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Co-expression and regulation of photorespiratory genes in Arabidopsis thaliana: A bioinformatic approach \star

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Photorespiration Co-expression Gene regulation Promoter cis-Regulatory elements Intron-mediated enhancement Being a pathway tightly linked to photosynthesis, photorespiration is regulated by light, but also by both nutrients and metabolites on transcriptional level. However, only little is known about the signals and how they are integrated on promoter level to coordinate the whole pathway. Using a bioinformatic approach we analyzed the co-expression patterns of photorespiratory genes, the predicted cis-regulatory elements in their 5′ upstream regions and the existence of introns in their 5′UTRs. We found that there are groups of photorespiratory genes that are strongly co-expressed among each other. The analysis showed a high co-expression between photorespiration and ammonia re-fixation. However, a strong co-regulation between two genes, like GDCH1 and GDCH2, did not necessarily mean that these genes share common cis-element in their 5' upstream regions. TATAbox, MYB1AT, and MYB4 binding site motifs occurred in 16 out of 20 genes. Furthermore, photorespiratory genes are subjected to alternative splicing. We discuss the presence of cis-elements in the context of both stress responses and development. A genome wide analysis of Arabidopsis 5′UTRs revealed that 5′UTRs introns are overrepresented in photorespiratory genes. Promoter:gusA studies indicated that photorespiratory gene expression is also regulated by intron-mediated enhancement (IME). As already shown for glutamate: glyoxylate aminotransferase, transcript abundance of serine: glyoxylate aminotransferase was affected by IME on mRNA level. IME of gene expression of glycolate oxidase was shown to act on translational level.

1. Introduction

Photorespiration is an inevitable pathway in C_3 -plants that detoxifies 2-phosphoglycolate formed by the oxygenation reaction of RuBisCO [\[1\]](#page-13-0). The pathway necessitates the cooperation of three different organelles: the chloroplast, the mitochondrion and the peroxisome. In the chloroplast, P-glycolate is first converted to glycolate via 2 phosphoglycolate phosphatase (PGLP1). In peroxisomes, glycolate is converted to glyoxylate by glycolate oxidase (GOX1/2). This reaction is oxygen-dependent and leads to the formation of hydrogen peroxide which is subsequently detoxified to water and oxygen by catalase (CAT2). Glyoxylate is a substrate for glutamate: glyoxylate amino transferase (GGT1). The glycine formed in this reaction is transported to mitochondria in which it is metabolized to serine by the joint action of the glycine decarboxylase complex (GDC) and serine hydroxymethyltransferase (SHMT1). This reaction results in the formation of serine, $CO₂$ and NH₃ and generates NADH. Transferred back to the peroxisome, serine is a substrate for serine: glyoxylate aminotransferase (SGAT). Reduction of the produced hydroxypyruvate to glycerate is catalyzed by the hydroxypyruvate reductase (HPR1) and consumes NADH. Finally, glycerate is transported back to the chloroplast where it is phosphorylated by glycerate kinase (GK) to phosphoglycerate.

Research on photorespiration begun with the observation of the socalled post-illumination burst (PIB), the release of $CO₂$ from photosynthetically active leaves upon darkening $[2]$ $[2]$ $[2]$. This burst in CO₂ evolution declines back to the level of mitochondrial (dark) respiration within a minute [[2](#page-13-1)]. The magnitude of PIB is correlated with the light intensity, temperature and $CO₂$ concentration [[3](#page-13-2),[4](#page-13-3)]. Tregunna and colleagues [[5](#page-13-4)] were the first who observed a correlation between the initial rate of PIB in both C3 and C4 plants and photosynthesis. In addition, they introduced the term "photo-stimulated respiration" [[5](#page-13-4)]. The discovery of photorespiration by Decker and others finally explained the observation that the rate of photosynthesis was inhibited by oxygen [[6](#page-13-5)].

The elucidation of the pathway and the enzymes involved was initiated by Somerville and Ogren [[7](#page-13-6)[,8\]](#page-13-7). They postulated that mutants

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with defects in the pathway of photorespiration will merely be viable under low photorespiratory conditions (high $CO₂$ concentrations) or low oxygen [[8](#page-13-7)]. Mutants generated by an EMS treatment of Arabidopsis thaliana seeds were grown under high $CO₂$ and then shifted to low $CO₂$ concentrations. Plants exhibiting a visible phenotype were transferred back to high $CO₂$ and, thus, were rescued from the applied photorespiratory stress. The first enzyme involved in the pathway of photorespiration was identified as PGLP followed by SGAT, SHMT, GDC, and a chloroplast dicarboxylate transporter (DiT) [[7](#page-13-6),9–[12](#page-13-8)]. Henceforward, the characterization of photorespiratory mutants was and is still under investigation. In 2007, Schwarte and Bauwe identified PGLP1 as the predominant isoform in photorespiration [\[13](#page-13-9)]. Dellero and colleagues [[14\]](#page-13-10) showed that the function of the two GOX isoforms in photorespiration is redundant. In addition, GOX greatly affected growth and glycolate levels, which were increased in mutants displaying 5% GOX activity in leaves [[14\]](#page-13-10). Along with these examples, extensive research has been done on HPR1 [\[15](#page-14-0)–18], GGT1 [\[19](#page-14-1),[20\]](#page-14-2), SGAT [\[21](#page-14-3)–23], GDC [24–[26\]](#page-14-4), SHMT1 [[27](#page-14-5)[,28](#page-14-6)] and glutamine synthetase 2 (GS2) [\[29](#page-14-7)]. However, knowledge in the field of transport remains elusive and is a topic of current research on photorespiration. The function of Arabidopsis plastidic 2-oxoglutarate/malate transporter (AtpOMT1; DiT1 according to [[30](#page-14-8)]) and the general dicarboxylate transporter (AtpDCT1; DiT2.1 according to [[30\]](#page-14-8)) was shown to be important for photorespiration [[31\]](#page-14-9). Interestingly, a transporter located in the endoplasmatic reticulum (ATP antiporter endoplasmic reticulum adenylate transporter 1, ER-ANT1) is essential for a functional photorespiratory pathway [\[32](#page-14-10)]. Loss of ER-ANT1 leads to a ROS-mediated inactivation of the GDC and, thus, to an inhibition of photorespiration. Eisenhut and colleagues [[33\]](#page-14-11) identified the A BOUT DE SOUFFLE (BOU) gene that encodes for a mitochondrial carrier protein with unknown substrate. In the same year, a chloroplastidic glycolate/glycerate transporter (PLGG1) was described whose function is required for photorespiration [[34\]](#page-14-12).

Alongside with the knowledge on the biochemical level, there are several studies that analyze the regulation of photorespiratory genes on promoter level [35–[40\]](#page-14-13). Transcript profilings indicated that, with the exception of glycerate kinase (GLYK), photorespiratory genes are regulated by light, osmotic stress and low-nitrate treatment [\[30](#page-14-8)]. Timm and colleagues [[41\]](#page-14-14) identified serine as metabolic signal in the regulation of photorespiration since serine accumulation in the hpr1 mutant led to perturbations in transcript levels of several photorespiratory genes. This study adds evidence that regulation of photorespiration occurs on the transcriptional level at least for PGLP1, the genes encoding the P- and T-protein of GDC, SHMT1, and GLYK. Thus, it is of great importance to study photorespiration at this level. Besides starting investigations of photorespiratory gene regulation on promoter level [[39\]](#page-14-15), we are curious whether the regulation is coordinated by e.g. common cis-elements in the 5′ upstream regions of photorespiratory genes. We therefore performed a bioinformatic approach in which we analyzed co-expression data, predicted cis-regulatory elements and gene regulation by intron-mediated enhancement.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Plant material and growth

Experiments were performed with Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0). Col-0 was also used for stable transformations. Plants were grown on one-half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium including 1x vitamins and 0.7% plant agar (both Duchefa) in a Plate Percival (CU-41L5/D; CLF Plant Climatics) for 16 days under short-day conditions (115 μE, 8 h light/16 h darkness; 22/ 20 °C). For the selection of transformed plants, kanamycin (25 mg/ml) was added to the medium. After 16 days, plants were harvested for either qPCR analysis or GUS staining 1 h after illumination. Samples meant for qPCR analysis were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen.

2.2. RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and qPCR analysis

RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and qPCR analysis were performed as described previously [\[39](#page-14-15)]. Primers used for quantification are listed in [Table 1.](#page-1-0)

2.3. Cloning of promoter::gusA constructs

The 5′ upstream and coding sequences were obtained from Phytozome v9.1 [[42\]](#page-14-16). GOX1 (At3g14420), GOX2 (At3g14415) and SGAT (At2g13360) 5′UTR intron deletions (Δ5I) were generated by a simple PCR using a primer that binds to the adjacent 5′ upstream region of the intron. In addition, the primer included the 3′ downstream region of the intron (basepairs upstream of the start codon). Primers used for cloning are listed in [Table 1.](#page-1-0) Constructs GGT1 and GGT1-Δ5I were already published [[39\]](#page-14-15). Cloning was performed as described before [\[39](#page-14-15)].

2.4. Stable Arabidopsis transformation

The generation of stable Arabidopsis plants was performed as described [[39\]](#page-14-15).

2.5. GUS activity assay

GUS activity of 16-days-old plantlets was determined according to Jefferson et al. [[43\]](#page-14-17) using the fluorogenic substrate 4-methylumbelliferyl b-D-glucuronide.

2.6. GUS staining

Sixteen-days-old plants were stained for GUS activity by vacuum

 $^{\rm a}$ Sum of LLS (log likelihood scores) of network links to all other query genes.
b Reflects how often paths that start at a given gene node end up in one of the query nodes and how long and heavily weighted those pat ^a Sum of LLS (log likelihood scores) of network links to all other query genes.
^b Reflects how often paths that start at a given gene node end up in one of the query nodes and how long and heavily weighted those paths

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infiltration with GUS staining solution [GUS buffer containing 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.0, and 0.05 M NaCl, 100 mM hexacyanoferrate(III), 100 mM hexacyanoferrate(II), 50 mg/ml X-Gluc, 0.1% Triton X-100], followed by an incubation at 37 °C for at least 12 h. Chlorophyll was washed out with 70% ethanol, and plants were transferred to 10% glyercol. Images were taken using a binocular (Olympus SZ2-ILST) connected to a camera (Color View; Soft Imaging System) and visualized with the associated software program AnalySIS getIT Stereo.

2.7. Bioinformatics

2.7.1. Co-expression analysis

Co-expression analysis of photorespiratory genes and genes linked to photorespiration was performed with seven different bioinformatics tools: AraNet v2 (<http://www.inetbio.org/aranet>; 44), ATTED-II ([http://atted.jp/,](http://atted.jp/) 45), CORNET 3.0 [\(https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.](https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/cornet/) [be/cornet/](https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/cornet/); 46), CressExpress ([http://www.cressexpress.org/;](http://www.cressexpress.org/) 47), CSB.DB ([http://www.csbdb.de/csbdb/dbcor/cor.html;](http://www.csbdb.de/csbdb/dbcor/cor.html) 48), [http://](http://genemania.org/) [genemania.org/;](http://genemania.org/) 49) and PlaNet [\(http://aranet.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/](http://aranet.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/); 50) ([Table 2](#page-2-2)). We analyzed genes previously listed by Foyer et al. [\[30](#page-14-8)] and Eisenhut et al. [[33\]](#page-14-11), respectively: 2-phosphoglycolate phosphatase 1 (PGLP1; At5g36700, ID: 833635), glycerate kinase (GLYK; At1g80380, ID: 844378), glutamine synthetase (GS2; At5g35630, ID: 833535), glutamate synthase (GLU1; At5g04140, ID: 830292), glycolate oxidase 1 (GOX1; At3g14420, ID: 820665), glycolate oxidase 2 (GOX2; At3g14415, ID: 820664), serine: glyoxylate aminotransferase (SGAT; At2g13360, ID: 815822), glutamate: glyoxylate aminotransferase (GGAT; At1g23310, ID: 838940), hydroxypyruvate reductase 1 (HPR1; At1g68010, ID: 843129), hydroxypyruvate reductase 2 (HPR2; At1g79870, ID: 843129), catalase 2 (CAT2; At4g35090, ID: 829661), glycine decarboxylase complex H-protein 1 (GDCH1; At2g35370, ID: 818104), glycine decarboxylase complex H-protein 2 (GDCH2; At1g32470, ID: 840141), glycine decarboxylase P-protein 1 (GLDP1; At4g33010, ID: 829438), glycine decarboxylase P-protein 2 (GLDP2; At2g26080, ID: 817149), glycine cleavage T-protein (GDCT; At1g11860, ID: 837733), mitochondrial lipoamide dehydrogenase 1 (mLPD1; At1g48030, ID: 841221), serine hydroxymethyltransferase 1 (SHMT1; At4g37930, ID: 829949), dicarboxylate transporter 1 (DiT1; At5g12860, ID: 831126), dicarboxylate transporter 2.1 (DiT2.1; At5g64290, ID: 836550), dicarboxylate transporter 2.1 (DiT2.2; At5g64280, ID: 836549). Selected tools and parameters are given in [Table 2](#page-2-2) and Supplemental Tables.

2.7.2. Prediction of regulatory cis-elements

Prediction of regulatory cis-elements in genes encoding photorespiratory enzymes was performed with the Athena tool [\[51](#page-14-25)]. Athena identified cis-elements in the 5′ upstream regions of the individual PR genes until the next upstream lying gene was reached, but sticked to an upper limit of 3000 bp.

2.7.3. Identification of Arabidopsis genes containing a 5′UTR intron

To identify Arabidopsis genes containing 5′UTR introns we downloaded the dataset "TAIR10_5_utr_20101028" from the TAIR database (<https://www.arabidopsis.org>). We analyzed the data in two different ways. i) Genes were sorted according to their AGI code. Afterwards, we removed all duplicate AGI codes, originating from different predicted splice forms, from the list. In the case that we found one splice form containing an intron while another did not, the gene was counted as "intron-containing". Genes containing 5′UTR introns were assigned to their bin according to MapMan [[52\]](#page-14-26). Over- and underrepresentation of introns in 5′UTR was calculated by comparing the expected and the real number of genes with 5′UTR intron relative to the total number of genes within the different bins. Significant difference of over- and underrepresentation relative to the average was tested by a statistical x^2 -test. ii) 5′UTR intron containing genes were grouped into classes considering the number of introns present. Afterwards, duplicates within the individual classes were removed.

2.7.4. Confirmation of 5′UTR introns with RNA seq data

Predicted 5′UTR introns of genes within the bin "photorespiration" were confirmed by RNA seq data available in the EIN3 browser [\[53](#page-14-27)]. The EIN3 browser is a public accessible database of RNAseq data located on the SIGnAL: Salk Institute Genomic Analysis Laboratory Homepage (<http://signal.salk.edu/>).

2.7.5. Determination of IMEter scores

IMEter scores were determined with the IMEter v2.1 algorithm by Rose et al. [[54\]](#page-14-28).

3. Results and discussion

It is known that transcriptional co-expression of genes is one way to coordinate the expression of enzymes that either function in the same pathway [\[55](#page-14-29)] or directly interact with each other as shown for cyclophilin Cyp20-3 and peroxiredoxin 2-Cys Prx [[56\]](#page-14-30). Furthermore, co-expression analysis is a suitable tool to find new players in pathways. For example, the Arabidopsis transporter A BOUT DE SOUFFLE is co-expressed with genes encoding enzymes in the photorespiratory pathway [[33\]](#page-14-11). The metabolic pathway of photorespiration involves the three different organelles chloroplast, peroxisome and mitochondrion [[1](#page-13-0)]. Thus, it appears likely that gene expression of the associated enzymes needs to be co-regulated. We therefore performed a co-expression analysis and listed the individual genes according to subcellular location of the corresponding proteins ([Fig. 1](#page-4-0)).

A common measure for the strength of co-expression between two genes is the Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC). PCC describes the linear relationship between two quantitative dimensions, hence changes in gene expression. A downside of PCC is that it can easily give false-positive results. For instance, PCC can indicate a good correlation between two genes only based on an outlier [[57](#page-14-31)]. A different measure is Spearman's correlation coefficient (SCC). SCC describes a monotone relationship of two dimensions, no linear relationship is assumed. The CSB.DB enables a direct comparison between PCC and SCC of a given set of genes. Both, PCC and SCC can range from −1 (negative correlation) to $+1$ (positive correlation). The strength of co-expression is defined as no correlation ($0 \le r \le 0.2$), weak to moderate $(0.2 < r < 0.5)$, distinct $(0.5 < r < 0.8)$ and strong to perfect $(0.8 < r < 1.0)$. We only concentrated on positive correlations in this study.

In a first approach, we analyzed the co-expression of photorespiratory genes among each other. For this, we used the tools AraNet v2, ATTED-II, CSB.DB and GeneMANIA ([Table 2](#page-2-2)). Furthermore, the coexpression viewer in ATTED-II allowed the visualization of the correlation of expression patterns for each of the individual PR gene pairs. While AraNet v2 and GeneMANIA gave information about the linkage of each photorespiratory gene to the other genes in the pathway, ATTED-II and CSB.DB displayed PCC. With the exception of CSB.DB, the selected matrices (the PCC/link was calculated/determined from) were chosen automatically by the tools. In the case of CSB.DB, we chose the matrix 'nasc0271', thus a source of miscellaneous experiments and, therefore, best comparable to the other tools ([Table 2\)](#page-2-2). In general, most of the matrices based on microarray data. With RNAseq on the rise, many of the databases will include RNAseq data in the future, as it is already realized in ATTED-II. [Fig. 1](#page-4-0) summarizes links and PCC between PR genes based on the independent tools used. In the case of PCC, we chose a cut off 0.7 and, thus, a correlation coefficient indicating at least a very distinct coherence between two genes. For an easier overview and comparison of the four tools the genes were highlighted [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-4-0).

In AraNet v2, the best linked genes were GDCT, GLPD1, GDCH2 and HPR1 as indicated by the highest scores (130.29, 104.51, 69.11 and 61.34, respectively) among all PR genes [\(Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). The given score reflects the sum of LLS (log likelihood scores) of network links to all other

M. Laxa, S. Fromm *Current Plant Biology xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

ATTED-II

CSB.DB

GeneMANIA

Fig. 1. Co-expression of photorespiratory genes and genes linked to photorespiration. The table displays co-expression (Pearson's correlation coefficient) between the different genes encoding photorespiratory enzymes. All genes listed in Foyer et al. [[30\]](#page-14-8) were analyzed for co-expression with AraNet v2, ATTED-II, CSB.DB and GeneMANIA. Columns marked grey assign genes for which the tools displayed no information. Genes were grouped by organelle destination of the gene product with the exception of the transporters (black): green – chloroplast, red – peroxisome and orange – mitochondrion.

query genes [\[44](#page-14-18)]. The least linked genes were GLYK and the transporters. Both peroxisomal and mitochondrial PR genes individually appear to be tightly linked. Among the genes encoding mitochondrion located PR gene products, GLDP1, GDCT and SHMT1 were the best linked genes to those encoding chloroplast and peroxisome located gene products. [Fig. 1](#page-4-0) shows that HPR1 was most evenly linked to genes encoding PR proteins located in chloroplasts, mitochondria and peroxisomes, but there is no link to the transporters. In contrast to the pattern of links between PR genes observed in AraNet2, GeneMANIA did not allow any prediction of a tighter connection between genes encoding mitochondria located PR gene products for instance [\(Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). Information about the individual genes and their linkage to other PR genes was extracted from the interactive network graphic displayed on the GeneMANIA webpage. Hence, the links did not reflect any weighting of the individual links. The main conclusion drawn from the GeneMANIA analysis was that DiT2.2 is not linked to most of the genes, thus, presumably is not part of the network. In addition, CAT2 and GLDP2 were the least connected among all PR genes.

Based on a cut-off of $r \geq 0.7$ for PCC in ATTED-II and CSB.DB, again there is evidence that genes encoding either mitochondria or peroxisome located PR gene products were co-expressed best ([Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). Once more, GLDP1, GDCT, SHMT1 and HPR1 were best co-expressed with all other PR genes. While genes encoding enzymes in the re-assimilation of ammonia were linked to only a few PR genes when using AraNet v2, they appeared very well co-expressed with the PR genes in ATTED-II and CSB.DB. Both ATTED-II and CSB.DB qualified HPR2, CAT2, GLPD2 and the transporters to be weakly co-expressed with the other genes in photorespiration.

Because DCB.DB allowed a direct comparison of a linear (PCC) and non-linear (SCC) correlation, we also extracted co-expression data of the PR genes using SCC. Using an identical cut-off of $r \geq 0.7$ for both PCC and SCC, we only found minor differences in the co-expression patterns (Supplemental Fig. S1). In contrast to PCC, SCC found a better co-expression of the transporters with the other PR genes, but a generally weaker co-expression of GLYK with all other genes.

We also checked the correlation of expression patterns for each of the individual PR gene pairs with the 'CoEx Viewer' of ATTED-II. Supplemental Fig. S2 exemplarily shows the correlation of expression patterns for the best co-expressed genes $GDCH1$ and $GDCH2$ ($r = 0.935$) and the least co-expressed genes $GLYK$ and $HPR2$ ($r = 0.005$).

Disregarding data generated with GeneMANIA, the co-expression analysis revealed evidence that, firstly, GLYK is not strongly co-expressed with the other PR genes. Secondly, both GS2 and GLU1 showed an at least distinct co-expression to most of the genes listed ([Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). This points out how tight nitrogen metabolism is connected to photorespiration [[58\]](#page-14-32). In addition, this is in agreement with the finding that nitrate reduction is blocked as a consequence of inhibition of photorespiration [[59\]](#page-14-33). This relationship between primary nitrogen assimilation and photorespiration was already observed in Lotus japonicus by Pérez-Delgado and colleagues [[60\]](#page-14-34) based on transcriptomics and coexpression analysis. Thirdly, HPR2 and GLDP2 showed the weakest coexpression and the lowest linkage to all other PR genes. However, both enzymes can compensate for the function of their isoform HPR1 and GLDP1 in photorespiration, respectively. Single knockout lines of GLDP1 and GLDP2 are indistinguishable from wild type plants under ambient $CO₂$ conditions, while the double mutant did not develop beyond the cotyledon stage even under non-photorespiratory conditions [[26\]](#page-14-35). HPR2 represents an alternative cytosolic pathway for the conversion of hydroxypyruvate to glycerate during photorespiration [[17\]](#page-14-36).

Forthly, the PR genes encoding enzymes located in the peroxisome (SGAT, GGT1 and HPR1) showed strong co-expression among each other and a moderate co-expression with CAT2 [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-4-0). CAT2 detoxifies hydrogen peroxide produced by GOX during photorespiration, and cat2 mutants develop a photorespiratory phenotype under ambient $CO₂$ concentrations [[61](#page-14-37),[62\]](#page-15-0). The moderate co-expression of CAT2 with SGAT, GGT1 and HPR1 can be explained by its general role in microbodies because CAT2 can be found in both glyoxysomes and peroxisomes [[63\]](#page-15-1). The consensus of the co-expression analysis in [Fig. 1](#page-4-0) is that HPR1 is predicted to be the best co-expressed gene with GDCH2, GLDP1 and GDCT (encoding GDC complex components) among the genes encoding PR enzymes located in the peroxisome [\(Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). Interestingly, mLPD1 is only linked to genes encoding mitochondrial PR enzymes. Furthermore, co-expression of mLPD1 is weak to moderate according to ATTED-II and CSB.DB ([Fig. 1](#page-4-0)). This is in line with the observation that knockout mutants of mLPD1 are vital, show an increased plant growth and an increased rate in both $CO₂$ assimilation and photorespiration [[64\]](#page-15-2). In general, co-expression of GDC components makes sense because this co-expression ensures the stoichiometry between subunits of GDC. But, GDC gene expression is not regulated by over-expression of single components of the complex as observed for the T-protein [[65\]](#page-15-3). This means, the plant cell does not sense the amount of GDC protein and coordinates gene expression hereupon. This fits to the picture that photorespiratory gene expression is regulated on transcriptional level [\[41\]](#page-14-14). The strong co-expression with SHMT1 was also comprehensible. SHMT1 uses the methylene carbon of glycine generated by the GDC and an additional glycine to form serine. The GDC can only function when all four subunits are assembled [\[66](#page-15-4)].

Fifthly, an important point in photorespiration is the exchange of metabolites across membranes. The transporters listed in [Fig. 1](#page-4-0) are oxoglutarate/malate transporters and are predominantly distinctly coexpressed with genes encoding GDC enzymes [[67\]](#page-15-5). According to [Fig. 1](#page-4-0) the best co-expression and linkage to the other PR genes was observed for DiT1 followed by DiT2.1, while DiT2.2 generally showed a moderate co-expression.

In a second approach, we visualized the co-expression and, if possible, the interaction network of PR genes/enzymes. Here, both the type of network presentation and nomenclature were as diverse as the underlying matrices of the tools ([Table 2](#page-2-2)). With the exception of AraNet v2, the tools also displayed genes that were closely connected to either most of the PR genes (ATTED-II and GeneMANIA) or only a selection of them (CORNET 3.0 and PlaNet) ([Fig. 2\)](#page-6-0).

The network generated by AraNet v2 reflected the observations made in [Fig. 1.](#page-4-0) The center of the network is made up of genes encoding the GDC components and SHMT1. HPR is tightly linked to the center. The second co-expressed unit includes PR genes with peroxisome located gene products as indicated in the upper part of the network. GLU1 (GLUS in the network) appears better connected than GS2. DiT1, DiT2.1 and GLYK are part of the network but show a lower degree of linkage. As indicated in [Fig. 1,](#page-4-0) DiT2.2 is not part of the network according to AraNet v2 [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-6-0).

ATTED-II gave two different networks depending on the matrix used. The microarray-based network included 15 PR genes, while the RNAseq-based included 19 of the 21 genes [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-6-0). A direct comparison of the two networks revealed similarities and differences. In both networks the two transporter DiT1 and DiT2.1 (DCT in ATTED-II) seemed to be linked to mtLPD1. While genes encoding mitochondria located PR gene products cluster better based on the Ath-m matrix, genes encoding peroxisome located PR gene products cluster better based on the Ath-r matrix. But using both matrices, genes encoding enzymes in ammonia refixation, GS2 and GLU1 (GLUS in ATTED-II), were linked to both GLDP isoforms. CSPD1, an oxidoductase, a transketolase and PDS2 were predicted to be part of the network based on either Ath-m or Ath-r ([Fig. 2\)](#page-6-0). Interestingly, the Ath-m based network displayed BOU as a member of the network of PR genes. The role of the BOU transporter in photorespiration has recently been elucidated experimentally [[33\]](#page-14-11).

CORNET 3.0 displayed a network containing only five of the 21 PR genes, namely HPR, GGT1, GLU1, GDCH1 and GDCH2. Here, HPR and the two GDCH isoforms are linked best to the predicted members of the network [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-6-0).

The GeneMANIA network resembled features of the networks described before, even though the network was built on both expression data and data on physical interaction. Like in AraNet v2, the two GOX

M. Laxa, S. Fromm *Current Plant Biology xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

Fig. 2. Networks displayed with the different co-expression tools.

isoforms appeared loosely connected to the other PR genes [\(Fig. 2](#page-6-0)). The two transporters DiT1 and DiT2.1 as well as mtLPD1 were located in the border area of the networks (AraNet v2, ATTED-II At-m and At-r and GeneMANIA). A distinct clustering of PR gene products located either in the mitochondria or peroxisome cannot be observed anymore using GeneMANIA. This might be the result of including data on physical interaction, even though the weighting of the data was 71.14%–28.86% in favor of the transcript data ([Table 1](#page-1-0)). However, the GeneMANIA network nicely displayed both co-expression and interactions of the PR genes among each other and with the predicted network members.

PlaNet displayed the unclearest network with single members hardly to be separated from other members. Similar to CORNET 3.0 the network was built on the basis of only a few genes, namely GLYK, GS2, PGLP1, DiT2.1 and DiT2.2. Thus, with the exception of GS2 the PR gene network was based on members that are not the best linked and coexpressed genes within the network in general [\(Figs. 1 and 2\)](#page-4-0).

Having a closer look on the individual network, we found that some genes like SBPase and CSP41B are displayed in different networks ([Figs. 1 and 2\)](#page-4-0). Despite using different matrices and algorithms, we therefore searched for genes enriched in multiple networks generated by the different tools. [Table 3](#page-6-1) summarizes predicted members of the PR network. With the exception of CORNET 3.0, the genes were ranked by the individual tools. Genes enriched in all data sets were marked grey ([Table 3\)](#page-6-1). In summary, five genes were found to be enriched, namely At5g09660 (PMDH2), At1g09340 (CSP41B), At3g55800 (SBPase), At1g42970 (GAPB) and At4g38970 (FBA2) ([Table 4\)](#page-7-0). GDCT appeared to be best co-expressed with these genes as indicated by strong correlation coefficients [\(Fig. 3\)](#page-7-1).

PMDH2 encodes a peroxisomal NAD-malate dehydrogenase involved in ß-oxidation. Mutants laking both peroxisomal isoforms show a severe impairment in ß-oxidation, seedling establishment and a sucrose dependent growth phenotype [[68\]](#page-15-6). However, the glyoxylate cycle functioned normally in the double mutant [\[68](#page-15-6)], even though PMDH

Table 3

List of genes linked to the network of PR genes. The genes were identified with the bioinformatics tools given. With the exception of CORNET 3.0, the rank of a gene displays their link to the PR genes. Genes that were enriched throughout the tools are marked grey. Ath-m: Arabidopsis thaliana microarray data, Ath-r: Arabidopsis thaliana RNAseq data.

* genes are not ranked

was considered to be a part of the photorespiratory pathway, providing NADH for HPR. The authors suggested that hydroxypyruvate can alternatively be reduced to glycerate in the cytosol as shown by Timm and colleagues [[17\]](#page-14-36). Hence, there is ambiguity whether the enrichment of PMDH2 within the predicted networks of PR genes is functionally relevant. Further experimental investigations are needed to clarify this observation in the future.

CSP41b (chloroplast stem-loop binding protein 41 kDa) is one of two CSP41 isoforms (a, b) that share 52% sequence similarity on protein level. CSP41b belongs to the class of stroma proteins with the highest

Table 4

Genes found to be co-regulated or interacting with PR genes.

level of abundance, while CSP41a groups into the second most abundant group [[69\]](#page-15-7). CSP41a and CSP41b physically interact [[70\]](#page-15-8) and are members of higher molecular weight complexes that form in the dark and dissociate in light [[71\]](#page-15-9). The model suggests CSP41 to bind nontranslated mRNA and rRNA precursors to protect them from endonuclease activities in the dark. Like PR genes, CSP41b protein accumulates in mature leaves [\[72](#page-15-10)]. Loss of CSP41b led to a decrease in chlorophyll content in Arabidopsis and rice [\[73](#page-15-11)–75]. As described for PMDH2, there is no experimental evidence for a functionally relevant co-expression or interaction with PR genes/proteins. However, CSP41b was discovered as a target for miR399f, a micro RNA playing a crucial role in maintaining phosphate homeostasis in Arabidopsis [[76\]](#page-15-12). Overexpression of miR399f Arabidopsis decreased CSP41b mRNA levels. miR399f overexpressing plants showed enhanced tolerance to salt stress

and exogenous ABA supply, but were hypersensitive to drought [\[76](#page-15-12)]. Drought increases photorespiration. Whether the observed hypersensitivity to drought is caused by a disturbance of photorespiration which is linked to CSP41b expression, needs to be investigated in the future.

SPBase, GAPB and FBA2 are members of the Calvin cycle in chloroplasts. SBPase has a key function in the regulation of carbon flow through the Calvin cycle [[77,](#page-15-13)[78\]](#page-15-14), and overexpression of SBPase in rice led to enhanced tolerance to both salt stress and high temperature [[79](#page-15-15)[,80](#page-15-16)]. In these plants, improved tolerance was associated with the content and activity of FBPase. In tomato, overexpression of SPBase enhanced tolerance to chilling stress [\[81](#page-15-17)]. In accordance with this, SBPase loss-of-function Arabidopsis mutants (sbp) suffered from severe growth retardation through inhibition of cell division and expansion [[82\]](#page-15-18). ROS-mediated inactivation of SBPase following stress inhibited

Fig. 3. Correlation of expression patterns of GDCT and the five most enriched genes according to AraNet v2, ATTED-II, CORNET 3.0, CressExpress, GeneMANIA and PlaNet.

the carbon assimilation efficiency. In this scenario, the author proposed that the inactivation of SBPase is an adaptation of plants to downregulate the reductive pentose phosphate pathway under stress conditions [[82\]](#page-15-18). Like SBPase, FBA2 is predicted to control carbon flux through the Calvin cycle and overexpression of FBA2 increased growth and photosynthesis [[83\]](#page-15-19). Unfortunately, none of the studies analyzed either photorespiratory gene expression or the accumulation of photorespiratory metabolites in SBPase and FBA2 mutants. Photorespiration is tightly linked to the Calvin cycle via the oxygenase activity of RU-BISCO [\[84](#page-15-20)]. Any increase in ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate regeneration will ultimately lead to an increase in $CO₂$ assimilation, but also in $O₂$ fixation under ambient $CO₂$ conditions. Thus, co-expression of PR genes and genes encoding regulatory enzymes in the regeneration step of the Calvin cycle makes perfectly sense. Reverse genetics revealed that disruption of the photorespiratory pathway leads to alteration in photosynthesis, sugar metabolism and sencescence [\[52](#page-14-26),85–[89\]](#page-15-21). There is strong experimental evidence that the primary product of the oxygenation reaction of RUBISCO, 2-phosphoglycolate (2-PG), feeds back on the Calvin cycle. Flügel and colleagues [[90\]](#page-15-22) used pglp1 antisense lines to show that varying levels of 2-PG altered PSII efficieny, net $CO₂$ uptake and the $CO₂$ compensation point for example. Mechanistically, 2-PG regulates the Calvin cycle by inhibiting triose-phosphate isomerase (TPI) and FBPase [[90\]](#page-15-22). Beside PGLP1 activity, GOX plays a role in regulating primary metabolism. Xu and colleagues [[85\]](#page-15-21) reported a linear relationship between GOX inhibition and the decrease in the rate of photosynthesis. This observation was strengthened by a recent publication by Dellero and colleagues [[14\]](#page-13-10) in which a decrease in glycolate oxidase activity altered both carbon allocation and leaf senescence. Beside this, GOX activity was shown to be involved in cell death and R-gene-mediated resistance [[91\]](#page-15-23). Interestingly, Gilbert and Wolpert [[92\]](#page-15-24) identified six genes, that, when silenced, suppressed both the LOV1 (locus orchestrating victorin effects 1) -mediated, victorin-induced and the RPP8-induced cell death in tobacco. According to sequence similarity, the genes were assigned to GAPB, GOX1, GS2, GDCT, GLDP1 and PHT, the mitochondrial phosphate transporter 3, in Arabidopsis. However, the mechanism is still unclear. But based on their sensitivity to redox regulation, GDC (glutathionylation) [[93](#page-15-25)] and GAPB (glutathionylation and oxidation) [\[94](#page-15-26)] are thought to play a role in ROS signaling. Based on this experimental data, the finding of GAPB within the network of PR genes in our bioinformatic approach fits well.

According to the co-expression analysis there are groups of genes that are co-regulated stronger than others among each other. Because gene expression is controlled by promoter elements, we analyzed the 5´ upstream regions of photorespiratory genes with Athena [[51\]](#page-14-25). In particular, we were interested whether genes that showed a strong coregulation contain identical cis-elements in their 5´ upstream sequences. Identical cis-elements in these promoters might offer a starting-point to analyze the regulation of co-expressed photorespiratory genes.

[Fig. 4](#page-9-0) gives an overview on putative cis-elements identified within the individual 5´ upstream regions. Comparing the number of putative cis-elements in the 5´ upstream regions of the individual gene, it becomes obvious that some genes like both GDCH isoforms contain only a low number of cis-elements, while others contain a large set of cis-elements as it is the case for CAT2 [\(Fig. 4\)](#page-9-0). The number of predicted ciselements in the 5′ upstream region of CAT2 can be directly linked to its function, the detoxification of hydrogen peroxide that is produced following several biotic and abiotic stresses [[95\]](#page-15-27). Furthermore, the presence of multiple cis-elements in the 5´ upstream region, providing many sites to regulate gene expression, is accompanied with an open promoter structure of CAT2 as indicated by a low number of nucleosomes that is not restricted to the transcription initiation start (TIS) [[40\]](#page-14-38). There was no cis-element identified common to all twenty 5' upstream regions tested, but a few cis-elements were enriched. The most abundant cis-elements were the TATA-box motif, the MYB1ATand MYB4 binding site motif. Each motif was found in sixteen out of twenty 5′ upstream regions.

The TATA-box motif is one of two key regulatory cis-elements in the core promoter of plants. The TATA-box is located approximately 30 bp from TIS and a binding site for the TATA binding protein (TBP) [[96,](#page-15-28)[97](#page-15-29)]. TBP is a part of the general transcription factor TFIID which itself is a component of the RNA polymerase II preinitiation complex [\[98](#page-15-30)]. Eukaryotes do not necessarily need a TATA-box to initiate transcription. TATA-box-less promoters also exist. These promoters contain an Initiator (Inr) element instead. The Inr element is the second key element in core promoters, enriched in pyrimidine, and surrounding the TIS [[99](#page-15-31)[,100\]](#page-15-32). However, Inr elements can also be found in TATA-box containing promoters. There was no TATA-box predicted for GLYK, HPR1, GDCH2 and DiT1 ([Fig. 4](#page-9-0)). Even though TATA-box is often seen as a sole binding site for the TBP protein, its presence is also associated with light responses as shown by Kiran and colleagues [[101](#page-15-33)].

MYB1 und MYB4 belong to the family of R2R3-type MYBs [[102](#page-15-34)]. R2R3-type MYBs are involved in the regulation of primary and secondary metabolism, cell fate and identity, developmental processes as well as responses to biotic and abiotic stress [103–[105\]](#page-15-35). Arabidopsis AtMYB1 is constitutively high expressed in all plant organs and following various treatments, while reverse Northern analyses revealed a weak expression of AtMYB4 in most plant organs except siliques [[103](#page-15-35)]. AtMYB4 gene expression is regulated [\[103\]](#page-15-35). Jin and colleagues [[106](#page-15-36)] found that AtMYB4 negatively regulates cinnamate 4-hydroxylase (C4H, CYP73 A) expression. C4H catalyzes the conversion of cinnamic acid to p-coumaric acid in the general isoprenoid pathway [[107](#page-15-37),[108](#page-15-38)]. AtMYB4 also negatively impacts gene expression of other steps in this pathway like the synthesis of sinapate esters [\[106\]](#page-15-36). In line with the function of sinapate esters, the protection of the plant towards UV-B irradiation, AtMYB4 transcript is downregulated following exposure to UV-B [[106](#page-15-36)]. MYB1 TFs from other species were shown to regulate anthocyanin biosynthesis [\[109,](#page-15-39)[110\]](#page-15-40) and to be involved in light [[111](#page-15-41)] and drought responses [[112](#page-15-42),[113](#page-15-43)].

A regulation of photorespiratory genes by R2R3-type MYB factors is plausible because abiotic stress conditions like drought and high light increase photorespiration [[1](#page-13-0)]. Furthermore, MYBs might be involved in the coordinated downregulation of photorespiratory genes following infection with virulent pathogens [[114](#page-15-44)]. We hypothesize an antagonistic MYB-based regulation of photorespiratory gene expression. This idea is based on a publication by Schenke and colleagues [[115](#page-15-45)]. Testing the influence of abiotic stress (UV-B), biotic stress (flagellin22) or a combination of both (UV-B and flagellin) on the expression of genes encoding enzymes in the flavonoid biosynthesis, they found that immune stress responses override abiotic stress responses. More precisely, the UV-B induced synthesis of protective flavonols [[116](#page-15-46)] is suppressed when flagellin22 is present simultaneously [\[115\]](#page-15-45). Crosstalk among UV-B and pathogen stress responses has been observed before [[117](#page-15-47)]. Schenke and colleagues [[115\]](#page-15-45) attributed the crosstalk to two antagonistically acting MYB factors AtMYB12 and AtMYB4. AtMYB12 is one of several R2R3-type MYB transcription factors (TF) regulating genes in the flavonol pathway and the main positive regulator in UV-B-induced responses [[118](#page-15-48)]. On the other hand, as aforementioned, AtMYB4 negatively regulates C4H expression and, thus, suppresses flavonol expression [[106](#page-15-36)]. Whether this hypothesis remains true and which TFs are involved in the regulation of photorespiratory genes, needs to be investigated in the future.

In accordance with the finding that virulent pathogens downregulate photorespiratory gene expression [\[114\]](#page-15-44), a W-box motif was found in eleven out of twenty genes ([Fig. 4](#page-9-0)). W-box motifs ((T)TGAC(C/ T)) are recognized and bound by WRKY transcription factors and found in promoters of genes that respond to wounding or pathogens [[119](#page-16-0)].

Despite the strong co-expression of GDCH1 and GDCH2 [\(Fig.](#page-4-0) 1), they do not share common predicted cis-elements in their 5′ upstream region ([Fig. 4\)](#page-9-0). This observation points out that co-regulation is not necessarily based on common cis-regulatory elements. In contrast, GS2 and GLU1 share a set of fourteen different cis-elements.

TF motif	At5g36700 PGLP1	At1g80380 GLYK	At5g35630 GS ₂	At5g04140 GLU1	At3g14415 GOX ₁	At3g14420 GOX2	At2g13360 SGAT	At1g23310 GGT1	At1g68010 HPR1	At1g79870 HPR ₂	At4g35090 CAT2	At2g35370 GDCH1	At1g32470 GDCH ₂	At4g33010 GLDP1	At2g26080 GLDP2	At1g11860 GDCT	At4g37930 SHMT1	At5g12860 DiTI	At5g64290 DiT2.1	At5g64280 DiT2.2
ABRE binding site motif				$\overline{1}$										$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$			
ABRE-like binding site motif ACGTABREMOTIFA2OSEM						$\mathbf{1}$ $\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{2}$ $\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$ $\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{4}$						$\mathbf{1}$ $\mathbf{1}$			
				$\mathbf{1}$							$\overline{2}$									
AGATCONSENSUS							$\mathbf{1}$													
AGL2ATCONSENSUS							$\mathbf{1}$													
AP1 BS in AP3			$\overline{1}$																	
ARF binding site motif		$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$					$\overline{2}$		$\overline{1}$				$\overline{2}$	
ATHB2 binding site motif										$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$				$\mathbf{1}$					
AtMYB2 BS in RD22						$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$												$\overline{2}$	
AtMYC2 BS in RD22			$\overline{2}$	$\overline{1}$							$\overline{3}$			$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$				
BoxII promoter motif			$\overline{2}$	\mathbf{R}	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$				\mathbf{a}	$\mathbf{1}$				$\overline{2}$			$\mathbf{1}$	
CACGTGMOTIF								$\overline{2}$			6			$\overline{2}$						
CArG promoter motif	$\overline{2}$		$\overline{2}$				$\overline{2}$										$\overline{2}$			
CARGCW8GAT			$\mathbf{8}$	6	$\overline{2}$		$\overline{4}$	$\mathbf{8}$	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{8}$			\overline{a}	\overline{a}	$\overline{2}$	\blacktriangleleft		$\overline{4}$	
CCA1 binding site motif			$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$								$\mathbf{1}$				
DRE core motif		$\overline{1}$					$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$					
E2F binding site motif																			$\mathbf{1}$	
EveningElement promoter motif							$\mathbf{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$									
GADOWNAT				$\overline{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$									
Gap-box Motif								$\mathbf{1}$												
GAREAT	$\mathbf{1}$		5	$\overline{2}$		$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		\overline{a}				$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$			$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	$\mathbf{1}$
GCC-box promoter motif				$\mathbf{1}$															$\mathbf{1}$	
Hexamer promoter motif					$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$											$\mathbf{1}$	
box promoter motif	$\mathbf{1}$		5	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$		$\mathbf{1}$	\mathbf{A}				$\overline{2}$				$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$		\overline{z}	
L1-box promoter motif			$\overline{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$							$\overline{2}$					
LEAFYATAG				$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$								
LTRE promoter motif		$\mathbf{1}$																		
MYB binding site promoter	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$									$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{1}$	
MYB1 binding site motif											$\mathbf{1}$									
MYB1AT	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	6	\sim	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{7}$	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{7}$		$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{2}$	\sim	S.	$\mathbf{1}$	8	
MYB1LEPR		$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$			\overline{z}			$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$			$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$	
MYB2 binding site motif																	$\mathbf{1}$			
MYB2AT				$\mathbf{1}$							$\overline{2}$						$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		
MYB3 binding site motif					$\mathbf{1}$												$\overline{2}$			
MYB4 binding site motif	$\overline{3}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{3}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	S.	\overline{a}			$\overline{\mathbf{S}}$			$\mathbf{1}$	\mathbf{z}	\overline{a}		\overline{z}	\overline{a}	$\overline{2}$
MYCATERD1			$\overline{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$							$\overline{3}$			$\mathbf{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$				
Nonamer promoter motif																		$\mathbf{1}$		
PI promoter motif			$\mathbf{1}$																	
RAV1-B binding site motif	$\mathbf{1}$					$\mathbf{1}$														
RY-repeat promoter motif				$\overline{2}$										$\overline{2}$			$\overline{2}$			
SV40 core promoter motif		$\overline{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$				$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{2}$							$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	
TATA-box Motif	$\overline{1}$		14	12	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	$\mathbf{1}$	-5	$\overline{2}$		$\mathbf{1}$	11	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	6	5		$\overline{4}$	5
T-box promoter motif	$\overline{1}$		\sqrt{a}	$\overline{1}$		$\overline{2}$		$\overline{2}$			$\overline{2}$				$\overline{2}$				$\mathbf{1}$	
TELO-box promoter motif			$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$								$\mathbf{1}$								
TGA1 binding site motif	$\mathbf{1}$								$\overline{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$									
UPRMOTIFIAT	$\mathbf{1}$							$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{1}$		$\mathbf{1}$									
UPRMOTIFIIAT											$\mathbf{1}$									
			$\overline{\mathbf{S}}$	$\mathbf{1}$		$\overline{4}$	\mathbf{R}	$\mathbf{1}$							\rightarrow		$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	\overline{a}	
W-box promoter motif				$\overline{1}$							$\mathbf{1}$									
2-box promoter motif																				

Fig. 4. Putative cis-elements predicted in the 5´ upstream regions of photorespiratory and photorespiration-linked genes. Cis-elements were ordered alphabetically, genes according to organelles except transporters (black). Green – chloroplast, red – peroxisome and orange – mitochondrion. The numbers indicate the count of a specific cis-element within a promoter. Data were obtained with the Athena [[51\]](#page-14-25).

Beside the already discussed MYB1AT and MYB4 binding sites as well as the W-box motif, the 5′ upstream regions contain predicted SV40 core promoter motives. This motif affects alternative splicing [[120](#page-16-1)]. Thus, we searched the EIN3 browser [[53\]](#page-14-27) for alternatively spliced transcripts for selected genes. Except for DiT2.1, at least two different splice forms (SF) were indicated for GS2 (3 SF), GDCT (3 SF) and DiT1 (2 SF). Alternative splice site were mainly found in the 5′UTR and 3′UTR regions and were visible in the histograms representing the RNA seq reads. In the case of DiT1, ethylene led to the clear appearance of SF2 1 h after treatment. Comparing both isoforms in Phytozome v12 [[42\]](#page-14-16), it becomes obvious that the last 4 bp of the coding sequences (including the stop codon) in the first SF are part of an intron of 80 bp in length in the second SF. The result is a protein that is shortened by one amino acid, a tryptophan. More importantly, the 3′UTR is shortened. In Arabidopsis, the length of a 3′UTR is correlated with a specific gene function. For instance, the length of 3′UTRs of genes involved in response to salt and cadmium range between 1 and 500 bp, while 3′UTR of genes involved in the regulation of jasmonic acid signaling and systemic acquired resistance are typically 501–1000 bp long [[121](#page-16-2)]. Thus, changing the length of a 3′UTR might change gene expression of a gene in favor of the environmental conditions. The length of 3′UTRs can be regulated by the mechanism of alternative polyadenylation (APA). It is estimated that 75% of all Arabidopsis genes are subjected to APA [[121](#page-16-2)]. Prominent examples for APA are genes involved in the regulation of flowering [[122](#page-16-3)[,123\]](#page-16-4). Alternative splicing also includes the variation of 5′UTR length, alternative TIS usage, and intron retention [[121](#page-16-2)].

PR genes encoding photorespiratory enzymes located in the peroxisome were shown to be co-expressed [\(Fig. 4](#page-9-0)). In addition to a MYB1AT binding site and a SV40 core promoter motif, SGAT, GGT1 and HPR1 share a CARGCW8GAT and a GAREAT in the 5' upstream regions. CARGCW8GAT, a variant of the CArG motif, is predicted more frequently than the GAREAT motif [\(Fig. 4\)](#page-9-0).

The presence of CARGCW8GAT motifs in promoters of peroxisomal photorespiratory genes is interesting, because this motif is bound by the MADS domain TF AGL15 (AGAMOUS-like 15) [[124](#page-16-5)]. AGL15 accumulates in developing plant embryos [\[125\]](#page-16-6). It is known that peroxisomes have specific functions dependent on the cell type. Beevers [\[63](#page-15-1)]

classified peroxisomes in three subtypes: glyoxysomes, leaf peroxisomes and unspecialized peroxisomes. Catalase is the only gene being present in all subtypes, while photorespiratory enzymes exist in leaf peroxisomes. Enzymes of fatty acid ß-oxidation are found in glyoxysomes. Glyoxysomes and leaf peroxisomes are interconvertible [\[126\]](#page-16-7), this means that glyoxysomes are present in seedling until photosynthesis is established. Then, their set of enzymes is exchanged by enzymes functioning in photorespiration [\[127](#page-16-8)[,128\]](#page-16-9). Vice versa, in the course of senescence leaf peroxisomes are transformed back into glyoxysomes [[129](#page-16-10)]. Hence, upregulation of AGL15 during later stages of plant development might downregulate gene expression of SGAT, GGT1 and HPR1. Downregulation of HPR1 will in turn lead to the downregulation of other photorespiratory genes as observed in Timm et al. [[41\]](#page-14-14).

The GAREAT motif confers gibberellin (GA) responsiveness [[130](#page-16-11)]. GA is a phytohormone that is essential for seed germination in Arabidopsis [\[131\]](#page-16-12). Whether the GA responsive element is important for inhibition of photorespiratory gene expression during seed germination, needs to be investigated.

When analyzing peroxisomal photorespiratory gene expression with the EIN3 browser [\[53](#page-14-27)], we once more observed alternative splicing in these genes. While GGT1 and HPR1 splice forms differed in 3′UTR sequences, SGAT splice forms varied in the 5′UTR, more precisely in the position and length of the 5′UTR intron. This was very interesting for us, because we previously showed that maximum transcript abundance of GGT1 was controlled by the presence of its 5′UTR intron. We also identified 5′UTR introns in both GOX isoforms and SGAT and asked the question, whether 5′UTR introns are over-represented in photorespiratory genes. This prompted us to search the TAIR database for the presence of 5′UTR introns in the Arabidopsis genome.

As described in the Methods section we followed two different strategies. First, we evaluated the number of genes containing a 5′UTR intron regardless of the number of introns present in the 5′UTR. We downloaded 27101 5′UTR sequences from the TAIR database and removed duplicate AGI codes, originating from different predicted splice forms, from the list. The remaining 19737 genes were sorted into intron-containing or intron-less 5′UTR categories. Out of these genes, 21.4% contained a 5′UTR intron [\(Fig. 5a](#page-10-0)). 5′UTRs in Arabidopsis contain up to five introns but predominantly contain one intron (85.0% of all

በ ን%

85.0%

 $0.2\% - 1.4\%$

 $13.3%$

M. Laxa, S. Fromm *Current Plant Biology xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

Fig. 5. 21.4% of all Arabidopsis genes contain at least one predicted intron in their 5′UTR. Arabidopsis 5′UTRs were analyzed for the presence or absence of 5′UTR introns. Results were displayed as (a) total amount of genes containing at least one 5′UTR intron, (b) partitioning of genes according to the predicted number of 5′UTR introns, and (c) 5′UTR intron containing photorespiratory genes (10 genes in total) sorted according to the final destination of the gene product.

intron containing genes) [\(Fig. 5](#page-10-0)b). 13.3% of the 5′UTRs contain two introns and only a small portion of 5′UTRs three (1.4%), four (0.2%) or five (0.2%) introns. In summary, we identified 4539 genes with 5′UTR intron. This number is higher than that calculated in [Fig. 5a](#page-10-0) (4215 genes), because we allowed for multiple counts of 5′UTRs dependent on their different numbers of introns. Within one category multiple splice forms of one gene exist side by side. Here, the different splice forms either shared the same intron or the same amount of introns was alternatively spliced (data not shown). 1146 genes exist for which 5′UTRs with or without intron were predicted (data not shown).

To gain an overview of the genes function, the genes containing a 5′UTR intron (4215 genes) were assigned to their bins according to MapMan [\[52](#page-14-26)]. 4115 genes were successfully matched to the bins list. [Table 5](#page-11-0) summarizes the percentages of genes containing 5′UTR introns in each bin. The threshold for grouping a bin into the category 'overrepresented' or 'underrepresented' was 21.4%, the average of 5′UTR intron containing genes within the whole Arabidopsis genome. A x^2 -test confirmed whether the percentage of over- and underrepresented of 5′UTR intron containing genes was significant or not. According to [Table 5](#page-11-0) significant differences from the average (21.4%) were only observed for bins with an underrepresented number of 5′UTR intron containing genes. These bins included genes encoding enzymes involved in transport, photosynthesis, signaling, stress, development, hormone and secondary metabolism, and redox. Many of these processes are highly flexible in expression like signaling and stress responses following changing environmental conditions. In contrast, the category of overrepresented number of 5′UTR intron containing genes included major pathway like glycolysis, TCA cycle and amino acid metabolism, thus genes encoding enzymes functioning in C- and energy metabolism which are expressed constitutively in the lifecycle of a plant, here Arabidopsis. Even though these bins lack significance in overrepresentation, the results fit to the observation that 5′UTR introns

often discriminate between vegetative and reproductive expression of genes within a gene family [\[132\]](#page-16-13). The gene family of Arabidopsis profilins contains five isoforms of which three (PRF1, PRF2, and PRF3) are expressed in vegetative tissues, while PRF4 and PRF5 are mainly expressed in reproductive tissues like pollen [[132](#page-16-13)]. Jeong and colleagues found that the expression of PRF1 and PRF2, representing the vegetative profilins, is solely mediated by the first intron. Furthermore, the Arabidopsis genes ACT1 and ACT2 represent vegetative and reproductive actin genes, respectively [[133](#page-16-14)]. Intron deletion analysis showed that the expression of ACT1 in pollen is strongly enhanced by the presence of its first intron. However, substituting the ACT1 intron by the first intron of ACT2 led to a strict repression of GUS activity in pollen [[134](#page-16-15)].

Even though being a part of bin 1 "photosynthesis", the sub-bin photorespiration (1.02) showed an overrepresentation of 5′UTR intron containing genes [\(Table 5](#page-11-0)). This results caught our interest and we asked whether these 5′UTR introns present an additional level at which regulation of photorespiratory gene expression takes place. Eight out of ten photorespiratory genes with 5′UTR encode peroxisome located enzymes (HAOX1, HAOX2, GOX1, GOX2, GOX3, GGT1, GGT2 and SGAT), while the gene products of SHMT1 and GLYK are located in the mitochondrion and chloroplast, respectively [\(Table 6;](#page-11-1) [Fig. 5c](#page-10-0)). To confirm the presence of 5′UTR introns in these genes, we analyzed their histograms, representing RNA seq reads, in the EIN3 browser [[53\]](#page-14-27). The data confirmed the presence of spliced introns in all genes even though the expression of HAOX1 and HAOX2 was much lower compared to the other GOX genes. However, we could not determine the major splice form of GLYK. The first intron in the GLYK sequence is only part of the 5′UTR in splice form 3.

Introns were shown to enhance gene expression on different levels and at different strength [\[135\]](#page-16-16). A recent publication by Gallegos and Rose [[136](#page-16-17)] demonstrated that introns even impact on transcription

Table 5

Introns in 5′UTRs of photorespiratory genes are overrepresented. Genes containing introns in their 5′UTR were assigned to their bins. The number of genes containing a 5'UTR intron was expressed as % of total genes. Significant over- and underrepresentation was verified by the x^2 -test. The bold black line indicates the average percentage of all Arabidopsis genes containing a 5′UTR intron (21.4%; [Fig. 5\)](#page-10-0).

Table 6

Confirmation of predicted 5′UTR introns of genes in bin 1.02 (photorespiration) by RNA seq data available in the EIN3 browser [\[53](#page-14-27)]. The table also includes information on the IMEter score of the individual introns as predicted by the IMEter algorithm v2.1 [\[54](#page-14-28)].

AGI	Gene	mRNA with spliced 5'UTR intron confirmed	IMEter score v2.1
At3g14130	HAOX1	yes	5.66
At3g14150	HAOX2	yes	5.28
At3g14415	GOX1	yes	3.53
At3g14420	GOX2	yes	4.21
At4g18360	GOX3	yes	10.01
At1g23310	GGT1	yes	12.62
At1g70580	GGT2	yes	17.30
At2g13360	SGAT	yes	8.36
At4g32520	<i>SHMT1</i>	yes	13.31
At1g80380	GLYK	yes, predicted for spliceform 3	6.07

initiation site (TIS) selection. We previously described that the 5′UTR intron of GGT1 enhances maximum gene expression and influences the amount of RNA polymerase II bound to the TIS [[39\]](#page-14-15). We also confirmed that the GGT1 5′UTR intron can be substituted by the 5′UTR intron of GGT2 [[39\]](#page-14-15). Thus, we hypothesized that intron-mediated enhancement plays a role in the expression of photorespiratory genes encoding peroxisome located enzymes. We focused on peroxisome located genes because they are all present in one organelle, are strongly co-regulated ([Fig. 1](#page-4-0)) and, thus, represent a unity. Furthermore, with the exception of CAT2, the whole set of peroxisomal located enzymes contain an intron in their 5′UTRs ([Table 6](#page-11-1)).

Introns that are able to mediate enhancement of gene expression are typically characterized by specific sequences like C/T-stretches [136–[141\]](#page-16-17) and the consensus motifs TTNGATYTG [[54\]](#page-14-28) and CGATT [[142](#page-16-18)]. These motifs were found in a bioinformatic approach that compared the sequence composition of introns close to TIS to those located further downstream in gene sequences. Rose and colleagues [[54\]](#page-14-28) published the so-called IMEter algorithm which allows ranking introns for potential function in intron-mediated enhancement (IME). A positive score marks an intron to be most likely an enhancing intron [[54\]](#page-14-28).

Positive IMEter scores were calculated for all genes listed in [Table 6](#page-11-1). IMEter score and the enhancement of gene expression of an intron correlate in a linear way [\[54](#page-14-28)]. The higher the score, the higher the observed enhancement of gene expression [\[54](#page-14-28)]. For example, the first intron of Arabidopsis ubiquitin 10 (UBQ10) enhances mRNA expression by 12.5 fold and has an IMEter score of 97, while the non-enhancing intron 2 of COR15a has an IMEter score of -22 [\[54](#page-14-28)]. The IMEter scores

Fig. 6. Influence of the 5′UTR intron (5I) on the expression of genes encoding peroxisome located enzymes involved in photorespiration in vegetative tissue. GGT1 and its intron-less version is a control in this experiment because the regulation of maximum transcript abundance by GGT1 5I was already shown [\[39](#page-14-15)]. (a) Schematic overview of the different constructs used in this experiment. The influence of 5I on both gusA transcript abundance (b) and GUS activity (c) was tested by qPCR and GUS activity measurements, respectively, according to Laxa et al. [\[39](#page-14-15)]. Arabidopsis plants were grown in short day conditions for 16 days before plants material was harvested 1 h after illumination. Individual transformation events of each construct are visualized by black (1 h L) circles, the mean by a grey bar. The mean represents the average of 9–10 (qPCR) and 8–9 (GUS activity assay) individual transformation events. Significance levels according to Student's t-test were as followed: *, $p \le 0.1$; ***, $p \le 0.01$. (d) GUS staining of individual transgenic lines.

for the 5′UTR introns of the photorespiratory genes ranged between 3.53 (GOX1) and 17.30 (GGT2) indicating that it the 5′UTR intron of GGT2 enhances gene expression best. Based on the correlation between IMEter score and enhancement of gene expression [\[54](#page-14-28)] a 4- to 5-fold enhancement in mRNA levels can be assumed for GOX1 and GGT2, respectively.

To test the hypothesis that gene expression of photorespiratory genes encoding peroxisome located enzymes are regulated by IME, 5′ upstream regions of GOX1, GOX1 and SGAT were recombined into the binary GUS vector pSAG [[38\]](#page-14-39). In parallel, constructs were generated in which the introns were deleted from the 5′UTRs [\(Fig. 6a](#page-12-0)). After stable transformation in Arabidopsis positive plants representing individual transformation events were selected on kanamycin containing medium. In the following experiments GGT1::gusA and GGT1 Δ5I::gusA lines were used as a control, because the 5′UTR intron of GGT1 was already shown to enhance gene expression [[39\]](#page-14-15). GOX1, GOX2, GGT1 and SGAT were selected because these genes are high expressed in vegetative tissue according to the Arabidopsis eFP Browser 2.0 [\[143\]](#page-16-19) ([Fig. 6](#page-12-0)d).

[Fig. 6](#page-12-0) summarizes the influence of the 5′UTR introns of GOX1, GOX2, GGT1 and SGAT on both mRNA level and protein level 1 h after illumination. The loss of the 5′UTR intron only caused significant changes in gusA mRNA levels for the control GGT1 and for SGAT, which is also an aminotransferase ([Fig. 6](#page-12-0)b). The 5′UTR intron of GOX1 and GOX2 did not affect gusA mRNA levels [\(Fig. 6](#page-12-0)b). As observed before the influence of the 5′UTR intron of GGT1 was still visible on GUS activity level [\(Fig. 6c](#page-12-0)) [[39\]](#page-14-15). However, the significant difference between lines expressing gusA under an intron-containing and intron-less SGAT 5′ upstream region was only seen by trend [\(Fig. 6c](#page-12-0)). The GOX2 intron significantly affected the translational level of gene expression as it tends to be for GOX1 [\(Fig. 6](#page-12-0)c). Changes on translational level could not be resolved via GUS staining due to the strong accumulation of GUS protein over time [\(Fig. 6d](#page-12-0)).

In summary, the data point out that the 5′UTR intron of the GOX genes enhances gene expression on translational level, while IME by the SGAT 5′UTR intron operates on mRNA level. Thus, expression of photorespiratory genes is not controlled by IME on the same level.

Screening the literature it becomes obvious that IME is more often reported on mRNA level than on translational level presumably, because scientists not always analyzed all transcriptional levels that can be targeted by IME [[135](#page-16-16)]. Regulation on mRNA level by IME was also observed for the second major aminotransferase GGT1. Like GGT1, SGAT is expressed in green tissue [[144](#page-16-20)]. GGT1 transcript is strongly repressed in the dark and induced by light [[145](#page-16-21)]. This repression was less distinct on GGT activity level. In contrast AlaAT1, another aminotransferase, showed a repression on activity level, while the AlaAT1 transcript was not significantly changed. One could conclude that GGT1 is regulated mainly on transcriptional level and AlaAT1 predominantly on translational level. According to our data, SGAT is also regulated on transcriptional level by its 5′UTR intron [\(Fig.](#page-12-0) 6b). A publication by Taler and colleagues [[146](#page-16-22)] also reported a regulation of SGAT on transcript level. They identified a SGAT isoform in wild melon that confers resistant to the pathogen Pseudoperonospora cubensis, an oomycete triggering downy mildew. The strength of resistance correlated with the amount of SGAT mRNA present in the resistant and hybrid (resistant x sensitive) lines [[146](#page-16-22)]. Interestingly, we found that GOX2, and by trend GOX1, were regulated on translational level by their 5′UTR introns ([Fig. 6b](#page-12-0), c). This result is strengthened by an observation made by Barak et al. [[147](#page-16-23)]. They showed that translation of a gusA transcript driven by a GOX 5′upstream region is enhanced approximately 30-fold over a CaMV 35S promoter-driven gusA transcript after a dark-to-light shift experiment in tobacco seedlings. The authors claimed cis-elements in the 5′UTR region to be responsible for this translational enhancement [\[147\]](#page-16-23). The second evidence for a translational regulation of GOX expression is based on a publication by Van Oosten and colleagues [[148\]](#page-16-24). GOX mRNA abundance was not significantly changed when plants were exposed to high $CO₂$ concentrations, while GOX activity was decreased by this treatment [\[148,](#page-16-24)[149](#page-16-25)]. Whether the 5′UTR intron plays an important role in the translational regulation needs to be investigated in future experiments.

4. Conclusion

Even though it is known that gene expression of photorespiratory genes is affected by light, nutrients, metabolites and pathogens, the underlying mechanism of integrating these signals on the promoters is highly complex. Photorespiratory genes do not necessarily share common cis-regulatory elements, but we found groups of genes with stronger correlation coefficients. Within these groups different cis-elements exist in a higher frequency compared to other groups. These groups will be of special interest in future experiments. We will work on the mechanistic basis of sub-regulatory units like the peroxisome located photorespiratory enzyme and the coordination of photorespiration with other pathways. In addition, IME will be of particular interest.

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interests.

Author contributions

M.L. designed, performed both experiments, analyzed data and wrote the article

S.F. performed experiments, analyzed data

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpb.2018.09.001.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpb.2018.09.001)

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M. Laxa, S. Fromm *Current Plant Biology xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

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M. Laxa, S. Fromm *Current Plant Biology xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

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