

IN VITRO CULTURES AND REGENERATION OF *BIENERTIA SINUSPERSICI*
(CHENOPODIACEAE) UNDER INCREASING CONCENTRATIONS OF SODIUM
CHLORIDE AND CARBON DIOXIDE

by

JOSH JEFFREY ROSNOW

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MOLECULAR PLANT SCIENCES

WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY
Department of Molecular Plant Sciences

MAY 2010

To the Faculty of Washington State University:

The members of the Committee appointed to examine the thesis of JOSH JEFFREY
ROSNOW find it satisfactory and recommend it be accepted.

Gerald E. Edwards, PhD., Chair

Asaph Cousins, PhD.

Amit Dhingra, PhD.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The members of the Edward's lab, past and present

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Abstract

By Josh Jeffrey Rosnow, M.S.
Washington State University
May 2010

Chair: Gerald E. Edwards

The recent discovery of single-cell C₄ photosynthesis in terrestrial plants provided evidence that Kranz anatomy is not required in C₄ plants. Although the majority of C₄ plants have an anatomy that separates carboxylation and decarboxylation activities between two cell types (Kranz anatomy), aquatic macrophytes such as *Hydrilla verticulata*, and *Egeria densa*, and terrestrial plants *Bienertia cycloptera*, *B. sinuspersici* and *Suaeda aralocaspica*, can all conduct C₄ photosynthesis within an individual chlorenchyma cells. The terrestrial single –cell C₄ species provides an interesting opportunity to study the developmental transition of chloroplast from C₃ to C₄ photosynthesis. Investigations into the development of photosynthesis in *B. sinuspersici* in response to environmental and chemical factors were made using callus cells generated from leaf material and using young shoots developed from callus tissue. Cultures under a high level of CO₂ (1.2% versus ambient) increased callus growth, and was essential for development of shoots, roots, and plant regeneration. Green callus appears in a C₃ default mode as they have

minimal levels of C₄ enzymes and lack the structural development of the single-cell C₄ system; whereas, regenerating shoots develop expression of C₄ enzymes and features of photosynthetic cells characteristic of mature leaves in a normal plant. The effect of increasing sodium chloride in the media (0 to 200 mM NaCl) resulted in an increase in tissue osmolality, size of plantlets, and overall growth and regeneration, while having no effect on C₄ protein expression. These results can be used as a foundation for developing a transformation system and provide insight into developmental events that are involved in the formation of single cell C₄ species. As a C₄ system that lacks Kranz anatomy, a better understanding of how *B. sinuspersici* develops may facilitate the design of a transgenic system for incorporating C₄ photosynthesis into major C₃ crop species.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER ONE	1
GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
Modes of Photosynthesis	1
Single-Cell C ₄ Photosynthesis	5
Tissue Culture	9
Research Aims	13
References	14
CHAPTER TWO	22
DEVELOPMENT OF <i>IN VITRO</i> REGENERATION FOR <i>BIENERTIA SINUSPERSICI</i> FROM MATURE EXPLANTS UNDER PHOTOAUTOTROPHIC CULTURE CONDITIONS.....	23
Abstract	23
Introduction	24
Materials and Methods	26
Results.....	33
Discussion	37
References	44
CHAPETER THREE	81
FUTURE RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES FOR <i>BIENERTIA SINUSPERSICI</i>	81

Discussion	81
References	84

TABLES: CHAPTER TWO

Table 1. <i>B. sinuspersici</i> plantlet rooting and transplantation success	70
Table 2. Effects of salt treatment and CO ₂ concentration on soluble protein and chlorophyll content in <i>B. sinuspersici</i> plantlets after 9 weeks.....	74

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

Figure 1. Compartmental depiction of the CO ₂ pump for C ₄ photosynthesis	3
Figure 2. Chlorenchyma cell development model for <i>Bienertia sinuspersici</i>	8
Figure 3. Diagrammatic representation of totipotent cells used for <i>in vitro</i> culture.....	10

CHAPTER 2

Figure 1. Media composition used for each Stage of growth	28
Figure 2. Development of Red Nodular Structure during Stage I	59
Figure 3. Light micrograph of Red Nodular Structure (RNS) from <i>Bienertia sinuspersici</i>	60
Figure 4. <i>B. sinuspersici</i> callus grown with different carbon sources.....	61
Figure 5. <i>B. sinuspersici</i> callus grown at different CO ₂ concentrations	63
Figure 6. Effect of CO ₂ concentration on chloroplast ultrastructure of <i>B. sinuspersici</i> callus	65
Figure 7. Western blot comparison of <i>B. sinuspersici</i> protein from a mature plant's leaves and callus grown after Stage 3 conditions.....	67
Figure 8. Red nodular structure (RNS) after 6 weeks of growth	68
Figure 9. Average area of regenerating plantlets under different NaCl concentrations after Stage 3	69
Figure 10. Shoots of <i>B. sinuspersici</i> after growth in Stage 3	71
Figure 11. Light micrograph of leaf cross-section of <i>B. sinuspersici</i> from regenerating shoots ..	72
Figure 12. Leaf osmolality of plantlets cultured under varying NaCl levels in <i>B. sinuspersici</i> at the end of Stage 3.....	73
Figure 13. Western blot analysis of plantlets grown at 1.2% CO ₂ under varying NaCl levels in <i>B. sinuspersici</i> after Stage 3.....	75

Figure 14. ImageJ analysis of Western blots of plantlets grown at 1.2% CO₂ under varying NaCl levels in *B. sinuspersici* after Stage 376

Figure 15. Rooted *B. sinuspersici* growing in soil under 1.2% CO₂ in full-gas microboxes under 1.2% CO₂.....77

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES: CHAPTER TWO

Figure S1. Media composition comparison of Chu N₆ and MS.....78

Figure S2. Comparison of regenerating shoots on MS versus Chu N₆ media79

Figure S3. *B. sinuspersici* callus after Stage 2 grown with different carbon sources.....80

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, teachers, and advisors

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Modes of Photosynthesis

Photosynthesis in terrestrial plants, aquatic algae, and cyanobacteria involves the production of carbohydrates and amino acids by utilizing light as an energy source and CO₂ fixation by the enzyme ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco). The photosynthetic carbon reduction cycle (alternatively called the Calvin - Benson cycle) operates in the stroma of the chloroplast, where Rubisco catalyzes the entry of CO₂ into the cycle, by generating two C₃ compounds (triose phosphates). Plants in which the first product of atmospheric CO₂ fixation is a C₃ compound, are referred to as C₃ species, and this metabolic pathway operates in all chlorenchyma cells.

Rubisco is also a bifunctional enzyme acting as an oxygenase, as well as a carboxylase, utilizing O₂ as a substrate which leads to photorespiration with a loss of fixed carbon (Edwards et al. 1983). The theoretical minimum energy requirements for CO₂ fixation, to the level of triose phosphate in C₃ plants, according to the energetics of the C₃ cycle, in the absence of photorespiration are 3 ATP and 2 NADPH per CO₂. In warmer climates, CO₂ can limit photosynthesis due to the decreased solubility of CO₂ relative to O₂, decreased specificity factor of Rubisco to utilize CO₂, and under water limiting conditions reduced stomatal conductance increases CO₂ diffusive resistance from the atmosphere to the chloroplasts (Ku et al. 1977; Jordan et al. 1984; Bernacchi et al. 2002). When CO₂ is limiting there is an increase in photorespiration which generates CO₂ and uses more ATP and NADPH to regenerate Calvin cycle intermediates, lowering the efficiency of carbon assimilation (Edwards *et al.* 1983). Photorespiration can reduce

overall yield in economically important C₃ crops such as wheat, rice, soybean, and potato.

To overcome the effect of limited CO₂ on photosynthesis, some terrestrial plants developed ways to increase the level of CO₂ at the site of Rubisco. Concentrating CO₂ around Rubisco decreases the oxygenase reaction and the loss of carbon through the photorespiratory pathway. These modes of photosynthesis include C₄ and Crassulacean Acid Metabolism (CAM), which differ in terms of spatial (C₄ photosynthesis) versus temporal (CAM photosynthesis) separation of atmospheric CO₂ fixation and reduction of CO₂ to carbohydrate.

Species that concentrate CO₂ through a C₄ dicarboxylic acid cycle during the day are called C₄ plants, and have a leaf anatomy that is different from C₃ plants. In the majority of C₄ plants, the most observable difference seen with a light microscope is the presence of chloroplasts in both mesophyll and distinctive bundle sheath cells, which is called Kranz anatomy due to its wreath-like appearance. Carbonic anhydrase (CA) catalyzes the first enzymatic step in C₄ photosynthesis, where it equilibrates the aerial CO₂ to HCO₃⁻ in the cytosol of mesophyll cells. The second cytoplasmic step in the C₄ pathway is the formation of the C₄ acid oxaloacetate (OAA) from HCO₃⁻ and phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC), which can then be transaminated to aspartate or reduced to malate. The C₄ acids are then shuttled to bundle sheath cells, the compartment containing Rubisco, where they are decarboxylated by C₄-acid-decarboxylating enzymes (Figure 1) (Edwards *et al.* 2004).

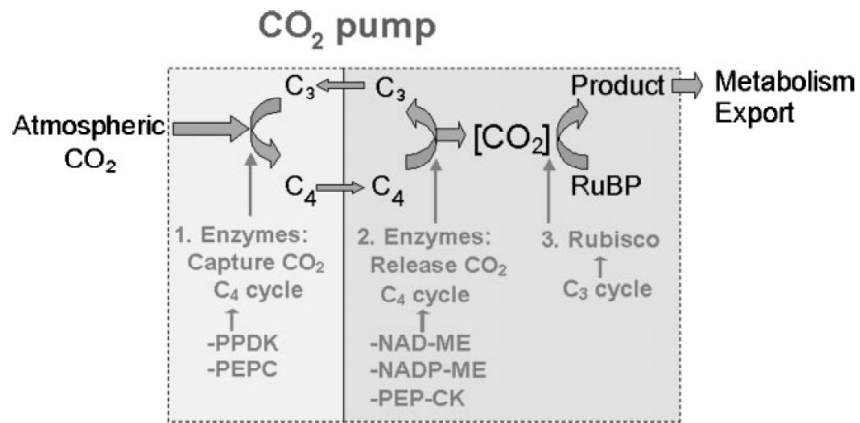


Figure 1 Compartmental depiction of the CO₂ pump for C₄ photosynthesis.

There are three well-defined biochemical subtypes of C₄ plants based on differences in the type of C₄ acid decarboxylases utilized, and their compartmentalization: the chloroplastic NADP-malic enzyme (NADP-ME), the mitochondrial NAD-malic enzyme (NAD-ME), and the cytosolic phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (PEP-CK). The CO₂ released during decarboxylation is assimilated in the Calvin cycle, as in C₃ plants (Edwards *et al.* 1983; Hatch 1987). In the process of decarboxylation of the C₄ acids by malic enzymes, pyruvate is formed in bundle sheath cells, and transported to mesophyll cells for the regeneration of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) by pyruvate, Pi dikinase (PPDK), which requires the input of 2 ATP. The extra cost of 2 ATP per CO₂ fixed in C₄ plants, is in addition to the 3 ATP required for the Benson-Calvin cycle. This extra expenditure of energy becomes favorable under conditions when CO₂ availability is limiting, such as drought and salinity. CAM is a metabolic adaptation to arid environments where stomata are closed during much of the day and open at night. During the night, the primary fixation of CO₂ is catalyzed by PEPC, resulting in the formation of malic acid, which is stored in the vacuole. During the day, this acid is decarboxylated to provide CO₂ for fixation by the C₃ cycle. The

CAM and C₄ pathway rely on the regulated gene expression, compartmentalization, and activation state of PEPC for proper functioning of the carbon concentrating mechanism.

As noted above, in the mesophyll cells of C₄ plants, primary fixation of CO₂ occurs via PEPC, and the CO₂ is concentrated by the C₄ cycle in the Rubisco containing bundle sheath cells. Thus, C₄ photosynthesis is a highly integrated process characterized by difference in anatomy and biochemistry, with cell specific enzyme expression required for an operational C₄ pathway. There is natural variation in biochemistry of the C₄ pathway and differences in anatomy among C₄ genera. There are also some plant species that have an intermediate C₃-C₄ type of photosynthesis which combine some traits of both types of CO₂ fixation. The evolution of different C₄ systems has occurred at least 50 independent times in 19 families of angiosperms (Sage 2004; Muhaidat et al. 2007). The Chenopodiaceae family has the largest number of C₄ species with the greatest diversity in leaf anatomy among dicot families, having C₄ Kranz anatomy and C₄ single-cell type species, as well as C₃ type species (Voznesenskaya et al. 2008). This diversity suggests that plants under conditions of limiting CO₂ can evolve different mechanisms for survival that include the compartmentation of enzymes and changes in leaf anatomy, which results in the alteration of Rubisco kinetics, and the development of different forms of the C₄ cycle.

C₄ plants evolved from C₃ plants in environments that are conducive to high rates of photorespiration, an adaptation to increase carbon assimilation. Isoforms of the enzymes required for the formation of the C₄ cycle, are already present at low levels in C₃ plants. During evolution of C₄ photosynthesis new isoforms developed with unique promoters and splicing variations, which controls the level of expression and tissue

specificity (Ku et al. 1996; Nomura et al. 2000). Genes encoding C₄ isoforms have been identified in Kranz type plants, but genes which are required to develop Kranz type anatomy have not been identified, and little is known about the transcriptional program regulating C₄ differentiation (Covshoff et al. 2008). Evolution of Kranz anatomy requires close vein spacing, development of bundle sheath cells with chloroplasts having Rubisco and the C₃ cycle, and mesophyll chloroplasts supporting the capture of CO₂ in the C₄ cycle. Understanding leaf development has been limited by lack of identification of genes that effect vein spacing and differentiation of C₄ bundle sheath and mesophyll cells (Mitchell 2007). In the single-cell C₄ system of *B. sinuspersici*, it is known that very early in development the photosynthetic chlorenchyma cells are in a C₃ default mode, with all chloroplasts containing Rubisco; as the leaf matures, there is a transition to a C₄ system with more transcripts and proteins of the C₄ cycle being expressed, and development of dimorphic chloroplasts (Figure 2) (Voznesenskaya et al. 2005; Lara et al. 2008; Park et al. 2009a). How differentiation of chloroplasts is accomplished, and maintained, are major questions in C₄ biology.

Single Cell C₄ photosynthesis

Until a few years ago it was believed that Kranz anatomy was required for the operation of a C₄ cycle in terrestrial plants, with strict compartmentation of C₄ and Calvin cycle enzymes in mesophyll and bundle sheath cell chloroplasts, respectively, to prevent futile CO₂ cycling and leakage (Edwards *et al.* 2004). Kranz anatomy is more or less a fixed property of C₄ leaves, with the expression of Rubisco and C₄ photosynthesis genes confined to leaves and regulated by light and photosynthetic metabolism (Patel et al. 2008). More knowledge about interactions between the chloroplast and nucleus,

mitochondria, and peroxisomes would help to explain the environmental or developmental interactions that regulate the formation of C₄ anatomy for increased acquisition of carbon.

Most C₄ plants and many CAM plants function with obligate C₄ type photosynthesis. There are facultative CAM species which can function in C₃ or CAM mode depending on environment conditions, or stage of development (Winter et al. 1996). A well characterized example is the common ice plant *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*, where a switch from C₃ to CAM mode is induced by water stress, caused by drought or salinity (Winter et al. 2007). This facultative mode of nighttime CO₂ fixation limits water loss during the day and increases water use efficiency.

With respect to C₄ plants, the aquatic monocots *H. verticillata* (L.f.) Royle and *Edgera densa* are facultative single-cell C₄ NADP-ME species which have developed mechanisms to increase photosynthesis under conditions of low CO₂ availability. These species exhibits C₃ photosynthesis under high levels of dissolved CO₂ during cooler low light conditions in the winter, but when the external CO₂ concentration declines during the summer, and the temperature and light intensity increases the C₄ cycle is induced. The C₄ and Calvin cycles operate in the same cell with PEPC and Rubisco confined to the cytosol and chloroplast, respectively. During C₄ induction, a specific C₄ PEPC isoform is the first enzyme of the C₄ cycle to increase in expression. Once in the C₄ state, inorganic carbon is fixed in the leaf cytosol by PEPC and the C₄ acid is transported into the chloroplast where it is converted to malate, whose subsequent decarboxylation by NADP-ME causes CO₂ accumulation in the vicinity of Rubisco (Bowes et al. 2002; Lara et al. 2002). In this system, ineffective CO₂ cycling is apparently avoided by an intracellular

separation of the initial carboxylation and subsequent decarboxylation events between cytosol and chloroplast, but it is not clear what prevents leakage of CO₂ away from Rubisco and futile cycling. Unlike the terrestrial C₄ plants that have dimorphic chloroplasts, there appears to be only one type of chloroplast present in the NADP-ME *H. verticillata* and *E. densa*. The leaves of these species also show a pH-polarity, similar to mesophyll-cell wall acidification, with the abaxial side pH decreasing to facilitate the uptake of inorganic carbon. At high light intensities and low dissolved carbon concentration, acidification shifts the equilibrium of HCO₃⁻/CO₂ towards CO₂, to increase the concentration of CO₂ inside the leaf (Bowes *et al.* 2002; Lara *et al.* 2002). In these examples of facultative aquatic and CAM plants, the photosynthetic carbon metabolism operates within a single cell with no differentiation of two cell types required. This function of C₄ with monomorphic chloroplast is in contrast with the Kranz type dimorphic chloroplasts where structural differentiation and biochemical specialization of photosynthetic cells is necessary. Another inducible C₄ system in which Kranz type anatomy is formed occurs in the genus *Eleocharis* (Cyperaceae). For example *Eleocharis vivipara* expresses C₄ characteristics under terrestrial conditions and C₃ characteristics under submerged aquatic conditions (Ueno 2001).

The three terrestrial single-cell C₄ species discovered in the family Chenopodiaceae are *Bienertia cycloptera* (Voznesenskaya *et al.* 2002), *B. sinuspersici* (Akhani *et al.* 2005), and *Suaeda aralocaspica* (Voznesenskaya *et al.* 2001). These species grow in semi-desert areas in Central Asia and around the Persian Gulf, under high temperatures, limiting water, and saline soils (Akhani *et al.* 2005). *B. sinuspersici* performs C₄ photosynthesis under high salt concentrations and accumulates large

quantities of salt ions and compatible solutes in their leaves (Park et al. 2009b). The current model of chlorenchyma cell development in *B. sinuspersici* (figure 2), starts with a small heterotrophic cell containing monomorphic chloroplasts, a prominent nucleus, and a few small vacuoles. Chlorenchyma cell maturation leads to more photoautotrophic development and, two cytoplasmic domains, separated by a large central vacuole, interconnected by cytoplasmic channels (Park *et al.* 2009a). The mature chlorenchyma cells once developed have a stable structure, maintaining two cytoplasmic compartments, even when grown under very low light (Lara *et al.* 2008). In mature chlorenchyma cells, peripheral chloroplasts have PPDK and lack Rubisco while the central compartment chloroplasts contain Rubisco and lack PPDK (Voznesenskaya *et al.* 2002). *B. sinuspersici* dimorphic chloroplasts are thought to be specialized for C₄ functions analogous to the dimorphic chloroplasts occurring in Kranz type C₄.

Model for *Bienertia sinuspersici* leaf cell development

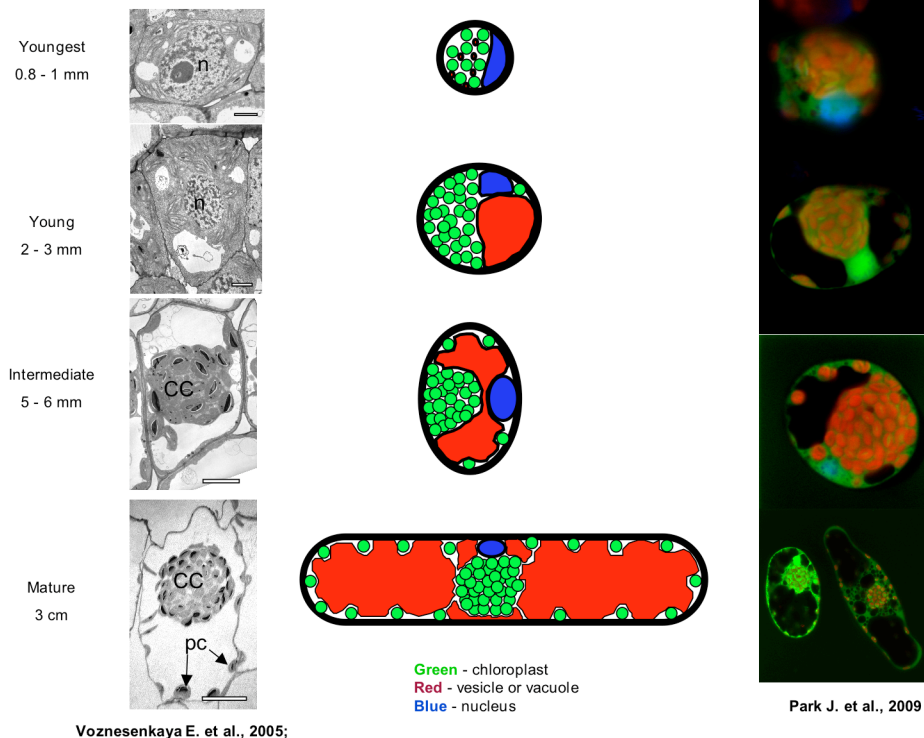


Figure 2. Chlorenchyma cell development model, showing a gradual increase in cell size with the development of a central compartment (CC). Peripheral chloroplasts (PC) are separated from the CC chloroplasts by a large central vacuole, with interconnecting cytoplasmic channels.

Tissue culture

Ironically Gottlieb Haberlandt, the first botanist to hypothesize that the two photosynthetic cell types in Kranz-type plants may have separate functions, was also the first to attempt *in vitro* culture of plants using leaf cells of *Tradescantia reflexa* (Haberlandt 1884; Haberlandt 1902; Yamada 1985). Years later, growth of callus cultures was achieved, as other scientists followed with studies that confirmed the presence of photosynthetic activity in culture (LaRosa et al. 1984; Yamada 1985). Cultured plant cells can be regarded as omnipotent, possessing the complete genetic information necessary for constructing an intact plant. In fact, single cells or protoplasts from different cell types of several plant species have been regenerated into intact plants. Explant material derived from a plant, normally contains a diversity of cell types, and not all are equally capable of embryogenesis or responsive to re-determination (Williams et al. 1986). Some cells are more totipotent than others, having a greater capacity to continue to divide, regenerate a new organ such as the shoot or an entire plant. Induced regeneration from *in vitro* tissue cultures can occur indirectly from callus, or directly from cells of an organized structure such as a stem segment or zygotic embryo (Figure 3). The hypocotyl and cotyledons of germinating seeds are a favorable source of explant

material, due to the developmental plasticity and ease of cell proliferation. Cells of a maturing tissue such as a leaf are often too specialized or differentiated to be a good source of cells for *in vitro* growth and plant regeneration.

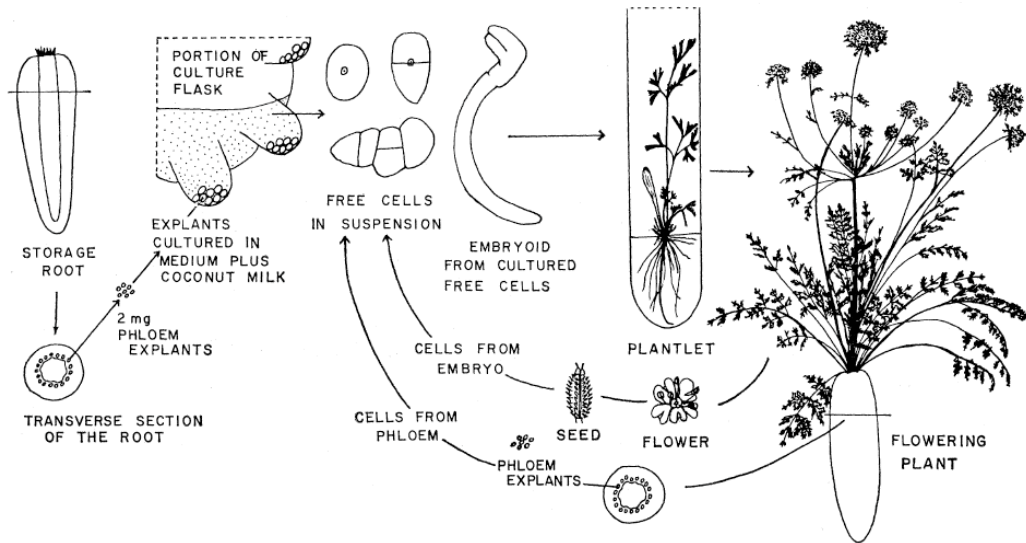


Figure 3. Diagrammatic representation of the cycle of growth of the carrot plant showing the source of totipotent cells used for *in vitro* cultures is often derived from the phloem procambium or the embryo (Steward et al. 1964).

Plant regeneration starts with embryogenesis, or the coordinated behavior of cells *in vitro*. The explant material may require re-determination to the embryogenic state, by chemical factors such as hormones that affect coordinated cell growth. Regeneration of intact plants from transformed tissues is not always an easy task. In a number of systems it is easy to transform tissue that is not competent for regeneration. The two primary modes of introducing new genetic elements into plant cells are micro particle bombardment and *Agrobacterium* mediated, and both have been used successfully for many C_3 plants. With respect to C_4 plants, C_4 NADP-ME species *Flaveria bidentis*,

Saccharum spp. L., *Zea mays*, and *Sorghum bicolor* L. Moench can be transformed using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* infection of explants followed by regeneration of shoots from callus, as well as the CAM plant *Kalanchoe blossfeldiana* (Chitty et al. 1994; Aida et al. 1996; Arencibia et al. 1998; Frame et al. 2002; Howe et al. 2006; Sunagawa et al. 2007). Recently, the inducible CAM plant *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum* and the first NAD-ME type C₄ species, *Cleome gynandra* L. were successfully transformed using hypocotyl and cotyledon explant material mediated by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Sunagawa et al. 2007; Newell et al. 2010). The key to these efficient transformation protocols was the selection for tissue or cells that have the ability to regenerate. However, currently there is no transformable C₄ plant species, which provides an effective model system similar to *Arabidopsis* (easily transformed, fast life cycle, small size, and small genome with sequence information).

Callus cell cultures can be described as a mixotrophic population of cells, with most of the cells being heterotrophic when grown on a high exogenous concentration of sugars, most often sucrose, at much higher concentrations than found in photosynthetic cells *in vivo*. Heterotrophic metabolism involves the uptake of organic carbon from the external environment in the form of sugar to support growth via mitochondrial respiration. When both organic carbon and CO₂ are acquired and utilized in cultures, the cell metabolism is described as being mixotrophic. Photoautotrophic metabolism is centered on using light energy to generate chemical energy inside the cell, which is used to fix CO₂ and assimilate inorganic nitrogen to support growth without any exogenous sugar or organic carbon. *In vitro* photoautotrophic growth of callus cells is often achieved by elevating the concentration of the CO₂ in the environment (Berlyn et al.

1975; Husemann et al. 1977; Rogers et al. 1987; Ziegler et al. 1989). Increasing the available CO₂ concentration surrounding callus cultures helps with chloroplast development, including thylakoid membrane organization and increases the soluble protein and chlorophyll content.

The development of callus photoautotrophic metabolism and growth has been linked with available carbon in the environment and media. Inclusion of 50 mM glucose in the media of *Chenopodium rubrum* callus cultures was found to suppress Rubisco small subunit expression, and the expression of C₄ genes in maize mesophyll protoplasts is lowered when sugars are added (Krapp et al. 1993; Jang et al. 1994). The activity of PEPC was found to be higher when sugar was replaced with soluble starch in the media using *M. crystallinum* calli (Yen et al. 1995). There have been mixed reports on the development of C₄ photosynthesis in photomixotrophic callus cultures of Kranz type C₄ plants. *Portulaca oleracea* had up to 45% of the radiolabel CO₂ incorporated in C₄ acids during a 4 sec. pulse with ¹⁴CO₂ with the label going into to sugars during a chase with ¹²CO₂, suggesting function of a C₄ cycle (Kennedy et al. 1977). *Froelichia gracilis* had 50% of the ¹⁴CO₂ label in malate during the pulse, but whether there was transfer of label from the C₄ acids was not determined (Laetsch 1974; Kennedy et al. 1977). In other C₄ callus, 40% of the total ¹⁴CO₂ in *Gisekia pharnaceoides* L. was found in C₃ compounds with 30% in malate and 10% in aspartate, while *Zea Mays* was found to perform C₃ photosynthesis with little label in C₄ acids (Kennedy et al. 1977; Seeni et al. 1983; Lavergne et al. 1992). Typical anatomy of green callus has large parenchyma cells containing chloroplasts making up most of the tissue, with pockets of meristematic cells and small clusters of lignified cells randomly scattered throughout the callus. Activity of

PEP carboxylase is low in C₃ plants, but can be higher in callus tissue when expressed on a mg of protein basis (Hanson et al. 1972) There have been no reports of callus cultures of single-cell C₄ species, which is the topic of this thesis.

Research Aims

Bienertia sinuspersici is a halophytic species being developed as a model system for studying single-cell C₄ photosynthesis. Mature chlorenchyma cells have dimorphic chloroplasts in two separate cytoplasmic domains that are peripherally and centrally located, analogous to mesophyll and bundle sheath cells of Kranz anatomy. The selective positioning of chloroplasts, peroxisomes and mitochondria allows increased carbon acquisition and decreased photorespiration through C₄ function. This unusual structure of a chlorenchyma cell makes it a good model system for studying organelle interactions. A procedure for plant regeneration needs to be established for future genetic investigations on requirements for development of single-cell C₄ photosynthesis.

Studies on the mechanism of intracellular development of dimorphic chloroplasts, and spatial compartmentalization of C₄ functions, will provide significant information on developmental plant biology. Also, research on halophytic species like *B. sinuspersici* may provide insight into how these plants tolerate stress and the underlying cellular mechanisms that may be necessary to increase future agricultural production, such as high nitrogen use efficiency, salinity acclimation, and drought tolerance. The goal of this research is to develop optimum media composition for regeneration of an entire *B. sinuspersici* plant starting from stem explant.

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CHAPTER TWO

DEVELOPMENT OF *IN VITRO* REGENERATION OF *BIENERTIA SINUSPERSICI* FROM MATURE EXPLANTS UNDER PHOTOAUTOTROPHIC CULTURE CONDITIONS

Abstract

Bienertia sinuspersici has an unusual form of C₄ photosynthesis that occurs in individual photosynthetic cells, by development of two cytoplasmic domains with dimorphic chloroplasts. The objective of the study was to find appropriate conditions for the *in vitro* culture of stem explants in order to develop an efficient plant regeneration system. Stem explants developed either callus with or without red nodular structures (RNS). Increasing the CO₂ concentration during growth of callus without RNS caused an increase in overall size, protein content, and photosystem II yield, while structural and biochemical analysis indicated the cells had C₃ type photosynthesis similar to the youngest chlorenchyma cells which develop during leaf initiation in *B. sinuspersici*. Plants were successfully regenerated *in vitro* from callus having RNS. The same concentration of MS salts and vitamins, with 5 mM phosphate, was used throughout the three stages of regeneration. The hormones used were 1 mg l⁻¹ dichloropenoxy-acetic acid (2,4-D) for the first three weeks (Stage 1), 2 mg l⁻¹ 6-benzylamino purine (6-BAP) for the next three weeks (Stage 2), with no hormones for the last three weeks (Stage 3). The source of organic carbon in the media was 87 mM sucrose for Stage 1, 43 mM sucrose plus 1.5% soluble starch for Stage 2, and no organic carbon source for Stage 3. During Stage 3 the effect of 1.2% CO₂ versus current ambient CO₂ on photoautotrophic

growth was studied. Raising the concentration of CO₂ to 1.2% compared to current ambient CO₂, had a large effect on regeneration success, increasing efficiency of shoot and root development, and increasing size of plantlets, leaf soluble protein and chlorophyll concentration. Anatomical analysis of plantlets under 1.2% CO₂ showed leaves developed C₄ type chlorenchyma cells, including expression of key C₄ biochemical enzymes. Increasing salinity in the media from 0 to 200 mM NaCl, increased tissue osmolality, average plantlet area and regeneration success, but did not affect protein or chlorophyll content. In summary, rooted plantlets of the single-cell C₄ halophyte *B. sinuspersici* can be generated by culture of stem explants.

Introduction

The recent discovery of single-cell C₄ photosynthesis in terrestrial land plants raises many important questions about the mechanism of development and function of this form of carbon acquisition. Although the majority of C₄ plants have an anatomy that separates C₄ carboxylation and decarboxylation activities between two cell types (Kranz anatomy), three terrestrial plants in the family Chenopodiaceae *Bienertia cycloptera*, *B. sinuspersici* and *Suaeda aralocaspica*, all can conduct C₄ photosynthesis within individual cells (for review on single-cell C₄ photosynthesis see Edwards *et al.* 2004). These species are unique in their development of two cytoplasmic domains with dimorphic chloroplasts for spatial separation of C₄ function. These are NAD-ME type C₄ species that are proposed to function analogous to this type with Kranz anatomy. In the scheme for NAD-ME subtype having Kranz anatomy, alanine plus atmospheric CO₂ is converted to aspartate in the mesophyll cells (through carbonic anhydrase, alanine

aminotransferase, pyruvate Pi dikinase, PEP carboxylase and aspartate aminotransferase). In the bundle sheath cells, aspartate is metabolized to pyruvate plus CO₂ in the mitochondria (through aspartate aminotransferase, malate dehydrogenase, and NAD-malic enzyme) the pyruvate converted to alanine in the cytosol, and the CO₂ assimilated by Rubisco in the C₃ cycle. This results in a intercellular shuttle of aspartate and alanine in the C₄ cycle (Kanai et al. 1999; Sage et al. 1999). In this C₄ system one can monitor the levels of PEPC, PPDK, NAD-ME and Rubisco as indicators of expression of C₄ and C₃ pathway. *Bienertia* spp. have a peripheral compartment with one chloroplast type which is proposed to function analogous to mesophyll cells, and a central compartment having another chloroplast type and mitochondria which are proposed to function analogous to bundle sheath cells in C₄ species having Kranz anatomy.

The current model for chlorenchyma cell development in *Bienertia* spp. begins with a small heterotrophic cell containing monomorphic chloroplasts, a prominent nucleus, and a few small vacuoles. During photoautotrophic development a large central vacuole separates two cytoplasmic domains, with one type of chloroplast in the periphery of the cell interconnected by channels to the central compartment containing another type of chloroplast, along with mitochondria and peroxisomes (Voznesenskaya et al. 2005; Park et al. 2009a). The metabolic switch from small dividing heterotrophic cells that are sinks for sucrose into mature photoautotrophic cells that are net exporters of sucrose, is an important developmental transition for carbon fixation.

In the current study, *in vitro* development of green callus and regeneration of plantlets from stem explants of *B. sinuspersici* was evaluated. Exploring the effects of different chemical and environmental factors on callus and regenerating shoots will help

establish what chemical or developmental signals are required for optimal growth. Analyzing expression of Rubisco and C₄ cycle enzymes, and structural development of chlorenchyma cells was used to evaluate the degree of development of C₃ versus C₄ photosynthesis during regeneration in callus versus plantlets. Since *B. sinuspersici* is a halophyte growing in the salty coastal areas surrounding the Persian Gulf (Akhani et al. 2005), increasing concentrations of NaCl (0 to 200 mM) in the media was evaluated. Additionally, growth under high CO₂ was evaluated to determine if it effects autotrophic growth and development of the C₄ system.

Materials and Methods

Plant Material

B. sinuspersici was grown in growth chambers with a day/night temperatures of 35°/18°C, and a 14/10 h photoperiod, with a photosynthetic flux density of 1100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Since *B. sinuspersici* is a halophyte, for optimum growth 150 mM sodium chloride was added to the nutrient medium of Peter Professional fertilizer (20:20:20) given once a week; otherwise, plants were watered on alternative days as needed.

Tissue Growth

Explant material of *B. sinuspersici* was washed in a 20% bleach solution with 0.2% (w/v) Triton X-100, rinsed once in 70% ethanol for 30 sec, and then subsequently rinsed three times in sterilized water for five min each. Stem segments were cut into 1-5 cm pieces and placed in Petri dishes (100 mm). Initial comparisons of culture media was made with Chu N₆ (Chu et al. 1975) and MS (Murashige et al. 1962) media. The major difference between the two media types is the concentration of available nitrogen, with

MS media having 41.2 mM NH₄ and 60 mM NO₃ while, N₆ has 3.5 mM NH₄ and 28 mM NO₃, see supplemental table S1 for full composition of the media used. Using regenerated shoots of *B. sinuspersici* initiated from mature leaf explants it was found that MS medium (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, was the best media to use for *in vitro* cultures (Fig. S1), as it produced less hyperhydric shoots. For Stage 1, explant material was placed on MS media with 5 mM phosphate, buffered with MES (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, 1 mg l⁻¹ 2,4-D, supplemented with 87 mM sucrose. Different concentrations of salt (0, 25, 50, 100, and 200 mM NaCl) were added to the plates and continued at these levels for each subsequent re-planting. The plates were placed in a tissue cabinet at 25°C with a photosynthetic photon flux density of 70.5 μmol quanta m⁻²sec⁻¹. After 3 weeks of growth on 2,4-D media, red nodular structures (RNS) were replated to Stage 2 media, which was same as above, except 43 mM sucrose and 1.5% starch was used with 2 mg l⁻¹ BAP, and plates were placed back in the tissue cabinet (25°C, 70.5 PPF). After another 3 weeks of growth, regenerating plantlets or callus was transferred to Stage 3 MS media with 5 mM phosphate and no organic carbon, in full-gas micro boxes (Green Arc Inc.) These boxes were placed inside a larger 76 X 61 X 61 cm hinged Plexiglas box, inside a growth chamber set at 30°C with a PPF of 273 μmol quanta m⁻² sec⁻¹ (measured inside the full-gas microbox inside the Plexiglas box). The Plexiglas boxes contained either CO₂ at current ambient or 1.2%. The latter concentration of CO₂ was obtained by controlled feeding of CO₂ into the chamber from a CO₂ gas cylinder (measured using an infrared CO₂ analyzer). The composition of the media for the 3 Stages is shown in Figure 1.

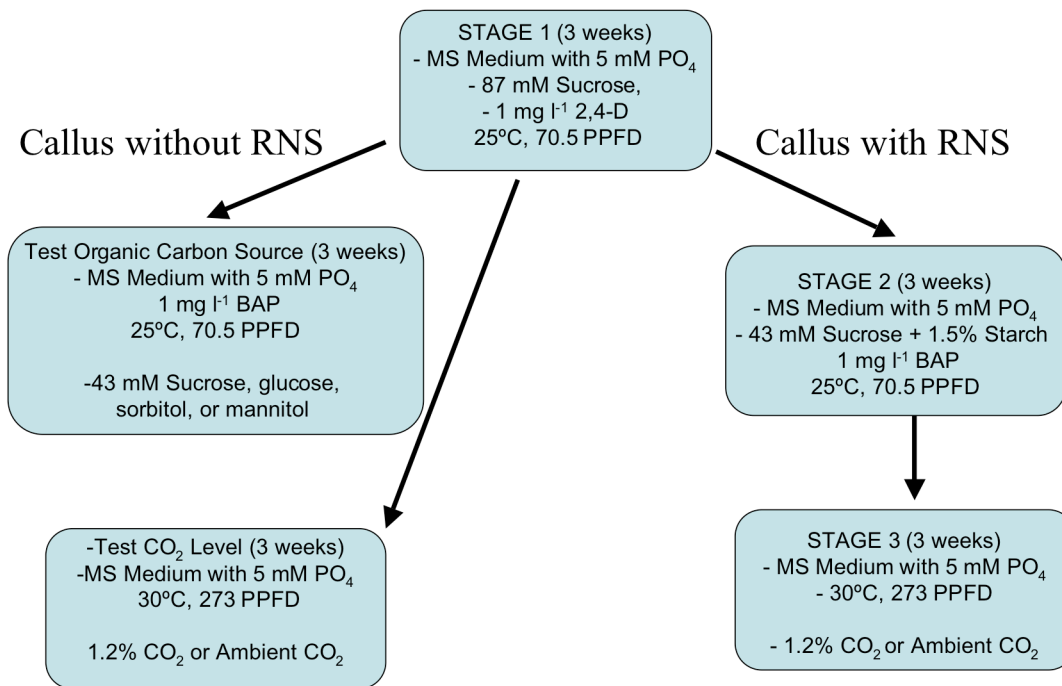


Figure 1. Media composition used for each Stage of growth.

PPFD = photosynthetic photon flux density ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)

RNS = red nodular structures

Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements

Fluorescence measurements were made on calluses using an OS-500 modulated fluorometer (Opti-Sciences, Inc., Tyngsboro, MA, USA), at ambient CO_2 concentrations. The OS-500 probe was held at an angle of 60° from the exposed surface of the callus so it would not interfere with the incident illumination. Initially the maximum intrinsic yield of PS II was determined by measuring the F_v/F_m ratio on callus, 30 min to 60 min before chamber lights came on in the morning. $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_o)/F_m$, where F_o is determined in the absence of light, and F_m is determined after a saturating pulse of light (about $9000 \mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The quantum yield of PS II was determined during photochemistry

(Φ_{II}) with increasing light intensity up to $561 \mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$. Three measurements were made each day, with three replicate days being analyzed. At steady-state photosynthesis under a given light level, F_s was monitored continuously, and, for periodic determination of F'_m saturating pulses (900-ms duration) of white light (about $9000 \mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) were applied automatically at 96-s intervals. Opti-Science software was used to measure F'_m and F_s , after each saturating pulse of light, and to calculate values of Φ_{II} . Φ_{II} was calculated as $(F'_m - F_s)/F'_m$, for each steady-state condition, an average of three values of Φ_{II} was taken. Measurements were made on three samples from each box, measuring 5 boxes in each treatment.

Chlorophyll and Soluble Protein determination

Total chlorophyll and soluble protein concentration was determined from the same crude extract of tissue culture that was homogenized with a mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen. 200 mg of completely ground tissue was placed in 500 μL of 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5 buffer containing 10 mM MgCl_2 , 15 mM β -mercaptoethanol and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Chlorophyll concentration was determined using the procedure described by (Knudson et al. 1977). A 200 μl aliquot from the 200 mg extract of leaf material was mixed in a 1.5 mL eppendorf tube with 200 μL of 100% ethanol. Material was kept in the dark until assayed to prevent chlorophyll degradation. The ethanol in the leaf extract was replaced by centrifugation at 16,000 g for 5 minutes, removing the supernatant, and re-suspending the pellet in 200 μL of fresh 100% ethanol. The eppendorf tube was washed once with 200 μL of 100% ethanol resulting in a total of 1 mL of supernatant that was used in determining chlorophyll content spectroscopically.

Measurement at wavelengths of 649, 665, and 700 nm was made to determine chlorophyll b, chlorophyll a, and background, respectively.

For protein determination the samples were centrifuged at 16,000g for 5 min at 4°C, and the resulting supernatant was used for protein concentration determination and western blot analysis. Protein concentration was determined using the assay (Bradford 1976) with the Bio-Rad protein assay reagent (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and bovine serum albumin as a standard.

Immunoblotting

The supernatant fractions from crude extracts of callus or plantlets was mixed with 0.25 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2% SDS, 0.5% (v/v) β -mercaptoethanol, and 0.1% (v/v) bromphenol blue and boiled for 5 min. for SDS-PAGE (sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis). A total of 15 μ g of soluble protein was loaded on to a 12.5% (w/v) polyacrylamide gel according to (Laemmli 1970), and separated by gel electrophoresis (10 V/cm for 1 h in a Bio-Rad Mini-PROTEAN Tetra Electrophoresis System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA). After electrophoresis, the gel was transblotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) that was presoaked in 1X transblotting buffer (20 mM Tris base pH 8.3, 150 mM glycine, 0.025% SDS, and 20 % methanol (v/v) for 5 min. The membranes were transblotted for 1 h (400 mA constant current) at 4 °C. Proteins were initially visualized by reversible staining with 0.1% Ponceau S in 5% acetic acid (v/v) for 2 min, followed by three, 5 min washes with 5% acetic acid to removed background staining. The membrane was then rinsed 3 times with distilled water and blocked with blocking buffer (3% skim dry milk in

Tris-buffered Saline Tween buffer (TBST) (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.3% Tween-20 detergent) for 30 min.

The primary antibody (in blocking buffer) was applied to the membrane which was placed on an orbital shaker to incubate at 4 °C overnight. The primary antibody was removed and the membrane was rinsed with TBST three times, 10 min each rinse.

Bound primary antibodies were located using secondary, alkaline-phosphatase conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG. The secondary antibody (in blocking buffer) was applied to the membrane and incubated for 2 h at room temperature on an orbital shaker.

The secondary antibody was removed and the membrane was again rinsed with TBST buffer three times, 10 min each rinse. The membrane was then incubated in activation buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.5, 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM MgCl) for 5 min.

Chromogenic detection was then performed by the addition of the color substrate solution (50 µl 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate dipotassium salt (BCIP) (35 mg/ml) per 10 ml activation buffer, and 50 µl nitroblue tetrazolium salt (NBT) (70 mg/ml) per 10 ml activation buffer). Color development was stopped with washes of distilled water.

Primary antibodies for PEPC, NAD-ME, PPDK and Rubisco LSU were used to determine the relative expression levels across different treatments. Bound antibodies were located using an alkaline phosphate-conjugated goat anti-rabbit antibody, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Bio-Rad). The antibodies used for detection, with the dilutions in parentheses were as follows; anti-*Amaranthus viridis* PEPC (1:100,000; (Colombo et al. 1998), serum against the α -subunit of NAD-ME from *Amaranthus hypochondriacus* (1:2,000; (Long et al. 1994), anti-*Zea mays* PPDK (1:50,000; courtesy of Dr. T. Sugiyama), anti-spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) Rubisco LSU (1:10,000; courtesy

of Dr. B McFadden). The molecular mass of the polypeptides was estimated from a marker standard. The intensities of bands in western blots was quantified with Image J software and expressed relative to levels in the mature leaves.

Light Microscopy

Samples were fixed at 4°C in 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde and 2% (v/v) gluteraldehyde in 0.1 M Cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2. The samples were dehydrated with a graded ethanol series and embedded in Spurr's Resin. 700 nm cross sections were made on a Reichert Ultracut R ultra microtome and placed onto gelatin coded slides (Surgipath Medical Ind., Inc., Richmond, IL) for light microscopy. Sections were stained using 1% toluidine blue in 1% borax and images were captured using an Olympus BH-2 Light Microscope (Olympus Optical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and a Jenoptik ProgRes C12plus digital camera (JENOPTIK Laser, Optik, Systeme GmbH, Jena, Germany) with ProgRes Capture Pro software (Jenoptik, Jena, Germany). Pictures of RNS were captured using a stereomicroscope and a Jenoptik ProgRes C12 plus digital camera (JENOPTIK Laser, Optik, Systeme GmbH, Jena, Germany) with ProgRes Capture Pro software (Jenoptik, Jena, Germany).

Osmolality determination

The osmolarity of the samples was measured using a vapor pressure osmometer model 5500 (Wescor Inc., Logan, UT, USA). Plantlet samples were removed using tweezers after three weeks of growth in full-gas microboxes (9 weeks total). Plantlet material was placed in a microfuge tube and gently macerated using a small plastic pestle. Samples

were centrifuged for 5 min at 16,000 g. The supernatant was loaded onto the reference disc in the sample holder of the osmometer using 10 μ l size samples. The osmometer was calibrated using 290 and 1000 milliosmol standards before each use.

Statistical analysis

The entire procedure, with culture through the three stages over 9 weeks was repeated three times. For each replicate the treatments at each stage consisted of 0, 25, 50, 100, 200 mM NaCl and for Stage 3 the concentration of CO₂ was either 1.2% or current ambient. For each treatment in Stage 3 (final 3 weeks of growth) tissue was grown in a separate microboxes box, with each box containing 5-10 individual shoots. Measurements were made within each box by pooling leaves randomly sampled from individual shoots. Three independent replicates were measured for each experiment (unless otherwise noted). One-way or two-way statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with Statistica 7.0 software (StatSoft Inc., Tulsa, OK, USA). Tukey's HSD (honest significant difference) testes were used to analyze differences between salt levels. All analyses were performed at the P <0.05 level.

Results

Stage 1

For Stage 1, explant material was placed on MS media with 5 mM phosphate, buffered with MES (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, 1 mg l⁻¹ 2,4-D, supplemented with 87 mM sucrose. For each treatment in Stage 1, there were 3 Petri dishes with an average of 20 – 30 explants per dish. After 3 weeks of growth on auxin plates, most stem explants of *B. sinuspersici* developed callus with or without red nodular structures (RNS)

approximately 1 mm in diameter (Fig. 2). Cross section analysis of RNS showed the development of a central vascular system, with many smaller cells located near the vascular system, and a few larger cells on the periphery of the RNS (Fig. 3). There was no observed difference in the size of callus across the salt treatments, with larger explants tended to have larger calli.

Experiments on callus without RNS

Following growth in Stage 1, *B. sinuspersici* callus without RNS were used to optimize, the organic carbon source that produced the most vigorous growth, by supplementing the media with 43 mM sucrose, glucose, mannitol, or sorbitol. Visually the callus grown on sucrose or glucose had a greener color than did callus grown on mannitol or sorbitol (Fig. S2). Also, the increase in fresh weight and final surface area of the callus was greater when grown on sugars compared to polyols (Fig 4). Sucrose was selected as the best organic carbon source for growth.

Following Stage 1, callus without RNS were selected and grown for 3 weeks in microboxes on MS medium with 5 mM phosphate, buffered with MES (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, at 30°C with a PPFD of 273 $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, under ambient or elevated CO₂ levels. The average surface area of callus when grown on carbon free media was greater when grown at 1.2% CO₂ compared to current ambient CO₂ (Fig. 5). The average soluble protein content in callus grown at 1.2% CO₂ was 3.2 $\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}$ fresh weight compared to 1 $\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}$ fresh weight for callus grown at current ambient CO₂. Callus chlorophyll fluorescence showed that the average F_v/F_m ratio for callus grown at 1.2% CO₂ was .74 compared to an average F_v/F_m ratio for callus grown at current ambient CO₂ of .61 (Fig. 5). The steady-state yield of photosystem II was greater at all measured

light intensity for callus grown at 1.2% CO₂ compared to callus grown at current ambient CO₂ (Fig. 5). Anatomical analysis of callus cell structure shows that there are numerous small chloroplasts present in callus when grown at 1.2% CO₂, with a few being associated to the nucleus, light micrographs shows that cells from callus grown at 1.2% CO₂ had thicker cell walls than cells from callus grown at current ambient CO₂ (Fig. 6) Western blot analysis using 15µg of *B. sinuspersici* callus protein grown under photoautotrophic conditions 1.2% CO₂, showed expression of Rubisco, but no detectable expression of C₄ biochemical proteins (Fig. 7).

Regeneration from callus having RNS

From stem explants, the efficiency of callus formation having RNS at the end of Stage 1 was 26 - 30 %, with no observed difference across the salt treatments. All RNS callus from each Petri dish were combined on to one Petri dish and continued to grow on Stage 2 media. Stage 2 media was MS medium with 5 mM phosphate buffered with MES (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, supplemented with 43 mM sucrose, 1.5% starch and 2 mg l⁻¹ BAP, grown in a tissue cabinet at 25°C with a 70.5 PPFD. After 6 weeks of growth the size of the RNS structure increased to approximately 5 mm in diameter, with a loss of the red/pink color and a slight greening (Fig. 8), with no significant difference in the size of RNS under different NaCl levels (Fig 9).

Following Stage 2, RNS were grown in microboxes on MS medium with 5 mM phosphate, buffered with MES (pH 5.8) containing 0.3% gelrite, at 30°C with a PPFD of 273 µmol quanta m⁻² sec⁻¹, under different CO₂ levels. At the end of stage 3, the percent efficiency of regenerating shoots from callus having RNS (after Stage 1) across all salt treatments was 57% under 1.2% CO₂ and only 17% under ambient CO₂ (Table 1). The

highest shoot regeneration efficiency was 96%, when grown at 1.2% CO₂ with 200 mM NaCl. The rooting efficiency from Stage 3 shoots across all salt treatments was 9% under 1.2% CO₂ and 3% under ambient CO₂ (Table 1). The highest rooting efficiency was 11%, when grown at 1.2% CO₂ with 200 mM NaCl. After 9 weeks of growth, shoots of *B. sinuspersici* grown in microboxes at 1.2% CO₂ were larger and had a darker green color compared to shoots grown at current ambient CO₂ (Fig 10). The average area of each plantlet grown at 1.2% CO₂ was greater (2 to 3 fold) than that grown at current ambient CO₂ (Fig. 9). Cross-section analysis of leaves grown at 1.2% CO₂, showed the association of chloroplasts and mitochondria to form a central compartment indicative of single-cell C₄ development (Fig. 11).

A large increase in the plantlet osmolality, from approximately 250 to 1000 mosmolal, was seen in the leaves as the NaCl concentration of the media increased (Fig. 12). There was on average a 25% greater increase in leaf osmolality observed in plantlets that were grown at 1.2% CO₂ compared to plantlets grown at current ambient CO₂.

The amount of protein and chlorophyll per mg fresh weight was higher in regenerating plantlets grown at 1.2% CO₂ than at current ambient CO₂. On average there was a four fold increase in chlorophyll and soluble protein content when shoots were grown at 1.2% CO₂ compared to current ambient CO₂ (Table 2). There was no significant affect of NaCl on the chlorophyll and protein content.

Result from the western blots, loading 15 µg of protein per lane, showed that regenerated plantlets had expression of Rubisco and key C₄ enzymes under 1.2% CO₂. There was no significant effect of salinity on expression of Rubisco LSU, PEPC, PPKK, and NAD-ME (Fig. 13). The resulting bands were quantified using Image J and the

relative intensity was compared to mature leaves of a plant growing in soil as a control. Compared to *B. sinuspersici* growing in soil, NAD-ME in the plantlets had the same relative intensity, while PEPC, PPK and Rubisco had only 40-60% expression in plantlets compared to leaves from a mature plant grown in soil (Fig 14). Western blots of ambient CO₂ grown shoots had very low or no detectable immunolabeling for these photosynthetic proteins (not shown). Root induction was approximately 9% under growth at 1.2% CO₂ with no carbon source or hormones in the media compared to 2% at ambient CO₂ with no carbon source or hormones in the media (Table 1). There was more root formation observed on shoots when NaCl was included in the media, with 200 mM NaCl producing the most roots. Only rooted plantlets grown under 1.2% CO₂ were successfully transferred to a sand/soil mix and continued to grow in the CO₂ enriched chamber (see example in Fig. 15). Rooted plants were also able to grow at ambient CO₂.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop a regeneration system for *B. sinuspersici* as the first step towards a transformation protocol to gain knowledge about the development of single-cell C₄ photosynthesis. The specific aims of this study was to determine the effect that CO₂ enrichment and salinity had on regeneration success, and to determine the forms of photosynthesis in green callus and regenerating shoots. During shoot regeneration, it was observed that MS media produced less hyperhydric leaves compared to Chu N₆ media, a result often associated with water availability, microelements and/or hormonal imbalance (Wu et al. 2009). Developing shoots, with no roots to regulate the intake of nutrients from the media, are subject to limited nutrient

uptake and an imbalance of nutrients absorbed.

Culture of callus lacking RNS

During callus culture which lacked RNS, it was observed that the sugars, sucrose and glucose, were much better sources of carbon than the polyol, sorbitol or manitol for *in vitro* growth. Species *Fraxinus pennsylvanica* and celery synthesize mannitol, and are capable of utilizing it as the sole carbon source for growth in callus cultures (Wolter et al. 1966; Stoop et al. 1993), while 11 Rosaceae species such as *Malus* and *Prunus persica* which synthesize sorbitol, are able to use it as an organic carbon source for growth (Coffin et al. 1976). Species that do not synthesize polyols as compatible solutes or export as major photosynthetic products may have a limited ability to utilize polyols as a carbon source. Chenopodiaceae species including *B. sinuspersici*, are noted for synthesizing glycine betaine as a major compatible solute (Park et al. 2009b). Sucrose was selected as the optimal organic carbon source for *in vitro* cultures of *B. sinuspersici*.

When callus cultures which lacked RNS following Stage 1 were cultured in 1.2 % versus current ambient CO₂, there was photoautotrophic growth under 1.2% CO₂ increasing the overall surface area and producing thicker cell walls. Raising the CO₂ level in the air surrounding callus cultures of *Nicotiana tabacum* L. increased the growth rate (Berlyn et al. 1975). The maximum intrinsic yield of PS II (F_v/F_m) of dark adapted tissue represents an estimate of the maximum photochemical efficiency of PS II and is a valid indicator of photoinhibitory damages (Krause et al. 1991). The lower F_v/F_m ratio in culture under ambient CO₂ indicates some photoinhibitor. PS II yield measured in the light was also greater when *B. sinuspersici* callus was grown in 1.2% CO₂ versus current ambient CO₂, suggesting an increased capacity for carbon assimilation. A different result

from the photoautotrophically grown bryophyte callus of *Marchantia polymorpha*, where the concentration of CO₂ had no effect on the F_v/F_m ratio, or Rubisco content (Bockers et al. 1997).

There have been mixed reports on the development of C₄ photosynthesis in photomixotrophic callus cultures of Kranz type C₄ plants. Based on ¹⁴CO₂ labeling in C₄ acids it was concluded that *Amaranthus retroflexus* L., *Portulaca oleracea* and *Froelichia gracilis* perform C₄ photosynthesis (Usuda et al. 1971; Laetsch et al. 1972; Kennedy et al. 1977). Photomixotrophic C₄ callus of *Gisekia pharnaceoides* L. and *Zea Mays* were found to perform C₃ photosynthesis based on little label in C₄ acids using ¹⁴CO₂ and low PEPC activity in callus compared to mature leaves respectively (Seeni et al. 1983; Lavergne et al. 1992). Autotrophic callus cultures of Kranz C₄ species *Amaranthus cruentus* and *A. powellii* were found to perform C₃ photosynthesis, having a lower PEPC activity than autotrophic cultures of C₃ species *Datura innoxia* and *Nicotiana tabacum* (Xu et al. 1988). All reports of C₄ chlorophyllous callus are devoid of any morphological organization or tissue-like organization typical of Kranz anatomy in C₄ leaves. Analysis of *B. sinuspersici* callus cell structure, grown autotrophically at 1.2% CO₂ showed no evidence for the expression of single-cell C₄ photosynthesis. Western blot analysis of *B. sinuspersici* callus grown at 1.2% CO₂ showed expression of Rubisco and very low PEPC and NAD-ME with no PPDK being detected. This biochemical gene expression is similar to the youngest cell age during leaf development *in vivo* (Voznesenskaya et al. 2005), indicating callus have C₃ type chlorenchyma and photosynthesis.

Cultures of callus having RNS

Shoot organogenesis was observed from callus of *B. sinuspersici* which developed RNS after Stage 1 of growth on auxin containing media, whereas callus which were green but did not produce RNS were not able to generate shoots. The development of pink colored tissue has been observed in field grown *B. sinuspersici* in the stem and leaf segments (Akhani *et al.* 2005), and also in plant material from our growth chambers. The production of red/pink pigment in the RNS, which is presumably anthocyanin, may be associated with environmental radiation, and is often observed in young seedlings (Mol *et al.* 1996). The excision of explant material and washing in combination with changes in light quantity and the hormone 2,4-D may be involved in the production of this pigment.

Transferring *B. sinuspersici* callus having RNS from Stage 1 to plates with 2 mg l⁻¹ 6-BAP containing 43 mM sucrose with 1.5% starch produced a more green nodular structure. BAP has been found to stimulate the formation of chlorophyll and chloroplasts in leaves (Kinoshita *et al.* 1984; Arnold *et al.* 1986). Higher concentrations of 6-BAP, up to 7 mg l⁻¹, were observed to disrupted shoot organogenesis in *B. sinuspersici* by the unnatural development of multiple leaves from the same location on the stem.

A successful regeneration protocol from undifferentiated tissue is expected to gradually increase the expression of photoautotrophic genes. Having an available source of sugars (sucrose or glucose) in the media has been found to suppress Rubisco small subunit expression in autotrophic *Chenopodium* callus cultures, decrease expression of genes involved in the C₄ cycle in maize mesophyll protoplasts, and produce a rapid drop in photosynthetic rates in photomixotrophic cell-suspension cultures of *Alternanthera philoxeroides* (Krapp *et al.* 1993; Jang *et al.* 1994; Mudalige *et al.* 2006). In

Mesembryanthemum crystallinum and *Glycine max* calli, replacement of sucrose media with soluble starch as the external carbon supply was found to increase chlorophyll and soluble protein content, and PEPC activity (Yen et al. 1995; Yen et al. 1999). Having starch present in the media may help with chloroplast development and photoautotrophic growth by providing a steady, low level of glucose, through excretion of amylase from the culture that hydrolyses starch and avoids high-sugar suppression of photosynthetic genes.

Photoautotrophic growth *in vitro* is generally associated with higher light intensities compared to mixotrophic conditions, and accompanied with CO₂ enrichment, which has been shown to promote photosynthesis (reviewed in (Nguyen et al. 1998)). Placing developing shoots of *B. sinuspersici* on carbon free media after 6 weeks of growth, with no hormones resulted in photoautotrophic growth during Stage 3 under 1.2% CO₂, compared to very limited growth at current ambient CO₂. It has also been shown that photosynthetic rates of banana (*Musa* spp.) were the highest under increased light and CO₂ concentrations (Nguyen et al. 2001). The apparent health of the shoot material and development of photosynthetic machinery is indicative of photoautotrophic growth. The average chlorophyll and soluble protein content per mg of fresh weight was 3 to 4 fold higher when shoots of *B. sinuspersici* were grown at 1.2% CO₂ compared to growth at current ambient CO₂, indicating increase photoautotrophic growth. Western blot analysis of shoots after Stage 3 showed that under 1.2% CO₂ major C₄ enzymes are expressed. This biochemical gene expression is similar to the intermediate cell age during leaf development *in vivo* (Voznesenskaya *et al.* 2005), indicating that regenerating shoots have C₄ type chlorenchyma and photosynthesis.

Low doses of NaCl (50 mM) for tissue cultures of halophytic species such as *M. crystallinum* (CAM), *Atriplex halimus* (C₄), and C₃ species *Thellungiella holophila*, *Salicornia europaea* and *Suaeda maritima* promoted growth (Yen *et al.* 1995; Bajji *et al.* 1998; Moghaieb *et al.* 2004; Zhao *et al.* 2009). In comparison, NaCl treatment in cultures of glycophytic species such as *Jatropha curcas*, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and *Saccharum officinarum* decreased growth in a concentration dependent manner (Kumar *et al.* 2008; Patade *et al.* 2008; Zhao *et al.* 2009). To maintain an osmotic gradient for the uptake of water, many halophytic plants accumulate inorganic ions and compatible solutes to a concentration equal to or greater than that of the surrounding solution (Flowers *et al.* 2008). Osmotic adjustment has been observed with halophytic Chenopodiaceae C₃ species *Salicornia europaea* and *Suaeda maritima*, and in the single-cell C₄ species *B. sinuspersici* and *Suaeda aralocaspica* as the concentration of NaCl increased (Moghaieb *et al.* 2004; Park *et al.* 2009b). There was a greater increase in internal osmolality of *B. sinuspersici* plantlets growing under 1.2% CO₂ in comparison to plantlets grown at current ambient CO₂. The greater osmolality under 1.2% CO₂ could be due to the increased capacity for photosynthesis and in turn the production of compatible solutes.

The survivorship of developed plantlets is dependent on initiation of taproots to provide nutrients to the vascular system and developing leaves. The amount of roots that formed from developing plantlets is a product of the environment in which they are growing. Increasing the concentration of CO₂ during *in vitro* culture of *Paulownia fortunei* increased the shoot multiplication and rooting rates (Vallikhan *et al.* 2003). The initiation of roots from *B. sinuspersici* shoot was much greater when grown at 1.2% CO₂ than when grown at current ambient CO₂. *In vitro* micro propagation, including leaf and

root development, of Plantain (*Musa*) was best under photomixotrophic (30 g l^{-1} sucrose) conditions with elevated CO_2 (1.2%) (Aragon et al. 2010). This was not the case for *Eucalyptus tereticornis* shoots, where the CO_2 concentration had no effect on root initiation (Khan et al. 2002). Following development of plantlets in microboxes, rooted plants can be transferred to a sand/soil mixture with continued growth under 1.2% CO_2 for 3 more weeks, which are then able to acclimate to ambient CO_2 conditions. In this high CO_2 concentration there was normal development of single-cell C_4 photosynthesis in plantlets. At this level of CO_2 , photorespiration will be very suppressed, and the C_4 cycle not needed. This indicates growth under very high CO_2 does not induce C_3 type photosynthesis, and there is obligate formation of the C_4 system during leaf development. The coordinated growth of plant organs, in this study the leaf, seems to be a requirement for the development of single-cell C_4 photosynthesis. The apparent formation of “ C_3 type” photosynthetic tissue in callus and C_4 in regenerating shoots provides a means for stable separation of *Bienertia sinuspersici* in a C_3 versus C_4 mode.

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Figure 2. Development of red nodular structure (RNS), after Stage 1 from stem explant of *B. sinuspersici*, grown in 100 mm Petri dishes on MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 87 mM sucrose, and 1 mg l⁻¹ 2,4-D, under current ambient CO₂, 25°C and 70.5 μmol m⁻² sec⁻¹ (PPFD). Scale bar = 1 mm.

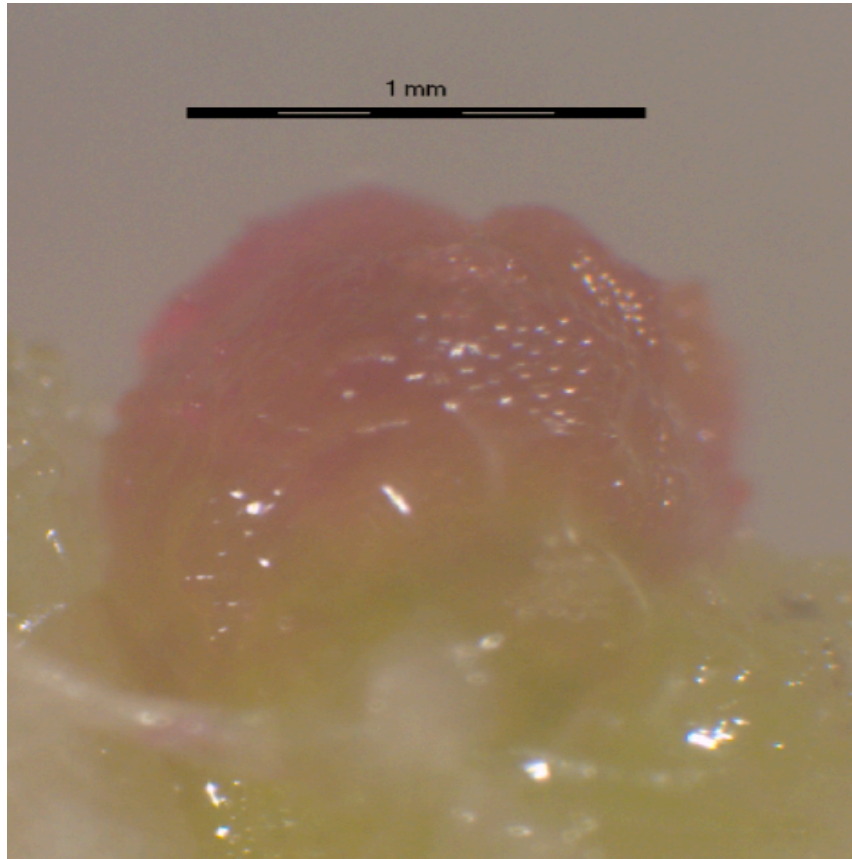


Figure 3. Light micrograph of Red Nodular Structure (RNS) from *Bienertia sinuspersici* after Stage 1, from stem explant of *B. sinuspersici*, grown in 100 mm Petri dishes on MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 87 mM sucrose, and 1 mg 2,4-D l⁻¹, under current ambient CO₂, 25°C and 70.5 μmol m⁻² sec⁻¹ (PPFD). Longitudinal section through center of developing shoot, showing different cell morphologies and development of a central vascular system. Scale bar = 1 mm.

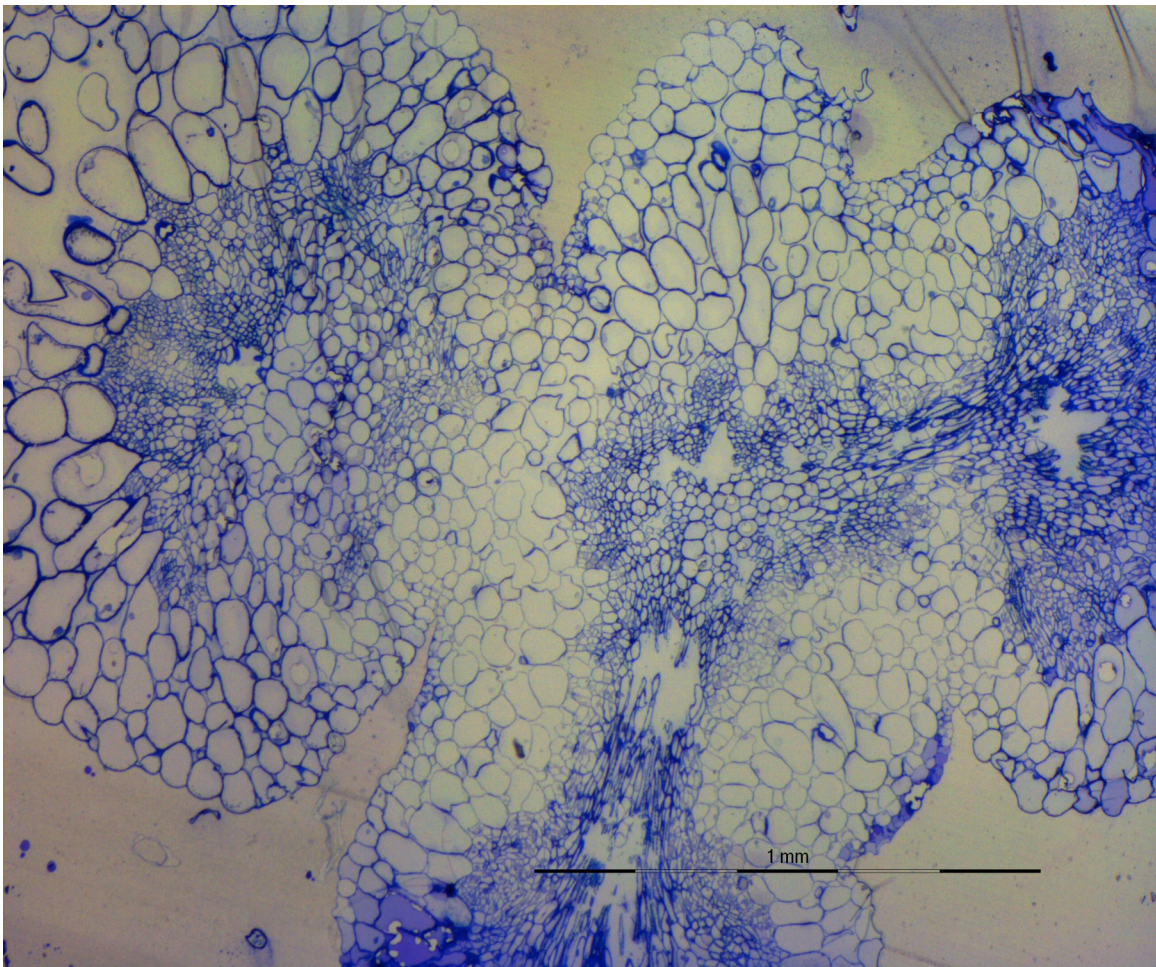


Figure 4. *B. sinuspersici* callus growth during Stage 2, grown on MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 10 mM NaCl, and either 43 mM sucrose, glucose, sorbitol, or mannitol, at 25°C with a photosynthetic photon flux density of 70.5 $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2}\text{sec}^{-1}$. A) The increase in fresh weight B) The change in surface area. Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates. Different letters represent statistically significant differences, as determined by ANOVA.

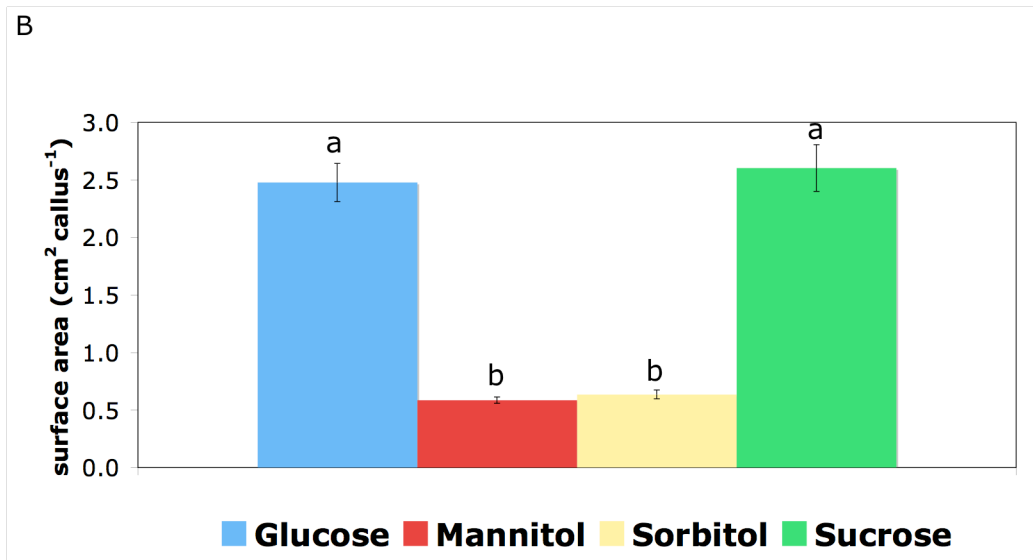
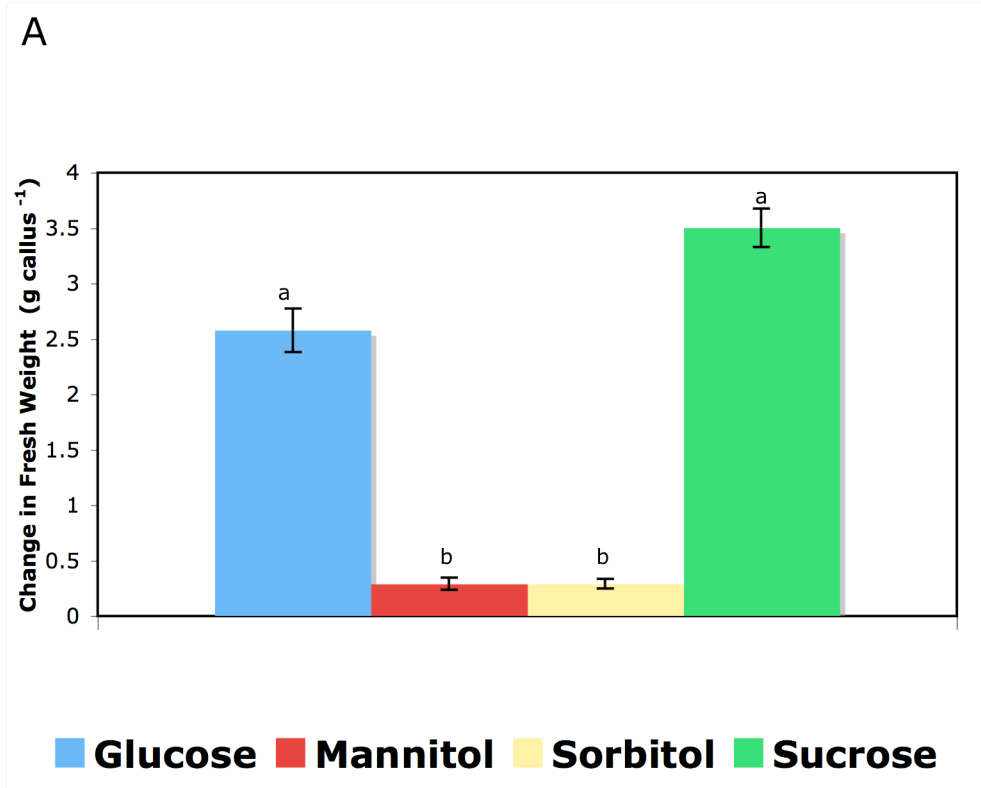
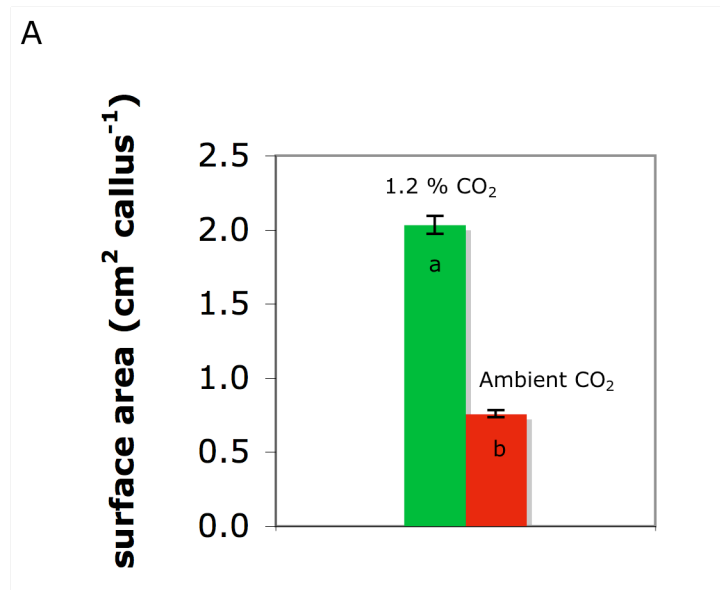


Figure 5. Change in *B. sinuspersici* callus (without shoots) after Stage 3, grown on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 10 mM NaCl, at 30°C with a photon flux density of 273 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, at either 1.2% CO₂ or current ambient CO₂. A) Measured surface area B) Fv/Fm for *B. sinuspersici* callus, C) PS II yield for *B. sinuspersici* callus. Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates. Different letters represent statistically significant differences, as determined by ANOVA.



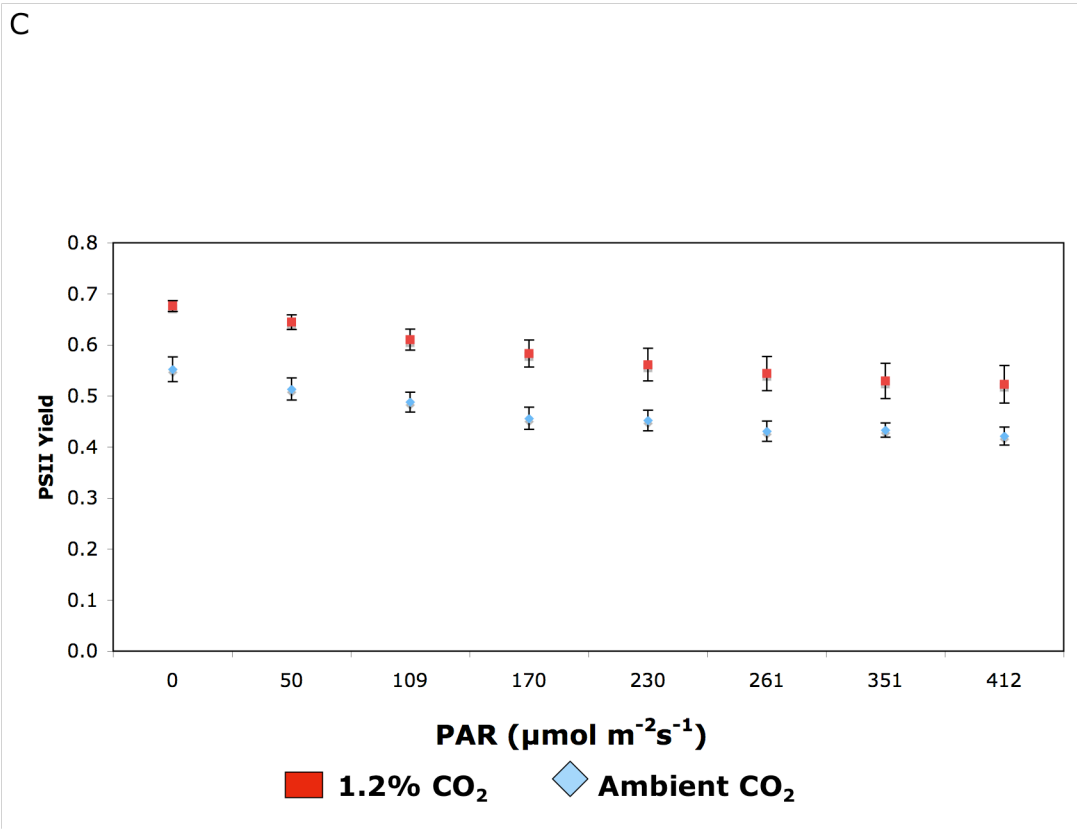
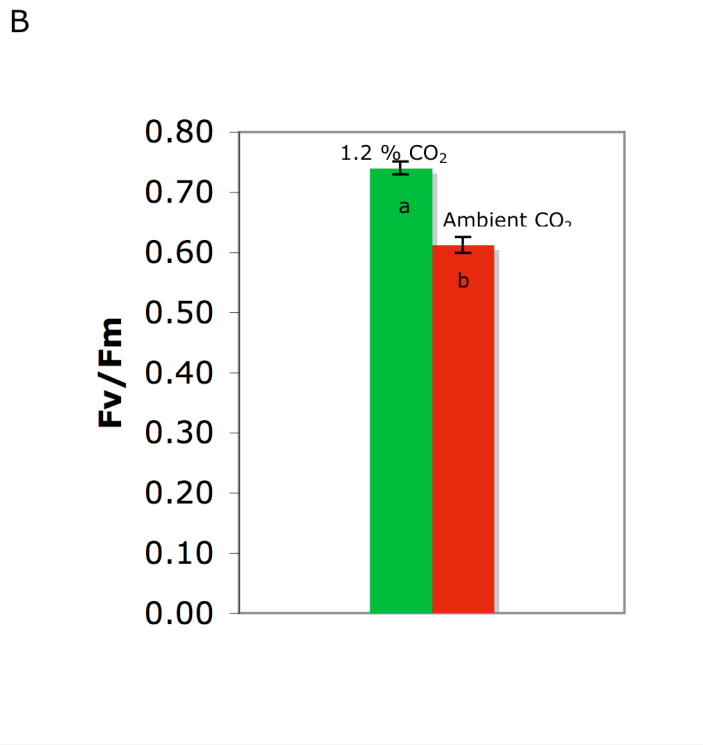


Figure 6. Effect of CO₂ concentration on *B. sinuspersici* callus structure from Stage 3, grown on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 10 mM NaCl, at 30°C with a photon flux density of 273 μmol m⁻² sec⁻¹, at either 1.2% CO₂ or current ambient CO₂, A) Light micrograph of *B. sinuspersici* callus grown at 1.2%, section through callus showing large cells with thick cell walls. Scale bar = 50 μm. B) Light micrograph of *B. sinuspersici* callus grown at current ambient CO₂, section through callus showing different cell morphologies. Scale bar = 50 μm. C) Light microscope image of *B. sinuspersici* callus cell grown at 1.2% CO₂, showing association of organelles with nucleus. Scale bar = 50 μm. D) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of callus grown at 1.2% CO₂, showing association of organelles with nucleus. Scale bar = 0.5 μm.

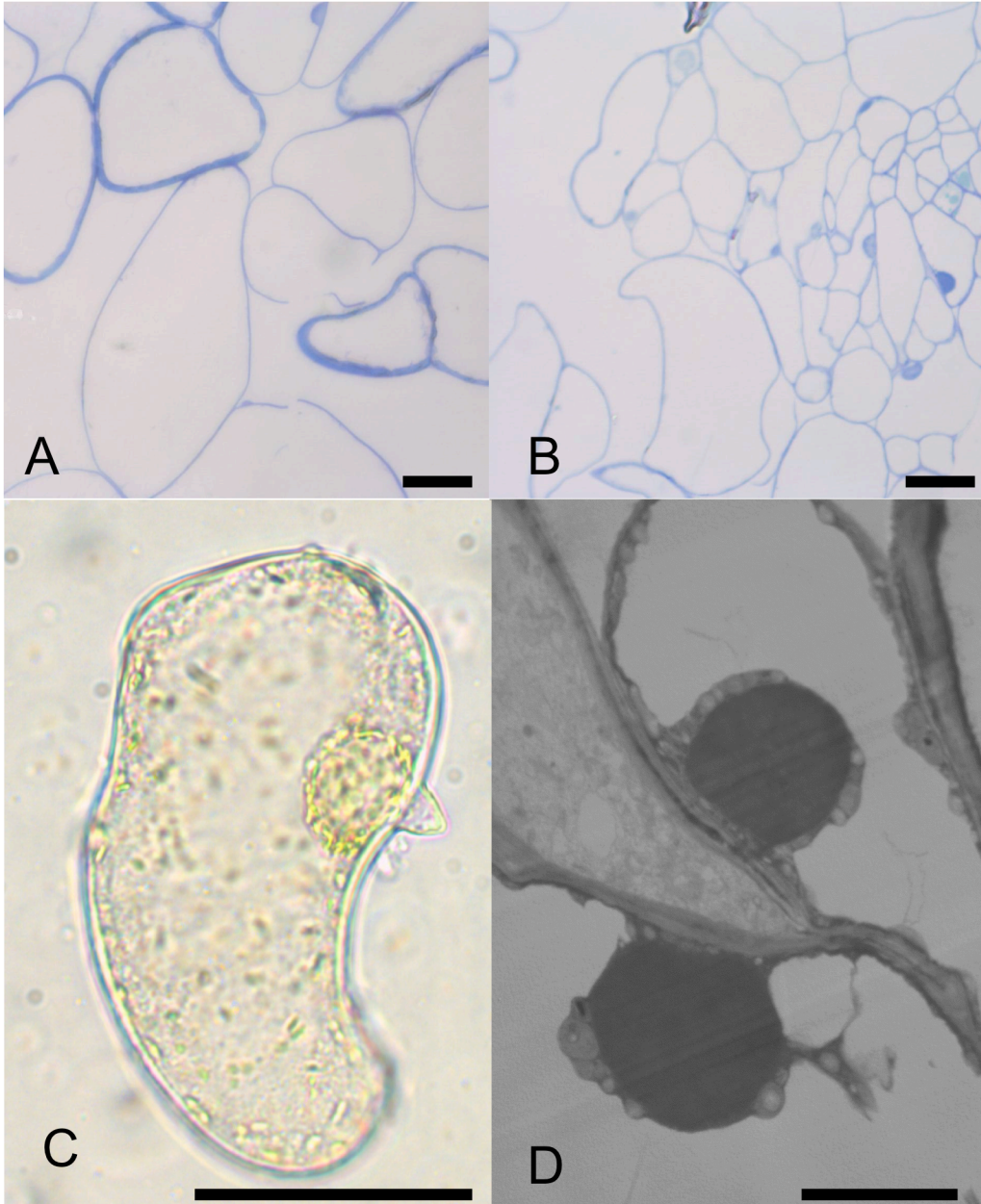


Figure 7. Western blots of photosynthetic portion *B. sinuspersici* callus at end of Stage 3, grown on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 10 mM NaCl, at 30°C with a photon flux density of 273 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, under photoautotrophic conditions (1.2% CO_2). Callus is compared to a mature plant grown in soil under ambient CO_2 . Under photoautotrophic conditions there is expression of Rubisco Large subunit in callus tissue, and a detectable PEPC band. 15 μg of protein was applied per lane.

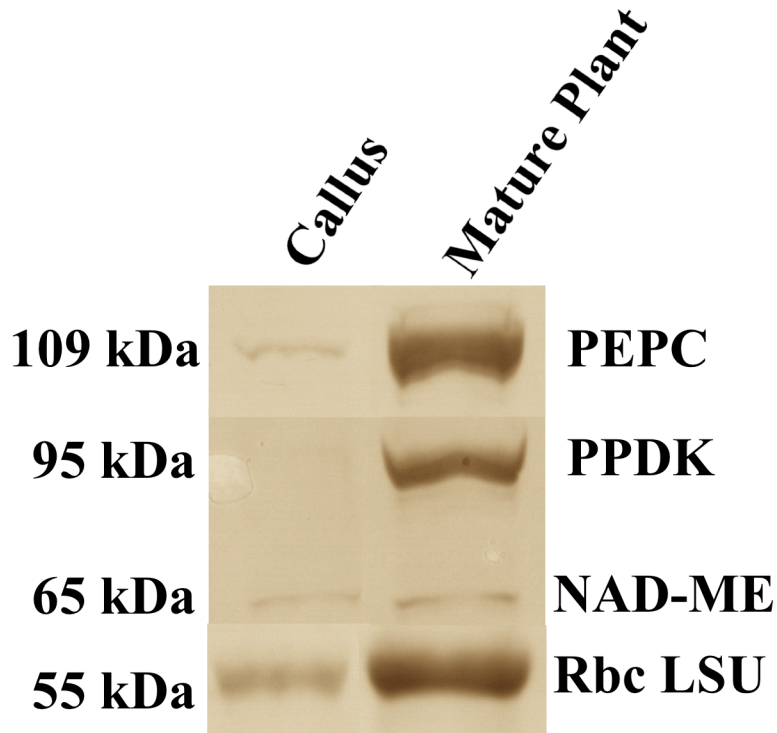


Figure 8. Growth of red nodular structure (RNS) after Stage 2, from stem explant of *B. sinuspersici*, grown in 100 mm Petri dishes on MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 43 mM sucrose plus 1.5% starch, and 2 mg 6-BAP l⁻¹, under current ambient CO₂, 25°C and 70.5 μmol m⁻² sec⁻¹ (PPFD).

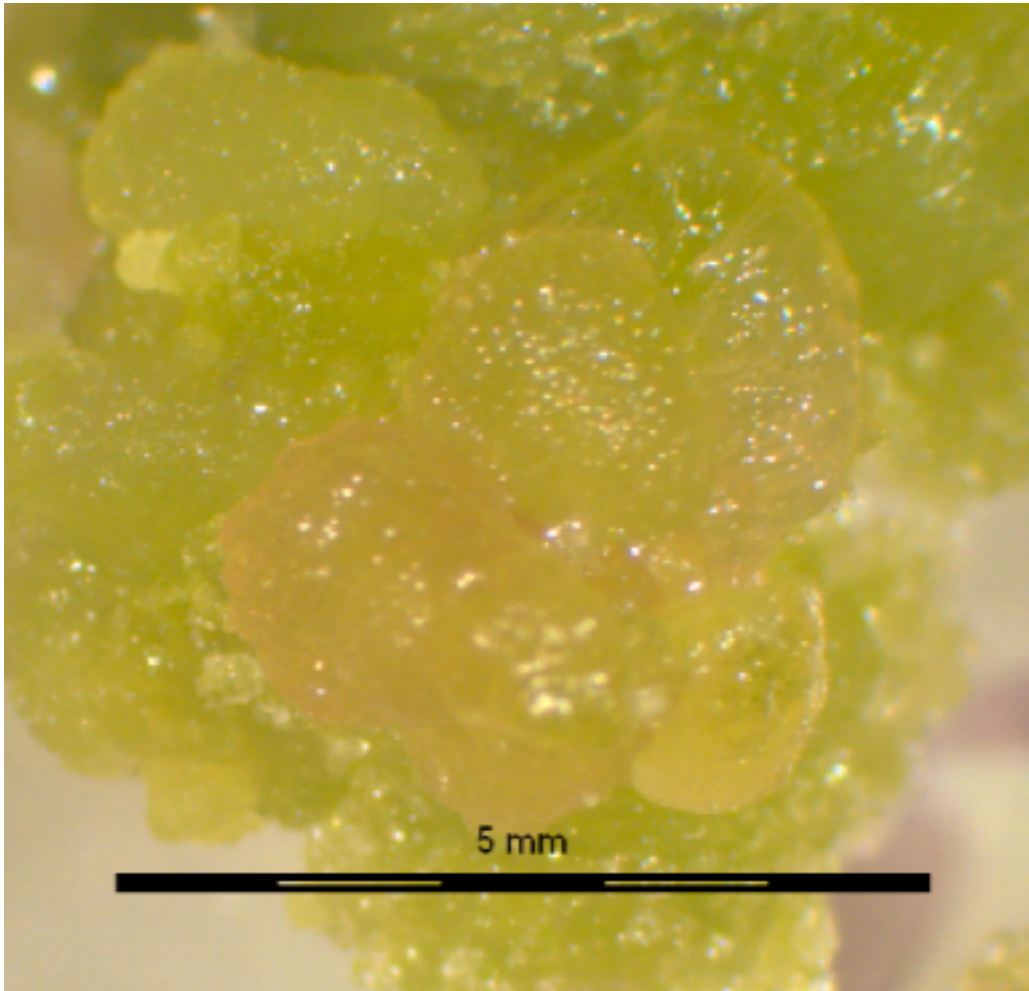


Figure 9. Average area of regenerating plantlet under different NaCl concentrations and 1.2% CO₂ compared to current ambient CO₂ concentrations. The relative size of each plantlet was quantified using ImageJ analysis program. Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates. Different capital letters represent statistically significant differences across salt levels, as determined by Tukey's HSD tests. Different lowercase letters represent statistically significant differences between the two CO₂ levels, as determined by ANOVA tests. P = 0.05

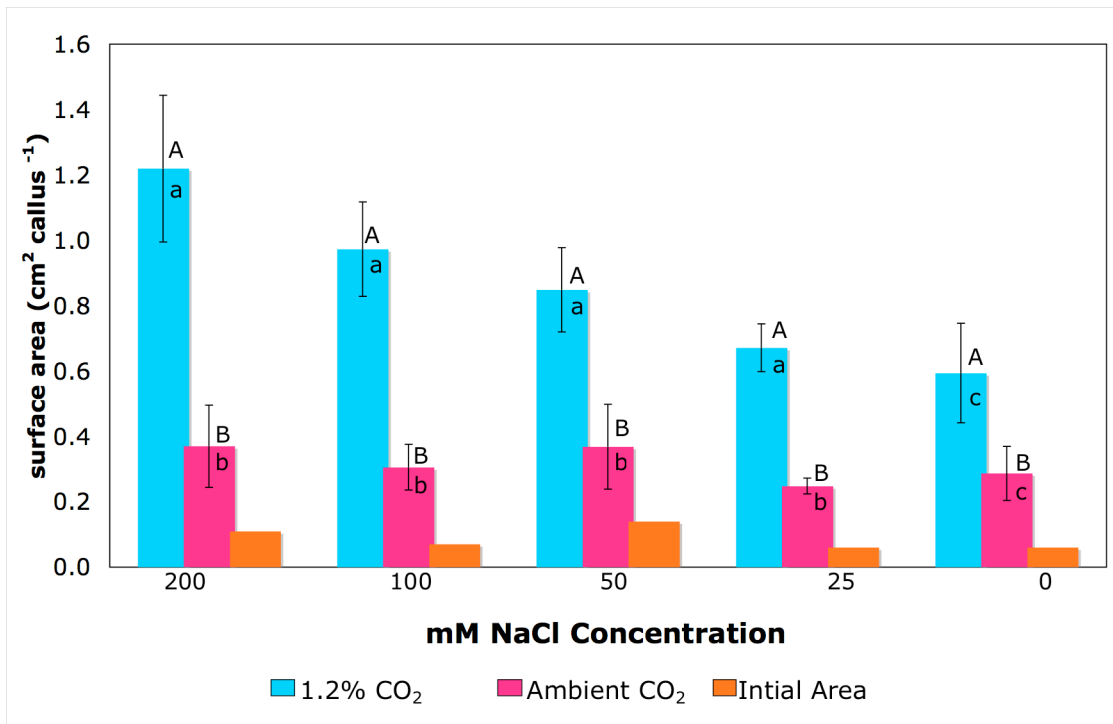


Table 1. Frequency of rooting and survival of *B. sinuspersici* rooted plants after transplanting to soil during Stage 3, grown on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate, at 30°C with a photon flux density of 273 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, under varying NaCl levels. Success rate grown at 1.2% CO_2 versus current ambient CO_2 . N = 3

	NaCl Media Concentration					Total all Salt Levels
	0 mM	25 mM	50 mM	100 mM	200 mM	
1.2% CO_2						
Starting callus with RNS	109	118	132	122	117	598
Shoots developed from Explant	39	58	61	69	112	339
Shoots with roots	1	5	8	3	12	29
Plants that grew in soil						8
Ambient CO_2						
Starting callus with RNS	109	118	132	122	117	598
Shoots developed from Explant	12	18	26	17	31	104
Shoots with roots	0	0	2	1	0	3
Plants that grew in soil						0

Figure 10. Shoots of *B. sinuspersici* after Stage 3, grown in microboxes on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate, at 30°C with a photon flux density of $273 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, at either 1.2% CO_2 or current ambient CO_2 . Images are of plantlets grown with 100 mM NaCl. A) 1.2% CO_2 . Scale bar = 0.5 mm. B) current ambient CO_2 . Scale bar = 0.5 mm.

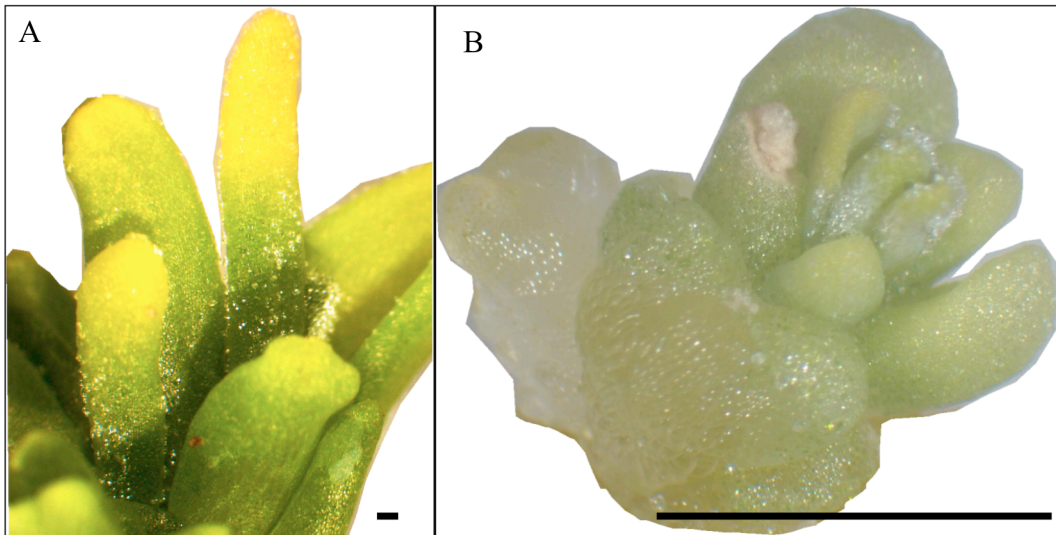


Figure 11. Light micrograph of leaf cross-section of *B. sinuspersici* from regenerating shoots after Stage 3, at 1.2% CO₂, with 50 mM NaCl. Cross-section through center of leaf, showing mature chlorenchyma cell, water storage cells and a central vascular system. Scale bar = 500 μm.

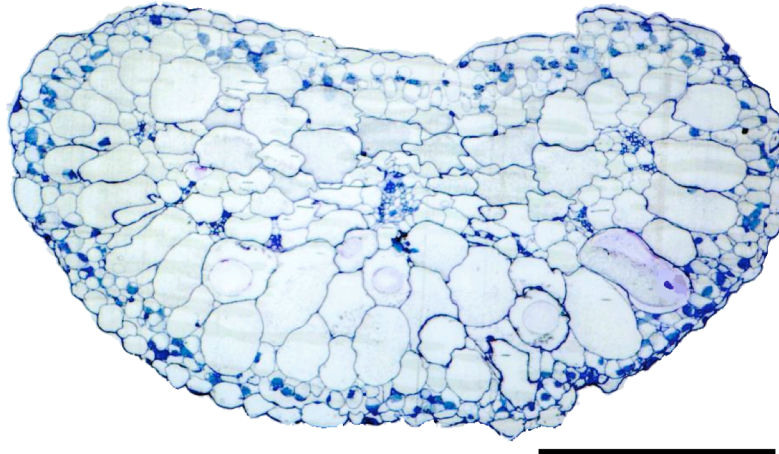


Figure 12. Leaf osmolality of plantlets under varying NaCl levels in *B. sinuspersici*. The leaf osmolality was measured using a vapor pressure osmometer at each NaCl level at the end of Stage 3. Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates. Different capital letters represent statistically significant differences across salt levels at 1.2% CO₂, and different lowercase letters represent statistically significant differences at current ambient CO₂, as determined by Tukey's HSD tests. Difference between capital letters and lowercase letters represent statistically significant differences between the two CO₂ levels, as determined by ANOVA tests. P = 0.05

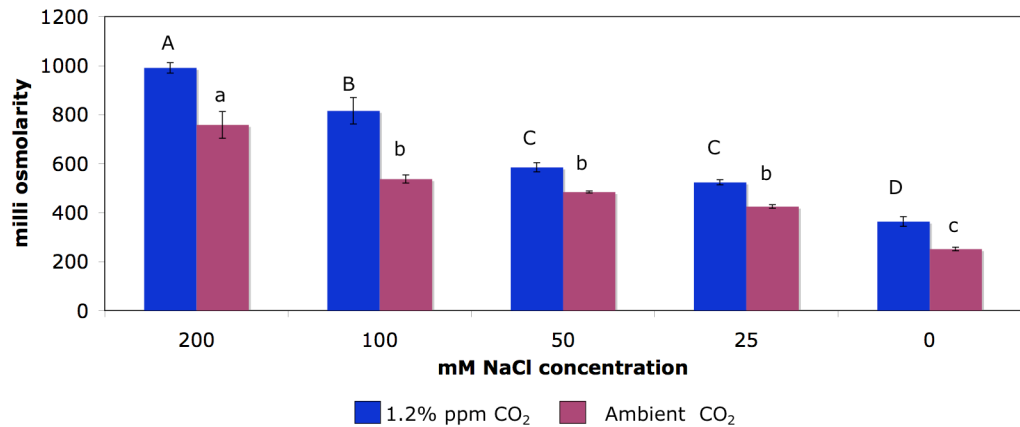


Table 2. Effects of salt treatment and CO₂ concentration on soluble protein and chlorophyll content in *B. sinuspersici* plantlets at the end of Stage 3. The fresh weights were measured after removal from the microboxes. Difference between upper and lowercase letter denotes a statistically significant difference between high and low CO₂ as determined by ANOVA analysis. Difference in upper or lower case letters denotes a statistically significant difference across salt treatments as determined by Tukey's HSD tests. P = 0.05

A) chlorophyll a+b concentration µg/mg FW

NaCl	1.2% ppm CO₂	Ambient CO₂
0 mM	0.143 +/- .03 A	0.02 +/- .02 a
25 mM	0.141 +/- .02 A	0.022 +/- .01 a
50 mM	0.159 +/- .03 A	0.057 +/- .03 a
100 mM	0.121 +/- .02 A	0.044 +/- .03 a
200 mM	0.150 +/- .02 A	0.05 +/- .03 a
all groups	0.142 +/- .01	.041 +/- .01

B) soluble protein µg/mg FW

NaCl	1.2% ppm CO₂	Ambient CO₂
0 mM	4.71 +/- .56 A	.83 +/- 1.4 a
25 mM	5.51 +/- .56 A	1.23 +/- 1.2 a
50 mM	4.84 +/- .65 A	1.32 +/- 1.2 a
100 mM	3.82 +/- .24 A	0.68 +/- .6 a
200 mM	3.85 +/- .44 A	1.81 +/- .6 a
all groups	4.55 +/- .23	1.19 +/- 1.0

Figure 13. Western blot analysis for photosynthetic portions of *B. sinuspersici* plantlets grown on carbon free MS media with 5 mM phosphate, at 30°C with a photon flux density of $273 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$, in 1.2% CO_2 and varying NaCl levels. The relative intensity was compared to a mature plant growing in soil under normal CO_2 and treated monthly with 150 mM NaCl. 15 μg of protein was applied per lane.

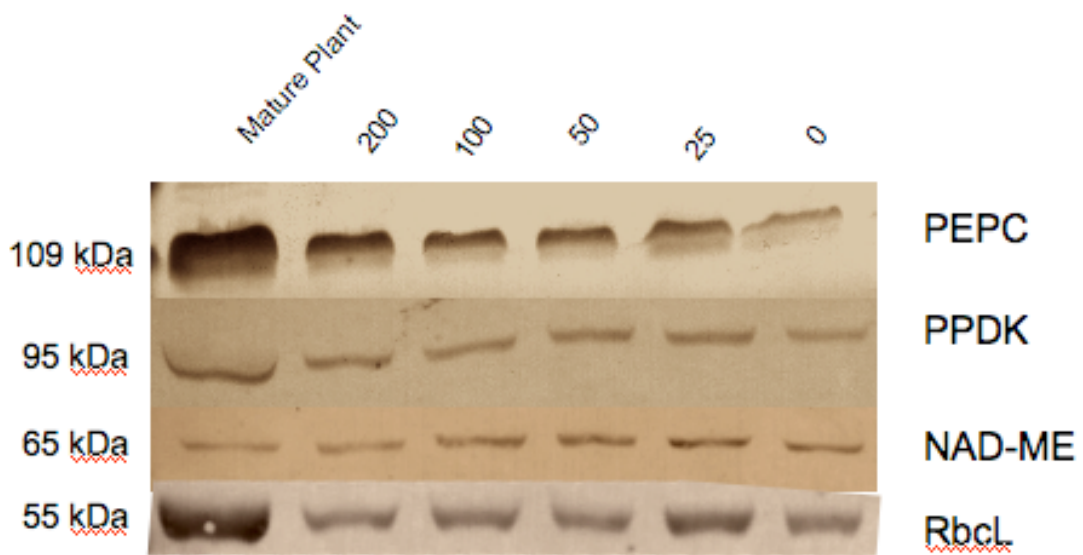


Figure 14. A comparison of the average intensity of each band from Western blot analysis of plantlets grown at 1.2% CO₂ during Stage 3, under varying NaCl levels in *B. sinuspersici* plantlets (quantified using ImageJ analysis program). The relative intensity was compared to a mature plant growing in soil under normal CO₂ treated monthly with 150 mM NaCl. N=3

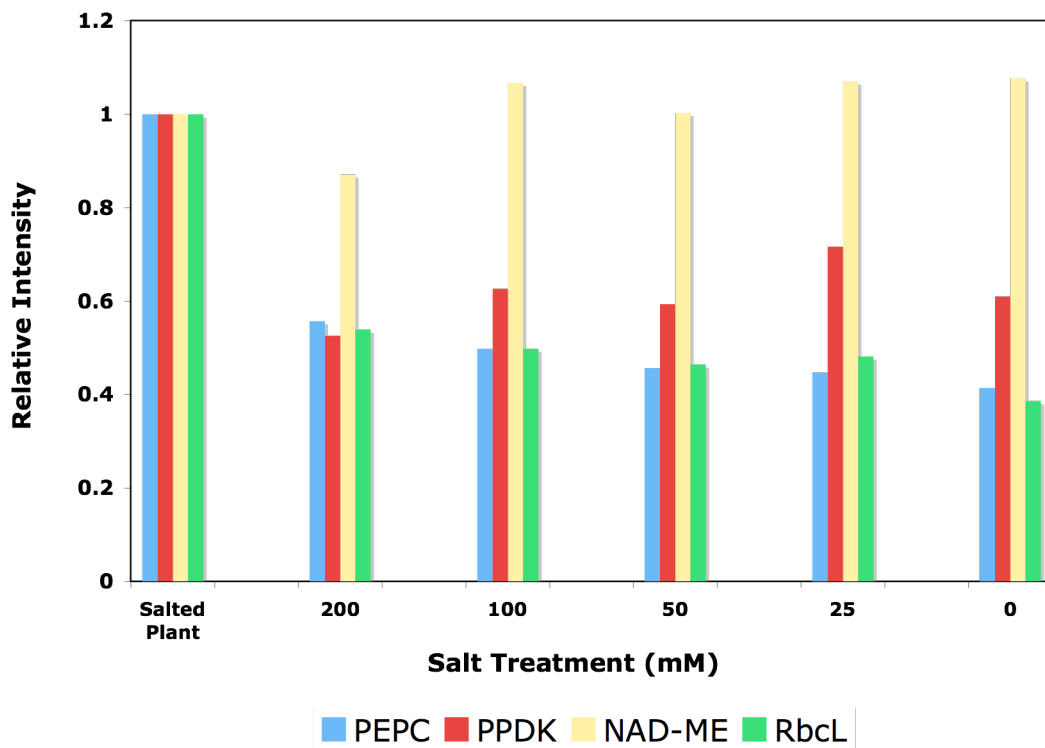


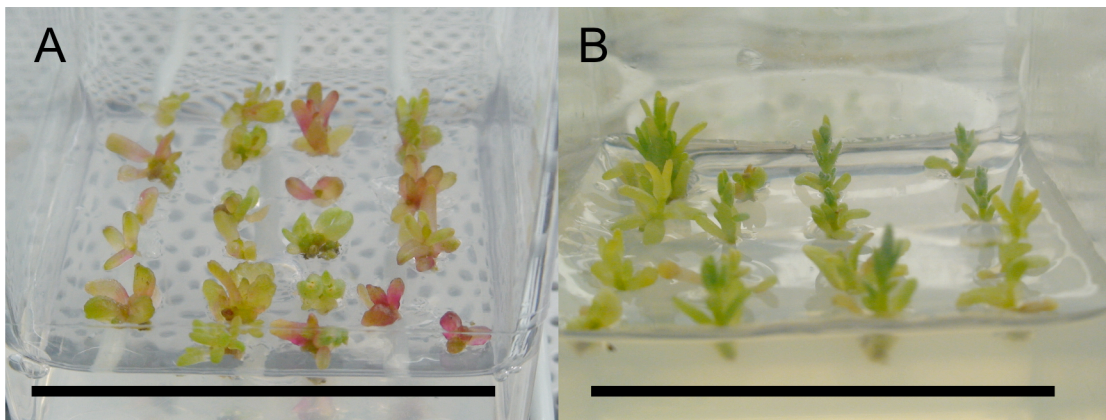
Figure 15. Rooted *B. sinuspersici* plant growing in a microbox containing a sand and soil mixture under 1.2% CO₂. Picture was taken 12 weeks after initiation of culture explants.



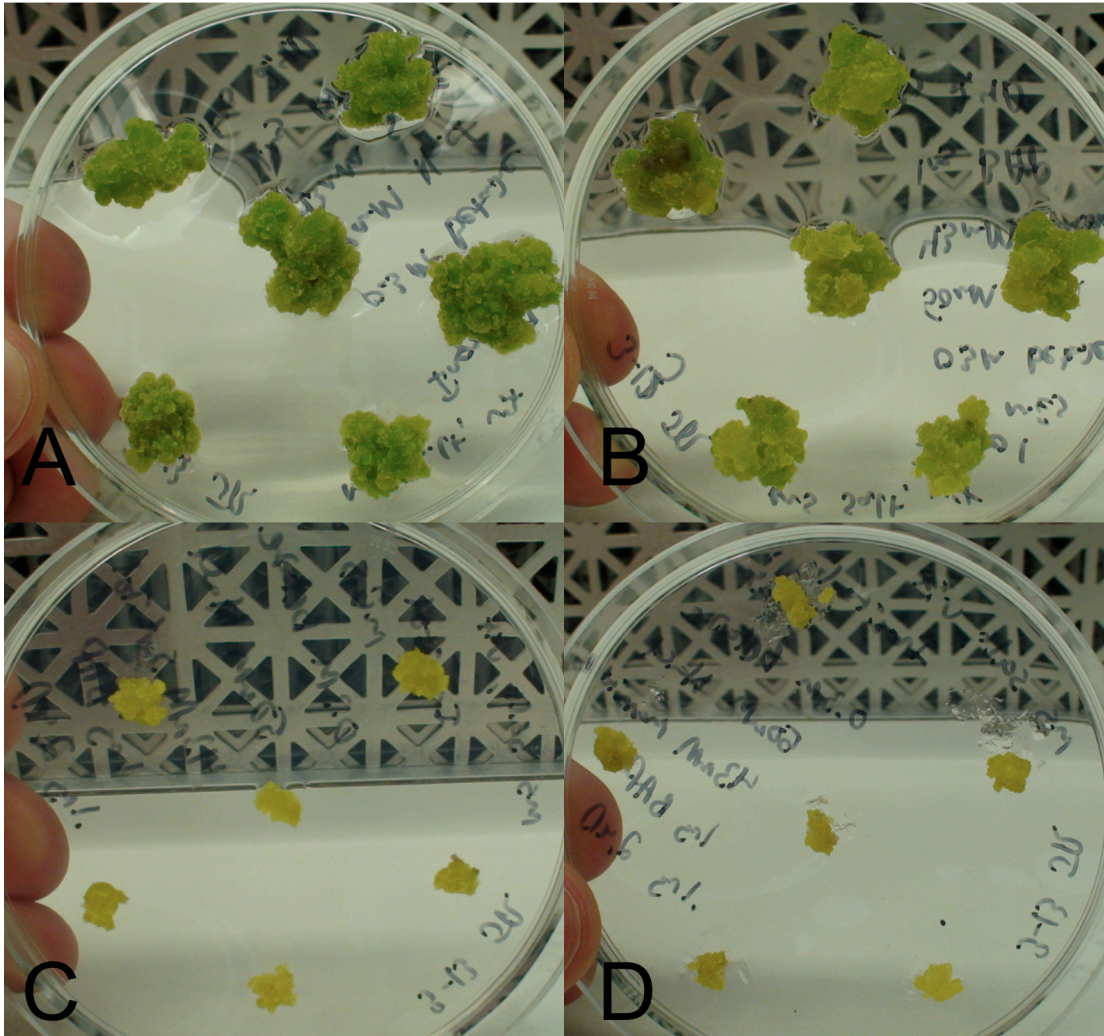
Supplemental Figure 1. Media comparison of Chu N₆ and MS.

MS Major Elements	mM	N6 Macronutrients	mM
NH ₄ NO ₃	41.2	NH ₄ SO ₄	3.481
KNO ₃	18.8	KNO ₃	27.992
CaCl ₂	3	CaCl ₂	1.088
MgSO ₄	1.5	MgSO ₄	0.751
KH ₂ PO ₄	1.25	KH ₂ PO ₄	2.296
Na ₂ -EDTA	Na 0.20	Na ₂ -EDTA	0.100
FeSO ₄	Fe 0.10	FeSO ₄	0.100
		Fe - EDTA	13.620
MS Minor Elements	μM	MS Micro Nutrients	μM
MnSO ₄	131.9	MnSO ₄	100.0
H ₃ BO ₃	100.3	H ₃ BO ₃	100.3
ZnSO ₄	29.9	ZnSO ₄	29.9
KI	5.0	KI	5.0
Na ₂ MoO ₄	1.0	Na ₂ MoO ₄	1.0
CuSO ₄	0.1	CuSO ₄	0.1
CoCl ₂	0.1	CoCl ₂	0.1
Vitamins	mg/l⁻¹	MS Vitamins	mg/l⁻¹
Nicotinic acid	0.5	Nicotinic acid	0.5
Pyridoxine	0.5	Pyridoxine	0.5
Thiamine	0.1	Thiamine	0.1
Glycine	2	Glycine	2
myo-inositol	100	myo-inositol	100

Supplemental Figure 2. Comparison of MS media versus Chu N₆ media. Following culture conditions for Stage 1 and Stage 2 with either MS or Chu N₆, pictured is regenerating shoots, grown at 25°C with a photosynthetic photon flux density of 70.5 $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2}\text{sec}^{-1}$. A) Shoots grown on Chu N₆ media supplemented with 43 mM sucrose, are hyperhydric and have more anthocyanin (pink color) compared to B) shoots grown on Murashige and Skoog media supplemented with 43 mM sucrose. Scale bars = 600 μm .



Supplemental Figure 3. The appearance of *B. sinuspersici* callus after Stage 2, grown on MS media with 5 mM phosphate supplemented with 10 mM NaCl, and either A) 43 mM sucrose, B) 43 mM glucose, C) 43 mM sorbitol, or D) 43 mM mannitol. Grown at 25°C with a photosynthetic photon flux density of 70.5 $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2}\text{sec}^{-1}$. Callus growth on either sucrose or glucose produced larger greener callus than callus grown on sorbitol or mannitol.



CHAPTER 3

FUTURE RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES FOR *BIENERTIA SINUSPERSICI*

The specialized anatomy seen in *Bienertia sinuspersici* chlorenchyma cells make it a unique system to study developmental plant biology, specifically the mechanism of formation of cytoplasmic domains and the interaction and compartmentation of organelles in a photosynthetic cell. The use of this species as a model system will depend on the ease of applying techniques and genomic resources used with other plant species. The research of this thesis focused on developing optimal *in vitro* culture conditions for the regeneration of *B. sinuspersici*. The results show that elevated CO₂ and 200 mM NaCl produced a shoot regeneration success from callus having RNS of 96% compared to a shoot regeneration success rate of 26% at the same salt level but with ambient CO₂. The lower rooting efficiency of 10% from callus having RNS at elevated CO₂ and 200 mM NaCl might be enhanced by further modification of culture conditions (in Stage 3, or a Stage 4). One test for increasing root regeneration is addition of 1% glucose and an auxin hormone such as indole-3-butyric acid (IBA) to half strength MS media (in a Stage 4), which has been done successfully with *Spartina alterniflora* (Wang *et al.* 2003). With the identification of appropriate culture conditions for shoot development, optimizing rooting conditions is now possible, and can be combined with transformation efforts.

If transformation was routinely possible there are many constructs that could be used to test the requirements for function of C₄ photosynthesis in *B. sinuspersici*. For example if a PEPC knockdown mutant was generated, such that the C₄ biochemical cycle

was not functioning, one could test whether this causes a structural reversion to C₃ type chlorenchyma having chloroplast with the C₃ cycle located at the periphery of the cell. Obtaining evidence that the anatomy is not dependent on the biochemistry would be useful for future engineering strategies. Manipulation of C₄ biochemistry has been performed in *Flaveria bidentis*, and NADP-ME type C₄ species, where anti-sense lines against carbonic anhydrase, PEPC, NADP-MDH, PPDK, and Rubisco have been generated, which provides insight into C₄ function (Furbank et al. 1997).

In *Bienertia* anti-sense constructs for the enzymes of the NAD – ME C₄ cycle, could be generated to determine the effect of knocking out individual enzymes in the biochemical cycle, and provide direct proof of requirements for cycle function. Other anti-sense lines against highly expressed transcription factors identified in *B. sinuspersici* by 454 sequencing compared to related species, could be tested to determine if they have a role in development of single cell C₄ photosynthesis. Lastly, anti-sense lines against components of the cytoskeleton such as actin or tubulin could be tested to see if they disrupt the positioning of organelles.

An ideal transformation construct should provide information about the physiological difference between the dimorphic chloroplasts. One physiological difference that has been found in the Kranz species maize is the concentration of H₂O₂ present in the chloroplast of mesophyll and bundle sheath cells. Studies on the antioxidant capacity of the two chloroplast types, showed that bundle sheath chloroplast have an accumulation of ascorbate peroxidase activity similar to accumulation of Rubisco (Doullis et al. 1997). The differential distribution of antioxidant capacity between the two-chloroplast types could play a role in C₄ biochemical protein accumulation.

Redox sensitive roGFP has been successfully used in Arabidopsis to measure the redox potential of mitochondria and the cytoplasm *in vivo*, where a greater buffering capacity was found inside the mitochondria compared to the cytoplasm (Jiang *et al.* 2006). A preliminary test to determine if there is a difference in redox capacity between the two-chloroplast types in *B. sinuspersici* using a roGFP is possible with constructs that have already been generated. Testing of these constructs will be done on protoplasts of *B. sinuspersici* where transformation is all ready possible, and then attempted on RNS to generate stable transformants to study the developmental change. With the identification of effective *in vitro* culture and regeneration conditions for *B. sinuspersici* it is now possible to test transformation of RNS, applying selection for transformed tissue during Stage I or II of regeneration.

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