mm diameter zirconia beads.

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) following the Robertson

laboratory's protocol (https://wordpress.clarku.edu/debrobertson/laboratory-protocols/rna-extraction-

from-diatoms-using-the-rneasy-kit/). RNA-seq libraries were constructed using the NEBNext Ultra II

RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (Cat No. 7770) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Paired-end sequencing (2 × 150 bp) was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform. Adapter

sequences　　(Read　1:　AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAACTCCAGTCA,　Read　2:

AGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTGTAGGGAAAGAGTGT) were trimmed from raw sequencing reads.

Prior to mapping, the gene structure annotation provided in ChaetoBase v1.1 (predicted_all.gff3) was

modified using the following procedures: (1) replacement of geneID attributes with Parent attributes

for transcripts lacking gene correspondence, (2) correction of transcripts incorrectly defined as genes,

and (3) addition of missing gene definitions using AGAT v1.0.0.

Clean reads were aligned to the *C. gracilis* reference genome (ChaetoBase v1.1) using STAR

v2.7.11b with the following parameters: --alignIntronMax 10000. Gene expression levels were

quantified using RSEM v1.3.3 with --strandedness reverse to account for Illumina stranded RNA-seq

protocol, and expected count matrices were generated for downstream analysis.

Differential Gene Expression Analysis

Statistical analysis of gene expression was performed using the edgeR package (v4.6.2) in R

(v4.5.0). Genes with low expression levels were filtered out by retaining only those with CPM (counts

per million) values exceeding the 20th percentile in at least one condition. A DGEList object was

created, and normalization factors were calculated using the TMM (trimmed mean of M-values)

method. Dispersion parameters were estimated using the estimateDisp function, and generalized linear

models (GLM) were fitted using glmQLFit.

Statistical Contrasts and Hypothesis Testing

To address the research objectives, the following statistical contrasts were performed:

1) Primary Analysis: HL Response Comparison

WT HL response: Air.HL.WT vs Air.LL.WT

lhcx1 HL response: Air.HL.lhcx1 vs Air.LL.lhcx1

Enhanced HL response in lhcx1: (Air.HL.lhcx1 - Air.LL.lhcx1) - (Air.HL.WT - Air.LL.WT)

2) Secondary Analysis: CO_2 Effect Validation

WT HL response under CO_2: CO_2.HL.WT vs CO_2.LL.WT

lhcx1 HL response under CO_2: CO_2.HL.lhcx1 vs CO_2.LL.lhcx1

Enhanced HL response in *lhcx1* under CO2: (CO2.HL.lhcx1 - CO_2.LL.lhcx1) -

(CO_2.HL.WT - CO_2.LL.WT)

Differential expression was determined using quasi-likelihood F-tests implemented in glmQLFTest.

P-values were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg method, with an FDR

threshold of 0.05.

Functional Enrichment Analysis

KEGG pathway enrichment analysis was conducted using the enrichKEGG function from the

clusterProfiler package (v4.16.0). KEGG Orthology (KO) annotations for *C. gracilis* genes were

obtained from BLASTP searches against the KEGG database using BLASTKOALA. Only pathways

with q-value < 0.05 were considered significantly enriched.

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Competing Interests

Authors HH, AS, and SI are employed by the NTT, Inc.

Data Availability

RNA-seq data in this study were deposited with link to BioProject accession number PRJDB12222 in the NCBI BioProject database, and the list of the data in Supplemental Data 1.

Author Contributions

M.K. and Ke.I. conceived the project; M.K. performed phylogenetic analysis, 2D-CN/SDS-PAGE, growth experiments, PAM analyses, absorbance spectrum analyses, 77K emission fluorescence analysis, antenna size measurements, and RNA-seq *in silico* analysis, and prepared samples for ime-resolved fluorescence analyses; S.A. performed time-resolved fluorescence analyses; A.T. conceived the methodology of 2D-CN/SDS-PAGE; Ko.I. measured and analyzed oxygen-evolving activity; S.T. measured pigments; H.H., A.S., and S.I. performed RNA-seq and provided funding; N.I. conceived methodology of SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting; N.I.-K. and Y.K. provided anti-Lhcx1 antibody. M.K. drafted the original manuscript, and Ke.I. revised and edited the final manuscript. All authors contributed to the discussion of the results and improvement of the manuscript.

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Figure 1. Molecular Phylogenetic Tree of Light-Harvesting Complexes (LHCs) from Red and

Green Evolutionary Lineages

LHC sequences were obtained from red algae, green algae *Mesostigma viride* NIES-296

(Mesvir1_1) and *Klebsormidium nitens* NIES-2285 (Klepit1_1), diatoms: *Chaetoceros gracilis* (Cg),

Thalassiosira pseudonana (Tp), *Cyclotella cryptica* (Cc), *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Pt), and

cryptophytes: *Guillardia theta* CCMP2712 and Cryptophyceae sp. (*Baffinella* sp.) CCMP2293. These

were combined with reference sequences for Lhcsr from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*: Lhcsr1

(UniProt: P93664) and Lhcsr3.1 (UniProt: P0DO19), which is identical to Lhcsr3.2 (UniProt:

P0DO18), and a molecular phylogenetic tree was constructed using IQ-TREE2. The phylogenetic tree

is displayed as an unrooted tree, and the inset tree is rerooted with the other LHC family members

except for Lhcx, Lhcf, and CgLhcr9 homologs. LHC subfamilies, Lhcr, Lhcz, Lhcq, Lhcf, Lhcx,

Lhca/Lhcb, and CgLhcr9 homologs, are indicated by orange, red, magenta, green, blue, black, and

brown, respectively. Red algal and Cryptophyte Lhcrs are in the left part of the tree, Lhcrs expect for

Cryptophyte-specific Lhcrs and Diatom Lhcrs. Detailed annotations are shown only for the

Lhcx/Lhcsr subfamily. Circles on nodes indicate ultra-fast bootstrap support values of 90% or higher.

1054   Numbers in parentheses indicate SH-aLRT support values (%) / aBayes support values / ultra-fast

1055   bootstrap support values (%). Numbers in the inset tree are ultra-fast bootstrap support values (%).

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Figure 2. PAM Fluorescence Measurements of *C. gracilis* Wild-Type and *lhcx1* Strains Cultured

with Aeration for 7–8 Days Under Low Light (LL) and High Light (HL)

A) NPQ of LL and HL cultures. B) qP of LL and HL cultures. C) PSII effective quantum yield Y(II)

of LL and HL cultures. * indicates that adjusted $p < 0.05$ by Tukey's HSD test was satisfied between

the wild-type and all *lhcx1* strains. The points in each figure represent mean ± standard deviation with

biological replicates of $n = 3$.

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Figure 3. Oxygen-Evolving Activity of *C. gracilis* Wild-Type and *lhcx1* Strains

This figure shows the oxygen-evolving activity of *C. gracilis* wild-type (WT) and three *lhcx1* mutant

strains (*lhcx1-7*, *lhcx1-15*, and *lhcx1-234*). Measurements were conducted under a light intensity of

300 μmol photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ in the presence of 10 mM $NaHCO_3$. Data are presented as mean ± standard

deviation ($n = 3$). Statistical analysis was performed using Dunnett's test to compare each mutant strain

with the wild-type (WT). Asterisks (*) indicate p<0.001, while other actual p-values are shown in the

graph.

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1076 **Figure 4. Pigment Analysis of Low Light (LL) and High Light (HL) Cultures**

1077 A) Chlorophyll (Chl) *a* content per 10^9 cells. B) Fucoxanthin (Fx) content per Chl *a*. C)

1078 Diadinoxanthin (Ddx) content per Chl *a*. D) Diatoxanthin (Dtx) content per Chl *a*. E) Ddx+Dtx content

1079 per Chl *a*. F) De-epoxidation state (DEPS = [Dtx]/([Dtx]+[Ddx])). Data are presented as mean ±

1080 standard deviation (*n* = 3). Different alphabets indicate adjusted *p* < 0.05 by Tukey's HSD test.

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Figure 5. Low-Temperature Fluorescence Emission Spectra of Wild-Type (WT) and *lhcx1*

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Mutants Cultured Under High Light

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A) Low-temperature fluorescence emission spectra measured after 30 minutes of dark treatment

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followed by rapid freezing in liquid nitrogen. B) Low-temperature fluorescence emission spectra

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measured after 30 minutes of HL treatment followed by rapid freezing in liquid nitrogen. Each

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spectrum was normalized at the peak corresponding to CP47 (693–695 nm). The wild type was

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measured in two separately cultured samples (black solid line and black dashed line).

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Figure 6. Fluorescence Decay-Associated Spectra of Time-Resolved Fluorescence

Black lines indicate WT, blue lines indicate *lhcx1-7*, solid lines represent measurements after 30 minutes of dark treatment, and dashed lines represent measurements after 30 minutes of treatment at 300 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}.

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Figure 7. 2D-Amphipol-based-CN/SDS-PAGE of *C. gracilis* Thylakoid Membranes

A) Amphipol-based CN-PAGE of *C. gracilis* and spinach thylakoid membranes. Annotation of each

band for spinach follows previous reports (Järvi et al., 2011; Kameo et al., 2021). B) Protein

fluorescence staining image of two-dimensional electrophoresis of Amphipol-based CN-PAGE.

Annotation of each spot indicated by red arrowheads is based on previous reports (Nagao et al., 2007).

1099   FCP-A, FCP-B, and FCP-C correspond to CgLhcf1, CgLhcf12, and CgLhcf2, respectively (Nagao et

1100   al., 2019; Nagao et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024). C) Identification of the Lhcx1 spot by immunoblotting

1101   using anti-Lhcx1 antibody. The blue arrowhead indicates the detected spot.

Figure 8. Gene Expression Analysis under CO₂ Enrichment

KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in the *lhcx1* mutant under LL

and HL conditions. **A)** Pathways enriched in genes commonly induced by HL in both WT and the

lhcx1 mutant under ambient air conditions. **B)** Pathways enriched in genes showing enhanced HL

response in *lhcx1* mutant under both ambient air and CO_2-enriched conditions. Dot size represents

gene count, and color intensity indicates statistical significance (q-value shown as p.adjust). Pathways

related to typical HL response and photosynthesis are indicated with red letters.

Supplemental Figures and Data

Supplemental Figure 1. Generation of hCas9-Expressing Host Strain

Supplemental Figure 2. Confirmation of Lhcx1 Deficiency in *lhcx1* Genome-Edited Strains

Supplemental Figure 3. Growth Curves of *C. gracilis* Wild-Type and *lhcx1* Strains Cultured with Aeration for 7 Days Under High Light

Supplemental Figure 4. PAM Fluorescence Measurements of *C. gracilis* Wild-Type and *lhcx1* Strains Cultured with Aeration for 3 Days Under Low Light (LL) and High Light (HL)

Supplemental Figure 5. Total Absorption Spectra of Low Light (LL, left) and High Light (HL, right) Cultures

Supplemental Figure 6. Relative PSII Antenna Size of Wild-Type (WT) and *lhcx1* Mutants

Supplemental Figure 7. Fluorescence Decay-Associated Spectra of Time-Resolved Fluorescence of *lhcx1-15*, *lhcx1-234*, and the second replicate of WT

Supplemental Figure 8. Amphipol-based-CN-PAGE of Thylakoid Membranes of *C. gracilis* WT and *lhcx1* Mutants

Supplemental Figure 9. PAM Fluorescence Measurements of *C. gracilis* Wild-Type and *lhcx1* Strains Cultured with 3% CO$_2$ Aeration for three Days Under Low Light (LL) and High Light (HL)

Supplemental Figure 10. TPM of *CgLhcx1–3*.

Supplemental Data 1. Comprehensive RNA-Seq gene expression data including normalized expression values (TPM, FPKM), differential expression statistics (Log2FC, p-value, FDR), and gene annotations for all detected genes across four experimental conditions.