Loss of FRIENDLY MITOCHONDRIA (FMT) Restores Chloroplast Proteostasis via Inter-

organelle Compensation

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ABSTRACT

Chloroplast proteostasis is vital for plant development, yet whether cells can actively reprogram

organelle communication to restore plastid function when essential protease components fail

remains unclear. Using a forward genetic suppressor screen in *Arabidopsis*, we identify loss of the

mitochondria-associated protein FRIENDLY MITOCHONDRIA (FMT) as a strong suppressor of

the virescent and growth-retarded *clpc1* mutant, which lacks the major chloroplast Clp chaperone

ClpC1. Suppression is highly specific and occurs independently of GUN1-mediated retrograde

signaling. Integrated multi-omics analyses reveal that *clpc1* and *fmtclpc1* represent two distinct

organelle signaling states. In *clpc1*, loss of ClpC1 triggers a plastid stress state characterized by

repression of photosynthesis-associated transcription factors, induction of plastid metabolic stress

markers, and impaired proteolytic activity. By contrast, loss of FMT shifts the system into a

recovery state despite persistent mitochondrial clustering. Mechanistically, FMT negatively

regulates *CLPC2*, a ClpC1 paralog, and *fmt*-mediated rescue results from *CLPC2* derepression.

Moderately elevated ClpC2 restores *in vivo* proteolysis, as evidenced by recovery of PAA2

substrate turnover, normalization of chloroplast ultrastructure, and reactivation of photosynthesis-

related gene expression. Transcriptomic and proteomic profiling further reveal coordinated

remodeling of nuclear gene expression and chloroplast protein investment in the recovery state,

including reduced cytosolic folding stress and selective induction of jasmonic acid– and salicylic

acid–associated signaling networks. Genetic analyses establish that REC1 and REC2 are required

for full *CLPC2* induction and phenotypic recovery. Together, our findings uncover a latent inter-

organelle compensatory mechanism in which mitochondrial perturbation reprograms nuclear gene

expression to restore chloroplast proteostasis when ClpC1 function is compromised.

INTRODUCTION

Plant survival depends on the ability of its energy-producing organelles to communicate and maintain proteostasis despite continual developmental, metabolic, and environmental fluctuations (Gao et al., 2023; Sun and Jarvis, 2023). Chloroplasts and mitochondria rely on thousands of nuclear-encoded proteins that must be precisely synthesized, imported, and folded, rendering both organelles acutely vulnerable to even modest disruptions in protein homeostasis (Sun et al., 2021; Woodson and Chory, 2008). Because failures in these processes compromise photosynthesis, metabolism, and growth, plants must deploy coordinated cellular responses to proteotoxic stress across organelles (Llamas and Pulido, 2022; Lopez et al., 2024; van Wijk, 2024). Although plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling pathways that report organelle dysfunction have been extensively characterized, whether cells can transition from a stress-associated transcriptional state to an active recovery configuration that restores chloroplast proteostasis remains largely unknown.

In chloroplasts, proteostasis relies heavily on the stromal Clp chaperone–protease system, the most abundant and broadly acting proteolytic machinery in the organelle (Bouchnak and van Wijk, 2021; Rodriguez-Concepcion et al., 2019). The ClpPR core comprises catalytically active ClpP1 and ClpP3–6 and non-enzymatic ClpR1–4 subunits arranged as two stacked heptameric rings (Kim et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2009; Olinares et al., 2011; Sjogren et al., 2006). Substrate unfolding and translocation are mediated by the AAA+ chaperones ClpC1, ClpC2, and ClpD, while accessory proteins such as ClpT1/2, ClpS1, and ClpF contribute to core assembly/stabilization and substrate selection (Kim et al., 2015; Nishimura et al., 2015; Nishimura et al., 2013; Sjogren and Clarke, 2011). The turnover of numerous stromal proteins—including the canonical substrate PAA2/HMA8, a copper transporter in the thylakoid—highlights the central role of the Clp machinery in chloroplast protein quality control (Tapken et al., 2015).

ClpC1 is a pivotal component of this system. It functions both as the major unfoldase that delivers substrates to the ClpPR core (Rei Liao et al., 2022) and is also involved in quality control of imported proteins at the inner envelope membrane (Paila et al., 2015). Loss of ClpC1 leads to severe chloroplast dysfunction, manifesting as chlorosis, impaired photosynthesis, and markedly reduced growth. Protein-import stress is a known trigger of retrograde transcriptional

reprogramming (Richter et al., 2023), and recent work has shown that GUN1 directly binds and
stabilizes a subset of plastid RNAs, identifying plastid RNA maturation as a key upstream
determinant of plastid-to-nucleus signaling (Tang et al., 2024). These studies define components
of the plastid stress response; however, it remains unclear whether plants possess intrinsic
mechanisms that can actively reconfigure nuclear gene expression to re-establish chloroplast
proteostasis when a core chaperone such as ClpC1 is absent.

Mitochondria also undergo dynamic structural and functional remodeling in response to stress
(Chustecki et al., 2022; Kacprzak and Van Aken, 2023; Nakamura et al., 2021). The conserved
CLU-family protein FRIENDLY MITOCHONDRIA (FMT) maintains mitochondrial distribution,
dynamics, and homeostasis; *fmt* mutants exhibit clustered mitochondria, altered organelle contacts,
elevated ROS, and growth defects (El Zawily et al., 2014; Logan et al., 2003). FMT associates
with cytosolic ribosomes at the mitochondrial surface to promote translation of nuclear-encoded
mitochondrial mRNAs (Ayabe et al., 2021; Hemono et al., 2022), and contributes to mitophagy
during de-etiolation (Ma et al., 2021). Despite these well-characterized mitochondrial functions,
whether mitochondrial perturbation can influence plastid proteostasis or alter nuclear
transcriptional states linked to chloroplast function has not been explored. Arabidopsis encodes
three FMT-related homologues—*REC1-REC3*—that regulate chloroplast compartment size, and
in tomato they additionally influence plastid development and plastid-related gene expression (Hu
et al., 2024; Larkin et al., 2016), although their functions in organelle stress responses remain
unresolved.

To identify pathways capable of actively restoring chloroplast proteostasis when ClpC1 function
is lost, we performed a forward EMS suppressor screen in the severe chlorotic *clpc1-1* mutant.
Multiple independent suppressors carried mutations in *FMT*, revealing an unexpected connection
between mitochondrial perturbation and recovery of chloroplast function. RNA-seq and
comparative proteomics uncovered coordinated remodeling of nuclear gene expression and
chloroplast protein investment, consistent with a transition from a plastid stress state to a recovery
state. We show that loss of *FMT* is associated with increased *REC2* expression and transcriptional
upregulation of *CLPC2,* a ClpC1 paralog, and that *REC1* and *REC2* are required for full *fmt*-
mediated compensation. Elevated ClpC2 functionally substitutes for ClpC1, restoring chloroplast

proteostasis, pigmentation, and growth. Together, these findings reveal an inter-organelle

compensatory mechanism in which mitochondrial perturbation enables reprogramming of nuclear

gene expression to re-establish chloroplast proteostasis when ClpC1 function is compromised.

RESULTS

Suppressor Screen Identifies Green Leaf Mutants in the *clpc1-1* Background

To identify new genetic factors involved in chloroplast proteostasis and to gain insight into cellular

responses to *CLPC1* deficiency, we performed a forward genetic suppressor screen in the *clpc1-1*

background. The *clpc1-1* mutant exhibits a pronounced virescent and growth-retarded phenotype,

enabling efficient visual identification of M2 individuals with restored greening and enhanced

growth. Approximately 10,000 *clpc1-1* seeds were mutagenized with ethyl methanesulfonate

(EMS), and the resulting M2 progeny were screened for recovery of the chlorotic phenotype. We

identified ~10 independent suppressor candidates showing partial or near-complete restoration of

the wild-type phenotype. Among these, four lines with the strongest recovery—approaching wild

type—were selected for detailed characterization (Figure 1A, B). The remaining candidates

displayed weaker phenotypes and were not pursued further in this study.

To genetically map the causal suppressor mutations, each of the four selected lines—designated

socc (suppressor of *clpc1*)—was backcrossed to the parental *clpc1-1* mutant. In the segregating

BC1F2 populations, the green-leaf phenotype appeared at an approximate 1:3 ratio

(green:chlorotic), consistent with suppression conferred by a single recessive locus. For each *socc*

line, genomic DNA was extracted from more than 50 BC1F2 individuals displaying either green

or chlorotic phenotypes. DNA from plants of the same phenotype was pooled and subjected to

whole-genome sequencing. Candidate causal variants were then identified by comparing allele

frequency differences between the green and chlorotic bulks using the SIMPLE pipeline

(Wachsman et al., 2017) (Figure 1A).

Whole-Genome Sequencing Reveals Recurrent Mutations in *FMT*

Analysis of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) frequencies across bulked segregant pools revealed that all four independent suppressor lines carried distinct EMS-induced mutations in a common gene, *FMT* (*At3g52140*). Representative phenotypes of these lines are shown in Figure 1B, each exhibiting substantial restoration of greening relative to the *clpc1-1* parental mutant.

In *socc43-1 clpc1-1*, a missense mutation in exon 10 of *FMT* results in a Glu534Lys substitution. In contrast, *socc20-1*, *socc20-4*, and *socc39-1* carry mutations affecting canonical splice donor or splice acceptor sites, or adjacent splice regions, all predicted to disrupt proper splicing and impair *FMT* function. Notably, *socc43-1* also harbors a synonymous substitution near an exon–intron boundary that may affect splicing efficiency (Figure 1C; Supplemental Table 1). The independent recovery of distinct EMS-induced mutations in *FMT* across multiple suppressor lines strongly implicates *FMT* as the candidate locus underlying suppression of *clpc1-1*.

Complementation Confirms *FMT* as the Causal Suppressor Gene

To test whether loss of *FMT* is responsible for suppression, each of the four EMS-derived suppressor lines was transformed with a wild-type *FMT* genomic construct driven by its native promoter (*pFMT::FMT*). In all cases, reintroduction of functional *FMT* restored the chlorotic and stunted phenotype of *clpc1-1*, thereby reversing suppression (Figure 1D). These complementation results provide strong functional evidence that disruption of *FMT* is directly responsible for the green, growth-recovered phenotype of the suppressor lines.

T-DNA Insertion Mutants Validate *FMT* as the Causal Suppressor Gene

To further validate *FMT* as the gene responsible for suppression of the *clpc1-1* phenotype, we analyzed two independent T-DNA insertion alleles, *fmt-3* and *fmt-4*. When combined with *clpc1-1*, both double mutants (*fmt-3clpc1-1* and *fmt-4clpc1-1*) exhibited restored greening and growth, phenocopying the EMS-derived suppressor lines (Figure 1E).

To assess the effects of EMS- and T-DNA–induced mutations on *FMT* transcript accumulation,

we performed semi-quantitative RT-PCR using four primer sets spanning different regions of the

FMT coding sequence (1F1R–4F4R) (Supplemental Figure 1A, B). In *fmt-3*, *FMT* transcript levels

were strongly reduced across all primer sets, consistent with a severe knockdown. In contrast, *fmt-*

4 showed loss of amplification at the C-terminal region (3F3R and 4F4R), consistent with a null

allele. EMS-derived *socc* alleles exhibited aberrant splicing patterns, with *socc20-1*, *socc20-4*, and

socc43-1 producing additional higher-molecular-weight bands with the 3F3R primer set,

indicative of mis-spliced transcripts. Across all EMS alleles tested, overall *FMT* transcript

abundance was reduced relative to *clpc1-1* (Supplemental Figure 1B), consistent with partial loss

of function.

As expected, *CLPC1* transcripts were absent in all *clpc1-1* backgrounds, confirming that *clpc1-1*

is a null allele and that suppression does not arise from *CLPC1* reactivation. Notably, *FMT*

transcripts were elevated in *clpc1-1* relative to wild type, suggesting transcriptional upregulation

of *FMT* in response to chloroplast dysfunction caused by *CLPC1* loss. Together, these data validate

the molecular identity of both T-DNA and EMS-derived suppressor alleles and demonstrate that

suppression arises through loss of *FMT* function rather than restoration of *CLPC1*.

To test whether *fmt*-mediated suppression restores chloroplast performance, we measured

maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm) and total pigment content. Both *fmt-3clpc1-1* and

socc20-1clpc1-1 displayed significantly higher Fv/Fm values than *clpc1-1*, approaching wild-type

levels (Figure 1F, left). Total chlorophyll and carotenoid contents showed a similar trend (Figure

1F, middle and right). These results indicate that *fmt*-mediated suppression improves chloroplast

function—enhancing photosynthetic efficiency and pigment accumulation in the *clpc1-1*

background.

Heteroallelic Crosses Confirm *FMT* as the Causal Suppressor Gene

To confirm that the EMS-derived *socc* suppressor mutations disrupt *FMT* rather than other loci,

we performed heteroallelic complementation tests. F1 progeny from *fmt-3clpc1-1*×*fmt-4clpc1-1*

crosses exhibited the same suppressed phenotype as the parental lines, confirming allelism

between the two T-DNA insertions (Supplemental Figure 2A). Likewise, F1 progeny from each

EMS-derived *socc_clpc1-1×fmt-3clpc1-1* cross displayed the suppressed phenotype, indicating

failure to complement. These results establish that all four *socc* alleles represent independent loss-

of-function mutations in *FMT*.

CRISPR-Derived *clpc1* Null Alleles Confirm Allele-Independent Suppression by *fmt*

To rule out T-DNA–specific epigenetic suppression of *clpc1-1*, we generated two independent

CRISPR-derived null alleles (*clpc1-4*, *clpc1-5*), each carrying frameshift mutations in exon 4. Both

alleles phenocopied *clpc1-1* and failed to complement it in heteroallelic crosses (Supplemental

Figure 2B). Importantly, both were robustly suppressed by *fmt-3* (Figure 1G), demonstrating that

fmt-mediated rescue is allele-independent and does not result from epigenetic reactivation (Gao

and Zhao, 2013; Jia et al., 2015) of the T-DNA insertion. Together, these results establish *FMT*

loss of function as the causal basis of all recovered EMS suppressors and demonstrate that

disruption of *FMT* restores chloroplast performance in multiple *clpc1* null alleles through a

genuine genetic interaction with *CLPC1*.

188 *fmt* Specifically Suppresses *clpc1-1* but Not Other Chloroplast Proteostasis or Import
189 Mutants

We next investigated whether *fmt*-mediated suppression is specific to *CLPC1* or extends to other

components of chloroplast proteostasis and protein import. To test this, we examined genetic

interactions between *fmt* and representative mutants affecting distinct subunits of the Clp protease

complex and the chloroplast import machinery.

To determine whether suppression extended to other components of the Clp chaperone-protease

complex, we crossed *fmt* with *clpr2-1* (Rudella et al., 2006), a non-catalytic core subunit mutant,

and with the *clpt1-2clpt2-1* double mutant (Kim *et al.*, 2015), which lacks accessory proteins

critical for Clp complex stability and assembly. Neither *fmt-3* nor *fmt-4* suppressed the pale, small

phenotype of *clpr2-1* (Figure 2A), and *fmt-4* did not rescue the severe developmental defects of

clpt1-2clpt2-1 (Figure 2B). These results indicate that *fmt* suppression is not broadly applicable to

defects in the Clp protease complex and may act specifically at the level of ClpC1.

We next tested genetic interactions between *fmt* and mutants defective in the chloroplast protein

import. The *ppi1-1* mutant, lacking the TOC33 receptor and displaying a pale-green, small size

seedling phenotype (Kubis et al., 2003), was crossed with *fmt-3*. Similarly, the small and pale

tic40-4 mutant, defective in a co-chaperone of the TIC complex (Bedard et al., 2017), was crossed

with both *fmt-3* and *fmt-4*. In all cases, the resulting double mutants displayed exacerbated

phenotypes relative to the respective single mutants. Specifically, *fmt-3ppi1-1* plants were smaller

than *ppi1-1* alone, and *fmt-3tic40-4* and *fmt-4tic40-4* plants were markedly smaller and more

chlorotic than *tic40-4* (Figure 2C, D). These results show that *fmt* does not restore defects in

chloroplast protein import and that loss of *FMT* further impairs plastid function when import is

compromised. Thus, *fmt*-mediated suppression is highly specific to *clpc1-1* and does not reflect

general rescue of Clp or import defects.

fmt-mediated suppression of _clpc1-1_ operates independently of GUN1

To examine whether *fmt* interacts with plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling pathways (Richter

et al., 2023), we combined *fmt* alleles with *gun1-101*. While *fmt* and *gun1-101* single mutants were

uniformly green, all *fmtgun1-101* double mutants displayed a distinctive variegated phenotype (Fig.

2E), indicating that loss of *GUN1* results in unstable chloroplast biogenesis and function in *fmt*

backgrounds.

We next tested whether *GUN1* is required for *fmt*-mediated suppression of *clpc1-1*. The *clpc1-*

1gun1-101 double mutant exhibited a more severe phenotype than *clpc1-1* alone (Figure 2F).

However, introduction of *fmt-3*, *fmt-4*, or *socc20-1* into the *clpc1-1gun1-101* background restored

greening and growth (Figure 2F), demonstrating that suppression occurs in the absence of *GUN1*.

Notably, the triple mutants retained the variegation characteristic of *fmt gun1-101*, suggesting that

loss of ClpC1 and loss of GUN1 have different underlying molecular causes (Figure 2F).

***fmt* Suppressor Lines Restore Chloroplast Ultrastructure in *clpc1-1* Despite Persistent**
Mitochondrial Clustering

Previous studies showed that wild-type chloroplasts exhibit compact morphology with well-
stacked thylakoids, whereas *fmt* mutants retain normal chloroplast ultrastructure but display
abnormal mitochondrial clustering and aggregation (El Zawily *et al.*, 2014). Consistent with its
severe chlorotic phenotype, *clpc1-1* chloroplasts appeared swollen and irregular, with reduced
stromal density and poorly organized thylakoid membranes (Figure 3A). In contrast, *fmt-3clpc1-1*
double mutants exhibited compact chloroplasts with dense stroma and well-developed grana stacks,
closely resembling wild type (Figure 3A). Mitochondria in the double mutants remained tightly
clustered, reflecting the characteristic *fmt* phenotype.

***fmt* Suppressor Lines Normalize ClpC1-Dependent Substrate Selector and Substrate Levels**

To assess whether *fmt*-mediated suppression restores chloroplast proteostasis, we examined
steady-state levels of ClpC1-associated proteins by immunoblotting (Figure 3B). ClpF (an N-
recognin adaptor), ClpS1 (a substrate selector), and PAA2 (a thylakoid Cu-transporting ATPase
and Clp substrate) were analyzed as representative markers of ClpC1-dependent function. PAA2
degradation requires ClpC1 under copper-replete conditions (Tapken *et al.*, 2015), making it a
sensitive marker of ClpC1-dependent activity. Immunoblotting showed that *clpc1-1* accumulated
high levels of ClpF, ClpS1, and the ClpC1 substrate PAA2 (Fig. 3B), consistent with previous
reports (Nishimura *et al.*, 2015; Nishimura *et al.*, 2013; Tapken *et al.*, 2015). In *fmt-4clpc1-1* and
socc20-1clpc1-1, ClpS1 and PAA2 levels decreased toward wild-type abundance, and ClpF levels
trended downward.

***fmt* Suppressor Lines Restore Clp Protease Activity**

To directly assess whether suppression restores functional proteolysis, we performed a PAA2
degradation assay under $CuSO_4$-replete conditions, following the approach of (Tapken *et al.*, 2015).
PAA2 (HMA8) is a thylakoid Cu-transporting ATPase that is selectively degraded under high Cu^{2+}

conditions in a ClpC1-dependent manner. Arabidopsis seedlings were grown on MS agar plates

with or without $CuSO_4$, and PAA2 abundance was analyzed from total protein extracts (Figure

3C). In wild-type, $CuSO_4$ treatment caused a pronounced decrease in PAA2 levels, consistent with

active Clp-mediated degradation. In *clpc1-1*, PAA2 remained highly abundant and insensitive to

$CuSO_4$, indicating a strong defect in proteolytic turnover. Strikingly, Cu^{2+}-dependent PAA2

degradation was restored in all three *fmt*-mediated suppressor lines: *fmt-3clpc1-1*, *fmt-4clpc1-1*,

and *socc20-1clpc1-1*. In each case, $CuSO_4$ treatment led to a marked reduction in PAA2 levels,

closely resembling the wild-type response and demonstrating that *fmt* suppression restores Cu^{2+}-

dependent Clp protease activity. In contrast, *fmt-3clpr2-1* exhibited persistent PAA2 accumulation

similar to *clpr2-1*, reinforcing that *fmt* selectively suppresses *clpc1-1* but does not bypass defects

in the Clp protease core.

fmt*-Mediated Suppression of *clpc1-1* Involves Transcriptional Upregulation of *CLPC2

The recovery of chloroplast structure and proteostasis in *fmtclpc1-1* mutants (Figure 3A, C)

suggested that *fmt* may activate a compensatory mechanism that restores Clp chaperone capacity

in the absence of ClpC1. Because ClpC1 and ClpC2 have partially overlapping functions—with

ClpC2 able to substitute for ClpC1 when expressed at higher levels—we asked whether *fmt*

suppressors increase *CLPC2* expression.

To test this, we quantified *CLPC2* transcript abundance, along with *CLPD* as a related control, by

RT–qPCR across multiple genotypes (Figure 3D). *CLPC2* expression was approximately twofold

higher in *fmt-3*, *fmt-4*, *fmt-3clpc1-1*, *fmt-4clpc1-1*, and *socc20-1clpc1-1* relative to wild type and

clpc1-1, indicating that loss of *FMT* consistently induces *CLPC2* transcription. In contrast, *CLPD*

transcript levels showed only minor variation among genotypes and did not exhibit the coordinated

upregulation seen for *CLPC2*, indicating that the compensatory response is specific to *CLPC2*

rather than a general induction of Clp chaperone genes.

Native Promoter–Driven Elevation of *CLPC2* Is Sufficient to Rescue the *clpc1-1* Phenotype

Because *CLPC1* expression is normally far higher than *CLPC2* in wild-type plants, we next asked

whether the moderate increase in *CLPC2* observed in *fmtclpc1-1* suppressor lines is sufficient to

account for phenotypic rescue. To test this, and to avoid artifacts associated with strong

constitutive promoters, we generated *pCLPC2::genomic-CLPC2/clpc1-1* lines expressing

genomic *CLPC2* under its native promoter.

These lines showed 2-4-fold increases in *CLPC2* transcripts compared with *clpc1-1* and showed

proportional restoration of greening and pigment accumulation (Fig. 3E–G) (*i.e.* higher *CLPC2*

transcript levels result in better suppression/complementation), demonstrating that a several-fold

increase in ClpC2 is enough to offset complete loss of *clpc1-1*. The scaling of *CLPC2* expression

across the overexpression lines is consistent with differences in *gCLPC2* copy number, and

indicates that the promoter is not saturated in the *clpc1-1* background.

Together, these findings indicate that physiologically modest upregulation of *CLPC2* is sufficient

to compensate for loss of *CLPC1* function. This finding complements earlier work by (Kovacheva

et al., 2007), who showed that strong *35S::CLPC2* overexpression can also rescue *clpc1* defects,

although high expression occasionally triggered co-suppression-associated albino phenotypes.

FMT* Expression Level Negatively Correlates with Growth and Chlorosis Severity in *clpc1-

1

To further examine how *FMT* expression levels influence the *clpc1-1* phenotype, we generated

pFMT::FMT/clpc1-1 lines in which *FMT* was expressed at elevated levels under its native

promoter, minimizing non-physiological expression patterns sometimes associated with the 35S

promoter. Seven independent OE lines were obtained, spanning a broad range of rosette size and

chlorosis severity (Supplemental Figure 3A). Notably, higher *FMT* expression consistently

correlated with smaller rosettes and reduced greening. Lines with the strongest overexpression

(e.g., OE#1) displayed the most pronounced chlorosis, whereas lines with lower expression (e.g.,

OE#7) more closely resembled *clpc1-1*. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR confirmed graded differences

in *FMT* transcript abundance among these lines (Supplemental Figure 3B), and densitometric

analysis revealed a clear inverse relationship between *FMT* transcript level and phenotype severity (Supplemental Figure 3C).

Based on this expression gradient, we selected OE#1 and OE#2—the two lines with the highest *FMT* transcript accumulation—for detailed physiological and molecular characterization (Figure 3H–I).

Overexpression of *FMT* Represses *CLPC2* and Exacerbates the *clpc1-1* Phenotype

We noticed that the smaller, chlorotic rosette phenotype of *pFMT::FMT/clpc1-1* overexpression lines (OE#1 and OE#2) closely resembled that of the *clpc1-1clpc2-2* double mutant (Figure 3H). *clpc2-2* is a partial loss-of-function allele, and *clpc1-1clpc2-2* plants exhibit a smaller, more chlorotic phenotype than *clpc1-1*, whereas the *clpc2-3* null mutant causes embryo lethality in the *clpc1-1* background (Nishimura *et al.*, 2013). Although the two *FMT* overexpression lines were slightly larger than *clpc1-1clpc2-2*, they were markedly smaller and paler than *clpc1-1*, suggesting that elevated *FMT* expression exacerbates the *clpc1-1* phenotype by repressing—rather than supporting—*CLPC2*.

To verify the molecular basis of this phenotype, we quantified *CLPC2* transcript levels by RT-qPCR (Figure 3D). *CLPC2* transcript abundance in the *pFMT::FMT/clpc1-1* overexpression lines was approximately 60-70% of *clpc1-1* levels, while the *clpc1-1clpc2-2* double mutant retained about 50% of *clpc1-1* expression (Figure 3D). The lower *CLPC2* expression in *clpc1-1clpc2-2* was consistent with its more severe phenotype (Figure 3H). These results demonstrate that *FMT* overexpression represses *CLPC2* transcription in the *clpc1-1* background, supporting the conclusion that *FMT* functions as a negative regulator of *CLPC2*.

To determine whether these transcriptional differences impact chloroplast performance, we measured the maximum quantum yield of PSII (Fv/Fm) and pigment content (Figure 3I). Both *FMT* OE lines and *clpc1-1clpc2-2* exhibited significantly reduced Fv/Fm and pigment levels relative to *clpc1-1*, consistent with their more chlorotic and stunted phenotypes.

Together, these findings indicate that *fmt*-mediated suppression of *clpc1-1* involves transcriptional

upregulation of *CLPC2*, which compensates for loss of ClpC1. Conversely, elevated *FMT*

expression reduces *CLPC2* transcript abundance and phenocopies partial *CLPC2* deficiency,

exacerbating the *clpc1-1* phenotype.

RNA-seq reveals coordinated transcriptional remodeling associated with *clpc1* suppression

To better understand the molecular phenotypes of *fmt* and *clpc1-1,* and suppression of the *clpc1-1*

phenotype in *fmtclpc1-1*, we performed RNA-seq analysis of Arabidopsis seedlings at

developmental stage 1.07 for WT, *fmt-3, clpc1-1*, *fmt-3clpc1-1* and *FMT/clpc1-1* (OE#1). After

mapping, quality control, and normalization, mRNA expression values were obtained for 21,202

genes (Supplemental Data Set 1A), and pairwise differential expression statistics were calculated

for downstream analyses. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showed a very distinct signature

for *clpc1,* which was further enhanced in *FMT/clpc1* (Fig. 4A). *fmtclpc1* was more closely related

to WT, whereas *fmt* was very similar to WT but remained distinct from *fmtclpc1*. The PCA results

are consistent with the observed phenotypes across these five genotypes.

We extracted all genes that showed a pairwise difference of at least 2-fold ($x<0.5$ or $x>2$) with

$P<0.01$ in at least one of the 10 possible comparisons across genotypes (Supplemental Data Set

1B). This resulted in 4,745 nuclear protein-coding genes that we annotated for subcellular protein

location and function (Supplemental Data Set 1B). Gene cluster analysis showed three main

clusters (I, II, III) that each further separated into three subclusters (Fig. 4B). Cluster I is dominated

by genes for which the mRNA is enriched in *clpc1* and *FM*T*/clpc1* often with most enhanced

expression in *FMT/clpc1*. Cluster II is enriched for genes that are reduced in *clpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*.

Cluster III contains genes with mRNA generally enriched only in *fmtclpc1* as compared to the

other four genotypes. MapMan (Thimm et al., 2004) functional bin analysis shows that cluster I

and III are both highly depleted for genes encoding photosynthetic proteins (Fig. 4C). Cluster I,

but not clusters II and III, is also relatively low in genes involved in mitochondrial electron

transport/ATP synthesis (bin 9), tetrapyrrole metabolism (bin 19) and amino acid metabolism (bin

13). Cluster I is most enriched for genes involved in DNA and RNA related processes. Most genes

in cluster III (subcluster 8 and 9) are expressed much higher in *fmtclpc1* than in any of the other

four genotypes; this cluster is especially enriched for signaling (bin 30) and stress (bin 20) (Fig.

4C). Figure 4D shows the bin-cluster analysis for the genes encoding experimentally confirmed

plastid-, mitochondrial-, and dually localized proteins (556, 58 and 15 genes, respectively). 72%

belong to cluster II. RNA metabolism shows strong enrichment for cluster I – many of these are

PPR proteins with functions in editing and RNA processing of plastid- or mitochondria-encoded

genes. Proteins involved in the protein life cycle (bin 29) are also enriched in this cluster I.

Photosynthetic functions (bin 1) and starch metabolism (bin 2) are nearly exclusively in cluster II,

consistent with the loss of photosynthesis phenotypes of *clpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*. In contrast, amino

acid metabolism (bin 13), sulfur assimilation (bin 14), and hormone synthesis (bin 17 - nearly

exclusively proteins involved in plastid jasmonate metabolism, including allene oxide cyclase 1,

2, 3, and 4; allene oxide synthase; and lipoxygenase 1 and 2) are enriched in cluster III.

Subcluster 4 (376 genes) stands out for its high mRNA levels in the *fmt* line compared to the other

four genotypes. Many of the genes with the most pronounced expression profiles encode

mitochondrial proteins (Supplemental Figure 4A), including alternative oxidase 1A (AOX1A),

stomatin-like protein 2 (SLP2), heat shock protein HSP23.5, DUF295 domain protein DOB5, and

external NAD(P)H dehydrogenase subunit B3 (NDH-B3), all of which are reported to have low

basal expression levels (Elhafez et al., 2006). AOX1A and NDH-B3 partially uncouple respiration

from mitochondrial ATP production and thereby reduce mitochondrial reactive oxygen species

(ROS) production (Selinski et al., 2018). AOX1A is a marker of the mitochondrial retrograde

response (Wang et al., 2020). SLP2 affects protein abundance and activity of respiratory complex

I, likely through effects on its assembly and/or stability (Gehl et al., 2014; Gehl and Sweetlove,

2014). HSP23.5 is a member of the HSP20-like chaperone superfamily; although this specific

protein has not been characterized, mitochondrial HSP20 chaperones are important for facilitating

protein folding within mitochondria, particularly under stress conditions (Waters and Vierling,

2020). DUF295 domain protein DOB5 has not been characterized but is part of the large DUF295

family (Lama et al., 2019). Notably, subcluster 4 contains eight DUF295 family members, seven

of which are predicted to encode mitochondrial proteins. Many mitochondrial DUF295 proteins

are induced by mitochondrial dysfunction (Lama *et al.*, 2019), which is highly consistent with their

elevated abundance in the *fmt* background.

Subclusters eight and nine (within cluster III) contain genes with high mRNA levels in *fmtclpc1* compared to the other four genotypes. These genes may provide clues about the nature of *clpc1* suppression by *fmt*. Among the confirmed plastid and mitochondrial proteins, we identified five genes for which the RNA levels in *fmtclpc1* were more than threefold higher than in each of the other four genotypes (Supplemental Figure 4B). Surprisingly, all five are involved in jasmonate or salicylic acid metabolism or response; these include two allene oxide cyclases (AOC1 and AOC3) and lipoxygenase 3 involved in JA synthesis (Bittner et al., 2022), the plastid envelope MATE transporter EDS5, which is likely involved in SA export from plastids (Rekhter et al., 2019), and mitochondrial arginase 2 (ARGAH2), which is highly induced by methyl jasmonate (Brownfield et al., 2008). Furthermore, the plastid Sigma1 interacting factor (Sib1, At3g56710) (Morikawa et al., 2002) is also highly expressed in *fmtclpc1* compared to *clpc1* (6.3-fold) and 2-3 fold compared to WT and *fmt*. Sib1 has been shown to be involved in JA and SA responses either within the chloroplast or in the nucleus (Xie et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2022). Overexpression of Sib1 causes hyperactivation of defense-related genes following SA and JA treatments (Xie *et al.*, 2010). These results suggest that JA and SA play an important role in the suppression of *clpc1* by *fmt*.

Some 30 transcription factors (TFs) have been highlighted as important during chloroplast and/or mitochondrial dysfunction, stress, retrograde signaling, or plastid biogenesis and proteostasis (Bittner *et al.*, 2022; He et al., 2023; Hernandez-Verdeja, 2025; Wang et al., 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2020) (Supplemental Table 3). Fifteen of these TFs showed at least one pairwise differential expression (adj. P<0.01) (Supplemental Data Set 1B; Fig. 4B). Four of these—HSFA2, GLK1, BBX15, and WRKY40 (At2g26150, At2g20570, At1g25440 and At1g80840)—showed significant differential expression patterns consistent with contributing to *clpc1* suppression (Fig. 4E). HSFA2 (cluster II-4) was strongly upregulated in *fmt* compared to WT but reduced in *clpc1*, with partial restoration in *fmtclpc1*. Notably, HSFA2 was also elevated in the *FMT/clpc1* background despite a more chlorotic and smaller phenotype, indicating that HSFA2 induction does not correlate with phenotypic recovery and is unlikely to be a primary driver of *clpc1* suppression. In contrast, GLK1 (cluster II-6) was unaffected in *fmt* but strongly suppressed in *clpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*, with partial restoration in *fmtclpc1*. The zinc-finger TF BBX15 (cluster II-4) (Ohmiya et al., 2019) was upregulated in *fmt* and downregulated in *clpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*, but restored to WT levels in *fmtclpc1*. WRKY40 (cluster III-9), which is involved in attenuation of basal pathogen

defense and is upregulated by GLK1/2 (Lee et al., 2023), was elevated in *fmtclpc1,* likely reflecting

a genetic interaction between *fmt* and *clpc1*. We note that the RNA levels of the well-studied TFs

HY5 and GLK2 (both positive regulators of genes encoding chloroplast proteins involved in

photosynthesis and chlorophyll synthesis), as well as the direct GLK1 target BBX14 (a homolog

of BBX15) implicated in chloroplast development (Atanasov et al., 2024), were not significantly

different (adj. P<0.01) across these five genotypes.

Comparative proteomics reveals coordinated remodeling of chloroplast protein investment

during *clpc1* suppression

To understand the suppression effect of *fmt* on the *clpc1* leaf proteome phenotype, total leaf

proteomes of *clpc1-1* and *fmt-3clpc1-1* were compared by quantitative proteomics. A total of 2,975

proteins and protein groups comprising close homologs were identified, most of which (95%) were

detected in both genotypes (Supplemental Data Set 2). Correlation analysis and principal

component analysis (PCA) showed clear separation between genotypes and low variation among

biological replicates (Supplemental Figure 5A,B). Of the identified proteins, 1,266 (43%) were

localized to chloroplasts and/or mitochondria, representing ~65% of all matched spectra. The five

thylakoid complexes involved in the light reactions (PSII, PSI, cytochrome b6f, NDH and ATP

synthase) all increased between 32% and 49%, whereas the Calvin-Benson cycle enzymes

collectively increased by 25% in *fmtclpc1* compared with *clpc1*, consistent with suppression of the

virescent phenotype (Supplemental Figure 5C). Consequently, relative investment in most other

functional categories decreased, except for gluconeogenesis/glyoxylate cycle (bin 6), nitrogen

metabolism (bin 12), and the TCA cycle/organic acid metabolism (bin 8), which increased by 9%,

4% and 3%, respectively. The relative abundance of the chloroplast ClpPRT complex was slightly

lower (18%), whereas ClpC2 was 36% higher in *fmtclpc1* compared with *clpc1-1* (ClpC1 was not

detected) (Fig. 5A), consistent with increased *CLPC2* RNA levels (Fig. 3D).

Figure 5B shows the volcano plot of individual proteins comparing the two genotypes. At P<0.01

and a >2-fold difference between genotypes, 13 proteins increased and 32 decreased in *fmtclpc1*

compared with *clpc1* (Fig. 5B, Table 1). All 13 increased proteins were plastid (8) or mitochondrial

(4), except for REDUCED CHLOROPLAST COVERAGE 2 (REC2), which is localized to the

cytosol. REC2 was enriched 2.3-fold in the double mutant. REC2 has two homologs (REC1 and

REC3), and the REC family is phylogenetically related to FMT. REC1 and REC3 were detected

in both genotypes, whereas FMT was detected only in *clpc1-1* and not in *fmtclpc1-1*, consistent

with *fmt* being a null line; REC1 and REC3 did not change significantly (Fig. 5C).

Six of the increased chloroplast proteins are directly involved in the light reactions of

photosynthesis, consistent with suppression of the virescent *clpc1* leaf phenotype. One additional

chloroplast protein is involved in chlorophyll synthesis, whereas the thylakoid rhodanese domain

protein has no known function. The mitochondrial protein showing the largest increase (4.6-fold)

was stomatin-like protein 1 (SLP1), localized to the inner mitochondrial membrane (Fig. 5B, Table

1). SLP1, likely together with its homolog SLP2, forms a ~3-MDa large complex in Arabidopsis

mitochondria (Gehl *et al.*, 2014). SLP2 was also strongly increased (6.7-fold) in *fmtclpc1* relative

to *clpc1* (p-value 0.013). SLP1 and SLP2 are part of the band-7/SPFH superfamily of membrane

scaffold proteins (Gehl and Sweetlove, 2014). Loss of SLP1 reduces protein abundance and

activity of respiratory complex I, indicating a role in its assembly and/or stability (Gehl *et al.*,

2014).

We also identified four mitochondrial prohibitins (PHB1, PHB2, PHB3, and PHB6), which are

members of the same superfamily (Gehl and Sweetlove, 2014); however, their abundance was not

increased in *fmtclpc1* compared with *clpc1*. Three additional mitochondrial proteins were

increased: the membrane transporter ATM3, which exports oxidized glutathione; galactonolactone

dehydrogenase (GLDH), which catalyzes the final step in ascorbate synthesis; and MTLPD1, a

redox-regulated enzyme involved in photorespiration and the TCA cycle. These proteins are likely

upregulated in response to mitochondrial dysfunction and stress resulting from loss of FMT. The

ability of ATM3 to export GSSG has been implicated in helping to stabilize against excessive

glutathione oxidation in mitochondria and thereby maintaining a suitable redox potential (Marty

et al., 2019).

The 32 reduced proteins (*fmtclpc1* compared with *clpc1*) were distributed across chloroplasts (14),

mitochondria (3), or other cellular compartments, encompassing diverse functions, particularly

plastid fatty acid and lipid metabolism and plastid RNA-related processes (Table 1). The most

strongly decreased proteins included FMT (as expected), cytosolic HSP90-1 involved in protein
folding, the chloroplast thylakoid protein LIL1.2/ELIP2 (Tzvetkova-Chevolleau et al., 2007), the
chloroplast pyruvate dehydrogenase E1-β subunit (PDH-Eβ) involved in acetyl-CoA synthesis for
fatty acid biosynthesis, a chloroplast DEAD/DEAH-box helicase of unknown function, the
essential mitochondrial intermembrane space protein TIM10 involved in protein sorting, and the
chloroplast inner envelope pyruvate importer BASS2 (Furumoto et al., 2011). LIL1.2/ELIP2
reduces chlorophyll levels by inhibiting chlorophyll synthesis rather than increasing chlorophyll
degradation, and LIL1.2/ELIP2 does not directly affect photosystem function or the electron
transport chain (Tzvetkova-Chevolleau *et al.*, 2007). Its low ratio (0.19) in *fmtclpc1/clpc1* is
consistent with the low chlorophyll levels observed in *clpc1*. HSP90-1 is a cytosolic member of
the large HSP90 family (7 members) of protein chaperones involved in protein folding, maturation,
and degradation. HSP90-1 was reduced six-fold in *fmtclpc1* compared with *clpc1* (Fig. 5B, Table
1), indicating that cytosolic folding demand is higher in *clpc1* than in the double mutant. We
identified all seven HSP90 members (HSP90-1 to -7), including chloroplast cpHSP90-5,
mitochondrial HSP90-6 and ER-localized HSP90-7, as well as the four cytosolic members
(HSP90-1 to -4) (Fig. 5D). All HSP90 members were lower in *fmtclpc1* than *clpc1,* indicating that
suppression of *clpc1* resulted in reduced folding stress (or demands) across subcellular
compartments (Wu et al., 2019).

REC1 and REC2 are required for full suppression of the *clpc1-1* phenotype by *fmt*

In both our RNA-seq-based transcriptomic and MS/MS-based proteomic analyses, REC2 mRNA
and protein were induced during *fmt*-mediated suppression of *clpc1-1*. Given its close phylogenetic
relationship to *FMT*, we prioritized *REC2* together with its paralogs *REC1* and *REC3* for follow-
up functional analysis. RT–qPCR (Fig. 6A) confirmed the RNA-seq results and was consistent
with the proteomic analysis (Fig. 5C). *REC2* was increased 2.5-fold in *fmt-3clpc1-1*, and decreased
to 0.6-fold in *FMT/clpc1-1* (OE#1), both relative to *clpc1-1* (Fig. 6A). In contrast, *REC1* and *REC3*
transcript levels were largely unchanged, indicating that *REC2* is the only REC family member
responsive to loss of *FMT* function.

We next tested whether *REC1*, *REC2*, or *REC3* might share *FMT*'s capacity to suppress the *clpc1-*

1 phenotype. To address this, we generated double mutants between *clpc1-1* and *rec1-3*, *rec2-1*,

or *rec3-1*. As shown in Figure 6B, none of these double mutants exhibited suppression of the *clpc1-*

1 phenotype. The *rec3-1clpc1-1* mutant closely resembled *clpc1-1* alone, whereas both *rec1-*

3clpc1-1 and *rec2-1clpc1-1* displayed smaller rosettes and more pronounced chlorosis than *clpc1-*

1. These results indicate that, although evolutionarily related to *FMT*, the *REC* genes cannot

substitute for *FMT* function in mitigating *CLPC1* deficiency.

We next tested whether *REC* genes are required for *fmt*-mediated rescue. Both *fmt-3rec1-3clpc1-*

1 and *fmt-3rec2-1clpc1-1* exhibited intermediate phenotypes between *fmt-3clpc1-1* and *clpc1-1*,

whereas *fmt-3rec3-1clpc1-1* resembled *fmt-3clpc1-1* (Fig. 6C). Pigment analyses mirrored these

patterns: total chlorophyll and carotenoids were reduced in *fmt-3rec1-3clpc1-1* and *fmt-3rec2-*

1clpc1-1 relative to *fmt-3clpc1-1*, while *fmt-3rec3-1clpc1-1* remained unchanged (Fig. 6D).

CLPC2 transcript abundance followed the same trend—reduced in *fmt-3rec1-3clpc1-1* and *fmt-*

3rec2-1clpc1-1, unchanged in *fmt-3rec3-1clpc1-1* (Fig. 6E). Together, these results show that

REC1 and *REC2* are required for full *fmt*-mediated suppression of *clpc1-1*, whereas *REC3* is

dispensable. *REC1* appears to be constitutively expressed, while *REC2* is upregulated in response

to the loss of *FMT*.

DISCUSSION

Our study reveals an unexpected connection between mitochondrial dysfunction and chloroplast

proteostasis, showing that loss of *FMT*–a regulator of mitochondrial morphology (El Zawily *et al.*,

2014; Logan *et al.*, 2003)—enables a compensatory response that restores chloroplast function in

the absence of ClpC1. Although *fmt* mutants exhibit clustered mitochondria and impaired

mitochondrial dynamics, they paradoxically display improved chloroplast performance in the

clpc1 background. These findings indicate that mitochondrial perturbation in *fmt* does not simply

exacerbate cellular stress but is associated with selective transcriptional and proteomic changes—

most notably induction of *CLPC2*—that enable functional compensation for loss of ClpC1. A

working model summarizing these contrasting cellular states is presented in Fig. 6F,G.

In the *clpc1* mutant (Fig. 6F), loss of ClpC1 establishes a plastid stress state associated with plastid-

to-nucleus retrograde signaling and a broadly repressive nuclear response. This state correlates

with reduced expression of transcription factors such as GLK1 and BBX15 and decreased

expression of photosynthesis-related genes. In parallel, plastid-localized metabolic response genes

including *ACC2* are upregulated, reflecting altered plastid metabolic status linked to impaired

chloroplast proteostasis and the small, virescent phenotype. Together, these features define a

stress-associated transcriptional configuration that is insufficient to restore plastid function.

By contrast, loss of FMT shifts the system into a recovery state (Fig. 6G). Despite persistent

mitochondrial   clustering,   *fmt*-mediated   suppression   restores   chloroplast   ultrastructure,

photosynthetic protein accumulation, and Clp-dependent proteolysis. This transition correlates

with induction of *REC2* and derepression of *CLPC2*, enabling ClpC2 to functionally substitute for

ClpC1. In this recovery state, transcription factors associated with chloroplast gene programs,

including GLK1 and BBX15, are restored, photosynthesis-related genes are reactivated, and

plastid stress markers such as *ACC2* and *ELIP2* decline. These changes occur independently of

GUN1-dependent retrograde signaling, indicating engagement of a distinct mitochondria-to-

nucleus communication route rather than canonical plastid stress pathways. Although GUN1 is

known to buffer import-associated defects (Wu *et al.*, 2019) and to stabilize specific plastid RNAs

to maintain organellar gene expression (Tang *et al.*, 2024), these responses alone are insufficient

to restore chloroplast function in *clpc1*. The ability of *fmt* to suppress *clpc1* in the absence of GUN1,

together with the persistence of mitochondrial abnormalities in suppressed lines, indicates that

mitochondrial   perturbation   promotes   plastid   recovery   through   a   mechanism   distinct   from

established plastid-to-nucleus signaling pathways.

The recurrence and strength of *fmt* alleles among independent suppressors highlight a specific role

for FMT in enabling compensation for ClpC1 loss. Although additional suppressor lines were

recovered in the screen, none displayed the near-complete phenotypic restoration observed in *fmt*

mutants, underscoring the distinctive contribution of *FMT*. Loss of *FMT* does not mitigate defects

in other components of the Clp protease system (Kim *et al.*, 2015; Rudella *et al.*, 2006) or
chloroplast protein import (Bedard *et al.*, 2017; Kubis *et al.*, 2003), further emphasizing that the
compensatory response is not a general bypass of plastid dysfunction.

A key downstream effector of this compensatory transition is *CLPC2*, a ClpC1 paralog. While
ClpC2 plays a minor role under normal conditions (Kovacheva *et al.*, 2007; Nishimura *et al.*, 2013)
and has been implicated in responses to organelle perturbation (Lopez *et al.*, 2024), our data extend
this view by showing that mitochondrial perturbation is sufficient to drive *CLPC2* transcription to
levels that restore Clp-dependent proteolysis and chloroplast biogenesis. The proportional
increases in *CLPC2* expression observed in native-promoter overexpression lines indicate that the
promoter is not saturated in *clpc1-1*, suggesting that *fmt* derepresses *CLPC2*. Conversely,
increasing *FMT* abundance reduces *CLPC2* expression and produces phenotypes resembling the
clpc1-1clpc2-2 double mutant, consistent with an indirect, dose-dependent negative influence of
FMT on *CLPC2* expression.

The integrated RNA-seq and comparative proteomics analyses provide critical context for this
genetic compensation. Rather than revealing activation of a dominant stress or retrograde signaling
pathway, these datasets show coordinated remodeling of nuclear gene expression and chloroplast
protein investment in *fmtclpc1*. Transcriptome profiling indicates partial restoration of
photosynthesis-associated gene expression and attenuation of plastid proteotoxic stress signatures,
accompanied by selective remodeling of stress- and signaling-associated gene clusters. Notably,
Cluster III highlights genes involved in hormonal (JA- and SA-related) and metabolic adjustment
that are selectively enriched in *fmtclpc1*, supporting the idea that suppression involves entry into a
distinct adaptive cellular state rather than engagement of a linear signaling cascade. Comparative
proteomics reinforces this interpretation by demonstrating recovery of chloroplast protein
accumulation and reduced cytosolic chaperone burden, consistent with improved plastid function
rather than a generalized stress response.

Genetic and proteomic analyses further implicate REC proteins in linking mitochondrial
perturbation to *CLPC2* induction. *REC2* is strongly enriched in *fmtclpc1*, and both *REC1* and
REC2 are required for full *fmt*-mediated suppression, whereas *REC3* appears dispensable.

Together with previous studies showing roles for REC proteins in plastid compartment size (Hu *et*
al., 2024; Larkin *et al.*, 2016) and plastid-related gene expression (Hu *et al.*, 2024), our findings
support a model in which *REC1* and *REC2* act genetically upstream of *CLPC2* induction and
contribute to the broader remodeling of plastid proteostasis during the transition from the *clpc1*
stress state to the *fmt*-mediated recovery state.

Previous work has identified GOLDEN2-LIKE and B-BOX transcription factors as components
of transcriptional networks linking chloroplast functional status with nuclear gene regulation
(Susila et al., 2023). In our study, *GLK1* and *BBX15* showed genotype-dependent expression
changes across *clpc1*, *fmt*, and *fmtclpc1*, consistent with their placement within the two-state model
outlined in Fig. 6F,G. By contrast, GLK2, BBX14, and BBX16 did not exhibit coordinated
expression changes, suggesting context-dependent engagement of the GLK–BBX regulatory
network.

Together, these findings support a model in which mitochondrial perturbation exposes a latent
capacity for inter-organelle compensation, enabling selective transcriptional and proteomic
remodeling that restores chloroplast proteostasis when ClpC1 function is compromised. Rather
than simply alleviating stress, loss of FMT appears to shift the cellular signaling landscape from a
repressive plastid stress state to a compensatory recovery state.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

EMS Mutagenesis and Suppressor Mapping by Whole-Genome Sequencing

Approximately 10,000 *Arabidopsis thaliana clpc1-1* seeds (Col-0 background) were subjected to ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis following standard procedures (Kim et al., 2006). Treated seeds (M1 generation) were sown on soil and grown under long-day conditions (16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}, 22 °C). M2 seeds were collected in bulk from individual M1 plants and screened for suppressor phenotypes. The *clpc1-1* mutant exhibits a strong chlorotic and stunted phenotype, allowing visual identification of M2 seedlings with restored leaf greening and improved growth. Approximately 60 groups of M2 seedlings were examined, and ~10 independent suppressor candidates showing partial or near-complete phenotypic recovery were identified. Four lines exhibiting the strongest recovery were selected for further analysis and designated *socc* (*suppressor of clpc1*). Each *socc* line was backcrossed to the parental *clpc1-1* mutant to generate BC1F2 populations. Segregation of the suppressor phenotype among BC1F2 progeny followed an approximate 1:3 ratio (green:chlorotic), consistent with monogenic recessive inheritance.

For bulked segregant analysis, leaf tissue from at least 50 green and 50 chlorotic BC1F2 plants was harvested separately. Genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen), and DNA from plants of the same phenotype was pooled to generate "green" and "chlorotic" bulks. Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) was performed by BGI Genomics (Hong Kong). Candidate causal variants were identified by comparing allele frequency differences between the green and chlorotic bulks using the SIMPLE pipeline (Wachsman *et al.*, 2017). Putative causal mutations were further validated by genetic complementation.

Plant Growth, T-DNA Mutant Isolation, and RNA Preparation and RT-PCR Analysis

Plant growth, genotyping, and RNA extraction were performed as described previously (Kim *et al.*, 2009). Various growth conditions are detailed in the figure legends. All T-DNA insertion lines were in the Columbia background and are as follows: *FMT* (AT3G52140), SALK_046271 (*fmt-3*) and SALK_056717 (*fmt-4*); *CLPC1* (AT5G50920), SALK_014058 (*clpc1-1*); *CLPC2*

(AT3G48870), SAIL_622_B05 (*clpc2-2*); *CLPR2* (AT1G12410), SALK_046378 (*clpr2-1*);

CLPT1 (AT4G25370), GK-285A05 (*clpt1-2*); *CLPT2* (AT4G12060), SAIL_340A10 (*clpt2-1*);

TOC33 (AT1G02280), N2107726 (*ppi1-1*); *TIC40* (AT5G16620), SAIL_92_C10 (*tic40-4*); *GUN1*

(AT2G31400), SAIL_33_D01 (*gun1-101*); *REC1* (AT1G01320), SALK_049453C (*rec1-3*);

REC2 (AT4G28080), SALK_020337C (*rec2-1*); and *REC3* (AT1G15290), SAIL_1164_H02

(*rec3-1*).

For RNA-seq analysis, total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen). For RT-

PCR, total RNA was isolated using either the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) or the XENOPURE

Total RNA Purification Kit (CelltoBio). First-strand cDNA was synthesized from equal amounts

of total RNA using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen) or TOPscript Reverse

Transcriptase (Enzynomics). Semi-quantitative RT-PCR and RT-qPCR were performed as

described previously (Bae et al., 2025; Kim *et al.*, 2015). Graphs were generated using GraphPad

Prism 10. Primers used for genomic PCR, RT-PCR analysis, and various complementation assays

are listed in table S2.

Cloning and Complementation

For *FMT*, the full-length native promoter and 5′UTR of *FMT* (1.0 kb), together with the full-length

FMT genomic DNA (8.0 kb), totaling 9.0 kb, were PCR-amplified using KOD polymerase

(TOYOBO). The PCR products were cloned into a modified pCR8/GW/TOPO vector (Invitrogen),

into which BamHI and NotI restriction sites were introduced. Using LR Clonase (Invitrogen), the

DNA fragment was transferred into the pGWB4 Gateway destination plant binary vector. For

CLPC2, the full-length native promoter and 5′UTR of *CLPC2* (1.9 kb), together with the full-

length *CLPC2* genomic DNA (5.6 kb), totaling 7.5 kb, were PCR-amplified using KOD

polymerase (TOYOBO). The PCR products were cloned into a modified pCR8/GW/TOPO vector

(Invitrogen), into which PstI and NotI restriction sites, as well as a StrepII tag and a *nosT* sequence

(0.5 kb), were introduced. Using LR Clonase (Invitrogen), the DNA fragment was transferred into

the pMDC99 Gateway destination plant binary vector. The primers used are listed in table S2.

Competent cells of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 were transformed with the binary

vectors. Plant transformation and selection were performed as described previously (Kim *et al.*,

2009), using the *Agrobacterium*-mediated floral dip method with selection on ½ MS agar plates
containing 25 μg/mL hygromycin (Duchefa Biochemie). Complemented lines were identified and
verified by PCR genotyping.

Generation of Mutant Lines Using CRISPR/Cas9

Mutations in *CLPC1* were generated using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. sgRNAs were designed with
CRISPR-P v2.0 and cloned into the pBR-Cas9 vector (provided by Dr. Jae-Young Yun, SeoulTech,
Seoul, Korea). *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 plants were transformed by the Agrobacterium-
mediated floral dip method (*A. tumefaciens* GV3101). Transgenic plants were screened by PCR
amplification of the target region followed by Sanger sequencing of CTAB-extracted DNA. Two
independent knockout alleles were recovered: *clpc1-4*, carrying a 1-bp insertion in exon 4, and
clpc1-5, containing a 32-bp deletion plus a single-nucleotide substitution in the same exon. Both
mutations introduce frameshifts predicted to abolish ClpC1 protein function. Cas9-free
homozygous segregants were identified by PCR-based genotyping (primer sequences in table S2)
and used for all subsequent analyses.

Pigment Analysis

664 Chlorophyll and carotenoid contents on a fresh-weight basis were measured in 80% acetone as
665 described previously (Kim *et al.*, 2013).

Photosynthetic Efficiency Analysis

667 Fv/Fm measurements were performed as described previously (Bae *et al.*, 2025). Briefly, plants
668 were dark-adapted for 30 min at room temperature, and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters (Fo
669 and Fm) were recorded using a FluorCam 800MF (Photon Systems Instruments, Czech Republic).
670 Fv/Fm values were calculated as (Fm - Fo)/Fm to evaluate photosystem II photochemical
671 efficiency under normal growth conditions.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

Leaves from 23-day-old plants were fixed with a mixture of 2% (v/v) glutaraldehyde and 2% (v/v) paraformaldehyde in 0.05 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) at room temperature for 4 h. The samples were washed with the same buffer and post-fixed with 1% (w/v) OsO_4 in 0.05 M cacodylate buffer at room temperature for 1 h. Fixed samples were washed again with the buffer and dehydrated through a graded ethanol series (30–100%). The samples were then embedded in LR White resin at 50 °C for 24 h. Ultrathin sections (80–100 nm thick) were prepared using an ultramicrotome equipped with a diamond knife. Sections were stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and examined using a transmission electron microscope (JEM-2100F, JEOL Ltd., Japan).

Chloroplast Isolation and Total Leaf Protein Extraction

For chloroplast isolation, leaves from wild-type and various mutant alleles were briefly homogenized in grinding medium (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0, 330 mM sorbitol, 2 mM EDTA, 5 mM ascorbic acid, 5 mM cysteine, and 0.03% BSA) and filtered through a nylon mesh. The crude plastids were collected by centrifugation at 1,100 g for 2 min and further purified on 35–85% Percoll cushions (Percoll in 0.6% Ficoll and 1.8% polyethylene glycol) by centrifugation at 3,750 g for 10 min, followed by one additional wash in grinding medium lacking ascorbic acid, cysteine, and BSA. Chloroplasts were subsequently lysed in 10 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, and 15% glycerol, containing a mixture of protease inhibitors, under mild mechanical disruption. Protein concentrations were determined using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific). Total leaf proteins were extracted as described previously (Kim *et al.*, 2015).

Immunoblot Analysis

For immunoblotting, proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose or polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes and probed with specific antibodies using chemiluminescence detection, following standard procedures. The antisera against *Arabidopsis* ClpF and ClpS1 were described

previously (Nishimura *et al.*, 2015). The anti-PAA2 antibody was kindly provided by Dr. Marinus

Pilon (Colorado State Univ., Fort Collins, CO, USA).

PAA2 Degradation Assay

The PAA2 degradation assay was performed as described previously (Tapken *et al.*, 2015) with

minor modifications. Briefly, *Arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings were grown on half-strength MS agar

plates (pH 5.8) containing 0.6% (w/v) agar and 1% (w/v) sucrose for 21 days under short-day

conditions (10/14 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}). For copper treatments, 5 μM

$CuSO_4$ was added to the growth medium, and for control conditions, 0.05 μM $CuSO_4$ was used.

Total leaf protein extraction and immunoblot analysis were performed as described previously

(Kim *et al.*, 2015). PAA2 abundance was detected using affinity-purified anti-PAA2 antibodies

(1:1000 dilution).

RNAseq analysis.

RNA analysis was carried out for five genotypes of Arabidopsis seedlings in stage 1.07, with 3

biological replicates. The genotypes are: WT, *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, FMT overexpressed

line OE#1 in *clpc1-1* (*FMT/clpc1*). Total RNA was isolated with an RNeasy plant mini kit

(Qiagen). Total RNA samples were processed for library preparation and sequencing following

the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, mRNA was enriched from total RNA using oligo(dT) beads

targeting the poly(A) tails. The isolated mRNA was then fragmented into smaller pieces, which

served as templates for first-strand cDNA synthesis using random primers. Subsequently, second-

strand cDNA synthesis was performed, incorporating dUTP in place of dTTP to enable strand

specificity. The resulting double-stranded cDNA underwent end-repair and 3′-adenylation, after

which sequencing adapters were ligated. The adapter-ligated fragments were then amplified via

PCR, and the amplified libraries were subjected to quality control assessment. Following quality

control, the libraries were circularized and further amplified to form DNA nanoballs (DNBs).

Finally, sequencing was performed using the DNBSEQ platform (DNBSEQ Technology). Raw

data with adapter sequences or low-quality sequences was filtered using SOAPnuke (Chen et al.,

2018). For individual replicate-level expression analyses, the HISAT2 aligned bam files were used

for reads counting using the featureCounts program (Liao et al., 2014)

Data normalization (Supplemental Data Set 1A), downstream analysis of differentially expressed

genes, and adjusted p-value calculation were performed using the DESeq2 package v.1.44.0 (Love

et al., 2014) in R v4.4.3. . Specifically, a DESeqDataSet object was generated using the raw counts,

with design = ~genotype. Pairwise results for each genotypic comparison of interest were then

generated using the 'results()' function of DESeq2, with the function's contrast parameter being

used to specify the relevant genotypes. The p-values were determined by the default Wald test,

and these p-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Genes with a differential

expression of at least two-fold (x<0.5 or x>2) and adjusted p value <0.01 in one of the 10 possible

comparisons across genotypes were considered for further investigation. This resulted in a set of

4745 nuclear protein-coding genes that we annotated for subcellular protein location (in particular

chloroplast and mitochondria) and function (using the MapMan bin system) from public resources

(TAIR, PPDB and publications) (Supplemental Data Set 1B). The gene clustering was generated

using the Ward D2 method with Euclidean distance in the pheatmap v1.0.13 R package

(Supplemental Data Set 1B). PCA analysis was performed using the GLEE software (Kim *et al.*,

2013). The graphs are generated either using Microsoft Excel or GraphPad Prism 10.

Comparative Proteome Analysis

Total proteome extracts of seedlings of *clpc1-1* and *fmt-3 clpc1-1* (each with three biological

replicates) were separated by Tris-Glycine SDS-PAGE using 8-16% precast gels (Cat. No.

KG7550-BC; KOMA Biotech, Korea). Gels were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. Each of

the six SDS-PAGE gel lanes was completely cut into consecutive gel slices (10 slices per lane),

followed by reduction, alkylation, and in-gel digestion with trypsin as described in (Friso et al.,

2011). The extracted peptides were resuspended in 2% formic acid and analyzed using a QExactive

mass spectrometer equipped with a nanospray flex ion source and interfaced with a nanoLC system

and autosampler (Dionex Ultimate 3000 Binary RSLCnano system) as described in (Rei Liao *et*

al., 2022) with the exception that AGC target values were set at 1×10^6 for the MS survey scans

and maximum scan time 30 ms and 5×10^5 for MSMS scans and maximum scan time 50 ms [Other

parameters: MS: 70k resolution, scan range 400-2000 m/z; MSMS: 17.5k resolution, top10, loop

count 10, isolation window 2.0 m/z, dynamic exclusion 15 sec].

Peak lists in MGF format were generated from RAW files using Distiller software (version 2.7.1.0)

in default mode (Matrix Science). MGF files were searched with MASCOT v2.4.0 against TAIR10

including a set of typical contaminants and the decoy (71148 sequences; 29099536 residues). Two

parallel searches (Mascot p-value <0.01 for individual ion scores; precursor ion window 700 to

3500 Da) were carried out: (i) Full tryptic (error tolerance 10 ppm for MS and 0.5 Da for MS/MS)

and (ii) Semi-tryptic (error tolerance 6 ppm and 0.5 Da for MS/MS) in both cases with fixed Cys-

carbamido-methylation and variable M-oxidation, N-terminal acetylation, N-terminal formylation

and 2 missed cleavages (in Mascot PR or PK does not count as missed cleavage). In-house post-

Mascot filtering removed redundancies between the full and semi-tryptic searches and removed

spectral matches with ion scores below 33. Proteins could only be identified by the spectral

counting method (SPC) with the full tryptic (6 ppm) search. The semi-tryptic search served to

increase protein coverage and was combined with the full tryptic search results. Final false

discovery rate for proteins identified with one spectral match was zero for those with two or more

spectral matches. Proteins identified by MS/MS spectra that were all shared with other proteins

identified by unique peptides were discarded.

Proteins were quantified by the spectral counting method (SPC) using full and semi-tryptic

peptides search results. For quantification by spectral counting, each accession was scored for total

spectral counts (SPC), unique SPC (uniquely matching to an accession) and adjusted SPC (Friso

et al., 2011). The latter assigns shared peptides to accessions in proportion to their relative

abundance using unique spectral counts for each accession as a basis. Proteins that shared more

than 80% of their matched peptides with other proteins across the complete dataset were grouped

into families quantified as groups with these homologs (Friso *et al.*, 2011). After selecting only

the best scoring isoform model per protein, proteins that shared a significant number of matched

spectra were grouped, and proteins and groups with less than 3 adjSPC were discarded for further

analysis; this resulted in 2976 proteins including 124 groups. For significance analysis and

Volcano plots to compare the two genotypes, the minimal total adjSPC was raised to >12, resulting

in 1529 proteins and groups; this ensured a more robust dataset and lower FDR. Within each

sample, a value of 0.99 AdjSPC was imputed for all proteins with missing values. This was

followed by normalization of the adjSPC to the total adjSPC of the samples resulting in NadjSPC

for each protein. Average NadjSPC per genotype across the 3 replicates were calculated and

fmtclpc1/clpc1 NadjSPC ratios were determined for each protein. p-value and q-value (FDR) were

then calculated to determine proteins that showed significant abundance differences between *clpc1*

and *fmtclpc1*. We created Volcano plots and plotted total protein abundance against the protein

abundance ratios.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.K. conceived the experiments, and K.J.v.W. conceived the multi-omics experiments. J.K.

performed EMS screening, all genetic crosses, and data analysis. K.J.v.W. and P.R. performed

quantitative comparative proteomics and RNA-seq analyses, while Z.N. conducted the initial

RNA-seq analysis. N.S. and H.L. provided bioinformatics consultation and support. J.K., C.N.,

and D.B.K. performed biochemical experiments, including total and chloroplast protein

extraction and immunoblotting. J.K., D.B.K., and J.-Y.K. performed cloning. C.N. carried out

the PAA2 degradation assay, and J.-Y.K. generated CRISPR/Cas9 lines. J.K., N.B., and H.K.

performed RT-PCR analyses. J.K. prepared samples for RNA-seq and proteomics. J.K., C.N.,

N.B., H.K., D.B.K., R.L., J.H.K., and G.C. performed plant transformation and/or other

molecular genetic experiments. J.K., J.H.A., B.h.L., D.W.L., and K.J.v.W. supervised the project

and analyzed and interpreted the data. J.K. and K.J.v.W. wrote the manuscript. D.W.L. and P.R.

reviewed, edited, and provided substantive feedback on the manuscript. C.N., N.B., H.K., J.-

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COMPETING INTERESTS: Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

DATA AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

MS-based protein identifications are available through the Plant Proteome Data Base (PPDB)

under experiment ids #2599-2604. MS-based protein quantifications are available in the

Supplemental Data Sets. RNA-seq data are available in the GEO repository under accession

number GSE307303

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Figures 1-5

Supplemental Tables 1-3

Supplemental Data Sets 1 and 2

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. Identification and confirmation of *FMT* as the causal gene for suppressor

 mutations of *clpc1-1*.

(A) Workflow of EMS mutagenesis, suppressor screening, and bulked segregant analysis. Seeds

of *clpc1-1* were mutagenized with ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) (~10,000 seeds), and M2

plants were screened for suppressor mutants exhibiting a green-leaf phenotype. Selected M2

plants were backcrossed to the parental *clpc1-1* line (M0) to generate BC1F2 progeny. Pooled

DNA from green BC1F2 plants was subjected to whole-genome sequencing (WGS), and

mutations were identified using the SIMPLE pipeline (Wachsman et al., 2017).

(B) Growth and development of wild-type (Col-0), *clpc1-1*, and four independent *clpc1-1*

suppressor mutants - designated *socc* (<u>s</u>uppressor <u>o</u>f <u>clpc</u>) - including *socc20-1 clpc1-1*, *socc20-*

4 clpc1-1, *socc39-1 clpc1-1*, and *socc43-1 clpc1-1*, grown on soil for 23 days under a 16/8 hour

light/dark cycle at 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(C) Gene model of *FMT* (At3g52140) showing the positions of T-DNA insertions (*fmt-3*, *fmt-4*)

and EMS-induced mutations identified in *socc* suppressor lines. Coding exons (black boxes),

untranslated regions (open boxes), and introns (gray lines) are indicated. Mutation sites are

mapped relative to the *FMT* genomic structure. The EMS-induced *socc* alleles include canonical

splice-site defects and splice-region variants that disrupt *FMT* coding or splicing, while the T-

DNA alleles (*fmt-3* and *fmt-4*) interrupt the gene's exon–intron structure. These mutations affect

FMT coding or splicing and are associated with the corresponding mutant phenotypes. Detailed

mutation positions, nucleotide changes, and predicted effects are provided in table S1.

(D) Genetic complementation of four suppressor mutants (*socc clpc1-1* lines) using a genomic

FMT transgene driven by its native promoter. Transformation of each *socc clpc1-1* mutant with

pFMT:FMT restored the yellow, chlorotic phenotype characteristic of *clpc1-1*, confirming *FMT*

as the causal gene. Plants were grown on soil for 18 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at

100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(E) T-DNA insertion alleles *fmt-3* and *fmt-4* suppress the *clpc1-1* phenotype, similar to EMS-

derived suppressor lines. Growth and development of wild-type, *fmt-3*, *fmt-4*, *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3*

clpc1-1, and *fmt-4 clpc1-1* plants grown on soil for 23 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at

100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(F) Photosynthetic efficiency and pigment accumulation in wild type, *fmt-3, clpc1-1*, and

suppressor lines. Maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm), total chlorophyll content, and

total carotenoid content were measured in Col-0 (wild type), *fmt-3*, *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, and

socc20-1 clpc1-1. Fv/Fm measurements were performed on 22–24-day-old soil-grown plants,

while pigment quantifications were conducted on 21-day-old plants, all grown under a 16/8 hour

light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Fv/Fm values (left), total chlorophyll (middle), and

total carotenoid contents (right) are shown. Chlorophyll and carotenoid contents are expressed as

micrograms per milligram fresh weight (μg/mg FW). Bars represent mean ± SD (n = 7 for

Fv/Fm; n = 5 for chlorophyll and carotenoid contents). Different lowercase letters indicate

groups that differ significantly, as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's range

test (P < 0.05).

(G) Suppression of CRISPR/Cas9-derived *clpc1* mutant alleles (*clpc1-4* and *clpc1-5*) by *fmt-3*.

Growth and development of wild-type, *clpc1-1*, *clpc1-4*, *clpc1-5*, *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3*

clpc1-4, and *fmt-3 clpc1-5* plants grown on soil for 20 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at

100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

Figure 2. Genetic Interaction of various mutants with *fmt*.

(A) Growth and development of *clpr2-1, fmt-3 clpr2-1,* and *fmt-4 clpr2-1* mutants. Plants were
grown on soil for 22 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale
bar = 1 cm.

(B) Growth and development of *clpt1-2 clpt2-1* and *fmt-4 clpt1-2 clpt2-1* mutants. Plants were
grown on soil for 29 days under the same conditions. Scale bar = 1 cm.

(C) Growth and development of *fmt-3, ppi1-1,* and *fmt-3 ppi1-1* mutants. Plants were grown on
soil for 24 days under the same conditions. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(D) Growth and development of *fmt-3, fmt-4, tic40-4, fmt-3 tic40-4,* and *fmt-4 tic40-4* mutants.
Plants were grown on soil for 20 days under the same conditions. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(E) Growth and development of wild-type (Col-0), *fmt-3, fmt-4, socc20-1, gun1-101, fmt-3 gun1-*
101, fmt-4 gun1-101, and *socc20-1 gun1-101* plants grown on soil for 21 days under a 16/8 hour
light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Variegated phenotypes were observed in all *fmt*
gun1-101 double mutants. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(F) Growth and development of *clpc1-1, fmt-3 clpc1-1, fmt-4 clpc1-1, socc20-1 clpc1-1, clpc1-1*
gun1-101, fmt-3 clpc1-1 gun1-101, fmt-4 clpc1-1 gun1-101, and *socc20-1 clpc1-1 gun1-101*
plants grown on soil for 21 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}.
Suppression of the *clpc1-1 gun1-101* growth defect was observed in all *fmt clpc1-1 gun1-101*
triple mutants. Scale bar = 2 cm.

Figure 3. Loss of FMT restores chloroplast morphology and protease activity through compensatory upregulation of *CLPC2*.

(A) Chloroplast ultrastructure in *fmt-3clpc1-1* and *clpc1-1*. Left panel: Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of chloroplasts from *fmt-3 clpc1-1* leaf mesophyll cells. Chloroplasts exhibit compact morphology, well-organized grana stacks, and dense stromal regions, closely resembling wild type. Notably, mitochondria remain tightly clustered, consistent with the known *fmt* phenotype. Scale bar = 1 μm.

Right panel: TEM of chloroplasts from *clpc1-1*. Chloroplasts appear swollen and rounded, with fewer and less organized thylakoid membranes and smaller, loosely stacked grana. Stromal regions are less compact than in the double mutant. Scale bar = 1 μm. m, mitochondria; c, chloroplast.

(B) Immunoblot analysis of selected chloroplast proteins in Col-0, *clpc1-1*, *fmt-4*, *fmt-4 clpc1-1*, and *socc20-1 clpc1-1*. Antibodies used: ClpF (a Clp N-recognin adaptor protein), ClpS1 (a substrate selector for the Clp complex), and PAA2 (a Clp substrate involved in thylakoid copper transport). Each lane was loaded with either 10 μg (1×) or 30 μg (3×) of total chloroplast protein. Coomassie Brilliant Blue (CBB) staining shows equal loading.

(C) PAA2 degradation assay using total protein extracts treated with or without $CuSO_4$. In Col-0, Cu^{2+} exposure leads to decreased PAA2 levels, whereas in *clpc1-1*, PAA2 remains elevated regardless of treatment. Cu^{2+}-dependent degradation is restored in *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-4 clpc1-1*, and *socc20-1 clpc1-1*. No degradation is observed in *fmt-3 clpr2-1*. Ponceau S staining confirms equal loading.

(D) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *CLPC2* transcript levels in wild type (Col-0), *fmt-3, fmt-4, fmt-3 clpc1-1, fmt-4 clpc1-1*, *socc20-1 clpc1-1*, *clpc1-1*, *FMT/clpc1-1* overexpression (OE) lines (#1–2), and *clpc1-1 clpc2-2*. For comparison, *CLPD* transcript levels are shown for wild type

(Col-0), *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *clpc1-1*, and *FMT/clpc1-1* OE#1. Data represent means ± SD from

three biological replicates.

(E) Growth phenotype of *clpc1-1* and independent *pCLPC2:gCLPC2/clpc1-1* overexpression

(OE) lines (#1–3) grown on soil for 18 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 90 µmol

photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(F) Total chlorophyll (a + b) accumulation in the lines shown in (E). Chlorophyll contents were

quantified in 25-day-old plants grown under the same conditions and are expressed as

micrograms per milligram fresh weight (µg/mg FW). Values represent mean ± SD (n = 5).

(G) RT–qPCR analysis of *CLPC1* and *CLPC2* transcript levels in the same lines shown in (E).

OE lines with higher *CLPC2* expression (e.g., OE #2 and OE #3) exhibit a greener phenotype

compared with OE #1. Bars represent mean ± SD (n = 3).

(H) Growth and development of *clpc1-1*, *clpc1-1 clpc2-2*, and *FMT/clpc1-1* plants grown on soil

for 17 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Both *clpc1-1 clpc2-2*

and *FMT/clpc1-1* plants exhibited severely stunted and chlorotic phenotypes compared to *clpc1-*

1. Overexpression lines were slightly larger than *clpc1-1 clpc2-2*.

(I) Photosynthetic efficiency and total chlorophyll (a + b) accumulation in the same lines shown

in (H). Maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm; upper) and total chlorophyll contents

(lower) were measured in 24-day-old soil-grown plants grown under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle

at 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Chlorophyll contents are expressed as micrograms per milligram

fresh weight (µg/mg FW). Bars represent mean ± SD (n = 15 for Fv/Fm; n = 5 for chlorophyll

contents). (D), (F), (G) and (I) Different lowercase letters indicate groups that differ

significantly, as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's range test (P < 0.05).

1147

Figure 4. RNA expression patterns across the five genotypes wild type (Col-0), *fmt, clpc1,*
fmtclpc1 **and** *FMT/clpc1***.**

(A) Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of RNA-seq data showing clustering of biological
replicates by genotype.

(B) Hierarchical cluster analysis of z-score-normalized average RNA abundance of 4745 protein-
coding nuclear genes in WT*, fmt, clpc1, fmtclpc1* and *FMT/clpc1* sampled at stage 1.07. Only
genes that show at least one pairwise significance difference (adj P<0.01 and at least 2-fold
difference) between 2 genotypes are included. The cladogram has three main clusters (I, II, III)
with three subclusters each. The scaling of heat map is shown in the top right. The z-score was
calculated as (individual value-average)/standard deviation for each gene across the 5 genotypes.

(C) MapMan functional bin distribution across clusters I, II and III for all genes in the cladogram
(4745 genes). Only bins with more than 10 genes are shown.

(D) MapMan functional bin distribution of plastid and mitochondrial proteins across clusters I, II
and III (638 genes). Only bins with more than 10 genes are shown.

(E) Differential expression of the transcription factors **HSFA2, GLK1, BBX15, and WRKY40**.
RNA-seq–normalized counts are shown as means ± SD for each genotype. Statistical
significance was assessed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison
test. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$,
****$P < 0.0001$). Gene cluster membership is indicated.

Figure 5. Comparative analysis of total rosette proteomes of *clpc1* and *fmtclpc1* soil- grown seedlings in growth stage 1.07 based on NadjSPC.

(A) Bar diagram displaying the relative abundance of the chloroplast ClpPRT complex and ClpC2 in *fmtclpc1* and *clpc1*.

(B) Volcano plot of the *fmtclpc1/clpc1* relative protein abundance ratio and significance of differential accumulation. Horizontal dashed lines indicate the -log10 p-value at 0.01 and the vertical dashed lines indicate 2-fold protein abundance difference between *fmtclpc1* and *clpc1*.

(C) Bar diagram displaying the relative abundance of FMT and the related REC1,2,3 proteins in *fmtclpc1* and *clpc1*. *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

(D) Bar diagram displaying the relative abundance of each of the seven HSP90 proteins in *fmtclpc1* and *clpc1*. *P<0.05; **P<0.01. HSP90-1,2,3,4 are localized to the cytosol. HSP90-5,6 and 7 are respectively localized to the chloroplast (p), mitochondria (m) and endoplasmic reticulum (ER).

Figure 6. *REC1* and *REC2* are required for full suppression of *clpc1-1* by *fmt*.

(A) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *REC1*, *REC2*, and *REC3* transcript levels in wild type (Col-0), *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *clpc1-1*, and *FMT/clpc1-1* OE#1. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates.

(B) Growth and development of wild type, *clpc1-1*, *rec1-3*, *rec2-1*, *rec3-1*, *rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *rec2-1 clpc1-1*, and *rec3-1 clpc1-1* mutants. Plants were grown on soil for 17 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(C) Growth and development of *fmt-3 rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec2-1 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec3-1 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, and *clpc1-1* mutants. Plants were grown on soil for 18 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(D) Pigment accumulation in the same lines shown in (C). Total chlorophyll and carotenoid contents were measured in 21-day-old plants grown under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Total chlorophyll (left) and total carotenoids (right) are shown. Pigment contents are expressed as micrograms per milligram fresh weight (μg/mg FW). Values represent mean ± SD (n = 5).

(E) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *CLPC2* transcript levels were measured in *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec2-1 clpc1-1*, and *fmt-3 rec3-1 clpc1-1*. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates. (A), (D), and (E) Different lowercase letters indicate groups that differ significantly, as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's range test (P < 0.05).

(F) *clpc1*-associated plastid stress state. Working model illustrating the transcriptional and physiological state of *clpc1* relative to wild type. Loss of ClpC1 causes chloroplast dysfunction, triggering plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling associated with a broadly repressive nuclear response. This state correlates with reduced expression of multiple transcription factors,

Figure 6. *REC1* and *REC2* are required for full suppression of *clpc1-1* by *fmt*.

(A) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *REC1*, *REC2*, and *REC3* transcript levels in wild type (Col-0), *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *clpc1-1*, and *FMT/clpc1-1* OE#1. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates.

(B) Growth and development of wild type, *clpc1-1*, *rec1-3*, *rec2-1*, *rec3-1*, *rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *rec2-1 clpc1-1*, and *rec3-1 clpc1-1* mutants. Plants were grown on soil for 17 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(C) Growth and development of *fmt-3 rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec2-1 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec3-1 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, and *clpc1-1* mutants. Plants were grown on soil for 18 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Scale bar = 2 cm.

(D) Pigment accumulation in the same lines shown in (C). Total chlorophyll and carotenoid contents were measured in 21-day-old plants grown under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. Total chlorophyll (left) and total carotenoids (right) are shown. Pigment contents are expressed as micrograms per milligram fresh weight (μg/mg FW). Values represent mean ± SD (n = 5).

(E) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *CLPC2* transcript levels were measured in *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec1-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-3 rec2-1 clpc1-1*, and *fmt-3 rec3-1 clpc1-1*. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates. (A), (D), and (E) Different lowercase letters indicate groups that differ significantly, as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's range test (P < 0.05).

(F) *clpc1*-associated plastid stress state. Working model illustrating the transcriptional and physiological state of *clpc1* relative to wild type. Loss of ClpC1 causes chloroplast dysfunction, triggering plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling associated with a broadly repressive nuclear response. This state correlates with reduced expression of multiple transcription factors,

including GLK1 and BBX15, as well as decreased expression of photosynthesis-related genes. In

parallel, plastid-localized metabolic response genes such as *ACC2* are upregulated, reflecting

altered plastid metabolic states associated with impaired chloroplast proteostasis and the small,

virescent *clpc1* phenotype. Dashed arrows denote inferred signaling relationships based on

transcriptomic and phenotypic analyses.

(G) FMT-mediated recovery state in *fmtclpc1*. Working Model illustrating the transcriptional

and physiological state associated with FMT-dependent suppression of *clpc1*. Loss of *FMT*, a

mitochondria-associated member of the FMT–REC gene family, is associated with mitochondrial

perturbation that engages a mitochondria-to-nucleus communication route. This nuclear response

correlates with increased expression of *REC2* and *CLPC2*, the latter encoding a plastid Clp

chaperone that compensates for loss of ClpC1 and promotes restoration of chloroplast

proteostasis in *fmtclpc1*. In this recovery state, transcription factors (TFs) associated with

chloroplast gene programs (GLK1, BBX15) are upregulated, photosynthesis-related genes are

reactivated, and plastid stress markers such as *ACC2* and *ELIP2* are reduced. Upregulation of

mitochondrial redox- and metabolism-associated factors (e.g., SLP1, SLP2, ATM3, GLDH,

LPD1) is consistent with mitochondria-derived signaling. Increased expression of salicylic acid

(SA)- and jasmonic acid (JA)-associated signaling components further reflects a remodeled

nuclear transcriptional state. The *fmt–clpc1* interaction occurs independently of GUN1, which is

depicted separately. Genes shown in red are upregulated and those in blue are downregulated

based on integrated transcriptomic and proteomic datasets; dashed arrows denote inferred

signaling or transcriptional relationships supported by genetic, transcriptomic, and proteomic

evidence.

1226

Fig. 1A-G

Fig. 2A-F

Fig. 3A-D

Fig. 3E-I

E

F

G

CLPC1

CLPC2

H

I

Fig. 4A-E

Fig. 5A-D

A

B

C

D

Fig. 6A-E

Fig. 6F-G

F

clpc1

G

fmt clpc1

Table 1. Differentially accumulating proteins (p<0.01; x<0.5 or x>2) based on NadjSPC in *clpc1* vs *fmtclpc1*

Accession	#	Name	Location (a)	fmtclpc1/clpc1 (b)	p value
AT4G27585.1	1	Stomatin-like 1 (SPL1)	m	4.587	0.001
ATCG01100.1	2	NDH A (NDH-1)	p-t	3.679	0.009
AT5G58270.1	3	ATM3 transporter of GSSG	m	3.085	0.001
AT5G47110.1	4	Lil3.1	p-t	2.654	0.006
AT3G47930.1	5	galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase (GLDH)	m	2.373	0.003
AT4G25080.1	6	magnesium-protoporphyrin IX methyltransferase	p-t	2.351	0.000
AT1G44575.1	7	psbS (NPQ4 - null mutant)	p-t	2.344	0.004
AT4G28080.1	8	reduced chloroplast coverage 2 (REC2)	cyt	2.342	0.008
AT1G77090.1	9	OEC23-like-5 (TL29.8)	p-t	2.324	0.004
AT5G54270.1	10	LHCII-3	p-t	2.064	0.000
AT2G42220.1	11	rhodanese-like domain protein	p-t	2.056	0.009
AT3G08940.2	12	LHCII-4.2 - CP29	p-t	2.033	0.004
AT1G48030.1	13	E3-1 dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase 1 (MTLPD1)	m	2.025	0.002
AT4G31120.1	14	protein arginine methyltransferase (PRMT5)	n/cyt	0.478	0.006
AT1G63680.1	15	MurE ligase family (TAC)	p	0.475	0.003
AT4G33030.1	16	UDP-sulfoquinovose synthase (SQD1)	p	0.471	0.009
AT1G53210.1	17	sodium/calcium exchanger protein	vac	0.467	0.006
AT1G12770.1	18	DExD box RNA helicase (RH47) (EMB1586)	p	0.462	0.002
AT1G47260.1	19	Carbonic anhydrase - complex I	m	0.461	0.006
AT3G61220.1	20	NADPH short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR)	cyt	0.438	0.004
AT2G22170.1	21	PLAT2- lipid-associated protein	er/cyt	0.424	0.009
AT5G06600.1	22	ubiquitin-specific protease 12 (UBP12)	n/cyt	0.418	0.007
AT3G14310.1	23	pectine methylesterase	cw	0.418	0.005
AT5G18570.1	24	GTPase Obg A2 (OBG-A2)	p	0.415	0.000
AT1G74850.1	25	pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat (pTAC2)	p	0.410	0.000
AT1G77590.1	26	acyl-CoA synthetase (LACS9)	p	0.410	0.003
AT3G06430.1	27	PPR2- PPR protein - interacts with 23S RNA	p	0.399	0.005
AT5G37600.1	28	glutamine synthetase (GS1)	cyt	0.352	0.006
AT3G61260.1	29	remorin protein	pm	0.349	0.009
AT5G65720.1	30	NFS1 or AtMtNIFS	m	0.338	0.002
AT5G05200.1	31	ABC1 kinase 9 (ABC1K9)	p	0.330	0.002
AT4G39540.1	32	shikimate kinase	p (likely)	0.324	0.007
AT1G04850.1	33	ubiquitin-associated (UBA)	not plastid	0.316	0.007
AT3G28290.1	34	integrin-related protein 14a	pm/cyt	0.311	0.003
AT2G20020.1	35	CAF1 - splice factor group II intron	p	0.308	0.008
AT1G78510.1	36	solanesyl diphosphate synthase 1 (SPS1) - PQ9/PC8 synthesi	p	0.276	0.001
AT3G22120.1	37	Cell wall plasma membrane linker protein (CWLP)	cw	0.266	0.002
AT2G32520.1	38	dienelactone hydrolase	not plastid	0.242	0.006
AT2G26900.1	39	pyruvate importer (BASS2)	p	0.236	0.002
AT2G29530.1	40	Translocase inner membrane subunit 10 (TIM10)	m	0.235	0.007
AT3G02060.1	41	DEAD/DEAH box helicase	p	0.226	0.001
AT1G30120.1	42	Plastidial Pyruvate Dehydrogenase E1 -beta subunit	p	0.205	0.001
AT4G14690.1	43	Lil1.2 - Elip2	p-t	0.194	0.004
AT5G52640.1	44	HSP90-1 (HSP81/83)	cyt	0.157	0.009
AT3G52140.1	45	FRIENDLY (related to REC1,2,3)	cyt	0.060	0.000

(a) p = plastid, p-t = plastid-thylakoid, m = mitochondria, cyt = cytosol, vac = vacuole, pm = plasma membrane, er = endoplasmic retinulum, n = nucleus, cw = cell wall
(b) relative abundance ratio for fmtclpc1/clpc1 based on NadjSPC

Supplemental Figures

A

B

Supplemental Figure 1. Analysis of *FMT* and *CLPC1* transcript accumulation by semi-quantitative RT-PCR. (A) *FMT* (At3g52140) gene model illustrating the positions of RT-PCR primer sets used in this study: *FMT*-1F1R (exons 7–9), *FMT*-2F2R (exons 17–21), *FMT*-3F3R (exons 21–25), and *FMT*-4F4R (exons 26–28). **(B)** Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *FMT* and *CLPC1* transcript levels in Col-0, *clpc1-1*, *fmt-3*, *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-4*, *fmt-4 clpc1-1*, *socc20-1 clpc1-1*, *socc20-4 clpc1-1*, *socc39-1 clpc1-1*, and *socc43-1 clpc1-1*. *ACTINII* was used as a control. *ACTINII* was amplified for 22 cycles, while all other targets were amplified for 25 cycles. *FMT* expression was reduced in all *fmt* alleles, with complete loss in *fmt-4*, while *CLPC1* transcripts were absent in all *clpc1-1* backgrounds.

A

fmt-3clpc1-1   fmt-4clpc1-1   fmt-3clpc1-1 x
fmt-4c1pc1-1, F1

clpc1-1   socc20-1clpc1-1 x
fmt-3clpc1-1, F1

2 cm

socc20-4clpc1-1 x   socc39-1clpc1-1 x   socc43-1clpc1-1 x
fmt-3clpc1-1, F1   fmt-3clpc1-1, F1   fmt-3clpc1-1, F1

B

clpc1-4   clpc1-5   clpc1-1

clpc1-1 x   clpc1-1 x
clpc1-4, F1   clpc1-5, F1

Supplemental Figure 2. Heteroallelic analysis confirms that EMS-derived suppressors and CRISPR alleles affect *FMT* and *CLPC1*, respectively. (A) Heteroallelic crosses demonstrate that EMS-derived suppressors are allelic to *FMT*. Top panel: Growth and development of *fmt-3 clpc1-1*, *fmt-4 clpc1-1*, and F1 progeny from the *fmt-3 clpc1-1 × fmt-4 clpc1-1* cross. Plants were grown on soil for 22 days under long-day conditions (16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}). Scale bar = 2 cm. Bottom panel: Growth and development of *clpc1-1* and F1 progeny from heteroallelic crosses between *fmt-3 clpc1-1* and each EMS-derived suppressor: *socc20-1 clpc1-1*, *socc20-4 clpc1-1*, *socc39-1 clpc1-1*, and *socc43-1 clpc1-1*. Plants were grown under identical conditions. Scale bar = 2 cm. **(B)** CRISPR/Cas9-derived *clpc1* alleles phenocopy *clpc1-1* in homozygous and heteroallelic combinations. Growth and development of *clpc1-1*, *clpc1-4*, *clpc1-5*, and heteroallelic F1 plants from *clpc1-1 × clpc1-4* and *clpc1-1 × clpc1-5* crosses. All plants were grown on soil for 16 days under long-day conditions (16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}). Scale bar = 2 cm.

A

B

C

Supplemental Figure 3. Overexpression of *FMT* in *clpc1-1* results in smaller, chlorotic plants that scale with transcript abundance. (A) Growth phenotype of *clpc1-1* and independent *FMT/clpc1-1* overexpression (OE) lines (#1–7) grown on soil for 21 days under a 16/8 hour light/dark cycle at 100 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Lines with stronger *FMT* expression exhibit smaller rosettes and more pronounced chlorosis (e.g., OE #1 shows stronger yellowing compared to OE #7). **(B)** Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *FMT* transcript levels in the same lines shown in (A). Primers targeting *FMT-RT3* (exons 21–25) were used to detect *FMT* transcript abundance. *ACTINII* served as loading control and was amplified for 22 cycles, whereas *FMT* was amplified for 25 cycles. **(C)** Quantification of *FMT* transcript abundance from (B). Both reduced plant size and chlorosis correlate negatively with *FMT* transcript levels across independent OE lines.

A

1. *FMT/clpc1-1*
2. *clpc1-1*
3. *fmtclpc1-1*
4. Wt
5. *fmt*

B

Supplemental Figure 4. RNA expression patterns of selected genes in subclusters 4, 8, and 9 across five genotypes. RNA expression levels are shown for *clpc1-1*, *FMT/clpc1-1*, *fmtclpc1-1*, *fmt*, and WT. **(A, B)** Representative genes from subcluster 4 (within cluster II) and subclusters 8 and 9 (within cluster III) exhibiting high mRNA abundance in *fmt* (subcluster 4) or *fmtclpc1* (subclusters 8 and 9) relative to the other four genotypes. **(A)** Five genes in subcluster 4 for which RNA levels in *fmt* were >3-fold higher than in each of the other genotypes. **(B)** Six genes in subclusters 8 and 9 for which RNA levels in *fmtclpc1* were >3-fold higher than in each of the other genotypes.

Supplemental Figure 5. Reproducibility of biological proteomics replicates and protein investments in the photosynthetic apparatus. (**A**) Cross-correlation between biological replicates for each genotype based on AdjSPC (no normalization). For clarity, the X- and Y-axis are truncated at 1000, thus removing the very high data points for RBCL (between 2176 and 3105). (**B**) Principal component analysis (**PCA**) of the 3 biological samples for each genotype, illustrating reproducibility between replicates and separation of the two genotypes (*fmtclpc1* and *clpc1*). (**C**) Relative protein investments in the five complexes of the photosynthetic electron transport chain (Photosystem II (PSII), Photosystem I (PSI), the cytochrome b6f complex (cytb6f), NDH complex (NDH) and ATP synthase (CF), as well as proteins of the Calvin-Benson cycle. The *fmtclpc1/clpc1* ratios are indicated for each complex.

Supplemental Table 1. FMT lines generated and/or used in this study

Mutant Name	Mutation site (genomic DNA, bp from start codon)	Mutation Effect	Note
fmt-3	Intron 19/27 (5799)	T-DNA insertion	SALK_046271 (El Zawily et al., 2014)
fmt-4	Exon 23/28 (6517)	T-DNA insertion	SALK_056717 (Larkin et al., 2016)
socc20-1	Intron 21/27, first base (6177)	Splice donor variant & intron variant	Splice defect (3150+1G>A)
socc20-4	Intron 22/27, last base (6514)	Splice acceptor variant & intron variant	Splice defect (3208-1G>A)
socc39-1	Intron 11/27, last base (3736)	Splice acceptor variant & intron variant	Splice defect (1876-1G/A)
socc43-1	Exon 10/28 (3201)	Missense variant	E534K (1600G>A)
socc43-1	Exon 21/28, last base (6176)	Splice region variant & synonymous variant	Splice defect 3150G>A

Exon and intron numbering is based on the reference gene model (total number of exons/introns indicated). Nucleotide positions are given as base pairs (bp) from the translational start codon in genomic DNA. Mutation effects were annotated using standard sequence ontology terms. T-DNA insertion lines (*fmt-3* and *fmt-4*) correspond to SALK collection alleles, with line identifiers and references provided in the "Note" column. For EMS-induced alleles, the "Note" column indicates the relevant cDNA position and amino acid or splice-site change. Together, these T-DNA and EMS-induced variants disrupt coding or splicing regions of *FMT*, supporting its role as the causal gene underlying the *socc* mutant phenotypes. All mutation sites were confirmed by DNA sequencing.

Supplemental Table 2. Primers used in this paper

	Primer 1 (5' --> 3')	Primer 2 (5'--> 3')
clpc1-1 genotyping (gene specific)	CTA GAA GAC CCA TGT CGA GTG TTA TAA C	GTC ACA ATT ACA TTG GAT CCG AGC ACC
clpc1-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CTA GAA GAC CCA TGT CGA GTG TTA TAA C	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
fmt-3 genotyping (gene specific)	CTA TCA AAC TGC TGG GGG AAA AGC	CCA TCT CAA CAA GAT CTT TAG CCT C
fmt-3 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CTA TCA AAC TGC TGG GGG AAA AGC	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
fmt-4 genotyping (gene specific)	GAT CTT CGG CCC GTA ATT AAG CAC	CCA TTT TGC CCA TGT CTT GAT ACA TC
fmt-4 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	GAT CTT CGG CCC GTA ATT AAG CAC	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
rec1-3 genotyping (gene specific)	GTA AGT TCA TCA TCG TGT TGC TGA G	CAT GGT CCA ACG AAT TCG CCT TTA TC
rec1-3 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	GTA AGT TCA TCA TCG TGT TGC TGA G	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
rec2-1 genotyping (gene specific)	CTG ATT TTC TTC TGA CAC TGG TCC TG	CTC CCA AGC CAG ACG CCT CTA TTT C
rec2-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CTG ATT TTC TTC TGA CAC TGG TCC TG	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
rec3-1 genotyping (gene specific)	GAC TCC AAA TGC GTT CTC TAG GAC	CGT CAG ATG AAA TAC ACA GCA CAT G
rec3-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	GAC TCC AAA TGC GTT CTC TAG GAC	TAG CAT CTG AAT TTC ATA ACC AAT CTC GAT ACA C
clpr2-1 genotyping (gene specific)	CTT CAT TGA GAT CGT GAG ATT GGT T	CTC AGA TTG GAG CAG CAA AAG CCC
clpr2-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CTT CAT TGA GAT CGT GAG ATT GGT T	GCG TGG ACC GCT TGC TGC AAC T
clpt1-2 genotyping (gene specific)	CAC TAG CAC AGT TGC TAA GTT CCT G	CCT ACC CAG CAT CCA TAT GAA GAC A
clpt1-2 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CAC TAG CAC AGT TGC TAA GTT CCT G	CCC ATT TGG ACG TGA ATG TAG ACA C
clpt2-1 genotyping (gene specific)	ATG GCG GCT CAC TCT TCT TGC AAC	GAT CCA GAG CAG AGT CAA GTG CTC TTT G
clpt2-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	ATG GCG GCT CAC TCT TCT TGC AAC	TAG CAT CTG AAT TTC ATA ACC AAT CTC GAT ACA C
ppi1-1 genotyping (gene specific)	ATG GGG TCT CTC GTT CGT GAA TG	GAA CCA GCC CGG ATA GTT TTG AGG
ppi1-1 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	ATG GGG TCT CTC GTT CGT GAA TG	ATA ACG CTG CGG ACA TCT AC
tic40-4 genotyping (gene specific)	GAT GTT CAT TGG GTT CTC TGA GC	GAG GAG ATG AGG AAC CCA GAA AC
tic40-4 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	GAT GTT CAT TGG GTT CTC TGA GC	TAG CAT CTG AAT TTC ATA ACC AAT CTC GAT ACA C
gun1-101 genotyping (gene specific)	CTT TTC AGC GAT TCT GAA TGC	CAT GTT GCA TTT TGA CAG GTG
gun1-101 genotyping (gene and T-DNA)	CTT TTC AGC GAT TCT GAA TGC	TAG CAT CTG AAT TTC ATA ACC AAT CTC GAT ACA C
Genomic *FMT* cloning	ATC TCG TCG GTG GGATCC GG CTA AAA G	CTT TGA GCA CCA TTT TCC TTC AAG ATC CTA CTG CGG CCG CTT TTT GGC TTT TTT GCT TCT TCT TAT CCA AAG ATG
Genomic *CLPC2* cloning	CTT CTG CAG AAT TCT TAC TAA GAT GTC AG	GTT GCG GCC GCC AAT ATT GGA ATA GGA TCT TCC ATG GCT TCT TCA G
CLPC1-sgRNA1	ATT GAT GTC CCT GAA ACT ATT GAA	AAA CTT CAA TAG TTT CAG GGA CAT
Cas9 genotyping	TCG TTT TCT CTG CCG TCT CT	ATG TGT GGG TAC TTC TCG TG
ACTINII semi RT-PCR	CAA ACG AGG GCT GGA ACA AGA CT	GCA ACT GGG ATG ATA TGG AAA AGA
CLPC1 semi RT-PCR	GTC ACA ATT ACA TTG GAT CCG AGC ACC	CTA GAA GAC CCA TGT CGA GTG TTA TAA C
FMT-1F1R semi RT-PCR	GAA GTC ATG GAA AAG AAA GCC TCT G	GTG CAA ACA CTC TGG ATC AGT TGG
FMT-2F2R semi RT-PCR	CTA TCA AAC TGC TGG GGG AAA AGC	CCA TCT CAA CAA GAT CTT TAG CCT C
FMT-3F3R semi RT-PCR	GAT CTT CGG CCC GTA ATT AAG CAC	CCA TTT TGC CCA TGT CTT GAT ACA TC
FMT-4F4R semi RT-PCR	CAC GAG ACT CTC TAA ATT GGA TGA AG	TTA TTT TTT GGC TTT TTG CTT CTT CTT ATC
PP2A RT-qPCR	GCG TTG TTG GAG AAC ATG ATA CG	GAA CCA AAC ACA ATT CGT TGC TG
SAND RT-qPCR	TTG ATC CAC TTG CAG ACA AGG C	TAC CCT TTG CAC ACT GAT TG
Clathrin RT-qPCR	CTG ACT GGC CCT GCT T	ATA CGC GCT GAG TTC CC
CLPC1 RT-qPCR	ATT GAG CTT CAG GTG ACC GA	TAG CAC CGT GAC GTT ACC TT
CLPC2 RT-qPCR	GCG GAG AAG ATG CTT TCA GG	TTG AAT AGA TCT TCC TGG CT
CLPD RT-qPCR	GAA CAA AGG GTC TGG GCT TG	CCT CGC TTG GCT CGT TAA TC
REC1 RT-qPCR	AGC TGA TGG AAC GGA ACC TT	GTG GGC TTA CTC CTC ACT CT
REC2 RT-qPCR	TCT GAG GAG AAG GGA AG	CAC TTG CCT CCT TGT CGT TC
REC3 RT-qPCR	GGG CGG TTA TTG CAT CTG TT	TCT GTA GCC ACT GTA ATC TGA G
FMT RT-qPCR	CGT CCC TGT ATG CTC TGA GG	TGC AAC TTC CCT GTG CAT TG

Other Supplemental Materials (Excel file) for this manuscript include the following:

Supplemental Table 3. (Excel file) 99 Genes reported to be involved in mitochondrial or chloroplast dysfunction, stress response, retrograde signaling, biogenesis or proteostasis; these were collected from numerous published reviews.(Bittner *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2023; Hernandez-Verdeja, 2025; Wang *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2020) Differential RNA-seq expression for 48 of these genes is represented in the cladogram as depicted in Fig. 4B and included in Supplementary Data Set 1B.

Supplemental Data Set 1. (Excel file) RNA-seq datasets for Col-0, *fmt, clpc1, fmtclpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*. (A) RNA abundance (normalized read counts per replicate) of 21202 genes in Col-0, *fmt*, *clpc1*, *fmtclpc1* and *FMT/clpc1*. This includes plastid- and mitochondrial encoded genes and non-protein coding genes, but these genes are otherwise excluded from the analyses presented in this study. These data are deposited in GEO. **(B)** Nuclear protein-coding genes (4745 genes) that show at least one pairwise significance difference (adj P<0.01 and at least 2-fold difference) between two genotypes (total 10 pairwise comparisons). Predicted proteins are annotated for name, subcellular location (annotated and predicted) and function (MapMan bin system) based on information from TAIR and PPDB. Normalized average RNA abundance per genotype and their cluster membership (from the cladogram in Fig. 4B) are listed for all genes. RNA expression ratios for each of the 10 pairwise genotype comparisons are listed whenever the adj P value is <0.01.

Supplemental Data Set 2. (Excel file) MS-based comparative proteomics datasets of total extracted proteomes of aboveground seedlings of *clpc1-1* and *fmtclpc1-1*. (A) Identification and annotation of 2976 proteins by nanoLC-MS. **(B)** Quantification and significance analysis of 1529 identified proteins and protein groups with at least 12 adjSPC.