



This is a repository copy of *Evolutionary implications of C3 -C4 intermediates in the grass Alloteropsis semialata.*

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/96017/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Lundgren, M.R., Christin, P.A. orcid.org/0000-0001-6292-8734, Escobar, E.G. et al. (7 more authors) (2016) Evolutionary implications of C3 -C4 intermediates in the grass *Alloteropsis semialata*. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 39 (9). pp. 1874-1885. ISSN 0140-7791

<https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.12665>

Reuse

Unless indicated otherwise, fulltext items are protected by copyright with all rights reserved. The copyright exception in section 29 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 allows the making of a single copy solely for the purpose of non-commercial research or private study within the limits of fair dealing. The publisher or other rights-holder may allow further reproduction and re-use of this version - refer to the White Rose Research Online record for this item. Where records identify the publisher as the copyright holder, users can verify any specific terms of use on the publisher's website.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

Evolutionary implications of C₃-C₄ intermediates in the grass *Alloteropsis semialata*

Running title: C₃-C₄ *Alloteropsis semialata*

Authors: Marjorie R. Lundgren^{1*}, Pascal-Antoine Christin¹, Emmanuel Gonzalez Escobar¹, Brad S. Ripley², Guillaume Besnard³, Christine M. Long⁴, Paul W. Hattersley⁵, Roger P. Ellis⁶, Richard C. Leegood¹, Colin P. Osborne¹

¹Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Western Bank, Sheffield S10 2TN, UK

²Botany Department, Rhodes University, Grahamstown 6139, South Africa

³ CNRS, Université de Toulouse, ENFA, UMR5174 EDB (Laboratoire Évolution & Diversité Biologique), 118 Route de Narbonne, 31062 Toulouse, France

⁴Department of Primary Industry and Fisheries, Northern Territory Government, Darwin, NT 0801, Australia

⁵School of Chemistry and Biochemistry (honorary research fellow), University of Western Australia, Crawley, WA 6009, Australia

⁶PO Box 2461, Beacon Bay, East London 5205, South Africa

***author for correspondence:** Marjorie R. Lundgren, email: marjorie.lundgren@sheffield.ac.uk; telephone: +44-114-222-0034; fax: +44-114-222-0002

Statement of authorship: MRL, PAC, and CPO designed the study. MRL generated and analysed data. EGE and RCL performed the PEPC quantifications. MRL, PAC, BSR, GB, and CPO contributed plant material. MRL, CL, PWH, and RPE contributed accession collection locations and isotope data. MRL, PAC, and CPO wrote the paper, with the help of all the authors.

ABSTRACT

C₄ photosynthesis is a complex trait resulting from a series of anatomical and biochemical modifications to the ancestral C₃ pathway. It is thought to evolve in a stepwise manner, creating intermediates with different combinations of C₄-like components. Determining the adaptive value of these components is key to understanding how C₄ photosynthesis can gradually assemble through natural selection. Here, we decompose the photosynthetic phenotypes of numerous individuals of the grass *Alloteropsis semialata*, the only species known to include both C₃ and C₄ genotypes. Analyses of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, physiology, and leaf anatomy demonstrate for the first time the existence of physiological C₃-C₄ intermediate individuals in the species. Based on previous phylogenetic analyses, the C₃-C₄ individuals are not hybrids between the C₃ and C₄ genotypes analysed, but instead belong to a distinct genetic lineage, and might have given rise to C₄ descendants. C₃ *A. semialata*, present in colder climates, likely represents a reversal from a C₃-C₄ intermediate state, indicating that, unlike C₄ photosynthesis, evolution of the C₃-C₄ phenotype is not irreversible.

KEYWORD INDEX: C₃-C₄, C₂ metabolism, *Alloteropsis semialata*, grasses, complex trait, photorespiration, CO₂ compensation point, oxygen inhibition, stable isotopes

INTRODUCTION

C₄ photosynthesis is a complex trait that requires the accumulation and coordination of several anatomical and biochemical modifications to the ancestral C₃ pathway (Hatch 1987). This suite of novelties results in an efficient CO₂ concentrating mechanism (CCM) that separates CO₂ assimilation and reduction into two compartments, usually mesophyll and bundle sheath cells respectively, to increase the concentration of CO₂ around Rubisco (Hatch & Osmond 1976; von Caemmerer & Furbank 2003). The C₄ system consequently minimizes the oxygenation of RuBP and the associated costs of photorespiration, making it more efficient than plants that lack this complex trait under conditions where photorespiration would be limiting, such as hot, arid, saline, and/or high light environments. However, the extra energetic costs of the C₄ reactions make C₄ plants less competitive in cool and shady habitats where photorespiration rates are low (Chollet & Ogren 1975; Ehleringer 1978; Bauwe *et al.* 2010; Sage *et al.* 2012; Fernie *et al.* 2013). These environmental interactions under a low-CO₂ atmosphere are thought to have been the selection pressures underlying the independent origins of the C₄ trait in nearly 70 plant lineages across 19 angiosperm families (Sage *et al.* 1999, 2011; GPWG II 2012).

The evolutionary trajectory from the ancestral C₃ state to a derived C₄ trait is thought to gradually pass through a series of intermediate stages, all of which must confer an advantage, or at least little disadvantage, compared to the previous one (Heckmann *et al.* 2013; Williams *et al.* 2013). While the adaptive significance of many of these intermediate stages is still unclear, the glycine shuttle, or C₂ cycle, increases photosynthetic efficiency by recycling photorespired CO₂ through a weak mesophyll-bundle sheath CCM, while also beginning to establish the bundle sheath Calvin cycle and two-compartment coordination that are characteristic of C₄ photosynthesis (Hylton *et al.* 1988; Sage *et al.* 2013). Therefore, studies of plants using a C₂ cycle, alongside close C₃ and C₄ relatives, are important for uncovering the individual steps occurring along these evolutionary transitions and for understanding their adaptive significance (Christin *et al.* 2011; Muhaidat *et al.* 2011; Vogan & Sage 2011).

Naturally occurring plant assemblages that incorporate a high level of photosynthetic diversity are rare, but the grass *Alloteropsis semialata* (R. Br.) Hitchcock is known to include recently diverged C₄ and

phenotypically diverse non-C₄ populations, presenting remarkable intraspecific photosynthetic variation (Ellis 1974a, b; Ueno & Sentoku 2006; Lundgren *et al.* 2015). This diversity makes *A. semialata* an ideal system to study the evolutionary relationships between C₃ and C₄ phenotypes. The C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic types of *A. semialata* have been described in detail (Ellis 1974a, b; Brown 1975; Ellis 1981; Frean *et al.* 1983a, b; Gibbs Russell 1983). Plants grown under natural climatic conditions have previously presented typical C₃ and C₄ phenotypes (Ripley *et al.* 2007). However, the leaf anatomy and physiology of plants grown in controlled environments have not always aligned well with typical C₃ and C₄ types, to the extent of being described as C₃-like and C₄-like (Ueno & Sentoku 2006). Moreover, several studies have identified anomalous stable isotope signatures, leaf anatomy, and gross plant morphology in accessions collected from the wild, pointing to intermediate states between the two photosynthetic types (Table 1; Ellis 1981; Gibbs Russell 1983; Renvoize 1987; Hattersley & Watson 1992; Lundgren *et al.* 2015). Despite this compelling evidence for a gradient of photosynthetic phenotypes in the species, C₃-C₄ intermediates have not been clearly demonstrated in *A. semialata*. However, this is probably because previous physiological studies were focused on South African and Australian accessions and did not investigate central African plants, in which most of the anomalous phenotypes are now known to exist (Table 1).

Here we use accessions from across the species' range, including material collected from central and western Africa and Madagascar, as well as South Africa and Australia, to reveal the photosynthetic variation that exists within *A. semialata*, testing the hypothesis that there are C₃-C₄ intermediate forms within the species (Hattersley & Watson 1992). In doing so, we reveal the first known example of intraspecific photosynthetic variation that spans C₃, C₃-C₄, and C₄ photosynthetic types. We then decompose the photosynthetic phenotype into its anatomical and physiological components to gain insights into the gradual accumulation of C₄ characters among geographically isolated populations of the same species complex. Based on the phylogeographic history of the group (Lundgren *et al.* 2015), we discuss the possible transitions among distinct photosynthetic types, highlighting the diversity of evolutionary trajectories available to photosynthetically intermediate lineages.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material

This study included 22 accessions of *A. semialata* from 11 geographic origins spread across the range of the species (Table 2). The same accessions were analysed by Lundgren *et al.* (2015). Accessions from South Africa (MDG, SFD, CRL, EML, JMS, and KWT) and Tanzania (L01 and L04) were collected as cuttings from the field and established in controlled environment conditions at the University of Sheffield. Accessions from Australia (AUS), Burkina Faso (BF), and Madagascar (MAJ) were collected as seeds in the field and germinated under sterile conditions at 30°C, high light, and 65% RH in a controlled environment plant chamber (Sanyo, Bensenville, IL, USA). Once the field cuttings became established and the seedlings were mature, plants were maintained under well-watered conditions at 60% RH, 25/20°C day/night temperatures, and 500 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) over a 14 hour photoperiod at ambient CO₂ concentrations (averaging 374 ppm over the span of the experiment) in a controlled environment growth chamber (Conviron Ltd, Winnipeg, Canada) and fertilized once a fortnight with Scotts Evergreen Lawn Food (The Scotts Company, Surrey, England). All plants were grown in large round plastic pots (sized between one and four litres to accommodate variation in root material) in potting compost (compost no. 2 and 3; John Innes Manufacturers Association, Reading, England). The Tanzanian plants were grown in higher nutrient potting compost (no. 3) to aid re-establishment of the cuttings. To test whether this difference in soil nutrients influenced the results, the Tanzanian plants were transplanted into the same moderate soil nutrient compost (no. 2) after the initial set of measurements and re-analysed (see Supplementary Methods and Results). Between one and four replicate plants were analysed per population (Table 2). For each plant, leaf physiology was measured first, then the same leaf was immediately sampled for subsequent carbon isotope discrimination and leaf anatomy analyses, as described below.

Carbon isotope discrimination

Tissue from the centre of the leaf blade was harvested, dried in an oven, and ground to a fine powder, of which 1-2 mg was analyzed using an ANCA GSL preparation module coupled to a 20–20 stable isotope analyzer (PDZ Europa, Cheshire, UK). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures are presented as isotopic ratios (per mil, ‰) relative to the isotopic standard Pee Dee Belemnite. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of Panicoideae

grasses that use the C₃ pathway range between -31 and -24‰ while those that use C₄ photosynthesis range between -16 and -10‰ (Smith & Brown 1973).

As carbon isotope composition in plants raised in growth chambers may differ from natural populations (Farquhar *et al.* 1989), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures were measured on silica-dried leaves collected from the same population, and often the same plant, growing in the wild, when available (as reported in Lundgren *et al.*, 2015). To estimate a field $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value in accessions lacking equivalent field material (i.e., AUS, BF, MAJ, and SFD populations), growth chamber $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were adjusted based on the difference (i.e. -2.8‰) between field (-11.1‰; Ibrahim 2007) and growth chamber (-13.9‰) plants measured on the MDG population.

Physiology

Leaf physiology measurements were made between two and seven hours into the photoperiod on the youngest fully expanded leaf of the tallest tiller of each plant using an open gas exchange system, incorporating an infra-red gas analyzer with leaf chamber fluorometer attachment (LI-6400XT and LI-6400-40, respectively; LICOR, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). All light and CO₂ response curves were collected at 27°C leaf temperature (T_{leaf}), 250 $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$ flow rate, and approximately 70% RH, after sufficient acclimation to chamber conditions to achieve steady state CO₂ and H₂O fluxes. Light response curves were collected at 400 μbar reference CO₂ concentration (CO_{2R}) at decreasing PPFD of 2000, 1750, 1500, 1250, 1000, 750, 500, 250, 100, 50, 25, and 0 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ after reaching a steady state of CO₂ uptake at each light level. A/C_i curves were collected under ambient (~21%) and low (2%) O₂ concentrations at light saturation (1600 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD) after reaching a steady state of CO₂ uptake at each CO_{2R}. Measurements were collected at 400, 250, 150, 120, 100, 85, 70, 50, and 35 μbar CO_{2R}, then a second measurement was collected at 400 μbar CO_{2R} to confirm no reduction in rate had been caused by exposure to low C_i (e.g. through Rubisco deactivation), and finally at 600, 800, 1000, and 1200 μbar CO_{2R}. The subambient portion of the A/C_i curve was repeated for C₃ accessions at 150 and 75 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD, to calculate the CO₂ compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial CO₂ release not associated with photorespiration (Γ^*) following Laisk (1977). The sub-ambient portion of the A/C_i curve was repeated under 2% O₂ after the IRGA was recalibrated for low O₂ measurements.

Light- and CO₂-response curves of photosynthesis were analysed following Bellasio *et al.* (2015) to generate values for CO₂ compensation point (CCP), maximal carboxylation efficiency (CE), CO₂ saturated net photosynthesis (A_{sat}), respiration in the light (R_{light}), gross assimilation (GA), light compensation point (LCP), the PPFD that half saturates GA (PPFD₅₀), and maximal quantum yield for CO₂ fixation (Φ_{CO2}). O₂ inhibition (OI) was calculated as the difference between CCP derived at ambient and low O₂ concentrations. Intrinsic water use efficiency (iWUE) is calculated as A/g_s, both measured at 400 μbar CO₂R and light saturation (1600 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹).

To indicate deviation from typical C₃ metabolism, ¹³C discrimination independent of the PDB standard (Δ¹³C) is plotted against the ratio of internal to ambient CO₂ concentrations (C_i/C_a). C_i/C_a values collected at growth light levels (500 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD), 400 μbar CO₂R, and 27°C T_{leaf} were used. Δ¹³C was calculated according to Farquhar *et al.* (1989), accounting for chamber air in this growth facility following Llorens *et al.* (2009), with the assumption that the ambient growth chamber CO₂ concentration is approximately 374 μbar (the average value measured in this chamber during the experiment). The theoretical relationship between Δ¹³C and C_i/C_a is presented, according to Ubierna & Farquhar (2014), as:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = 2 + a + [b - a] \frac{C_i}{C_a} - f \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a}$$

where the fractionation associated with the diffusion through air (*a*) = 4.4‰, by Rubisco carboxylation (*b*) = 27‰, and during photorespiration (*f*) = 12‰. Averaged over the seven C₃ accessions, Γ* = 26.5 μmol mol⁻¹ and C_a = 374 μbar. The theoretical relationship is adjusted by +2‰ to account for differences in discrimination measured online (as presented in Ubierna & Farquhar 2014) and in bulk leaf material (used here).

Leaf anatomy

Tissue samples 3-5 mm in length were collected from the centre of the youngest fully expanded leaf of each plant, fixed in 4:1 ethanol:acetic acid, and embedded in methacrylate embedding resin (Technovit 7100, Heraeus Kulzer GmbH, Wehrheim, Germany). Embedded leaves were sectioned between 6-8 μm thick on a manual rotary microtome (Leica Biosystems, Newcastle, UK) and stained with Toluidine

Blue O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Stained leaf sections were photographed using microscopy imaging software (CellA; Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) and a camera mounted on a microscope (Olympus DP71 and BX51, respectively. Olympus, Hamburg, Germany). Images were stitched together (using DoubleTake, Echo One, Frederikssund, Denmark) to reproduce the whole width of the leaf blade in cross-section.

Anatomical traits were measured along segments of the leaf cross-sections using ImageJ (Schneider *et al.* 2012). A single segment was defined as the leaf portion between two 2° veins, which are large and contain metaxylem, while minor veins (e.g. tertiary, quaternary, and quinary veins) lack metaxylem. Only segments in the middle of the leaf blade were used and those immediately adjacent to the mid-rib and lateral edges of the cross-section were avoided. The total number of veins per segment, or vein frequency (VF), was counted and averaged along three segments per leaf. The minimum number of adjacent mesophyll cells separating vein pairs, or interveinal mesophyll cells (IVMC), was counted for ten pairs of veins per leaf and averaged. The width of one outer bundle sheath cell (OBS) and one inner bundle sheath cell (IBS) on both sides of a 2° vein were measured and averaged for three 2° veins per leaf. Only bundle sheath cells lying parallel to the leaf surface were chosen to maintain consistency across samples. To show chloroplast localization in mesophyll and bundle sheath cells, cross-sections of fresh leaves from a subset of accessions were cut by hand, mounted with distilled H₂O, then imaged as described above.

PEPC content

Nine of the *A. semialata* genotypes were sampled for PEPC content, alongside maize (C₄) and rice (C₃) controls. At the time of sampling, the *A. semialata* plants were growing under greenhouse conditions set to a 14-hour photoperiod at 25/20°C day/night temperatures at 60% RH and ambient light, augmented by 200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ when ambient light fell below 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD during the photoperiod. Maize and rice plants were grown in controlled growth chambers using a 12-hour (360 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD, 25/17°C day/night) and 11-hour (270 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPFD, 28/24°C day/night) photoperiod, respectively. To assess the assimilatory pathway used by the Tanzanian plants at the time that leaves were sampled for the PEPC assay, the sub-ambient CO₂ portion of the A/C_i curve was

measured again to calculate CCP and CE, as the slope (CE) and x-intercept (CCP) of the line connecting the data points.

Mature leaves were harvested at midday and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Leaf tissue (250 mg) was ground to a fine powder in liquid nitrogen, homogenised in 1 mL chilled 200 mM Bicine-KOH (pH 9.8) and 50 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), and centrifuged at 16,800 g for 5 minutes at 4°C until supernatants appeared clear. Protein concentrations of the crude extracts were determined following Bradford (1976). A 1:1 ratio of crude protein to SDS-solubilisation buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 200 mM DTT, 20% (v/v) glycerol, 4% (w/v) SDS, 0.2% (w/v) bromophenol blue] was boiled at 100°C for 5 minutes, immediately cooled on ice, and then stored at -80°C. Two µg of protein was resolved by SDS-PAGE using a 4-20% SDS-PAGE gel. After electrophoresis, the proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) blotting membrane using a wet transfer Trans-Blot tank (Bio-Rad, Hertfordshire, UK). Membranes were blocked for 2 hour in TBS-T [TBS (pH 7.4), 0.2% (v/v) Tween 20] containing 5% (w/v) skimmed milk and 3% (w/v) BSA, then probed with a monoclonal PEPC antibody raised against PEPC from maize sequences at 1:10,000 dilution. Immunoreactive polypeptides were visualised using horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) coupled with an enhanced chemiluminescence blotting kit and Hyperfilm ECL (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK). To stain for whole proteins, 10 µg of protein was analysed by SDS-PAGE and stained overnight with dark incubation using SYPRO Ruby fluorescence stain (Invitrogen, UK), per manufacturer instructions. Gels were incubated in 10% (v/v) methanol and 7% (v/v) acetic acid for 30 minutes to remove excess stain, then visualised using a ChemiDock XRS+ UV transilluminator (Bio-Rad, Hertfordshire, UK).

RESULTS

Carbon isotope discrimination

Carbon isotope discrimination varied substantially among accessions of *A. semialata* (Table 2), reflecting the photosynthetic diversity of the species. A previous screening of 298 herbarium samples showed that all accessions from Asia and Australia had carbon isotopes values in the typical C₄ range (between -16.3 and -9.1‰), while African accessions encompassed C₄ and non-C₄ values (between -

34.1 and -9.3‰) and included 18 individuals with intermediate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures (between -23.9 and -18.6‰; Fig. 1; Lundgren *et al.* 2015). This geographic pattern is confirmed here. All accessions from Australia, Burkina Faso, and Madagascar had C_4 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures (Table 2). South African accessions were more diverse, with populations in the C_4 and non- C_4 ranges in plants grown in both the field and controlled environments (Table 2). The Tanzanian accessions had non- C_4 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures in both field and growth chamber conditions (Table 2).

Physiology

The gradient of carbon isotope discrimination values present in *A. semialata* is explained by its diverse physiology, as CCP, OI, and A_{sat} were negatively, and CE positively, associated with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures according to general linear model tests in R (Fig. 2a-d; version 3.1.1, R Development Core Team 2014). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) models performed in R show that accessions with C_4 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures had the lowest CCP ($\leq 18.8 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and OI ($\leq 4.6 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), consistent with plants that use the C_4 photosynthetic pathway and are consequently referred to as such from here onward (Fig. 2; Tables 2 and 3). Accessions with non- C_4 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures were more variable. The four South African populations with the lowest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures ($\leq -27.8/-27.1$, in growth cabinet and field grown plants, respectively) had the highest CCP ($\geq 43.1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and OI ($\geq 32.1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), which is typical of plants that use the C_3 pathway and, as such, are called C_3 from here onward (Table 2). The Tanzanian plants, however, had intermediate values of CCP ($11.6 - 25.6 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and OI ($10.3 - 22.7 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), between those measured in C_3 and C_4 plants, and even overlapped in CCP with some C_4 accessions (Figs 2a-b; Tables 2 and 3). Despite these intermediate and C_4 -like CCPs, the Tanzanian plants never had a greater CE than C_3 plants (Figs 2d and S1; Tables 2 and 3), and consistently showed a non- C_4 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature ($\leq -23.1\text{‰}$; Table 2).

A/C_i curves of the C_3 and Tanzanian accessions were similar to each other (Fig. S1a), indicating commonalities in basic photosynthetic metabolism, but contrasting with the steep C_4 curve that quickly saturated. At 27°C , light response curves were similar among the C_3 , C_4 , and Tanzanian plants (Fig. S1b) and, as such, GA, PFD50, and Φ_{CO_2} did not differ across the species (Table 3). The C_3 and Tanzanian plants had greater iWUE than C_4 accessions (Fig. 2e, Tables 2 and 3). The Tanzanian plants

had higher LCP and R_{light} than both C_3 and C_4 plants, but this may result from the different soil conditions that the Tanzanian plants were growing in at this time, compared to the C_3 and C_4 plants.

Farquhar *et al.* (1982) show that $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C_3 plants shows a linear dependence on C_i/C_a (Fig. 2f), depicting the iWUE-dependence of carbon isotope discrimination. As the stomatal limitation of gas exchange increases, C_i/C_a decreases and diffusion becomes increasingly important relative to Rubisco for discrimination against ^{13}C in photosynthesis, which decreases. In modelling $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ against C_i/C_a , the data for C_3 and Tanzanian plants align along the theoretical line that reflects the relationship between these two parameters in C_3 plants. However, the data for Tanzanian plants show a lower discrimination at a given C_i/C_a value than the C_3 *A. semialata* plants (Fig. 2f), indicating that the difference in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between these two types cannot simply be explained by differences in C_i/C_a .

Leaf anatomy

Leaf anatomy varied widely across *A. semialata* accessions, with between two and twelve veins per segment (VF), a range from one to nine mesophyll cells separating these veins (IVMC), and IBS cells that were between two-thirds smaller than, and one third larger than, OBS cells (Figs 3 and S2; Table 2). This anatomical variation can also partially explain the gradient of carbon isotope discrimination in this species (Figs 3a-c and S2). C_4 accessions had higher VF (≥ 8), fewer IVMC (≤ 2), and smaller OBS cell widths ($\leq 11.4 \mu\text{m}$) than the other accessions (Fig. 3; Tables 2 and 3). In contrast, C_3 accessions had the lowest VF (≤ 5), most IVMC (≥ 6), and largest OBS cell widths ($\geq 16.0 \mu\text{m}$; Figs 3a-c and S2; Tables 2 and 3). The Tanzanian accessions had intermediate VF (5-7), IVMC (4-5), and OBS cell sizes between those observed in C_3 and C_4 plants (11.6 – 14.4 μm ; Figs 3 and S2; Tables 2 and 3). IBS cell size, however, showed a different trend across the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient, as the IBS cells of Tanzanian plants were not intermediate in size but were as large as those measured in C_4 plants (Figs 3d and S2; Tables 2 and 3).

Fresh hand-cut cross-sections showed that C_4 *A. semialata* had higher concentrations of chloroplasts in bundle sheath cells than in the mesophyll (Fig. S3e). As expected, C_3 *A. semialata* had abundant chloroplasts in the mesophyll; however, they also had a small number of chloroplasts present in the IBS (Fig. S3d). The Tanzanian plants had similar abundances of chloroplasts in the mesophyll and IBS,

which is consistent with them being plants using a C₂ cycle that run the Calvin cycle in both cell types. Small numbers of chloroplasts were also observed in the OBS of C₃, C₄, and Tanzanian accessions (Fig. S3).

PEPC content

The PEPC immunoblot showed that leaves of the two Tanzanian populations had PEPC in higher abundance than C₃ *A. semialata* and rice (Fig. 4), which suggests that the Tanzanian plants may be capable of using a C₄ cycle. In fact, the Tanzanian plants had similar PEPC content to C₄ *A. semialata* and maize (Fig. 4). Of the C₄ *A. semialata* accessions, the Madagascan plant had the most PEPC, while the Australian and South African accessions had lower PEPC content than maize.

At the time that leaves were sampled for the PEPC assay, the Tanzanian plants showed variable physiology. While one had an intermediate CCP of 18.1 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, plants from the other population had C₄-like CCP values (4.3 and 1.1 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ in L04 replicates A and B, respectively), but CE remained low ($>0.1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) in all three Tanzanian plants at this time. This suggests that the Tanzanian plants have variable physiologies despite high PEPC content.

DISCUSSION

C₃ and C₄ variants of *Alloteropsis semialata*

The carbon isotope discrimination, physiology, and leaf anatomy of most *A. semialata* accessions were largely consistent with those measured in typical C₃ and C₄ taxa, and consistent with earlier characterizations of individuals within this species (Ellis 1981; Renvoize 1987; Ueno & Sentoku 2006; Ibrahim 2007; Ripley *et al.* 2007; Osborne *et al.* 2008). We concluded that C₃ phenotypes were only identified in some South African populations, while accessions from Australia, Burkina Faso, Madagascar, and others from South Africa use C₄ photosynthesis (Table 2). However, typical C₄ plants have a CCP below 5 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ (Edwards & Ku 1987), whereas not a single C₄ accession in this study measured below this value and CCP was as high as 18.8 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ in one Madagascan plant. This suggests that some C₄ *A. semialata* populations may not be strongly optimized for C₄ function, being instead more C₄-like, as suggested by Ueno & Sentoku (2006), and there may be various degrees of C₄

optimization among C₄ accessions. Within the populations mentioned here, δ¹³C signatures consistently fell within either C₃ or C₄ ranges in both field and controlled environment conditions (Table 2), indicating that the photosynthetic metabolism of these plants is not strongly influenced by the growth environment, and lending further weight to previous evidence that the C₃ and C₄ phenotypes of *A. semialata* are genetically fixed and not plastic (Ibrahim *et al.* 2008).

Discovery of C₃-C₄ intermediates in *Alloteropsis semialata*

The Tanzanian accessions presented in this study had values of CCP, OI, VF, IVMC, and OBS cell sizes that were intermediate between those of C₃ and C₄ plants, and abundant chloroplasts in both mesophyll and bundle sheath cells, consistent with plants using a C₂ cycle (Brown & Hattersley 1989; Ku *et al.* 1983). There are three possible explanations for the intermediate CCP values in Tanzanian accessions: operation of a C₂ cycle alone (i.e. *Type I C₃-C₄*), operation of a limited C₄ acid cycle alone, or operation of both C₂ and limited C₄ acid cycles (i.e. *Type II C₃-C₄*; Edwards & Ku 1987 or Type II C₂; Sage *et al.*, 2012). Distinguishing between these possibilities is informed by our δ¹³C results (Table 2) and the relationships between Δ¹³C and C_i/C_a in *A. semialata* plants (Fig. 2f). First, Fig. 2f shows that Tanzanian plants discriminated against ¹³C less at a given C_i/C_a value compared with C₃ plants. Second, the δ¹³C values of Tanzanian plants, in either controlled environment or field grown plants, are almost consistently higher (less negative) than for C₃ *A. semialata* plants (Table 2). C₃-like δ¹³C values are often observed in C₃-C₄ intermediate plants, partially as a result of the incomplete compartmentalization of photosynthetic enzymes that increases BS leakiness (Monson *et al.* 1988). However, by itself, this does not preclude the possibility that these plants have significant C₄ acid cycle activity. Hattersley & Watson (1992) note that modelling by Peisker (1986) and Monson *et al.* (1988) suggests that δ¹³C signatures may not start to shift upward until more than 50% of CO₂ is fixed by C₄ acids. Together, the differences in stable isotope ratios indicate that there is less discrimination against ¹³C during photosynthesis in the Tanzanian plants than in C₃ plants, which is likely due to a CO₂ concentrating mechanism between mesophyll and IBS cells. However, this CO₂ concentrating mechanism cannot be a C₂ cycle alone. If it was, the δ¹³C values (Table 2) would be lower, and the values in Fig. 2f higher, for Tanzanian plants than for C₃ plants, because intermediate plants using a C₂ cycle, but no C₄ acid cycle, carry out double discrimination against ¹³C by Rubisco in mesophyll and bundle sheath Calvin cycles (von Caemmerer 1989; von Caemmerer & Hubick 1989). We conclude

that (i) the photosynthetic carbon metabolism of the Tanzanian accessions is not typically C₃, (ii) the greater discrimination against ¹³C during photosynthesis arises from some level of direct CO₂ fixation by PEPC in the mesophyll, and (iii) there is integration of at least a weak C₄ acid cycle. Despite the intermediate CCP and OI values, CE in the C₃-C₄ plants never increased beyond C₃ levels, a pattern that is typical of other C₃-C₄ intermediate taxa (Ku *et al.* 1983; Dai *et al.* 1996). Indeed, studies in C₃, C₃-C₄, C₄-like, and C₄ *Flaveria* show that more than 50% of CO₂ may be assimilated via a C₄ system before CE increases to values typically measured in C₄ species (Fig. S4; Ku *et al.* 1983; Dai *et al.* 1996; Vogan & Sage 2011). These *Flaveria* studies also show a strong relationship between CCP and the proportion of CO₂ fixed by the C₄ cycle (Fig. S4; Ku *et al.* 1991; Dai *et al.* 1996; Vogan & Sage 2011), indicating that the reduced CCP measured in the Tanzanian plants may result from an increase in C₄ cycle activity, which can be sustained by the high PEPC content observed in these plants.

If one accepts that a C₂ cycle is always present in plants intermediate between C₃ and C₄, then the Tanzanian plants have both C₂ and limited C₄ acid cycle activities, i.e. they are Type II C₃-C₄ intermediates, that probably fix a minority of CO₂ via the C₄ system, while the isotopically intermediate herbarium specimens identified in the literature (Table 1) likely engage more C₄ activity than the accessions measured in this study (Fig. S4; Monson *et al.* 1988). Thus, populations of *A. semialata* clearly exhibit a gradient of photosynthetic phenotypes, possibly encompassing C₃, C₃-like, C₃-C₄ (including C₂ cycles with various degrees of C₄ cycle activity), C₄-like, and C₄ states, making it the most photosynthetically diverse species known.

Evolutionary significance of C₃-C₄ intermediates within the species complex

Individuals with intermediate phenotypes might be interpreted as hybrids between C₃ and C₄ individuals. For example, hybrid crosses between C₃ and C₄ *Atriplex* congeners produce intermediate phenotypes (Osmond *et al.* 1980; Oakley *et al.* 2014). However, a hybrid origin of C₃-C₄ plants is not supported by the genetic data available for *A. semialata*, as all non-C₄ accessions so far sampled form a clade distinct from C₄ accessions in both plastid genome and nuclear rDNA phylogenies (Fig. S5; Lundgren *et al.* 2015). In the plastid phylogeny, all C₃ populations from South Africa form a monophyletic group, while the C₃-C₄ intermediates are placed in one of two other non-C₄ groups (Fig. S5). If the other accessions within these clades were also physiologically intermediate, the phylogenetic

pattern would suggest that the C₃ photosynthetic type present in South Africa results from an evolutionary reversal from a C₃-C₄ intermediate type, making the C₃ plants that colonized southern Africa the first documented case of an evolutionary loss of C₃-C₄ intermediate characters.

The evolutionary history of photosynthetic transitions within *Alloteropsis* has been discussed by previous authors, but the data available so far has not been conclusive (Ibrahim *et al.* 2009; Christin *et al.* 2010, 2012). However, the discovery of C₃-C₄ intermediates here changes this picture. If we accept that C₃ individuals arise from the loss of C₃-C₄ characters, one of the basal splits within *A. semialata* separates C₃-C₄ and C₄ plants, leaving two possible scenarios. Either the ancestor was C₄ and some of the descendants lost C₄ characters to reach a C₃-C₄ state, or this ancestor was C₃-C₄ and one or more of the descendants acquired more C₄-like characters. These two scenarios cannot be differentiated based on species relationships (Christin *et al.* 2010). However, discussion of the adaptive significance of lateral gene transfers within *Alloteropsis* raised the suggestion that the genus was initially C₃-C₄, and that the C₄ phenotype was independently realized on multiple occasions, via the co-option of C₄-like components present in C₃-C₄ plants (Christin *et al.* 2012). The presence of C₃-C₄ intermediates within the group supports this hypothesis, although comparative analyses of the genetic determinants of C₄ phenotypes within the group will be needed to definitively resolve this problem.

Conclusion

By comprehensively investigating carbon isotope discrimination, physiology, and leaf anatomy in accessions of *A. semialata* from across its geographic range, we demonstrate for the first time that C₃-C₄ intermediates, in addition to genetically fixed C₃ and C₄ types, exist in this taxon. These intermediates are not the result of hybrid crosses between the analyzed C₃ and C₄ genotypes, but form distinct lineages within *A. semialata*. The intermediates prosper in wooded savannas of Central Africa, where the origin of the species is inferred based on phylogeographic analyses. In these deciduous forests, conditions vary throughout the year in terms of light, temperature and nutrient availability. These varying conditions might have provided a selective edge to C₃-C₄ plants (Supplementary Methods and Results), which would then have constituted a reservoir of genes that could be co-opted to evolve more C₄ phenotypes. On the other hand, some lineages might have lost their C₃-C₄ characters when they migrated to southern latitudes of Africa, showing that C₃-C₄ evolution is reversible. In this

scenario, C₃-C₄ ancestors might have generated C₃, C₃-C₄ and C₄ descendants, leading to phenotypes spanning the C₃ to C₄ continuum in *A. semialata*, which constitutes the perfect system to study the origins of C₄ photosynthesis, in terms of genetics, physiology and ecology. The existence of this variation within a single species of grasses opens new avenues for the study of the intraspecific dynamics that allow the emergence of new physiological adaptations within plant species of ecological significance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was funded by a University of Sheffield Prize Scholarship to MRL, a Royal Society Research Fellowship URF120119 to PAC, and an European Research Council grant ERC-2014-STG-638333 to PAC. GB is member of the Laboratoire Evolution and Diversité Biologique (EDB) part of the LABEX entitled TULIP managed by Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-10-LABX-0041). The authors thank Maria Vorontsova and Martin Xanthos of the Royal Botanical Garden at Kew (K), Lyn Fish, Catherine Mashau and Erich van Wyk at the South African National Biodiversity Institute (PRE), Jonathan Gregson at the British Museum of Natural History (BM), Itambo Malombe at the East African Herbarium (EA), Terry Trinder-Smith at the Bolus Herbarium (BOL), and Anna Monro and Brendan Lepschi of the Centre for Australian National Biodiversity Research (CANB) for contributing leaf samples, the Millennium Seed Bank for seed material, Heather Walker of the University of Sheffield, Faculty of Science biOMICS facility and the lab of Prof. G. Farquhar at ANU, Australia, for help with the carbon isotope analyses, Alex Phokas for assistance with the whole protein staining, and Asaph Cousins, Christoph Lehmeier, and Chandra Bellasio for valuable discussions on gas exchange. The authors also thank Chandra Bellasio and Emily Beardon for maize and rice tissue, respectively.

REFERENCES

- Bauwe H., Hagemann M. & Fernie A.R. (2010) Photorespiration: players, partners and origin. *Trends in Plant Science* **15**, 330–336.
- Bellasio C., Beerling D.J. & Griffiths H. (2015) An Excel tool for deriving key photosynthetic parameters from combined gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence: theory and practice. *Plant, Cell & Environment*. doi:10.1111/pce.12560.
- Bradford M.M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein dye-binding. *Analytical Biochemistry* **72**, 248–254.
- Brown W.V. (1975) Variations in anatomy, associations, and origins of Kranz tissue. *American Journal of Botany* **62**, 395–402.
- Brown R.H. & Hattersley P.W. (1989). Leaf anatomy of C₃-C₄ species as related to evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. *Plant Physiology* **91**, 1543–1550.
- Chollet R. & Ogren W.L. (1975) Regulation of photorespiration in C₃ and C₄ species. *The Botanical Review* **41**, 137–179.
- Christin P.A., Freckleton R.P. & Osborne C.P. (2010) Can phylogenetics identify C₄ origins and reversals? *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **25**, 403–409.
- Christin P.A., Sage T.L., Edwards E.J., Ogburn R.M., Khoshravesh R. & Sage R.F. (2011) Complex evolutionary transitions and the significance of C₃-C₄ intermediate forms of photosynthesis in Molluginaceae. *Evolution* **65**, 643–660.
- Christin P.A., Edwards E.J., Besnard G., Boxall S., Gregory R., Kellogg E.A., ..., Osborne C.P. (2012) Adaptive evolution of C₄ photosynthesis through recurrent lateral gene transfer. *Current Biology* **22**, 445–449.

- Dai Z., Ku M.S., Edwards G.E. (1996) Oxygen sensitivity of photosynthesis and photorespiration in different photosynthetic types in the genus *Flaveria*. *Planta* **198**, 563–571.
- Edwards G.E. & Ku M.S.B. (1987) Biochemistry of C₃-C₄ intermediates. In *The Biochemistry of Plants: a Comprehensive Treatise* (eds. M.D. Hatch & N.K. Boardman), vol. 10, pp. 275–325. Academic Press, New York, USA.
- Ehleringer J.R. (1978) Implications of quantum yield differences on the distributions of C₃ and C₄ grasses. *Oecologia* **31**, 255–267.
- Ellis R.P. (1974a) The significance of the occurrence of both Kranz and non-Kranz leaf anatomy in the grass species *Alloteropsis semialata*. *South African Journal of Science* **70**, 169–173.
- Ellis R.P. (1974b) Anomalous vascular bundle sheath structure in *Alloteropsis semialata* leaf blades. *Bothalia* **11**, 273–275.
- Ellis R.P. (1981) Relevance of comparative leaf anatomy in taxonomic and functional research on the South African Poaceae. DSc Thesis. University of Pretoria, South Africa.
- Farquhar G.D., O'leary M.H. & Berry J.A. (1982). On the relationship between carbon isotope discrimination and the intercellular carbon dioxide concentration in leaves. *Functional Plant Biology* **9** 121-137.
- Farquhar G.D., Ehleringer J.R. & Hubick K.T. (1989) Carbon isotope discrimination and photosynthesis. *Annual Review of Plant Biology* **40**, 503–537.
- Fernie A.R., Bauwe H., Eisenhut M., Florian A., Hanson D.T., Hagemann M., ..., Westhoff P. (2013) Perspectives on plant photorespiratory metabolism. *Plant Biology* **15**, 748–753.

- Frean M.L., Ariovich D. & Cresswell C.F. (1983a) C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic and anatomical forms of *Alloteropsis semialata* (R. Br.) Hitchcock. II. A comparative investigation of leaf ultrastructure and distribution of chlorenchyma in the two forms. *Annals of Botany* **51**, 811–821.
- Frean M.L., Barrett D.R., Ariovich D., Wolfson M.M. & Cresswell C.F. (1983b) Intraspecific variability in *Alloteropsis semialata* (R. Br.) Hitchc. *Bothalia* **14**, 901–913.
- Gibbs Russell G.E. (1983) The taxonomic position of C₃ and C₄ *Alloteropsis semialata* (Poaceae) in southern Africa. *Bothalia* **14**, 205–213.
- Grass Phylogeny Working Group II (GPWG II). (2012) New grass phylogeny resolves deep evolutionary relationships and discovers C₄ origins. *New Phytologist* **193**, 304–312.
- Hatch M.D. (1987) C₄ photosynthesis: a unique blend of modified biochemistry, anatomy and ultrastructure. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* **895**, 81–106.
- Hatch M.D. & Osmond C.B. (1976) Compartmentation and transport in C₄ photosynthesis. *Encyclopedia of Plant Physiology* **3**, 144–184.
- Hattersley P.W. & Watson L. (1992) Diversification of photosynthesis. In *Grass Evolution and Domestication* (ed. G.P. Chapman), pp. 38–116. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Heckmann D., Schulze S., Denton A., Gowik U., Westhoff P., Weber A.P. & Lercher M.J. (2013) Predicting C₄ photosynthesis evolution: modular, individually adaptive steps on a Mount Fuji fitness landscape. *Cell* **153**, 1579–1588.

- Hylton C.M., Rawsthorne S., Smith A.M., Jones D.A. & Woolhouse H.W. (1988) Glycine decarboxylase is confined to the bundle-sheath cells of leaves of C₃-C₄ intermediate species. *Planta* **175**, 452–459.
- Ibrahim D.G. (2007) The C₃ and C₄ subspecies of *Alloteropsis semialata*: phylogenetic relationship and climatic responses. PhD thesis, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK.
- Ibrahim D. G., Gilbert M.E., Ripley B.S., & Osborne C. P. (2008) Seasonal differences in photosynthesis between the C₃ and C₄ subspecies of *Alloteropsis semialata* are offset by frost and drought. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **31**, 1038-1050.
- Ibrahim D.G., Burke T., Ripley B.S. & Osborne C.P. (2009) A molecular phylogeny of the genus *Alloteropsis* (Panicoidae, Poaceae) suggests an evolutionary reversion from C₄ to C₃ photosynthesis. *Annals of Botany* **103**, 127–136.
- Ku M.S., Monson R.K., Littlejohn R.O., Nakamoto H., Fisher D.B. & Edwards G.E. (1983) Photosynthetic characteristics of C₃-C₄ intermediate *Flaveria* species I. Leaf anatomy, photosynthetic responses to O₂ and CO₂, and activities of key enzymes in the C₃ and C₄ pathways. *Plant Physiology* **71**, 944–948.
- Ku M.S., Wu J., Dai Z., Scott R.A., Chu C. & Edwards G.E. (1991) Photosynthetic and photorespiratory characteristics of *Flaveria* species. *Plant Physiology* **96**, 518–528.
- Laisk A. (1977) [Kinetics of photosynthesis and photorespiration in C₃ plants] (in Russian). Nauka Publishing, Moscow, Russia.
- Llorens L., Osborne C.P. & Beerling D.J. (2009) Water-use responses of ‘living fossil’ conifers to CO₂ enrichment in a simulated Cretaceous polar environment. *Annals of Botany* **104**, 179–188.

- Lundgren M.R., Besnard G., Ripley B.S., Lehmann C.E.R., Chatelet D.S., Kynast R.G., ..., Christin P.A. (2015) Photosynthetic innovation broadens the niche within a single species. *Ecology Letters* **18**, 1021-1029.
- Monson R.K., Teeri J.A., Ku M.S.B., Gurevitch J., Mets L.J. & Dudley S. (1988) Carbon-isotope discrimination by leaves of *Flaveria* species exhibiting different amounts of C₃-and C₄-cycle co-function. *Planta* **174**, 145–151.
- Muhaidat R., Sage T.L., Frohlich M.W., Dengler N.G. & Sage R.F. (2011) Characterization of C₃-C₄ intermediate species in the genus *Heliotropium* L. (Boraginaceae): anatomy, ultrastructure and enzyme activity. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **10**, 1723–1736.
- Oakley J.C., Sultmanis S., Stinson C.R., Sage T.L. & Sage R.F. (2014) Comparative studies of C₃ and C₄ *Atriplex* hybrids in the genomics era: physiological assessments. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **65**, 3637–3647.
- Osborne C.P., Wythe E.J., Ibrahim D.G., Gilbert M.E. & Ripley B.S. (2008) Low temperature effects on leaf physiology and survivorship in the C₃ and C₄ subspecies of *Alloteropsis semialata*. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **59**, 1743–1754.
- Osmond C.B., Björkman O. & Anderson D.J. (1980) Physiological Processes in Plant Ecology: Toward a Synthesis with *Atriplex*. In *Physiological Processes in Plant Ecology, Ecological Studies* vol. 36. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany.
- Peisker M. (1986) Models of carbon metabolism in C₃-C₄ intermediate plants as applied to the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **9**, 627–635.
- R Development Core Team (2014) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0. URL: <http://www.R-project.org>.

- Renvoize S.A. (1987) A survey of leaf-blade anatomy in grasses XI. Paniceae. *Kew Bulletin* 42, 739–768.
- Ripley B.S., Gilbert M.E., Ibrahim D.G. & Osborne C.P. (2007) Drought constraints on C₄ photosynthesis: stomatal and metabolic limitations in C₃ and C₄ subspecies of *Alloteropsis semialata*. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **58**, 1351–1363.
- Sage R.F., Li M. & Monson R.K. (1999) The taxonomic distribution of C₄ photosynthesis. In *C₄ Plant Biology* (eds. R.F. Sage & R.K. Monson), pp. 551–584. Academic Press, San Diego, USA.
- Sage R.F., Christin P.A. & Edwards E.J. (2011) The C₄ plant lineages of planet Earth. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **62**, 3155–3169.
- Sage R.F., Sage T.L., & Kocacinar, F. (2012) Photorespiration and the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. *Annual Review of Plant Biology* **63**, 19–47.
- Sage T.L., Busch F., Johnson D.C., Friesen P.C., Stinson C.R., Stata M., ..., Sage R.F. (2013) Initial events during the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis in C₃ species of *Flaveria*. *Plant Physiology* **163**, 1266–1276.
- Schneider C.A., Rasband W.S. & Eliceiri K.W. (2012) NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. *Nature Methods* **9**, 671–675.
- Smith B.S. & Brown W.V. (1973) The Kranz syndrome in the Gramineae as indicated by carbon isotopic ratios. *American Journal of Botany* **60**, 505–513.
- Ubierna N. & Farquhar G.D. (2014). Advances in measurements and models of photosynthetic carbon isotope discrimination in C₃ plants. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **37**, 1494–1498.

- Ueno O. & Sentoku N. (2006) Comparison of leaf structure and photosynthetic characteristics of C₃ and C₄ *Alloteropsis semialata* subspecies. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **29**, 257–268.
- Vogan P.J. & Sage R.F. (2011) Water-use efficiency and nitrogen-use efficiency of C₃-C₄ intermediate species of *Flaveria* Juss. (Asteraceae). *Plant, Cell & Environment* **34**, 1415–1430.
- von Caemmerer S. (1989) A model of photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation and carbon-isotope discrimination in leaves of certain C₃-C₄ intermediates. *Planta* **178**, 463–474.
- von Caemmerer S. & Hubick K.T. (1989) Short-term carbon-isotope discrimination in C₃-C₄ intermediate species. *Planta* **178**, 475–481.
- von Caemmerer S. & Furbank R.T. (2003). The C₄ pathway: an efficient CO₂ pump. *Photosynthesis Research* **77**, 191–207.
- Williams B.P., Johnston I.G., Covshoff S. & Hibberd J.M. (2013) Phenotypic landscape inference reveals multiple evolutionary paths to C₄ photosynthesis. *eLife* **2**, e00961.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Photosynthetic variation across *A. semialata*. Frequency (A) and geographic (B) distributions of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures (‰) from 298 *A. semialata* accessions. Map points are color coded according to the color scheme used in the histogram.

Figure 2. Physiological variation in *A. semialata*. For individual accessions, variations in (A) CO_2 compensation point (CCP), (B) oxygen inhibition (OI), (C) CO_2 saturated photosynthesis (A_{sat}), and (D) carboxylation efficiency (CE) are shown across the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient. Panel E regresses stomatal conductance (g_s) against net CO_2 assimilation (A_{400}), both measured at a reference CO_2 concentration of 400 μbar , to show intrinsic water use efficiency (iWUE). Panel F shows carbon isotope discrimination ($\Delta^{13}\text{C}$) against the ratio of intercellular to ambient CO_2 (C_i/C_a), overlaid with the theoretical relationship for C_3 plants (see *Materials and Methods*). Data points are colored as C_3 (blue), C_4 (red), and the Tanzanian plants (green). Linear model adjusted R^2 and p -value results are shown, where relevant.

Figure 3. Anatomical variation in *A. semialata*. Variation in (A) vein frequency, (B) number of interveinal mesophyll cells (IVMC), (C) outer bundle sheath (OBS) cell size, and (D) inner bundle sheath (IBS) cell size. Data points are colored by C_3 (blue), C_4 (red), and the Tanzanian plants (green). Linear model adjusted R^2 and p -value results are shown.

Figure 4. PEPC content in C_3 , $\text{C}_3\text{-C}_4$, and C_4 *A. semialata*. (A) Immunoblot indicating relative PEPC content after 10-s exposure and (B) whole protein staining across nine *A. semialata* accessions, with rice (C_3) and maize (C_4) controls. Along the whole protein stain, PEPC is indicated at 100 kDa.

TABLES

Table 1. Anomalous specimens of *A. semialata* in the literature.

Table 2. Details of individual accessions and corresponding stable isotope, anatomy and physiology results.

Table 3. ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey tests for physiology and anatomy traits.

Table 1. *Alloteropsis semialata* specimens with anomalous $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotope signatures (I), gross morphology (M), and/or leaf blade anatomy (A). The country, year of collection, and stable isotope values are show, where available.

Specimen	Country	Year	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Anomaly	Study ¹
Milne-Redhead 3021	Zambia	1937	-20.0 ^A -20.7 ^D -18.5 ^E	I	A, D, E
Eyles 1920	Zimbabwe	1919	-10.3	M	B
Greenway 6290	Malawi			M	B
Milne-Redhead 3371	Zambia	1937	-18.6	I, M	B
Milne-Redhead & Taylor 8455	Tanzania	1956	-10.7	A	C
Astle 1137	Zambia			A	C
Norval 106	South Africa			A	C
Ratray 428	Zimbabwe		-11.4	A	C
Emson 340	Tanzania	1932	-21.4	I	D,E
Stowe 495	Zambia	1940	-20.8	I	D
Brzotowski 26	Tanzania	1944	-22.6	M, A	D
Robinson 4744	Zambia	1961	-22.7	M, A	D
Proctor 2165	Tanzania	1962	-23.0	M, A	D
Mbano DSM812	Tanzania	1969	-23.9	M, A	D
Proctor 2206	Zambia	1962	-23.9	M, A	D
Simon 932	Tanzania	1966	-25.3	M, A	D
Tanner 5076	Tanzania	1960	-26.3	M, A	D
Bogdon & Williams 238	Kenya	1947	-11.8	M, A	D
Symoens 14118	DRC	1971	-22.6	I	E
Lundgren & Christin 4	Tanzania	2014	-23.1	M, A	E
Bullock 1980	Tanzania	1949	-22.3	I	E
Bullock 1979	Tanzania	1949	-19.7	I	E
Ruffo & Kisena 2806	Tanzania	1987	-18.6	I	E
Shaunty 488	Zambia	1919	-20.7	I	E

¹Studies refer to (A) Ellis (1981); (B) Gibbs Russell (1983); (C) Renvoize (1987); (D) Hattersley & Watson (1992); (E) Lundgren *et al.* (2015).

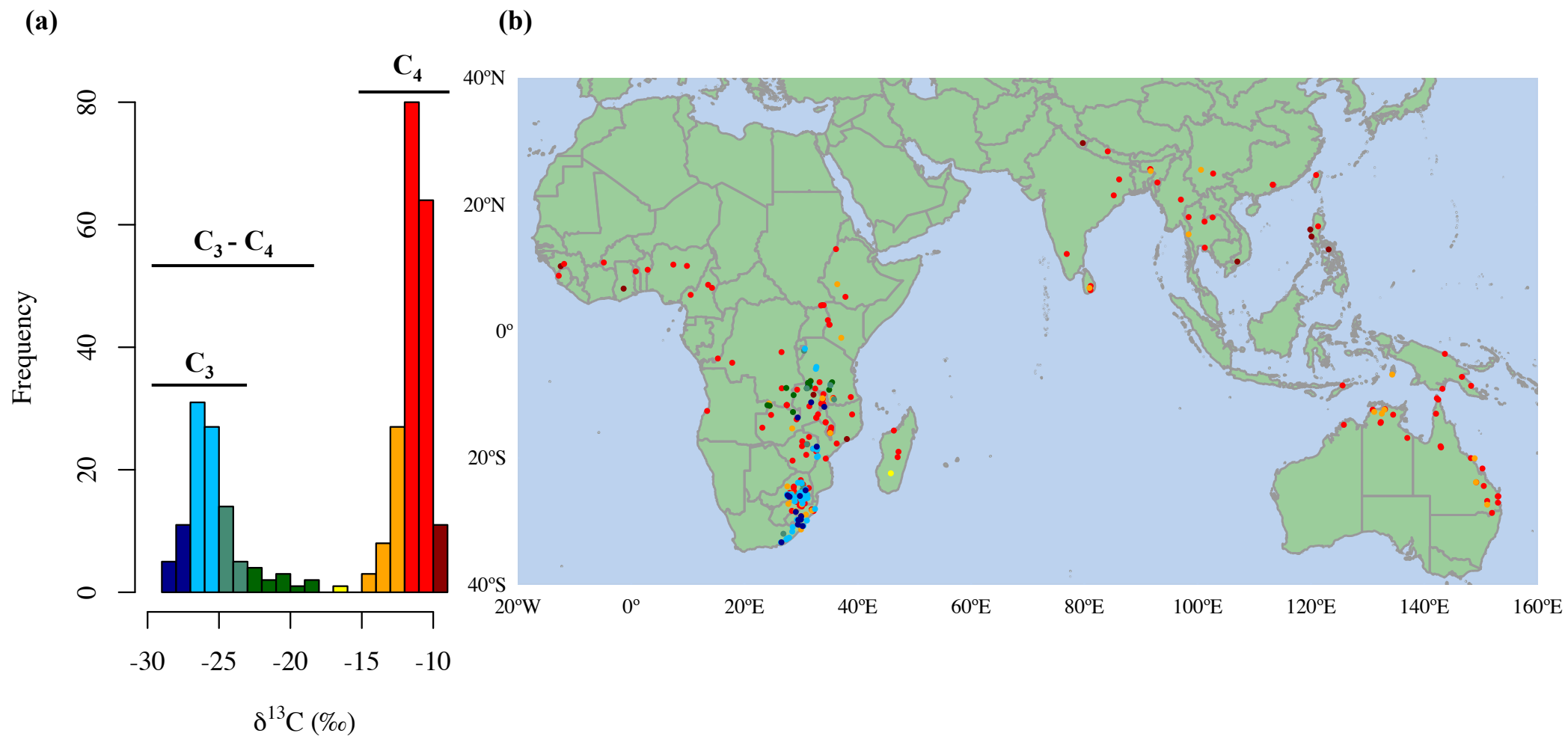
Table 2. Details of individual accessions and corresponding stable isotope, anatomy and physiology results.

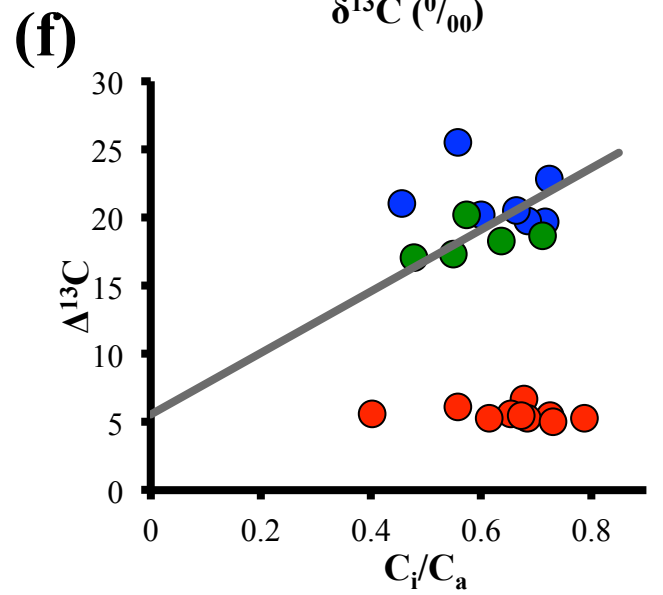
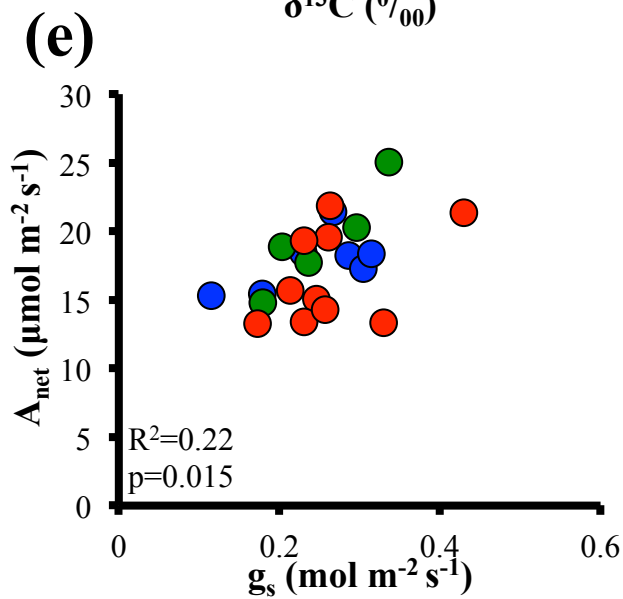
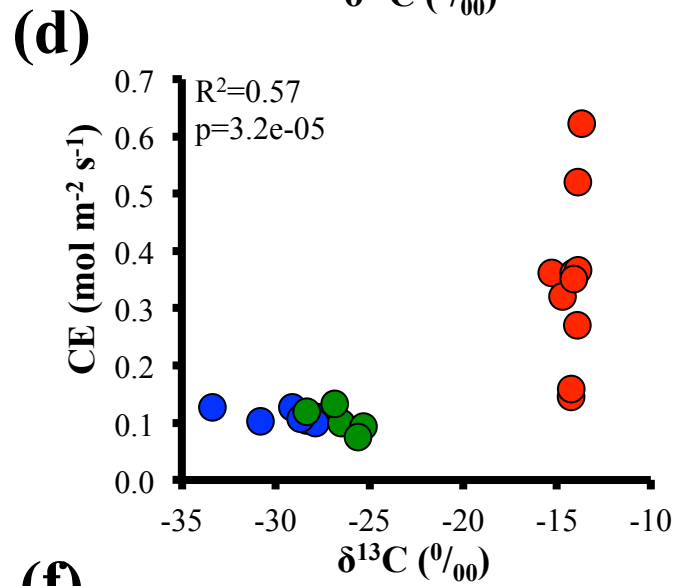
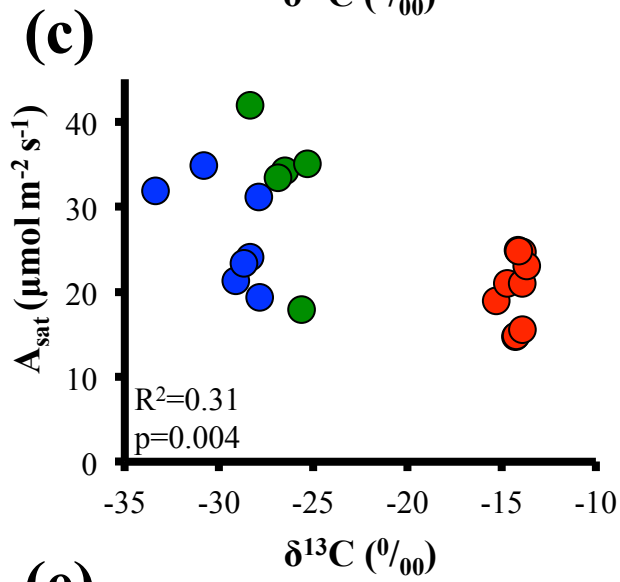
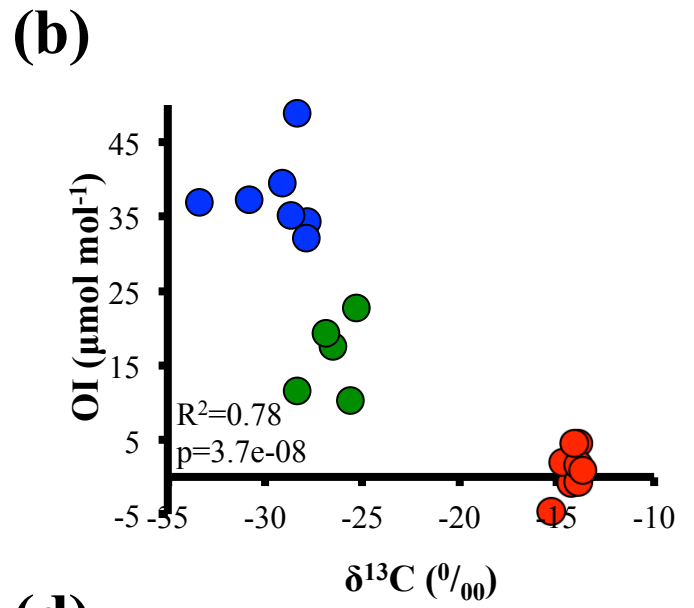
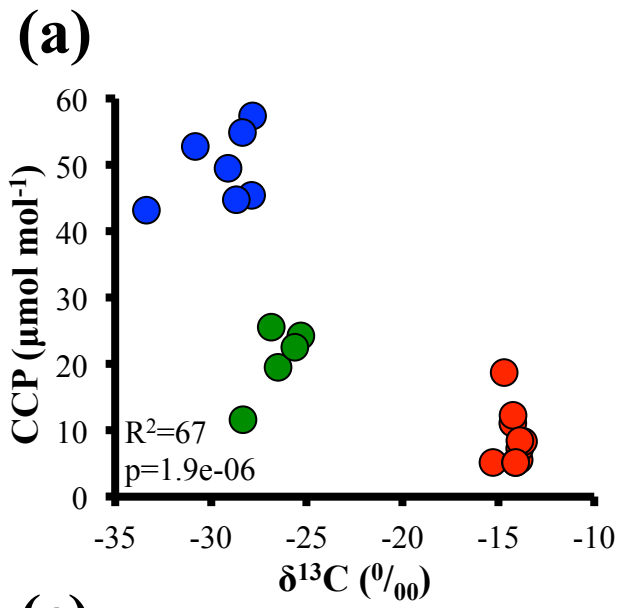
Accession	Pop	Country	Latitude	Longitude	$\delta^{13}\text{C}^{\text{F}}$ *	$\delta^{13}\text{C}^{\text{C}}$	VF	IVMC	IBS size (μ)	OBS size (μ)	CCP ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	CE ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	OI	Type
CRL-2	CRL	South Africa	-25.74	30.24	-27.6	-27.8	2.7	5.9	7.1	15.8	57.4	0.11	34.3	C ₃
CRL-4	CRL	South Africa	-25.74	30.24	-27.6	-28.3	4.0	7.4	10.7	19.6	54.8	0.10	48.9	C ₃
EML-11	EML	South Africa	-26.29	30.00	-27.3	-29.1	3.3	7.2	7.5	16.0	49.5	0.13	39.6	C ₃
JMS-201	JMS	South Africa	-33.32	26.44	-28.3	-30.8	4.7	8.6	7.3	18.2	52.8	0.10	37.2	C ₃
JMS-202	JMS	South Africa	-33.32	26.44	-28.3	-27.9	4.7	7.7	7.9	17.3	45.4	0.10	32.1	C ₃
KWT-3	KWT	South Africa	-32.70	27.53	-27.1	-28.7	4.0	7.8			44.7	0.11	35.2	C ₃
KWT-5	KWT	South Africa	-32.70	27.53	-27.1	-33.4	3.3	6.8	7.5	17.3	43.1	0.13	37.0	C ₃
L01-A	L01	Tanzania	-5.63	32.69	-26.3	-26.5	5.0	3.5	10.5	13.6	19.4	0.10	17.6	C ₃ -C ₄
L04-A	L04	Tanzania	-8.51	35.17	-23.1	-25.3	5.3	5.1	11.6	14.4	24.3	0.09	22.7	C ₃ -C ₄
L04-B	L04	Tanzania	-8.51	35.17	-23.9	-25.6	5.3	4.9	11.6	11.6	22.5	0.08	10.3	C ₃ -C ₄
L04-D	L04	Tanzania	-8.51	35.17	-26.4	-26.9	5.3	5.4	12.5	13.2	25.6	0.13	19.3	C ₃ -C ₄
L04-E	L04	Tanzania	-8.51	35.17	-25.0	-28.3	7.3	4.4	13.0	12.5	11.6	0.12	11.6	C ₃ -C ₄
AUS-3	AUS	Australia	-19.62	146.96	-11.5 *	-14.3	8.3	1.5	9.5	7.7	11.1	0.15	1.0	C ₄
AUS-4	AUS	Australia	-19.62	146.96	-12.5 *	-15.3	11.0	1.7	9.4	7.8	5.1	0.36	-4.6	C ₄
BF-2	BF	Burkina Faso	10.85	-4.83	-11.1 *	-13.9	11.0	1.4	11.3	8.9	8.5	0.37	4.5	C ₄
BF-3	BF	Burkina Faso	10.85	-4.83	-11.3 *	-14.1	11.0	1.6	9.5	8.3	5.2	0.35	1.2	C ₄
MAJ-1	MAJ	Madagascar	-15.67	46.37	-11.4 *	-14.2	11.7	1.7	9.4	9.2	12.3	0.16	-0.8	C ₄
MAJ-3	MAJ	Madagascar	-15.67	46.37	-11.9 *	-14.7	9.0	1.9	11.2	11.4	18.8	0.32	2.0	C ₄
MDG-1	MDG	South Africa	-25.76	29.47	-11.1	-13.9	11.3	1.5	11.3	9.7	5.6	0.27	-0.6	C ₄
MDG-2	MDG	South Africa	-25.76	29.47	-11.1	-13.9	11.7	1.3	12.2	9.9	7.2	0.52	1.6	C ₄
SFD-1	SFD	South Africa	-28.39	29.04	-11.3 *	-14.1					5.2	0.36	4.6	C ₄
SFD-3	SFD	South Africa	-28.39	29.04	-10.9 *	-13.7	10.0	1.5	10.9	8.7	8.3	0.62	0.9	C ₄

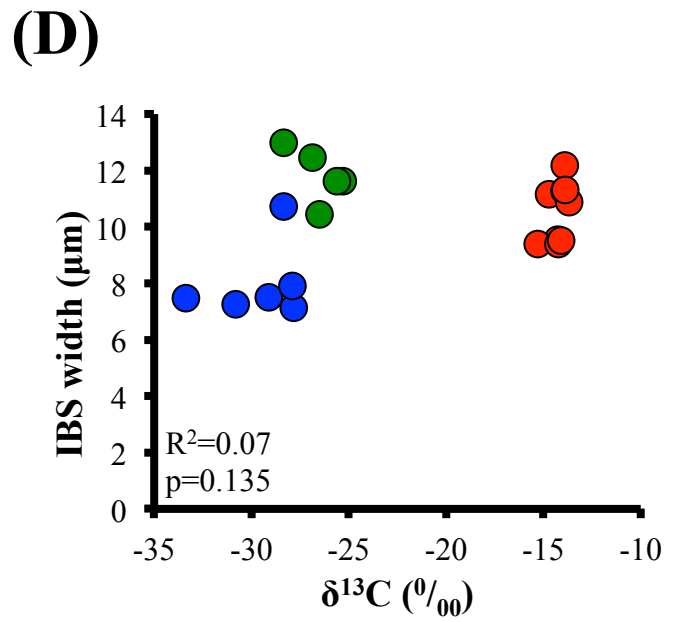
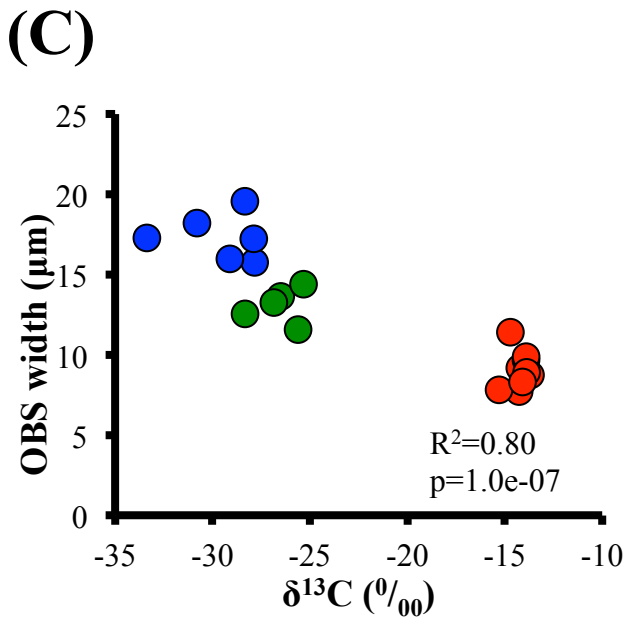
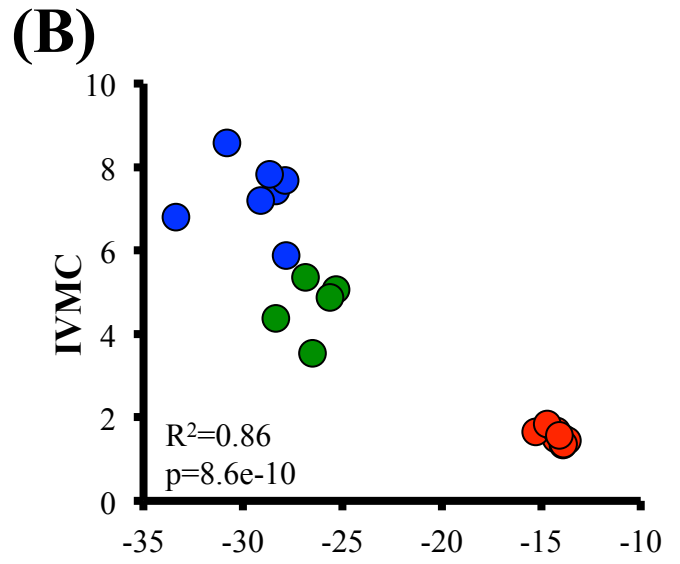
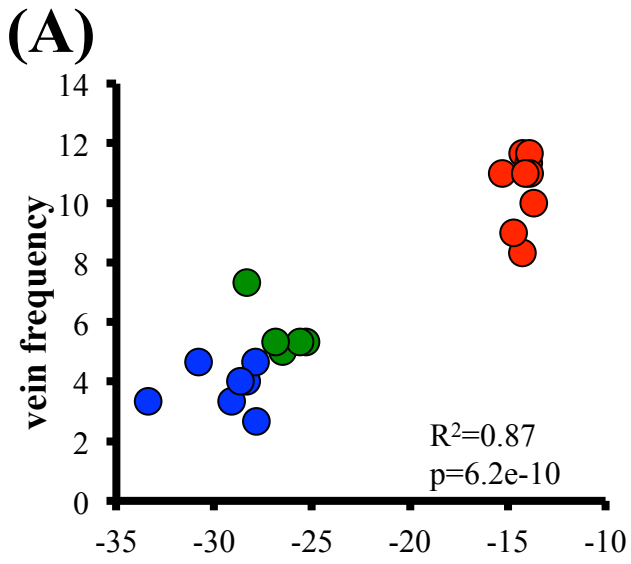
* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measured on plants grown under controlled environment (C) or (F) conditions (in ‰). For accessions lacking field $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data (*), controlled environment values were adjusted as described in *Materials and Methods*.

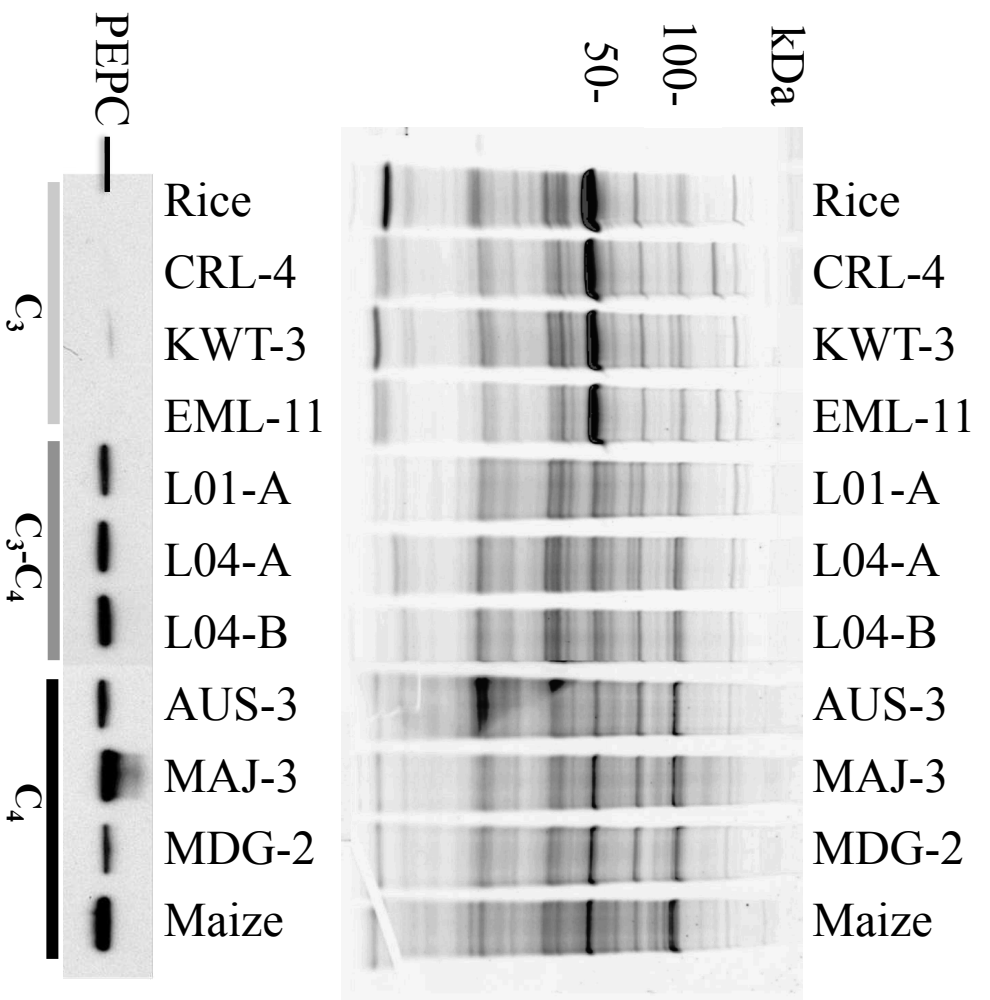
Table 3. Results of ANOVAs on physiological and anatomical variables. Accessions were grouped into C₃, C₄, and the two measurement sets of the Tanzanian plants. Trait abbreviations can be found in the Methods section. Variables with significant group effects were subjected to *post-hoc* Tukey tests and groups that differed significantly are denoted with different letters. *Post-hoc* Tukey tests for traits with significant population terms are presented in Table S1

	<i>DF</i>	Group <i>F (p-value)</i>	Population <i>F (p-value)</i>	C₃	Tanzanian <i>Mean^{Tukey}</i>	C₄
<i>Physiology</i>						
CCP	2, 8	187.0 (3.2e-09)	1.8 (0.18)	49.69 ^c	20.68 ^b	8.73 ^a
CE	2, 8	16.5 (4.9e-04)	1.2 (0.40)	0.11 ^a	0.10 ^a	0.35 ^b
OI	2, 8	116.2 (4.0e-08)	0.5 (0.86)	37.73 ^c	16.30 ^b	0.98 ^a
A _{sat}	2, 8	259.4 (0.014)	29.9 (0.66)	26.56 ^{ab}	32.53 ^b	20.33 ^a
_i WUE	2, 8	504.0 (6.6e-03)	11.7 (2.2e-04)	79.72 ^b	78.60 ^b	65.69 ^a
R _{light}	2, 8	6.9 (0.01)	2.1 (0.12)	0.92 ^a	2.01 ^b	1.10 ^a
LCP	2, 8	15.5 (6.4e-04)	4.6 (0.01)	18.20 ^a	36.88 ^b	17.41 ^a
GA _{sat}	2, 8	0.1 (0.93)	1.8 (0.19)	18.63	17.82	18.64
PPFD ₅₀	2, 8	1.0 (0.40)	1.5 (0.26)	281.42	217.27	217.87
ΦCO ₂	2, 8	1.0 (0.42)	1.2 (0.40)	0.05	0.06	0.06
<i>Leaf anatomy</i>						
VF	2, 8	85.7 (5.1e-07)	0.8 (0.64)	3.81 ^a	5.66 ^b	10.56 ^c
IVMC	2, 8	248.4 (3.0e-09)	1.8 (0.19)	7.34 ^c	4.64 ^b	1.54 ^a
OBS width	2, 8	76.3 (2.3e-06)	0.8 (0.60)	17.34 ^c	13.07 ^b	9.07 ^a
IBS width	2, 8	16.7 (9.4e-04)	1.0 (0.49)	8.00 ^a	11.83 ^b	10.52 ^b









SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS AND RESULTS

Response To Environmental Conditions

Rationale and Methods

While the C₃ and C₄ accessions in this study were grown in moderate nutrient compost (no. 2, John Innes Manufacturers Association, Reading, England), the Tanzanian plants were initially grown in higher nutrient potting compost (no. 3, John Innes Manufacturers Association, Reading, England) to aid re-establishment of the cuttings once they were imported into the UK. To test whether this difference in soil nutrients influenced the results, the Tanzanian plants were transplanted into the same moderate soil nutrient compost (no. 2) after the initial set of measurements and re-analysed after three months. At the end of the three months, stable isotope, physiology, and anatomy data were collected again on youngest fully expanded leaves that developed in the new soil environment. Isotope and anatomy methods used on these plants are identical to those described in the main text. However, only a subset of the physiology dataset was re-measured at this time, including only the sub-ambient CO₂R portion of the A/C_i curve, such that CE and CCP were calculated as the slope (CE) and x-intercept (CCP) of the line connecting these data points. WUE was calculated as in the main text.

Results

Growing the plants in higher nutrient soils did influence the leaf composition, as the percent of leaf nitrogen and carbon were greater, and the C:N ratio lower, in the higher soil nutrients compared to the moderate nutrient grown plants (Table S2). Despite this, the Tanzanian accessions consistently had non-C₄ δ¹³C signatures (i.e. -28 to -23‰; Tables 2 and S2). It is interesting to note that CCP was no longer intermediate in these moderate soil nutrient conditions, but instead fell entirely within the range measure in C₄ *A. semialata* (i.e. ≤ 17.0 μmol mol⁻¹; Figs 2a and S6; Tables 3 and S3). However, CE did not improve under moderate soil nutrients (Fig. S6; Table S3).

DISCUSSION

There is some evidence that the degree of C₄-cycle activity is plastic in C₃-C₄ *A. semialata* plants, varying temporally or with soil environment. In particular, CCP in the Tanzanian plants was initially intermediate between C₃ and C₄ plants. However, when they were re-measured after being transplanted into lower nutrient soils, their CCP dropped to values similar to those of C₄ plants. In fact, CCP in L01A was initially intermediate in the high nutrient soil (i.e. 19.3 μmol mol⁻¹), then became C₄-like in the moderate nutrient soil (i.e. 6.3 μmol mol⁻¹), then became intermediate again when it was re-measured at the time of PEPC content leaf analysis (i.e. 18.1 μmol mol⁻¹), suggesting this accession can alternate back and forth between C₃-C₄ and C₄-like states in response to soil or atmospheric environments (Fig. S6). WUE also increased when these C₃-C₄ plants were in a C₄-like state (Table S3). Leaf anatomy, however, did not vary between these two states, suggesting that the anatomical phenotype of C₃-C₄ *A. semialata* plants may be suitable for both C₂ and C₄ metabolism. Indeed, IBS

cell sizes and IVMC of C₃-C₄ *A. semialata* fall within the range of the values measured across C₄ grass species as a whole (Lundgren *et al.* 2014). Thus, the observed physiological shift in CCP could result from plasticity in the underlying biochemistry, probably via enhanced C₄ cycle activity (e.g. from approximately 30 to 60%). However, follow-up pulse-chase work is needed to confirm this.

The C₂ cycle has been cited as an enabler of C₄ photosynthesis that may be a critical step in the transition from C₃ to C₄ (Hylton *et al.* 1988; Heckmann *et al.* 2013; Williams *et al.* 2013; Mallmann *et al.* 2014; Sage *et al.* 2014). There are however several costs associated with running a C₂ cycle. First, this pathway inherently requires photorespiration to operate and, although photorespiratory CO₂ is recycled, the process still produces toxic by-products, consumes ATP and NADPH, and creates a cellular imbalance in N-metabolites (Mallmann *et al.* 2014). Second, establishment of the C₂ cycle requires construction costs to provision bundle sheath organelles and enzymes (Schuster & Monson 1990). Finally, when plants already using a C₂ cycle initiate a C₄ cycle, the C₄ biochemical functions are often inefficient and increase nitrogen requirements (Monson *et al.* 1986). This creates nitrogen sinks that offset the advantages gained by recycling photorespired CO₂ (Schuster & Monson 1990; Mallmann *et al.* 2014). Despite these costs, there are examples of C₃-C₄ plants that have persisted for millions of years (Christin *et al.* 2011), suggesting that the intermediate phenotype may be a better adaptation than the C₄ state under certain environmental conditions. Our data point to plasticity for C₄ cycle activity within C₃-C₄ genotypes, and we hypothesize that these intermediate states may maintain an inherent degree of biochemical flexibility, which allows them to shift between physiological states. If this is true, then phenotypic plasticity for traits important to photosynthetic efficiency may weaken selection pressures to fix the C₄ syndrome in these plants, maintaining them in an intermediate state. This could potentially explain the long-term persistence of C₃-C₄ species in some lineages. Supporting our hypothesis, high levels of physiological plasticity have been found in other C₃-C₄ species, including the species *Flaveria linearis*, which becomes C₄-like when grown in warmer conditions (Teese 1995). This apparent flexibility to transition between C₃-C₄ and C₄-like states (and perhaps also between C₃-C₄ and C₃-like states) would enable plants to acclimate their physiology to whichever environment they are currently experiencing, an ability that would be particularly advantageous in heterogeneous environments (West-Eberhard 1989).

The C₃-C₄ *A. semialata* identified here, as well as those isotopically intermediate accessions reported in the literature (Table 1), were all found in the densely wooded Miombo savannas of central eastern Africa (Fig. 1; Lundgren *et al.* 2015). These habitats are characterized by particularly heterogeneous light, precipitation, and soil nutrients. For instance, less than 30% of incident light penetrates a mature Miombo canopy (van der Meulen & Werger 1984), however these woodlands are dominated by deciduous tree species that shed their leaves during the dry season (Frost 1996), thereby exposing the perennial understory vegetation to both shady and full sunlight conditions at different times of the year. Moreover, these woodlands occupy areas averaging over 700 mm of annual precipitation, yet more than 95% of this occurs within the 5-7 month rainy season (Frost 1996), requiring Miombo vegetation to withstand precipitation extremes. Miombo woodland soils are generally nutrient-poor, however soil

quality overall is variable due to catenas (i.e. repeatable soil sequences along sloped landscapes), a variety of underlying bedrock, termite activity (e.g. from foraged litter, and thus nutrients, from the forest floor, but also from termite nests that create nutrient hot-spots), seasonal leaf fall (e.g. from the nitrogen-rich canopy trees which have N-fixing nodules), and anthropogenic history (e.g. slash and burn agriculture) (reviewed in Frost 1996). Perennial herbaceous species of the Miombo understory consequently must be able to tolerate heterogeneity in precipitation, light, and soil nutrients. Because of this, C₄ acid cycle activity may be optimal during portions of the year but more costly than only running a C₂ cycle at other times. The flexibility to shift the degree to which one type of carbon shuttle is used over another could be hugely beneficial in these heterogeneous environments, explaining the persistence of the C₃-C₄ intermediate phenotype within *A. semialata*.

Supplementary References

Christin P.A., Sage T.L., Edwards E.J., Ogburn R.M., Khoshravesh R. & Sage R.F. (2011) Complex evolutionary transitions and the significance of C₃-C₄ intermediate forms of photosynthesis in Molluginaceae. *Evolution* **65**, 643–660.

Frost P. (1996) The ecology of Miombo woodlands. In *The Miombo in Transition: Woodlands and Welfare in Africa* (ed. B.M. Campbell). Cifor, Bogor, Indonesia.

Heckmann D., Schulze S., Denton A., Gowik U., Westhoff P., Weber A.P. & Lercher M.J. (2013) Predicting C₄ photosynthesis evolution: modular, individually adaptive steps on a Mount Fuji fitness landscape. *Cell* **153**, 1579–1588.

Hylton C.M., Rawsthorne S., Smith A.M., Jones D.A. & Woolhouse H.W. (1988) Glycine decarboxylase is confined to the bundle-sheath cells of leaves of C₃-C₄ intermediate species. *Planta* **175**, 452–459.

Lundgren M.R., Osborne C.P. & Christin P.A. (2014) Deconstructing Kranz anatomy to understand C₄ evolution. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **65**, 3357–3369.

Lundgren M.R., Besnard G., Ripley B.S., Lehmann C.E.R., Chatelet D.S., Kynast R.G., ..., Christin P.A. (2015) Photosynthetic innovation broadens the niche within a single species. *Ecology Letters* **18**, 1021-1029.

Mallmann J., Heckmann D., Bräutigam A., Lercher M.J., Weber A.P., Westhoff P. & Gowik U. (2014) The role of photorespiration during the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis in the genus *Flaveria*. *Elife* **3**, e02478.

Monson R.K., Moore B., Ku M.S.B. & Edwards G.E. (1986) Co-function of C₃- and C₄-photosynthetic pathways in C₃, C₄ and C₃-C₄ intermediate *Flaveria* species. *Planta* **168**, 493–502.

Sage R.F., Khoshravesh R. & Sage T.L. (2014) From proto-Kranz to C₄ Kranz: building the bridge to C₄ photosynthesis. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **65**, 3341–3356.

Schuster W.S. & Monson R.K. (1990) An examination of the advantages of C₃-C₄ intermediate photosynthesis in warm environments. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **13**, 903–912.

Teese P. (1995) Intraspecific variation for CO₂ compensation point and differential growth among variants in a C₃-C₄ intermediate plant. *Oecologia* **102**, 371–376.

van der Meulen F. & Werger M.J.A. (1984) Crown characteristics, leaf size and light throughfall of some savanna trees in southern Africa. *South African Journal of Botany* **3**, 208–218.

West-Eberhard M.J. (1989) Phenotypic plasticity and the origins of diversity. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* **20**, 249–278.

Williams B.P., Johnston I.G., Covshoff S. & Hibberd J.M. (2013) Phenotypic landscape inference reveals multiple evolutionary paths to C₄ photosynthesis. *eLife* **2**, e00961.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure S1. A/C_i (A) and light response (B) curves showing means \pm 1SE of C_3 (blue), C_4 (red), and Tanzanian plants (green).

Figure S2. Cross-sections of C_3 , C_3 - C_4 intermediate, and C_4 *A. semialata*. Examples of (A) C_3 , (B) high nutrient Tanzanian, (C) moderate nutrient Tanzanian, and (D) C_4 accessions show differences in the number of veins per segment, the number of mesophyll cells separating the veins, and the relative sizes of inner and outer bundle sheath cells. See Supplementary Methods and Results for discussion of soil nutrients in the Tanzanian plants.

Figure S3. Hand-cut cross-sections showing chloroplasts in both mesophyll and inner bundle sheath cells of Tanzanian plants (A-C) compared to chloroplast localization primarily in the mesophyll of a C_3 plant (D) and the inner bundle sheaths of a C_4 plant (E).

Figure S4. Responses of (A) CO_2 compensation point (CCP) and (B) carboxylation efficiency (CE) to the percent of CO_2 fixed by C_4 acids in a range of C_3 (blue), C_3 - C_4 (green), C_4 -like (orange), and C_4 (red) *Flaveria* species. Data taken from Ku *et al.* (1991), Dai *et al.* (1996), and Vogan & Sage (2013).

Figure S5. Phylogenetic relationships among *A. semialata* accessions. This tree was obtained through Bayesian inference using chloroplast markers, and branch lengths are proportional to estimated divergence time, in arbitrary time units. Bayesian support values are indicated near branches. Tree modified from Lundgren *et al.* (2015), with permission.

Figure S6. Sub-ambient A/C_i curves measured on the Tanzanian plants in high nutrients (grey), moderate nutrients (black), and in the greenhouse at the time of PEPC assay leaf sampling (green).

Table S1. Means and post-hoc Tukey test results for variables with significant population term in ANOVA models presented in Table 3.

Table S2. Stable isotopes and leaf composition in the Tanzanian plants under high (H) and moderate (M) nutrient soils.

Table S3. Leaf anatomy and physiology of the Tanzanian plants under high (H) and moderate (M) nutrient soils.

Table S1. Means and post-hoc Tukey test results for variables with a significant population term in the ANOVA models presented in Table 2.

Group	Population	WUE	LCP
C ₃	CRL	83.2 ^b	2.2 ^a
C ₃	EML	132.7 ^c	10.7 ^{abc}
C ₃	JMS	60.1 ^{ab}	23.6 ^{abcd}
C ₃	KWT	69.37 ^{ab}	32.5 ^{bcd}
Tanzanian	L01	68.5 ^{ab}	51.1 ^d
Tanzanian	L04	81.1 ^b	33.3 ^{cd}
C ₄	AUS	68.9 ^{ab}	25.4 ^{abcd}
C ₄	BF	45.1 ^a	9.6 ^{ab}
C ₄	MAJ	56.8 ^{ab}	12.4 ^{abc}
C ₄	MDG	74.3 ^{ab}	15.4 ^{abc}
C ₄	SFD	83.4 ^b	24.2 ^{abcd}

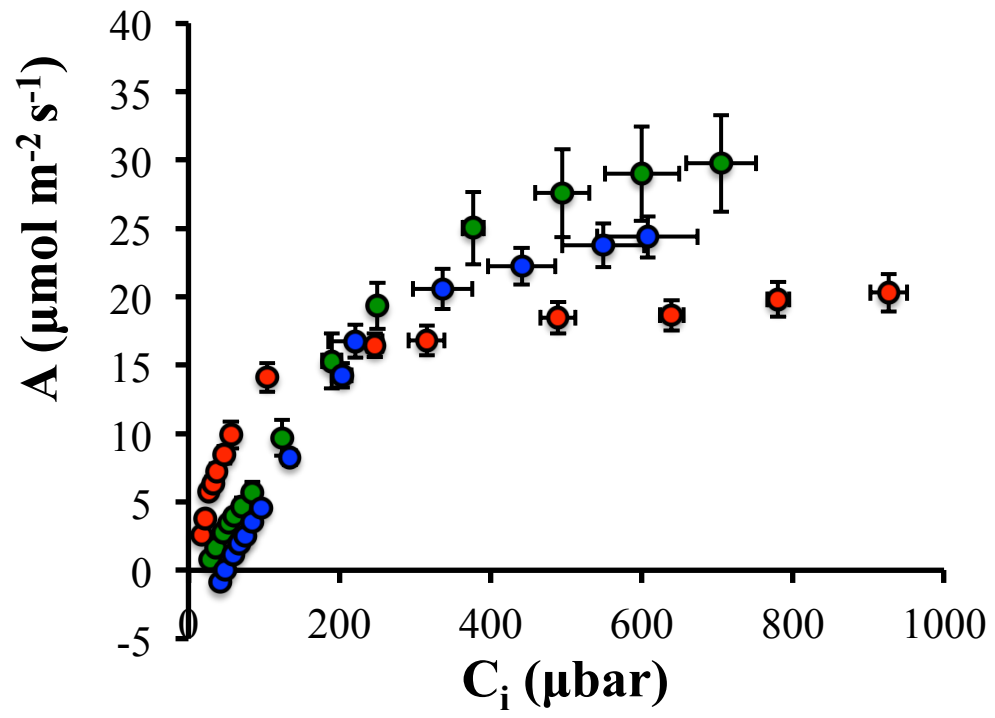
Table S2. Stable isotopes and leaf composition in the Tanzanian plants under high (H) and moderate (M) nutrient soils.

Plant	^{13}C (‰)		^{15}N (‰)		Leaf nitrogen (%)		Leaf carbon (%)		Leaf C:N	
	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>
LO1-A	-26.5	-28.3	2.3	9.4	3.8	2.0	48.8	44.0	12.9	22.1
LO4-A	-25.3	-25.6	1.8	7.6	4.0	1.9	48.0	39.8	12.0	21.1
LO4-B	-25.6	-22.8	2.2	8.6	4.2	2.0	49.6	45.3	11.9	23.0
LO4-D	-26.9	-26.7	0.4	5.5	3.4	2.2	48.7	54.4	14.5	24.5
LO4-E	-28.3	-23.7	2.6	7.6	3.7	1.4	48.6	49.4	13.1	36.6

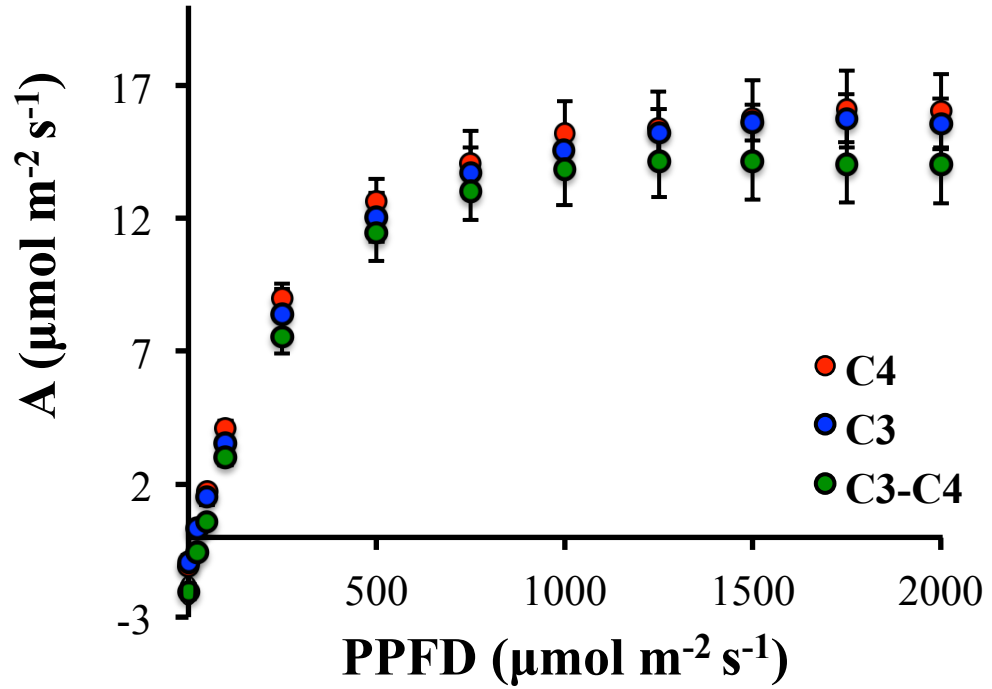
Table S3. Leaf anatomy and physiology of the Tanzanian plants under high (H) and moderate (M) nutrient soils.

Plant	VF		IVMC		IBS size (μm)		OBS size (μm)		A_{400} ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)		$g_{S,400}$ ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)		WUE_{400} ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)		CCP ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)		CE ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	
	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M
LO1-A	5.0	4.7	3.5	4.4	10.5	9.8	13.6	12.6	20.3	24.4	0.3	0.3	68.5	71.1	19.4	6.3	0.10	0.12
LO4-A	5.3	5.5	5.1	5.4	11.6	11.2	14.4	12.8	18.9	20.9	0.2	0.2	92.9	133.5	24.3	6.3	0.09	0.11
LO4-B	5.3	6.3	4.9	5.4	11.6	11.9	11.6	12.5	14.8	14.7	0.2	0.1	82.4	137.0	22.5	12.9	0.08	0.08
LO4-D	5.3	7.0	5.4	6.1	12.5	12.1	13.2	14.1	17.7	15.0	0.2	0.1	74.8	206.3	25.6	8.6	0.13	0.09
LO4-E	7.3	7.3	4.4	5.6	13.0	13.2	12.5	15.7	25.0	13.2	0.3	0.1	74.3	134.3	11.6	17.0	0.12	0.07

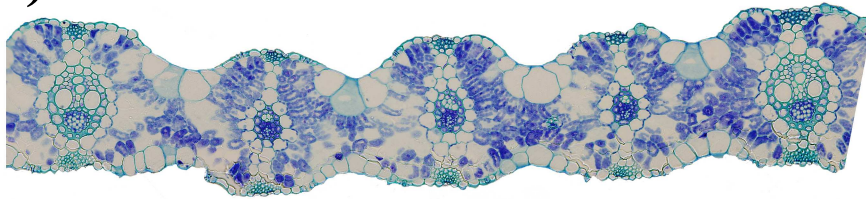
(A)



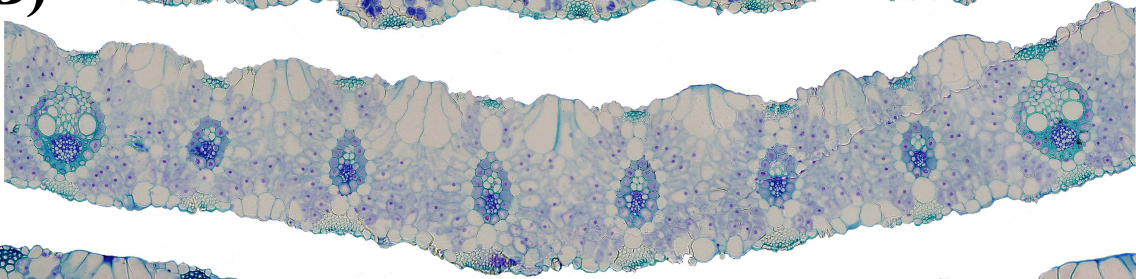
(B)



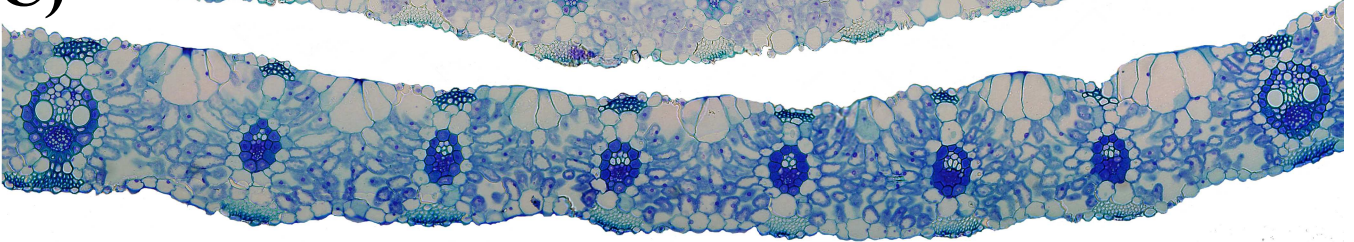
(A)



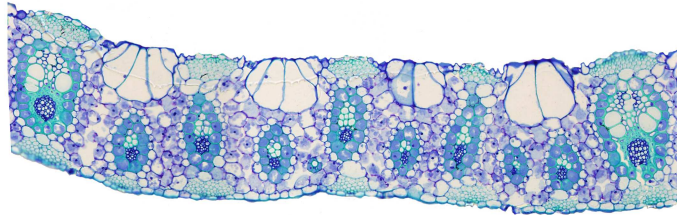
(B)



(C)



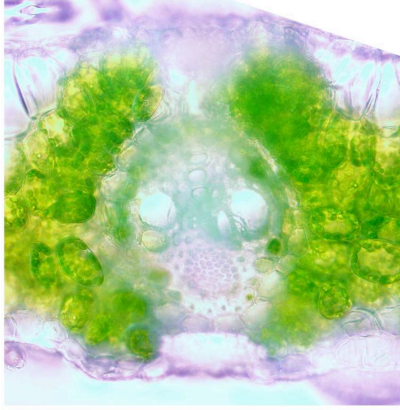
(D)



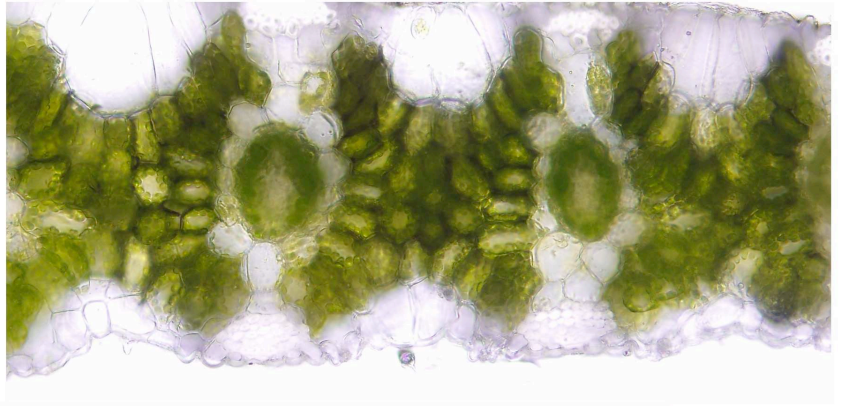
400 μm



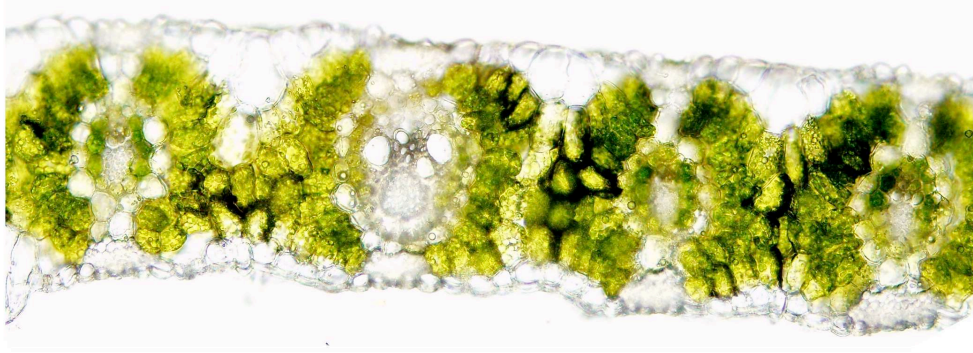
(A)



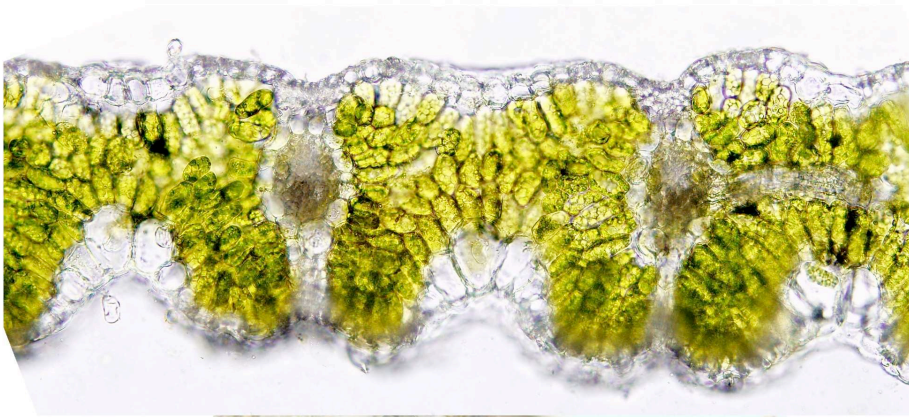
(B)



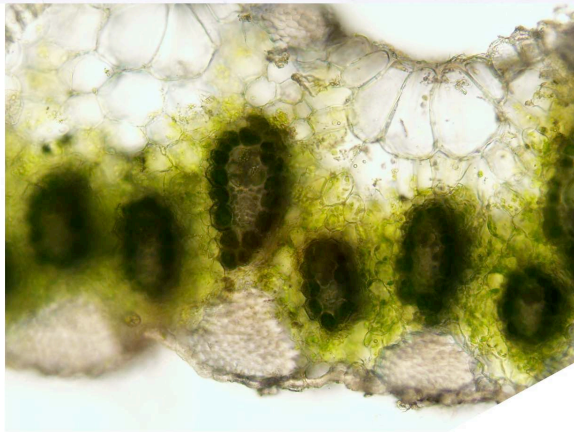
(C)



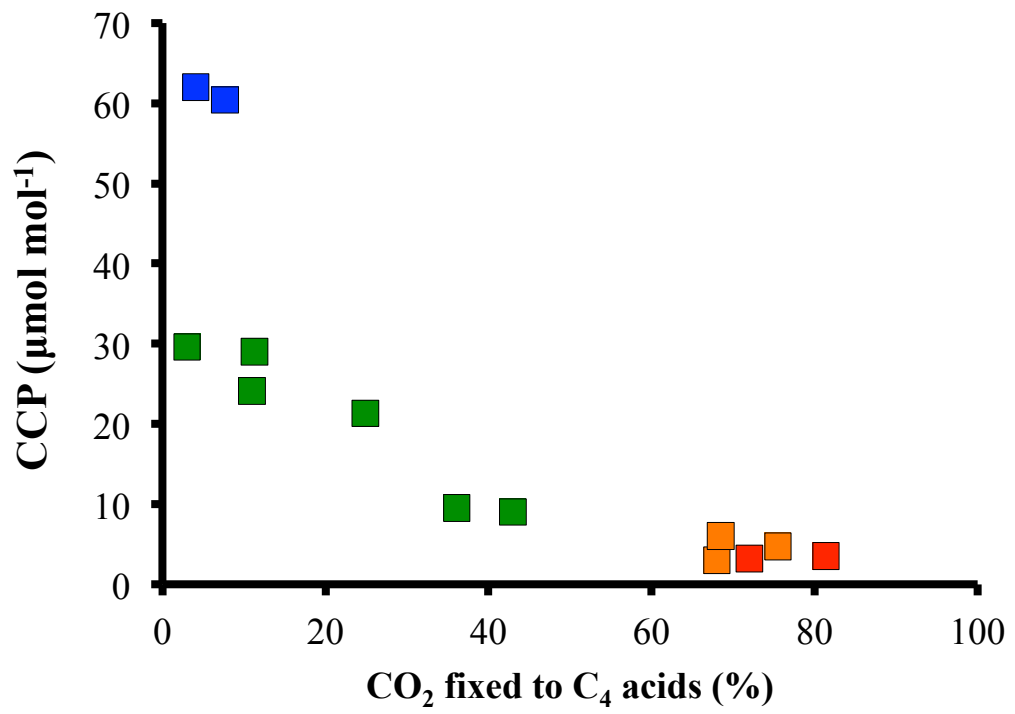
(D)



(E)



(A)



(B)

