Article Title: Adapting C_4 photosynthesis to atmospheric change and increasing productivity by elevating Rubisco content in Sorghum and Sugarcane.

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Abstract

Meta-analyses and theory show that with rising atmospheric [CO_2], Rubisco has become the greatest limitation to light-saturated leaf CO_2-uptake (A_{sat}) in C_4 crops. So would transgenically increasing Rubisco increase A_{sat} and result in increased productivity in the field? Here, we successfully overexpressed the Rubisco small subunit (RBCS) with Rubisco accumulation factor 1 (RAF1) in both sorghum and sugarcane, resulting in significant increases in Rubisco content of 13-25% and up to 90% respectively. A_{sat} increased 12-15% in three independent transgenic events of both species. Sorghum plants also showed increased speeds of photosynthetic induction and decreased bundle sheath leakiness. These improvements translated into average increases of 15.5% in biomass in field-grown sorghum and a 37-81% increase in greenhouse-grown sugarcane. This suggests a potential opportunity to achieve substantial increases in productivity of this key economically important clade of C_4 crops, future proofing their value under global atmospheric change.

Significance Statement

The world is projected to need a 60% increase in food supply by 2050 (UN), and this must be achieved under conditions of global change without expanding onto yet more land. C_4 crops, while few in number, account for a large proportion of agricultural productivity. We reason that rising atmospheric [CO_2] has very recently made Rubisco, the enzyme used for all carbon fixation in plants, the greatest limitation to light saturated photosynthesis in C_4 crops. We demonstrate that transgenically increasing Rubisco content in sorghum and sugarcane, increases their photosynthetic efficiency and productivity, including in a field trial of sorghum. This shows a means to sustainably increase the productivity of this key group of crops.

Introduction

While very few of the 161 crop species listed by UN-FAO use C_4 photosynthesis, their importance and potential in terms of global food, feed and biomass production is exceptional[1]. For total global biomass harvested, sugarcane (*Saccharum* hybrids) is number one and maize (*Zea mays* L.) number one for seed harvested[1,2]. Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) is the fourth most important cereal in global production, only behind, maize, rice and wheat, but it is the major cereal of the semi-arid tropics [1]. While grown for biomass, the C_4 crops energycane and Miscanthus show exceptional productivity[3-6]. These crops all belong to the monophyletic grass tribe Andropogonae.

The leaves of C_4 plants contain an outer layer of mesophyll cells surrounding the bundle sheath cells. CO_2 diffuses from the sub-stomatal cavity into the mesophyll cytoplasm, where it combines with phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) to form oxaloacetate (OAA), catalyzed by cytoplasmic PEP carboxylase (PEPC). OAA is reduced to malate in the mesophyll chloroplasts and then diffuses to the bundle sheath where it is decarboxylated by $NADP^+$-dependent malic enzyme (NADP-ME) creating a high $[CO_2]$ around Ribulose-1:5 bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco). The decarboxylation product, pyruvate, diffuses back to the mesophyll where, catalyzed by Pyruvate Pi dikinase (PPDK), it is phosphorylated to PEP at the expense of 2ATP, completing the photosynthetic C_4 cycle[7]. This photosynthetic C_4 cycle is in effect a light energy driven CO_2 pump that elevates the $[CO_2]$ around Rubisco to a level that is sufficient to competitively inhibit oxygenation, preventing photorespiration and avoiding the significant losses of photosynthetic efficiency that this causes in C_3 species[8]. Its benefits are such that considerable effort is being placed into engineering the C_4 pathway into C_3 crops[9-11]. Tests under open-air conditions using Free-Air Concentration Enrichment (FACE) technology, have shown that higher $[CO_2]$ increases the photosynthetic efficiency, and in turn productivity, of C_3 crops, but not these C_4 crops [12-16]. Thus, rising atmospheric $[CO_2]$ could progressively erode the current production advantage of C_4 plants[17]. However, analysis of metabolic and physiological limitations indicate that C_4 plants could be modified to also gain photosynthetic efficiency at today's and future atmospheric $[CO_2]$ [18-20].

Light-saturated leaf CO_2 uptake (A_{sat}) in C_4 plants rises sharply with intercellular CO_2 concentration (C_i) to a plateau, where A_{sat} remains constant with further increase in C_i [7]. In maize crops grown in the field at both ambient and elevated atmospheric CO_2, this transition was shown to occur at a C_i of about 120 µmol mol^{-1}, above which A_{sat} is $[CO_2]$-saturated [15]. A meta-analysis of 842 measured A-C_i responses in 49 C_4 species showed the point of CO_2 saturation is consistent across a broad range of C_4 species, and unaffected by growth at either sub-ambient or supra-ambient $[CO_2]$ [19]. Because of their lower stomatal conductance (g_s) relative to A_{sat}, the drawdown of $[CO_2]$ between the atmosphere (C_a) and intercellular air space (C_i) is greater in C_4 leaves, resulting in a ratio (C_i/C_a) of about 0.4, compared to 0.7 in C_3 species.

These ratios in non-water stressed plants are apparently unaffected by the $[CO_2]$ of the growth
environment [12]. At today's C_a of 428 μmol mol^{-1} [21], C_i in photosynthesizing C$_4$ leaves should be
about 170 μmol mol^{-1}. Therefore, at current and future atmospheric $[CO_2]$, C$_4$ photosynthesis is
$[CO_2]$ saturated. Historically this was not the case. The average C_a of the last 40,000 years in
which our crop ancestors evolved was 220 μmol mol^{-1} and assuming a C_i/C_a, of 0.4 under these
conditions average C_i would have been 88 μmol mol^{-1}, well below the indicated saturation point
of about 120 μmol mol^{-1} [12,22]. At this C_i photosynthesis would be operating on the initial slope of
the response of A to C_i. The mechanistic steady-state mathematical model of C$_4$ photosynthesis
shows that this initial slope is determined by the activity of PEPC and mesophyll conductance
(g_m); g_m being the ease with which CO_2 can diffuse from the sub-stomatal cavity into the
mesophyll cytoplasm[7]. The plateau however, is limited by the activity of Rubisco, and
potentially electron transport[7]. Recent non-steady state metabolic modeling and
measurements show Rubisco activity also having significant control over the efficiency of
photosynthesis in fluctuating light [23,24]. Consistent with these predictions, transgenic knock-
down studies showed metabolic control of the initial slope of the A-C_i response to reside with
PEPC activity and the plateau shared by Rubisco and PPDK, with Rubisco accounting for 70% of
the control [25]. This indicates that up-regulation of Rubsico would increase A_{sat} in today's
elevated $[CO_2]$ atmosphere.

Form I Rubisco, found in plants, is made up from eight small subunits (SS) encoded by the
nuclear gene family *RBCS* and eight large subunits (LS) encoded by the chloroplast gene *rbcL*.
Previously, transgenic increase in Rubisco content, by overexpression of the Rubisco small-
subunit (*RBCS*) and Rubisco accumulation factor 1 (*RAF1*) genes, increased A_{sat} and plant growth
of maize under optimal and chilling growth conditions [26,27]. However, this was confined to a
single hybrid genotype of maize grown in controlled environments. To test the hypothesis that
this improvement would be more generally possible across this key economic clade of crops
and result in increased productivity in the field and greenhouse, Rubisco was up-regulated in
both sorghum and sugarcane.

Results

Transgenic overexpression of RBCS and RAF1 increases Rubisco abundance in sorghum and
sugarcane

Two transgenes, each designed to upregulate RBCS and RAF1, were stably transformed into
sorghum and sugarcane (Fig.1a). The construct transformed into sorghum contains constitutive
promoters, while the one transformed into sugarcane contains bundle sheath specific
promoters as well as C-terminal epitope tags FLAG and HA. Three independent events were
obtained for each species and wild-type (WT), from which the transformants were derived,
propagated alongside these. In sorghum, homozygous plants were obtained from each single

insertion event (hn1a, zg12a and zg5b) at T2. Commercial sugarcane is clonally propagated,
and the three events (3, 9, and 25) were effectively clones of the T0 events.

qPCR confirmed transgene expression in sorghum lines characterized in both the greenhouse
and field. All three transgenic events showed high levels of *ZmRBCS* and *ZmRAF1* expression,
with none in the WT (Fig. S1a-d). Immunoblots similarly showed high RAF1 protein expression
in the transgenic lines relative to WT (Fig. 1b). Epitope tags showed expression of sorghum SS
and RAF1 proteins in the sugarcane transformants (Fig. 1c).

Rubisco content, measured by the ^{14}C-CABP binding assay, was significantly increased by 13-
25% in sorghum, and by 90% and 39% in sugarcane events 3 and 25 respectively (Fig. 1d,e). No
significant increase was measured in event 9, even though immunoblots showed the presence
of the recombinant SS and RAF1, although the latter at lower levels than in events 3 and 25 (Fig.
1c). There were no differences in total soluble protein between WT and transgenic plants in
either sorghum or sugarcane (Table S2).

Fig. 1: Sorghum and sugarcane transformation constructs, protein expression and analysis of Rubisco content.

(a) Transgenes designed to upregulate Rubisco small subunit (SS) and Rubisco accumulation factor 1 (RAF1). The transgenes were stably transformed into sorghum (top) and sugarcane (bottom). Sb, *Sorghum bicolor*; Zm, *Zea*

mays. **(b)** Total soluble protein isolated on a leaf area basis from sorghum and **(c)** sugarcane, and analyzed by
immunoblot. Three replicate plants (Rep) of each of the three transgenic events and of the wildtype (WT) control
were probed with antibodies indicated to the left. **(d)** Average Rubisco content per unit leaf area quantified by [14]C-
CABP binding in 6-week-old sorghum (n=8), and **(e)** 9-week-old sugarcane (n=6) grown in the greenhouse. Values
are shown as the mean $\pm$ SEM. Asterisks indicate significant differences between WT and the transgenic line (*P <
0.05); one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test.

Co-upregulation of RBCS and RAF1 is correlated with increased $V_{c,max}$, CO$_2$ assimilation, and
photosynthetic light induction in sorghum

A-C_i responses showed that upregulated RBCS and RAF1 significantly increased assimilation
rates above a C_i of ~100 µmol mol^{-1}, but not below (Fig. 2a). Maximum *in vivo* Rubisco
carboxylation rates ($V_{c,max}$) at 25 °C, estimated from the A-C_i response, were significantly
increased by 12% in the transgenic lines (Fig 2b), while maximum PEPC carboxylation rates
($V_{p,max}$) did not differ (Table 1). A_{sat} measured at the current atmospheric [CO$_2$] was similarly
increased in the transgenic lines (Fig. 2c). g_{sw} also increased in concert with A_{sat} such that no
differences in C_i were observed between genotypes (Table 1). The effective quantum yield of
PSII (Φ_{PSII}), measured by modulated chlorophyll fluorescence, was increased by 12% in the
transformed plants in parallel with CO$_2$ assimilation (Table 1).

To identify if increased Rubisco would be beneficial to the activation of photosynthesis on
shade to sun transition, induction of A over the first 30 min of transfer to high-light (PPFD =
1800 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) was measured (Fig. 2d). CO$_2$ assimilation in the transgenic lines was
significantly higher than WT after 3 minutes of illumination following dark acclimation (Fig. 2e)
and remained higher for the remaining 27 minutes of measurement (Fig. 2d). Induction curves,
normalized to the average A value over the last 5 minutes of illumination (A_{max}) were used to
assess the speed of photosynthetic activation (Fig. S2a). On average, the transgenics took 4
minutes to reach 50% maximum CO$_2$ assimilation rates (A_{max}), compared to 6 minutes for WT
(Fig. 2f). The transgenics were significantly taller and had more leaves than WT in the
greenhouse (Fig. S3). Seed from these plants was collected for the field trial.

Fig 2: CO₂ response curves and photosynthetic induction to light of greenhouse grown sorghum plants.

(a) Response of net CO_2 assimilation (A_{sat}) to intercellular [CO_2] (C_i). Measurements were made under the following conditions: light intensity of 1800 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹, leaf temperature of 28 °C, and VPD 1.5 kPa. Measurement cuvette

[CO_2] were varied from 10-1500 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2. Open points represent the measured value closest to the
operating C_i (i.e the C_i where ambient CO_2 was 420 µmol mol^{-1}). **(b)** Maximum *in vivo* Rubisco carboxylation rate
($V_{c,max}$) at 25 °C estimated from response curves in panel **a**. **(c)** A_{sat} measured at 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 **(d)** Induction of
net CO_2 assimilation during the first 30 min of illumination at PPFD 1800 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. **(e)** Average CO_2 assimilation
during the first 180 seconds of induction. **(f)** Time for A to reach 50% of A_{max}, where A_{max} is the average A from 25
to 30 minutes of illumination. Measurements were made on 5-week-old plants. Values are shown as the mean $\pm$
SEM (n =7-10). Asterisks indicate significant differences between WT and the transgenic line (*P < 0.05); one-way
ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test.

RBCS-RAF1 transgenic sorghum plants have increased photosynthesis and biomass under field conditions

A field trial in summer 2023 evaluated whether gains observed in the greenhouse could be
reproduced in a replicated field trial of 4-row plots. A randomized complete block design was
used with 6 replicate plots for each of the three RBCS-RAF1 transgenic events and WT (Fig. 4d;
Fig. S4a). A-C_i responses and light induction curves measured during the vegetative growth
stage were consistent with the greenhouse results. $V_{c,max}$, was again increased, with no increase
in the initial slope of the response, and light induction of A was faster (Fig 3a,b). These
increases were also observed at boot stage but were absent during grain-filling (Fig. 3c,d).
Bundle sheath leakiness (Φ), the rate that CO_2 not fixed by Rubisco leaks from bundle sheath
back to mesophyll, was measured by combining gas exchange with carbon isotope
discrimination during the vegetative growth stage. In concert with increased $V_{c,max}$, Φ was
decreased by about 18% across all three transgenic lines (Fig. S5).

The field grown transgenic sorghum plants were also more vigorous than the WT, as evidenced
by a significant 15.5% increase in vegetative dry biomass at harvest (Fig. 4a). However, there
was no increase in seed biomass, which corresponded to a significant decrease in harvest index
(seed mass/total plant mass) compared to the WT (Fig. 4b-c). Leaf mass, chlorophyll content, N
and C contents, on a leaf area basis, did not differ between the WT and transgenic plants (Table
S2).

Fig. 3: CO₂ response curves and photosynthetic induction to light of field grown sorghum plants.

(a) Response of light-saturated CO₂ uptake (A_{sat}) to intercellular [CO₂] (C_i) and **(b)** induction of A during the first 30 min of illumination at PPFD 1800 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} of sorghum plants in the vegetative growth stage. **(c)** A_{sat} - C_i response of sorghum plants in the boot and **(d)** grain-filling growth stages. Open symbols on each curve show the measured value closest to the operating C$_i$ (where ambient CO₂ is 420 µmol mol^{-1}). Values are shown as the mean ± SEM (n =4-6).

Fig. 4: Plant growth traits in field grown sorghum plants.

(a) Average dry leaf and stem biomass per plot and **(b)** average seed biomass per plot from field grown sorghum plants. **(c)** Harvest index (seed mass/total shoot mass) per plot. Values are shown as the mean $\pm$ SEM (n = 6 plots). Asterisks indicate significant differences between WT and the transgenic line (**P < 0.05, *P < 0.1); one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test. P values above each bar from Dunnett's post hoc test. **(d)** Side view of 4 of the 24 four-row plots of the four sorghum genotypes tested at boot stage in the field in Urbana, Illinois summer 2023 (see Fig. S4a for full experimental design).

Co-upregulation of RBCS and RAF1 in sugarcane increases photosynthetic efficiency and plant productivity

Measurements were made on 8-week-old greenhouse grown sugarcane plants. As in sorghum, A-C_i responses showed significant increases in *in vivo* Rubisco activity ($V_{c,max}$) with no change in the initial slope ($V_{p,max}$, Fig. 5a,c; Table 1). Similarly, A_{sat} was significantly increased at ambient atmospheric [CO_2] in the transgenics (Fig. 5d). There were no significant differences in g_{sw} or C_i: however, there was a marginal increase in Φ_{PSII} in events 3 and 25 (Table 1). Assimilation of CO_2 was greater over the 30 minute light induction, in events 3 and 25, but not event 9 (Fig. 5b, Fig. S6).

251   Transgenic events 3 and 25 showed significant increases in main stem, and tiller and leaf dry

252   mass, amounting to total shoot dry mass increases of 37% and 81% respectively, but with no

253   increase in event 9 (Fig. 5e-g). Significant increases in plant height, stem width and leaf number

254   were also observed in events 3 and 25 compared to WT (Fig. S7). Leaf chlorophyll and mass per

255   unit area did not differ between genotypes (Table S2).

Fig 5: CO₂ response curves and plant growth traits of greenhouse grown sugarcane plants.

(a) Response of light-saturated CO_2 uptake (A_{sat}) to intercellular [CO_2] (C_i). Measurements were at light intensity of 1800 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}, leaf temperature 30 °C, and 65% humidity. Measurement cuvette [CO_2] was varied from 10-1500 µmol mol^{-1}. Open symbols show the measured value closest to the operating C_i (where ambient [CO_2] was 420 µmol mol^{-1}). **(b)** Induction of A during the first 30 min of illumination at PPFD 1800 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. **(c)** Maximum

Rubisco carboxylation rate *in vivo* ($V_{c,max}$) at 25 °C estimated from response curves in panel **a**. **(d)** A_{sat} at 450 µmol
mol^{-1} CO_2 **from panel a (e)** Leaf and tiller, **(f)** main stem, and **(g)** above ground total dry biomass of greenhouse
grown sugarcane plants. Values are shown as the mean $\pm$ SEM (n =8-10). Asterisks indicate significant differences
between WT and the transgenic lines (*P < 0.05); one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test.

Discussion

Theoretical and experimental analyses have long suggested Rubisco to be the major limitation
of light-saturated photosynthesis in both C_3 and C_4 species[7,18-20,28]. Consistent with this
hypothesis, transgenic up-regulation of Rubisco content significantly increased light-saturated
leaf CO_2 uptake (A_{sat}) in both sorghum and sugarcane (Fig. 2a-c, 3a-c, and 5a-d). The speed of
light induction of CO_2 uptake rate was also increased (Fig. 2d-f and 3b). This has critical
importance to increasing photosynthetic efficiency under the fluctuating light conditions of
crop canopies in the field[29,30]. Also consistent with limitation by Rubisco, bundle sheath
leakiness was decreased (Fig. S5). Finally, and in concert with these increases in photosynthetic
efficiency, a field trial of sorghum and a greenhouse trial of sugarcane showed significant
increases in productivity relative to the wild-type from which the transgenics were derived
(Figs. 4 and 5).

Rubisco is, by far, the most abundant single protein in leaves, constituting up to 50% of soluble
protein in C_3 plants and 20-30% in C_4[31]. These high amounts are attributed to the need to offset
the exceptionally low catalytic rate of carboxylation (k_{cat}) of Rubisco relative to other enzymes.
Its low k_{cat} is in turn considered in part a consequence of high specificity for CO_2 relative to the
alternative substrate of O_2[32]. Sage & McKown[33] noted the much lower available tissue volume
that could house Rubisco in C_4 leaves, where it is functionally confined to the bundle sheath,
suggesting this as a constraint. This is less than half the volume available in C_3 leaves. However,
3D microscopic analysis of the bundle sheath chloroplast stromal volume in *Miscanthus* x
giganteus suggested capacity for a doubling of actual Rubisco content[34]. *Miscanthus* is closely
related to sorghum and sugarcane, and within the same subtribe, Saccharinae[35]. This
observation is consistent with the observed increases in Rubisco content of 25% in sorghum
and up to 90% in sugarcane (Fig. 1d-e). The much higher level in sugarcane may reflect that this
was achieved by biolistic transformation, which could have resulted in multiple insertions of the
transgenes, while the three sorghum events were single insertion events.

Given that increased Rubisco production is possible and beneficial, why have natural selection
and breeding not achieved this? One explanation is that Rubisco might only have become a
limitation very recently, due to rising atmospheric [CO_2]. On March 16, 2024, atmospheric [CO_2]
was recorded at 428 µmol mol^{-1} [21], which is almost double the average atmospheric [CO_2] of the
past 40,000 years [22,36]. Theory suggests that under the conditions in which our crop ancestors
evolved, Rubisco would not be a limitation and therefore selection pressure would have been

lacking, with the result that there may be little genetic variation for natural or breeder selection
as [CO_2] rises. Indeed given the large nitrogen cost of Rubisco, historically, selection pressure
was likely against any increase. It should be noted that half of the increase in [CO_2] has occurred
in the last 50 years, with [CO_2] rising from 323 µmol mol^{-1} to 428 µmol mol^{-1} between 1974 and
2024 [21]. By reference to the open symbols in Fig. 3, it is seen that at today's atmospheric [CO_2]
A_{sat} in the field-grown sorghum is controlled by the plateau of the A-C_i response, i.e.
predominantly by Rubisco activity. However, if it is assumed that C_i/C_a has been conserved,
then at the atmospheric [CO_2] in 1974, C_i would equal 129 µmol mol^{-1}. By reference to Fig. 3,
A_{sat} would then be mostly controlled by the initial slope of the A-C_i response, i.e. PEP
carboxylase activity ($V_{p,max}$), and insensitive to increase in Rubisco activity. The period in which
Rubisco has become limiting is therefore very short in terms of reproductive cycles. As
atmospheric [CO_2] continues to rise, Rubisco limitations will increase, and elevation of Rubisco
will be an important means to contribute toward future-proofing and advancing C_4 crop
productivity.

An increase in A_{sat} was achieved here by only up-regulating expression of *RBCS* and *RAF1,* which
infers three factors important for future manipulations. First, for Rubisco to be increased, both
the large (LS) and small (SS) sub-units, must be increased. That only up-regulation of *RBCS* was
needed, is consistent with the observations that *rbcL* is subject to assembly-dependent
translational regulation, and so controlled by the supply of SS [37]. Second, although all three
transgenic sugarcane events showed expression of the SbRBCS protein, in event 9 this did not
translate into improved productivity (Fig. 1c-e and 5e-g). Expression of SbRAF1 was lowest in
this line, suggesting the importance of effective expression of RAF1 with RBCS (Fig.1c). Third,
there must either be 1) over-capacity in the C_4 cycle or 2) the C_4 cycle increases capacity in
concert with increased Rubisco activity. The fact that bundle sheath leakiness of CO_2 decreased
and $V_{p,max}$ did not increase with increased Rubisco is consistent with hypothesis 1[24].

In dense modern crop canopies, only the uppermost leaves might experience light saturated
conditions. Most leaves will experience frequent light fluctuations, or sunflecking, due to the
passage of clouds, shadowing by overlying leaves as solar angle changes and wind driven
movements[29,30]. The speed with which photosynthetic efficiency can adjust to light fluctuations
has been shown to have a profound effect on whole crop daily CO_2 assimilation and
productivity[38,39]. A key factor here is the speed of induction of A on transfer of a leaf from
shade to sun. Modeling and experimental studies have shown the speed at which Rubisco
activity increases to be critical to induction in both C_3 and C_4 crops[23,40,41]. Here, increased
Rubisco content coincided with more total CO_2 assimilation over the 30 minutes of induction in
all three sorghum events and two of the sugarcane events. Activation of Rubisco requires the
chaperone protein Rubisco activase (RCA), suggesting that these events must have had
sufficient RCA to support the activation of their additional Rubisco (Fig. 2d, 3b, 5b).

In the greenhouse, significant increases in growth of both sorghum and sugarcane were
observed at an individual plant level (Fig. 5e-g; Fig. S3). Importantly, and consistent with
increased CO_2 assimilation rates during vegetative and boot stages, leaf and stem biomass was
significantly increased by an average of 15.5% in the RBCS-RAF1 sorghum field plots relative to
the WT controls, a desired characteristic for C_4 biomass crops (Fig. 4a). However, grain yield per
plot did not increase, due to a significant decrease in harvest index (Fig.4c). Although sorghum
cultivar RTx430 has become the standard for transformation and experimental analyses, it is a
40-year old inbred line[42-44] and might be sink-limited. Sink limitation at grain filling results in
accumulation of non-structural carbohydrates in the source tissues, causing down-regulation of
photosynthetic genes, notably *RBCS* [45]. The loss of *in vivo* Rubisco activity ($V_{c,max}$) during grain
filling evident in Fig. 3 is consistent with sink limitation. Testing whether greater grain yields can
be obtained will require the production of hybrids and/or transformation of current elite
cultivars. Up-regulation of Rubisco has been achieved here, as a test of the concept that more
Rubisco would translate to more efficient photosynthesis and productivity in today's
atmosphere, by addition of extra copies of *RBCS* and *RAF1.* Alternatively, a future approach for
upregulating Rubisco could be using DNA editing to mutate repressive elements in the
promoter regions of the native *RBCS* and *RAF1* genes.

Despite significant breeding efforts, the average yield of sorghum has not changed over 30
years, nor has the yield of sugarcane in the USA in the last 20 years (Fig. S8a,b). This might
reflect increasingly adverse weather conditions. However, even in the USA where it might be
assumed that favorable agronomy would allow the yield potential to be realized, there is little
evidence of yield improvement since 1991, even in the most favorable years (Fig. S8a).
Therefore, if the photosynthetic and productivity improvements found here by up-regulating
Rubisco translate into parallel yield improvements in elite cultivars and hybrids, this could be
very useful for integration into breeding programs. This successful test-of-concept suggests
multi-location and/or multi-year replicated yield trials of Rubisco up-regulation in elite material
as the next proving step. Given the great value and global significance of this key economic
clade of crops both for food and biomass, the results here indicate an important opportunity to
achieve increased productivity under rising atmospheric [CO_2].

Methods

Sorghum plasmid assembly and transformation

A 3.6 kb fragment containing the Raf1 expression cassette regulated by the maize ubiquitin
promoter was isolated from the plasmid pPTN1063[26] by digesting the vector with *Kpn*I and
*Hind*III. The fragment was then blunted with T4 DNA polymerase and ligated with a linearized
pPTN438[37] (containing the RBCS expression cassette), via *Kpn*I digestion and blunted with T4

DNA polymerase, resulting in the final binary vector pPTN1589. Sorghum inbred RTx430 was
transformed using agrobacterium as previously described[46].

Sugarcane plasmid assembly

Recombinant DNA constructs were assembled with Golden Gate cloning to highly express
Rubisco small subunit (*RBCS*) and Rubisco accumulation factor 1 (*RAF1*) from *Sorghum bicolor* in
sugarcane. The open reading frame (ORF) of *SbRBCS* (Sobic.005G042000) and ORF of *SbRAF1*
(Sobic.006G269400) were synthesized with 1X FLAG tag and 6X HA tag, respectively (GenScript,
Piscataway, NJ). *SbRBCS*-FLAG was subcloned under transcriptional control of the maize RBCS
promoter + 5'UTR and the *Panicum virgatum* UBI2 (PvUBI2) terminator. The synthesized
SbRAF1-HA was subcloned under transcriptional control of the maize NADP-ME promoter and
Panicum virgatum UBI1 (PvUBI1) terminator. The selectable marker gene *npt*II was subcloned
under transcriptional control of the ubiquitin promoter from *Zea mays* and SbHSP16.9
terminator from *Sorghum bicolor*. The three expression cassettes were subcloned into a L2
construct downstream of an RB7 matrix attachment region (MAR) and upstream of TM2 MAR
from *Nicotiana tabacum* serving as insulators and confirmed by Sanger sequencing. The
minimal expression construct flanked by MARs was excised from the plasmid backbone using
the *I-Sce*1 restriction enzyme and gel purified prior to biolistic transformation into sugarcane.

Generation and PCR confirmation of transgenic sugarcane plants

The linearized, minimal construct containing *SbRBCS*, *SbRAF1* and NPTII cassettes flanked by
matrix attachment regions was introduced into sugarcane cv. CPCL02-0926 by biolistic gene
transfer as described previously[47]. Briefly, cross-sections of sugarcane leaf whorls above the
shoot apical meristem were cultured on a modified Murashige & Skoog medium (MS) with B5
vitamins (PhytoTech Labs, KS, USA) supplemented with 3 mg/L of 2,4-Dichloro phenoxy acetic
acid (PhytoTech Labs, KS, USA) and maintained at 28 ℃ in the dark for induction of
embryogenic callus. For biolistic gene transfer, the minimal expression cassette was coated
onto gold particles and introduced into embryogenic calli using biolistic PDS-1000/He delivery
system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) as described previously[48]. Following 4 weeks of selection of
transformed calli on the medium containing the antibiotic Geneticin®, calli were sub-cultured
onto regeneration media (MS media with B5 vitamins, supplemented with 1.86 mg/L of α-
Naphthaleneacetic acid/NAA (PhytoTech Labs, KS, USA) and 0.09 mg/L of 6-
Benzylaminopurine/BAP (PhytoTech Labs, KS, USA)) and maintained at 28 ℃ incubator with
16/8 hr light (100 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) and dark cycle. Regenerated shoots were transferred to
modified MS basal medium (PhytoTech Labs, KS, USA) for shoot elongation and rooting. Rooted
plantlets were transferred to soil and acclimatized in a temperature-controlled growth chamber
maintained at 28 ℃ day and 22 ℃ night temperature with 16/8 hr light (400 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) and
dark cycle for growth and further analysis.

For the PCR confirmation of transgenic events, DNA was isolated from 100 mg of leaf tissues
using CTAB method with modifications[49]. PCR reactions were performed on a thermocycler
(Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) using standard Taq buffer, dNTPs and hot start Taq
polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc, Ipswich, MA). A construct specific primer (Forward:
Primer-1F: 5'- TAATGGTGGTGTAGCTCGACG -3', Reverse: Primer-1R: 5'-
TGGCTTGGTTAGGTTTGGCT -3' and marker gene specific primers NPTII_F: 5'-
TACCTGCCCATTCGACCACC-3' and 5'-TAAAGCACGAGGAAGCGGTC-3') were used for PCR
amplification and yielded 209 bp and 345 bp amplicons, respectively. Amplicons were resolved
with electrophoresis on a 1.2% agarose gel and visualized under UV transilluminator (Bio-Rad,
Hercules, CA).

Plant growth – greenhouse conditions

T2 homozygous *Sorghum bicolor* (inbred RTx430) seeds from 3 independent single insertion
events and non-transformed WT seeds from the same harvest date were sowed into plastic
potting trays 6 cm x 6 cm x 5.4 cm deep, filled with BM7 growing medium (BM7 All-Purpose
Bark Mix, Berger). After about 14 days seedlings were transplanted into 9.5L plastic pots filled
with BM7 growing medium supplemented with 44 cm^3 of 13-13-13 (N-P-K) granulated slow-
release fertilizer (Osmocote, ICL-Growing Solutions). Sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum* cv.
CPCL02-0926) plantlets clonally propagated from three independent T0 transformation events
and non-transformed WT plants were also grown in the greenhouse. Single node segments
from mature stalks were transplanted into 9.5L plastic pots filled with BM7 growing medium
supplemented with 44 cm^3 of 13-13-13 (N-P-K) granulated slow-release fertilizer. Both sorghum
and sugarcane were grown under natural illumination with an additional 350 to 450 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}
of LED light. Lights turned on from 6:30am to 9:30pm (15 hour days) and turned off when
outside light intensity surpassed 350 watts/m^2 (~800 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}). The greenhouse temperature
was kept between 25-28°C in the day and 24-26 °C at night. Both sorghum and sugarcane plants
were fertilized with a rotation of 20-10-20 & 15-5-15 liquid fertilizer (JR Peters INC) at 300 ppm
N twice a week. Once a month a MgSO$_4$ (100 ppm) and iron (10 ppm) drench was applied
(Sprint 138, BASF Corporation).

Sugarcane plants were harvested after 2 months of growth. Immediately prior to harvesting,
leaf number (fully expanded), tiller number, plant height and stem width were measured. Stem
width was measured at the widest point approximately 5 cm above the soil using calipers.
Height was measured from the soil to the top of the youngest fully expanded leaf (leaf collar
present). Leaf mass per area (LMA) was measured from 3.15 cm^2 of leaf discs, which were dried
until constant weight and weight recorded. Chlorophyll content was measured using a SPAD
meter (502, Spectrum Technologies). Harvested material was partitioned into main stem
biomass and leaf plus tiller biomass and dried at 60°C to steady state weight. Above ground
biomass was calculated as the sum of stem, leaf and tiller biomass.

Plant growth – field conditions

Sorghum seed obtained from the plants in the greenhouse experiment were harvested and used for a field experiment. A randomized complete block design with six blocks was used. Each block contained 16 rows in a north-south direction, made up of four rows from each of the transgenic lines and WT control (Fig. S4a). Prior to planting the ground was worked with a field cultivator (April 27 2023), and no fertilizer was applied to the soil. Seeds were sowed using a precision planter at a density of 8.6 m^{-2} (Almaco) on June 2nd on the Crop Sciences Farm of the University of Illinois SoyFACE Experimental Station (40°02'36.0"N 88°13'48.5"W). Weather data was collected with an automatic weather station on the Farm (Fig. S4b-d). July 5th Warrior II with Zeon technology (Syngenta) was applied at a moderate rate of 0.07 dm^3/ha for the control of flea beetles. August 2nd Mustang Maxx (FMC Corporation) was applied at moderate rate of 0.1 dm^3/ha for the control of aphids.

To avoid any release of pollen, paper bags enclosed the panicles, sealed at the peduncle, prior to anthesis, and remaining until harvest. Plants were harvested by hand on October 4th from the middle two rows of each plot by cutting stems at ground level. Two plants from either end of each row were discarded to avoid edge effects. Harvested material was partitioned into stem/leaves and panicles with seed. Stem and leaves were dried to a constant weight in custom made drying ovens at 60°C and panicles with seed were dried at 30°C. Dry weights per block were obtained for both, then seed was collected using a threshing machine (BT 14-E Belt Thresher, Almaco). The machine was cleaned between each sample to avoid contamination. Total seed weight per block was then determined. Above ground biomass was calculated as the sum of stem, leaf, panicle and seed biomass. Harvest index was calculated as seed biomass divided by total above ground biomass. Chlorophyll content was measured using a SPAD meter (502, Spectrum Technologies) on August 30th. LMA was measured August 31st from 6.06 cm^2 of leaf tissue.

Transcript and protein expression

Prior to RNA and protein extraction tissue was disrupted and homogenized as described previously[50]. RNA was extracted from 1.9 cm^2 of leaf tissue from the youngest fully expanded leaf of greenhouse and field-grown sorghum, using the NucleoSpin RNA Plant Kit (Macherey-Nagel). 700ul of the lysis buffer was used. RNA quantity and quality was assessed using a NanoDrop (Thermo Fisher Scientific). cDNA was synthesized with Superscript IV VILO Mastermix with ezDNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific). qPCR, primer design and validation were conducted as described in Salesse-Smith et al 2024, with the exception that an anneal temperature of 60C was used for all primer sets. See Table S1 for primer sequences. Primer efficiencies were between 100-105%. Calibrated Normalized Relative Quantities (CNRQ) were calculated using

qBase+ software v.3.2 (CellCarta) based on the expression of two reference genes, SbEIF4α and
SbActin11.

Total protein was extracted from 1.9 cm^2 of leaf tissue from the youngest fully expanded leaf of
greenhouse-grown sorghum and sugarcane and field-grown sorghum. Protein extraction and
western blots were performed as described previously[50]. The following primary antibodies were
used: anti-HA (AS12 2220, Agrisera) at a 1:5000 dilution, anti-LS (AS03 037, Agrisera) at a
1:10000 dilution, anti-FLAG (F7425-.2MG, Sigma-Aldrich) at a 1:5000 dilution and anti-RAF1
(custom rabbit antibody, Pacific Immunology) at a 1:1000 dilution. For the custom antibody, a
23 amino acid immunograde peptide from the maize RAF1 protein (aa 211-233;
KGFPRWRGEEGWEAFSKDSPADC) was synthesized and antisera generated by Pacific
Immunology.

Rubisco content measurements

Leaf discs were sampled from the youngest fully expanded leaves of greenhouse-grown
sorghum (1.9 cm^2) and sugarcane (2.5 cm^2) plants, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at
-80°C. Samples were taken from the same location gas exchange measurements were made the
day after measurements were completed. Soluble protein was extracted in 2 ml of N_2-sparged
extraction buffer: 50 mM EPPS-NaOH pH 8, 1 mM EDTA, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1% (w/v) PVPP, 5 mM
DTT and 1% (v/v) protease inhibitor cocktail (P9599, Sigma-Aldrich). Frozen leaf discs were
ground in ice-cold Ten Broeck homogenizers (7ml, Corning) containing extraction buffer. Total
soluble protein was quantified using the Qubit Protein Assay Kit (Q33211, Life Technologies) on
the Qubit 3 Fluorometer (Q33216; Life Technologies). Total Rubisco content was measured by
[14]C-CABP binding as previously described (Ruuska et al., 1998; Sharwood et al., 2008). 100µl of
protein lysate was mixed with an equal volume of Rubisco activation buffer (50 mM EPPS-NaOH
pH 8, 1 mM EDTA, 20 mM $MgCl_2$, 30 mM $NaHCO_3$) and let sit at room temperature. After 20
minutes, 60µM of ^{14}C-CABP was added to the mixture and left at room temperature for an
additional 30 minutes, and then transferred to ice. 100µl of the activated Rubisco protein
mixture was loaded onto the size-exclusion chromatography columns and fractions containing
[14]C-CABP – Rubisco complexes collected. The amount of ^{14}C-CABP was determined by liquid
scintillation (Packard Tri-Carb 1900 TR, Canberra Packard Instruments Co). Leaf Rubisco
content was calculated as described previously[51].

Leaf gas exchange measurements

CO_2 response (A-C_i) and light induction curves were measured on the youngest fully expanded
leaves using an infrared gas exchange system LI-6800 fitted with the multiphase flash
fluorometer and 6 cm^2 cuvette (6800-01A, LI-COR Environmental). CO_2 response curves were
measured simultaneously with chlorophyll fluorescence and used to assess A, C_i, g_{sw}, PhiPSII,

$V_{c,max}$ and $V_{p,max}$. A-C_i curves were measured in the field-grown sorghum on July 10th, August 4th

and August 29th. Leaves were acclimated to the following conditions: light intensity of 1800

μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}, leaf temperature of 30 °C, CO_2 reference concentration of 400 μmol mol^{-1} and 65%

humidity. Once A and g_{sw} stabilized, response curves were initiated using the following

sequence of reference CO_2 concentrations: 400, 300, 200, 120, 70, 30, 10, 400, 400, 500, 700,

900, 1200, and 1500 μmol mol^{-1}. Measurements were logged 3 to 5 minutes after each new CO_2

step. A-C_i curves for greenhouse-grown sorghum were measured under the same conditions

except for the following changes: a leaf temperature of 28 °C was used and the CO_2 sequence

used concentrations of 600 and 800 μmol mol^{-1} CO_2 instead of 700 and 900. Sugarcane A-C_i

curves used a CO_2 reference concentration of 450 μmol mol^{-1} and the following sequence of

CO_2: 450, 1500, 1250, 1000, 750, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, 120, 70, 30, and 10 μmol mol^{-1}. $V_{c,max}$

and $V_{p,max}$ at 25°C were estimated using the *fit_c4_aci* function from the PhotoGEA R package[52],

which fits a mechanistic model to the measured CO_2 response curves[7].

Light induction curves were used to assess average A in either the first 180 or 300 seconds since

the light was turned on and time to 50% A_{max}, which is determined from the normalized

induction curves. Leaves were acclimated to the following conditions: light intensity of 0 μmol

m^{-2} s^{-1}, leaf temperature of 28°C (greenhouse-grown sorghum) or 30 °C (field-grown sorghum

and sugarcane), CO_2 sample concentration of 400 (sorghum) or 450 μmol mol^{-1} (sugarcane) and

65% humidity. After 30 minutes in the dark, light was increased to 1800 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1} and data

points logged every 10 s over the course of 30 min. After gas exchange measurements were

completed on the greenhouse-grown sorghum plants, leaf number, tiller number and height

were recorded.

Estimating bundle sheath leakiness using carbon isotope discrimination coupled with leaf gas

exchange

A LI-6800 gas exchange system (LI-COR Environmental) with the large light source chamber

(6800-03) was coupled to a tunable-diode laser absorption spectroscope (TDLAS model TGA

200A; Campbell Scientific) to measure online carbon isotope discrimination as described

previoulsy[24]. The TDL was connected to the LI-6800 reference air stream using the port on the

back of the sensor head, and connected to the sample air stream using the port on the front of

the sensor head. CO_2-free air (N_2/O_2) with 21% O_2 was created by mixing two gas streams with

mass flow controllers (OMEGA Engineering Inc.). This air supplied the gas exchange system, and

was used in the calibration to correct for any drift in the TDL during measurements. The TDL

was calibrated using a 2-point calibration where a linear fit is applied using the measurements

from two calibration tanks with known [$^{12}CO_2$], [$^{13}CO_2$] (NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory).

The measurements cycled through four gas streams in the following sequence: calibration

points 1500 and 100 ppm CO_2 (NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory), LI-COR 6800 reference air

stream, leaf chamber air stream, and reference air stream a second time. Each step had a

duration of 30 s, except for the leaf chamber air, which had a duration of 600 s for a total cycle

time of 720 s. Measurements were averaged over the last 10 s to produce a single data point

for the calibration and reference measurements each cycle. For the sample line, measurements

were averaged over 10 s intervals, excluding the first 10 s, to have 59 data points each cycle.

The gas exchange system was set to the following conditions: light intensity of 0 $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$,

leaf temperature of 27°C, flow rate of 300 $\mu mol\ s^{-1}$, 21% O_2, and 800 $\mu mol\ mol^{-1}\ CO_2.$ Once

steady-state respiration was reached, five consecutive measurements were logged to measure

dark respiration. Afterwards the system was initiated to auto-log at 10s intervals over the

course of 30 min. Light intensity increased to 1800 $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ upon initiation of the auto

program. Sorghum leaves from the field were cut from plants pre-dawn, submerged in water

and brought to the lab where they were re-cut underwater and left in the dark until measured.

Only steady state measurements of leakiness were calculated (25-30 min after light turned on).

Observed photosynthetic discrimination ($\Delta^{13}C$) was derived and bundle sheath leakiness (ϕ)

was subsequently calculated from gas exchange parameters and $\Delta^{13}C$ as described

previously[53,54]. Data processing and calculations of $\Delta^{13}C$ and ϕ were done using the MATLAB

tool developed previously[24], with minor modifications to apply the 2-point calibration discussed

above.

Carbon and nitrogen analysis

Leaf tissue from field grown sorghum was oven dried to a constant weight, ground and total

carbon (C), C isotope analysis (δ15C), total nitrogen (N), and N isotope analysis (δ15N)

measured using an elemental analyzer (Costech Elemental Combustion System 4010, Costech

Analytical Technologies) coupled with a continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer

(DeltaV Advantage, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Spinach leaves (National Institute of Standards

and technology Standard Reference Material 1570a) and acetanilide (USA Analytical) were used

as standards for C and N analysis. Isotope analysis was measured relative to the international

standards NBS 19 for C ($\delta^{13}C_{V\text{-PDB}}$ = 1.95‰) and atmospheric N_2 for N $(\delta^{15}N_{Air}$ = 0‰).

Statistical analysis

Normality of the data was tested with Shapiro-Wilk's test, and homoscedasticity with Brown-

Forsythe's test. If criteria for normal distributions and equal variance was met one-way ANOVA

followed by Dunnett's *post hoc* test for transgenic mean comparison against the WT control

was performed. Data were considered significant at $P < 0.05$. If criteria for normality was

violated Wilcoxon's non-parametric test was applied. Analysis of field growth traits (Fig. 4) was

performed using a randomized block design with 6 blocks. Tests used are indicated in the figure

or table legend. Jmp pro version 17.0.0 software was used for all statistical analyses.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Author Contributions

CES and SPL conceived of and designed the experiments. TEC coordinated sorghum transformation, MG assembled the vector and ZG generated and confirmed the transgenic sorghum lines. FA coordinated sugarcane transformation, BK and TN, generated and confirmed the transgenic sugarcane lines. NA and CES assembled the recombinant DNA vector for sugarcane, and performed experimental measurements. CES analyzed the data. CES and SPL wrote the manuscript with contributions and review from all authors.

Supporting Information

Fig. S1: Gene expression in greenhouse and field grown sorghum.
Fig. S2: Normalized induction curves from greenhouse and field grown sorghum.
Fig. S3: Plant growth traits in greenhouse grown sorghum plants.
Fig. S4: Sorghum field experimental design and weather conditions.
Fig. S5: Steady-state BS leakiness of field grown sorghum.
Fig. S6: Normalized induction curves from greenhouse-grown sugarcane.
Fig. S7: Plant growth traits in greenhouse grown sugarcane plants.
Fig. S8: Average yield of sorghum and sugarcane over the last 20 to 30 years.
Table S1: qPCR primer information
Table S2: Summary of leaf mass per area (LMA), chlorophyll content (SPAD value), total soluble protein (TSP) and harvest measurements of sorghum and sugarcane plants.

Table 1. Summary of leaf gas exchange measurements from greenhouse grown sorghum and sugarcane. Values are shown as the mean $\pm$ SEM. Values significantly different from WT at $P < 0.05$ are in bold. One-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test.

Parameter	WT	RBCS-RAF1 Hn1a	RBCS-RAF1 Zg12a	RBCS-RAF1 Zg5b	Sample number (N)
Sorghum - Greenhouse					
ΦPSII	0.299 ± 0.002	**0.336 ± 0.007**	**0.331 ± 0.009**	**0.338 ± 0.006**	7-10
$V_{p,max}$ ($\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$)	80.32 ± 7.38	88.33 ± 3.19	88.05 ± 3.59	89.99 ± 2.93	7-10
C_i ($\mu mol\ mol^{-1}$)	153.53 ± 2.36	142.53 ± 2.18	144.62 ± 3.55	144.50 ± 4.95	7-10
g_{sw} ($mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$)	0.411 ± 0.010	**0.463 ± 0.009**	**0.472 ± 0.012**	**0.472 ± 0.014**	7-10

Parameter	WT	RBCS-RAF1 3	RBCS-RAF1 9	RBCS-RAF1 25	Sample number (N)
Sugarcane - Greenhouse					
ΦPSII	0.297 ± 0.012	0.319 ± 0.008	0.300 ± 0.009	0.326 ± 0.009	10
$V_{p,max}$ ($\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$)	68.82 ± 4.55	85.70 ± 6.97	68.99 ± 3.02	79.93 ± 4.76	9-10
C_i ($\mu mol\ mol^{-1}$)	116.48 ± 8.61	113.76 ± 6.29	121.17 ± 4.47	118.55 ± 3.27	9-10
g_{sw} ($mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$)	0.252 ± 0.012	0.282 ± 0.006	0.282 ± 0.007	**0.305 ± 0.015**	9-10
$\bar{A}_{300}$ ($\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$)	11.05 ± 2.26	17.78 ± 2.08	5.62 ± 1.95	15.38 ± 1.77	7-8
Time to 50% A_{MAX} (min)	3.36 ± 0.38	3.05 ± 0.27	**9.27 ± 1.62**	3.35 ± 0.26	6-8

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