Functional analysis of the promoter of the glycine decarboxylase PA gene (GLDPA) of Flaveria trinervia (C₄)

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(Christian Wiludda)
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## Abbreviations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Adenine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>A. thaliana</em></td>
<td><em>Arabidopsis thaliana</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bp</td>
<td>Base pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BREd</td>
<td>Downstream transcription factor IIB recognition element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BREu</td>
<td>Upstream transcription factor IIB recognition element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>°C</td>
<td>Degree Celsius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1, C3, C4</td>
<td>One-, three-, four-carbon molecule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13C</td>
<td>Carbon-13, stable isotope of carbon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Cytosine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Carbonic anhydrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO2</td>
<td>Carbon dioxide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNA</td>
<td>Deoxyribonucleic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPE</td>
<td>Downstream promoter element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>F.</em></td>
<td><em>Flaveria</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ft</td>
<td><em>Flaveria trinervia</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Guanine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDC</td>
<td>Glycine decarboxylase complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA</td>
<td>Glycine decarboxylase PA gene of <em>Flaveria trinervia</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GUS</td>
<td>β-glucuronidase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>Hour(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCO3⁻</td>
<td>Bicarbonate (hydrogen carbonate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inr</td>
<td>Initiator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kb</td>
<td>Kilobases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N2</td>
<td>Molecular nitrogen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAD</td>
<td>Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NADP</td>
<td>Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH3</td>
<td>Ammonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDH</td>
<td>Malate dehydrogenase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME</td>
<td>Malic enzyme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEM1</td>
<td>Mesophyll expression module 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mRNA</td>
<td>Messenger ribonucleic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMD</td>
<td>Nonsense-mediated mRNA decay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>Nucleotides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>Molecular oxygen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAA</td>
<td>Oxaloacetate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORF</td>
<td>Open reading frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEP</td>
<td>Phosphoenolpyruvate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEPC</td>
<td>Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEPCK</td>
<td>Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PGA</td>
<td>3-Phosphoglycerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PG</td>
<td>2-Phosphoglycolate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPDK</td>
<td>Pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P&lt;sub&gt;R2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Distal promoter (defined by region 2 of the GLDPA promoter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P&lt;sub&gt;R7&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Proximal promoter (defined by region 7 of the GLDPA promoter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Purine (adenine or guanine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5' RACE</td>
<td>Rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RNA</td>
<td>Ribonucleic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubisco</td>
<td>Ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RuBP</td>
<td>Ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHMT</td>
<td>Hydroxymethyltransferase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Thymine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBP</td>
<td>TATA box-binding protein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-DNA</td>
<td>Transfer DNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFII</td>
<td>Transcription factor for RNA polymerase II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF</td>
<td>Transcription factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSS</td>
<td>Transcription start site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uORF</td>
<td>Upstream open reading frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5' UTR</td>
<td>5' Untranslated region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Pyrimidine (cytosine or thymine)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I. Introduction

1. The biochemistry of $C_4$ photosynthesis

1.1 The ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase – a bifunctional enzyme

Terrestrial plants can convert atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO$_2$) into organic compounds with the energy of the sun by three different pathways. The most common one is represented by $C_3$ photosynthesis from which $C_4$ photosynthesis and the crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) are derived (West-Eberhard et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011).

The $C_3$ pathway represents the single largest flux of organic carbon in the majority of photosynthetic organisms leading to the assimilation of about 100 billion tons of carbon annually, which corresponds to 15% of the atmospheric carbon (Raines, 2011). About 85% of all plant species assimilate CO$_2$ by $C_3$ photosynthesis, including agronomically relevant crops such as wheat and rice (Ehleringer et al., 1991; Kutschera and Niklas, 2007; Bauwe et al., 2010). In $C_3$ plants, CO$_2$ is fixed by ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco). Rubisco catalyzes the carboxylation of RuBP, resulting in the generation of two molecules of 3-phosphoglycerate (3PGA) as the first stable products of this cycle. As 3PGA contains three carbon atoms, plants using Rubisco as initial enzyme for CO$_2$ fixation are referred to as $C_3$ plants and the photosynthetic pathway they utilize is termed $C_3$ photosynthesis (Hibberd and Covshoff, 2010; Raines, 2011). 3PGA then enters the Calvin cycle resulting in the production of triose phosphates while RuBP is regenerated to serve as substrate for Rubisco again (Ogren, 1984). For the plant all carbon compounds formed in this cycle such as starch or sucrose are essential for development and growth (Raines and Paul, 2006; Smith and Stitt, 2007).

However, Rubisco is a bifunctional enzyme that can also bind oxygen (O$_2$) and fix it into RuBP. This initiates a process which is termed photorespiration and generates – apart from 3PGA – 2-phosphoglycolate (2PG), a toxic compound for plants (Bowes et al., 1971; Tolbert, 1971; Leegood et al., 1995). The energy-consuming recycling of 2PG to 3PGA during photorespiratory processes leads to the loss of 25%–30% of CO$_2$ already fixed. This reduces $C_3$ plant net-photosynthesis by about 20% under moderate conditions and can even have a stronger impact under certain conditions such as high temperature (Cegelski and Schaefer, 2006; Bauwe et al., 2010; Raines, 2011). As the ratio of soluble CO$_2$ and O$_2$ decreases with increasing temperature, Rubisco’s oxygenase activity is favored at leaf temperatures over 20–25 °C (Ehleringer and Björkman, 1977; Ehleringer and Pearcy, 1983).
The wasteful photorespiratory effects can be counteracted by increasing CO₂ or reducing O₂, each resulting in both raised maximum photosynthetic rate and photosynthetic efficiency at limiting light (Hatch, 1987). Even though Rubisco has a higher specificity for CO₂, the present atmospheric conditions (0.035% CO₂, 21% O₂ and 78% N₂) lead to approximately 1000-fold higher O₂ concentrations compared to CO₂ in the chloroplasts of C₃ plants. This favors the fixation of O₂ by Rubisco and thereby photorespiratory processes particularly at elevated temperature (Ehleringer and Monson, 1993; Andersson, 2008; Foyer et al., 2009). Rubisco’s oxygenase activity which is referred to as “Rubisco penalty” by Edwards et al. (2001b) and its low turnover rate for CO₂ fixation result in the production of large amounts of this enzyme in the plant to compensate its inefficiency. Thus, Rubisco represents the single most abundant soluble protein on earth (Edwards et al., 2004) and accounts for about 25% of nitrogen and 50% of soluble protein in C₃ leaves (Ellis, 1979; Portis and Parry, 2007).

1.2 The CO₂-concentrating mechanism of C₄ plants suppresses photorespiration

In contrast to C₃ species, C₄ plants have succeeded in overcoming the Rubisco penalty. C₄ photosynthesis represents a mechanism to concentrate CO₂ at the site of Rubisco, resulting in an increase in photosynthetic efficiency by suppressing photorespiration (Sage, 2004). The establishment of such a biochemical CO₂ pump is based on the division of labor between two distinct photosynthetically active leaf tissues, the mesophyll and the bundle-sheath (Figure 1). The bundle-sheath cells form a ring around the vascular bundles and are surrounded by the mesophyll cells. This C₄-characteristic leaf anatomy is therefore referred to as Kranz-type anatomy first described by Haberlandt (1881) (Hattersley, 1984; Dengler and Nelson, 1999). However, many C₃ plants – even Arabidopsis thaliana – also have bundle-sheath cells, but they are not well characterized yet and only little is known about their function (Kinsman and Pyke, 1998; Leegood, 2008).

All relevant enzymes involved in the C₄ cycle are compartmentalized into mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells. While in C₃ plants the C₃ pathway occurs in all photosynthetic cells, it is restricted to the bundle-sheath cells in C₄ plants (Hatch, 1987; Ehleringer and Monson, 1993). Within the mesophyll cells CO₂, in the form of HCO₃⁻, is initially fixed by phosphoenoIpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) into the substrate phosphoenoIpyruvate (PEP) which leads to the formation of the four-carbon acid oxaloacetate (OAA). Therefore, this pathway is referred to as C₄ photosynthesis and plants performing the C₄ cycle are termed C₄ plants. OAA is then converted into either malate or aspartate which diffuses to the bundle-sheath cells. There CO₂ is released during the decarboxylation of the transport metabolites by
Introduction

one of the three enzymes, NADP-malic enzyme (NADP-ME), NAD-malic enzyme (NAD-ME) or PEP carboxykinase (PEPCK). The remaining pyruvate (NADP-ME type) or alanine (NAD-ME type) returns to the mesophyll cells where PEP is regenerated to maintain the C₄ cycle (Figure 1). In bundle-sheath cells of the PEPCK type aspartate is converted to OAA which is then decarboxylated so that PEP is directly regenerated and diffuses to the mesophyll cells in order to be carboxylated by PEPC again (Hatch, 1987; Leegood and Walker 1999). Although C₄ plants are assigned to one of these three decarboxylation types, recent findings indicate that there exists certain flexibility between the decarboxylating pathways. For instance, several C₄ plants of the NADP-ME type such as maize are able to additionally decarboxylate aspartate by PEPCK apart from the general decarboxylation of malate (Furbank, 2011).

![Figure 1. The reactions of the C₄ photosynthetic pathway in C₄ plants of the NADP-malic enzyme type.](image)

C₄ photosynthesis represents a biochemical pump to concentrate CO₂ at the site of the ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) to repress its oxygenase activity and thereby photorespiration. CA, Carbonic anhydrase; NADP-MDH, NADP-malate dehydrogenase; NADP-ME, NAD-malic enzyme; OAA, Oxaloacetate; PEP, Phosphoenolpyruvate; PEPC, Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase; PPDK, Pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase; RuBP, Ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate.

The prefixing of inorganic carbon in the mesophyll and the decarboxylation specifically in the bundle-sheath creates a biochemical pump that causes elevated CO₂ concentrations within bundle-sheath cells (Figure 1). This almost saturates the active site of Rubisco and suppresses its oxygenase activity, resulting in the efficient repression of photorespiration (von Caemmerer and Furbank, 2003; Sage, 2004; Furbank, 2011). Compared to C₃ species, in most of the C₄ plants photorespiration is almost undetectable. Nevertheless, photorespiratory processes are not completely abolished but occur even in C₄ species (Yoshimura et al., 2004). It was shown that a photorespiratory maize (C₄) mutant deficient in activity of glycolate oxidase survived only in the presence of increased CO₂ concentrations that suppress
photorespiration. This provides evidence that photorespiration is needed in C₄ plants to avoid accumulation of toxic glycolate (Zelitch et al., 2009).

1.3 Specific adaptations and characteristics of C₄ plants

PEPC exhibits no oxygenase activity and has a higher affinity for HCO₃⁻ than Rubisco for CO₂. Therefore, this carboxylase can bind adequate amounts of inorganic carbon even in the presence of low CO₂ concentrations in the leaf that occur as the result of stomatal closure due to heat or drought (Hatch, 1987; Kanai and Edwards, 1999). The maintenance of efficient photosynthetic rates in the C₄ leaf, even when stomata are closed, reduces transpiration effectively which is reflected in a better water-use efficiency compared to C₃ species (Long, 1999). Thus, many C₄ plants even grow in arid and hot habitats with high light intensities (Ehleringer et al., 1997).

Suberized lamellae are present in the outer cell walls of the bundle-sheath cells of many C₄ plants. They represent a diffusion barrier that diminishes the CO₂ efflux in order to maintain high CO₂ concentrations within the bundle-sheath. However, all NAD-ME species lack the suberin layer but appear to compensate this by tending to concentrate chloroplasts at the inner or centripedal side of the bundle-sheath cell around mitochondria. Presumably, this decreases the loss of CO₂ released by decarboxylation in mitochondria and retards its leakage because the large vacuole has to be passed (Hattersley and Browning, 1981; Dengler and Nelson, 1999; von Caemmerer and Furbank, 2003; Sage, 2004; Yoshimura et al., 2004).

The chloroplasts of C₄ plants in the two distinct photosynthetically active tissues are different with respect to their enzymes and the accumulation of starch. They also have a dimorphic ultrastructure: The bundles-sheath chloroplasts from C₄ plants of the NADP-ME type differ from those of the mesophyll cells in the reduction of grana where O₂ is produced by the water-splitting complex of photosystem II. The decrease of grana in chloroplasts of bundle-sheath cells prevents the enrichment of O₂ through photosynthetic processes and thereby suppresses Rubisco’s oxygenase activity (Meierhoff and Westhoff, 1993; Edwards et al., 2004; Yoshimura et al., 2004).

As Rubisco is restricted to the bundle-sheath cells and not present in mesophyll cells, C₄ species do not waste that much nitrogen in forming this enzyme. This results in three to six times less amounts of Rubisco in comparison to C₃ plants (Ku et al., 1979; Sage et al., 1987). Generally, the nitrogen content of the leaf is reduced in C₄ plants, which enables them to achieve higher nitrogen-use efficiencies than C₃ species (Brown, 1978; Hatch, 1987; Sage and Pearcy, 1987).
1.4 The phenomenon of single-cell $C_4$ photosynthesis

Apart from the well-known two-cell or dual-cell $C_4$ photosynthesis of Kranz-type $C_4$ plants, single-cell $C_4$ photosynthesis exists. In each photosynthetic cell of the two aquatic species *Hydrilla verticillata* and *Egeria densa*, $CO_2$ is fixed by PEPC in the cytoplasm and concentrated in chloroplasts where Rubisco and NADP-ME are localized. Despite the absence of a diffusion barrier to reduce the leakage of $CO_2$ out of the chloroplast, the intracellular $C_4$ cycle in *Hydrilla* leads to increased carbon yield at low $CO_2$ concentrations that predominantly occur in ponds at elevated temperature (Reiskind et al., 1997; Casati et al., 2000; Bowes et al., 2002). The two terrestrial plants *Bienertia cycloptera* and *Borszczowia aralocaspica* also perform single-cell $C_4$ photosynthesis. Similar to the aquatic species, the PEPC of *Bienertia* accumulates in the cytoplasm within distinct pockets, whereas Rubisco and the decarboxylating enzymes are present in chloroplasts which are assembled as a central core in each cell. In contrast, the photosynthetic cells of *Borszczowia* are bipolar. The carboxylation and regeneration of PEP occur at the end in contact with the intercellular air space, whereas decarboxylation by NADP-ME and $CO_2$ fixation by Rubisco are performed exclusively at the cell’s end in proximity to the vascular bundles (Edwards et al., 2004).

1.5 $C_4$ plants are highly productive in warm habitats

The anatomical and biochemical adaptations of $C_4$ plants to efficiently concentrate $CO_2$ at the site of Rubisco lead to the suppression of photorespiration. This increases the photosynthetic rates compared to those of $C_3$ plants at higher temperatures. Warmth promotes the insolubility of $CO_2$ which favors the binding of $O_2$ by Rubisco and thereby photorespiratory processes predominantly in $C_3$ species that lack a $CO_2$-concentrating mechanism to suppress Rubisco’s oxygenase activity (Sage, 2004). Thus, in warmer habitats the efficiency of $C_4$ photosynthesis and the dominance of $C_4$ species among the grasses of the tropical and subtropical climates are responsible for the productivity of $C_4$ plants. $C_4$ species contribute approximately 20–30% to the terrestrial biomass production despite the fact that they only constitute about 3% of all vascular plant species (Lloyd and Farquhar, 1994; Gillion and Yakir, 2001; Edwards et al., 2010). For this reason, $C_4$ species such as maize, sorghum and sugar cane belong to the most productive agricultural crops (Brown, 1999).
2. Evolution of the \( C_4 \) syndrome

2.1 The polyphyletic origin of \( C_4 \) photosynthesis

\( C_4 \) plants have evolved several times independently from \( C_3 \) ancestors among the advanced members of the Dicotyledonae (dicots) and Monocotyledonae (monocots) (Ehleringer et al., 1997). The evolution of the \( C_4 \) photosynthetic pathway occurred at least 62 times in 19 different families of the angiosperms including approximately 7500 species. Thirty-six of the 62 lineages are found in the eudicots, while 26 lineages occur in the monocots with 18 and six lineages belonging to the grasses and sedges respectively (Sage et al., 2011). Although the majority of evolutionary \( C_4 \) lineages are distributed among the approximately 165000 dicots, only about 1600 (~ 1%) of them represent \( C_4 \) species. In contrast, one-third of the Poales (monocots) with about 18000 \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \) species in total are \( C_4 \) plants with approximately 4600 (~ 25%) \( C_4 \) grasses and 1300 (~ 7%) \( C_4 \) sedges (Ehleringer et al., 1997; Sage et al., 1999a; Bruhl and Wilson, 2007; Roalson, 2011; Sage et al., 2011). Thus, \( C_4 \) photosynthesis is a prime example of convergent evolution (Muhaïdat et al., 2007).

All available evidence indicates that \( C_4 \) photosynthesis is of rather recent evolutionary origin (Ehleringer et al., 1997). Presumably all lineages of \( C_4 \) plants evolved during the last 30 million years. It was shown that \( C_4 \) origins in dicots were contemporaneous with those in monocots (Christin et al., 2011). \( C_4 \) dicots should therefore not be considered evolutionary younger than \( C_4 \) monocots as it was previously proposed (Ehleringer et al., 1997; Sage, 2004; Christin et al., 2011). Based on \( \delta^{13}C \) evidence the drastic increase of \( C_4 \) plant biomass is dated back six to eight million years ago (Edwards et al., 2001b).

\( C_4 \) dicots evolved in arid regions of low latitude, indicating that environmental factors such as high temperatures, drought and salinity might have forwarded \( C_4 \) evolution. Forty-seven of the 62 lineages originated geographically in areas of southwestern North America, south-central South America, northeastern and southern Africa, central Asia and inland Australia (Sage, 2004; Sage et al., 2011). Nowadays, almost all tropic and subtropic grasslands and those of the warm temperate zones are dominated by \( C_4 \) grasses and sedges which account for the majority of the plant species of arid regions from the tropics to the temperate zones (Archibold, 1995; Sage et al., 1999b)
2.2 \textit{C}_4 \textit{photosynthesis as an evolutionary adaptation to counteract photorespiration}

The decrease of CO$_2$ in the atmosphere in the late Oligocene increased photorespiration and might be the major selective force for \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis to evolve (Ehleringer et al., 1991; Sage et al., 2011). The occurrence of \textit{C}_4 monocots is tightly correlated with temperature, whereas the distribution of \textit{C}_4 dicot plants is rather influenced by other environmental factors such as aridity, indicating that these parameters promote \textit{C}_4 evolution (Ehleringer et al., 1997). Thus, the evolution of \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis has to be considered as an adaptation to reduce photorespiration. Environmental factors such as low CO$_2$ concentration, drought, increased salinity, low humidity and high temperatures enhance photorespiratory processes and CO$_2$ deficiency, which presumably led to the selection for \textit{C}_4-characteristic traits and finally to the establishment of \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis (Ehleringer and Monson, 1993; Sage, 2004).

Another evolutionary adaptation to counteract photorespiration even at decreasing CO$_2$ levels might have resulted in a Rubisco variant that is free of oxygenase activity. Even though different Rubisco forms with varying specificities for CO$_2$ relative to O$_2$ have evolved, it seems as if limits in optimizing Rubisco have been reached. The active site biochemistry of Rubisco is restricted by similarities in the carboxylase and oxygenase reactions which apparently allow no further improvement of this enzyme (Andrews and Lorimer, 1987; Roy and Andrews, 2000; Tcherkez et al., 2006; Kapralov et al., 2011). Hence, the CO$_2$-concentrating mechanism underlying \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis represents the only effective evolutionary adaptation to efficiently suppress photorespiration promoted predominantly by heat and drought.

2.3 \textit{All enzymes involved in \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis are already present in \textit{C}_3 plants}

The polyphyletic origin of \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis indicates that the conversion from \textit{C}_3 towards \textit{C}_4 plants did not require drastic changes but might have occurred rather easily (Westhoff and Gowik, 2004; Brown et al., 2011; Gowik and Westhoff, 2011). It is assumed that the reorganization of metabolic processes which already exist in \textit{C}_3 species have led to the evolution of \textit{C}_4 photosynthesis (West-Eberhard et al., 2011). Generally, during complex trait evolution the existing biochemistry is exploited rather than creating novel enzymes. Thus, changes in the kinetics, the regulation and tissue-specificities of the \textit{C}_3 enzymes were necessary to establish a functional CO$_2$-concentrating mechanism (Doebley and Lukens, 1998; Sage, 2004).
Actually, all enzymes involved in C₄ photosynthesis do not represent evolutionary reinventions but are already present in C₃ plants where they are embedded in the carbohydrate and nitrogen metabolism (Sage, 2004; Aubry et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2011). The C₃ PEPC, for example, is involved in anaplerotic reactions, amino acid synthesis, the regulation of turgor-dependent movements such as stomatal opening, the fiber elongation of *Gossypium hirsutum* (cotton) and ammonium assimilation in *Oryza* (rice) (Cockburn, 1983; Miyao and Fukayama, 2003; Cousins et al., 2007; Li et al., 2010; Masumoto et al., 2010). The three C₄ acid decarboxylases PEPCK, NADP-ME and NAD-ME have various metabolic roles in C₃ plants which differ depending on tissue type and the developmental stage (Aubry et al., 2011). PEPCK can be found in stomatal guard cells, fruits, roots and vascular tissues where it may contribute to anaplerotic reactions in the phloem (Walker et al., 1999; Leegood and Walker, 2003; Brown et al., 2010). In germinating seeds of C₃ species sugars are mobilized from lipids by PEPCK via gluconeogenesis (Rylott et al., 2003). NADP-ME and NAD-ME have various housekeeping functions in C₃ plants (Wedding, 1989; Edwards and Andreo, 1992; Drincovich et al., 2001). NADP-ME contributes to the oxidative pentose phosphate pathway, lignin and lipid biosynthesis (Gerrard-Wheeler et al., 2005, 2008). NAD-ME was shown to be important for coordinating carbon and nitrogen metabolism (Tronconi et al., 2008).

2.4 The stepwise transition from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis during C₄ evolution

Sage (2004) proposes a model that includes the main phases of C₄ evolution as stepwise transition from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis (Figure 2). Respective steps and certain developmental stages might have occurred earlier or later in single evolutionary lineages. The basis for the evolution of the C₄ photosynthetic pathway was the duplication of relevant genes so that multiple copies of a single gene were present. As general preconditioning, one or more copies could then undergo modifications which might have resulted in neo- or nonfunctionalization, while the original gene maintained its function (Marshall et al., 1996; Lynch and Conery, 2000; Monson, 2003). Afterwards the establishment of anatomical preconditions occurred, such as the reduction of the distance between mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells by decreasing the interveinal space and/or enlarging the bundle-sheath. The activation of bundle-sheath cells included the increase of the number of chloroplasts and mitochondria due to the progressive importance of these cells in photosynthesis (Sage, 2004).
A very crucial step towards C₄ photosynthesis was the restriction of the glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) to the bundle-sheath cells. GDC converts glycine to serine while releasing CO₂ during photorespiration. The absence of functional GDC in the mesophyll reduces the loss of photorespiratory CO₂ in this tissue because the decarboxylation of glycine is prevented. In the bundle-sheath cells glycine can be decarboxylated by GDC. This imbalance causes a constant flow of glycine from the mesophyll into bundle-sheath cells where the enrichment of photorespiratory CO₂ by GDC favors Rubisco’s carboxylation reaction. Such a functional photorespiratory CO₂ pump (Figure 3) represents a mechanism to concentrate CO₂ in bundle-sheath cells to suppress the oxygenase activity of Rubisco and thereby photorespiration in this tissue (Rawsthorne, 1992; Bauwe and Kolukisaoglu, 2003; Sage, 2004; Gowik et al., 2011; Gowik and Westhoff, 2011).

In C₃ species, photorespiration occurs in all photosynthetically active cells because Rubisco and GDC are present in these tissues (Rawsthorne et al., 1988; Yoshimura et al., 2004). In contrast to C₃, in C₄ plants Rubisco and GDC and hence photorespiratory processes are restricted to the bundle-sheath cells (Ohnishi and Kanai, 1983; Hatch, 1987; Morgan et al.,
C₃-C₄ intermediate species which represent an evolutionary link in the transition from C₃ to C₄ plants lack functional GDC in mesophyll cells, which is consistent with the theory of relocating GDC to the bundle-sheath during C₄ evolution (Rawsthorne et al., 1988; Rawsthorne, 1992; Morgan et al., 1993). In the C₃-C₄ intermediate *Moricandia arvensis* the P-subunit of GDC is restricted to the bundle-sheath cells, whereas the other three GDC subunits are still present within the mesophyll cells. This prevents the assembly of a functional GDC in the mesophyll (Hylton et al., 1988; Morgan et al. 1993).

For establishment of a true C₄-type CO₂ pump PEPC activity had to be enhanced in the mesophyll cells for efficient fixation of CO₂. Then, the produced C₄ acids could be directed to the bundle-sheath cells where they were decarboxylated, resulting in the enrichment of CO₂ (Monson, 1999). In intermediates of the genus *Flaveria*, PEPC activity increases approximately 40-fold from C₃ to C₄ species. In *F. linearis* and *F. ramosissima* (both C₃-C₄ intermediates) and *F. brownii* (C₄-like intermediate) the activity values are five, seven and 20 times greater than the C₃ values respectively (Monson and Moore, 1989; Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000; Svensson et al., 2003).

In order to operate a functional C₄ pathway the expression pattern of most of the enzymes involved in C₄ photosynthesis had to be reorganized to allow the strict compartmentalization

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**Figure 3. The photorespiratory CO₂ pump.**

The constant flux of glycine into the bundle-sheath cells and its decarboxylation by the glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) exclusively in these cells leads to the enrichment of CO₂ and the suppression of the oxygenase activity of the ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco). 2PG, 2-Phosphoglycolate; 3PGA, 3-Phosphoglycerate; RuBP, Ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate. Adapted from Sage (2004).

For establishment of a true C₄-type CO₂ pump PEPC activity had to be enhanced in the mesophyll cells for efficient fixation of CO₂. Then, the produced C₄ acids could be directed to the bundle-sheath cells where they were decarboxylated, resulting in the enrichment of CO₂ (Monson, 1999). In intermediates of the genus *Flaveria*, PEPC activity increases approximately 40-fold from C₃ to C₄ species. In *F. linearis* and *F. ramosissima* (both C₃-C₄ intermediates) and *F. brownii* (C₄-like intermediate) the activity values are five, seven and 20 times greater than the C₃ values respectively (Monson and Moore, 1989; Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000; Svensson et al., 2003).

In order to operate a functional C₄ pathway the expression pattern of most of the enzymes involved in C₄ photosynthesis had to be reorganized to allow the strict compartmentalization
into either mesophyll or bundle-sheath cells, which is achieved by differential gene expression (Wyrich et al., 1998; Sheen, 1999; Hibberd and Covshoff, 2010; Gowik et al., 2011; West-Eberhard et al., 2011). Compared to their C₃ homologs, the C₄-specific genes are highly expressed and exhibit organ- and cell-specific expression patterns. Mesophyll gene expression is predominantly regulated at the transcriptional level, while bundle-sheath-specific gene expression is controlled transcriptionally and posttranscriptionally (Sheen, 1999; Edwards et al., 2001a; Gowik et al., 2004; Patel et al., 2006). Even little variations in one single cis-regulatory module can alter the gene expression pattern to mesophyll-specificity in C₄ plants (Akyildiz et al., 2007). This indicates that the establishment of C₄-characteristic gene expression did not require drastic alterations but could have been implemented rather easily in genetic terms (Westhoff and Gowik, 2004; Gowik and Westhoff, 2011). Doebley and Lukens (1998) conclude that changes in the cis-regulatory elements of transcriptional regulators are the predominant driving force for the generation of novel phenotypes. However, cis-regulatory elements of genes from C₃ species can already be recognized in a way that ensures their recruitment into C₄ photosynthesis without alterations to sequence, suggesting that trans-acting factors had to be modified to confer cell-specific expression (Brown et al., 2011). There are even cell-specific promoters of C₄ genes that lead to mesophyll- or bundle-sheath-specific gene expression in closely or even widely related C₃ plants, which indicates that the genetic regulatory mechanisms are generally controlled in a very similar way in C₃ and C₄ plants (Matsuoka et al., 1994; Hibberd and Covshoff, 2010; Westhoff and Gowik, 2010). In C₃-C₄ intermediate species, many of the enzymes required for the performance of a functional C₄ photosynthesis are already restricted to one of the two distinct photosynthetic tissues, while Rubisco is present in both, mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells (Hylton et al., 1988; Rawsthorne, 1992; Drincovich et al., 1998; Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000).

The last evolutionary step towards C₄ photosynthesis is the optimisation of photosynthetic efficiency. This includes the alteration of kinetic properties and regulatory characteristics of various enzymes to adjust them to a functional C₄-metabolic environment (Leegood and Walker, 1999; Westhoff and Gowik, 2004). PEPC is a good example to study kinetic adaptation that occurred during C₄ evolution. The C₃ variant of this enzyme is normally inhibited by malate. As malate is present in high concentrations in the mesophyll cells of C₄ plants, the sensitivity to malate of the C₄ PEPC is reduced, while the activation through glucose-6-phosphate is enhanced (Svensson et al., 1997; Blässing et al., 2000; Svensson et al., 2003; Westhoff and Gowik, 2004).
2.5 The genus Flaveria as model system to study C₄ evolution

C₄ photosynthesis is a convergent and complex evolutionary phenomenon and represents an excellent system to study the mechanisms of evolutionary adaptation in response to environmental change (Monson, 2003; Sage et al., 2011). The genus *Flaveria* is especially suitable to analyze the evolutionary development of C₄ photosynthesis because it contains species that perform C₃ (e.g. *F. pringlei*) or C₄ photosynthesis (e.g. *F. trinervia* and *F. bidentis*) as well as C₃-C₄ intermediate (e.g. *F. pubescens* and *F. ramosissima*) and C₄-like (e.g. *F. brownii*) species (Powell, 1978; McKown et al., 2005). *Flaveria* therefore represents a distinguished model system to study molecular mechanisms underlying the evolutionary transition from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis (Westhoff and Gowik, 2004; Brown et al., 2005; Akyildiz et al., 2007; Engelmann et al., 2008).

3. The transcriptional control region of eukaryotic protein-coding genes

3.1 Structure of the eukaryotic RNA polymerase II-dependent promoter

In eukaryotes, the RNA polymerase II-dependent promoter comprises *cis*-regulatory elements located at the 5' end of a gene near the transcription start site (TSS). It consists of a core promoter for basal transcription initiation and a regulatory promoter region, often referred to as proximal promoter, directly upstream of the core promoter (Figure 4). The regulatory promoter contains binding sites for transcription factors that increase the efficiency of transcription initiation. Further *cis*-regulatory sequences, so-called enhancers, interact with the promoter and control the spatial and temporal gene expression pattern (Levine and Tjian, 2003; Vedel and Scotti, 2011).

![Figure 4. Schematic structure of the transcriptional control region of eukaryotic protein-coding genes.](image)

Typical *cis*-regulatory elements of the core promoter are the TATA-Box (TATA), the Initiator sequence (Inr) and the downstream promoter element (DPE) which all initiate transcription. Proximal transcription factor binding sites (TFB) such as the CAAT-Box (CAAT) of the regulatory promoter region affect the efficiency of the core promoter. Enhancers (E) are located up- and/or downstream of the promoter and control the gene expression pattern. The approximate distances are indicated in base pairs (bp) or kilobases (kb). The arrow at position +1 represents the transcription start site (TSS). Adapted from Vedel and Scotti (2011).
3.2 *Cis-regulatory elements of the core promoter*

The core promoter commonly ranges from -40 bp to +40 bp with regard to the TSS at position +1 and represents the DNA region that recruits the RNA polymerase II machinery to initiate transcription precisely (Juven-Gershon and Kadonaga, 2010). Typical core promoter elements are the TATA box, the upstream/downstream transcription factor IIB (TFIIB) recognition element (BREu/BREd), the Initiator motif (Inr), the motif ten element (MTE) and the downstream core promoter element (DPE). These elements are normally present in focused core promoters that are characterized by a single TSS or a distinct cluster of TSSs within a short nucleotide region. However, these elements do not appear in all core promoters, indicating that they are not universal. Even core promoters exist that contain none of these elements at all, which suggests that the structure and function of core promoters is widely diverse (Juven-Gershon et al., 2008; Vedel and Scotti, 2011). Various general transcription factors, including transcription factor for RNA polymerase II (TFII) A, B, D, E, F and H, bind to *cis*-regulatory elements of the core promoter to recruit RNA polymerase II for RNA synthesis (Juven-Gershon and Kadonaga, 2010). The location of core promoter elements to which proteins of the transcription complex bind regulates promoter function by determining the position of the TSS and the direction of transcription (Tsai and Sigler, 2000; Gershenzon et al., 2006).

For example, the Inr which encompasses the TSS is assumed to interact with TFIID, a multi subunit complex composed of the TATA box-binding protein (TBP) and various TBP-associated factors (TAFs) (Smale and Baltimore, 1989; Purnell et al., 1994; Smale and Kadonaga, 2003). Inr motifs were shown to be present also in plants where they are even able to compensate the lack of the TATA box by initiating transcription on its own (Nakamura et al., 2002). In rice and *A. thaliana* the YR (Y = C or T, R = A or G) consensus sequence (YR rule) at position -1/+1 (+1 represents the TSS) is considered to represent a less stringent form of Inr with the CA and TA sequence occurring most frequently (Yamamoto et al., 2007) (Figure 5).

The TATA box, detected by Goldberg (1979), is normally located at -31 bp or -30 bp with regard to the TSS (Carninci et al., 2006; Ponjavic et al., 2006) and is bound by TBP associated with the remaining subunits of the TFIID complex (Patikoglou et al., 1999). BREu and BREd flank the TATA box and interact with TFIIB. They were shown to interfere with the TATA box, resulting in an increase or decrease of the basal transcription levels (Lagrange et al., 1998; Deng and Roberts, 2005, 2007). As in other eukaryotes, the TATA box is a common core promoter motif in plants where it is located usually 25–40 bp upstream of the
TSS with a space of 32 bp in between occurring most frequently (Figure 5). However, only 20–30% of all promoters of *A. thaliana* contain a TATA box or a TATA variant (Joshi, 1987; Molina and Grotewold, 2005; Yamamoto et al., 2009; Bernard et al., 2010; Zuo and Li, 2011). These findings are consistent with the observation that less than 20% of genes in human and yeast contain a TATA box (Basehoar et al., 2004; Shi and Zhou, 2006). Zuo and Li (2011) were able to show that in plants about 35% of the examined TATA-less promoters harbored TC-elements preferentially in a range of -50 bp to +50 bp with regard to the TSS. These TC-elements – TC-rich DNA sequences with a length of 6 bp (Figure 5) – might represent a novel class of regulatory elements controlling transcription in plants (Bernard et al., 2010). In the absence of a TATA box, TBP-related factors (TRFs) are involved in transcription by RNA polymerase II (Juven-Gershon and Kadonaga, 2010).

Based on transcriptome analysis of *A. thaliana* it was shown that genes which contain a TATA box exhibit tissue-specific expression profiles that can be regulated in response to a variety of stimuli. In contrast, genes with coreless promoters that have no recognizable core element are expressed constitutively (Schug et al., 2005; Yamamoto et al., 2009, 2011). Promoters that harbor a TC-element are expressed in specific conditions (Bernard et al., 2010), indicating that TC-elements are important for gene regulation as response to environmental or developmental stimuli. Thus, the architecture of the core promoter is very important for the regulation of gene expression. For example, the light-regulated promoter of the *psaDb* gene encoding the ferredoxin-binding subunit of PSI from *Nicotiana sylvestris* contains an Inr motif but lacks a TATA box. By interchanging the Inr with a TATA box it was shown that the presence of the Inr is essential for the transcriptional regulation of *psaDb* in response to light (Nakamura et al., 2002).

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**Figure 5. Molecular structure of a typical plant promoter.**

The *cis*-regulatory elements of the promoter of the Arabidopsis *At1g10960* gene encoding ferredoxin 1 are shown. The YR rule (-1/+1; Y = C or T, R = A or G), *TC*-elements and the TATA box of the core promoter and several proximal *cis*-regulatory elements of the regulatory promoter region such as ABRELATERD1 (*ACGT*), ACGTATERD1 (*ACGT*), CACGTGGMOTIF (*CACGTG*), EMRP1TAEM (*CACGTGCC*) and SORLIP1AT (*GCCAC*) are highlighted. The transcription start site (+1) is underlined. Adapted from Yamamoto et al. (2007).
3.3 Enhancers, silencers and insulators influence gene expression

The core promoter is important for basal transcription but can be influenced by further cis-acting regulatory sequences. Among these are enhancers that are usually located upstream of the TSS but can also be present downstream of it, for example in introns of the corresponding genes (Figures 4 and 6). The distance of an enhancer with regard to the TSS is not defined so that they can be found up to several kilobases up- and/or downstream of the respective gene. Enhancers are usually responsible for the expression of a gene in a tissue- or cell-specific pattern. Cis-regulatory elements represent conserved short motifs of a length of five to 20 nucleotides that are specifically bound by trans-acting regulatory proteins, referred to as transcription factors (TFs) which then influence transcription. Each of the at least 1500 TFs identified in plants regulates the expression of hundreds of target genes (Levine and Tjian, 2003; Rombouts et al., 2003; Vedel and Scotti, 2011). By binding appropriate TFs, enhancers can activate or stimulate transcription regardless of their location and orientation with respect to the TSS. A typical enhancer has a length of about 500 bp and is composed of multiple binding sites for different sequence-specific transcription factors (Banerji et al., 1981; Levine and Tjian, 2003; Arnosti and Kulkarni, 2005; Bulger and Groudine, 2011).

![Figure 6. The complex interplay of cis-regulatory sequences in the transcriptional control region of multicellular eukaryotes.](image)

The activity of the promoter can be increased by enhancers (E) or repressed by silencers (S). Insulators (I) can block the enhancing or silencing effect when they are located between the promoter and the enhancer or silencer. The position +1 represents the transcription start site. DPE, Downstream promoter element; Inr, Initiator; TATA, TATA-Box; TFB, Transcription factor binding site. Adapted from Levine and Tjian (2003).

Apart from enhancers there are further cis-regulatory sequences, silencers and insulators, that influence gene expression (Figure 6). Silencers are specifically recognized by TFs which inhibit transcription by heterochromatin formation. Insulators are elements which insulate genes by restricting the activity of long-range enhancers and silencers in a position-dependent manner. Insulators which are located between the enhancer and its interacting promoter are termed enhancer-blockers, whereas those insulators that are present between a silencer and a promoter and thereby shield the promoter from being silenced are referred to as barriers (Valenzuela and Kamakaka, 2006; Raab and Kamakaka, 2010). These different cis-regulatory
sequences, enhancers, silencers and insulators, can be distributed over distances of 100 kb in mammals and 10 kb in Drosophila (Levine and Tjian, 2003). The combination of all cis-regulatory elements and the integration of signals of various TFs result in a precise and specific temporal and spatial expression pattern (Priest et al., 2009; Vedel and Scotti, 2011).

### 3.4 The mesophyll expression module 1 for C₄-specific gene expression

Little is known about the molecular structure of cis-elements and trans-regulatory factors required for the C₄-specific expression of genes. Only one cis-regulatory module for specific expression in mesophyll cells could have been described at the nucleotide level so far (Figure 7). The 41-bp mesophyll expression module 1 (MEM1) is located within the distal promoter region of the ppcA1 gene of the C₄ plant *Flaveria trinervia* which encodes the C₄-isoform of PEPC. This C₄-MEM1 confers mesophyll-specificity in transgenic *Flaveria bidentis* (C₄) by enhancing mesophyll expression and repressing expression in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles. It contains the tetranucleotide CACT and a G to A substitution in comparison to the C₃-MEM1 of the orthologous ppcA1 gene from the C₃ plant *Flaveria pringlei*. The C₃-MEM1 does not direct mesophyll-specific gene expression in transgenic *Flaveria bidentis*. These small changes in the molecular composition of MEM1 during C₄ evolution emphasize that the transition from C₃- to C₄-characteristic gene expression might have occurred in easy steps (Gowik et al., 2004; Akyildiz et al., 2007; Westhoff and Gowik, 2010). However, no bundle-sheath-specific cis-regulatory element has been characterized on the nucleotide level so far. Thus, it would be interesting to identify such elements to unravel the molecular basis underlying bundle-sheath-specific gene expression in the context of C₄ evolution.

```plaintext
| Ft  | C₄       | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTCACA | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fb  | C₄       | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fpa | C₄-like  | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fv  | C₄-like  | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fbr | C₃–C₄    | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fpu | C₃–C₄    | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fc  | C₃       | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
| Fp  | C₃       | GCTTTTATGTTAGCTGAATCTTTCTACTTG   | AAAAAAACAAACAA |
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**Figure 7.** Molecular structure of the mesophyll expression module 1 of the ppcA1 gene in various *Flaveria* species.

The structure of the 41-bp mesophyll expression module 1 (MEM1), emphasized with grey boxes, is shown on the nucleotide level as it can be found in different C₃, C₄-like, C₃–C₄ intermediate and C₄ *Flaveria* species. The tetranucleotide CACT and the G to A substitution are highlighted in red and blue respectively. *Fb*, *F. bidentis*; *Fbr*, *F. brownii*; *Fc*, *F. cronquistii*; *Fp*, *F. pringlei*; *Fpa*, *F. palmerii*; *Fpu*, *F. pubescens*; *Ft*, *F. trinervia*; *Fv*, *F. vaginata*. Adapted from Akyildiz et al. (2007).
3.5 The phenomenon of multiple transcription start sites in plants

Although representing a rare phenomenon in plants, the presence of more than one transcription start site (TSS) in the promoter region of the same gene can occur. These multiple TSSs serve as control mechanism to initiate gene expression in different organs of the plant (Bassett et al., 2004), to respond to environmental stimuli differently (Lee et al., 1994) or to provide different protein isoforms targeted either to the chloroplast or the cytoplasm (Matsuoka et al., 1988; Sheen, 1991; Rosche and Westhoff, 1995; Luo et al., 1997; Parsley and Hibberd, 2006).

The promoter of the inrpk1 gene of Ipomoea nil (morning glory) encoding a leucine-rich receptor protein kinase contains three different TATA boxes. Two of them initiate transcription predominantly in leaves and cotyledons, whereas the third TATA box contributes only to root-specific transcription. These findings indicate that the organ-specific expression of the inrpk1 gene is regulated by the presence of multiple TSSs within its promoter (Bassett et al., 2004).

In the promoter of the PAL5 gene of tomato encoding the phenylalanine ammonia-lyase, two TSSs lead to the synthesis of a short and a long transcript variant. Under normal conditions basal transcription from both TSSs occurs. Environmental factors, such as wounding, light and pathogen infection, preferentially stimulate the accumulation of the short RNA variant (Lee et al., 1994). This demonstrates certain flexibility in controlling gene expression in response to stress due to the presence of two different TSSs.

The pyruvate, orthophosphate dikinase (PPDK) gene of the C₄ plant maize is regulated by two TSSs, leading to the generation of a long and a short transcript version. The long transcript gives rise to a protein which is located in chloroplasts because the first exon encodes an appropriate transit peptide. The short transcript lacks the first exon so that no chloroplastic targeting sequence can be translated, resulting in the formation of a cytosolic protein variant (Matsuoka et al., 1988; Sheen, 1991). The same transcriptional regulation of the PPDK gene can be found in Flaveria trinervia (C₄) and Arabidopsis thaliana (C₃) (Rosche and Westhoff, 1995; Parsley and Hibberd, 2006). Two transcripts generated at different TSSs within the promoter of the carrot gene encoding dihydrofolate reductase-thymidylate synthase also lead to the translation of two protein isoforms. One variant is targeted to the chloroplast, whereas the other isoform is retained in the cytoplasm (Luo et al., 1997). These findings demonstrate that two different TSSs of the same gene can cause a different subcellular distribution of the encoded protein variants, namely to the chloroplast or the cytoplasm.
4. The glycine decarboxylase complex

4.1 Composition and reaction mechanism of the glycine decarboxylase complex

The mitochondrial glycine decarboxylase multienzyme complex (GDC) is present in plants, animals and bacteria. It catalyzes the conversion of two molecules of glycine to one molecule of serine, CO$_2$ and NH$_3$ in cooperation with the serine hydroxymethyltransferase (Oliver, 1994) (Figure 8). Phylogenetic analyses have shown that the GDC subunits in mitochondria of plants and algae originated from α-proteobacteria (Kern et al., 2011). GDC accounts for approximately one-third of the soluble proteins in the mitochondrial matrix of pea leaves. This leads to concentrations up to 0.13 g/ml that can even change the density of mitochondria (Oliver et al., 1990a, 1990b; Vauclare et al., 1996).

GDC is composed of four different subunits, the P-, H-, T- and L-subunit which are assembled with a predicted stoichiometry of 1L$_2$:2P$_2$:27H:9T with the L- and P-subunit acting as homodimers respectively (Oliver et al., 1990b). The P-subunit is a pyridoxal phosphate-containing protein that catalyzes the release of CO$_2$ by decarboxylation, the T-subunit or aminomethyl-transferase is required for the tetrahydrofolate-dependent reaction, the lipoamide-containing H-subunit functions as carrier protein and the L-protein represents a dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase (Kikuchi et al., 2008) (Figure 8).

Figure 8. Reaction of the glycine decarboxylase complex.

The glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) consists of the P-, H-, L- and T-protein. The H-protein undergoes a cycle of reductive methylamination, methylamine transfer and electron transfer, which is catalyzed by the P-, T- and L-protein respectively. The cleavage of glycine results in CO$_2$, NH$_3$ and a tetrahydrofolate-bound C$_1$ residue (CH$_2$−THF). A second molecule of glycine together with CH$_2$−THF is converted by serine hydroxymethyltransferase (SHMT) to serine. $H_{\text{met}}, H_{\text{red}}$ and $H_{\text{ox}}$: methylaminated, reduced and oxidized forms of the H-protein. Adapted from Douce et al. (2001).
4.2 Function of the glycine decarboxylase complex in plants

In all organisms, GDC plays an important role in interconnecting the metabolism of one-, two- and three-carbon compounds (Oliver, 1994). In plants, GDC is involved in photorespiration occurring in all photosynthetically active cells and in the one-carbon (C\textsubscript{1}) metabolism in all biosynthetic tissues (Engel et al., 2007; Douce et al., 2001; Hanson and Roje 2001). Photorespiration is assumed to be one of the most wasteful processes on the planet because energy and previously fixed CO\textsubscript{2} is lost, which decreases the rate of photosynthesis (Foyer et al., 2009). Transgenic A. thaliana plants which perform a shortened photorespiratory cycle by integrating the Escherichia coli glycolate catabolic pathway produce higher shoot and root biomass (Kebeish et al., 2007). Nonetheless, the photorespiratory metabolism represents a mechanism to regenerate 3PGA from the toxic compound 2PG which accumulates as the result of Rubisco’s oxygenase activity, and to impede poisoning by 2PG itself, glyoxylate or glycine (Bauwe et al., 2010). Apart from that, a further positive function of photorespiration seems to be the prevention of photoinactivation of the photosynthetic apparatus under sunlight when CO\textsubscript{2} concentrations are decreased as a result of stomatal closure (Heber et al., 1996; Douce and Neuburger, 1999).

An Arabidopsis T-DNA insertion double mutant lacking functional GDC, due to the knockout of both genes encoding the P-subunit, was lethal even under conditions suppressing photorespiration. This led to the conclusion that the GDC reaction cannot be bypassed in higher plants but is essential for other metabolic processes such as the glycine serine cycling of the C\textsubscript{1} metabolism (Engel et al., 2007). The C\textsubscript{1} metabolism presumably occurs in all plant tissues. GDC is present even in non-photosynthetic cells, although only little amounts were detectable (Bourguignon et al., 1993; Mouillon et al., 1999). C\textsubscript{1}-metabolic reactions are important for supplying C\textsubscript{1} molecules that are used for the synthesis of proteins, pantothenates, nucleic acids and many methylated compounds such as lignin, betaines and alkaloids (Cossins and Chen, 1997; Hanson and Roje, 2001). Probably, the C\textsubscript{1} demand varies in the different plant tissues, which might be achieved by regulating the expression of genes involved in the C\textsubscript{1} metabolism (Hanson and Roje, 2001).

Consistent with the involvement of GDC in photorespiration, the expression of all four GDC subunits is light-regulated. Although the transcripts encoding the H-, P- and T-protein were present at low levels in etiolated pea tissues, their abundance increased when the plants were illuminated. In contrast, the mRNA of the L-protein is enriched even in the dark and its concentration only changes little after the exposure to light. This can be explained by the fact that the L-protein is a subunit of different multienzyme complexes. The light-dependent
accumulation of transcripts encoding the H- and P-protein is regulated transcriptionally (Kim et al., 1991; Srinivasan et al., 1992, Oliver, 1994; Srinivasan and Oliver, 1995; Douce et al., 2001).

4.3 The GLDPA gene encodes the P-protein of GDC in the C₄ plant Flaveria trinervia

The genome of the C₄ plant *Flaveria trinervia* contains two genes encoding the P-subunit of GDC, *GLDPA* and *GLDPB* (Cossu and Bauwe, 1998). Based on phylogenetic analyses the *GLDPB* gene was renamed to *GLDPE* (personal communication with Stefanie Schulze). *GLDPE* seems to represent a pseudogene. It encodes no functional P-protein due to the absence of corresponding mRNA most likely as the result of an insertion in the first intron that shows similarity with retrotransposons. However, the *GLDPA* gene is transcribed, leading to the expression of a functional P-protein that consists of 1034 amino acids. After targeting to mitochondria and cleavage of the 63 amino acid long presequence the mature *GLDPA* protein comprises 971 amino acids (Cossu and Bauwe, 1998). The -1571 to -1 5' upstream region (with regard to the translational start at +1) of the *GLDPA* gene of *F. trinervia* is referred to as the *GLDPA* promoter. This promoter was shown to activate expression of the β-glucuronidase (*GUS*) reporter gene specifically in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles in the closely related C₄ plant *F. bidentis* (Burscheidt, 1998).

In contrast to C₃ plants where GDC is present in all photosynthetically active cells, in C₄ species GDC is restricted to the bundle-sheath cells (Rawsthorne et al., 1988; Morgan et al., 1993; Yoshimura et al., 2004). The transcriptional regulation through the *GLDPA* promoter seems to be essential for the bundle-sheath-specific expression of the *GLDPA* gene. Thus, the *GLDPA* promoter can be used to identify cis-regulatory elements which are required for gene expression specifically in the bundle-sheath.
II. Scientific aims

The mitochondrial glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) is involved in photorespiration and the C\textsubscript{1} metabolism. Photorespiratory processes occur in all photosynthetically active tissues in C\textsubscript{3} species, but are restricted to the bundle-sheath in C\textsubscript{4} plants. The GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia (C\textsubscript{4}) encodes the P-subunit of GDC. The present work shall give an insight into the molecular mechanisms underlying the bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific activity of the GLDPA promoter of F. trinervia in leaves of the closely related C\textsubscript{4} plant Flaveria bidentis and the phylogenetically distant C\textsubscript{3} plant Arabidopsis thaliana. This might help to reveal adaptive changes in the regulation of gene expression during C\textsubscript{4} evolution.

1) The GLDPA promoter directs expression of the β-glucuronidase (GUS) reporter gene in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature in leaves of both transgenic F. bidentis (C\textsubscript{4}) and A. thaliana (C\textsubscript{3}). To exclude diffusion effects caused during the histochemical GUS staining procedure, a variant of the green fluorescent protein (GFP) targeted to the endoplasmic reticulum, and a yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) fused to histone 2B (H2B) which is retained in the nucleus were expressed under the control of the GLDPA promoter in A. thaliana. A detailed functional promoter analysis was performed in A. thaliana and F. bidentis by fusing several GLDPA promoter deletion and recombination constructs to the GUS reporter gene. The aim was to identify potential cis-regulatory determinants for bundle-sheath-specific gene expression and to verify whether these findings can be applied to the C\textsubscript{4} and C\textsubscript{3} context (Manuscript 1: Engelmann et al., 2008).

2) Based on the previous findings (Manuscript 1: Engelmann et al., 2008), further GLDPA promoter deletion and recombination constructs fused to the GUS reporter gene were analyzed in both F. bidentis (C\textsubscript{4}) and A. thaliana (C\textsubscript{3}) to elucidate the regulation of this promoter more precisely. The transcription start sites of the GLDPA gene were determined by analyzing mRNA 5' ends using rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE). By means of 454 pyrosequencing data, the abundance of GLDPA transcripts as well as their splicing pattern were detected. Two different RNA variants transcribed from the GLDPA promoter give rise to proteins with either a full-length or a truncated presequence for mitochondrial targeting. Both presequence versions were fused with the GFP reporter gene and transiently expressed in leaf protoplasts of Nicotiana benthamiana under the control of the constitutive cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter. The influence of both presequence variants on the subcellular localization of GFP was analyzed by confocal microscopy (Manuscript 2: Wiludda et al., 2011).
III. Theses

The GLDPA promoter of the C₄ plant *Flaveria trinervia* is composed of two sub-promoters that regulate gene expression in tandem. Together these promoters ensure strong expression in the bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature, but apparently additional weak expression in the mesophyll to precisely adjust the accumulation of GLDPA protein to the metabolic needs of the different leaf tissues.

1) The GLDPA promoter of *F. trinervia* (C₄) is specifically active in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature of both the closely related C₄ species *Flaveria bidentis* and the phylogenetically distant C₃ species *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Two components of the GLDPA promoter are essential for its regulation: the distal region enhances promoter activity, while an intermediate segment confers bundle-sheath and vasculature specificity by repressing mesophyll expression. Both components act in the same or at least a very similar way in the C₄ and the C₃ plant. This indicates that bundle-sheath-specific cis-regulatory determinants within the GLDPA promoter are recognized already in the C₃ background in a C₄-characteristic manner (Manuscript 1: Engelmann et al., 2008).

2) The expression of the GLDPA gene of *F. trinervia* (C₄) is regulated by an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms. Two sub-promoters within the full-length GLDPA promoter act in tandem. The proximal promoter is active in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature, while the distal promoter exhibits additional activity in the mesophyll in both *F. bidentis* (C₄) and *A. thaliana* (C₃). To confer bundle-sheath and vasculature specificity, the proximal promoter is enhanced transcriptionally, and the output of the distal promoter is repressed apparently by transcript destabilization due to inefficient splicing of an intron within the 5' untranslated region which might elicit RNA decay. In *F. bidentis*, the proximal promoter suffices to suppress the output of the distal promoter, whereas in *A. thaliana* the intermediate segment which represses mesophyll expression is additionally needed for stable suppression. Despite their low abundance, completely spliced RNAs transcribed from the distal promoter occur, and appear to be stable. Although these transcripts give rise to a protein variant with a truncated mitochondrial targeting sequence, this has no effect on protein localization to mitochondria. In this way, C₄ plants are able to highly express GLDPA in the bundle-sheath needed for photorespiration, while only low amounts of GLDPA protein seem to be required in the mesophyll for the C₁ metabolism (Manuscript 2: Wiludda et al., 2011).
IV.A Summary

The successful process of C₄ photosynthesis is based on the strict compartmentalization of the enzymes involved in this pathway into mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells of the leaf. Differential gene expression ensures the restriction to one of these distinct tissues. The GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia (C₄) encodes the P-subunit of the mitochondrial glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC). GDC is involved in photorespiration which occurs in all photosynthetically active tissues in C₃ species, but is restricted to the bundle-sheath in C₄ plants. In all biosynthetically active cells, GDC is also essential for the C₁ metabolism.

In this study, promoter-reporter gene fusion analyses showed that the 1571 base pairs full-length promoter of the GLDPA gene is specifically active in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature in leaves of transgenic plants of both Flaveria bidentis (C₄) and Arabidopsis thaliana (C₃). This indicates that the genetic control mechanisms of C₃ plants do not differ substantially from those of C₄ species. Detailed studies of promoter deletion and recombination constructs fused to the β-glucuronidase (GUS) reporter gene in transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana plants, and analyses of RNA 5′ ends by rapid amplification of 5′ complementary DNA ends (5′ RACE) revealed that the GLDPA promoter is composed of two sub-promoters which coordinate gene expression in tandem. In both species, the proximal promoter already suffices to cause the same expression pattern as the full-length promoter, while the distal promoter alone exhibits uniform activity in all inner leaf tissues including the mesophyll. The proximal promoter can silence the distal promoter in F. bidentis, but requires an additional GLDPA promoter segment in Arabidopsis for stable suppression.

In the context of the full-length GLDPA promoter, the output of the distal promoter appears to be repressed post-transcriptionally by transcript destabilization. Based on 454 pyrosequencing data, splicing of an intron in the 5′ untranslated region of transcripts derived from the distal promoter only inefficiently occurs, but seems to be essential for the accumulation of stable RNAs. These completely spliced transcripts are rare, and encode a protein with a truncated mitochondrial targeting sequence, which was shown to have no effect on localization to mitochondria. Further promoter segments were identified that enhance the transcriptional activity of the proximal promoter to ensure strong bundle-sheath expression.

In this way, C₄ plants do not only succeed in expressing GDC in different tissues, but are also able to adjust its amount to the needs of the respective metabolic pathway. GDC is apparently needed in large quantities for photorespiration in bundle-sheath cells, while its amount is reduced to an adequate level in mesophyll cells to serve the C₁ metabolism.
IV.B Zusammenfassung

Der erfolgreiche Ablauf der \( \text{C}_4 \)-Photosynthese beruht auf der strikten Kompartimentierung der an dieser Reaktion beteiligten Enzyme in den Mesophyll- und Bündelscheidenzellen des Blattes. Die differentielle Genexpression gewährleistet hierbei die Begrenzung auf eines dieser speziellen Gewebe. Das \( \text{GLDPA} \)-Gen von \textit{Flaveria trinervia} (\( \text{C}_4 \)) kodiert die P-Untereinheit des mitochondrialen Glycin-Decarboxylase-Komplexes. Dieser ist an der Photorespiration beteiligt, die in \( \text{C}_3 \)-Spezies in allen photosynthetisch aktiven Geweben abläuft, jedoch auf die Bündelscheide in \( \text{C}_4 \)-Pflanzen beschränkt ist. Außerdem ist der Glycin-Decarboxylase-Komplex für den \( \text{C}_1 \)-Metabolismus in allen biosynthetischen Zellen essentiell.

Im Rahmen dieser Arbeit konnte mittels Promoter-Reporter-Gene Fusionen gezeigt werden, dass der 1571 Basenpaare große Volllängenpromotor des \( \text{GLDPA} \)-Gens spezifisch in den Bündelscheidenzellen und dem Leitgewebe in Blättern transgener Pflanzen von \textit{Flaveria bidentis} (\( \text{C}_4 \)) und \textit{Arabidopsis thaliana} (\( \text{C}_3 \)) aktiv ist. Dies deutet darauf hin, dass sich die genetischen Kontrollmechanismen der \( \text{C}_3 \)-Pflanzen nicht wesentlich von denen der \( \text{C}_4 \)-Pflanzen unterscheiden. Detailliertere Studien an transgenen Pflanzen von \textit{F. bidentis} und \textit{A. thaliana}, die verschiedene Promotordeletions- und Promotorrekombinationskonstrukte enthielten, welche mit dem \( \beta \)-Glucuronidase-Reporter (\( \text{GUS} \)) fusioniert waren, sowie die Bestimmung von RNA-5' -Enden durch die schnelle Amplifizierung von 5' -komplementären DNA-Enden (5' RACE) haben aufgedeckt, dass der \( \text{GLDPA} \)-Promotor ein Tandempromotor ist, der sich aus zwei Teilpromotoren zusammensetzt, die gemeinsam die Genexpression koordinieren. Der proximale Promotor reicht in beiden Spezies aus, um das gleiche Expressionsmuster wie der Volllängenpromotor zu bewirken, wohingegen der distale Promotor alleine eine gleichmäßige Aktivität in allen inneren Blattgeweben einschließlich des Mesophylls aufweist. In \textit{F. bidentis} kann der proximale Promotor den distalen Promotor stilllegen, benötigt in Arabidopsis jedoch für die stabile Unterdrückung ein zusätzliches \( \text{GLDPA} \)-Promotorsegment.

Hierbei scheint die Ausgabe des distalen Promotors im Kontext des \( \text{GLDPA} \)-Volllängenpromotors posttranskriptionell durch destabilisierte Transkripte verringert zu werden. Mit Hilfe von 454-Sequenzierungsdaten konnte gezeigt werden, dass das Spleißen eines Introns innerhalb des 5' untranslatierten Bereichs der Transkripte, die vom distalen Promotor stammen, nur ineffizient abläuft, jedoch essentiell für die Anreicherung stabiler RNAs zu sein scheint. Diese vollständig gespleißten Transkripte sind selten und kodieren ein Protein mit einer verkürzten mitochondrialen Zielsequenz, was jedoch keine Auswirkung auf
die Lokalisation in den Mitochondrien hat. Es konnten weitere Promotorsegmente identifiziert werden, die die transkriptionelle Aktivität des proximalen Promotors verstärken, um eine starke bündelscheidenSpezifische Expression zu gewährleisten.

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VI. Manuscripts


The gene for the P-subunit of glycine decarboxylase from the C₄ species Flaveria trinervia: Analysis of transcriptional control in transgenic Flaveria bidentis (C₄) and Arabidopsis (C₃)
The Gene for the P-Subunit of Glycine Decarboxylase from the C₄ Species Flaveria trinervia: Analysis of Transcriptional Control in Transgenic Flaveria bidentis (C₄) and Arabidopsis (C₃)†‡\textsuperscript{[W]}\textsuperscript{[OA]}

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Glycine decarboxylase (GDC) plays an important role in the photorespiratory metabolism of plants. GDC is composed of four subunits (P, H, L, and T) with the P-subunit (GLDP) serving as the actual decarboxylating unit. In C₄ plants, GDC can be found in all photosynthetic cells, whereas in leaves of C₃/C₄ intermediate and C₄ species its occurrence is restricted to bundle-sheath cells. The specific expression of GLDP in bundle-sheath cells might have constituted a biochemical starting point for the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. To understand the molecular mechanisms responsible for restricting GLDP expression to bundle-sheath cells, we performed a functional analysis of the GLDPA promoter from the C₄ species Flaveria trinervia. Expression of a promoter-reporter gene fusion in transgenic plants of the transformable C₄ species Flaveria bidentis (C₄) showed that 1,571 bp of the GLDPA 5' flanking region contain all the necessary information for the specific expression in bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles. Interestingly, we found that the GLDPA promoter of F. trinervia exhibits a C₄-like spatial activity also in the C₃ plant Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana), indicating that a mechanism for bundle-sheath-specific expression is also present in this C₃ species. Using transgenic Arabidopsis, promoter deletion studies identified two regions in the GLDPA promoter, one conferring repression of gene expression in mesophyll cells and one functioning as a general transcriptional enhancer. Subsequent analyses in transgenic F. bidentis confirmed that these two segments fulfill the same function also in the C₄ context.

Net photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rates in C₄ plants are reduced by photorespiration, a process that results from the oxygenase activity of Rubisco. C₄ plants usually show no apparent photorespiration, and this is achieved by splitting the photosynthetic reactions between two morphologically and biochemically distinct cell types, the mesophyll and the bundle-sheath cells. Initial CO₂ fixation in C₄ plants occurs exclusively in the mesophyll cells and is performed by the enzyme phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) to form a C₄ acid, oxaloacetate. Depending on the C₄ subtype, oxaloacetate is converted to either malate or Asp, which subsequently move to the bundle-sheath and become decarboxylated, resulting in significant elevation of the CO₂ concentration in these cells. Final fixation of CO₂ is achieved by Rubisco, which in C₄ plants is only present in bundle-sheath cells. The enrichment of CO₂ in the vicinity of Rubisco effectively inhibits the enzyme's oxygenase activity (Hatch, 1987).

In C₄ plants, the CO₂ assimilatory enzymes are compartmentalized into either mesophyll or bundle-sheath cells, and this is governed by differential gene expression. It has been shown that mesophyll-specific expression of C₄ cycle genes is mainly regulated at the transcriptional level (Schaffer and Sheen, 1992; Stockhaus et al., 1994; Rosche et al., 1998; Sheen, 1999), whereas bundle-sheath-specific expression is controlled at both transcriptional and posttranscriptional levels (Long and Berry, 1996; Marshall et al., 1997; Sheen, 1999; Patel et al., 2006). There are indications that photorespiration also exists in C₄ plants, albeit at a much lower level than in C₃ plants (Osmond and Harris, 1971; Furbank and Badger, 1983; de Veau and Burriss, 1989). This is likely due to the fact that photorespiration in C₃ species is strictly confined to the bundle-sheath cells in the leaves, while in...
C₃ plants photorespiration occurs in all photosynthetically active mesophyll cells (Ohnishi and Kanai, 1983).

The mitochondrial multienzyme complex Gly decarboxylase (GDC) plays a key role in the photorespiratory pathway. GDC is comprised of four different subunits (P, II, T, and L) and catalyzes, in cooperation with Ser hydroxymethyltransferase, the oxidative decarboxylation of Gly that originates from the breakdown of photorespiratory phosphoglycolate. In the course of these reactions, two molecules of Gly are converted to one molecule each of Ser, NH₃, and CO₂ (Neuberger et al., 1986). In the completion of the photorespiratory cycle, GDC is present in all photosynthetic cells of C₃ plant leaves, but strictly confined to the bundle-sheath cells in C₄ species (Ohnishi and Kanai, 1983). None of the GDC subunits has been detected in the mesophyll cells of C₄ plants (Morgan et al., 1993).

Plant species possessing a C₃-C₄ intermediate type of photosynthesis are of special interest for studying the evolution of C₃-characteristic traits. Some C₃-C₄ plants are to some extent able to fix CO₂ into malate and Asp (Monson et al., 1986), but most of these species do not have a C₄ metabolism. They can be characterized as “intermediate,” for example, by their CO₂ compensation points, which are lower than those of C₄ plants but higher than those of C₃ plants (Edwards and Ku, 1987; Rawsthorne, 1992). As in C₃ plants, functional GDC occurs only in the bundle-sheath cells of the leaves of C₃-C₄ intermediate plants, as it was first demonstrated for *Moricandia arvensis* (Rawsthorne et al., 1988a, 1988b). Later on, it was discovered that the loss of GDC activity in the mesophyll is due to a lack of the P-subunit (GLDP). Because of the absence of GDC activity in mesophyll cells of *M. arvensis* leaves, photorespiratory Gly moves to the bundle-sheath cells to be processed by GDC. The bundle-sheath cells of *M. arvensis* contain a large number of mitochondria that are arranged at the centrietal cell wall adjacent to the vascular tissue, whereas the chloroplasts are located at the cell periphery. This special distribution of organelles and the restriction of Gly oxidation to the bundle-sheath compartment result in an efficient recapture of released photorespiratory CO₂ thereby lowering the CO₂ compensation point when compared to a typical C₃ plant (Rawsthorne et al., 1998). C₃-C₄ intermediate species are thought to represent a stage in the evolutionary transition from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis (Edwards and Ku, 1987). It was therefore tempting to speculate that the confinement of GDC to the bundle-sheath cells has been one of the biochemical starting points for the evolution of C₄ plants (Morgan et al., 1993; Bauwe and Kolukisaoglu, 2003; Sage, 2004). However, the possible effects of this relocation for C₄ evolution are discussed controversially (Edwards et al., 2001). The loss of the P-subunit seems to be the essential step to inactivate GDC in the mesophyll, and the absence of all GDC subunits in the leaf mesophyll of other C₃-C₄ intermediate species suggests that they have developed further toward C₄ photosynthesis than *M. arvensis* (Morgan et al., 1993).

A well-established experimental system for investigating the evolution of C₃-characteristic traits is the genus *Flaveria* of the Asteraceae (Powell, 1978). This small genus comprising 23 known species includes both C₄ and C₃ species, but also a large number of C₃-C₄ intermediate species (Edwards and Ku, 1987). In this study we examined the promoter of the gene encoding GLDP from the C₃ species *Flaveria trinervia* to gain insight into the molecular basis of bundle-sheath-specific gene expression. Two genes encoding GLDP have been identified in *F. trinervia*, GLDPA and the pseudogene GLDPB (Cosma, 1997). The GLDPA promoter was fused to a GUS reporter gene and promoter activity was analyzed in transgenic *Flaveria bidentis* (C₄) and Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*; C₃). Similar expression patterns were observed in these two species, which allowed the use of Arabidopsis as a heterologous system for testing a series of promoter deletions to identify C₃-characteristic regulatory elements within the GLDPA promoter. These analyses resulted in the identification of regions within the GLDPA promoter that contribute mainly to the regulation of expression quantity or to the spatial expression pattern of the GLDPA gene, respectively.

**RESULTS**

**In Situ RNA Hybridization**

Immunolabeling studies have shown that, in C₄ plants, GLDP accumulates exclusively in bundle-sheath cells of leaves (Hylton et al., 1988; Morgan et al., 1993; Yoshimura et al., 2004). To examine whether this C₃-characteristic localization of the P-protein is due to specific accumulation of GLDPA mRNA in this compartment, we analyzed the expression pattern of the GLDPA gene in leaves of the C₄ species *F. trinervia* by in situ hybridization. As a probe we used a 2.4-kb fragment of the GLDPA cDNA from *F. trinervia*, and control hybridizations were performed with the corresponding sense probe.

In leaves of *F. trinervia*, transcripts of the GLDPA gene could only be detected in bundle-sheath and not in mesophyll cells (Fig. 1A). The GLDPA mRNA accumulated near the centrietal cell walls of the bundle-sheath cells due to the concentration of cytoplasm in this region. The confinement of the P-protein to the bundle-sheath cells is therefore controlled by the specific accumulation of GLDPA mRNA in this compartment. The same result was obtained by in situ hybridization of the GLDPA probe to leaf cross sections of the C₄ species *F. bidentis* (Fig. 1C).

**Expression of a GUS Reporter Gene under the Control of the GLDPA Promoter from *F. trinervia* in Transgenic *F. bidentis***

The in situ RNA hybridization analysis showed that the occurrence of GLDPA transcripts is restricted to the
bundle-sheath cells in *F. trinervia* and *F. bidentis* (Fig. 1). To test whether the available 1,571 bp of the 5′ flanking region of the GLDPA gene (including the 5′ untranslated region upstream of the AUG start codon) harbor all the necessary information for this bundle-sheath-specific expression pattern, we fused this region to GUS reporter gene (construct GLDPA-Ft; Fig. 2A) and examined its expression behavior in transgenic *F. bidentis* plants. The C₄ species *F. bidentis* is a close relative to *F. trinervia*, but unlike *F. trinervia* it is suitable for transformation by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated gene transfer (Chittty et al., 1994).

Histochemical analysis of the expression of the GLDPA-Ft promoter-GUS construct revealed an intense blue staining in the bundle-sheath cells but not in the mesophyll cells (Fig. 2B). GUS activity could also be observed in most vascular bundles, with the degree of GUS expression varying with the size of the veins. The small minor veins usually exhibited a strong blue staining, while higher-order vascular bundles showed only moderate GUS activity. Additional weak GLDPA promoter activity was also detected in the guard cells of the stomatal complexes (Fig. 2C).

**The Expression Pattern of the GLDPA-GUS Construct in Arabidopsis Is Similar to That in F. bidentis**

Bundle-sheath cells are not a unique feature of C₄ plants. They are also present in many C₃ plants, but compared to the situation in C₄ species, these cells exhibit fewer chloroplasts and mitochondria (Kinsman and Pyke, 1998; Leegood, 2002). To examine whether the GLDPA promoter of *F. trinervia* shows a cell-specific activity in a C₃ background, we introduced the GLDPA-GUS construct into Arabidopsis.

The histochemical analysis revealed GUS expression in the vascular tissue and in the surrounding bundle-sheath cells (Fig. 3, C and D). Notably, very similar to the expression pattern in *F. bidentis*, no GUS activity could be detected in the mesophyll cells of transgenic Arabidopsis plants. The quantification of GUS levels showed that the median activity of the reporter protein was comparable in Arabidopsis and *F. bidentis* leaves (Figs. 2D and 3B).

To verify the results obtained from the histochemical GUS analysis, the GLDPA promoter was also fused to the GFP reporter gene mgfp5-ER (Siemerling et al., 1996; Haseloff et al., 1997) and a histone 2B-YFP fusion gene (Boisnard-Lorig et al., 2001), which are targeted to the endoplasmic reticulum and the nucleus, respectively. These reporter proteins allow a nondestructive analysis by fluorescence or confocal laser microscopy, thereby avoiding any potential diffusion of the reporter protein that might occur during a histochemical staining procedure. In both cases, the reporter proteins could be detected in bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles, but not in mesophyll cells (Fig. 3, E–I; Supplemental Videos S1 and S2).

**Deletion Analysis of the GLDPA Promoter**

The “C₄-like” expression pattern of GLDPA-GUS in transgenic Arabidopsis provided the opportunity to functionally dissect the GLDPA promoter by using this C₃ model organism as an experimental system. To identify cis-regulatory determinants that are responsible for the activity of the GLDPA promoter in bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundle, we produced a set of 5′ deletions and analyzed their expression specificity and level in transgenic Arabidopsis. The GLDPA promoter was subdivided into seven fragments that are referred to as region 1 to region 7 in the following (Fig. 4A).

The removal of a 182-bp segment (region 1) from the 5′ end of the GLDPA promoter, resulting in construct GLDPA-FtΔ1 (Fig. 4A), did not alter the spatial expression pattern of the GUS reporter gene when com-
pared to the original full-length promoter, i.e. this promoter variant was still capable of directing GUS expression specifically in the vascular bundles and bundle-sheath cells of Arabidopsis (Fig. 4B). This indicates the absence of cis-regulatory elements conferring cell specificity in this most distal part of the GLDPA promoter. However, quantitative GUS assays revealed an approximately 20-fold lower GUS activity in leaves of transgenic plants expressing GLDPA-Ft-Δ1 relative to leaves of GLDPA-Ft plants (Fig. 4D). The transcriptional activity of the promoter further decreased when deleting another 251 bp (region 2) from the 5’ end of GLDPA-Ft-Δ1 (construct GLDPA-Ft-Δ2; Fig. 4A). GUS activity in leaves of Arabidopsis plants harboring the GLDPA-Ft-Δ2 transgene was about 60 times lower than that of GLDPA-Ft (Fig. 4D), but the spatial expression pattern in the Arabidopsis leaf was still identical to that of the full-length promoter construct (Fig. 4C). Region 3 of the GLDPA promoter included the sequences between -1,138 and -927. Deletion of this promoter fragment in construct GLDPA-Ft-Δ3 decreased the GUS activity below the sensitivity limit of the histochemical GUS assay. Hence, no GUS expression could be detected in leaf cross sections of plants carrying this promoter construct. Similar low GUS activities (using the quantitative GUS assay) were also observed for the constructs GLDPA-Ft-Δ4 and GLDPA-Ft-Δ5 (Fig. 4, A and D), while practically no GUS activity was observed for GLDPA-Ft-Δ6 (Fig. 4, A and D).

This deletion analysis clearly demonstrated the pronounced importance of regions 1, 2, and 3 for the transcriptional activity of the GLDPA promoter in the leaves of transgenic Arabidopsis plants. While truncation of regions 1 and 2 causes a dramatic decrease of transcripational activity without affecting the spatial expression pattern, the additional deletion of region 3 results in a further reduction of promoter activity, which impeded further analysis of cell type-specific expression within the leaf.

**Regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA Promoter Together Function as a General Enhancer of Transcription in the Arabidopsis Leaf**

To investigate whether the GLDPA fragment ranging from -1,571 to -1,139 (regions 1 and 2) was able to act as a transcriptional enhancer, we combined this segment of the promoter with region 7 of the GLDPA promoter (-298 to -1). Region 7 harbors a putative TATA box and the starting point of transcription, but as reported above this part of the promoter alone is not sufficient to drive GUS expression in the Arabidopsis leaf (Fig. 4D).

The transformation of construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 (Fig. 5A) into Arabidopsis caused a substantial level of GUS expression in mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells as well as in the vascular strands of the leaves (Fig. 5, B and C) and confirms that regions 1 and 2 contain transcriptional enhancers with no apparent cell type specificity within the leaf.

To test whether regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA promoter function also in a heterologous promoter context, we fused this segment in front of the proximal promoter region of the ppcA gene of *F. triniterris* (Fig. 5A). The ppcA gene encodes the C₄ isozyme of PEPC (Hermans and Westhoff, 1992), and its complete 2,188-bp promoter directs high and mesophyll-specific GUS expression in transgenic *F. bidens* (Stockhaus et al., 1997). In contrast, the activity of the 570-bp-long proximal ppcA promoter part (ppcA-PR₉) is extremely low and can hardly be visualized in histochemical GUS assays (Gowik et al., 2004). In plants in which the low activity permits a histological analysis, the ppcA-PR₉ promoter fragment directs a uniform expression in all cells of the leaves of *F. bidens*, including the vascular bundles (Akyildiz et al., 2007).

The fusion of regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA promoter with the ppcA-PR₉ promoter fragment resulted in strong GUS expression in leaves of Arabidopsis (Fig. 5B). The GUS reporter gene was active in both mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells as well as in the vascular bundles (Fig. 5D), and the expression profile of this chimeric promoter is thus indistinguishable.
from that of GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7. We conclude from these experiments that regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA promoter constitute a general transcriptional enhancer module that, in combination with a basal promoter, stimulates the expression of a linked reporter gene in all types of interior leaf cells of Arabidopsis.

Region 3 of the GLDPA Promoter Acts as a Mesophyll-Specific Repressor of Gene Expression

The role of region 3 (−1,138 to −927) in regulating GLDPA promoter activity was investigated by introducing the relevant promoter fragment into construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7, resulting in the production of the chimeric promoter GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 (Fig. 6A). The addition of region 3 to GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 caused a significant change in the spatial expression pattern of the GUS reporter gene. While GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 plants expressed the GUS reporter gene in mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells as well as in the vascular tissue (Fig. 5C), GUS activity of GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 plants was strictly confined to the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular compartment (Fig. 6B). These observations indicate that region 3 of the GLDPA promoter from F. trinervia functions as a mesophyll-specific repressor of gene expression in the Arabidopsis leaf.

Analysis of GLDPA Promoter Regions 4, 5, and 6

We have shown that the GLDPA promoter fragment comprising base pairs −1,571 to −927 (regions 1–3) in combination with the most proximal promoter part (region 7) is sufficient to direct GUS expression in the bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles of transgenic Arabidopsis plants. Nevertheless, additional cis-regulatory determinants that could be involved in the spatial regulation of transcriptional activity might also be present in promoter regions 4, 5, and 6. To investigate the occurrence of cis-regulatory elements within these promoter regions, it was necessary to raise the GUS expression levels of constructs GLDPA-Ft-Δ3 to GLDPA-Ft-Δ6 to a level that allowed a histochemical
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Figure 4. Deletion analysis of the GLDPA promoter of *F. trinervia* in the *C. plant* Arabidopsis. A. Overview of GLDPA promoter deletion constructs analyzed in transgenic Arabidopsis. Due to the cloning strategy, the GLDPA promoter of *F. trinervia* was subdivided into seven regions, B and C. Histochemical localization of GUS activity in leaf sections of transgenic Arabidopsis transformed with deletion construct GLDPA-Ft-Δ1 (B) or GLDPA-Ft-Δ2 (C). Incubation times were 12 h (A) and 20 h (B). D. GUS activities in leaves of transgenic Arabidopsis plants transformed with different GLDPA deletion constructs. GUS activities are expressed in nanomoles of the reaction product 4-methylumbelliferrone (MU) per milligram of protein per minute. The numbers of independent transgenic plants investigated (N) and the median values of GUS activity (M) are indicated at the top of each column.

Analysis. Since regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA promoter contain a general transcriptional enhancer with no apparent leaf cell specificity, we attached this GLDPA transcriptional enhancer module to the 5′ borders of the truncated promoters (Fig. 7A).

As expected, the transcriptional activity of these constructs was dramatically higher than that of their “enhancerless” counterparts and was therefore suitable for performing GUS stainings in situ (Figs. 4D and 7B). In construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-4-5-6-7, only region 3 was removed from the original full-length GLDPA promoter. While about 50% of the transgenic lines displayed a uniform GUS expression in mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles (Fig. 7F), GUS expression in the other half of the plant lines was still restricted to the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular tissue (Fig. 7C). The same distribution of transgenic plants displaying either a uniform or restricted expression of the reporter gene was also observed for the promoter constructs GLDPA-Ft-1-2-5-6-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1-2-6-7 in which regions 4 and 5 were further deleted (Fig. 7, D, E, G, and H). In contrast, as already reported above, the additional deletion of region 6 in construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 resulted in a uniform expression pattern in the leaf (Fig. 5C). These findings suggest that additional cis-regulatory elements conferring repression of gene expression in the mesophyll are located in region 6 of the GLDPA promoter. However, when compared to the highly effective repressor elements located in region 3, these additional elements in region 6 do not provide robust repression.

Analysis of Promoter Construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 in Transgenic *F. bidens*

A truncated promoter containing the transcription-enhancing regions 1 and 2, the mesophyll repressor region 3, and the basal expression segment 7 generated
the same spatial expression profile in the leaf of the C₄ plant Arabidopsis as the complete GLDPA promoter, i.e. the promoter regions 4, 5, and 6 (−926 to −299) were not essential for creating the C₄-characteristic spatial expression pattern of a reporter gene. We now wished to examine whether this chimeric GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 promoter is capable of providing this C₄ expression profile also in the C₄ background of F. bidentis. This chimeric promoter construct was therefore transformed into F. bidentis, and its expression was examined in the leaves of the transgenic plants (Fig. 8).

No differences between the spatial expression patterns of GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 and the full-length promoter construct GLDPA-Ft were observed (compare Figs. 2 and 8). In both cases, GUS expression was found exclusively in the bundle-sheath cells and — with variable intensities — in the vascular strands. While GUS staining was strong in some minor veins, it was absent from other minor and all major vascular strands (Fig. 8, B and C). These results indicate that regions 1 to 3 in combination with the basal TATA box-containing segment 7 of the GLDPA promoter are sufficient to direct reporter gene expression in bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles of both the homologous C₄ species F. bidentis and the heterologous C₄ plant Arabidopsis.

**DISCUSSION**

The correct functioning of the C₄ photosynthetic cycle requires strict compartmentalization of C₄ enzymes in either mesophyll or bundle-sheath cells of the leaf. This cell type-specific accumulation of proteins is governed by differential gene expression (Sheen, 1999). To broaden our knowledge on the molecular basis of bundle-sheath-specific gene expression in C₄ plants, we have performed a functional analysis of the 5′ flanking sequences of the GLDPA gene from *F. trinervia* (C₄). The GLDPA gene encodes GLDP, which is specifically located in the bundle-sheath cells of C₄ species (Morgan et al., 1993). To determine whether the bundle-sheath-specific accumulation of the GLDP protein in the C₄ leaf is paralleled by the accumulation of the corresponding mRNA, we studied the occurrence of GLDPA transcripts within the leaves of *F. trinervia* and *F. bidentis* by in situ hybridizations. GLDPA RNA was exclusively found in the bundle-sheath cells of both C₄ species, indicating that the presence of this protein in bundle-sheath cells and its absence in mesophyll cells are caused by differential GLDPA mRNA accumulation.

We then investigated whether the available 1,571 bp of the 5′ flanking region of the GLDPA coding sequence harbor all the necessary information for this bundle-sheath-specific expression. Fusion of these sequences — including the 5′ untranslated segment of the GLDPA gene — to the GUS reporter gene resulted in reporter gene activity in the bundle-sheath but not in the mesophyll cells of transgenic *F. bidentis* plants. In addition, GUS activity could be detected in the vascular bundles. Here, GUS activity was clearly visible in minor veins but very low in major veins.

The expression of the reporter gene in the bundle-sheath cells and the absence of GUS activity in the mesophyll are consistent with the accumulation pattern of the GLDPA RNA. The additional activity of the GUS reporter gene in the vascular tissue, however, is in contrast to the lack of detectable GLDPA RNA in this tissue. There are two possible explanations that could account for this discrepancy in the patterns of RNA accumulation and reporter gene activity. First, there could be additional cis-regulatory sequences further upstream within the introns or even downstream of the GLDPA gene that might control GLDPA transcription in
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Figure 6. Functional analysis of GLDPA promoter region 3 in transgenic Arabidopsis. A. Schematic structure of construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7. B. Histochemical localization of GUS activity in the leaf sections of a transgenic Arabidopsis plant transformed with GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7. Incubation time was 20 h. C. GUS activities in leaves of transgenic Arabidopsis plants transformed with promoter construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7. GUS activities are expressed in nanomoles of the reaction product 4-methylumbelliferylglucose (MU) per milligram of protein per minute. The numbers of independent transgenic plants investigated (N) and the mean values of GUS activity (M) are indicated at the top of each column.

The natural genome context, but are absent in the GLDPA-Ft promoter-GUS construct. These elements would be required for repressing reporter gene expression in the vascular tissue. Alternatively, the absence of GLDPA mRNA in the vascular tissue might be caused by the low GLDPA RNA stability in this tissue (Parker and Song, 2004; Moore, 2005). While the 5′ untranslated region of the GLDPA mRNA is included in the GLDPA promoter construct, the 3′ untranslated segment is not. If this latter RNA segment or the coding region contains stability determinants leading to degradation of the GLDPA mRNA in the vascular tissue, the GUS mRNA lacking these segments would accumulate.

Interestingly, the expression of the GLDPA promoter-GUS construct in transgenic Arabidopsis showed a spatial activity of the GLDPA promoter that was very similar to that observed in transgenic F. bidens (Fig. 3). As found for the C₄ species, the GLDPA promoter of F. trinervia was inactive in the leaf mesophyll of the C₃ plant Arabidopsis, but active in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundle. The level of reporter gene expression was similar in both species. We therefore conclude that the C₄ characteristic cis-regulatory transcriptional determinants are recognized in the same spatial manner also in the C₃ context. This indicates that the transcription factors necessary for the correct interpretation of these cis-regulatory sequences are already present in this C₃ species and are operating in the same spatial pattern. Moreover, the similar spatial expression profiles in C₄ and C₃ leaves allow us to conclude that the gene regulatory networks operating in mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells of dicot C₄ and C₃ species share common elements, as it was previously proposed by Matsuo et al. (1993).

The exact physiological and functional functions of bundle-sheath cells in C₃ species are poorly understood. They are involved in phloem loading and unloading (van Bel, 1993), and for tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum) it was shown that the bundle-sheath cells of stems and petioles exhibit high activities of enzymes characteristic of C₄ photosynthesis, thus allowing the decarboxylation of four-carbon organic acids derived from the xylem and phloem (Hibberd and Quick, 2002). Additionally, a class of Arabidopsis mutants termed don (differential development of vascular associated cells) demonstrates that differential chloroplast development occurs between bundle-sheath and mesophyll cells in the Arabidopsis leaf (Kinsman and Pyke, 1998).

These observations from tobacco and Arabidopsis provide some evidence that bundle-sheath cells in C₃ plants are somehow predetermined to evolve C₄-characteristic features. The special physiology of bundle-sheath cells in Arabidopsis and the fact that preexisting transcription factors in this C₃ species are able to recognize heterologous C₄-characteristic cis-regulatory elements in the correct fashion provide further evidence for the view that C₃ plants must have been relatively simple in genetic terms (Westhoff and Gowiak, 2004). C₄-like spatial activities of C₃ promoters in transgenic C₃ plants have also been reported for the C₄ isofrom of PEPC of maize (Zea mays; Matsuo et al., 2002; Nomura et al., 2000), the pyruvate orthophosphate dikinase gene of maize (Matsuo et al., 1993), and the phosphate pyruvate carboxylase gene of Z. japonica (Nomura et al., 2005). On the other hand, the C₄-like PEPC promoter of F. trinervia loses mesophyll specificity when it is introduced in Arabidopsis (Akyildiz et al., 2007). Similarly, the NADP-dependent malic enzyme promoter from maize loses its bundle-sheath specificity in rice (Oryza sativa; Nomura et al., 2005). This shows that the functionality of C₄-specific regulatory cis-elements in C₃ plants cannot be generalized.

The C₄-like expression pattern of the GLDPA-Ft promoter in Arabidopsis provided us with the possibility to dissect the functional organization of this promoter in Arabidopsis. A series of GLDPA promoter deletion and recombination constructs were analyzed, and two major functional modules were identified and localized, a non-cell-type-specific transcriptional enhancer and a segment that represses gene expression in mesophyll cells.

The transcriptional enhancer is located within the outermost distal regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA promoter comprising base pairs −1,571 to −1,139. The enhancer functions in bundle-sheath leaf tissues of Arabidopsis, i.e. in mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells as well as in the vascular bundle. The transcription-enhancing activity of these regions was not restricted to the context of the GLDPA promoter but was also
functional when combined with the proximal part of the ppeAI promoter of F. trirnetra. The enhancer is thus not GLDPA gene specific but functions as a general enhancer module.

The quantitative analysis of promoter activities (Fig. 4D) indicates that region 1 has a higher potential for transcriptional enhancement than region 2. A search for known cis-regulatory elements (Price et al., 1991; Higo et al., 1999) revealed the presence of a motif with similarity to the simian virus 40 enhancer core (GTGCGWHHG) at positions −1,435 to −1,448 in region 1. This motif is also present in a region of the GLDPA promoter of Flaviera pringlei that is associated with an increase in expression quantity (Bauwe et al., 1995).

Region 3 (−1,138 to −927) harbors cis-regulatory elements that confer cell specificity to the GLDPA promoter by repressing its activity in the mesophyll cells of the Arabidopsis leaf. A chimeric promoter consisting of the transcription-enhancing regions 1 and 2, region 3, and the proximal basal expression region 7 is also not active in the mesophyll cells of the C₄ species F. bidentis. This indicates that region 3 can repress expression in mesophyll cells also in the C₄ context, i.e., the mesophyll-repressing function of region 3 is conserved between the C₃ and the C₄ species. The lack of GLDPA expression in the mesophyll is thus caused by transcriptional regulation and not by posttranscriptional regulation as it was reported for the FrRbcS1 gene of F. bidentis. FrRbcS1 encodes the small subunit of Rubisco, and its bundle-sheath-specific expression is entirely established by selective rbcS transcript stabilization in the bundle-sheath cells (Patel et al., 2000).

Additional mesophyll-repressing cis-regulatory sequences are located in region 6 (−521 to −299). They can partially compensate for the lack of the mesophyll-repressing cis-regulatory sequences in region 3, when this segment is not present in the promoter construct. However, these cis-regulatory elements are not able to establish a robust repression of reporter gene activity in the mesophyll cells of Arabidopsis and appear to be of minor importance. This is documented by the cell type-specific expression of construct GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 that consists of the transcription-enhancing regions 1 and 2, region 3, and the proximal basal promoter region 7. GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7 directs a C₄-characteristic expression profile in F. bidentis. This demonstrates that the cis-regulatory motifs present in region 6 are not necessary for the repression of GLDPA expression in mesophyll cells of this C₄ species. Moreover, we can infer from the expression profile of this truncated promoter that regions 4 and 5 are also not necessary to achieve a C₄-typical GUS expression pattern in both Arabidopsis and F. bidentis. Regarding the mechanism of mesophyll repression, no predictions can be made at this moment, since searching for known cis-regulatory elements in region 3 did not identify any robust candidate motifs.

The cis-regulatory determinants for the mesophyll-specific repression of GLDPA expression in the leaf have
not been determined yet, and no other gene system for bundle-sheath-specific expression has been investigated in such detail that its cis- and trans-regulatory elements are known. However, cis-regulatory elements for mesophyll-specific gene expression have recently been identified at the nucleotide level (Gowik et al., 2004; Akyildiz et al., 2007) for the C₃-PEPC gene ppxAl from F. trinervia. It was found that variation at two positions in a 41-bp element, a C to A transition and the presence or absence of the tetranucleotide CACT, determines whether the promoter is active in all interior tissues of the leaf of transgenic F. bidentis or only in the mesophyll cells (Akyildiz et al., 2007). Hence, for both genes, GLDPA and ppxAl, cell type-specific gene expression is achieved by repressing the activity of the gene in the respective other cell type. Further dissection of repressor regions 3 and 6 within the GLDPA promoter of F. trinervia should allow precise mapping of the involved cis-regulatory elements. Such identification of a bundle-sheath-specific expression module consisting of a cis-regulatory sequence and the corresponding transcription factor would mark an important step in our understanding of the evolution of C₃ photosynthesis. Moreover, this information would also be of great value for attempts to convert a C₄ species into a C₃ species, as it has been proposed for rice (Mitchell and Sheehy, 2006).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Construction of Chimeric Promoters

DNA manipulations and cloning were carried out according to Sambrook and Russell (2001). Construct GLDPA-Fi (Cosso, 1997) served as the basis for the series of GLDPA promoter deletions. In GLDPA-Fi, the 5’ upstream region of the GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia from –1,571 to –1 (+1 describes the first base of the translational start codon) was fused to the GUS-DNA in the binary plant transformation vector pb121 (CLONTECH Laboratories). Different 5’-deleted fragments of the GLDPA promoter were generated by PCR amplification (Tables 1 and 2). The primers added an XbaI restriction site at the 5’-border of the DNA fragments and an XmaI site at the 3’ end. Therefore, the deleted promoters could be inserted into XbaI/XmaI-cut pb121, resulting in the formation of the constructs GLDPA-Fi-Δ1, GLDPA-Fi-Δ3, GLDPA-Fi-Δ4, GLDPA-Fi-Δ5, and GLDPA-Fi-Δ6. For the production of GLDPA-Fi-Δ2, plasmid GLDPA-Fi was digested with HindIII and EcoRI. The remaining plasmid was purified by gel electrophoresis and blunt ends were generated by treatment with the Klenow fragment of Escherichia coli DNA polymerase I. The vector was religated to form GLDPA-Fi-Δ2. The DNA fragment comprising regions 1 and 2 of the GLDPA-Fi promoter was generated by PCR amplification with primers GLDPA5’-Xba and Eco72-R. XbaI sites were introduced at both ends of the PCR product, which allowed the insertion of the DNA fragment into XbaI-cut GLDPA-Fi-Δ3, GLDPA-Fi-Δ4, GLDPA-Fi-Δ5, GLDPA-Fi-Δ6, and ppxAl-5’-R (Stockhaus et al., 1994). The resulting plasmid constructs were named GLDPA-Fi-1-2-5-6-7, GLDPA-Fi-1-2-5-6-7, GLDPA-Fi-1-2-6-7, GLDPA-Fi-1-2-7, and GLDPA-Fi-1-2-ppxAl-Δ6. The cloning of construct GLDPA-Fi-1-2-3-7 involved PCR amplification of the promoter region between –1,371 and –827 using primers GLDPA5’-Xba and gdxss-R. The PCR product was digested with XbaI and ligated with XbaI-cut GLDPA-Fi-Δ6. The correct orientation of the inserted DNA fragment in GLDPA-Fi-1-2-3-7 was shown by sequencing.

To produce construct GLDPA-Fi-H2B::YP, the H2B::YP gene fusion was excised from plasmid pb121-355::H2B::YP (Boinain-Lorig et al., 2001) with BamHI and SacI. The GLDPA promoter of F. trinervia was amplified from plasmid GLDPA-Fi (Cosso, 1997) with primers GLDPA5’-HindIII and GLDPA-5’-BamHI. A pb121 backbone was generated by removing the 355::H2B::YP insert from plasmid pb121-355::H2B::YP via incubation with HindIII and SacI, and a triple ligation between pb121 (HindIII/SacI), the GLDPA promoter (HindIII/BamHI), and the H2B::YP fragment (BamHI/SacI) finally resulted in the formation of construct GLDPA-Fi-H2B::YP.

The cloning of construct GLDPA-Fi-mGFP::ER was achieved by PCR amplification of the mGFP::ER gene (Haseloff et al., 1997) from genomic DNA of the Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) enhanced trap line S243 (generated by Scott Poethig, http://www.arabidopsis.org/abc/poethig.jsp) with primers 5’-mGFP::ER-BamHI and 3’-mGFP::ER-SacI. The PCR product was then cloned into BamHI/SacI-cut GLDPA-Fi-H2B::YP to yield GLDPA-Fi-mGFP::ER.

Plant Transformation

In all transformation experiments, the Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain AGL1 was used (Lazo et al., 1991). The promoter-GUS constructs were introduced into AGL1 by electroporation. Arabidopsis plants were transformed via the floral dip method according to Clough and Bent (1998). The transformation of *Faba* hibrida was performed as described by Chitty et al. (1994). The integration of the transgenes into the genome of regenerant *F. hibrida* or *F. trinervia* Arabidopsis plants was proved by PCR analyses.

Measurement of GUS Activity and Histological Analysis of Reporter Gene Activity

*F. hibrida* T1 plants used for GUS analysis were 40 to 50 cm tall and before flower initiation; the Arabidopsis T1 plants were examined around 3 weeks after germination. Fluorometric quantification of GUS activity was performed according to Jefferson et al. (1987) and Kosugi et al. (1990). For histochemical analysis of GUS activity, leaves were cut manually with a razorblade and the sections were transferred to incubation buffer (100 mM Na2HPO4 pH 7.5, 10 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl, 50 mM KCl, 0.1% (v/v) Triton-X-100, 2 mM 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-glucuronic acid). After brief vacuum infiltration, the sections were incubated at 37°C for 1 to 20 h. After incubation, chlorophyll was removed from the tissue by treatment with 70% ethanol. Fluorescence microscopy was performed using a Zeiss Axiohot (Carl Zeiss AG) equipped with an Olympus DPP90 camera (Olympus Optical) and a Zeiss G2P imaging filter system (BP 490-499, FT 530, BP 515-565). Bright-field and fluorescence images were overlaid with Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe Systems). For confocal laser microscopy, a Zeiss LSM 510 with a Plan-Neofluar 25× objective was used. YFP fluorescence was monitored with a 565- to 590-nm band pass emission filter (488-nm excitation line). Chlorophyll autofluorescence was visualized with a long pass 560-nm emission filter.

In Situ RNA Hybridization

Nonradioactive in situ hybridization experiments were performed according to the protocol described by Simon et al. (2002). Embedded leaves of *F. hibrida* and *F. trinervia* were cut into cross sections of 20 µm thickness using a standard microscope. For the generation of the GLDPA probe, a 2.4-kb cDNA fragment of the GLDPA gene of *F. trinervia* was amplified by PCR (primers gdec4-4 and gdec4-4; see Table I). The PCR product was digested with BamHI and XbaI and cloned into BamHI/XbaI cut pHunter II KS+ (Stratagene). The use of two different RNA polymerases (T3 and T7) then allowed the production of both antisense and sense probes for in situ hybridization.

Supplemental Data

The following materials are available in the online version of this article.

Supplemental Video S1. Histochemical localization of H2B:YFP in Arabidopsis plants transformed with the construct GLDPA::H2B::YFP by confocal laser microscopy.


ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Simon Karup for the generous gift of plasmid pB121155::H2B:YFP and Scott Poethig for the donation of the Arabidopsis enhancer trap line E2443. We are indebted to Ute Hoeger for carefully reading the manuscript.

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LITERATURE CITED


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**Table I. Oligonucleotide primers used for the construction of promoter fragments and for the synthesis of probes for in situ and northern hybridizations**

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<tr>
<td>V.-gmpS+ -Srf</td>
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**Table II. Oligonucleotide primer combinations used for the construction of GLDPA promoter fragments**

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trinervia: an expression analysis in the C3 plant tobacco. Mol Gen Genet 240: 286–293


The authors' contributions

**SE** wrote this manuscript and performed all experiments except those listed below.

**CW** constructed *GLDPA*-Ft::*H2B::YFP* and *GLDPA*-Ft::*mGFP5-ER*, generated transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants carrying *GLDPA*-Ft::*H2B::YFP* or *GLDPA*-Ft::*mGFP5-ER*, performed the fluorescence microscopic and confocal microscopic analyses of transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft::*H2B::YFP* and *GLDPA*-Ft::*mGFP5-ER* plants of *A. thaliana* (Figure 3, E–L; Supplemental Videos S1 and S2), and carried out the histochemical GUS staining as well as the fluorometrical quantification of GUS activity in leaves of transgenic *Flaveria bidentis* plants harboring the *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-3-7 construct (Figure 8).

**JB** analyzed the histochemical GUS staining in leaf cross sections of transgenic *F. bidentis* plants harboring the *GLDPA*-Ft construct (Figure 2B).

**UG** analyzed the histochemical GUS staining in guard cells of transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft plants of *F. bidentis* (Figure 2C).

**US**, **MK** and **MS** performed the transformation of *F. bidentis* plants.

**RC** and **HB** provided the *GLDPA*-Ft construct.

**PW** and **UG** participated in drafting of the manuscript.

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Manuscript 2

Regulation of the photorespiratory GLDPA gene in C₄ Flaveria – an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional processes
Regulation of the photorespiratory GLDPA gene in C₄ Flaveria – an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional processes

Running title: GLDPA gene regulation

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ABSTRACT

The mitochondrial glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) is a key component of the photorespiratory pathway that occurs in all photosynthetically active tissues of C₃ plants, but is restricted to bundle-sheath cells in C₄ species. GDC is also required for the general cellular C₁ metabolism. In the Asteracean C₄ species *Flaveria trinervia* a single functional *GLDP* gene encoding the P-subunit of GDC, *GLDPA*, has been identified. *GLDPA* promoter reporter gene fusion studies revealed that this promoter is active in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature of transgenic *F. bidentis* (C₄) and the Brassicacean C₃ species *Arabidopsis thaliana* suggesting the existence of an evolutionary conserved gene regulatory system in the bundle-sheath. Here, we demonstrate that *GLDPA* gene regulation is controlled by an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms. The *GLDPA* promoter is composed of two tandem promoters, P_R2 and P_R7, that together ensure a strong bundle-sheath expression. While the proximal promoter (P_R7) is active in the bundle-sheath and vasculature like the full-length *GLDPA* promoter, the distal promoter (P_R2) drives uniform expression in all leaf chlorenchyma cells and the vasculature. Post-transcriptional regulation is based on the inefficient splicing of an intron in the 5' untranslated leader of P_R2-derived transcripts appearing to elicit RNA decay.

INTRODUCTION

C₄ photosynthesis is based on the division of labor between two distinct photosynthetically active cell types, mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells. CO₂ is initially prefixed in mesophyll cells by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase and then transported into bundle-sheath cells in the form of malate or aspartate. There CO₂ is released, refixed by ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco), and finally enters the Calvin-Benson cycle as it occurs in C₃ plants. As a bifunctional enzyme Rubisco is able to catalyze the carboxylation as well as the oxygenation of its substrate ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate. When fixing O₂ photorespiration is initiated, a process leading to the loss of previously bound CO₂ and thus decreasing the efficiency of photosynthesis. However, the concentration of CO₂ around Rubisco in the bundle-sheath cells by the C₄ cycle suppresses photorespiration effectively (Ogren, 1984; Hatch, 1987; Leegood et al., 1995; Foyer et al., 2009).

C₄ plants have evolved several times independently from C₃ ancestors, indicating that the conversion from C₃ towards C₄ photosynthesis did not require drastic alterations but could have been implemented rather easily in genetic terms (Sage, 2004; Brown et al., 2011; Gowik
and Westhoff, 2011). It is assumed that a crucial step towards C₄ photosynthesis was the establishment of a functional photorespiratory CO₂ pump, which required the restriction of the glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) to the bundle-sheath cells (Bauwe and Kolukisaoglu, 2003; Sage, 2004).

GDC is located in the mitochondria and consists of four subunits, the L-, H-, P- and T-protein. Together the four proteins cleave glycine resulting in the release of CO₂, NH₃ and a tetrahydrofolate-bound C₁ residue (Oliver, 1994; Douce et al., 2001). Aside from its involvement in the photorespiratory pathway, GDC also contributes to the C₁ metabolism in all biosynthetic tissues which is essential for the synthesis of proteins, nucleic acids, pantothenates and methylated molecules (Mouillon et al., 1999; Hanson and Roje, 2001).

In C₃ plants, GDC accumulates in all photosynthetically active cells. In contrast, in C₄ plants GDC occurs only in bundle-sheath but not in mesophyll cells, and consequently photorespiratory activity of C₄ plants is restricted to the bundle-sheath. In C₃-C₄ intermediate species which are considered an evolutionary link in the transition from C₃ to C₄ plants, GDC activity has been reported to be already restricted to the bundle-sheath cells (Ohnishi and Kanai, 1983; Rawsthorne et al., 1988; Morgan et al., 1993; Yoshimura et al., 2004). This finding is consistent with the evolutionary scenario that predicts such a relocation of GDC during C₄ evolution (Sage, 2004). The genus Flaveria includes C₄, C₃ and several C₃-C₄ intermediate species (Powell, 1978; McKown et al., 2005) and therefore represents a distinguished model system to study molecular mechanisms of the evolutionary transition from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis (Westhoff and Gowik, 2004; Brown et al., 2005).

The GLDPA gene encodes the P-subunit of GDC in the C₄ plant F. trinervia (Cossu and Bauwe, 1998). In situ hybridization studies showed that GLDPA transcripts accumulate only in bundle-sheath cells suggesting that the GLDPA gene is specifically transcribed in this tissue (Engelmann et al., 2008). In agreement with this finding, the GLDPA 5'-flanking region from -1 to -1571 (with regard to the translational start site at +1; here referred to as the GLDPA promoter) directs expression of reporter genes in the bundle-sheath but not in the mesophyll cells. In F. bidentis (C₄), the promoter is also active, although to a varying degree, in the vasculature of leaves and roots, stomata and in the pericycle cells of roots (Figure 1). Surprisingly, the GLDPA promoter exhibited a similar activity in A. thaliana (C₃) (Engelmann et al., 2008; Figure 1) suggesting that the regulatory networks controlling bundle-sheath gene expression are similar in the Brassicacean C₃ species A. thaliana and the Asteracean C₄ species F. bidentis. Promoter deletion and recombination experiments identified a distal
region that enhanced promoter activity and an intermediate segment that appeared to contain mesophyll-repressing sequences (Engelmann et al., 2008).

In this study we demonstrate that the functional architecture of the GLDPA promoter is much more complex than previously thought. We show that the GLDPA promoter is in fact composed of two sub-promoters acting in tandem. The proximal promoter (P\text{R7}) equivalent to region 7 (-1 to -298; Engelmann et al., 2008) directs reporter gene expression specifically in the bundle-sheath and the vasculature. The distal promoter (P\text{R2}) corresponding to region 2 (-1139 to -1389; Engelmann et al., 2008) is active in the vasculature and in all chlorenchyma tissues of the leaf including the mesophyll. When combined, P\text{R7} efficiently suppresses the activity of P\text{R2}, but only in F. bidentis, while in Arabidopsis the full and robust suppression of P\text{R2} requires in addition the action of region 3 (-927 to -1138; Engelmann et al., 2008). By rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE) and mining of RNA-seq data (Gowik et al., 2011) we show that the suppression of the mesophyll activity in the GLDPA promoter is not complete, allowing also very small amounts of GLDPA transcripts starting from P\text{R2} to accumulate. We show that the removal of an intron in the 5' untranslated leader of P\text{R2}-derived transcripts is essential for generating GLDPA protein whose mitochondrial targeting sequence is truncated but that can be imported into mitochondria nevertheless. We discuss why the bundle-sheath-exclusive expression of a single leaf-specific GLDP gene, as predicted and requested by the functional model of C\textsubscript{4} photosynthesis, must be somewhat leaky, but not too much.

RESULTS

Analysis of 5' ends of transcripts of the GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia revealed two independent transcription start sites

Since the transcription start site (TSS) of the GLDPA gene of F. trinervia had not been determined experimentally yet, rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE; Frohman et al., 1988) was used for mapping 5' ends of GLDPA transcripts as present in total leaf extracts. 5' RACE analysis revealed two RNA 5' end classes with one starting in the most proximal region 7 predominantly at nucleotide (nt) -100 upstream of the predicted translational start codon at +1 (ATG\textsubscript{+1}), while the other one started in the distal region 2 between nucleotides -1185 and -1174 (Figure 2A). Half of the analyzed transcripts starting from region 7 contained a 5' untranslated region (5' UTR\text{R7}) of 100 nt. The remaining 5' UTR\text{R7}s were slightly shorter with a length between 66 nt and 99 nt. The UTRs of the two
detected 5' ends of RNAs transcribed from region 2 (5' UTR_{R2s}) included parts of region 2 and 3 but lacked regions 4, 5, 6 and 7 as well as the first 17 nt of the predicted GLDPA open reading frame (Figure 2A). Fourteen individual and randomly selected 5' RACE products were sequenced. Twelve of them started in region 7 and only two in region 2 (Figure 2A) indicating that the dominant TSS is that one located in region 7.

The comparison of the 5' UTR_{R2s} with the DNA sequence of the GLDPA promoter identified the signatures of a spliceosomal intron with two putative GT splice donor sites at -1103 and -1037 respectively within region 3 and a shared AG splice acceptor site at +16 within the open reading frame. If splicing occurs, regardless of which donor site is used, the next available putative start codon at position +25 (ATG_{+25}; Figure 2A) could be used resulting in the shortening of the mitochondrial GLDPA presequence by eight amino acids.

The analysis of the leaf transcriptome of F. trinervia by 454 pyrosequencing confirmed the 5' RACE data (Figure 2B; Gowik et al., 2011). The most distal reads detected for the GLDPA gene started exactly at position -1185 within region 2. Additionally, the 91-nt 5' UTR_{R2} splicing variant starting at -1185 (Figure 2A) was also found twice by 454 sequencing. In contrast to the low abundance of transcripts in the range from -1185 to -100, the frequency of mRNAs increased at or downstream of position -100 within region 7. This suggests that region 7 is transcriptionally more active than region 2, which is consistent with the results obtained by 5' RACE. We conclude that the GLDPA promoter contains two putative TSSs with the major and proximal TSS located in region 7 predominantly at position -100 (TSS_{R7}) and the distal and minor TSS in region 2 around position -1185 (TSS_{R2}).

**The proximal and distal transcription start sites of the GLDPA gene of F. trinervia are functional in transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana**

To test whether the two putative TSSs are used in a transgenic promoter-reporter gene context, 5' RACE experiments were performed with transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana both containing the GLDPA-Ft:GUS chimeric gene (see Supplemental Figure 1 online; Engelmann et al., 2008). In both F. bidentis and A. thaliana, all RNA 5' ends started between position -90 and -100, i.e. in region 7. Transcripts that originated from region 2 at position -1185 were detected, despite their very low abundance. The 5' UTRs of these mRNAs were not spliced. This is to be expected, because the splice acceptor site that occurs in the GLDPA reading frame is not available due to the substitution of the GLDPA reading frame by the GUS sequence. Taken together, these findings suggest that region 2 and 7 of the GLDPA promoter function as separate promoters in transgenic plants of both A. thaliana and F. bidentis.
Both GLDPA transit peptide variants ensure mitochondrial import

The P-subunit of glycine decarboxylase is located in the mitochondria and hence the GLDPA precursor protein should contain a mitochondrial targeting sequence (presequence) at its very amino terminus (Tanudji et al., 1999; Huang et al., 2009). Analysis of the GLDPA coding sequence by UniProtKB predicts a transit peptide of 63 amino acids which is equivalent to 189 nt of the nucleotide sequence (Cossu and Bauwe, 1998). The use of the distal promoter and the removal of the intron shift the putative translational start site to position +25 nt. This would result in a presequence truncated by eight amino terminal amino acid residues. We investigated therefore whether the full size transit peptide of 63 amino acids can target the green fluorescent protein (GFP) to mitochondria and, if so, whether a deletion of the eight amino terminal residues would interfere with a mitochondrial targeting. The two different GLDPA presequence variants were fused with the GFP reporter gene and the various constructs were transiently expressed in leaf protoplasts of Nicotiana benthamiana under the control of the constitutive cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter (Odell et al., 1985). The distribution of GFP throughout the cell was analyzed by confocal microscopy (Figure 3).

When construct 35S:GLDPAmt-Ft-mgfp6 containing the full-length GLDPA presequence (GLDPAmt-Ft) fused to GFP was analyzed, GFP fluorescence was exclusively detected in the mitochondrial network. As expected, in the absence of any mitochondrial targeting peptide (construct 35S:mgfp6) GFP was evenly distributed throughout the cytoplasm with no visible association to any cellular organelle. When the truncated transit peptide was investigated (35S:GLDPAmt24-Ft-mgfp6), the cellular pattern of GFP fluorescence was indistinguishable from that obtained with the 35S:GLDPAmt-Ft-mgfp6 construct. The absence of the first eight amino acids from the GLDPA presequence, therefore, did not affect the mitochondrial targeting of the passenger protein. We conclude that both transit peptide variants are capable of targeting the GLDPA protein into mitochondria.

Region 7 of the GLDPA promoter directs bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific gene expression in both F. bidentis and A. thaliana

The presence of the putative TSS identified in region 7 predominantly at position -100 (TSSR7) and in region 2 at position -1185 (TSSR2) respectively, raise the question whether regions 2 and 7 function as promoters that initiate transcription at these positions. To test the promoter function of region 7, the corresponding segment was fused to GUS (construct GLDPA-Ft-7; Figure 4A), and the expression pattern of the chimeric gene was analyzed in leaves of both transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana (Figure 4).
Transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-7 plants of *F. bidentis* exhibited GUS activity only in bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles (Figures 4B to 4D). This expression pattern was indistinguishable from that of the full-length *GLDPA* promoter (Figure 1; Engelmann et al., 2008). However, the promoter activity of *GLDPA*-Ft-7 was much lower than that of the full-length promoter (Figure 4H; Engelmann et al., 2008).

An almost identical expression pattern was also observed in leaves of transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-7 plants of *A. thaliana* (Figures 4E to 4G). The two species differed only in the extent of GUS staining within the vasculature which was less in the C₄ plant compared to the C₃ plant. Similarly as in *F. bidentis*, the *GLDPA*-Ft-7 promoter activity in Arabidopsis was very low (Figure 4H).

These findings demonstrate that region 7 is a functional promoter (Pᵦ₇) that can initiate transcription on its own. Furthermore, Pᵦ₇ directs gene expression specifically in bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles like the full-length *GLDPA* promoter.

The 5' UTR in Pᵦ₇-derived transcripts does not contribute to gene expression specificity

RNAs transcribed from Pᵦ₇ at TSSᵦ₇ contain a 100-nt long 5' untranslated region (5' UTRᵦ₇100) which is part of the sub-promoter Pᵦ₇ as defined above. It has been reported that the 5' UTRs of transcripts from C₄ genes may be responsible for the bundle-sheath-specific accumulation of the corresponding RNAs (Patel et al., 2006). To analyze whether the 5' UTRᵦ₇100 of the *GLDPA* gene contributes to or may be even responsible for the observed bundle-sheath specificity of *GLDPA* expression, the 5' UTRᵦ₇100 was fused to the *GUS* coding sequence and the transgene was stably expressed in Arabidopsis driven by the CaMV 35S promoter (35S:*GLDPA*-Ft-5'UTRᵦ₇100-*GUS*). Transgenic Arabidopsis plants containing a 35S:*GUS* gene served as controls (Figure 5A).

Independently of whether the 5' UTRᵦ₇100 was inserted between the 35S promoter and the *GUS* gene or not, the *GUS* gene was expressed in all inner tissues of mature rosette leaves as well as in cotyledons, roots and partially in hypocotyls of young seedlings (Figures 5B to 5I). Thus, the 5' UTRᵦ₇100 did not alter the expression pattern of the reporter gene. However, transgenic Arabidopsis plants showed a sevenfold higher GUS activity in total leaf extracts, when the 5' UTRᵦ₇100 was present compared to those plants expressing the 5' UTRᵦ₇100-less *GUS* variant (Figure 5J). In addition, young seedlings harboring 35S:*GLDPA*-Ft-5'UTRᵦ₇100-*GUS* exhibited much stronger GUS staining within the whole primary root than 35S:*GUS* seedlings (Figures 5B and 5F).
These findings indicate that the 5' UTR$_{R7}$100 is not involved in the bundle-sheath specificity of transcript accumulation. It neither destabilizes transcript accumulation in the mesophyll cells, nor does it enhance transcript accumulation in the bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature. We conclude that the bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific expression of genes driven by P$_{R7}$ is regulated transcriptionally.

Region 2 activates gene expression in the leaf chlorenchyma and vascular tissues in both *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*

To investigate the promoter activity contained in region 2 of the GLDPA promoter, the sequence of region 2 was fused to the GUS reporter gene and the expression pattern and strength of the resulting GLDPA-Ft-2:GUS gene (construct GLDPA-Ft-2; Figure 6A) was analyzed in transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* (Figure 6). Transgenic GLDPA-Ft-2 plants of both *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* showed an indistinguishable GUS expression pattern. Uniform GUS staining was detectable in all inner leaf tissues, namely the chlorenchyma (mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells) and the vascular bundles. No tissue was stained preferentially (Figures 6B to 6E). Region 2 of the GLDPA promoter is, therefore, essentially a general leaf promoter (PR$_{2}$) that functions in both *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* with no obvious cell or tissue preference. The promoter activity of region 2 was much stronger than that of region 7 in both *F. bidentis* (~400-fold) and *A. thaliana* (~1000-fold) (Figures 4H and 6F) reaching almost the promoter activity of the full-length GLDPA promoter at least in Arabidopsis (Engelmann et al., 2008).

Region 1 enhances the promoter activities of regions 2 and 7 of the GLDPA promoter

Region 1 and 2 together were previously suggested to act as a general transcriptional enhancing module of the GLDPA promoter (Engelmann et al., 2008). However, the present findings have revealed that region 2 alone is a strong autonomous promoter. To investigate whether region 1 alone enhances transcriptional activity, it was combined with either the proximal promoter, region 7 (P$_{R7}$), or the distal promoter, region 2 (P$_{R2}$), fused to GUS and analyzed in transgenic *F. bidentis* and Arabidopsis plants. The activity of P$_{R7}$ or P$_{R2}$ in the presence of region 1 (constructs GLDPA-Ft-1-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1-2) was then compared with that of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-7 and GLDPA-Ft-2, that lack region 1 (see Supplemental Figure 2 online).

In both *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*, the addition of region 1 to the P$_{R2}$ and P$_{R7}$ promoter segments caused similar effects. In combination with P$_{R7}$, region 1 enhanced promoter
activity 15- to 18-fold, while the enhancing effect of region 1 on P_{R2} was small to moderate (~twofold). In both cases, the addition of region 1 did not alter the spatial expression patterns of the attached promoters. Region 1 therefore exhibits only a quantitative enhancing effect, but contains no cell or tissue specificity component.

**Region 7 represses the promoter activity of region 2 of the GLDPA promoter stably in *F. bidentis*, but only partially in Arabidopsis**

The presented data showed that the full-length GLDPA promoter functions essentially as a bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific promoter with minute amounts of transcripts derived from the non-specific distal sub-promoter P_{R2} (region 2). The question therefore arose how this expression pattern could be achieved in view of the fact that the non-specific sub-promoter P_{R2} is about two to three magnitudes stronger than the specific proximal sub-promoter P_{R7} (region 7). Previous experiments had shown that a recombined promoter consisting of regions 1, 2, 3 and 7 in the order given (GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3-7) directed an expression pattern that was indistinguishable from that of the full-length promoter (Engelmann et al., 2008). A plausible hypothesis is that the activity of P_{R2} within the GLDPA promoter is repressed by the proximal promoter P_{R7} and/or region 3. To identify the component in the GLDPA promoter that suppresses its activity in the mesophyll tissue, various combinations of regions 1, 2, 3 and 7 were analyzed with regard to their expression specificities in both *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*.

Transgenic *F. bidentis* plants expressing GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7:GUS (GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7; Figure 7A) retained the expression specificity in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature (Figure 7B) suggesting that, in *F. bidentis*, region 3 is not required for promoter specificity. As expected, omission of region 1 (GLDPA-Ft-2-7; Figure 7A) did not affect the spatial GUS staining pattern (Figure 7C). In *F. bidentis*, therefore, the presence of P_{R7} alone suffices to repress the activity of P_{R2}.

In contrast, in *A. thaliana* the absence of region 3 in the promoter constructs caused a loss of bundle-sheath and vasculature specificity. All transgenic *A. thaliana* plants harboring GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 showed GUS expression in all inner leaf tissues (Engelmann et al., 2008). Thus, the expression pattern resembles that of P_{R2} alone (Figure 6). In contrast to the stable GUS expression pattern of transgenic GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 plants, Arabidopsis lines containing the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct varied in their GUS expression patterns between two extremes, bundle-sheath-/vasculature-specific GUS staining to an expression in all inner leaf tissues (Figure 8). In the presence of region 3 (GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7; Figure 9A) all transgenic *A.
*Arabidopsis* plants exhibited *GUS* expression in the bundle-sheath and the vasculature (Figures 9C and 9G). In *Arabidopsis*, therefore, PR7 is not sufficient to suppress PR2, but needs region 3 for stable repression. With regard to *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-7 *Arabidopsis* plants the presence of region 1 enhances the activity of PR2, and the partially repressive function of PR7 is overcome.

**In Arabidopsis, region 3 cannot maintain bundle-sheath specificity on its own, but needs the presence of PR7**

Since region 3 of the *GLDPA* promoter is absolutely required for the suppression of PR2 activity in Arabidopsis, the question arose whether also in Arabidopsis PR7 is required for region 3 to be functional. In the natural context of the *GLDPA* promoter region 3 is located 3' to the sub-promoter PR2 followed further downstream by PR7. We wanted to know therefore whether the position of region 3 with respect to PR2 is important for its suppressing activity and whether region 3 can also influence the activity of PR7.

To investigate whether region 3 alone could repress PR2 activity, it was fused downstream (*GLDPA*-Ft-2-3) as well as upstream (*GLDPA*-Ft-3-2) of PR2 (Figure 9A). In both cases all transgenic *A. thaliana* plants exhibited the same uniform *GUS* expression pattern in the chlorenchyma and vasculature as detected for PR2 alone (Figures 9D, 9E, 9H and 9I). In contrast, the combination of PR2, region 3 and PR7 (*GLDPA*-Ft-2-3-7; Figure 9A) caused specific *GUS* expression in the bundle-sheath and the vasculature (Figures 9C and 9G). Therefore, region 3 alone is not sufficient to suppress PR2, independent of its location down- or upstream of PR2, but the presence of PR7, in addition, is necessary.

To examine whether region 3 could affect also PR7 activity, the corresponding transgene (*GLDPA*-Ft-3-7; Figure 9A) was constructed and analyzed in transgenic Arabidopsis. As expected the combination of region 3 and PR7 led to the same bundle-sheath and vasculature-specific expression pattern as PR7 alone (Figures 9B and 9F), indicating that region 3 has no influence on the spatial activity of PR7.

However, the *GLDPA*-Ft-3-7 construct was 20-fold more active than *GLDPA*-Ft-7 (Figures 4H and 9J). Interestingly, region 3 was also able to enhance PR2 activity (compare constructs *GLDPA*-Ft-3-2 [Figure 9J] and *GLDPA*-Ft-2 [Figure 6F]), although to a much less degree than observed for PR7 (twofold vs. 20-fold). Thus, region 3 can enhance transcription of PR7 and PR2 with a comparable strength as detected for region 1.
DISCUSSION

The commonly believed evolutionary scenario of C₄ photosynthesis predicts that relatively early along the path towards C₄ photosynthesis a photorespiratory CO₂ pump was established by compartmentalization of glycine decarboxylase activity in the bundle-sheath (Sage, 2004; Bauwe, 2011). All available experimental data confirm the final outcome of this evolutionary process, namely that in present C₄ species glycine decarboxylase accumulates exclusively in the bundle-sheath (Majeran et al., 2010; Li et al., 2010). Along these lines the activity of the GLDPA promoter of the Asteracean C₄ species F. trinervia was found to be restricted to the bundle-sheath cells and vasculature in leaves of both transgenic F. bidentis (C₄) and A. thaliana (C₃) (Engelmann et al., 2008). This suggested that the bundle-sheath-specific accumulation of GLDPA mRNAs should be essentially controlled by transcription (Engelmann et al., 2008). Data presented in this paper indicate that GLDPA gene regulation is much more complex than previously thought. We discuss and provide evidence that the mRNA output of this gene is controlled by a combination of transcriptional and post-transcriptional means.

The GLDPA promoter consists of two tandem promoters

The GLDPA promoter is composed of two tandem promoters, Pₐ and Pₙ, that together ensure a strong bundle-sheath expression. The two sub-promoters are not easily recognized by inspection of their corresponding nucleotide sequences. No reliable candidates for TATA boxes can be detected in the predicted distance of 25 to 40 bp upstream of the two transcriptional initiation sites (Joshi, 1987; Bernard et al., 2010; Zuo and Li, 2011). This may not surprise since, for instance in A. thaliana, only 20 to 30% of all promoters contain a TATA box/variant (Molina and Grotewold, 2005; Yamamoto et al., 2009; Bernard et al., 2010). Recently, TC-elements have been proposed as a novel class of regulatory elements that control transcription in plants (Bernard et al., 2010). Indeed, several TC-elements are located around TSSₐ but predominantly around TSSₙ within the predicted range of 50 bp up- and/or downstream of the corresponding TSS (see Supplemental Figure 3 online; Zuo and Li, 2011). The possible importance of TC-elements for transcriptional regulation of Pₙ is supported by the fact that the motifs CCCTTT, CCTTCT and TCTTCT are unique to region 7 within the GLDPA promoter and that TCTTCT even belongs to the three TC-elements most frequently observed (Bernard et al., 2010). TSSₐ is flanked by a sequence repeat that is very similar to the predicted Initiator (Inr) motif shown to be essential for the light-dependent activity of the psaDb promoter from Nicotiana sylvestris (Nakamura et al., 2002; see Supplemental Figure 3
online). According to the YR rule (YR, Y = C or T, R = A or G, TSS underlined) most of the Arabidopsis promoters contain the CA dimer sequence around their TSSs (Yamamoto et al., 2007), which is also true for TSSR2. Yamamoto et al. (2007) consider this YR rule to represent a less stringent form of Inr. This indicates that Inr elements might be crucial for transcriptional activity of P_{R2}.

The GLDPA sub-promoters diverge in their specificities

When analyzed separately, the two sub-promoters diverge in their spatial expression profiles. The proximal promoter (P_{R7}), defined by region 7, is relatively weak and specifically active in the bundle-sheath and the vasculature like the full-length GLDPA promoter (Figure 4). The distal promoter (P_{R2}), defined by region 2, is strong and drives expression in all inner leaf cells including the mesophyll (Figure 6). In contrast, in the context of the full-length GLDPA promoter the final RNA output from both promoters, as measured by 5′ RACE and RNA sequencing experiments, is just the reverse. RNAs transcribed from the proximal promoter dominate the GLDPA transcript population, and RNAs derived from P_{R2} are in the minority (Figure 2). When the two sub-promoters, i.e. regions 2 and 7, are combined and fused to the GUS reporter gene, the read-out of this chimeric gene in F. bidentis is indistinguishable from that of the complete GLDPA promoter (cf. Figures 1 and 7). The finding suggests that the proximal bundle-sheath-specific promoter P_{R7} turns off the activity of the unspecific distal promoter P_{R2}. How could a downstream promoter interfere with the activity of an upstream promoter and even disable it?

That a strong upstream promoter can shut-off the activity of a downstream promoter is well documented (Mazo et al., 2007). This phenomenon is called transcriptional interference and may be defined as “the in cis suppression of one transcriptional process by another”. Transcriptional interference has been documented as a general regulatory process affecting the transcription from adjacent convergent or tandem promoters (Palmer et al., 2011). Different ways are considered of how promoters could impede or even block one another. One possibility is the transcription from a strong regulatory promoter that might impair the recruitment of the transcription initiation complex or the transcriptional elongation of a neighboring target gene (Mazo et al., 2007; Palmer et al., 2011).

The regulatory interactions between the yeast SRG1 gene that encodes a non-coding RNA and the downstream target gene SER3 encoding an enzyme of the serine biosynthesis pathway may serve as the best investigated example of transcriptional interference. Both genes are arranged in tandem. Transcription of the non-coding SRG1 RNA suppresses the adjacent
SER3 gene by inhibiting the binding of transcriptional activators to the SER3 promoter (Martens et al., 2004). The binding of these activators is prevented because SRG1 transcription leads to random positioning of nucleosomes that occlude the SER3 promoter and thereby block SER3 transcription (Hainer et al., 2011; Thebault et al., 2011). Transcriptional interference has also been reported for plants. The strong 35S promoter of a T-DNA inserted upstream of the AtRibA1 gene results in large transcripts that run over the AtRibA1 promoter and thereby inhibit AtRibA1 transcription (Hedtke and Grimm, 2009).

In all known cases of transcriptional interference occurring with tandem promoters, the upstream promoter blocks the activity of the downstream promoter. However, with respect to the GLDPA promoter just the opposite is true: the downstream promoter P_{R7} inhibits the output from the upstream promoter P_{R2}. Could a roadblock mechanism explain the transcriptional interference between the GLDPA sub-promoters, i.e. a pausing RNA polymerase II (Levine, 2011) or a scaffold of general transcription factors (Yudkovsky et al., 2000) residing at the downstream promoter inhibit the progress of RNA polymerase II from the upstream promoter? There is increasing evidence that RNA polymerase II pauses quite often after having initiated transcription and having produced a nascent transcript of about 30 to 50 nucleotides (Levine, 2011). In human lung fibroblasts 30% of all protein-coding genes carry a paused RNA polymerase (Core et al., 2008), and in the early Drosophila embryo the stalling of RNA polymerase II in promoter-proximal regions occurs in hundreds of genes that are regulated by environmental or developmental stimuli (Muse et al., 2007; Zeitlinger et al., 2007). It is conceivable therefore that a RNA polymerase II pausing at P_{R7} might represent a roadblock that impedes the elongation of transcripts originating from P_{R2} and leads to the suppression of the P_{R2} output.

The GLDPA 5' flanking region – a player in post-transcriptional control

One hallmark of the GLDPA gene of *F. trinervia* is an intron located within the 5' UTR of P_{R2}-derived transcripts. Depending on the splice donor site used the intron commences 84 or 139 nucleotides behind the respective transcription start site of the distal promoter P_{R2} within region 3 and ends 17 nucleotides behind the first nucleotide of the GLDPA reading frame (Figure 2). RNA sequencing experiments using the 454 technology (Gowik et al., 2011) revealed that this 5' intron is present in GLDPA transcripts, and the sequence reads cover the intron region uniformly (see Supplemental Figure 4 online). In contrast, sequence reads from the gene-internal introns are not detectable. The accumulation of unspliced P_{R2}-derived
transcripts with respect to their 5' UTR suggests that the splicing efficiency of the 5' intron is drastically lower than that of the gene-internal ones.

To prevent the accumulation of aberrant mRNAs, i.e. mRNAs that are erroneously or not completely spliced, eukaryotes have developed various quality control systems (Egecioglu and Chanfreau, 2011). Spliceosomal DExD/H box ATPases provide the first layer of defense. They act as kinetic proofreading systems and limit the escape of unspliced or erroneously spliced RNAs from the spliceosome (Egecioglu and Chanfreau, 2011). Despite the accuracy of these proofreading activities unspliced mRNAs may escape detection, and therefore external quality control systems have been built up. The nuclear exosome takes part in the degradation of unspliced RNAs (Houseley et al., 2006; Fasken and Corbett, 2009), although the molecular mechanisms by which unspliced RNAs are recognized are not yet clear. Exon-junction complexes that are deposited on spliced RNAs might be involved in the recognition mechanism (Egecioglu and Chanfreau, 2011). These protein complexes play also a prominent role in nonsense-mediated mRNA decay. Nonsense-mediated mRNA decay is a eukaryotic mRNA surveillance mechanism that detects and degrades mRNAs containing premature termination codons (Chang et al., 2007; Brogna and Wen, 2009). In plants, long 3' UTRs, introns that are located in 3' UTRs and upstream open reading frames (uORFs) within the 5' UTR can trigger nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (Kertész et al., 2006; Hori and Watanabe, 2007; Nyikó et al., 2009).

The 5' intron sequence that is present in unspliced transcripts derived from PR2 contains several uORFs. The one that starts directly upstream of TSSR7 encodes more than 35 amino acids (see Supplemental Figure 5 online). uORFs are considered to have the potential to elicit the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay response when they give rise to proteins that are larger than the critical threshold of 35 amino acids (Nyikó et al., 2009). When PR2 is combined with PR7 (GLDPA-Ft-2-7), a 135 nucleotides long uORF commencing directly upstream of TSSR7 might encode a protein of 45 amino acids that should promote the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (see Supplemental Figure 6 online). This 135 nucleotides long uORF is only present in transcripts originating from PR2. 5' RACE analyses of transgenic GLDPA-Ft-2-7 plants of A. thaliana and F. bidentis showed that transcription started from either TSSR2 (PR2) or TSSR7 (PR7). While PR7-derived RNAs exhibited more or less the same length, PR2-derived transcripts appeared to be destabilized, because many RNAs started randomly between TSSR2 and TSSR7 indicating RNA degradation (see Supplemental Figure 6 online). Taken together, the presented data strongly suggest that the mRNA output of the GLDPA gene of F. trinervia is controlled by an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms.
**Evolution of the GLDPA promoter – the necessity of being bundle-sheath-specific, but not completely**

The presence of the 5' intron in P_{R2}-derived transcripts and of an alternative ATG codon 25 nucleotides behind the major translational start site result in a GLDPA protein variant whose mitochondrial targeting peptide is truncated by eight amino acids. Our import experiments showed that nevertheless the truncated transit peptide is capable of directing an attached passenger protein to the mitochondria (Figure 3). This indicates that P_{R2}- as well as P_{R7}-derived mRNAs yield a GLDPA protein that accumulates in the mitochondria. One wonders why the GLDPA promoter contains one sub-promoter with the desired specificity in the bundle-sheath and a second sub-promoter that is active in all internal leaf cells including the mesophyll. Moreover, the second, non-specific promoter is not allowed to express its full potential, but is almost, even though not completely, switched off by a combination of transcriptional and post-transcriptional means.

Mutational analysis with *Arabidopsis thaliana* revealed that a GLDP double mutant in which both of the two GLDP genes were knocked out is lethal, even under nonphotorespiratory conditions (Engel et al., 2007). This indicates that the activity of GDC is indispensable and that all biosynthetically active cells need glycine decarboxylase activity for one-carbon metabolism (Hanson and Roje, 2001). According to 454 pyrosequencing data, in C_{4} Flaveria species the GLDPA gene is the only active leaf GLDP gene (Gowik et al., 2011). We hypothesize therefore that the GLDPA gene of *F. trinervia* (C_{4}) must fulfill two purposes: firstly, it has to serve the requirements of the photorespiratory pathway and its activity should therefore be restricted to the bundle-sheath cells; secondly, however, small amounts of GDC activity are needed in all biosynthetically active cells – also in the mesophyll cells, and therefore the regulatory system of the GLDPA gene has to be somewhat leaky (Figure 10).

We have provided conclusive evidence that an intricate combination of transcriptional and post-transcriptional control ensures small amounts of GLDPA mRNAs to accumulate in the mesophyll cells of C_{4} Flaveria species. It remains to be investigated, how this pattern of gene expression control evolved in the genus *Flaveria*. These studies are underway and should elucidate the adaptive changes in gene expression that are a central component of C_{4} evolution.
METHODS

Generation of chimeric promoters and cloning of promoter-reporter gene constructs

The amplification and cloning procedure of DNA was accomplished according to Sambrook and Russell (2001). The dissection of the GLDPA promoter from Flaveria trinervia (GenBank accession number Z99767) into seven regions and the cloning of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-7 (previously referred to as GLDPA-Ft-Δ6), GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft:H2B-YFP (previously referred to as GLDPA-Ft::H2B:YFP) have been described in Engelmann et al. (2008). All GLDPA promoter regions were amplified by PCR by means of the Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) or the Pfu DNA Polymerase (Stratagene) using the GLDPA-Ft construct (Engelmann et al., 2008; Cossu, 1997) as template and the corresponding oligonucleotides containing respective restriction sites (Tables 1 and 2). For GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 the regions 2-3 as XbaI/BcuI and 7 as BcuI/XmaI fragment were cloned together into the XbaI/XmaI-digested binary plant transformation vector pBI121 (Clontech Laboratories; Chen et al., 2003; Jefferson et al., 1987) lacking the CaMV 35S promoter. GLDPA-Ft-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft-3-7 were constructed by exchanging region 2-3 of GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 with region 2 and 3 as XbaI/BcuI fragments respectively. For cloning of GLDPA-Ft-2 and GLDPA-Ft-2-3 the regions 2 and 2-3 were ligated respectively as XbaI/XmaI fragment into the XbaI/XmaI-restricted pBI121 vector lacking the 35S promoter. Region 3 was cloned as XbaI/XbaI fragment into GLDPA-Ft-2 prior cut with XbaI to generate GLDPA-Ft-3-2. The correct orientation of region 3 was proven by DNA sequencing. 35S:GUS was constructed by inserting the 35S promoter amplified from pBI121-35S::H2B:YFP (Boisnard-Lorig et al., 2001) as HindIII/XbaI-XmaI fragment into the HindIII/XmaI-restricted pBI121 vector, whereas for 35S:GLDPA-Ft-5’UTR7100-GUS the 35S promoter was directly excised from pBI121-35S::H2B:YFP as HindIII/XbaI fragment toigate it together with the XbaI/XmaI-digested 100-bp 5’ UTR of region 7 (5’ UTR7100) into the HindIII/XmaI-restricted pBI121 vector. For 35S:mgfp6, 35S:GLDPAmt-Ft-mgfp6 and 35S:GLDPAmt24-Ft-mgfp6 the Gateway Technology (Invitrogen) was applied starting with the generation of Gateway compatible recombination fragments by PCR: Regarding 35S:mgfp6 the primers ATG-5’-attB1 and ATG-3’-attB2 (Tab. 1) were used for simple primer dimer formation, elongation and amplification generating a start codon (ATG) with flanking attB sites, whereas for 35S:GLDPAmt-Ft-mgfp6 and 35S:GLDPAmt24-Ft-mgfp6 F. trinervia cDNA was used for the amplification of the full-length N-terminal presequence of the GLDPA gene (GLDPAmt, 189 bp, primers: GLDPAmt-5’-attB1/GLDPAmt-3’-attB2 and attB1/attB2 adapter) as annotated by GenBank (accession number Z99767) or a shorter version lacking the first 24 bp (GLDPAmt24, 165 bp, primers:
GLDPA\textsubscript{mt,3} 5'-'attB1/GLDPA\textsubscript{mt}-3'-'attB2 and attB1/attB2 adapter). The attB-flanked PCR products were recombined into pDONR\textsuperscript{TM}221 (Invitrogen) and afterwards into pMDC83 (Curtis and Grossniklaus, 2003) respectively. All generated constructs were verified by DNA sequencing.

**Transformation of Arabidopsis thaliana and Flaveria bidentis**

All chimeric promoter-reporter gene constructs were transformed into either the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain AGL1 (Lazo et al., 1991) or GV3101 (pMP90) (Koncz and Schell, 1986) via electroporation. Transgenic *Flaveria bidentis* were generated according to Chitty et al. (1994) by means of *A. tumefaciens* AGL1 containing the respective construct. *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Ecotype Columbia) was transformed by the floral dip method (Clough and Bent, 1998) modified according to Logemann et al. (2006) by using the *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101 harboring the appropriate construct. The presence of the respective transgene within the genome of each single independent *F. bidentis T*\textsubscript{0} and *A. thaliana T*\textsubscript{1} line was verified by PCR after DNA isolation as described by Edwards et al. (1991).

**In situ analysis of the β-glucuronidase and detection of its activity**

The fifth leaf from the top of 40–50 cm tall transgenic *F. bidentis T*\textsubscript{0} plants or 3 mature rosette leaves of 3–4 weeks old transgenic *A. thaliana T*\textsubscript{1} plants prior to flowering were used respectively for the fluorometrical quantification of the β-glucuronidase (GUS) activity according to Jefferson et al. (1987) and Kosugi et al. (1990). The statistical significance of the difference between two data sets was analyzed by means of the Mann-Whitney U test ([http://elegans.swmed.edu/~leon/stats/utest.html](http://elegans.swmed.edu/~leon/stats/utest.html)). Histochemical GUS analyses were performed as described by Engelmann et al. (2008). The fifth leaf from the top of transgenic *F. bidentis T*\textsubscript{0} plants (40–50 cm) and single rosette leaves as whole blades or manually cut cross sections as well as young seedlings of transgenic T\textsubscript{1} *A. thaliana* plants were used for the histochemical GUS analysis in situ respectively.

**Transient gene expression in leaves of Nicotiana benthamiana and isolation of protoplasts**

The *Agrobacterium*-mediated infiltration of leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana* was performed according to Waadt and Kudla (2008) by means of *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 (pMP90) containing the respective construct and the *A. tumefaciens* strain p19 for suppression of gene
silencing (Voinnet et al., 2003). After four days two infiltrated leaves per plant were harvested respectively for protoplast isolation. Four leaf pieces (approximately 0.7 x 0.7 cm each) per blade were cut out with a razor blade, transferred into 5 ml enzyme solution (Yoo et al., 2007), vacuum-infiltrated three times for 30 sec and then incubated at room temperature for 2 h. After light shaking to release protoplasts, remaining leaf pieces were removed and MitoTracker Orange CMTMRos (Invitrogen) was added to a final concentration of 150 nM to the suspension of protoplasts for labeling mitochondria. After incubation for 15 min at 37 °C protoplasts were centrifuged at 500 g for 1 min, the supernatant was removed, and the sedimented leaf cells were resuspended in 100 µl W5 solution (Yoo et al., 2007) for analysis by confocal microscopy.

**Confocal laser scanning microscopy and fluorescence microscopy**

The analysis of protoplasts by confocal laser scanning microscopy was performed with the LSM 510 (Carl Zeiss AG). Protoplasts were excited at 488 nm (for detection of GFP and chlorophyll fluorescence) and at 561 nm (for detection of MitoTracker fluorescence), respectively. To visualize specifically GFP fluorescence, a 505–550-nm band pass emission filter was used. The fluorescence of MitoTracker Orange CMTMRos-labeled mitochondria was observed by utilizing a 575–615-nm band pass filter, and the autofluorescence of chlorophyll was recorded by means of a 650-nm long pass filter.

Leaf cross sections, complete leaf blades and roots of transgenic *F. bidentis* as well as roots of transgenic *A. thaliana* carrying the *GLDPA-Ft:H2B-YFP* chimeric gene were analyzed with the aid of an Axiophot fluorescence microscope (Carl Zeiss AG) that was equipped with an integrated HBO-UV lamp (Carl Zeiss AG) and a DP50-CU camera (Olympus Optical Co.) by using the filter set F41-028 (excitation: HQ 500/20, beam splitter: Q 515 LP, emission: HQ 535/30; AHF Analysentechnik). Bright-field and fluorescent pictures were merged with Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe Systems). Prior to fluorescence microscopy leaf blades were extracted with 95% ethanol according to Zhou et al. (2005). Leaf blades were harvested from 30 cm tall *F. bidentis* grown in the greenhouse. Roots of young seedlings of Arabidopsis and *F. bidentis* were taken from plants cultivated on agar medium in a climate chamber.
Analysis of mRNA 5' ends by the rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE)

Total RNA from leaves of *F. trinervia* was isolated according to Westhoff et al. (1991). After enrichment by the Oligotex mRNA Midi Kit (Qiagen) 0.5 µg of poly A⁺ mRNA was used for cDNA first-strand synthesis performed with the SMART™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech Laboratories) and the PowerScript™ Reverse Transcriptase (Clontech Laboratories) according to the manufacturers’ protocols. For PCR amplification of 5' UTRs with the Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) the gene-specific 3' oligonucleotide GLDPA-RACE4 (5'-GAGATCTTGGACTTGTACTGTC-3') and the SMART-II-A-Primer (5'-AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGT-3') were used. The PCR fragment was cloned subsequently using the CloneJET™ PCR Cloning Kit (Fermentas). 60 independent clones were analyzed by colony PCR using the SMART-II-A-Primer and the gene-specific GLDPA-RACE6 oligonucleotide (5'-ACACCGTACATAGCAGCCATG-3'). These PCR products were verified by restriction endonuclease analyses leading to the identification of 51 potentially correct clones. Plasmid DNA was isolated from 14 of them for DNA sequencing.

Supplemental Data

The following materials are available in the online version of this article.

**Supplemental Figure 1.** Analysis of mRNA 5' ends in leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* harboring the GLDPA-Ft:GUS transgene.

**Supplemental Figure 2.** Functional analysis of region 1 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis*.

**Supplemental Figure 3.** Distribution of TC-rich elements and Initiator-like motifs within region 2 and region 7 of the GLDPA promoter.

**Supplemental Figure 4.** Splicing pattern of the GLDPA transcript analyzed by 454 sequencing.

**Supplemental Figure 5.** Distribution of upstream open reading frames in Pr2-derived transcripts.

**Supplemental Figure 6.** Analysis of mRNA 5' ends in leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* harboring GLDPA-Ft-2-7.

**Supplemental Methods**
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS


FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Fluorescence microscopic analysis of GLDPA promoter activity in transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic presentation of the GLDPA-Ft:H2B-YFP construct which was transformed into F. bidentis or A. thaliana to express the yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) fused to histone 2B (H2B) under the control of the GLDPA promoter.

(B) to (H) The localization of YFP was examined by fluorescence microscopy in longitudinal (B) and cross sections (C) of leaves, whole leaf blades in top view (D), guard cells of both the upper (E) and lower epidermis (F) and in roots ([G] and [H]). The fluorescence image is displayed underneath and the corresponding merge of the fluorescent signal and the bright-field picture above respectively. In the root single endodermis (EN) and pericycle (PE) cells are depicted by an arrowhead.

Figure 2. Analysis of transcript 5' ends of the endogenous GLDPA gene of F. trinervia by rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE) (A) and 454 pyrosequencing (B).

(A) The GLDPA promoter and its transcriptional output. The dissection of the GLDPA promoter into 7 regions has been described in Engelmann et al. (2008). The schematic structure of the 5' untranslated regions (5' UTRs) of the two types of RNAs originating from region 2 (5' UTRR2s) or region 7 (5' UTRR7s) and their corresponding cDNA sequences are depicted below the schematic drawing of the GLDPA promoter. The transcription start sites (TSSs) within region 2 (TSSR2) and 7 (TSSR7) are indicated as well as the start codons used
when transcription starts from region 2 (ATG+25) or region 7 (ATG+1) and the number (No.) of the 5' UTRs detected for each 5' UTR variant whose length is stated in nucleotides (nt).

(B) Diagram showing the read coverage of the GLDPA contig derived from 454 sequencing reads (Gowik et al., 2011). The coverage upstream of the translational start site (ATG+1) up to 100 nt downstream was analyzed in 50 nt windows. A contig corresponding to the 91-nt spliced variant starting from TSSR2 that was detected by 5' RACE (A) was represented by only two 454 reads. The transcription start sites (TSSR2 and TSSR7) and the start codons (ATG+1 and ATG+25) are marked by arrowheads. The different GLDPA promoter regions 2 to 7 shown as columns are allocated to their respective positions.

Figure 3. Localization study of the two different transit peptide variants of the GLDPA protein.

The structures of the three constructs used for transient expression in leaves of Nicotiana benthamiana are diagrammed on top of the figure. 35S:GLDPA_{mt-Ft-mgfp6} contains the full-length GLDPA sequence encoding the predicted presequence for mitochondrial targeting (GLDPA_{mt-Ft}). In 35S:GLDPA_{mtg24-Ft-mgfp6} the transit peptide lacks the eight amino terminal residues. 35S:mgfp6 is devoid of any transit peptide sequence and served as a control. For visualizing mitochondria MitoTracker staining was carried out (+MT) or omitted as negative control (-MT). Three different channels were utilized to separate the fluorescence signals of MitoTracker-labeled mitochondria (magenta color), GFP (green color) and chlorophyll of chloroplasts (blue color) from each other. When merging MitoTracker and GFP fluorescences (M + GFP), white color indicates overlapping of both signals. All three different fluorescence signals are merged in the last column (M + GFP + CP). C, chloroplasts; GFP, green fluorescent protein; M, mitochondria; MT, MitoTracker; WT, wild type.

Figure 4. Functional analysis of region 7 of the GLDPA promoter in leaves of transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic presentation of the GLDPA-Ft-7 construct. TSS, transcription start site; 5' UTR_{R7}100, 100-bp 5' untranslated region of GLDPA region 7.

(B) to (G) Histochemical localization of GUS activity in cross sections ([B], [C], [E] and [F]) and leaf blades in top view ([D] and [G]) of leaves of transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana. Single bundle-sheath cells are emphasized by arrowheads. Incubation times for the GUS staining were 17 h ([E] and [F]), 29 h (G), 43 h (B), 66 h (C) and 70.5 h (D).
(H) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* plants transformed with the *GLDPA*-Ft-7 construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values ($\tilde{x}$), also displayed as black line in the diagram. MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.

**Figure 5. Analysis of the gene-regulatory properties of the 100-bp 5' untranslaged region of *GLDPA* region 7 (5' UTR$_{R7100}$) in transgenic *A. thaliana*.**

(A) Schematic structure of the two constructs used for transformation. 35S:GUS consists of the CaMV 35S promoter and the GUS reporter gene, while 35S:*GLDPA*-Ft-5'UTR$_{R7100}$-GUS additionally contains the 100-bp long 5' UTR$_{R7}$. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining of *A. thaliana* transformed with 35S:GUS or 35S:*GLDPA*-Ft-5'UTR$_{R7100}$-GUS in seedlings ([B] and [F]), young leaf blades ([C] and [G]) and cross sections of mature rosette leaves ([D], [E], [H] and [I]). Staining was for 1 h ([H] and [I]), 3 h ([C] and [G]), 4 h ([B] and [F]) or 16 h ([D] and [E]).

(J) Quantitative measurements of expression strength by analyzing GUS activities in leaf extracts of transgenic Arabidopsis plants transformed with the 35S:GUS or 35S:*GLDPA*-Ft-5'UTR$_{R7100}$-GUS construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic *A. thaliana* line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values ($\tilde{x}$) which is additionally charted as black line in the diagram (*** p < 0.001). MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.

**Figure 6. Functional analysis of region 2 of the *GLDPA* promoter in leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*.**

(A) Schematic structure of the *GLDPA*-Ft-2 construct. TSS, transcription start site; 5' UTR$_{R2}$, 5' untranslaged region of *GLDPA* region 2.

(B) to (E) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections of leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* or *A. thaliana* harboring the *GLDPA*-Ft-2 construct. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 1.5h (E) and 2 h ([B] to [D]).

(F) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* plants transformed with the *GLDPA*-Ft-2 construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values ($\tilde{x}$), also displayed as black line in the diagram. MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Figure 7. Functional analysis of the interactions of regions 2 and 7 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic F. bidentis.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft-2-7. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) and (C) Histochemical GUS staining in leaf cross sections of transgenic F. bidentis transformed with either GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 or GLDPA-Ft-2-7. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 2 h (B) and 6 h (C).

Figure 8. Functional analysis of the interactions of regions 2 and 7 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic structure of the promoter-reporter gene construct GLDPA-Ft-2-7. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (K) Analysis of GUS staining patterns in leaf cross sections of five independent transgenic A. thaliana lines ([B]/[G], [C]/[H], [D]/[I], [E]/[J] and [F]/[K]) carrying the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 3.5 h ([C], [E], [H] and [J]), 4 h ([B], [D], [F], [I] and [K]) and 5 h (G).

(L) GUS staining in leaf blades of four different GLDPA-Ft-2-7 Arabidopsis lines showing exemplarily the smooth transition of the various expression patterns detected. This transition is schematically depicted as bluish bars representing the varying intensity of GUS staining of the mesophyll (MC) and the bundle-sheath cells including the vascular bundles (BS + VB). Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 6 h, 3h, 3.5h and 6h (from left to right).

Figure 9. Functional analysis of region 3 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 and GLDPA-Ft-3-2. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections of leaves of transgenic A. thaliana transformed with GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 or GLDPA-Ft-3-2. Incubation times for GUS staining were 0.5 h ([D] and [H]), 1 h (E), 2.5 h (I), 3.5 h ([C] and [G]), 5 h (B) or 6 h (F).

(J) Fluorometrical measurement of GUS activities in transgenic A. thaliana transformed with GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 or GLDPA-Ft-3-2. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of plants analyzed (n) is indicated at
the top of each diagram as well as the median values (\(\bar{x}\)), also added as black lines in the
diagrams respectively (\(* * * \ p < 0.001; \ * * \ p < 0.01\)). MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.

**Figure 10.** The expression of the \(GLDPA\) gene of \(Flaveria\) \(trinervia\) is regulated by an
intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms.

The proximal promoter \(P_{R7}\) is sufficient to confer expression specifically in bundle-sheath
cells and the vascular bundles of leaves but can be effectively enhanced by regions 1 and 3.
Transcripts generated at TSS\(_{R7}\) are presumably stabilized by their 5' untranslated region (5'
UTR\(_{R7}\)), finally resulting in the accumulation of GLDPA protein in the distinct cell types to
contribute to photorespiration. The activity of the distal promoter \(P_{R2}\) in all inner leaf tissues
is also enhanced by regions 1 and 3. Transcripts from TSS\(_{R2}\) are supposed to be destabilized
when they contain the sequence of region 7, which impedes RNA accumulation. The problem
of RNA instability can be overcome by splicing out impairing elements assuring at least little
amounts of stable \(GLDPA\) transcript and thus GLDPA protein additionally in the mesophyll
cells in order to serve the \(C_1\) metabolic pathway.

**TABLES**

**Table 1.** Oligonucleotides used for the amplification of the different \(GLDPA\)-\(Ft\)
promoter regions or the \(GLDPA\)-\(Ft\) presequence

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<th>Oligonucleotide name</th>
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<td>GLDPA2-3'-BcaI</td>
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Table 2. Oligonucleotide combinations for the amplification of the appropriate promoter parts or Gateway compatible fragments

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REFERENCES


FIGURES

(A) Schematic presentation of the GLDPA-Ft:H2B-YFP construct which was transformed into F. bidentis or A. thaliana to express the yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) fused to histone 2B (H2B) under the control of the GLDPA promoter.

(B) to (H) The localization of YFP was examined by fluorescence microscopy in longitudinal (B) and cross sections (C) of leaves, whole leaf blades in top view (D), guard cells of both the upper (E) and lower epidermis (F) and in roots ([G] and [H]). The fluorescence image is displayed underneath and the corresponding merge of the fluorescent signal and the bright-field picture above respectively. In the root single endodermis (EN) and pericycle (PE) cells are depicted by an arrowhead.

Figure 1. Fluorescence microscopic analysis of GLDPA promoter activity in transgenic F. bidentis and A. thaliana.
Figure 2. Analysis of transcript 5’ ends of the endogenous *GLDPA* gene of *F. trinervia* by rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE) (A) and 454 pyrosequencing (B).

(A) The *GLDPA* promoter and its transcriptional output. The dissection of the *GLDPA* promoter into 7 regions has been described in Engelmann et al. (2008). The schematic structure of the 5' untranslated regions (5' UTRs) of the two types of RNAs originating from region 2 (5' UTR R2s) or region 7 (5' UTR R7s) and their corresponding cDNA sequences are depicted below the schematic drawing of the *GLDPA* promoter. The transcription start sites (TSSs) within region 2 (TSS R2) and 7 (TSS R7) are indicated as well as the start codons used when transcription starts from region 2 (ATG +25) or region 7 (ATG +1) and the number (No.) of the 5' UTRs detected for each 5' UTR variant whose length is stated in nucleotides (nt).

(B) Diagram showing the read coverage of the *GLDPA* contig derived from 454 sequencing reads (Gowik et al., 2011). The coverage upstream of the translational start site (ATG +1) up to 100 nt downstream was analyzed in 50 nt windows. A contig corresponding to the 91-nt spliced variant starting from TSS R2 that was detected by 5' RACE (A) was represented by only two 454 reads. The transcription start sites (TSS R2 and TSS R7) and the start codons (ATG +1 and ATG +25) are marked by arrowheads. The different *GLDPA* promoter regions 2 to 7 shown as columns are allocated to their respective positions.
Figure 3. Localization study of the two different transit peptide variants of the GLDPA protein.

The structures of the three constructs used for transient expression in leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana* are diagrammed on top of the figure. 35S:GLDPA<sub>mt-Ft</sub>-mgfp6 contains the full-length GLDPA sequence encoding the predicted presequence for mitochondrial targeting (GLDPA<sub>mt-Ft</sub>). In 35S:GLDPA<sub>mtΔ24-Ft-mgfp6</sub> the transit peptide lacks the eight amino terminal residues. 35S:mgfp6 is devoid of any transit peptide sequence and served as a control. For visualizing mitochondria MitoTracker staining was carried out (+MT) or omitted as negative control (-MT). Three different channels were utilized to separate the fluorescence signals of MitoTracker-labeled mitochondria (magenta color), GFP (green color) and chlorophyll of chloroplasts (blue color) from each other. When merging MitoTracker and GFP fluorescences (M + GFP), white color indicates overlapping of both signals. All three different fluorescence signals are merged in the last column (M + GFP + CP). C, chloroplasts; GFP, green fluorescent protein; M, mitochondria; MT, MitoTracker; WT, wild type.
Figure 4. Functional analysis of region 7 of the GLDPA promoter in leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*.

(A) Schematic presentation of the GLDPA-Ft-7 construct. TSS, transcription start site; 5' UTR$_{R7}$100, 100-bp 5' untranslated region of GLDPA region 7.

(B) to (G) Histochemical localization of GUS activity in cross sections ([B], [C], [E] and [F]) and leaf blades in top view ([D] and [G]) of leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*. Single bundle-sheath cells are emphasized by arrowheads. Incubation times for the GUS staining were 17 h ([E] and [F]), 29 h (G), 43 h (B), 66 h (C) and 70.5 h (D).

(H) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* plants transformed with the GLDPA-Ft-7 construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values ($\bar{x}$), also displayed as black line in the diagram. MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Figure 5. Analysis of the gene-regulatory properties of the 100-bp 5' untranslated region of GLDPA region 7 (5' UTRR7100) in transgenic A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic structure of the two constructs used for transformation. 35S:GUS consists of the CaMV 35S promoter and the GUS reporter gene, while 35S:GLDPA-Ft-5'UTTR7100-GUS additionally contains the 100-bp long 5' UTRR7. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining of A. thaliana transformed with 35S:GUS or 35S:GLDPA-Ft-5'UTTR7100-GUS in seedlings ([B] and [F]), young leaf blades ([C] and [G]) and cross sections of mature rosette leaves ([D], [E], [H] and [I]). Staining was for 1 h ([H] and [I]), 3 h ([C] and [G]), 4 h ([B] and [F]) or 16 h ([D] and [E]).

(J) Quantitative measurements of expression strength by analyzing GUS activities in leaf extracts of transgenic Arabidopsis plants transformed with the 35S:GUS or 35S:GLDPA-Ft-5'UTTR7100-GUS construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic A. thaliana line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values (x̄) which is additionally charted as black line in the diagram (*** p < 0.001). MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Figure 6. Functional analysis of region 2 of the GLDPA promoter in leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana*.

(A) Schematic structure of the GLDPA-Ft-2 construct. TSS, transcription start site; 5' UTRR2, 5' untranslated region of GLDPA region 2.

(B) to (E) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections of leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* or *A. thaliana* harboring the GLDPA-Ft-2 construct. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 1.5h (E) and 2 h (B to D).

(F) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of transgenic *F. bidentis* and *A. thaliana* plants transformed with the GLDPA-Ft-2 construct. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated above as well as the median of all values (x̄), also displayed as black line in the diagram. MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Figure 7. Functional analysis of the interactions of regions 2 and 7 of the \textit{GLDPA} promoter in transgenic \textit{F. bidentis}.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs \textit{GLDPA}-Ft-1-2-7 and \textit{GLDPA}-Ft-2-7. TSS, transcription start site. (B) and (C) Histochemical GUS staining in leaf cross sections of transgenic \textit{F. bidentis} transformed with either \textit{GLDPA}-Ft-1-2-7 or \textit{GLDPA}-Ft-2-7. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 2 h (B) and 6 h (C).
Figure 8. Functional analysis of the interactions of regions 2 and 7 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic *A. thaliana*.

(A) Schematic structure of the promoter-reporter gene construct GLDPA-Ft-2-7. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (K) Analysis of GUS staining patterns in leaf cross sections of five independent transgenic *A. thaliana* lines ((B)/(G), (C)/(H), (D)/(I), (E)/(J) and (F)/(K)) carrying the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct. Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 3.5 h ((C), (E), (H) and (J)), 4 h ((B), (D), (F), (I) and (K)) and 5 h (G).

(L) GUS staining in leaf blades of four different GLDPA-Ft-2-7 Arabidopsis lines showing exemplarily the smooth transition of the various expression patterns detected. This transition is schematically depicted as bluish bars representing the varying intensity of GUS staining of the mesophyll (MC) and the bundle-sheath cells including the vascular bundles (BS + VB). Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 6 h, 3h, 3.5h and 6h (from left to right).
Figure 9. Functional analysis of region 3 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic A. thaliana.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 and GLDPA-Ft-3-2. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections of leaves of transgenic A. thaliana transformed with GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 or GLDPA-Ft-3-2. Incubation times for GUS staining were 0.5 h ([D] and [H]), 1 h (E), 2.5 h (I), 3.5 h ([C] and [G]), 5 h (B) or 6 h (F).

(J) Fluorometrical measurement of GUS activities in transgenic A. thaliana transformed with GLDPA-Ft-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-3 or GLDPA-Ft-3-2. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of plants analyzed (n) is indicated at the top of each diagram as well as the median values (\( \bar{x} \)), also added as black lines in the diagrams respectively (*** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01). MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Figure 10. The expression of the GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia is regulated by an intricate interplay of transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms.

The proximal promoter $P_{R7}$ is sufficient to confer expression specifically in bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles of leaves but can be effectively enhanced by regions 1 and 3. Transcripts generated at TSS$_{R7}$ are presumably stabilized by their 5’ untranslated region (5’ UTR$_{R7}$), finally resulting in the accumulation of GLDPA protein in the distinct cell types to contribute to photorespiration. The activity of the distal promoter $P_{R2}$ in all inner leaf tissues is also enhanced by regions 1 and 3. Transcripts from TSS$_{R2}$ are supposed to be destabilized when they contain the sequence of region 7, which impedes RNA accumulation. The problem of RNA instability can be overcome by splicing out impairing elements assuring at least little amounts of stable GLDPA transcript and thus GLDPA protein additionally in the mesophyll cells in order to serve the C$_1$ metabolic pathway.
Supplemental Figure 1. Analysis of mRNA 5' ends in leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* harboring the GLDPA-Ft:GUS transgene.

(A) Schematic structure of the GLDPA-Ft construct. TSS, transcription start site; UTR, untranslated region. (B) and (C) Identification of 5' UTRs by the rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE) in leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* (B) and *F. bidentis* (C) plants carrying the GLDPA-Ft construct. Six (B) and (C), seven (C) or eight (B) cloned 5' RACE products were randomly selected and analyzed by DNA sequencing. 5' UTR$_{R2}$s reached to position -1. nt, nucleotide.
Supplemental Figure 2. Functional analysis of region 1 of the GLDPA promoter in transgenic A. thaliana and F. bidentis.

(A) Schematic presentation of the transformed constructs GLDPA-Ft-7, GLDPA-Ft-1-7, GLDPA-Ft-2 and GLDPA-Ft-1-2. TSS, transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections of leaves of transgenic A. thaliana and F. bidentis plants carrying GLDPA-Ft-7, GLDPA-Ft-1-7, GLDPA-Ft-2 or GLDPA-Ft-1-2. GUS staining incubation times were 1.5 h (D), 2 h ([E] and [I]), 3 h (H), 16 h (C), 17 h (B), 43 h (F) or 46 h (G).

(J) Quantitative GUS measurements in leaf extracts of A. thaliana and F. bidentis carrying GLDPA-Ft-7, GLDPA-Ft-1-7, GLDPA-Ft-2 or GLDPA-Ft-1-2. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic plant line. The number of lines examined (n) is indicated at the top of each diagram as well as the median values (\(\bar{x}\)), also added as black lines in the diagrams (** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001; n.s., not significant, p > 0.05). MU, 4-methylumbelliferone.
Supplemental Figure 3. Distribution of TC-rich elements and Initiator-like motifs within region 2 and region 7 of the GLDPA promoter.

The localization of TC-rich elements found within a range of -50 nt to +50 nt around TSS\textsubscript{R2} and TSS\textsubscript{R7} is shown. The TC-elements that are unique to region 7 within the GLDPA promoter are highlighted with a single arrowhead. The double arrowhead in front of CTTCTT emphasizes that this TC-element occurs twice but is unique to region 7. The two Initiator-like elements TTCATTGC and CTCACTGT encompassing TSS\textsubscript{R2} are colored in purple with the asterisk indicating the single nucleotide that differs from the consensus sequence YTCANTYY (N = A, C, G or T; Y = C or T; Nakamura et al., 2002) respectively. The CA dimer of the Initiator motif is underlined with A representing TSS\textsubscript{R2}.

Supplemental Figure 4. Splicing pattern of the GLDPA transcript analyzed by 454 sequencing.

The coverage of 454 reads (Gowik et al., 2011) along the genomic sequence of the GLDPA gene of Flaveria trinervia and the resulting consensus sequence of these reads (454 transcript) are shown. The uniform distribution of reads throughout the GLDPA promoter sequence indicates that the 5' intron, ranging from region 3 of the GLDPA promoter to +17 of the GLDPA open reading frame, is only inefficiently spliced out. TSS, transcription start site in region 2 (TSSR2) and 7 (TSSR7).

Supplemental Figure 5. Distribution of upstream open reading frames in \( P_{R2} \)-derived transcripts.

The \textit{GLDPA} promoter and the 5' end of the open reading frame of the \textit{GLDPA} gene (\textit{GLDPA-ORF}) are schematically presented above. Underneath the two transcript variants originating from \( P_{R2} \) (region 2) at position -1185 (TSS\( _{R2} \)) or -1174 are shown that are incompletely spliced and still contain the 5' intron. Within this 5' intron several upstream open reading frames (uORFs; depicted by arrows) are present with their length being indicated in nucleotides (nt). The 246-nt long uORF starts directly upstream of TSS\( _{R7} \) so that the corresponding start codon is not embedded within transcripts originating from TSS\( _{R7} \). The transcription start site in region 2 (TSS\( _{R2} \)) and 7 (TSS\( _{R7} \)) as well as the respective splice donor site (SDS) and the splice acceptor site (SAS) are highlighted by arrowheads. The major ATG codon at position +1 (ATG\( _{+1} \)) and the first ATG codon (ATG\( _{+25} \)) that follows when the 5' intron is spliced out are indicated.
Supplemental Figure 6. Analysis of mRNA 5’ ends in leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* harboring *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7.

(A) and (B) The *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 construct is depicted above with the two different transcription start sites (TSSs), TSS$_{R2}$ and TSS$_{R7}$, being indicated. Underneath a random selection of 5’ untranslated regions (5’ UTRs) analyzed by DNA sequencing is shown. These 5’ UTRs were identified by rapid amplification of 5’ complementary DNA ends (5’ RACE) in leaves of a transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 *A. thaliana* plant (A) that exhibited GUS expression in the mesophyll but preferentially in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature (see Figures 8D and 8I) or in leaves of a transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 *F. bidentis* plant (B) (see Figure 7C). The arrows beneath region 7 of the *GLDPA* promoter represent upstream open reading frames (uORFs) including their respective length in nucleotides (nt) that are located at the indicated position within transcripts originating from TSS$_{R2}$. The 135-nt long uORF does not start at TSS$_{R7}$ but directly upstream of it with the start codon thus not being embedded within RNAs transcribed from TSS$_{R7}$. 
SUPPLEMENTAL METHODS

Supplemental Figures 1 and 6:

For 5' RACE total RNA was isolated from mature leaves of single *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* lines harboring *GLDPA*-Ft or *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 by means of the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) combined with the RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen). 0.5 µg (*F. bidentis*) or 1 µg (*A. thaliana*) of total RNA was directly used for cDNA first-strand synthesis by utilizing the SMARTer™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech Laboratories) and the SMARTScribe™ Reverse Transcriptase (Clontech Laboratories) according to the manufacturers’ instructions. For PCR amplification of 5' UTRs with the Advantage 2 Polymerase Mix (Clontech Laboratories) or the Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) the Universal Primer A Mix (UPM; Clontech Laboratories) and the *GUS* gene-specific 3’ oligonucleotide 5RACE-3GUS-3 (5'-GTTTTTCGTCGGTAACTACCATTC-3') or pBI121GUS3'-2 (5'-ACTGCCTGCGACAGCAATTGC-3') were used. After cloning of the obtained PCR fragments with the CloneJET™ PCR Cloning Kit (Fermentas) several independent clones were analyzed by colony PCR with the oligonucleotides pJetFW (5'-ATCAACTGCTTTAACACTTGTGCC-3') and pJetRW (5'-CGGTTCCTGTAGGAGGTGGTTAG-3'). From single, potentially correct clones plasmid DNA was isolated for DNA sequencing.

Supplemental Figure 2:

*GLDPA*-Ft-1-7 was constructed by exchanging region 2-3 of *GLDPA*-Ft-2-3-7 against region 1 as *XbaI/BcuI* fragment amplified by PCR with the 5' primer *GLDPA*-5'-*XbaI* (5'-TGCTCTAGAAGCTTTACTCCTCC-3') and the 3' primer *GLDPA*-1-3'-*BcuI* (5'-TTAACCTAGTCACTTTCACATTGCC-3'). For cloning of *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2 region 1 and 2 together were amplified by PCR with the 5' primer *GLDPA*-5'-*XbaI* (5'-TGCTCTAGAAGCTTTACTCCTCC-3') and the 3' primer *GLDPA*-2-3'-*XmaI* (5'-TTACCCTGAGTGGAGATGAGTTTGT-3'). This 1-2 module was ligated as *XbaI/XmaI* fragment into the *XbaI/XmaI*-restricted pBI121 vector lacking the 35S promoter. Histochemical GUS analysis and the fluorometrical measurement of GUS activities was performed as described in methods.
Supplemental Figure 4:

The 454 sequencing reads (Gowik et al., 2011) were bioinformatically analyzed with the program CLC Genomics Workbench 4 (version 4.8, CLC bio). For this analysis the reads were mapped against the sequence of the GLDPA gene (GenBank accession number Z99767) with the high throughput process “map reads to reference”.

The authors' contributions

CW wrote this manuscript and performed all experiments except those listed below.

SS performed the fluorescence microscopic analysis of roots of transgenic Flaveria bidentis plants harboring the GLDPA-Ft:H2B-YFP construct (Figure 1G), analyzed the histochemical GUS staining in leaves of transgenic F. bidentis plants harboring the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct (Figure 7C), carried out the bioinformatic analysis of GLDPA transcripts obtained by 454 pyrosequencing (Supplemental Figure 4), and detected mRNA 5' ends by 5' RACE in transgenic GLDPA-Ft plants of F. bidentis and Arabidopsis thaliana (Supplemental Figure 1 [the 5' UTRR7s sequences in [B] were detected by CW]) as well as in transgenic GLDPA-Ft-2-7 plants of F. bidentis (Supplemental Figure 6B).

UG performed the 454 pyrosequencing of transcripts of Flaveria trinervia (Figure 2B and Supplemental Figure 4) and provided total RNA of leaves of F. trinervia.

SE generated the GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7 construct and provided transgenic seeds of A. thaliana plants which had been transformed with the construct GLDPA-Ft-7 by him.

MK and MS performed the transformation of F. bidentis plants.

HB provided the GLDPA-Ft construct.

PW and UG participated in drafting of the manuscript.

Manuscript 2 was submitted for publication to The Plant Cell (Impact Factor: 10.648).
VII. Addendum

1. The influence of the 50-bp flanking sequences of PR2 on gene expression

The GLDPA promoter of Flaveria trinervia (C4) consists of two sub-promoters. The proximal promoter PR7, defined by region 7, is bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific, whereas the distal promoter PR2, defined by region 2, directs uniform expression in all inner leaf tissues in both transgenic Flaveria bidentis (C4) and Arabidopsis thaliana (C3) plants (Manuscript 2). When combined (construct GLDPA-Ft-2-7), PR7 is able to suppress the activity of PR2 stably in F. bidentis, but only partially in A. thaliana (Manuscript 2; Figure Ad1). The majority of the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 Arabidopsis lines (60%) expressed the GUS reporter gene preferentially in the bundle-sheath and vasculature but additionally in the mesophyll (Figure Ad1, C and D). This expression pattern indicates the activity of both PR2 and PR7. However, few GLDPA-Ft-2-7 lines (15%) exhibited specific GUS expression in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular tissues (Figure Ad1D), which suggests the predominant or even sole activity of PR7. In contrast, some GLDPA-Ft-2-7 plants (25%) showed uniform GUS staining in all inner leaf tissues (Figure Ad1D), which reflects the activity of PR2 alone. However, when adding the transcriptional enhancing region 1 upstream of the PR2-PR7 module (GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7) all transgenic Arabidopsis plants exhibited uniform GUS expression in all inner leaf tissues. Thus, PR2 appears to overcome the partially repressive function of PR7 in the presence of region 1. In contrast, specific expression in bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles could be stably maintained by inserting region 3 in between PR2 and PR7 (GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7). Hence, PR2 is assumed to be entirely suppressed in the presence of region 3 and PR7 (Manuscripts 1 and 2).

These findings raise the question whether the flanking sequences of PR2 are important to influence – or even sufficient to alter – the gene expression pattern in combination with PR7 rather than the presence of the whole region 1 or 3. Thus, the removal of region 1 and 3 up- and downstream of PR2 respectively, as it is the case in the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct, might lead to the disruption of functional cis-regulatory elements at the left border of PR2 and region 1 (1-2 border) and at the right border of PR2 and region 3 (2-3 border). Addressing this question, PR2 was elongated 50 bp upstream into region 1 (150-2) or 50 bp downstream into region 3 (2-350), combined with PR7 and fused to the GUS gene resulting in GLDPA-Ft-150-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft-2-350-7 respectively (Figure Ad1A). The activities of these both constructs in transgenic A. thaliana lines were compared with those of plants harboring GLDPA-Ft-2-7 (Figure Ad1, B–D).
Although the quantitative activities of the three constructs were very similar (Figure Ad1B), the distribution of their spatial activities differed (Figure Ad1, C and D). Most of the lines harboring *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 (60%) exhibited GUS staining preferentially in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles, which was true for plants carrying *GLDPA*-Ft-2-3<sub>50</sub>-7 (59%). In contrast, the majority of Arabidopsis plants with the *GLDPA*-Ft-1<sub>50</sub>-2-7 construct (55%) showed uniform expression in all inner leaf tissues (Figure Ad1D). This indicates the predominant activity of PR2. Hence, *GLDPA*-Ft-1<sub>50</sub>-2-7 plants tend to exhibit an expression pattern like *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-7 plants suggesting that the 50 bp upstream of PR2 or the 1-2 border sequence itself is already able to influence the expression pattern of the PR2-PR7 module but cannot replace the function of the entire region 1.
Region 1 (182 bp in total) was shown to enhance the transcriptional activities of both \( \text{PR}_2 \) and \( \text{PR}_7 \) (Manuscript 2). Thus, the 50 bp of region 1 adjacent to \( \text{PR}_2 \) already seem to be capable of slightly enhancing \( \text{PR}_2 \) transcriptionally in the context of \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-1}_{50}-2-7 \), reflected by the predominant activity of \( \text{PR}_2 \). However, the 50-bp flanking sequence upstream of \( \text{PR}_2 \) and the intact 1-2 border sequence are not sufficient for the stable maintenance of uniform expression in all inner leaf tissues in combination with \( \text{PR}_2 \) and \( \text{PR}_7 \) as observed for \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-1-2-7} \) plants. These findings indicate that further \textit{cis}-regulatory elements embedded within the remaining 132 bp of region 1 are essential for strong transcriptional enhancement of \( \text{PR}_2 \) in order to maintain uniform expression in all inner leaf tissues stably in the presence of \( \text{PR}_7 \).

With regard to \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-2-3}_{50}-7 \), most of the \textit{A. thaliana} plants (59%) exhibited GUS staining preferentially in the bundle-sheath and vasculature like 60% of \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-2-7} \) plants (Figure Ad1D). Hence, the presence or absence of the 50-bp flanking sequence downstream of \( \text{PR}_2 \) (representing the 5' end of region 3) and the 2-3 border sequence itself do not appear to have any effect on the expression pattern of the \( \text{PR}_2-\text{PR}_7 \) module. However, the entire region 3 (212 bp in total) is able to maintain specific expression in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles when being inserted in between \( \text{PR}_2 \) and \( \text{PR}_7 \) (\( \text{GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7} \)). This leads to the conclusion that the remaining 162 bp, but not the 50 bp adjacent to \( \text{PR}_2 \) including the 2-3 border sequence, are essential for cell-specific expression.

Region 3 is assumed to act as a specificity component – but only in the presence of \( \text{PR}_7 \) – by a yet unknown mechanism (Manuscripts 1 and 2). In contrast to RNAs originating from \( \text{PR}_7 \), \( \text{PR}_2 \)-derived transcripts contain sequences of region 3 (50 nt in the case of \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-2-3}_{50}-7 \) or 212 nt with regard to \( \text{GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7} \)). Region 3 contains two splice donor sites 37 nt and 103 nt away from its 5' end (Manuscript 2). Together with an appropriate splice acceptor site located in the \textit{GUS} reporter gene, splicing might result in aberrant transcripts. According to this theory, in the presence of a splice acceptor site, the single splice donor site within the 50 nt of region 3 adjacent to \( \text{PR}_2 \) does not suffice to initiate splicing efficiently, but both splice donor sites are needed for the repressive function of region 3. In the remaining 162 nt of region 3 an upstream open reading frame (uORF) can be found that might destabilize \( \text{PR}_2 \)-derived transcripts and/or have an effect on translational efficiency (see chapter 5). This might explain the stable suppression of \( \text{PR}_2 \) only in the presence of the complete region 3, together with region 7 (\( \text{PR}_7 \)) which contains further uORFs (see chapter 5).
2. Fine mapping of the transcriptional enhancing regions 1 and 3 of the GLDPA promoter

Despite its weak activity, P_{R7} (region 7) alone is sufficient for specific gene expression in bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles. Region 1, and also region 3 – apart from its ability to stably repress P_{R2} in combination with P_{R7} – were shown to substantially enhance the transcriptional activity of P_{R7} respectively (Manuscript 2). Transgenic *A. thaliana* plants carrying GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7, the combination of region 1, 3 and P_{R7}, exhibited 20-fold higher GUS activities than GLDPA-7 plants expressing *GUS* under the control of P_{R7} alone (Figure Ad2; Manuscript 2). To identify more precisely where relevant *cis*-regulatory determinants which enhance expression strength may be located within region 1 and 3, these regions were dissected into four parts of approximately the same size with each single part overlapping 25 bp with the adjacent part(s) in order to prevent putative *cis*-regulatory elements at the borders from becoming disrupted (Figures Ad2A and Ad3A). Each part of region 1 (1.1–1.4) was then fused in front of region 3 and P_{R7} and linked to the *GUS* gene (GLDPA-Ft-1.1-3-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1.4-3-7; Figure Ad2A). The four partial fragments of region 3 (3.1–3.4) were inserted in between region 1 and P_{R7} respectively and fused to *GUS* (GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7; Figure Ad3A). The presence of region 3 in the case of GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7 and the presence of region 1 with respect to GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7 should ensure a sufficient promoter activity above threshold for a successful detection of the quantitative and spatial GUS activities. As expected, all of these constructs caused a specific *GUS* expression in the bundle-sheath cells and the vascular bundles due to the presence of P_{R7} which alone suffices for gene expression in these tissues (Figures Ad2B and Ad3B).

In the presence of the parts 1.2 (GLDPA-Ft-1.2-3-7) and 1.3 (GLDPA-Ft-1.3-3-7) very similar median GUS activities could be detected compared to that of GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 plants, whereas the GLDPA-Ft-1.1-3-7 construct was about fourfold less and GLDPA-Ft-1.4-3-7 approximately threefold more active (Figure Ad2C). These findings indicate that the partial fragments 1.2–1.4 are very important for enhancing P_{R7} transcriptionally with fragment 1.4 having the strongest effect. In contrast, the promoter part 1.1 does not appear to contribute to the enhancement of P_{R7} but rather represses its activity slightly, as the absence of fragment 1.1 (GLDPA-Ft-3-7) led to an increase in activity of about fourfold (Figure Ad2C; Manuscript 2). Nonetheless, the whole region 1 presumably contains several *cis*-regulatory elements for transcriptional enhancement of P_{R7}, but also such/those one(s) that can have a repressive effect on transcription.
Figure Ad2. Fine mapping of the transcriptional enhancing region 1 in transgenic A. thaliana plants.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1.1-3-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1.4-3-7. The partial fragments 1.1–1.3 and 1.4 have a size of 64 base pairs (bp) and 65 bp respectively with each part overlapping 25 bp with the adjacent part(s). TSS, Transcription start site.

(B) Histochemical localization of GUS activity in whole leaf blades in top view (a–d) and cross sections (e–n) of leaves from transgenic A. thaliana harboring GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 (e and j), GLDPA-Ft-1.1-3-7 (a, f and k), GLDPA-Ft-1.2-3-7 (b, g and l), GLDPA-Ft-1.3-3-7 (c, h and m) or GLDPA-Ft-1.4-3-7 (d, i and n). Incubation times for GUS staining were 1.5 h (c), 3 h (b), 4 h (d, i and n), 6 h (m), 16 h (e and j), 19.5 h (a), 21 h (g and l), 23 h (h) or 46 h (f and k).

(C) Fluorometrical measurement of GUS activities in transgenic A. thaliana carrying the respective construct as stated above. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of plants analyzed (n) and the median value (\(\bar{x}\)), also added as black line in the diagram, are indicated above respectively (* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01). MU, 4-Methylumbelliferone.
Figure Ad3. Fine mapping of the transcriptional enhancing region 3 in transgenic A. thaliana plants.

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7 to GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7. The pieces 3.1–3.3 and 3.4 have a size of 72 base pairs (bp) and 71 bp respectively with each single promoter fragment overlapping 25 bp with the adjacent fragment(s). TSS, Transcription start site.

(B) Histochemical localization of GUS activity in whole leaf blades in top view (a–d) and cross sections (e–n) of leaves from transgenic A. thaliana harboring GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 (e and j), GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7 (a, f and k), GLDPA-Ft-1-3.2-7 (b, g and l), GLDPA-Ft-1-3.3-7 (c, h and m) or GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7 (d, i and n). Incubation times for GUS staining were 2 h (b and d), 4 h (a and n), 6 h (g, i, k and l), 16 h (e, f, h and j), 21 h (m) or 23 h (c).

(C) Fluorometric measurement of GUS activities in transgenic A. thaliana carrying the respective construct as stated above. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of plants analyzed (n) and the median value ($\bar{x}$), also added as black line in the diagram, are indicated above respectively (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.001$). MU, 4-Methylumbelliferone.
A very similar situation could be observed for the effect of the single fragments 3.1–3.4 on the transcriptional activity of PR7. While the pieces 3.1 (GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7), 3.2 (GLDPA-Ft-1-3.2-7) and 3.4 (GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7) caused a two and a half-fold, about four- and fivefold increase in activity respectively compared to the complete region 3 (GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7), the presence of fragment 3.3 (GLDPA-Ft-1-3.3-7) led to a reduction in activity of about six and a half-fold (Figure Ad3C). Furthermore, the GUS activities of GLDPA-Ft-1-3.3-7 Arabidopsis plants were decreased sixfold compared to that of plants carrying the GLDPA-Ft-1-7 construct which completely lacks region 3 (Figure Ad3C; Manuscript 2). Thus, the partial promoter fragment 3.3 seems to have a strong repressive effect on the activity of PR7. These findings lead to the conclusion that region 3 also contains several cis-regulatory elements for the enhancement of gene expression, but additionally at least one element that represses the transcriptional activity of PR7.

3. Region 2 of the GLDPA promoter can enhance transcription of PR7

The proximal promoter PR7 (region 7) directs GUS reporter gene expression specifically in bundle-sheath cells and the vasculature in leaves of transgenic A. thaliana plants carrying the GLDPA-Ft-7 construct (Figure Ad4, B and F; Manuscript 2). This expression pattern is indistinguishable from that of the full-length GLDPA promoter (GLDPA-Ft construct) (Manuscript 1). In comparison, transgenic Arabidopsis plants harboring the GLDPA-Ft construct exhibited about 1500-fold higher GUS activities than transgenic GLDPA-Ft-7 plants (Manuscripts 1 and 2). These findings demonstrate that the activity of PR7 is drastically reduced in the absence of the GLDPA promoter regions 1 to 6.

In contrast to PR7, the distal promoter PR2 (region 2) alone is strong and shows activity in all inner leaf tissues in transgenic A. thaliana plants. The combination of PR2 and PR7 (GLDPA-Ft-2-7) led to a variety of different GUS expression patterns throughout the independent transgenic Arabidopsis lines (Figure Ad4, C–E and G–I; Manuscript 2). This suggests that both promoters were active, but that the output of each promoter varied from line to line. Among the independent GLDPA-Ft-2-7 lines, there were also plants that exhibited specific GUS expression in the bundle-sheath and vasculature (Figure Ad4, E and I). Although these lines expressed GUS in the same pattern as plants that carried the GLDPA-Ft-7 construct (Figure Ad4, B and F), the GUS activity was increased 180-fold in the presence of region 2 (Figure Ad4J). This leads to the conclusion that region 2 (PR2) can enhance the transcriptional activity of PR7 efficiently.
Transgenic *F. bidentis* plants that harbored the *GLDPA*-*Ft-7* construct exhibited weak GUS activity specifically in the bundle-sheath and vasculature (Figure Ad5, A, B, D and F; Manuscript 2). In contrast to Arabidopsis, in *F. bidentis* the addition of region 2 (*P_{R2}* ) upstream of region 7 (*P_{R7}* ) (construct *GLDPA*-*Ft-2-7) did not change the *GUS* expression pattern, but increased the GUS activity about 390-fold (Figure Ad5, A, C, E and F). These findings suggest that region 2 has the ability to enhance the transcriptional activity of *P_{R7}* in both *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis*. 

**Figure Ad4. Region 2 of the *GLDPA* promoter enhances the activity of *P_{R7}* in transgenic *A. thaliana* plants.**

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs *GLDPA*-*Ft-7* and *GLDPA*-*Ft-2-7*. TSS, Transcription start site.

(B) to (I) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections (B–I) of leaves of four independent transgenic *A. thaliana* lines (B/F, C/G, D/H and E/I) harboring *GLDPA*-*Ft-7* (B and F) or *GLDPA*-*Ft-2-7* (C–E and G–I). Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 3.5 h (C, D, G and H), 4 h (E and I) and 17 h (B and F).

(J) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of Arabidopsis plants transformed with *GLDPA*-*Ft-7* or *GLDPA*-*Ft-2-7*. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. With regard to *GLDPA*-*Ft-2-7*, blue dots represent plants exhibiting specific expression in bundle-sheath cells and vascular bundles as displayed in E/I, whereas the remaining black dots can be allocated to one of the other expression patterns (C/G and D/H). The number of all lines examined (n) and the median of all values (\( \bar{x} \)) are indicated at the top of the diagram in black. The number of those plants that exhibited specific expression (blue dots) and their median value is highlighted in blue. Additionally, the median value of all plants analyzed and that one of the plants with specific staining in the bundle-sheath and vasculature (blue dots) are indicated as black or blue line in the diagram respectively. The statistical evaluation included all values (black asterisks) or only the values (blue dots) of plants with specific GUS expression (blue asterisks) (**p < 0.001). MU, 4-Methylumbelliferone.
4. The position of region 3 influences the output of $P_{R2}$

Region 3 of the $GLDPA$ promoter is able to enhance the transcriptional activity of $P_{R2}$ without affecting its spatial activity in all inner leaf tissues (Manuscript 2; Figure Ad6). This enhancing effect appears to be stronger when region 3 is located upstream of $P_{R2}$ (constructs $GLDPA$-Ft-3-2 and $GLDPA$-Ft-3-1-2) rather than being downstream of it (constructs $GLDPA$-Ft-2-3 and $GLDPA$-Ft-1-2-3). Transgenic Arabidopsis plants carrying $GLDPA$-Ft-3-2 exhibited 1.6-fold higher GUS activities than $GLDPA$-Ft-2-3 lines (Manuscript 2). The addition of the transcriptional enhancing region 1 (constructs $GLDPA$-Ft-1-2-3 and $GLDPA$-Ft-3-1-2; Figure Ad6A) raised the GUS activities generally, but $A.\ thaliana$ plants with the $GLDPA$-Ft-3-1-2::GUS transgene were 2.7-fold more active than plants harboring the $GLDPA$-Ft-1-2-3::GUS transgene (Figure Ad6F). These findings suggest that the position of
region 3 influences its ability to enhance the activity of P_{R2}. The enhancing effect of region 3 appears to be weaker when it is located downstream of P_{R2}.

In *A. thaliana*, region 3 of the *GLDPA* promoter might be involved in the post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression (see chapter 5), apart from its function to enhance the transcriptional activities of P_{R2} and P_{R7}. When region 3 is located downstream of P_{R2} (constructs *GLDPA*-Ft-2-3 and *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-3), all RNAs that are transcribed from P_{R2} include the sequence of region 3 and might be less stable or less efficiently translated than transcripts that start from P_{R2} but lack region 3 (constructs *GLDPA*-Ft-3-2 and *GLDPA*-Ft-3-1-2). This indicates that the observed positional effect of region 3 on the output of P_{R2} may be caused post-transcriptionally rather than transcriptionally.

**Figure Ad6. The positional effect of region 3 on the output of region 2 (P_{R2}) in transgenic *A. thaliana* plants.**

(A) Schematic structure of the constructs *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-3 and *GLDPA*-Ft-3-1-2. TSS, Transcription start site.

(B) to (E) Histochemical GUS staining in cross sections (B–E) of leaves of transgenic *A. thaliana* lines carrying *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-3 (B and D) or *GLDPA*-Ft-3-1-2 (C and E). Incubation times for the GUS staining procedure were 0.5 h (D), 1 h (B and C) and 2 h (E).

(F) Fluorometrical quantification of GUS activities of Arabidopsis plants transformed with *GLDPA*-Ft-1-2-3 or *GLDPA*-Ft-3-1-2. Each single dot represents one independent transgenic line. The number of all lines examined (n) and the median of all values (x̄), also added as black line in the diagram, are indicated at the top of the diagram respectively (**p < 0.001**). MU, 4-Methylumbellif erone.
5. **PR2-derived RNAs are destabilized in the presence of PR7**

PR7 alone is weak and specific, whereas PR2 alone shows strong and uniform activity in all inner leaf tissues. In combination, the proximal promoter PR7 is able to suppress the distal promoter PR2. The output of PR2 appears to be efficiently reduced post-transcriptionally by nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) (Manuscript 2). NMD is a eukaryotic control mechanism that detects and degrades mRNAs which contain premature termination codons (Chang et al., 2007; Brogna and Wen, 2009). In plants, upstream open reading frames (uORFs) of the 5' untranslated region (5' UTR) can trigger NMD when the encoded protein exceeds the critical size of 35 amino acids (Nyikó et al., 2009).

When PR2 is combined with PR7 (construct GLDPA-Ft-2-7), RNAs transcribed from PR2 contain several uORFs and one of these has a length of 135 nucleotides that might give rise to a protein of 45 amino acids (Figure Ad7; Manuscript 2). To find out whether these RNAs might become degraded, possibly by NMD, 5' RACE analyses were performed with various transgenic *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* plants carrying the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct (Figures Ad7 and Ad9). In a transgenic GLDPA-Ft-2-7 *A. thaliana* line, RNA 5' ends could be detected starting from either TSSR2 (PR2) or TSSR7 (PR7) (Figures Ad7A and Ad9B). However, many transcripts with 5' UTRs of different lengths were found that apparently started randomly between TSSR2 and TSSR7. These transcripts presumably had all been transcribed from TSSR2 but might have become degraded due to RNA instability. The effect of possibly degraded transcripts originating from TSSR2 in the presence of PR7 was also observed for a transgenic *F. bidentis* plant that harbored the GLDPA-Ft-2-7 construct (Figures Ad7B and Ad9B). In Arabidopsis, 5' RACE analyses did not reveal a general correlation between the observed activities of PR2 and PR7, based on the detected GUS staining pattern, and their transcriptional activities. With respect to the RNA output, PR7 always appeared to be the dominant or even the only active promoter regardless of the detected GUS expression pattern of the respective GLDPA-Ft-2-7 line (Figure Ad9B). These findings indicate that transcripts originating from PR2 are favoured for degradation in the presence of PR7. At least one uORF beyond the critical size in PR2-derived transcripts might elicit NMD and thereby lead to RNA degradation.

Transgenic Arabidopsis plants expressing GUS under the control of PR2 or PR7 alone showed RNA 5' ends of more or less the same length (Figures Ad8 and Ad9B) suggesting that transcripts from PR2 and PR7 seem to be stable. In both cases no uORF is present in PR2- or PR7-derived transcripts, so that NMD is not expected to occur.

Apart from their destabilizing effect on transcripts, uORFs affect translational efficiency. Translation of the major ORF is even strongly reduced when it overlaps with a uORF (Kozak,
This is true for the 135-nt long uORF that starts upstream of TSS$_{R7}$ and extends into the ORF of the GUS gene (Figure Ad7).

In *F. bidentis*, PR2 seems to be stably repressed by PR7 because all transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 plants exhibited GUS expression exclusively in the bundle-sheath and the vasculature. In contrast, the combination of PR2 and PR7 led to various GUS expression patterns in transgenic *A. thaliana* plants (Figures Ad4 and Ad5; Manuscript 2). Bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific GUS expression could be stably maintained by adding region 3 in between PR2 and PR7 (construct *GLDPA*-Ft-2-3-7) (Manuscript 2). The fusion of region 3 up- or downstream to
PR2 in the absence of PR7 did not alter the expression pattern from unspecific to specific (Figure Ad6), which led to the conclusion that region 3 is only functional in the presence of PR7 and supports the partially repressive activity of PR7 on PR2 (Manuscript 2). In transgenic Arabidopsis plants harboring GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7, no RNA 5' ends transcribed from PR2 could be detected by 5' RACE, but only those starting from PR7 (Figure Ad9B). Although region 3 contains a uORF, this one has a length of only six nucleotides (Manuscript 2) and presumably does not promote NMD efficiently. Region 3 was shown to enhance the transcriptional activity of both PR2 and PR7 (Figure Ad6; Manuscript 2). The strong enhancement of PR7 in the presence of region 3 combined with the decay of RNAs transcribed from PR2 might explain the fact that all GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 A. thaliana plants exhibited bundle-sheath- and vasculature-specific GUS expression. Apart from the transcriptional and possibly post-transcriptional regulation, translational efficiency might be further reduced by the additional small uORF in region 3 in GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 plants compared to GLDPA-Ft-2-7 lines. The presence of the two splice donor sites within region 3 (Manuscript 2) might induce splicing in the presence of an appropriate splice acceptor site within the GUS reading frame and result in aberrant and/or destabilized transcripts, which also affects translational efficiency.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure Ad8. Analysis of mRNA 5' ends in leaves of transgenic A. thaliana harboring GLDPA-Ft-2 or GLDPA-Ft-7.**

(A) and (B) Identification of 5' untranslated regions (5' UTRs) by the rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE) in leaves of transgenic GLDPA-Ft-2 (A) or GLDPA-Ft-7 (B) A. thaliana plants (see Figure Ad9B, lanes 10–14). Five (A) and four (B) cloned 5' RACE products were randomly selected and analyzed by DNA sequencing. The respective construct is depicted schematically above the detected 5' UTR sequences with the corresponding transcription start site (TSS) within region 2 (TSS\(_{R2}\)) or region 7 (TSS\(_{R7}\)) indicated by an arrowhead. nt, nucleotide.
6. Material and Methods

Generation of promoter-reporter gene constructs

The amplification, electrophoretic separation in agarose gels, and the cloning of DNA was accomplished according to Sambrook and Russell (2001). The generation and the cloning of the various promoter-reporter gene constructs were carried out as described in Manuscript 2.
All GLDPA promoter regions were amplified by PCR by means of the corresponding oligonucleotides containing respective restriction sites (Tables Ad1 and Ad2). The cloning of the constructs GLDPA-Ft-2, GLDPA-Ft-7, GLDPA-Ft-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 has been previously described (Manuscript 2). GLDPA-Ft-1s0-2-7 and GLDPA-Ft-2-3s0-7 were constructed by exchanging the 2-3 module of GLDPA-Ft-2-3-7 against region 2 (P\textsubscript{R2}) elongated 50 base pairs upstream into region 1 (1s0-2) or downstream into region 3 (2-3s0) as XbaI/BcuI fragment respectively. GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 was generated by cloning region 1 as XbaI/BamHI and region 3 as BamHI/BcuI fragment together into pBluescript II KS(+) (Stratagene) so that the 1-3 module could be excised as XbaI/BcuI fragment in order to be ligated with region 7 (P\textsubscript{R7}) as BcuI/Xmal fragment into the XbaI/Xmal-restricted pBI121 vector (Clontech Laboratories) lacking the CaMV 35S promoter. GLDPA-Ft-1.1-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-1.2-3-7, GLDPA-Ft-1.3-3-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1.4-3-7 were constructed by replacing region 1 of GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 by its partial regions 1.1 (64 bp), 1.2 (64 bp), 1.3 (64 bp) or 1.4 (65 bp), each one overlapping 25 bp with the adjacent part(s), as XbaI/BamHI fragment respectively. GLDPA-Ft-1-3.1-7, GLDPA-Ft-1-3.2-7, GLDPA-Ft-1-3.3-7 and GLDPA-Ft-1-3.4-7 were generated by exchanging region 3 of GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 against its partial regions 3.1 (72 bp), 3.2 (72 bp), 3.3 (72 bp) or 3.4 (71 bp), each one overlapping 25 bp with the adjacent part(s), as BamHI/BcuI fragment respectively. The GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 construct (Figure Ad2, A and C; Figure Ad3, A and C) was composed of region 1 as XbaI/XhoI, region 3 as XhoI/HindIII and region 7 (P\textsubscript{R7}) as HindIII/Xmal fragment, and was cloned by Sascha Engelmann. To generate the GLDPA-Ft-1-2-3 construct the regions 1, 2 and 3 were amplified as 1-2-3 module and ligated as XbaI/Xmal fragment into the XbaI/Xmal-restricted pBI121 vector lacking the 35S promoter. Region 3 was cloned as XbaI/XbaI fragment into GLDPA-Ft-1-2 (Manuscript 2) previously restricted with XbaI to generate GLDPA-Ft-3-1-2. The correct orientation of region 3 was verified by DNA sequencing.

**Transformation of Arabidopsis thaliana and Flaveria bidentis**

Transgenic plants of *A. thaliana* and *F. bidentis* were generated according to Manuscript 2.

**In situ analysis of the β-glucuronidase and fluorometrical detection of its activity**

The *in situ* analysis of the β-glucuronidase (GUS) and the fluorometrical measurement of the GUS activity were performed as described in Manuscript 2. The generation of transgenic Arabidopsis plants harboring GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7 and the histochemical and fluorometrical detection of GUS activities in leaves of these plants was carried out by Sascha Engelmann.
The histochemical GUS staining in leaves of transgenic *F. bidentis* plants carrying the *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 construct, and the fluorometrical measurement of GUS activities in leaves of these lines were performed by Stefanie Schulze.

**Analysis of mRNA 5' ends by rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends**

For rapid amplification of 5' complementary DNA ends (5' RACE), total RNA was isolated from mature rosette leaves of single independent *A. thaliana* lines carrying *GLDPA*-Ft-7, *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 or *GLDPA*-Ft-2-3-7 or from mature leaves of a transgenic *F. bidentis* plant harboring *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 by means of the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) combined with the RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen). 0.5 µg (*F. bidentis*) or 1 µg (*A. thaliana*) of total RNA was directly used for cDNA first-strand synthesis by utilizing the SMARTer™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech Laboratories) and the SMARTScribe™ Reverse Transcriptase (Clontech Laboratories) according to the manufacturers’ instructions. For PCR amplification of 5' untranslated regions (5' UTRs) with the Advantage 2 Polymerase Mix (Clontech Laboratories) or the Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) the Universal Primer A Mix (UPM; Clontech Laboratories) and the *GUS* gene-specific 3' oligonucleotide 5RACE-3GUS-3 (5'-GTTTTCGTCGGTAATCACCATTCCC-3') or pBI121GUS3'-2 (5'-ACTGCCTGGCACAGCAATTGC-3') were used. After cloning of the obtained PCR fragments with the CloneJET™ PCR Cloning Kit (Fermentas), several independent clones were analyzed by colony PCR with the oligonucleotides pJetFW (5'-ATCAACTGCTTTAACACTTGTGCC-3') and pJetRW (5'-CGGTTTCCTGATGAGGTGGTTAG-3'). From single, potentially correct clones plasmid DNA was isolated for DNA sequencing. The isolation of RNA from leaves of a single transgenic *GLDPA*-Ft-2-7 plant of *F. bidentis* and the analysis of these transcripts by 5' RACE was performed by Stefanie Schulze.

5' RACE of a single independent *A. thaliana* line carrying *GLDPA*-Ft-2 was performed as described before with the exception that the SMART™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech Laboratories) was used. The SMART-II-A-Primer (5'-AAGCAGTGTAAGCAACTGATG-3') in combination with either the *GUS* gene-specific 3' primer 5RACE-3GUS-1 (5'-AACAGACGCCTGGTTACAGTCTTGC-3'), 5RACE-3GUS-2 (5'-TACGCTGATGGATTCCGGCATAG-3') or 5RACE-3GUS-3 (5'-GTTTTCGTCGGTAATCACCATTCCC-3') was used respectively for PCR amplification of 5' UTRs with the Advantage 2 Polymerase Mix (Clontech Laboratories). Cloning and verifying of single clones was carried out as described before.
### Table Ad1. Oligonucleotide sequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oligonucleotide name</th>
<th>Sequence (5’–3’), restriction sites underlined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA-5’-XbaI</td>
<td>TGCTCTAGAAGCTTACTCCTCCTC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA1-3’-BamHI</td>
<td>TTAGATCCCATTTCTACATTGCGCTT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA1s5’-XbaI</td>
<td>TTATCTAGAATCATGTTGTGCAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
<td>TTAGATCTTTGAAGAACACAA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA1.5’-XbaI</td>
<td>TTATCTAGAATCATGTTGTGCAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>GLDPA1.4-5’-XbaI</td>
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<td>GLDPA2-5’-XbaI</td>
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<tr>
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<td>GLDPA2-3’-XmaI</td>
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<tr>
<td>GLDPA3-3’-BcuI</td>
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<tr>
<td>GLDPA3-3’-XmaI</td>
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<td>AAATCCGGGAGGTGAAGATG</td>
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### Table Ad2. Oligonucleotide combinations for the amplification of the appropriate promoter parts

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Promoter part</th>
<th>5’-Oligonucleotide</th>
<th>3’-Oligonucleotide</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLDPA-Ft-1s5’-2-7</td>
<td>GLDPA-1s5’-2</td>
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<td>GLDPA2-3’-BcuI</td>
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<td>GLDPA2-5’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA3s5’-BcuI</td>
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<tr>
<td>GLDPA-Ft-1-3-7</td>
<td>GLDPA-1-3</td>
<td>GLDPA1.5’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
</tr>
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<td>GLDPA1.5’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
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<td>GLDPA1.3’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
</tr>
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<td>GLDPA1.3’-BamHI</td>
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<tr>
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<td>GLDPA3.5’-BamHI</td>
<td>GLDPA3.1.3’-BcuI</td>
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<td>GLDPA3.5’-BamHI</td>
<td>GLDPA3.2.3’-BcuI</td>
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<td>GLDPA-Ft-1.3.3-7</td>
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<td>GLDPA5’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA3.3’-XmaI</td>
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<td>GLDPA-Ft-3.3-1-2</td>
<td>GLDPA-3-1</td>
<td>GLDPA5’-XbaI</td>
<td>GLDPA3.5’-XmaI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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7. Literature


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