1 Ancient coding sequences underpin the spatial patterning of gene expression in C₄ leaves

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Abstract

Photosynthesis is compromised in most plants because an enzymatic side-reaction fixes O_2 instead of CO_2 . The energetic cost of oxygenation led to the evolution of C_4 photosynthesis. In almost all C_4 leaves compartmentation of photosynthesis between cells reduces oxygenation and so increases photosynthetic efficiency. Here we report that spatial expression of most C_4 genes is controlled by intragenic *cis*-elements rather than promoter sequence. Two DNA motifs that cooperatively specify the patterning of genes required for C_4 photosynthesis are identified. They are conserved in plants and algae that use the ancestral C_3 pathway. As these motifs are located in exons they represent duons determining both gene expression and amino acid sequence. Our findings provide functional evidence for the importance of transcription factors recognising coding sequence as previously defined by genome-wide binding studies. Furthermore, they indicate that C_4 evolution is based on ancient DNA motifs found in exonic sequence.

Introduction

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Photosynthesis allows atmospheric CO₂ to be fixed into organic molecules and therefore forms the basis of life on the planet. When plants moved onto land they inherited the photosynthetic system first developed by bacteria, in which the enzyme RuBisCO generates the three-carbon compound phosphoglyceric acid (PGA) (Anbar et al., 2007). As PGA contains three carbon atoms, this form of photosynthesis is known as the C₃ pathway. However, a side-reaction of RuBisCO fixes O₂ rather than CO₂, and this generates the toxic compound phosphoglycolate. Although plants use the photorespiratory pathway to remove phosphoglycolate, it is energetically expensive and some carbon is lost in the process (Bauwe et al., 2010). Around 30 million years ago, some plants evolved a photosynthetic system in which CO₂ is concentrated around the enzyme Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase Oxygenase (RuBisCO) such that oxygenation is minimised, and so photosynthetic efficiency increases by around 50% (Hatch and Slack 1966; Sage et al., 1999). These species now represent the most productive vegetation on the planet (Sage et al., 2004; Ray et al., 2012), and because they initially generate a C₄ acid in the photosynthetic process, are known as C₄ plants. The mechanism by which CO₂ supply to RuBisCO is increased in C₄ species depends on the spatial separation of photosynthetic reactions. Initial production of C4 acids takes place in one compartment, and then their re-release to concentrate CO₂ occurs in another. Although in some species this can take place within a single cell (Edwards et al., 2004), in the majority of C₄ plants, evolution has co-opted the existing compartmentation afforded by multi-cellularity to separate these carboxylation and decarboxylation reactions (Hatch and Slack 1966). The separation of photosynthesis between cells requires the co-ordinated regulation of numerous enzymes and transporters. For example, in mesophyll (M) cells, enzymes such as carbonic anhydrase, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase and malate dehydrogenase allow the production of C4 acids from HCO₃, whereas in the bundle sheath (BS), high activities of C₄ acid decarboxylases and RuBisCO allow efficient entry of carbon into the Calvin-Benson cycle (Furbank, 2011). The importance of each enzyme accumulating in the correct cell-type is considered critical for the

efficiency of the pathway, and so the spatial patterning of photosynthesis gene expression in C₄ plants has received significant attention. As with most other eukaryotic systems, although posttranscriptional and translational regulation are acknowledged (Hibberd and Covshoff 2010; Kajala et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016), most analysis has focussed on the importance of promoters in regulating gene expression in M or BS cells (Sheen, 1991; Viret et al., 1994; Taniquchi et al., 2000; Nomura et al., 2000; Kaush et al., 2001; Gowik et al., 2004; Akyildiz et al., 2007). Previously, we found that expression of multiple NAD-dependent MALIC ENZYME (NAD-ME) genes in the BS of C₄ Gynandropsis gynandra was dependent on sequences not found in promoter elements upstream of these genes, but rather in exonic sequence within the gene (Brown et al 2011). Whilst the exact cis-elements were not defined, orthologous genes from the C4 model Arabidopsis thaliana also contained the regulatory DNA necessary for preferential expression in BS cells of the C₄ leaf. Overall, these data implied that evolution has repeatedly made use of pre-existing regulatory DNA found within genic sequence to pattern gene expression in C₄ leaves. However, the specific sequences responsible for preferential expression in the BS were not defined, and so it was not clear if exactly the same cis-elements were used by each gene. Furthermore, without a definition of the motifs specifying expression in the BS contained within these NAD-ME genes, it was not possible to identify if they control expression of additional genes, nor to understand if these same elements are used in other species. To address this, we first identified the sequence motifs responsible for patterning these NAD-ME genes, and in doing so, show that they act as duons impacting both on patterns of gene expression as well as amino acid sequence of the encoded protein. We used these sequence motifs to predict and validate other genes that are also controlled by these elements, and also to investigate the likely origin of such regulation within land plants. We report both widespread use of, and ancient origins for, two cis-elements that act within coding sequence co-operatively to generate BS expression in C₄ leaves. We place these findings in the context of genome-wide studies reporting the widespread binding of transcription factors to genic sequence rather than promoter elements, as well as the polyphyletic evolution of the complex C₄ pathway.

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Two motifs within coding sequence act co-operatively to generate BS specificity

To better understand the mechanism responsible for generating preferential gene expression in BS cells analysis was focussed on a region of 240 nucleotides within the coding region of GgNAD-ME1. Although previous work showed this fragment confers BS accumulation of GUS in G. gynandra (Brown et al., 2011) it was unclear if this was due to recognition of the DNA or RNA sequence. To test if regulation was lost when a complementary mRNA was produced, an antisense construct for this 240 nucleotide sequence (Figure 1A) was placed under control of the constitutive CaMV35S promoter, and fused to *uidA* encoding the β-glucoronidase (GUS) reporter. Whereas the CaMV35S promoter alone lead to similar accumulation of GUS in M and BS cells (Figure 1B), microprojectile bombardment of the antisense construct maintained preferential accumulation in the BS (Figure 1B) indicating that DNA sequence is recognised by trans-acting factors and therefore that preferential accumulation in BS cells is regulated during transcription. To identify the specific nucleotides responsible for BS expression within this 240bp fragment a deletion series was generated by removing fragments from either the 5' or 3' end of GaNAD-ME1 (Figure 1A). Deletion of 24, and 78 nucleotides from the 3' end did not affect preferential accumulation in BS cells (Figure 1A-B), but removal of 90 nucleotides resulted in loss of cell specificity (Figure 1A-C). Similarly, deletion of the first 63 nucleotides from the 5' end did not abolish preferential accumulation of GUS in BS cells, but removing 78 nucleotides did (Figure 1A-C). A fragment incorporating bases 64 to 162 was sufficient to retain cell preferential accumulation in the BS both after microprojectile bombardment (Figure 1B), and after production of stable transformants (Figure 1C, S2). We conclude that one region composed of the nucleotides TTGGGTGAA (64 to 79 downstream of the translational start codon) and a second region made up of nucleotides GATCCTTG (141 to 162 nucleotides downstream of the translational start codon)

are necessary for preferential accumulation of GgNAD-ME1 in BS cells of C_4 G. gynandropsis.

These two regions will hereafter be referred to as Bundle Sheath Motif 1a (BSM1a) and Bundle

Sheath Motif Ib (BSM1b), and they are separated by 75 nucleotides.

To test if the sequence separating BSM1a and BSM1b is required for preferential expression in BS cells, it was replaced with exogenous sequence lacking homology to the native region of GgNADME1 (Figure 2A). The fragment that contained BSM1a and BSM1b separated by this exogenous sequence led to preferential accumulation of GUS in BS cells (Figure 2A, 2B). Although the exact sequence separating BSM1a and BSM1b does not impact on their function, the distance separating them could play an important role. The length of the spacer was therefore modified, and this indicated that BSM1a and BSM1b do not generate preferential accumulation in the BS cells when fused together directly, or when separated by 999 base pairs (Figure S3). However, when the intervening sequence was between 21 and 550 base pairs preferential accumulation in BS cells occurred (Figure S3). Site-directed mutagenesis of each motif showed that the first two nucleotides of BSM1a had no impact on preferential accumulation of GUS in the BS, but that substitution of the quanine at position 3 and thymine at position 6 abolished BS accumulation of GUS (Figure 2B). Similarly, three and five base pair substitutions in BSM1b resulted in a decrease of cell specificity (Figure 2B). Based on these results we propose that within the coding region of NAD-ME1, two separate sequences separated by a spacer are necessary and sufficient to generate strong expression in BS cells.

BSM1a and 1b specify the spatial patterning of additional genes

Although thousands of genes are differentially expressed between M and BS cells of C₄ plants, to our knowledge no DNA motifs that determine the patterning of more than one gene in BS cells have been identified. To test whether BSM1a and BSM1b operate more widely to generate preferential expression in BS cells, the coding sequences of other genes were scanned using FIMO (Grant et al., 2011). Sequences similar to BSM1a and BSM1b in genes annotated mitochondrial MALATE DEHYDROGENASE (mMDH) and GLYCOLATE OXIDASE 1 (GOX1) were identified. In both cases, fragments from mMDH and GOX containing the two motifs were sufficient to drive BS accumulation of GUS in G. gynandra (Figure 3A), and when they were deleted preferential accumulation in BS cells was lost (Figure 3A). The identification of BSM1a and BSM1b

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in these additional genes allowed consensus sequences to be defined (Figure 3B). These data imply that the DNA sequences defined by BSM1a and BSM1b form the basis of a regulon that operates through conserved *cis*-elements located in the exons of multiple genes to generate preferential expression in BS cells of C₄ leaves. Altogether these results suggest multiple gene families involved in C₄ photosynthesis and photorespiration have been recruited into the BS (Figure 3C) using a regulatory network based on these two motifs.

BSM1a and BSM1b are ancient and conserved within land plants

Using the sequences that define BSM1a and BSM1b (Figure 3B), and the minimum and maximum distance that can separate them, *NAD-ME* genes from *G. gynandra* and the closely related C₃ species *A. thaliana* were assessed. Similar sequences close to the predicted translational start site of *GgNAD-ME2*, *AtNAD-ME1* and *AtNAD-ME2* were identified (Figure 4A). BSM1a is located in the predicted mitochondrial transit peptide and its position varies relative to the translational start site. It is noteworthy that compared with *AtNAD-ME2* and *CgNAD-ME1* & 2, BSM1a is found on the opposite DNA strand in *AtNAD-ME1*, further supporting the notion that BS preferential expression is mediated by a transcription-based mechanism. BSM1b is located in the mature processed protein and its position appears invariant (Figure 4A). When either of these motifs was removed from *GgNAD-ME2*, *AtNAD-ME* or *AtNAD-ME2* preferential accumulation in BS cells was lost (Figure 4B). These data indicate that the consensus sequences defined by BSM1a and BSM1b from these eight genes (Figure 4C) are necessary and sufficient to generate BS expression in the C₄ leaf.

As BSM1a and BSM1b are present in *NAD-ME* genes of C_3 *A. thaliana*, we next investigated the extent to which these sequences are conserved across 1135 wild inbred *A. thaliana* accessions with genome sequence available. Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data were retrieved (1001 Genomes Consortium, 2016), and analysis showed an unexpectedly high level of conservation with no SNPs detected within either BSM1a or BSM1b (Figure 5A&B). This high level of conservation is consistent with both Motifs acting as "duons" in C_3 *A. thaliana* as well as C_4 *G*.

gynandra. To investigate whether these motifs are also found more widely in NAD-ME genes across the land plant phylogeny, NAD-ME gene sequences were retrieved from 44 species in Phytozome (v10.1, www.phytozome.org) and analysed for the presence of BSM1a and BSM1b (Figure S4). All dicotyledons contained at least one NAD-ME gene carrying the sequences that define BSM1a and BSM1b (Figure 5C). In the monocotyledons, BSM1a was completely conserved in rice, Brachypodium and Panicum. Although BSM1b showed one nucleotide substitution in all monocotyledenous genomes available it appears more ancient as it is conserved in spikemoss and moss (Figure 5C, S4). The hypothesis that BSM1b is more ancient is supported by the finding that a version with one nucleotide substitution was also found in the chlorophyte algae C. reinhardtii (Figure S4). It was also noticeable that both BSM1a and BSM1b are highly conserved in GOX1 and MDH genes in land plants, and that BSM1b appears more ancient as it is found in all GOX1 genes from all land plants and even in the chlorophyte algae. It is possible that BSM1a found in land plants is derived from the MDH genes of the algae, as it is observed in C. subellipsoidea and M. pusilla, two members of the chlorophyta. Comparing the sequence of BSM1a and BSM1b in NAD-ME, MDH and GOX1 indicates that BSM1b is less variant, but in both cases, their conservation implies an ancient role across the plant kingdom that likely is derived from the algal ancestor.

Widespread use of genic DNA for spatial patterning of gene expression

Although genome-wide analysis of transcription factor binding sites indicates a significant amount of binding occurs within genes, to out knowledge, there is little functional knowledge confirming the importance of such sites. Having functionally defined BSM1a and BSM1b as being important for patterning gene expression in the C_4 leaf, the extent to which other genes important for the C_4 pathway are regulated by sequences within the gene rather than the promoter was investigated. Based on *de novo* transcriptome assemblies, transcribed regions of twelve genes recruited into C_4 photosynthesis in *G. gynandra* were cloned, with 3' and 5' ends verified using 3'RACE and genome walking (Supplementary Files I and 2). The gene sequences were placed

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under control of the constitutive CaMV35S promoter, and fused to *uidA* encoding the β-glucoronidase (GUS) reporter. Combined with publically available datasets for *PPDK* and *CA* (Kajala et al 2011, Williams et al., 2016) this approach showed that preferential expression of genes encoding C₄ proteins in either M or BS cells is commonly driven by elements within their coding sequences (Figure 6). *CA2, CA4, PPCk1* and *PPDK* gene sequence without their endogenous promoters all led to preferential accumulation of GUS in M cells, whereas *MDH1, NAD-ME1* and *NAD-ME2* caused preferential accumulation of GUS in the BS. *Rubisco Activase* (*RCA*) coding sequence drove a small but significant increase in the number of BS accumulating GUS (Figure 6A) (p-value <0.05, CI 95%). These data indicate that regulatory elements within genic sequence impact on cell preferential expression in the majority of genes recruited into the core C₄ pathway.

In some cases, cell-preferential expression of C₄ genes has evolved from regulatory elements found in ancestral C₃ species (Kajala, et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2011, Williams et al., 2013). To investigate the extent to which genic sequence from ancestral C₃ species contain regulatory elements sufficient for expression in either M or BS cells, orthologues to each of the C₄ genes were

found in ancestral C_3 species (Kajala, et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2011, Williams et al., 2013). To investigate the extent to which genic sequence from ancestral C_3 species contain regulatory elements sufficient for expression in either M or BS cells, orthologues to each of the C_4 genes were cloned from *A. thaliana*, placed under the same reporter system and tested by microprojectile bombardment. This showed that with the exception of AtPPCk1, the orthologous genes from C_3 *A. thaliana* contained regulatory elements in coding sequence that can specify spatial patterning of gene expression in the C_4 leaf of *G. gynandra* (Figure 6). Overall, these data indicate that spatial patterning of gene expression in the C_4 leaf is largely derived from regulatory elements present in coding sequences of genes found in the ancestral C_3 state. In the case of those defined at the nucleotide level in *NAD-ME1*, *NAD-ME2*, *MDH* and *GOX1*, these elements appear highly conserved and therefore ancient within land plants.

Discussion

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The data presented here, combined with previous reports (Brown et al. 2011; Kajala et al. 2011; Williams et al. 2016) portray an overview of the contribution that untranslated regions (UTRs) and coding sequences make to the generation of cell-specific gene expression in leaves of C4 G. gynandropsis. Eight of the eleven core C4 cycle genes possess regulatory elements in their transcript sequences that are sufficient for preferential accumulation in either M or BS cells of the C₄ leaf. These data strongly imply that, in addition to promoters being involved in generating cellspecificity in C₄ leaves (Gowik et al., 2004; Sheen, 1999), coding sequences and UTRs play a widespread role in the preferential accumulation of C₄ transcripts to either M or BS cells. It remains to be seen whether this high degree of regulation from genic sequence is a common phenomenon in C₄ leaves of species other than G. gynandropsis, or whether it is critical for the spatial control of gene expression in other tissues and other species. However, as genome-wide studies of transcription factor recognition sites in organisms as diverse as A. thaliana and human cells (Stergachis et al., 2013; Sullivan et al., 2014) have reported significant binding occurs in genic sequence, we anticipate many more examples of spatial regulation of gene expression being associated with *cis*-elements outside of promoter sequences. The accumulation of GgNADME1, GgNADME2, mMDH and GOX1 transcripts in BS cells is dependent on the co-operative function of two cis-elements that are separated by a spacer sequence, all of which are located in the first exon of these genes. These motifs are conserved both in their sequences, but also in the number of nucleotides that separates them. In orthologous NAD-ME genes from C₃ A. thaliana, which diverged from the Cleomaceae ~38 million years ago (Schranz and Mitchell-Olds, 2006; Couvreur et al., 2010), although these motifs are present, they are not sufficient to generate cell preferential expression in the C₃ leaf (Brown et al. 2011). This finding indicates that for NAD-ME genes to be preferentially expressed in BS cells of C4 plants, a change in the behaviour of one or more trans-factors was a fundamental event. At least in G. gynandropsis, evolution appears to have repeatedly made use of cis-elements that exist in genes of C₃ species that are orthologous to those recruited into C₄ photosynthesis (Brown et al., 2011;

Kajala et al., 2012; Williams, Burgess et al., 2016). The alteration in *trans*-factors such that they recognise ancestral elements in *cis* in the M or BS therefore appears to be an important and common mechanism associated with evolution of the highly complex C₄ system.

BSM1a and BSM1b, which we defined first in the *GgNAD-ME1* gene, are also present and operational in the *GgNAD-ME2*, *GgMDH1* and *GgGOX1* genes. If, as seems likely, these motifs are recognised by the same *trans*-factors to generate preferential expression of all of these genes in the C₄ BS, this finding also identifies a mini-regulon that during evolution could have recruited at least four genes simultaneously into specialised roles in the BS. By combining Flux Balance Analysis constrained by a model of carbon fixation, it has previously been proposed that upregulation and preferential expression of multiple genes of the C₄ cycle would be required to balance nitrogen metabolism between M and BS cells (Mallmann et al., 2014). The presence of BSM1a and BSM1b in at least four genes from *G. gynandropsis* provides a mechanism that may have facilitated this patterning of multiple genes during the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis.

The dual role of exons in protein coding as well as the regulation of gene expression has received significant attention in vertebrates (Lang et al., 2005; Nguyen et al., 2007; Goren et al., 2006; Tumpel et al., 2008; Dong et al., 2010, Stergachis et al., 2013). Although, 11% of transcription factor binding sites are located in exonic sequence in *A. thaliana* (Sullivan et al., 2014), to our knowledge, the identification of BSM1a and BSM1b represents the first functional evidence for *cis*-elements in plant exons. The fact that these motifs are present in C₃ *A. thaliana*, and in fact, also found in the genomes of many land plants and some chlorophyte algae, indicates that these duons play ancient and conserved roles in photosynthetic organisms. The role of such regulatory elements within coding sequences has previously been proposed to be associated with constraints on both protein coding function and codon bias. For example, mutation to these *cis*-elements could be deleterious to both the correct function of the protein, but also to codon usage and so translational efficiency (Robinson et al., 1984; Tuller et al., 2010; Nakahigashi et al., 2014). If this is the case, BSM1a and BSM1b could be highly conserved across deep phylogeny because of strong positive selection pressure on these elements due to impact on translation, and this

conservation is then co-opted to also regulate transcription during the evolution of C_4 photosynthesis to generate cell-specific gene expression. Establishing the role of BSM1a and BSM1b in C_3 plants would provide insight into the extent to which their role has altered during the transition from C_3 to C_4 photosynthesis.

Duons under strong selection pressure may represent a rich resource of cis-elements upon which the C₄ pathway has evolved. Although C₄ photosynthesis is a complex trait that requires multiple changes to gene expression, the repeated recurrence of C₄ species across multiple plant lineages suggests that a relatively low number of changes may be required to acquire the C4 syndrome (Sinha & Kellogg, 1996; Hibberd et al., 2008; Westhoff & Gowik, 2010). A single C₄ master switch has been proposed (Westhoff & Gowik, 2010) but despite multiple comparative transcriptomic studies (Brautigam et al., 2011; Aubry et al., 2014; Kulahoglu et al., 2014), there is as yet no evidence for it. Given the repeated and highly convergent evolution of the C₄ pathway, as well as evidence that separate lineages can arrive at the C₄ state via different routes (Williams et al., 2013), it appears more plausible that C₄ photosynthesis made use of a number of gene subnetworks. This is now supported by a number of findings. First, just as core photosynthesis genes encoding the light harvesting complexes and Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle are regulated by light, the vast majority of genes that encode proteins of the C₄ cycle in C₃ A. thaliana are also regulated by light signalling, yet, during the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis there was a significant gain of responsiveness to chloroplast signalling (Burgess et al., 2016). Second, it has been suggested that evolution of the C₄ pathway is associated with the recruitment of developmental motifs into leaves that in C₃ species operate in roots (Kulahoglu et al., 2014). Lastly, the identification of the ciselement MEM2 (Williams, Burgess et al., 2016), which controls preferential expression of multiple genes in C₄ M cells, and now BSM1a and BSM1b in four different genes that are strongly expressed in BS cells, indicates that that C4 evolution has made use of small-scale recruitment of gene sub-networks in both cell-types.

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Methods

Growth of plant material and production of reporter constructs

Sterile *G. gynandra* seed was sown directly from intact pods and germinated on moist filter papers in the dark at 30°C for 24 h. Seedlings were then transferred to Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium with 1% (w/v) sucrose and 0.8% (w/v) agar (pH 5.8) and grown for a further 13 days in a growth room at 22°C and 200 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ photon flux density (PFD) with a photoperiod of 16 h light.

G. gynandropsis mRNA sequences were predicted from a *de novo* assembled transcriptome and UTRs were verified by 3' RACE (Supplementary File I) and genome walking (Supplementary File 2). *A. thaliana* cDNA sequences were extracted from Phytozome v10.1. Reporter constructs were generated by ligation of the fragment of interest with a modified reporter cassette containing the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus 35S promoter (pCaMV35S), 13 bp of its 5'UTR, the *uidA* gene (encoding GUS), and the *nosT* terminator sequence (Brown et al., 2011). Vectors were assembled in this cassette using Gibson assembly (Gibson et al., 2009) (Supplementary Table I). Site-directed mutagenesis was performed using the Quickchange method.

Microprojectile bombardment and production of stable transformants

350 ng M-17 tungsten particles (1.1- μ m diameter; Bio-Rad) were washed with 100% (v/v) ethanol and resuspended in ultrapure water. 1.5 μ g of plasmid DNA was mixed with the tungsten particles while vortexing at slow speed. After addition of the DNA, 50 μ L 2.5 M calcium chloride (Fisher Scientific) and 10 μ L 100 mM spermidine (Sigma-Aldrich) were added to the particle suspension to facilitate binding of DNA to the particles. The tungsten-DNA suspension was incubated for 10 min on ice, with frequent agitation to prevent pelleting. Particles were then washed and resuspended in 100 μ L 100% (v/v) ethanol. 10 μ L aliquots of tungsten-DNA were transferred to plastic macrocarriers (Bio-Rad) and allowed to dry for 3 minutes at room temperature. Three macrocarriers were used for each transformation. Following bombardment with a Bio-Rad PDS-1000/He particle delivery system, seedlings were placed upright in a sealed Petri

dish, with the base of their stems immersed in 0.5x MS medium and incubated in a growth room at 22°C and 150 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PFD with a photoperiod of 16 h light for 48 h, prior to GUS staining. Stable plant transformation was performed by introducing constructs into *G.gynandra* via *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* LBA4404 as described previously (Newell et al., 2009). Plant tissue, after bombardment or stable transformation, was GUS stained (0.1 M Na₂HPO₄ pH7.0, 0.5 mM K ferricyanide, 0.5 mM K ferrocyanide, 0.06% v/v Triton X-100, 10 mM Na₂EDTA pH8.0, 1mM X-gluc) at 37°C for 6-16 h and then fixed in a 3:1 solution of ethanol to acetic acid at room temperature for 30 min. Chlorophyll was cleared with 70% (v/v) ethanol and tissue treated with 5% (w/v) NaOH at 37°C for 2 h. M and BS cells containing GUS were identified and counted using phase-contrast microscopy. At least 50 cells were counted per construct in each experiment, and for each construct, three independent experiments were conducted (Supplementary Table II).

cis-Element prediction and localization

De novo motif prediction was performed using the Multiple Em for Motif Elucidation (MEME) suite v.4.8.1 with the following parameters: meme sequences.fa -dna -oc. -nostatus -time 18000 - maxsize 60000 -mod oops -nmotifs 3 -minw 7 -maxw 9 -revcomp. To scan for motif instances across various datasets FIMO was used with the following parameters: fimo --oc . --verbosity 1 -- thresh 0.1 motifs.meme sequences.fa. Only hits located within the first 550 bp, allowing a spacing between the motifs of 35 to 550 bp were accepted.

Figure legends Figure S1: Transformation of G. gynandra M and BS cells by microprojectile bombardment. Leaves of G. gynandra arranged concentrically prior to bombardment (A). Representative GUS stained G. gynandra leaf transformed with pCaMV35s:GgNAD-ME1(25-240bp)::gfp/uidA::nosT (B). Mesophyll cells (C) and Bundle Sheath cells (D, black arrows) stained with GUS after bombardment. Scale bars represent 100 µm. Figure S2: Pixel intensity of stable transgenic lines. Pixel intensities across regions of the leaf containing mesophyll and bundle sheath. Data are derived from GUS stained leaves from three independent transgenic lines. Data are presented as histograms for whole datasets and dots that represent single measurements. At least 20 measurements were made per transgenic line. Figure S3: Topological requirements for BSM1a and BSM1b function. Summary of the constructs used in this experiment. BSM1a and BSM1b were separated by 0, 21, 240, 347, 413, 550 and 999 base pairs derived from the gene encoding Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) (A). Percentage of cells containing GUS after microprojectile bombardment of G. gynandra leaves. Bars represent the percentage of stained cells in Bundle Sheath (BS - blue) and mesophyll (M grey) cells. Error bars denote the standard error of the mean. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test. Figure S4: Location of BSM1a and BSM1b across the land plant phylogeny. BSM1a and BSM1b in NAD-ME, mMDH and GOX1 coding sequences retrieved from 44 species in Phytozome (v10.1). Green dots represent identical versions of the motifs while yellow and orange dots denote alternative versions with one or two substitutions respectively.

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Figure 1: Two regions within the coding sequence of *GgNAD-ME1* are necessary for preferential gene expression in the bundle sheath. An antisense construct, as well as a deletion series from the 5' and 3' ends of *GgNAD-ME1*_(1-240 bp) coding sequence were translationally fused to the *uidA* reporter under the control of the CaMV 35S promoter (A). Percentage of cells containing GUS after microprojectile bombardment of *G. gynandra* leaves. Bars represent the percentage of stained cells in BS (blue) and M (grey) cells, error bars denote the standard error. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test (B). GUS in *G. gynandra* transformants containing uidA fused to 1-240, 1-141, 79-240 and 64-162 bp from the translation starting site of *GgNAD-ME1* (C). Scale bars, 100 μm.

Figure 2: Two *cis*-elements that are sufficient for preferential accumulation of GUS in the bundle sheath. Non-mutated and mutated versions of BSM1a and BSM1b flanked by 75 nucleotides derived from GFP were translationally fused to *uidA* encoding GUS and placed under control of the CaMV35S promoter (A). The percentage of cells containing GUS after microprojectile bombardment of *G. gynandra* leaves (B). Error bars denote the standard error. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test.

Figure 3: BSM1a and BSM1b drive the expression of additional genes in C_4 and photorespiration pathways. Sequences similar to BSM1a and BSM1b were predicted to be present in coding sequences of mMDH and GOX1 genes of G. gynandra. Deleting the motifs resulted in the loss of preferential accumulation of GUS in the BS (A). A consensus sequence for both motifs was defined based on NAD-ME1, mMDH and GOX1 versions of the motifs (B). BSM1a and BSM1b coordinate BS gene expression of multiple gene families (highlighted in red) relevant to C_4 photosynthesis and photorespiration (C). Error bars denote the standard error. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test.

Figure 4: Functional versions of BSM1a and BSM1b are present in additional *NAD-MEs*. BSM1a and BSM1b are found in *GgNAD-ME2* and in orthologs of *GgNAD-ME1&2* from the C₃ species *A. thaliana* (**A**). Translational fusions carrying these fragments confer BS preferential expression in *G. gynandra* leaves. When BSM1a or BSM1b were removed this pattern of GUS was lost (**B**). A consensus sequence generated from all versions of BSM1a and BSM1b tested experimentally (**C**). Error bars denote the standard error. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test.

Figure 5: BSM1a and BSM1b are highly conserved in land plants. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in *AtNAD-ME1* (A) and *AtNAD-ME2* (B) genes from 1135 wild inbred *A. thaliana* accessions. On the left, the position of BSM1a and BSM1b are highlighted by dashed blue lines, UTRs, exons and introns are denoted by black, grey and white bars respectively on the X-axis. To the right an expanded area representing exon 1, intron 1 and exon 2 is shown, with BSM1a and BSM1b marked within the blue dashed lines. For both genes, no SNP were detected in either motif. The presence of each motifs was investigated in gene sequences of *NAD-ME1*, *mMDH* and *GOX1* retrieved from 44 species in Phytozome (v10.1). Each Pie-chart shows the percentage of motif instances that were identical (green), or had 1 base pair (yellow), 2 base pair (orange) substitutions or no similarity (white) detected.

Figure 6: Pre-existing intragenic regulatory sequences play a major role controlling C₄ **photosynthesis genes.** Coding sequences encoding for core proteins of the C₄ pathway from *G. gynandra* together with orthologs from *A. thaliana* were translationally fused to *uidA* and placed under control of the CaMV35S promoter. After introduction into *G. gynandra* leaves by microprojectile bombardment mesophyll preferential expression of *CA2, CA4, PPDK* and *PPCk*, together with Bundle Sheath preferential expression of *mMDH, NAD-ME1* and *NAD-ME2* were observed (**A**). With the exception of *PPCk* these regulatory elements are conserved in orthogues

from A. thaliana (B). The contribution of intragenic sequences controlling gene regulation of the C4 pathway is summarized in (C), CA2, CA4, PPDK and PPCk (blue) and mMDH, NAD-ME1&2 (red) denote genes where intragenic sequences control cell preferential gene expression. Error bars denote the standard error. * represents statistically significant differences with P-values <0.05 and CI = 95% determined by a one-tailed t test. Supplementary File 1: FASTA sequences from Rapid Amplification of cDNA ends used to verify 3' UTR sequences of C₄ genes from G. gynandra. Supplementary File 2: FASTA sequences from Genome Walking experiments used to verify 5' ends of C₄ gene sequences from G. gynandra. Supplementary Table I: Primer sequences used in generation of constructs, 3' RACE experiments and Genome Walking. **Supplementary Table II:** Total cell counts for the microprojectile bombardment experiments. **Competing Interests** The authors have no competing interests.

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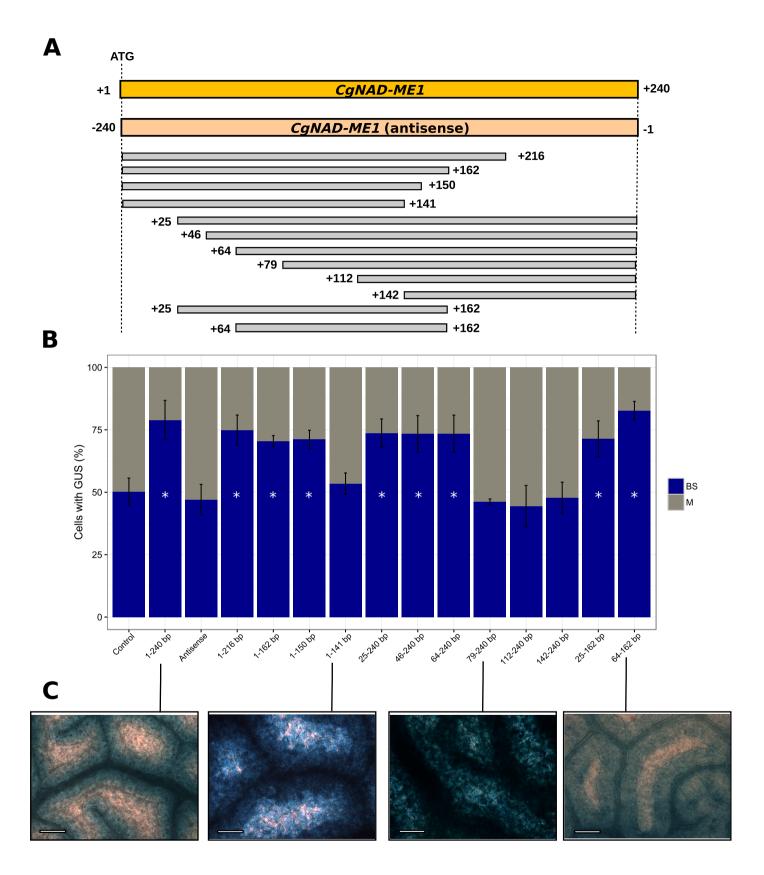


Figure 1

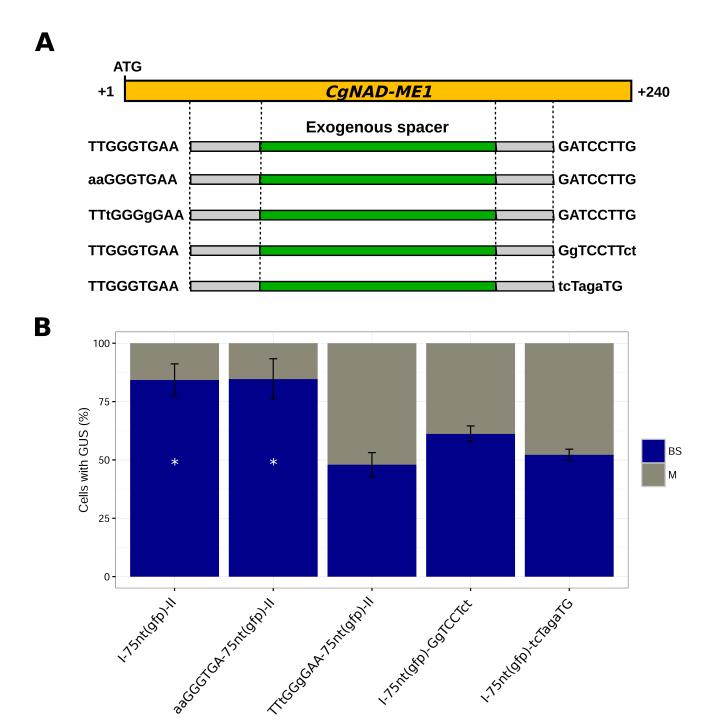
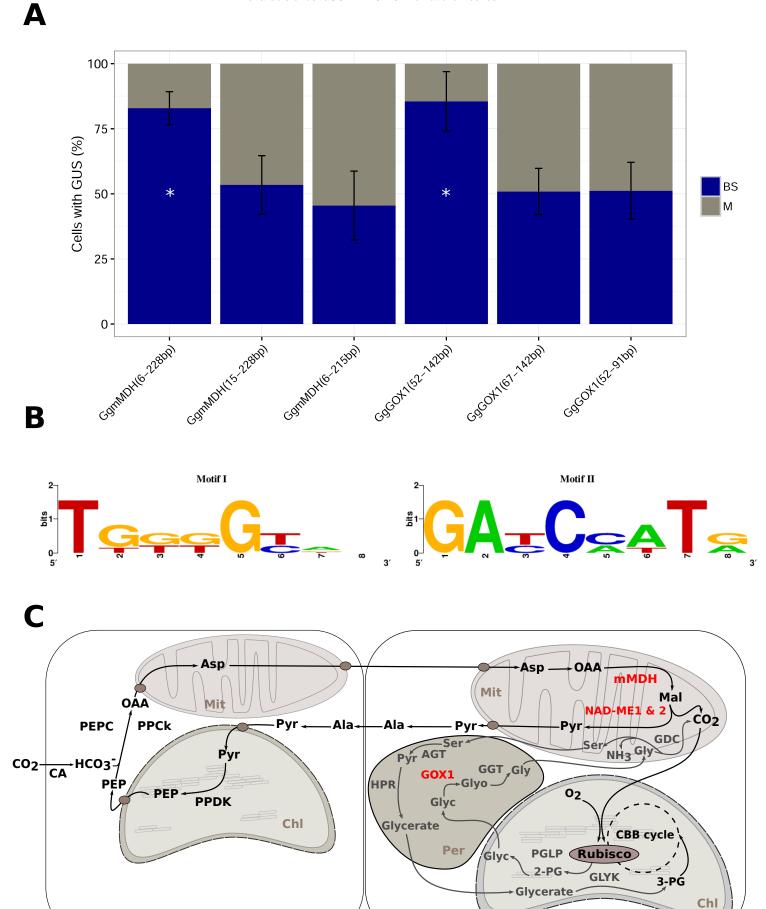


Figure 2



BS

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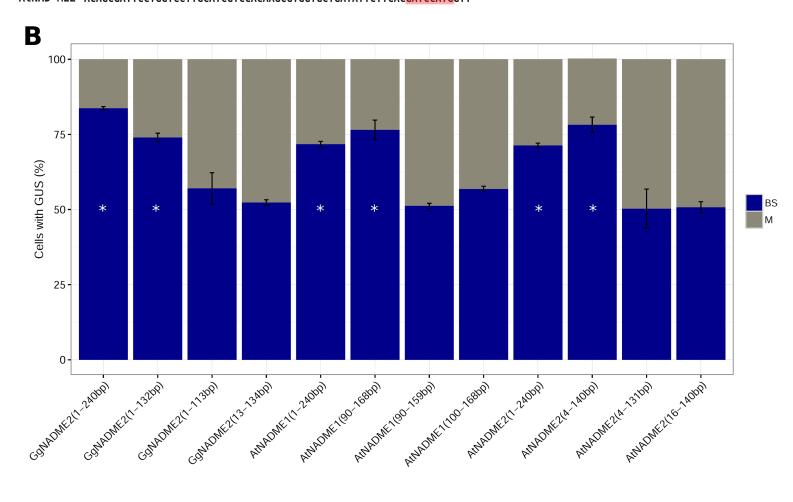
Figure 3

Α

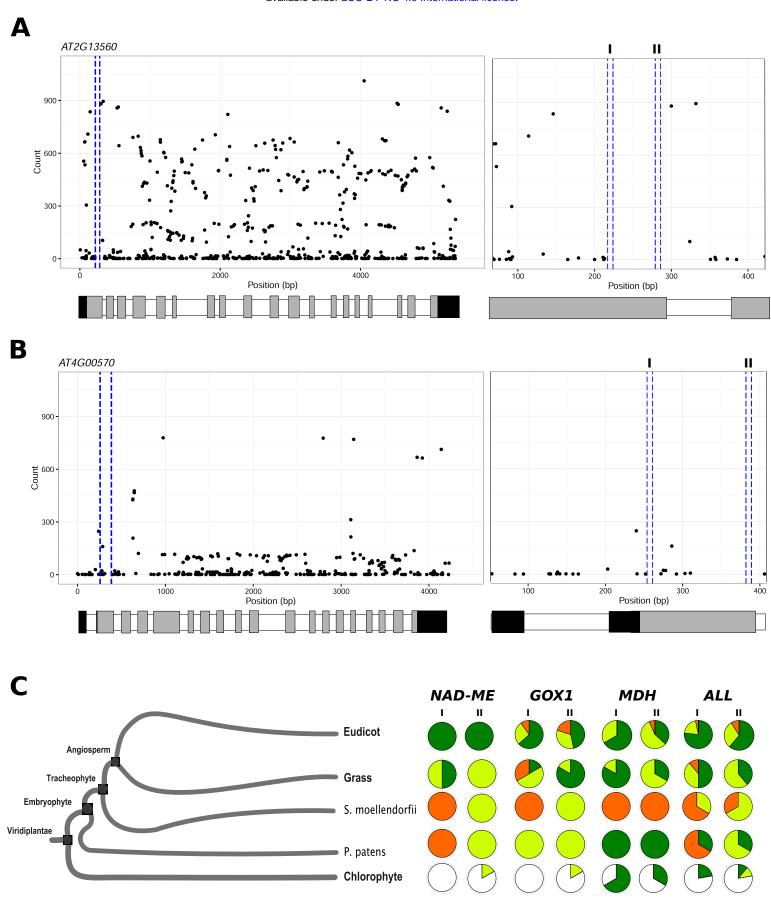
Motif I

Motif II

GgNAD-ME1 ACGGAGGGCCACCGTCCCACCATTGTCCACAAGCGAAGCCTCAACATCCTTCACGATCCTTGGTT
AtNAD-ME1 TCGGAAGGTCACCGTCCCACCATCGTTCATAAACAAGGTCTCGATATCCTCCATGATCCTTGGTT
GgNAD-ME2 ACGGCAATCCCTGGGCCATGCATCGTCCACAAG-GTGGCGCTAGTCTTATTCATGATCCCTGGTT
AtNAD-ME2 ACAGCGATTCCTGGTCCTTGCATCGTCCACAAGCGTGGTGCTGATATTCTTCACGATCCATGGTT



C		Motif I	Motif II	Motif I
	GgNAD-ME1 AtNAD-ME1 GgNAD-ME2	TTGGGTGA TGTGGTGA TGTGGAAG	GATCCTTG GATCCTTG GATCCCTG	
	AtNAD-ME2 GgGOX1	TGTGGAAG TGGTGTAT	GATCCATG GACCAATG	Motif II
	AtGOX1 GgmMDH1 AtmMDH1	TGGTGTAC TGTGGCTG TGTGGCAG	GACCAATG GATCCATA GATCCATA	

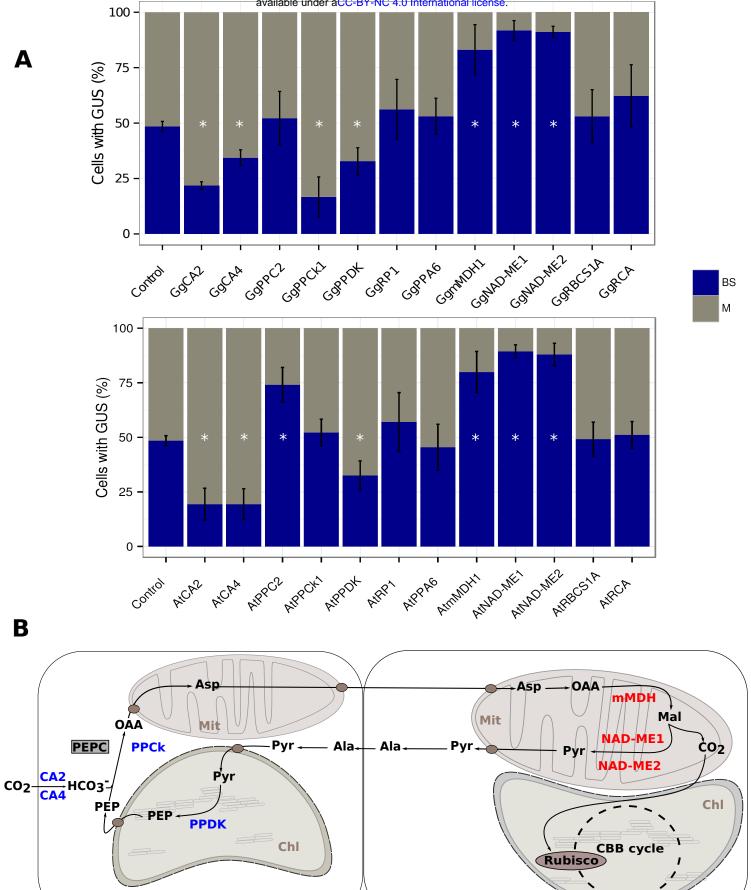


• 1 bp substitution

Identical

Not found

2 bp substitution



BS

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Figure 6

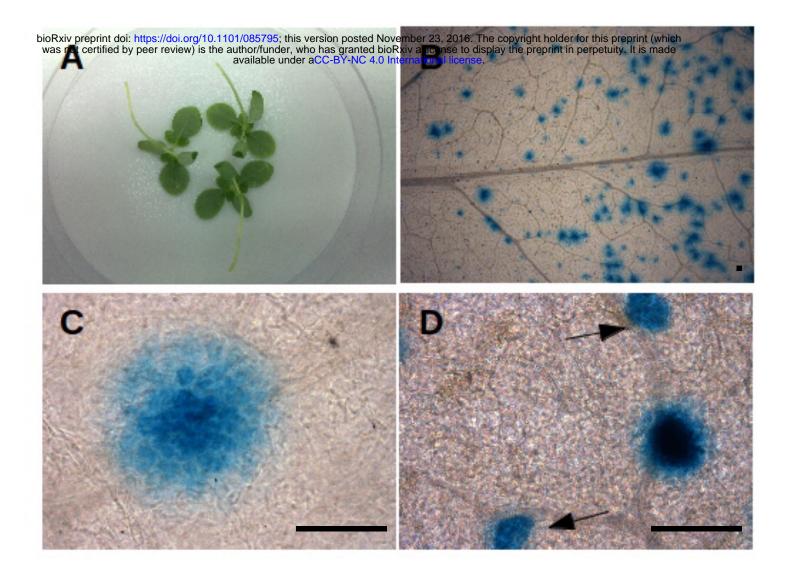
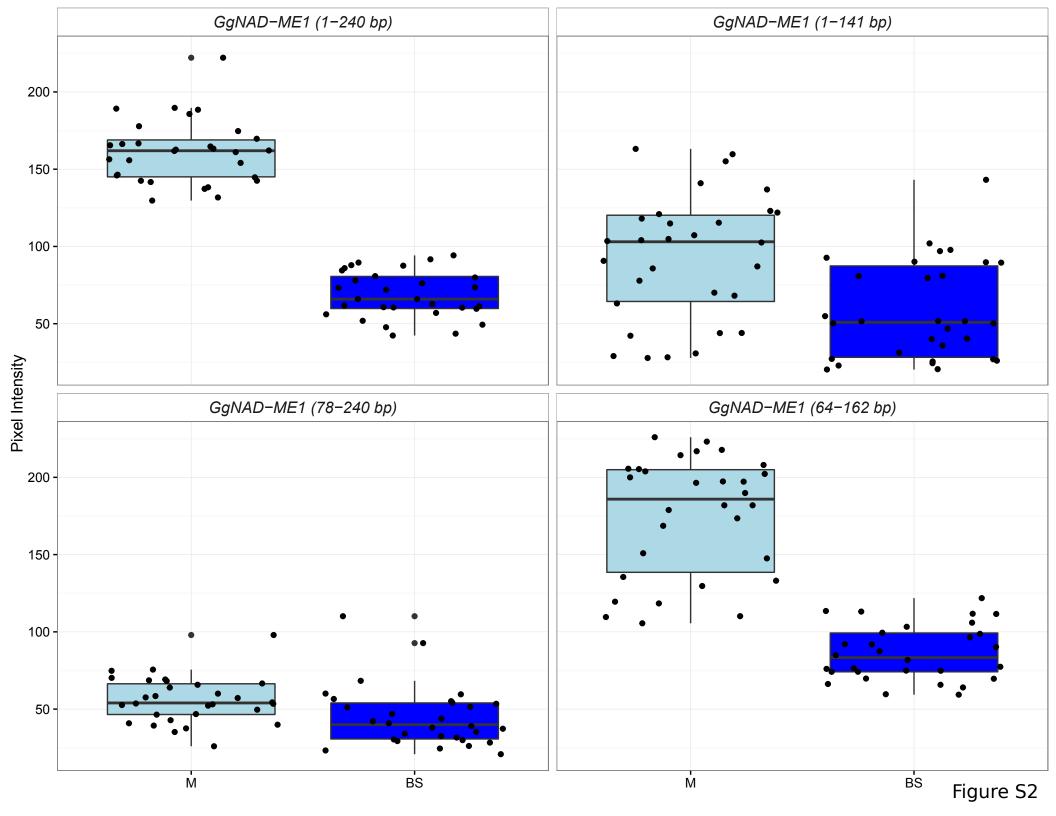


Figure S1



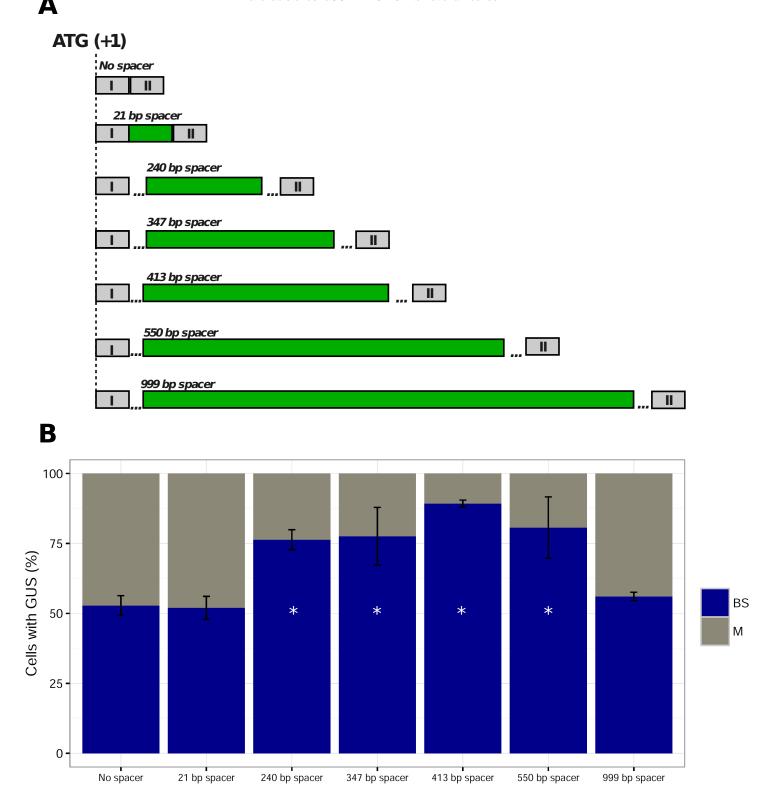


Figure S3

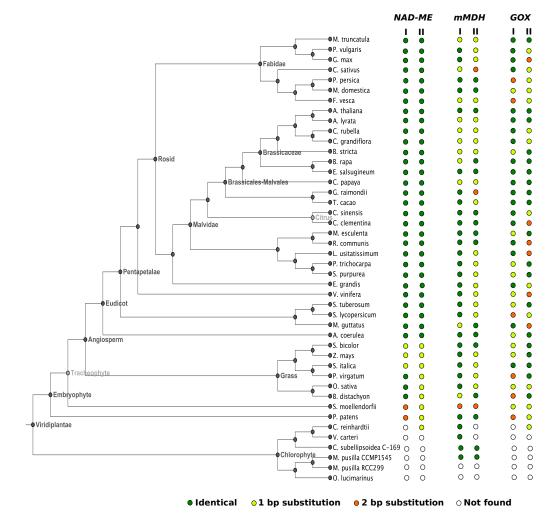


Figure S4