Short title: Chlamydomonas ribosomes and cell cycle under ion stress

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Conserved and Lineage-Specific Roles of KEA-Mediated Ion Homeostasis in *Chlamydomonas*

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One-sentence summary

Disruption of KEA-mediated chloroplast ion homeostasis in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* reveals conserved and lineage-specific control of plastid rRNA processing and cell cycle progression.

Footnotes:

Author Contributions

T.W. and H.-H.K. conceived research idea and wrote the manuscript. T.W. cloned constructs,

isolated algal and plant mutants, performed most experiments, analyzed data, and designed the

figures. L.E. performed single-cell imaging, analyzed image data, designed figures, and wrote

sections. L.J.H. conducted TXRF and analyzed elemental data. C.S. generated plant mutants and

helped with element analysis. L.K. and B.S. performed and assisted in RNA and growth

experiments. J.F. carried out RNA-blots. M.A. isolated algal mutants. F.P. and K.M.S. supported

analysis of single-cell imaging data. M.O. performed transmission electron microscopy. B.B.

assisted with RNA-seq data analysis and visualization. P.G. and L.C.M.M. recombineered

plasmids. Z.M.A. and J.dV. performed cross-species gene network analyses. C.L. and J.O.R.

designed and fabricated hydrogel flow-cell chips. S.M. provided illustration. J.T.T. and J.N.

designed and carried out initial CRISPR/Cas9. All authors assisted in editing the manuscript.

Abstract

In Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*), seamless plastid gene expression and development depend on finely balanced ion homeostasis across the inner envelope (IE) membrane, maintained by the K^+/H^+ antiporters AtKEA1/2. To assess whether these functions are retained across mono- and polyplastidic representatives of the green lineage, we studied CrKEA1, the sole IE KEA homolog in the unicellular alga Chlamydomonas (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*). Using CRISPR/Cas9, we generated a *kea1* knockout mutant that exhibits impaired photoautotrophic growth, chloroplast deformation, and photoinhibition. Transcriptomics revealed strong induction of ribosome biogenesis genes and reduced abundance of transcripts associated with cell and plastid division. Further RNA analyses confirmed defects in stromal rRNA maturation of *kea1*, paralleling observations from Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* mutants. Expression of *CrKEA1* in Arabidopsis rescued growth and rRNA maturation in *kea1kea2*, demonstrating functional continuity after the ancient divergence between the two lineages. Cross-species transcriptomic comparisons further revealed that *KEA* loss elicits both shared and species-specific transcriptional responses: *PhANG* repression was conserved between algae and plants, whereas activation of the chloroplast unfolded protein response (cpUPR) and reduced expression of genes tied to cell-cycle and plastid fission occurred only in Chlamydomonas. Single-cell time-lapse imaging confirmed that *kea1* exhibits an increased rate of aberrant cytokinesis, unequal division, and cell death. Our findings demonstrate that while IE KEA transporters fulfill conserved roles in maintaining the conditions for a functional plastid gene expression machinery, their integration into broader cellular networks has diverged between algae and land plants. This underscores a lineage-dependent tuning of plastid-to-nucleus communication shaped by organismal complexity and plastid number.

Introduction

A balanced ionic milieu is essential for plastid biogenesis and function. In Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana)*, disruption of the inner envelope (IE) K^+/H^+ antiporters KEA1 and KEA2 produces a virescent phenotype i.e., pale young leaves that eventually develop into green photosynthesizing tissue (Kunz et al., 2014). Subsequent work revealed that the essential role of KEA1/2 in plastid integrity and photosynthetic performance is linked to plastid gene expression and rRNA maturation (DeTar et al., 2021). These findings demonstrate a strong connection between organellar ion homeostasis and chloroplast biogenesis.

Dissecting this link mechanistically in plant cells is complicated due to their multicellular
organization and polyplastidy: Plants typically harbor cells with dozens of plastids displaying
heterogeneous behavior depending on tissue context and developmental stage (Knoblauch et al.,
2024; Renna et al., 2025). This cellular heterogeneity makes it challenging to distinguish direct,
plastid-autonomous consequences of ion imbalance from secondary effects at the tissue or
organismal level.

Interestingly, unicellular algae maintain a single plastid per cell. de Vries and Gould, 2018
described the evolutionary framework of the "monoplastidic bottleneck", which posits that the
ancestor of all Archaeplastida (Figure 1A) passed through a stage where plastid and host cell
division were strictly synchronized. The unicellular green algae Chlamydomonas
(*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*), with its single cup-shaped chloroplast, represents a bona fide
example of this ancestral state. In contrast, land plants such as Arabidopsis, have since evolved
polyplastidy and decoupled plastid division from the nuclear cycle. Thus, Chlamydomonas is an
ideal model to study the direct relation between plastid physiology, cell growth, and division, as
each cell depends on a single plastid for both metabolism and successful cytokinesis.

Despite around a billion years of divergence between chlorophyte algae and streptophyte
plants (Figure 1A), IE KEA transporters are conserved across the green lineage, and orthologs are
present in green algae (Kunz et al., 2024). This conservation raises the question of whether KEA
proteins maintain mechanistic similarity or whether their roles have been rewired in line with
lineage-specific cellular contexts.

In this study, we employ Chlamydomonas for an initial investigation into how KEA-
mediated ion transport across plastid envelope membranes influences the organelle's function, cell
physiology, and cell cycle in a unicellular, monoplastidic organism. By combining mutant
analyses, transcriptome comparisons with Arabidopsis (DeTar et al., 2021), and cross-species
complementation, we show that KEA function is a prerequisite for maintaining the integrity of
ribosome biogenesis. Leveraging the complementary strengths of a multicellular polyplastidic
plant and a unicellular monoplastidic alga (Gutman and Niyogi, 2004), we provide evidence that
KEA's importance for plastid gene expression is deeply conserved, while its cellular consequences
are shaped by lineage-specific developmental context.

Results

Generation of CrKEA1 knock-out and complementation lines for subcellular localization studies

of CrKEA1

KEA genes are conserved from green algae to angiosperms (Chanroj et al., 2012). Through

amino acid sequence homology analysis, we identified Cre04.g220200 (*CrKEA1*) as the only

homolog of inner envelope (IE) K^+/H^+ exchangers AtKEA1/2 from Arabidopsis in

Chlamydomonas (see alignment, Supplemental Figure S1). The conserved monovalent

cation/proton antiporter 2 (CPA2) domain and the regulatory K^+ transport and NAD-binding

(KTN) domain share 56% sequence identity and 71% similarity between plant and algae KEA1.

In contrast, the extended N-terminal region (~500 amino acids) — a characteristic feature of all IE

KEAs that includes a coiled-coil domain embedded within a highly disordered segment (Chanroj

et al., 2012; Bölter et al., 2020) — is far less conserved, showing only 13% identity and 29%

similarity.

To investigate CrKEA1 function in Chlamydomonas, we initially generated a CrKEA1

antibody (Supplemental Figure S2, A-C) with a detection sensitivity against its antigen

(CrKEA1_aa94-337) in the picogram range (Supplemental Figure S2D). We attempted to utilize

mutant strain LMJ.RY0402.187220, which at the time was the only CLiP insertion line in the

CrKEA1 locus (Li et al., 2016). However, protein expression in wild type (WT) cells and

LMJ.RY0402.187220 was clearly detectable at an apparent size of ~120 kDa (calculated size 108

kDa for full length size, without estimated chloroplast targeting peptide, cTP, ~101 kDa),

confirming functionality of the CrKEA1 antibody with Chlamydomonas protein extracts but also

that the CLiP line had not lost CrKEA1 (Supplemental Figure S2E). We therefore turned towards

an established CRISPR/Cas9 protocol (Kelterborn et al., 2022) to generate *CrKEA1* knock-out

strains ourselves. We successfully isolated a *kea1* mutant with a stop codon insertion in exon 19

(Figure 1B), which was confirmed by PCR screening and Sanger sequencing (Supplemental Figure

S3, A-D; Supplemental Table S1). Immunoblotting further verified the loss of full-length CrKEA1

(Figure 1C; Supplemental Figure S3E). Lastly, we sequenced the genome of *kea1*, which allowed

us to annotate the entire insertion site (Supplemental Figure S3F, Figure S4) and to verify the

absence of additional CRISPR/Cas9-mediated insertions in this background.

To analyze the subcellular localization of CrKEA1, we generated complementation lines

by transforming *kea1* with *CrKEA1* fused to a *YFP* at the C-terminus under the control of its native

promoter. Immunoblotting with the CrKEA1 antibody confirmed CrKEA1-YFP expression,

detecting a band at ~140 kDa that migrated ~30 kDa larger compared to the endogenous signal

(Figure 1C; Supplemental Figure S5A) — consistent with the added YFP tag (calculated 138 kDa

full length, 132 kDa without cTP). Subsequently, we performed fluorescence microscopy and

found the YFP fluorescence signal to emerge from the membrane that surrounds the chlorophyll

autofluorescence. This confirms that CrKEA1, consistent with its plant homologs, resides in the

plastid envelope membrane (Figure 1D; Supplemental Figure S5B).

Hampered growth upon loss of CrKEA1 in kea1 strains

Chlamydomonas can grow hetero- and mixotrophically on acetate-supplemented TAP

medium or autotrophically in HSM medium, relying entirely on CO_2 fixation via RuBisCO (Sager

and Zalokar, 1958; Harris et al., 2009; Grossman et al., 2010; Lauersen et al., 2016). To assess the

impact of CrKEA1 loss, we tested our strains under different growth conditions at 23°C. Initially,

we employed agar plates and liquid cultures at 25 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} (hereafter abbreviated as

µE) of light to avoid stress exposure of potentially affected mutants. On TAP plates, slightly

decreased growth was observed for *kea1* only at $\leq 10^4$ spotted cells. This effect was more prevalent

if mutant cells were grown autotrophically on HSM plates. Here, genotype-specific differences

already emerged at cell numbers between 10^6 and 10^5. In both cases, the expression of CrKEA1-

YFP in the *kea1* background restored WT growth behavior (Figure 1E). The slow growth of *kea1*

cells replicated well in liquid cultures. Again, the absence of acetate clearly exacerbated this effect;

even after nine days of culturing, *kea1* reached only half the cell number as WT and the *CrKEA1-*

YFP complemented the *kea1* strain (Figure 1F).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) reveals deformed chloroplasts and swollen cells in kea1

To learn more about the slowly growing mutant cells, we examined cell and chloroplast

ultrastructure in WT, *kea1*, and *CrKEA1–YFP* complementation lines by transmission electron

microscopy (TEM; Figure 1G, H; Supplemental Figure S5C). WT and *CrKEA1–YFP*

complemented *kea1* cells consistently displayed the canonical, cup-shaped chloroplast with well-

defined lobes, regular thylakoid lamellae, and a distinct pyrenoid matrix. In contrast, *kea1* cells

had a strikingly different appearance under these conditions: 1) the characteristic cup morphology

of the chloroplast was lost i.e., plastids assumed a more spheroidal (globular) shape, without the

pronounced lobes seen in WT and complemented strains; 2) thylakoid bundles within spherical

chloroplasts were highly disordered and lost, in contrast to the lamellar arrays of the WT; 3) the

pyrenoid, a critical hub for carbon fixation (Catherall et al., 2025), was disintegrated in the majority

of *kea1* cells, suggesting that CrKEA1 permitted ion exchange may be essential for proper

pyrenoid assembly or stability; 4) Finally, cell and plastid size variation was markedly increased

in the mutant population, pointing to a loss of volume homeostasis. Together, these observations

suggest a role of CrKEA1 in maintaining chloroplast shape, thylakoid organization, pyrenoid

integrity, and by extension, cellular architecture (Figure 1G-H; Supplemental Figure S5C).

kea1 mutant cells exhibit deviant ion content

To assess whether the growth defects of the *kea1* mutant are associated with disturbed ion

homeostasis, we quantified the elemental composition of whole cells using total reflection X-ray

fluorescence (TXRF; Holzner et al., 2025). WT, *kea1*, and the complementation line (*CrKEA1-*

YFP in *kea1*) were analyzed from TAP cultures grown at 25 µE. Overall, elemental profiles per

cell were close to the values reported previously (Merchant et al., 2020; Schmollinger et al., 2021;

Figure 2). Potassium (K^+) content was higher in *kea1* than in WT, while several other elements

also showed elevated values, consistent with the larger average cell size of the mutants. The

complementation line displayed intermediate K^+ levels between mutant and WT. Because IE KEA-

type transporters mediate K^+ export from the chloroplast and not from the cell, even a severe

internal ionic imbalance may only modestly impact whole-cell K^+ accumulation.

Loss of CrKEA1 results in a light-dependent decrease in photosynthetic performance

To investigate whether the observed growth defects correlate with impaired photosynthetic

performance, we recorded electron transport rates (ETR) during step-wise light intensity

(photosynthetically active radiation; PAR) increases. Interestingly, once light intensities surpassed

the moderate range ≥80 PAR, *kea1* cells revealed lower ETR indicative of higher light

susceptibility than WT and the complementation line (Figure 3A). A similar effect was observed

in drop cultures. While the maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_v/F_m) did not differ between

genotypes at 0–20 µE, stepwise increases in light intensity (every hour) caused a stronger decline

in F_v/F_m in *kea1* compared to WT and the complementation line (Figure 3B).

For additional insight, we established a light intensity shift routine for liquid cultures.

Initially, F_v/F_m was determined in all three genotypes grown at 25 µE either in HSM or TAP media.

Regardless of the growth media used, no clear differences emerged across the strains. However, if

the same genotypes were shifted to standard moderate light conditions (100 µE; Bialevich et al.,

2022) for 24 h, a clear F_v/F_m drop was noticeable for the mutant (Figure 3C). Subsequent

incubation for 24 h at 25 µE restored F_v/F_m to baseline levels.

In summary, *kea1* mutants are highly light sensitive and show clear photosynthetic defects,

which are fully rescued by *CrKEA1-YFP* expression, confirming loss of *CrKEA1* as the causative

mutation. While low light intensities (25 µE) are mostly permissive for *kea1*, PSII efficiency

declines sharply under moderate light (~100 µE).

Flow cytometry shows increased cell sizes for kea1 shifted from low to moderate light

Next, we examined the response of TAP and HSM cultures to the light shift using flow

cytometry (Figure 3D; Supplemental Figure S6). Regardless of the growth medium, *kea1* cells

were slightly larger in size based on FSC-A values at low light (25 µE). 48 h after the shift to

moderate light (100 µE), cell size increased for both media across all genotypes. However, *kea1*

cultures showed the strongest increase in cell size and broadening of the size distribution. After

48 h of moderate light treatment, calibration indicated average volume increases of 19% in TAP

and 23% in HSM for WT, 9% in TAP and 19% in HSM for the *CrKEA1-YFP* line, and 97% in

TAP and 67% in HSM for *kea1* (Supplemental Table S2). Using SSC-A as a proxy for cell

complexity, changes in the *kea1* mutant (82%) by far exceeded those in WT (-4%) and the

complemented line (6%) under TAP conditions. A similar trend was observed in HSM, with

complexity increases of 52% for *kea1*, 19% for WT, and 4% for the *CrKEA1-YFP* line

(Supplemental Table 3).

Transcriptome profiling during light acclimation reveals that the absence of KEA1 alters ribosome
biogenesis, plastid fission and cell cycle regulation

Given the impaired physiological performance of *kea1* mutant cells upon shift into

moderate light, we sought to identify biological processes affected by the loss of *CrKEA1* through

characterizing the underlying transcriptional responses. To this end, we performed RNA

sequencing (RNA-seq) on cultures subjected to the established light shift regime. Cells grown

under low light (LL, 25 µE) were exposed to moderate light (ML, µE) for 8 h, followed by a 24 h

low-light recovery phase (RL, 25 µE) (Figure 4A). The experiment was set up with TAP medium

to ensure that *kea1* cells experience stress but not the exacerbated defects observed in HSM. Ribo-

depleted libraries were prepared to capture the full extent of transcriptional changes, including
organellar transcripts.

For physiological validation of the light treatment, we again recorded F_v/F_m at each
sampling point. While there was no genotype-specific difference at the onset of the experiments
i.e., at 25 µE, only 8 h at 100 µE induced clear PSII photoinhibition (F_v/F_m drop) in *kea1* mutants.
By contrast, WT cells readily acclimated to the changing light regime (Figure 4A; Supplemental
Figure S7A). Following the RL phase, PSII quantum yield was fully restored in all genotypes..

Multidimensional scaling (MDS) showed tight clustering of replicates (*n*=4) and a stronger
genotype separation under ML (Supplemental Figure S7B). Consistent with this, the number of
significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs, adjusted p-value < 0.05) under LL (1419
DEGs) went up >6-fold under ML (7632 DEGs) but back down at RL conditions (1370 DEGs)
(Figure 4A; Supplemental Table S4). In addition, ML DEGs were more strongly deregulated, i.e.,
more DEGs above the $|\log_2 FC| \geq 1$ threshold than under other light conditions.

Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analyses highlighted a coordinated shift in cellular
programs under ML (Figure 4B; Supplemental Table S5): Upregulated DEGs were strongly
enriched for *ribosome biogenesis*, including *rRNA processing*. Both categories contained cytosolic
and plastid ribosome biogenesis components. Downregulated categories included *cell cycle*, *DNA*
replication, *chromatin organization*, and *microtubule-based processes*, which to some degree are
intertwined.

Consistent with this, a detailed analysis of transcript changes in the tested conditions
revealed a broad upregulation of ribosome-related genes when *kea1* cells were exposed to
moderate light (Figure 4C). By contrast, cell cycle–related genes were by and large downregulated
in *kea1* cells under these light conditions (Figure 4D). While *CDKA1*, the major driver of the G1/S
transition (Tulin and Cross, 2014), was unchanged, multiple key regulators of the Chlamydomonas
cell cycle were expressed below WT-level in *kea1*: Expression of genes controlling S/M transitions
by blocking spindle formation was strongly decreased, including *CDKB1(2)* and its activating
cyclins (*CYCA1*, *CYCB1*). Three of the D-type cyclins, which mediate G1/S entry (Bisova et al.,
2005), were mildly reduced (~2-fold for *CYCD3, 5*). In addition, transcript accumulation for both
CDKG1, which becomes induced when cells reach sufficient size for division (Li et al., 2016), and
for *MAT3*, a retinoblastoma homolog regulating the commitment to division (Umen and

Goodenough, 2001), were slightly diminished. Together, these changes provide evidence that the

cell cycle entry and S/M cycling might be affected in the *kea1* mutants (Supplemental Figure S7E).

225   Interestingly, most transcripts associated with the GO term *plastid fission* were markedly

226   reduced in light-shifted *kea1* cells (Figure 4E), suggesting a link between KEA1 function in the

227   plastid envelope membrane and chloroplast division control in algae.

228   *The absence of KEA1 triggers PhANG suppression but an induction of PGE and protein*

229   *homeostasis genes*

230   Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* mutants display delayed chloroplast biogenesis caused by activation

of GUN1-dependent retrograde signaling, which suppresses the expression of GOLDEN2-LIKE

transcription factors and their downstream gene cluster of photosynthesis-associated nuclear genes

(PhANGs; DeTar et al., 2021). Hence, we also curated a PhANG list for Chlamydomonas.

Interestingly, *kea1* showed a clear repression of genes encoding for light-harvesting complexes,

photosystem subunits, and chlorophyll biosynthesis enzymes under ML (Figure 4F), which is

reminiscent of the response described for *kea1kea2* plant mutants (DeTar et al., 2021).

Furthermore, among downregulated genes, also photosynthesis-related GO terms were enriched

in the Chlamydomonas *kea1* mutant (Figure 4B). By contrast, plastid-encoded photosynthesis

genes were largely unaffected, though transcripts for plastid transcription/translation components

(e.g., RNA polymerase subunits, ribosomal proteins), essential for plastid gene expression (PGE),

were elevated in *kea1* compared to WT (Figure 4G; Supplemental Figure S7G). This suggests that

the photosynthetic decline may not only arise from a transcriptional repression within the plastid,

but in addition from defective translation, consistent with the general enrichment of ribosome

biogenesis transcripts.

245   Other DEG categories were more selective. Chloroplast-encoded genes for chlorophyll

biosynthesis were unchanged in *kea1* (Supplemental Figure S7G). Likewise, *HMOX* and *GUN4*,

which regulate tetrapyrrole and bilin synthesis relevant for retrograde signaling in

Chlamydomonas (Duanmu et al., 2013), were unaffected. However, bilin-synthesis gene *PCYA*

was upregulated under ML (Figure 3H). Chlamydomonas lacks close *GOLDEN2-LIKE*

transcription factor homologs and probably relies mainly on a bilin-derived retrograde signaling

pathway to repress PhANGs and facilitate acclimation (Duanmu et al., 2013; Richter et al., 2023).

Hence, the observed *PCYA* induction likely contributes to the reduced PhANG expression
observed in *kea1*.

Next, we examined nuclear genes implicated in protein homeostasis, ROS defense, and
photoprotection (Figure 4H). Plastid-encoded quality control proteins, namely *PsbN* involved in
PSII repair and the proteases *ClpP* and *FtsH*, were mildly upregulated in *kea1* under ML, while
nuclear-encoded PSII repair factors (*HCF136*, *TerC1*, *ALB3*, *PsbW*, *PsbY*; Plöchinger 2016)
showed no consistent change with a tendency for down-regulation. Several ROS-related genes
(*GPX5*, *MBS*, *SOR1*, *VTC2*) were upregulated in the mutant under ML, whereas photoprotection
factors (qE/NPQ) showed mixed patterns: *PSBS* transcripts were elevated in the mutant, but
LHCSR induction was attenuated relative to WT. In turn, *SPA1*, a component of the E3 ubiquitin
ligase complex (CUL4-DDB1-LRS1-SPA) involved in repression of PSBS- and LHCSR-mediated
qE (Gabilly et al., 2019; Aihara et al., 2019), was downregulated, implying altered control of qE
responses in *kea1*.

Because higher expression of protein quality control genes (*ClpP* and *FTSH*) was observed
in the plastid, we also analyzed markers of the chloroplast unfolded protein response (cpUPR).
Genes encoding cpUPR components—including *VIPP2* (sensing), *MARS1* (signaling), and
markers such as *CLPB3*, *DEG1C*, *FTSH2*, *HSP22E/F*, and *HSP70B* (Ramundo et al., 2014; Perlaza
et al., 2019; Theis et al., 2020)—were consistently upregulated in *kea1* compared to WT (Figure
4H), in most cases already at LL conditions i.e., 25 µE.

Expression of ion transporters in kea1 is altered under low and moderate light

When analyzing genes upregulated ($\log_2$FC $\geq$ 1) in *kea1* LL conditions, the GO term
potassium transport (GO:0006813) was significantly enriched (Supplemental Table S5). Within
this group, several HAK/KUP/KT-type high-affinity K^+ transporters (*HAK2*, *HAK4*) and
Na^+/SO_4^{2-} transporter-like genes (*SLT1-SLT3*) showed elevated transcript levels in the mutant
compared to WT (Figure 4I, Supplemental Figure S7F). These transporter families have previously
been linked to K^+ and sulfate acquisition and to the maintenance of cellular ion balance (Li et al.,
2023; Pootakham et al., 2010).

Inspection of the complete gene set within the potassium-transport category revealed that
expression changes persisted or became more pronounced under moderate light (ML). The same
transporters that were induced under LL remained among the most strongly upregulated genes

under ML, except *HAK2*, which decreased relative to WT. Additional transporters, including

HAK3 and *NAK1*, the sole Na^+/K^+-ATPase-like pump homolog in Chlamydomonas, were also

induced. NAK1 and HAK-like proteins respond to low-potassium and saline stress and mediate

cytosolic K^+ and Na^+ homeostasis (Li et al., 2023). Hence, their upregulation in *kea1* suggests a

disturbance in cellular ion homeostasis and activation of low-potassium–responsive pathways,

possibly reflecting altered K^+ partitioning causing cytosolic potassium deficiency or impaired ion

signaling between the chloroplast and cytosol (Figure 4I).

Across the light-shift experiment, *SLT* and *HAK* family members, along with other

significant genes from this GO term, followed a similar trend in *kea1* (and partially in WT) in

response to the light treatment: transcript levels increased under ML and declined again during

recovery (RL), but transcription was consistently higher in the *kea1* mutant than in the WT

(Supplemental Figure S7F).

KCN11, a tonoplast K^+ channel required for osmoregulation, also showed significantly elevated

transcript levels ($log_2FC = 0.43$) in *kea1* under ML (Figure 4I). The upregulation of KCN11 in

kea1 thus supports the interpretation that loss of *CrKEA1* perturbs osmotic balance, consistent with

broader alterations in ion homeostasis.

In summary, loss of *CrKEA1* triggers a multifaceted transcriptional response pointing

towards a dual role for CrKEA1-dependent ion homeostasis in maintaining chloroplast translation

capacity and safeguarding protein folding.

Species-Specific Consequences of KEA1 Loss for Plastid and Cell Cycle Regulation

Having observed similar transcriptional upregulation of ribosome biogenesis genes in both

species upon *KEA* loss, we aimed to directly compare the broader transcriptomic responses

between Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis IE *KEA* knockouts. To this end, we re-analyzed RNA-

seq data from Arabidopsis WT and *kea1kea2* mutants (DeTar et al., 2021; Supplemental Table S6)

and compared it with the RNA-seq data from the Chlamydomonas *kea1* mutant. To identify genes

commonly or uniquely regulated in response to IE *KEA1* disruption across species, we mapped

Chlamydomonas DEGs to their closest Arabidopsis homologs and categorized the results into

three groups: shared DEGs (genes differentially expressed in both species) and species-specific

DEGs (Supplemental Table S7).

GO term enrichment analyses on these categories (Figure 5A; Supplemental Table S8)
revealed that DEGs involved in ribosome biogenesis were largely shared between the two species,
indicating a conserved stress response linked to impaired rRNA maturation. In contrast, DEGs
related to the cell cycle were exclusively found in Chlamydomonas, suggesting a lineage-specific
consequence of *KEA1* loss on cell division control.

The Arabidopsis-specific DEGs were enriched for GO terms associated with, i.e.,
responses to various stimuli, including light, red and far-red light signaling, wounding, and
regulation of multicellular development—consistent with the plants' complex tissue architecture
and photomorphogenic signaling networks (Figure 5A).

A direct comparison at the level of DEGs further confirmed that ribosome biogenesis genes
are upregulated in both species (Figure 5B). However, cell cycle–related genes are strongly
downregulated in Chlamydomonas but not significantly altered in Arabidopsis. Interestingly, most
genes related to plastid fission showed opposite trends: they were downregulated (*MINE*, *MIND*,
FTSZ1, *ARC5*, *ARC6*) in Chlamydomonas but many slightly upregulated in Arabidopsis (*FTSZ1*,
ARC6, which are conserved in both) or not-significant (*MIND*). However, key plastid division
genes, like *PDV1* and *PDV2*, which are unique to land plants and determine plastid division rate
(Miyagishima et al., 2006; Okazaki et al., 2009, Holtsmark et al., 2013), and *MINE* and *ARC5*,
were slightly down-regulated in Arabidopsis.

Plastid rRNA processing is impaired in both At and Cr kea1 mutants

Given the transcriptional upregulation of ribosome biogenesis genes in both Arabidopsis
and Chlamydomonas IE *KEA* mutants (Figure 5B), we examined whether loss of *CrKEA1* in algae
also disrupts plastid rRNA maturation, leading to the accumulation of unprocessed rRNA
precursors as observed in plants (DeTar et al., 2021; DeTar et al., 2022). Notably, plastid rRNA
processing differs between the two lineages in several important aspects: 1) Arabidopsis generates
a 4.5S rRNA fragment from the 23S precursor, whereas Chlamydomonas instead produces the
distinct 7S and 3S fragments cleaved from the opposite end (Holloway and Herrin, 1998; Ahmed
et al., 2016; Schmid et al., 2024); 2) Chlorophytes employ much more octotricopeptide repeat
(OPR) RNA-binding proteins (RBP) while plants rely heavily on pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR)
proteins (Small et al., 2023). However, both systems rely on precise cleavage of large precursor

transcripts into functional ribosomal RNAs, which involves temporal sequence-specific RNA-
RBP interactions (Supplemental Figure S8).

To test for stromal rRNA maturation defects in Chlamydomonas, we analyzed total RNA
from *kea1* and WT cultures using rRNA sequencing. Initially, all stromal rRNA reads from *kea1*
and WT were aligned akin to previous studies (Hotto et al., 2015; Castandet et al., 2016). This
approach revealed increased read coverage within intergenic regions in *kea1*, particularly in the
7S and 3S regions derived from the 23S precursor. Since these fragments are removed during
rRNA maturation, their high abundance in *kea1* indicated mutant-specific accumulation of
unprocessed rRNA intermediates (Figure 6A, Supplemental Figure S9A, B). To corroborate these
observations, we carried out RNA blots employing stromal rRNA-specific probes. Indeed, a clear
accumulation of the 7S-3S-23S precursor was specifically observed in *kea1* cells (Figure 6B,
Supplemental Figure S10A, B). Splicing defects did not change with light shifts, but they were
less abundant in cells grown in TAP medium.

In summary, results from our RNA analyses suggest that despite significant differences in
rRNA structures and processing pathways between algae and land plants, the importance of IE
KEAs for seamless plastid rRNA processing is functionally conserved between chlorophytes and
streptophytes.

Functional conservation of IE KEA transporters between algae and higher plants

The rRNA processing phenotypes observed in plants and green algae suggest functional
conservation of IE KEAs across the green lineage. We therefore tested whether CrKEA1 can
substitute for its homologs AtKEA1/2 in Arabidopsis. Despite substantial amino acid sequence
divergence between CrKEA1 and AtKEA1, structural predictions generated with AlphaFold3
(DeepMind; Abramson et al., 2024) indicate a broadly conserved domain architecture (Figure 6C;
Supplemental Figure S11A-C; Gulati et al., 2024). Initially, we cloned full-length *CrKEA1* with a
C-terminal YFP. The finished construct *CrKEA1-YFP* was transformed into the *kea1-1kea2-1*
(hereafter simply *kea1kea2*) Arabidopsis mutant allele (Kunz et al., 2014). Several independent
transgenic *CrKEA1-YFP* lines exhibited robust complementation i.e., growth, leaf area, fresh
weight, and photosynthetic performance (F_v/F_m and ETR) were restored close to WT levels (Figure
6D; Supplemental Figure S12). Subsequent immunoblotting confirmed the accumulation of
CrKEA1-YFP in the transgenic lines at the expected apparent size of ~140 kDa (Figure 6E).

Next, we conducted RNA blots with WT, *kea1kea2*, and *CrKEA1-YFP* complemented lines

and found that CrKEA1-YFP restores plastid 23S rRNA processing (Figure 6F).

Together, these findings demonstrate that despite a billion years of divergence, CrKEA1

retains sufficient functional similarity to AtKEA1/2, which reveals a strong evolutionary

conservation of K^+/H^+–mediated effects on ribosome biogenesis. Curiously, when expressed in

Arabidopsis, CrKEA1-YFP localized in discrete, rod-like structures, whereas the endogenous

AtKEA1-YFP appeared in discrete spots (Figure 6G).

Comparison of co-expression networks reveals a divergent cell cycle embedding in Arabidopsis

and Chlamydomonas

Since the GO terms *cell cycle* and *plastid fission* were affected in the Chlamydomonas

mutant but not in Arabidopsis, we carried out an in-depth comparison between the respective co-

expression networks (Figure 7A). Direct co-expression involves "*gene to gene*" interactions, while

secondary co-expression involves "*gene to intermediary gene to gene*" interactions. In the

Chlamydomonas co-expression network (ML condition based), *ARC5*, *ARC6*, and *MIND,* all

scoring a $\log_2$FC < -2, were found to be secondary neighbors in a shared cluster with cell cycle

genes: e.g., *MIND* with the key *cell cycle* gene *CDKB1(2)* but also *ARC5* with *TOPII*, *TPX2*,

AUR2, *MCM5*, *WEE1* that were similarly downregulated with a $\log_2$FC < -1. This indicates that

both biological processes have tightly co-expressed interactions resulting in unidirectional

expression changes.

Interestingly, in Arabidopsis co-expression networks, *cell cycle* genes show little to no

regulatory concordance with *plastid fission* genes. Transcripts of *ARC5*, *PDV1*, and *PDV2*

displayed $\log_2$FC values between -0.75 and 0, while *FTSZ2-1*, *FTSZ2-2*, *ARC6*, *MSL2*, *MSL3*,

MCD1, *KASI*, *MURE*, and *AT2G21280* (*GC1*) ranged between 0 and 0.75, indicating that

regulating these genes in response to the loss of IE *KEA* had little biological significance for

Arabidopsis. While certain genes involved in Arabidopsis chloroplast division were regulated with

absolute values higher than a $|\log_2$FC$|$ of 0.75 (ie. upregulated *YLMG1-1* and *FTSHi1*), they were

not concertedly downregulated with *cell cycle* genes as in Chlamydomonas.

To further substantiate co-expression between *cell cycle* and *plastid fission* genes, we

plotted the percentage of co-expressed interactions (direct and secondary) for each species (Figure

7B). Within the Arabidopsis co-expression network, 5.3% (4 genes) are direct interactors, while

94.7% (72 genes) are secondary interactors. However, none of these genes were strongly
($|\log_2 FC| \geq 0.75$) differentially expressed in *kea1kea2* mutants. For Chlamydomonas, 100% (4
genes) of the genes are involved in secondary interactions, with 75% (*ARC5*, *ARC6, MIND*)
showing co-regulated downregulation.

To identify orthologs of *cell cycle* genes in Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis, we used an
orthogonal approach building on CoNekT (Figure 7C). When comparing co-expression clusters of
TOPII, we found several *cell cycle* genes were orthologs between species. *ROW1*, *MCM10*,
PAKRP1L, *POK1*, *POK2*, *ZCF125* were found to have orthologs within Chlamydomonas that were
not annotated by best BLAST hits. Within this gene family, three Chlamydomonas genes were
grouped together with seven genes. For *plastid fission* genes, no apparent similarity between
Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis clusters were found. This analysis also indicates that the
biological process *cell cycle* in Chlamydomonas showed certain similarities with Arabidopsis.

Single-Cell Time-Lapse Imaging Reveals Cell Cycle irregularities in kea1

kea1 mutant cells displayed pronounced size distribution differences in micrographs and
when analyzed by flow cytometry (Figure 3D). In addition, coordinated downregulation of cell
cycle and chloroplast division genes was observed in the *kea1* transcriptome (Figure 4D, E). In
Chlamydomonas, cell division proceeds via a multiple fission cycle, in which cells undergo n
divisions (S/M phase) into 2^n daughter cells after a prolonged G1 phase. The size of the mother
cell determines the number of divisions resulting in 2, 4, 8, 16, etc. equally sized daughter cells
(Figure 8A; Cross and Umen, 2015).

The intrinsic heterogeneity of batch cultures poses substantial challenges for the
identification of cell cycle stage-specific defects. To overcome these limitations, we developed a
live-imaging platform capable of tracking individual cells over several days. Cells were applied to
a custom-made, biologically inert hydrogel with multiple chambers embedded in a flow cell chip
(Figure 8B). Our design allows for tight temperature- and light-control, constant medium flow,
nutrient diffusion, and continuous imaging throughout Chlamydomonas cell division cycles. In
addition, the multiple chambers situated on a single chip enabled simultaneous side-by-side growth
and monitoring of WT and *kea1* mutant strains under the exact same controlled culturing
conditions in TAP medium at 25 µE (Figure 1G).

WT cells displayed regular and symmetric division with high fidelity, verifying ideal and
well-suited growth conditions in our continuous flow cell chip setup (Figure 8C; Supplemental
Figure S13A). By contrast, our analysis revealed several key differences in the mutant compared
to WT: *kea1* cells were significantly larger than WT cells during every segment of the G1-division
cycle (Figure 8D). Interestingly, the elevated volume of *kea1* cells can be traced back to the mid-
G1 phase (Supplemental Figure S13B), when mutant cells exhibit a significantly higher volume
increase than WT. Additionally, mutant cells not only remained longer in the G1 phase (Figure
8E) but also took longer to complete the S/M phase (Figure 8F).

Upon closer examination, specific cytokinesis defects were observed more frequently in
kea1 mutants: 1) Divisions often produced daughter cells of unequal size (Figure 8G), hinting at a
misplaced division plane. Further analysis of mutant daughter cells revealed that these birth
volume deviations did not affect subsequent G1-division cycle length differences compared to
those of WT daughters (Supplemental Figure S13C). 2) Re-merging of seemingly already divided
cells multiple hours into the G1 phase was observed in approximately 3% of all *kea1* divisions but
was never detected in WT (Figure 8H). Remerged cells divided into 3 or 5 daughter cells after
completing their G1 phase (Supplemental Figure S13A), possibly due to two coexisting nuclei in
a single remerged cell.

Our single-cell imaging revealed pronounced defects in cell cycle progression and division
fidelity, confirming the transcriptomic observations.

Discussion

Plastid integrity relies on tightly controlled ion fluxes across the inner envelope membrane.
Our findings establish CrKEA1 as the functional counterpart of AtKEA1/2 in Arabidopsis, adding
experimental evidence to the hypothesis that KEA function in the envelope must have been
established very early in the evolutionary history of plastids i.e., the endosymbiotic event. Loss of
CrKEA1 impairs plastid structure, photosynthesis, ribosome biogenesis, and cell cycle regulation
in Chlamydomonas, revealing both deep conservation and lineage-specific divergence in KEA
function across the green lineage (Figure 9).

In Arabidopsis, disruption of *AtKEA1/2* causes increased cellular potassium levels, fragile
chloroplasts, impaired photosynthesis, and growth (Kunz et al., 2014; Aranda-Sicilia et al., 2016).
We observed similar defects in *kea1* mutants, including altered ion balance, growth delay,

spherical plastids lacking the characteristic cup shape, and reduced photosynthetic efficiency.
These parallels indicate that KEA activity at the plastid envelope might be broadly required for
maintaining the ion homeostasis necessary for plastid ultrastructure and function. The strong
conservation of this role was underscored by cross-species complementation, in which CrKEA1
restored growth, photosynthesis, and rRNA processing in Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* mutants. This
accentuates the potentially fundamental role of IE KEAs in supporting cellular biochemistry by
maintaining pH and ion homeostasis in phototropic eukaryotes — a function that may have been
conserved since the last common ancestor, likely persisting through more than a billion years of
evolutionary divergence (for molecular clock, see Strassert et al., 2021 and Bierenbroodspot et al.,
2025).

Consistent with this deep evolutionary conservation are the parallels between plants and
algae in the role of KEA transporters in plastid rRNA maturation. In Arabidopsis, loss of
AtKEA1/2 disrupts rRNA processing and plastid translation (DeTar et al., 2021). Similarly,
Chlamydomoans *kea1* mutants accumulated unprocessed 23S-derived precursors, in accordance
with impaired maturation. Although the 23S rRNA maturation pathways differ between algae and
plants — Chlamydomonas generates unique 7S and 3S fragments, whereas Arabidopsis produces
a separate 4.5S rRNA from the opposite end of the 23S precursor — the accumulation of immature
rRNA in Chlamydomonas *kea1* closely mirrors the maturation defects seen in Arabidopsis
kea1kea2 (DeTar et al., 2021; DeTar et al., 2022). Structural work offers a mechanistic basis for
this observation, showing that potassium and magnesium ions are required to stabilize rRNA and
the large ribosomal subunit (Nierhaus, 2014; Rozov et al., 2019; Klein et al., 2004). Ion imbalance
in *kea1* mutants could therefore destabilize rRNA precursors and interfere with their proper
processing, or indirectly affect maturation through feedback on ribosome assembly (DeTar et al.,
2021). Together, our findings strengthen the model that ion imbalance destabilizes rRNA
secondary structures and disrupts ribosome biogenesis across systems, despite lineage-specific
differences in processing outcomes.

Transcriptomic profiling revealed a conserved upregulation of ribosome biogenesis genes
and downregulation of PhANGs in *kea1*, mirroring the Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* response (DeTar et
al., 2021). In both species, repression of photosynthetic gene expression likely reflects a protective
adjustment to plastid dysfunction. In Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* mutants, the retrograde response is a
GUN1-mediated GOLDEN2-LIKE (GLK1/GLK2) transcription factor suppression to delay

chloroplast biogenesis, thereby minimizing photo-oxidative damage until stress has been resolved

(DeTar et al., 2021; Richter et al., 2023). However, this regulatory logic is unlikely to apply to

Chlamydomonas: 1) GLK1/2 emerged as a hub controlling the genetic networks that underpin

chloroplast differentiation and photomorphogenesis only in zygnematophytes (Dadras et al.,

2023), and 2) although GUN1 is evolutionarily ancient, its role in retrograde signaling is thought

to have arisen after streptophyte algae diverged from chlorophytes (Honkanen and Small, 2022).

Thus, PhANG suppression in Chlamydomonas must rely on different upstream cues. In *kea1*,

where we also found induced ROS-responsive transcripts, an upregulation of *PCYA*, a bilin-

synthesis gene, points to tetrapyrrole-derived retrograde signals to repress PhANGs during plastid

stress as a coping mechanism (Duanmu et al., 2013).

The concurrent induction of Na^+/SO_4^{2-} (SLT1–3;Pootakham et al.,2010) and K^+

transporters (particularly *HAK*, *NAK;* Li et al., 2023) together with the altered expression of other

ion pumps, exchangers and channels, indicates that the ionic imbalance in Chlamydomonas *kea1*

extends beyond chloroplast potassium homeostasis. These regulatory patterns may reflect systemic

compensatory responses to altered ion gradients or membrane potentials resulting from impaired

K^+/H^+ exchange at the plastid envelope. Increased sulfate uptake could further support glutathione

biosynthesis, mitigating oxidative stress associated with disturbed ion balance (Niyogi, 1999;

Zhang et al., 2004). Also, the tonoplast K^+ channel *KCN11* was slightly upregulated. Interestingly,

kcn11 mutants display growth defects under nitrogen limitation, including enlarged cell size (Xu

and Pan, 2020; Fauser et al., 2022; Vilarrasa-Blasi et al., 2024). These findings point towards the

functional coupling of potassium and sulfate fluxes as part of the wider physiological

consequences of disrupted KEA-mediated ion transport in Chlamydomonas. In addition to these

conserved features, IE *KEA* loss in Chlamydomonas exhibited lineage-specific consequences. *kea1*

mutants showed constitutive induction of the MARS1-dependent chloroplast unfolded protein

response (cpUPR; Perlaza et al., 2019). Unlike Arabidopsis, where cpUPR markers were absent

or even downregulated (e.g., *CLPB3*) in *kea1kea2* (DeTar et al., 2021), Chlamydomonas activates

these stress pathways constitutively (already under low light), indicating destabilized stromal

protein homeostasis as soon as ion balance is disrupted by loss of *CrKEA1*. This points to a lineage-

specific strategy: whereas multicellular plants can attenuate plastid protein synthesis and postpone

chloroplast biogenesis to avoid protein aggregation, the single-celled alga Chlamydomonas cannot

completely postpone chloroplast function without jeopardizing survival. Thus, the unicellular alga

must maintain translation in its single essential plastid and instead relies on cpUPR pathways to

counteract misfolding and aggregation (Dogra et al., 2019; Perlaza et al., 2019; Richter et al.,

2023).

Further characteristic observed in Chlamydomonas *kea1* mutants were enlarged cells, an

extended G1 phase, irregular cytokinesis, and strong downregulation of cell division genes. Both

CDKB1 and its partnering cyclins (*CYCA1*, *CYCB1*) were strongly downregulated, consistent with

defects in mitotic progression and multiple fission cycles (Tulin and Cross, 2014; Bisova et al.,

2005). The partial reduction of D-type cyclins further weakens G1/S entry, while the mild

repression of CDKG1 implicates misregulation of size-dependent checkpoints (Li et al., 2016;

Umen and Goodenough, 2001). The coupled downregulation of plastid fission genes that we found

through co-expression network analyses aligns with the tight synchronization between plastid

division and cell cycle progression in unicellular algae (Sumiya et al., 2016; Clark-Cotton et al.,

2025). It was shown that conditional repression of plastid genes (*rpoA*, *rps12*) that are required for

the expression machinery halts Chlamydomonas growth whereas cells resume proliferation once

chloroplast function is restored (Ramundo et al., 2013). The cell cycle in *kea1* is not arrested.

Mutant cells only progress through G1 more slowly and delay cell and chloroplast division, but

the perfect coordination between plastid and cell cycle remains defective. As a result, division

errors occur at an increased rate, especially when shifted to elevated light intensity, an inherent

trigger for algae to accelerate growth and the rate of division (Dupuis et al., 2025).

In contrast to the single plastid in Chlamydomonas, plant plastids divide autonomously,

controlled by developmental programs, tissue context, and land-plant-specific proteins such as

PDV1/2 (Okazaki et al., 2009; Vercruyssen et al., 2015). Thus, while IE *KEA* loss in both systems

impairs plastid function, the downstream impact is filtered through fundamentally different

organizational logics: plastid–cell cycle coupling in algae versus tissue-specific developmental

regulation in plants. However, our finding that *kea1* cells downregulate plastid division and

consequently accumulate enlarged chloroplasts parallels observations in Arabidopsis, where

kea1kea2 mutants harbor fewer but enlarged plastids per cell (Kunz et al., 2014; Aranda-Sicilia et

al., 2016). Despite differences in cellular architecture — one plastid per algal cell versus many

plastids per plant cell — KEA transporters thus appear broadly required to coordinate plastid
division and maintain organelle size.

Conclusions

Given that potassium fluxes have universal roles in driving cell-cycle progression in
microalgae and beyond (Urrego et al., 2014; Feeney et al., 2016; Henslee et al., 2017; Rodríguez
et al., 2024), our integrated ionomics-single-cell imaging approach offers a roadmap for future
studies to unravel how perturbations in organellar ion transport translate into systemic defects in
growth, proliferation, and stress adaptation. Taken together, our results demonstrate that IE KEA
transporters are evolutionarily conserved regulators of plastid homeostasis, linking ion transport
to ribosome assembly and photosynthetic capacity. Yet the downstream phenotypes diverge,
reflecting the distinct cellular architectures of unicellular algae and multicellular plants. *kea1*
mutants expose defects in cell cycle fidelity absent in plants, while Arabidopsis mutants reveal
developmental and signaling adjustments not observed in algae. These findings illuminate how
plastid ion transport serves as a deeply conserved module, whose consequences for cell physiology
depend on lineage-specific evolutionary trajectories.

Material and Methods

Algae cultivation and growth measurements

All Chlamydomonas (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*) *kea1* mutants and complementation lines
generated in this study share the CC-406 cw15 mt- background (Davies and Lyall, 1973) which
served as the reference ("wild type", WT) in this study.

Algae were grown in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP; Gorman and Levine, 1965) medium under
constant light of 25 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1} at 23°C and shaking at 125 rpm if in liquid culture, unless
indicated otherwise. TAP was supplemented with 1% (w/v) sorbitol for culturing strain cc406. For
photoautotrophic conditions algae were grown in Sueoka's high salt medium (HSM; Sueoka,
1960).

The optical density at 750 nm (OD750) of liquid cultures was determined by a UV-vis
spectrophotometer and the cell count ml^{-1} by a BD Accuri™ C6 plus flow cytometer. To determine
a conversion factor to calculate the size of the cells measured from FSC-A, the flow cytometer was

calibrated with CS&T RUO Beads (BD Biosciences, USA). The derived linear regression was y =
2.432 x10^6 x + 1,706 with y being the diameter (µm) and x the FSC-A values.

Plant growth and generation of CrKEA1-YFP plants

Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) plants were grown at 110 µE illumination in long-day
conditions (16 h/8 h at 22°C). To generate transgenic *CrKEA1* Arabidopsis plants, the codon-
optimized *CrKEA1* coding sequence (Cre04.g220200_4532.1, fused to a Twin-Strep tag) was
cloned into the binary Ti vector *pG20_TEV_mVenus_Hyg* via Golden Gate assembly downstream
of the UBQ10 promoter (Addgene ID #240651; Schwartz et al., 2025) as described in
Supplemental Table S9. Venus is referred to throughout as YFP. The resulting *CrKEA1-*
TwinStrep-TEV-YFP (short *CrKEA1-YFP*) fusion construct was used for stable transformation of
the Arabidopsis T-DNA insertion line *kea1-1kea2-1* (Kunz et al., 2014). The final construct was
transformed into Arabidopsis via the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (GV3101 containing *pSOUP*) by
the floral dip method as described previously (Clough and Bent, 1998). The T1 generation was
selected on 25 µg/ml Hygromycin-containing 1/2 strength MS medium (Murashige and Skoog,
1962) and screened for phenotypical rescue of the *kea1-1kea2-1* mutant. Expression of *CrKEA1-*
YFP was verified via immunoblotting (Höhner et al., 2019).

Generation of Chlamydomonas kea1 mutants by CRISPR/Cas9

kea1 mutants were created in CC-406 cw15 mt⁻ using insertional mutagenesis by the
CRISPR/Cas9 technique following the protocol established (Greiner et al., 2017). Briefly, a
crRNA sequence was designed to target *CrKEA1* exon-19. The crRNA was annealed with
tracrRNA (Integrated DNA Technologies, #1072533) to generate guide RNAs (gRNA) and then
conjugated with Alt-R® S.p. Cas9 Nuclease V3 (Integrated DNA Technologies, #1081058) to
form the SpCas9/gRNA complex. The latter was co-transformed into Chlamydomonas with a
mutation oligonucleotide containing orientation and frameshift tolerant STOP codons and with the
plasmid pBC1 (pJR38, Neupert et al., 2009) conferring paromomycin resistance. Transformation
was carried out on a NEPA21 electroporator (Nepa Gene). Cells were selected under 10 µg ml⁻¹
paromomycin and screened by colony-PCR. Knock-out of *CrKEA1* was confirmed by
immunoblotting using CrKEA1 antibodies. Relevant sequences are listed in Supplemental Table
S1.

Generation of kea1 complementation lines

The *CrKEA1* gDNA sequence, including the native promoter, was inserted into *pLM161* (Cr-

Venus-3xFLAG; hygromycin), applying the recombineering approach described in Emrich-Mills

et al., 2021; Supplemental Table S10). Nuclear transformation was achieved by the glass bead

method (Kindle, 1990). Transformed *kea1* cells were selected under 100 µg ml^{-1} hygromycin

followed by screening for the expression of the CrKEA1-YFP fusion protein by fluorescence

microscopy and immunoblot.

Design of the CrKEA1 antibody

To generate antibodies against CrKEA1, a DNA fragment codon optimized for *E. coli* synthesized

by Twist Bioscience (California, USA), was cloned into the plasmid *pHue* (Catanzariti et al., 2004;

modified for Gold Gate cloning) resulting in the plasmid *pHue_CrKEA1-aa94-337* (Supplemental

Table S11). Proteins were expressed in *E. coli* strain BL21 (DE3) overnight at 23°C and lysed in

lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl and 10 mM imidazole). The HisUbiquitin-

tagged CrKEA1 fragment was extracted by an IMAC column, the tag was cleaved by Ubiquitin

Specific Peptidase 2 (USP2; Baker et al., 2005) and the sample passed over a size exclusion

chromatography (SEC) column in SEC buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 300 mM NaCl). The SEC elution

was reapplied to an IMAC column, where the tag-less protein was recovered from the flow-

through. The pure protein CrKEA1-aa94-337 in 20 mM Tris pH 8, 200 mM NaCl, and 5% glycerol

served BioGenes (Berlin, Germany) as antigen to produce polyclonal antibodies. Serum was used

for immunodetection.

Protein extraction and immunoblotting

For Chlamydomonas, cultures grown to an OD750 of 2 were pelleted and resuspended in Laemmli

SDS loading dye containing 50 mM DTT. Samples set to an OD of 22 were heated to 60°C for 20

min and then subjected to SDS PAGE. Immunoblotting was performed on PVDF membranes with

secondary antibodies coupled to horse radish peroxidase and the enhanced chemiluminescence

(ECL) system. For Arabidopsis, immunoblotting was performed as described before (Höhner et

al., 2019). The following antibodies were used: GFP (Roche 11814460001), NAB1 (Agrisera

AS08 333), AtKEA1 (Bölter et al., 2020), CrKEA1 (this study)

 Element determination via TXRF

Cultures for element analysis were washed thrice in isotonic buffer (300 mM sorbitol, 20 mM

HEPES pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 10 mM NaHCO$_3$). Cell numbers in washed samples were

individually determined for each sample using a Neubauer Improved counting chamber (Hecht-

Assistent, Sondheim vor der Rhön, Germany). Elemental analysis was performed by total

reflection X-ray fluorescence (TXRF) using an S4 T-STAR (Bruker, Berlin, Germany) as

described in Holzner et al., 2025. The sample was mixed in a 1:1 ratio with internal standards to

final concentrations of 1 ppm vanadium (W-L) and 1 ppm gallium (Mo-K) and 0.1% (w/v)

polyvinyl alcohol (PVA). Samples were applied to silicon-coated quartz glass carriers and

measured at 50 kV for 1000 s per sample using Mo-K and W-L excitation. Element concentrations

were normalized to the cell number of each sample. To determine background element levels, a

sample of isotonic buffer was measured, which was subtracted from the respective samples.

Pulse-Amplitude-Modulation (PAM) fluorometry and leaf area

The IMAGING-PAM (M-Series Maxi, Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany) was used for leaf area

and PAM measurements. For Arabidopsis, experiments were performed as described previously

(Schneider et al., 2019). For Chlamydomonas drop cultures, spotted cultures were cultivated under

standard conditions for 3 days before subjecting them to PAM measurements. For liquid culture,

cells grown in 50 ml were adjusted to an OD of 1.5, and equal volumes (2 ml) were transferred

into multi-well plates for PAM measurements after 15 min dark adaptation.

Localization of CrKEA1-YFP in algae with fluorescence microscopy

Chlamydomonas cells expressing CrKEA1-YFP were imaged with the DMi8 Inverse Fluorescence

Thunder Microscope (Leica, Wetzlar). For chlorophyll autofluorescence, cells were illuminated

for excitation with 440 nm and position 642/80 of the emission filter cube CYR-LED8 was chosen

for detection. For YFP signals, excitation was set to 510 nm and cube position to 535/70.

Protoplasts isolation and localization of CrKEA1-YFP in Arabidopsis by fluorescence microscopy

Protoplasts were isolated from Arabidopsis leaves as described before (Wu et al., 2009).

Visualization was carried out using a Stellaris 5 confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica,

Wetzlar). Chlorophyll was excited using a diode 408 nm laser and detected with detector HyD

between 620 and 810 nm, while YFP was excited using the WLL laser set to 515 nm and detected
with HyD between 520 and 580 nm.

Transmission Electron Microscopy

Sample preparation was performed as previously described (Lübben et al., 2024). Chlamydomonas
samples were frozen under high pressure (2,100 bar) in culture medium using an EM HPM100
(Leica Microsystems, Germany). Following cryofixation, samples underwent freeze substitution
(Peschke et al., 2013; Walther and Ziegler, 2002) in an EM AFS2 system (Leica Microsystems),
after which they were embedded in Epon 812 and polymerized for 16 h at 63 °C. Ultrathin sections
of 50 nm (ultra 35°, 3.0 mm, DiATOME) were cut on an Ultracut E ultramicrotome (Leica
Microsystems) and collected on collodion-coated, 400-mesh copper grids (Science Services
GmbH, Germany). Prior to imaging, sections were post-stained with lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963).
Samples were examined in a Zeiss EM 912 transmission electron microscope (Zeiss, Germany)
equipped with an integrated OMEGA energy filter operated in zero-loss mode at 80 kV. Images
were captured at a nominal magnification of 12,500× using a 2k×2k slow-scan CCD camera
(Tröndle Restlichtverstärkersystem, Germany).

Whole Genome Sequencing

679 gDNA was isolated according to Dutcher et al., 2012 and sent to BMKGene (Biomarker
680 Technologies, Münster, Germany / Hongkong) for Illumina sequencing. CLC Genomics
681 Workbench and Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) was used to confirm stop codon insertion in
682 exon 19. TDNAscan (Sun et al., 2019) was used to search for additional off-target insertions.

RNA-seq after ribo-depletion, Gene Ontology analysis, and constructing co-expression networks

Four replicates per genotype and condition were sampled to obtain RNA-seq from the light shift
experiment. RNA was extracted using TRIzol™ reagent (Ambion, USA; Simms et al., 1993)
following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was further purified and DNA contaminations
were removed using the Monarch® RNA Cleanup Kit (NEB) according to the manufacturer's
protocol. RNA quality control, depletion of ribosomal RNA, library preparation, and eukaryotic
lncRNA Sequencing was performed by BMKGene on an Illumina platform, generating over 10
Mio paired-end reads (150 bp) per sample. RNA-seq data were analyzed on the Galaxy platform
(usegalaxy.eu; Galaxy-Community, 2024) using the tools, reference genome and annotation file

(JGI Phytozome) listed in Supplemental Table S12. For statistical analysis and assessment of

differentially expressed genes (DEGs), the low read count filters were set to "1-count-per-million"

(CPM=1) in at least 3 samples. DEGs were considered significant with an adjusted p-value < 0.05.

Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment was assessed with g:Profiler (Kolberg et al., 2023) and

condensed with REVIGO (Supek et al., 2011). Co-expression networks were calculated using the

StreptoNet (https://rshiny.gwdg.de/apps/streptonet/) framework (Dadras et al., 2023) and

constructed based on gene lists of interest. Chlamydomonas genes were annotated using the best

BLAST hits against Arabidopsis genes. CoNekT (https://conekt.sbs.ntu.edu.sg/) framework was

used to compare clusters of co-expression networks. See Supplemental Table S12 for further

details.

RNAseq with focus on ribosomal RNA (MiSeq NGS)

To analyze plastid rRNA processing, RNA was extracted from cells grown in HSM under

moderate light (100 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) as mentioned above. Library preparation was performed using

the NEBNext® Ultra™ II RNA Library Prep Kit (NEB). RNA and library quality were assessed

using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Next-generation sequencing (2 × 300 paired-end) was carried

out on a MiSeq sequencer (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA), generating over 1.5 million paired-

end reads per sample with a length of 200-250 nt. Data processing was performed on usegalaxy.eu

(Galaxy-Community, 2024**)** as described above. The effective genome size (113,516,734 bp) was

determined by subtracting the total number of ambiguous (N) bases (1,114,981 bp) from the actual

Chlamydomonas genome size (114,631,715 bp). To analyze coverage differences between

samples, mapped reads were processed through the BamCoverage and BamCompare pipelines of

the deepTools suite (Ramírez et al., 2016), focusing on plastome rRNA transcripts. BigWig output

files generated from both tools were exported as bedGraph (.csv format).

Non-Radioactive RNA blots

RNA blots were performed using 3'-Digoxigenin (DIG)-labeled DNA probes from metabion

international AG, Germany (Supplemental Table S13; Holtke & Kessler 1990; Ramkissoon et al.,

2006). RNA samples were denatured at 55°C for 45 minutes in denaturing buffer (15% (v/v)

DMSO, 7% (w/v) Glyoxal in 20 mM MOPS, 5 mM sodium acetate, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7) before

adding loading dye. Samples were separated on a 1.2% agarose MOPS gel at 4°C, and transferred

onto a nylon membrane via capillary blotting in 20x SSC (3M NaCl, 0.3M Trisodium Citrate

dihydrate, pH 7) overnight, followed by UV crosslinking. To develop the blot, the DIG Northern

Starter Kit (Roche, Cat. No. 12 039 672 910) was utilized as described by the manufacturer but

using 50°C for hybridisation.

Single-cell time-lapse imaging and image analysis

The microchannel layout was based on the original *Mother Machine* design for bacterial single-

cell studies (Wang et al., 2010) and was modified to enable the observation of Chlamydomonas

under hydrogel-mediated confinement. Hydrogel patterning was carried out using the

photolithographic microfabrication workflow previously described for PEG-based hydrogels

(Stöberl et al., 2023), with adjustments to the precursor composition and pattern geometry. Flow

channels were filled with diluted cultures (5×10^4 cells mL^{-1}) and placed in a stage-top chamber

(okolab, H101-CRYO-BL) connected to a cryostatic water bath (Lauda, RE415S). The medium

temperature was adjusted to 23°C and flow rate to 200 µl h^{-1}. Cells were continuously illuminated

with 25 µE. Images were acquired every 5 min on a Leica DMi8 Thunder microscope (Leica,

Wetzlar) using LASX. Chlorophyll autofluorescence was excited with a Leica LED8 at 475 nm

and detected with a Leica DFC9000 GTC camera with a 642/80 filter. Image analysis was

conducted in Cell-ACDC (Padovani et al., 2022). A custom-trained Cellpose (Pachitariu and

Stringer, 2022) model was used to segment cells. Segmentation was controlled and corrected in

the Cell-ACDC GUI. Segmented objects were then tracked with Trackastra (Gallusser and

Weigert, 2025) with the general_2d model using the chlorophyll autofluorescence channel as

input. Truthful tracking was checked in the Cell-ACDC GUI. Out-of-focus cells, division failures

and cells with an unobservable future were manually marked in the Cell-ACDC GUI for filtering

in downstream analysis. Resulting .csv files were filtered and analysed in a custom phyton script.

Sequence alignment, structure prediction, and domain annotations

Multiple Sequence alignment was performed by the *MultAlin* online tool (Corpet 1988). Structural

models were predicted using AlphaFold3 (DeepMind; Abramson et al., 2024). The default

parameters were used, and no experimental structural constraints were applied. For model

visualization, we used UCSF ChimeraX (Pettersen et al., 2021). For domain annotations,

information obtained from Uniprot.org (Q9ZTZ7) and AlphaFold3 prediction was combined.

Accession numbers and annotations

Chlamydomonas strains CC-406 cw15 mt⁻, CC-4533 cw15 mt⁻, the CLiP line (Li et al., 2016)

LMJ.RY0402.187220, and the BAC (well number 19-B-5) encoding the *CrKEA1*

(Cre04.g220200_4532.1) gDNA were obtained from the Chlamydomonas Resource Center

(University of Minnesota, USA). The Arabidopsis T-DNA insertion mutant *kea1-1kea2-1*

(SAIL_586_D02, SALK_045324) (Kunz et al., 2014) is available in the stock centers: ABRC:

CS72318 or NASC: N72318. All other GeneIDs are listed in the Supplemental Table S14 and S15.

RNA-seq data generated in this study have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive

(SRA) under BioProject accession number PRJNA1343327 (Wunder et al., 2025)

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Figure S1: Figure S1: Alignment of inner envelope (IE) KEA protein sequences from Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis.

Supplemental Figure S2: Figure S2: Generation of the CrKEA1 antibody and testing the CLiP line.

Supplemental Figure S3: Figure S3: Genomic characterization of the kea1 CRISPR/Cas9 knock-out site and immunoblotting.

Supplemental Figure S4: Figure S4: Genomic characterization of the *kea1* CRISPR/Cas9 knock-out site (part2).

Supplemental Figure S5: Figure S5: Characterization of the *kea1* mutant and *CrKEA1-YFP* complementation lines.

Supplemental Figure S6: Figure S6: Scatter plots corresponding to the flow cytometry experiment shown in Figure 2.

Supplemental Figure S7: Figure S7: Additional results related to the RNA-seq experiment.

Supplemental Figure S8: Figure S8: Comparison of plastid rRNA processing pathways in Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis.

Supplemental Figure S9: Figure S9: rRNA-seq analysis of plastid rRNA processing including the *CrKEA1-YFP* complementation line.

Figure S10: RNA blot analysis of plastid rRNA processing in the *kea1* mutant.

Figure S11: Structural comparison of AtKEA1 and CrKEA1.

Figure S12: Characterization of the Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* line complemented with *CrKEA1-YFP*.

Figure S13: Single cell live imaging of *kea1* and WT.

Supplemental Tables

Supplemental References

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Figures and Legends

Figure 1: Characterization of *CrKEA1* knock-out and complementation lines: growth, localization, and cellular ultrastructure. (A) Simplified cladogram of the Archaeplastida showing the phylogenetic relationship between monoplastidic *Chlamydomonas* algae and multicellular, polyplastidic *Arabidopsis* plants, both derived from a common monoplastidic ancestor that diverged approximately 1 billion years ago. **(B)** Schematic of the CRISPR/Cas9 knock-out line *kea1*. **(C)** Immunoblot using anti-CrKEA1 antibodies on total protein extracts from WT, *kea1*, and the complementation line (*CrKEA1–YFP* expressed in *kea1*). **(D)** Localization of YFP-tagged CrKEA1 to the plastid envelope in the complementation line. Scale bar 5 µm. **(E)** Drop cultures grown on mixotrophic (acetate-containing TAP) and photoautotrophic (HSM) solid media at 25 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. **(F)** Growth curves (Mean±SD) of mixotrophic and photoautotrophic liquid cultures at 25 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. σ=standard deviation. n=3. **(G)** Representative TEM images of cells grown in HSM at 100 µE. Scale bar 1 µm. **(H)** Comparison of cell and chloroplast size and shape based on TEM micrographs shown in panel G. Scale bar 1 µm.

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Figure 2: Ionomic profiles of Chlamydomonas *kea1* and control strains. Elemental
composition of whole cells was measured by Total Reflection X-Ray Fluorescence (TXRF) from
TAP liquid cultures grown at 25 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. Four replicate cultures per genotype were analyzed.
Data were evaluated by one-way ANOVA for each element separately, and differences were
assessed using Tukey's multiple comparison test. Box plots display the median (center line), the
25th to 75th percentiles (box), and the minimum and maximum values (whiskers). Asterisks
indicate significant differences (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$).
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Figure 3: Photosynthetic characterization of *kea1* and cell size. (A) To assess the
photosynthetic performance of *kea1*, liquid TAP and HSM cultures were exposed to gradually
increasing light intensities, with PAR raised in 20-s intervals. Mean electron transfer rate (ETR)
was plotted with standard deviation. n=4. **(B)** F_v/F_m values were determined from HSM drop
cultures every 1 h while stepwise increasing light intensity. **(C)** Light-shift experiment with TAP
and HSM liquid cultures. F_v/F_m was measured before and after transferring cultures from low light
(LL) to moderate light (ML) for 24 h and back to low light for 24 h of recovery (RL). **(D)** The
average cell size of *kea1* increased under moderate light (100 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}). Chlamydomonas
cultures grown in HSM or TAP at 25 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} were shifted to 100 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} and analyzed
by flow cytometry (FC) before and 48 h after the light shift. FSC-A values correlate with cell size.
Boxes represent the interquartile range, the line indicates the median, and whiskers extend to the
10th and 90th percentiles; outliers (0–10 % and 90–100 %) are not shown. Letters indicate
statistical groups. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis
test. All strains were pre-cultured at 25 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} and 23 °C in TAP under shaking conditions.
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Figure 4: RNA-seq analysis of a light-shift experiment comparing transcriptional responses
of *kea1* and WT. (A) Experimental setup for the RNA-seq analysis, including F_v/F_m values of the
cultures and pie charts indicating the number of significantly differentially expressed genes
(DEGs; adj. p-value < 0.05) per steady-state comparison (*kea1* vs. WT). Yellow and blue sectors
denote up- and downregulated genes, respectively ($|\log_2FC| \geq 1$). **(B)** Gene Ontology (GO) terms
of the *Biological Process* domain enriched among DEGs as interactive graph (REVIGO). **(C, D)**
Heatmaps showing $\log_2FC$ values of significant DEGs annotated to the GO terms *ribosome*
biogenesis (GO:0042254) and *cell cycle (*GO:0007049). "GO genes" indicates the number of genes
associated with each respective GO term. Non-significant (NS) transcripts are not shown, or
displayed in black if significant under specific conditions (LL, ML, or RL). **(D, E)** $\log_2FC$ values
of significant DEGs of certain GO terms (ribosome biogenesis and cell cycle) are represented as
heatmaps. "GO genes" refers to the number of genes annotated to the respective GO term. Not
significantly (NS) changed transcripts are not shown or are represented in black if they are
significant for a certain condition (LL, ML, or RL). **(F–H)** As in (D, E), showing $\log_2FC$ values of
significant transcripts belonging to gene lists denoted as *plastid fission (GO:0043572)*,
photosynthesis-associated nuclear genes (PhANGs), *plastid-encoded genes*, and examples of
transcripts *related to stress/retrograde signaling, and ion transport (mainly including*
GO:0006813 potassium ion transport). Gene names were assigned to Gene IDs using annotations
given on Phytozome. Appropriate Gene IDs are provided as supplementary data. HAK, NAK, and
KCN genes were named according to Xu et al., 2016 and Li et al., 2023. Sodium hydrogen
exchanger, sodium/sulfate co-transporter, and potassium channels were abbreviated as *NHX, SLT,*
and *KC(N)*, respectively.
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Figure 5: Cross-species transcriptomic comparison of inner envelope *KEA* mutants in
Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis. **(A)** Mutants lacking inner envelope *KEA* transporters
(Chlamydomonas *kea1* and Arabidopsis *kea1kea2*) in both Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis share
a subset of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). Shared DEGs were identified by mapping
Chlamydomonas genes to Arabidopsis orthologs using g:Orth. Significant DEGs (adj.
p-value < 0.05; numbers shown in the Venn diagram) were filtered using $|\log_2 FC| \geq 0.75$ and
subjected to Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis with g:Profiler (*Biological Process*
domain). GO terms are shown as interactive graph (REVIGO). Chlamydomonas DEGs correspond
to the moderate light (ML) condition. Shared DEGs are enriched for *ribosome biogenesis*
(GO:0042254), whereas enrichment for *cell cycle* (GO:0007049) is observed only in
Chlamydomonas. **(B)** Heatmaps display $\log_2 FC$ values for all genes annotated to *ribosome*
biogenesis. Only significant DEGs (adj. p-value < 0.05) are color-coded, while non-significant
(NS) or undetected genes are shown in black. Numbers indicate the count of significant DEGs
relative to the total number of genes annotated to the respective GO term (DEGs / GO term size).

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Figure 6: Conserved role of inner envelope KEA transporters in plastid rRNA processing
across algae and higher plants. (A) Impaired plastid rRNA processing in *kea1* leads to
enrichment of the 7S–3S–23S precursor. Shown is the fold change in normalized read coverage
(*BamCompare*) from an rRNA-seq experiment comparing *kea1* and WT, revealing increased read
density over intergenic regions corresponding to the 7S–3S–23S precursor in the mutant. **(B)** RNA
blot analysis using specific plastid rRNA probes confirms accumulation of the 7S–3S–23S
precursor in *kea1*. MB, Methylene Blue. **(C)** Structural comparison of AtKEA1 and CrKEA1.
AlphaFold3 models of dimeric AtKEA1 and its algal homolog CrKEA1 are shown, with colors
corresponding to domain organization depicted to the right. The representation as a dimer was
chosen due to the structural findings for the bacterial homolog KefC (Gulati et al., 2024). **(D)**
Phenotypical complementation of the Arabidopsis *kea1kea2* mutant by expressing *CrKEA1–YFP*.
Scale bar 1cm. **(E)** Immunoblot validation of *CrKEA1–YFP* expression in complementation lines.
(F) RNA blot demonstrating restoration of normal plastid rRNA processing in *kea1kea2* upon

expression of *CrKEA1–YFP*. MB, Methylene Blue. **(G)** Confocal microscopy of protoplasts
isolated from *kea1kea2* plants expressing either *AtKEA1–YFP* or *CrKEA1–YFP*. Chlorophyll
autofluorescence (*red*) and YFP signal (*yellow*) displayed in false colors. Scale bar 10 μm.
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Figure 7: Comparisons between co-expression networks of Arabidopsis and Chlamydomonas. (A) From both species, genes annotated to GO:0007049 (*cell cycle*) and GO:0043572 (*plastid fission*) were extracted and visualized based on co-expression relationships in each species. Nodes represent genes and edges connect co-expressed genes. Gene names are black for *cell cycle* and red for *plastid fission*. Nodes represent genes, and edges connect co-expressed genes. White nodes indicate genes that were not significantly changed or not detected; gradient-colored nodes represent DEGs, with color intensity reflecting log$_2$FC. ML DEGs were used for Chlamydomonas. **(B)** Primary and secondary co-expression interactions between *plastid fission* and *cell cycle* genes found in the networks. Co-regulated downregulation is based on both genes being downregulated DEGs. Cut-off |log$_2$FC| $\geq$ 0.75. **(C)** Comparative co-expression network analysis of a *cell cycle* clusters. Nodes represent genes, solid edges connect co-expressed genes and dashed edges connect orthologues. Coloured shapes represent different orthogroups. Cluster comparisons were based on Jaccard Index (JI) computation.

Figure 8: Single Cell Live Imaging reveals cell cycle defects of *kea1*. (A) Simplified diagram of the Chlamydomonas cell cycle, **showing the labeling of cell-cycle phases used in this study. (B)** Schematic of the microfluidic flow-cell chip containing hydrogel-based channels with imprinted cavities that immobilize multiple individual cells for long-term observation. **(C)** Representative time-lapse image series of WT cells illustrating synchronized growth and division. **(D–F)** Quantitative analysis of single-cell trajectories shows that *kea1* cells exhibit significantly increased cell volume in every G1-division cycle segment, prolonged G1 phase, and extended S/M phase compared to WT. **(G)** *kea1* daughter cells display greater size variation following division than WT. **(H)** "Remerging" events—where nearly separated daughter cells fuse again—occur more frequently in *kea1* and were not observed in WT. The bar graph summarizes data from three replicate channels per genotype. *For all panels:* Representative time-lapse series are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm. Box plots follow Tukey's convention. Statistical significance was determined with Mann-Whitney tests (D-G) and unpaired t-test (H) and is indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0.0001$).

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Figure 9: Model: Conserved role of inner envelope KEA transporters across the green
lineage.
In Chlamydomonas, loss of the inner envelope KEA transporters (IE KEAs) leads to potassium
imbalance and excess stromal K^+, resulting in swollen, misshapen chloroplasts and impaired rRNA
processing required for plastid ribosome biogenesis. IE KEAs, including CrKEA1 in
Chlamydomonas and AtKEA1/2 in Arabidopsis, are conserved throughout the green branch of the
Archaeplastida, spanning the Chlorophyta (green algae) and Streptophyta (charophytes and land
plants). All lineages evolved from a monoplastidic unicellular ancestor characterized by tightly
coupled plastid and cell division (*monoplastidic bottleneck*, de Vries and Gould, 2018), a condition
still retained in Chlamydomonas. During evolution, the emergence of multicellularity and
polyplastidy, as in Arabidopsis, relaxed this coupling and allowed plastid division to proceed
independently of the cell cycle. Our findings suggest that the importance of IE KEA-mediated ion
homeostasis for error-free cell division diminished with the transition to polyplastidy, while its
role in maintaining proper rRNA maturation and ribosome assembly remains conserved across
Chlorophyta and Streptophyta.

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