

RESEARCH PAPER

# Comparative studies of C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> *Atriplex* hybrids in the genomics era: physiological assessments

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## Abstract

We crossed the C<sub>3</sub> species *Atriplex prostrata* with the C<sub>4</sub> species *Atriplex rosea* to produce F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. All hybrids exhibited C<sub>3</sub>-like δ<sup>13</sup>C values, and had reduced rates of net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation compared with *A. prostrata*. The activities of the major C<sub>4</sub> cycle enzymes PEP carboxylase, NAD-malic enzyme, and pyruvate-P<sub>i</sub> dikinase in the hybrids were at most 36% of the C<sub>4</sub> values. These results demonstrate the C<sub>4</sub> metabolic cycle was disrupted in the hybrids. Photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> compensation points ( $\Gamma$ ) of the hybrids were generally midway between the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> values, and in most hybrids were accompanied by low, C<sub>3</sub>-like activities in one or more of the major C<sub>4</sub> cycle enzymes. This supports the possibility that most hybrids use a photorespiratory glycine shuttle to concentrate CO<sub>2</sub> into the bundle sheath cells. One hybrid exhibited a C<sub>4</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  of 4 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>, indicating engagement of a C<sub>4</sub> metabolic cycle. Consistently, this hybrid had elevated activities of all measured C<sub>4</sub> cycle enzymes relative to the C<sub>3</sub> parent; however, C<sub>3</sub>-like carbon isotope ratios indicate the low  $\Gamma$  is mainly due to a photorespiratory glycine shuttle. The anatomy of the hybrids resembled that of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate species using a glycine shuttle to concentrate CO<sub>2</sub> in the bundle sheath, and is further evidence that this physiology is the predominant, default condition of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. Progeny of these hybrids should further segregate C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> traits and in doing so assist in the discovery of C<sub>4</sub> genes using high-throughput methods of the genomics era.

**Key words:** C<sub>4</sub> engineering, C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrating mechanism, photosynthetic hybrids, Rubisco.

## Introduction

C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis is a carbon-concentrating mechanism that evolved from C<sub>3</sub> progenitors at least 65 times (Sage *et al.*, 2012). During C<sub>4</sub> evolution, a coordinated series of anatomical and biochemical adjustments established the compartmentation and enzyme activities required to efficiently concentrate CO<sub>2</sub> around Rubisco (Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000). In the process, dozens to hundreds of genes have been altered (Bräutigam *et al.*, 2011a, b; Gowik *et al.*, 2011). A number of the modifications to key biochemical enzymes such as PEP carboxylase have been identified, although most remain unknown, particularly the genes controlling the anatomical modifications (Kajala *et al.*, 2011; Ludwig, 2013). Identification of these elements is essential in the effort to improve C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis and potentially engineer the C<sub>4</sub>

pathway into C<sub>3</sub> crops, as is now being attempted with rice (von Caemmerer *et al.*, 2012; <http://c4rice.irri.org/>).

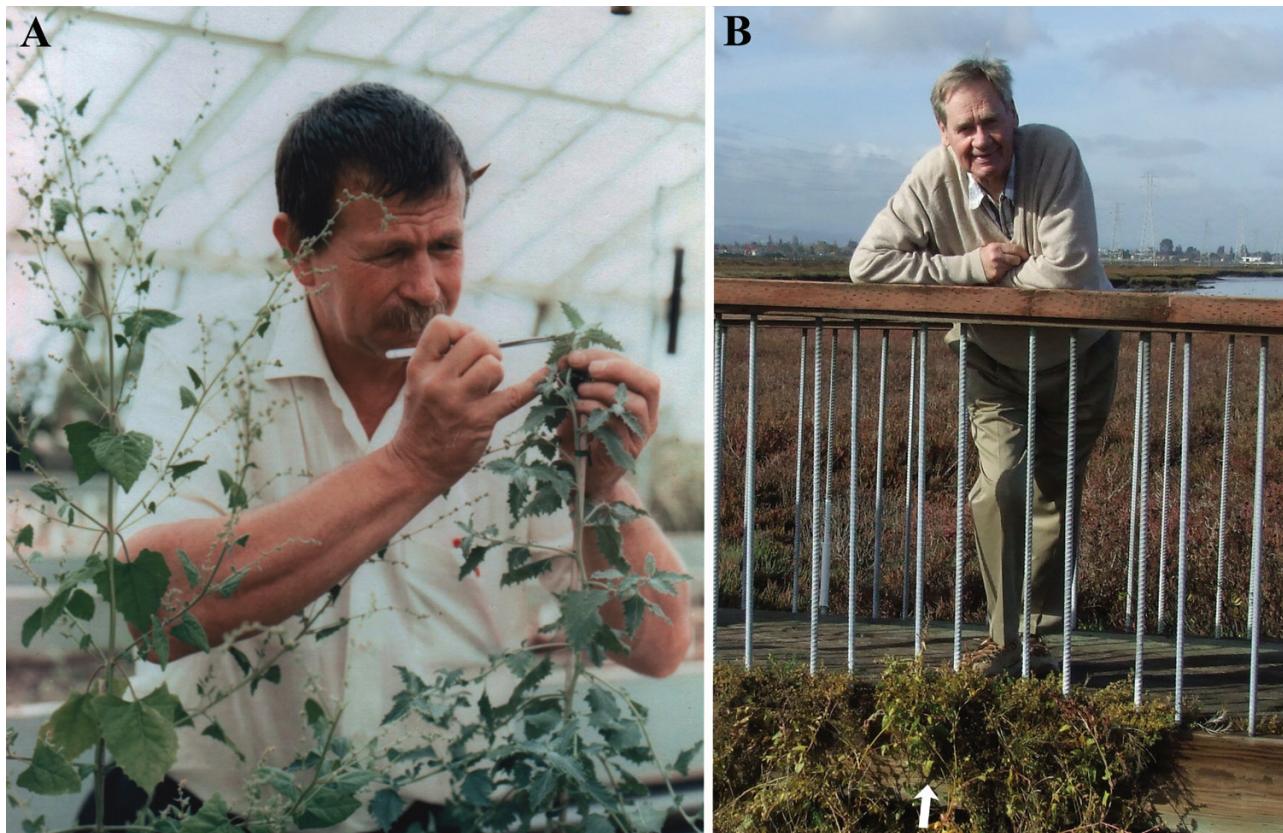
Gene discovery is most efficient when researchers can apply forward and reverse genetic approaches using genetic model organisms (Meinke *et al.*, 1998). Unfortunately, in the case of the C<sub>4</sub> pathway, ideal model organisms have not been developed, although *Setaria viridis* is a potential candidate (Li and Brutnell, 2011; Covshoff *et al.*, 2014). The lack of tractable genetic models for C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis requires that alternative means of gene discovery be considered. One option is to generate hybrids between closely related C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species, and then use a genetic mapping strategy to associate genes with segregating traits. A number of congeneric pairs of C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species have been hybridized since the discovery of the C<sub>4</sub>

pathway. The first C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids were produced by Malcolm Nobs and Olle Björkman (Fig. 1) between *Atriplex rosea* (C<sub>4</sub>) and *Atriplex prostrata* (C<sub>3</sub>, formerly termed *A. patula* ssp. *hastata* and *A. triangularis*; Kadereit *et al.*, 2010), and *A. rosea* and *A. glabriuscula* (C<sub>3</sub>) (Björkman *et al.*, 1969; Osmond *et al.*, 1980). Subsequent efforts created hybrids between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>-like *Flaveria* species (Apel *et al.*, 1988), and C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate and C<sub>4</sub> *Flaveria* species (Brown *et al.*, 1986; Brown and Bouton, 1993). Hybrids have also been generated between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate *Panicum* species (Bouton *et al.*, 1986). In many of the *Flaveria* crosses, the F<sub>1</sub> hybrids were sterile (Brown and Bouton, 1993). In cases where F<sub>2</sub> hybrids were generated and segregation of traits observed, problems associated with chromosome abnormalities and pairing were evident, such that mapping populations could not be formed (Osmond *et al.*, 1980; Covshoff *et al.*, 2014). All hybrid studies were abandoned, and the hybrids eventually perished.

With the advent of high-throughput sequencing and bioinformatics, the ability to evaluate genetic differences between hybrid offspring has dramatically improved, such that the requirement for a mapping population can be relaxed. Of particular promise is sequencing of transcriptomes (RNA-Seq), which can quantify gene expression over a large dynamic range and does not require prior knowledge of the genome sequence (Bräutigam and Gowik, 2010). Comparative transcriptomics has already been used to identify genes that are differentially expressed in leaves of closely related C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>

plants (Bräutigam *et al.*, 2011a, b; Gowik *et al.*, 2011). By using a comparative transcriptomics approach with segregating F<sub>2</sub> hybrids, the C<sub>4</sub> genes controlling the segregating traits may be identified.

C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids can also provide novel insights for understanding C<sub>4</sub> structure, function, and evolution. With advances in photosynthetic methodology, the development of theoretical models of C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, and an improved appreciation of how structural adaptations enhance C<sub>4</sub> function, we are now in a much better position to interpret patterns observed in C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrid lines than was the case a generation ago (Dengler and Nelson, 1999; von Caemmerer, 2000; Sage *et al.*, 2013). Predictions from theoretical models of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis developed since the hybrid era can also provide valuable insights that will aid the interpretation of C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrid studies (von Caemmerer, 2000; Ubierna *et al.*, 2013). In addition, models describing the function of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate species (Rawsthorne *et al.*, 1988; von Caemmerer, 1989 and 1992) appeared near the end of the hybrid studies (Brown and Bouton, 1993). With the modern understanding of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediacy, it is now possible to address the degree to which C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids express the physiology of C<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>4</sub>, or C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate species (Sage *et al.*, 2012). In C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediates, the major physiological trait is a CO<sub>2</sub>-concentrating mechanism (CCM) that shuttles photorespiratory glycine from mesophyll (M) to bundle sheath (BS) tissues where the photorespiratory enzyme glycine decarboxylase is



**Fig. 1.** (A) Malcolm Nobs pollinating *Atriplex rosea*, with the pollen donor, *Atriplex prostrata*, to his right. Photo supplied by Olle Björkman, with kind permission. (B) Olle Björkman standing behind a clump of *Atriplex prostrata* (arrow) at the collection site, December 15, 2010 (Photo by R.F. Sage). (This figure is available in colour at JXB online.)

localized (Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000). This CCM is now termed C<sub>2</sub> photosynthesis (Sage *et al.*, 2012).

In reviewing the literature on C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids, the most attractive system seems to be the cross between *A. rosea* and *A. prostrata* (Björkman *et al.*, 1969). An appealing aspect of this system is that the axile inflorescences of *A. rosea* are entirely composed of female flowers. This facilitates cross-pollination with *A. rosea* as the maternal parent because the bisexual inflorescences at the branch tips can be easily removed (Osmond *et al.*, 1980). The F<sub>1</sub> offspring of the *A. rosea* × *A. prostrata* cross are fertile, although with reduced pollen fertility and seed set. The F<sub>2</sub> offspring exhibit a gradation in many C<sub>4</sub> traits, with independent assortment (Boynton *et al.*, 1970). For example, no correlation is apparent between leaf anatomy and expression of C<sub>4</sub> enzymes (Boynton *et al.*, 1970). These findings were the first to demonstrate that multiple genes are involved in the expression of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, and show that the loss of any one C<sub>4</sub> trait leads to breakdown of the C<sub>4</sub> CCM (Björkman, 1976; Osmond *et al.*, 1980). However, chromosomal abnormalities were observed, with only four out of nine chromosomes regularly pairing at meiosis (Nobs, 1976). This precluded traditional genetic analysis, as forming a linkage map was impossible. The use of high-throughput genomics can potentially overcome this constraint (Bräutigam and Gowik, 2010).

To exploit the potential of C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids in the genomics era, it is necessary to produce new hybrid lines to replace those lost decades ago. We therefore regenerated hybrids between *A. rosea* and *A. prostrata* through to the F<sub>2</sub> generation. Here, we describe the physiology and leaf anatomy of these hybrids using gas exchange and biochemical assays, and interpret the results in light of current theory for the function of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate and C<sub>4</sub> systems.

## Materials and methods

### Generation of F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids

With the assistance of Olle Björkman (Fig. 1B), seeds of *A. prostrata* were collected from a salt marsh along San Francisco Bay in Baylands Park, Palo Alto, California USA (37°27'38.65"N × 122°06'19.63"W). This is the same collection site for this species in the first hybrid trials (Björkman *et al.*, 1969). Seeds of *A. rosea* were collected in a corral along Ball's Canyon road, 30 km northwest of Reno, Nevada, USA by Chris Root (39°39'20.68"N × 120°03'19.89"W). All plants used for crosses were grown from these collections in a rooftop greenhouse located at the University of Toronto. Plants were grown in a mixture of sand, Pro-Mix (Premier Tech Ltd., Rivière-du-Loup, Québec, Canada), and sterilized topsoil (2:2:1 by volume) in either 7.6 l or 3.8 l pots. Plants were watered as necessary to avoid drought and fertilized weekly with a mixture containing 1.8 g l<sup>-1</sup> of 24-8-16 Miracle-Gro All Purpose fertilizer, 1.2 g l<sup>-1</sup> 30-10-10 Miracle-Gro Evergreen Tree and Shrub fertilizer (Scotts Miracle-Gro Co., Marysville, Ohio, USA), 4.0 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and 1.0 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>. The daytime temperature during growth was 26–32 °C depending on outdoor temperature and solar insolation, and night temperature was approximately 23 °C.

In *A. rosea*, bisexual inflorescences are produced at the branch tips, whereas only female inflorescences are produced in the leaf axils of mature stems (Osmond *et al.*, 1980). *A. prostrata* has only bisexual inflorescences. By removing the bisexual inflorescences from *A. rosea*, we were able to protect the axile flowers from

self-pollination and ensure they would receive only pollen produced by *A. prostrata*. Flowers of *A. rosea* were pollinated using an extra-fine paintbrush from August to October, 2011. F<sub>1</sub> hybrid seed was mature when plants senesced in mid-to-late November, 2011. F<sub>1</sub> hybrids were grown in identical environments as the parents, using high-pressure sodium lamps to maintain photoperiod at 14 h. These plants flowered beginning in mid-August and were allowed to self-pollinate, with seeds maturing by late October.

The F<sub>2</sub> hybrids, along with F<sub>1</sub>, *A. rosea* and *A. prostrata* plants were grown in a plant growth chamber (Conviron PGC-20, Conviron Ltd., Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada) at 27 °C day/22 °C night using the same soil, watering, and fertilizer regime as described above. Photoperiod was 18 h with a light intensity near 700 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> during the central 8-h portion of the photoperiod, and 200 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for 4 h on each side of the high light period. One hour of incandescent light provided 20 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> during the first and last hour of the photoperiod. We selected this photoperiod after preliminary trials showed plants flowered in a 14 h photoperiod.

### Gas exchange, leaf nitrogen, and enzyme assays

Gas exchange measurements were conducted on 6–10-week-old plants, using a recently expanded leaf for all measurements. Leaf disks for enzyme and nitrogen assays were sampled from the leaves used for gas exchange. Carbon isotope ratios of leaf disks from adjacent leaves were determined by the University of Washington Isotope Facility (<http://depts.washington.edu/isolab/>). Whole-leaf gas exchange parameters were measured using a LI-6400 portable photosynthesis system (Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) at a leaf temperature of 30 °C (Vogan *et al.*, 2007). For determination of the response of net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate (*A*) to intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> content (*C<sub>i</sub>*), a saturating light intensity of 1500 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was used for *A. prostrata* and 1800 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for *A. rosea*. In the measurement of the *A/C<sub>i</sub>* response, leaves were first equilibrated to saturating light (1500 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for *A. prostrata* and 1800 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for *A. rosea*) and then measurements were recorded. Subsequently, ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was raised to almost 1000 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> to determine the maximum assimilation rate and then reduced in steps to 35 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for *A. prostrata*, 10 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for *A. rosea* and 20 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. The CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point was calculated using the x-intercept of a linear regression through the lowest 4–6 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations that fell on a linear response of *A* versus *C<sub>i</sub>*. This regression was also used to calculate the initial slope of the *A/C<sub>i</sub>* curve, which is an estimate of carboxylation efficiency (CE). Leaf nitrogen was assayed using a Costech ESC 4010 C:N analyzer by the University of Nebraska Ecosystem Analysis lab, Lincoln, Nebraska ([biosci.unl.edu/facilities](http://biosci.unl.edu/facilities)).

Enzyme assays were conducted at 30 °C for Rubisco and three C<sub>4</sub> cycle enzymes: phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPCase), NAD malic enzyme (NAD-ME), and pyruvate phosphate dikinase (PPDK) (Sage *et al.*, 2011). Leaf samples were extracted into 50 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.8) containing 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM EDTA, 2% PVPP (w/v), 1% PVP, 1% BSA, 10 mM DTT, 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100, 10 mM 6-aminocaproic acid, and 2 mM benzamide. Enzyme activities were assayed with a diode array spectrophotometer by measuring at 340 nm the reduction of NAD<sup>+</sup> (for NAD-ME), or the oxidation of NADH in a coupled enzyme assay (Rubisco, PEPCase, PPDK). NAD-malic enzyme and PEP carboxylase were assayed according to Sage *et al.*, (2011). Rubisco was assayed according to Ashton *et al.* (1990), with the extract being incubated in the reaction mixture for 10 min before the assay to ensure full activation of the enzyme. The PPDK assay was modified from Ashton *et al.* (1990), with 10 mM KHCO<sub>3</sub> replacing NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and the concentration of PEPCase being increased to 3 units ml<sup>-1</sup>. All chemicals for enzymes assays with the exception of PEPCase were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA. PEPCase was obtained from Bio-Research Products, North Liberty, Iowa, USA.

### Leaf anatomy

For light and transmission microscopy, 2 mm<sup>2</sup> samples were cut from the middle region of recently expanded leaves and prepared for microscopy as described by Sage and Williams (1995). Briefly, sections were fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde and 0.5 M sodium cacodylate buffer solution (pH 6.9) and post-fixed with a 2% osmium tetroxide solution. Samples were then dehydrated in ethanol increments and embedded in Spurr's resin. The microscopy samples were obtained from leaves adjacent to those used for gas exchange analyses, and were harvested in the middle of the four-week period when gas exchange data were acquired.

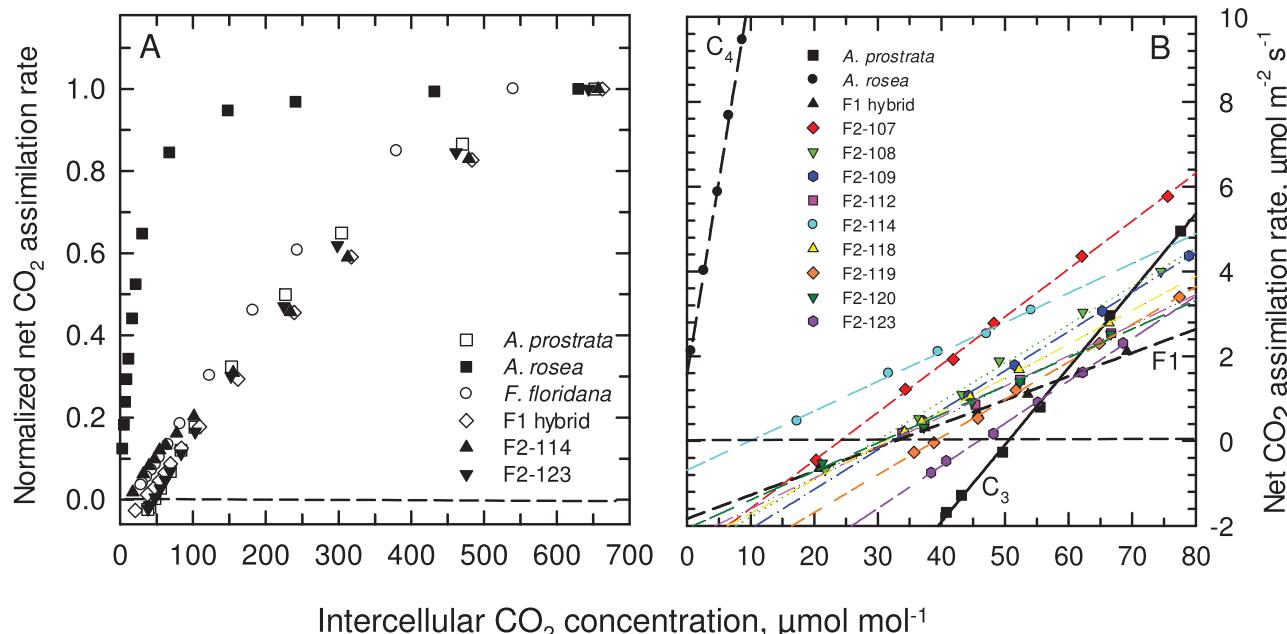
## Results

### Generation and growth of the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids

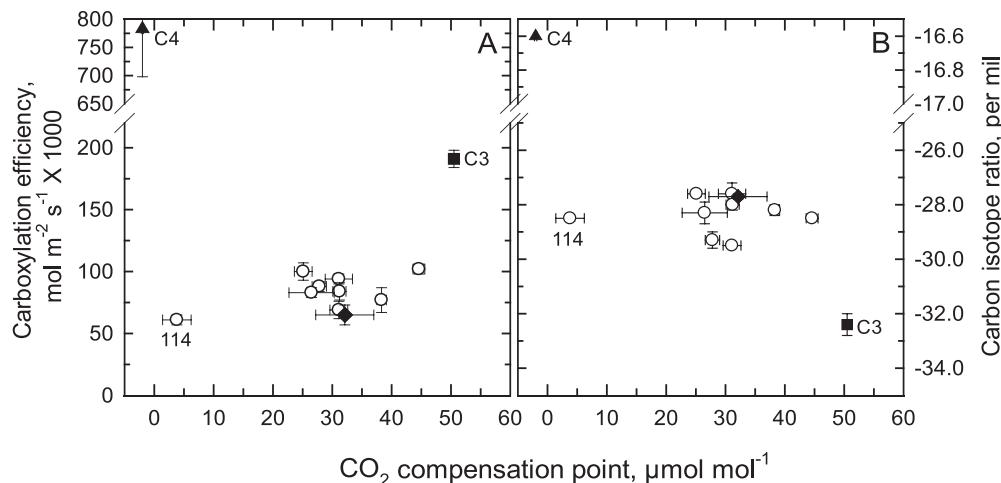
Approximately 80% of *A. rosea* flowers that were hand-pollinated with *A. prostrata* pollen yielded seed. By contrast, Nobs *et al.*, (1970) reported seed set near 10%. Seedlings of F<sub>1</sub> plants were easy to identify as they lacked the red colour present on the bottom of *A. rosea* leaves. The F<sub>1</sub> hybrids produced 50–100 F<sub>2</sub> seeds each, similar to the results of Nobs *et al.*, (1970). The germination rate for F<sub>1</sub> seeds was over 80%. The growth habit and leaf shape of the F<sub>1</sub> hybrids was intermediate between that of the parents and uniform compared with each other, whereas the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids were also intermediate in growth habit, but exhibited variable leaf shape (Supplementary Fig. S1). Notably, all F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids retained female-only inflorescences in the leaf axils, as seen in the maternal parent *A. rosea*.

## Gas exchange results

The F<sub>1</sub> hybrids exhibited a CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point ( $\Gamma$ ) near 30  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ , in contrast to nearly 0  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  in *A. rosea* and 50  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  in *A. prostrata*, at 30 °C (Fig. 2). Representative A/C<sub>i</sub> responses for the parents and all hybrids are presented in Supplementary Fig. S2. In Fig. 2A, we show normalized A/C<sub>i</sub> responses of the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> parents, three hybrids, and for comparison, the C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate species *Flaveria floridana*. The normalized curves demonstrate the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids had a similar qualitative response as *A. prostrata* and *F. floridana*, with the major exception being that the hybrids had a lower carboxylation efficiency (CE) and CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point ( $\Gamma$ ) than *A. prostrata* (Fig. 2B; Fig. 3A). The  $\Gamma$  values of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids ranged from a C<sub>4</sub>-like value of 4  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  in F<sub>2</sub>-114 to 45  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  in F<sub>2</sub>-123;  $\Gamma$  in most F<sub>2</sub> hybrids clustered between 25–35  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  (Table 1; Fig. 3). At current air levels of CO<sub>2</sub> (about 400  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  in Toronto),  $A_{400}$  values in the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids ranged between 48% and 67% (average 57%) of the *A. prostrata* value (Table 1). At CO<sub>2</sub> saturation, the difference between the mean  $A$  value ( $A_{max}$ ) of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrid lines and *A. prostrata* was less:  $A_{max}$  in the hybrids ranged between 68% and 89% (mean 77%) of the C<sub>3</sub> values (Table 1). The difference in the  $A_{400}$  values between the hybrids and *A. prostrata* was largely due to reduced carboxylation efficiency in the hybrids. The CE values ranged from 32–53% (average 44%) of the C<sub>3</sub> value in the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids (Table 1), and exhibited no relationship with variation in  $\Gamma$  (Fig. 3A). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids ranged from -29.3 to -27.6‰, and were consistently more positive than the C<sub>3</sub> mean of -32.2‰ (Fig. 3B).



**Fig. 2.** The response of net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate,  $A$ , to intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> ( $C_i$ ) at 30 °C and 1500  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  for the two *Atriplex* parents, an F<sub>1</sub> hybrid and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. (A) Normalized net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate for the *Atriplex* parents, the C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate *Flaveria floridana*, an F<sub>1</sub> hybrid, and the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids 114 and 123. (B) The low CO<sub>2</sub> portion of the  $A$  versus  $C_i$  response illustrating CO<sub>2</sub> compensation points and initial slopes for all hybrids in the study. Results shown are representative responses of 3–6  $A$  versus  $C_i$  measurements for the hybrids and *A. prostrata*, and two measurements of *A. rosea*. See Supplementary Fig. S2 for the non-normalized A/C<sub>i</sub> responses of each hybrid.



**Fig. 3.** The relationship between the CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point of the net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate and (A) the carboxylation efficiency of photosynthesis and (B) the carbon isotope ratio of leaves in *Atriplex prostrata* (C<sub>3</sub>, ■), *Atriplex rosea* (C<sub>4</sub>, ▲), an F<sub>1</sub> hybrid (♦), and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids (●). “114” indicates the datapoint for the F<sub>2</sub>-114 hybrid. Some error bars are obscured by the symbols.

**Table 1.** Summary of leaf gas exchange, nitrogen and nitrogen-use efficiency parameters for C<sub>3</sub> × C<sub>4</sub> hybrids and their parents grown in plant growth chambers

Means ± SE. n=3–6 for gas exchange except for *A. rosea* (n=2). Abbreviations: ATPR, *A. prostrata*; ATRO, *A. rosea*; A<sub>400</sub>, net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate at an ambient CO<sub>2</sub> of 400 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>; A<sub>max</sub>, net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate at 800 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub>; C<sub>i</sub>/C<sub>a</sub>, ratio of intercellular to ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentration; N, nitrogen. Carboxylation efficiency is equal to the initial slope of the A versus C<sub>i</sub> response. Superscripted x, y, or z indicate differences at P<0.05 between the ATPR, ATRO, F<sub>1</sub> hybrid, and the pooled mean of all F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. The a, b, c, or d letters after each value indicate statistical groups at P<0.05 when all genotypes were compared. Statistical differences were tested using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test.

	A <sub>400</sub>	A <sub>max</sub>	C <sub>i</sub> /C <sub>a</sub> @ 400	CO <sub>2</sub> compensation point (Γ)	Carboxylation efficiency	Leaf N content	Leaf nitrogen-use efficiency (NUE) (=A <sub>400</sub> /leaf N)
Genotype	μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	mol mol <sup>-1</sup>	μmol mol <sup>-1</sup>	mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	mmol m <sup>-2</sup>	mmol mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>
ATPR-C <sub>3</sub>	31.6±1.2a <sup>x</sup>	37.7±0.7a <sup>x</sup>	0.80±0.02a <sup>x</sup>	50.5±0.3a <sup>z</sup>	0.191±0.007b <sup>y</sup>	175±12a <sup>x</sup>	182±7ab <sup>x</sup>
ATRO-C <sub>4</sub>	31.2±0.0a <sup>x</sup>	32.8±0.6abc <sup>xy</sup>	0.57±0.09b <sup>y</sup>	-2.2±0.2d <sup>x</sup>	0.783±0.085a <sup>x</sup>	143±14a <sup>x</sup>	221±22a <sup>x</sup>
F <sub>1</sub>	16.0±1.0bc <sup>y</sup>	25.6±2.0c <sup>y</sup>	0.81±0.01a <sup>x</sup>	32.1±4.9c <sup>y</sup>	0.065±0.008c <sup>z</sup>	156 (n=1)	115 (N=1)
F <sub>2</sub> -107	20.2±1.1bc	31.2±1.1bc	0.80±0.02a	25.1±1.5c	0.100±0.007c	130±7a	131±5b
F <sub>2</sub> -108	17.9±1.0bc	30.7±1.0bc	0.76±0.02a	27.8±1.2c	0.088±0.004c	164±14a	110±19b
F <sub>2</sub> -109	20.5±0.8bc	32.1±0.9abc	0.81±0.01a	31.1±2.3c	0.094±0.004c	130±18a	164±26ab
F <sub>2</sub> -112	15.3±2.1c	27.7±2.8bc	0.79±0.07a	31.1±1.5c	0.069±0.007c	147±25a	104±47b
F <sub>2</sub> -114	16.0±0.4bc	26.6±0.3c	0.80±0.01a	3.8±2.4d	0.061±0.004c	125±4a	125±3.6b
F <sub>2</sub> -118	16.2±1.0bc	25.4±1.3c	0.76±0.06a	31.2±1.1c	0.084±0.007c	133±6a	124±15b
F <sub>2</sub> -119	15.9±3.1bc	28.6±4.2bc	0.71±0.06a	38.3±0.8bc	0.077±0.010c	141±15a	110±16b
F <sub>2</sub> -120	17.5±1.1bc	26.6±1.2c	0.82±0.02a	26.5±3.8c	0.083±0.004c	154±6a	115±8b
F <sub>2</sub> -123	21.3±0.6b	33.5±0.7ab	0.81±0.01a	44.6±1.0ab	0.102±0.004c	149±7a	147±8b
All F <sub>2</sub>	18.0±0.5 <sup>y</sup>	29.2±0.6 <sup>y</sup>	0.79±0.01 <sup>x</sup>	29.5±2.0 <sup>y</sup>	0.08±0.003 <sup>z</sup>	145±4 <sup>x</sup>	126±5 <sup>y</sup>

These values were shifted more negative by approximately 2‰ units owing to an enriched fossil fuel signature in downtown Toronto, where the growth facilities are located. No relationship was apparent between δ<sup>13</sup>C and either Γ, A<sub>400</sub>, or A<sub>max</sub>, and the CE value (not shown).

were significantly different (Table 1). Differences in leaf nitrogen-use efficiency (NUE) between the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species could not be statistically resolved, whereas each hybrid line except F<sub>2</sub>-109 has a significantly lower NUE than the C<sub>4</sub> parent (Table 1). On average, the mean NUE of all the F<sub>2</sub>-hybrids was 31% less than the C<sub>3</sub> mean and 43% less than the C<sub>4</sub> value.

## Leaf nitrogen content and nitrogen-use efficiency

Although the C<sub>4</sub> parent and all hybrids lines exhibited lower leaf nitrogen content than the C<sub>3</sub> parent, none of their means

## Enzyme activity

The Rubisco activity of the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids was 30–50% of the C<sub>3</sub> value (Table 2). When the CE of each hybrid was

**Table 2.** The in vitro activity of NAD-malic enzyme (NAD-ME), PEP carboxylase (PEPC), pyruvate-phosphate dikinase (PPDK) and Rubisco at 30 °C

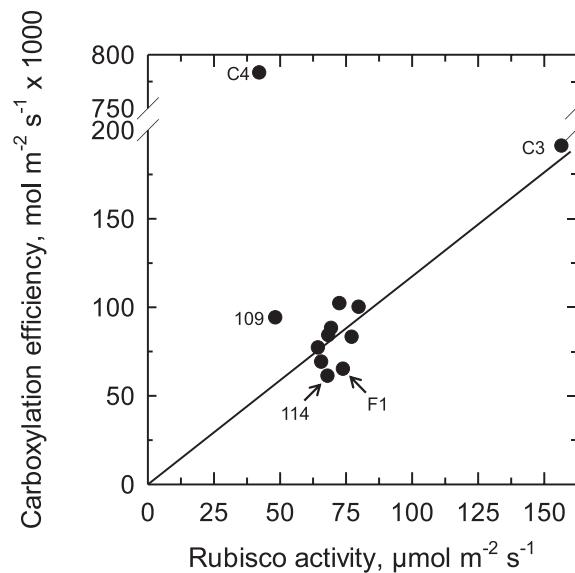
Mean  $\pm$  SE,  $n=4$ . Abbreviations: ATPR, *A. prostrata*; ATRO, *A. rosea*. Statistical differences between ATPR, ATRO, F<sub>1</sub> and the pooled F<sub>2</sub> means at  $P<0.05$  were tested using one-way ANOVA followed by a Student-Newman-Keuls post-hoc test and are shown as superscripts x, y and z. \* beside a value indicates means are significantly different from the ATPR activity using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Holm-Sidak post-hoc test where the ATPR mean was treated as the control value.

Genotype	Enzyme Activity, $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$			
	NAD-ME	PEPC	PPDK	Rubisco
ATPR-C <sub>3</sub>	2.0 $\pm$ 1.1 <sup>z</sup>	12.5 $\pm$ 1.4 <sup>z</sup>	2.2 $\pm$ 1.2 <sup>z</sup>	156.7 $\pm$ 5.1 <sup>x</sup>
ATRO-C <sub>4</sub>	39.9 $\pm$ 4.3 <sup>**</sup>	223.2 $\pm$ 19.1 <sup>x</sup>	43.0 $\pm$ 5.1 <sup>x</sup>	42.3 $\pm$ 3.4 <sup>z</sup>
F <sub>1</sub>	7.8 $\pm$ 0.8 <sup>**</sup>	55.9 $\pm$ 7.9 <sup>y*</sup>	16.0 $\pm$ 0.6 <sup>**</sup>	74.0 $\pm$ 6.3 <sup>**</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -107	11.2 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>*</sup>	32.9 $\pm$ 6.3	3.1 $\pm$ 1.4	79.9 $\pm$ 6.8 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -108	11.8 $\pm$ 1.1 <sup>*</sup>	27.4 $\pm$ 5.9	2.8 $\pm$ 0.7	69.5 $\pm$ 8.9 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -109	8.2 $\pm$ 1.6	15.8 $\pm$ 3.8	3.2 $\pm$ 0.9	48.4 $\pm$ 7.9 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -112	9.7 $\pm$ 0.8 <sup>*</sup>	15.3 $\pm$ 4.7	4.0 $\pm$ 1.7	65.7 $\pm$ 12.5 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -114	9.6 $\pm$ 1.3 <sup>*</sup>	26.8 $\pm$ 3.0	15.3 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>*</sup>	68.2 $\pm$ 5.4 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -118	4.5 $\pm$ 1.8	20.7 $\pm$ 2.1	11.7 $\pm$ 3.7 <sup>*</sup>	68.4 $\pm$ 6.0 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -119	9.1 $\pm$ 1.1	28.8 $\pm$ 6.6	2.8 $\pm$ 1.0	64.5 $\pm$ 4.8 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -120	12.0 $\pm$ 0.8 <sup>*</sup>	27.7 $\pm$ 2.0	3.7 $\pm$ 0.6	77.3 $\pm$ 2.1 <sup>*</sup>
F <sub>2</sub> -123	4.6 $\pm$ 0.7	23.9 $\pm$ 5.4	13.2 $\pm$ 3.3 <sup>*</sup>	72.7 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>*</sup>
All F <sub>2</sub>	9.1 $\pm$ 0.6 <sup>Y</sup>	24.7 $\pm$ 1.7 <sup>Z</sup>	6.9 $\pm$ 1.1 <sup>Z</sup>	69.5 $\pm$ 2.9 <sup>Y</sup>

plotted against its corresponding Rubisco activity, the hybrid values cluster around the theoretical relationship between Rubisco and CE in a C<sub>3</sub> species (Fig. 4). The activities of the three major C<sub>4</sub> cycle enzymes — PEPC, NAD-ME, and PPDK — were generally low in the hybrids and in many cases approached the activity of the C<sub>3</sub> parent (Table 2). The F<sub>1</sub> hybrid had significantly higher NAD-ME, PEPC, and PPDK activity than the C<sub>3</sub> parent. Five of the nine F<sub>2</sub> hybrids had significantly higher NAD-ME activities than the C<sub>3</sub> parent, whereas just three had significantly higher PPDK activities than *A. prostrata*. Differences in PEPC between the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids and the C<sub>3</sub> parent could not be resolved using a one-way ANOVA at  $P<0.05$ ; however, low statistical power in the test weakened our ability to resolve differences in PEPC activity. Four hybrids exhibited mean PEPC activities that were over twice the C<sub>3</sub> value, and one of these, the F<sub>2</sub>-114 with the low, C<sub>4</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  value, also had elevated activities of NAD-ME and PPDK (Table 2).

## Leaf anatomy

The leaf anatomy (Fig. 5A, B) and ultrastructure (Fig. 6A, B) of *A. prostrata* and *A. rosea* were typical for C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> members of the genus (Downton *et al.*, 1969; Dengler *et al.*, 1995). *Atriplex rosea* has well-developed BS cells that are discontinuous on the abaxial side of the vein (see also Liu and Dengler, 1994). In cross-section, BS cells are triangular in shape, which allows them to be tightly packed against the vein. Enlarged chloroplasts occupy the centripetal half of the BS cells in *A. rosea*, whereas no chloroplasts occur in the

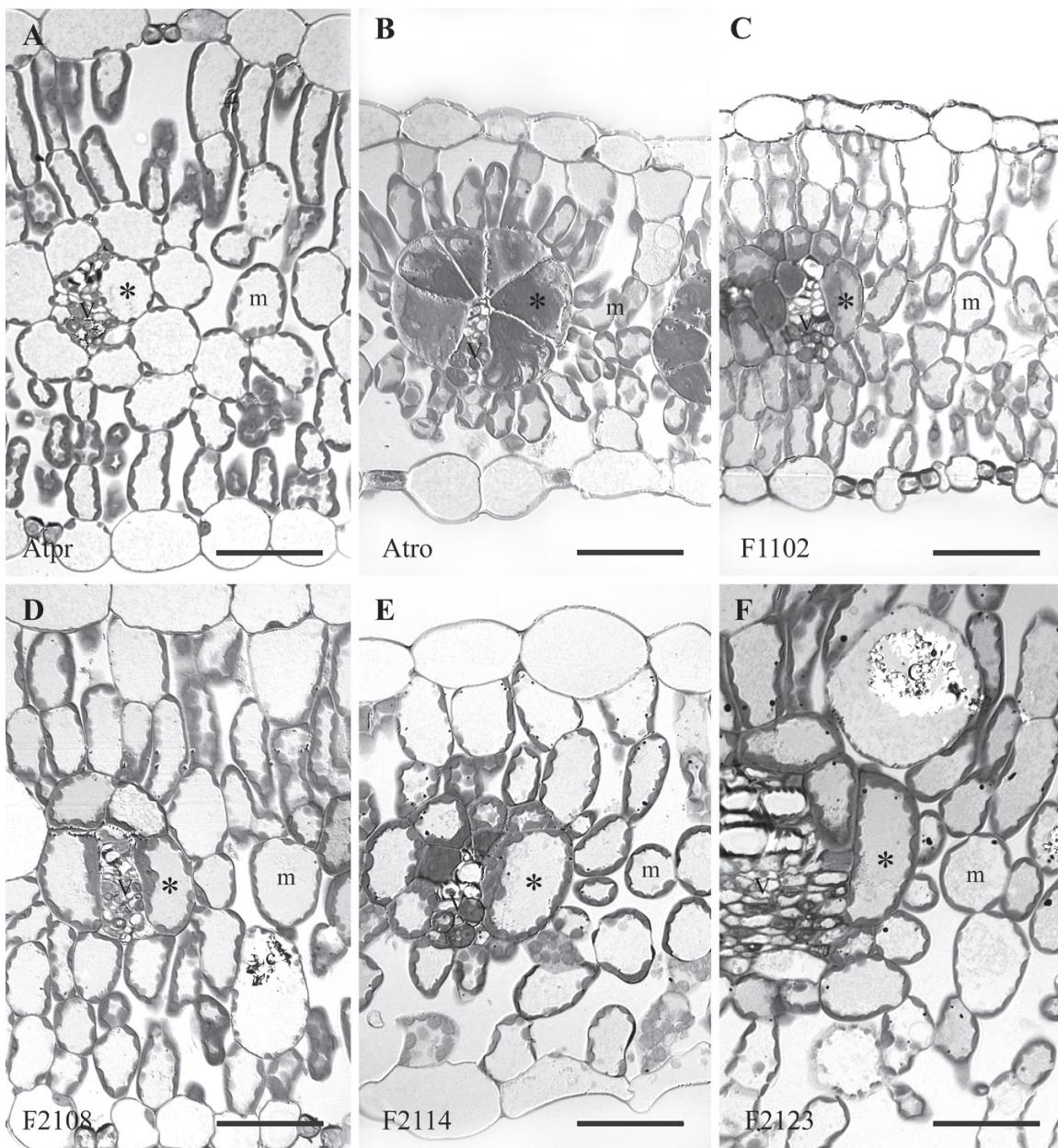


**Fig. 4.** The carboxylation efficiency of photosynthesis as a function of *in vitro* Rubisco activity for the C<sub>3</sub> species *Atriplex prostrata*, an F<sub>1</sub> hybrid and all F<sub>2</sub> hybrids in the study. Carboxylation efficiencies were calculated as the initial slope of the A versus C<sub>i</sub> response for each genotype. Mean  $\pm$  3–6. The line is the theoretical carboxylation efficiency predicted for C<sub>3</sub> Rubisco activity using the model of von Caemmerer (2000) and assuming the Rubisco activation state is 80%,  $\Gamma$  equals that of spinach at 30 °C, (Brooks and Farquhar, 1985) and the Rubisco kinetics and activation energies for the C<sub>3</sub> *Atriplex glabriuscula* equal those of *A. prostrata* (von Caemmerer and Quick, 2000). “114” and “109” indicate the data points for F<sub>2</sub>-114 and F<sub>2</sub>-109.

outer-most region of the cells (Figs 5B, 6B). This is typical for the Atriplicoid-type of Kranz anatomy (Dengler and Nelson, 2000). In *A. prostrata*, BS chloroplasts are smaller than in the C<sub>4</sub> plants and the chloroplasts are generally positioned along the outer periphery of the BS cell opposite intercellular air spaces. In cross section, chloroplasts were infrequent along the inner, centripetal wall of the BS cells of *A. prostrata*, and the individual BS cells were generally circular in outline. The BS cells of the F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids were variable in size and shape yet typically intermediate in structure between the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> condition (Figs 5, 6, and Supplementary Fig. 3). Many of the BS cells of both F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids were oval in cross section, in contrast to the circular BS cells of *A. prostrata* and the triangular BS cells of *A. rosea*. This pattern resembles that observed in an immature leaf in *A. rosea* (see Fig. 4 in Liu and Dengler, 1994). In all hybrids, BS chloroplasts were numerous and arrayed all around the BS cell periphery (Figs 5 and 6). Chloroplast size and shape in the BS of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids was similar to what was observed in the BS of *A. prostrata* (Figs 5 and 6). In the BS cells of the hybrids, mitochondria occurred between chloroplasts, but did not form distinct ranks between elongated chloroplasts as observed in *A. rosea* (Fig. 6).

## Discussion

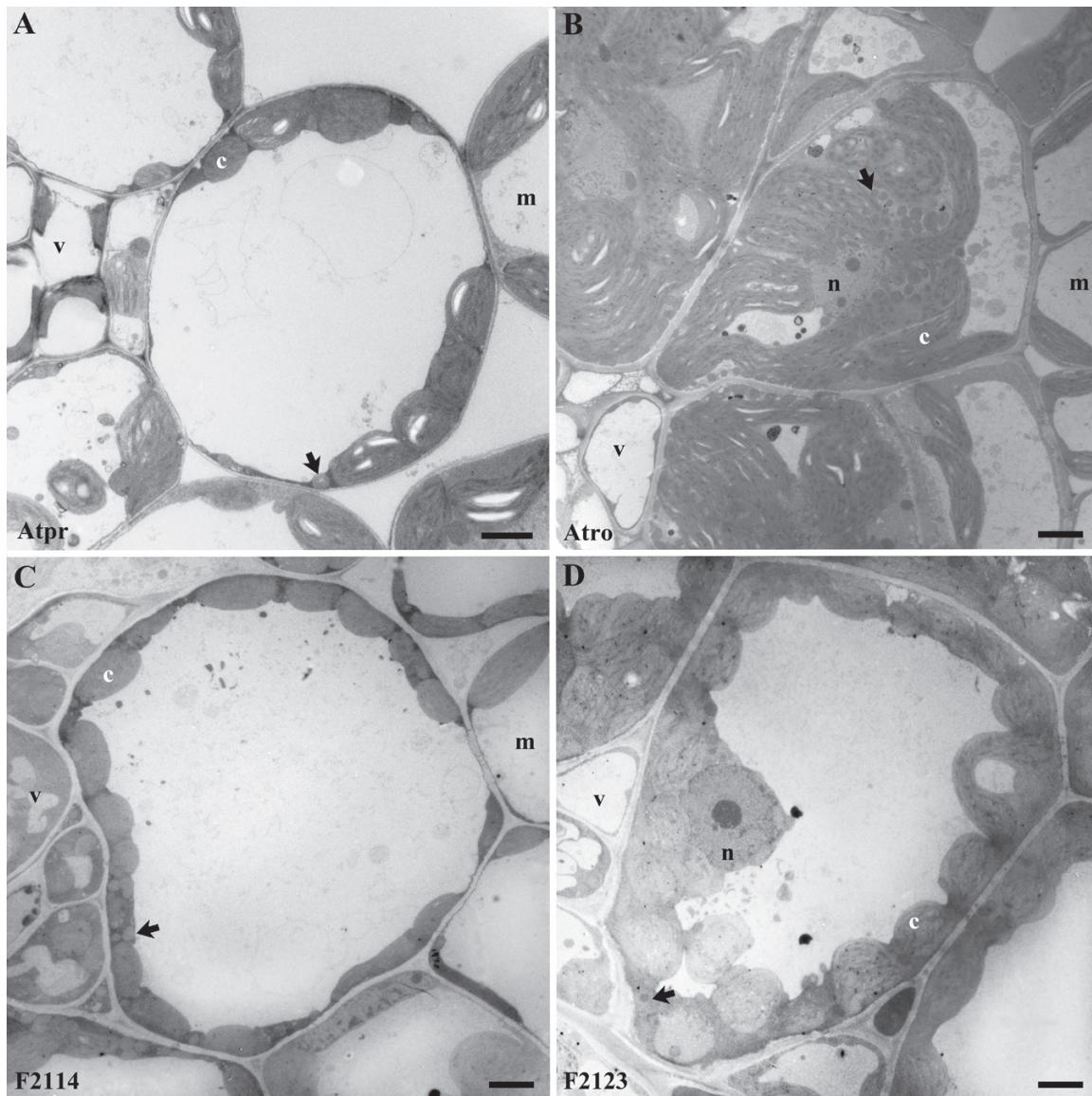
Results from this study and previous research with C<sub>3</sub>  $\times$  C<sub>4</sub> hybrids demonstrate that C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis is disrupted in the hybrids, as shown by a general increase in the  $\Gamma$ , a reduction in CE and NUE, and the expression of a C<sub>3</sub>-like  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Björkman



**Fig. 5.** Light micrographs of cross-sections through leaves of (A) *Atriplex prostrata*, (B) *Atriplex rosea*, (C) their F<sub>1</sub> hybrid, (D) F<sub>2</sub>-108, (E) F<sub>2</sub>-114, and (F) F<sub>2</sub>-123. See Supplementary Fig. S3 for light micrographs of leaf cross sections for the other six hybrids in the study. “\*” delineates bundle sheath cells; C, a crystal containing cell; m, mesophyll cells; and V, vascular bundles. Bars=50 µm.

et al., 1971b; Björkman, 1976; Osmond et al., 1980; Brown and Bouton, 1993). In the hybrids generated here, we observed that the F<sub>1</sub> and most F<sub>2</sub> hybrids exhibited  $\Gamma$  values in the mid-range between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species. However, one F<sub>2</sub> line (#114) exhibited  $\Gamma$  values that overlap with those of C<sub>4</sub>-like species such as *Flaveria brownii* that have a fully functional C<sub>4</sub> cycle (Ku et al., 1991). A second F<sub>2</sub> (#123) had  $\Gamma$  approaching the C<sub>3</sub> range. In previous studies, F<sub>1</sub> hybrids exhibit intermediate  $\Gamma$  values; these were interpreted to reflect a mix of C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> biochemistry in the F<sub>1</sub> leaf (Pearcy and Björkman, 1971). The F<sub>1</sub> hybrids are diploid with one set of chromosomes from each parent, and therefore have one C<sub>3</sub> copy and one C<sub>4</sub> copy of each gene, resulting in the mixed physiology (Osmond et al., 1980). In F<sub>2</sub> lines, trait segregation is apparent, and hybrids

probably lose one or more of the genes essential for C<sub>4</sub> function (Osmond et al., 1980; Brown and Bouton, 1993). In F<sub>3</sub> lines, further segregation leads to most hybrids exhibiting C<sub>3</sub>-like photosynthetic characteristics (Björkman et al., 1971a, b). Occasionally, however, F<sub>3</sub> hybrids exhibit  $\Gamma$  values close to the C<sub>4</sub> value (Björkman, 1976), which is consistent with results from F<sub>2</sub>-114. Previous hybrid studies indicate that all parts of the C<sub>4</sub> biochemical cycle and Kranz anatomy must be present for efficient C<sub>4</sub> function (Björkman, 1976; Brown and Bouton, 1993). As these traits independently segregate (Brown and Bouton, 1993), the probability of an F<sub>2</sub> hybrid acquiring all of the C<sub>4</sub> traits is low, and hence, it is unlikely that full C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis can occur. However,  $\Gamma$  values in the mid-range between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> plants demonstrate the existence of a



**Fig. 6.** Transmission electron micrographs of bundle sheath cells in cross section of (A) *Atriplex prostrata*, (B) *Atriplex rosea*, (C) F<sub>2</sub>-114, and (F) F<sub>2</sub>-123. Arrows delineate mitochondria. Abbreviations: c, chloroplasts; m, mesophyll cells; n, nucleus; and v, vascular tissue. Bars=0.5  $\mu$ m.

CCM in the F<sub>2</sub> lines. This could result from either a modest C<sub>4</sub> metabolic pump or a C<sub>2</sub>-type CCM where photorespiratory glycine is shuttled into the BS cells (Brown and Bouton, 1993). With new hybrids, we are now in a position to evaluate these possibilities and develop working hypotheses to guide future hybrid studies. In our discussion of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids, we mainly focus on F<sub>2</sub>-114, whose C<sub>4</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  value indicates greater CCM activity.

In F<sub>2</sub>-114, the low, C<sub>4</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  is indicative of significant C<sub>4</sub> cycle activity and/or a highly effective C<sub>2</sub> CCM. F<sub>2</sub>-114 had activities of PEPC, PPDK and NAD-ME that were 12–30% of the C<sub>4</sub> values, indicating the potential for a modest C<sub>4</sub> cycle that could contribute to a reduction in  $\Gamma$  by supplying some CO<sub>2</sub> to the BS. All other F<sub>2</sub> hybrids in this study had C<sub>3</sub>-like activities in at least one of these enzymes, indicating low potential for more than minor C<sub>4</sub> cycle activity. As shown by Type II C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediates (those with significant C<sub>2</sub> photosynthesis and C<sub>4</sub> metabolism; Edwards and Ku,

1987), modest C<sub>4</sub> cycle activity combined with a C<sub>2</sub>-type of glycine shuttle is sufficient to reduce  $\Gamma$  below 10  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ . In the Type II C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate *F. ramosissima*, for example, a  $\Gamma$  of 7  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  was associated with C<sub>4</sub> enzyme activities between 12% and 18% of C<sub>4</sub> values (Ku et al., 1983). A 3.5‰ increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in F<sub>2</sub>-114 relative to *A. prostrata* is also evidence for modest C<sub>4</sub> cycle activity, and is consistent with observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of Type II intermediates such as *F. ramosissima*, and with modelled increases in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  assuming a 20–30% contribution by PEPC to the BS CO<sub>2</sub> pool and moderate CO<sub>2</sub> leakage (Monson et al., 1988; von Caemmerer, 1992; Suderth et al., 2007). However, C<sub>4</sub> metabolism could not contribute a large amount of carbon to the final pool of photosynthate in F<sub>2</sub>-114, because the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values would shift more towards the C<sub>4</sub> values than observed (von Caemmerer, 1992). We therefore hypothesize that the low  $\Gamma$  in F<sub>2</sub>-114 reflects a large contribution of a glycine shuttle to the CO<sub>2</sub> pool of its BS cells.

Because C<sub>2</sub> species with no C<sub>4</sub>-cycle activity (the type I C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediates; Edwards and Ku, 1987) exhibit  $\Gamma$  values above 15  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  (Edwards and Ku, 1987; Ku *et al.*, 1991; Vogan *et al.*, 2007) it seems unlikely that a C<sub>2</sub>-type of glycine shuttle could reduce  $\Gamma$  to 4  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  by itself. However, according to von Caemmerer's model of C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate photosynthesis (von Caemmerer, 1989), a C<sub>4</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  could occur in a pure C<sub>2</sub> species if there is an elevated (20%) fraction of leaf Rubisco in the BS cells, the conductance to CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the BS is low, and nearly all of the photorespired CO<sub>2</sub> is released into the BS cells. Given the segregation of traits in the F<sub>2</sub> lines (Osmond *et al.*, 1980), it is probable that these criteria could be met in a few hybrids. All of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids here exhibited Rubisco activities that are a third to a half that of the *A. prostrata* parent, indicating some C<sub>4</sub>-type control over Rubisco expression is present in the hybrid lines. C<sub>4</sub> species produce 25–35% as much Rubisco as C<sub>3</sub> species (Sage *et al.*, 1987), as is demonstrated by lower Rubisco activity in *A. rosea* relative to *A. prostrata*. Although we do not know where the Rubisco is distributed in our hybrids, previous work demonstrates F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>3</sub> hybrids of *A. rosea* × *A. prostrata* express Rubisco in all chlorenchymatous cells (Hattersley *et al.*, 1977). The high number of plastids in the BS of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids also indicates significant amounts of Rubisco are present in their BS chloroplasts. With respect to BS conductance, we hypothesize that some hybrids, perhaps including F<sub>2</sub>-114, have inherited traits contributing to low, C<sub>4</sub>-like conductance in the BS, such as thick BS cell walls (von Caemmerer and Furbank, 2003). It is also likely that there is a high fraction of photorespiratory CO<sub>2</sub> released in the BS of most hybrids. In C<sub>4</sub> plants, photorespiratory glycine decarboxylase (GDC) is localized to BS cells, whereas in C<sub>3</sub> plants, GDC and the photorespiratory cycle is expressed in both BS and M tissues (Muhandat *et al.*, 2011; Sage *et al.*, 2011; Schulze *et al.*, 2013). In an F<sub>2</sub> hybrid, there is a good chance that one or more of the GDC subunits exhibit a C<sub>4</sub> pattern and are not expressed in the M cells, whereas their expression in the BS cells would occur if either the C<sub>4</sub> or C<sub>3</sub> pattern were inherited. Hence, it is probable that GDC activity is low in the M tissues of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids and high in the BS, so that much of the photorespiratory glycine would have to migrate into the BS for decarboxylation. This would explain why most of the F<sub>2</sub> lines have C<sub>2</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  values. Certain lines, such as F<sub>2</sub>-123 with a more C<sub>3</sub>-like  $\Gamma$  may have a leakier BS or relatively less Rubisco in the BS, whereas other lines with low  $\Gamma$  such as F<sub>2</sub>-114 may have proportionally more BS Rubisco or less BS leakiness, plus some contribution from a C<sub>4</sub> cycle. These possibilities point to a need for enzyme localization and leakage assessments in future hybrid studies.

In most hybrids, it is apparent that the BS Rubisco is adequately supplied with CO<sub>2</sub>. When carboxylation efficiency is plotted as a function of Rubisco activity, the hybrid values clustered around the theoretical relationship between Rubisco activity and carboxylation efficiency of a C<sub>3</sub> *Atriplex*-like plant (Fig. 4). This demonstrates that in most hybrids, Rubisco is on average operating with the same efficiency as in a C<sub>3</sub> leaf. The CE of F<sub>2</sub>-109 sits well above the CE versus Rubisco activity plot, which would occur if much of its Rubisco is in a CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched environment. The low PEPC and PPDK activity in

F<sub>2</sub>-109 indicates the reduction of  $\Gamma$  below C<sub>3</sub> values is predominately due to CO<sub>2</sub> influx into the BS via C<sub>2</sub> photosynthesis. Hybrid F<sub>2</sub>-114 exhibits the lowest CE relative to the theoretical CE versus Rubisco plot, demonstrating that at least some of its Rubisco is operating with reduced efficiency. Low CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the BS would reduce CE, but this would not result in the low  $\Gamma$  value of F<sub>2</sub>-114 because Rubisco oxygenase activity would increase at low CO<sub>2</sub> and raise  $\Gamma$ . Alternatively, Rubisco may be limited by low RuBP regeneration capacity, or a low activation state owing to a lack of Rubisco activase. Low RuBP regeneration might result if a C<sub>4</sub> pattern of thylakoid protein expression corresponded to a C<sub>3</sub> pattern of Calvin cycle expression, in which case one of the C<sub>3</sub> compartments could be energy limited. The potential lack of activase expression is an intriguing possibility that could not be considered in the first era of *Atriplex* hybrid studies, as activase was unknown at the time. In C<sub>4</sub> plants, activase expression is four times higher in the BS than M tissue (Majeran *et al.*, 2005). In the hybrids, a C<sub>4</sub>-like pattern of activase expression could leave Rubisco in the M cells in a partially deactivated state. This would explain the low CE in F<sub>2</sub>-114, as the M Rubisco could be deactivated and unable to contribute to the CE values.

#### Anatomical patterns

Anatomically, all of the hybrid lines failed to express the well-developed Atriplicoid-type of Kranz anatomy, as has been noted before (Boynton *et al.*, 1970). Atriplicoid Kranz anatomy consists of enlarged BS cells with a surrounding layer of M cells (Liu and Dengler, 1994; Dengler and Nelson, 1999). Chloroplasts in the BS cells of *A. rosea* are elongated and fill the inner two-thirds of the BS, and have many mitochondria distributed along the sides of the chloroplasts (Fig. 6). No chloroplasts or mitochondria occur along the outer BS wall of C<sub>4</sub> *Atriplex* species. This arrangement allows for rapid re-assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> released by NAD-ME in the mitochondria, with the vacuole of the outer BS providing significant resistance to CO<sub>2</sub> efflux (von Caemmerer and Furbank, 2003). By contrast, the C<sub>3</sub> *A. prostrata* produces small BS chloroplasts that are similar to M cell chloroplasts; these occur along the outer wall of the BS cell against the intercellular air spaces (Boynton *et al.*, 1970). In all the hybrids, the BS chloroplasts are similar in size and shape to those of the C<sub>3</sub> parent, yet their positioning resembles a pattern that is often observed in C<sub>2</sub>-type species, where chloroplasts can occur in both a centripetal and centrifugal position (Muhandat *et al.*, 2011; Sage *et al.*, 2013). Mitochondria still occur between chloroplasts, but to less of a degree than seen in *A. rosea*. Many of the mitochondria in the hybrids also appear between the inner BS wall and the chloroplasts, resembling a pattern apparent in C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>4</sub> intermediate plants using the C<sub>2</sub>-type of CCM (Monson and Rawsthorne, 2000; Sage *et al.*, 2011; 2013). These observations further indicate that the BS cells of the F<sub>2</sub> hybrids use the C<sub>2</sub> mode of photosynthesis, although this will depend upon whether enough GDC is present in the BS mitochondria to create a strong sink for glycine produced in the M tissue.

### Stomatal control

Previous work with  $C_3 \times C_4$  hybrids did not emphasize stomatal control, due in part to incomplete understanding at the time of stomatal regulation in  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species. It is now known that non-stressed  $C_3$  species regulate  $C_i/C_a$  to generally be between 0.7–0.8 under humid conditions, whereas in  $C_4$  plants,  $C_i/C_a$  is maintained between 0.4–0.6 (Wong *et al.*, 1979; Taylor *et al.* 2011; Vogan and Sage, 2011). The lower  $C_i/C_a$  in  $C_4$  species reflects tighter stomatal control and increased carboxylation efficiency of the  $C_4$  pathway relative to  $C_3$  photosynthesis; this explains the greater water-use efficiency of  $C_4$  plants (Huxman and Monson, 2003; Vogan and Sage, 2011). Under the relatively low vapour pressure difference between leaf and air in this study, we observed  $C_i/C_a$  to be 0.57 in *A. rosea* and 0.80 in *A. prostrata*. In the hybrids, the  $C_i/C_a$  values have largely reverted to the  $C_3$  value ( $C_i/C_a$  of 0.71–0.81), indicating that a full complement of  $C_4$  machinery is required for a  $C_4$  pattern of stomatal control.

### Conclusions

With the new  $C_3 \times C_4$  hybrids in *Atriplex*, we have re-established an important system for investigating the genetic control and physiological function of  $C_4$  photosynthesis. In the  $F_2$  lines, we demonstrate a loss of efficient  $C_4$  function, further supporting the hypothesis that all of the components of the  $C_4$  pathway must be in place for  $C_4$  photosynthesis to occur. Although impairment of  $C_4$  photosynthesis in the  $F_2$  hybrids is no surprise, an intriguing observation is that improper assembly of the  $C_3$  pathway is also apparent in most  $F_2$  hybrids. This may reflect incomplete expression of the photorespiratory pathway in the M cells of the hybrids, or mismatched compartmentalization of  $C_3$  photosynthetic components. Ironically, with the incomplete assembly of the  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  conditions in the  $F_2$  lines, the default state seems to be  $C_2$  photosynthesis, for what may be a rather simple reason. Because both  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  plants express GDC in the BS (Schulze *et al.*, 2013), the probability is high that GDC of the  $F_2$  hybrids is abundant in the BS cells, whereas GDC levels in the M cells may be low owing to inheritance of  $C_4$  expression patterns for at least one of the four GDC subunits. Hence, glycine would have to flow to the BS for decarboxylation, to the benefit of Rubisco in the BS chloroplasts.

We have now successfully generated the  $F_3$  hybrids and will be producing  $F_4$  lines and beyond to further segregate traits and possibly create near isogenic lines. With the analytical capabilities provided by modern tools and theory, we are better positioned to evaluate genetic, biochemical, and structural limitations affecting photosynthesis in the hybrids and hence provide critical information that can be utilized to engineer  $C_4$  photosynthesis into  $C_3$  crops as well as understand the evolution of  $C_4$  photosynthesis. These were the initial goals of Olle Björkman, John Boynton, Malcolm Nobs, and Bob Pearcy in the late 1960s when the initial hybrids were created. In the near future, these goals may be realized.

### Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at *JXB* online.

**Supplementary Figure S1.** Photographs of the *Atriplex* parents,  $F_1$  hybrid and  $F_2$  hybrids from this study.

**Supplementary Figure S2.** The response of net  $CO_2$  assimilation rate to intercellular  $CO_2$  partial pressure for the *Atriplex* parents and  $C_3 \times C_4$  hybrids in this study.

**Supplementary Figure S3.** Light micrographs of cross-sections through leaves of six *Atriplex prostrata*  $\times$  *Atriplex rosea*  $F_2$  hybrids from this study.

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