Closely related facultative and constitutive CAM phenotypes activate different transcriptional

responses upon water withholding in the subgenus **Tillandsia**

Clara Groot Crego[1,2], Sarah Saadain[1,2,3], Marylaure de La Harpe[1], Jaqueline Hess[1,4], Michael H.J.

Barfuss[1], Walter Till[1], Christian Lexer[1,†], Ovidiu Paun[1]

[1]Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research, University of Vienna, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[2]Vienna Graduate School of Population Genetics, Vienna, Austria

[3]Institut für Populationsgenetik, Vetmeduni Vienna, 1210 Vienna, Austria

[4]Cambrium GmbH, Max-Urich-Str. 3, 13055 Berlin, Germany

[†]deceased

Correspondence to: clara.groot.crego@univie.ac.at, ORCID: 0000-0002-4547-3608

Word count for Introduction: **1,248**

Word count for Results: **2,943**

Word count for Discussion: **1,818**

Word count for main body: 6,009

Word count for Methods: **2,199**

Number of Figures: **7**

Number of Tables: **0**

Number of SI: **7 figures, 12 tables**

1. Highlight

We comprehensively characterized and compared facultative and constitutive CAM phenotypes in *Tillandsia* bromeliads on a physiological and transcriptomic level. We found substantial divergence in CAM-related transcriptomic modulation between phenotypes, highlighting the polygenic nature of the CAM continuum.

2. Abstract

The evolutionary trajectory and genetic architecture of crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM), a water-efficient form of photosynthesis that has evolved repeatedly in the plant kingdom, remains elusive. The extent to which different CAM phenotypes share a genetic basis, forming a continuum through varying degrees of expression, or exhibit divergence and redundancy of employed genes and their expression, is still debated. The subgenus *Tillandsia* provides an excellent opportunity to compare the genetic basis of different CAM forms, given its broad range of photosynthetic phenotypes. Through physiological and transcriptomic analyses of well-watered and water-limited accessions of a closely related species pair, we comprehensively characterized facultative and constitutive CAM in *Tillandsia*. By comparing orthologous gene expression and orthogroup recruitment, we found that while both species performed CAM upon water-withholding, transcriptional modulation of orthogroups related to stomatal movement, sugar/malate transport, aquaporins and starch metabolism showed little similarity. Enzymes of the CAM (de)carboxylation modules exhibited shared expression patterns, though distinct orthologs of PEPC were upregulated at night in each species. Our study reveals that, while the expression of certain core CAM enzymes is shared, these species exhibit substantial divergence of CAM-related transcriptomic modulation, revealing CAM's polygenic nature and providing a possible hypothesis for its evolvability.

3. Introduction

The repeated evolution of complex traits has been a long-standing matter of study for evolutionary biologists. It remains unclear how a trait which may need concerted changes across multiple organismal layers can evolve frequently and repeatedly across the tree of life.

One explanation for this is that similar phenotypes can be obtained through different sets of mutations, also referred to as "genetic routes", assuming complex traits are polygenic and the underlying genes show a significant level of redundancy (Láruson *et al.*, 2020; Goldstein and Holsinger, 1992; Nowak *et al.*, 1997; Barghi *et al.*, 2020). Indeed, instances where similar phenotypes have evolved without a common genetic basis have been observed across a broad spectrum of life including beach mice (Steiner *et al.*, 2009), conifers (Yeaman *et al.*, 2016), lab-reared *Drosophila* (Barghi *et al.*, 2019) and cacao plants (Hämälä *et al.*, 2020).

An example of a complex but highly evolvable trait is crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM), a carbon-concentrating mechanism that has evolved independently in at least 38 plant families, summing up to a minimum of 66 independent origins (Gilman *et al.*, 2023). CAM plants restructure part of the photosynthetic metabolism across the diel cycle by assimilating CO_2 at night, rather than during the day as C_3 plants do. A key difference between CAM and C_3 plants is that the former temporarily convert CO_2 to malate by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC). The malate is stored in the vacuole overnight, and reconverted to CO_2 during the day for assimilation into the Calvin Benson cycle. The CO_2 accumulated overnight allows the plant to close its stomata during the day, which has two effects: firstly, it increases the cellular concentration of CO_2 compared to O_2 in the cell, which in turn increases Rubisco's efficiency (Osmond, 1978). Secondly it significantly decreases daytime evapotranspiration, which improves the plants' water use efficiency (Borland *et al.*, 2014). This is especially beneficial under high temperature or drought-stress conditions, which would increase Rubisco's oxygenation activity (Heyduk *et al.*, 2021).

CAM has long been considered a complex trait, not only because of the concerted changes of temporal expression required to set the alternate biochemical pathway in motion, but also because certain anatomical features often appear associated with CAM, leading to the hypothesis that they may be a prerequisite for a plant to fully express CAM (Nelson *et al.*, 2005). Examples of such anatomical features are larger vacuoles (Males, 2018; Heyduk *et al.*, 2016), tighter cell packaging (Nelson and Sage, 2008) and succulence (Gibson, 1982; Griffiths *et al.*, 2008), though for the latter, intra-specific variation does not appear correlated with CAM (Martin *et al.*, 2009).

CAM was initially described as a discrete trait with a bi-modal distribution of phenotypes,

yet detailed physiological studies of C_3 species with close CAM relatives revealed the existence

of weak and facultative CAM phenotypes, and showed that these forms of CAM can occur without

major anatomical changes (Silvera *et al.*, 2005; Heyduk *et al.*, 2021; Neales, 1975; Winter and

Holtum, 2002; Pierce *et al.*, 2002). These findings caused a shift towards understanding CAM as

a continuum, though the matter is still debated (Bräutigam *et al.*, 2017; Schiller and Bräutigam,

2021; Winter and Smith, 2022) and a discrepancy exists between the idea of CAM being a

continuous trait ranging from not being expressed at all to being fully expressed, and the many

types of CAM that have been described in the literature (e.g. facultative CAM, weak CAM, CAM-

cycling, strong CAM, constitutive CAM (Winter, 2019)) which are not consistent with an ordered

set of continuous phenotypes (Edwards, 2023). An additional challenge is the correct

characterization of weak and/or facultative CAM plants, as the most cost-effective method to

rapidly measure CAM activity on a large taxonomic scale - carbon isotope ratios - lacks sensitivity

to detect these phenotypes (Winter and Holtum, 2002; Pierce *et al.*, 2002). More detailed

physiological measurements are needed to distinguish C_3 species from weak/facultative CAM

phenotypes, and therefore our understanding of CAM phenotype occurrence across the plant

kingdom is still limited.

It is therefore still unclear whether CAM can be achieved by multiple routes of genetic

adaptation, or exhibits a shared genetic basis that is expressed to different degrees among

phenotypes. Comparative genetic analyses between different CAM phenotypes help understand to

what degree CAM evolution has a constrained evolutionary path or large genetic redundancy, with

multiple genetic routes to achieve similar phenotypic outcomes. For example, Heyduk *et al.* (2018)

found both shared and variable patterns of gene expression in CAM-related genes among members

of the Agavoideae with weak and strong CAM phenotypes, but more studies comparing the

molecular basis of CAM phenotypes between closely related taxa are needed to obtain a

comprehensive view of CAM evolution.

The subgenus *Tillandsia* (genus *Tillandsia*, Bromeliaceae) is an emerging model for the

study of repeated and rapid evolution of key innovation traits. As part of one of the fastest

diversifying lineages in the plant kingdom (Givnish *et al.*, 2014), the subgenus is considered an

adaptive radiation that generated more than 250 species over the last 7 million years (Mendoza *et*

al., 2017; Yardeni *et al.*, 2023; Barfuss *et al.*, 2016). Numerous key innovation traits characterise

this radiation, including CAM, which occurs in a broad range of phenotypes ranging from C_3-like
to constitutive, strong CAM (Crayn *et al.*, 2004; De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020).

In this study, we test to which degree a facultative and constitutive CAM species pair has
a shared genetic basis of CAM that is expressed at different levels or, alternatively, achieve CAM
by employing distinct gene sets. The species in question, *T. vanhyningii* (originally *T. ionantha*
var. *vanhyningii*, recently reassigned to species level by Beutelspacher & Garcia-Martinez (2021)),
and *T. leiboldiana,* are closely related members of the subgenus *Tillandsia,* with an estimated
maximum divergence time of 3.22 Mya (Barfuss *et al.*, 2016; Mendoza *et al.*, 2017; Yardeni *et al.*,
2023), and display some of the most disparate carbon isotope measurements in the group (De La
Harpe et al. 2020). However, while reported carbon isotope ratios classify *T. vanhyningii* as a
strong, constitutive CAM plant ($\delta^{13}C$ = -13.9, (De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020)), and *T. leiboldiana* as a
C_3 plant ($\delta^{13}C$ = -31.3), recent work (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024) has shown that previously reported
C_3 *Tillandsia* may have the ability to perform CAM. *T. leiboldiana'*s photosynthetic phenotype
was studied in depth under well-watered conditions by a recent study using metabolomic,
comparative genomic, and transcriptomic analyses, which revealed CAM-like expression profiles
of certain genes, such as PEPC kinase, despite malate not being significantly accumulated
overnight (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024). This led to the hypothesis that *T. leiboldiana* may be a
facultative CAM species, that mainly performs a C_3 cycle in well-watered conditions, but may
have the ability to activate a weak CAM cycle under drought. Cases where carbon isotope ratios
are within the C_3 range, but where a shift to CAM is noticeable under drought have been reported
previously in other Bromeliaceae, such as *Guzmania* and *Ronnbergia* (Pierce *et al.*, 2002).

We subjected accessions of these two species to water-limited conditions and performed
titratable acidity measurements and transcriptomic analyses at multiple time points across a diel
cycle to compare the photosynthetic phenotypes of these species under both watering regimes (Fig.
1). Our study describes the photosynthetic phenotypes of *Tillandsia* species in unprecedented
detail and elucidates the effect of water-withholding on different CAM phenotypes. Our analyses
revealed substantial divergence between species in the transcriptional modulation of CAM-related
genes, despite both displaying CAM under water-limited conditions.

Figure 1. Overview of species and experimental set-up. Left, Tillandsia vanhyningii *(Photograph by Michael H.J. Barfuss, 2023); right,* Tillandsia leiboldiana *(Photograph by Manuel Lasserus, 2024), both at the Botanical Garden of the University of Vienna. Experimental setup, consisting of sampling at four time points that are six hours apart: 4 and 10 hours after dawn (D), plus 4 and 10 hours after nightfall (N). Titratable acidity (TA) was quantified for each condition, whereas RNA-seq data was analysed for the time points indicated with RNA.*

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Experimental set-up and sampling

We designed an experimental set-up that tested the respective photosynthetic phenotypes of *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana* in standard and water-limited conditions. The experiment comprised six clonal accessions per species (Table S1), which were off-shoots of the main mother plant. Off-shoots of similar size were selected as a proxy for age similarity, and were large enough to be considered adult plants able to flower. Accessions were placed under identical greenhouse conditions in October 2018 at the greenhouse facilities of the Botanical Garden of the University of Vienna. Prior to the experiment, the accessions were allowed to acclimate to greenhouse conditions for six weeks, before being placed in a regime of 12 hours of light / 12 hours of dark for 14 days, by complementing daylight with artificial lights. These were turned on at 6 am, and off at 6 pm. During this time, three accessions of each species were placed in a water-limited regime (WL) for 14 days by complete water withholding. The remaining three accessions were kept in standard watering conditions (SW) used to maintain the plants in the botanical garden (1x every two days). After 14 days, all accessions were sampled every 6 hours (Four time points: Dawn + 4 hours (10 am), Dawn + 10 hours (4 pm), Nightfall + 4 hours (10 pm), Nightfall +10 hours (4 am)), resulting in three replicates for the combination of treatments (species x time point x watering regime) (Fig. 1). As every accession was sampled four times sequentially, leaf material was collected at each time point by delicately pulling out an entire leaf from the base of the plant to minimise wounding. The tip and base of the leaf were then removed, and the middle part was immediately placed in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

4.2. Titratable acidity measurements

Titratable acidity (TA) was measured following a similar procedure as Wai *et al.* (2019). Frozen leaf material for all four time points, two watering regimes and two species (48 samples in total) was weighed and ground in a pre-cooled mortar to a powder, then added to a 5 ml solution of 80 % EtOH. Next, the samples were incubated for one hour in an 80 °C water bath with occasional vortexing. Tubes were centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 5 minutes, after which the supernatant was transferred and the pellet discarded. The extractions were then let to cool to room

temperature. Using a pH526 WTM Sentix mic metre, each sample was measured by titrating 0.1

N NaOH to the solution until reaching a pH of 8.2 exactly and recording the volume of added

NaOH. TA in μ-equivalents per gram of fresh weight (g FW) was calculated as μl NaOH x 0.1

mol/L/g FW.

To test whether TA significantly fluctuated across time within each species and watering

regime, we constructed a Linear Mixed-Effects Model (LMM) for each species as follows:

$$titratable\ acid \sim watering\ regime\ \times\ time\ point\ +\ (\ 1\ |\ replicate\ )$$

Normality of TA measurements within each species was tested beforehand. In the LMM model,

titratable acid represented the dependent variable, while watering regime and time point were fixed

effects, and their interaction was included into the model. To control for random variation in TA

measurements across replicates of the same time point and watering regime, the model included a

random intercept for each replicate. The analysis was performed using the *lmer* function from R

package *lme4* (Bates *et al.*, 2015). The goodness of fit of the model was evaluated by plotting a

QQ-Plot and the fitted values to residuals for each species. The significance of fixed effects was

evaluated by obtaining a p-value using the R package *lmerTest* (Kuznetsova *et al.*, 2017).

Afterwards, a post-hoc Tukey HSD test was performed in the R package *emmeans* to assess the

effects of individual watering regimes and time points on TA.

4.3.   RNA extraction and sequencing

RNA-seq data was obtained for samples at time points 10 am (D+4) and 10 pm (N+4) for

two watering regimes and two species (24 samples in total). Total RNA was extracted using the

QIAGEN RNeasy® Mini Kit. We evaluated the purity and concentration of the extractions using

Nanodrop, RIN and fragmentation profiles were obtained with a BioAnalyzer™ (Table S1). RNA

library preparation and poly-A capture were performed at the Vienna Biocenter Core Facilities

(VBCF) using a NEBNext stranded mRNA kit. The libraries were sequenced on one lane of

Illumina NovaSeq SP 150 PE flowcells.

4.4.   RNA-seq data processing

Raw   sequence   quality   was   assessed   using   FastQC   v.   0.11.8

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and MultiQC (Ewels *et al.*, 2016).

Adapters and low-quality bases were trimmed off using AdapterRemoval v. 2.3.1 (Schubert *et al.*,

2016) with settings --trimns --trimqualities --minquality 20 --trimwindows 12 --minlength 36. The

trimmed *T. leiboldiana* data was aligned to its conspecific reference genome (GenBank accession:

GCA_029204045.2, Groot Crego et al 2024), while the *T. vanhyningii* data was aligned to the

reference genome of its closest relative, *T. fasciculata* (GenBank accession: GCA_029168755.2,

Groot Crego et al. (2024)). Alignments were performed with STAR v. 2.7.3a (Dobin *et al.*, 2013)

in one pass using a GFF file to specify exonic regions.

4.5.   Differential gene expression analysis

Read counts were quantified for paired-end and reversely stranded reads (options -p, -s 2)

in the subread package FeatureCounts v. 2.0.6 (Liao *et al.*, 2014). Counts were generated on the

meta-feature level by counting reads per exon, yet aggregating counts across exons for each gene

using FeatureCounts' in-built meta-feature function. Differential gene expression (DGE) analyses

were performed for each species separately using the Bioconductor package edgeR v. 4.2.1

(Robinson *et al.*, 2009).

We built a design matrix incorporating the two investigated treatments (time point and

watering regime). Genes where three or fewer samples of the same species had a Counts Per

Million (cpm) value smaller or equal to 1 were filtered out. Library size normalisation was done

using edgeR's default trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) normalisation method (Robinson and

Oshlack, 2010). The Cox-Reid profile-adjusted likelihood (CR) method was used to estimate

dispersion. Genes were tested for differential expression between time points and between

watering regimes separately for each species by fitting a negative binomial General Linear Model

(GLM) with the following contrasts: Day versus Night at SW = Day_SW - Night_SW, Day versus

Night at WL = Day_WL - Night_WL, WL vs SW at day = WL_day - SW_day, WL vs SW at night

= WL_night - SW_night.

To test the fit of these GLM's, we conducted a quasi-likelihood F-test. The level of

significance was adjusted with the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction

method to account for multiple testing. Genes were considered differentially expressed when the

FDR-adjusted p-value was below 0.05 and the expression had an absolute log-fold change of at

least 1.5. The total number of differentially expressed genes for each treatment (time point and

watering regime) was then visualised and compared between species using ggplot2.

4.6. Venn-diagrams

To understand the extent of overlap in the transcriptomic response to time and watering regime between these two species, differentially expressed (DE) genes of both species were studied on the orthogroup level, using orthology information of *T. leiboldiana* and *T. fasciculata* from Groot Crego et al. 2024. The orthogroups that contained DE genes in either species were visualised with Venn diagrams using the R package VennDiagram (Chen and Boutros, 2011). Separate diagrams were made for the overlap of orthogroups with DE genes (hereafter referred to as DE orthogroups) between watering regimes at different time points, and for the overlap in DE orthogroups between time points at different watering regimes. The percentage of DE orthogroups containing more than one DE gene in a single species were calculated for each comparison to understand the relationship between gene-level and orthogroup-level differential expression. (reported in Table S5).

Additionally, we studied the degree of overlap in DE orthogroups between time-dependent and watering regime-dependent comparisons, since CAM-related genes are likely to be both DE between time points and between watering regimes, especially in a potentially facultative CAM plant such as *T. leiboldiana*. The overlap in DE orthogroups between comparisons was visualized with UpSetR (Conway *et al.*, 2017).

In the discussion of results regarding the transcriptomic overlap between species, timepoints and watering regimes, a distinction is made between within-species comparisons, where the overlap is discussed on the gene level, and between-species comparisons, where it is discussed on the orthogroup level.

4.7. Functional interpretation of DE genes

Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analyses were performed for both sets of DE genes (between time points and watering regimes) within both species using the Bioconductor package topGO v. 2.50.0. (Alexa *et al.*, 2006). Significance of enrichment was evaluated with the Fisher exact test and the algorithm "weight01". The top 100 significant GO terms were then compiled sorted by decreasing significance using a custom-made script available at the repository https://github.com/cgrootcrego/Tillandsia_CAM-Drought.

Aside from performing GO enrichment analyses on the full subset of DE genes, we also performed enrichment analyses on each subset of orthogroups representing a section in the Venn-

diagrams whenever it contained more than 25 orthogroups. GO enrichments were performed on
the DE genes belonging to the orthogroups listed in each Venn-diagram intersection. For
intersections of the Venn diagram that were unique to one species, the corresponding genes and
GO term annotations of that species were used, i.e. *T. leiboldiana* annotations for intersections
unique to *T. leiboldiana*, and *T. fasciculata* annotations for intersections unique to *T. vanhyningii*.
For intersections that represent an overlap between species, the gene annotations of *T. fasciculata*
were used for GO term enrichment, assuming overlapping annotations between species within
orthogroups.

Complementary to a GO enrichment analysis, we identified genes previously described as
related to CAM, starch metabolism and glycolysis in the same manner as described in Groot Crego
et al. 2024. Briefly, the extensive list of *A. comosus* gene ID's representing genes underlying
CAM, starch metabolism or glycolysis compiled by Yardeni et al. (2021) based on a diverse set of
studies was used to obtain the corresponding *T. fasciculata* and *T. leiboldiana* orthologous genes
using orthology information from Groot Crego et al. 2024. This resulted in a total of 818 and 753
genes in *T. fasciculata* and *T. leiboldiana* respectively, belonging to 607 orthogroups. These are
listed in Table S12. The orthogroups from this subset that contained DE genes either between time
points or watering regimes were then listed by Venn-diagram intersection in Tables S8 and S9.

The abundance of RNA-seq reads for a select group of 53 CAM-related orthogroups was
plotted as a heatmap using the R package ComplexHeatmap (Gu *et al.*, 2016) for all 24 samples.
This subset included 7 orthogroups containing the pineapple genes putatively described as part of
the CAM carbon-fixation module by Ming et al. (2015), regardless of their differential expression
status. The remaining 46 orthogroups comprised aquaporins (5), circadian clock regulators (11),
malate transporters (6), photosystem-related genes (5), vacuolar proton pumps (9), genes related
to stomatal movement (4), sugar transporters (5) and one vacuolar invertase (Table S10). Reads
were normalised with the TPM (Transcripts Per Million) method using total exonic length of each
gene, and converted to a log10 scale, then mean-centred with a z-score transformation. For
homologs of the *PEPC* and *PPCK* genes, and one multi-copy family of NAD-dependent malate
dehydrogenases, expression in TPM was visualized by line plots rather than heatmaps.

A separate subset of orthogroups was selected to investigate the drought-related response
to water-limited conditions in both species, by including all DE genes in either species that were
annotated with GO term "GO0009414; water deprivation" or belonged to the drought resistance

category as specified by Yardeni et al. 2021. This resulted in 31 orthogroups underlying the following functions: ABA signaling (4), anti-oxidation and ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species) scavenging (5), drought tolerance (7), Late Abundance Embryogenesis proteins (8), inositol biosynthesis (3), jasmonic acid (JA) biosynthesis (1), molybdate ion transport (1) and general stress response (2) (Table S11). A heatmap of their expression values per sample in TPM was constructed as detailed above.

4.8. Gene trees of PPC1, PPC2 and PPCK

We identified homologs of the two subfamilies of PEPC, PPC1, PPC2 and of PPCK by running BLASTP on the full set of gene models of *A. comosus* (V3), *Sorghum bicolor* (v3.1.1), *Oryza sativa* (v7.0), *Zea mays* (RefGen v.4), *Asparagus officinalis* (V1.1) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (TAIR10) available on Phytozome (https://phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/), with the PEPC and PPCK gene models of *T. fasciculata* and *T. leiboldiana* as query (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024). Hits were filtered based on identity and target length for each respective gene. For PPC1, we selected all targets longer than 500 aa and with more than 80% identity, resulting in 56 protein sequences across the seven species. For PPC2, the identity threshold was lowered to 70 %, resulting in eight sequences. For PPCK, we selected all sequences with an identity greater than 60 % regardless of target length, resulting in 17 sequences.

Protein sequences were aligned using mafft v.7.520 (Katoh *et al.*, 2002) with options *--op 1.5 --ep 0.1 --maxiterate 1000 --localpair*. Gene trees were constructed using IQTREE v.2.2.5 (Minh *et al.*, 2020) with options *-B 1000 -T AUTO*. The resulting consensus tree was used for visualisation, collapsing branches leading to Poaceae genes.

5. Results

5.1. Titratable acidity measurements

In standard conditions, TA displayed a CAM-like diel curve in *T. vanhyningii*, with overnight acid accumulation followed by daytime depletion (Fig. 2a, Table S2). Our LMM model showed that TA significantly fluctuated between time points both under standard and water-limited conditions, yet there was no significant difference in TA values between watering regimes at the same time point (Fig. 2, Fig. S1, Table S3). In *T. leiboldiana*, TA did not significantly accumulate overnight under standard watering conditions (Fig. 2b). Under water-limited conditions, TA values

between D+10 and N+10 were significantly different, indicating a slight fluctuation in leaf acidity (Fig. 2b). *T. leiboldiana* exhibited a markedly different temporal curve in TA accumulation between standard and water-limited conditions, as TA values between watering regimes at each time point was significantly different in all but one time point (Fig. 2a, Table S3). The mild diel TA fluctuation that we observed under water-limited conditions in *T. leiboldiana* indicates a weak, facultative CAM cycle, whereas *T. vanhyningii* exhibited temporal TA signatures that are characteristic of a strong, constitutive CAM plant.

Figure 2: Titratable Acidity (TA) measurements of T. vanhyningii *and* T. leiboldiana. **a)** *TA measured at four time points across a diel cycle under two watering regimes. The significance level of within-species, between-watering regime comparisons at a given time point from an LMM model are shown with following thresholds: ns - p-value > 0.05; * - p-value < 0.05; ** - p-value < 0.01; *** - p-value < 1E-03.* **b)** *Difference in adjusted means of TA values between each pair of timepoints, separated for each species. Each dot represents de difference between adjusted means of TA values between two timepoints within a species and watering regime, as estimated in the post-hoc Tukey HSD test. The first four timepoint comparisons are between adjacent timepoints that are 6 hours apart in a 24-hour cycle, whereas the last two represent differences in mean TA between timepoints that were 12 hours apart. The shape of each dot indicates the significance level of the difference in mean TA and is shown with the same thresholds as in a).*

5.2. Differential gene expression

Unique mapping rates were high for both species, but *T. leiboldiana*'s reads, mapped to its own reference genome, were consistently higher than *T. vanhyningii*'s, mapped to the reference genome of its close relative, *T. fasciculata* (Fig. S2). On average, *T. leiboldiana* had 16.3% more uniquely assigned reads per sample than *T. vanhyningii* (Table S4). However, *T. vanhyningii* had 8.7% more genes with non-zero counts compared to *T. leiboldiana*. In *T. vanhyningii*, variance in read counts was largely explained by time point, while watering regime was partially resolved in the second component of the PCA (Fig. S3). In *T. leiboldiana*, the first PC separated samples by watering, and the second component showed a clear split by time point. Overall, *T. leiboldiana* showed clearer transcriptomic distinctions by time point and watering regime than *T. vanhyningii* (Fig. S3).

DGE analyses revealed widely different counts of DE genes along the time and watering regime axes. In both species, many genes were DE between day and night, regardless of watering regime (Fig. 3). The number of up-regulated genes in *T. vanhyningii* under standard conditions is comparable between day and night, with only six more genes up-regulated at night than at day. In comparison, *T. leiboldiana* had 2.4x more genes up-regulated at day than at night under standard conditions. Under water-limited conditions, more genes were up-regulated at night in both species compared to standard conditions. While this pattern is noticeable in *T. vanhyningii*, with 57 % of DE genes up-regulated at night under water-limited compared to 50 % under standard conditions, it is especially pronounced in *T. leiboldiana*, where 46 % of genes is up-regulated at night under water-limited compared to 30 % under standard watering.

In comparison with time-dependent analyses, fewer genes were DE between watering regimes, except in *T. leiboldiana* at night. Contrary to *T. leiboldiana*, *T. vanhyningii* showed a very low number of genes that were DE between the watering regimes independent of the time point, suggesting that most temporal expression patterns detected in the time-dependent DGE analysis were constitutive.

Compared to *T. vanhyningii*, *T. leiboldiana* manifested a more noticeable response to water withholding, especially at night. During the day, most genes appeared down-regulated under

390 water-limited compared to standard conditions, as only 19 % of DE genes were up-regulated. The
391 total number of DE genes between watering conditions at night was 2.9x larger than at day, which
392 is a contrary trend to *T. vanhyningii*, where 2.5 times more genes were DE between watering
393 regimes at day than at night.

Figure 3: Counts of up- and down-regulated DE genes (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05, |Log(FC)| ≥ 1.5) in four comparisons across different background conditions. The first four bars show counts of time-dependent DE genes in two watering regimes, while the last four bars show counts of genes that are DE between watering regimes at two time points. Left-hand symbols indicate the background condition, e.g. the first two bars are counts of time-dependent DE genes under standard conditions. Left-hand bars show counts of genes that are up-regulated at day compared to night for time-dependent comparisons, and in water-limited compared to standard conditions for comparisons of watering regimes. Right-hand bars show counts of genes that are up-regulated at night compared to daytime for time-dependent comparisons, and in standard watering compared to water-limited conditions for comparisons of watering regimes. The DE analyses were conducted in each species separately. A dark-grey background indicates night-time, while lighter bar colours indicate water-limited conditions.

5.3.   Overlap in transcriptomic response

The time-dependent transcriptomic response showed large heterogeneity across species and watering regimes, with 50 % of all orthogroups with one or more DE genes (hereafter called a DE orthogroup) being unique to one species and watering regime (Fig. 4a, sections a , b, c and d, Table S5). Only 5.9 % of all time-dependent DE orthogroups were shared between all groups (section abcd). These were enriched for photosynthesis and circadian clock-related functions (Table S6).

The largest overlap was found within species, between conditions, as only 19 % of all time-dependent DE genes were shared between species (Table S5, intersections of a and b, and c and d). In *T. leiboldiana*, genes that were uniquely time-dependent DE under water-limited conditions and not under standard conditions (sections d, bd, abd and ad) were enriched for responses to water deprivation, abiotic stress and abscisic acid (ABA), while genes that were only time-dependent DE under standard conditions (sections c, bc, abc and ac) lacked such enrichments, indicating that *T. leiboldiana* experienced drought under water-limited conditions (Table S6). Interestingly, functions related to water deprivation, response to abiotic stress or ABA were enriched in time-dependent DE genes shared between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii* (sections ab, abc, abcd and abd).

Under water-limited conditions, more time-dependent DE orthogroups were shared between species than under standard conditions (17% vs. 14%, Table S5), with enriched functions related to stomatal movement, ABA, and starch metabolism (sections ad, acd, and abd).

In comparison, the response to watering regime was largely non-shared between groups,

with 75 % of all DE orthogroups being unique to one species and time point (sections a, b, c, and

d) and only two DE orthogroups being shared among all groups (Fig. 4b, section abcd). *T.*

vanhyningii showed little overlap between time points in the response to water-limited conditions

(8 %), while in *T. leiboldiana* 24 % of genes are DE between watering regimes at both time points

(Table S5). Due to the small number of DE genes in *T. vanhyningii* between watering regimes, the

overlap between species was negligibly small (2.8 %) in proportion to the number of DE genes

called in *T. leiboldiana*.

In summary, both the overall transcriptomic response to day-night changes and to watering

regimes showed little overlap between species, yet diel expression between species seemed to

overlap slightly more under water-limited than under standard conditions, indicating an increase

in the resemblance of the two species' metabolism under water-limited conditions.

*Figure 4: Overlap of DE orthogroups between species, time points and watering regimes. **a)** Venn diagram*

showing the number and proportion of shared time-dependent DE orthogroups (i.e., day versus night) per

*combined group of species and watering condition. **b)** Venn diagram showing the number and proportion*

442 *of shared DE orthogroups between watering regimes (i.e., water-limited versus standard conditions) per*

443 *combined group of species and time point. Letters inside sections show the overlap between the four groups.*

5.4.   CAM-related transcriptomic overlap and differences between species, time points and conditions

5.4.1.   Overlap between species

In *T. leiboldiana*, CAM-related gene expression is likely to be associated both with differential expression between time points and between watering regimes, as it activated a CAM cycle under water-limited conditions. When considering all DE orthogroups summed up across species, time points and watering regimes, 516 contained genes that were both DE between time points and watering regimes across species.

Of these 516 orthogroups, the largest group was exclusively DE in *T. leiboldiana*, both between time points and watering regimes (Fig. S4), and included orthogroups encoding for aquaporin NIP5-1, an aluminium-activated malate transporter (ALMT) 12 and a sugar transporter 5. The second largest group consisted of 132 orthogroups (26 %) which displayed time-structured expression in *T. vanhyningii* while being DE between watering regimes in *T. leiboldiana*, and included twelve previously described CAM-related orthogroups. Most notable among these were orthogroups encoding for the sugar and malate transporters SWEET14 and ALMT 9. *SWEET14* showed elevated expression under water-limited conditions in both species, yet it seemed up-regulated at night in *T. leiboldiana,* while in *T. vanhyningii* its highest expression was during the day (Fig. 5). *ALMT 9* was more highly expressed in *T. leiboldiana* under standard conditions, and showed lower expression under water-limited conditions. *T. vanhyningii*'s expression of *ALMT 9*'s ortholog was comparatively lower to *T. leiboldiana*'s across all time points and treatments (Fig. 5).

127 orthogroups (25 %) showed a time-structured expression in both species but were only DE between watering conditions in *T. leiboldiana* (Fig. S4). Among these were 18 previously described CAM-related orthogroups, yet only seven contained genes that were up-regulated under water-limited conditions in *T. leiboldiana*. This included an orthogroup encoding for PEPC kinase (*PPCK2*), which is crucial for CAM photosynthesis, as it activates the main carboxylating enzyme phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC, see section 4.4.4 for detailed discussion of expression). Additionally, an orthogroup containing the drought resistance gene *YLS9* (Müller *et al.*, 2017), and

three orthogroups encoding for enzymes associated with glycolysis and gluconeogenesis were part
of this group. *YLS9* showed time-structured expression in *T. vanhyningii* in both watering regimes,
while in *T. leiboldiana,* it seemed to acquire weakly time-structured expression under water-
limited conditions (Fig. 5). Together with *PPCK2, YLS9* was one of the few CAM-related genes
that exhibited an expression profile in *T. leiboldiana* that more closely resembled that of *T.*
vanhyningii under water-limited conditions.

We also searched for CAM-related orthogroups among the larger set of DE orthogroups
called across time and watering regime separately. In *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana*, 97 and 75
time-structured CAM-related orthogroups were identified, respectively, revealing functions like
circadian clock, glycolysis, stomatal movement, drought resistance, and water/sugar transport
(Tables S5, S8). Overlap between species and watering regimes of these orthogroups followed a
similar trend as the full set, with 51 % of genes being unique to a given species and watering
regime. Twelve CAM-related DE orthogroups shared across all groups were linked to the circadian
clock, photosynthesis, and photosystem activity (Table S8, section abcd). *T. vanhyningii* shared
46% of CAM DE genes between watering conditions, while *T. leiboldiana* shared 36%, indicating
a stronger metabolic shift under water-limited conditions. The proportion of time-dependent CAM
DE orthogroups shared between species was slightly higher under water-limited conditions (25 %)
than under standard conditions (22 %), yet remains a minority of the total set of CAM-related DE
genes.

For DE orthogroups between watering regimes, six and 75 CAM-related orthogroups were
present in *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana* respectively (Table S5, Table S9). Only one
orthogroup overlapped between the species, whose orthologs encode for a probable linoleate 9S-
lipoxygenase enzyme found differentially expressed between C_3 and CAM *Tillandsia* species in
a previous study (De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020). Lipoxygenases are involved in the biosynthesis of
jasmonates, which play an important role in response to various biotic and abiotic stressors
(Bachmann *et al.*, 2002).

Figure 5: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for a subset of single-copy CAM-related orthogroups, in T. vanhyningii *(left panel, using the* T. fasciculata *ortholog) and* T. leiboldiana *(right panel, using the* T. leiboldiana *ortholog) at two time points and watering regimes. TPM values are transformed to a logarithmic scale and centred as a z-score. Displayed genes are organised in functional categories and gene name colour reflects their differential expression status: blue = DE between watering*

5.4.2. CAM-related expression in *Tillandsia vanhyningii*

In standard conditions, *T. vanhyningii* showed time-dependent differential expression of core CAM gene *PPCK* and of genes underlying CAM-related functions such as stomatal movement, vacuolar proton pumps, malate transport, sugar transport and glycolysis (Table S8). Several genes encoding for Late Embryogenesis Abundant (LEA) proteins, which are linked to drought tolerance (Magwanga *et al.*, 2018; Arumingtyas *et al.*, 2013), also showed diel expression in standard conditions.

46 CAM-related time-structured DE genes overlapped between standard and water-limited conditions (Table S5), including genes encoding for PPCK, circadian clock regulator REVEILLE1, a beta-amylase (starch breakdown), two auxin response factors (ARF, linked to stomatal function (Bouzroud *et al.*, 2020)), two aquaporins and multiple LEA proteins (Table S8), indicating that genes from a wide set of CAM-related functions were expressed similarly between conditions. Among CAM-related genes exclusively DE in either condition was *AVP1*, a secondary proton pump that aids in the vacuolar transport of malate, which was only DE in standard conditions. A gene encoding for a chloroplastic malate dehydrogenase (MDH) showed diel expression in both conditions, though it was only significantly time-structured under water-limited conditions (Fig. 5). It was up-regulated during the day, suggesting a role in the day-time decarboxylation module of CAM. Its corresponding ortholog in *T. leiboldiana* showed no time-

structured expression in any condition. We also observed a shift in time-structured expression between conditions among genes encoding for sugar transporters. While sugar transporter *SWEET16* showed significant time-structured expression exclusively under standard conditions, *SWEET14* was exclusively DE under water-limited conditions. Both genes were up-regulated during the day when displaying time-structured expression.

Very few CAM-related genes were DE in *T. vanhyningii* between watering regimes. They included several genes encoding enzymes associated with glycolysis and gluconeogenesis and genes previously described as DE between C_3 and CAM *Tillandsia* (De La Harpe et al. 202). None of these genes were part of the core CAM pathway, and while genes encoding for many core CAM enzymes did show a slight increase in expression under water-limited conditions (β-carbonic anhydrase, NAD-dependent MDH, NAD-ME, Fig. 5), their expression was overall similar between watering regimes.

5.4.3.   CAM-related expression in *Tillandsia leiboldiana*

Under standard conditions, time-structured CAM-related DE genes were associated with functions that are typically expected to show temporal oscillation even in plants that do not perform CAM (glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, sugar transport, circadian clock regulation). Under water-limited conditions, 29 DE genes overlapped with standard conditions (Table S8), yet many additional CAM-related genes became time-dependent DE, involved in malate transport, stomatal movement, sugar metabolism, water transport and starch metabolism. Genes encoding Alpha-carbonic anhydrase 1 (α-CA) and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase kinase (PPCK) were up-regulated at night, and several genes related to stomatal function were also time-structured under water-limited conditions (*SLAC1* and two auxin response factors, Table S8, Fig. 5). These findings further emphasise that a CAM cycle was activated in *T. leiboldiana* under water-limited conditions.

The comparison of gene expression between watering regimes at a given time point confirmed this further. Most CAM-related genes that were DE between watering regimes could be found in *T. leiboldiana* at night (venn diagram section c), and included genes encoding the core CAM enzymes PEPC and PPCK (Table S9). Several genes encoding for malate transporters were also in this group, though they were generally down-regulated under water-limited conditions, except for *ALMT10* (Fig. 5). Sugar transport genes were up-regulated under water-limited conditions, such as genes encoding for sugar transporter proteins (STPs) and Sucrose Transporter

1 (*SUT1*), whose ortholog was also showed elevated expresison under water-limited conditions in

T. vanhyningii. Genes related to stomatal function were generally more highly expressed under

water-limited conditions, but displayed varying behaviour in terms of the time of expression (Fig.

5). While *ARF17* and *SLAC1* were up-regulated during the day, *ARF19* and *TRAB1* were up-

regulated during the night.

5.4.4.   Diel expression of PPC and PPCK homologs, and other CAM-related

gene families, between species and watering regimes

The transcript abundances of PEPC and PPCK homologs revealed a variety of expression

patterns. Gene *Tfasc_v1.16311-RA*, which is the ortholog of *PPC1-M1* (Fig. S5a) and was

previously identified as the CAM-related fluctuating copy of PEPC in *T. fasciculata* (Groot Crego

et al., 2024) did not show clear diel expression changes in *T. vanhyningii* (Fig. 6). In *T. leiboldiana*

a slight increase was noticeable in its ortholog at night but was not significantly DE in either

condition. However, *PEPC* was noticeably more highly expressed in *T. vanhyningii* compared to

T. leiboldiana. The remaining known *PEPC* genes were generally less expressed than *PPC1-M1*

in both species, but appeared to become activated under water-limited conditions, namely in *T.*

vanhyningii for *PPC1-M2* (not significant), and in *T. leiboldiana* for *PPC2*.

For PEPC kinase (PPCK), diel expression stood out in one gene (*PPCK2,* Fig. S6) in *T.*

vanhyningii under both watering regimes. While its ortholog was not strongly expressed at night

under standard conditions in *T. leiboldiana*, it became highly expressed under water-limited

conditions. *PPCK1* showed mild diel fluctuation in *T. vanhyningii* but its ortholog was overall

lowly expressed in *T. leiboldiana*.

Figure 6: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for all homologous genes encoding for PEPC and PEPC kinase (PPCK) in T. vanhyningii *(left panel) and* T. leiboldiana *(right panel) at two time points and watering regimes. TPM values are transformed to a logarithmic scale. The colour of gene names reflects their differential expression status: blue = DE between watering regimes, green = DE between time points, black is DE in both comparisons and grey = not DE. The superscripted letters after a gene name indicate the intersection of the Venn diagram this gene belonged to.*

The NAD-dependent malate dehydrogenase (NAD-MDH, OG0001548), previously identified as CAM-related (Groot Crego et al., 2024), is crucial for night-time carboxylation in CAM. This gene

has two copies in *A. comosus*, *T. fasciculata*, and *T. leiboldiana* (Fig. S7a). Neither copy showed
significant differential expression in this study. One copy had increased night expression, while
the other was higher during the day (Fig. S7b), with both showing slightly elevated expression
under water-limited conditions in both species. Despite similar time-dependent expression
profiles, the constitutive CAM plant exhibited substantially higher expression of this and other
genes encoding for core CAM enzymes, including V-ATPase, PEPCK, NAD-ME, PPDK, and
PPDK-regulatory protein (Fig. 5, Fig. S8-S10).

5.5.   Description of the general response to drought

GO enrichment of watering condition-dependent DE genes in *T. leiboldiana* revealed a
pronounced drought response, with the most strongly up-regulated genes linked to water
deprivation and ABA signalling. Processes that were down-regulated under water-limited
conditions pointed at a general shutdown of metabolism, such as photosynthesis, transport, and
biosynthetic processes (Fig. 7a, Table S7). In contrast, *T. vanhyningii* showed minimal drought-
related responses, with no significant changes in regulation of photosynthesis or water deprivation
genes. However, a few enriched GO terms suggested a limited drought response, including
inositol, jasmonate, and molybdate metabolism (Fig. 7b, Table S7).

We detected 31 orthogroups related to drought response and water deprivation that were
differentially expressed across species, watering regimes and time points. Eight of these were up-
regulated under water-limited conditions in *T. leiboldiana* compared to standard conditions, and
three were down-regulated (Fig. S12). The up-regulated orthogroups encoded for three LEA
proteins, a phosphatase 2C, which is involved in ABA signalling (Jung *et al.*, 2020), a galactinol-
sucrose galactosyltransferase, which is associated with ROS scavenging (Nishizawa *et al.*, 2008),
an annexin which also confers oxidative protection under stressful conditions (Konopka-
Postupolska *et al.*, 2009), and the protein YLS9, already discussed in section 4.4.1.

Figure 7: Summary of significantly enriched GO terms representing a Biological Process (BP) in DE genes

between watering regimes in T. leiboldiana *(a) and* T. vanhyningii *(b). GO term enrichment at day and*

night were combined for each bar plot. The bars show the significance of each enriched GO term as the p-

value adjusted for multiple-testing, on a logarithmic scale. The colour gradient indicates up- and down-

regulation of the genes underlying each GO term, as a z-score of the fold-change on a logarithmic scale.

632   In *T. vanhyningii*, only five drought-related orthogroups were differentially expressed

633 between watering regimes, of which three were up-regulated under water-limited conditions:

634 encoding for an inositol-3-phosphate synthase, a 12-oxophytodienoate reductase involved in

635 jasmonic acid biosynthesis and a molybdate ion transporter. In contrast to the low number of

636 drought-related genes that were DE between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii*, seventeen were

637 DE between time points. However, out of these, fifteen already exhibited time-structured

638 expression under standard conditions. Several orthologs also showed overall higher expression in

639 *T. vanhyningii* than in *T. leiboldiana*. Genes encoding for LEA proteins 5 and 8, for example, were

640 more highly expressed in *T. vanhyningii* and showed diel oscillation in both watering regimes,

641 with their expression increasing at night (Fig. S12). All four orthologous genes related to ABA

642 signalling exhibited time-structured expression in *T. vanhyningii* under both watering regimes

643 (except for phosphatase 2C), and in some cases also in *T. leiboldiana* (Fig. S12). These findings

644 suggest that high and/or diel expression of drought-related genes may be an inherent feature of

645 constitutive CAM plants.

647 **6. Discussion**

648   Crassulacean acid metabolism is associated with diversification in many plant families, and

649 described as a key innovation trait in Bromeliaceae (Quezada and Gianoli, 2011; Benzing, 2000;

650 Silvera *et al.*, 2009; Ogburn and Edwards, 2009). Yet, the genetic architecture of the trait itself, its

651 degree of redundancy and genetic overlap between different forms, and its evolutionary trajectory

652 are not well understood (Edwards, 2023). The subgenus *Tillandsia* exhibits a broad range of CAM

653 phenotypes (De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020; Crayn *et al.*, 2015) and is an excellent system for studying

654 CAM evolution, but the exact range of phenotypes within the subgenus has not been characterised

655 beyond carbon isotope ratios and transcriptomic studies under standard conditions. In this study,

656 we compared physiological and transcriptomic responses to water-limited conditions between two

657 *Tillandsia* species to further characterise the phenotypic range in the group and elucidate the degree

658 of shared transcriptomic response underlying two different CAM phenotypes.

Tillandsia leiboldiana is a facultative CAM plant

Both our titratable acidity (TA) measurements and differential gene expression analyses

point at the presence of a latent CAM cycle in *T. leiboldiana* which activates under drought stress.

Increased TA values under drought conditions have been observed in other bromeliad species with

carbon isotope ratios within the C_3 range, which was accompanied with nocturnal CO_2 uptake

(Pierce *et al.*, 2002). The most direct evidence for a switch to CAM in *T. leiboldiana* can be found

in the nighttime up-regulation of *PPCK2* under water-limited conditions, while its expression does

not significantly fluctuate over time in standard conditions. Reported carbon isotope ratios for *T.*

leiboldiana are well within the C_3 range ($\delta^{13}C$ = -28.0 / -31.3; Caryn et al. (2015), De La Harpe

et al. (2020)), indicating yet again the importance of characterising photosynthetic phenotypes at

the hand of multiple measurements performed in various environmental and developmental

conditions. Instead of being a C_3 plant as the reported carbon isotope ratios suggest, our study

showed that *T. leiboldiana* is a weak, facultative CAM plant performing mainly C_3 photosynthesis

under optimal conditions but with pre-existing CAM-like expression patterns in certain genes,

such as PPCK (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024), and a weak overnight accumulation of malate under

drought conditions.

Due to a lack of gas exchange measurements, we cannot yet establish whether *T.*

leiboldiana performs CAM cycling, i.e. malate production and storage starting from CO_2 respired

during the day, or instead, assimilates CO_2 overnight. The presence of several genes associated

with stomatal function among DE genes between watering regimes in *T. leiboldiana* suggests a

change in stomatal behaviour at drought conditions. However, this could be a general response to

drought rather than a CAM-specific response. For example, TRAB1, a member of the ABA

signalling pathway which is generally activated under drought stress (Zhu, 2002; Hobo *et al.*,

1999), is up-regulated in *T. leiboldiana* under drought conditions at night (Fig. 5). On the other

hand, the guard cell anion channel SLAC1, which controls stomatal closure (Vahisalu *et al.*, 2008),

is down-regulated at night in *T. leiboldiana* under water-limited conditions (Fig. 5), a potential

indication that stomata open at night. Nonetheless, gas exchange measurements are needed to fully

understand stomatal activity and timing of CO_2 absorption in *T. leiboldiana*.

Response to drought is minimal in *Tillandsia vanhyningii*

Our physiological and transcriptomic analyses indicate that the quantitative response to water withholding was far greater in *T. leiboldiana* than in *T. vanhyningii* (Figs. 2-3), suggesting that *T. leiboldiana*'s metabolism was being affected by drought, while *T. vanhyningii*'s seemed largely the same between conditions. Titratable acidity was accumulated in a similar manner between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii*, except that accumulation occurred faster overnight under drought conditions. This agrees with previous studies on sister species *T. ionantha*, which showed that its physiology was little affected after six months of water withholding, and attributed its ability to maintain leaf water levels to day-time closing of stomata, low stomatal densities and its enhanced ability to absorb moisture from the atmosphere thanks to a dense layer of absorptive trichomes (Nowak and Martin, 1997; Ohrui *et al.*, 2007).

A very small number of genes were found to be DE between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii*, while a major response was detected in *T. leiboldiana*. Up-regulated enriched GO terms under water-limited conditions in *T. vanhyningii* included metabolism of inositol, jasmonate and molybdate (Fig. 7b, Table S7), all compounds known to play a role in drought response (Wasternack, 2014; Loewus and Murthy, 2000; Li *et al.*, 2022). However, many genes related to drought and abiotic stress response were time-structured or more highly expressed in *T. vanhyningii* compared to *T. leiboldiana* under standard conditions, including genes involved in ABA signalling or encoding for LEA proteins. A link between constitutive CAM phenotypes and temporal expression of ABA-related genes was observed previously by De La Harpe *et al.* (2020). ABA signalling plays an important role in stomatal closure as a response to water deprivation (Christmann *et al.*, 2006; Wilkinson and Davies, 2002; Assmann and Jegla, 2016), but has also been associated with regulation of CAM photosynthesis (Mioto and Mercier, 2013; Ting, 1981). Our findings corroborate that time-structured expression of ABA-related genes is characteristic of constitutive CAM phenotypes and does not necessarily indicate that *T. vanhyningii* was drought-stressed in our experiment.

In terms of the CAM-related response to water-limited conditions, our findings showed that expression of CAM-related genes in *T. vanhyningii* remained largely similar. However, in some cases, such as for sugar transporters SWEET16 and SWEET14, it appeared that different genes underlying the same functions were recruited for CAM between watering regimes.

These findings further support the view that "atmospheric" or "grey" *Tillandsia* such as *T.*
vanhyningii are drought-adapted, which has been shown in physiological studies (Stiles and
Martin, 1996; Castillo *et al.*, 2016; Nowak *et al.*, 1997; Martin, 1994), but to our knowledge not
on a broad transcriptomic or genomic level. Atmospheric *Tillandsia* represent the most extreme
forms of adaptation to an epiphytic lifestyle among Bromeliaceae, having lost almost entirely the
ability to absorb water with roots (Benzing, 2000; Crayn *et al.*, 2004). They occur in arid habitats
and are all constitutive CAM plants, leading to the suggestion that CAM is a key innovation trait
in this group (Crayn *et al.*, 2004). Our findings show indeed that *T. vanhyningii* is only mildly
affected by water-limited conditions and points at constitutive drought tolerance on the
transcriptomic and physiological level in atmospheric *Tillandsia*. However, while this could be
attributable to *T. vanhyningii*'s constitutive CAM phenotype, other typical characteristics of
atmospheric *Tillandsia* such as a dense trichome layer need to also be considered as important
contributors to its drought-tolerant nature.

Both response to drought and photosynthetic metabolism show little overlap between
species on the transcriptomic level

Despite the relatively short time in which *T vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana* have diverged,
our analyses demonstrate clear differentiation on the physiological and transcriptomic level,
resulting in distinct photosynthetic phenotypes. On the transcriptomic level, both the set of time-
structured genes and the set of genes that were DE between watering regimes showed little overlap
between species, which has also been reported in other CAM lineages such as Agavoideae
(Heyduk *et al.*, 2022).

The majority of time-structured genes previously described as CAM-related were uniquely
time-structured within one species. Despite *T. leiboldiana* appearing to activate CAM under
drought conditions, the overall transcriptomic basis underlying this phenotype shows substantial
divergence from *T. vanhyningii*'s constitutive CAM phenotype. Notable exceptions are *PPCK2*
(Fig. 6) and protein YLS9 (drought resistance), which show a similar time-structured expression
both in *T. vanhyningii* and drought-stressed *T. leiboldiana*. The minor overlap in the facultatively
activated CAM cycle of *T. leiboldiana* and the constitutive cycle of *T. vanhyningii* suggests
substantial divergence in the transcriptomic basis leading to the two forms of CAM, rather than a
largely shared pathway which is expressed at lower levels in the weak CAM plant.

This is even more supported by the distinct expression patterns of different gene family members of PEPC. Under drought conditions, the homologous copy of *PPC2* appears to be up-regulated in *T. leiboldiana*, while being lowly expressed at all conditions in *T. vanhyningii*. Because none of the PEPC copies are time-structured in this experiment, likely due to the time of sampling not being synchronous with the peak expression times of these genes, it is difficult to confirm that *PPC2* is active in CAM in *T. leiboldiana* under drought conditions. While in the majority of CAM plant lineages, including *T. fasciculata* (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024) and *A. comosus* (Ming *et al.*, 2015), the PEPC gene copy recruited into the CAM pathway is *PPC1*, recruitment of *PPC2* has been suggested in *Yucca aloifolia* (Heyduk *et al.*, 2022) and in *Isoetes taiwanensis* (Wickell *et al.*, 2021).

Another CAM-related gene that showed increased time-structured expression in *T. leiboldiana* under water-limited conditions was an α-carbonic anhydrase (α-CA, Fig. S11). Carbonic anhydrases convert CO_2 to HCO_3^-, the first step of carbon assimilation in CAM photosynthesis. In pineapple, however, β-CA, rather than α-CA are modulated in CAM (Ming *et al.*, 2015), and *T. vanhyningii* does not share the time-structured expression of this gene. In several *Yucca* species, on the other hand, α-CA did show time-structured expression under water-limited conditions (Heyduk *et al.*, 2019). Overall, the expression of *PPC2* and α-CA in *T. leiboldiana* suggests differential gene recruitment into the CAM pathway between these species.

Except for PPCK, PEPC and α-CA, enzymes of the carboxylating and decarboxylating modules of CAM were mostly not differentially expressed in this study. Their timewise expression tended to show similar patterns between species, though in some cases they were more highly expressed in the constitutive CAM species (MDH, PEPCK). This suggests maintained transcriptomic similarity in the core CAM module, while other modules relevant to CAM, such as malate transport, sugar transport, stomatal regulation, water channels and starch metabolism, exhibited substantial transcriptomic divergence.

Taken together, this study characterises in detail the photosynthetic phenotypes of two species of the subgenus *Tillandsia*, and illustrates that a species with one of the most C_3-like carbon isotope value recorded in the group so far is not a C_3, but a facultative CAM plant. Nonetheless, our analyses demonstrate an important distinction on the transcriptomic level between weak and constitutive CAM. On the physiological level, both species exhibited CAM-like leaf acidification overnight under water-limited conditions, though at different rates. Yet, despite the short

divergence times between the studied species, we found little overlap in the underlying transcriptomic modulation of CAM-related genes, both within but especially beyond the core CAM carboxylation and decarboxylation modules., This suggests that the evolutionary trajectory between facultative and constitutive CAM phenotypes from a shared ancestor entails larger transcriptional modulation than the mere "up-regulation" of a constrained set of genes. There is still a broad diversity of CAM phenotypes and genotypes to be characterised in further detail, and the subgenus *Tillandsia* with its diversity of CAM phenotypes forms an excellent candidate group for future exciting research into the CAM continuum and its evolution.

7.   Supplementary data

Figure S1: Diagnostic plots for Linear Mixed-Effects Models constructed in each species to assess the effect of time and watering regime on titratable acidity measurements.

Figure S2: Mapping rates across 24 samples of different species and watering regimes.

Figure S3: Principal component analysis of TMM-normalised read counts in log(CPM).

Figure S4: Overview of the overlap between DE analyses across time points and across watering regimes.

Figure S5: Gene trees of PPC1 (A) and PPC2 (B).

Figure S6: Gene trees of PPCK with the isozymes PPCK1 and PPCK2.

Figure S7: Expression of MDH orthologs.

Figure S8: Expression of NAD-ME.

Figure S9: Expression of PEPCK.

Figure S10: Expression of PPDK and PPDK regulatory protein.

Figure S11: Expression of carbonic anhydrases.

Figure S12: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for a subset of single-copy orthogroups related to drought response in *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana*

Table S1: Sampling overview and summary of RNA extractions for 24 samples.

Table S2: Titratable acidity measurements for Tillandsia vanhyningii and Tillandsia leiboldiana at four time points spread over 6-hour intervals.

Table S3: Statistical models and results for titratable acidity measurements.

Table S4: Summary of per-gene read counting with FeatureCounts.

Table S5: Overlap of DE orthogroups between species, watering regimes and time points.

8. Acknowledgements

823   We thank Viktor Vagovic at the Core Facility Botanical Garden of the University of Vienna
824 for caretaking and maintenance of the plant accessions used in this study and assistance with the
825 drought experiment. We also thank Aglaia Szukala, Marta Pelizzola, Nina Flowers and Simon
826 Reynaert for advice and discussion on transcriptome analysis.

9. Author Contributions

This study was conceived by CL, JH, MDH, OP, and CGC. Accessions were sampled by
WT. The greenhouse experiment and sampling were conducted by MDH and MHJB. Laboratory
work including TA measurements and DNA extraction and library prep was conducted by MDH,
OP and MHJB. Analyses were performed by CGC, MDH and SS. The manuscript was primarily
written by CGC with contributions from SS, and amended following the dedicated reading and
feedback of all co-authors.

10. Conflict of interest

837   The authors declare no conflict of interests.

11. Funding

This work was financially supported by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) with grant https://doi.org/10.55776/W1225 to a faculty team including C.L. and O.P., and grant https://doi.org/10.55776/P35275 to O.P. Additionally, this work was funded by the professorship start-up grant of Christian Lexer at the University of Vienna BE772002.

12. Data availability

TA measurements, detailed information on statistical testing and accession information is provided in the supplementary tables of this manuscript. The raw RNA-seq data is available at the NCBI SRA database under the BioProject PRJNA1121978. Scripts, read counts and extended tables of GO enrichment analyses are available on the following repository: https://github.com/cgrootcrego/Tillandsia_CAM-Drought.

13. References

Alexa, A., Rahnenführer, J. and Lengauer, T. (2006) Improved scoring of functional groups from gene expression data by decorrelating GO graph structure. *Bioinformatics*, **22**, 1600–1607.

Arumingtyas, E.L., Savitri, E.S. and Purwoningrahayu, R.D. (2013) Protein profiles and dehydrin accumulation in some soybean varieties (*Glycine max* L. merr) in drought stress conditions. *Am. J. Plant Sci.*, **04**, 134–141.

Assmann, S.M. and Jegla, T. (2016) Guard cell sensory systems: recent insights on stomatal responses to light, abscisic acid, and CO2. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.*, **33**, 157–167.

Bachmann, A., Hause, B., Maucher, H., Garbe, E., Vörös, K., Weichert, H., Wasternack, C. and Feussner, I. (2002) Jasmonate-induced lipid peroxidation in barley leaves initiated by distinct 13-LOX forms of chloroplasts. *Biol. Chem.*, **383**, 1645–1657.

Barfuss, M.H.J., Till, W., Leme, E.M.C., Pinzón, J.P., Manzanares, J.M., Halbritter, H., Samuel, R. and Brown, G.K. (2016) Taxonomic revision of bromeliaceae subfam. Tillandsioideae based on a multi-locus DNA sequence phylogeny and morphology. *Phytotaxa*, **279**, 1–97.

Barghi, N., Hermisson, J. and Schlötterer, C. (2020) Polygenic adaptation: a unifying framework to understand positive selection. *Nat. Rev. Genet.*, **21**, 769–781.

Barghi, N., Tobler, R., Nolte, V., et al. (2019) Genetic redundancy fuels polygenic adaptation in Drosophila. *PLoS Biol.*, **17**, e3000128.

Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B. and Walker, S. (2015) Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects
Models Using lme4. *J. Stat. Softw.*, **67**, 1–48.

Benzing, D.H. (2000) *Bromeliaceae: Profile of an Adaptive Radiation*, Cambridge, England:
Cambridge University Press.

Beutelspacher, C.R. and García-Martínez, R. (2021) Descripción de nuevos híbridos y una
nueva combinación en Tillandsia (Bromeliaceae) para Chiapas, México. *Lacandonia*, **15**,
19–28.

Borland, A.M., Hartwell, J., Weston, D.J., Schlauch, K.A., Tschaplinski, T.J., Tuskan,
G.A., Yang, X. and Cushman, J.C. (2014) Engineering crassulacean acid metabolism to
improve water-use efficiency. *Trends Plant Sci.*, **19**, 327–338.

Bouzroud, S., Gasparini, K., Hu, G., et al. (2020) Down regulation and loss of auxin response
factor 4 function using CRISPR/Cas9 alters plant growth, stomatal function and improves
tomato tolerance to salinity and osmotic stress. *Genes (Basel)*, **11**, 272.

Bräutigam, A., Schlüter, U., Eisenhut, M. and Gowik, U. (2017) On the Evolutionary Origin
of CAM Photosynthesis. *Plant Physiol.*, **174**, 473–477.

Castillo, R.J., Cervera, J.C. and Navarro-Alberto, J. (2016) Drought and extreme temperature
tolerance for Tillandsia dasyliriifolia, an epiphytic bromeliad from the northern coastal
dune scrubland in Yucatan, Mexico. *Botanical Sciences*, **94**, 121–126.

Chen, H. and Boutros, P.C. (2011) VennDiagram: a package for the generation of highly-
customizable Venn and Euler diagrams in R. *BMC Bioinformatics*, **12**, 35.

Christmann, A., Moes, D., Himmelbach, A., Yang, Y., Tang, Y. and Grill, E. (2006)
Integration of abscisic acid signalling into plant responses. *Plant Biol. (Stuttg.)*, **8**, 314–
325.

Conway, J.R., Lex, A. and Gehlenborg, N. (2017) UpSetR: an R package for the visualization
of intersecting sets and their properties. *Bioinformatics*, **33**, 2938–2940.

Crayn, D.M., Winter, K., Schulte, K. and Smith, J.A.C. (2015) Photosynthetic pathways in
Bromeliaceae: Phylogenetic and ecological significance of CAM and C3 based on carbon
isotope ratios for 1893 species. *Bot. J. Linn. Soc.*, **178**, 169–221.

Crayn, D.M., Winter, K. and Smith, J.A.C. (2004) Multiple origins of crassulacean acid
metabolism and the epiphytic habit in the Neotropical family Bromeliaceae. *Proceedings*
of the National Academy of Sciences, **101**, 3703–3708.

De La Harpe, M., Paris, M., Hess, J., et al. (2020) Genomic footprints of repeated evolution of
CAM photosynthesis in a Neotropical species radiation. *Plant Cell Environ.*, **43**, 2987–
3001.

Dobin, A., Davis, C.A., Schlesinger, F., Drenkow, J., Zaleski, C., Jha, S., Batut, P.,

Chaisson, M. and Gingeras, T.R. (2013) STAR: Ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner.
908   *Bioinformatics*, **29**, 15–21.

909 **Edwards, E.J.** (2023) Reconciling continuous and discrete models of C4 and CAM evolution.
910   *Ann. Bot.* http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcad125.

911 **Ewels, P., Magnusson, M., Lundin, S. and Käller, M.** (2016) MultiQC: summarize analysis
912   results for multiple tools and samples in a single report. *Bioinformatics*, **32**, 3047–3048.

913 **Gibson, A.C.** (1982) The anatomy of succulence. *Crassulacean acid metabolism*, 1–17.

914 **Gilman, I.S., Smith, J.A.C., Holtum, J.A.M., Sage, R.F., Silvera, K., Winter, K. and**
915   **Edwards, E.J.** (2023) The CAM lineages of planet Earth. *Ann. Bot.*, **132**, 627–654.

916 **Givnish, T.J., Barfuss, M.H.J., Van Ee, B., et al.** (2014) Adaptive radiation, correlated and
917   contingent evolution, and net species diversification in Bromeliaceae. *Mol. Phylogenet.*
918   *Evol.*, **71**, 55–78.

919 **Goldstein, D.B. and Holsinger, K.E.** (1992) Maintenance of polygenic variation in spatially
920   structured populations: roles for local mating and genetic redundancy. *Evolution*, **46**,
921   412–429.

922 **Griffiths, H., Robe, W.E., Girnus, J. and Maxwell, K.** (2008) Leaf succulence determines the
923   interplay between carboxylase systems and light use during Crassulacean acid
924   metabolism in Kalanchoë species*. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **59**, 1851–1861.

925 **Groot Crego, C., Hess, J., Yardeni, G., et al.** (2024) CAM evolution is associated with gene
926   family expansion in an explosive bromeliad radiation. *Plant Cell*, **36**, 4109-4131.

927 **Gu, Z., Eils, R. and Schlesner, M.** (2016) Complex heatmaps reveal patterns and correlations in
928   multidimensional genomic data. *Bioinformatics*, **32**, 2847–2849.

929 **Hämälä, T., Guiltinan, M.J., Marden, J.H., Maximova, S.N., dePamphilis, C.W. and Tiffin,**
930   **P.** (2020) Gene Expression Modularity Reveals Footprints of Polygenic Adaptation in
931   Theobroma cacao. *Mol. Biol. Evol.*, **37**, 110–123.

932 **Heyduk, K., Burrell, N., Lalani, F. and Leebens-Mack, J.** (2016) Gas exchange and leaf
933   anatomy of a C3-CAM hybrid, Yucca gloriosa (Asparagaceae). *J. Exp. Bot.*, **67**, 1369–
934   1379.

935 **Heyduk, K., McAssey, E.V. and Leebens-Mack, J.** (2022) Differential timing of gene
936   expression and recruitment in independent origins of CAM in the Agavoideae
937   (Asparagaceae). *New Phytol.*, **235**, 2111–2126.

938 **Heyduk, K., Ray, J.N., Ayyampalayam, S. and Leebens-Mack, J.** (2018) Shifts in gene
939   expression profiles are associated with weak and strong Crassulacean acid metabolism.
940   *Am. J. Bot.*, **105**, 587–601.

Heyduk, K., Ray, J.N., Ayyampalayam, S., Moledina, N., Borland, A., Harding, S.A., Tsai,
C.-J. and Leebens-Mack, J. (2019) Shared expression of crassulacean acid metabolism
(CAM) genes pre-dates the origin of CAM in the genus Yucca. *J. Exp. Bot.*, **70**, 6597–
6609.

Heyduk, K., Ray, J.N. and Leebens-Mack, J. (2021) Leaf anatomy is not correlated to CAM
function in a C3+CAM hybrid species, Yucca gloriosa. *Ann. Bot.*, **127**, 437–449.

Hobo, T., Kowyama, Y. and Hattori, T. (1999) A bZIP factor, TRAB1, interacts with VP1 and
mediates abscisic acid-induced transcription. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, **96**, 15348–
15353.

Jung, C., Nguyen, N.H. and Cheong, J.-J. (2020) Transcriptional regulation of protein
phosphatase 2C genes to modulate abscisic acid signaling. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, **21**, 9517.

Katoh, K., Misawa, K., Kuma, K.-I. and Miyata, T. (2002) MAFFT: a novel method for rapid
multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **30**,
3059–3066.

Konopka-Postupolska, D., Clark, G., Goch, G., Debski, J., Floras, K., Cantero, A., Fijolek,
B., Roux, S. and Hennig, J. (2009) The role of annexin 1 in drought stress in
Arabidopsis. *Plant Physiol.*, **150**, 1394–1410.

Kuznetsova, A., Brockhoff, P.B. and Christensen, R.H.B. (2017) lmerTest Package: Tests in
Linear Mixed Effects Models. *J. Stat. Softw.*, **82**, 1–26.

Láruson, Á.J., Yeaman, S. and Lotterhos, K.E. (2020) The Importance of Genetic
Redundancy in Evolution. *Trends Ecol. Evol.*, **35**, 809–822.

Li, X., Ding, M., Wang, M., Yang, S., Ma, X., Hu, J., Song, F., Wang, L. and Liang, W.
(2022) Proteome profiling reveals changes in energy metabolism, transport and
antioxidation during drought stress in Nostoc flagelliforme. *BMC Plant Biol.*, **22**, 162.

Liao, Y., Smyth, G.K. and Shi, W. (2014) FeatureCounts: An efficient general purpose
program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics*, **30**, 923–930.

Loewus, F.A. and Murthy, P.P.N. (2000) myo-Inositol metabolism in plants. *Plant Sci.*, **150**,
1–19.

Magwanga, R.O., Lu, P., Kirungu, J.N., et al. (2018) Characterization of the late
embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins family and their role in drought stress tolerance
in upland cotton. *BMC Genet.*, **19**, 6.

Males, J. (2018) Concerted anatomical change associated with crassulacean acid metabolism in
the Bromeliaceae. *Funct. Plant Biol.*, **45**, 681–695.

Martin, C.E. (1994) Physiological ecology of the Bromeliaceae. *Bot. Rev.*, **60**, 1–82.

Martin, C.E., Hsu, R.C.-C. and Lin, T.-C. (2009) The relationship between CAM and leaf
succulence in two epiphytic vines, Hoya carnosa and Dischidia formosana
(Asclepiadaceae), in a subtropical rainforest in northeastern Taiwan. *Photosynthetica*, **47**,
445–450.

Mendoza, C.G., Granados-Aguilar, X., Donadío, S., et al. (2017) Geographic structure in two
highly diverse lineages of Tillandsia (Bromeliaceae). *Botany*, **95**, 641–651.

Ming, R., VanBuren, R., Wai, C.M., et al. (2015) The pineapple genome and the evolution of
CAM photosynthesis. *Nat. Genet.*, **47**, 1435–1442.

Minh, B.Q., Schmidt, H.A., Chernomor, O., Schrempf, D., Woodhams, M.D., Haeseler, A.
von and Lanfear, R. (2020) IQ-TREE 2: New Models and Efficient Methods for
Phylogenetic Inference in the Genomic Era. *Mol. Biol. Evol.*, **37**, 1530–1534.

Mioto, P.T. and Mercier, H. (2013) Abscisic acid and nitric oxide signaling in two different
portions of detached leaves of Guzmania monostachia with CAM up-regulated by
drought. *J. Plant Physiol.*, **170**, 996–1002.

Müller, M., Seifert, S., Lübbe, T., Leuschner, C. and Finkeldey, R. (2017) De novo
transcriptome assembly and analysis of differential gene expression in response to
drought in European beech. *PLoS One*, **12**, e0184167.

Neales, T.F. (1975) The gas exchange patterns of CAM plants. In *Environmental and Biological*
Control of Photosynthesis. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands, pp. 299–310.

Nelson, E.A. and Sage, R.F. (2008) Functional constraints of CAM leaf anatomy: tight cell
packing is associated with increased CAM function across a gradient of CAM expression.
J. Exp. Bot., **59**, 1841–1850.

Nelson, E.A., Sage, T.L. and Sage, R.F. (2005) Functional leaf anatomy of plants with
crassulacean acid metabolism. *Funct. Plant Biol.*, **32**, 409–419.

Nishizawa, A., Yabuta, Y. and Shigeoka, S. (2008) Galactinol and raffinose constitute a novel
function to protect plants from oxidative damage. *Plant Physiol.*, **147**, 1251–1263.

Nowak, E.J. and Martin, C.E. (1997) Physiological and Anatomical Responses to Water
Deficits in the Cam Epiphyte Tillandsia ionantha (Bromeliaceae). *Int. J. Plant Sci.*, **158**,
818–826.

Nowak, M.A., Boerlijst, M.C., Cooke, J. and Smith, J.M. (1997) Evolution of genetic
redundancy. *Nature*, **388**, 167–171.

Ogburn, R.M. and Edwards, E.J. (2009) Anatomical variation in Cactaceae and relatives: Trait
lability and evolutionary innovation. *Am. J. Bot.*, **96**, 391–408.

Ohrui, T., Nobira, H., Sakata, Y., et al. (2007) Foliar trichome- and aquaporin-aided water
uptake in a drought-resistant epiphyte Tillandsia ionantha Planchon. *Planta*, **227**, 47–56.

Osmond, C.B. (1978) Crassulacean Acid Metabolism: A Curiosity in Context. *Annu. Rev. Plant*
Physiol., **29**, 379–414.

Pierce, S., Winter, K. and Griffiths, H. (2002) Carbon isotope ratio and the extent of daily
CAM use by Bromeliaceae. *New Phytol.*, **156**, 75–83.

Quezada, I.M. and Gianoli, E. (2011) Crassulacean acid metabolism photosynthesis in
Bromeliaceae: an evolutionary key innovation. *Biol. J. Linn. Soc. Lond.*, **104**, 480–486.
Available at: [Accessed July 31, 2023].

Robinson, M.D., McCarthy, D.J. and Smyth, G.K. (2009) edgeR: A Bioconductor package for
differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics*, **26**, 139–
140.

Robinson, M.D. and Oshlack, A. (2010) A scaling normalization method for differential
expression analysis of RNA-seq data. *Genome Biol.*, **11**, R25.

Schiller, K. and Bräutigam, A. (2021) Engineering of Crassulacean Acid Metabolism. *Annu.*
Rev. Plant Biol., **72**, 77–103.

Schubert, M., Lindgreen, S. and Orlando, L. (2016) AdapterRemoval v2: rapid adapter
trimming, identification, and read merging. *BMC Res. Notes*, **9**, 88.

Silvera, K., Santiago, L.S., Cushman, J.C. and Winter, K. (2009) Crassulacean acid
metabolism and epiphytism linked to adaptive radiations in the Orchidaceae. *Plant*
Physiol., **149**, 1838–1847.

Silvera, K., Santiago, L.S. and Winter, K. (2005) Distribution of crassulacean acid metabolism
in orchids of Panama: evidence of selection for weak and strong modes. *Funct. Plant*
Biol., **32**, 397–407.

Steiner, C.C., Römpler, H., Boettger, L.M., Schöneberg, T. and Hoekstra, H.E. (2009) The
genetic basis of phenotypic convergence in beach mice: similar pigment patterns but
different genes. *Mol. Biol. Evol.*, **26**, 35–45.

Stiles, K.C. and Martin, C.E. (1996) Effects of drought stress on CO2 exchange and water
relations in the CAM epiphyte Tillandsia utriculata (Bromeliaceae). *J. Plant Physiol.*,
149, 721–728.

Ting, I.P. (1981) Effects of abscisic acid on CAM in Portulacaria afra. *Photosynth. Res.*, **2**, 39–
48.

Vahisalu, T., Kollist, H., Wang, Y.-F., et al. (2008) SLAC1 is required for plant guard cell S-
type anion channel function in stomatal signalling. *Nature*, **452**, 487–491.

Vera-Paz, S.I., Granados Mendoza, C., Díaz Contreras Díaz, D.D., et al. (2023) Plastome
phylogenomics reveals an early Pliocene North- and Central America colonization by
long-distance dispersal from South America of a highly diverse bromeliad lineage. *Front.*

Plant Sci., **14**, 1205511.

Wai, C.M., Weise, S.E., Ozersky, P., Mockler, T.C., Michael, T.P. and VanBuren, R. (2019)
Time of day and network reprogramming during drought induced CAM photosynthesis in
Sedum album. *PLoS Genet.*, **15**, e1008209. Available at: [Accessed October 2, 2024].

Wasternack, C. (2014) Action of jasmonates in plant stress responses and development--applied
aspects. *Biotechnol. Adv.*, **32**, 31–39.

Wickell, D., Kuo, L.-Y., Yang, H.-P., et al. (2021) Underwater CAM photosynthesis elucidated
by Isoetes genome. *Nature Communications 2021 12:1*, **12**, 1–13.

Wilkinson, S. and Davies, W.J. (2002) ABA-based chemical signalling: the co-ordination of
responses to stress in plants. *Plant Cell Environ.*, **25**, 195–210.

Winter, K. (2019) Ecophysiology of constitutive and facultative CAM photosynthesis. *J. Exp.*
Bot. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erz002.

Winter, K. and Holtum, J.A.M. (2002) How closely do the delta(13)C values of Crassulacean
Acid metabolism plants reflect the proportion of CO(2) fixed during day and night? *Plant*
Physiol., **129**, 1843–1851.

Winter, K. and Smith, J.A.C. (2022) CAM photosynthesis: the acid test. *New Phytol.*, **233**,
599–609.

Yardeni, G., Barfuss, M.H.J., Till, W., Thornton, M.R., Crego, C.G., Lexer, C., Leroy, T.
and Paun, O. (2023) The explosive radiation of the Neotropical Tillandsia subgenus
Tillandsia (Bromeliaceae) has been facilitated by pervasive hybridization. *bioRxiv*,
2023.11.16.567341.

Yardeni, G., Viruel, J., Paris, M., et al. (2021) Taxon-specific or universal? Using target
capture to study the evolutionary history of rapid radiations. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.*
http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1755-0998.13523.

Yeaman, S., Hodgins, K.A., Lotterhos, K.E., et al. (2016) Convergent local adaptation to
climate in distantly related conifers. *Science*, **353**, 1431–1433.

Zhu, J.-K. (2002) Salt and drought stress signal transduction in plants. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.*,
53, 247–273.

1073

14.   Figure legends

Figure 1. Overview of species and experimental set-up. Left, Tillandsia vanhyningii *(Photograph by*

Michael H.J. Barfuss, 2023); right, Tillandsia leiboldiana *(Photograph by Manuel Lasserus, 2024), both at*

the Botanical Garden of the University of Vienna. Experimental setup, consisting of sampling at four time

points that are six hours apart: 4 and 10 hours after dawn (D), plus 4 and 10 hours after nightfall (N).

Titratable acidity (TA) was quantified for each condition, whereas RNA-seq data was analysed for the time
points indicated with RNA.

1081

Figure 2: Titratable Acidity (TA) measurements of T. vanhyningii *and* T. leiboldiana. ***a)*** *TA measured at*
four time points across a diel cycle under two watering regimes. The significance level of within-species,
between-watering regime comparisons at a given time point from an LMM model are shown with following
*thresholds: ns - p-value > 0.05; * - p-value < 0.05; ** - p-value < 0.01; *** - p-value < 1E-03.* ***b)*** *Difference*
in adjusted means of TA values between each pair of timepoints, separated for each species. Each dot
represents de difference between adjusted means of TA values between two timepoints within a species and
watering regime, as estimated in the post-hoc Tukey HSD test. The first four timepoint comparisons are
between adjacent timepoints that are 6 hours apart in a 24-hour cycle, whereas the last two represent
differences in mean TA between timepoints that were 12 hours apart. The shape of each dot indicates the
significance level of the difference in mean TA and is shown with the same thresholds as in a).
Abbreviations: SW – standard watering conditions; WL – water-limited conditions; FW - Fresh Weight; D
– Dawn; N – Nightfall.

1094

Figure 3: Counts of up- and down-regulated DE genes (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05, |Log(FC)| ≥ 1.5) in
four comparisons across different background conditions. The first four bars show counts of time-
dependent DE genes in two watering regimes, while the last four bars show counts of genes that are DE
between watering regimes at two time points. Left-hand symbols indicate the background condition, e.g.
the first two bars are counts of time-dependent DE genes under standard conditions. Left-hand bars show
counts of genes that are up-regulated at day compared to night for time-dependent comparisons, and in
water-limited compared to standard conditions for comparisons of watering regimes. Right-hand bars show
counts of genes that are up-regulated at night compared to daytime for time-dependent comparisons, and
in standard watering compared to water-limited conditions for comparisons of watering regimes. The DE
analyses were conducted in each species separately. A dark-grey background indicates night-time, while
lighter bar colours indicate water-limited conditions.

1106

1107 *Figure 4: Overlap of DE orthogroups between species, time points and watering regimes.* ***a)*** *Venn diagram*
1108 *showing the number and proportion of shared time-dependent DE orthogroups (i.e., day versus night) per*
1109 *combined group of species and watering condition.* ***b)*** *Venn diagram showing the number and proportion*

1110   *of shared DE orthogroups between watering regimes (i.e., water-limited versus standard conditions) per*

1111   *combined group of species and time point. Letters inside sections show the overlap between the four groups.*

1112

Figure 5: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for a subset of single-copy CAM-

related orthogroups, in T. vanhyningii *(left panel, using the* T. fasciculata *ortholog) and* T. leiboldiana

(right panel, using the T. leiboldiana *ortholog) at two time points and watering regimes. TPM values are*

transformed to a logarithmic scale and centred as a z-score. Displayed genes are organised in functional

categories and gene name colour reflects their differential expression status: blue = DE between watering

regimes, green = DE between time points, black is DE in both comparisons and grey = not DE. The letters

in superscript indicate the intersection of the Venn diagram that each orthogroup belongs to. When an

orthogroup is DE in both comparisons, the first superscripted letter indicates the intersection of the time-

dependent Venn diagram (Fig. 4a), and the second superscripted letter, separated by a comma, indicates

the intersection of the Venn diagram for watering regimes (Fig. 4b). Abbreviations: NIP - nodulin 26-like

intrinsic protein; PIP - plasma membrane intrinsic protein; TIP - Tonoplast Intrinsic Proteins; LHY - Late

Elongated Hypocotyl; PIF - Phytochrome Interacting Factor; RUP - Repressor of UV-B

Photomorphogenesis; α-CA - alpha carbonic anhydrase; β-CA - beta carbonic anhydrase; NAD-MDH –

Nad-dependent malate dehydrogenase; NAD-ME - NAD-dependent malic enzyme; PPDK - pyruvate-

phosphate dikinase; PPDK-reg. prot - PPDK regulatory protein; PEPCK – Phosphoenolpyruvate

carboxykinase; LEA - Late Embryogenesis abundant; ALMT - Aluminium dependent malate transporter;

TDT - tonoplast dicarboxylate transporter; LHCB - chlorophyll a-b binding protein; OEE - Oxygen

evolving enhancer; ARF – Auxin response factor; bZIP - basic region leucine zipper; SLAC1 - slow-type

anion channel 1; STP – sugar transporter protein; SUT1 – sucrose transporter 1.

1132

Figure 6: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for all homologous genes encoding

for PEPC and PEPC kinase (PPCK) in T. vanhyningii *(left panel) and* T. leiboldiana *(right panel) at two*

time points and watering regimes. TPM values are transformed to a logarithmic scale. The colour of gene

names reflects their differential expression status: blue = DE between watering regimes, green = DE

between time points, black is DE in both comparisons and grey = not DE. The superscripted letters after a

gene name indicate the intersection of the Venn diagram this gene belonged to.

1139

Figure 7: Summary of significantly enriched GO terms representing a Biological Process (BP) in DE genes

between watering regimes in T. leiboldiana *(a) and* T. vanhyningii *(b). GO term enrichment at day and*

night were combined for each bar plot. The bars show the significance of each enriched GO term as the p-

value adjusted for multiple-testing, on a logarithmic scale. The colour gradient indicates up- and down-

regulation of the genes underlying each GO term, as a z-score of the fold-change on a logarithmic scale.

The GO terms are shown in descending order from most up-regulated in drought conditions to most up-

regulated in standard conditions.

1147

Tillandsia vanhyningii
Strong CAM

D + 4h	TA + RNA	TA + RNA
D + 10h	TA	TA
N + 4h	TA + RNA	TA + RNA
N + 10h	TA	TA

Tillandsia leiboldiana
Weak CAM

D + 4h	TA + RNA	TA + RNA
D + 10h	TA	TA
N + 4h	TA + RNA	TA + RNA
N + 10h	TA	TA

a *T. leiboldiana*

Category	Count
regulation of DNA−templated transcription	97
response to water	19
response to abscisic acid	19
signal transduction	51
response to desiccation	4
response to salt stress	13
abscisic acid−activated signaling pathway	8
phosphatidylcholine biosynthetic process	2
regulation of meristem structural organization	3
response to cytokinin	5
glutamine biosynthetic process	2
export from cell	7
plant−type cell wall cellulose metabolic process	2
transmembrane transport	82
glutathione catabolic process	2
cellular response to sulfate starvation	2
inositol catabolic process	2
metal ion transport	23
lignin biosynthetic process	7
cellular oxidant detoxification	17
steroid biosynthetic process	8
protein phosphorylation	76
brassinosteroid homeostasis	4
response to light stimulus	27
defense response to other organism	22
chlorophyll biosynthetic process	5
malate transport	5
cellular response to auxin stimulus	9
actin filament bundle assembly	3
abscission	2
photosynthesis, light harvesting in photosystem I	13
cutin biosynthetic process	3
photosynthesis	33

Log(FC) (z−score): WL > SW / SW > WL

−log (adj p−value)

b *T. vanhyningii*

Category	Count
inositol biosynthetic process	1
(−)−pinoresinol catabolic process	1
megasporogenesis	1
oxylipin biosynthetic process	2
transsulfuration	1
molybdate ion export from vacuole	1
ceramide 1−phosphate transport	1
glycerophospholipid catabolic process	1
COPI coating of Golgi vesicle	1
D−xylose metabolic process	1
negative regulation of long−day photoperiodism, flowering	1
negative regulation of translational elongation	1
negative regulation of ATP−dependent activity	1
actin filament severing	1
oligopeptide transmembrane transport	3
phosphatidylinositol dephosphorylation	2

Log(FC) (z−score): WL > SW / WL > SW

−log (adj p−value)