1　*Divergent transcriptional architectures beyond core CAM genes in facultative and constitutive*
2　　　　　　　　　　　　　*CAM species in* **Tillandsia**

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1. ABSTRACT

Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) is a water-efficient photosynthetic strategy involving a coordinated suite of complex traits including metabolic, anatomical and regulatory aspects that shift across the diel cycle. While CAM has evolved repeatedly in land plants, the evolutionary routes enabling this convergence remain elusive. Whereas the same core CAM (de)carboxylation genes are consistently involved, a key question is whether distinct CAM phenotypes also depend on a shared set of auxiliary genes, reflecting a quantitative continuum of expression, or whether they can instead emerge through divergent or redundant peripheral solutions. The bromeliad subgenus *Tillandsia*, with diverse photosynthetic strategies, offers an ideal system to explore this question. Using physiological and transcriptomic analyses of well-watered and water-limited accessions of two closely related species, we characterized facultative and constitutive CAM. By comparing orthologous gene expression and orthogroup recruitment, we found that while both species performed CAM upon water-withholding, transcriptional shifts in pathways related to stomatal movement, sugar/malate transport, aquaporins and starch metabolism showed minimal overlap. Core enzymes involved in the CAM (de)carboxylation cycle exhibited broadly shared expression patterns, yet the facultative CAM species uniquely up-regulated PPC2 at night instead of the canonical CAM-related PEPC ortholog PPC1. Our study reveals that, while the expression of certain core CAM enzymes is conserved, the surrounding transcriptional architecture can differ substantially even between closely related species. This supports a model in which CAM evolves through a mosaic recruitment of functionally equivalent, yet non-orthologous genes - underscoring its flexible and modular genetic architecture. These insights advance our understanding of the mechanisms enabling the repeated evolution of CAM and its capacity to facilitate adaptive diversification.

Key words: Adaptive radiation, Bromeliaceae, Crassulacean acid metabolism, drought tolerance, genetic redundancy, key innovation trait

2. INTRODUCTION

The repeated evolution of complex traits has been a long-standing matter of study for evolutionary biologists. It remains unclear how traits which need coordinated changes across multiple organismal layers can evolve frequently and repeatedly across the tree of life. One explanation is that similar phenotypes can arise through different sets of mutations, also referred to as "genetic routes", assuming complex traits are polygenic and the underlying genes show substantial redundancy (Barghi et al., 2020; Goldstein & Holsinger, 1992; Láruson et al., 2020; M. A. Nowak et al., 1997). Indeed, convergent phenotypes lacking a shared genetic basis have been documented 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), cacao plants (Hämälä *et al.*, 2020) and *Heliosperma* ecotypes (Szukala et al., 2023).

Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) represents a prime example of a collection of coordinated, complex yet highly evolvable traits, having evolved independently at least 66 times across 38 plant families (Gilman *et al.*, 2023). CAM plants reconfigure photosynthetic metabolism across the diel cycle by assimilating CO_2 at night rather than during the day, as C_3 plants do. Nocturnally-fixed CO_2 is then temporarily converted to malate by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) and malate dehydrogenase (MDH). Malate is stored in vacuoles and later decarboxylated during the day to supply CO_2 for the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle. This enables daytime stomatal closure, increasing Rubisco efficiency by raising intracellular CO_2 levels (Osmond, 1978) and drastically reducing water loss through evapotranspiration (Borland *et al.*, 2014). These adaptations are especially advantageous under high temperatures or drought stress, which exacerbate Rubisco oxygenation (Heyduk *et al.*, 2021).

CAM integrates several interdependent traits, including temporally coordinated transcriptional regulation to set the alternate biochemical pathway in motion, and cellular processes like stomatal movement, sugar and malate transport, and starch metabolism (Borland et al., 2016; Schiller & Bräutigam, 2021). Additionally, 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 enlarged vacuoles (Heyduk et al., 2016; Males, 2018), tighter packed mesophyll cells (Nelson & 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 having a discrete, bi-modal distribution of phenotypes, yet
detailed physiological studies of C_3 species with CAM relatives have revealed weak and facultative
forms of CAM that occur without major anatomical changes (Heyduk et al., 2021; Neales, 1975;
Pierce et al., 2002; Silvera et al., 2005; Winter & Holtum, 2002). These findings prompted a shift
towards conceptualizing CAM as a continuum, though debate persists (Bräutigam et al., 2017;
Schiller & Bräutigam, 2021; Winter & Smith, 2022). The CAM continuum concept remains
difficult to reconcile with the many discrete CAM categories in the literature (e.g. facultative,
weak, strong, constitutive CAM, CAM-cycling (Winter, 2019)), which do not clearly align with a
continuous phenotype spectrum (Edwards, 2023). Additionally, weak/facultative CAM plants can
be difficult to detect, as carbon isotope ratios, the most cost-effective method to measure CAM
activity on a large taxonomic scale, lack sensitivity for these phenotypes (Pierce et al., 2002;
Winter & Holtum, 2002). More detailed measurements, such as titratable acidity or gas exchange
under standard and drought conditions, are needed to distinguish weak/facultative CAM from C_3
species.

The evolutionary trajectory of CAM and the molecular similarity across CAM phenotypes
remain unclear. While diel expression shifts of core CAM enzymes such as PEPC appear broadly
conserved among CAM plant taxa, the realized CAM phenotype likely involves numerous small-
effect genes stemming from broader metabolic, regulatory and anatomical networks, potentially
with a high redundancy. Comparative analyses between different CAM phenotypes can reveal
whether CAM evolution follows a constrained, shared evolutionary path or instead involves large
genetic redundancy. For example, Heyduk et al. (2018) found both shared and variable expression
patterns in CAM-related genes among weak and strong CAM phenotypes in Agavoideae, but more
studies comparing the molecular basis of CAM between closely related taxa are needed to obtain
a comprehensive view of genetic redundancy and constraints in CAM evolution.

The subgenus *Tillandsia* (genus *Tillandsia*, Bromeliaceae) is an emerging model for
studying repeated and rapid evolution of key innovation traits. As part of one of the fastest
diversifying plant lineages (Givnish et al., 2014), the subgenus comprises an adaptive radiation of
over 250 species formed within the last 7 million years (Barfuss et al., 2016; Mendoza et al., 2017;
Yardeni et al., 2025). Numerous key innovations characterise this radiation, including CAM,
which spans a broad phenotypic range from C_3-like to strong constitutive CAM (Crayn et al., 2004;
De La Harpe et al., 2020).

In this study, we compare a closely related species pair exhibiting facultative and constitutive CAM to assess the degree of genetic redundancy underlying this suite of interdependent complex traits. We consider CAM as determined by many interacting genes, cellular processes, and pathways. If CAM evolution is tightly constrained, both phenotypes should represent positions along a shared evolutionary trajectory, mediated by the same set of genes but expressed to different degrees. Conversely, limited overlap in gene expression, at least in some parts of the network, would suggest a (partly) redundant genetic architecture, consistent with greater evolvability and multiple independent evolutionary routes to CAM evolution.

The species *T. vanhyningii* Harms (formerly *T. ionantha* var. *vanhyningii* L.B.Sm., elevated to species level by Beutelspacher & Garcia-Martinez (2021)), and *T. leiboldiana* Schltdl. are closely related members of the subgenus *Tillandsia,* with a maximum divergence time of 3.2 Mya (Barfuss et al., 2016; Mendoza et al., 2017; Yardeni et al., 2025). *Tillandsia vanhyningii* is a succulent "grey" species with dense trichome cover, whereas the "green" *T. leiboldiana* typically forms an impounding tank and is comparatively less succulent. These species display some of the most disparate carbon isotope values in the subgenus (De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020), with *T. vanhyningii* having $\delta^{13}C$ values typical of strong, constitutive CAM (-13.9), while *T. leiboldiana* shows values typical of C_3 photosynthesis (-31.3). However, recent metabolomic, genomic, and transcriptomic analyses suggest that *T. leiboldiana* may be a facultative CAM species (Groot Crego *et al.*, 2024). Despite minimal night-time malate accumulation, *T. leiboldiana* shows CAM-like expression in certain CAM-related genes, including PEPC kinase, under well-watered conditions, indicating a latent CAM capacity potentially activated under drought-induced stress.

We subjected accessions of both species to standard and water-limited conditions, and measured titratable acidity, gas exchange and transcriptomic profiles across the diel cycle to compare their photosynthetic phenotypes under both watering regimes (Fig. 1). Our study characterizes their photosynthetic phenotypes and elucidates how water-withholding modulates CAM expression. We show that, although both species perform CAM under water-limited conditions, they exhibit substantial divergence in transcriptional modulation of CAM-related, peripheral genes beyond the core CAM genes. These findings illuminate the degree of genetic redundancy underlying CAM and provide insight into the multiple evolutionary routes by which CAM can arise.

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. A separate, additional drought experiment was performed on* T. leiboldiana *(not shown here) to study net CO_2 uptake across diel cycles, to further phenotype its photosynthetic metabolism.*

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Experimental set-up and sampling

We designed an experiment to test the respective photosynthetic phenotypes of *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana* in standard (SW) and water-limited (WL) conditions. The study comprised six clonal accessions per species (Table S1), which were off-shoots of similar size, as

a proxy for age similarity, and were large enough to be considered adult plants able to flower. Accessions from the plant collection of the Botanical Garden of the University of Vienna were placed under identical greenhouse conditions in October 2018. The accessions were allowed to acclimate to the specific 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 between 6 am and 6 pm. The temperature was maintained at 20 °C during nighttime and 22 °C during daytime. During these 14 days, three accessions of each species were placed in a water-limited regime by complete water withholding. The remaining three accessions were kept in standard watering conditions 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.

3.2. Titratable acidity measurements

Titratable acidity (TA) was measured following 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 mass (g FM) was calculated using the formula: TA (μ-equivalents/g FM) = $[V_{NaOH}$ (μL) × C_{NaOH} (μmol/μL)] / m_{sample} (g), where C_{NaOH} is equal to 0.1. Since NaOH is a monovalent base, the number of μ-equivalents of titratable acid (from both mono- and multivalent acids collectively) is equal to the number of micromoles of NaOH consumed during titration.

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.

3.3. Gas exchange measurements of *T. leiboldiana*

A separate experiment was performed on *T. leiboldiana* in October 2025 to assess net CO_2 uptake progressively throughout a period of water-withholding. Leaves of one *T. leiboldiana* clone were placed in a gas exchange experiment chamber over a period of eight days where the plant was not watered. The net CO_2 uptake and other metrics were measured by a WALZ GFS-3000 system. The ambient temperature during the experiment was maintained between 22 and 24 °C, and the relative humidity at 35 % outside the leaf clamp and at 50% inside. Full spectrum LED lights (maximum 340 PPFD) were turned on gradually between 6 and 7 am, and 6 and 7 pm, resulting in a 12-hour light cycle. At the time of finishing the experiment (9 days without watering), the plant showed clear signs of drought-stress (yellowing and curling leaves). The plant was then placed under a 14-day recovery period beginning with full submersion in demineralized water, followed by daily spraying in a greenhouse with same climatic conditions as in the experimental chamber, except for a rH of 70 %. Net CO_2 uptake was measured again at the end of the recovery period. Due to the small size and thick, concave shape of *T. vanhyningii* leaves, it was not possible to measure gas exchange reliably on this species with this system.

3.4. 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 Illumina NovaSeq SP 150 PE.

3.5. 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)). Plastid phylogenies show that *T. fasciculata* and the *T. ionantha* complex, which includes *T. vanhyningii* (both constitutive, strong CAM), diverged no more than 1.8 mya (Vera-Paz *et al.*, 2023). Yardeni et al. (2025) reported 0.008 substitutions per site between the two lineages based on a maximum-likelihood inference using whole-genome data. Given this close evolutionary proximity, we consider these species suitable for cross-species mRNA read alignment. These were performed with STAR v. 2.7.3a (Dobin *et al.*, 2013) in one pass using a GFF file to specify exonic regions. To demonstrate that using a non-conspecific reference genome does not substantially influence our findings, we provide in supplementary a comparison of analyses on *T. leiboldiana* mapped to its own reference genome, versus to *T. fasciculata*.

3.6. Differential gene expression analysis

Reads 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 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) method (Robinson & 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 GLMs, we conducted a quasi-likelihood F-test. The level of
significance was adjusted with the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction
to account for multiple testing. Genes were considered differentially expressed (DE) 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 number of DE genes for each treatment (time point and watering regime) was then
visualised and compared between species using ggplot2.

3.7.   Overlap in transcriptomic response

To understand the extent of overlap in the transcriptomic response to time and watering
regime between species, 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).
Orthogroups containing a DE gene in at least one species are hereafter referred to as DE
orthogroups. 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 S8). Venn diagrams were computed to
visualize overlaps in DE orthogroups between species using the R package VennDiagram (Chen
& Boutros, 2011).

We also assessed overlap in DE orthogroups across time- and watering-dependent
comparisons, as CAM-related genes are likely DE in both contexts, particularly in facultative

CAM species like *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.

3.8.   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.

GO enrichment analyses were also performed on each subset of orthogroups representing
a section in the Venn-diagrams with at least 25 orthogroups. GO enrichments were performed on
the DE genes belonging to the orthogroups listed in each Venn-diagram intersection. For species-
specific intersections, annotations from the respective species were used (e.g., *T. leiboldiana* gene
annotations for its unique intersections). For overlapping intersections, *T. fasciculata* annotations
were used, 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 following Groot Crego et al. 2024. Briefly, *A.*
comosus gene IDs related to 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 orthologs using orthology information from Groot Crego et al. 2024. This resulted in
a total of 818 and 753 genes respectively, across 607 orthogroups (Table S2). 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 S3). 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 other core CAM pathway genes, expression in TPM

was additionally visualized by line plots.

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 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 32 orthogroups underlying ABA biosynthesis

(1), ABA signalling (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 S4). A heatmap of their expression values in TPM was constructed as detailed above.

3.9.   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* (v.3.1.1),

Oryza sativa (v.7.0), *Zea mays* (RefGen v.4), *Asparagus officinalis* (v.1.1) 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. Nomenclature of PEPC homologs follows Deng et al. (2016) and Heyduk et al. (2022).

4. RESULTS

4.1. Titratable acidity measurements

In standard conditions (SW), TA displayed a CAM-like diel curve in *T. vanhyningii*, with overnight acid accumulation followed by daytime depletion (Fig. 2a, Table S5). Our LMM model showed that TA significantly fluctuated between time points both under standard and water-limited (WL) conditions, yet there was no significant difference in TA values between watering regimes at the same time point (Fig. 2, Fig. S1, Table S6). In *T. leiboldiana*, TA did not significantly accumulate overnight under SW (Fig. 2b). Under WL, 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 SW and WL, as TA values between watering regimes at each time point was significantly different in all but one time point (Fig. 2a, Table S6). This indicates a weak, facultative CAM cycle in *T. leiboldiana*, 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 the 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; FM - Fresh Mass; D – Dawn; N – Nightfall.*

4.2. **Gas exchange in *T. leiboldiana***

At the start of the water-withholding experiment, *T. leiboldiana* showed a C_3-like pattern of CO_2 assimilation occurring principally during the day (Fig. 3a, Table S13). However, throughout day 2 and 3, net daytime CO_2 uptake decreased in a step-wise manner till null through most of day 3. In days 1 to 3, there was no night-time net CO_2 uptake. On day 4, a metabolic shift

occurred towards a weak CAM-like pattern of night-time CO_2 assimilation. From this point onwards, night-time net CO_2 uptake became visible and increased gradually as the experiment progressed, with the highest values on day 8. *T. leiboldiana* also exhibited net CO_2 uptake during the day, but this was consistently higher at night. After a 14-day recovery, the plant showed day-time net CO_2 uptake and none during the night, an indication that it had fully shifted back to a C_3-like photosynthetic metabolism (Fig. 3b, Table S14).

Figure 3: Gas exchange measurements of T. leiboldiana *under a progression from well-watered to water-limited conditions, followed by recovery. Net CO_2 uptake (blue line, left Y-axis) and Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR; red line, right Y-axis) in leaves of* T. leiboldiana. *For visualization purposes, exponential smoothing was applied to the net assimilation curves. When the value of net CO_2 uptake is positive (above horizontal line), the plant is assimilating more CO_2 than it is leaking CO_2, the opposite is true for negative values. A 24-hour cycle is divided into a light period (white background) and a dark period (grey background).* **a)** *Measurements throughout an 8-day period without watering.* **b)** *Measurements across one 24-hour cycle after a 14-day recovery.*

4.3. Differential gene expression

Unique mapping rates were high for both species, but *T. leiboldiana*'s reads mapped better to its own genome than *T. vanhyningii*'s reads to the *T. fasciculata* genome. (Fig. S2). On average, *T. leiboldiana* had 16.3% more uniquely assigned reads per sample than *T. vanhyningii* (Table S7). However, *T. vanhyningii* had 8.7% more genes with non-zero counts compared to *T. leiboldiana*.

A comparison of downstream results when mapping *T. leiboldiana* to its own reference genome,

versus to *T. fasciculata*, shows minimal effect (See supplementary note). *T. leiboldiana* is

approximately twice as distantly related to *T. fasciculata* as *T. vanhyningii* is. Therefore, we expect

a much smaller effect using *T. vanhyningii* alignments to *T. fasciculata* on the results presented in

this study.

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 regime, 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. 4). Under SW, the number of up-regulated genes in *T. vanhyningii* was comparable

between day and night, with only six more genes up-regulated at night than at day, but *T.*

leiboldiana had 2.4x more genes up-regulated at day than at night. Under WL, more genes were

up-regulated at night in both species compared to SW. While this pattern is noticeable in *T.*

vanhyningii, with 57 % of DE genes up-regulated at night under WL compared to 50 % under SW,

it is especially pronounced in *T. leiboldiana* (46 % of genes up-regulated at night under WL

compared to 30 % under SW).

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 DE genes between watering regimes, independent of 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 WL

compared to SW (Fig. 4). The total number of DE genes between watering conditions at night was

2.9x larger than at day, which is a contrary trend to *T. vanhyningii*, where 2.5x more genes were

DE between watering regimes at day than at night.

Figure 4: 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.

4.4.   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 DE orthogroups) being unique to one species and watering regime (Fig. 5a, sections a , b, c and d, Table S8). 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 S9).

The largest overlap was found within species, between conditions, as only 19 % of all time-dependent DE genes were shared between species (Table S8, intersections of a and b, and c and d). In *T. leiboldiana*, genes that were uniquely time-dependent DE under WL and not under SW (Fig. 5a, Table S9, 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 SW (Fig. 5a, Table S9, sections c, bc, abc and ac) lacked such enrichments, indicating that *T. leiboldiana* experienced drought-induced stress under WL (Table S9). Conversely, 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* (Fig. 5a, Table S9, sections ab, abc, abcd and abd).

Under WL, more time-dependent DE orthogroups were shared between species than under SW (17% vs. 14%, Table S8), with enriched functions related to stomatal movement, ABA, and starch metabolism (Fig. 5a, Table S9, sections ad, acd, and abd).

The response to watering regime was largely non-shared between groups, with 75 % of DE orthogroups being unique to one species and time point (Fig. 5b, sections a, b, c, and d) and only two DE orthogroups being shared among all groups (Fig. 5b, section abcd). *T. vanhyningii* showed little overlap between time points in the response to WL (8 %), while in *T. leiboldiana* 24 % of genes are DE between watering regimes at both time points (Table S8). Due to the small number of DE genes in *T. vanhyningii* between watering regimes, the overlap between species was very small (2.8 %).

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.

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*Figure 5: Overlap of DE orthogroups between species, time points and watering regimes. **a)** Venn diagram showing the number of shared time-dependent DE orthogroups (i.e., day versus night) per combined group of species and watering condition. Example: section a shows the number of orthogroups that contained genes that were exclusively DE between day and night under standard watering conditions in* T. vanhyningii*, while section ad shows the number of orthogroups with a gene that is DE both in* T. leiboldiana *and in* T. vanhyningii *under standard watering conditions.   **b)** Venn diagram showing the number of shared DE orthogroups between watering regimes (i.e., water-limited versus standard conditions) per combined group of species and time point. Letters inside sections show the overlap between the four groups. Example: section a shows the number of orthogroups that contained genes that were exclusively DE between watering regimes at day-time in* T. vanhyningii*, while section ad shows the number of orthogroups with a gene that is DE both in* T. leiboldiana *and in* T. vanhyningii *at day-time.*

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

4.5.1. 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-dependent expression in *T. vanhyningii* while being DE between watering regimes in *T. leiboldiana*, and included twelve previously described CAM-related orthogroups. Most notable were orthogroups encoding for the sugar and malate transporters SWEET14 and ALMT 9. *SWEET14* showed elevated expression under WL 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. 6). *ALMT 9* was more highly expressed in *T. leiboldiana* under SW, and showed lower expression under WL. *T. vanhyningii*'s expression of *ALMT 9*'s ortholog was comparatively lower to *T. leiboldiana*'s across all time points and treatments (Fig. 6).

127 orthogroups (25 %) showed a time-dependent expression in both species but were only DE between watering conditions in *T. leiboldiana* (Fig. S4). Among these were 18 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). 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-dependent expression in *T. vanhyningii* in both watering regimes, while in *T. leiboldiana,* it acquired weakly time-dependent expression under WL (Fig. 6). 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 WL.

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-dependent DE 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 (51 % of genes unique to a species and watering regime). Twelve CAM-related DE orthogroups shared across all groups were linked to the circadian clock, photosynthesis, and photosystem activity (Table S10, section abcd). *T. vanhyningii* shared 46% of CAM DE genes between watering conditions, while *T. leiboldiana* shared 36%, indicating a stronger metabolic shift under WL. The proportion of time-dependent CAM DE orthogroups shared between species was slightly higher under WL (25 %) than under SW (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 S8, Table S11). Only one orthogroup overlapped between 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 6: Transcript abundance in "Transcripts per Million" (TPM) for a subset of single-copy CAM-related orthogroups (listed in table S3), 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*

4.5.2. CAM-related expression in *Tillandsia vanhyningii*

In SW, *T. vanhyningii* showed time-dependent differential expression of core CAM gene *PPCK* and of genes underlying stomatal movement, vacuolar proton pumps, malate transport, sugar transport and glycolysis (Table S10). Several genes encoding for Late Embryogenesis Abundant (LEA) proteins linked to drought tolerance (Arumingtyas et al., 2013; Magwanga et al., 2018) also showed diel expression in SW.

46 CAM-related time-dependent DE genes overlapped between SW and WL (Table S8), 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 S10), indicating that genes from a wide set of CAM-related functions were expressed similarly between conditions. *AVP1*, a secondary proton pump that aids in the vacuolar transport of malate, was only DE in SW. A gene encoding for a chloroplastic malate dehydrogenase (MDH) showed diel expression in both conditions, though it was only significantly time-dependent under WL (Fig. 6). 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-dependent expression in any condition. We also observed a shift in time-dependent expression between conditions among genes encoding for sugar transporters. While sugar transporter *SWEET16* showed significant time-dependent

expression exclusively under SW, *SWEET14* was only DE under WL (Fig. 6). Both genes were up-regulated during the day when displaying time-dependent 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. 6), their expression was overall similar between watering regimes.

4.5.3.   CAM-related expression in *Tillandsia leiboldiana*

Under SW, time-dependent CAM-related DE genes were associated with functions that are typically expected to show temporal oscillation in plants that do not perform CAM (glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, sugar transport, circadian clock regulation). Under WL, 29 DE genes overlapped with standard conditions (Table S10), 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. *SLAC1* and two auxin response factors related to stomatal function were also time-dependent DE under WL (Table S10, Fig. 6). These findings further emphasise that a CAM cycle was activated in *T. leiboldiana* under WL.

Furthermore, 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 S11). Several genes encoding for malate transporters were also in this group, though they were generally down-regulated under WL, except for *ALMT10* (Fig. 6). Sugar transport genes were up-regulated under WL, such as genes encoding for sugar transporter proteins (STPs) and Sucrose Transporter 1 (*SUT1*), whose ortholog also showed elevated expression under WL in *T. vanhyningii*. Genes related to stomatal function were generally more highly expressed under WL but displayed varying behaviour in terms of the time of expression (Fig. 6). While *ARF17* and *SLAC1* were up-regulated during the day, *ARF19* and *TRAB1* were up-regulated during the night.

4.5.4. 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. 7). 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 WL, 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 SW in *T. leiboldiana*, it became highly expressed under WL (Fig. 7). *PPCK1* showed mild diel fluctuation in *T. vanhyningii* but its ortholog was overall lowly expressed in *T. leiboldiana*.

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 WL 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. 6, Fig. S8-S10).

4.6. Description of the general response to water withholding

GO enrichment of watering condition-dependent DE genes in *T. leiboldiana* revealed a pronounced drought response, with the top up-regulated genes linked to water deprivation and ABA signalling. Processes that were down-regulated under WL pointed at a general shutdown of metabolism, such as photosynthesis, transport, and biosynthetic processes (Fig. 8a, Table S12). In contrast, *T. vanhyningii* showed minimal drought-related responses, with no significant changes

in regulation of photosynthesis or water deprivation genes. Yet, a few enriched GO terms suggested a limited drought response, including inositol, jasmonate, and molybdate metabolism (Fig. 8b, Table S12).

Figure 7: 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.*

We detected 32 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 WL in *T. leiboldiana* compared to SW, and four 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 (see section 4.4.1).

In *T. vanhyningii*, only five orthogroups related to drought-induced stress were
differentially expressed between watering regimes, of which three were up-regulated under WL:
an inositol-3-phosphate synthase, a 12-oxophytodienoate reductase involved in jasmonic acid
biosynthesis and a molybdate ion transporter. In contrast to the low number of drought-related
genes that were DE between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii*, eighteen were DE between time
points. However, out of these, sixteen already exhibited time-dependent expression under SW.
Several orthologs also showed overall higher expression in *T. vanhyningii* than in *T. leiboldiana*.
Genes encoding for LEA proteins 5 and 8, for example, were more highly expressed in *T.
vanhyningii* and showed diel oscillation in both watering regimes, with their expression increasing
at night (Fig. S12). Orthologous genes related to ABA signalling exhibited time-dependent
expression in *T. vanhyningii* under both watering regimes (except for phosphatase 2C), and in
some cases also in *T. leiboldiana* (Fig. S12). A 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (NCED),
involved in ABA biosynthesis (Wan *et al.*, 2011), also showed diel expression changes in *T.
vanhyningii* under SW. These findings suggest that high and/or diel expression of drought-related
genes may be an inherent feature of constitutive CAM plants.

Figure 8: 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 water-limited conditions to most up-regulated in standard conditions.*

5. DISCUSSION

CAM is associated with diversification in many plant families and is considered a key innovation in Bromeliaceae (Benzing, 2000; Ogburn & Edwards, 2009; Quezada & Gianoli, 2011; Silvera et al., 2009). However, its evolutionary trajectory and the degree of genetic overlap between distinct CAM forms are not well understood (Edwards, 2023). The subgenus *Tillandsia* displays a wide spectrum of CAM phenotypes (Crayn et al., 2015; De La Harpe et al., 2020), but this diversity has so far been characterised only partially, mostly through carbon isotope ratios and transcriptomics under standard conditions. By comparing physiological and temporal transcriptomic responses to water limitation in two *Tillandsia* species, we aimed to explore the phenotypic range of CAM in this group and assess to what extent facultative and constitutive CAM rely on shared transcriptomic mechanisms.

Tillandsia leiboldiana is a facultative CAM plant

Our TA, gas exchange and DGE analyses point at the presence of a latent CAM cycle in *T. leiboldiana* that is activated under drought-induced stress. First, water-withholding induced weak, yet significant night-time TA accumulation, absent in well-watered plants. Nocturnal acidification is a diagnostic feature of CAM (Winter & Smith, 2022) and has previously been used to identify facultative CAM in *Clusia* (Borland et al., 1992), *Mesembryanthemum* (Winter & Ziegler, 1992) and *Agave* (Heyduk et al., 2016).

Second, we observed a switch to net nocturnal CO_2 uptake after four days of withholding water, followed by full recovery of day-time uptake after re-watering. Nocturnal net CO_2 uptake is another hallmark of CAM, indicating open stomata and storage of CO_2 in the vacuole in the form of malate (Lüttge, 1987), which aligns with our TA measurements. While the amplitude of nocturnal CO_2 uptake was low, this pattern is comparable to other facultative CAM plants under drought. The CO_2 uptake profiles in drought-stressed *Clusia pratensis*, *Calandrinia polyandra*, and *Talinum triangulare* all show modest night-time rates, and some daytime net assimilation remains (Winter & Holtum, 2014).

Transcriptomic signatures further support altered stomata behaviour for *T. leiboldiana*. Differential expression of stomatal function genes between watering regimes suggests altered stomatal behaviour under WL, though this may reflect a general drought-stress response rather than CAM-specific activity. For instance, TRAB1, involved in ABA signalling during drought

stress (Hobo et al., 1999; Zhu, 2002), is up-regulated in *T. leiboldiana* under WL at night (Fig. 6).

However, the guard cell anion channel SLAC1 controlling stomatal closure (Vahisalu *et al.*, 2008)

is down-regulated at night under WL (Fig. 6), potentially indicating that stomata open at night.

Third, night-time up-regulation of *PPCK2* in *T. leiboldiana* under WL indicates induction

of the phosphorylation-based regulatory machinery necessary for nocturnal PEPC activity - a

pattern that is entirely absent in SW.

Carbon isotope ratios reported for *T. leiboldiana* ($\delta^{13}C$ = -28.0 to -31.3; Crayn et al., 2015;

De La Harpe et al., 2020) would typically lead to its classification as a C_3 plant. However, isotope

values can mask facultative CAM activity, as seen in other bromeliads such as *Guzmania* and

Ronnbergia (Pierce *et al.*, 2002). Our integrative study therefore reveals that *T. leiboldiana* is not

strictly C_3, but a weak, facultative CAM species that performs C_3 photosynthesis under benign

conditions while acquiring weak CAM function under drought. Minimal expression changes in

core CAM pathway genes between watering regimes further suggest that high transcript abundance

of these genes may pre-condition facultative CAM expression in *Tillandsia*.

This raises an evolutionary question: what is the point of origin of CAM in the subgenus

Tillandsia? Ancestral state reconstructions using carbon-isotope data support a C_3 ancestor for the

subgenus (De La Harpe *et al.*, 2020), and multiple independent origins of CAM within the clade.

However, the presence of inducible CAM in *T. leiboldiana* opens an alternative possibility - that

at least parts of the CAM cycle may have been present prior to the divergence of the lineages

leading to *T. leiboldiana* and *T. vanhyningii*. Although our pairwise design cannot rule out

independent origins of facultative and constitutive CAM, it highlights the need for broader

comparative datasets.

T. vanhyningii shows minimal physiological and transcriptomic response to water

withholding

Our physiological and transcriptomic analyses indicate that the quantitative response to

water-withholding was far greater in *T. leiboldiana* than in *T. vanhyningii* (Figs. 2-4), suggesting

that *T. leiboldiana*'s metabolism was affected by water deprivation, while *T. vanhyningii*'s seemed

largely the same between conditions and therefore not substantially stressed. TA accumulated in a

similar manner between watering regimes in *T. vanhyningii*, though accumulation occurred faster

overnight under water-limited conditions. This aligns with studies on *T. ionantha*, which showed

minimal physiological changes after six months of water withholding, attributed to daytime

stomatal closure, low stomatal density, and efficient atmospheric moisture absorption via its dense

trichome layer (E. J. Nowak & 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 prominent response was detected in *T. leiboldiana*. Up-regulated enriched

GO terms under WL in *T. vanhyningii* included metabolism of inositol, jasmonate and molybdate

(Fig. 8b, Table S12), all known to play a role in drought-stress response (Li et al., 2022; Loewus

& Murthy, 2000; Wasternack, 2014). However, the expression of many genes related to drought

and abiotic stress response was time-dependent or more highly expressed in *T. vanhyningii*

compared to *T. leiboldiana* under SW, including ABA biosynthesis and signalling genes, or LEA

protein genes. A link between constitutive CAM phenotypes and temporal expression of ABA-

related genes was observed by De La Harpe *et al.* (2020). ABA signalling plays an important role

in stomatal closure as a response to water deprivation (Assmann & Jegla, 2016; Christmann et al.,

2006; Wilkinson & Davies, 2002), but has also been associated with regulation of CAM

photosynthesis (Mioto & Mercier, 2013; Ting, 1981). Our findings corroborate that time-

dependent 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.

Regarding the CAM-related response to WL, our findings showed that expression of CAM-

related genes in *T. vanhyningii* remained largely similar. In some cases, however, such as sugar

transporters SWEET16 and SWEET14, different genes performing the same functions were

recruited for CAM under varying watering regimes.

Atmospheric or "grey" *Tillandsia* such as *T. vanhyningii* represent the most extreme form

of adaptation to an epiphytic lifestyle among Bromeliaceae, having largely lost the ability to absorb

water with roots (Benzing, 2000; Crayn *et al.*, 2004). They occur in arid habitats and are all

constitutive CAM plants, suggesting that CAM is a key innovation in this group (Crayn *et al.*,

2004). Our findings confirm that atmospheric Tillandsia are drought-tolerant, as previously shown

physiologically (Castillo et al., 2016; Martin, 1994; M. A. Nowak et al., 1997; Stiles & Martin,

1996) , but now supported at the transcriptomic level, as *T. vanhyningii* was only mildly affected

by water-limited conditions. 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 their drought-tolerant
nature.

Shared versus non-shared transcriptional architecture of photosynthetic metabolism

Despite the relatively recent divergence of *T. vanhyningii* and *T. leiboldiana* (Barfuss et
al., 2016; Mendoza et al., 2017; Yardeni et al., 2025), the two species show clear physiological
and transcriptomic differentiation consistent with distinct photosynthetic phenotypes. Only limited
overlap in time-dependent and watering-dependent DE genes was found between species,
mirroring observations in other CAM lineages such as Agavoideae (Heyduk *et al.*, 2022).

Most CAM-related, time-dependent DE genes showed diel expression cycling in only one
species (Fig. 9). Although *T. leiboldiana* seemingly activated CAM under WL, the underlying
transcriptomic architecture differed substantially from the constitutive CAM pattern of *T.*
vanhyningii. Notable exceptions were *PPCK2* (Fig. 7, Fig. 9) and the drought-associated protein
YLS9, which showed a similar time-dependent expression both in *T. vanhyningii* and drought-
stressed *T. leiboldiana*. This restricted overlap suggests that the facultative and constitutive CAM
cycles of these species rely on largely distinct transcriptional solutions, rather than expression-
level modulation of a common pathway.

This is supported by the distinct expression patterns of gene family members of PEPC, a
core CAM gene. Under WL, the homologous copy of *PPC2* appeared up-regulated in *T.*
leiboldiana, while being lowly expressed under all conditions in *T. vanhyningii*. Because none of
the PEPC copies are time-dependently expressed 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-stress. Both in *T. fasciculata*
and in *Agave*, PEPC gene expression peaks at dusk, while samples were taken 4 hours after dusk
in this study (Abraham et al., 2016; Groot Crego et al., 2024). 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). This supports the view that PEPC paralog recruitment can evolve flexibly within CAM
lineages.

Another core CAM gene that showed increased time-dependent expression in *T.*
leiboldiana under WL was 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-dependent expression of this gene. In several *Yucca* species, on the other hand, α-
CA did show time-dependent expression under water-limited conditions (Heyduk *et al.*, 2019).
The CAM-like expression of *PPC2* and α-CA in *T. leiboldiana* suggests species-specific
recruitment of different genes and homologs into the CAM pathway (Fig. 9).

Except for PPCK, *PPC2* and α-CA, the core (de)carboxylation module seems relatively
conserved between species. However, other CAM-associated processes (Fig. 9), such as malate
transport, sugar transport, stomatal regulation, water channels and starch metabolism, exhibited
substantial transcriptomic divergence between species. Overall, the realized CAM phenotypes are
underpinned by a complex mixture of conserved patterns at core genes and lineage-specific
changes at peripheral genes.

Figure 9: Schematic of the CAM pathway (adapted from Groot Crego et al. 2024), with an overview of
CAM-related gene expression in standard watering and water-limiting conditions in T. vanhyningii *and* T.
leiboldiana. *Enzymes are shown in boxes, while pathway products are bold outside boxes. Enzymatic*

members of CAM metabolism pathways are shown in orange, while stomatal and circadian regulators are

highlighted in yellow. Stomatal regulators are on the left outside the cell and circadian regulators on the

right. Symbols indicate whether genes were DE in this study in timewise comparisons (clock symbol) or

between watering regimes (watering can symbol). The color of the symbol indicates in which species the

differential expression was detected, while a gradient of both colors indicates DE in both. "Different

homologs" indicates that the species show CAM-like expression in distinct homologs of a gene family

underlying the enzyme. "Shared expression" indicates high similarity in expression pattern between

species across conditions. Abbreviations: CA – Carbonic Anhydrase, PEPC – Phosphoenolpyruvate

Carboxylase, PPCK – Phosphoenolpyruvate Carboxylase Kinase, MDH – Malate Dehydrogenase, PEPCK

- Phosphoenolpyruvate Carboxykinase, SLAC1 - slow-type anion channel 1, ARF - Auxin Response Factor,

SUT1 – Sucrose Transporter 1, LHY - Late Elongated Hypocotyl, RVE1 – REVEILLE 1, GI – protein

GIGANTEA.

Conclusions

This study shows that one of the most C_3-like members of subgenus *Tillandsia*, *T.*

leiboldiana, is not fully C_3, but a weak, facultative CAM plant. In contrast, *T. vanhyningii*

exhibited strong physiological and transcriptomic drought tolerance consistent with its constitutive

CAM phenotype and epiphytic lifestyle. Although these closely related species accumulated

organic acids overnight under water limitation, they deployed largely distinct transcriptional

architectures, particularly outside the core CAM (de)carboxylation module. This suggests that the

evolutionary trajectory linking facultative and constitutive CAM involves broad transcriptional

rewiring at peripherical parts of the networks, not simply the quantitative up-regulation of a

conserved gene set. The remarkable phenotypic and transcriptomic diversity within the subgenus

Tillandsia highlights its potential as an outstanding system for exploring the CAM continuum and

the evolutionary flexibility underlying this key innovation.

6.   CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

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10. DATA AVAILABILITY AND BENEFIT-SHARING

TA and gas exchange 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.

Benefits from this research accrue from the public dissemination of our data and findings through open access repositories, as detailed above.

11. 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 RNA extraction and library prep was conducted by MDH and MHJB under the guidance of OP. Analyses were performed by CGC, MDH and SS. Gas exchange measurements were done by GB with input from WW. The manuscript was written by CGC with initial contributions from SS, was amended by OP, and was finally read and approved by all coauthors.

12. SUPPLEMENTARY DATA - CAPTIONS

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: Full list of CAM-related orthogroups obtained from Yardeni et al. 2021 based on A. comosus (pineapple) genes.

Table S3: List of 61 CAM-related orthogroups selected for expression visualization in Figure 4.

Table S4: List of 31 selected orthogroups related to water deprivation and drought response for expression visualization in Figure S7.

Table S5: Titratable acidity measurements for Tillandsia vanhyningii and Tillandsia leiboldiana at

four time points spread over 6-hour intervals.

Table S6: Statistical models and results for titratable acidity measurements.

Table S7: Summary of per-gene read counting with FeatureCounts.

Table S8: Overlap of DE orthogroups between species, watering regimes and time points.

Table S9: List of significantly enriched GO terms in each intersection of the Venn diagram

showing overlap of DE genes between time points.

Table S10: Description of CAM genes in sections of the Venn diagram A (Day vs Night).

Table S11: Description of CAM genes in sections of the Venn diagram B (Water-limited vs

standard watering conditions).

Table S12: List of significantly enriched GO terms in each intersection of the Venn diagram

showing overlap of DE genes between watering regimes.

Table S13: Gas exchange measurements of *T. leiboldiana* under a progression from well-watered

to water-limited conditions.

Table S14: Gas exchange measurements of *T. leiboldiana* after a 14 days recovery following

water-withholding.