A non-canonical MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS signalling module fine-tunes photosynthesis in rice

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Short title: MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS module fine-tunes photosynthesis

Abstract

Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades orchestrate diverse physiological
processes, yet their role in photosynthetic regulation has remained largely unexplored. Here,
we uncovers a non-canonical MAPK signalling module, MITOGEN ACTIVATED PROTEIN
KINASE 3 – ACT DOMAIN CONTAINING PROTEIN KINASE 1 – RUBISCO SMALL
SUBUNIT (MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS), that directly links MAPK signalling to photosynthesis
optimization. ACTPK1, a dual-specificity cytosolic kinase from Group C of Raf-like
MAPKKKs, is inhibited by MPK3 through direct phosphorylation. We demonstrated that
ACTPK1 targets the RbcS, phosphorylating it at Thr12 within its signal peptide, thereby
stabilizing its preprotein and enhancing its chloroplast import efficiency. Genetic analysis
confirms that MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS functions in a linear pathway to fine-tune photosynthesis
under ambient conditions. Notably, *mpk3* knockouts boost carbon fixation by 18-21%. This
non-canonical MAPK module redefines cytoplasmic-chloroplast signalling integration,
offering a transformative framework for enhancing crop productivity and global food security
through targeted genetic interventions.

Keywords: Photosynthesis; phosphorylation; MPK3; ACTPK1; RbcS; Rice

Introduction

Photosynthesis is the key photochemical process that drive the conversion of CO_2 and H_2O into
organic carbon compounds. This process is regulated by multiple leaf traits, encompassing
physiology (gas exchange, water relations, light capture), biochemistry (enzymes and
metabolic pathways driving CO_2 fixation), and development (leaf structure, anatomy, and
growth stage) along with external environmental factors. Photosynthetic proteins critical to this
process are encoded by both the nuclear and chloroplast genomes. Chloroplast-encoded
proteins are synthesized within the chloroplast, while nucleus-encoded chloroplastic proteins,
are transcribed in the nucleus, translated in the cytosol, and translocated to the chloroplast via
a targeting signal peptide that directs them through the chloroplast membranes (Bruce, 2000;
Jarvis & López-Juez, 2013). Once inside the chloroplast, these proteins are processed and
assembled into functional complexes. Rubisco, a pivotal enzyme in CO_2 fixation, is a
hexadecameric holoenzyme comprising eight large subunits (RbcL) and eight small subunits
(RbcS). The translocation of the small subunit into the chloroplast is essential for holoenzyme
assembly. In the cytosol, the small subunit is synthesized as a precursor-RbcS with an N-
terminal transit peptide, stabilized by chaperones like Hsp70 to maintain import competence,
and targeted to the chloroplast's TOC complex (Lee et al., 2009, 2013; Jarvis & López-Juez,
2013). Upon reaching the chloroplast, the precursor-RbcS is translocated via the TIC/TOC
translocon system, followed by cleavage of the transit peptide and folding in the stroma by
chaperones like Cpn60/Cpn10 and assembly factors such as RAF1 (Spreitzer, 2003; Feiz et al.,
2012; Hauser et al., 2015). The RbcS successful import and integration are critical for
stabilizing the RbcL octamer and forming the functional holoenzyme; without this, Rubisco
assembly fails, abolishing its CO_2 fixation capacity and severely limiting photosynthetic
efficiency and thereby crop productivity (Andersson & Backlund, 2008).

Enhancing leaf photosynthesis is thus recognized as a promising strategy to improve crop yield
(Long et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2010; Gibson et al., 2011, Ort et al., 2015; Simkin et al., 2019).
Biochemical insights into photosynthesis have identified key targets to overcome Rubisco's
limitations, including reducing its oxygenase activity to minimize photorespiration, enhancing
RuBP regeneration to support CO_2 fixation, incorporating C4 traits into C3 plants, and
suppressing photorespiration (Long et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2010; Murchie & Niyogi, 2011;
Gibson et al., 2011; Ort et al., 2015; Simkin et al., 2019). These targets address the primary
biochemical constraints on leaf photosynthesis: the *in vivo* Rubisco activity (*Vcmax*), the

electron transport rate (J) that controls RuBP regeneration, and the rate of triose phosphate utilization (TPU) (Farquhar et al., 1980; Sharkey, 1985; von Caemmerer, 2000). These parameters are typically derived from the response of net CO_2 assimilation to intercellular CO_2 concentration under saturating light (A/Ci curve) (Long & Bernacchi, 2003; Sharkey et al., 2007).

At low intercellular CO_2 levels (<200 µmol mol^{-1}), Rubisco's low catalytic efficiency and competing oxygenase activity dominate photosynthetic limitations, reducing carbon assimilation by promoting photorespiration (von Caemmerer, 2000; Parry et al., 2007; Sharkey et al., 2007). Potential Strategies to mitigate this constraint include engineering Rubisco with improved specificity for CO_2 over O_2, enhancing CO_2 delivery to its active site via increased stomatal and mesophyll conductance, or introducing CO_2-concentrating mechanisms like C4 traits to reduce photorespiratory losses (Parry et al., 2007, 2013; Lin et al., 2014; Sharwood, 2017). At higher CO_2 concentrations (>300 µmol mol^{-1}), limitations shift to electron transport and RuBP regeneration, influenced by photosystem efficiency and light-harvesting organization (Murchie & Lawson, 2013; Wu et al., 2019), and to TPU, where saturation of triose phosphate conversion into sucrose and starch causes feedback inhibition, capping maximum photosynthetic capacity ($Amax$) (Sharkey et al., 2007; Fabre et al., 2019). Developmental traits, such as leaf anatomy and light distribution, further modulate Rubisco's effectiveness by optimizing light capture and CO_2 diffusion (Terashima et al., 2011; Mathan et al., 2016). Targeting these interconnected factors offers promising avenues for enhancing Rubisco-driven photosynthetic efficiency and crop productivity (Evans, 2013).

Photosynthetic efficiency is further modulated by environmental fluctuations, such as light, temperature, and CO_2 concentration, which impact Rubisco activity, electron flow, and carbon assimilation (Kalaji et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2024). To maintain optimal photosynthesis under these conditions, plants employ post-translational modifications along with gene expression at transcriptional and translational levels, with phosphorylation playing a central role (Puthiyaveetil et al., 2009, 2010; Schönberg & Baginsky, 2012; Jonwal et al., 2021; Xiong D, 2024). Phosphorylation, mediated by kinases such as STN7, STN8, and cpCK2α, targets core photosystem proteins, light harvesting complexes, plastid transcription factors and Calvin cycle enzymes. They function by modulating their activity, stability, and interactions to balance electron flow, protect against photoinhibition, and optimize CO_2 fixation (Bellafiore et al., 2005; Reiland et al., 2009, 2011; Schönberg et al., 2017). While phosphorylation is a well-established mechanism in photosynthetic regulation, the role of Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase (MAPK) cascades in this context remains underexplored.

MAPK cascades are conserved signalling pathways in eukaryotes. They operate in three tiers: MAPKKKs activate MAPKKs at a conserved S/T-X5-S/T motif, which in turn activate MAPKs at the TE/DY motif (Hamel et al., 2006). This hierarchical cascade ensures precise signal transmission, with MAPKKKs as initiators, MAPKKs as intermediates, and MAPKs as terminal effectors that phosphorylate substrates to regulate cellular responses (Rodriguez et al., 2010). MAPKs regulates growth, development, immunity, and defence in response to environmental and endogenous cues (Sinha et al., 2011; Manna et al., 2023). Evidence from multiple plant systems highlights MAPKs as important regulators of photosynthesis. In *Nicotiana attenuata* and *Arabidopsis*, MPK4 influences stomatal conductance, thylakoid organization, and PSII efficiency, thereby affecting carbon assimilation and energy distribution (Hettenhausen et al., 2012; Gawronski et al., 2014; Witoń et al., 2016, 2021). Moreover, *StMPK3*, *StMPK11*, and *PeMPK7*, modulate photosynthetic gene expression and stomatal dynamics under stress (Zhu et al., 2020, 2021; Gao et al., 2024). Furthermore, MPK4, MPK12, regulate CO_2-induced stomatal behaviour through Raf-like MAPKKK *HT1* (Hashimoto et al., 2016; Hiyama et al., 2017; K. Tõldsepp et al., 2018; Takahashi et al., 2022). MPK3 and MPK6

are rapidly activated during stress and immunity and often correlate with reduced
photosynthetic activity (Su et al., 2018). Consistent with this, MPK3 overexpression has been
shown to strongly reduce photosynthetic performance, whereas MPK6 exerts a modest positive
effect, highlighting their distinct roles even under non-stressful conditions (Jonwal et al., 2023).
However, the precise molecular mechanisms by which MAPKs influence photosynthesis
remain poorly understood.

Here, we identify a previously unknown signalling cascade linking MPK3 to photosynthetic
regulation. MPK3 suppresses photosynthesis by phosphorylating and inhibiting the Raf-like
MAPKKK, ACTPK1, which in turn stabilizes and facilitates the import of RbcS into
chloroplast. ACTPK1 is a cytosolic serine/threonine kinase first identified in rice as an
interactor and regulator of ammonium transporters. It phosphorylates AMT1 transporters to
modulate ammonium uptake, thereby linking nutrient signalling to cellular homeostasis (Beier
et al., 2018). Structural analyses indicate that ACTPK1 belongs to the STY kinase family
(Rudrabhatla et al., 2006). Sequence similarity and phylogenetic analyses place ACTPK1
within the Group C Raf-like MAPKKKs (Rao et al., 2010). Homologues of ACTPK1 in
Arabidopsis (STY8, STY17 & STY46) are implicated in chloroplast biogenesis, chlorophyll
biosynthesis, pre-protein trafficking into chloroplast and photosynthetic performance at PSII
(Lamberti et al., 2011). Our findings, the MPK3–ACTPK1–RbcS module reveals a non-
canonical MAPK pathway that fine-tunes photosynthetic efficiency in rice.

Results

MPK3 negatively regulates photosynthetic Carbon Assimilation

Overexpression of *MPK3* has been reported to adversely affects photosynthetic performance
in rice (Jonwal et al., 2023). To dissect the molecular mechanism underlying this observation,
we analysed the photosynthesis and related parameters in two independent *MPK3* knockout
lines (*mpk3 ko1* and *mpk3 ko2*) and two dexamethasone (DEX)-inducible *MPK3*
overexpression lines (*MPK3-23* and *MPK3-24*) under ambient growth conditions (Banerjee et
al., 2025; Singh et al., 2019). This approach allowed us to investigate both loss- and gain-of-
function effects of MPK3, providing insights into its regulatory role.

Quantitative measurements of photosynthetic pigments revealed that *mpk3 ko* plants
accumulated significantly higher levels of chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, and carotenoids
compared to WT, whereas these pigments were markedly reduced in *MPK3 OE* lines
(Supplemental Fig. S1A-D). These pigments are essential for light absorption and
photoprotection in photosynthesis; thus, elevated levels in knockout lines likely enhance light-
harvesting efficiency and overall photosynthetic capacity, while reduced levels in
overexpression lines may impair these processes. Consistent with this, the mean net CO_2
assimilation rate (*A*) in *mpk3 ko* lines were significantly higher than WT whereas it was
significantly lower in *MPK3 OE* lines (Fig. 1A). Under ambient CO_2 concentration (400 μmol
CO_2 mol^{-1}), the mean *A* was 29.78 μmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} and 30.48 μmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} for *mpk3*
ko1 and mpk3 ko2 respectively, representing an 18-21% increase over WT. In contrast, *MPK3*
OE lines showed mean *A* at 17.75 μmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} and 17.67 μmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} which is
~29% lower than WT (Table 1).

Photosynthetic efficiency depends on CO_2 diffusion into the chloroplast stroma (stomatal
conductance, *gs*) and its subsequent fixation (carboxylation efficiency). CO_2 diffusion is
constrained by barriers encountered along the path from stomata to the chloroplast envelope
(Evans, 2021). To explore the basis for the observed differences in *A*, we measured *gs* and
intercellular CO_2 concentration (*Ci*). Notably, *mpk3 ko* plants with higher *A* exhibited elevated

gs whereas *MPK3 OE* plants showed reduced gs compared to WT. However, C_i values
remained comparable across genotypes (Fig. 1B and Supplemental Fig. S1E), indicating that
the altered photosynthetic rates stem primarily from differences in carboxylation efficiency
rather than CO_2 availability.

Given that *mpk3 ko* showed higher stomatal conductance and assimilation rates, yet similar
intercellular CO_2 levels, suggesting differences in carboxylation efficiency, we used *A/Ci* and
A/Q curves to determine whether MPK3 regulates CO_2 fixation or light-dependent processes
(Farquhar et al., 1980; Long & Bernacchi, 2003). With increasing CO_2, *mpk3 ko* plants
exhibited consistently higher *A* compared to WT, with a CO_2-saturated maximum assimilation
rate (*Amax*) of 41.31 ± 0.68 µmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} (~14% higher than WT), while *MPK3 OE* lines
showed a reduced *Amax* of 27.55 ± 1.45 µmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1} (~31% lower than WT) (Fig. 1C
and Table 1). However, no significant differences in *A* were observed among genotypes with
increasing photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD), and light-saturated *Amax* values were
comparable (Fig. 1D). These findings align with the gs and Ci data, confirming that MPK3
regulates CO_2-responsive aspects of photosynthesis, such as Calvin cycle efficiency, rather
than light-dependent processes like light harvesting or electron transport.

To understand the biochemical factors limiting CO_2 fixation, especially carboxylation
efficiency, we used the Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry (FvCB) model to analyze *A/Ci* curve
data and calculate the *Vcmax*, *J*, and *TPU*. These parameters are pivotal, as *Vcmax* reflects
Rubisco's CO_2 fixation capacity, *J* supports energy supply for the Calvin cycle, and *TPU*
governs product export and RuBP regeneration, all of which limit photosynthetic yield. Our
results showed that *Vcmax*, *J*, and *TPU* were significantly enhanced in *mpk3 ko* plants but
markedly reduced in *MPK3 OE* lines compared to WT (Fig. 1E, F & G). These results establish
MPK3 as a negative regulator of photosynthetic efficiency, as knockout lines exhibited
enhanced pigment accumulation, stomatal conductance, and carboxylation efficiency, boosting
photosynthesis, while overexpression lines showing the opposite trend.

MPK3 Regulates Rubisco Activity via RbcS Phosphorylation

Carboxylation efficiency is primarily governed by Rubisco, the enzyme catalysing the reaction
of CO_2 with RuBP to form 3-phosphoglycerate (Farquhar et al., 1980). The efficiency of
Rubisco depends on its catalytic activity and the availability of RuBP as a substrate. To
investigate how MPK3 affects Rubisco function and substrate dynamics, we conducted RuBP
use and Rubisco activity assays in *mpk3 ko* lines. Our results revealed significantly higher
Rubisco activity and RuBP use in *mpk3 ko* lines compared to WT, aligning with the enhanced
Vcmax in these lines (Fig. 1H, I). These results indicates that MPK3 acts as a negative regulator
of Rubisco function and RuBP regeneration, thereby limiting carboxylation efficiency and
photosynthetic capacity in rice plant.

Rubisco activity depends on the assembly of RbcL and RbcS into the holoenzyme complex.
Given that RbcS is encoded by nuclear genes while RbcL is transcribed from the chloroplast
genome, and considering MPK3's predominant localization to the nucleus and cytosol
(Supplemental Fig. S2A & B), we hypothesised that MPK3 regulates Rubisco function through
transcriptional or post-translational modulation of RbcS expression or stability, rather than
direct interaction with chloroplast-resident RbcL.

To explore whether MPK3 influences RbcS post-translationally, we investigated its potential
role in RbcS phosphorylation. Using Phos-tag PAGE, which separates phosphorylated proteins
by reducing their electrophoretic mobility, we detected an upshifted RbcS band indicative of
phosphorylation in both WT and *mpk3 ko* plants. Notably, the phosphorylated RbcS band was
consistently more intense in *mpk3 ko* plants compared to WT, suggesting enhanced RbcS

phosphorylation in the absence of *MPK3* (Fig. 1J). This higher RbcS phosphorylation in *mpk3 ko* is positively correlated with higher Rubisco activity and carboxylation rates.

These findings imply that MPK3 does not directly phosphorylate RbcS but rather suppresses the activity of another kinase responsible for this modification. In *mpk3 ko* plants, where MPK3 is absent, this another "missing" kinase remains active, leading to increased RbcS phosphorylation. Given the functional overlap between MPK3 and MPK6, we tested whether MPK6 could act as this "missing" kinase. However, yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) and *in vitro* kinase assays revealed no interaction or phosphorylation of RbcS by either MPK3 or MPK6 (Supplemental Fig. S2C & D), ruling out MPK6 as the "missing" kinase. These findings suggest that MPK3 indirectly modulates Rubisco activity by regulating RbcS phosphorylation via an unidentified kinase.

Identification of ACTPK1 as a Candidate "missing" Kinase

To identity the kinase responsible for elevated phosphorylation of RbcS in *mpk3 ko* lines, we conducted a literature survey focusing on known kinases that modify RbcS or its precursor. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the RbcS precursor is phosphorylated by three cytosolic plant-specific STY kinases, STY8, STY17, and STY46, which specifically target the transit peptide to facilitate regulated import into the chloroplast, thereby influencing Rubisco assembly and photosynthetic efficiency (Lamberti et al., 2011). To identify the functional homolog of these STY kinases in rice, we conducted a sequence homology search using *At*STY46 as a query sequence in the NCBI BLAST database. This analysis identified an ACT domain containing protein kinase encoded by LOC_Os02g02780 (Supplemental Fig. S3A), which was named as ACTPK1 by Beier et al (2018). Sequence similarity and phylogenetic analyses place ACTPK1 within the Group C Raf-like MAPKKKs (Rao et al., 2010) (Supplemental Fig. S3B). ACTPK1 exhibit significant similarities in its protein sequence with STY8, STY17 and STY46 respectively (Supplemental Fig. S3C). Importantly, the ACTPK1 protein sequence contains multiple canonical S/TP motifs, representing consensus phosphorylation sites of MPK3 (Supplemental Fig. S3D), suggestive of potential regulatory crosstalk between MPK3 and ACTPK1. Given these structural and sequence similarities, ACTPK1 emerges as a strong candidate for the kinase suppressed by MPK3 in regulating RbcS phosphorylation.

MPK3 physically interacts with ACTPK1

To confirm whether ACTPK1 is the kinase modulated by MPK3 in our hypothesis, we aim to investigate its regulation by MPK3. Since MPK3 typically regulate downstream targets through direct interaction followed by phosphorylation (Manna et al., 2023), we first examined whether ACTPK1 physically associates with MPK3. For doing this, we employed various protein–protein interaction assays.

We initially assessed the interaction between ACTPK1 and MPK3 in yeast cell (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) using Y2H assay. ACTPK1 fused to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (BD) and MPK3 fused to the GAL4 activation domain (AD), were co-transformed into the Y2H Gold strain in different combinations. Transformants were screened on double dropout (DDO; SD/-Trp/-Leu) and quadruple dropout (QDO; SD/-Trp/-Leu/-His/-Ade) medium to assess protein interaction. Experimental results showed that MPK3 interacts with ACTPK1 in yeast cell (Fig. 2A). The well-established p53–T7 pair (pGADT7-T7 + pGBKT7-p53) was used as a positive control, while the empty vector combinations (pGADT7 + pGBKT7) served as negative controls.

To validate this interaction *in planta*, we carried out bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assays in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. ACTPK1 was fused to the N-terminal half of enhanced yellow fluorescent protein (nYFP), while MPK3 was fused to the

C-terminal half (cYFP). The constructs were transiently co-expressed in fully expanded leaves of *N. benthamiana*. Strong YFP fluorescence was observed in cells co-expressing ACTPK1-nYFP and MPK3-cYFP (Fig. 2B). No fluorescence signal was detected in control combinations (ACTPK1-nYFP + cYFP-empty, MPK3-cYFP + nYFP-empty and ACTPK1-nYFP + MPK6-cYFP), further confirming the specificity of the interaction in plant cells.

The physical association between ACTPK1 and MPK3 was further confirmed by co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assays. Flag-tagged ACTPK1 and GFP-tagged MPK3 were transiently co-expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves, and total proteins were extracted 48 h post-infiltration. Immunoprecipitation with anti-Flag antibody followed by immunoblotting with anti-GFP antibody revealed the presence of MPK3-GFP in the ACTPK1-Flag immunocomplex, demonstrating that ACTPK1 associates with MPK3 *in vivo* (Fig. 2C). No signal was detected in control sample where ACTPK1-Flag and empty-GFP were co-expressed, thus excluding the possibility of nonspecific binding.

Collectively, these results provide conclusive evidence that MPK3 physically interacts with ACTPK1. Building on this established physical association, we next examined whether MPK3 functionally regulates ACTPK1 via phosphorylation.

MPK3 phosphorylates ACTPK1 and supress its kinase activity

As a putative Raf like MAPKKK, ACTPK1 was predicted to exhibit kinase activity. To test this possibility, the coding sequence of ACTPK1 was fused with glutathione S-transferase (GST) for protein purification. The resultant purified protein was subjected to *in vitro* kinase assay with myelin basic protein (MBP), a widely used universal kinase substrate (Eichberg and Iyer, 1996). Briefly, GST-ACTPK1 was incubated with MBP in kinase assay buffer supplemented with λ^{32}P-ATP for 30 min at 30°C and and the reaction products were resolved by SDS-PAGE. Autoradiography revealed strong phosphorylation signals corresponding to both ACTPK1 and MBP, indicating that ACTPK1 possesses both auto- and trans-phosphorylation activities (Supplemental Fig. S4A).

To test whether ACTPK1 could serve as a substrate of MPK3, we first generated a kinase-dead variant of ACTPK1 that would not produce background phosphorylation signals. Kinase activity is attributed by the catalytic domain of a protein kinase. Sequence of catalytic domain among protein kinases showed a remarkable degree of similarity and are conserved from yeast to humans (Hanks et al., 1988). The conserved lysine residue present in the subdomain II of catalytic domain is involved in the phosphor-transfer reactions (Carrera et al., 1993). Substitution of this invariant lysine with another amino acid, such as arginine, typically abolishes kinase activity (Snyder et al., 1985; Kamps and Sefton, 1986). To make catalytically inactive variant of ACTPK1, we align the protein sequence of ACTPK1 with its homologues using clustal O (1.2.4) and identified a conserved lysine (at 332 position) in the predicted catalytic active site (subdomain II) (Supplemental Fig. S4B). We mutated this conserved lysine to arginine (ACTPK1^{K332R}) using site directed mutagenesis (Supplemental Fig. S4C) and fused it with GST for protein expression and purification. To test whether the mutation of lysine to arginine rendered ACTPK1 kinase dead or not, we performed an *in vitro* kinase assay using λ^{32}P-ATP, with MBP as substrate. Experimental results showed that MBP phosphorylation was abolished, however, auto-phosphorylation was still present (Supplemental Fig. S4A). This result suggests that lysine residue at 332 position is essential for trans-phosphorylation activity of ACTPK1, but not for autophosphorylation.

To deduce the site responsible for auto-phosphorylation activity, we again scanned the ACTPK1 sequence and identified a second conserved lysine at position 428, located within the predicted catalytic active site (subdomain VI) (Supplemental Fig. S4B). Using site directed

mutagenesis, we mutated this lysine into arginine (K428R) in the background of ACTPK1^{K332R}
(denoted as ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}) (Supplemental Fig. S4D). To assess ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R} for
auto-phosphorylation activity, an *in vitro* kinase assay was conducted with MBP as a substrate.
In vitro kinase assays revealed a complete loss of both auto- and trans-phosphorylation activity
in ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R} (Supplemental Fig. S4A). Overall, the results demonstrate that lysine at
332 is required for trans-phosphorylation, while lysine at 428 is indispensable for auto-
phosphorylation activity of ACTPK1.

To determine the phosphorylation of ACTPK1 by MPK3, an in-solution kinase assay was
performed using kinase dead variant (ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}) as substrate. The assay was
conducted at 30°C for 30 minutes, following which the reaction mixture was resolved on a 10%
SDS-PAA gel.

The results showed that MPK3 phosphorylates ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}, as indicated by the
presence of a signal on the autoradiogram corresponding to the molecular weight of ACTPK1
(Fig. 2D). GST protein was included in the assay as a negative control and as expected, no
signal corresponding to the size of GST was observed on the autoradiogram, confirming the
specificity of MPK3-mediated phosphorylation of ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}. These findings provide
strong evidence that MPK3 directly phosphorylates ACTPK1, suggesting a potential regulatory
interaction between these proteins.

In *Medicago sativa*, OMTK1 (a MAPKKK) was shown to directly phosphorylate and activate
the MMK3 (a MAPK), bypassing the canonical MAPKK step (Nakagami et al., 2004). This
represents a rare exception to the typical three-tier MAPK cascade and highlights alternative
signalling modes in plants. Given that ACTPK1 being a MAPKK kinase member, the
possibility of reverse phosphorylation, wherein ACTPK1 phosphorylates MPK3, was also
investigated. To assess this, an *in vitro* phosphorylation assay was performed using a kinase-
dead variant of MPK3 (MPK3^{K65R}) as the substrate, with ACTPK1 serving as the kinase. The
results indicated that ACTPK1 does not phosphorylate MPK3, as no detectable signal
corresponding to the molecular weight of MPK3^{K65R} was observed on the autoradiogram
(Supplemental Fig. S4E). This finding suggests that phosphorylation occurs in a unidirectional
manner, wherein MPK3 phosphorylates ACTPK1, but not vice versa.

We then explored the functional relevance of MPK3-driven phosphorylation of ACTPK1. To
investigate this, we performed an immunoprecipitation-kinase (IP-kinase) assay using protein
extracts from WT and *mpk3 ko* plants and MBP as substrate. ACTPK1 was immunoprecipitated
from total protein extracts of WT and *mpk3 ko* plants using an α-ACTPK1 antibody, and the
immunoprecipitated fraction was subjected to *in-solution* kinase assays with MBP as substrate.
Interestingly, MBP phosphorylation was substantially stronger in immunoprecipitants from
mpk3 ko1 and *mpk3 ko2* lines, whereas only a faint phosphorylation signal was observed in
WT samples (Fig. 2E). These results indicate that MPK3 negatively regulates the kinase
activity of ACTPK1, likely through direct phosphorylation-mediated inhibition.

ACTPK1 interacts with and phosphorylates RbcS at its signal peptide

To establish ACTPK1 as a kinase of our hypothesis, it must phosphorylate RbcS. In rice, RbcS
is encoded by five isoforms, among which RbcS3 accounts for ~50% of the total pool and was
therefore selected for further analysis (Suzuki et al., 2007). Because ACTPK1 is a cytosolic
kinase, we reasoned that any potential interaction with RbcS would most likely occur in the
cytoplasm prior to plastid import. To capture this event, we used the pre-sequence form of
RbcS in our interaction assays.

To test the physical association between ACTPK1 and RbcS, we first performed Y2H assays,
where ACTPK1 was fused to the GAL4 activation domain and RbcS to the GAL4 DNA-

binding domain. Yeast co-transformants grew robustly on both double dropout (DDO) and quadruple dropout (QDO) selective media, indicating a direct interaction between ACTPK1 and RbcS (Fig. 3A).

To validate this interaction *in planta*, we conducted BiFC assays. ACTPK1 was fused to the N-terminal half of YFP (nYFP) and RbcS to the C-terminal half (cYFP), and the constructs were co-expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves by *Agrobacterium* infiltration. Strong YFP fluorescence was observed 48 h post-infiltration in the cytoplasm, confirming that ACTPK1 physically interacts with RbcS *in vivo* (Fig. 3B). Together, these results demonstrate that ACTPK1 physically associates with RbcS in the cytoplasm, suggesting a regulatory role in Rubisco assembly or function.

We next investigated whether the physical interaction between ACTPK1 and RbcS results in phosphorylation of RbcS. To address this, we performed *in vitro* kinase assays using bacterially expressed and purified GST-ACTPK1 and GST-RbcS. A strong phosphorylation signal was detected on RbcS, confirming that ACTPK1 directly phosphorylates RbcS (Fig. 3C).

To pinpoint the region of phosphorylation, we cloned and expressed precursor RbcS (containing the signal peptide) and its mature form lacking the signal peptide (mRbcS). Kinase assays revealed that phosphorylation occurred exclusively on the precursor RbcS but was abolished in mRbcS, indicating that the phosphorylation site resides within the signal peptide region (Supplemental Fig. S5A & B).

In silico prediction using NetPhos3.1 identified three high-confidence candidate phosphorylation sites within the signal peptide—Thr12, Ser31, and Ser34 (Supplemental Fig. S5C). To experimentally validate these sites, we generated alanine substitution mutants (RbcS^{S31A}, RbcS^{S34A} and RbcS^{T12A}) and tested them in kinase assays (Supplemental Fig. S5D). Phosphorylation was retained in RbcS^{S31A} and RbcS^{S34A} but was completely abolished in RbcS^{T12A}, demonstrating that Thr12 is the specific residue phosphorylated by ACTPK1 (Fig. 3D, Supplemental Fig. S5E).

Together, these findings demonstrate that ACTPK1 directly phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12 within its signal peptide. This modification likely act as a regulatory checkpoint in the cytoplasm, modulating RbcS import into chloroplasts and thereby fine-tuning Rubisco assembly and function.

Phosphorylation by ACTPK1 is essential for chloroplast targeting of RbcS

Since ACTPK1 phosphorylates RbcS within its signal peptide, we hypothesized that this modification may influence RbcS translocation into chloroplasts. To test this, we generated phospho-mimic and phospho-dead variants of precursor RbcS by site-directed mutagenesis using overlapping PCR. Specifically, threonine at position 12, the residue phosphorylated by ACTPK1, was mutated to glutamic acid (RbcS^{T12D}) to mimic constitutive phosphorylation, and to alanine (RbcS^{T12A}) to prevent phosphorylation (Fig. 4A). GFP was fused to wild-type precursor RbcS (RbcS^{WT}), phospho-mimic (RbcS^{T12D}), and phospho-dead (RbcS^{T12A}) at C-terminal region and transiently expressed in rice protoplasts derived from WT, *mpk3 ko*, and *actpk1 ko* backgrounds.

In WT protoplasts, RbcS localized exclusively to chloroplasts, whereas RbcS^{T12D} accumulated as aggregates adjacent to chloroplasts but failed to enter the chloroplast (Fig. 4B), consistent with the requirement for dephosphorylation of transit peptides prior to TOC/TIC translocation (Waegemann & Soll, 1996; Jarvis and Robinson, 2004). In contrast, RbcS^{T12A} displayed dual localization between chloroplasts and the cytoplasm (Fig. 4B), indicating that while phosphorylation at Thr12 optimizes precursor recognition and import, a phosphorylation-

independent Hsp90/Hsp70-dependent route can partially compensate (May & Soll, 2000). In
mpk3 ko protoplasts, RbcS was exclusively localised to the chloroplast (Fig. 4C).

Strikingly, in *actpk1 ko* protoplasts, no GFP signal was detected for any RbcS variant despite
multiple independent attempts (Supplemental Fig. S6). This puzzled us, so we hypothesised,
what if, in the absence of ACTPK1, RbcS isn't just not imported but degraded? To test this,
we performed cell-free degradation assays using bacterially expressed RbcS protein. RbcS was
rapidly degraded in the crude extract from *actpk1 ko* seedlings but remained stable in WT and
mpk3 ko crude extracts (Fig. 4D), demonstrating that ACTPK1-mediated phosphorylation
stabilizes RbcS in the cytoplasm prior to import. This is consistent with prior reports that
import-defective precursors are recognized by Hsc70-4/CHIP complexes and targeted for
proteasomal degradation (Lee et al., 2009; Jarvis & López-Juez, 2013). Together, these
findings suggest that ACTPK1-mediated phosphorylation ensures early handling of RbcS
precursors simultaneously protecting them from premature cytosolic degradation.

ACTPK1 positively regulates photosynthesis

To further validate this pathway and its impact on photosynthesis, we generated *ACTPK1*
overexpression (*OE*) and knockout (*ko*) lines, along with *MPK3-ACTPK1* double knockout
(*mpk3actpk1 ko*) in the japonica rice cultivar Taipae309. Three independent *OE* lines (*ACTPK1*
OE19, *ACTPK1 OE24* and *ACTPK1 OE33*) with the highest transcript accumulation were
selected for detailed analysis (Supplemental Fig. S7A, B & C). *actpk1 ko* lines were generated
via CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing technology and three independent *actpk1* mutant
alleles, *actpk1 ko12* (deletion of four nucleotides)*, actpk1 ko14* (single nucleotide insertion)
and *actpk1 ko19* (single nucleotide insertion), were selected for detailed analysis
(Supplemental Fig. S7D & E). The double knockout was generated by mutating ACTPK1 in
mpk3 ko background using CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing tool. A mutant line harbouring a
single-nucleotide insertion in the ACTPK1 coding sequence was selected for further analysis
(Supplemental Fig. S7F).

To study the impact of ACTPK1 on photosynthesis we measured gas-exchange parameters in
the flag leaf of *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* lines at heading stage using LI-COR 6800 system,
targeting a 2 cm² area from 9:00 am to 11:00 am. At ambient CO_2 concentration, the mean *A*
of *actpk1 ko* plants were significantly lower that WT and *ACTPK1 OE* lines, with *actpk1 ko*
showing 12.973 ± 0.99 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}, a 36–45% decrease compared to WT and *ACTPK1 OE*
plants (Fig. 5A & Table 2). In contrast, mean *A* in *ACTPK1 OE* lines were comparable to WT,
indicating that overexpression does not disturb the kinase's functional balance.

Photosynthesis is positively corelated with stomatal conductance. Stomatal conductance
mirrored these patterns, with *actpk1 ko* lines showing lower values consistent with reduced
photosynthetic capacity (Fig. 5B). *Ci* remained unchanged among genotypes, ruling out CO_2
availability as the cause of reduced photosynthesis in *actpk1 ko* plants. (Supplemental Fig. 8).

Moreover, *A/Ci* response curves revealed a pronounced reduction in net photosynthetic rate in
actpk1 ko lines compared to WT and *ACTPK1 OE* lines across all tested CO_2 concentrations
(Fig. 5C). Interestingly, *ACTPK1 OE* lines exhibited photosynthetic rates comparable to WT
across all tested CO_2 concentrations. *A/Q* curves further showed that *actpk1 ko* lines had
diminished light-saturated photosynthesis, while *ACTPK1 OE* lines sustained slightly higher
rates relative to WT (Fig. 5D).

Modelling of the *A/Ci* curves provided further insight into the biochemical basis of this decline.
The CO_2-saturated photosynthetic capacity (*A_{max}*) was reduced by ~31–37% in *actpk1 ko* plants
(26.2 ± 0.5 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) compared with WT (39.3 ± 0.8 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) and *OE* lines (39.9 ±
1.5 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) (Table 2). Moreover, *actpk1 ko* lines displayed significantly reduced values

for *Vcmax*, *J*, and *TPU* (Fig. 5E, F & G). These reductions strongly suggest impaired Rubisco
activity and compromised electron transport in *actpk1 ko* plants. Collectively, these findings
demonstrate that the absence of ACTPK1 leads to a substantial loss in Rubisco-dependent
photosynthetic capacity.

MPK3-ACTPK1 operate in a linear signalling cascade to regulate photosynthesis

Next, we analysed the photosynthetic phenotypes of *mpk3*, *actpk1*, and *mpk3actpk1* mutants.
A/Ci response curves revealed a marked increase in net CO_2 assimilation in *mpk3 ko* plants,
with a steep rise and elevated plateau, whereas *actpk1 ko* lines displayed strongly reduced
photosynthetic rates relative to WT, across a range of intercellular CO_2 concentrations (Fig.
6A). Crucially, the *mpk3actpk1* double mutant mirrors the *actpk1 ko* phenotype, with low
assimilation rate, rather than the enhanced *mpk3 ko* mutant. This suppression in the
mpk3actpk1 double mutant indicates that ACTPK1 is required for the photosynthetic benefits
of MPK3 absence; without ACTPK1, knocking out MPK3 cannot rescue the pathway. A
similar trend was observed for light response (*A/Q*) curves where *mpk3 ko* plants maintained
slightly elevated photosynthetic rates under increasing irradiance, while *actpk1 ko* and
mpk3actpk1 ko lines exhibited impaired light-saturated photosynthesis (Fig. 6B).

Moreover, the biochemical insights support the above observations. *Vcmax* was highest in
mpk3 ko lines but drops to *actpk1 ko* levels in and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants. *J* and *TPU* followed
the same trend, enhanced in *mpk3 ko*, and reduced in *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants
compared to WT. (Fig. 6C, D & E). Rubisco activity measurements further confirmed this
trend, with higher activity in *mpk3 ko* and strongly diminished activity in *actpk1 ko* and
mpk3actpk1 ko (Fig. 6F, G).

The finding that *mpk3actpk1* double mutants phenocopy the *actpk1 ko* mutants, rather than
mpk3 ko alone, indicates that ACTPK1 acts genetically downstream of MPK3. Moreover, the
loss of the enhanced photosynthetic performance observed in *mpk3 ko* plants upon ACTPK1
disruption highlights a linear regulatory hierarchical, in which MPK3 negatively regulates
photosynthesis by suppressing ACTPK1 activity.

To tie this to RbcS regulation, we used Phos-tag SDS–PAGE to access RbcS phosphorylation
across these genotypes. Phos-tag analysis revealed a distinct mobility shift of RbcS in WT and
ACTPK1 OE seedlings, indicative of phosphorylation. In contrast, no shift was detected in
actpk1 ko or *mpk3actpk1 ko* seedlings, demonstrating that enhanced RbcS phosphorylation in
mpk3 ko plants is due to the presence of ACTPK1, thus placing ACTPK1 downstream in this
cascade (Fig. 6H). This hierarchy aligns with our biochemical evidence that MPK3
phosphorylates ACTPK1 thereby inhibiting its kinase activity and preventing ACTPK1-
mediated phosphorylation of RbcS.

Enhanced photosynthetic capacity in ACTPK1 translated to enhanced biomass

Photosynthetic efficiency directly influences plant productivity, where enhanced carbon
assimilation supports plant growth and biomass. We next examined the effect of ACTPK1-
mediated photosynthesis regulation on plant growth and development. *ACTPK1 OE* and WT
seedlings exhibited enhanced shoot and root length compared to *actpk1 ko* which displayed
retarded growth, indicating robust vegetative growth fuelled by increased carbon fixation
(Supplemental Fig. S9A-C). At maturity, plant height, tiller number per plant, and plant
biomass were significantly reduced in *actpk1 ko* lines relative to *ACTPK1 OE* and WT (Fig.
7A-D). Moreover, striking differences were observed in flag leaf angle, *ACTPK1 OE* plants
displayed highly erect flag leaves with narrow angles (8°–19°), WT plants had moderately open
leaves (14°–29°), whereas *actpk1 ko* lines exhibited leaves with widest angles (45°–75°)
(Supplemental Fig. S9D-E). As leaf angle strongly influences light interception, these

differences likely have direct consequences for photosynthetic efficiency. Furthermore,
flowering time was markedly delayed in *actpk1 ko* by 10–15 days compared to *ACTPK1 OE*
and WT. While WT and *ACTPK1 OE* lines initiated flowering at 80–85 days, *actpk1 ko* plants
flowered at approximately 100–105 days after sowing, indicating a potential regulatory role of
ACTPK1 in floral transition (Supplemental Fig. S9F). These data suggests that, absence of
ACTPK1 disrupts developmental timing and architecture, likely due to impaired photosynthesis
and resource allocation.

Interestingly, *ACTPK1* also affects seed architecture and yield. *actpk1 ko* plants exhibited
significantly lower number of panicle per plant compared to *ACTPK1 OE* and WT (Fig. 7E).
Lower panicle number resulted in reduced grain yield per plant in *actpk1 ko* plants (Fig. 7F).
Interestingly, seeds from *actpk1 ko* plants were not only longer but also wider than those from
WT and *ACTPK1* OE lines, resulting in a significantly higher 100-seed weight (Fig. 7G,
Supplemental Fig. S9G-I). However, these advantages in seed productivity were offset by a
substantial reduction in tiller number and panicle number, traits that are key contributors to
overall yield. Thus, while *ACTPK1* knockout promotes the formation of larger and heavier
seeds, it concurrently suppresses the production of structures such as tillers and panicles that
bears reproductive organs, highlighting its role in balancing the trade-off between seed size
and seed number.

Discussion

Studying photosynthesis is paramount not only for unravelling the foundational mechanisms
of life on Earth but also for addressing pressing global challenges in food security and climate
resilience, particularly in staple crops like rice. Our discovery of a non-canonical MAPK
signalling cascade consisting of MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS signalling module, unveils a new
mechanism that uniquely integrates cytoplasmic kinase activity with chloroplast protein
import. This study offers a novel perspective on how photosynthetic carbon assimilation can
be enhanced for crop productivity.

The novelty lies in identifying MPK3 as a negative regulator that phosphorylates and
suppresses the activity of ACTPK1, which in turn phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12.
Phosphorylation of RbcS by ACTPK1 ensure its cytosolic stability and efficient chloroplast
import, thereby directly controlling Rubisco biogenesis, photosynthetic efficiency and plant
biomass (Fig 8). The mechanism explains why *mpk3 ko* lines display enhanced photosynthesis.
In the absence of MPK3, ACTPK1 remains active, leading to constitutive RbcS
phosphorylation. This boosts RbcS import, elevates Rubisco activity, and increases net CO_2
assimilation by 18-21% under ambient conditions. This is evidenced by higher levels of
chlorophyll and carotenoid, stomatal conductance, including carboxylation parameters like
Vcmax, *J*, and *TPU*. Conversely, MPK3 overexpression mimics stress-like inhibition, reducing
net CO_2 assimilation by ~29-31% and lowering CO_2-saturated *Amax*. This directly links the
cascade to the observed photosynthetic deficits and highlights how the activation of MPK3
could adaptively downregulate carbon fixation to prioritize resource allocation during
environmental challenges.

MPK3, located in the cytoplasm and nucleus, indirectly regulates photosynthesis by
modulating RbcS phosphorylation dynamics. Phosphorylation is a well-established regulator
of photosynthesis, coordinating processes like light harvesting, energy distribution, and
photoprotection (Tikkanen and Aro, 2012; Rochaix, 2014). It also drives chloroplast protein
import, where phosphorylation of transit peptides and translocon components enables efficient
targeting of nuclear-encoded proteins (Waegemann and Soll, 1996; May and Soll, 2000).
Importantly, Rubisco itself is phosphorylated on both large and small subunits. These
modifications influence enzyme stability and catalytic efficiency (Houtz et al., 1989;

Grabsztunowicz et al., 2017). Loss of RbcS phosphorylation prevents its proper assembly into the holoenzyme, leading to loss of Rubisco function (Kaul et al., 1986). In *mpk3 ko* plants, RbcS phosphorylation is enhanced, which results in sustained RbcS stability, import and Rubisco assembly. This also justifies the enhanced carboxylation efficiency in *mpk3 ko* lines. The discovery that ACTPK1, a kinase homologous to Arabidopsis STY8, STY17 and STY46 (Lamberti et al., 2011, Beier et al., 2018), drives RbcS precursor import in chloroplast unveils a critical regulatory mechanism. Thus, positioning ACTPK1 as the pivotal link that translates cytoplasmic MPK3 signalling into RbcS phosphorylation dynamics. This mechanism integrates seamlessly into a broader regulatory network, connecting cytoplasmic cues to chloroplast function under normal conditions.

The physical and functional interaction between MPK3 and ACTPK1 further integrates these findings by linking MAPK signalling to chloroplast protein trafficking. Y2H, BiFC, and Co-IP assays confirm their direct association, while *in vitro* kinase assays reveals unidirectional phosphorylation of ACTPK1 by MPK3. This kinase-on-kinase phosphorylation represents a conserved regulatory mechanism in plant signalling networks, where post-translational modifications—such as reversible phosphorylation by kinases—modulate target kinase activity to fine-tune responses to environmental cues, including nutrient availability and stress (Manna et al., 2023). Specifically, MPK3-mediated phosphorylation inhibits ACTPK1, as evident by reduced MBP phosphorylation in WT immunoprecipitants compared to *mpk3 ko* in IP-kinase assay. Such inhibition mirrors MPK3's role in stabilizing downstream targets like KRP3 through phosphorylation to regulate plant growth, but in this context MPK3 exerts inhibitory control via MAPK cascades (Banerjee et al., 2025). Consequently, this suppression limits RbcS phosphorylation in WT plants, promoting cytosolic degradation and impairing chloroplast import. Conversely, active ACTPK1 in *mpk3 ko* enables sustained RbcS phosphorylation, enhancing precursor stability, translocation efficiency, and assembly of functional Rubisco. This mechanism boosts photosynthetic rates, akin to observations in MAPK-regulated carbon fixation pathways, including the OsMPKK10.2-OsMPK6 cascade that phosphorylates factors for defence and metabolism (Ma et al., 2021). Thus, MPK3 fine-tunes RbcS trafficking to balance photosynthetic capacity, with *mpk3 ko* exhibiting elevated CO_2 assimilation rates under normal conditions, underscoring the cascade's role in optimizing carbon fixation and plant fitness.

Moreover, gain- and loss- of function phenotypes of ACTPK1 reveal interconnected roles in rice development and yield. Specifically, *actpk1 ko* exhibit retarded growth, delayed flowering, reduced tillers and panicles which collectively impair overall plant productivity. This phenotype is rationalized by ACTPK1's regulation of ammonium uptake through modulation of high-affinity AMT1 transporters; under sufficient ammonium, ACTPK1 phosphorylates and inactivates AMT1;2, limiting uptake to prevent toxicity, whereas its loss enhances uptake but disrupts balanced nutrition (Beier et al., 2018). Optimal ammonium nutrition promotes erect leaves, enhanced chlorophyll content, protein synthesis, photosynthesis, tillering, and seed filling (Shilpha et al., 2023). This provides a mechanistic basis that the developmental deficits in ACTPK1 absence might be due to altered nitrogen assimilation and resource allocation. In our study, *actpk1 ko* plants displayed wider flag leaf angles correlating with 36-45% lower assimilation rates, reduced *gs*, and diminished *Vcmax*, *J*, and *TPU*, compared to erect leaves and maintained photosynthetic efficiency of *ACTPK1 OE* plants. Plant hormones, including brassinosteroids (BRs), auxins, and gibberellins, regulate leaf angle, with BRs exerting the dominant influence by coordinating cell expansion and mechanical tissue formation at the lamina joint (Luo et al., 2016, Nolan et al., 2020). Disruptions in BR signalling typically result in erect leaves and smaller seeds, while enhanced signalling promotes wider angles and larger seeds, suggesting ACTPK1's potential integration into BR pathways to balance architecture

and reproduction. However, a rice homologue of ACTPK1, Increased Leaf Angle 1 (ILA1, also known as ACTPK4), controls leaf angle via mechanical tissue regulation in a BR-independent manner (Ning et al., 2011), indicating pathway divergence and necessitating further studies for a clear picture. Rice grain size is governed by cell proliferation and expansion during organogenesis, involving interconnected pathways such as G-protein signalling, ubiquitin-proteasome degradation, MAPK cascades, BR responses, transcriptional regulators, and auxin signalling (Li et al., 2019). For instance, MPKKK10/55/60/70 modulate flag leaf angle and seed size through canonical MAPK cascades (Guo et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021), providing a framework for how ACTPK1, as part of similar signalling, might influence these traits. Additional research is required to elucidate ACTPK1's direct role in grain size control and its interacting partners, as current evidence points to indirect effects via disrupted development. Overall, our study highlights the importance of ACTPK1 in optimizing rice architecture for enhanced carbon capture. Efficient RbcS import in *ACTPK1 OE* or *mpk3 ko* supports robust carbon assimilation, supplying resources for vegetative and reproductive growth. However, ACTPK1 loss disrupts this, leading to yield trade-offs like larger seeds but fewer panicles. Thus, MPK3-mediated inhibition of ACTPK1 not only suppresses photosynthesis but also indirectly modulates growth and yield, emphasizing the holistic impact of this cascade on rice fitness.

At the molecular interface, ACTPK1 phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12 in its signal peptide, as confirmed by *in vitro* kinase assays and site specific mutation studies. This modification stabilizes RbcS against rapid degradation and promotes efficient chloroplast targeting. $RbcS^{T12D}$ (Phospho-mimic) aggregate outside chloroplast while $RbcS^{T12A}$ (phospho-dead) show partial dual localization, consistent with studies on transit peptide phosphorylation aiding recognition and dephosphorylation enabling translocation (Waegemann and Soll, 1996; May & Soll, 2000; Lee et al., 2009). However, the absence of RbcS–GFP signal in *actpk1* protoplasts, together with its rapid loss in degradation assays, reveals a protective role of ACTPK1 beyond import regulation. In its absence, newly synthesized RbcS is rapidly degraded by degradation pathways. These findings suggest that ACTPK1 stabilizes RbcS precursors, likely by maintaining them in an import-competent state through phosphorylation. This connects to the enhanced Rubisco activity in *mpk3 ko*, where uninhibited ACTPK1 ensures high RbcS import, boosting carboxylation and explaining the *mpk3 ko* superior *A/Ci* responses. While in ACTPK1-deficient plants, failed import causes RbcS degradation, reduced Rubisco, and photosynthetic collapse, highlighting the reliance of the cascade on this site-specific phosphorylation event.

Genetic epistasis solidifies the linear hierarchy within this signalling module. The *mpk3actpk1* double mutant shows a complete loss of RbcS phosphorylation and phenocopies *actpk1 ko* in its reduced CO_2 assimilation, and Rubisco activity. Notably, it also fails to exhibit the enhanced photosynthesis observed in *mpk3 ko,* demonstrating that ACTPK1 functions downstream of MPK3 and that the cascade's integrity is essential for photosynthetic regulation. This epistatic relationship integrates all observations—MPK3's inhibition prevents ACTPK1-mediated RbcS phosphorylation, import, and stability, directly causing the photosynthetic phenotypes. Together, the results positions the MPK3-ACTPK1 module as an adaptive regulatory switch: under non-stress conditions, hypoactive MPK3 allows ACTPK1 to sustain photosynthesis, whereas stress induced MPK3 activation supresses ACTPK1, blocks RbcS import, degrade precursor of RbcS, and reallocates carbon to balance trade-offs between efficiency and resilience. Unlike previously described context-dependent MAPK effects, our findings reveals a conserved and fundamental mechanism of basal photosynthetic regulation, with rice-specific features providing additional insights into species-specific adaptive fine-tuning.

Materials and Methods

Transgene construct

For generation of overexpression lines, full-length coding sequence (CDS) of *ACTPK1* was amplified with 3xFLAG tag at 5' end and 4xMYC tag at 3' end was sandwiched between 35S promoter and Nos terminator and cloned into binary vector pCAMBIA1300-CaMV 35S. The pCAMBIA1300-35S-*ACTPK1* plasmid was introduced into rice *japonica* cultivar Taipea309 (Tp309) via *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation using *Agrobacterium* strain EHA105.

ACTPK1 knockout mutants were generated using CRISPR-Cas9 mediated gene editing in japonica cultivar Tp309 background according to Rengasamy et al., 2024. A single guide RNA (sgRNA) targeting the CDS region of *ACTPK1* gene (sgRNA: GGGGACGGCGCGCGGACAAGAGC, PAM sequence: GGG) was designed and synthesized as an oligonucleotide. The synthesized sgRNA was then cloned in pRGB32 vector and introduced into 10-day-old rice Calli through *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation. The *MPK3-ACTPK1* double knockout was generated by mutating *ACTPK1* in *mpk3 ko* background using CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing tool using the same sgRNA (sgRNA: GGGGACGGCGCGCGGACAAGAGC).

Plant growth conditions

Rice seeds used for photosynthesis experiments were homozygous seeds of atleast T2 generation. Along with *ACTPK1 OE*, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3-actpk1* double knockout, dexamethasone (DEX) inducible MPK3 OE lines (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants (both generated in *Oryza sativa* Tp309 cultivar) were used (Singh et al 2019, Banerjee et al., 2025). Seeds were germinated in petri plates having moist germination paper for 7 days at 28 ºC, 16h light and 8h dark conditions. Seven days old seedlings were transferred to one-fourth M.S. (Himedia) hydroponics media containing both micro and macronutrients. The pH of the media solution was adjusted to 5.5, and media was renewed every 3 days. Post 20 days, plants were transferred to pots and kept in a greenhouse at 28/22 ºC day and night air temperature, 70% relative humidity, a photoperiodic cycle of 16h light/8h dark photoperiod, and ~500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity. The plants were maintained in pots in greenhouse until maturity, and photosynthetic parameters were recorded from the middle widest area of flag leaf at heading stage. For *MPK3 OE* lines, 1 um DEX and DMSO (mock) were sprayed one day prior to taking photosynthetic readings (Singh et al., 2019).

Photosynthesis rate and related physiological trait measurements

Photosynthetic rate and its related physiological parameters were measured using Li-COR 6800 portable photosynthesis system on the flag leaf of rice plant at heading stage. The area of Li-COR 6800 portable system leaf chamber was set at 2 cm^2 with a LED light source (LI-6400-02B; LI-COR, Inc). To acquire the same leaf area, two young leaves were carefully placed in leaf chamber without any overlap for plants having leaf width less than 2 cm^2 (Busch et al, 2018). For all the measurements, the conditions of leaf chamber were set as follows: 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity (PAR), 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 concentration, 300 µmol s^{-1} constant airflow, 70-80% relative humidity. Ten flag leaves from different plants were used to evaluate the net photosynthesis rate (*A*), intercellular CO_2 concentration (*Ci*) and stomatal conductance to water (*gs*).

For A/Ci curve, the leaves were first acclimatised to ambient CO_2 concentration of 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 and a constant PAR of 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} for 10 min and then the CO_2 concentration was first gradually decreased from 400 to 50 (400, 300, 200, 150, 100, 50) µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 and then leaf was stabilized at 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 and again CO_2 concentration was increased

from 400 to 1400 (400, 600, 800, 1000, 1200 and 400) µmol mol^{-1} CO_2. The minimum and
maximum wait time between the subsequent readings was 60 and 120 sec respectively.
Readings were taken at constant PAR of 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}, flow rate of 500 µmol s^{-1}. The
maximum rate of Rubisco mediated carboxylation (*Vcmax*), electron transport rate (*J*) and
triose phosphate utilisation (*TPU*) were calculated by fitting A/Ci curve using Farquhar-von
Caemmerer-Berry (FvcB model) (Sharkey, 2015).

For light curve, the leaf was first acclimatised to constant saturating photosynthetic active
radiation (PAR) of 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} for about 10 min and then the PAR was decreased from
1500 to 100 (1500,1200,1000, 700, 500, 300 and 100) µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} at constant CO_2
concentration of 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 and flow rate of 500 µmol s^{-1}. The minimum and
maximum wait time between the subsequent readings was 120 and 180 sec respectively.

All measurements were taken between 9.00 am to 11.00 am.

Gene expression analysis

Total RNA was isolated from leaf samples using RNeasy Plant mini kit (Qiagen) following
manufacturer's protocol. DNase treatment was given to 2 µg RNA using RNA free DNase I
(Qiagen) and subjected to first strand cDNA synthesis using RevertAid First Strand cDNA
synthesis kit (Thermo Scientific) per the manufacturer's protocol. Quantitative RT-PCR of
ACTPK1 was carried out using Power SYBR Green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems).
The conditions of thermocycler were set as follows: 94 °C for 10 min, 40 cycles of 94 °C for
20 sec, 60 °C for 1 min. The housekeeping gene UBQ5 and Actin7 were used as an internal
control for normalization. Expression levels of examined genes were quantified using relative
quantitation method (ΔΔCT). The statistical significance was evaluated using t-test. Data
shown is the mean value of at least three biological repeats with SD. The primers used for
doing qRT-PCR are listed in supplemental Table 1.

Site-directed mutagenesis

Site-directed mutagenesis was performed using overlap extension PCR. Complementary
primers containing the desired mutation were designed. The target gene was amplified in two
fragments using gene-specific forward and mutation-specific reverse primers, and mutation-
specific forward and gene-specific reverse primers. Both amplicons were gel-purified and used
in overlap extension PCR with the following conditions: 98°C for 30 s, 55–58°C for 1 min,
72°C for 30 s/kb for 10 cycles. Gene-specific primers were then added for 35 additional cycles.
The final PCR product was gel-purified, verified by DNA sequencing, and cloned into the
target vector.

Bacterial protein induction, purification and *in vitro* phosphorylation assay

The full length CDS of *MPK3*, *MPK6*, *ACTPK1*, and *RbcS* were cloned in-frame with the
sequence of GST-tag in pGEX4-T-2 vector. Recombinant protein was induced in *Escherichia*
coli BL21 Rosetta® by adding 1mM IPTG at 22 °C. Induced recombinant proteins with GST-
tag were purified by affinity chromatography using GST-sepharose beads. Protein
concentration was determined using Bradford reagent (Sigma) and purity was analysed using
SDS-PAGE. *In vitro* phosphorylation assay was performed according to the method described
by Raghuram *et al*, 2015. Briefly, purified recombinant proteins of kinase and substrate (ratio
1:10) were incubated in kinase reaction buffer (25 mM Tris/Cl (pH 7.5), 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM
$MnCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM β-glycerol phosphate, 1 mM Na_3VO_4, 25 mM ATP and 1 mCi [γ-
32P] ATP) for 30 min at 30 °C. The reaction was stopped by adding 6X SDS sample buffer
followed by heating at 95 °C for 5 min. The reaction samples were subjected to 12% SDS-

PAGE and exposed to phosphor screen followed by visualization using phosphor imager (Typhoon, Phosphor Imaging System, GE Health Care, Life Sciences).

Plant protein extraction and Immunoblot Analysis

Proteins were extracted from rice seedlings using protein extraction buffer (50 mM Tris HCl (pH 7.5), 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 10 mM Na_3VO_4, 10 mM NaF, 1mM PMSF, 10% glycerol (v/v), 0.1% Nonidet P-40 (v/v) and 1× protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck)). Extracted proteins were quantified with Bradford reagent and ~40 μg was separated by 10/12% SDS-PAGE. Separated proteins were transferred to PVDF membrane for immunodetection. The membranes were first blocked with 5% skimmed milk in TBST (10 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 500 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20) for 2 h, then probed with anti RbcS (Agrisera, dilution 1:5000), anti Actin (Sigma-Aldrich, dilution 1:5,000) antibody in TBST for 2 h at room temperature. After two TBST washes (2 min each), membranes were incubated with anti-rabbit secondary antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific A11034) for 1.5 h. The membrane was again washed twice with TBST (10 min each) and MQ water, and visualized using Immobilon Western chemiluminescent HRP substrate (BIORAD) as per manufacturer's instructions. Chemiluminescence was detected with ChemiDoc system iBright 1500 (Amersham Biosciences).

***In vivo* phosphorylation assay**

In vivo phosphorylation of RbcS was examined by mobility shift assay employing phos-tag reagent. Proteins were extracted from WT, *mpk3 ko, ACTPK1 OE, actpk1 ko, mpk3actpk1 ko* seedlings using protein extraction buffer (50 mM Tris HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 10 mM NaF, 1mM PMSF, 10% glycerol (v/v) and 0.1% Nonidet P-40 (v/v)). Extracted protein was separated by 12% (w/v) SDS-PAGE gel containing 100 μM phos-tag and 100 mM $MnCl_2$. After electrophoresis, the gel was washed thrice, twice with transfer buffer containing 10 mM EDTA and once without EDTA for 10 min. Post washing, separated proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membrane using Trans-Blot SD cell (BIO-RAD) and membrane was probed with α-RbcS (Agrisera) antibody. The membrane was again washed twice with TBST (10 min each) and MQ water, and visualized using Immobilon Western chemiluminescent HRP substrate (BIORAD) as per manufacturer's instructions. Chemiluminescence was detected with ChemiDoc system iBright 1500 (Amersham Biosciences).

Immuno-kinase (IP-kinase) assay

Total protein was extracted from the 14 day old seedlings of WT, *mpk3 ko1* and *mpk3 ko2* using the previously described protein extraction. Extracted proteins were quantified using Bradford reagent, and 1 mg crude protein was incubated with 5 μg anti ACTPK1 antibody (genescript) on a rocker at 4°C for 3 h. Subsequently, 50 μL Protein A Sepharose beads (50% slurry, Pierce) were added and incubated on a rocker at 4°C for 1.5 h. Post incubation, sepharose beads were washed with PBS-T (PBS with 0.05% Tween 20) thrice, resuspended in kinase buffer containing 1 mCi [γ-^{32}P] ATP and 0.5 μg MBP, and incubated at 30°C for 30 min. Reactions were stopped with 3× SDS dye, boiled at 95°C for 5 min, and resolved by 12% SDS-PAGE. Gels were exposed to a phosphor screen and visualized using a Typhoon phosphor imager (GE Healthcare).

Yeast two-hybrid assay

The interaction between MPK3 and ACTPK1, and ACTPK1 and RbcS was examined using the Matchmaker Gold Yeast Two-hybrid System (Takara Bio). Full-length CDS of MPK3, MPK6, ACTPK1 and RbcS were cloned in pGBKT7 and pGADT7 vector (Clontech). Yeast

transformation with was performed using Fast Yeast Transformation kit (Gbiosciences; GZ-1) (according to the manufacturer's protocol). The positive transformants were selected on double dropout medium (Synthetic Defined (SD) /-Leu/-Trp)). The interaction assay was performed by plating the selected transformants on quadruple dropout medium ((SD)/-Ade/-His/-Leu/-Trp) followed by incubation at 30 °C for 36–48h. The fully grown colonies after the incubation were marked as positive interactions.

Subcellular localisation and Bimolecular Fluorescence Complementation assay (BiFC)

For subcellular localisation, full-length CDS of MPK3 and RbcS was cloned in pGWB5 vector. The resulting construct (MPK3-pGWB5) was transformed into *Agrobacterium* strain EHA105 and infiltrated in young and healthy leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana*. The plasmid of RbcS-pGWB5, RbcS^{T12D}-pGWB5 and RbcS^{T12A}-pGWB5 was introduced in rice protoplast using PEG-mediated transformation (citation). Localisation was analysed post 48h for *Nicotiana benthamiana* and post 16h for rice protoplast using a Leica TCS SP8 AOBS Laser Scanning Microscope (Leica Microsystems) using GFP filters with fluorescence excitation at 514 nm and emission at 527 nm.

For BiFC, full length CDS of MPK3, ACTPK1 and RbcS was cloned into pSITE-nEYFP-C1 (Cd3-1648) and pSITE-cEYFP-N1 (Cd3-1651) vectors. The resulting constructs were transformed into *Agrobacterium* strain EHA105 and infiltrated in young and healthy leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Interaction was analysed post 48h using a Leica TCS SP8 AOBS Laser Scanning Microscope (Leica Microsystems) using YFP filters with fluorescence excitation at 514 nm and emission at 527 nm.

Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay

Flag-tagged ACTPK1 (pCAMBIA1300-35S-Flag-*ACTPK1*) and GFP-tagged MPK3 (MPK3-pGWB5) were co-expressed in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves via *Agrobacterium*-mediated infiltration. Proteins were extracted 48 h post-infiltration using protein extraction buffer. Proteins (1 mg) were incubated with 5 μg anti-Flag antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) at 4°C for 3 h with rocking, followed by 50 μL Protein A Sepharose beads (50% slurry, Pierce) for 1.5 h. Beads were washed thrice with PBS-T (PBS, 0.05% Tween 20), eluted with 2× SDS sample buffer, boiled at 95°C for 5 min, and resolved on 10% SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred to PVDF, blocked with 5% skimmed milk in TBST (10 mM Tris, pH 7.5; 500 mM NaCl; 0.05% Tween 20) for 2 h, and probed with anti-GFP antibody (Abcam) for 2 h at room temperature. After two 10-min TBST washes, membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody for 1.5 h, washed twice with TBST and MQ water, and visualized using Immobilon Western chemiluminescent HRP substrate (BIORAD) as per manufacturer's instructions. Chemiluminescence was detected with ChemiDoc system iBright 1500 (Amersham Biosciences).

Cell-free degradation assay

Total protein was extracted from 14-day-old rice seedlings (WT, *mpk3 ko*, *actpk1 ko*) by grinding 1 g tissue in liquid nitrogen and homogenizing in 1 mL ice-cold protein extraction buffer. Extracted proteins were quantified using Bradford reagent. Crude extract (100 μg) was incubated with 1 μg recombinant GST-tagged RbcS in 100 μL reaction buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, (pH 7.5), 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 5 mM ATP, and 1 mM DTT) at room temperature. Aliquots (20 μL) were collected at 0, 5, 10, 30, 60, and 120 min, stopped with 2× SDS sample buffer, boiled at 95°C for 5 min, and resolved on 12% SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membrane and probed with anti-GST antibody (Thermofischer), and visualized using Immobilon Western chemiluminescent HRP substrate (BIORAD) as per manufacturer's

816 instructions. Chemiluminescence was detected with ChemiDoc system iBright 1500
817 (Amersham Biosciences). Band intensity was quantified with ImageJ.

Rubisco activity measurements

Rubisco activity assay was performed according to Sharwood et al., (2016). Briefly, Leaf
tissues were excised (2 cm^2) from the middle widest part of the same leaf from which
photosynthesis parameters were recorded, pulverized and homogenized in 1 mL ice-cold
extraction buffer (5 mM DTT, 10 mg ml^{-1} PVPP, 2 mg ml^{-1} BSA, 2 mg ml^{-1} PEG, 2% (v/v)
Tween-80, 12 mM 6-aminocaproic acid, 2.4 mM benzamidine in HEPES stock) at 4 °C. The
homogenate was centrifuged at 15,000 × g at 4°C for 1 min, and supernatant was incubated
with freshly prepared BMEC buffer (100 mM Bicine–NaOH, pH 8.2, 20 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM
Na$_2$-EDTA, and 10 mM NaHCO$_3$) in a 9:1 ratio (e.g. 900 µl leaf extract to 100 µl BMEC) at
25 °C for 25 min, to activate the Rubisco enzyme. To assess the activity, 50 µl of leaf extract
was incubated with 1550 µl of EME buffer (100 mM EPPS–NaOH (pH 8.2), 20 mM MgCl$_2$, 1
mM Na$_2$-EDTA), 40 µl of 10 mM NADH (final concentration 200 µM), 80 µl of 250 mM
NaH$_{12}$CO$_3$ (final concentration 10 mM), 200 µl of ATP/phosphocreatine (final concentrations
1 mM and 5 mM, respectively), 40 µl of coupling enzymes (carbonic anhydrase 500 U,
glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 50 U, 3-phosphoglycerate kinase 50 U, triose-
phosphate isomerase/glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 400/40 U), and 40 µl of 25 mM
RuBP (final concentration 500 µM), and the decrease of absorbance was monitored at 340 nm
for 180 s using a UV–Vis spectrophotometer. The Rubisco carboxylation rate was calculated
using the equation:

RuBP− use (µmol s^{-1}) = (ΔOD340 ∗ Vol)/6.18 X 4

assuming an extinction coefficient of 6.18 µmol ml^{-1} cm^{-1} for NADH oxidation at 340 nm.
ΔOD340 is the rate of change of absorbance at 340 nm per second, and Vol is assay volume (1
ml). The equation accounts for the four NADH molecules oxidized per RuBP carboxylated by
Rubisco. The activity of Rubisco (*Vcmax*) is calculated as:

Vcmax (µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) = ((RuBP−use; µmol s^{-1}) (EV; µl) (10000 cm^2/m^2))/(LA; cm^2) (Sample
volume; µl)

where EV is extraction volume and LA is leaf area.

Rice protoplast isolation and PEG mediated transformation

Protoplast from rice seedlings were isolated according to Zhang et al., 2011. Seeds of WT,
mpk3 ko and *actpk1 ko* were surface sterilized and germinated on half-strength MS solid
medium. Seven- to ten-day-old seedlings were chopped into 0.5 mm strips in 0.5 M mannitol,
incubated for 10 min, and transferred to enzyme solution (0.4 M mannitol, 1.5% Cellulase RS
(Yakult), 0.75% Macerozyme (Yakult), 20 mM MES (pH 5.7), 10 mM CaCl$_2$, 20 mM KCl,
0.1% BSA) for 3-4 h at 80 rpm at room temperature. The reaction was stopped with equal
volume of W5 buffer (154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl$_2$, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM MES (pH 5.7)),
shaken for 10 s to release protoplasts, and filtered through a 100 µm nylon mesh. Additional 5
ml W5 buffer was added to the strips, strained again and centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 3 min at
room temperature. The pellet was washed with 5 mL W5 buffer, resuspended in MMG buffer
(4 mM MES (pH 5.7), 0.4 M Mannitol, 15 mM MgCl$_2$), and protoplast quality was assessed
under a light microscope.

PEG-mediated transient transformation of protoplasts was performed according to Shen et al.,
(2014). Approximately 100 µL of protoplasts were mixed with 5–10 µg plasmid of RbcS-
pGWB5, RbcS^{T12D}-pGWB5 and RbcS^{T12A}-pGWB5 in a microcentrifuge tube by gentle
tapping. Subsequently, 110 µL of PEG solution (40% PEG$_{4000}$ (Fluka), 0.2 M Mannitol, 100

mM CaCl₂) was added, mixed by tapping, and incubated in the dark at room temperature for 20 min. The solution was diluted with 440 μL W5 buffer, centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 3 min, and the pellet was resuspended in 1 mL WI solution (4 mM MES, 0.5 M mannitol, 20 mM KCl). After 16 h incubation in the dark, transformed protoplasts were analysed using a Leica TCS SP8 AOBS Laser Scanning Microscope (Leica Microsystems) using GFP and chloroplast autofluorescence filters.

Pigment content measurement

Pigment content were measured according to procedure described by Porra et al., (1989). Leaf samples (1 g) were harvested post photosynthetic parameters measurements, and chlorophyll and total carotenoid was extracted in 80% ice-cold acetone (aqueous). Chlorophyll and carotenoid contents were measured spectrophotometrically and calculated according to Arnon, 1949.

Statistical analysis

Student t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed to determine significant differences indicated as $*P<0.05$, $**P< 0.005$, and $***P< 0.0005$. Details of statistical analysis and sample sizes in each experiment are mentioned in the figure legends. ImageJ was used to quantify the intensities of bands in the immunoblots.

Supplemental figure and table legends:

Fig S1. Photosynthetic pigments and parameters in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) lines.

Fig. S2 Localisation of MPK3 and interaction and phosphorylation of RbcS with MPK3 and MPK6.

Fig. S3 ACTPK1 is a Raf-like MAPKKK exhibiting homology and sequence similarity with *At*STY8, *At*STY17 and *At*STY46, and contains multiple MAPK phosphorylation motifs.

Fig. S4 Lysine at 332 and 428 are crucial for trans- and auto-phosphorylation activity of ACTPK1 and ACTPK1 do not phosphorylate MPK3.

Fig. S5 ACTPK1 phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12.

Fig. S6 Absence of RbcS-GFP signal in *actpk1 ko* protoplasts.

Fig. S7 Development of *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* lines.

Fig. S8 Intercellular CO_2 concentration in flag leaf of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* plants.

Fig. S9 ACTPK1 regulates vegetative growth, flag leaf angle, flowering time and seed architecture.

Supplemental Table1: Table containing the list of primers used in this study.

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Authors' contribution

SJ and AKS planned the study and designed the experiments. SJ and GB carried out the molecular biology experiments. SJ and RB generated and screened transgenic plants and recorded the photosynthetic parameters. SJ and MM recorded and analysed the phenotypic traits of transgenic plants. PS screened the *mpk3actpk1* double knockout plants. SJ and AKS analysed data and wrote the manuscript. SJ wrote the initial draft and AKS finalise the draft. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Tables with legends:

Table 1: CO_2-saturated maximum photosynthesis (A_{max}), maximum *in vivo* Rubisco activity (V_{cmax}), maximum electron transport rate (J), and maximum rate of triose phosphate utilization (TPU) of WT, *MPK3 OE* and *mpk3 ko* lines through *A/C*i curve analysis.

	Amean	*Amax*	*Vcmax*	*J*	*TPU*
WT	25.17 ± 2.34	36.18 ± 1.37	110.2 ± 5.58	142.4 ± 8.23	9.28 ± 0.38
MPK3-23 MOCK	25.48 ± 1.8	35.16 ± 1.6	88.29 ± 6.348	133.16 ± 5.75	8.73 ± 0.45
MPK3-23 DEX	17.75 ± 2.34	26.53 ± 3.2	61.77 ± 9.32	101.89 ± 11.5	6.94 ± 0.688
MPK3-24 MOCK	24.02 ± 3.10	34.22 ± 0.87	88.368 ± 9.23	132.72 ± 7.9	8.73 ± .078
MPK3-24 DEX	17.67 ± 1.43	28.57 ± 0.51	68.79 ± 10.83	116.92 ± 4.18	7.6 ± 0.17
mpk3 ko1	29.78 ± 1.75	40.83 ± 1.41	126.3 ± 3.2	165.12 ± 6.58	10.66 ± 0.4
mpk3 ko2	30.48 ± 1.28	41.8 ± 0.4	126.56 ± 2.54	163.65 ± 1.9	10.66 ± 0.02

Table 2: CO_2-saturated maximum photosynthesis (A_{max}), maximum *in vivo* Rubisco activity (V_{cmax}), maximum electron transport rate (J), and maximum rate of triose phosphate utilization (TPU) of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* lines through *A/C*i curve analysis.

	Amean	*Amax*	*Vcmax*	*J*	*TPU*
WT	22.27 ± 1.12	38.8 ± 1.08	88.18 ± 3.14	130.36 ± 7.36	9.5 ± 0.31
ACTPK1 OE19	21.89 ± 0.55	41.34 ± 0.37	88.25 ± 2.48	124.79 ± 6.37	9.13 ± 0.61
ACTPK1 OE24	18.42 ± 1.17	39.98 ± 0.26	105.77 ± 1.29	141.49 ± 4.39	10.28 ± 0.12
ACTPK1 OE33	19.08 ± 0.56	37.5 ± 1.36	95.05 ± 3.88	133.93 ± 12.95	10.3 ± 0.96
actpk1 ko12	12.22 ± 0.42	25.65 ± 0.44	67.6 ± 8.85	72.58 ± 9.65	6.53 ± 0.23
actpk1 ko14	14.10 ± 2.03	26.03 ± 0.54	59.89 ± 4.42	65.23 ± 5.89	6.42 ± 0.65
actpk1 ko19	12.59 ± 1.93	26.48 ± 0.7	62.38 ± 6.36	73.32 ± 9.63	5.98 ± 1.19

Figures with legends:

Fig. 1. MPK3 negatively regulates photosynthesis. **A)** Bar graph showing net assimilation rate in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants at ambient CO_2 (400 µmol mol^{-1}). **B)** Bar graph showing Stomatal conductance to water in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants at ambient CO_2 (400 µmol mol^{-1}). **C)** Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants in response to varying CO_2 concentration at 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity (*A/Ci* curve). Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = at least three data points from different plants. **D)** Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants in response to increasing PPFD at 400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 concentration (*A/Q* curve). Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = at least three data points from different plants. **E)** Bar graph showing maximum rate of carboxylation (*Vcmax*) in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants. **F)** Bar graph showing electron transport rate (*J*) in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants. **G)** Bar graph showing triose phosphate utilisation (*TPU*) in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants. Data represented in D), E) and F) are deduced by fitting *A/Ci* curve using FvcB model. MOCK, dimethyl sulfoxide treated (DMSO) plants; DEX, dexamethasone treated plants. 1 µM DMSO and DEX sprayed on *MPK3 OE* leaves, 24 h prior to taking measurements. All the measurements were taken from flag leaf at heading stage using LiCOR6800, between 8:00 am to 11:00 am. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. **H)** Bar graph showing RuBP use in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants. **I)** Bar graph showing Rubisco activity in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) plants**.** Values represent the

1217   mean ± SD (*n* = 3 biological replicates). Asterix indicate statistical significance according to student
1218   ttest (*P*<0.05). **J)** Phos-tag gel western blots showing phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated RbcS
1219   content in WT and *mpk3 ko* lines. Blots were developed by α-RbcS antibody. Actin was used as
1220   endogenous control.

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Fig. 2. MPK3 physically interacts with and phosphorylates ACTPK1 to inhibit its activity. A) MPK3
interacts with ACTPK1 in yeast cells. Yeast cells were cultured on SD/-Trp-Leu and SD/-Trp-Leu-His-
Ade media. AD, GAL4 activation domain; BD, GAL4 DNA-binding domain; SD, synthetic defined. B) BiFC
assays showing that MPK3 interacts with ACTPK1 in *N. benthamiana*. ACTPK1-nYFP was co-
transformed with MPK3-cYFP in fully expanded leaves of *N. benthamiana*. The ACTPK1-nYFP/MPK6-
cYFP and Empty-nYFP/MPK3-cYFP were used as negative controls. Inset on top right is the enlarged
image of signal. Scale Bar, 25 μm. C) Interaction between MPK3 and ACTPK1 in the Co-IP assays. α-
Flag beads were used to immunoprecipitate ACTPK1 protein. Gel blots were probed with α-GFP
antibody. D) *In vitro* kinase assay showing phosphorylation of kinase dead GST-ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R} by

1233 GST-MPK3. CBB (Coomassie Brilliant Blue) stained 10% SDS page gel shows loaded proteins. **E)** IP-
1234 Kinase showing ACTPK1 immunoprecipitated from *mpk3 ko* enhances MBP phosphorylation. ACTPK1
1235 was immunoprecipitated using α-ACTPK1 antibody.

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Fig. 3. ACTPK1 physically interacts with and phosphorylates RbcS within signal peptide. A) ACTPK1
interacts with RbcS in yeast cells. Yeast cells were cultured on SD/-Trp-Leu and SD/-Trp-Leu-His-Ade
media. AD, GAL4 activation domain; BD, GAL4 DNA-binding domain; SD, synthetic defined. **B)** BiFC
assays showing that ACTPK1 interacts with RbcS in *N. benthamiana* mesophyll cell. ACTPK1-nYFP was
co-transformed with RbcS-cYFP in fully expanded leaves of *N. benthamiana*. The ACTPK1-nYFP/cYFP,
nYFP/RbcS-cYFP and MPK3-nYFP/RbcS-cYFP were used as negative controls. Scale Bar, 25 μm. **C)** *In
vitro* kinase assay showing phosphorylation of kinase dead GST-RbcS by GST-ACTPK1. CBB stained 10%
SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins. **D)** *In vitro* kinase assay showing ACTPK1 specifically
phosphorylates Thr12 residue of RbcS. CBB stained 12% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins.

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Fig. 4. ACTPK1 regulates stability and import of RbcS into the chloroplast. A) Pictorial representation of RbcS, RbcS^T12D (phosphor-mimic), RbcS^T12A (phosphor-dead) mutant constructs designed through site-directed mutagenesis. **B)** Localization of RbcS, RbcS^T12D, RbcS^T12A in protoplast isolated from WT rice seedlings. Scale Bar, 10 μm. **C)** Localization of RbcS in protoplast isolated from WT and *mpk3 ko* rice seedlings. Scale Bar, 10 μm **D)** Western blots of cell-free degradation assays showing degradation of GST-RbcS when incubated with crude extract of WT (upper panel), *mpk3 ko* (middle panel) and *actpk1 ko* (lower panel). Ponceau stained (PonceauS) blot shows RbcL protein. Band intensities are mentioned with red colour. Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ software.

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Fig. 5. ACTPK1 positively regulates photosynthesis in rice. A) Bar graph showing net assimilation rate in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33*) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*) plants at ambient CO_2 (400 µmol mol^{-1}). **B)** Bar graph showing Stomatal conductance to water in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33*) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*) plants at ambient CO_2 (400 µmol mol^{-1}). **C)** Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33*) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*) plants in response to varying CO_2 concentration at 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity (*A/Ci* curve). Each value represents mean ± SD (n = at least three biological replicate). **D)** Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of WT, *ACTPK1*

OE (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko (actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1*
ko19) plants in response to increasing PPFD at 400 μmol mol^{-1} CO_2 concentration (*A/Q* curve). Each
value represents mean ± SD (n = at least three biological replicate). **E)** Bar graph showing maximum
rate of carboxylation (*Vcmax*) in WT, *ACTPK1 OE (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33)* and
actpk1 ko (actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19) plants. **F)** Bar graph showing electron transport
rate (*J*) in WT, *ACTPK1 OE (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33)* and *actpk1 ko (actpk1 ko12,*
actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19) plants. **G)** Bar graph showing triose phosphate utilisation (*TPU*) in WT,
ACTPK1 OE (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko (actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 &*
actpk1 ko19) plants. Data represented in E), F) and G) are deduced by fitting *A/Ci* curve using FvcB
model. All the measurements were taken from flag leaf at heading stage using LiCOR6800, between
8:00 am to 11:00 am. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA
followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*.

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Fig. 6. ACTPK1 acts downstream of MPK3 to regulates photosynthesis in rice. A) Comparison of net
photosynthesis per unit area of WT, *mpk3 ko*, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants in response to
varying CO_2 concentration at 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity (*A/Ci* curve). Each value represents mean
± SD, where n = at least three data points from different plants. **B)** Comparison of net photosynthesis
per unit area of WT, *mpk3 ko*, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants in response to increasing PPFD at
400 µmol mol^{-1} CO_2 concentration (*A/Q* curve). Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = at least
three data points from different plants. **C)** Bar graph showing electron transport rate (*J*) in of WT,
mpk3 ko, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants. **D)** Bar graph showing maximum rate of carboxylation
(*Vcmax*) in of WT, *mpk3 ko*, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants. **E)** Bar graph showing triose
phosphate utilisation (*TPU*) in of WT, *mpk3 ko*, *actpk1 ko* and *mpk3actpk1 ko* plants. Data represented
in D), E) and F) are deduced by fitting *A/Ci* curve using FvcB model. All the measurements were taken
from flag leaf at heading stage using LiCOR6800, between 8:00 am to 11:00 am. Different letters
indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD
calculation at *P < 0.05*. **F)** Bar graph showing RuBP use in in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1*

OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*)and *mpk3actpk1 ko*
lines. **G)** Bar graph showing Rubisco activity in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1*
OE33) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*)and *mpk3actpk1 ko* lines. Values
represent the mean ± SD (*n* = 3 biological replicates). Asterix indicate statistical significance according
to student ttest (*P*<0.05). **H)** Phos-tag gel western blots showing phosphorylated and non-
phosphorylated RbcS content in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33*) and
actpk1 ko (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*)and *mpk3actpk1 ko* (double mutant) lines. Blots
were developed by α-RbcS antibody. Actin was used as endogenous control.

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Fig. 7. ACTPK1 positively regulate plant biomass and yield. A) Representative image of WT, *ACTPK1*
OE (*ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33*) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1*
ko19) plants. **B)-G)** Bar graph showing plant height **(B)**, tiller number per plant **(C)**, Biomass **(D)**, panicle
number per plant **(E)**, yield per plant **(F)**, and 100 seed weight **(G)**, in WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (*ACTPK1 OE19,*
ACTPK1 OE24 & ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko12, actpk1 ko14 & actpk1 ko19*) plants. Values
represent the mean ± SD (*n* = 10). Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-
way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*.

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1321 **Fig. 8. Diagrammatic representation depicting photosynthesis modulation by non-canonical MAPK**
1322 **cascade consisting of MPK3-ACTPK1-RbcS signalling module.** Activated MPK3 phosphorylates and
1323 suppresses ACTPK1 kinase activity. Active ACTPK1 in turn phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12, enhancing its
1324 cytosolic stability and promoting efficient chloroplast import. This non-canonical MAPK cascade
1325 governs Rubisco biogenesis, photosynthetic efficiency and thereby plant biomass.

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Supplemental Figures with legends:

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Fig. S1. Photosynthetic pigments and parameters in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) lines. (A-D) Bar graph showing the Chlorophyll a **(A)**, Chlorophyll b **(B)**, total chlorophyll **(C)**, and total carotenoid content **(D)** in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) lines. Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = 15 data points from different plants. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. **(E)** Bar graph representing intercellular CO_2 concentration at ambient CO_2 (400 μmol mol^{-1}) in WT, *MPK3 OE* (*MPK3-23*, *MPK3-24*) and *mpk3 ko* (*mpk3 ko1*, *mpk3 ko2*) lines. Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = 5 data points from different plants. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. MOCK, dimethyl sulfoxide treated (DMSO) plants; DEX,

1340   dexamethasone treated plants. 1 µM DMSO and DEX sprayed on *MPK3 OE* leaves, 24 h prior
1341   to taking measurements. All the photosynthetic measurements were taken from flag leaf at
1342   heading stage using LiCOR6800, between 8:00 am to 11:00 am.

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Fig. S2. Localisation of MPK3 and interaction and phosphorylation of RbcS with MPK3
and MPK6. (A) Confocal images depicting the localisation of MPK3 to nucleus and cytosol.
Empty-GFP localisation served as negative control. Scale Bar, 25 μm. **(B)** Western blots
showing presence of MPK3 and GFP in confocal localisation samples of (A). Ponceau stained
blot shows RbcL protein of *N. benthamiana*. **(C)** MPK3 and MPK6 does not interact with RbcS
in yeast cells. Yeast cells were cultured on SD/-Trp-Leu and SD/-Trp-Leu-His-Ade media. AD,
GAL4 activation domain; BD, GAL4 DNA-binding domain; SD, synthetic defined. **(D)** *In vitro*
kinase assay showing GST-MPK3 and GST-MPK6 does not phosphorylate GST-RbcS. CBB
stained 10% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins.

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Fig. S3. ACTPK1 is a Raf-like MAPKKK exhibiting homology and sequence similarity with *At*STY8, *At*STY17 and *At*STY46, and contains multiple MAPK phosphorylation motifs. (A) Distant tree showing the homologues of *At*STY46. Accession numbers written in red are the closest homologue of *Arabidopsis* STY46 in *Zea mays* and *Oryza sativa*. Query sequence is taken as the AtSTY46 protein sequence against nr_cluster_seq database (NCBI) and the tree was produced by BLAST pairwise alignment. **(B)** Sequence Alignment of ACTPK1 Kinase domain with identified Plant Raf like MAPKKKs Kinase domain. Shaded boxes indicate identical residues. Prefixes on protein names indicate species of origin. *At, Arabidopsis thaliana*; *Le, Solanum lycopersicum var. lycopersicum.* Alignment was constructed using Clustal Ω program and analysed using Jalview software. **(C)** Sequence Alignment of ACTPK1 with AtSTY8, AtSTY17 and AtSTY46. Alignment was constructed using Clustal 0(1.2.4). **(D)** Protein sequence of ACTPK1 showing multiple MAPKs phosphorylation motifs (S/T followed by P). MAPKs phosphorylation motifs were highlighted in yellow colour.

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Fig. S4. Lysine at 332 and 428 are crucial for trans- and auto-phosphorylation activity of ACTPK1 and ACTPK1 do not phosphorylate MPK3. (A) *In vitro* phosphorylation assay depicting ACTPK1 showed auto- and trans-phosphorylation, ACTPK1^{K332R} showed only autophosphorylation and ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R} does not showed auto- or trans-phosphorylation. MBP was used as a substrate for ACTPK1, ACTPK1-GST, ACTPK1^{K332R}-GST, ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}-GST**.** CBB stained 12% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins. **(B)** Diagrammatic representation showing the mutation created for generating ACTPK1^{K332R}. **(C)** Diagrammatic representation showing the mutation created for generating ACTPK1^{K332R,K428R}. **(D)** Sequence alignment of ACTPK1 kinase domain with its homologues from different plants showing the conservation of lysine at 332 (showed by black arrow followed by K332) and lysine at 428 (showed by black arrow followed by K428). Alignment was constructed using Clustal 0(1.2.4) **(E)** *In vitro* phosphorylation assay depicting ACTPK1 do not phosphorylates kinase dead MPK3^{K65R}-GST. CBB stained 12% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins.

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Fig. S5. ACTPK1 phosphorylates RbcS at Thr12. (A) Diagrammatic picture representing
the truncation of precursor RbcS protein into signal peptide (RbcS-SP) and mature RbcS
(mRbcS). **(B)** *In vitro* kinase assay showing ACTPK1 phosphorylates precursor RbcS (GST-
RbcS) but not mature RbcS (mRbcS). CBB stained 12% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins.
(C) NetPhos3.1 results showing the phosphorylation potential of different amino acids of RbcS.
Black arrow indicates the amino acids having high phosphorylation potential score. **(D)**
Pictorial representation of all the RbcS mutant constructs designed through site-directed
mutagenesis. **(E)** *In vitro* kinase assay depicting Thr at 12 is the site of ACTPK1
phosphorylation. CBB stained 12% SDS PAA gel shows loaded proteins.

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1402 **Fig. S6. Absence of RbcS-GFP signal in *actpk1 ko* protoplasts.** Localization of RbcS in
1403 protoplast isolated from WT and *actpk1 ko* rice seedlings. Scale Bar, 10 µm. Third panel is
1404 the enlarged image of protoplast present in purple box of second panel.

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Fig. S7. Development of *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* lines. (A) Diagrammatic representation of the construct used for generating *ACTPK1 OE* plants **(B)** Nucleic acid gel image showing Semi-quantitative Real-time PCR analysis of *ACTPK1* expression in overexpression lines compared with WT plant. **(C)** Bar graph showing relative expression level of ACTPK1 in *ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24* and *ACTPK1 OE33* lines. Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = 3 biological replicates. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. **(D)** Diagrammatic representation of target site and sgRNA sequence and mutations observed in *actpk1 ko 12, actpk1 ko 14, and actpk1 ko 19* lines **(E)** Sequence alignment of different mutation identified from *actpk1 ko 12, actpk1 ko 14, and actpk1 ko 19* lines using clustal omega software. **(F)** Chromatogram of WT and *mpk3actpk1* showing insertion of G in coding region of ACTPK1 in *mpk3actpk1 ko* line. Inserted base is depicting in red colour. Knockout mutation in ACTPK1 was generated in the background of *mpk3 ko2.*

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Fig. S8. Intercellular CO$_2$ concentration in flag leaf of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko*
plants. Bar graph showing intercellular CO$_2$ concentration at ambient CO$_2$ (400 μmol mol^{-1}) in
WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 and ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1*
ko 12, actpk1 ko 14, and actpk1 ko 19) lines. Each value represents mean ± SD, where n = 5
data points from different plants. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to
one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. All the
photosynthetic measurements were taken from flag leaf at heading stage using LiCOR6800,
between 8:00 am to 11:00 am.

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Fig. S9. ACTPK1 regulates vegetative growth, flag leaf angle, flowering time and seed
architecture. (A) Representative images of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* seedlings. Scale
Bar, 10 cm. **(B-C)** Bar graph showing shoot length (B) and root length (C) of 10 day old
seedling of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* (ACTPK1 OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 and ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1*
ko (*actpk1 ko 12, actpk1 ko 14, and actpk1 ko 19*). Each value represents mean ± SD, where
n = 10 data points. Different letters indicate statistical significance according to one-way
ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P < 0.05*. **(D)** Representative images
depicting the flag leaf angle of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* plants. Scale Bar, 1 cm. **(E)**
Bar graph depicting flag leaf angle of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* plants. Each value
represents mean ± SD, where n = 10 data points. Different letters indicate statistical
significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P*
< 0.05. **(F)** Bar graph showing flowering time of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* plants. Each
value represents mean ± SD, where n = 10 data points. Different letters indicate statistical
significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P*
< 0.05. **(G)** Representative pictures depicting the seed length and seed width of WT, (ACTPK1
OE19, ACTPK1 OE24 and ACTPK1 OE33) and *actpk1 ko* (*actpk1 ko 12, actpk1 ko 14, and*
actpk1 ko 19) plants. Scale Bar, 1 cm. **(H-I)** Bar graph depicting the seed length (H) and seed
width (I) of WT, *ACTPK1 OE* and *actpk1 ko* lines. Each value represents mean ± SD, where
n = ~1000 data points from at least 5 different plants. Different letters indicate statistical
significance according to one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation at *P*
< 0.05.

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1455 **Supplemental Table 1**: Table containing the list of primers used in this study.

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Primer Name	Sequence (5`-3`)
Primers used for Gateway entry cloning	
MPK3 pENTR F	CACCATGGACGGGGCGCCGGTGGCGG
MPK3 pENTR R	GTACCGGAAGTTTGGGTTCATCTC
MPK6 pENTR F	CACCATGGACGCCGGGGCGCAGCCGTC
MPK6 pENTR R	CTGGTAATCAGGGTTGAACGCAAG
ACTPK1 pENTR F	CACCATGGCCGTGGAGGAGTCGCC
ACTPK1 pENTR R	GTGGTTTCTCTTCAATGCTG
RbcS pENTR F	CACCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATG
RbcS pENTR R	GTTGCCACCAGACTCCTCGC
Primers used for Protein Expression	
MPK3 pGEX F	GGATCCATGGACGGGGCGCCGGTGGC
MPK3 pGEX R	CTCGAGCGGGTACCGGAAGTTTGGGT
MPK6 pGEX F	GGATCCATGGACGCCGGGGCGCAGCCG
MPK6 pGEX R	CTCGAGCTGGTAATCAGGGTTGAAC
ACTPK1 pGEX F	CACCGAATTCCCATGGCCGTGGAGGAGTCGC
ACTPK1 pGEX R	CCGTCGACGTGGTTTCTCTTCAATGC
RbcS pGEX F	TTGGATCCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATG
RbcS pGEX R	TTGTCGACGCCACCAGACTCCTCGCA
RbcS-SP pGEX F	TTGGATCCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATG
RbcS-SP pGEX R	TTGTCGACCCTGATCCTGCCGCCATTGC
mRbcS pGEX F	CACCCAGGTGTGGCCGATTGAGGGCAT
mRbcS pGEX R	TTGTCGACGCCACCAGACTCCTCGCA
Primers used for Yeast-2 Hybrid assay	
ACTPK1 AD/BD F	AAGAATTCATGGCCGTGGAGGAGT
ACTPK1 AD/BD R	CCGGATCCGTGGTTTCTCTTCAATGC
MPK3 AD/BD F	CATATGATGGACGGGGCGCCGGT
MPK3 AD/BD R	GGATCCGTACCGGAAGTTTGGGT
MPK6 AD/BD F	GGATCCGGATGGACGCCGGGGCGCAGC
MPK6 AD/BD F	GGATCCGCTACTGGTAATCAGGGTTG
Primers used for developing and screening transgenic plants	

Cas9 F	AACAGCCGCGAGAGAATGAA
Cas9 R	TCGGCCTTGGTCAGATTGTC
ACTPK1 sgRNA F	GGCAGACGGCGCGCGGACAAGAGC
ACTPK1 sgRNA R	AAACGCTCTTGTCCGCGCGCCGTC
ACTPK1 Crispr_Seq F	TCTCCTCTCTCGTCTCGTG
ACTPK1 Crispr_Seq R	CATGGATGGATCTCTCTCA
CaMV 35S_F	CCACCATGTTGGCATGGAGTCAAAGATTCAAAT AG AG
CaMV 35S_R	GAATTCAGTCCCCCGTGTTCTCTCCAAATG
FLAG_F	GGATCCATGGACTATAAGGACCACGAC
SDM	
ACTPK1 K332R F	AGTCAGGATGTAGCTATTAGAGTAGTGAGACCT GAACGC
ACTPK1 K332R R	GCGTTCAGGTCTCACTACTCTAATAGCTACATC CTGACT
ACTPK1 K428R F	CATAATTCACCGTGATCTCAGGACAGCGAATCT TCTTATGG
ACTPK1 K428R F	CCATAAGAAGATTCGCTGTCCTGAGATCACGGT GAATTATG
MPK3 K65R F	GATGGTGGCGATACGCAAGATCGCCAACGC
MPK3 K65R R	GCGTTGGCGATCTTGCGTATCGCCACCATC
RbcS T12A F	CACCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATGGCGTCGTCGG CCACCGCCGTCGCTCCCTTC
RbcS T12A R	GTTGCCACCAGACTCCTCGC
RbcS S31A F	CACCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATG
RbcS S31A R	CATGCACCTGATCCTGCCGCCATTGCTGACGTT GCCGAAGCTGGCGTTGCCGGAGCGGC
RbcS S34A F	CACCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATG
RbcS S34A R	CATGCACCTGATCCTGCCGCCATTGCTGACGTT GCCGAAGCTGGAGTTGCCGGCGCGGC
RbcS T12D F	CACCATGGCCCCCTCCGTGATGGCGTCGTCGG CCACCGACGTCGCTCCCTTC
RbcS T12D R	GTTGCCACCAGACTCCTCGC

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