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Ginkgo leaf cuticle chemistry across changing pCO2 regimes

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Abstract:	Cuticles have been a key part of palaeobotanical research since the mid-19th Century. Recently, cuticular research has moved beyond morphological traits to incorporate the chemical signature of modern and fossil cuticles, with the aim of using this as a taxonomic and classification tool. For this approach to work cuticle chemistry would have to maintain a strong taxonomic signal, with a limited input from the ambient environment in which the plant grew. Here, we use attenuated total reflectance Fourier Transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy to analyse leaf cuticles from Ginkgo biloba plants grown in experimentally enhanced CO2 conditions, to test for the impact of changing CO2 regimes on cuticle chemistry. We find limited evidence for an impact of CO2 on the chemical signature of Ginkgo cuticles, which supports the use of chemotaxonomy for plant cuticular remains across geological timescales.
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Ginkgo leaf cuticle chemistry across changing pCO_2 regimes

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Abstract

Cuticles have been a key part of palaeobotanical research since the mid-19th Century. Recently, cuticular research has moved beyond morphological traits to incorporate the chemical signature of modern and fossil cuticles, with the aim of using this as a taxonomic and classification tool. For this approach to work cuticle chemistry would have to maintain a strong taxonomic signal, with a limited input from the ambient environment in which the plant grew. Here, we use attenuated total reflectance Fourier Transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy to analyse leaf cuticles from *Ginkgo biloba* plants grown in experimentally enhanced CO_2 conditions, to test for the impact of changing CO_2 regimes on cuticle chemistry. We find limited evidence for an impact of CO_2 on the chemical signature of *Ginkgo* cuticles, which supports the use of chemotaxonomy for plant cuticular remains across geological timescales.

Keywords cuticle, *Ginkgo*, CO_2, ATR-FTIR, chemotaxonomy, geochemistry

Introduction

The plant cuticle is a key evolutionary innovation that enabled plants to colonise subaerial environments in the early Palaeozoic (Domínguez et al. 2011; Renault et al. 2017; Salminen et al. 2018). It is a waxy and waterproof membrane that covers the outer surface of the green parts of plants, preventing desiccation and regulating gas exchange, as well as providing structural support and protection from ultraviolet (UV) irradiance, herbivory, and infection (Kerp 1990; Domínguez et al. 2011; Heredia-Guerrero et al. 2014; Dominguez et al. 2017). Cuticles consist of an insoluble aliphatic matrix comprising cutin (a long chain polymer composed of esterified fatty acids), cutan (an ether-linked hydrocarbon polymer), or a mixture of the two. Distributed through the matrix are soluble waxes and phenolic compounds; waxes also occur on the outer surface of the matrix. The inner part of the matrix, which connects with the epidermal cells, contains a high concentration of polysaccharides (Domínguez et al. 2011; Heredia-Guerrero et al. 2014; Dominguez et al. 2017).

Plant cuticles have been investigated and utilised by palaeobotanists for over 170 years (Kerp 1990). Cuticles have a high preservation potential, retaining anatomical details such as epidermal cell morphologies and stomata distributions (Kerp 1990), and have therefore been used in a variety of applications, including fossil plant taxonomy and determining the botanical affinities of disparate plant organs (Kerp 1990; Kerp et al. 2006; Abu Hamad et al. 2008; Bomfleur et al. 2013; Abu Hamad et al. 2017), reconstructing atmospheric *p*CO2 from stomatal densities or associated indices (Woodward 1987; McElwain and Chaloner 1995; Lomax and Fraser 2015; McElwain and Steinthorsdottir 2017), and reconstructing genome size based on guard cell length (Lomax et al. 2014). Recently, Steinthorsdottir et al. (2018) suggested that morphological changes in the cuticle

surface, such as stomatal complex distortion and disorganised cell arrangements, could be a potential proxy for volcanic SO_2 emissions.

In addition to morphology-based analyses of cuticles, other studies have focused on utilising cuticle chemistry. One area of interest has been generating carbon isotope data from dispersed cuticles and thereby reconstructing carbon cycle dynamics (e.g. Richey et al. 2018), and by combining with isotopic estimates of the $\delta^{13}C$ of the atmosphere it may be possible to determine changes in water use efficiency (Diefendorf et al. 2010). Molecular analysis (e.g. by pyrolysis-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry) of cuticle has also provided a wealth of information, including the chemical composition of cuticles, the distribution of cutin and cutan among plant taxa, and the fate of these biopolymers in the geological record (Tegelaar et al. 1993; Mösle et al. 1997; Mösle et al. 1998; Zodrow and Mastalerz 2001; Mösle et al. 2002; Zodrow and Mastalerz 2002; Gupta et al. 2007a; Gupta et al. 2007b; Zodrow et al. 2012a; Zodrow et al. 2012b; see also Gupta 2014 for review).

Vibrational spectroscopic techniques such as Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) and Raman spectroscopy have also been used to analyse cuticle chemistry, because they have the advantages of being non-destructive, efficient and able to analyse very small sample quantities (Heredia-Guerrero et al. 2014; Olcott Marshall and Marshall 2014). These approaches have been employed in both modern and fossil settings, with the aims of understanding cuticle chemistry and its response to environmental change and ontogenetic development (Villena et al. 2000; Ribeiro da Luz 2006; Dominguez et al. 2012), diagenesis/fossilisation processes and the characterisation of organic matter in the geological record (Lyons et al. 1995; Zodrow et al. 2000; Zodrow and Mastalerz 2002; D'Angelo 2006; Zodrow et al. 2009; Zodrow and Mastalerz 2009; D'Angelo et al. 2010; D'Angelo et al.

2011; Zodrow et al. 2012a; Zodrow et al. 2012b; D'Angelo and Zodrow 2015; Zodrow et al. 2016), and the taxonomic identification of plants using their chemical signature (termed chemotaxonomy) (Zodrow and Mastalerz 2001, 2002; D'Angelo 2006; D'Angelo et al. 2010; D'Angelo and Zodrow 2015; Vajda et al. 2017). Cuticle chemistry has been shown to contain a phylogenetic signal that is preserved in fossil material, leading to the possibility of classifying fragmentary or otherwise problematic cuticular remains (Vajda et al. 2017). Parallel developments have been made in pollen and spore research (Pappas et al. 2003; Dell'Anna et al. 2009; Zimmermann and Kohler 2014; Julier et al. 2016; Zimmermann et al. 2016), suggesting that FTIR or Raman based chemotaxonomy may have much to offer for palaeobotanical and palynological investigations.

For cuticle chemistry to be successfully used for chemotaxonomy, it is critical to understand the other possible controls on the chemical signature that may bias or obscure any taxonomic or phylogenetic signal. Changing ambient UV-B levels are expected to drive variations in the concentrations of phenolic compounds, for example, since these form the UV-B absorbing compounds (UACs) in the plant cuticle (Blokker et al. 2006; Rozema et al. 2009). Such a relationship has been demonstrated in *Polylepis tarapacana* in the Bolivian Andes (Gonzalez et al. 2007) and *Fagus sylvatica* from the Hunsrück region of Germany (Neitzke and Therburg 2003), where leaf UAC concentrations increased with increased UV-B at higher altitudes (although it should be noted that these findings relate to bulk leaf tissue, rather than isolated cuticles). Over longer geological timescales, atmospheric CO_2 concentration may be a more important parameter, because it has varied from ~200 to ~2000 ppm since the appearance of the earliest plant cuticles >400 Ma (McElwain and Steinthorsdottir 2017) (Fig. 1); however, the impacts of changes in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations on cuticle chemistry are currently not well understood. From a carbon

economic perspective, in a high CO_2 world such as the early Mesozoic biomolecules with a high carbon content and thus metabolite cost would be cheaper to construct due to an increase in substrate, suggesting a response to changes in CO_2 is expected. While a strong cuticular chemical response to CO_2 would possibly limit the use of chemotaxomony across long timescales, it could open up the possibility of new indicators of palaeo-CO_2 concentrations.

Here we investigate the effect of different CO_2 regimes on *Ginkgo biloba* leaf cuticle chemistry. *Ginkgo* is a particularly relevant taxon for addressing this uncertainty because of its longevity: *Ginkgo* first appeared in the early Mesozoic, and Ginkgoales in the late Palaeozoic (Zhiyan and Xiangwu 2006), and this group has therefore existed across a wide range of CO_2 regimes (Fig. 1). Modern and fossil *Ginkgo* cuticles have also been the subject of past chemical research, meaning that the overall chemistry and diagenetic changes are broadly understood (Mösle et al. 1997, 1998).

Methods

The leaf cuticles analysed in this study were taken from *Ginkgo biloba* plants experimentally grown under elevated CO_2 conditions, the full details of which can be found in Gill et al. (2018). Briefly, *Ginkgo biloba* seedlings were grown for 6 months in walk-in growth room chambers (UNIGRO, UK) at CO_2 concentrations of 400, 1200 and 2000 ppm. Levington M3 was used as a potting medium, and the plants were kept well-watered during the growth period. The plants were grown in a simulated day/night program with 10 hours of light (300 $\mu mol/m^2/s$) per day, a night high temperature of 17°C and a daytime peak temperature of 22°C. Relative humidity was held at 70%. After 6 months, leaves were harvested from the plants and dried at 60C. For our FTIR analyses we generated data for 2

plants per CO_2 treatment, using pre-cut leaf discs from 3 leaves per plant, resulting in a total of 18 leaves analysed.

IR spectra were generated using a Cary 670 FTIR spectrometer integrated with a Cary 620 FTIR microscope (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The FTIR microscope was fitted with a 64x64 pixel focal plane array (FPA) detector, and a 15x Vis/IR objective at high magnification to which a Germanium crystal micro-attenuated total reflectance (ATR) was fitted, achieving a resolution of 1.1 μm per pixel (each pixel results in one IR spectrum, so that each measurement yields an array of 64 x 64 = 4096 spectra). Three replicate measurements per leaf disc (abaxial side) were collected at 64 scans per measurement and a resolution of 8. Background spectra were collected prior to each set of replicates and automatically removed from the sample spectra. While we focused on the abaxial surface, the adaxial surface from one leaf disc per CO_2 treatment was also analysed, again with three replicate measurements, to compare chemical signals between the leaf sides.

The Cary 620 FTIR microscope allows a live view of the FPA detector which maximises the potential of good contact between the ATR crystal and the sample. At a micro-scale, the leaf surface was irregular and contact between the ATR Germanium crystal and the leaf was not uniform, resulting in variable quality of spectra across the measurement array. For each measurement, spectra were therefore extracted from those pixels where the height (=absorbance value) of the 1167 cm^{-1} peak exceeded 15% of the maximum 1167 cm^{-1} peak height within the array. The 1167 cm^{-1} peak was chosen because it is clearly present in all spectra (Figs. 2 and 3), and 15% of the maximum peak height was used as a threshold because it provides a reasonable trade-off between obtaining high quality spectra and incorporating a sufficient number of spectra in each measurement. The mean of the extracted

spectra was then calculated to provide one spectrum per replicate measurement, and three spectra per leaf disc.

Some spectra showed strong distortion in the higher wavenumbers, and so all were limited to <3100 cm^{-1} prior to analysis. Baseline curvature was removed with a 4^{th} order polynomial baseline, and the corrected spectra *z*-score standardised (i.e. the mean was subtracted and the spectra divided by the standard deviation, resulting with each spectrum having a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one). Peak assignment was carried out with reference to the published literature (Ramirez et al. 1992; Heredia-Guerrero et al. 2014).

Spectral changes across the CO_2 treatments were analysed in two ways: with Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and by measuring the heights of selected peaks. PCA is an exploratory multivariate technique that partitions data into axes of maximal variation (principal components), allowing complex multivariate data to be viewed in a limited number of dimensions. Some spectra showed distortion in the 2800 to 1800 cm^{-1} range, even after the 4^{th} order polynomial baseline correction, and this was found to swamp the PCA analysis such that it dominated the first axis (the principal component that explains most variation in the data). Prior to PCA the raw spectra were therefore limited to <1800 cm^{-1}, baseline corrected with a linear baseline, and *z*-score transformed. Processing the spectra with Savitzky-Golay smoothing and taking derivatives did not substantially alter the distribution of samples in ordination space, so we limited our analyses to unprocessed spectra to make interpretation of loadings plots more straightforward.

Peak height measurements were similar when taken from both the <3100 cm^{-1} spectra with a 4^{th} order polynomial baseline correction and <1800 cm^{-1} spectra with a linear baseline

correction. We therefore used the <3100 cm^{-1} spectra, so as to include the aliphatic peaks at 2920 and 2850 cm^{-1}. Peaks were selected so that changes across the different components of the cuticle (i.e. cutin, waxes, phenolic compounds, and polysaccharides; previous research has shown that *Ginkgo* cuticles contain no cutan (Mösle et al. 1997)) could be detected, and peak height was measured as the maximum absorbance value within a predetermined range (see Table 1 for details). All data analysis was carried out in R v.3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017) using the packages baseline v.1.2-1 (Liland and Mevik 2015) and prospectr v.0.1.3 (Stevens and Ramirez-Lopez 2013). IR spectral data are provided in the supplementary information.

Results

ATR-FTIR spectra of the *Gingko* cuticles reveals many of the same peaks that have been previously identified in other studies (Fig. 2). Specifically, peaks relating to aliphatic compounds in cutin and waxes are located at 2920 cm^{-1} (CH_2 asymmetric stretching), 2850 cm^{-1} (CH_2 symmetric stretching), 1460 cm^{-1} and 1370 cm^{-1} (both CH_2 bending), peaks related to ester vibrations in cutin are located at 1710 cm^{-1} (with shoulders at 1730 cm^{-1} and 1685 cm^{-1}; C=O stretching), 1167 cm^{-1} and 1104 cm^{-1} (both C-O-C stretching), peaks related to phenolic compounds are located at 1605 cm^{-1} (C-C stretching) and 1515 cm^{-1} (C-C stretching conjugated with C=C), and peaks related to polysaccharides are located at 1245 cm^{-1} (OH bending; this peak may also represent cutin) and 1020 cm^{-1} (C-O stretching). Most of the same peaks are present in both the abaxial and adaxial cuticles, although the abaxial cuticles have a relatively higher 1167 cm^{-1} ester peak and 1605 cm^{-1} aromatic peak, related to cutin and phenolic compounds, respectively, and the adaxial cuticles have a pronounced 1720 cm^{-1} ester peak and a relatively higher 1245 cm^{-1} hydroxyl peak, related to cutin and polysaccharides or cutin, respectively (Fig. 3). The spectra do not show any obvious differences across CO_2 treatments (Fig. 3).

A PCA of the spectral data shows the major variability in the dataset is partitioned between the abaxial and adaxial cuticles, which are separated on axis 1 of the ordination, and to some extent on axis 4 (Fig. 4). There are no clear groupings associated with CO_2 treatment on any of the first four PCA axes, which together account for >90% of the variation in the data. Loadings plots show that PCA axis 1 is driven by variations in the 1720 and 1245 cm^{-1} peaks (positive relationship; these peaks are higher in the adaxial cuticles) and peaks between 1000 and 1100 cm^{-1} (negative relationship). Axes 2 and 3 are primarily driven by variations around 1700 cm^{-1}, while the distribution of samples on axis 4 is underpinned by variations in the height of the 1167 cm^{-1} peak, which again differs between the abaxial and adaxial cuticles. This lack of a chemical change with increasing CO_2 is also shown in the 2nd derivative of Savitzky-Golay smoothed spectra, and when only the abaxial cuticles are ordinated (Fig. S1).

Analysis of peak heights suggests that there are limited consistent changes with CO_2 level (Fig. 5). One possible exception is the 1460 cm^{-1} aliphatic peak, and in the adaxial cuticles the 2920 and 2850 cm^{-1} aliphatic peaks as well, which decline in height with increasing CO_2. However, the change in the height of the 1460 cm^{-1} peak is less obvious in the <1800 cm^{-1} spectra (Fig. S2), so this may be an artefact of the baseline correction in the <3100 cm^{-1} spectra.

Discussion and conclusions

Our results suggest that, at least in terms of broad scale chemical signals, changes in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations only have a limited impact upon *Ginkgo* cuticle chemistry. While this is not an encouraging outcome for developing new CO_2 proxies from FTIR

analysis of cuticles, it does suggest that any taxonomic signature present in fossil cuticles will be robust to the ambient CO_2 concentration that the plant was growing in. Chemotaxonomic approaches should therefore be applicable across varying CO_2 regimes. There is some evidence for a decrease in the aliphatic peaks, which may relate to decreases in the epicuticular or intracuticular waxes with increasing CO_2, although these are most obvious with the adaxial spectra where the quantity of data is limited. A more obvious driver of differences in chemistry was the difference between abaxial and adaxial cuticles, related to differences in the cutin matrix and intracuticular phenolic compounds. These findings require investigation with a larger dataset, incorporating more taxa and increased replication of both abaxial and adaxial surfaces.

It will also be necessary to confirm the generality of these results using processed and isolated cuticles where non-fossilisable components have been removed (e.g. Mösle et al. 1998). This will allow for a better comparison with fossil material, including building chemical libraries of modern taxa that can be used to classify fossil specimens. However, the recognition of peaks from previous studies of chemically and mechanically isolated cuticles (e.g. Heredia-Guerrero et al. 2014) in our IR spectra demonstrates that working with the outer surfaces of intact leaves can provide generally applicable information on the drivers of cuticle chemical variability. ATR analysis of unprocessed leaf surfaces provides a rapid means of assessing cuticle chemistry, with field measurements a possibility if a handheld ATR is used (Ribeiro da Luz 2006).

Our small-scale study does not rule out a possible influence of CO_2 on cuticle chemistry, but it does suggest that the effects are likely to be subtle. In addition to increasing the number of taxa, plants and leaves analysed, spectral deconvolution and curve fitting

approaches (e.g. Zodrow and Mastalerz 2001; Depciuch et al. 2018) may help to reveal small differences across CO_2 treatments that might not be detected with the broad scale methods used here. In particular, changes in the carbon isotope composition of the cuticle with increasing CO_2 concentrations may cause small shifts in peak positions (Esler et al. 2000), which if consistent across individuals and taxa may be detectable with careful analysis.

In addition to CO_2, other possible influencing factors will need to be tested for before cuticle chemistry can be confidently used as a taxonomic tool across palaeoenvironments and time periods. Of critical importance will be determining how well chemical signals from external environmental conditions preserve in fossil cuticles. As already noted, one likely driver of cuticle chemical change will be variations in UV-B irradiance, which are known to control concentrations of UV-B absorbing compounds (UACs) in plant tissues (Rozema et al. 1999; Neitzke and Therburg 2003; Gonzalez et al. 2007; Rozema et al. 2009). The concentration of UACs in pollen and spore walls has been shown to covary with ambient UV-B flux, and this relationship has been consistently demonstrated across a range of taxa and time periods (Rozema et al. 1999; Rozema et al. 2001a; Rozema et al. 2001b; Blokker et al. 2005; Blokker et al. 2006; Watson et al. 2007; Lomax et al. 2008; Rozema et al. 2009; Fraser et al. 2011; Willis et al. 2011; Lomax et al. 2012; Fraser et al. 2014; Lomax and Fraser 2015; Jardine et al. 2016; Jardine et al. 2017). As in pollen and spores, phenolic compounds take on the role of UACs in cuticles, and these have shown to be preserved in Paleocene *Ginkgo* cuticle (Blokker et al. 2006). Aromatic peaks are also present in FTIR spectra from a range of fossil taxa analysed by Vajda et al. (2017), including specimens dating from the latest Triassic. The relative importance of UV-B flux and taxonomy/phylogeny for controlling cuticle chemistry will therefore need to be investigated, but there is scope for

cuticle chemistry to be developed as a palaeo-UV-B proxy, as has been the case with pollen and spores (Blokker et al. 2006; de Leeuw et al. 2006; Rozema et al. 2009).

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Table 1 IR absorbance peaks measured from the *Ginkgo* cuticles, shown in Figs. 5 and S2. Peak heights were measured as the maximum absorbance value within the given measurement range. Peak assignments and cuticle component interpretations are from Heredia-Guerrero et al. (2014). v = stretching, δ = bending, a = asymmetric, s = symmetric

Assignment	Peak position (cm^{-1})	Measurement range (cm^{-1})	Cuticle component
$v_a(CH_2)$	2920	2900 - 2940	Cutin, waxes
$v_s(CH_2)$	2850	2830 - 2870	Cutin, waxes
v(C=O) ester	1710	1695 - 1720	Cutin
v(C-C) aromatic	1600	1595 - 1615	Phenolic compounds
v(C-C) aromatic (conjugated with C=C)	1515	1505 - 1525	Phenolic compounds
$\delta(CH_2)$	1460	1450 - 1470	Cutin, waxes
v_a(C-O-C) ester	1167	1155 - 1180	Cutin
v(C-O)	1020	1010 - 1030	Polysaccharides

Figures

Fig 1 Atmospheric CO_2 (ppm) and changes in ginkgoalean diversity through time. CO_2 data are the Foster et al. (2017) LOESS compilation based on literature data assembled by integrating five independent proxies (stomata, pedogenic $\delta^{13}C$, liverwort $\delta^{13}C$, foraminiferal $\delta^{11}B$ and alkenone $\delta^{13}C$). See SOM of Foster et al. (2017) for full details. Ginkgoalean diversity is taken from Figure 1 of Zhiyan and Xiangwu (2006) and refers to the number of genera/ morphogenera as recorded by the presence of vegetative organs

Fig 2 Mean ATR-FTIR spectrum for the 400 ppm abaxial cuticles, showing the main peaks mentioned in the text

Fig 3 Mean ATR-FTIR spectrum for each CO_2 treatment by leaf surface combination

Fig 4 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) plots for *Ginkgo* leaf cuticle ATR-FTIR data. **a** and **e** PCA axes 1 versus 2, and 3 versus 4, respectively. Values in parentheses are the percentage of variance in the data explained by each PCA axis. **b**, **c**, **e** and **f** Loadings plots for the PCA axes

Fig 5 Heights of selected IR absorbance peaks grouped by CO_2 treatment, for the <3100 cm^{-1} spectra. Abaxial cuticle data are shown as boxplots, where the thick horizontal line denotes the median value, the edges of the box the upper and lower quartiles, and the whiskers the extremes of the data, up to a limit of 1.5 times the interquartile range (values beyond this are shown as individual circles. Adaxial cuticle data are shown as grey diamonds. See Fig. S2 for peak heights measured from the <1800 cm^{-1} data

Figure 1

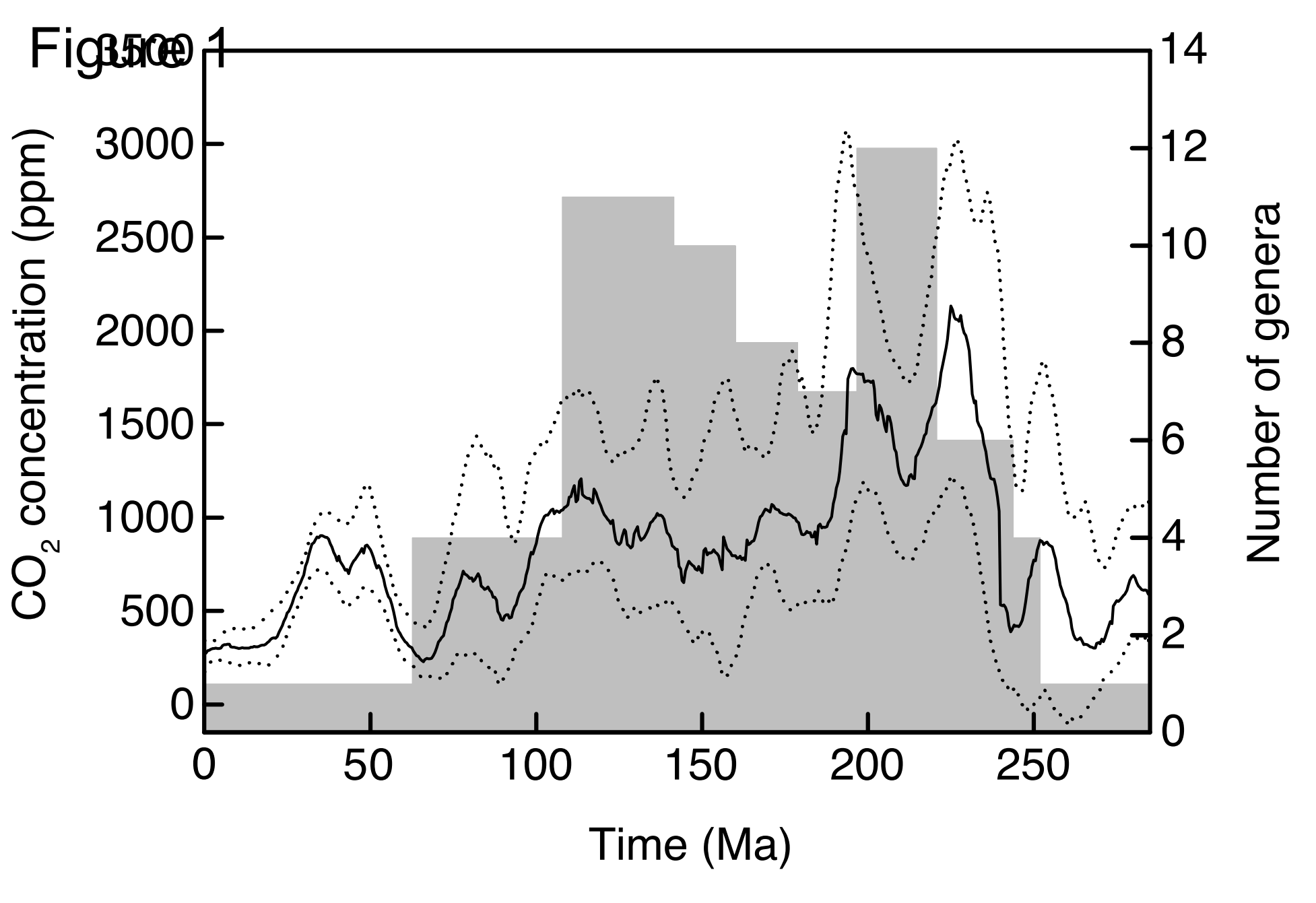

3500
3000
2500
2000
1500
1000
500
0
CO_2 concentration (ppm)
14
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
Number of genera
0
50
100
150
200
250
Time (Ma)

Figure 2

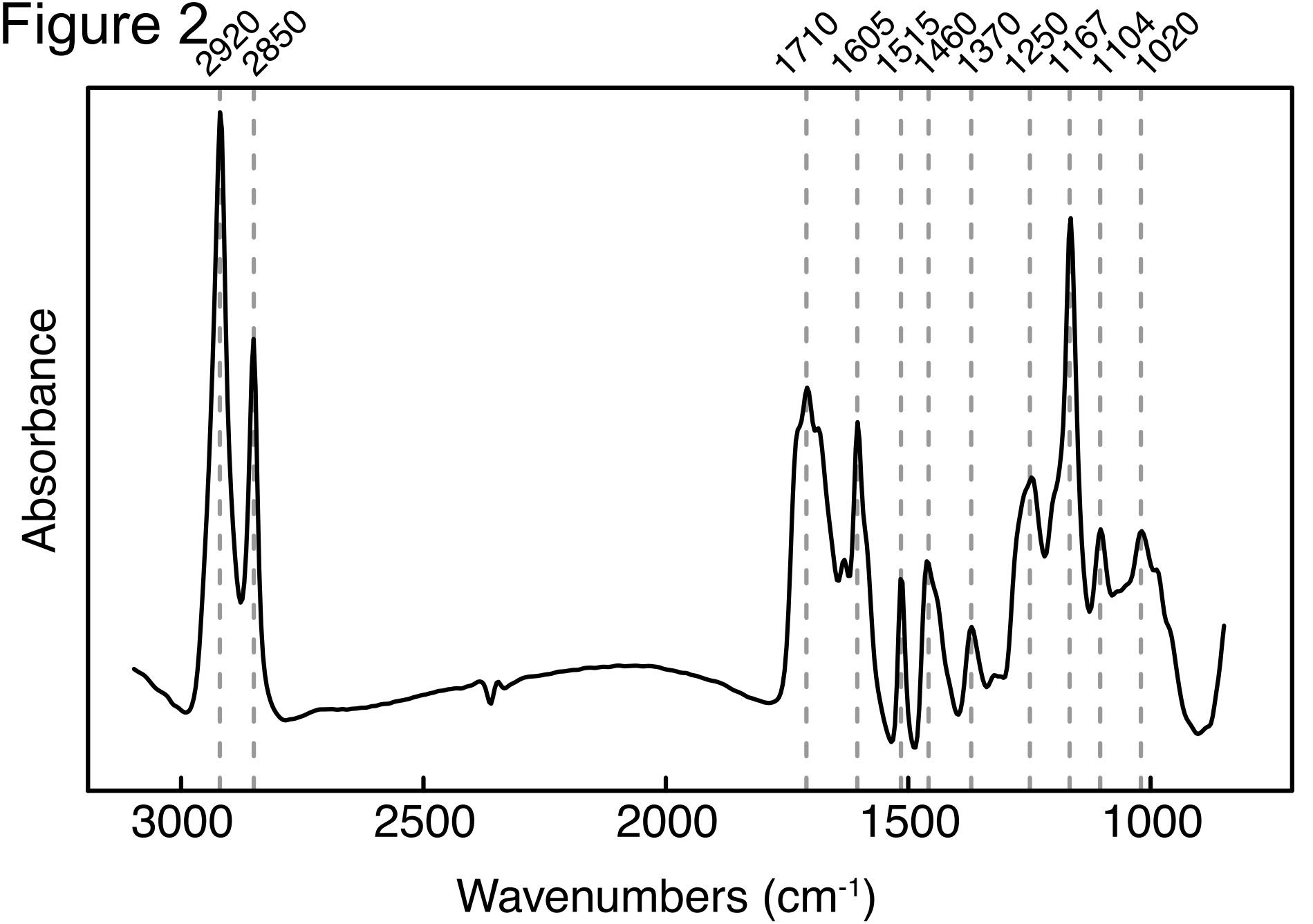

2920
2850
1710
1605
1515
1460
1370
1250
1167
1104
1020
Absorbance
3000
2500
2000
1500
1000
Wavenumbers (cm-1)

Figure 3

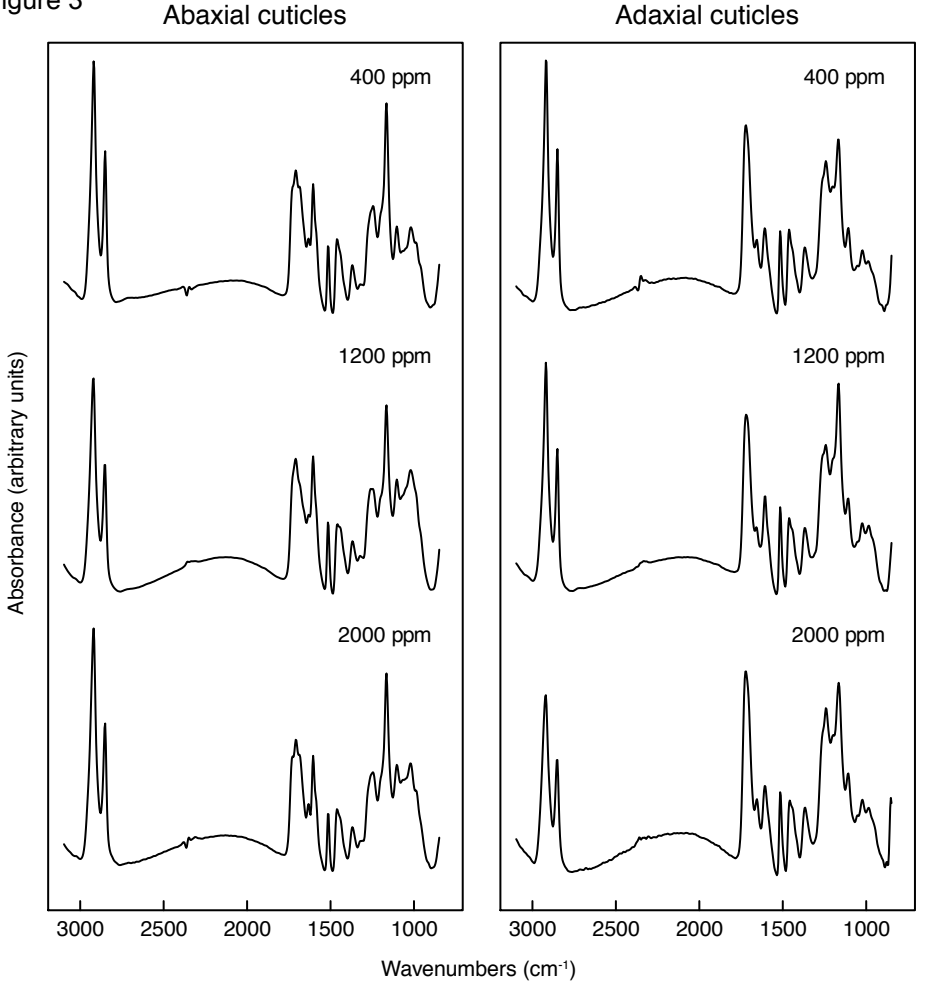

Abaxial cuticles
Adaxial cuticles
400 ppm
1200 ppm
2000 ppm
400 ppm
1200 ppm
2000 ppm
Absorbance (arbitrary units)
3000
2500
2000
1500
1000
3000
2500
2000
1500
1000
Wavenumbers (cm-1)

Figure 4

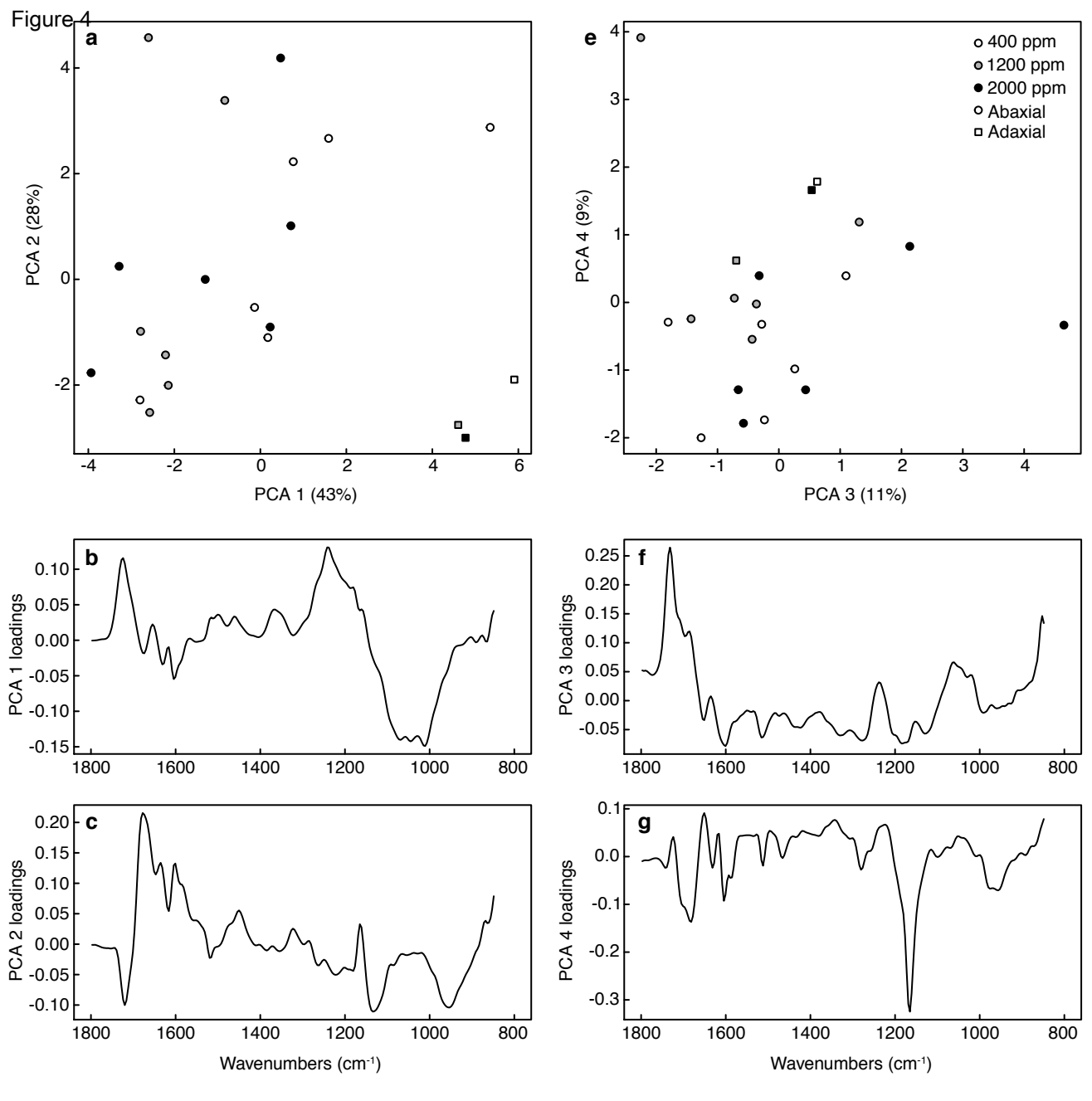
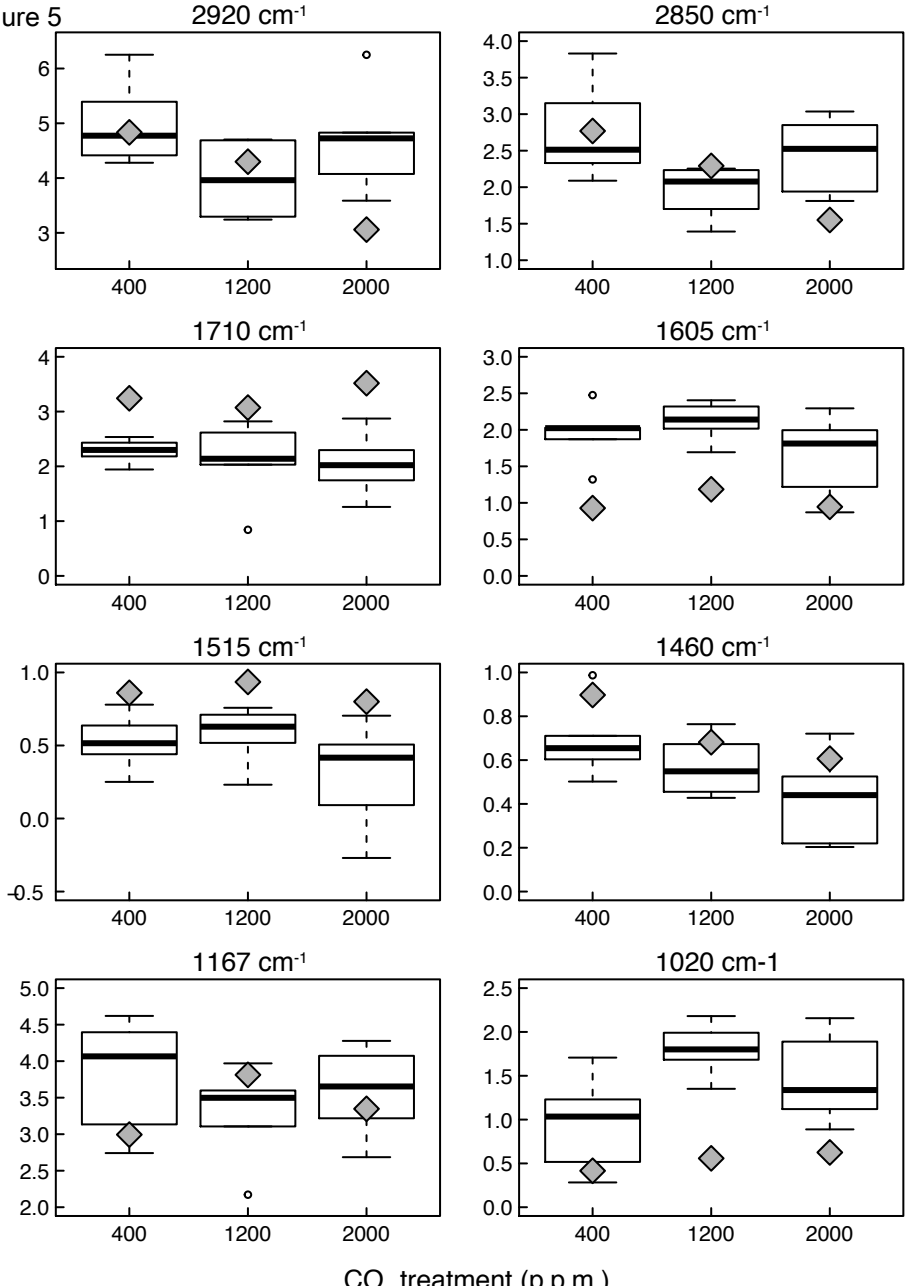

a
PCA 2 (28%)
PCA 1 (43%)
e
PCA 4 (9%)
PCA 3 (11%)
400 ppm
1200 ppm
2000 ppm
Abaxial
Adaxial
b
PCA 1 loadings
f
PCA 3 loadings
c
PCA 2 loadings
g
PCA 4 loadings
Wavenumbers (cm-1)
Wavenumbers (cm-1)

Figure 5


2920 cm-1
2850 cm-1
1710 cm-1
1605 cm-1
1515 cm-1
1460 cm-1
1167 cm-1
1020 cm-1
Peak height
400
1200
2000
CO2 treatment (p.p.m.)

Figures S1 and S2

Data

Click here to access/download

Supplementary Material

JardineEtAl_GinkgoCuticleCO2_Data.xlsx