Title: Origin of chaperone dependence and assembly complexity in Rubisco's biogenesis

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Abstract: Molecular chaperones assist with the folding and assembly of protein clients. Consequently, they are essential to diverse cellular functions. In most aerobic photosynthetic organisms such as β-cyanobacteria and all plants, the key CO_2-fixing enzyme Rubisco strictly relies on dedicated chaperones for its assembly. Why these chaperones were recruited is unclear, as they are absent and not required in other prokaryotic autotrophs. By retracing the evolution of Rubisco-chaperone interactions, we find that Rubisco's dependence on chaperones evolved neutrally and not by adaptive optimization, and that this may be reversed without compromising catalytic function. Our work shows how chaperones are broad modifiers of their clients' sequence spaces that can become totally essential through non-adaptive processes.

Main text:

Introduction

Proteins must fold and assemble correctly in a crowded, chaotic cellular environment. Many proteins depend entirely on molecular chaperones to accomplish this. Chaperones provide transient assistance to their clients during folding or assembly ([1]). How proteins come to rely on chaperones is not well understood. Chaperone requirements can vary within protein families, suggesting that the need for chaperone assistance during folding or assembly is not always an unavoidable feature of a protein's fold, but can be acquired or lost in the course of history. Evolutionary theory suggests that the acquisition of chaperone dependence may be indirectly beneficial to proteins: They may allow the fixation of substitutions in their client that are functionally beneficial, but are destabilizing and intolerable without a chaperone ([2–6]). An alternative theory is that chaperone-client interactions evolve through a neutral ratchet ([7–9]): A chaperone can become essential for its client when it permits the accumulation of substitutions that are deleterious in its absence ([10]). Once a large enough number of such substitutions accumulate, purifying selection preserves the interaction, even if it never improved function or fitness ([11]).

Whether chaperone dependencies historically evolved through adaptive buffering or neutral ratchets has not been examined. One example of a protein family known to have become dependent on several new chaperones in its history is ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) (Fig. 1A) ([12–14]), the enzyme responsible for CO_2 fixation in oxygenic photosynthesis and probably the most abundant protein on Earth ([15–17]). The most ancient versions of Form I Rubisco are first folded in the chaperonin cage of the folding chaperone GroEL/ES and then self-assemble without further assistance into either homo-oligomers consisting of 8 catalytic large (RbcL), or hetero-oligomers that also incorporate 8 non-catalytic small subunits (RbcS) ([18–21]). The latter then became dependent on additional chaperones that help Rubisco's large subunit assemble into complexes after it emerges from the chaperonin cage (Fig. 1A). Most β-cyanobacterial Rubiscos (1B clade) strictly require the action of either of two dedicated chaperones - Raf1 or RbcX - for the assembly of functional Rubisco complexes ([22–25]), which are not required by more ancestral Rubiscos. Another increase in assembly complexity then followed with the addition of assembly chaperones Raf2 and BSD2 on top of Raf1 and RbcX in plants (Fig. 1A) ([26–29]).

How and why these chaperones became essential is unclear, but adaptive buffering is a plausible mechanism: Rubisco's history is plagued by a problematic relationship with oxygen, an undesired side substrate that results in the production of a toxic product. Over the course of its history, Rubisco has adapted to rising atmospheric oxygen concentrations by becoming more specific for CO_2 over O_2 ([30–32]). Rubisco's evolution is notoriously slow and potentially constrained by trade-offs between its catalytic speed and specificity for CO_2 ([33–37]). It thus seems plausible that Rubisco may have become dependent on additional chaperones because they unlocked catalytically beneficial substitutions that would otherwise destabilize the enzyme. This theory, however, has remained untested, because both adaptive buffering and neutral entrenchment would result in the same indistinguishable phenotype when chaperones are removed in organisms: a complete loss of functional Rubisco assembly.

We overcome this hurdle by recapitulating the evolution of Rubisco's interactions with
assembly chaperones Raf1 and RbcX using ancestral sequence reconstruction (*9, 38*).
Through the reconstruction of a billion-year-old assembly pathway, we reveal that
increased complexity in Rubisco's biogenesis arose neutrally and was entrenched via
an epistatic ratchet. These findings also illuminate the historical trajectory transversed
by the biogeochemically important Form 1 Rubiscos, informing future endeavors at
engineering improved CO_2 fixation in plants.

Resurrection of Rubisco's chaperone network

To investigate how Rubisco-chaperone interactions evolved, we began by inferring the
phylogeny of Rubisco's large subunit (LSU) (Fig. 1B, S2A, see methods), mapping onto
it the occurrence of assembly chaperones within the genomes of extant species. For all
Form I Rubiscos, chaperones Raf1 and RbcX first appeared within β-cyanobacteria. To
retrace when assembly chaperones first became essential, we inferred sequences of
ancestral Rubiscos that existed before and after the occurrence of chaperones Raf1
and RbcX (Fig. 1B). The phylogeny of each chaperone was also inferred with matching
topological constraints as our RbcL tree to obtain synchronized ancestral nodes (Fig.
S1). This enabled us to reconstruct the ancient chaperone network that was likely to
have co-existed with our Rubisco ancestors within the same ancestral organism as
closely as possible (see Methods), thus minimizing the potential for artefacts and
incompatibility in Rubisco-chaperone pairings which is a known obstacle to productive
assembly (*39–42*).

To determine when Rubisco started to rely on chaperone interactions for assembly, we
resurrected 4 ancestors (Fig. 1B; AncE, D, C, A; AncB was insoluble, see
Supplementary text). Going from the most ancient to the most recent reconstructions:
AncE is the last common ancestor (LCA) of Form IA and Form IB Rubisco and would
have existed before the chaperones appeared in the genomes of β-cyanobacteria.
AncD is the LCA of all Form IB Rubiscos, which would have existed in an ancestral β-
cyanobacterium that already contained Raf1 and RbcX. AncC corresponds to the last
node that unites cyanobacterial Rubiscos and their plastidal descendants, and therefore
existed in an ancestral cyanobacterium immediately prior to the endosymbiosis event
that birthed chloroplasts. Lastly, AncA corresponds to the LCA of all green algal and
plant Rubiscos.

We next characterized the assembly characteristics of our ancestors by co-expressing
them with or without their corresponding assembly chaperones within Escherichia coli
(E. coli) and examining for assembled Rubisco complexes with native PAGE and
immunoblot analysis (Fig. 1C). We also quantified the amount of functional active sites
using the radiolabeled transition state analogue 2-^{14}C-carboxy-D-arabinitol-1,5-
bisphosphate (^{14}C-CABP), and by assaying for Rubisco activity directly in lysates (Fig.
1C, bottom row). Our oldest ancestor AncE could assemble into functional complex
without assembly chaperones (Fig. 1B), consistent with the fact that it predates the
emergence of Raf1 and RbcX. Additionally, co-production of assembly chaperones Raf1
or RbcX boosted AncE's assembly yields. Thus, the initial recruitment of these
chaperones was likely beneficial because they probably would have increased the

fidelity of Rubisco's assembly pathway, although this was not the cause for dependence
on chaperones.

Our next ancestor, AncD, behaved similarly to its predecessor and could still assemble
in absence of chaperones (Fig. 1C). Adding Raf1 also bolstered assembly yields,
though RbcX no longer did so. Likewise, we saw the same capacity for self-assembly in
extant Form I Rubiscos from Synechococcus sp. JA (SynJA) and Gloeobacter violaceus
(*Gv*) that are close descendants of AncD (Fig. S2B) (*43*). In contrast, AncC could no
longer assemble on its own and strictly required assistance from Raf1 for its functional
assembly (Fig. 1C). This is also consistent with Rubisco from the cyanobacterium
Gloeomargarita lithophora (*Gl*) (Fig. S2B), which descends from AncC and represents
the closest cyanobacterial relative of plastidal Rubiscos (*44*). Our latest ancestor AncA
remained totally dependent on assembly chaperones. Overall, our data show that
assembly chaperones were not essential for assembly immediately after they first
appeared, and that Rubisco became dependent on assembly chaperones within
cyanobacteria sometime between AncD and AncC. This dependence, and a dominant
role for Raf1, was then inherited by plastidal Rubiscos.

We next asked if the evolution of chaperone dependence coincided with improved
enzyme function. To do so, we purified our ancestors and measured carboxylation
kinetics with ribulose-1,5-bisphophate (RuBP) and specificity for CO_2 over O_2 ($S_{C/O}$)
(Table S1). From prokaryotic Form 1A/B (AncE) to the plastidal type Form 1B Rubisco
(AncA), the Michaelis constant for CO_2 (K_m^{CO2}) decreased 5.7-fold (Fig. 2B). This is
coupled with somewhat fluctuating maximal carboxylation rates (k_{cat}^c) between 1.3 s^{-1} to
2.5 s^{-1} (Fig. 2A), resulting in a ~7.5-fold increase in overall carboxylation efficiencies
over this interval (Fig. 2C). Likewise, a 1.6-fold improvement in specificity occurs
between AncE to AncA (Fig. 2D). Intriguingly, the most significant improvements
occurred between AncD and AncC, coinciding with the same interval over which
chaperone dependence evolved. The temporal overlap between improved enzyme
function and dependence thus hints that adaptive buffering by chaperones could have
occurred.

These results were verified against two kinds of uncertainty. First, we resurrected
sequences of less likely ancestral Rubiscos from our constrained phylogeny (Fig. S2C),
in which the maximum a posteriori amino acid was replaced with the next most plausible
amino acid whenever the second state had a posterior probability of at least 0.2. In the
second, we tested ancestors inferred using an unconstrained ML RbcL phylogeny (Fig.
S2D-E), which would require many horizontal gene transfer (HGT) events to explain the
branching order of RbcL within cyanobacteria (Fig. S2A). Our inferences remained
robust in both cases: Rubisco is already dependent on chaperones at the node that
unites plastid and cyanobacterial Rubiscos. Therefore, we proceeded with ancestors
inferred from the constrained phylogeny for the rest of this work.

Genetic basis of dependence on chaperones Raf1/RbcX

Next, we sought to assess if the evolution of chaperone dependence is causally linked
to improved Rubisco function. To do this, we first needed to determine which changes in
which proteins were responsible for the dependence on chaperones and improved

catalysis. We therefore constructed hybrid ancestors containing swapped large and
small subunits of AncD and AncC (AncD$_L$C$_S$, AncC$_L$D$_S$). Both hybrid ancestors
assembled functionally when chaperones were provided (Fig. 2E, S3E-F). However,
only the hybrid ancestor comprised of AncD's LSU and AncC's SSU (AncD$_L$C$_S$) retained
the ability to assemble without chaperones, suggesting that historical substitutions in the
LSU were responsible for chaperone dependence. We also conducted a similar swap of
Rubisco-chaperone-ancestor pairs to exclude changes in Raf1 and RbcX as the cause
of dependence. Our observations remained the same even when mis-matched
chaperone ancestors were utilized, proving that only changes in Rubisco, and not
assembly chaperones, were responsible. In addition, improvements to carboxylation
kinetics and S$_{C/O}$ were encoded by substitutions in the LSU (Fig. 2F-I). These results
demonstrate that the genetic determinants for both improved function and chaperone
dependence lie within the LSU.

To pinpoint causal changes in the LSU, we scrutinized all 20 historical substitutions that
occurred between AncD to AncC. These were grouped into three spatial clusters of
highly conserved substitutions (cluster 1, 2, 3, comprising 3, 3, and 5 substitutions
respectively), as well as a fourth cluster (cluster 0 with 9 substitutions) containing all
remaining substitutions (Fig. 3A, S4A). We reverted the amino acids of these clusters in
AncC back to their ancestral states in AncD (Fig. 3B). Clusters 0 (rv0) or 1 (rv1) variants
remained incapable of assembly without chaperones. Reversion of cluster 3 (rv3)
weakly restored assembly in the absence of chaperones, requiring combinations with
other clusters (rv1$^+$3, rv1$^+$2$^+$3) to amplify this effect (Fig. 3C). Remarkably, reverting
cluster 2 (rv2) substitutions alone was sufficient to achieve robust rescue of assembly
without chaperones (Fig. 3B-C). We further tested whether reversion of the same three
substitutions in cluster 2 would work in an extant enzyme. Rubisco from *G. lithophora*
(*GL*), which branches after AncC and is sister to all plastid Rubiscos on our tree (*44*),
contains all derived cluster 2 substitutions and is dependent on assembly chaperones
(Fig. 3E). Reverting only cluster 2 substitutions in *Gl* Rubisco was likewise able to
abolish its dependence on chaperones Raf1 and RbcX. Therefore, cluster 2
substitutions, which lie within the central solvent pore of Rubisco (Fig. 3D), remain as
the key determinant for chaperone dependence even in extant descendants.

Entrenchment of Raf1/RbcX interaction was catalytically neutral

We now had the means to examine if Rubisco's reliance on chaperones allowed for
improved function to evolve. To do this, we compared the enzymatic parameters of
AncC (the better, chaperone-dependent enzyme) and AncD (the inferior, but
chaperone-independent ancestor) to AncC rv2. Remarkably, the chaperone-
independent reversion still behaved like AncC: we observed no significant changes in
S$_{C/O}$ and carboxylation kinetics of AncC rv2 compared to AncC (Fig. 3F-I). To verify that
this is not an artefact of our ancestral sequences, we performed the same experiment
on the chaperone-independent rv2 variant of the extant *G. lithophora* enzyme (*Gl* rv2).
Again, S$_{C/O}$ was unaffected in the rv2 variant of the extant *G. lithophora* enzyme (*Gl*
rv2), though k_{cat}^c and K$_m^{CO2}$ increased slightly (Fig. 3F-I). We also did not observe any
significant differences in the Michaelis constant for RuBP (K$_m^{RuBP}$) or apparent rate of
inhibitor release (k_{obs}) of reverted variants (Fig. S4F-G). We further tested whether our

reversions made the enzyme less stable. To do this, we exposed our variant to elevated
temperatures and measured its remaining activity. We found no difference between the
reverted variant and its wild-type counterpart (Fig. S4D-E). Furthermore, we also did not
find any significant differences in Rubisco assembly yields of the rv2 variant if
chaperones were co-produced, indicating that chaperone-dependent variants do not
gain added benefits to assembly fidelity from the presence of assembly chaperones
(Fig. 3C).

These data implies that entrenchment and catalytic improvements are genetically
separable from each other. We next wondered whether we could determine which
occurred first: catalytic improvement or chaperone dependence. On our constrained
topology there are two nodes between AncD and AncC, which we term AncD1 and
AncD2. These proteins already contain cluster 1 and 3 substitutions, but not cluster 2
substitutions, and are not yet dependent on chaperones (Fig. 3A, S3G, S4B-C). If
clusters 1 and 3 were responsible for improved catalysis, entrenchment would have
come after these improvements. We verified this by experimentally resurrecting AncD2,
as well as AncD with clusters 1 and 3 substituted to their states in AncC. Both proteins
exhibited elevated $S_{C/O}$ values relative to AncD (Table S1), implying that catalytic
improvement at least partially preceded the entrenchment of chaperones. Together,
these data show that entrenchment of the assembly chaperones Raf1 and RbcX was
neutral on the level of the catalytic parameters of Rubisco. These inferences are robust
to the topological uncertainty in our tree: causal substitutions and their impact on
catalysis remain unchanged even when examined on the unconstrained maximum
likelihood topology (Fig. S2D ,S3A-D).

An epistatic rachet keeps assembly chaperones essential

Within green algae and plants, Raf1 remains essential for Rubisco's assembly and
enhances photosynthetic growth when overexpressed (*29, 45, 46*). However, if only
three catalytically neutral reversions are enough to cure Rubisco of this dependence,
why are chaperones still necessary and preserved in the plastid lineage to this day?
(*23, 27, 29, 39*) To answer this, we turned to the youngest of our Rubisco ancestors,
AncA. This enzyme represents the LCA of all green algal and plant Rubiscos and is
dependent on Raf1 (Fig. 1C). AncA, as well as most other plastid Rubiscos, maintains
conservation of the same derived rv2 states as AncC (Fig. S5A). We therefore asked if
reverting these substitutions would restore AncA's ability to assemble without Raf1.
AncA rv2, however, remained incapable of assembly without chaperones (Fig. 4B, S5E-
F). This implies further changes must have accumulated which deepened dependence
on assembly chaperones.

To identify what triggered deeper dependence, we reasoned that the elongated βA-βB
loop of plant SSUs, which extends into the central solvent channel of Rubisco, may
coordinate with cluster 2 entrenching elements, which may influence the effect of
reversions at these sites (Fig. S5B). However, hybrid Rubiscos containing AncC's SSU
remain insoluble without chaperones, excluding a role for the SSU in causing deeper
dependence (Fig. S5C). Another plausible contributor could be the folding chaperone:
Whereas the simpler prokaryotic GroEL chaperonin suffices for prokaryotic AncC (Fig.
S5D; lanes 1 and 2), AncA requires the more structurally complex plastidal chaperonins

CPN60α/β (Fig. S5D; lanes 3 and 4). Utilizing GroEL instead of CPN60 also failed to
restore chaperone independent assembly of AncA rv2 (Fig. S5F-G, lanes 3). Therefore,
we searched once more amongst the 39 historical substitutions that emerged between
AncC and AncA, reverting subsets of these in an AncA rv2 background (Fig. S5E, S6A).
Three clusters near cluster 2 residues (Fig. 4D) were found to confer weak rescue from
chaperones as determined by assembly band intensities (Fig. S5E-F), but rescue was
minimal and could be eliminated when co-expression was carried out at slightly
elevated temperatures (30°C instead of 28°C) (Fig. S6B-C). In contrast, combining
these subsets (AncA rvC; reversion of clusters $2^+4^+5^+6$, 11 total substitutions) resulted
in robust self-assembly when eukaryotic folding chaperonins were utilized (Fig. S5F).
The effect of these further reversions was contingent on also reverting the original
cluster 2 sites, since AncA variants without rv2 reversions still required chaperones
(Fig. S5F, lanes 6 and 9). These data show that further substitutions entrenched the
need for assembly chaperones, and that this was reliant on the original entrenching
substitutions (also see Supplementary text).

The assembly-competent AncA rvC exhibited compromised catalytic rates compared to
AncA (Fig. 4E-H). We therefore identified 3 additional reversions in the inter-dimer
interface of the LSU (cluster 11; Fig. 4D) that together with our prior reversions, resulted
in a variant (AncA rvCC) with catalytic properties indistinguishable from AncA (Fig. 4E-
H), but could assemble independent of chaperones (Fig. 4C; lanes 5 and 6). Unlike
wild-type AncA and our other reversions of it (Fig. 4C lanes 3 and 4, Fig. S5G lanes 5
and 7), AncA rvCC could also fold independently using GroEL instead of the more
complex CPN60 from plants (Fig. 4C; lanes 7 and 8). This demonstrates that it is
possible to rid a plastidal Rubisco of its derived folding and assembly chaperone
requirements. This prompted us to ask whether we could also rid Rubiscos from
Arabidopsis thaliana of their need for these chaperones using the same reversions. This
experiment, however, failed (Fig. S6D-E), implying that even more entrenching states
have accumulated along the lineage to plants since AncA, potentially due to their
additional assembly requirements like reliance on BSD2 (*27*).

Together, these results demonstrate that assembly chaperones remain essential
because additional entrenching states accumulated along the lineage to plants, and
because these states have been ratcheted in through other changes in the protein that
makes their reversion functionally unfavourable. At the level of Rubisco's catalytic
function, these additional entrenching substitutions confer no functional advantage. We
can at present only speculate about the structural mechanism of Rubisco's dependence
on assembly chaperones. Sites involved in causing the dependence on chaperones
cluster at the surface facing the inside of the pore formed by Rubisco complexes, far
from known chaperone binding-sites on Rubisco. A plausible mechanism would be that
dependence-causing substitutions either make this surface aggregation-prone or
marginally unstable due to the loss of specific inter-residue contacts that stabilizes the
native fold (Fig. S4A, S7). This would pose a problem only during assembly, because
this surface is buried and shielded inside Rubisco complexes once assembly is
complete. Assembly chaperones, which facilitate the formation of RbcL octamers during
assembly, may therefore allow Rubisco to avoid aggregation by minimizing the time it
spends with this surface exposed to the cellular environment.

Discussion

In this work we discover that Rubisco became dependent on its assembly chaperones Raf 1 and RbcX through a neutral epistatic ratchet. Addition of these chaperones allowed Rubisco to accumulate substitutions that are neutral when chaperones are present, but highly deleterious when they are not. Though the initial gain of these chaperones was likely adaptive because it boosted assembly yields, the changes that made them essential later were likely non-adaptive, consistent with theoretical models of the evolution multi-layered biological systems (Fig. S8) (*47*, *48*). We note that while this entrenchment was neutral at the level of Rubisco's catalytic function, a chaperone dependence could be useful as for example a means of regulating Rubisco's abundance in vivo. Such adaptative use of a chaperone dependence may also evolve long after the initial dependence arose, as an evolutionary spandrel (*49*). Re-engineering Rubiscos to be chaperone-independent will make it possible to test for such second order adaptive uses of essentiality in plants.

The modification of Rubisco's accessible sequence space by chaperones is reminiscent of the SSU's role earlier in Rubisco's history (*20*, *50*). Unlike the SSU, however, Rubisco's assembly chaperones appear not to have unlocked substitutions that improved Rubisco's enzymatic function. This is clearly at odds with the theory that chaperones are generally adaptive buffering agents (*2*, *5*) and raises the possibility that other protein-chaperone interactions are also the result of similar neutral ratchets.

Rather than adaptive evolutionary buffers, chaperones may be better understood as broad modifiers of their clients' accessible sequence spaces, which sometimes serve as adaptive buffers and sometimes become essential neutrally. The potential for neutral entrenchment may add a selfish dimension to chaperone evolution: Chaperones can ensure their preservation by becoming essential for other proteins with important functions, even if this doesn't improve their clients' functions. The more promiscuous the chaperone, the more certain it is that at least one important protein forgets how to reach its functional conformation without the chaperone. Conversely the more important a potential chaperone client's function is to an organism, the more effectively purifying selection will preserve any chaperone that becomes essential to that client.

As we show, we can still undo such purposeless increases in cellular complexity by reversing the genetic changes that made these increases essential in history. It may thus be possible to rid modern genomes of any useless cellular bureaucracy that evolution has allowed to accumulate.

Figure 1. Evolution of Rubisco and assembly chaperones.

(A) Biogenesis pathway in Form I Rubiscos. Early branching Form I Rubiscos may co-
assemble directly with the small subunit (RbcS). Reliance on assembly chaperones

Raf1 (R1) and RbcX (X) before RbcS addition first arose in β-cyanobacteria.
Requirement of additional chaperones factors Raf2 (R2) and BSD2 (B) emerged later
within green plastids. **(B)** Constrained Maximum Likelihood phylogeny of RbcL based
on known species relationships. Ancestral Rubiscos at indicated nodes were
resurrected and characterized. Clades according to their biogenesis requirements and
final assemblies are coloured as per (A), with their designated Form 1 type and host
organisms indicated on the right. Right column panel: The presence or absence of
chaperones within the genomes of extant organisms within corresponding clades shown
to the left in the tree. A putative Raf2-like homolog of a similar fold is found in α-
Cyanobacteria as indicated by the asterisk. Partial or ambiguous classifications were
assigned due to poor genome coverage or hits with low sequence identities. **(C)** Native
PAGE and western blot analysis of ancestral Rubisco-chaperone co-expression
combinations. White arrows indicate L_8S_8 assembly bands, black arrows indicate
chaperonin-bound LSU complexes, and yellow arrows for plausible chaperone-bound
LSU complexes. Bottom row left axis/ grey bars: The amount of Rubisco active sites
shown as percentages relative to total soluble protein obtained from lysate extracts of
co-expressed combinations in the columns above. Error bars represent SDs.
Significance as tested by one-way ANOVA (ANalysis Of VAriance) with post-hoc Tukey
HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test. *n.s.*, nonsignificant; **$P < 0.01$. Data are
from at least three technical replicates as indicated. Bottom row right axis: Rubisco
activities measured in soluble lysate extracts from expression conditions indicated
above at fixed CO_2 (~200 μM) concentrations.
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Figure 2. Changes in the LSU determine catalytic properties and assembly requirements.

(A-D) Kinetic properties of ancestral Rubiscos. **(A)** Carboxylation rates, **(B)** Michaelis constant for CO_2, **(C)** carboxylation efficiency, and **(D)** substrate specificity. **(E)** Native blot analysis of wild type and hybrid ancestral Rubisco assembly with matching or non-matching chaperone pairs. Neither the SSU nor chaperone identities influence the requirement for assembly chaperones. **(F-I)** Comparisons of kinetic parameters exhibited by hybrid AncD/C Rubiscos against wild-type enzymes. LSU identities are observed to dictate kinetic characteristics of hybrid enzymes. For all kinetic data, catalytic parameters extracted from individual Michaelis-Menten fits of replicates are shown as hollow circles, with globally fitted parameters denoted as a horizontal bar. Error bars represent SEs of the global fit. Values of global fits and replicate numbers are further indicated in table. S1 and kinetic curve fits shown in fig. S17.

Figure 3. Dependence on chaperones is decoupled from improved catalysis.

(A) Reduced phylogeny of RbcL between AncD and AncC. The presence or absence of derived substitutions in each cluster is shown on the left, with each row corresponding to the identity of ancestral nodes to the right. **(B)** Native blot analysis of AncC reversion variants carrying ancestral amino acid states at indicated clusters, co-expressed with (bottom row) and without (top row) chaperones. rv: reversion mutant. Black arrows indicate probable chaperonin bound RbcL complexes, White arrows indicate assembled Rubiscos. **(C)** The effect of cluster reversions on assembly yields as in (B), quantified by active site content measurements. Only cluster 2 reversion variant rescues chaperone independent assembly. Significance as tested by one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test. **$P < 0.01$. **(D)** Location of cluster 2 (α4-β5) substitutions in the central solvent channel of Rubisco. On the right, a single L_2S_2 dimer is visualized from the coronal plane within the pore. **(E)** Native blot analysis of wild type and reverted mutant Rubisco from the extant cyanobacterium *G. lithophora*. Reversion of cluster 2 but not cluster 1 states rescue self-assembly. **(F-I)** Reversion of cluster 2 substitutions in AncC (wt and rv2 in green) and *G. lithophora* (wt and rv2 in brown) Rubisco do not perturb catalysis. Kinetic parameters extracted from individual fits of replicates are shown as hollow circles, with global parameters denoted by a horizontal bar. Error bars represent SEs of the global fit. Exact values of global fits and replicate numbers are indicated in table S1 and kinetic fits in fig. S17.

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Figure 4. Persistence of chaperone interactions in the green plastid lineage.

(A) Reduced phylogeny of RbcL between AncC and AncA **(B)** Native blot analysis of
AncA wild type and reverted variants as indicated either in the absence or presence of
assembly chaperones, **(C)** or with prokaryotic (ELS) or eukaryotic (cpn) chaperonin co-
production. cpn: CPN60. chap: Raf1 and RbcX. **(D)** Schematic representation of the
location of chaperone and complex plastid type chaperonin entrenching substitutions
modelled on AncA's Rubisco as predicted by Alphafold 3 (*51*). Clusters 4 and 6
surround initial cluster 2 entrenching substitutions, while cluster 5 substitutions occur in
proximity to the active site of Rubisco, as additionally depicted in Fig. S6A. Right inset:
Cluster 11 substitutions are found at the inter LSU-dimer interface supporting residues
key to inter-LSU dimer interactions. **(F-I)** Kinetic parameters exhibited by assembly
competent AncA Rubisco variants. Kinetic parameters extracted from individual fits are
shown as hollow circles, with global parameters depicted as black horizontal bars.
Errors bars denote SEs of the global fit. Replicate numbers are indicated in table. S1
and fitted kinetic curves in fig. S17.
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