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Title: A role for neutral variation in the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis

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Shanta Karki^{1†}, HsiangChun Lin^{1†}, Florence R Danila¹, Basel Abu-Jamous², Rita Giuliani³, David M Emms², Robert A Coe¹, Sarah Covshoff⁴, Helen Woodfield⁴, Efren Bagunu¹, Vivek Thakur⁵, Samart Wanchana¹, Inez Slamet-Loedin¹, Asaph B. Cousins³, Julian M Hibberd^{*4}, Steven Kelly^{*2}, W Paul Quick^{*1,5},

Affiliation Affiliation

¹C₄ Rice Centre, International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), Los Baños, Philippines.

²Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3RB, United Kingdom

³School of Biological Sciences, Washington State University, Pullman, WA 99164-4236, USA

⁴Department of Plant Sciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, CB2 3EA, United Kingdom.

⁵SBDM Unit, 300 Building, International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), Patancheru, Hyderabad-502324, India.

⁵Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2TN, UK.

[†]These authors contributed equally to this work.

^{*}Authors for correspondence

Corresponding Authors

Name: Julian M. Hibberd

Email: jmh65@cam.ac.uk

Name: Steven Kelly

Email: steven.kelly@plants.ox.ac.uk

Name: W. Paul Quick

Email: w.p.quick@irri.org

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Author contributions

JMH and WPQ designed the study. BAJ, DME, SW, VT and SKe conducted the bioinformatic and phylogenetic analysis. SKa, ISL, HSL and WPQ produced and verified the transgenic lines. RC and HSL undertook physiological and metabolic analysis. RG and ABC conducted gas exchange analysis on transgenic plants. FD performed the confocal microscopy. SKe and WPQ analysed the data. SKe wrote the manuscript. WPQ, JMH and RAC edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Abstract

Convergent trait evolution is a recurrent phenomenon in all domains of the tree of life. While some convergent traits are caused by simple sequence changes, many are associated with extensive changes to the sequence and regulation of large cohorts of genes. It is unknown how organisms traverse this expansive genotype space to assemble such complex convergent phenotypes. C₄ photosynthesis is a paradigm of large-scale phenotypic convergence. Conceptual and mathematical models propose that C₄ photosynthesis evolved from ancestral C₃ photosynthesis through sequential adaptive changes. These adaptive changes could have been rapidly assembled if modifications to the activity and abundance of enzymes of the C₄ cycle was neutral in C₃ plants. This neutrality would enable populations of C₃ plants to maintain genotypes with expression levels of C₄ enzymes analogous to those in C₄ species and thus enable rapid assembly of a functional C₄ cycle from naturally occurring genotypes given shared environmental selection. Here we show that there is substantial natural variation in expression of genes encoding C₄ cycle enzymes between natural accessions of the C₃ plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*. We further show through targeted transgenic experiments in the C₃ crop *Oryza sativa*, that high expression of the majority of C₄ cycle enzymes in rice is neutral with respect to growth, development, biomass and photosynthesis. Thus, substantial variation in the abundance and activity of C₄ cycle enzymes is permissible within the limits of operation of C₃ photosynthesis and the emergence of component parts of this complex convergent trait can be facilitated by neutral variation.

Introduction

Common responses to environmental selection have produced a multitude of convergent complex traits in all domains of the tree of life [1,2]. These complex traits include adaptations of existing anatomy such as the independent evolution of wings from flightless forelimbs in pterosaurs, birds and bats [3]. They also include the *de novo* formation of entire organs such as the evolution of camera-style eyes in cephalopods, vertebrates, arachnids and cnidarians [4,5]. For any such large complex traits, it has been challenging to determine the extent to which their emergence in independent lineages share a common genetic basis [1]. However, in recent times insight has been gained through study of genome sequences. Examples include the shared genome-wide signatures of convergent evolution in echolocating mammals [6], the molecular basis of coloration in vertebrates

[7], and the changes in gene expression that underlie C₄ photosynthesis [8-11]. While these studies have identified many of the molecular components that contribute to the complex convergent phenotypes, they do not provide insight into molecular mechanisms through which these phenotypes emerge. Moreover, the number of genes they identify highlights the combinatorial problem of how populations of organisms traverse the expansive genotype space required for the assembly of the complex convergent phenotype.

The C₄ photosynthetic pathway is a paradigm for the evolution of complex convergent traits, requiring changes to organismal anatomy, development and physiology [12]. With at least 65 independent origins distributed across the angiosperms [13], it is ideally suited to investigate the mechanisms through which such convergent traits are assembled. The repeated evolution of the pathway is thought to have occurred as an adaptation to a drop in atmospheric CO₂ concentration that occurred 35 million years ago [4]. The set of biochemical, physiological and anatomical changes that contribute to this adaptation counteract the reduction in atmospheric CO₂ and also result in significant energy [14], water and nitrogen [15,16] savings [5]. As a result, C₄ species tend to have increased productivity in tropical and sub-tropical habitats, and today C₄ species represent some of the world's most productive crops [17,18]. Concerns about future food security have led to the suggestion that C₄ photosynthesis should be introduced into C₃ crops such as rice to increase their yield potential [19,20]. This is an ambitious goal, and understanding the mechanisms by which the C₄ pathway evolved in disparate C₃ lineages holds potential to help guide these efforts.

Substantial insights into the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis have been obtained through comparative analysis of genes, genomes, transcriptomes, ecological traits and physiological properties of C₃ and C₄ plants [21-24]. These studies have collectively revealed that all enzymes required to conduct C₄ photosynthesis are present in C₃ plants, however their abundance, activity, kinetic properties and subcellular localisation are altered in C₄ species [22,25-27]. This set of biochemical changes occurs in concert with a substantial change in leaf anatomy [28], such that C₄ plants have reduced vein spacing, altered cell-type specification around veins, and novel cell-specific organelle function when compared to C₃ plants [28]. Thus, it is likely that multiple changes to both coding and regulatory sequences of multiple genes with developmental and biochemical functions are required to evolve a functional C₄ cycle.

Despite this phenotypic complexity some annual plant lineages managed to evolve C₄ photosynthesis relatively quickly (~5 million generations [29]), while others have been slower (~30 million generations [30]) or have not evolved C₄ photosynthesis [22]. This recurrent evolution in a diverse array of plant groups has raised the question of how such a complex set of anatomical, biochemical and physiological changes can evolve on so many separate occasions. Conceptual, mathematical and statistical models of C₄ evolution suggest that this suite of changes does not happen all at once. Instead, multi-step evolutionary trajectories likely occur such that successive adaptive changes traverse a phenotypic fitness path from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis [31-34].

Evolutionary trajectories that bridge the gap between C₃ and C₄ photosynthesis could be rapidly traversed if variation in the activity and abundance of enzymes required to carry out the C₄ cycle was neutral with respect to the native, physiological function in C₃ plants. Such variation coupled to phenotypic neutrality is commonly referred to as “cryptic genetic variation” and is thought to be a major facilitator of trait evolution across all domains of life [35-37]. This is because genetically diverse populations are more likely to contain genotypes with a range of activity and abundance in phenotypically neutral enzymes. Such ‘pre-adapted’ phenotypes may confer an immediate selective advantage when the environment changes and a new selection pressure emerges [38-42]. Thus, in the context of C₄ photosynthesis, neutrality (or near neutrality) of variance in the activity or abundance of enzymes of the core C₄ cycle could enable rapid assembly of a functional C₄ cycle from naturally occurring variation in a population. Moreover, such cryptic genetic variation could help explain the extent of the recurrent evolution of this complex convergent trait.

Here we test the hypothesis that variation in the activity and abundance of enzymes in the C₄ pathway is neutral in a C₃ background. Through analysis of natural variation in the C₃ model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* and single C₄ cycle gene overexpression studies in the C₃ crop plant *Oryza sativa* (rice), we show that none of the five enzymes required for a minimal NADP-ME C₄ cycle adversely affects photosynthesis, growth or the global transcriptome. Thus, the enhanced activity and abundance of C₄ cycle enzymes, in the correct cellular and sub-cellular context for C₄ photosynthetic function, is neutral in this C₃ context. These findings suggest that cryptic genetic variation may have facilitated the recurrent adaptive evolution of C₄ photosynthesis.

Results

Genes encoding C₄ cycle enzymes have high levels of variation in expression and molecular sequence evolution in C₃ plants

The minimal set of enzymes required to conduct a typical NADP-ME C₄ cycle, comprises carbonic anhydrase (CA), phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC), malate dehydrogenase (MDH), NADP-malic enzyme (NADP-ME) and pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase (PPDK) (Figure 1). To assess whether the genes encoding these enzymes exhibit high variance in expression within populations of C₃ plants, a transcriptomic analysis of 17 different natural accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana* [43] was interrogated. Equivalent datasets do not exist for other species. Variance in relative mRNA abundance among natural accessions was assessed and the variance percentile of the core C₄ genes, with respect to all expressed genes, was evaluated. *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs of the core C₄ genes were identified using a phylogenetic approach (see methods). In the case where multiple paralogs of a core C₄ gene are present in the genome of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, then the paralog that was recruited to function most frequently in NADP-ME C₄ eudicot species [10] is shown and data for all paralogs are provided in Supplemental File S1. In all cases there was substantial variation in the abundance of transcripts encoding the core C₄ cycle enzymes (Figure 2A, Supplemental File S1). The least variable gene, *AtPPDK*, was more variable than 84% of expressed genes in the *Arabidopsis* leaf, while the most variable, *AtCA*, was in the 98th percentile. Thus, the abundance of transcripts encoding core enzymes of the C₄ cycle are highly variable between natural accessions, suggesting that variation in abundance of these enzymes is phenotypically neutral under the growth conditions used here.

Given that transcripts encoding core enzymes of the C₄ cycle exhibited significantly higher variance in abundance between natural accession of *Arabidopsis thaliana* than would be expected by chance, we hypothesised that the genes encoding these enzymes may also be subject to enhanced rates of neutral variation. To test this hypothesis, we analysed the number of within-species synonymous substitutions in the coding sequences of these genes in the 1001 *Arabidopsis* genome project [44]. Although natural accession data of this magnitude was not available for other species at the time of this analysis, a similar scale dataset was available for cultivated accessions of *Oryza sativa* [45]. This revealed that while *AtPEPC* and *AtPPDK* exhibited high levels of neutral variation, on average

the cohort of genes in natural accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana* had levels of neutral variation that are representative of the genome-wide distribution (Figure 2B). In contrast, levels of neutral variation for the cohort of core C₄ cycle genes in rice were significantly higher than expected (Figure 2B).

An experimental system for testing the neutrality of C₄ cycle enzymes in a C₃ context.

Given that the above analysis suggested that variation in core C₄ cycle genes was phenotypically neutral in a C₃ context, we sought to directly test this hypothesis using a transgenic approach. These transgenic tests were conducted in the model C₃ species *Oryza sativa* spp. *Indica* cultivar IR64 [46], as it is of direct relevance to C₄ engineering efforts [19,20]. Independent transgenic lines were generated to overexpress each of the six core C₄ cycle enzymes. For each enzyme, a genomic clone comprising the complete maize gene sequence, including the promoter region and all introns and exons, was chosen for overexpression (Table 1). This strategy was selected for two reasons. 1) The biochemical function of each of the maize enzymes has been experimentally validated, whereas not all of the enzymes encoded by the orthologous genes in rice have been characterised [47]. 2) Sequence differences between the maize and rice genes enables transcripts attributable to the endogenous and heterologous genes to be distinguished so that relative abundances can be measured. The exception to this rule was the construct for overexpression of carbonic anhydrase (Table 1). Here, due to complexity in developing a specific antibody for maize cytosolic β -Carbonic Anhydrase (CA), the coding sequence (CDS) was translationally fused to a C-terminal AcV5 epitope tag and expressed under the control of the maize PEPC promoter (ZmPEPC_{pro}). In all cases, three independent single insertion transgenic lines with the highest transgene expression (assessed by both transcript and protein quantification) were taken forward for subsequent analysis (Supplemental Figure S1 and S2). In the case of malic enzyme, protein expression was only detected in a single transgenic line which contained ≥ 6 copies of the transgene construct. Thus, this was the only malic enzyme line taken forward for further analysis.

Overexpressed C₄ cycle enzymes localise to the correct cellular compartment context in transgenic rice plants.

Given that protein of the correct size was expressed in each of the transgenic lines, we subsequently sought to determine whether those proteins were localised to the correct cell type and subcellular

compartment. It was not possible to conduct immunolocalisation analysis using the anti-MDH and anti-ME antibodies as these antibodies cross-reacted with native protein in wild-type rice and so the endogenous and exogenous proteins could not be distinguished from each other (Supplemental Figure S3). However, for the other transgenes immunolocalisations revealed that each overexpressed protein accumulated preferentially in the same cell type and subcellular compartment as the endogenous gene in *Zea mays* (Figure 3). Specifically, ZmCA2 (Figure 3A and 3B) and ZmPEPC (Figure 3C and 3D) accumulated in the cytosol of mesophyll cells, while ZmPPDK localised to chloroplasts in both bundle sheath and mesophyll cells (Figure 3E and 3F). Although PPDK activity is only required in chloroplasts of the mesophyll, in maize transcripts encoding PPDK and also the enzyme itself accumulate to significant levels in mesophyll and bundle sheath cells [48-50]. This observed localisation, while consistent with the expectation from maize, is in contrast to previous studies that have reported that the *ZmPPDK* promoter drives GUS gene expression in mesophyll cells, with little expression in bundle sheath cells (Matsuoka et al., 1993). Thus, it appears that there are differences between transcript accumulation driven by the promoter alone and transcript/protein accumulation driven by the intact gene. Overall, localisation of proteins in the transgenic rice lines were consistent with the patterns of gene expression and protein accumulation in C₄ maize.

Overexpressed enzymes confer enhanced enzyme activity

Given that the overexpressed transgenes resulted in protein that localised to the anticipated cell types and subcellular compartments, we next investigated whether this also resulted in additional enzyme activity within the leaf. In the case of carbonic anhydrase, the overexpression of ZmCA2 did not result in significantly elevated levels of carbonic anhydrase activity per unit leaf area (Figure 4A). This lack of an observed increase was likely due to the high levels of carbonic anhydrase activity that are present in wild type rice leaves [51]. In contrast, PEPC activity in rice leaves is low and overexpression of *ZmPEPC* resulted in a significant increase in leaf level PEPC activity (Figure 4B). Similarly, significantly elevated levels of MDH (Figure 4C) and ME (Figure 4D) activity per unit leaf area were also detected in the respective transgenic lines. Although, expression of PPDK enzyme was detected in all transgenic lines, enhanced PPDK activity was only measured in two of the three independent single insertion transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmPPDK*. Thus, although ectopic

209 accumulation of each protein could be readily detected, higher activities were only detected for four
210 of the five C₄ cycle enzymes analysed.

211 To assess whether these altered enzyme activity levels were similar to those observed for analogous
212 enzymes functioning in a C₄ cycle, enzyme assays were also conducted on leaves of maize. This
213 revealed that levels of MDH activity in leaves of the transgenic lines were analogous to those
214 observed in maize leaves (Figure 4C). In contrast, levels of ME (Figure 4D) and PPDK (Figure 4E)
215 were ~50% of what are observed in maize, and levels of PEPC were 25% of those found in maize.
216 Thus, enzyme activity levels for the majority of the enzymes were elevated relative to wild-type rice
217 leaves and are comparable to the levels observed in maize leaves.

218 **No phenotypic perturbation associated with overexpression of C₄ cycle genes in** 219 ***Oryza sativa***

220 Given that the enzymes were expressed, active and localised to the correct cell-type and subcellular
221 localisation it was next investigated the extent to which this activity was detrimental to growth or
222 photosynthesis in the transgenic plants. None of the transgenic lines showed altered chlorophyll
223 content (Figure 5A), tiller number (Figure 5B), plant height (Figure 5C) or dry biomass (Figure 5D).
224 Moreover, all plants were phenotypically indistinguishable compared with wild type controls
225 (Supplemental Figure S4). The one exception to this rule was the transgenic line overexpressing
226 *ZmME*. This line exhibited a small decrease in plant height (Figure 5C), however, this difference did
227 not result in a detectable difference in dry biomass (Figure 5D). In cases where an individual line
228 differed from wild-type or from other independent transgenic lines, this difference did not correlate
229 with differences in enzyme activity (Figure 4) and was thus likely attributable to somaclonal variation
230 during callus regeneration. Overall, transgene expression caused no perturbation to growth or
231 biomass.

232 For PEPC and PPDK the field studies presented here are consistent with controlled environment
233 experiments which showed that overexpression of *ZmPEPC* or *ZmPPDK* in rice did not affect plant
234 growth [52]. However, it has previously been reported that expression of *ZmME* in rice enhanced
235 photoinhibition leading to photo-bleaching and stunted growth in green house conditions [53]. It is
236 possible, that differences in growth conditions (field vs greenhouse), or differences in enzyme

abundance, or differences in the cell type specificity of the promoters used (i.e. we used the mesophyll cell specific PEPC promoter whereas previous studies used the ubiquitous CaMV 35S or cab promoter) are responsible for this difference in phenotype. Regardless, the data presented here show that rice plants with significantly enhanced ME activity (i.e. ~45% of that found in maize and 10 fold higher than wild type rice) had no aberrant growth phenotype under field conditions.

No photosynthetic perturbation associated with overexpression of C₄ cycle genes in *Oryza sativa*

The lack of perturbation to growth in field conditions described above is consistent with the hypothesis that variation in the abundance and activity of enzymes of the C₄ cycle is neutral in a C₃ context. However, these field experiments were conducted under current atmospheric conditions (~420ppm CO₂). To provide insight into whether such neutrality would also be manifest at atmospheric conditions that would have been present prior to the emergence of C₄ photosynthesis (i.e. ≥1000ppm CO₂) or during the emergence of C₄ photosynthesis (i.e. ~200ppm CO₂), the response of photosynthesis to altered CO₂ levels was measured. In each case, there was no significant difference in light-saturated photosynthetic rate at sub-ambient CO₂ concentrations typical of the period during which the ≥60 independent C₄ lineages evolved (Figure 6). Furthermore, for transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmCA* (Figure 6A), *ZmPEPC* (Figure 6B) and *ZmMDH* (Figure 6C) there was no significant difference in light-saturated photosynthetic rates at elevated CO₂ concentrations typical of the period prior to the emergence of C₄ photosynthesis. Additional tests were conducted on two of lines overexpressing *ZmCA* using online carbon and oxygen isotope discrimination analysis [54,55] to confirm that cytosolic CA activity did not affect other photosynthetic parameters such as mesophyll conductance (Supplemental File S2). In contrast, there appeared to be some reduction in maximal photosynthetic rate at elevated CO₂ concentrations in transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmME* (Figure 6D) or *ZmPPDK* (Figure 6E). Thus, it is possible that variation in the abundance and activity of these specific C₄ enzymes may have detrimental effects on growth at elevated CO₂ concentrations. However, for the majority of the enzymes of the C₄ cycle, variation in the abundance and activity of these enzymes had no effect on growth, and no effect on photosynthesis under current atmospheric conditions or under conditions typical of the periods both

prior to and during the emergence of C_4 photosynthesis. This result further supports the hypothesis that variation in the abundance and activity of enzymes of the C_4 cycle is relatively neutral in a C_3 context.

The absence of growth and photosynthetic phenotypes is not attributable to compensatory mechanisms operating at a transcriptome-wide level

Given the lack of perturbation to growth or photosynthesis in these transgenic lines we sought to determine whether this apparent neutrality was attributable to compensatory mechanisms operating at the level of gene expression. Specifically, could alteration of the expression of genes encoding enzymes or transporters in related biochemical pathways (or which catalyse the reverse reactions) help explain the lack of a detrimental effect? To test this, each of the transgenic lines were subject to transcriptome sequencing and differential expression analysis.

As expected from the protein expression and enzyme assay data, transcripts corresponding to the introduced transgenes were detected in each of the transgenic lines (Figure 76A). In all cases, overexpression of the maize gene (Figure 7A, boxes labelled X) did not cause compensatory change in the abundance of the endogenous ortholog (Figure 7A, boxes labelled E), as these values were not significantly different to those in wild type plants (Figure 7A, boxes labelled W). With the exception of the transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmCA*, the transcript abundance of the overexpressed maize genes (Figure 7A, boxes labelled X) were higher than the transcript abundance of the endogenous gene (Figure 7A, boxes labelled E). For the transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmCA*, *ZmPEPC* and *ZmMDH*, fewer than 22 genes were detected as differentially expressed when transcript profiles were compared to wild type plants (Figure 7B, Supplemental File S3). Of these, none encoded components of related biochemical pathways or proteins from which any functional significance could be inferred. When the transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmME* and *ZmPPDK* were compared to wild type plants there were 277 and 27 differentially expressed genes, respectively (Figure 7B, Supplemental File S3). Functional term enrichment analysis revealed an overrepresentation of light reaction and Calvin cycle genes in the sets of genes that were downregulated in the transgenic lines overexpressing *ZmME* and *ZmPPDK* (Supplemental File S3). Thus, there is some perturbation to the leaf transcriptome that is consistent with the detectable

293 reduction in maximal photosynthetic rate at elevated CO₂ concentrations in transgenic lines
294 overexpressing *ZmME* or *ZmPPDK*. Overall, however, increased activity of core C₄ cycle enzymes
295 through overexpression appears to be within the permissible limits of variation for normal C₃
296 photosynthesis.

297 **Discussion**

298 The evolution of C₄ photosynthesis is widely considered to be one of the most remarkable examples
299 of phenotypic convergence in eukaryotic biology. In this work, we propose that cryptic genetic
300 variation may have facilitated the rapid evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. In support of this hypothesis
301 we show that there is substantial natural diversity in the abundance of transcripts encoding C₄
302 enzymes in the C₃ plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and the majority of the biochemical differences that
303 distinguish C₃ and C₄ plants can be recapitulated in C₃ plants with limited or no effects on plant
304 growth or photosynthesis. This finding means that the majority of the changes in abundance of
305 enzymes required to conduct C₄ photosynthesis can evolve independently without perturbation to
306 growth within a population of C₃ plants, and that these 'pre-adapted' phenotypes only require the
307 correct series of crosses to assemble the complete set of enhanced enzyme abundances within one
308 individual plant.

309 Although the change in the majority of the enzymes produced no detectable effect on growth or
310 photosynthesis, a perturbation to photosynthesis was observed at elevated CO₂ concentrations in
311 lines overexpressing *ZmME* and *ZmPPDK*. Such a perturbation could mean that enhanced activity
312 of these enzymes may have been detrimental under the high CO₂ conditions prevalent prior to the
313 emergence of C₄ photosynthesis. If this was the case, it might be expected that standing genetic
314 variation in the abundance of these enzymes would be reduced when compared to the other C₄ cycle
315 enzymes in wild populations of C₃ plants. Consistent with this hypothesis we observed that variation
316 in the transcriptome abundance of the genes encoding ME and PPDK is reduced when compared
317 to the genes encoding other C₄ cycle enzymes in different natural accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana*.
318 Thus, it is possible that acquisition of enhanced activity of these enzymes may be a limiting factor in
319 the assembly of a C₄ cycle from extant natural diversity.

320 Although, overexpression of PPDK exhibited a minor perturbation to photosynthesis at elevated CO₂
321 this effect was not observed at ambient CO₂ or at CO₂ levels prevalent when C₄ photosynthesis

evolved. In this context, it is worth noting that overexpression of PPDK during leaf senescence in either Arabidopsis or tobacco can be beneficial and lead to enhanced growth [56]. Such benefits to growth may help explain why modelling studies indicate that upregulation of PPDK may occur prior to upregulation of other C₄ cycle enzymes [32].

The findings presented here do not negate or contradict other hypotheses concerning the timing or order of the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis [31-34]. For example, the neutrality of C₄ cycle enzyme abundance in a C₃ context helps explain why the order of C₄ trait evolution is flexible [32] and why these changes occur on a smooth fitness landscape [31]. It also provides new insight into the potential mechanisms by which these changes have occurred. Specifically, the findings presented here reveal that the acquisition of the biochemical functions required for the establishment of a C₄ photosynthetic cycle do not need to evolve in series, and can instead evolve in parallel within a population and be assembled in series through sexual reproduction. The ability of such cryptic genetic variation to assist in the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis may thus help to explain the high frequency of this phenotypic convergence.

Methods

Plant growth

Plants were grown in rice paddy fields at the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), Los Baños Philippines, 14° 10019.900N, 121° 15022.300E. Seeds were placed at 50° C for 3 days and were then germinated in distilled water for 2 days. The germinated seeds were sown in seedling trays containing sterilized soil (taken from the IRRI upland farm) for 2 weeks and then transplanted into rice paddy fields. For gas exchange measurements, plants were grown in a screenhouse with a day/night temperature of 35/28 ± 3 °C.

Generation of transgenic plants

To express high levels of ZmPEPC (GRMZM2G083841), ZmPPDK (GRMZM2G306345), ZmMDH (GRMZM2G129513) and ZmME (GRMZM2G085019) in rice, full-length genomic fragments encompassing the genes encoding these maize enzymes and their promoters were cloned into pSC0 vector (GenBank, Accession no. KT365905 [57]). Generation of pSC0/ZmPEPC vector was previously described [58]. A pSC0/ZmPPDK vector containing a full-length genomic fragment was

created by subcloning ZmPPDK from pIG121Hm/PPDK [59] (a gift from Mitsue Miyao, NIAS, Japan) into pSC0. Gibson assembly was used to insert the gene into pSC0 vector. The necessary amplicons from the pIG121Hm/PPDK and pSC0 templates were amplified using Primer I: 5'-ATGCTCAACACATGAGCGAAGGGCCCATGACCATGATTACGCCAAG, Primer II: 5'-TGTGCATGTCTGCTAGGATCCGGTACCGAATGCTAGAGCAGCTTGA, Primer III: 5'-TCAAGCTGCTCTAGCATTCGGTACCGGATCCTAGCGACATGCACA, Primer IV: 5'-CTTGGCGTAATCATGGTCATGGGCCCTTCGCTCATGTGTTGAGCAT. The full-length genomic sequences of ZmME and ZmMDH were amplified from BACs sourced from BACPAC resources (Children's Hospital Oakland, California) (Coordinates CH201-14H23 for ZmME and CH201-117G14 for ZmMDH) by PCR using primers (5'-ACGACGGCCAGTGCCAAGCTTCCCTTCCGTCAGCAGATTAGGCG and 5'-ATTATTATGGAGAACTCGAGGCAACATGGTTCTGGACCGATTGAG for ZmMDH; 5'-ACGACGGCCAGTGCCAAGCTTGGAAATGACCACGAAATCGTCAAGCTAATCC and 5'-ATTATTATGGAGAACTCGAGCTGTTACTGCTCTTTCCACTACTGAAGCAG for ZmME and subcloned into pSC0 vector. A binary vector with the hygromycin B resistance gene, pCAMBIA1300, was co-transformed with these vectors to allow for selection. To drive enriched ZmCA2 (GRMZM2G348512) expression in rice mesophyll cells, the vector of pSC110/ZmCA2-ACV5 was generated as previously described [60]. The rice transformation was performed at International Rice Research Institute (IRRI; Los Baños, Philippines) following a previously described method [57].

For ZmPEPC, ZmPPDK, ZmMDH and ZmME, after transformation, T₀ PCR positive plants that had similar protein accumulation relative to the maize control were advanced to further generations to obtain homozygous lines with a single copy of the transgene. The selection of the four ZmPEPC events was described by [58]. These plants were used in the present study at the T₃ generation for event ZmPEPC-60 and T₄ generation for events ZmPEPC-28, ZmPEPC-62 and ZmPEPC-76. A total of 82 T₀ plants were ZmPPDK PCR positive and seven plants (events) among them had a single copy of the transgene insertion. Four events with single transgene insertion and similar levels of ZmPPDK protein accumulation relative to the maize control were advanced to further generation to obtain homozygous lines. At T₂ generation, three events (ZmPPDK-2, ZmPPDK-11 and ZmPPDK-52) were homozygous and used for analysis in the present study. A total of 37 T₀ plants were

ZmMDH PCR positive and eight plants among them had more than 50% ZmMDH protein accumulation compared to the maize control. However, all of them had multiple copies of the transgene insertion. From the segregating population at the T₁ generation, we obtained plants with a single copy of the transgene from four events. Three events with a single copy of the transgene (ZmMDH-22, ZmMDH-43, and ZmMDH-48) were homozygous at T₂ generation. The plants used in this study were at T₂ generation for event ZmMDH-22 and T₃ generation for events ZmMDH-43 and ZmMDH-48. A total of 46 T₀ plants were PCR positive for the ZmME transgene and only two of them showed detectable ZmME protein accumulation by western blot analysis. Both events had more than six copies of the transgene. We obtained one homozygous event with seven copies of the transgene (ZmME-116) at T₂ generation and used its T₃ progeny in the present study. For ZmCA2, a total of 112 T₀ plants were ZmCA2 PCR positive and eight plants (events) with a single copy of the transgene and highest abundant ZmCA2 accumulation were advanced to further generations to obtain homozygous lines. Three ZmCA2 events (ZmCA2-18, ZmCA2-39 and ZmCA2-69) were homozygous at T₂ generation and used in the present study. The homozygosity of the transgene was confirmed by DNA blot analysis for T-DNA insertion (Supplemental Figure S1). The abundance of C₄ protein accumulation was detected by western blot analysis (Supplemental Figure S2).

Leaf chlorophyll content and plant growth analysis

Measurements of leaf chlorophyll content, tiller number and plant height were taken from plants at maximum tillering stage. The plants were grown in rice paddy fields at IRRI. Leaf chlorophyll content was measured in the upper youngest fully expanded leaves using a SPAD chlorophyll Meter (SPAD, Konica Minolta). Chlorophyll SPAD values are the average \pm SE of three leaves from 15 plants per line. Tiller number and plant height are the average \pm SE from 15 plants per line.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

The middle portion of the seventh fully expanded leaf was sampled between 09:00 h and 11:00 h from 9-week-old plants. Leaf sections for immunolocalization analysis were prepared as described previously [57]. For detecting ZmCA2-AcV5 protein, the fixed sections were probed with the anti-AcV5 tag primary mouse monoclonal antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and the Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG (Invitrogen) secondary antibody. For detecting ZmPPDK protein, the fixed

sections were probed with the anti-PPDK primary rabbit polyclonal antibody (provided by Dr. Chris Chastain, Minnesota State University-Moorhead) and the Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Invitrogen) secondary antibody. The sections were examined on a BX61 with Disk Scanning Unit attachment microscope (Olympus) with fluorescence functions.

RNA isolation, sequencing, and differential expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted using Trizol extraction methods (Invitrogen) and treated with RQ1 RNAase free DNAase (Promega) following a previously described method [57]. Leaf samples were harvested between 10:30 h and 11:30 h from 2-week-old plants. Total RNA was extracted from a pool of 12 fifth youngest fully expanded leaves from 12 individual plants for each line. For ME-116 and PEPC-28 lines, we extracted 3 individual RNA pools and each pool still contained 12 fifth leaves from 12 individual plants. RNA quality and quantity was checked using a NanoDrop ND-8000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and agarose gel electrophoresis. RNA samples were sequenced using Illumina platforms at The Beijing Genome Institute (BGI Tech Solutions (Hongkong) CO, Limited, Shenzhen, China). The reads were paired end (PE) of size 100 base pairs and the total amount of data was 4 Giga-bases of genomic sequence per sample. RNA-Seq reads were deposited to EBI array express and are available under the accession number E-MTAB-8539.

Raw reads were subject to quality trimming using TRIMMOMATIC [61]. This was done to remove low quality bases and read-pairs as well as contaminating adaptor sequences prior to transcript quantitation. Sequences were searched for all common Illumina adaptors (the default option) and the settings used for read processing by trimmomatic were LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDINGWINDOW:5:15 MINLEN:50. Quality trimmed reads were mapped to the full set of predicted transcript sequences from the *Oryza sativa* genome reference (323 v7) obtained from Phytozome version 12 [62] using Salmon [63]. Correlation in genome-wide transcript abundance estimates are shown in Supplemental Figure S5. Transcript abundance counts were summed at the locus level and differentially expressed transcripts were identified using DESeq2 as those genes with an adjusted *p*-value of < 0.01 [64].

mRNA variance estimation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* natural accessions

The transcript abundance estimates for 17 different *Arabidopsis thaliana* natural accessions was downloaded from EBI array express under the accession number E-GEOD-53197. The floral bud and root samples were discarded and the standard deviation of the mRNA abundance estimates for each gene was calculated from all 17 aerial part samples. The percentile rank of each gene was then calculated. The full dataset is provided in Supplemental File S1.

Phylogenetic analysis

The predicted protein sequences corresponding to the primary transcripts of 42 sequenced plant genomes were obtained from Phytozome v10 [62]. OrthoFinder [65,66] was used to infer orthogroups from these protein sequences. MAFFT-LINSI [67] was used to create multiple sequence alignments of the proteins within each orthogroup, and FastTree [68] was used to infer maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees from these multiple sequence alignments. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs of the maize genes used in the transgenic lines were identified using these phylogenetic trees (Supplemental File S3). If multiple paralogous genes existed in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, then the paralog that was recruited to C₄ function in the closest C₄ relative of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Gynandropsis gynandra* [10,69,70] was used for the analysis presented in Figure 2. The complete expression dataset for all paralogs is provided in Supplemental File S1.

Immunoblot analyses

The middle portion of the seventh fully expanded leaf was sampled between 09:00 h and 11:00 h from 9-week-old plants. Soluble proteins were extracted and fractionated as described previously [57,58]. Samples were loaded based on equal leaf area (0.394 mm² for ZmPEPC and ZmPPDK, and 3.94 mm² for ZmMDH, ZmME and ZmCA2-AcV5). Proteins were electroblotted onto a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane and probed with antisera against AcV5 tag (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), ZmPPDK (provided by Chris Chastain, Minnesota State University, USA), ZmPEPC, ZmMDH or ZmME (provided by Richard Leegood, Sheffield University, UK) protein. The dilutions of ZmPEPC, ZmPPDK, ZmMDH, ZmME and AcV5 antibodies were 1:20000, 1:20000, 1:5000, 1:5000 and 1:2000, respectively. A peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody was used at a dilution of 1:5000

and immunoreactive bands were visualized with ECL Western Blotting Detection Reagents (GE Healthcare, UK).

Transgene insertion copy number estimation

Genomic DNA was extracted from leaves of matured plants and prepared for DNA blot analysis as described previously [57]. Genomic DNA of ZmCA2 lines at T₂ generation was digested with BglII restriction endonuclease (NEB) and probed with a ZmPEPC promoter-specific probe as described previously [57,58]. Genomic DNA of ZmMDH and ZmPPDK lines at T₂ generation was digested with EcoRI (NEB) and probed with their gene-specific probes generated from primers (5'-GAACCGCCAGAGTAGCAGAC and 5'-ATCGACGTATACGGCTGGTC for ZmMDH; 5'-TGTGGCGCCATGTTAGATAG and 5'-AATTCGTGAACACCCAGACC for ZmPPDK). The copy of number of ZmME insertion was detected by digesting genomic DNA with BamH1 (NEB) and probing with ZmME specific probe synthesized using primers (5'-TGGAGCTGCTTCCTTTTGT and 5'-TGATAGGCAAGCACTGCAAC).

Enzyme assays

Leaf samples for enzyme activity assay were harvested between 0900 and 1100 h from the youngest fully-expanded leaf of 4 to 5 –week-old plants. For ZmPEPC, ZmPPDK, ZmMDH and ZmME lines, proteins were extracted by homogenizing leaf material in a 250 µl of extraction buffer containing 50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 1% (v/v) glycerol. After centrifugation at 10,000g for 2 minutes at 4°C, the supernatant was collected for enzyme activity assays. The PEPC enzyme activity assay was performed following previous methods [71,72]. The PEPC reaction mixture contained 100 mM Hepes-NaOH, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM NaHCO₃, 5 mM G6P, 0.2 mM NADH, 12 unit/ml MDH (from pig heart; Roche Diagnostics, Basel) and 4 mM PEP, and the reaction was started by adding PEP. The PPDK enzyme activity assay was performed as described by [36]. The MDH activity was determined by the method modified from [73]. The MDH reaction mixture contained 50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH 8, 70 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM OAA and 0.2 mM NADPH, and the reaction was started by adding OAA. The ME activity was measured by the method modified from [73]. The activities of PEPC, PPDK, MDH and ME were measured spectrophotometrically at 340 nm at 25°C, 30°C, 25°C and 25°C, respectively. The CA enzyme

activity assay was conducted following a published method [74] using the electrometric method [75]. Proteins were extracted by homogenizing the leaf materials in a 250 µl of extraction buffer containing 50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH 7.2, 1 mM EDTA and 10 mM DTT. After centrifugation, the supernatant was collected for CA enzyme activity assay. The CA reaction buffer contained 15 mM Sodium Barbitol and 3 mM Barbitol; pH 8.3. All buffers and the assay were stored and performed on ice. The reaction was initiated by adding 8 ml of ice-cold CO₂ saturated water into a reaction mixture containing 200 µl of protein extract and 12 ml of reaction buffer. The time required for a pH drop from 8.3 to 6.3 was recorded. The CA activity units were calculated as described previously [74].

Photosynthesis assays

Leaf gas-exchange measurements were made at IRRI (mean atmospheric pressure of 94.8 kPa) using a LI-6400XT portable photosynthesis system (LICOR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). The system set-up was as previously described [57]. In summary, measurements were taken at a constant airflow rate of 400 µmol s⁻¹, leaf temperature of 30 °C and a leaf-to-air vapour pressure deficit of between 1.5 and 2 kPa. Data was acquired between 0800 h and 1300 h in a room with an air temperature maintained at approximately 30 °C. Measurements were made on the mid-portion of the leaf blade of three fully expanded leaves during the tillering stage for each transgenic event from two to three plants from each transgenic line. Leaves were acclimated in the cuvette for approximately 30 min before measurements were made. The response curves of the net rate of CO₂ assimilation (A , µmol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹) to changing intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i , µmol CO₂ mol⁻¹) were acquired by increasing C_a (CO₂ concentration in the cuvette) from 20 to 2,000 µmol CO₂ mol⁻¹ at a photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of 2,000 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹.

Acknowledgements

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Tables

Table 1: Construct details

	Accession	CDS or genomic	Promoter
CA	GRMZM2G348512	CDS	ZmPEPC
PEPC	GRMZM2G083841	genomic	ZmPEPC
MDH	GRMZM2G129513	genomic	ZmMDH
NADP-ME	GRMZM2G085019	genomic	ZmME
PPDK	GRMZM2G306345	genomic	ZmPPDK

Figures

Figure 1

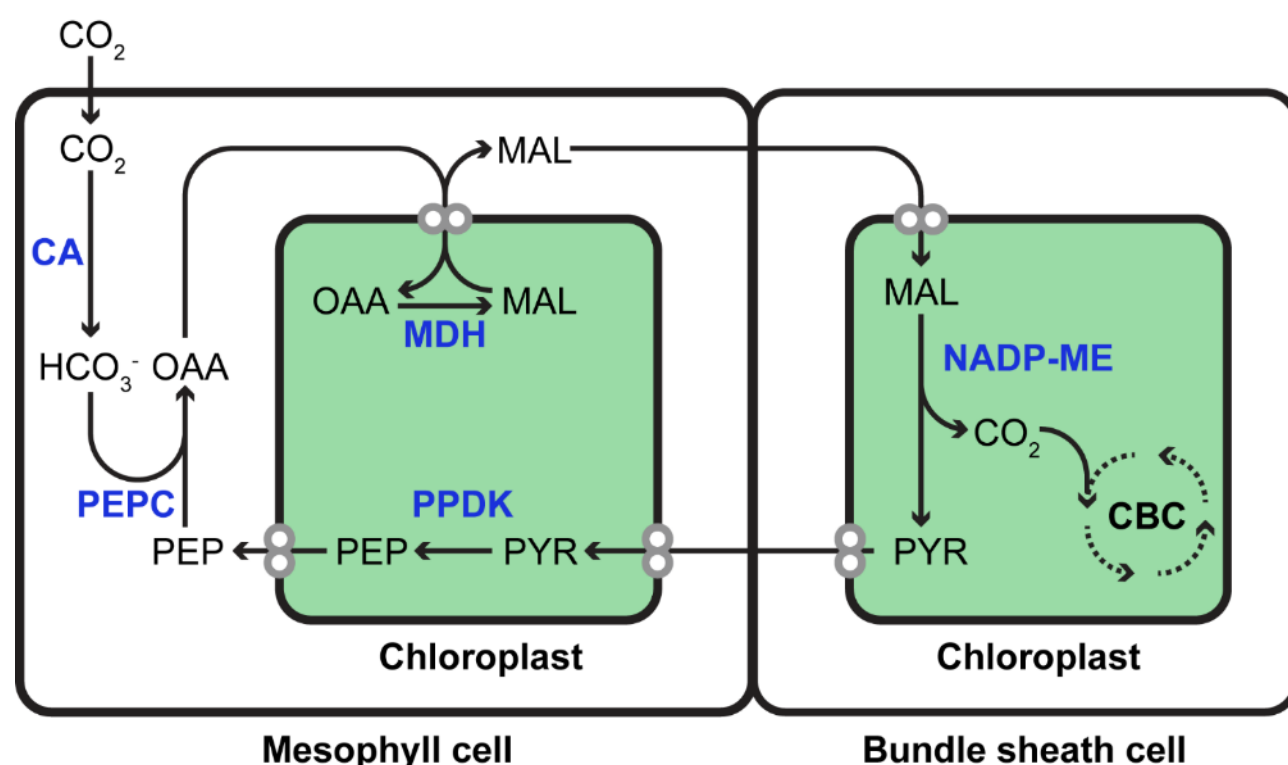
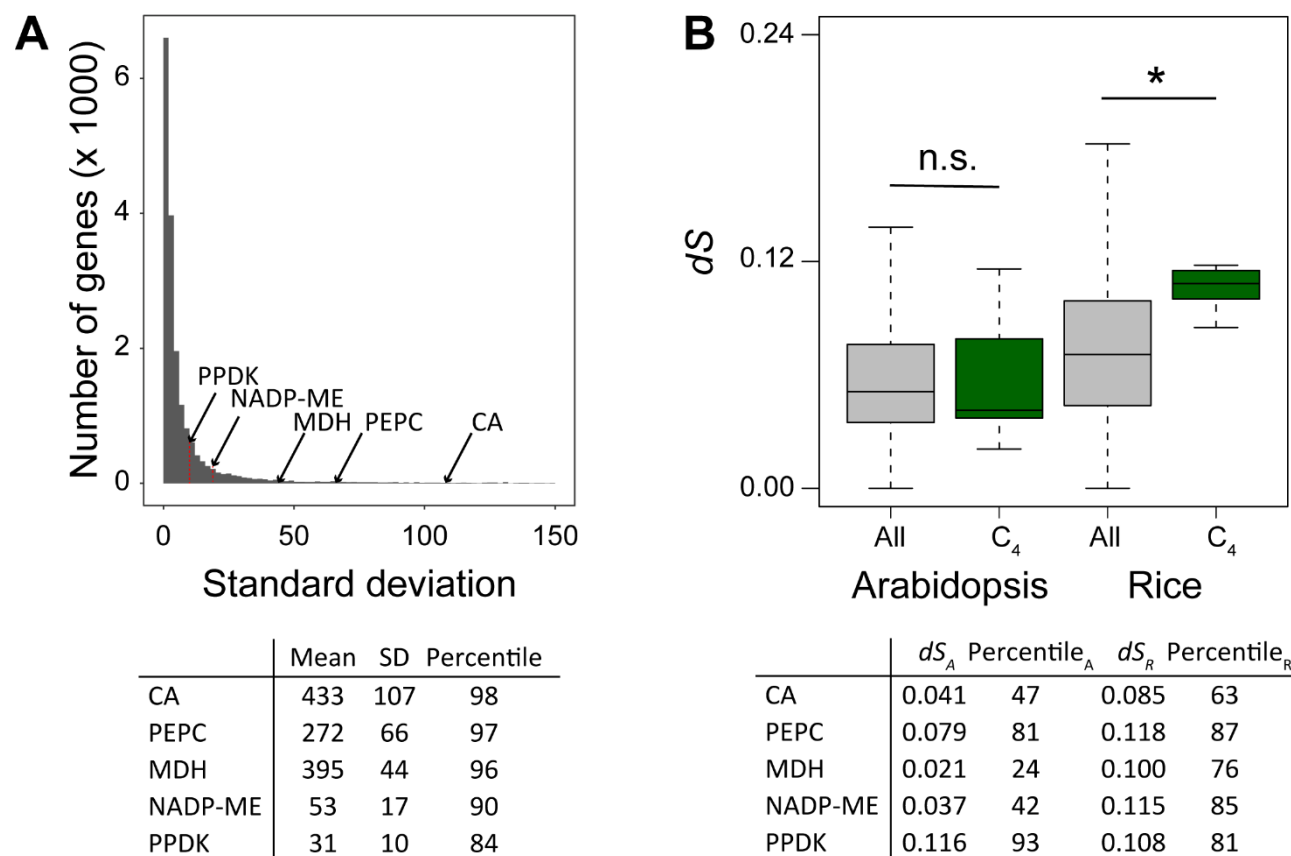


Figure 1. Cartoon of the enzymes required to carry out a minimal NADP-ME C₄ cycle. Enzymes are depicted in bold blue font, metabolites in black font. CA, carbonic anhydrase. PEPC, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase. MDH, malate dehydrogenase. NADP-ME, NADP-malic enzyme. PPK, pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase. OAA, oxaloacetate. MAL, malate. PYR, pyruvate. PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate.

Figure 2



530

Figure 2. Analysis of variance in relative mRNA abundance and molecular sequence evolution of genes encoding core C₄ cycle enzymes in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Oryza sativa*. **A)** Histogram of standard deviation of all expressed genes for 17 different natural accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Position of core C₄ cycle genes is indicated by arrows. For each of the core C₄ cycle genes the mean and standard deviation and percentile rank is provided in a table below the plot. The mean variance of this cohort is significantly larger than would be expected by chance ($p < 0.001$, Monte Carlo resampling test). The complete expression dataset is also provided as Supplemental File S1. **B)** Box plots of dS (number of synonymous substitutions per synonymous site per gene that occur in the whole natural or cultivated accession dataset) for all genes in the genome as compared to the cohort of core C₄ cycle genes. For each of the core C₄ cycle genes the dS value and its percentile rank are given. * indicates significant difference (t-test, $p < 0.01$).

542

Figure 3

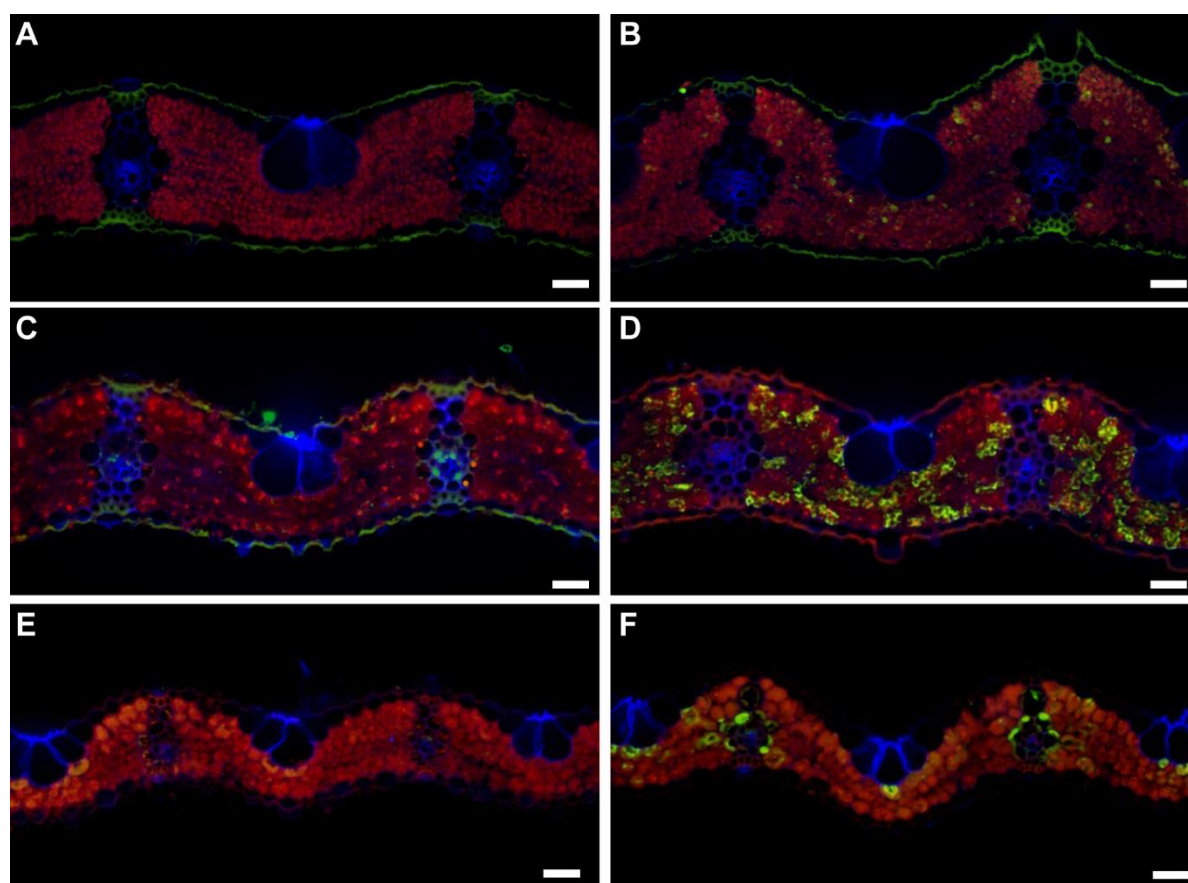
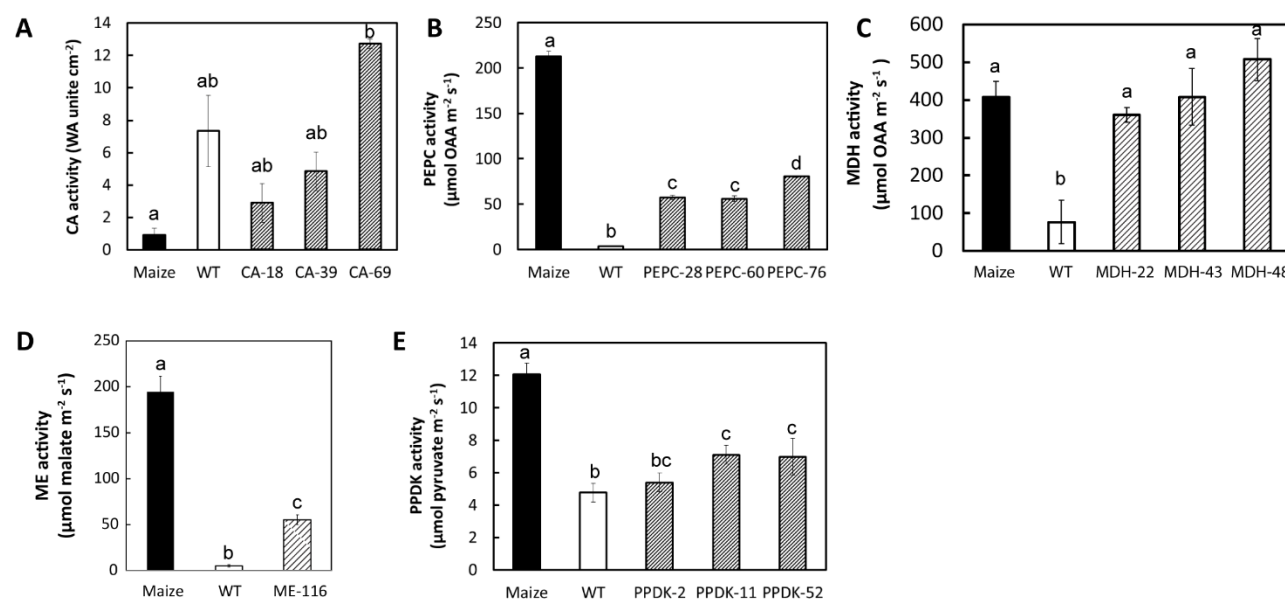


Figure 3. Localisation of overexpressed proteins. A & B) Rice leaf cross sections stained with anti-AcV5 antibody for A) an un-transformed wild-type plant and B) a transgenic line overexpressing ZmCA2-AcV5. C & D) Rice leaf cross sections stained with anti-ZmPEPC antibody for B) an un-transformed wild-type plant and B) a transgenic line overexpression ZmPEPC. E & F) Rice leaf cross sections stained with anti-ZmPPDK antibody for E) an un-transformed wild type plant and F) a transgenic line overexpressing ZmPPDK. Magnification: 200x. Scale bar: 20 µm.

Figure 4

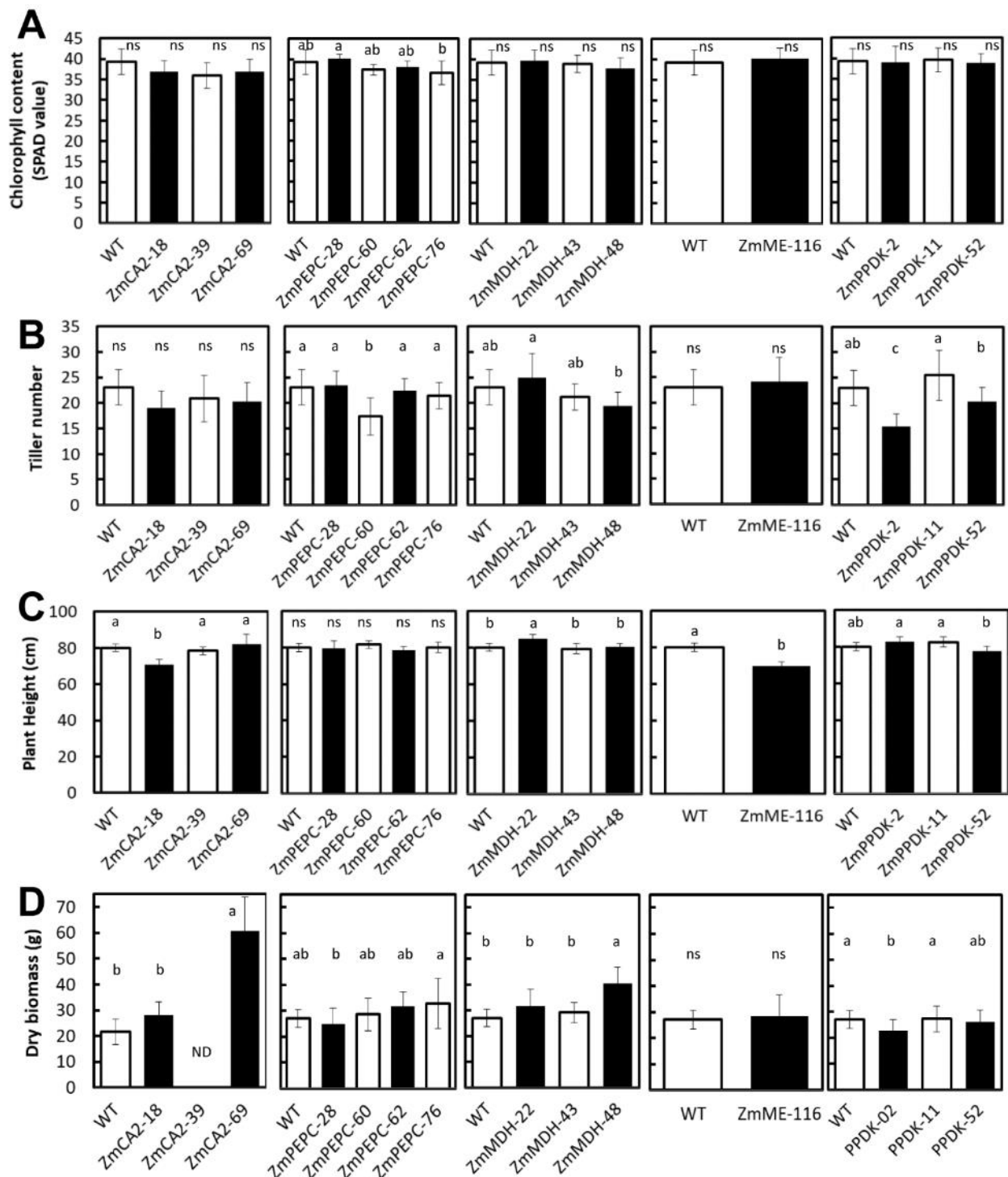


553

554 **Figure 4.** Leaf level enzyme activity assays transgenic lines overexpressing ZmCA2, ZmPEPC,
555 ZmMDH, ZmME and ZmPPDK. In all cases enzyme assays from leaves of non-transformed wild-
556 type rice plants (WT) and leaves of non-transformed wild-type maize plants (Maize) are shown for
557 reference. A) Carbonic anhydrase. B) Phosphoenolpyruvatecarboxylase. C) Malate dehydrogenase.
558 D) Malic enzyme. E) Pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase. Different letters above bars indicate those
559 values that are statistically different based on a one-way ANOVA with a Tukey multiple comparison
560 test for post-hoc pairwise comparison (p < 0.05).

561

Figure 5



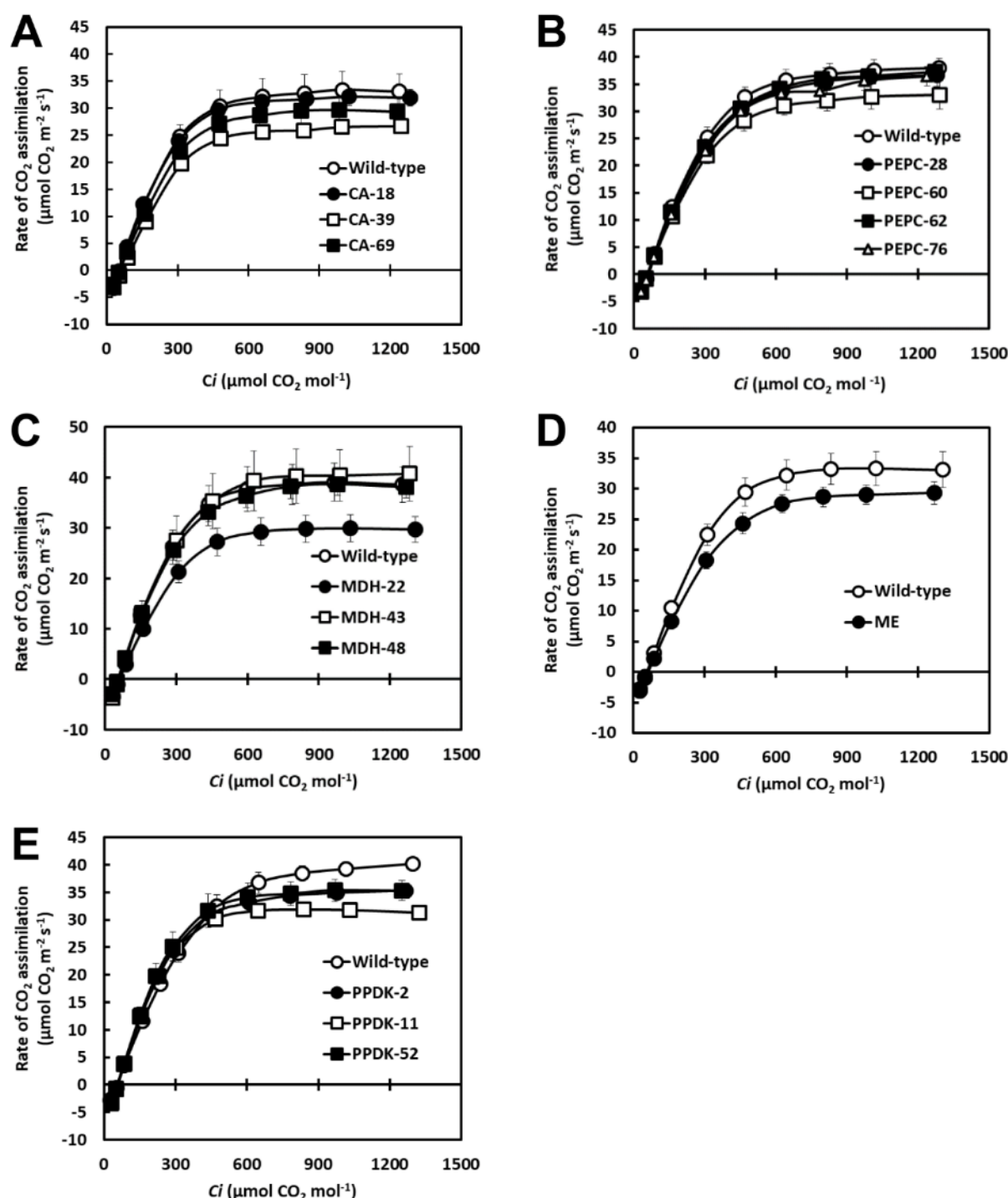
563

564 **Figure 5.** Leaf Chlorophyll content, tiller number, plant height and dry biomass of wild-type and
565 transgenic lines overexpressing ZmCA2, ZmPEPC, ZmMDH, ZmME and ZmPPDK grown in rice
566 paddy fields at IRRI. Chlorophyll SPAD values are the average \pm SE of three leaves from 15 plants
567 using the upper youngest fully expanded leaves at maximum tillering stage; 70 days post-

568 germination. Tiller number and plant height are the average \pm SE of 15 individual plants measured
 569 at maximum tillering stage; 70 days post-germination. Dry biomass is the total dry weight of leaf,
 570 stem, sheath tissues and panicles at harvesting stage; 98 days post-germination. Dry biomass is the
 571 average \pm SE of 20 individual plants, except 10 plants for ZmCA2 lines. ND indicates that dry
 572 biomass was not determined in ZmCA2-39 line. Different letters above bars indicate those values
 573 that are statistically different based on a one-way ANOVA with a Tukey multiple comparison test for
 574 post-hoc pairwise comparison (p-value<0.05). “ns” indicates non-significant.

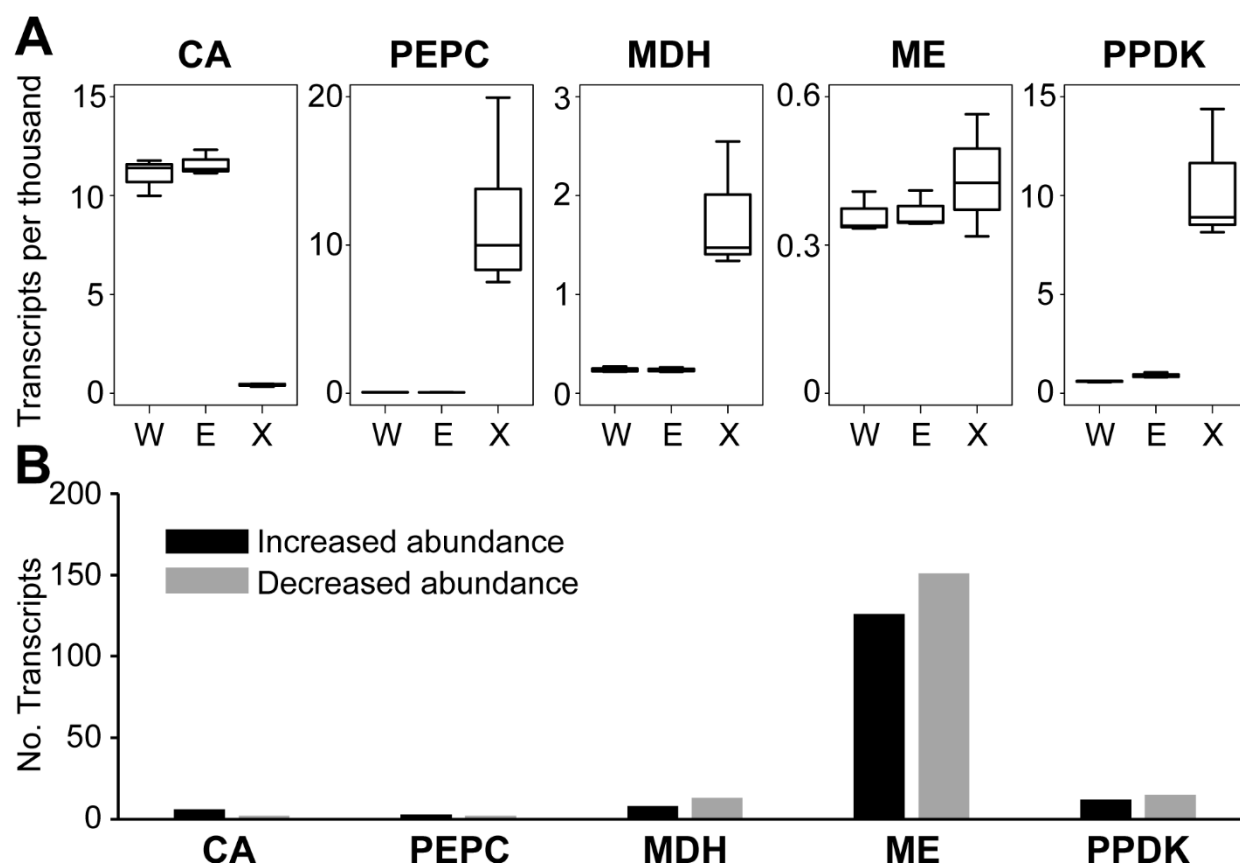
575

576 Figure 6



577 **Figure 6.** CO₂ response curves for rice transgenic lines overexpressing enzymes of the C₄ cycle. In
578 all cases *C_i* is the sub-stomatal CO₂ concentration within the leaf. A wild-type non transformed control
579 is included in each plot. A) Transgenic lines overexpressing ZmCA. B) Transgenic lines
580 overexpressing ZmPEPC. C) Transgenic lines overexpressing ZmMDH. D) Transgenic lines
581 overexpressing ZmME. E) Transgenic lines overexpressing ZmPPDK.

Figure 7



584

585 **Figure 7.** Transcriptome analysis of rice transgenic lines overexpressing enzymes of the C₄ cycle.

586 A) Comparison of the relative mRNA abundance of transcripts encoding C₄ cycle enzymes. W is the

587 transcript abundance of the endogenous rice gene in non-transformed rice plants, is the transcript

588 abundance of the endogenous rice gene in the transgenic rice plants overexpressing the C₄ cycle

589 enzyme, and X is the transcript abundance of the exogenous maize gene encoding the C₄ cycle

590 enzyme. Data from transgenic lines overexpressing each enzyme is shown separately. Boxplots

591 show the complete data range. The over expressed C₄ cycle enzyme is shown above each plot. B)

592 The number of upregulated and downregulated genes in the transgenic lines overexpressing

593 enzymes of the C₄ cycle. The y axis depicts the number of differentially express transcripts in that

594 transgenic line in comparison to wild type rice plants.

595 **Supplemental Figures**

596 **Supplemental File S1**

597 Excel spreadsheet. This spreadsheet contains the transcripts per million (TPM) estimates of relative
598 mRNA abundance for the aerial part of all 17 natural accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The
599 standard deviation and percentile are also provided. For convenience the genes of relevance are
600 provided at the top of the spreadsheet.

601 **Supplemental File S2**

602 Online isotope discrimination analysis of two transgenic lines overexpressing ZmCA.

603 **Supplemental File S3**

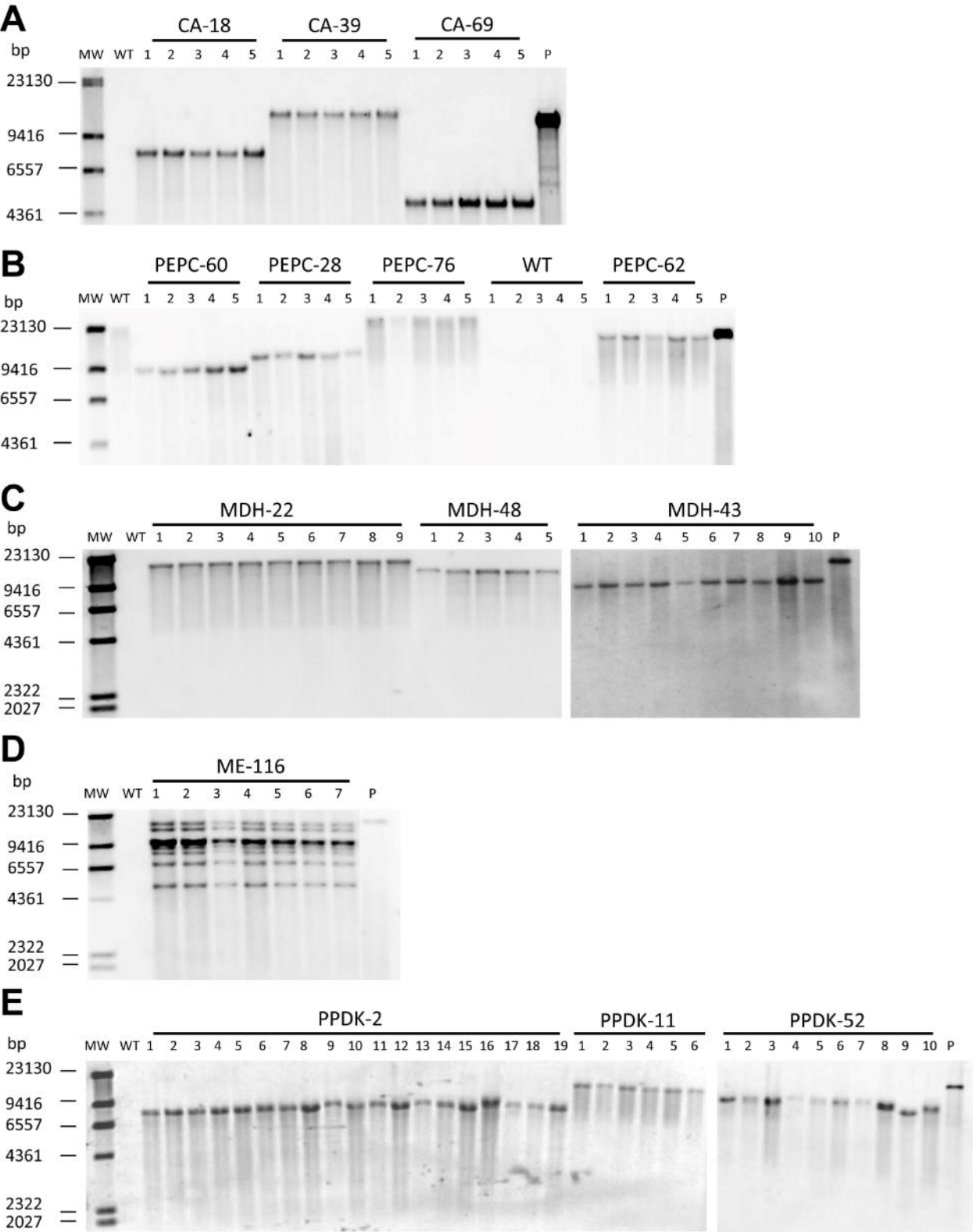
604 Excel Spreadsheet. This spreadsheet contains the transcripts per million (TPM) estimates of relative
605 mRNA abundance for all genes in the transgenic rice lines overexpressing core C₄ cycle enzymes.
606 It also contains the differentially expressed gene lists.

607 **Supplemental File S4**

608 PDF. This file contains the phylogenetic trees used to identify *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs of the
609 maize genes used in this study.

610

611 **Supplemental Figure S1**



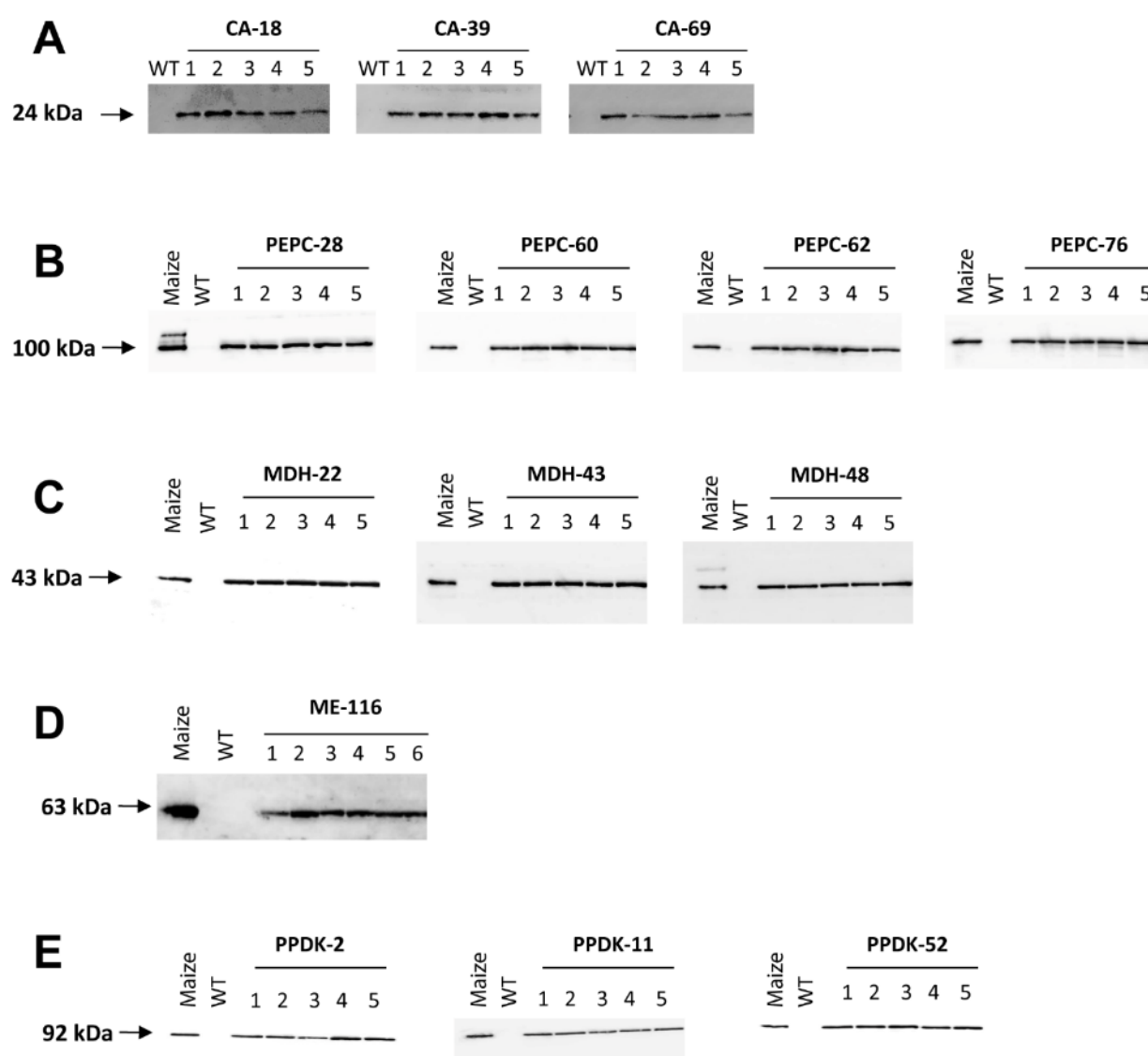
612

613

614

615 **Supplemental Figure S1.** Southern blot analysis of insertion copy number in the transgenic lines.
616 In all cases DNA isolated from different individual plants descendant from the same transgenic event
617 are shown. The name and number of the independent transgenic event is shown on the top line and
618 the individual plant number is shown below. A) Three independent single insertion lines containing
619 the construct for overexpression of *Zea mays* β -carbonic anhydrase 2 (CA-18, CA-39 and CA-69).
620 B) Four independent single insertion lines containing the construct for overexpression of *Zea mays*
621 PEPC (PEPC-28, PEPC-60, PEPC-62 and PEPC-76). C) Three independent single insertion lines
622 for overexpression of *Zea mays* malate dehydrogenase (MDH-22, MDH-43 and MDH-48). D) A
623 single transgenic event containing multiple insertions (≥ 6) of the construct for overexpression of *Zea*
624 *mays* malic enzyme (ME-116). E) Three independent single insertion lines for overexpression of the
625 *Zea mays* PPDK (PPDK-2, PPDK-11 and PPDK-52). In all cases WT corresponds to genomic DNA
626 isolated from untransformed wild type rice plants. The un-digested plasmid is used as a positive
627 control (P). Sizes of molecular weight markers are indicated next to the image.
628

629 Supplemental Figure S2



630

631 **Supplemental Figure S2.** Western blot analysis of protein expression in transgenic lines. A)

632 Detection of *Zea mays* β -carbonic anhydrase 2 protein expression in multiple plants descendent

633 from the three independent transgenic events. Protein expression was detected using the anti-AcV5

634 antibody as the CDS of the ZmCA gene was modified to contain an Ac-V5 epitope tag at the C-

635 terminus of the protein. B) Detection of *Zea mays* phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (ZmPEPC)

636 protein expression in multiple plants descendent from the four independent transgenic events.

637 Protein expression was detected using the PEPC antibody. Protein isolated from wild type maize

638 plants (maize) was used as a positive control, while protein isolated from wild-type rice plants (WT)
639 was used as a negative control. C) Detection of *Zea mays* malate dehydrogenase (ZmMDH) protein
640 expression in multiple plants descendent from the three independent transgenic events. Protein
641 expression was detected using the MDH antibody. Protein isolated from wild type maize plants
642 (maize) was used as a positive control, while protein isolated from wild-type rice plants (WT) was
643 used as a negative control. D) Detection of *Zea mays* malic enzyme (ZmME) protein expression in
644 multiple plants descendent from the single transgenic event used in this study. Protein expression
645 was detected using the ME antibody. Protein isolated from wild type maize plants (maize) was used
646 as a positive control, while protein isolated from wild-type rice plants (WT) was used as a negative
647 control. E) Detection of *Zea mays* pyruvate, phosphate dikinase (ZmPPDK) protein expression in
648 multiple plants descendent from the three independent transgenic events. Protein expression was
649 detected using the PPDK antibody. Protein isolated from wild type maize plants (maize) was used
650 as a positive control, while protein isolated from wild-type rice plants (WT) was used as a negative
651 control.

652

Supplemental Figure S3

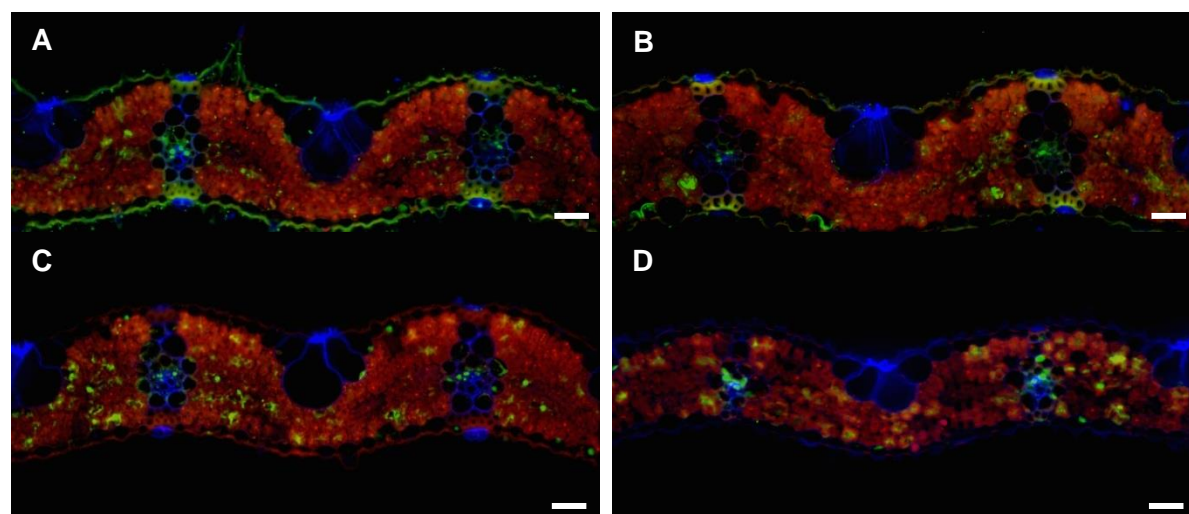
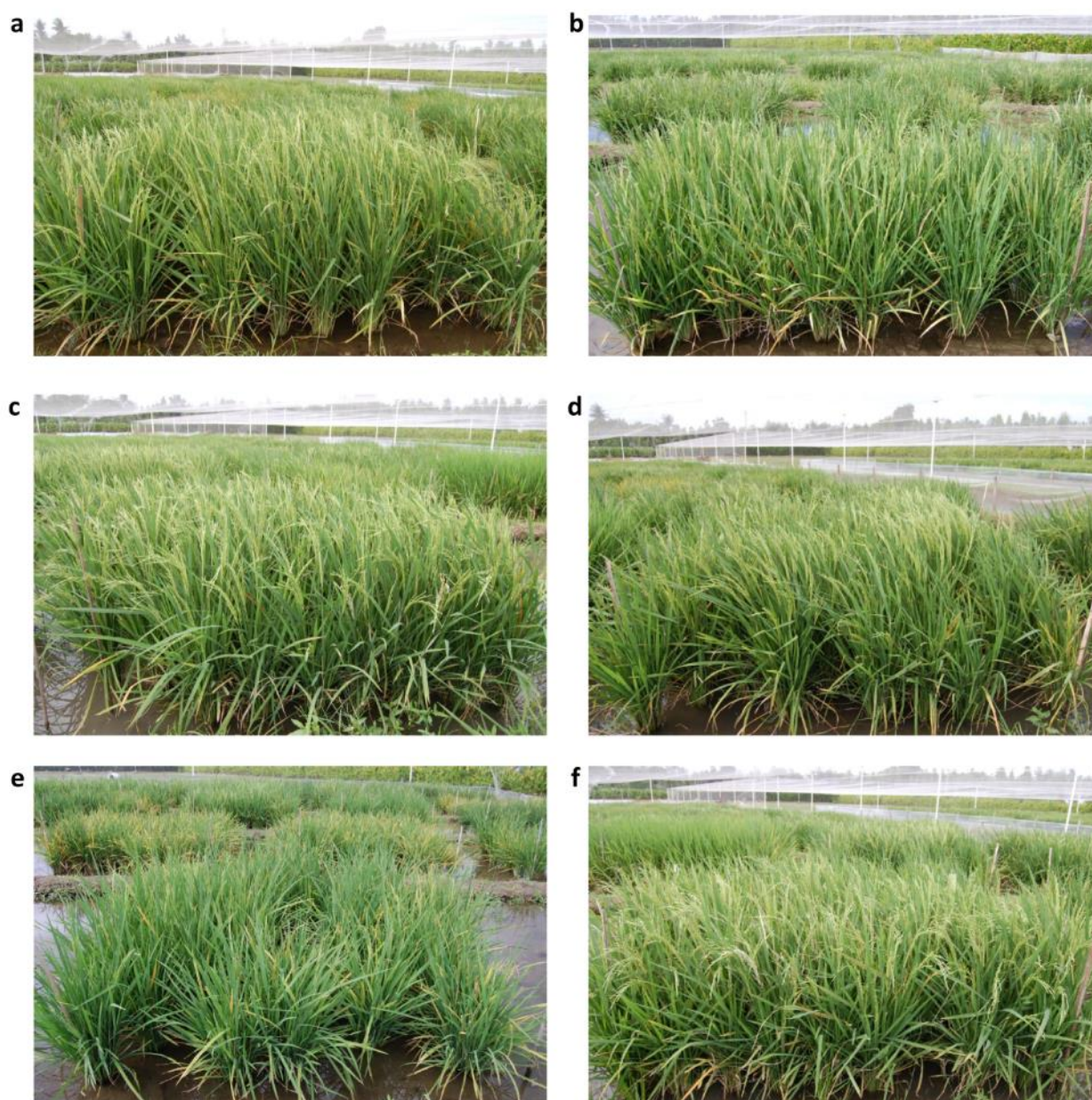


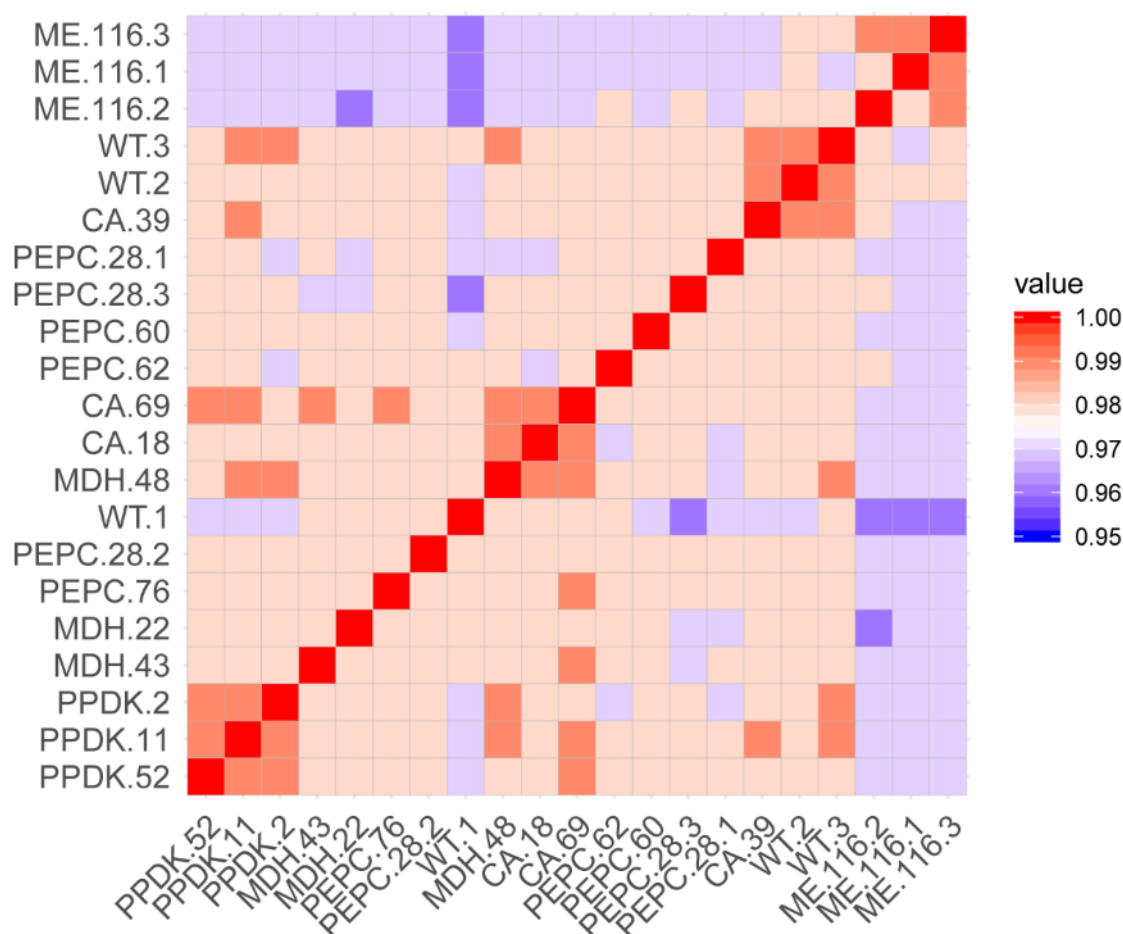
Figure S3. Localisation of overexpressed proteins. A & B) Rice leaf cross sections stained with anti-MDH antibody for A) an un-transformed wild type plant and B) a transgenic line overexpressing ZmMDH. C & D) Rice leaf cross sections stained with anti-ZmME antibody for C) an un-transformed wild-type plant and D) a transgenic line overexpression ZmME. Magnification: 200x. Scale bar: 20 μ m.

Supplemental Figure S4



Supplemental Figure S4. Representative images of the transgenic lines growing in field conditions at 80 days post germination. A) Wild type rice plants. B) Transgenic line CA-39. C) Transgenic line PEPC-76. D) Transgenic line MDH-48. E) Transgenic line ME-116. F) Transgenic line PPDK-52.

Supplemental Figure S5



677

Supplemental Figure S5. Correlation in genome-wide transcript abundance estimates between samples. Only genes that were detected as expressed in all samples were used in to inform the correlation plot. Relative mRNA abundance estimates (transcripts per million) were log transformed and used to calculate pairwise Pearson correlation coefficients. Correlation plot shows that mRNA abundance estimates in transgenic lines expressing ZmME are more similar to each other then they are to other samples, consistent with the larger number of differentially expressed genes identified in these lines. All other samples are broadly very similar, consistent with the lack of growth or photosynthesis phenotypes observed in these plants.

686

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