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Evolutionary expansion and functional divergence of sugar transporters in Saccharum (S. spontaneum and S. officinarum)

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Evolutionary expansion and functional divergence of sugar transporters in *Saccharum* (*S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*)

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SUMMARY

The sugar transporter (ST) family is considered to be the most important gene family for sugar accumulation, but limited information about the ST family in the important sugar-yielding crop Saccharum is available due to its complex genetic background. Here, 105 ST genes were identified and clustered into eight subfamilies in Saccharum spontaneum. Comparative genomics revealed that tandem duplication events contributed to ST gene expansions of two subfamilies, PLT and STP, in S. spontaneum, indicating an early evolutionary step towards high sugar content in Saccharum. The analyses of expression patterns were based on four large datasets with a total of 226 RNA sequencing samples from S. spontaneum and Saccharum officinarum. The results clearly demonstrated 50 ST genes had different spatiotemporal expression patterns in leaf tissues, 10 STs were specifically expressed in the stem, and 10 STs responded to the diurnal rhythm. Heterologous expression experiments in the defective yeast strain EBY.VW4000 indicated STP13, pGIcT2, VGT3, and TMT4 are the STs with most affinity for glucose/fructose and SUT1_T1 has the highest affinity to sucrose. Furthermore, metabolomics analysis suggested STP7 is a sugar starvation-induced gene and STP13 has a function in retrieving sugar in senescent tissues. PLT11, PLT11_T1, TMT3, and TMT4 contributed to breaking the limitations of the storage sink. SUT1, SUT1 T1, PLT11, TMT4, pGlcT2, and VGT3 responded for different functions in these two Saccharum species. This study demonstrated the evolutionary expansion and functional divergence of the ST gene family and will enable the further investigation of the molecular mechanism of sugar metabolism in Saccharum.

Keywords: sugar transporter, evolutionary expansion, functional divergence, *Saccharum spontaneum*, *Saccharum officinarum*.

INTRODUCTION

Sugars, including sucrose, monosaccharides, and polyols, are important products of photosynthesis in higher plants, which are not only responsible for plant growth and development, but also serve as important signaling molecules that participate in the regulation of metabolic processes. In plants, the sugars produced by the photosynthetic organs (source) are transported by the phloem over long distances to heterotrophic organs (sink), which receive a constant supply of carbohydrates for their growth and development (Lemoine, 2000). Both loading and unloading of phloem vessels or companion cells mainly depend on sugar transporters (STs) that mediate the transport of monosaccharides (Buttner, 2007), polyols (Noiraud *et al.*, 2001; Juchaux-Cachau *et al.*, 2007), or sucrose (Kühn, 2003; Kühn and Grof, 2010), which are associated with the allocation of sugars in the sink cells. Therefore, further analysis of the evolution and functions of plant STs becomes more and more important in the sugar industry.

At present, the research related to STs has made rapid progress in many species of plants, but research in *Saccharum spontaneum* and *Saccharum officinarum* is very limited. The ST gene family belongs to the major facilitator superfamily (MFS), which is characterized by 12 transmembrane domains (TMDs) (Chang et al., 2004), while the recently identified Sugar Will Eventually be Exported Transporter (SWEET) family of STs belongs to a different superfamily, which is characterized by seven TMDs (Chen et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012; Xuan et al., 2013). Currently recognized subfamilies of the MFS can be divided into the sucrose transporter family (SUTs) (Riesmeier et al., 1992) and the monosaccharide transporter family (MSTs), while the latter includes the sugar transporter family (STPs) or hexose transporter family (HTs), the plastidic glucose transporter family (pGlcTs), the vacuolar glucose transporter family (VGTs), the tonoplast monosaccharide transporter family (TMTs), the inositol transporter family (INTs/ ITRs), the polyol transporter family (PLTs/PMTs), and the sugar facilitator protein family (SFPs) (also known as the early response to dehydration 6-like [ERD6-like] family) (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010; Reuscher et al., 2014). Since the cloning of STP/HT, SUT, and PLT by Sauer and Tanner (1989) in plants, the ST gene families have been identified in various species including Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) (Buttner, 2007; Sauer, 2007), pear (Pyrus) (Li et al., 2015), tomato (Solanum lycopersicum) (Reuscher et al., 2014), grape (Vitis vinifera) (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010), and rice (Oryza sativa) (Aoki et al., 2003; Johnson and Thomas, 2007). In each species, the STs were grouped in a SUT family and seven MST families. In addition, phylogenetic evolutionary analysis of plant MSTs has demonstrated that seven MST families are ancient in land plants (Johnson and Thomas, 2007).

Furthermore, the potential functions of some ST genes have been investigated in previous studies, but information with respect to their roles in sugarcane (Saccharum spp.) is very limited, and further investigations are needed. Previous studies have demonstrated that ZmSUT1 (Carpaneto et al., 2005) and AtSUT4 (Schneider et al., 2012) mediate the active efflux of sucrose at the plasma membrane. and the ERD6-like transporter is likely involved in energyindependent sugar efflux from the vacuole (Poschet et al., 2011; Klemens et al., 2014). However, VGTs and TMTs are implicated in the loading of sugars into the vacuole, as sugar/H⁺ antiporters are located in the vacuolar membrane (Wormit et al., 2006; Aluri and Büttner, 2007; Schulz et al., 2011). Heterologous expression of AtSTP1 in Schizosaccharomyces pombe and Xenopusoo cytes indicated that AtSTP1 is a high-affinity monosaccharide proton symporter capable of transporting various hexose monosaccharides with the exception of fructose (Boorer et al., 1994). AtSTP1 functions in monosaccharide import into guard cells since its transcripts have been detected in guard cells of cotyledons, sepals, rosette leaves, ovaries, and stems (Stadler et al., 2003), while AtSTP2 is found specifically in pollen and likely plays an important role in the uptake of glucose derived from cellulose degradation during the early phase of pollen maturation (Truernit *et al.*, 1999). Recent research demonstrated that AtSTP13 phosphorylation of threonine-485 can enhance monosaccharide uptake activity to compete with bacteria for extra-cellular sugars, which provides a strategy that can be deployed against microbial infections through the regulation of host STs (Yamada *et al.*, 2016). This function is similar to that of a recently evolved STP variant which has also been found in wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) (Moore *et al.*, 2015). Some STs have been characterized in green plants and the pleiotropy of STs was described in many species (Julius *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, analysis of these orthologs in different species might help improve our understanding of their biological functions.

Notably, sugarcane is an economically important bio-energy crop species, which is responsible for approximately 80% of sugar production and 40% of ethanol production worldwide (Zhang et al., 2014). Modern sugarcane cultivars are allopolyploids and interspecific hybrids that are mostly derived from crosses between S. officinarum (with high sugar content) and S. spontaneum (with high stress tolerance), followed by backcrosses with S. officinarum, resulting in about 80% of chromosomes from S. officinarum and 10–20% from S. spontaneum. Interestingly, S. officinarum contains a remarkably high sugar content of up to 21% of juice in the stem (Sreenivasan and Nair, 1991), while less than 6% of sugar contents are stored (Bull and Glasziou, 1963). The sugarcane genome was not available until the end of 2018 (Zhang et al., 2018), and therefore only limited characterization of the ST gene family has been reported in sugarcane, with the exception of SUT gene family (Zhang et al., 2016). In a previous study, six SUT members were identified based on bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs), and SUT1 and SUT4 were expected to be the main members of the sucrose transporter family as they are expressed abundantly under different conditions (Zhang et al., 2016). In addition, earlier studies based on a survey of the sugarcane expressed sequence tag database demonstrated that SUT1 expression is higher in mature internodes than in other tissues, which was confirmed by a study in a Hawaiian sugarcane cultivar (Casu et al., 2003; ElSayed et al., 2010). Biochemical analysis of sugarcane SUT1 indicated that it is highly selective, with relatively low affinity for sucrose, and that it is inhibited by sucralose (Rae et al., 2005; Reinders et al., 2006). Therefore, it is important to analyze evolutionary changes and physiological functions of ST in sugarcane (S. spontaneum and S. officinarum).

In order to reveal the molecular and evolutionary characterization as well as the potential functions of the ST gene family in sugarcane, in the present study we characterized the sugarcane ST gene family and we performed phylogenetic analysis based on comparative genomic strategies with the *S. spontaneum* genome. Furthermore, we also investigated the changes in expression levels of representative *ST* genes, and metabolic levels in two founding *Saccharum* species (*S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*), which have differing sugar contents, were examined. The heterologous expression of *ST* genes was performed in defective yeast to assist in predicting their potential functions. The present study assists in revealing the roles of *ST* genes in sugarcane carbohydrate allocation and metabolism and provides gene resources for future genetic improvements in sugarcane breeding.

RESULTS

Identification of ST genes

The hidden Markov model-based HMMER profile of the Pfam *Sugar_tr* domain (PF00083) was used as a query for identifying *ST* genes in *S. spontaneum* (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Amino acid sequences that contain the *Sugar_tr* domain were obtained and then used as a query for BLASTP against the published *ST* genes in *A. thaliana* (Buttner, 2007), *O. sativa* (Johnson and Thomas, 2007), and *V. vinifera* (Afoufa-Bastien *et al.*, 2010) for further confirmation. We identified 105, 62, 45, 26, 2, and 26 reliable *ST* genes from *S. spontaneum*, *Sorghum bicolor, Ananas comosus, Amborella trichopoda, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, and yeast, respectively (Figure 1a), which were then divided into eight subfamilies (one sucrose transporter family and seven monosaccharide transporter families) (Figure 1b).

In *S. spontaneum*, the eight subfamilies are represented by 4–35 members, for example, 4, 4, and 35 members in VGTs, INTs, and STPs, respectively. These *S. spontaneum ST* genes encode proteins with lengths of 202 (SsSFP2_T1, Sspon.007D0001280) to 746 (SsTMT2, Sspon.008C0000240) amino acids, molecular weights ranging from 21.30 (SsSFP2_T1, Sspon.007D0001280) to 79.65 (SsTMT4, Sspon.004A0018790) kDa, 4 to 12 transmembrane domains, and predicted isoelectric points (pl) from pH = 4.78 (SsTMT2, Sspon.008C0000240) to pH = 9.92 (SsSTP30, Sspon.007A0011041) (Tables 1–3 and Table S2). The prediction of subcellular localization by WoLF PSORT revealed that 65.7% (69 out of 105) of *S. spontaneum* STs locate to the plasmalemma (Tables 1–3 and Figure S2).

Phylogenetic analysis of *ST* genes among *S. spontaneum* and other plants

To illustrate the phylogenetic relationship of *ST* gene families in *S. spontaneum*, a total of 429 ST amino acid sequences identified from nine species were used to generate a neighbor-joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree with *ST* genes from *C. reinhardtii* and yeast as the outgroup. According to unique signature motifs or domains from alignments of protein sequences, all these 429 *STs* were classified into eight subfamilies (two large subfamilies and six small families) (Figure 1b). Among these subfamilies, STP and PLT were observed with more gene expansion in monocot species than other subfamilies, while SFP showed more gene expansion in dicot species (Figure 2, Figure S1, and Table 4). Remarkably, *S. spontaneum* had the largest ST families in comparison to these examined plant species, which provided the genetic foundation for high sugar content in *Saccharum*. PLT and STP were found to have more gene members in *S. spontaneum* compared to its closest diploid relative species, indicating that these two subfamilies might have expanded in *S. spontaneum* and that there is a different developmental model for the ST family in monocots and dicots.

To further elucidate the evolutionary relationship of ST subfamilies in *S. spontaneum*, we performed phylogenetic analysis for the subfamilies of *S. spontaneum* and eight other species.

In the STP subfamily, 155 members were divided into six clades, with one of them as the outgroup (Clade 6). Of these six clades, Clades 1, 2, and 3 showed more expansion (two in Clades 1 and 2, four in Clade 3) events, while Clades 4 and 5 were much more conservative in terms of expansion (Figure 2a). Noteworthily, SsSTP14 (Sspon.002B0018890) within Clade 4 was clustered with A. comosus and representative dicot species (A. trichopoda, A. thaliana, and V. vinifera), indicating that SsSTP14 was specifically retained in S. spontaneum after the divergence of dicots and monocots; both SsSTP30 (Sspon.007A0011041) and SsSTP13 (Sspon.001D0006360) were phylogenetically distributed with one A. comosus STP (AcoSTP13) in Clade 5, while O. sativa and S. bicolor only contained one STP (OsSTP13 [Os03g0218400] and SbSTP8 [Sobic.002G073600], respecrevealing Sspon.007A0011041-SsSTP30 were tivelv), retained from the ρ -whole genome duplication (WGD) before the grass family diverged from its ancestor, with the duplicated genes being lost in *O. sativa* and *S. bicolor*.

In the PLT subfamily, 81 members from eight species were clustered into three clades (Figure 2b). Clade 1 was clustered with the outgroups, and Clades 2 and 3 were phylogenetically distributed together, suggesting Clade 1 was retained from the last common ancestor of PLTs in angiosperm. Clade 2 only contained the PLT members from monocots while Clades 1 and 3 contained gene members from both monocots and dicots. These results indicated that PLTs in Clade 2 were retained from the evolutionary event before the divergence of dicots and monocots. In Clade 1, the phylogenetic relationship showed a one-to-one pattern between S. bicolor and S. spontaneum for the orthologs in PLTs, indicating the conservation after the split of the two plant species. But in Clades 2 and 3, four sets of tandem gene duplications occurred in S. spontaneum after the divergence of S. bicolor and S. spontaneum, resulting in the gene expansion of PLTs in S. spontaneum. For example, PLT7 (Sobic.008G111300) and PLT2 (Sobic.005G196700) in

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Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree of STs among representative monocotyledons and dicotyledons. (a) The data for angiosperms were used to analyze the hylogenetic relationships of ST families in the present study. The numbers of ST genes found in the genome of each species are indicated. (b) The protein sequences were used to build the phylogenetic tree of STs among representative monocotyledons and dicotyledons. ST genes of S. spontaneum are marked with red circles.

S. bicolor were phylogenetically distributed with two and four orthologs in *S. spontaneum* in Clade 2, and two or three copies of *PLT18*, *PLT11*, and *PLT12* were found in *S. spontaneum*.

In the SFP subfamily, the genes were grouped into four clades. Thirteen *SFP* genes in *S. spontaneum* were distributed in three of these four clades (Figure S1), except

Clade 1, which only contained the genes from *A. thaliana*. In *S. spontaneum*, SFP numbers were increased in Clade 2, while they were conserved in Clades 3 and 4, with a oneto-one ratio for orthologs between *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor*. Furthermore, the results indicated that *SsSFP2*, *SsSFP2_T2*, *SsSFP1_T1*, *SsSFP8_T1*, *SsSFP7*, and *SsSFP8* in Clade 2 originated after the divergence of *S. bicolor* and

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	o. spontaneum				-	*					-	
uene name	ul anap	Protein	INIVV (KUA)	ואו	Ы	Location	Urtholog gene ID	Protein	IVIVV (KLJa)		ā	Location
SsSTP1	Sspon.002A0034730	523	57.19	11	9.43	plas	Sobic.002G004900	520	56.89	11	9.25	plas
SsSTP2	Sspon.007C0006820	509	54.48	11	9.58	plas	Sobic.009G152810	244	26.22	4	9.53	plas
SsSTP3	Sspon.003B0019830	509	55.61	12	9.46	vacu	Sobic.003G192200	509	55.73	11	9.39	vacu
SsSTP4	Sspon.002D0004470	531	57.58	11	8.98	plas	Sobic.002G338500	531	57.64	11	9.03	plas
SsSTP5	Sspon.005A0012900	488	53.20	11	9.58	plas	Sobic.006G102800	513	54.04	10	9.18	vacu
SsSTP6	Sspon.001B0021270	518	56.76	11	9.34	vacu	Sobic.001G297600	526	58.02	12	9.29	vacu
SsSTP6_T1	Sspon.001B0039050	524	57.57	12	9.34	plas						
SsSTP6_T2	Sspon.001B0035560	537	58.49	11	9.28	plas						
SsSTP7	Sspon.002D0015220	518	55.73	11	9.30	plas	Sobic.002G201900	518	55.77	11	9.30	plas
SsSTP8	Sspon.002D0025360	512	56.10	6	9.22	plas	Sobic.002G073600	512	56.06	6	9.13	plas
S _{sSTP9}	Sspon.004C0022450	545	59.88	11	9.16	plas	Sobic.004G049300	521	57.24	11	8.91	plas
SsSTP10	Sspon.001A0027320	531	56.14	11	8.80	plas	Sobic.001G190200	533	56.72	11	8.90	plas
SsSTP10_T1	Sspon.001A0027340	527	55.72	11	8.80	vacu						
SsSTP11 SsSTP11	Sspon.006A0022080	467	49.83	11	9.74	plas	Sobic.005G171200	524	56.06	12	9.40	vacu
SsSTP11_T1	Sspon.006A0022081	493	52.38	12	9.33	vacu						
SsSTP11_T2	Sspon.006A0022100	451	47.91	11	9.02	vacu						
SsSTP11_T3	Sspon.006A0022101	457	48.53	6	9.30	vacu						
SsSTP12	Sspon.006C0013410	514	55.64	11	8.10	plas	Sobic.007G061800	521	56.26	11	8.06	plas
SsSTP13	Sspon.001D006360	517	56.94	11	8.93	plas	Sobic.001G454100	517	56.98	12	9.04	plas
SsSTP14	Sspon.002B0018890	518	56.66	10	9.14	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SsSTP16	Sspon.008D0020290	508	53.65	10	9.63	vacu	Sobic.010G030600	521	54.58	12	9.81	vacu
SsSTP17	Sspon.007C0006791	538	56.38	6	9.45	plas	Sobic.009G152800	480	51.53	10	8.73	plas
SsSTP18	Sspon.005A0012842	463	50.20	11	9.47	plas	Sobic.006G101900	542	57.73	11	9.77	plas
SsSTP19	Sspon.004A0012530	466	51.15	10	9.43	plas	Sobic.004G188701	488	53.12	7	8.86	vacu
SsSTP20	Sspon.005A0012960	499	53.26	10	9.63	vacu	Sobic.006G102500	510	54.31	11	9.51	vacu
SsSTP20_T1	Sspon.005A0012880	491	52.42	10	9.69	vacu						
SsSTP22	Sspon.005C0016850	490	53.27	11	9.14	vacu	Sobic.006G003600	516	56.39	11	9.32	vacu
SsSTP22_T1	Sspon.005C0016840	490	53.27	11	9.14	vacu						
SsSTP25	Sspon.005A0012970	463	50.20	11	9.47	plas	Sobic.006G102400	521	55.69	10	9.25	plas
SsSTP25_T1	Sspon.005A0012841	512	54.11	10	9.58	vacu						
SsSTP28	Sspon.005A0012930	484	52.97	11	9.49	vacu	Sobic.006G102300	511	55.33	11	9.40	vacu
SsSTP28_T1	Sspon.005A0012940	438	47.77	10	9.76	plas						
SsSTP29	Sspon.004D0003010	526	56.02	11	9.20	plas	Sobic.004G332700	523	55.63	11	9.12	plas
SsSTP29_T1	Sspon.004D0002960	526	56.02	11	9.20	plas						
SsSTP30	Sspon.007A0011041	364	41.14	7	9.92	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

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*plas, plasmalemma; vacu, vacuole; MW, molecular weight; TMD, transmembrane domain; pl, isoelectric point.

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Table 2 Comparison of the details of PLT subfamily genes between Saccharum spontaneum and Sorghum bicolor

	S. spontaneum	Sorghum bicolor										
Gene name	Gene ID	Protein	MW (kDa)	TMD	pl	Location*	Ortholog gene ID	Protein	MW (kDa)	TMD	pl	Location
SsPLT1	Sspon.006D0022390	483	50.57	9	8.97	vacu	Sobic.005G195900	481	50.34	9	8.96	vacu
SsPLT2	Sspon.006C0021080	479	50.13	12	8.94	vacu	Sobic.005G196700	485	50.94	12	8.36	vacu
SsPLT2_T1	Sspon.006C0021090	478	50.00	12	8.80	vacu						
SsPLT2_T2	Sspon.006C0021120	499	52.45	12	8.41	vacu						
SsPLT2_T3	Sspon.006C0020960	478	49.99	12	8.74	vacu						
SsPLT3	Sspon.002A0037081	530	55.47	11	9.39	plas	Sobic.008G111100	616	63.69	12	9.47	plas
SsPLT4	Sspon.005A0008730	533	57.48	9	5.55	plas	Sobic.006G156600	726	78.98	11	8.73	plas
SsPLT5	Sspon.006B0022900	434	45.18	10	8.73	vacu	Sobic.005G196300	490	50.84	10	5.85	vacu
SsPLT6	Sspon.005D0018230	515	54.46	12	9.61	vacu	Sobic.009G157800	530	55.72	12	9.58	vacu
SsPLT7	Sspon.002A0037110	480	50.14	12	9.13	plas	Sobic.008G111300	491	51.50	10	8.99	plas
SsPLT7_T1	Sspon.002A0037100	487	51.25	10	8.20	plas						
SsPLT8	Sspon.006D0022420	485	50.80	10	8.78	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SsPLT9	Sspon.005A0001151	541	57.24	10	7.53	vacu	Sobic.006G268790	430	44.90	7	6.96	plas
SsPLT10	Sspon.005D0000761	502	52.00	10	7.76	vacu	Sobic.006G268800	536	55.56	11	6.42	plas
SsPLT11	Sspon.001B0005390	521	55.85	11	8.85	plas	Sobic.001G469600	524	56.12	11	8.84	plas
SsPLT11_T1	Sspon.001B0005380	521	55.85	11	8.85	plas						
SsPLT12	Sspon.001D0005580	525	55.90	10	8.60	plas	Sobic.009G084400	524	55.40	10	6.03	plas
SsPLT12_T1	Sspon.001D0005841	522	55.61	12	7.72	plas						
SsPLT12_T2	Sspon.001D0005870	515	55.06	12	8.29	plas						
SsPLT13	Sspon.001A0015850	536	57.01	10	8.90	plas	Sobic.001G323600	535	56.94	10	8.55	plas
SsPLT13_T1	Sspon.001A0008970	538	57.22	10	8.90	plas						
SsPLT14	Sspon.002C0007270	328	34.60	6	5.51	vacu	Sobic.002G354100	505	54.03	11	8.94	plas
SsPLT15	Sspon.002A0026520	589	61.89	10	8.99	plas	Sobic.005G196100	507	52.63	11	9.11	plas
SsPLT15_T1	Sspon.006A0023850	485	51.51	10	9.81	plas						
SsPLT16	Sspon.006A0023830	484	50.55	9	8.77	vacu	Sobic.005G196000	491	51.29	10	8.90	vacu
SsPLT16_T1	Sspon.006A0023831	495	51.35	11	8.46	plas						
SsPLT17	Sspon.002C0007250	511	54.44	12	8.92	vacu	Sobic.002G353900	510	54.22	12	9.16	vacu
SsPLT17_T1	Sspon.002C0007280	504	53.97	11	8.80	plas						
SsPLT18	Sspon.002C0007330	480	50.72	10	9.05	vacu	Sobic.002G354000	510	53.91	12	8.78	vacu
SsPLT18_T1	Sspon.002C0007290	509	53.81	11	8.73	vacu						
SsPLT18_T2	Sspon.002C0007310	432	46.16	8	9.40	plas						

*plas, plasmalemma; vacu, vacuole; MW, molecular weight; TMD, transmembrane domain; pl, isoelectric point.

S. spontaneum, given that their closest orthologs in *S. bicolor* were phylogenetically distributed as outgroups.

In the SUT subfamily, 41 SUTs from seven species were divided into five groups (SUT1 to SUT5) (Figure S2), which were consistent with previous studies (Kühn and Grof, 2010; Deol et al., 2013; Milne et al., 2013). Among these five groups, the genes in the SUT1 group were found only in dicotyledons, while the genes in the SUT3 and SUT5 groups were found only in monocotyledons. The other two groups, SUT2 and SUT4, were found in both dicotyledons and monocotyledons, and classified into two distinct subclades. In S. spontaneum, three copies of tandem duplicated SsSUT2 were found in the SUT2 group and two copies of tandem duplicated SsSUT3 were distributed in the SUT3 group, while these two groups only contained a single SUT from S. bicolor. These results indicated that the tandem duplications of SsSUT1 and SsSUT2 occurred after the split of S. spontaneum and S. bicolor.

The four ST subfamilies VGT, TMT, pGlcT, and INT were phylogenetically analyzed for seven plant species, and two sets of tandem duplicated genes were found, (i) SsVGT1 and SsVGT2 and (ii) SsVGT3 and SsVGT3_T1, that were clustered closely with their S. bicolor orthologs (Figure 2c). Similarly, SsTMT1 and SsTMT1_T1 tandem couple with SsTMT2, which clusters with the orthologs from S. bicolor. SspGlcT2 was clustered with SbpGlcT2 and OspGlcT2, which conforms with their corresponding species evolution, while SspGlcT1 and SspGlcT1_T1 tandem cluster with AcpGlcT1, indicating pGlcT1 may be lost from the grass family except in S. spontaneum. In addition, SsINT1, 2, 3, and 4 were clustered with single-copy orthologs from S. bicolor, indicating the genes of the INT subfamily in S. spontaneum were conserved during evolution. These results provided additional evidence that tandem duplications contributed to the gene expansion of STs in S. spontaneum.

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	S. spontaneum						Sorghum bicolor					
Gene name	Gene ID	Protein	MW (kDa)	TMD	рI	Location*	Ortholog gene ID	Protein	MW (kDa)	TMD	рI	Location
SsSFP1	Sspon.007D0002170	324	35.24	6	5.23	vacu	Sobic.009G235600	499	53.65	12	8.91	plas
SsSFP1_T1	Sspon.007D00021701	666	71.17	10	9.31	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SsSFP2	Sspon.007D0001270	459	49.19	11	9.53	plas	Sobic.009G243800	507	54.12	12	9.23	plas
SsSFP2_T1	Sspon.007D0001280	202	21.30	4	6.23	plas						
SsSFP2_T2	Sspon.007D0001301	486	52.00	11	9.20	plas						
SsSFP4	Sspon.001A0012461	527	57.55	11	9.46	plas	Sobic.001G362500	505	53.92	10	6.47	vacu
SsSFP4_T1	Sspon.001A0012462	526	56.38	12	5.65	vacu						
SsSFP5	Sspon.003A0022130	394	41.60	œ	8.40	vacu	Sobic.003G111000	488	51.69	12	8.33	plas
SsSFP6	Sspon.003B0027210	427	45.36	6	5.85	vacu	Sobic.003G110800	486	51.78	12	6.24	plas
SsSFP7	Sspon.007D0002100	392	42.90	9	6.43	plas	Sobic.009G235700	506	53.70	12	7.49	plas
SsSFP8	Sspon.007D0001962	559	60.36	6	9.07	plas	Sobic.009G235900	501	54.03	12	7.68	plas
SsSFP8_T1	Sspon.007D0001963	383	40.61	œ	8.83	plas						
SsSFP8_T2	Sspon.007D0001964	433	46.57	10	5.26	plas						
SspGlcT1	Sspon.002B0016870	553	58.65	6	6.21	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SspGlcT1_T1	Sspon.002B0016812	441	47.42	6	5.36	plas						
SspGlcT2	Sspon.004C0017071	484	52.22	10	8.64	E.R.	Sobic.004G124500	490	52.48	10	8.64	plas
SsTMT1	Sspon.004D000100	692	72.55	10	5.10	plas	Sobic.004G358100	498	52.30	5	9.39	plas
SsTMT1_T1	Sspon.004D000240	679	71.14	10	5.05	plas						
SsTMT2	Sspon.008C0000240	746	79.00	11	4.78	plas	Sobic.010G276100	767	81.65	11	4.76	plas
SsTMT3	Sspon.001A0016560	732	78.11	10	4.88	vacu	Sobic.001G312900	740	78.91	10	4.91	vacu
SsTMT4	Sspon.004A0018790	745	79.65	11	5.16	plas	Sobic.004G099300	746	79.65	11	5.16	plas
SsINT1	Sspon.005C0003130	506	53.79	12	5.40	plas	Sobic.006G130800	506	53.93	12	5.67	plas
SsINT2	Sspon.002B0029970	585	62.53	12	8.68	plas	Sobic.002G035200	586	62.55	12	7.96	plas
SsINT3	Sspon.005B0007800	591	64.47	12	8.98	plas	Sobic.006G143900	586	63.18	12	8.52	plas
SsINT4	Sspon.002C0025371	573	61.13	12	8.68	vacu	Sobic.002G121800	574	61.31	12	8.19	vacu
SsVGT1	Sspon.001A0010990	426	46.21	8	6.31	plas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SsVGT2	Sspon.001A0011020	390	42.57	8	7.54	plas	Sobic.001G282600	511	54.81	11	5.29	plas
SsVGT3	Sspon.001A0040123	586	62.43	10	9.83	chlo	Sobic.001G032200	565	59.24	11	9.52	chlo
SsVGT3_T1	Sspon.001A0040181	594	63.38	10	9.76	chlo						
*plas, plasmale	mma; vacu, vacuole; MW, i	molecular we	ight; TMD, tran	smembran	e domain	; pl, isoelectric	point.					

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Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of ST subfamilies among representative monocotyledons and dicotyledons. All phylogenetic trees were built with the neighbor-joining algorithm using protein sequences. (a) The phylogenetic tree of the STP subfamily. (b) The phylogenetic tree of the PLT subfamily. (c) The phylogenetic tree of the VGT, TMT, pGlcT, and INT subfamilies. ST genes of S. spontaneum in the phylogenetic trees are marked with red, and the remaining STs of other species are marked with different colors as labeled at the bottom.

	Num	ber of genes							
Subfamily	Ss	Tandem duplications	Segmental duplications	Sb	Tandem duplications	At	Tandem duplications	Os	Tandem duplications
SFP	14	10	0	7	5	17	10	4	2
pGlcT	3	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
ТМТ	5	2	0	4	0	3	0	4	0
INT	4	0	0	4	0	4	0	2	0
VGT	4	2	0	2	0	3	0	2	0
PLT	31	22	2	17	11	6	2	11	4
STP	35	19	6	22	9	14	2	21	7
SUT	9	5	0	6	0	9	2	5	0
Total	105	62	9	63	25	57	16	50	13

Table 4 Comparison of the ST genes in S. spontaneum (Ss), S. bicolor (Sb), A. thaliana (At), and O. sativa (Os)

Gene structure and conserved motifs of *S. spontaneum* STs

In order to obtain additional information on the conservation of S. spontaneum ST genes, their structures were analyzed with the Gene Structure Display Server (GSDS) online suite and schematically illustrated based on their evolutionary relationships (Figure S3). The number of exons and introns in S. spontaneum ST genes ranged from 1 to 20 and from 0 to 19, respectively. Most of the S. spontaneum genes in the PLT (93.5%) and STP (82.9%) subfamilies contained two to four exons, indicating that these two gene families were conserved during plant evolution. The gene structure of some subfamilies (VGT, TMT, INT, SFP, and SUT) had a greater diversification with several exon/intron variations. For example, in the SFP subfamily, Sspon.007D0002100-SsSFP7 and Sspon.007D0002020-SsSFP9 contained six and 10 exons, respectively, while the remaining members possessed more than 12 exons. In contrast, all S. spontaneum genes within the pGlcT subfamily contained 12 or 13 exons, indicating these S. spontaneum pGlcT genes share a highly conserved structure.

Additionally, the putative amino acid sequences of S. spontaneum ST genes were further analyzed for conserved motifs using MEME suite 4.11.1. A total of 15 conserved motifs were identified in the collective putative ST proteins and designated as Motifs 1-15 based on the E-value of each motif (Figure S3). The most common motif at the Nterminal is Motif 6, which was found in 98 out of 105 (93.3%) S. spontaneum STs. Motif 2 was found at the C-terminus in 89 out of 105 (84.8%) S. spontaneum STs. No subfamily-specific motif was found in eight subfamilies of S. spontaneum, suggesting these gene subfamilies might originate from the same ancestor. Furthermore, 89 out of 96 (92.7%) monosaccharide transporter genes had >12 motifs, while all SUTs possessed <6 motifs, which might be due to their functional differences between the monosaccharide transporter family (which transports monosaccharides) and the SUT family (which transports sucrose) in S. spontaneum.

Interestingly, the type and number of conserved motifs were highly similar within each monosaccharide transporter family, indicating functional similarities of these genes within the same family. Some subfamilies shared a similar motif and motif order. For example, the motif order of 3, 6, 9, 14, 5, 10, 4, and 3 was detected in the majority of PLT and STP subfamilies, and the motif orientation 6, 9, 5, and 10 was found in all monosaccharide transporter families, indicating that they shared a close phylogenetic relationship. In addition, some motifs were missing in certain families; for example, the STP subfamily lacked Motif 7; the PLT, VGT, TMT, INT, SFP, and SUT subfamilies lacked Motif 11; and the VGT, TMT, INT, SFP, and SUT subfamilies lacked Motif 15. These results further supported the functional divergence among these ST subfamilies.

Chromosomal localization, duplication events, and collinearity of *S. spontaneum* STs

The distribution of *ST* genes on the *S. spontaneum* chromosome was investigated in this study. Of 105 *S. spontaneum ST* genes, 100 (95.2%) were mapped onto six chromosomes, excluding chromosomes SsChr3 and SsChr8, which represents an unbalanced distribution (Figure 3a,b). Substantial clustering of *S. spontaneum ST* genes was obvious on several chromosomes, especially on those with high densities of ST genes. For example, *SsSTP28, SsSTP28_T1, SsSTP5,* and *SsSTP18* were clustered and localized on a 92.8-kb segment on SsChr5. In addition, all subfamilies were found to have a differential distribution in the whole genome, such as 10 (25.6%) *STPs* and 11 (35.5%) *PLTs* located on SsChr5 and SsChr2, respectively, while no STs were located on SsChr3 except for three *SsSFPs* (Figure 3c,d).

During the evolution of a gene family, tandem duplication plays an important role in gene family expansion. Therefore, in order to clarify the potential tandem duplication of *S. spontaneum ST*, the collinearity of the *S. spontaneum ST* gene family was identified with BLASTP and Multiple Collinearity Scan (MCScanX). Finally, 62 tandem

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Figure 3. Genome distribution and gene duplication of the *ST* gene family in *S. spontaneum*. (a) The scale on the circle is in Megabases. The numbers of each chromosome are shown inside the circle with different colors. The density of *ST* genes distributed on the chromosome is represented in grayscale. The WGD or segmental duplication genes are connected with a purple line. In addition, after each gene ID, the star annotation indicates the number of copies. For example, *2, *3, and *4 indicate tandem duplication with two, three, and four copies, respectively. (b) Microcollinearity and tandem duplication of PLTs between chromosome 2 of *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor*. The genes are represented by green and blue boxes, and the gene ID is shown near the boxes. In addition, the collinear STP or PLT gene pairs are highlighted by pink lines. (c) Gray lines in the background indicate the collinear blocks within the *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* genomes, while the red lines highlight the syntenic *ST* gene pairs. (d) Microcollinearity and tandem duplication indicate the duplication of STPs between chromosome 5 of *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* genomes, while the red lines highlight the syntenic *ST* gene pairs. (d) Microcollinearity and tandem duplication of STPs between chromosome 5 of *S. spontaneum* and chromosome 6 of *S. bicolor*.

duplicated *ST* genes were identified in *S. spontaneum*, which showed that more tandem duplications occurred in *S. spontaneum* compared with *S. bicolor* (25), *A. thaliana* (16), and *O. sativa* (13) (Table 4). All the above tandem duplicated *ST* gene pairs had non-synonymous/synonymous substitution (Ka/Ks) ratios values of less than 1, except for *SsSFP2-SsSFP2_T1*, implying they evolved under the effects of purifying selection (Table S3).

To further investigate possible evolutionary mechanisms of the *S. spontaneum ST* gene family, we also constructed a comparative syntenic map of *S. spontaneum* associated with *S. bicolor*, which is the closest relative with sequenced genome in the grass family. Finally, 61 orthologous pairs were identified between *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* (Figure 3b). Interestingly, the members of PLT and STP subfamilies were assigned to 99.02–99.14 Mbp of Ss2 and 37.77–38.43 Mbp of Ss5, which included all tandem duplication blocks with high collinearity in *S. bicolor* assigned to 71.73–71.75 Mbp of Sb02 and 47.23–47.33 Mbp of Sb06, respectively (Figure 3c,d).

Analysis of expression of *ST* genes during different developmental stages in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*

To investigate the temporal and spatial expression patterns of ST genes in two Saccharum species with different sugar content (higher sugar content in S. officinarum and lower in S. spontaneum), we further analyzed their ST transcript abundance (Transcripts Per Million [TPM], normalized data) using the transcriptome data from different development stages, which included two tissues (internode and leaf) from the seedling stage, five tissues (including (i) internodes 3, 6, and 9 for S. spontaneum and 3, 9, and 15 for S. officinarum and (ii) leaf roll and leaf in both) of the pre-matured and matured stages, 15 leaf segments from a developmental gradient leaf, and the leaves during the diurnal cycle, in addition to parenchymal and sclerenchyma cells of matured internodes in S. officinarum. The expression levels of two ST genes in five tissues ((i) internodes 3, 9, and 15, leaves, and leaf roll in LA-Purple and (ii) internodes 3, 6, and 9, leaves, and leaf roll in SES208) of two *Saccharum* species were validated by quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) (Figure S4).

The genes with TPM < 15 in each sample of both species within the same dataset are not shown in the heatmap (Figure 4). During different development stages, some genes from both Saccharum species showed high expression in specific tissues (Figure 4a,d). For example, VGT3 and STP7 were highly expressed in the leaves in three developmental stages and in the leaf roll of the pre-matured and matured stages in both Saccharum species, while TMT3 was highly expressed in internodes, suggesting that VGT3 and STP7 may play an important role in the sugar loading of source leaves. Some genes in specific tissues showed higher expression in S. spontaneum than in S. officinarum; for example, pGlcT2 showed higher expression in the tested internodes during the pre-matured and matured stages in S. spontaneum than in S. officinarum, while SUT1, SUT1_T1, and TMT4 were highly expressed only in internodes 6 and 9 during the matured and pre-matured stages in S. spontaneum, in contrast to internodes 9 and 15 of S. officinarum at the same stage. Interestingly, some genes showed a reverse situation, in which expression was higher in specific tissues of S. officinarum than in S. spontaneum. For example, PLT11, PLT11_T1, and STP7 were highly expressed in leaf at the pre-matured stage in S. officinarum compared to S. spontaneum, while STP4 was highly expressed in the leaf during the matured and pre-matured stages of S. spontaneum compared to S. officinarum. In addition, TMT3, TMT4, PLT11, PLT11_T1, and SUT4 were highly expressed in both parenchyma and sclerenchyma cells at the matured stage of S. officinarum. while SUT1 and SUT1_T1 were highly expressed only in sclerenchyma cells and SFP4_T1 only in parenchymal cells. These results indicated these STs may play an important role in sclerenchyma and parenchymal cells of S. officinarum.

Analysis of *ST* expression during leaf segmental development in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*

In order to understand the contributions of STs to leaf development and photosynthesis, we divided the leaves of seedlings from *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum* into 15 segments from base to tip. We named these segments S1–15 and further divided them into the basal zone (S1–3), the transitional zone (S4–6), the maturing zone (S7–10), and the matured zone (S11–15). The results showed 72 (68.5%) of 105 *STs* from *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum* had low expression levels (TPM < 15) throughout all these leaf segments; these data are not shown in Figure 4(b,e). Of the remaining 33 *STs*, some were expressed in a similar pattern in the tested leaf segments of *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*; for example, *SUT1* and *SUT1_T1* had high expression levels in the maturing and matured zones of

both species, while *STP4* had high expression levels in the whole leaf segments and much higher expression levels in the maturing and matured zones. Some *STs* exhibited higher expression levels in *S. officinarum* than in *S. spontaneum*. For example, *VGT3*, *PLT17*, and *STP13* were highly expressed in the matured zone (S11–15), *STP6_T2* was highly expressed in the transitional zone (S4–6), and *PLT11* and *PLT11_T1* were highly expressed in the maturing zone (S7–10) of *S. officinarum*, while they were lowly expressed in the same segments of *S. spontaneum*. These results indicated that *ST* genes may play an important role in sugar loading in the source leaf.

Given the abundance of tandem duplicated STs in the *S. spontaneum* genome, we also statistically analyzed the changes in expression of 62 (26 pairs) tandemly duplicated STs (Tables 1–4) to further understand the difference in expression within tandemly duplicated STs pairs. The results indicated that 53.8% (14 pairs) of 26 pairs of the tandemly duplicated STs had at least one member expressed in the developmental gradient of the leaves (Figure 4b). Among these, with the exception of *PLT11* and *PLT11_T1*, the remaining 13 pairs had differing expression levels, indicating divergence of gene functions occurred in more than 50% of tandem duplicated *STs* of *S. spontaneum*.

Changes in *ST* expression during the day-night rhythm in matured leaves of *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*

To elucidate the expression patterns and functional roles of STs during the day-night rhythm in S. spontaneum and S. officinarum, we collected matured-stage leaf samples with three replicates from 06:00 am to 06:00+ am every 2 h during cycle 1 and every 4 h during cycle 2, which acted as a replicate, and these samples were used for RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) analysis to evaluate the relative abundance of each of the STs. The results identified 72 (68.5%) out of 105 STs with low expression (TPM < 15) at all tested time points in both species; these are not included in Figure 4(c. f). The remaining 33 STs, for example, SUT1, SUT1_T1, and VGT3, showed high expression during the whole cycle in both species, but the former two genes showed a lack of stable expression at specific time points. For example, SUT1 and SUT1_T1 expression in S. spontaneum increased from 18:00 to 02:00, while in S. officinarum, expression levels increased from 06:00 to 10:00. In contrast, some STs were only highly expressed at specific time points; for example, genes such as VGT2, PLT12, PLT12_T1, PLT17, STP4, and STP7 were highly expressed at 10:00 in the leaves of S. officinarum. Furthermore, TMT4 was highly expressed in S. spontaneum in the time period 12:00 to 18:00, while in S. officinarum, TMT4 was highly expressed between 12:00 and 06:00. In addition, some genes were highly expressed specifically during the cycle of S. spontaneum, such as TMT3, which showed high

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Figure 4. The expression patterns of STs during the three sugar accumulation stages (seedling, pre-matured, and matured stages), leaf gradients and day-night rhythms in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. (a,d) The expression patterns of STs based on the RNA-seq data of different tissues during different stages of these two *Saccharum* species and in the parenchyma and sclerenchyma cells of *S. officinarum*. (b,e) The expression patterns of STs based on the RNA-seq data at different time periods in these two *Saccharum* species. (c,f) The expression patterns of STs based on the RNA-seq data at different time periods in these two *Saccharum* species.

expression only in the matured leaves of *S. spontaneum* within the time frame of 16:00 to 20:00.

Characteristics of sugar metabolism in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*

In order to profile the primary sugar metabolic changes in stems (including the upper, middle, and bottom parts) and leaves (including the leaf roll and leaf) of matured *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*, we performed a soluble sugar analysis to detect three kinds of sugar (sucrose, fructose, and glucose) by biochemical methods. The results showed that these three sugars exhibited a significant difference in matured leaves and matured stems of *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum* (Figure 5a).

Saccharum officinarum had higher concentrations of fructose in matured leaves and matured stems, with the greatest amounts at the bottom of stems, whereas S. spontaneum had lower concentrations of fructose in the corresponding tissues (Figure 5a). In contrast, the sucrose concentration was much higher in S. officinarum and was similar in the lower matured leaves, and S. officinarum was found to contain 600–1000 mg g^{-1} sucrose, which is significantly higher than the sucrose content of S. sponta*neum*, with 22–28 mg g^{-1} in the matured stem. The sucrose concentration was found to increase down the stem, with the highest concentrations at the bottom of the matured stem in S. officinarum, whereas in S. spontaneum the sucrose concentration was lower and equally distributed throughout the stem (Figure 5a). In addition, the glucose concentration was similar in both S. spontaneum and S. officinarum, showing an increasing trend from the top towards the bottom of the stem and relatively low levels in leaves, indicating glucose as a basal metabolite was maintained at similar metabolic levels in the mature stages in both S. spontaneum and S. officinarum.

Heterologous expression of several STs in the defective yeast

To elucidate the potential functions of STs in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*, we expressed seven representative STs in the hexose transport-deficient *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* mutant strain EBY.VW4000, which is unable to grow on hexose or sucrose but does grow on the disaccharide maltose since 20 endogenous *ST* genes have been knocked out. The full-length cDNAs of *STP13*, *pGlcT2*, *TMT4*, *VGT3*, and *SUT1_T1* of *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum* were cloned separately into the pDRf1-GW vector (Figure 5b). The positive controls, *ScHXT5* of *S. cerevisiae* and *AtSUC2* of *A. thaliana*, were cloned separately into the pDRf1-GW vector.

After transformation into the yeast mutant strain EBY.VW4000, the growth ability of the yeast was investigated on selection culture medium containing 2% maltose, 2% glucose, 2% fructose, and 2% sucrose, with 2% maltose acting as the positive control (Figure 5c). The results showed that the exogenous expression of *STP13*, *pGlcT2*, and *VGT3* enabled the yeast to grow well on glucose and fructose medium, but not on sucrose medium. *SUT1_T1* exhibited the opposite results, indicating *STP13*, *pGlcT2*, or *VGT3* is sensitive to glucose and fructose, whereas $SUT1_T1$ is sensitive to sucrose (Figure 5c). In addition, yeast transformed with *TMT4* grew well on the plates with glucose or fructose, and grew weakly on the plates with sucrose, indicating *TMT4* is sensitive to multiple kinds of sugar.

Divergence of *ST* co-expression network in *S. officinarum* and *S. spontaneum*

Weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) was employed to construct gene networks using the RNA-seq data of 45 samples, including three different sugar accumulation stages, the developmental gradient leaf segments, and day-night rhythms, in these two Saccharum species, in which each node represents a gene and the connecting lines (edges) between genes represent the co-expression. The divergent STs expressed in these two Saccharum species were saved as the hub genes in order to explore the different co-expression networks in these two species. Of the 16 STs (marked in red color in Figure 6), five STs (SUT1, SUT1 T1, STP4, STP7, and PLT17) exhibited distinct co-expression in these two Saccharum species, with two STs (SUT1 and SUT1 T1) being involved in a more complex co-expression network in S. spontaneum than in S. officinarum (Figure 6 and Figure S5). For example, 40 and 21 genes, including 'FAD dependent oxidoreductase' and 'H(+)-ATPase 2', were involved in the SUT1 and SUT1_T1 co-expression network in S. officinarum, while 153 and 170 genes, including 'Zinc finger superfamily', 'NBS-LRR', and 'fn3', showed co-expression with SUT1 and SU1 T1 in S. spontaneum. The remaining three STs (STP4, STP7, and PLT17) were included in more complex co-expression networks of S. officinarum than S. spontaneum.

DISCUSSION

Sugarcane is an important model crop for investigating sugar accumulation and carbohydrate metabolism. STs are considered as a crucial factor for carbohydrate allocation in the majority of higher plants, and STs have been characterized and analyzed in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes (Kruckeberg, 1996; Johnson and Thomas, 2007). However, the genome-wide identification and comprehensive analysis of this gene family in *S. spontaneum* has not been reported. The recently published *S. spontaneum* genome provided us with the opportunity to characterize the ST gene family and explore the mechanism of sugar accumulation in *S. spontaneum* (Zhang *et al.*, 2018).



Figure 5. The potential functions of STs in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. (a) The characteristics of sugar metabolism in the matured leaf and matured stem of *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. The sugar concentration variation is presented in the histogram. (b) The cDNA clones of selected STs in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. M: marker; 1: coding sequence (CDS) of *HXT5* in yeast; 2: CDS of *SsSTP13*; 3: CDS of *SoSTP13*; 4: CDS of *SspGlcT2*; 5: CDS of *SopGlcT2*; 6: CDS of *SsTMT4*; 7: CDS of *SoTMT4*; 8: CDS of *SsVGT3*; 9: CDS of *SoVGT3*; 10: CDS of *AtSUC2*; 11: CDS of *SoSUT1_T1*; 12: CDS of *SsSUT1_T1*. (c) Complementary effects of the hexose transport-defective yeast strain EBY.VW4000 by the heterologous expression of representative STs. The defective yeast strain EBY.VW4000 was transformed with empty pDRf1-GW, pDRf1-GW-ScHXT5, pDRf1-GW-Ss/SoSTP13, pDRf1-GW-Ss/SopGlcT2, pDRf1-GW-Ss/SoTMT4, pDRf1-GW-Ss/SoVGT3, pDRf1-GW-Ss/SoSUT1_T1, or pDRf1-GW-AtSUC2. The figure shows their growth on SD media containing different sugars as sole carbon source at 30°C for 3 days. EBY.VW4000 only grew well on SD media containing mattose, but not on the media containing other hexoses or sucrose. ScHXT5/AtSUC2 and the empty vector-transformed yeasts were used as the positive and negative controls, respectively. In each picture, the yeast strain was diluted to an OD₆₀₀ value of 0.2 and then 1x, 10x, and 1000x diluted with sterile water. (d) Schematic models for expression patterns and physiological functions of the ST family during phloem loading and unloading based on gene expression profiles and sugar metabolic profiles in sugarcane. The STs marked with red color were differentially expressed between *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*.

This study therefore initially analyzed the gene structure, motifs, and phylogenetics of the ST family in S. spontaneum, and identified a total of 105 STs in the S. spontaneum genome, which is more than in other species (62 in S. bicolor, 50 in O. sativa, 57 in A. thaliana, and 56 in V. vinifera). In S. spontaneum the ST genes were clustered into eight subfamilies, i.e., one sucrose transporter family and seven monosaccharide transporter families, based on the criteria defined in A. thaliana (Buttner, 2007), V. vinifera (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010), and O. sativa (Johnson and Thomas, 2007). This might be caused by polyploidy of S. spontaneum with two additional WGDs taking place due to numerous tandem duplications (Zhang et al., 2018). Interestingly, of the eight subfamilies, the PLT and STP subfamilies had the most members, similar to other monocots, which may be due to the repeated regions encompassed by STP and PLT genes (Li et al., 2015). Furthermore, we have identified conserved domains in these eight subfamilies, and different motif compositions were identified in each of them, which were similar to those in Pyrus (Li et al., 2015), A. thaliana (Buttner, 2007), and V. vinifera (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010). The genes in the PLT, TMT, INT, and STP families were more conserved, with the number of exons ranging from one to six; in contrast, genes in the remaining four families (pGlcT, SUT, SFP, and VGT) had more exons. The same trend was found in ST families in S. lycopersicum (Reuscher et al., 2014), indicating our classification of STs in S. spontaneum was accurate and reliable. In addition, the present study also found nine members in the SUT family, whereas a previous report identified six members (Zhang et al., 2016). This difference in the number of family members may be caused by the incomplete coverage of BAC resources used in the earlier research. Therefore, the data from the intact S. spontaneum genome were provided to supplement the previous results.

Furthermore, we analyzed the gene expansion of the ST family in *S. spontaneum*. Gene duplication is well known to be a major driving force in gene expansion and neo-functionalization (Cannon *et al.*, 2004). Five mechanisms of gene duplications were proposed, including WGD (or polyploidization), tandem duplication, segmental duplication, transposon-mediated duplication, and retroduplication

(Panchy et al., 2016). Among those, tandem duplication, WGD, and segmental duplications occur most frequently in plants because most plants retain numerous duplicated chromosomal blocks within their genomes through polyploidy following chromosome rearrangements (Cannon et al., 2004). Notably, a recent study revealed that both tandem duplication and WGD/segmental duplication contributed to the gene expansion of the S. spontaneum ST family (Zhang et al., 2018), and although S. spontaneum experienced two independent rounds of WGD, tandem duplication was still the main mechanism for ST family expansion, with 62 ST genes undergoing tandem duplication. The same result was also found in A. thaliana and O. sativa (Johnson et al., 2006; Buttner, 2007), but not in Pyrus (Li et al., 2015). These results suggested tandem duplication played a major role in the expansion of the ST gene family in S. spontaneum. Furthermore, PLT and STP subfamilies were the major families that expanded significantly in S. spontaneum, which was similar to O. sativa (Johnson and Thomas, 2007) and S. bicolor, but not to other dicots, such as A. thaliana (Buttner, 2007) and V. vinifera (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010), demonstrating the PLT and STP subfamilies may be related to monocot but not dicot evolution. In addition, the STP and PLT subfamilies were reported to have significant variations in size between the vascular and non-vascular lineages, suggesting the gene expansion of these two subfamilies could be related to the evolution of vascular plants (Johnson et al., 2006).

Interestingly, recent research reported *S. spontaneum* was divided from the common ancestor of *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* 7.779 million years ago (MYA) (Zhang *et al.*, 2019), and it then experienced two rounds of WGD accompanied by chromosome rearrangement events (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). In this study, the Ks value (mean Ks = 0.056) of tandem duplicated ST gene pairs showed that most ST tandem duplication events happened 4.307 MYA, which occurred after the divergence from *S. bicolor*. Similarly, the block comparative synteny of PLT and STP subfamilies between *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* also support this point. In addition, the asymmetrical size of the block between *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor* might be caused by plentiful intergenic insertions in the *S. spontaneum*

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Figure 6. The correlation network of differentially expressed STs in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. The correlation networks of *SUT1* (a), *SUT1_T1* (b), and *STP4* (c) in *S. officinarum* (left) and *S. spontaneum* (right), with each node representing a gene and the connecting lines (edges) between genes representing co-expression correlations. The circle size and color represent the weight value.

genome, which provided the possibility for *ST* gene family evolution to take place (Sacher *et al.*, 1963).

The present study also investigated gene function divergence of STs in Saccharum through examining the expression of ST genes in the source and sink tissues, which provide an indication of the functional roles of the genes. Previous studies on STs demonstrated that they may play multiple roles during the different developmental stages in some plants (Afoufa-Bastien et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2014; Reuscher et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). Therefore, we used four sets of RNA-seg data in two Saccharum species with different sugar contents for examining ST gene expression in order to determine the potential function of STs in Saccharum. In sugarcane, sucrose is initially hydrolyzed into fructose and glucose, and then re-synthesized during the transfer from the metabolic compartment to the storage compartment (Sacher et al., 1963). All sugars diffuse slowly from the storage compartment, with reducing sugars diffusing more rapidly than sucrose (Glasziou, 1960). Immature storage tissues contain an invertase which is optimally active between pH 5.0 and pH 5.5 (Glasziou, 1962; Hatch et al., 1963). This enzyme is absent in matured tissues, which contain higher levels of total sugars but little reducing sugar (Sacher et al., 1963), indicating this enzyme could be responsible for the inversion of sucrose in the storage compartment (Hatch et al., 1963).

The SUT subfamily was previously characterized based on BACs in Saccharum, and SUT1 was predicted to play an enhanced role in directing the production of sucrose, leading to the accumulation in the source tissues of Saccharum species (Zhang et al., 2016). In the present study, SUT1 was highly expressed in the leaves, relatively matured stems, the mature zone of the leaf, and sclerenchyma cells, but undetectable in parenchymal cells. In contrast, SUT1_T1 was highly expressed in those tissues, which was not discovered in the previous study carried out in the absence of the sugarcane genome, suggesting SUT1 and SUT1 T1 may play an important role in directing the production of sucrose in source tissues. Moreover, SUT1_T1 enabled the yeast mutant EBY.VW4000 to grow well only on medium containing sucrose, indicating its substrate specificity for sucrose. Finally, the analysis of the co-expression network based on WGCNA showed that the expression of SUT1 and SUT1 T1 involved in the network was different between S. spontaneum and S. officinarum, suggesting they are affected differently in these two species, which may result in the differing abilities to transport sucrose.

In *S. spontaneum*, the expression of SUT1 and SUT1_T1 increased from 18:00 to 02:00, while in *S. officinarum* their expression increased from 06:00 to 10:00. The SUT proteins mainly have affinity for the disaccharide sucrose in *Saccharum* (Figure 5c), with sucrose being used for long-distance translocation in higher plants. In sugarcane,

sucrose can be broken down rapidly for respiration and then re-synthesized in sinks, leading to a dynamic balance between storage and respiration or other metabolic uses (Wendler et al., 1991). Therefore, we assumed that SUT1 and SUT1 T1 cooperated to provide the sugar for respiration in low-sucrose content S. spontaneum and to transport the sugar from source to sink for sugar accumulation during photosynthesis in the high-sucrose content S. offincarum. The majority of sucrose transporters have been characterized as H⁺/sugar importers and are located at the plasma membrane, but in maize (Zea mays), a species close to sugarcane, a SUC4-type transporter was revealed to be a tonoplast-localized protein which releases sucrose from vacuoles (Carpaneto et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2012). It is possible that these sucrose transporters retrieve sucrose from the vacuole in S. spontaneum during the niaht.

Most STPs or HTs identified in A. thaliana are located on the plasma membrane and have a broad substrate specificity, such as fructose, glucose, galactose, and mannose (Buttner, 2010). The results of the present study showed that STP4 expression in the leaf and leaf roll of pre-mature and matured S. spontaneum was higher than in S. officinarum, which was the dominant gene expressed in those tissues of pre-mature and matured S. spontaneum, indicating STP4 may play a role in sugar loading. STP4 has a peak expression level in the leaf tissue during the daytime in both Saccharum species, and was also found to be mainly expressed in the developmental gradient leaf sections, especially in highly photosynthetic zones, of S. spontaneum and S. officinarum. The orthologs of STP4 in A. thaliana and V. vinifera were proposed to transport hexose, and the orthologs in O. sativa are believed to participate in the transport of fructose/glucose from the apoplast to the cytosol (Cakir et al., 2019). STP4 presented much higher expression levels in leaf and leaf rolls of pre-mature stages in S. spontaneum than in S. officinarum, supporting the fact that S. spontaneum mainly generates the monosaccharide, while S. officinarum accumulated sucrose. In addition, the co-expression network of STP4 was divergent between S. spontaneum and S. officinarum, with 316 genes, including bZIP9, ERF14, and AP2, being involved in the co-expression network of S. officinarum, while only nine genes were included in S. spontaneum, indicating that the divergence of STP4 expression in these two Saccharum species could be due to different regulatory networks. STP7 and STP13 were highly expressed in the leaves of seedling, pre-mature, and matured S. spontaneum as well as in S. officinarum, indicating that they are only expressed in leaves in a tissue-specific manner. In many leaved plants, the chloroplasts in the leaf tip are over-matured and display caducity, and most organs in these regions will be degraded to sugar or other small molecules for recycling. STP13 was located in the plasma

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membrane, and was more highly expressed in the leaf tip zone of development gradient leaf sections in S. officinarum than in S. spontaneum. Further investigation found that STP13 enabled the yeast mutant EBY.VW4000 to grow well with glucose and fructose, suggesting STP13 has a function in retrieving the monosaccharides from senescent tissues. A previous study reported STP13 was expressed in the leaf epidermal and mesophyll cells after flg22 treatment, and also considered STP13-mediated hexose uptake as a basal pathogen resistance mechanism (Dodds and Lagudah, 2016). Furthermore, STP13 was expressed mainly in S. officinarum at night, indicating that its expression could be influenced by respiration, whereas STP7 expression had a diurnal peak in the morning in both S. officinarum and S. spontaneum, suggesting STP7 might be a sugar starvation-induced gene, since the depletion of nocturnal reserves also leads to the activation of sugar transport in both S. officinarum and S. spontaneum. STP7 showed different co-expression networks between S. spontaneum and S. officinarum, indicating it may be associated with different mechanisms in these two species.

In Saccharum, PLT11 and PLT11_T1 were highly expressed in the matured leaf and stem of S. officinarum compared to S. spontaneum. PLT11 and PLT11 T1 were also mainly expressed in the photosynthetic regions of leaves, especially in daytime, which suggests they may play different roles in source and sink tissues. In many plants, sugar accumulation is source-limited in meristematic sinks and sink-limited in storage sinks (Smith and Stitt, 2007). PLT11 and PLT11_T1 were also expressed at high levels in sclerenchyma and parenchyma cells from the matured stalk (TPM > 800), implying *PLT11* and *PLT11_T1* may contribute to breaking the limitation of the storage sink, and thus give rise to the high sugar content in S. officinarum. In contrast, PLT17 was mainly expressed in the leaf and the matured zone of the leaf in *S. officinarum*, and displayed peak levels in the morning, while it was undetectable in both sclerenchyma and parenchymal cells of the matured stalk in S. officinarum. Therefore, PLT17 appears to be a sugar alcohol starvation-induced gene involved in sugar alcohol transport in the highly photosynthetic zones of Saccharum. Several roles have been suggested for sugar alcohols, including osmo-protection, quenching of reactive oxygen species, facilitation of boron transport, storage of reducing power, tolerance to salinity or drought, and involvement in plant--pathogen interactions (Loescher and Everard, 2000; Williamson et al., 2002; Pommerrenig et al., 2007), and they may serve as biomarkers and bioindicators for 21st-century plant breeding (Merchant and Richter, 2011).

The TMT subfamily has been characterized in *O. sativa* and *A. thaliana*, with proteins such as AtTMT1 and AtTMT2 being identified as fructose/ H^+ or glucose antiporters that are localized to the vacuolar membrane (Wormit *et al.*, 2006; Schulz *et al.*, 2011), while BvTST2.1, the ortholog of

AtTMT2 in sugar beet (Beta vulgaris), was also identified as a sucrose-specific transporter, and imported sucrose into the vacuole (Jung et al., 2015). In this study, TMT3 and TMT4, the orthologous gene pairs of AtTMT2 and AtTMT2, were mainly expressed in the stem and transition regions of the leaf in both Saccharum species, and exhibited peak expression levels at nightfall, suggesting TMT3 and TMT4 may play a role in unloading in the sink. Surprisingly, TMT4 not only enabled the yeast mutant EBY.VW4000 to survive on medium with glucose or fructose, but also on medium with sucrose, suggesting TMTs have a broad substrate specificity, which could enable different sugars to be used for sugar metabolism. In addition, TMT3 and TMT4 were also more highly expressed in parenchymal cells than in sclerenchyma cells, suggesting they may contribute to breaking the limits of the sink. TMT4 was highly expressed in S. spontaneum during the daytime, while TMT4 was highly expressed in S. officinarum during the nighttime. We expect that TMT4 contributes to glucose accumulation in the low-sugar content S. spontaneum, which accumulated a much higher relative level of glucose during the day, while playing a key role in the transport of glucose resulting from the breakdown of sucrose required for respiration in the high-sucrose content S. officinarum during the night.

Similarly, VGTs were suggested to be localized to the plasma membrane and to function as sugar/H⁺ antiporters loading sugars into the vacuole (Wormit et al., 2006; Aluri and Büttner, 2007; Cho et al., 2010; Schulz et al., 2011). Three members of the VGT subfamily, VGT2, VGT3, and VGT3 T1, were expressed during the seedling, pre-mature, and matured stages. Of these, VGT3 was mainly expressed in the leaves of S. officinarum compared to S. spontaneum, which had a similar expression pattern to S. lycopersicum (Reuscher et al., 2014). In contrast to TMT4, VGT3 displayed an expression peak in the morning in S. officinarum and at night in S. spontaneum. In Arabidopsis. TMTs were revealed to be the major glucose transporters for the Arabidopsis mesophyll vacuole rather than VGTs (Wormit et al., 2006). It is likely that VGT3 contributes to monosaccharide accumulation in S. officinarum rather than TMT4, whereas VGT3 may also play a role in respiration during the night in S. spontaneum, as TMT does in S. spontaneum. Thus, TMT4 and VGT3 may contribute to the divergence in sugar accumulation trends between the two Saccharum species. Compared with VGT3, the other two members, VGT2 and VGT3 T1, showed lower expression levels in the tissues of different stages, indicating they may not be the key members responsible for the accumulation of monosaccharides in Saccharum.

In addition, pGlcTs were isolated in chloroplast fractions and were suggested to function in sugar efflux from plastids in Arabidopsis (Weber *et al.*, 2000; Ferro *et al.*, 2003). In our study, two members of the pGlcT subfamily, $pGlcT1_T1$ and pGlcT2, were expressed during three stages. Among them, *pGlcT2* showed higher expression in the tested internodes during the pre-matured and matured stages of *S. spontaneum* compared to *S. officinarum*, but not in the leaf development section and circadian rhythms of two species. This phenomenon could be explained by the fact that *S. spontaneum* mainly accumulated the monosaccharide, while *S. officinarum* mainly generated sucrose for storage. In contrast, *pGlcT1_T1* was expressed at a background level in all tissues, suggesting *pGlcT2* is a sink-specific gene, which may be responsible for sugar unloading in the sink tissues.

The sugars produced by photosynthesis are transported from the source leaf to the parenchyma cells of the sugarcane sink stalks through the sieve elements. Based on the sugar metabolic features, the expression patterns of 105 STs, and the heterologous expression of defective yeasts, we have proposed a model that summarizes the spatial and temporal expression of these genes in the cells and tissues of sugarcane plants (Figure 5d). In the photosynthetic leaf tissues, especially in the maturing and matured zones, STP1/4/7/13/14, pGlcT1_T1, VGT2/3, INT2, PLT7/11/ 11_T1/12/17, and SUT1/1_T1/4 may play a primary role in exporting photosynthesized sugar or sugar alcohol from the leaf source tissue to the sink tissues, and STP1/13 and PLT12 may be responsible for retrieving the sugar in matured zones. Furthermore, the expression patterns of VGT2/3, PLT11/11_T1/12/17, STP4/7, and SUT1/1_T1 were coordinated with the circadian rhythm, implying they may be influenced by sunlight and responsible for respiratory action. In the transition zone of the leaves, where photosynthesis is less active than in the maturing and matured zones, STP4/6_T2/25_T1, SUT1_T1, and TMT3/4 may play a role in transporting sugars produced by photosynthesis. The basal zone serves as an immediate sink and connects the photosynthetic leaf tissue with the sink stalk, demonstrating SUT2/5, STP4/20, SFP8_T1, pGlcT2, VGT2/3, and TMT3/4 may play primary roles in accommodating the products of photosynthesis and unloading these products from the leaves to stems. PLT11/11_T1, SFP2_T2, pGlcT2, TMT3/4, STP20, and SUT1/1 T1/4 were expressed in the whole stalk during each developmental stage of Saccharum, indicating that they participate in the entire sugar accumulation process, while PLT4 and STP4 were primarily expressed in the pre-mature and matured stems, suggesting they may mediate the sugar efflux from the sieve elements in specific tissues. In addition, PLT11/11 T1, SUT4, and TMT3/4 may also participate in sugar accumulation in parenchyma cells and sugar transport in sclerenchyma cells, with SUT1/1_T1 possibly also being involved in sugar transport in sclerenchyma cells.

Conclusion

In the present study, we detected and analyzed 105 putative ST genes in the S. spontaneum genome, which were

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clustered into eight subfamilies. The PLT and STP subfamilies possessed more members than other subfamilies. Gene expansions were identified in the S. spontaneum ST family, which are likely caused by tandem duplications that occurred after S. spontaneum divergence from the common ancestor of Saccharum and S. bicolor. Expression analysis revealed STP4 plays a role in the production of loading sugar, STP13 has a function in retrieving sugar from senescent tissues, STP7 is a sugar starvation-induced gene, PLT11, PLT11_T1, TMT3, and TMT4 contribute to breaking the limitations of the storage sink, PLT17 appears to be a sugar alcohol starvation-induced gene involved in sugar alcohol transport in Saccharum, and SUT1 and SUT1_T1 cooperate to provide the sugar for respiration. VGT3 has different functions in these two Saccharum species. pGlcT2 is a sink-specific gene that may be responsible for sugar unloading in the sink tissues. Despite an abundance of expression data for Saccharum STs to predict their functions, the cooperation of the network of ST genes is still unknown. Our current data provide an important basis and direction for future research aiming to understand the functions of the ST genes and the molecular mechanisms of sucrose accumulation in Saccharum, and we also put forward a promising direction for molecular breeding in Saccharum.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Plant materials

Two Saccharum species with different sugar contents, LA-Purple (S. officinarum, 2n = 8x = 80, high sugar content) and SES208 (S. spontaneum, 2n = 8x = 64, low sugar content), were used in this study. Sugarcane seedlings were grown in soil-filled plastic pots under standard conditions (at a light intensity of 350 μmol m⁻² sec⁻¹, 14 h/10 h light (L)/dark (D), 30°C L/22°C D, and 60% relative humidity) in a greenhouse and then transferred to clay loam soil after 5-6 weeks. Stem and leaf tissues from seedlings were collected at 35 days from both Saccharum species. Leaf rolls, leaves, and internodes were harvested from well-watered 10- to 12-month-old plants. The internode numbers on the sugarcane stalk were determined as described previously (Moore, 1987). Briefly, the internode number 1 was the node below the top visible dewlap (TVD) leaf sheath attachment, and additional internodes were numbered consecutively down the stalk (Moore, 1987). In sugarcane, the upper internodes contain lower levels of sucrose than the bottom internodes, and thus the upper internode was considered as the immature internode while the bottom internode was considered as the mature internode (Vorster and Botha, 1999; Uys et al., 2007). We selected the upper (internode 3 in both S. offincarum and S. spontaneum), middle (internode 9 in S. offincarum and internode 6 in S. spontaneum), and bottom internodes (internode 15 in S. offincarum and internode 9 in S. spontaneum) from 12month-old S. offincarum and S. spontaneum for this study. For clarification, we have drawn a schematic diagram to illustrate the sampling of these tissues (Figure S6). The tissues were wrapped in foil paper, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and then stored at -80°C before RNA extraction.

Identification of ST protein in S. spontaneum

All *ST* genes in the *S. spontaneum* monoploid genome downloaded from Pfam (http://pfam.sanger.ac.uk/) were searched using HMMER software with E-value < 1E-5 based on the *Sugar_tr* domain (PF00083). The identified *ST* gene candidates were further confirmed based on the known *STs* from *A. thaliana* and *O. sativa* as a query through the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) (Altschul *et al.*, 1997). Finally, a total of 105 credible *STs* were identified from the *S. spontaneum* monoploid genome for further analysis.

Distribution and duplication of *ST* genes on pseudomolecular chromosomes

Using the general feature format files (gff3) of *ST* genes from the *S. spontaneum* monoploid genome database, the distribution of *ST* genes in *S. spontaneum* monoploid pseudo-chromosomes was drawn using R. The duplication pattern for each *ST* gene was analyzed, and 35 519 protein-coding genes from the *S. spontaneum* monoploid genome database were analyzed by an all-vs-all local BLAST search with E-value < 1E–5. The BLAST result was imported into MCScanX software (http://chibba.pgml.uga.edu/mc scan2/) for identifying tandem duplications and WGD/segmental duplications with default parameters (Wang *et al.*, 2012).

Phylogenetic analysis of the ST gene family

Based on the alignment of protein sequences, the phylogenetic tree of the *ST* gene family was constructed by NJ methods. The construction of the NJ tree was carried out using MEGA (version 7.0) with the 'pairwise deletion' option and the 'Poisson correction' model (Kumar *et al.*, 2016), and the reliability of internal branches was valued by the bootstrapping of 1000 replicates. These results were then imported into the interactive tree of life (iTOL) program for creating the phylogenetic tree (Letunic and Bork, 2016).

Ka/Ks calculation of tandem duplications

The coding sequence of tandem duplications for *ST* gene pairs was selected to calculate non-synonymous (Ka) and synonymous (Ks) substitution ratios by the Nei–Gojobori method (Kumar *et al.*, 2016). If Ka/Ks > 1, this indicates that the gene pairs are under positive selection, while Ka/Ks < 1 indicates purifying selection and Ka/Ks = 1 indicates neutral evolution.

Gene structure, conserved motifs, and physicochemical properties of *STs*

The conserved motifs of *ST* genes in *S. spontaneum* were analyzed using the MEME suite 4.11.1 program (http://meme.nbcr.net/meme/cgi-bin/meme.cgi) with the following parameters: optimum width, 15–60; maximum number of motifs, 600; number of repetitions, any; and maximum number of motifs, 15. The results were then imported into the TBtools program (Chen *et al.*, 2020) to display the conserved motifs for each *ST* gene. GSDS (http://gsds.cbi.pku.edu.cn) was used to determine the structure of *ST* genes (Hu *et al.*, 2015), and ExPASy (http://web.expasy.org/compute_pi/) was used to predict the isoelectric point and relative molecular mass of ST proteins. The amino acid sequences of the deduced proteins were submitted to the TMHMM Server v.2.0 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/) for predicting transmembrane domains and to WoLF PSORT (http://wolfpsort.hgc.jp) for predicting the subcellular localization of ST proteins.

Yeast heterologous expression of STs

The DNA sequence open reading frames (ORFs) of STP13, pGlcT2, TMT4, VGT3, and SUT1 T1 were amplified by PCR based on the cDNA from S. spontaneum and S. officinarum. The ORFs of ScHXT5 and AtSUC2 were cloned with primers containing the attB adapter from S. cerevisiae and A. thaliana, respectively, and then inserted into the yeast expression vector pDRf1-GW with Gateway[™] cloning (Xuan et al., 2013). The constructed vectors of Ss/ SoSTP13-pDRf1-GW, Ss/SopGlcT2-pDRf1-GW, Ss/SoTMT4-pDRf1-GW, Ss/SoVGT3-pDRf1-GW, Ss/SoSUT1_T1-pDRf1-GW, ScHXT5pDRf1-GW, and AtSUC2-pDRf1-GW were verified by Sanger sequencing, and then introduced into the yeast mutant EBY.VW4000, which is defective in hexose transport, using PEG/Li Ac-mediated transformation (Gietz and Schiestl, 2007). Yeast transformants were incubated on selective dropout (SD, -URA) medium containing 2% maltose as a carbon source for 2-3 days at 30°C. The presence of the constructed vectors in the yeast transformants was further verified by plasmid isolation and resequencing. For complementation growth assays, the transformants were grown in YNB liquid medium containing 2% maltose overnight, washed twice in sterile water, and then resuspended at an OD₆₀₀ value of 0.2. Subsequently, serial dilutions (×1, ×10, ×100, ×1000) were plated on SD (-URA) media containing either 2% maltose as positive control or 2% glucose, 2% fructose, or 2% sucrose. Growth was recorded after 2-4 days at 30°C.

Analysis of soluble sugar content

Tissue samples were obtained from 12-month-old sugarcane for the leaf roll, leaf, top immature internode (Stem 3), pre-matured internode (Stem 6 for *S. spontaneum* and Stem 9 for *S. officinarum*), and matured internode (Stem 9 for *S. spontaneum* and Stem 15 for *S. officinarum*) as previously described (Chen *et al.*, 2017). Approximately 0.1–0.2-g samples were used to determine the soluble sugar (TSS) content, and each sample was assayed with three replicates. Sugar was extracted using the soluble sugar (Sucrose, Fructose, p-Glucose) determination kit (Meike Biotechnology Co., Ltd, China). TSS concentrations were determined using a Thermo Fisher spectrophotometer (Type: 1510) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The detailed protocol for the kit is as follows.

Collect tissue in a 50-ml microcentrifuge tube and freeze by dipping in liquid nitrogen. Grind the tissue using a mortar and pestle. Transfer up to 0.1 g frozen ground plant tissue to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube for sucrose, fructose, and D-glucose determination.

D-*Glucose determination.* Add 1 ml distilled water and vortex at maximum speed to mix thoroughly. Place in a 100°C water bath for 10 min. Cool and centrifuge at 8000 *g* for 10 min at room temperature. For the test tube (*A*1), transfer 100 μ l lysate to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube and add 900 μ l mixed solution including glucose oxidase, peroxidase, 4-aminoantipyrine, and phenol. For the control tube (*A*2), mix 100 μ l distilled water and 900 μ l mixed solution. For the standard tube (*A*3), mix 100 μ l glucose standard solution (0.5 μ mol ml⁻¹) and 900 μ l mixed solution. Measure the OD₅₀₅ value with a spectrophotometer. Glucose content was calculated as follows:

 $\label{eq:Glucose content} \text{Glucose content}\,(\mu\text{mol}\,\text{ml}^{-1}) \!=\! \frac{0.5\,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{ml}^{-1}\times100\,\mu\text{l}\times(A1-A2)\div(A3-A2)}{0.1\,g\div(100\,\mu\text{l}+900\,\mu\text{l})\times100\,\mu\text{l}}$

Fructose determination. Add 1 ml extract solution and vortex 1 min. Place in an 80°C water bath for 10 min and oscillate three

to five times. Cool and centrifuge at 4000 g for 10 min at room temperature. Transfer the lysate to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube, add 2 mg activated carbon, and allow decolorization at 80°C for 30 min. Add 1 ml extract solution and centrifuge at 4000 g for 10 min at room temperature. For the test tube (*A1*), transfer 100 µl lysate to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube and add 900 µl mixed solution including phosphoric acid and resorcinol. For the control tube (*A2*), mix 100 µl distilled water and 900 µl mixed solution. For the standard tube (*A3*), mix 100 µl fructose standard solution (5 mg ml⁻¹) and 900 µl mixed solution. Mix well at 80°C for 10 min. Cool and measure the OD₄₈₀ value with a spectrophotometer. Fructose content was calculated as follows:

$$Fructose \ content \ \left(mg \ g^{-1}\right) = \frac{5 \ mg \ ml^{-1} \times 100 \ \mu l \times (A1 - A2) \div (A3 - A2)}{0.1 \ g}$$

Sucrose determination. Add 1 ml extract solution and vortex 1 min. Place in an 80°C water bath for 10 min and oscillate three to five times. Cool and centrifuge at 4000 g for 10 min at room temperature. Transfer the lysate to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube, add 2 mg activated carbon, and allow decolorization at 80°C for 30 min. Add 1 ml extract solution and centrifuge at 4000 g for 10 min at 25°C. For the test tube (A1), transfer 100 µl lysate to a new 2-ml microcentrifuge tube and add 50 µl NaOH solution. For the control tube (A2), mix 100 µl distilled water and 50 µl NaOH solution. For the standard tube (A3), mix 100 µl fructose standard solution (1 mg ml⁻¹) and NaOH solution. Mix well and place at 100°C for 5 min. Add 900 µl mixed solution including phosphoric acid and resorcinol to A1, A2, and A3. Mix well and place at 100°C for 10 min. Cool and measure the OD₄₈₀ value with a spectrophotometer. Sucrose content was calculated as follows:

Sucrose content $(mgg^{-1}) = \frac{1 mg ml^{-1} \times 100 \,\mu l \times (A1 - A2) \div (A3 - A2)}{0.1 \,g \times 100 \,\mu l \div 2 \,m l}$

Gene expression analysis by RNA-seq

RNA-seq data were obtained from the same sources as in our previous work (Zhang *et al.*, 2016), including the following sugarcane tissues: seedling stem and leaves, the top internode (i.e., internode 3), a maturing internode (i.e., internode 9 for 'LA-Purple' and 6 for 'SES208' due to the long internode), and a matured internode (i.e., internodes 15 and 9 for 'LA-Purple' and 'SES208', respectively) from 10- to 12-month-old plants. The *Saccharum* RNA-seq database was aligned to the reference gene models of *S. spontaneum* genome by Trinity with default settings (Grabherr *et al.*, 2013). RNA-seq quantitative analysis was completed by Trinity transcript quantification and the TPM value was calculated by the RNA-seq by expectation–maximization method.

Validation of ST expression by qRT-PCR

RNA ($\leq 1 \mu g$) from each tissue was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using a Reverse Transcriptase Kit (Takara, Beijing, China) in a 20µl reaction volume with 1 µl of random primers and 1 µl of mixed poly-dT primers (18–23 nt). Gene-specific primers (Table S1) were designed using the online Primer Quest tool (http://www.idtdna.c om/Primerquest/Home/Index) from Integrated DNA Technologies. qRT-PCR was performed by a Multicolor Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The PCR conditions were: 95°C for 30 sec, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 5 sec, 60°C for 30 sec, and 95°C for 10 sec. Melting curve analysis was performed to confirm PCR specificity with a heat dissociation protocol from 65°C to 95°C following the final cycle of PCR. To normalize the expression data, the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*) and eukaryotic elongation factor 1a (*eEF-1a*) genes (Ling *et al.*, 2014) were used as internal controls, and three replicates were performed for each sample. The relative expression levels for each *ST* gene in different tissues of the two *Saccharum* species were calculated with the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).

Co-expression network construction of STs

The whole genes of the *S. spontaneum* genome were clustered into the gene co-expression network by the R package 'WGCNA' (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008). The genes with TPM < 0.001 were filtered and the parameters for this network were set as follows: power = 12, MEDissThres = 0.25, nSelect = 400. Finally, the *ST* genes were chosen as hub genes to construct the co-expression network, and the candidate genes were imported into the network generation tool Cytoscape v3.7.1 (Shannon *et al.*, 2003) (https:// cytoscape.org/) to visualize the interactors.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JZ designed the experiments. QZ, XH, HL, JZ, and YY conceived the study. QZ, XH, HL, JZ, YS, MZ, RM, ZW, and YY performed the experiments and analyzed the data. QZ and JZ wrote the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final article.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Saccharum spontaneum gene sequence data and the related RNA-seq data of this study can be found in the Sugarcane database (SGD, http://sugarcane.zhangjise nlab.cn/sgd/html/index.html). The gene sequences of other species used in the study can be obtained from Phytozome (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html).

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Figure S1. Phylogenetic tree of the SFP subfamily from representative monocotyledons and dicotyledons.

Figure S2. Phylogenetic tree of the SUT subfamily from representative monocotyledons and dicotyledons.

Figure S3. Phylogenetic relationships, gene structures, and conserved protein motifs of the *S. spontaneum* ST superfamily. (a)

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The neighbor-joining (NJ) tree on the left includes 105 ST genes from *S. spontaneum*. The ST genes were clustered into nine subfamilies. (b) Exon/intron structures of ST genes from *S. spontaneum*. Exons and introns are represented by black boxes and black lines, respectively. (c) Architecture of conserved protein motifs in nine subfamilies. Each motif is represented by a colored box.

Figure S4. qRT-PCR verification of four STs transcriptome expression profile. Comparison of RNA-seq data (blue bar) with qRT-PCR data (red line). The normalized expression level (TPM) of RNA-seq data is indicated on the left *y*-axis. The relative qRT-PCR expression level is shown on the right y-axis. Actin was used as the internal control. Both methods showed similar gene expression trends (color figure online).

Figure S5. The correlation network of differentially expressed STs in two *Saccharum* species. The correlation networks of STP7 (a) and PLT17 (b) in *S. officinarum* (left) and *S. spontaneum* (right), with each node representing a gene and the connecting lines (edges) between genes representing co-expression correlations. The circle size and color indicate the degree of gene interaction.

Figure S6. Schematic diagram illustrating the tissue collections of internodes in *S. spontaneum* and *S. officinarum*. The upper (internode 3 in both *S. offincarum* and *S. spontaneum*), middle (internode 9 in *S. offincarum* and internode 6 in *S. spontaneum*), and bottom internodes (internode 15 in *S. offincarum* and internode 9 in *S. spontaneum*) from 12-month-old *S. offincarum* and *S. spontaneum* were collected for this study.

Table S1. The primers used for qRT-PCR in Saccharum.

Table S2. Comparison of SUT subfamily genes in *S. spontaneum* and *S. bicolor*.

Table S3. The Ka/Ks ratios of tandem duplication gene pairs.

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