Starvation-induced autophagy occurs independently of the ATG1 complex in

Chlamydomonas

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Abstract

The survival of eukaryotes during starvation depends on effective nutrient recycling

via autophagy. Accordingly, loss of autophagy-related (ATG) proteins, including the

nutrient-sensing ATG1 kinase complex, typically results in reduced fitness or lethality

under nutrient limitation. The green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* provides a

tractable model for autophagy studies, primarily because its ATG repertoire is

encoded by single-copy genes. We generated a full panel of ATG deletion mutants

and examined their growth and autophagy during starvation. Surprisingly, starvation-

induced autophagy occurred independently of the ATG1 complex components

(ATG1, ATG11, ATG13, and ATG101), challenging the canonical ATG1 -dependent

model and suggesting an alternative pathway.

Introduction

Autophagy is a major catabolic pathway contributing to intracellular recycling in eukaryotes, with pivotal role in cellular homeostasis, stress adaptation, and development [1, 2]. The formation of a double-membrane vesicle, termed an autophagosome, that sequesters cargo requires the activity of four core molecular modules: the ATG1 initiation complex, the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) nucleation complex, the ATG9 cycling complex, and the ubiquitin-like ATG8 and ATG12 conjugation systems [3, 4] (Fig. 1a). Although autophagy is well characterized in budding yeast and metazoa, it remains comparatively less understood in photosynthetic organisms, particularly algae, hindering our understanding of the evolution of autophagic mechanisms and functions.

In contrast to land plants (embryophytes), which possess orthologues of all yeast and metazoan *ATG* genes, most sequenced genomes of the two green algal clades, charophytes (a clade within streptophytes) and chlorophytes, lack one or more canonical *ATG* genes (Additional file 1: Fig. S1; Additional file 2: Table S1;) [5]. Remarkably, the chlorophyte model alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* retains a complete set of *ATG* genes, making it a valuable system for functional comparative studies across kingdoms and between chlorophyte and streptophyte lineages, including *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the most thoroughly studied plant model for autophagy. Furthermore, the presence of all *ATG* genes as single copies in the *C. reinhardtii* genome facilitates targeted gene ablation.

Here, we conducted a comprehensive functional analysis of autophagy in *C. reinhardtii* by systematically deleting core *ATG* genes and characterizing the

autophagic flux, cellular ultrastructure and resulting mutants for viability under

nutrient starvation conditions known to induce autophagy in this microalga [6-8]. Our

analysis shows that components of the ATG8 and ATG12 conjugation systems are

essential for autophagy and cell viability, whereas the requirement for the PI3K

nucleation and ATG9 cycling complexes is gene specific. Unexpectedly, deletion of

ATG1, *ATG11*, *ATG13*, or *ATG101* did not impair autophagic activity or algal growth,

suggesting that autophagy in *C. reinhardtii* can operates independently of the

canonical ATG1 initiation pathway.

Results and discussions

We determined the complete set of *C. reinhardtii* core ATG genes using sequence

similarity searches and phylogenetic analyses (Additional file 1: Fig. S1) and

implemented CRISPR–Cas9 to establish a comprehensive library of core ATG

knockouts in *C. reinhardtii*. All mutants, except for *vps15*, were established in strain

CC-4533 *srta*, optimized for transgene expression and hereafter referred to as *srta1*

(Additional file 1: Fig. S2, S3). The *vps15* knockout had been previously established

in the UVM4 strain (Additional file 1: Fig. S3).

Next, we systematically examined the effect of each knockout on autophagic activity

using two complementary biochemical assays: detection of ATG8 lipidation and

GFP–ATG8 cleavage [9]. ATG8 lipidation — the conjugation of ATG8 to

phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) that yields the ATG8–PE adduct — marks initiation of

autophagosome formation but alone does not indicate completion of autophagic flux;

this is instead revealed by GFP–ATG8 cleavage, which reflects cargo degradation in

the lytic vacuole [9]. For these assays, autophagy was acutely induced in *C.*

reinhardtii cells using AZD8055 (0.1 μM for 24 h), an inhibitor of Target of Rapamycin

(TOR), which canonically induces autophagy through relieving inhibitory

phosphorylation of ATG1 complex components [10] and robustly activates autophagy

across eukaryotes [11].

The ATG8 lipidation assay demonstrated the expected increase in ATG8–PE

accumulation upon AZD8055 treatment in *srta1* and UVM4, whereas ATG-PE is

undetectable in all knockouts of the ATG8 and ATG12 conjugation systems essential

for its synthesis (Fig. 1b, Additional file 1: Fig. S4a) [12-14].

To our surprise, efficient ATG8 lipidation was detected in *atg1*, *atg11*, *atg13* and

atg101 revealing that initiation of AZD8055–induced autophagy in *C. reinhardtii* can

occur independently of the canonical ATG1 initiation complex.

Similarly, the PI3K complex, which is known to recruit the ATG8 lipidation machinery

to the growing autophagosome [15], was dispensable for initiation of autophagy

under these conditions, as loss of its components did not affect ATG8–PE

accumulation upon treatment (Fig.1b, Additional file 1: Fig. S4a).

Furthermore, loss of ATG9 cycling complex components had no effect on ATG8–PE

accumulation, except for *atg2* (Fig. 1b, Additional file 1: Fig. S4a). Like the ATG1 and

PI3K complexes, the ATG9 cycling complex acts upstream of ATG8 lipidation and

promotes phagophore membrane expansion through three biochemically distinct and

sequential activities. ATG9, a lipid scramblase, anchors the complex at the

phagophore rim and recruits the lipid transferase ATG2, which transfers

phospholipids from the ER to the growing membrane. ATG2 in turn recruits ATG18, a

PI3P-binding protein that coordinates complex assembly with PI3K complex activity

and allosterically activates the ATG8 lipidation machinery. Consistent with

observations in *A. thaliana* [13], loss of ATG2 resulted in markedly elevated levels of

ATG8–PE, suggesting severe mismanagement of membrane resources required for

completion of ATG8–PE–decorated autophagosomes in this mutant. In contrast, loss

of *ATG9* or *ATG18* had no detectable effect on ATG8–PE levels.

It did not escape our attention that mutants of the ATG1 initiation and ATG9 cycling

complexes exhibited elevated ATG8–PE levels also under non-inducing control

conditions, suggesting either increased basal autophagy or a partial

impairment/retardation of autophagic flux (Fig. 1b, Additional file 1: Fig. S4a). To

discern which was the case and determine whether the observed autophagy initiation

proceeded to completion of flux, we employed GFP-ATG8 cleavage assays,

implemented here using an mVenus–ATG8 reporter due to the fluorescent overlap of

cell auto-fluorescence with GFP in *C. reinhardtii* [16] (Fig. 1c, Additional file 1: Fig.

S4b).

Upon AZD8055 treatment, free mVenus accumulated robustly in the *srta1* and UVM4

strains and was undetectable in mutants of ATG8 and ATG12 conjugation systems,

confirming assay functionality (Fig. 1c, Additional file 1: Fig. S4b).

Remarkably, free mVenus was detectable in knockout lines of all ATG1 initiation

complex components, most prominently in *atg1* itself with the loss of key ATG1

kinase in the complex, demonstrating that AZD8055–induced autophagy in *C.*

reinhardtii can proceed to completion independently of canonical ATG1 kinase

activity. In eukaryotes, AZD8055 is known to trigger autophagy through TOR-

mediated phosphorylation of ATG1 complex components [11]. Our observation

uncovered that *C. reinhardtii* possesses ATG1-independent mechanisms for

transducing the TOR signal. Notably, mVenus accumulation was significantly

reduced in *atg13* and *atg11* mutants compared to *atg1*, suggesting these

components may play a role beyond ATG1 complex.

Furthermore, while autophagy initiation was intact in PI3K complex mutants (Fig.1b),

depletion of any of the PI3K complex components, except ATG14, blocked

autophagic flux (Fig.1c), indicating that ATG1-independent autophagy of *C.*

reinhardtii still depends on PI3K complex function, consistent with the reported

requirement for PI3P reported in other eukaryotes [13, 17, 18]. However, this

requirement of PI3P is unlikely to be linked to the PI3P-binding activity of ATG18,

since *atg18* showed only a mild, if any, reduction in autophagic flux (Fig.1b).

Absence of free mVenus under control conditions in mutants of the ATG1 initiation

complex (Fig. 1c) confirmed that the elevated ATG8–PE levels observed in these

lines (Fig. 1b) result from partial retardation of autophagic flux rather than increased

autophagy induction.

Intriguingly, loss of ATG9 cycling complex components produced a spectrum of

effects on autophagic flux: where *atg2* showed abrogated autophagic activity, *atg18*

had a slightly reduced flux, and loss of ATG9 resulted in a strong increase in

autophagic flux, detectable even under non-inducing conditions.

These results indicate that although *C. reinhardtii* can induce autophagy

independently of the ATG1 initiation complex and ATG9, these core ATGs are

required for maintenance of autophagic homeostasis, as their loss leads to

hyperactivation at distinct stages of the pathway. Specifically, loss of the ATG1

initiation complex increased autophagy initiation while maintaining wild-type-like flux,

whereas loss of ATG9 elevated autophagic flux without increasing initial ATG8–PE

synthesis.

To confirm that mVenus–ATG8 cleavage in the mutant lines occurred in the lytic

vacuole, as shown by the GFP-cleavage assay, we next employed confocal laser

scanning microscopy to examine mVenus localization in the established lines.

mVenus remains fluorescent under both the neutral pH of the cytoplasm and the

acidic pH of the lytic vacuole, allowing tracking of mVenus–ATG8 delivery to the

vacuole during autophagy and facilitating the identification of defects in autophagic

flux in each ATG knockout mutant (Additional file 1: Fig. S5). Under control

conditions, lytic vacuoles in *C. reinhardtii* are relatively small and not discernable

without additional staining [19] (Fig. 2a). Upon AZD8055 treatment, they become

markedly enlarged in an autophagy-independent manner, as evidenced by their

presence in *atg7* mutants, and are clearly visible even by bright-field microscopy,

facilitating identification of the compartment to which mVenus–ATG8 should be

delivered by autophagy (arrows and asterisks, Fig. 2a, Additional file 1: Fig. S6).

As expected, AZD8055 treatment triggered relocation of mVenus from the cytoplasm

to the vacuole in *srta1*, but not in *atg7* (Fig. 2a, Additional file 1: Fig. S6). Consistent

with the GFP-cleavage assay, mVenus localized to the vacuole in all knockouts of

ATG1 complex components, confirming normal autophagic flux, whereas loss of PI3K

complex components abolished vacuolar localization, except for *atg14* (Fig. 2a,

Additional file 1: Fig. S6).

Interestingly, knockouts of ATG9 cycling complex components exhibited a spectrum

of mVenus localization patterns. In *atg2*, the fluorescent signal accumulated on

unfinished autophagosomal structures; in *atg18*, it partially translocated to the

vacuole; whereas in *atg9*, it was mostly relocated from the cytoplasm to the vacuole

(Fig. 2a, Additional file 1: Fig. S6). These observations corroborate the GFP-cleavage

and ATG8 lipidation assays and indicate that components of this complex in *C.*

reinhardtii perform functions beyond their canonical role in ATG9 cycling, potentially

enabling alternative autophagy pathways when individual components are lost.

Additionally, we performed ultrastructural analysis of *C. reinhardtii* cells treated with

AZD8055 using transmission electron microscopy. The results confirmed delivery of

autophagic structures (APs) to the vacuole in the absence of the ATG1 initiation

complex (Fig. 2b). Additionally, we detected putative incomplete autophagic

structures in the cytoplasm of mutants lacking PI3K complex components or ATG2

(Additional file 1: Fig. S7). Notably, *atg18* mutants displayed distinct vacuolar

morphologies like vacuole engulfment events (Additional file 1: Fig. S7), suggesting

possible activation of different microautophagy routes in these backgrounds.

We next asked whether the ATG1-independent response observed during acute

AZD8055-induced autophagy also occurs during prolonged stress under

physiologically relevant conditions. Prolonged growth on solid medium leads to local

nutrient depletion and is considered to be a prolonged mild stress. To address this,

we assessed the viability of ATG mutants during prolonged incubation under

standard conditions, seeking signs of a characteristic autophagy deficiency

phenotype: early senescence [9, 20]. Expectedly, loss of ATG8 and ATG12

conjugation systems components caused severe early senescence and reduced

viability, while background strains retained dark green coloration indicative of active

photosynthesis even after 60 days (Fig. 2c; Additional file 1: Fig. S8). This

demonstrated that ATG8–PE synthesis is indispensable for autophagy in *C.*

reinhardtii under acute and prolonged stress, consistent with its established role

across eukaryotes [12-14].

Intriguingly, mutants of the canonical ATG1 initiation complex, including double

knockouts, exhibited no detectable acceleration of senescence relative to *srta1* (Fig.

2c; Additional file 1: Fig. S8 and Fig. S9). This contrasts sharply with *A. thaliana*,

where the ATG1 complex is critical for normal senescence [21, 22]. To test whether

this dispensability was condition-specific, we assessed viability under nitrogen-limited

conditions — a stress that also requires ATG1 complex activity in *A. thaliana* [21, 22].

ATG1 initiation complex mutants again showed wild-type-like viability in *C. reinhardtii*

(Additional file 1: Fig. S10). Together, these results indicate that the dispensability of

the ATG1 initiation complex in *C. reinhardtii* is not limited to acute stress or standard

growth conditions, pointing to a fundamental difference in autophagy regulation

compared to vascular plants (Fig. 2d).

Consistently with the observations during acutely induced autophagy, loss of ATG2

caused severe early senescence, whereas loss of ATG9 and ATG18 produced wild-

type-like and intermediate phenotypes respectively — revealing strikingly unequal

contributions of the ATG9 cycling complex components (Fig. 2c; Additional file 1: Fig.

S8). These results suggest that the ATG8 lipidation machinery can be activated

independently of ATG18 and of ATG9-mediated complex recruitment to the

phagophore. The severity of the *atg2* phenotype may also partly reflect autophagy-

independent roles of ATG2-mediated lipid transfer.

Most strikingly, all mutants of PI3K complex showed only moderate decrease in

viability upon prolonged stress, in stark contrast to its requirement for autophagic

activity under acute stress (Fig. 1c; Additional file 1: Fig. S4b; Fig. 2a; Additional file

1: Fig. S6; Fig. S7), indicating compensatory mechanisms upregulating autophagy

under mild prolonged stress.

Conclusion

Our systematic genetic dissection of the autophagy machinery in *C. reinhardtii* revealed an unexpected versatility of this pathway. Consistent with observations in other eukaryotes, synthesis of ATG8–PE proved critical for autophagic activity under both acute and prolonged mild stress, rendering all components of the ATG8 and ATG12 conjugation systems essential for autophagy. However, under all tested conditions, including acute induction via TOR inhibition, autophagy proceeded independently of the ATG1 complex, challenging the canonical model of ATG1-dependent autophagy initiation.

Similarly, other so-called core ATGs, such as ATG9 and ATG18, appear to be dispensable for autophagy in *C. reinhardtii*. Nevertheless, we hypothesize that these components remain conserved because of their roles in maintaining autophagic homeostasis, as their loss resulted in skewed initiation or completion of autophagic activity.

These findings uncover a previously unrecognized divergence in autophagy initiation within the green lineage, distinguishing *C. reinhardtii* from land plants such as *A. thaliana* and other eukaryotic systems in which the ATG1 complex is indispensable under nutrient-limited conditions. Our results support the existence of an alternative ATG1-independent mechanism initiating autophagy in green algae. Together, this work highlights the evolutionary plasticity of autophagy regulation and establishes *C. reinhardtii* as a powerful model system for dissecting non-canonical autophagy pathways in a genetically streamlined photosynthetic eukaryote.

Methods

Genome survey and phylogenetic analysis of ATG proteins

ATG protein sequences encoded from *A. thaliana* were used as queries (corresponding gene accession number in Additional file 2: Table S2) for BLAST searches against selected genomes in Phytozome [23] or UniProt [24]. Putative orthologues were identified using reciprocal BLAST searches. Protein sequences were aligned in MEGA X [25], and phylogenetic trees in Additional file 1: Fig. S1 were constructed using the neighbor-joining method with default parameters. A total of 1,000 bootstrap replicates were performed, and branch support values greater than 50% are shown. Gene structures presented in Additional file 1: Fig. 3a and 3b were visualized using GSDS 2.0 [26].

Background strains and growth conditions

CC-4533, its derivative *srta1*, and UVM4 were used as genetic backgrounds for genome editing. *C. reinhardtii* cells were cultured under standard condition: axenically in Tris-Acetate-Phosphate (TAP) liquid or solid medium at 22 °C and under a 16 h light/8 h dark cycle with a light intensity of 110 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. Cells in the stationary phase were diluted 20-fold into fresh medium and grown for one day, followed by treatment with 1 µM AZD8055 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-364424). For growth on nitrogen-limited plates, TAP-0.75N medium was used, containing 25% of the nitrogen content of full-strength TAP.

ATG gene deletion by CRISPR-Cas9

A CRISPR-Cas9 based targeted insertional mutagenesis approach [27] was used to knock out genes of interest. For each gene, a single guide RNA (sgRNA, Additional

file 2: Table S3) was designed to target one of the first four exons. Cells were

electroporated with the ribonucleoprotein complex and a donor DNA fragment

containing an expression cassette. The cassette included the Hsp70/RBCS2

synthetic promoter, a selectable marker (*ble* for zeocin, *AphVII* for hygromycin, or

AphVIII for paromomycin), and the RBCS2 terminator. Transformants were screened

by colony PCR (Additional file 1: Fig. S3, primers listed in Additional file 2: Table S3).

All strains generated in this study are listed in Additional file 2: Table S4.

mVenus-ATG8 expression

Constructs used for expressing mVenus-ATG8 were generated using the MoClo kit

[28]. L1 vectors were assembled from the following L0 modules: the *PsaD* promoter

(pCM0-016), *mVenus* gene (pCM0-066), the genomic sequence of *CrATG8* [20], and

the *PsaD* terminator (pCM0-114). L2 vectors carrying hygromycin or paromomycin

resistance were subsequently assembled. The L2 vectors were introduced into WT or

ATG deletion strains using the glass bead method [29]. Transformants were

screened by confocal microscopy and immunoblot analysis. Plasmids are listed in

Additional file 2: Table S5.

Growth assays

Cells from plates were pre-cultured to the stationary phase. Equal numbers of cells

(2.5×10^5) from each strain were loaded onto plates for growth assays. Plates were

maintained in the growth chamber under the same conditions described above, and

the growth phenotypes were photographed on designated days. Viability assays

were performed as previously described [20]. Briefly, RGB images of cell growth after

60 days were separated into red, green, and blue channels, and the green channel

was used for subsequent analysis. Circular regions of interest (ROIs) containing cells

were defined to quantify color intensity. Background intensity was determined as the

mean value of four randomly selected regions lacking cells. For each strain, the

corrected color intensity was calculated by subtracting the background value from the

measured intensity. Finally, color intensity values were normalized to the average

value of the background strain.

ATG8 lipidation assay

One milliliter of cell cultures in log phase ($2–10 × 10^6$ cells mL^{-1}) was harvested by

centrifugation at 17,000 × g for 1 min at room temperature and snap-frozen in liquid

nitrogen. The cell pellet was resuspended in 50 µL 2 × SDS sample buffer [30] and

incubated at 70 °C for 5 min. Samples were vortexed at maximum speed for 30 s and

then centrifuged at 17,000 × g for 15 min at room temperature. The resulting

supernatant was diluted with an equal volume of distilled water and used for

immunoblotting. Protein crude extracts were separated on manually cast 15% SDS-

PAGE gels supplemented with 6 M urea [31] and transferred to Trans-Blot Turbo Midi

0.2 µm PVDF membranes (BioRad, 1704157). Membrane was blocked for 1 h in 5%

skimmed milk in PBST buffer. Primary anti-ATG8 (Agrisera, AS14 2769, 1:5,000) was

incubated with the membranes overnight, followed by incubation with secondary anti-

rabbit antibody (Agrisera, AS09 602, 1:20,000) for 1 h before detection.

Densitometric analysis of the western blots was performed using the software Image

Lab 6.1 (BioRad).

Autophagic flux assay

Crude protein extracts were prepared as described for the ATG8 lipidation assay.

Proteins were separated on 4–20% TGX Stain-Free precast gels (Bio-Rad,

4568096). Primary anti-GFP (Roche, 11814460001; 1:2,000) and secondary anti-

mouse antibody (Agrisera, AS11 1772; 1:10,000) were applied. Densitometric

analysis of the western blots was performed using the software Image Lab 6.1

(BioRad).

Confocal microscopy

The mVenus fluorescent signal was detected using a confocal microscopy (Leica

Stellaris 5) with excitation at 514 nm and emission collected from 540 to 590 nm. As

cells became fragile after 24 h of treatment with 1 µM AZD8055, the treatment was

shortened to 2 h using 5 µM AZD8055 for imaging.

High pressure freezing (HPF) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

analysis

The general procedures for preparing the TEM samples and ultra-thin sectioning of

samples were conducted as previously with some modifications [32, 33]. In Brief,

two-day *C. reinhardtii* cells were centrifuged at 2000 g for 5 min, resuspended in 0.15

M mannitol dissolved in TAP, and fixed using a high-pressure freezer (EM ICE,

Leica). The frozen samples were then transferred to an AFS2 temperature-controlling

system (Leica) for freezing substitution in acetone with 0.25% glutaraldehyde and

0.1% uranyl acetate at −80°C for 24 h. Subsequently, the samples were rinsed with

precooled acetone, and slowly warmed up to -45℃, followed with embedding in

HM20 resin and polymerization under ultraviolet light. Sections were subjected to

post-staining using aqueous uranyl acetate/lead citrate and examined under a Hitachi

HT-7800 microscope (Hitachi High-Technologies Corporation, Japan).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed as described in each figure legend. Raw data used for the analysis are provided in Additional file 2: Table S6.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at

Additional file 1. Supplementary figures S1-S10.

Additional file 2. Supplementary tables S1-S6.

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization and study design: Y.Z., E.A.M., P.V.B. Supervision: S.S., E.A.M., P.V.B. Funding acquisition: S.S., P.N.M., E.A.M., P.V.B. Experiments and data analysis: Y.Z., Y.W., X.Z. Results interpretation: Y.Z., E.A.M., P.V.B. Manuscript draft: Y.Z., P.N.M., E.A.M., P.V.B. Manuscript review and editing: All authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Data availability

The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its Supplementary figures and tables. If any raw data files are

needed in another format, they are available from the corresponding authors upon

reasonable request.

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Fig. 1. The ATG1 initiation complex is dispensable for starvation-induced autophagy in *C. reinhardtii.*

a. Schematic representation of the four core molecular modules of the canonical autophagy pathway.

b. ATG8 lipidation assay of protein extracts from *srta1*, UVM4, and ATG deletion strains grown for 24 h with (+) or without (-) 1 µM AZD8055. LC, loading control. The chart shows the abundance of the lipidated form of ATG8 (ATG8ΔC-PE) relative to unconjugated ATG8 (ATG8ΔC, or ATG8 in the case of *atg4*), quantified by densitometry and normalized to the AZD8055-treated *srta1* strain.

c. Autophagic flux analysis of *srta1* and ATG deletion strains grown for 24 h with (+) or without (-) 1 µM AZD8055 using the mVenus cleavage assay. LC, loading control. The chart shows the abundance of free mVenus relative to mVenus-ATG8ΔC in the corresponding protein extracts, quantified by densitometry and normalized to the AZD8055-treated *srta1* strain.

Data in **b** and **c** represent means ± SEM of more than three biological replicates. Autophagy mutants were compared with *srta1* or UVM4 (for *vps15*) using two-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test. *, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$. The original, uncropped immunoblot images shown in **b** and **c** are provided in Additional File 1: Fig. S4.

Fig. 2. Starvation induces autophagosome-like structures and autophagic vacuoles and stationary-phase viability is uncompromised in ATG1 complex mutants of *C. reinhardtii.*

a. Confocal microscopy of mVenus-ATG8 expressing cells shows accumulation of vacuolar mVenus signal (white asterisks or arrows, e.g. in *srta1* strain) in response to

5 μM AZD8055 treatment for 2 h. Vacuoles lacking mVenus signal are indicated by

yellow asterisks (e.g. in the *atg7* mutant). Abnormal mVenus accumulation in *atg2*

mutant is indicated by white triangle. Scale bars, 10 μm.

b. Transmission electron microscopy reveals autophagosome-like structures in the

cytoplasm and vacuoles of the *srta1* and *atg11* strains, but not in the *atg7* strain, after

24 h of treatment with 1 μM AZD8055. Enlarged boxed areas are shown on the right.

AP, autophagosome-like structure; AV, autophagic vacuole; V, vacuole. Scale bars,

500 nm.

c. Representative images of algal colonies of the *srta1*, UVM4, and ATG deletion

strains after 60 days of continuous cultivation on TAP plates without subculturing

(late stationary phase). The chart shows relative viability of the indicated strains,

normalized to *srta1*, estimated by quantifying green pigmentation intensity using

image analysis. Data represent means ± SEM of three independent measurements.

Different letters indicate statistically significant differences among strains; one-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference test, *p*<0.05. Colony

images from earlier time points during the 60-day cultivation period are provided in

Additional File 1: Fig. S8.

d. Schematic illustration of the major finding that, in contrast to the evolutionarily

conserved canonical autophagy pathway, starvation-induced autophagy in *C.*

reinhardtii bypasses the ATG1 initiation complex.

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