- Quantification of the degree to which transcript abundance differs between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  leaves
- Identification of novel components of C<sub>4</sub> metabolism
- Intersection with mathematical models to explain evolution of the complex C<sub>4</sub> phenotype
- Indication that C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis is underpinned by both convergent and parallel evolution of structural genes and also regulators

1	Insights into C <sub>4</sub> metabolism from comparative deep sequencing
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3	Steven J. Burgess and Julian M. Hibberd
4	
5	Department of Plant Sciences, Downing Street, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, CB2 3EA, UK
6	Email: SJB: sjb287@cam.ac.uk, JMH: jmh65@cam.ac.uk
7	
8	For correspondence; email - jmh65@cam.ac.uk

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#### 10 Abstract

11  $C_4$  photosynthesis suppresses the oxygenation activity of Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase Oxygenase and so limits photorespiration. Although highly complex, it is estimated to have evolved in sixty-six plant 12 13 lineages, with the vast majority lacking sequenced genomes. Transcriptomics has recently initiated assessments of the degree to which transcript abundance differs between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  leaves, identified novel 14 components of C<sub>4</sub> metabolism, and also led to mathematical models explaining the repeated evolution of 15 this complex phenotype. Evidence is accumulating that this complex and convergent phenotype is partly 16 underpinned by parallel evolution of structural genes, but also regulatory elements in both *cis* and *trans*. 17 18 Furthermore, it appears that initial events associated with acquisition of C4 traits likely represent 19 evolutionary exaptations related to non-photosynthetic processes.

#### 20 Introduction

21  $C_3$  plants inherited a carbon fixation system developed by the photosynthetic bacteria, with primary 22 carbon fixation being catalysed by the enzyme Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase Oxygenase (RuBisCO). The oxygenase activity of RuBisCO generates the toxic intermediate phosphogylcollate, and although this 23 can be detoxified and carbon partially recovered by the photorespiratory pathway, energy is expended in 24 25 the process. As the oxygenase function of RuBisCO increases with ambient temperature, it is thought that in tropical and sub-tropical habitats, significant selection pressure led to the convergent evolution of 26 27 carbon concentrating mechanisms [1]. Phylogeny indicates that land plants have repeatedly evolved either 28 temporal (Crassulacean Acid Metabolism) or spatial carbon concentrating mechanisms ( $C_4$  photosynthesis) 29 [2].

Although highly complex, the C<sub>4</sub> pathway is estimated to have evolved in at least sixty-six lineages of 30 plants [3]. Initial analysis of clades that contain C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species but also 'C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub>' intermediates identified 31 the most common early traits likely associated C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, and this led to the development of 32 33 models that depict the evolution of this complex phenotype along a relatively linear path of trait acquisition [4]. More recently, probabalistic modelling within a Bayesian framework identified flexibility in when  $C_4$ 34 component traits evolve, but also found four major paths likely associated with acquisition of these traits 35 [5]. Despite this flexibility in the acquisition of  $C_4$  component traits, the core  $C_4$  metabolic machinery has 36 37 converged upon a similar architecture in all  $C_4$  lineages. For example, in all  $C_4$  species,  $HCO_3^-$  is initially fixed by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) (Figure 1), which has a higher affinity for HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> than RuBisCO 38 39 does for  $CO_2$  [6].  $C_4$  acids then diffuse down a concentration gradient into insulated cellular, or sub-cellular [7] compartments where C<sub>4</sub> acid decarboxylases increase the local concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> around RuBisCO, 40 41 thereby reducing its oxygenation activity. In most  $C_4$  species, an altered arrangement of cells within the leaf 42 known as Kranz anatomy facilitates the compartmentation of carboxylation and decarboxylation (Figure 1A). There are three basic biochemical pathways defined by the predominant  $C_4$  acid decarboxylase that 43 44 releases CO<sub>2</sub> around RuBisCO, but there are also at least 25 forms of Kranz anatomy documented (Figure 1A 45 and 1B).

46 Progress in understanding C<sub>4</sub> leaf anatomy has recently been critically assessed [8]. Here we focus on 47 how deep sequencing is influencing our understanding of  $C_4$  biochemistry and argue that combined with 48 allied technologies it is opening up a new era of  $C_4$  research. These approaches are helpful for at least three 49 reasons. First, many years of mutant screens, biochemistry and molecular biology have so far failed to 50 unlock many of the molecular components that regulate or induce the C<sub>4</sub> system [9,10], sequencing offers 51 the opportunity to identify candidate genes for these traits. Second, the C<sub>4</sub> pathway should correctly be 52 viewed as a system. Deep sequencing now makes it possible to move from analysis of individual genes and their gene products, to assessing the simultaneous behaviours of both the system and its components. 53 Third, computational advances that have been driven by deep sequencing datasets provide the opportunity 54 55 to study the natural diversity of all C<sub>4</sub> lineages, rather than being limited to well-studied 'model' species for

#### 61 Defining mRNAs associated with C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis

62 Approximately forty genes encoding core  $C_4$  cycle enzymes and components of the Calvin-Benson-63 Bassham cycle (CBB) have long been known to be involved in  $C_4$  metabolism. RNA-seq has been used to report mRNA signatures associated with the 'NAD-ME', 'NADP-ME' or 'PEPCK' biochemical sub-types [11-64 13], and along with theoretical and modelling approaches, has provided clear evidence that often two of 65 the decarboxylases operate in parallel, with their relative contributions varying depending on conditions 66 [14–17]. However, our understanding of what changes leaf anatomy such that contact between tissues 67 68 involved in carbon assimilation and reduction is increased (Figure 1A), and also what sets up and then 69 maintains the patterns of gene expression required for the  $C_4$  cycle are rudimentary. These factors are 70 important, as an understanding of C<sub>4</sub> genetics has implications for strategies being adopted to engineer the pathway into C<sub>3</sub> crop species, dictating whether efforts should be focused on alterations to individual 71 72 genes, transcriptional regulators or hormone metabolism and signalling. Deep sequencing has allowed 73 estimates of the extent to which global patterns of mRNA abundance differ between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> leaves. This 74 approach was initiated in the *Cleomaceae*, which in addition to containing  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species, is phylogenetically the closest-C<sub>4</sub>-containing clade to C<sub>3</sub> Arabidopsis thaliana [18]. 603 genes showed 75 76 differential mRNA abundance in C<sub>4</sub> compared with C<sub>3</sub> leaves [12]. Furthermore, in addition to confirmation 77 that mRNAs encoding core  $C_4$  and CBB cycles were up and down-regulated respectively, previously 78 unidentified characteristics of the  $C_4$  leaf as well as new components of the  $C_4$  cycle were reported. For 79 example, reduced abundance of mRNAs encoding ribosomal sub-units in C<sub>4</sub> compared with C<sub>3</sub> leaves was 80 reported [12], while BASS2, which was subsequently shown to encode the long-sought-after pyruvate transporter associated with C4 photosynthesis was up-regulated [19]. Subsequent analysis has led to 81 82 increased numbers of genes being linked to the C<sub>4</sub> cycle [13] and Table 1. The highest reported differences 83 in transcript abundance between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  tissues are derived from *Eleocharis*, a species that is able to switch from  $C_3$  to  $C_4$  depending on whether it is aquatic or terrestrial (Table 1). However, a proportion of 84 85 the mRNAs reported to be differentially abundant in  $C_4$  compared with  $C_3$  Eleocharis are likely associated with the different light and temperature conditions caused by the aquatic to terrestrial switch [20]. 86

87 Comparison of estimates of the number of changes associated with each of the three biochemical sub-88 types (Figure 1) led to suggestions that establishment of the PEPCK C4 sub-type requires the fewest 89 changes, in part because of reduced requirements for alterations in photosystem accumulation between 90 mesophyll and bundle sheath cells [11]. An overview of statistics from these studies (Table 1) shows that as 91 sequencing depths have increased there has been an increase in the predicted number of differentially expressed genes, likely due to better quantification of low abundance transcripts. However, as no 92 93 annotated genomes were available for these species, the data are based either on cross-species mapping of 94 reads, or gene models created by de novo transcriptome assembly [21-23]. Both of these approaches introduce inaccuracy compared with direct read mapping to a well-annotated genome. It is important to 95 96 note that the absolute number of differentially expressed genes detected through congeneric comparisons

97 is clearly dependent on the phylogenetic distance, statistical cut-offs, quality of transcriptome assemblies
98 and number of species sampled (Table 1). As the number of independent C<sub>4</sub> lineages that are assessed with
99 RNA-seq increase, estimates of the conserved alterations to mRNA abundance will become more reliable.
100 However, it is clear from the current estimates which range from hundreds to thousands of genes showing
101 differential expression in C<sub>4</sub> compared with C<sub>3</sub> leaves, research needs to focus on identification of key
102 transcription factors and signalling events that underlie these patterns of gene expression.

103

#### 104 Compartmentation of gene expression between cell-types of the C<sub>4</sub> leaf

105 As with analysis of any organ or tissue, the  $C_4$  leaf is composed of multiple distinct cell types, and the 106 specialisation of M and BS cells in C<sub>4</sub> leaves (Figure 1) is considered a hallmark of the C<sub>4</sub> pathway. The first publications on global mRNA populations of M and BS cells of C4 leaves were conducted on maize and 107 108 supported existing knowledge of genes known to be differentially expressed between these cell types [24,25]. Analysis of two independent  $C_4$  lineages from the grasses indicated that the absolute abundance of 109 110 mRNAs in M and BS cells of grasses that evolved C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis independently was statistically more convergent than other differentially expressed genes [26]. This implies that strong selection pressures 111 acted on genes associated with the C<sub>4</sub> pathway to generate very similar expression in separate C<sub>4</sub> lineages. 112 As the M and BS transcriptomes of more C<sub>4</sub> species become available this quantitative convergence could 113 114 be used to generate a predictive framework that allows unknown components of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis to be identified. Although it has long been clear that transcriptional, post-transcriptional and post-translational 115 116 processes all play a part in generating the C<sub>4</sub> metabolic system [9], omics approaches are now initiating non-biased and systems level quantification of their importance. For example, quantitative proteomics and 117 transcriptomics indicated that the ratio of each cognate protein to its mRNA varies during C4 leaf 118 119 development, and that the ratio is often highest where protein function is most relevant [27]. Taken together, these findings start to provide an oversight of the extent of post-transcriptional and post-120 121 translational regulation in the C<sub>4</sub> leaf.

122 Transcriptomic datasets derived from M and BS cells of  $C_4$  leaves highlight an area of ignorance, namely 123 the mRNA populations associated with these two cell types in leaves of ancestral C<sub>3</sub> plants. Without this 124 information it has not been possible to define how much patterns of gene expression have altered in M and 125 BS cells of C<sub>4</sub> compared with those cells in C<sub>3</sub> leaves. A major hurdle was our inability to isolate M and BS 126 cells from C<sub>3</sub> leaves, however immunopurification of ribosomes from specific cell types [28] has initiated 127 our understanding of the BS in C<sub>3</sub> Arabidopsis thaliana. Although it was previously known that veinal cells of C<sub>3</sub> plants possessed characteristics of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis [30,31], ribosome tagging and deep sequencing of 128 129 associated mRNAs indicated that components of the C<sub>4</sub> cycle are also preferentially expressed in the C<sub>3</sub> BS [29]. This work also highlighted a role for the C<sub>3</sub> BS in sulphur metabolism, a characteristic that had 130 previously been reported of the C<sub>4</sub> BS [32]. Thus, as more C<sub>3</sub> lineages are sampled, we will develop a much 131 132 clearer understanding of the extent to which metabolic characteristics currently associated with C<sub>4</sub>

photosynthesis are actually ancestral and present in either M or BS cells of  $C_3$  leaves. We therefore conclude that technologies are in place to significantly improve our understanding of M and BS cells in both  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  plants. Data from these approaches are being used to formulate models that relate to the molecular drivers associated with the repeated evolution of this complex trait, and it is this that will be explored in the next section.

138

#### 139 Insights into the molecular drivers of C<sub>4</sub> metabolism

140 It has been clear for some time that prior to their recruitment into  $C_4$  photosynthesis, the major proteins 141 of  $C_4$  photosynthesis typically accumulate at relatively low levels in a constitutive manner in  $C_3$  leaves [33]. 142 Through comparison with a gene expression atlas of closely related species, it is now proposed that expression of orthologues to C<sub>4</sub> genes show a variety of expression patterns, and peak in various tissues, in 143 the  $C_3$  ancestral system [34]. Deep sequencing data has also now provided the insight into the extent to 144 which genes of the  $C_4$  cycle become co-regulated with photosynthesis genes in leaves of both  $C_4$ 145 146 monotyledons and dicotyledons [23,35]. Overall, these data imply that during the evolution of  $C_4$ photosynthesis, genes of the  $C_4$  cycle are co-opted into the gene regulatory networks that govern 147 148 photosynthesis gene expression in the ancestral C<sub>3</sub> state [23,34].

The identification of transcription factors responsible for these alterations in expression of genes 149 encoding components of the C4 cycle is an area where significant progress still needs to be made. However, 150 comparative transcriptomics has now identified candidate regulators for the C<sub>4</sub> cycle in maize [24,25,35– 151 152 37], Setaria [26,38], Flaveria [13] and Gynandropsis gynandra (formerly known as Cleome gynandra) [23,34]. Interestingly, independent lineages of C<sub>4</sub> plants appear to have up-regulated homologous 153 transcriptional regulators in either M or BS cells. This has been reported for two independent lineages of C4 154 155 grasses [26] but also for the  $C_4$  dicotyledon G. gynandropsis and the  $C_4$  monocotyledon maize [23]. These data indicated that M or BS preferential expression is not only associated with parallel evolution of 156 157 regulatory DNA [39] and histone marks [40], but also the recruitment of transcription factors [23,26].

158 Another striking finding facilitated by deep sequencing has been quantification of the extent to which 159 specific members of multi-gene families are recruited into the C<sub>4</sub> pathway. This was initially reported after 160 phylogenetic reconstructions of individual genes such as PEPC [41], but the extent of this process was not 161 clear. Transcriptomics has now quantified this phenomenon in Alloteropsis, which contains  $C_3$  and  $C_4$ 162 subspecies [42]. In maize and Setaria, which represent two independent lineages of C<sub>4</sub> grass, 87% of C<sub>4</sub> cycle proteins that are up-regulated in C<sub>4</sub> leaves are syntenic orthologues, indicating that the same 163 164 ancestral gene has repeatedly been recruited into the pathway [26]. Again, the mechanism behind this 165 phenomenon is not clear, but it is possible that these orthologues are repeatedly used into the  $C_4$  pathway because they are part of pre-existing gene regulatory networks that are recruited into  $C_4$  photosynthesis. 166 These data further emphasize that the highly complex C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis trait is underpinned by a mixture 167 168 of both convergent and parallel evolution [39,42].

169 The combination of deep sequencing and metabolic flux modelling has demonstrated the power of an 170 integrated approach, and lead to an enticing hypothesis concerning the repeated evolution of  $C_4$ photosynthesis. Comparing C<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species in *Flaveria*, RNA-seq data coupled to metabolic 171 modelling predicted that loss of the full photorespiratory pathway in the M cells of C<sub>3</sub> plants, which is the 172 most common biochemical alteration thought to initiate  $C_4$  evolution [2], leads to a nitrogen imbalance 173 174 between M and BS cells [43] (Figure 2). The most parsimonious alterations to central metabolism that corrects this imbalance in the leaf is to induce, and compartment, the key components of the  $C_4$  cycle into 175 either M or BS cells (Figure 2). These data strongly imply that the metabolic remodelling during these early 176 177 stages of C<sub>4</sub> evolution represent an evolutionary exaptation that was initially not related to photosynthetic 178 efficiency per se. Thus, it now appears that metabolic and also morphological alterations to C<sub>3</sub> leaves were 179 both unrelated to photosynthesis [5,42,44]. Later in the evolutionary process it is thought that each alteration to the C<sub>4</sub> cycle leads to a steady increase in photosynthetic performance [45], and this is then 180 followed by evolutionary fine-tuning mediated by amino acid substitutions that modify allosteric regulation 181 182 of these proteins for the  $C_4$  leaf [46]. In the future, deep sequencing will also allow us to determine whether parallel changes to amino acids are associated with parallel or convergent evolution to the nucleotides 183 184 encoding them. Moving ahead, perhaps a similar combined modelling, sequencing and hormone approach is required to make progress in understanding the molecular basis of Kranz anatomy. 185

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#### 187 Summary

188 The use of deep sequencing in  $C_4$  research is in its infancy, and so far is mostly limited to RNA-seq. It is also true that the initial phase has identified many genes that could be important for C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, but 189 190 for which functional analysis has not yet been undertaken. However, it is clear that use of deep sequencing 191 has initiated an unbiased and objective study of  $C_4$  photosynthesis in species that previously lacked any 192 transcriptomic or genomic resources. As outlined above, deep sequencing and improved computational 193 pipelines for data analyses have started to provide significant new insight. This includes defining core 194 components of the  $C_4$  cycle, identifying variations in  $C_4$  metabolism both within and between species, and 195 also providing inference into evolutionary mechanisms associated with the polyphyletic appearance of this 196 highly complex system.

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#### 325 Figure Legends

Figure 1: Schematics illustrating variation in leaf anatomy and C<sub>4</sub> biochemical cycles of C<sub>4</sub> leaves. A. 326 Diagrams representing transverse sections through a C3 leaf, and four anatomical variations in Kranz 327 anatomy. Images are based on those reported by [47]. B. The three main cycles that have classically been 328 used to define the three biochemcial sub-types of  $C_4$  photosynthesis. AlaAT = Alanine aminotransferase, 329 AspAT = Aspartate aminotransferase, CA= Carbonic anhydrase, PEPC = Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase, 330 PEPCK = Phosphoeno/pyruvate carboxykinase, NADP-MDH = NADP-dependent malate dehydrogenase, 331 NADP-ME = NADP-dependent malic enzyme, NAD-ME = NAD-dependent malic enzyme, PPDK = 332 333 Pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase, CBB = Calvin Benson Bassham cycle, Ala = alanine, Asp = aspartate, Mal = malate, OAA = oxaloacetic acid, Pyr = Pyruvate, PEP = phosphoenolpyruvate. 334

335

Figure 2: Impacts of deep sequencing on understanding C4 metabolism. Representation of model 336 337 predicting initial events associated with the evolution of C3-C4 intermediacy (based on [43]). Loss of photorespiration in the mesophyll cells would lead to lead to an imbalance in nitrogen metabolism 338 339 between mesophyll and bundle sheath cells, and accumulation of ammonia (yellow circle) in the bundle 340 sheath. Upregulation of a C<sub>4</sub>-like pathway rebalances this nitrogen imbalance. The three panels represent 341 photorespiration ( $C_2$  cycle) operating in both mesophyll and bundle sheath cells of a  $C_3$  leaf (A), the  $C_2$  cycle 342 being lost in the mesophyll cells of  $C_3$ - $C_4$  intermediate species, and the subsequent development of a  $C_4$ -like cycle (B), and finally complete implementation of the  $C_4$  cycle (C). Abbreviations as in Figure 1, as well as 343 Glu = glutamate, Gly= glycine, 2-OG = 2-oxoglutarate, Ser = serine. Dashed lines indicate low metabolic flux. 344 345 Red circles represent carbon atoms while yellow circles represent amine groups.

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A

### C<sub>4</sub> atriplicoid



 $C_3$ 

C<sub>4</sub> kochioid



C<sub>4</sub> suaedoid



C<sub>4</sub> salsoloid

- O Site of carbon assimilation
- Site of carbon reduction

\***Note:** In C<sub>3</sub> species both carbon assimilarion and reduction predominately occur in the mesophyll.

# В

# NADP-ME subtype



### NAD-ME subtype



## PEPCK subtype



Α



В





С



	Bräutigam et al. (2011) <sup>12</sup>	Gowik et al. (2011) <sup>13</sup>	Bräutigam et al. (2014) <sup>11</sup>	Chen et al. (2014) <sup>20</sup>
Total number of DE transcripts	603	3582	1168	8848
Transcripts more abundant in $C_3$	258	1418	792	4184
Transcripts more abundant in C <sub>4</sub>	345	2164	376	4664
% Transcriptome DE	1.4	NA*	6.1	13.5

**Table 1: Comparisons of transcript abundance in closely related C**<sub>3</sub> **versus C**<sub>4</sub> **photosynthetic tissues.** The total number of transcripts annotated as being differentially expressed (DE) in each study is listed, along with the numbers up or down regulated. Data expressed as percent of the total transcriptome are also reported for each study. Bräutigam *et al.* 2011 assessed C<sub>4</sub> *Gynandropsis gynandra* versus C<sub>3</sub> *Tareneya hassleriana.* Gowik *et al.* 2011 assessed C<sub>4</sub> *Flaveria bidentis* and *Flaveria trinervia* as well as C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> *Flaveria ramosissima* and C<sub>3</sub> *Flaveria pringlei* and *Flaveria robusta.* Bräutigam *et al.* 2014 assessed *Panicum maximum* and *Dicanthelium clandestinum.* Chen *et al.* 2014 assessed C<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub> culms of *Eleocharis baldwinii.* \*NA: the values for DE transcripts were based on multispecies comparisons which prohibits expressing the number of DE transcripts as a percentage of transcriptome.