

1 **Regulatory gateways for cell-specific gene expression in C₄ leaves with Kranz anatomy**

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23 Highlight statement: Analysis of photosynthesis gene expression in multiple C₄ lineages indicates

24 that individual genes are regulated at multiple levels and that the mechanisms operate in C₃

25 ancestors.

1 ABSTRACT

2 C₄ photosynthesis is a carbon concentrating mechanism that increases delivery of carbon dioxide
3 to RuBisCO and as a consequence reduces photorespiration. The C₄ pathway is therefore
4 beneficial in environments that promote high photorespiration. This pathway has evolved many
5 times, and involves restricting gene expression to either mesophyll or bundle sheath cells. Here we
6 review the regulatory mechanisms that control cell preferential expression of genes in the C₄ cycle.
7 From this analysis, it is clear that the C₄ pathway has a complex regulatory framework, with control
8 operating at epigenetic, transcriptional, post-transcriptional, translational, and post-translational
9 levels. Some genes of the C₄ pathway are regulated at multiple levels, and we propose that this
10 ensures robust expression in each cell type. Accumulating evidence suggests that multiple genes
11 of the C₄ pathway may share the same regulatory mechanism. The control systems for C₄
12 photosynthesis gene expression appear to operate in C₃ plants, and so it appears that pre-existing
13 mechanisms form the basis of C₄ photosynthesis gene expression.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Ribulose 1,5-Bisphosphate Carboxylase Oxygenase (RuBisCO) is the primary carboxylation
3 enzyme in photoautotrophs - fixing inorganic atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) into an organic
4 form for carbohydrate anabolism (Calvin and Benson, 1948; Nelson and Cox, 2008). It has been
5 proposed that every organic carbon molecule has passed through the RuBisCO active site at some
6 point in time (Mauseth, 2012). When RuBisCO and photosynthesis first appeared, the earth's
7 atmosphere was dominated by CO₂. Over a prolonged period of time, oxygenic photosynthesis
8 transformed the atmosphere and oceans, allowing aerobic organisms to survive (Luo *et al.*, 2016;
9 Holland, 2006).

10 Despite its indispensable role in carbon assimilation, RuBisCO is a surprisingly inefficient
11 enzyme. Its rate of catalysis is slow, and it has a low affinity for CO₂. Furthermore, it carries out a
12 deleterious side-reaction that fixes molecular oxygen (O₂) rather than CO₂ (Portis and Parry, 2007).
13 In a high CO₂ world, this would not likely affect growth, however, with approximately 21% O₂ and
14 0.04% CO₂ in the current atmosphere, catalysis of O₂ is common and generates a toxic two carbon
15 compound that must be recycled via photorespiration (Bowes *et al.*, 1971; Sharkey, 1988). Not
16 only is energy expended in photorespiration, but it also leads to loss of carbon, leading to
17 reductions in photosynthetic efficiency. To date, attempts to manipulate RuBisCO to impair or
18 remove its oxygenase activity while maintaining carboxylase functionality have not been successful
19 (Whitney *et al.*, 2011; Spreitzer and Salvucci, 2002; Peterhansel and Offerman, 2012). However,
20 on an evolutionary timescale, multiple independent lineages of plants have developed mechanisms
21 to reduce oxygenation by RuBisCO in an oxygen rich world (Sage *et al.*, 2012). Rather than
22 evolving an improved CO₂-O₂ discrimination mechanism, a seemingly simple modification that
23 would eradicate energy wasted in photorespiration, these lineages instead developed carbon-
24 concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) that boost carboxylation by RuBisCO. Of these CCMs, C₄
25 photosynthesis is the most prevalent in terrestrial plants – being found in around 8100 species
26 distributed across more than sixty lineages of plants (Sage, 2016).

27 C₄ photosynthesis operates as a molecular pump that generates high concentrations of CO₂
28 around RuBisCO (Figure 1A). A unique form of plant morphology termed Kranz anatomy has
29 evolved in conjunction with this molecular pump to facilitate C₄ photosynthesis (Haberlandt, 1904;

1 El-Sharkawy and Hesketh, 1965; Downton and Tregunna, 1968; Hatch, 1987). Kranz anatomy
2 typically consists of narrowly spaced veins with large bundle sheath (BS) cells surrounded by outer
3 and concentric layers of mesophyll (M) cells (Figure 1B). In all plants, CO₂ enters the plant through
4 stomata and diffuses into M cells. However, in C₄ species, rather than the initial fixation by
5 RuBisCO CO₂ is converted into bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) by CARBONIC ANHYDRASE (CA).
6 PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYLASE (PEPC) then combines HCO₃⁻ with the three-
7 carbon acceptor molecule phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) to produce the four-carbon acid
8 oxaloacetate in M cells. The initial formation of the C₄ acid led to the name C₄ photosynthesis.
9 Oxaloacetate is then commonly reduced to malate, which diffuses into BS cells where it is
10 decarboxylated to yield pyruvate, a three-carbon compound, and a molecule of CO₂, which is
11 secondarily refixed by RuBisCO. Key steps in the C₄ carbon assimilation cycle are therefore: initial
12 CO₂ fixation by PEPC to form a C₄ acid in M cells, decarboxylation of the C₄ acid in BS cells to
13 release high concentrations of CO₂ near RuBisCO for re-fixation in the Calvin-Benson-Bassham
14 (CBB) cycle, and lastly, regeneration of the C₃ substrate PEP in M cells (Hatch, 1987; Kagawa and
15 Hatch, 1974).

16 The compartmentation of C₄ photosynthesis between M and BS cells depends on the regulation
17 of the genes encoding this complex metabolic network (Hibberd and Covshoff, 2010). Fifty years
18 after the discovery of C₄ photosynthesis (Hatch and Slack, 1966; Furbank, 2016) there is
19 considerable interest in understanding its regulation between M and BS cells. A better
20 understanding of how C₄ gene expression is controlled could impact on efforts to incorporate the
21 C₄ pathway into C₃ crops to improve their photosynthetic efficiency (Sage and Zhu, 2011; Covshoff
22 and Hibberd, 2012; Matsuoka *et al.*, 2001; von Caemmerer *et al.*, 2012; Raines, 2011; Hibberd *et*
23 *al.*, 2008; Osborne and Beerling, 2006).

24 Here we aim to highlight recent advances in understanding the gene regulation associated with
25 the C₄ pathway. The regulation of C₄ photosynthesis gene expression is stringent. Once
26 established, environmental stimuli such as heat, cold, light or dark, and even hormonal
27 manipulation, are not known to perturb its patterns of cell specific gene expression (Bräutigam and
28 Weber, 2011). It is not clear if the complex C₄ phenotype is based on the evolution of conserved
29 regulatory mechanisms that have repeatedly been recruited into C₄ photosynthesis in independent

1 C₄ lineages. However, it is apparent that the pathway is regulated at many checkpoints including
2 epigenetic, transcriptional, post-transcriptional, translational and post-translational processes.
3 Analysis of the available literature supports the notion that to ensure the correct patterns of gene
4 expression, individual genes are subject to an interconnected mosaic of gene regulation operating
5 at many levels.

1 **C₄ GENES ARE SUBJECT TO EPIGENETIC REGULATION**

2 Epigenetic regulatory mechanisms, such as covalent modifications to DNA or alternations in
3 chromatin structure, can impact on gene expression, and are not dependent on the underlying
4 DNA sequence (Feng *et al.*, 2010). As a passive barrier to gene expression, chromatin compacted
5 by nucleosomes, is inaccessible to regulatory proteins (Loidl, 2004). Covalent modifications to
6 DNA such as methylation at cytosine nucleotides, or histone modifications, such as lysine
7 acetylation or methylation, are commonly associated with epigenetic regulation (Vanyushin and
8 Ashapkin, 2011).

9 Based on a search of Histone H3 Lysine 4 tri-methylation (H3K4me3) and H3 lysine 9
10 acetylation (H3K9ac) within C₄ pathway gene promoter regions, which represent histone marks for
11 actively transcribed genes (Wang *et al.*, 2009; Dion *et al.*, 2005), six C₄ cycle genes were found to
12 share a similar histone code in the C₄ grasses *Zea mays* (maize), *Setaria italica* and *Sorghum*
13 *bicolor* (Heimann *et al.*, 2013). The M preferential C₄ genes, *PEPC*, *CA* and *PYRUVATE*,
14 *ORTHOPHOSPHATE DIKINASE (PPDK)* showed an enrichment of H3K4me3 in M cells compared
15 with the BS. In contrast, C₄ genes such as *NADP-MALIC ENZYME (NADP-ME)* and
16 *PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYKINASE (PEPCK)* were enriched with H3K4me3 marks in
17 the BS compared with M cells. Interestingly, the small subunit of RuBisCO (*RbcS*) showed nearly
18 the same degree of H3K4me3 in both M and BS cells (Heimann *et al.*, 2013). All of these genes
19 showed an enrichment of H3K9ac marks upon illumination (Heimann *et al.*, 2013), which may
20 indicate that histone modification helps regulate both cell specificity and the induction of gene
21 expression by light. It therefore appears that H3K9ac primes genes for expression from light stimuli,
22 and H3K4me3 further initiates preferential expression of C₄ genes in either M or BS cells but is
23 independent of light (Offerman *et al.*, 2008). A genome-wide search of maize revealed that many
24 putative regulators of C₄ photosynthesis exhibited similar H3K9ac histone activation marks
25 (Perduns *et al.*, 2015). Among 294 genes found to be M or BS specific from maize and C₄
26 *Gynandropsis gynandra* (Aubry *et al.*, 2014), 68 had up-regulated H3K9ac marks (Perduns *et al.*,
27 2015). Examples of putative regulators that also show cell specific histone marks include DNA-
28 binding with One Finger transcription factor (Yanagisawa, 2000), and an ethylene response
29 element binding factor (Pick *et al.*, 2011). Thus, histone modifications may have a broad role to

1 control the expression of enzymes and putative regulators involved in the induction of C₄
2 photosynthesis in response to light and may also prime their cell specificity.

3 It is also possible that DNA methylation serves as a regulator of C₄ gene expression.
4 Methylation sensitive restriction endonucleases (Langdale *et al.*, 1991) and bisulphite sequencing
5 of DNA (Tolley *et al.*, 2011) indicated that the maize *PEPC* promoter region contains several
6 cytosine methylation sites. These cytosine residues are de-methylated in response to light
7 specifically in M cells. However, these methylated cytosines are upstream of the 600 base pair (bp)
8 region of the maize *PEPC* promoter that is sufficient to generate preferential expression in M cells
9 (Matsuoka *et al.*, 1994). Therefore, it is unclear whether these methylated sites play a role in M cell
10 specific expression of maize *PEPC*. Taken together, these results indicate that epigenetic
11 modifications likely contribute to preferential expression of C₄ genes in M or BS cells and may be
12 an initial mechanism that primes C₄ genes for preferential expression in these cells (Wang *et al.*,
13 2011; Heimann *et al.*, 2013). In subsequent sections, we present evidence that argues for the
14 spatial regulation of C₄ genes being subject to additional levels of regulation.

15

16 **CIS-ELEMENTS AND TRANS-FACTORS AFFECTING TRANSCRIPTION**

17 Transcription represents the first stage of gene expression and allows a DNA sequence to
18 specify an RNA copy by the action of RNA polymerase. RNA polymerase requires the assistance
19 of transcription factors that bind euchromatic DNA elements to facilitate pre-initiation of
20 transcription. Transcription factors and the DNA elements they recognise are often referred to as
21 *trans*- and *cis*-regulators respectively. There has been significant interest in understanding the *cis*-
22 elements and *trans*-factors that facilitate M or BS expression of C₄ genes (Hibberd and Covshoff,
23 2010).

24 One of the best-characterised examples of transcriptional control in C₄ photosynthesis is the
25 promoter region of the *PEPC* gene from maize. As previously mentioned, a 600bp region of the
26 maize *PEPC* promoter is sufficient to generate strong and light-activated expression in M cells
27 (Taniguchi *et al.*, 2000; Kausch *et al.*, 2001). Interestingly, these 600bp can drive M expression in
28 C₃ rice (*Oryza sativa*) (Matsuoka *et al.*, 1994; Ku *et al.*, 1999). In the C₄ dicotyledon *Flaveria*
29 *trinervia*, the *PEPC* promoter region is also sufficient for preferential expression in M cells

1 (Stockhaus *et al.*, 1997). Detailed dissection of this *F. trinervia* *PEPC* promoter region identified a
2 41bp *cis*-element responsible for M expression, termed the Mesophyll Enhancing Module 1
3 (MEM1) (Gowik *et al.*, 2004). MEM1 is also capable of conferring expression in the palisade M of
4 *C₃ Nicotiana tabacum* (Akyildiz *et al.*, 2007). Interestingly, the *PEPCK* gene from *C₄ Zoysia*
5 *japonica* (a warm season turf-grass) that encodes one of the *C₄* acid decarboxylases that supplies
6 CO₂ to RuBisCO in BS cells is also able to generate expression in the BS of rice (Nomura *et al.*,
7 2005). The most parsimonious explanation for these data is that in multiple *C₄* lineages, *PEPC* and
8 *PEPCK* have evolved novel cell specific *cis*-elements that utilised an ancestral regulatory
9 mechanism that was based on *trans*-factors present in *C₃* species.

10 It is becoming increasingly apparent that the spatial patterning of *C₄* genes can be mediated by
11 *cis*-elements found inside genes. In both genes that encode the heterodimeric NAD-dependent
12 Malic Enzyme (NAD-ME), a 240bp region within the coding sequence confers BS expression in *G.*
13 *gynandra* (Brown *et al.*, 2011). This 240bp sequence from *G. gynandra* does not produce BS
14 specificity in *C₃ Arabidopsis thaliana*. However, the orthologous sequence from *Arabidopsis* is able
15 to generate BS expression in *G. gynandra*. Thus, the *cis*-elements used to generate cell specificity
16 of *G. gynandra* *NAD-ME* are present in the ancestral *C₃* state but the *trans*-regulator appears to be
17 lacking.

18 A number of *trans*-factors have been identified *in vitro* that bind to *PEPC* promoter regions from
19 different *C₄* species. For example, DNA Binding with One Finger 1 (DOF1), DOF2, *F. trinervia* ZF-
20 HD homeobox protein 1 (FtHB1), Maize Nuclear Factors (MNFs), and PEP-I all interact with *PEPC*
21 promoters (Windhövel *et al.* 2001; Westoff and Gowik, 2004; Kano-Murakami *et al.*, 1991). DOF
22 transcription factors are specific to the plant kingdom and both up- and down-regulate light-
23 responsive genes (Park *et al.*, 2003; Ward *et al.*, 2005). DOF1 appears to promote *PEPC*
24 expression throughout the plant (Yanagisawa and Sheen, 1998) and it is proposed that expression
25 is then restricted to M cells by the repressive function of DOF2 which is itself BS specific
26 (Yanagisawa, 2000). When *DOF1* expression was repressed to very low levels in maize mutants
27 *PEPC* expression was unaltered (Cavalar *et al.*, 2007). Thus, low activity of *DOF1* is able to
28 regulate *PEPC* expression. It has been speculated that DOF1 may regulate other *C₄* genes such
29 as *PPDK* (Yanagisawa, 2000), and it also appears to regulate *PPDK* in tissues of rice (Zhang *et al.*,

1 2015). Despite indications that the homeodomain proteins, FtHB1, FtHB3 and FtHB4 bind *cis*-
2 elements present in the 5'-untranslated region (UTR) of *PEPC* from *F. trinervia* (Windhövel *et al.*,
3 2001), there was no disruption in expression of *PEPC* when the putative binding site was deleted
4 (Engelmann *et al.*, 2008). To date, none of these *trans*-factors have been verified *in vivo* as being
5 necessary or sufficient for expression in M cells of C₄ leaves, thus the role these proteins play in
6 *PEPC* regulation is not yet elucidated.

7 Comparative transcriptomics between C₃ and C₄ species and between M and BS cells of the
8 same C₄ species has led to the *in silico* identification of many transcription factors proposed to
9 impact C₄ gene expression (Bräutigam *et al.*, 2011; Gowik *et al.*, 2011, Ding *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*,
10 2010; Aubry *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Yu *et al.*, 2015; Pick *et al.*, 2011; Rao *et al.*, 2016;
11 John *et al.*, 2014; Chang *et al.*, 2012; Tausta *et al.*, 2014). To our knowledge, none of these
12 candidates have been validated *in vivo*. The reasons for the lack of progress in identifying the
13 transcriptional regulators of cell specificity are not clear, but may be associated with redundancy
14 being caused by multiple transcription factors binding relevant *cis*-elements, and/or significant
15 amounts of post-transcriptional control.

16 The only transcription factor that has a fully validated role in C₄ photosynthesis is Golden Like 2
17 (GLK2) (Wang *et al.*, 2013a). Rather than regulating genes of the core C₄ cycle, GLK2 controls
18 genes critical for chloroplast development and the photosynthetic apparatus (Waters *et al.*, 2009;
19 Langdale and Kidner, 1994). In most C₄ species, there are two *GLK* genes that are preferentially
20 expressed in either M and BS cells (Wang *et al.*, 2013a), and differential expression of these *GLK*
21 genes is thought to give rise to dimorphic chloroplasts in maize M and BS cells (Rossini *et al.*,
22 2001; Wang *et al.*, 2013a). Evidence is accumulating for the SCARECROW (*SCR*) and
23 SHORTROOT (*SHR*) transcription factors being involved in specification of Kranz anatomy of C₄
24 leaves. In *Arabidopsis*, *SCR* and *SHR* have been shown to determine the fate of BS cells (Cui *et al.*,
25 2014). *SCR* and *SHR* transcripts accumulate preferentially in the BS of several C₄ species,
26 such as maize (Wang *et al.*, 2013b; Tausta *et al.*, 2014) and *Echinochloa glabrescens* (Covshoff *et al.*,
27 2016). Mutations in maize *SCR* led to more than one BS layer surrounding veins, aberrant BS
28 chloroplast differentiation and loss of minor veins (Slewiniski *et al.*, 2012). To our knowledge

1 however, these transcription factors have not yet been implicated in controlling genes of the C₄
2 cycle.

3

4 **STABILITY OF C₄ TRANSCRIPTS**

5 Post-transcriptional regulation is typically used to define mechanisms that impact RNA
6 abundance prior to translation. The stability of mRNA is affected in multiple ways including pre-
7 mRNA processing within the nucleus, or after nuclear export to the cytosol by the action of small
8 RNAs and RNA-binding proteins. Sequences present in the mRNAs of several C₄ cycle genes
9 contribute to cell-specificity. In *G. gynandra* the 5' UTR of *CA* confers preferential expression in M
10 cells (Kajala *et al.*, 2012). The *cis*-element responsible for this M expression is also found in the
11 UTRs from *PPDK*, and it appears to act at the level of translational efficiency (Williams, Burgess *et*
12 *al.*, 2016). Although this *cis*-element is present in orthologous genes from *A. thaliana*, it does not
13 generate M preferential expression in *G. gynandra* (Williams, Burgess *et al* 2016). These data
14 imply that multiple genes (*CA* and *PPDK*) have used the same *cis*-regulatory code to generate
15 preferential expression in M cells of the C₄ leaf. Although these *cis*-elements are present in C₃
16 orthologues, it is not until they are integrated into the C₄ leaf that they specify the spatial patterns
17 of expression required for the C₄ pathway.

18 In C₄ amaranth, mRNAs encoding both the large subunit (LSU) and small subunit (SSU) of
19 RuBisCO accumulate in M and BS cells early in leaf development but the polypeptides only
20 accumulate in BS cells (Patel and Berry, 2008; Boinski *et al.*, 1993). This strongly implicates post-
21 transcriptional regulation of gene expression. In the case of *RbcS*, the 5' and 3' UTRs from
22 *Flaveria bidentis* and *Amaranthus hypochondriacus* drive preferential expression of β -
23 glucuronidase (GUS) in the BS, possibly indicating post-transcriptional regulation (Patel *et al.*,
24 2004; Patel *et al.*, 2006). In maize, it was also found that the promoter region including 66bp of the
25 5' UTR (Nomura *et al.*, 2000) as well as the 3' UTR (Viret *et al.*, 1994) are responsible for BS
26 accumulation of *RbcS*. Together the data suggest transcriptional regulation and RNA stability of
27 *RbcS* are important for expression. In maize, *rbcL* transcripts accumulate in both BS and M cells in
28 darkness, but upon illumination transcripts are restricted to BS cells. It has been proposed that this
29 process is likely controlled by RNA stability (Sheen and Bogorad, 1985; Kubicki *et al.*, 1994).

1 Furthermore, in amaranth, *rbcL* transcripts appear in M and BS chloroplasts, however, the LSU of
2 RuBisCO protein only accumulates in BS cells (Boinski *et al.*, 1993). Overexpression of *RbcS* and
3 *rbcL* by the ubiquitin promoter in maize did not lead to accumulation of RuBisCO in M cells, but
4 was still expressed in BS cells (Wostrikoff *et al.*, 2012). This is consistent with a mechanism
5 subsequent to transcription, affecting mRNA stability of the RuBisCO holoenzyme to facilitate BS
6 localisation. In fact, a nuclear encoded mRNA binding protein, *rbcL* RNA S1-Binding Domain
7 (RLSB) has been shown to co-localise and bind to *rbcL* mRNA in chloroplasts (Bowman *et al.*,
8 2013) and lower *RLSB* expression reduces expression of *rbcL* (Yerramsetty *et al.*, 2016). RLSB
9 mRNAs accumulate preferentially in BS cells in a number of C_4 species, yet accumulate
10 throughout the leaf in *A. thaliana* (Bowman *et al.*, 2013; Yerramsetty *et al.*, 2016). Thus, in C_4
11 leaves restriction of RLSB to the BS may contribute to the accumulation of LSU in this cell-type.

12 Control of RNA stability is also important for the glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC), a
13 component of photorespiration. In C_4 species, GDC operates in the mitochondria of BS cells,
14 whereas in C_3 species, it is expressed throughout all photosynthetic tissues (Bauwe *et al.*, 2010).
15 Reporter promoter fusions of the P-subunit of the GDC (*GLDPA*) confer preferential expression in
16 the BS of C_4 *F. trinervia* and C_3 *A. thaliana* (Engelmann *et al.*, 2008). Although this is consistent
17 with transcriptional regulation, the situation is more complex because this upstream sequence
18 contains two promoters, which together ensure BS specific and high levels of expression. With
19 respect to the transcription start site, a proximal sub-promoter directs strong BS specificity while a
20 distal promoter confers constitutive expression in leaf tissue. The distal promoter is strong and
21 generates abundant transcripts in M and BS cells. However, due to the presence of a cryptic intron
22 in the 5' UTR of transcripts derived from this promoter, these transcripts are improperly spliced
23 during post-translational processing. Incorrectly spliced *GLDPA* transcript variants that lack the BS
24 specific elements are suppressed via RNA decay (Wiludda *et al.*, 2012). The regulation of *GLDPA*
25 therefore epitomizes how a single gene is regulated at multiple levels, in this both transcription and
26 RNA processing, to ensure cell specific expression in the C_4 leaf.

27

28 **TRANSLATIONAL AND POST-TRANSLATIONAL MECHANISMS**

1 Translational and post-translational regulation of C₃ photosynthesis gene expression are
2 particularly common for plastid-encoded genes (Cohen and Mayfield, 1997; Chi *et al.*, 2012;
3 Jensen *et al.*, 2007; Järvi *et al.*, 2015; Schöttler *et al.*, 2015). Evidence for translational and post-
4 translational regulation in C₄ leaves is provided through analysis of genes encoding proteins of the
5 CBB cycle and Photosystem II (PSII). In maize most of the CBB cycle operates in BS cells,
6 whereas PSII preferentially accumulates in M cells (Friso *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2010; Kawaga and
7 Hatch, 1974; Schuster, 1985). As photosynthesis in eukaryotes depends on co-ordinate
8 expression from both the nuclear and plastid genomes, this integration of genomes also impacts
9 on the C₄ pathway.

10 Mutants for the M specific maize *high chlorophyll fluorescence 136* (*hcf136*) gene completely
11 lack PSII in M cells (Covshoff *et al.*, 2008). Interestingly, both cytosolic and plastidic transcripts
12 encoding proteins of the PSII core accumulate to normal levels in M cells of *hcf136* mutants, yet
13 the corresponding proteins are undetectable, strongly implying translational regulation. It has been
14 suggested that the *hcf136* mutant is not able to process the plastid-encoded *psbB-psbT-psbH-*
15 *petB-petD* polycistron, a co-transcriptional unit that encodes components of PSII and the
16 cytochrome *b6f* complex, in M cells (Chi *et al.*, 2012; Nakamura *et al.*, 2003; Meierhoff *et al.*, 2003).
17 Furthermore in *hcf136* mutants, other photosynthetic genes show ectopic expression. For instance,
18 PSI and ATP synthase complex transcripts were up-regulated in M cells of *hcf136* mutants, and
19 many BS specific genes were expressed in M cells (Covshoff *et al.*, 2008). The mechanism by
20 which *hcf136* impacts on differential gene expression of these other photosynthesis genes
21 between M and BS cells remains unclear.

22 The maize mutant, *bundle sheath defective 2* (*bsd2*) lacks RuBisCO in both M and BS cells
23 (Roth *et al.*, 1996; Langdale and Kidner, 1994). Although *bsd2* plants lack the SSU and LSU of
24 RuBisCO, mature transcripts accumulate in each cell-type. It is proposed that BSD2 acts as a co-
25 translational chaperone for LSU (Brutnell *et al.*, 1999). In addition to translational regulation by
26 BSD2, RuBisCO is regulated post-translationally. The RuBisCO accumulation factor 1 (Raf1)
27 protein is specific to BS chloroplasts in maize and is required for RuBisCO expression (Feiz *et al.*,
28 2012; Friso *et al.*, 2010). Mutants for *Raf1* transcribe *RbcS* and *rbcL* mRNAs and translate both
29 subunits normally, but do not accumulate the RuBisCO holoenzyme and therefore die as seedlings.

1 It is thought that Raf1 acts by direct interaction with LSU to either free or insulate the LSU from
2 chaperones during the early assembly process, and lack of Raf1 leads to a degradation of both
3 LSU and SSU (Feiz *et al.*, 2012).

4 Lastly, some C₄ cycle enzymes themselves are post-translationally chemically modified. PPDK
5 is phosphorylated by pyruvate,orthophosphate dikinase regulatory protein (PDRP) in a dynamic
6 light-responsive manner (Chen *et al.*, 2014; Chastain *et al.*, 2011). PDRP is capable of both
7 phosphorylating and dephosphorylating PPDK at serine and threonine residues in the PPDK active
8 site, which deactivate and activate its function respectively (Astley *et al.*, 2011). PEPC is
9 phosphorylated in several C₄ and C₃ species (Aldous *et al.*, 2014; Nimmo *et al.*, 2001). Additionally,
10 the phosphorylation states of C₄ *Panicum maximum* PEPC and PEPCK are tightly coordinated with
11 each other, despite being localised in M and BS cells respectively (Bailey *et al.*, 2007). However to
12 our knowledge, these modifications have not yet been associated with cell specificity, but are
13 thought to adjust the C₄ cycle for different conditions within each cell type.

14

15 **INDIVIDUAL C₄ GENES ARE CONTROLLED BY MULTIPLE REGULATORY MECHANISMS**

16 The above analysis indicates that epigenetic, transcriptional, post-transcriptional, translational
17 and post-translational regulatory mechanisms mediate preferential gene expression in either M or
18 BS cells of C₄ leaves (Figure 2). However, these analyses of C₄ gene regulation are scattered
19 across C₄ plants from a broad range of taxa. This makes it difficult to model the levels of regulation
20 that are controlling each enzyme. Nevertheless, it is clear that C₄ genes within the same species
21 are controlled at multiple levels. In addition to *GLDPA* (see above), evidence is provided by BS
22 specific RuBisCO and M specific PEPC in maize (Table 1), two enzymes known to operate in all C₄
23 subtypes.

24 For example, accumulation of the RuBisCO holoenzyme in BS cells involves transcriptional,
25 post-transcriptional, translational and post-translational mechanisms in maize (Berry *et al.*, 2016).
26 The small subunit is transcriptionally and post-transcriptionally regulated by *cis*-elements in its
27 promoter and UTRs (Nomura *et al.*, 2000; Viret *et al.*, 1994). To ensure strong BS specificity, the
28 stability of the large subunit transcript is regulated by the RNA binding protein RLSB (Bowman *et al.*,
29 *et al.*, 2013), translationally by BSD2 (Brutnell *et al.*, 1999) and post-translationally by Raf1 (Feiz *et*

1 *al.*, 2012). Additionally, the RuBisCO holoenzyme has a complex post-translational assembly
2 process, mediated by chaperones, many of which are themselves BS specific, and influenced by
3 the amount of both SSU and LSU (Hauser *et al.*, 2015; Berry *et al.*, 2016).

4 Likewise, maize *PEPC* appears to be regulated at multiple levels. It is epigenetically
5 predisposed to cell specific expression through an enrichment of histone marks for actively
6 transcribed genes, and through demethylation of DNA sites in its promoter region that are all
7 enriched in M cells and responsive to light (Heimann *et al.*, 2013; Tolley *et al.*, 2011). Cell
8 specificity is further ensured by transcriptional control mediated by *cis*-elements in the maize
9 *PEPC* promoter that confer M specificity (Kausch *et al.*, 2001; Taniguchi *et al.*, 2000). These
10 examples of *PEPC* and RuBisCO indicate that their cell specific expression patterns are
11 underpinned by regulatory redundancy operating at multiple levels. This may well be the case for
12 many more C_4 genes in multiple C_4 lineages.

13 Despite being a seemingly complex system, C_4 photosynthesis has also likely co-opted multiple
14 ancestral regulatory mechanisms (Sage, 2004; Williams *et al.*, 2013). This is evidenced by C_4 cycle
15 genes from C_3 species already being regulated by light and chloroplast signalling networks
16 (Burgess *et al.*, 2016), but also C_4 genes from independent C_4 lineages sharing regulatory
17 mechanisms, including a shared epigenetic histone code for *NADP-ME*, *PEPCK*, *PEPC*, *CA*, and
18 *PPDK* (Heimann *et al.*, 2013) and shared post-transcriptional *cis*-elements for *PPDK* and *CA*
19 (Williams, Burgess *et al.*, 2016; Hibberd and Covshoff, 2010). Furthermore, certain C_4 cycle genes
20 may have gained cell specificity from pre-existing regulatory mechanisms, as in some cases,
21 orthologous genes in C_3 plants contain *cis*-elements that confer cell-specificity in C_4 leaves
22 (Williams *et al.*, 2012; Kajala *et al.*, 2012; Brown *et al.*, 2011), whereas in others, they are
23 regulated correctly when expressed in C_3 congeners (Nomura *et al.*, 2005; Matsuoka *et al.*, 1994;
24 Ku *et al.*, 1999). This is an indication that *cis*-elements, *trans*-factors and other regulators for C_4
25 photosynthesis are present in C_3 species.

1 **CONCLUSION**

2 The spatial patterning of gene expression required in the C₄ leaf is determined by a variety of
3 mechanisms. Although there are few examples where an individual gene has been catalogued as
4 being controlled at multiple levels of regulation, the above summary indicates that this may well be
5 true for many genes. It is not yet clear the extent to which these regulatory mechanisms operate in
6 C₃ plants, nor how many changes in *cis*- and *trans*-regulation are responsible for C₄ enzymes to be
7 partitioned between mesophyll and bundle sheath cells.

- 1 **Table I:** C₄ genes in maize for which there is evidence that cell-specificity is generated from
 2 multiple levels of regulation.

Cell type	C ₄ gene	Type of regulation		References
Mesophyll	Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (<i>PEPC</i>)	Epigenetic regulation	Histone acetylation and methylation, as well as DNA methylation of promoter region	Heimann <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Perduns <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Tolley <i>et al.</i> , 2011
		Transcriptional regulation	<i>Cis</i> -elements in promoter region	Kausch <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Taniguchi <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Bundle Sheath	Small subunit of RuBisCO (<i>RbcS</i>)	Transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation	<i>Cis</i> -elements in promoter region and UTRs	Nomura <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Viret <i>et al.</i> , 1994
	Large subunit of RuBisCO (<i>rbcL</i>)	Post-transcriptional regulation	RNA stability mediated by RNA binding protein RLSB	Bowman <i>et al.</i> , 2013
		Translational regulation	Interaction with BSD2	Brutnell <i>et al.</i> , 1999
		Post-translational regulation	Interaction with Raf1	Feiz <i>et al.</i> , 2012

3

1 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

2 **Figure 1.** Biochemical and anatomical hallmarks of C₄ photosynthesis. (A) A unified cycle for the
 3 three decarboxylation subtypes of the C₄ carbon assimilation cycle. Enzyme abbreviations: CA,
 4 *carbonic anhydrase*; *PEPC*, *PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYLASE*; *ASPAT*, *ASPARTATE*
 5 *AMINOTRANSFERASE*; *ALAAT*, *ALANINE AMINOTRANSFERASE*; *PEPCK*,
 6 *PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYKINASE*; *NAD-MDH*, *NAD-MALATE*
 7 *DEHYDROGENASE*; *NADP-MDH*, *NADP-MALATE DEHYDROGENASE*; *NAD-ME*, *NAD-MALIC*
 8 *ENZYME*, *NADP-ME*, *NADP-MALIC ENZYME*; *PPDK*, *PYRUVATE ORTHOPHOSPHATE*
 9 *DIKINASE*; *RUBISCO*, *RIBULOSE 1,5-BISPHOSPHATE CARBOXYLASE OXYGENASE*.
 10 Metabolite abbreviations: OAA, oxaloacetate; Asp, aspartate; Ala, alanine; Pyr, pyruvate; M,
 11 malate; PGA, 3-phosphoglyceric acid; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate. Coloured dots represent the
 12 number of carbon atoms present in each metabolite. Red dots represent the path of carbon to
 13 RuBisCO in one round of the C₄ cycle. (B) Anatomical differences between C₄ and C₃ leaves.
 14 Kranz anatomy in C₄ *Gynandropsis gynandra* (left) and typical non-Kranz anatomy in C₃ *Tarenaya*
 15 *hassleriana* (right) are shown. Leaves were fixed in resin, sectioned, stained in Toluidine-Blue and
 16 imaged under light-microscopy. Scale bar = 100µm. Cell type abbreviation: BS, bundle sheath; M,
 17 mesophyll.

18

19 **Figure 2.** Multiple regulatory mechanisms control cell specific expression of C₄ genes. Genes
 20 listed under each regulatory checkpoint are known to be controlled at that step, as discovered in
 21 specific C₄ species indicated by superscripted numbers. C₄ gene abbreviations: CA, *CARBONIC*
 22 *ANHYDRASE*; *PEPC*, *PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYLASE*; *PEPCK*,
 23 *PHOSPHOENOLPYRUVATE CARBOXYKINASE*; *PPDK*, *PYRUVATE ORTHOPHOSPHATE*
 24 *DIKINASE*; *NAD-ME*, *NAD-MALIC ENZYME*, *NADP-ME*, *NADP-MALIC ENZYME*; RBCS, SMALL
 25 SUBUNIT OF RUBISCO; RBCL, LARGE SUBUNIT OF RUBISCO; GLDPA, P-SUBUNIT OF THE
 26 GLYCINE DECARBOXYLATION COMPLEX; *psbB-psbT-psbH-petB-petD*, polycistron encoding
 27 components of Photosystem II.

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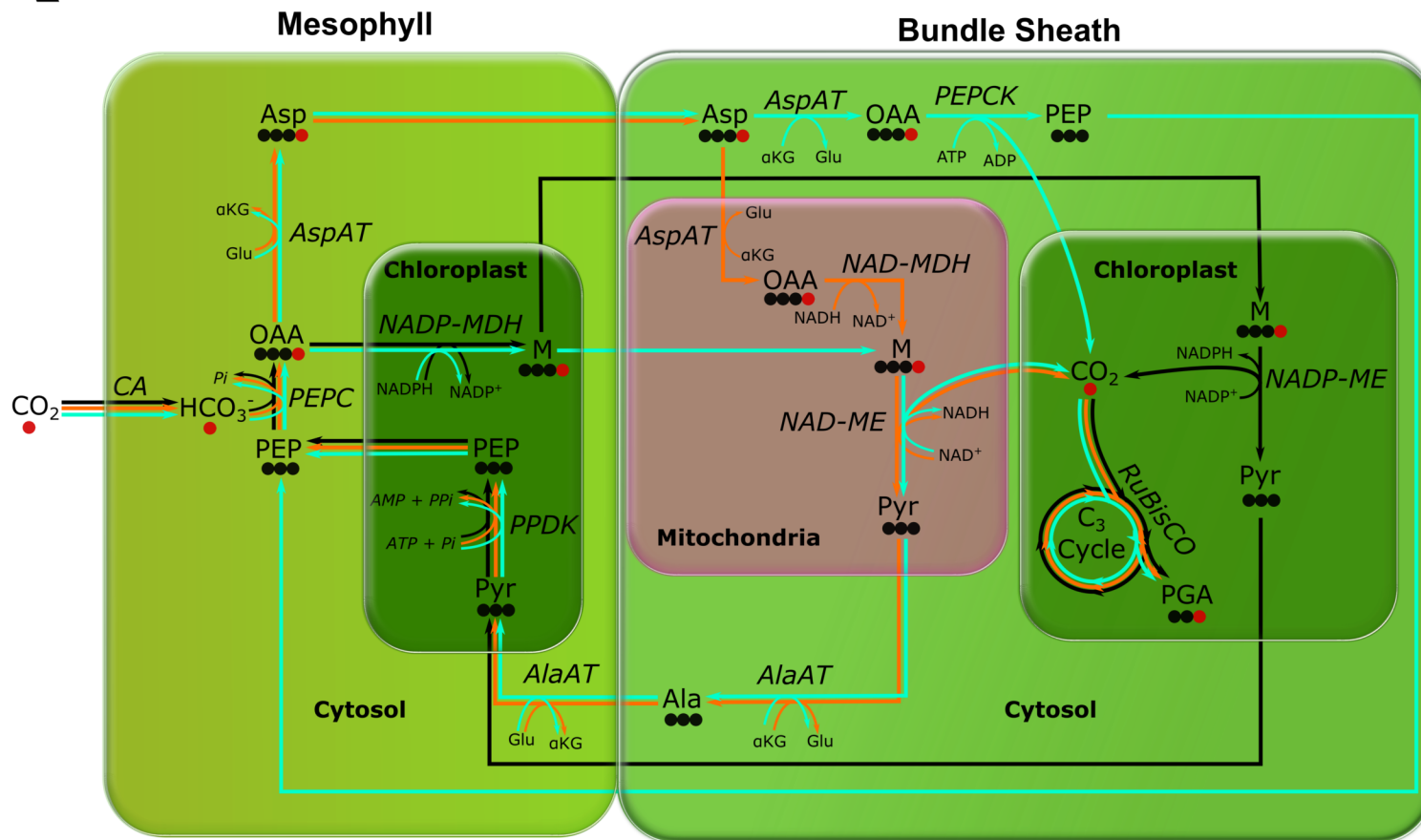
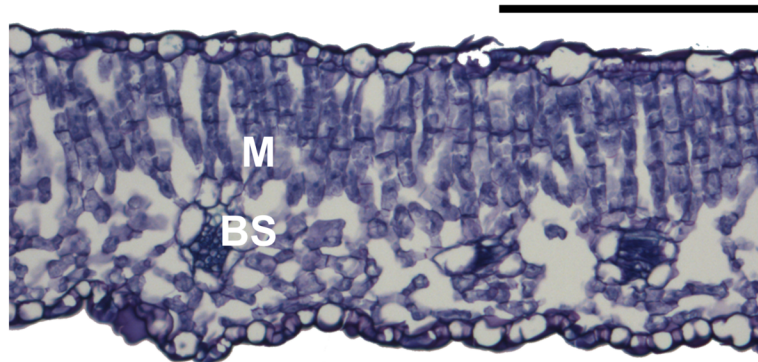
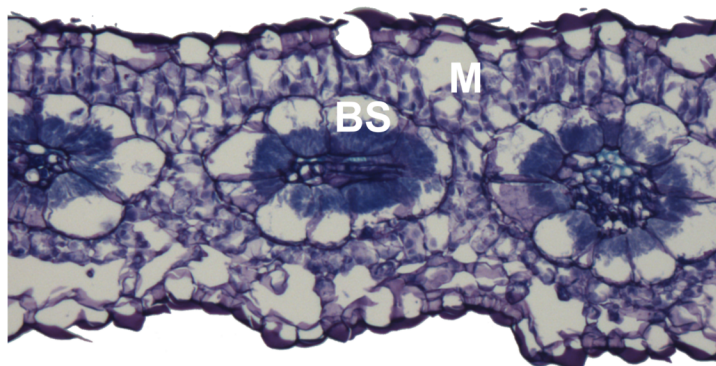
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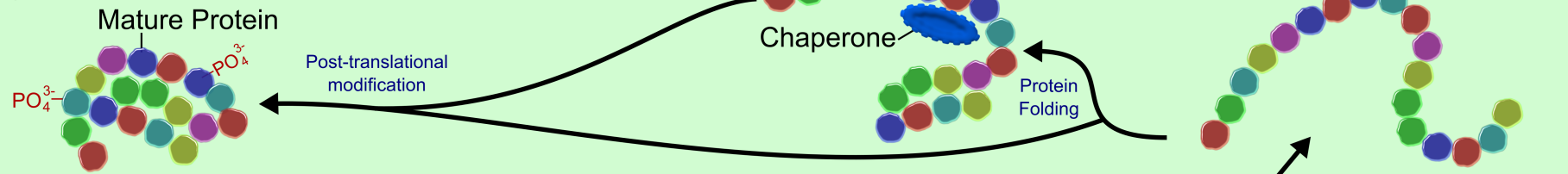
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A**C₄ Subtypes****NADP-ME****NAD-ME****PEPCK****B****C₄ - Kranz Anatomy****C₃**

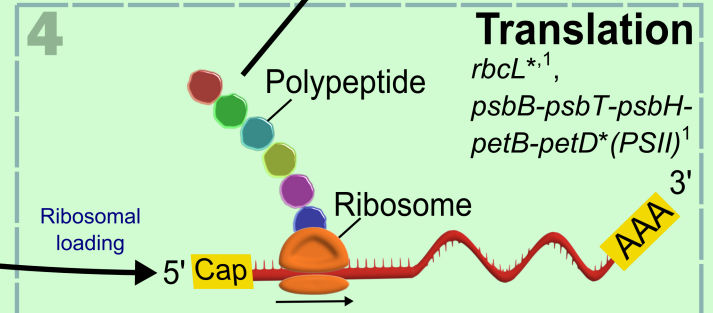
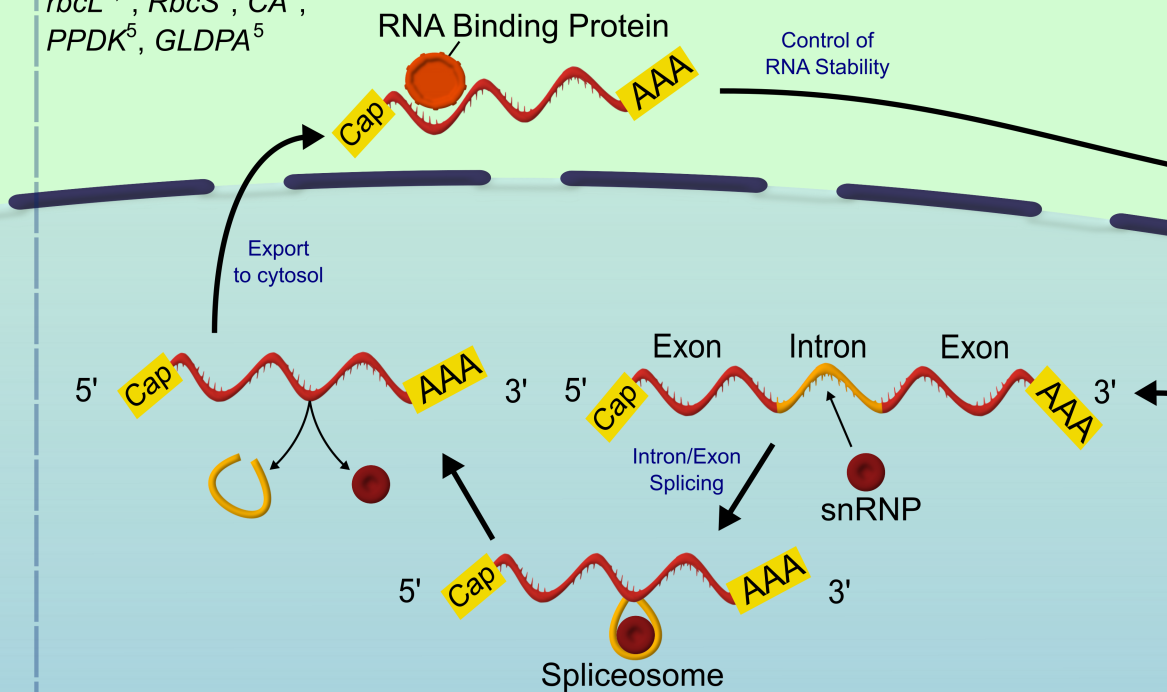
Post-Translational Regulation

rbcL^{*1}, *PPDK*⁷, *PEPC*⁷



Post-Transcriptional Regulation

rbcL^{*1}, *RbcS*¹, *CA*⁴, *PPDK*⁵, *GLDPA*⁵

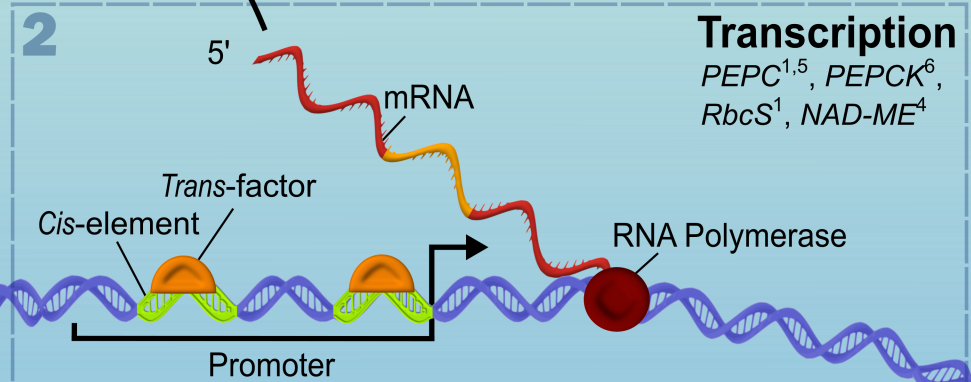
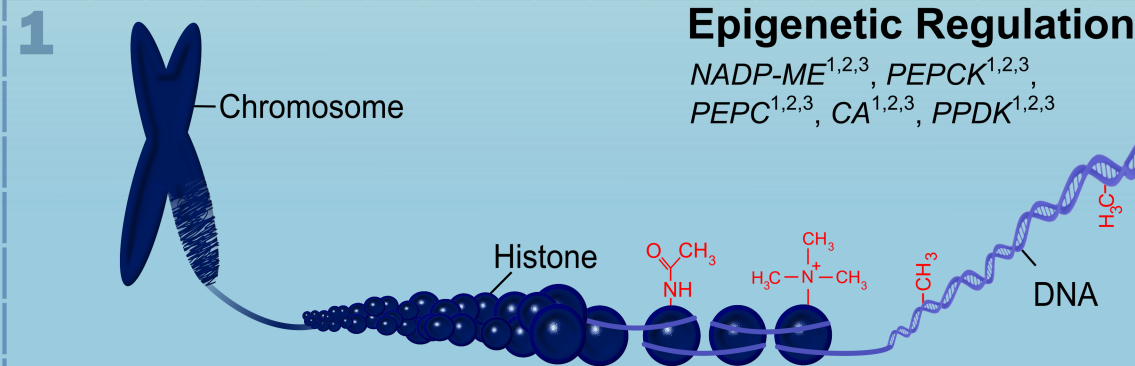


Translation

rbcL^{*1}, *psbB-psbT-psbH-petB-petD*^{*} (*PSII*)¹

Epigenetic Regulation

NADP-ME^{1,2,3}, *PEPCK*^{1,2,3}, *PEPC*^{1,2,3}, *CA*^{1,2,3}, *PPDK*^{1,2,3}



Transcription

PEPC^{1,5}, *PEPCK*⁶, *RbcS*¹, *NAD-ME*⁴

C4 Species

¹*Zea mays*, ²*Setaria italica*, ³*Sorghum bicolor*, ⁴*Gynandropsis gynandra*, ⁵*Flaveria trinervia*, ⁶*Zoysia japonica*, ⁷*Panicum maximum*