

Biochemical Diversity of Chenopodiaceae Species: Insights into Adaptation and Biodiversity

T. Y. Orujova*, and U. A. Gurbanova

Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnologies, National Academy of Sciences, AZ1073, Baku, Azerbaijan

Abstract. The Chenopodiaceae family exhibits great biochemical diversity, which contributes to the successful adaptation of species to diverse and extreme conditions, such as arid, saline and high-temperature climates. The main mechanisms include the control of C₄ photosynthesis, which improves water use efficiency and reduces photosynthesis under external conditions. The biochemical adaptation of Chenopodiaceae species provides insight into their ecological significance and potential use in biotechnology, especially for enhancing crop resilience to climate change. Understanding the biochemical diversity of Chenopodiaceae not only sheds light on their evolutionary success, but also provides strategies to address contemporary challenges in agriculture and conservation.

Keywords: C₃ photosynthesis, C₄ photosynthesis, *Chenopodiaceae*, enzyme activity.

1 Introduction

A C₃ plant is a type of plant that generates a three-carbon compound, 3-phosphoglyceric acid, through the Calvin-Benson cycle. These plants comprise approximately 95% of all green plants on Earth and are well suited to areas with moderate levels of sunlight, temperature and water.

C₄ plants have higher energy conversion efficiency than C₃ plants due to a CO₂ concentration mechanism that reduces photorespiration [2, 28]. Except for single-cell C₄ photosynthesis, this mechanism involves two types of reactions [8, 9, 28]. In the mesophyll cells, CO₂ is fixed by PEPC, forming a C₄ acid, which is converted to malate or aspartate (Pick et al., 2011). The C₄ acid is decarboxylated in the bundle sheath cells, concentrating CO₂ around Rubisco and reducing photorespiration [15, 24].

One of the most fascinating families is Chenopodiaceae, which contains species with a wide variety of carbon-assimilating organ structures [25]. These species also have different types of photosynthesis, such as C₃-C₄ or C₄-CAM intermediates [20].

The flexibility of Chenopodiaceae species to severe conditions and their importance in ecosystems make them an important group for the research. Further study of diversity,

* Corresponding author: t_orujova25@gmail.com

biochemical properties and ecological roles may improve our understanding of the resilience of this plants in a changing climate. Research on the *Chenopodiaceae* species that grow in the flora of Azerbaijan is important to protect this biodiversity and provide for the sustainability of these species

2 Material and methods

The study object consisted of C_3 and C_4 species of the *Chenopodiaceae* family distributed in the flora of Azerbaijan. *Chenopodium album* was used as the C_3 species, and *Atriplex tatarica* was used as the C_4 species. Samples were collected from the Absheron Peninsula during the active vegetation period. The activities of certain photosynthetic enzymes were determined in the leaves collected from mature plants.

The frozen plant material (0.5 g) was thawed and extracted with 2 ml of chilled extraction buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.8; 10 mM $MgCl_2$; 1 mM EDTA; 10 mM 2-ME; 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; and 2% insoluble polyvinylpyrrolidone) using a chilled mortar and pestle. The homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000 g for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was collected for enzyme activity assays.

Carbonic anhydrase (CA, carbonate-hydrate lyase, EC 4.2.1.1) activity was measured electrometrically following the Wilbur-Anderson method. The activity of phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC, EC 4.1.1.31) was determined according to Du et al. [7]. The activity of aspartate aminotransferase (AsAT, EC 2.6.1.1) was measured based on the method of Alfonso and Brüggemann [1]. The activities of the NAD-dependent malic enzyme (NAD-ME, EC 1.1.1.39) and the NADP-dependent malic enzyme (NADP-ME, EC 1.1.1.40) were determined according to Pyankov et al. [20].

3 Results and Discussions

The activities of various photosynthetic enzymes were determined in C_3 plants of *Chenopodium album* and C_4 plants of *Atriplex tatarica* belonging to the *Chenopodiaceae* family (Table 1).

Table1. Activity of some enzyme in *Chenopodium album* and *Atriplex tatarica*

Species	CA activity	$\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}\text{protein}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$			
		PEPC activity	AAT activity	NAD-ME activity	NADP-ME activity
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	91.2± 0.15	0.01±0.004	5.78±0.25	0.04±0.003	0.001±0.0005
<i>Atriplex tatarica</i>	46.3± 0.1	1.14±±0.03	10.19±0.2	2.6±0.07	0.04±0.005

The activity of carboanhydrase enzyme in *Ch. album* was found to be 1.96 times higher than in *A. tatarica*. Carbonic anhydrase (CA) activity varies significantly between C_3 and C_4 plants, influencing their photosynthetic efficiency and adaptation to environmental conditions. In C_3 plants, CA activity is typically higher in the mesophyll cells, which facilitates the conversion of bicarbonate to CO_2 for the Calvin cycle [5]. In contrast, in C_4 plants, CA activity is reduced in the bundle sheath cells, which is necessary to maintain high CO_2 concentrations and minimize photorespiration, thereby increasing photosynthetic efficiency. Higher CA activity in the mesophyll cells facilitates CO_2 fixation and necessary for optimal functioning of photosystem II at ambient CO_2 levels [26]. Low CA activity in bundle sheath cells is critical for the efficient operation of the C_4 pathway. This low activity helps suppress photorespiration, maintaining elevated CO_2 levels. While C_3 plants rely on

higher CA activity for efficient carbon fixation, C₄ plants strategically minimize CA activity in certain cells to optimize their unique photosynthetic pathway. This adaptation highlights the evolutionary divergence in carbon fixation strategies across plant types.

As shown in Table 1, PEPC enzyme activity was significantly higher in *A. tatarica* compared to *Ch. album*. C₄ plants, like *A. tatarica*, typically exhibit elevated PEPC activity, which enhances carbon fixation efficiency, particularly under high light and temperature conditions and improves water use efficiency [12]. This reflects the fundamental differences between C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways. PEPC activity is crucial for C₄ plants, allowing them to efficiently fix CO₂, with a maximum rate (V_{max}) of about 38.0 μmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ chlorophyll in species like *A. spongiosa*, compared to only 1.48 μmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ chlorophyll in C₃ species such as *A. hastata* [23]. The K_m values for phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) also differ, with C₄ plants showing a lower affinity for PEP (0.59 mM) than C₃ plants (0.14 mM), indicating a more efficient use of PEP in C₃ species [23]. In addition, C₄ PEPC is less sensitive to feedback inhibition by metabolites like l-malate, which allows it to maintain high activity throughout the day [13]. In contrast, C₃ plants primarily use PEPC for anaplerotic CO₂ fixation, synthesizing tetracarboxylic acids from atmospheric CO₂ [17]. Thus, while C₄ plants rely on PEPC for efficient carbon fixation, C₃ plants utilize PEPC for various metabolic roles, underscoring the evolutionary specialization of these pathways. However, under certain environmental conditions, the efficiency of C₄ photosynthesis can be compromised, indicating potential trade-offs in plant adaptation strategies.

The activity of aspartate aminotransferase enzyme in *Atriplex tatarica* was approximately 1.76 times higher compared to *Chenopodium album*. Aspartate aminotransferase (AAT) activity differs significantly between C₃ and C₄ plants due to their distinct photosynthetic pathways. C₃ plants primarily rely on the Calvin cycle for CO₂ fixation, where AAT is involved in amino acid metabolism and the photorespiratory pathway, which can result in CO₂ loss [3]. This pathway contributes to lower AAT activity in C₃ plants, as they are more dependent on the Calvin cycle, which becomes less efficient under certain environmental stresses, such as high temperatures [18]. In contrast, C₄ plants, which utilize a CO₂-concentrating mechanism, exhibit higher AAT activity. This enzyme plays a critical role in converting malate and aspartate, intermediates essential to the CO₂-concentrating process that enhances photosynthetic efficiency [3]. The elevated AAT activity in C₄ plants supports faster CO₂ assimilation and reduces photorespiration, enabling them to perform better under high light and temperature conditions [3, 18]. These differences in AAT activity reflect evolutionary adaptations, where C₄ plants have developed mechanisms to maximize CO₂ fixation and minimize losses through photorespiration, allowing them to thrive in warmer climates. While C₃ plants possess some mechanisms to mitigate photorespiration, they are less efficient compared to the robust adaptations seen in C₄ plants.

The activity of NAD-ME and NADP-ME enzymes in *A. tatarica* was higher compared to *Chenopodium album*. However, as can be seen from the table, the activity of NAD-ME enzyme in *A. tatarica* was at a lower level and amounted to 0.04 μmol mg⁻¹ protein min⁻¹.

The activities of NAD-dependent malic enzyme (NAD-ME) and NADP-dependent malic enzyme (NADP-ME) vary significantly between C₃ and C₄ plants, influencing their metabolic pathways and photosynthetic efficiency. C₃ plants typically exhibit higher NAD-ME activity, which is vital for photorespiration and carbon metabolism. For instance, NAD-ME activity has been found in the mid veins of *Arabidopsis*, where it plays a role in sugar and amino acid metabolism [4]. NADP-ME activity is lower in C₃ plants since their metabolism focuses more on the Calvin cycle. NADP-ME is predominantly active in C₄ plants, critical for malate decarboxylation in the bundle sheath cells. This enzyme increases CO₂ concentration around Rubisco, enhancing photosynthetic efficiency [14, 27]. In comparison, NAD-ME activity is less prominent in C₄ plants because their CO₂ concentration mechanism reduces the need for photorespiration (Yoshimura et al., 2004).

In C₃ plants, NAD-ME supports photorespiration, a process less efficient in CO₂ fixation. C₄ plants, by contrast, have evolved mechanisms to minimize photorespiration, making NAD-ME less essential in their metabolism [27]. In C₄ plants, NADP-ME is integral to the C₄ cycle, facilitating the conversion of malate to pyruvate and CO₂, which boosts the efficiency of carbon fixation under high light and temperature conditions [6]. The differences between NAD-ME and NADP-ME activities in C₃ and C₄ plants highlight the evolutionary adaptations of these species. C₄ plants have developed a more efficient CO₂ fixation strategy with NADP-ME, while C₃ plants maintain higher NAD-ME activity to sustain photorespiration and associated metabolic processes.

The activity differences between NADP-malic enzyme (NADP-ME) and NAD-malic enzyme (NAD-ME) in C₄ plants are critical in understanding their physiological adaptations to various environmental conditions. NAD-ME species, which are often found in arid regions, display reduced stomatal conductance under high vapor pressure deficit (VPD), suggesting an advantage in hot, dry environments (Gan & Sage, 2024). On the other hand, NADP-ME species show enhanced light-harvesting efficiency, with increased enzyme activity in response to illumination [21, 22]. NAD-ME plants show a significant reduction in stomatal conductance as VPD increases, which helps these species perform better in drought conditions by minimizing water loss [10]. NADP-ME activity is strongly regulated by light, with activity increasing significantly under illuminated conditions, a key adaptation for efficient carbon fixation in high light environments [21]. The NAD-ME subtype has lower photosynthetic efficiency but greater light harvesting plasticity, allowing it to assimilate CO₂ across varying light conditions, which may limit the necessity for high NADP-ME activity.

4 Conclusion

Results showing differences in activity between C₃ (*Ch. album*) and C₄ (*A. tatarica*) plants highlight the importance of biodiversity in adapting to environmental conditions. C₄ plants exhibit an increased capacity to fix carbon and reduce photosynthesis, as well as increased productivity and ecosystem efficiency. This metabolic diversity is important for agricultural applications and informs crop selection for best performance in different climates. Additionally, understanding these differences can aid conservation efforts by highlighting the need to conserve plant species that contribute to ecosystem stability and functioning.

References

1. Alfonso, S. U., & Brüggemann, W. (2012). Photosynthetic responses of a C₃ and three C₄ species of the genus *Panicum* (sl) with different metabolic subtypes to drought stress. *Photosynthesis research*, 112, 175-191
2. Amthor JS. 2010. From sunlight to phytomass: on the potential efficiency of converting solar radiation to phyto-energy. *New Phytologist* 188, 939–959.
3. Bräutigam, A., & Gowik, U. (2016). Photorespiration connects C₃ and C₄ photosynthesis. *Journal of experimental botany*, 67(10), 2953-2962.
4. Brown, N. J., Palmer, B. G., Stanley, S., Hajaji, H., Janacek, S. H., Astley, H. M., ... & Hibberd, J. M. (2010). C₄ acid decarboxylases required for C₄ photosynthesis are active in the mid-vein of the C₃ species *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and are important in sugar and amino acid metabolism. *The Plant Journal*, 61(1), 122-133.
5. Carter, M. J. (1972). Carbonic anhydrase: isoenzymes. Properties. Distribution. And functional significance. *Biological Reviews*, 47(4), 465-513.
6. Cushman, J. C. (1992). Characterization and expression of a NADP-malic enzyme

- cDNA induced by salt stress from the facultative crassulacean acid metabolism plant, *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*. *European Journal of Biochemistry*, 208(2), 259-266.
7. Du, Y. C., Nose, A., Wasano, K., & Uchida, Y. (1998). Responses to water stress of enzyme activities and metabolite levels in relation to sucrose and starch synthesis, the Calvin cycle and the C₄ pathway in sugarcane (*Saccharum* sp.) leaves. *Functional Plant Biology*, 25(2), 253-260.
 8. Edwards, G. E., & Ku, M. S. (1987). Biochemistry of C₃-C₄ intermediates. In *Photosynthesis* (pp. 275-325). Academic Press.
 9. Furbank, R. T. (2011). Evolution of the C₄ photosynthetic mechanism: are there really three C₄ acid decarboxylation types?. *Journal of experimental botany*, 62(9), 3103-3108.
 10. Gan, S. H., & Sage, R. F. (2024). Stomatal response to VPD in C₄ plants with different biochemical sub-pathways. *Plant, Cell & Environment*.
 11. Hatch, M. D. (1971). The C₄-pathway of photosynthesis. Evidence for an intermediate pool of carbon dioxide and the identity of the donor C₄-dicarboxylic acid. *Biochemical Journal*, 125(2), 425-432.
 12. Jeanneau, M., Vidal, J., Gousset-Dupont, A., Lebouteiller, B., Hodges, M., Gerentes, D., & Perez, P. (2002). Manipulating PEPC levels in plants. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 53(376), 1837-1845.
 13. Jiao, J. A., & Chollet, R. (1991). Posttranslational regulation of phospho enol pyruvate carboxylase in C₄ and Crassulacean acid metabolism plants. *Plant Physiology*, 95(4), 981-985.
 14. Johnson, H. S., & Hatch, M. D. (1970). Properties and regulation of leaf nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide phosphate-malate dehydrogenase and 'malic' enzyme in plants with the C₄-dicarboxylic acid pathway of photosynthesis. *Biochemical Journal*, 119(2), 273-280.
 15. Kanai R, Edwards GE. 1999. The biochemistry of C₄ photosynthesis. In: Sage RF, Monson RK, eds, C₄ plant biology. UK: Academic Press, pp 49-87.
 16. Karlsson, J., Clarke, A. K., Chen, Z. Y., Huggins, S. Y., Park, Y. I., Husic, H. D., ... & Samuelsson, G. (1998). A novel α -type carbonic anhydrase associated with the thylakoid membrane in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* is required for growth at ambient CO₂. *The EMBO journal*.
 17. Melzer, E., & O'Leary, M. H. (1987). Anapleurotic CO₂ fixation by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase in C₃ plants. *Plant Physiology*, 84(1), 58-60.
 18. Monson, R. K., Moore, B. D., Ku, M. S. B., & Edwards, G. E. (1986). Co-function of C₃- and C₄-photosynthetic pathways in C₃, C₄ and C₃-C₄ intermediate *Flaveria* species. *Planta*, 168, 493-502.
 19. Pick, T. R., Bräutigam, A., Schlüter, U., Denton, A. K., Colmsee, C., Scholz, U., ... & Weber, A. P. (2011). Systems analysis of a maize leaf developmental gradient redefines the current C₄ model and provides candidates for regulation. *The Plant Cell*, 23(12), 4208-4220.
 20. Pyankov, V. I., Voznesenskaya, E. V., Kuz'min, A. N., Ku, M. S., Ganko, E., Franceschi, V. R., ... & Edwards, G. E. (2000). Occurrence of C₃ and C₄ photosynthesis in cotyledons and leaves of *Salsola* species (Chenopodiaceae). *Photosynthesis Research*, 63, 69-84.
 21. Sarkar, B., De, A. K., Saha, I., Ghosh, A., Dolui, D., & Adak, M. K. (2020). Modalities

- of NADP-malic enzyme activities under light and darkness indicate its regulation with reference to C₄ weed. *Plant Science Today*, 7(4), 607-615.
22. Shi, W., Yue, L., Guo, J., Wang, J., Yuan, X., Dong, S., ... & Guo, P. (2020). Identification and evolution of C₄ photosynthetic pathway genes in plants. *BMC plant biology*, 20, 1-15.
 23. Ting, I. P., & Osmond, C. B. (1973). Photosynthetic phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylases: Characteristics of alloenzymes from leaves of C₃ and C₁ plants. *Plant Physiology*, 51(3), 439-447.
 24. Von Caemmerer S, Furbank RT. 2003. The C₄ pathway: an efficient CO₂ pump. *Photosynthesis Research* 77, 191–207.
 25. Voznesenskaya, E. V., Franceschi, V. R., Pyankov, V. I., & Edwards, G. E. (1999). Anatomy, chloroplast structure and compartmentation of enzymes relative to photosynthetic mechanisms in leaves and cotyledons of species in the tribe Salsoleae (Chenopodiaceae). *Journal of experimental botany*, 50(341), 1779-1795.
 26. Wilbur, K. M., & Anderson, N. G. (1948). Electrometric and colorimetric determination of carbonic anhydrase. *Journal of biological chemistry*, 176(1), 147-154.
 27. Yoshimura, Y., Kubota, F., & Ueno, O. (2004). Structural and biochemical bases of photorespiration in C₄ plants: quantification of organelles and glycine decarboxylase. *Planta*, 220, 307-317.
 28. Zhu, X. G., Long, S. P., & Ort, D. R. (2008). What is the maximum efficiency with which photosynthesis can convert solar energy into biomass? *Current opinion in biotechnology*, 19(2), 153-159.