Anatomical features, efficient photosystem, and Rubisco activity contribute to high leaf photosynthesis in wild rice

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Summary

- The importance of increasing photosynthetic efficiency for sustainable crop yield increases to feed the growing world population is well recognized. The genus *Oryza*, including cultivated rice and wild relatives, offers tremendous genetic variability to explore photosynthetic differences and underlying developmental, photochemical, and biochemical basis.

- We quantified leaf photosynthesis and related physiological parameters for ten rice genotypes, six cultivated rice and four wild relatives. Further, we identified differences in anatomical traits, photochemical features and Rubisco activity across the selected rice accessions.

- Wild rice species with high leaf photosynthesis per unit area had striking anatomical features, such as larger mesophyll cells with more chloroplasts, larger and closer veins, and a smaller number of mesophyll cells between two consecutive veins. In addition, photosynthetically efficient wild rice species showed an efficient Photosystem II as well as higher carboxylation activity of Rubisco compared to less efficient cultivated varieties, such as IR 64.

- Our results show the existence of desirable variations in mesophyll and vein features, Photosystem II efficiency, and Rubisco activity in the rice system itself that could possibly be targeted for higher leaf photosynthesis. Detailed genetic and molecular understanding of these traits shall be instrumental in increasing photosynthetic efficiency of cultivated rice.

Keywords: Chlorophyll fluorescence, Leaf anatomy, Photosynthesis, Photosystem II (PSII), Rubisco, Wild rice.

Introduction

A remarkable increase in food grain production is needed to meet the demand of the growing world population that is expected to reach 10 billion by 2050 (Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012). Crop yield increases due to extensive breeding and agronomic practices is approaching a plateau over the last decade (Peng *et al*., 2008; Lawson *et al*., 2012). The yield increases due to the breeding for semi-dwarf varieties, resulting in optimization of photosynthates' allocation, during the green revolution have also largely been saturated (Jansson *et al.,* 2018). The further increases in crop yield and productivity, therefore, requires improving photosynthetic efficiency of crop plants (Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Lawson *et al*., 2012; Ort *et al.*, 2015; Simkin *et al.*, 2019).

Photosynthesis, the key biochemical process fixing atmospheric CO_2 in the form of carbohydrates, is a multifaceted process that has contributions from leaf physiological, developmental, and biochemical features along with ambient environmental conditions (Long *et al.,* 2006; Mathan *et al.,* 2016). Stomatal conductance (g_s), carboxylation efficiency (CE), transpiration (E), and water-use efficiency (WUE) are critical physiological parameters determining leaf gaseous exchange and water relationship that eventually affect the leaf photosynthesis (Farquhar & Sharkey, 1982). Extrinsic factors, such as light and CO_2 concentration, influence photosynthetic performance by regulating the activity of light-harvesting complexes (LHCs) and Rubisco as well as stomatal opening (Leong & Anderson, 1984; Eichelmann & Laisk, 2002; Hiyama *et al.*, 2017). In addition, the diurnal timing of the day influences the photosynthesis by mid-day stomatal closure and photorespiration (Zhao *et al.*, 2010).

Developmental characteristics of leaf are strong determinants of photosynthesis (Mathan *et al.,* 2016). Flag leaf width, flag leaf thickness, and specific leaf area showed a positive correlation with intrinsic photosynthetic capacity, thus effecting overall crop growth and yield (Liu *et al.*, 2015). Anatomical features such as size, lobbing, and surface area of mesophyll cells, are critical for proper light distribution and CO_2 diffusion within a leaf (Flexas *et al.*, 2008; Sage & Sage, 2009; Tholen *et al.,* 2012). Similarly, leaf vasculature serves as a channel for distribution of water and minerals for photosynthesis and mobilizes photoassimilated CO_2 from leaves to various sink organs (Sack & Scoffoni, 2013). Vein density and interveinal distance have been shown to influence CO_2 fixation efficiency (Ogle, 2003; Amiard *et al.,* 2005; Ueno *et al.,* 2006; Brodribb *et al.,* 2007).Thus, investigating relationships between leaf anatomy and photosynthetic features, and identification of genetic

regulators of desirable anatomical features could help in optimizing crop photosynthetic

efficiency (Evans, 2013).

Photochemical features, such as organization of light-harvesting complexes, quantum

efficiency of photosystem, electron transport rate, and photochemical and non-photochemical

quenching are key factors for photosynthetic efficiency (Murchie and Lawson, 2013; Wu e*t*

al., 2019). Chlorophyll molecules absorb light energy to drive photosynthesis or fluorescence.

Maintaining a higher level of chlorophyll content for longer duration in a leaf is one of the

suggested strategies for increasing net photosynthesis and crop production (Huang *et al.*,

2013). Quantification of chlorophyll fluorescence is used to differentiate photochemical

quenching and non-photochemical quenching, and to evaluate the efficiency of Photosystem

II (PSII) reaction centres (Kalaji *et al.*, 2016). Approaches to increase light harvesting by

PSII reaction centres and photochemical quenching shall be effective in increasing crop

photosynthetic efficiency (Horton & Ruban, 2005; Cardona *et al.,* 2018).

Different steps of CO_2 photoassimilation are under complex genetic and

environmental regulation. Transcriptional control of photosynthesis and associated leaf

features is suggested to have potential for improving photosynthetic assimilation (Wang *et al.*,

2017). Transcription factors, such as GLK1, HY5, ATAF1, ORE1, and PIF, have been shown

to activate the photosynthetic gene expression in crop plants (Kobayashi *et al.,* 2012; Toledo-

Ortiz *et al.,* 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2017). Golden2-like (GLK) transcription factor positively

regulates the chloroplast development and also binds directly to the promoter of LHC genes

(Fitter *et al.*, 2002; Waters *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, HY5 and PIF4/5 are important regulators

controlling the regulatory network governing photosynthetic gene expression and senescence,

respectively (Kindgren *et al.*, 2012). However, genetic rewiring of transcription factors

towards improving crop photosynthetic performance remains elusive.

Over the past years, several studies have extensively elaborated the biochemical

understanding of photosynthesis (Tamoi *et al.*, 2006; Fermani *et al.*, 2007; Buchanan *et al.*,

2012). There have been examples for increasing photosynthetic efficiency, resulting in

increased yield and/or biomass. One such example is the evolution of C_4 plants, where

specific developmental and biochemical features promote efficient photoassimilation of CO_2

(Kajala *et al.*, 2011; Koteyeva *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Kapralov *et al.*, 2012). Free air

CO_2 enrichment increases leaf photosynthesis in C_3 plants (Rogers *et al.*, 2004; Sasaki *et al.*,

2007; Högy *et al.*, 2013). Optimization of additional parameters, such as decreasing Rubisco

oxygenase activity, increasing RuBP regeneration, suppressing photorespiration, and

increasing photoprotection of the photosynthesis have also been suggested to improve

photosynthetic efficiency (Long *et al.*, 2006; Murchie & Niyogi, 2011; Rosenthal *et al.*,

2011; Furbank *et al.*, 2015).

Engineering C_4 photosynthesis in C_3 plants has been envisioned as a potential strategy

towards enhancing crop photosynthetic performance (Häusler *et al.*, 2002). However,

bringing in C_4 photosynthesis in C_3 plants is challenging due to evolutionary, developmental,

and biochemical constraints (von Caemmerer *et al.,* 2012; Schuler *et al.,* 2016; Reeves *et al.,*

2017). The natural genetic variation in leaf photosynthesis, associated developmental,

photochemical, and biochemical features, and underlying genetic regulation in crop plants is

an overlooked and untapped resource that could potentially be rewarding for increasing leaf

photosynthesis (Flood *et al.,* 2011; Gu *et al.,* 2014; van Bezouw *et al.,* 2019). Rice, with two

cultivated species: *Oryza sativa* (Asian rice with two subspecies: indica and japonica) and

Oryza glaberrima (African rice), and many related wild rice species, provides an excellent

system to investigate photosynthetic differences, and underlying genetic basis. Many of the

wild rice species have been used in crop breeding programs towards improving biotic and

abiotic stress tolerance of the cultivated rice (Sanchez *et al.,* 2013; Sang & Ge, 2013; Atwell

et al., 2014; Palmgren *et al.,* 2015; Wing *et al.,* 2018). Interestingly, some of the wild rice

species (*O. rufipogon*, *O. latifolia*, and *O. australiensis*) are reported to accumulate higher

biomass than cultivated varieties, and introgression from a wild *Oryza* species to cultivated

rice has also been shown to increase biomass (Yeo *et al.*, 1994; Zhao *et al.*, 2008). However,

a systematic effort to identify the photosynthetic differences, linking the differences to

developmental, photochemical, and biochemical features, and investigating the underlying

genetic and molecular basis is warranted.

We examined a set of cultivated (including both subspecies of *Oryza sativa* and *Oryza*

glaberrima) and wild rice species, differing in biomass accumulation, to find out strong

differences in leaf photosynthesis. We, further, identified the developmental, photochemical,

and biochemical differences among the selected photosynthetically different accessions.

Expression pattern of genes encoding photosynthetic components, chlorophyll-biosynthetic

enzymes and transcription factors, and Rubisco enzyme activity corroborated the leaf

photosynthesis differences across cultivated and wild rice.

Material and Methods

Plant material

Ten rice genotypes, consisting of four varieties of *Oryza sativa* ssp. *indica* (IR 64, Swarna, Nagina 22, and Vandana), a variety from *Oryza sativa* ssp. *japonica* (Nipponbare), African cultivated rice *Oryza glaberrima*, and four wild rice species, *Oryza rufipogon*, *Oryza punctata*, *Oryza latifolia,* and *Oryza australiensis* were grown in Kharif 2016 and 2017 at NIPGR research farm (Table S1). These genotypes were also grown in pots under controlled growth chambers with the temperature (28 ºC), humidity (70-90 %), and day length (14h: 10h, light: dark). Physiological, developmental, photochemical, and biochemical traits were evaluated at heading stage in the widest part of the flag leaves.

Photosynthesis rate and related physiological trait measurements

Flag leaf photosynthesis was measured at the full heading stage with a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT equipped with a 6400-40 Leaf Chamber Fluorometer (LI-COR Biosciences). Measurement was conducted on a clear day between 9.00 h to 11.00 h under ambient CO_2 level (400 µmol mol^{-1}), air temperature (30 ºC), leaf temperature (27 ºC), and PAR (1,000 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) conditions. Net photosynthesis rate (P_N), and related physiological parameters such as stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci), transpiration rate (E), water use efficiency (WUE; ratios P_N : E), and carboxylation efficiency (CE; ratios P_N : Ci) were recorded once the expanded leaf was enclosed in the LI-COR leaf chamber. In order to examine the effect of light intensity and CO_2 concentration, leaf photosynthesis was measured at different photosynthetically active radiations (PAR; 0, 300, 500, 700, 1000, 1200, and 1500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}), and at intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci; 0, 400, 600, 800, 1000, 1200, and 1400 µmol mol^{-1}). Further, leaf photosynthesis was measured at every hour from 9.00 h to 15.00 h to examine the diurnal effect on P_N for the selected cultivated and wild rice as described in Feldman *et al.* (2017).

Visualization and quantification of leaf developmental traits

Morphological trait measurements such as flag leaf width (FLW), leaf thickness (FLT) was carried out manually from the widest part of the leaves from ten individual rice plants for each accession. For anatomical traits visualization, thin sections were cut manually and stained with toluidine blue with some modification of the method as described in Lux *et al.*, 2005. Briefly, thin sections were mounted with 50 % glycerol on a tissue culture plate, chlorophyll pigments were cleared using 85 % (w/v) lactic acid saturated with chloral hydrate,

heated on a water bath at 70 ºC for 1 hour and washed several times with distilled water. To

visualize mesophyll cells, sections were incubated in absolute alcohol for overnight, stained

with 1% toluidine blue in 1% (w/v) disodium tetraborate for 15 sec. Finally, thin sections

were visualized using a bright field microscope (LMI, UK). The quantification of leaf

anatomical features was performed using Fiji-Image J software (Wayne Rasband, National

Institute of Health, USA) as described in Chatterjee *et al.* (2016).

Chloroplast ultrastructure

Freshly harvested flag leaf segments (1 × 1 mm) were fixed under fixative buffer (3%

glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2) for 2 hours and then treated with 1%

osmium tetroxide overnight at 4 ºC. The fixed segments were dehydrated in a graded acetone

series and embedded in epoxy resin (Spurr, 1969). Ultrathin sections were cut with diamond

knives, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate double staining procedure as described in

Reynolds, 1963. Chloroplasts of the uppermost part of the leaf sections were viewed using a

digital camera (BH-2, Olympus) equipped in transmission electron microscopy at 1000X

magnification (JEM 1230; JEOL).

Leaf chlorophyll measurement

Total chlorophyll content (TCC) were measured in 80 % acetone following the procedure of

Kiran *et al.* (2013). Briefly, flag leaf (50 mg) was incubated in 5 ml ice-cold 80 % acetone for

48 h, centrifuged at 5,000 × g for 5 min and absorbance was recorded at 663 nm and 645 nm.

The pigment concentration was calculated according to (Lichtenthaler & Wellburn, 1983)

and expressed in mg g^{-1} FW.

Leaf Chlorophyll Fluorescence Measurements

Leaf chlorophyll (chl) fluorescence was measured using the LI-6400XT fluorometer (LI-

COR Biosciences) according to the method described by Toth *et al.* (2011). Plants were

grown under controlled growth conditions, dark-adapted for at least 45 min before the

measurement of F_v/F_m (ratio of the variable to maximum fluorescence - the quantum

efficiency of open PSII centers). After the initial or minimum fluorescence (F_o) was measure,

plants were illuminated with a 0.8 sec saturated pulse of light provided by an array of light-

emitting diodes (LEDs) [mixture of red (90 %) and blue (10 %) lights at 650 nm peak

wavelength, 1000 μmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$] focused on a circular 2.0 cm^2 leaf surface area. Maximum

fluorescence (F_m) was measured, and F_v/F_m calculated as (F_m-F_o/F_m). Plants were then placed

under natural irradiance, and the steady-state of fluorescence (F_s) was recorded. A second saturating pulse at 1000 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} was imposed to determine the maximal fluorescence level in light-adapted leaves (F_m'). Then, the actinic light was removed, and the minimal fluorescence level in the light-adapted state (F_o') was determined through of illuminating the leaf with 1 sec of far-red light. Using light fluorescence parameters, we calculated: (a) ratio of variable to maximum fluorescence - the quantum efficiency of open PSII centers (F_v/F_m) in dark-adapted state, (b) the actual PSII efficiency (φPSII), (c) photochemical quenching coefficient (qP), and (d) the photosynthetic electron transport rate (ETR) in light-adapted state as described in Maxwell & Johnson (2000).

RNA isolation and expression analysis

Total RNA was isolated from flag leaf and leaf 4 at primordial 4 stages (P4) (van Campen *et al.,* 2016). Tissues were harvested, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA extraction (TRIzol reagent), DNase treatment (DNase enzyme), and cDNA synthesis (RevertAid First-strand cDNA synthesis kit) were performed according to the manufacturer protocol (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The PowerUp™ SYBR® Green fluorescence dye and specific primer sets (Table S6) were used for quantitative gene expression analysis on CFX connect Real-time PCR detection system (Bio-Rad, CA, USA). The expression analysis was confirmed by analyzing two biological replicates, with three technical repeats each. Rice actin was used as an internal control gene for normalization of gene expression. The relative change or fold change was calculated following the method of (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001).

Rubisco activation assay

Rubisco extraction and activity (Vcmax) was performed following the procedure described in Kubien *et al.* (2011). Briefly, leaf tissue (3.6 × 1.0 cm^2) from illuminated leaves were excised from five plants of each species and homogenized in extraction buffer [EB, 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 ºC. The homogenate centrifuged for 1 min at ~16,000 × g and pellet was discarded. To assess the activity of Rubisco from leaf extract, 50 µl of leaf extract was incubated with 1,550 ml of the EME buffer, 40 µl 10 mM of NADH (final concentration 200 µM), 80 µl of 250 mM NaH^{12}CO$_3$ (10 mM), 200 µl of ATP/phosphocreatine (1 and 5 mM, respectively), 40 µl of coupling enzymes (Carbonic anhydrase 500U, Glyceraldehyde-3-P dehydrogenase 50U, 3-Phosphoglycerate kinase 50U, Triose-P Isomerase/Glycerol-3-P dehydrogenase 400/40U), 40 µl of 25 mM RuBP (500 µM),

mixed gently, and monitored to A_{340} nm continuously for 0 to 180 sec using a UV–Vis

spectrophotometer.

Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by statistical significance were grouped

according to post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$). Least significant

difference was calculated by Fisher's test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Pearson correlation matrices were

calculated based on mean values of each leaf developmental and physiological trait for each

accession to evaluate the trait-to-trait associations. The level of significance (α) of correlation

coefficients was determined at *$P < 0.05$ (± 0.666; degree of freedom (df; n-2; 9-2 = 7).

Results

Quantification of leaf photosynthesis and physiological parameters

Cultivated and wild rice species showing remarkable differences for biomass

accumulation for the same crop growth period under field conditions as well as controlled

growth chambers were examined for leaf photosynthesis (P_N) and related physiological

features (Fig. S1). The mean P_N value for the wild rice species, *O. latifolia*, *O. australiensis*,

and *O. rufipogon*, and African cultivated rice *Oryza glaberrima* were found to be

significantly higher than the cultivated rice varieties, such as IR64, Nagina 22 and Vandana

(Fig. 1a). Among the selected accessions, *O. australiensis* and *O. latifolia* showed highest P_N,

23.50 and 24.18 µmol CO_2 $m^{-2} s^{-1}$, respectively. Also, we observed remarkable variations for

P_N among the cultivated varieties. For instance, one of the high yielding *indica* variety

Swarna and *japonica* variety Nipponbare displayed higher P_N compared to other cultivated

varieties.

We further examined other important physiological traits of the selected accessions.

As expected, wild rice species, *O. latifolia* and *O. australiensis* with very high P_N, showed

higher stomatal conductance (g_s), and intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci) (Fig. 1b,c). In

addition, these species along with *O. rufipogon* displayed higher carboxylation efficiency

(CE) than those of cultivated rice (Fig. 1f). Interestingly, *O. australiensis*, one of the two wild

species with highest P_N, had relatively lower transpiration rate (E), resulting in highest water

use efficiency (WUE) for the species (Fig. 1d,e). Wild species *O. punctata* and *O. sativa* ssp

indica cv. Vandana also exhibited lower E compared to other genotypes (Fig. 1d), and

corresponding higher WUE of Vandana (Fig. 1e). WUE of *O. punctata* was still relatively

lower due to lower P_N of the species (Fig. 1a,e).

Pearson correlation analysis showed a strong positive correlation between P_N with g_s

($r = 0.665$), Ci ($r = 0.632$), and CE ($r = 0.656$) (Fig. S2). Higher WUE results from higher

P_N coupled with lower E, which is evident from the strong positive correlation between WUE

and P_N ($r = 0.618$) and a negative correlation between WUE and E (r = -0.589). A poor

correlation was observed between P_N and E ($r = 0.248$) (Fig. S2). We, further, quantified leaf

photosynthesis and related physiological traits at early vegetative stage under controlled

conditions in two independent experiments. Similar to our observations at full heading stage

under field conditions, wild rice species (excluding *O. punctata*) and *O. glaberrima* showed

higher P_N and g_s compared to cultivated rice since the beginning of vegetative stage (Table

S2). Taken together, these results showed significant differences in photosynthetic traits

across cultivated and wild rice, with *O. australiensis* showing higher WUE along with

remarkably higher leaf photosynthesis than cultivated rice varieties. We then selected

representative cultivated rice accessions (IR 64, Nipponbare, and *O. glaberrima*) and wild

rice species (*O. rufipogon, O.latifolia,* and *O. australiensis)* for detailed analyses.

298   Effects of light intensity, CO_2 concentration, and diurnal time on photosynthesis and

299   related physiological traits

Light intensity and CO_2 concentration are the two most important factors determining

leaf photosynthesis. Therefore, we examined the effect of different light intensity and CO_2

concentration on P_N, g_s, E, WUE, P_N (max), Ci and CE of selected wild and cultivated rice

accessions (Fig. 2; Fig. S3). All the species showed a steeper initial slope, instantaneous

enhancement followed by a plateau for leaf photosynthesis per unit area with an increasing

photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and CO_2 concentration (Fig. 2a,b-I). Wild rice

species, *O. latifolia* and *O. australiensis*, together with *O. glaberrima* and *O. sativa* cv.

Nipponbare exhibited higher P_N at the beginning, with clearly higher P_N at PAR > 1000 μmol

m^{-2} s^{-1} (Fig. 2a-I). Similarly, P_N in response to increasing CO_2 concentration segregated the

selected genotypes under two distinct groups: *O. australiensis, O. latifolia* and *O. glaberrima*

with higher P_N, and cultivated varieties with lower P_N. The genotypes showed the pattern of

g_s similar to that of P_N in response to changing light intensity (Fig. 2a-II). The g_s, however,

showed a decreasing trend over increasing CO_2 concentration, likely due to the closure of

stomata (Fig. 2b-II). Nonetheless, P_N showed an increasing trend at higher concentration of

CO_2. Interestingly, wild rice species were able to maintain higher g_s at different light intensity

and CO_2 concentration. Cultivated varieties showed increased E, thus reduced WUE, in

response to increasing light intensity (Fig. 2a, III –IV). In contrast, the wild species, *O.*

australiensis and *O. latifolia*, showed lower E, and hence higher WUE, compared to
cultivated varieties at different light intensities. Reducing E, and hence increased WUE, was
detected for all the genotypes beyond 400 μmol mol^{-1} CO_2 concentration (Fig. 2b, III –IV).

The leaf photosynthesis has been shown to peak up before noon, and subsequently
decreases (Hirasawa & Hsiao, 1999; Murchie *et al.,* 1999; Gu *et al.,* 2014). In order to
investigate the effect of diurnal timing, P_N and other physiological traits were quantified for
the selected genotypes at different times of the day (Fig. 2c). P_N increased for all the
genotypes until mid-day (9.00 h to 12.00 h) and decline thereafter (12.00 h to 15.00 h) (Fig.
2c-I). However, the extent of the decline was lesser in wild rice species, indicating that the
wild species were able to maintain higher photosynthetic activity throughout the day. The g_s
also followed the similar pattern to that of P_N for the selected species at different times of a
day (Fig. 2c-II). Interestingly, E was found to be higher for the wild species in the immediate
afternoon (13.00-14.00 h), likely due to leaf and stomatal features (Fig. 2c-III).

Taken together, all these results showed that the selected wild rice species were
photosynthetically more efficient than cultivated rice varieties at a different light intensity,
CO_2 concentration, and time points of a day.

Leaf developmental traits underpinning photosynthetic variations

Leaves are the prime photosynthetic organs, and expectedly the selected rice
accessions exhibited striking differences in overall leaf architecture (Fig. S1). At the
morphological level, cultivated and wild rice species showed considerable variation for flag
leaf width (FLW) and flag leaf thickness (FLT) (Table S3). Wild rice species, except *O.*
punctata that showed lower P_N, had thicker and wider leaves. A strong positive association of
P_N were found with FLW (*r = 0.829*) and FLT (*r = 0.806)* (Fig.3a).

At the anatomical level, remarkable differences in the vascular architecture and
mesophyll cell features were observed. Wild rice species, with higher net photosynthesis, had
larger and closely spaced veins with fewer number of mesophyll cells between two
consecutive veins (Fig. 3b; Table S3-4). Those wild species with higher P_N also had larger
mesophyll cell size (Fig. 3c; Table S4). We further quantified mesophyll area in vegetative
stage leaves of the selected accessions. More pronounced mesophyll cells were observed,
even in the vegetative stage of the wild rice species with higher P_N, as compared to cultivated
varieties (Fig. 3d). The considerable variation observed in mesophyll cell features prompted
us to investigate the organization of chloroplasts in mesophyll cells of the representative wild
and cultivated leaf (Fig. S4). Wild species with higher P_N exhibited larger and numerous

chloroplasts, systematically distributed along the mesophyll cell walls. Wild rice with higher leaf photosynthesis also exhibited a higher value of vein height and width (Fig. 3e; Table S3). Pearson correlation coefficient analysis showed a strong positive correlation of P_N with mesophyll area ($r = 0.905$), mesophyll length ($r = 0.874$), mesophyll width ($r = 0.930$), and mesophyll lobbing ($r = 0.771$) (Fig. 3a). The P_N was also strongly correlated with total number of veins ($r = 0.857$), minor veins height ($r = 0.906$), and minor vein width ($r = 0.758$) (Fig. 3a). However, P_N was poorly correlated with bundle sheath features, number, and area (Fig. 3a). It was interesting to note that among cultivated rice varieties, a similar connection of photosynthesis with developmental traits was also observed. For example, Nipponbare and Swarna that showed relatively higher P_N compared to other cultivated varieties also showed larger vein height and width (Table S3). Swarna, further, had wider leaf and higher vein number.

Photochemical differences among the selected rice accessions

We examined the differences in photochemical features of the selected rice accessions that differ in leaf photosynthesis. Most of the accessions with higher photosynthesis also had higher total chlorophyll content (TCC; $r = 0.54$) (Fig. 4a). The *O. australiensis, O. latifolia* and *O. rufipogon* among wild rice species, and *O. glaberrima, O. sativa* cv. *Swarna*, and *O. sativa* cv. *Nipponbare* among cultivated rice had higher leaf chlorophyll content. The *O. punctata*, despite having highest chlorophyll content, showed lower P_N, suggesting developmental and/or biochemical constraints for efficient photosynthesis in the species (Kura-Hotta *et al.,* 1987; Wang *et al.,* 2016). We, then, quantified chlorophyll fluorescence (F_v/F_m) of dark-adapted leaves to determine the differences in quantum photochemical efficiency of Photosystem II (PSII). Significant variations for F_v/F_m, which ranged from 0.73 to 0.83, were found across the selected cultivated and wild rice species (Fig. 4b). Wild rice species, *O. australiensis*, and *O. latifolia*, and *O. glaberrima* had higher F_v/F_m, indicating the better quantum yield of PSII chemistry in those species. *O. latifolia* and *O. australiensis* showed a significantly higher value of efficiency of PSII (ɸPSII), photochemical quenching (qP), and electron transport rate (ETR) compared to other accessions (Fig. 4c-e). *O. glaberrima*, the African cultivated rice with reasonably higher P_N, also showed relatively higher ɸPSII, qP, and ETR than *O. sativa* cultivated varieties. A strong correlation was observed between P_N with F_v/F_m ($r = 0.789$), ɸPSII ($r = 0.981$), qP ($r = 0.980$), and ETR ($r = 0.981$) (Fig. S5). These results showed that photochemical features of wild rice species, as well as *O. glaberrima*, contribute to the higher leaf photosynthesis in those species.

Expression pattern of genes encoding core photosynthetic and chlorophyll biosynthesis enzymes

To envisage any differences in photosynthetic gene expression across the genotype, we checked the expression pattern of representative genes encoding key photosynthetic components, LHC1 (Light harvesting chlorophyll protein complex), Rubisco LS (Large Subunit), Rubisco SS (Small Subunit), and TPT (Triose phosphate translocator) (Table S5). The expression of the selected photosynthetic genes was significantly higher in wild rice species (Fig. 5a), suggesting higher photosynthesis in those species could, at least in part, be due to the higher abundance of these gene products. These genes could possibly increase net photosynthetic efficiency by increasing the efficiency of light capture, CO_2 assimilation, and transport of triose phosphate from chloroplast to cytoplasm. Since wild rice species with higher photosynthesis also showed higher chlorophyll content, we checked the expression level of chlorophyll biosynthesis genes. The expression of chlorophyll biosynthesis genes, such as *GluTR*, *PPOX*, *Mg-CHLD*, *POR*, and *CHLSYN*, were found to be significantly higher in *O. latifolia* and *O. australiensis* (Fig. 5b). *O. rufipogon* also had significantly higher expression of selected photosynthetic and chlorophyll-biosynthetic genes compared to Nipponbare and IR 64.

We then investigated the involvement of transcription factors in the regulation of expression of the selected photosynthetic and chlorophyll-biosynthetic genes. A comprehensive list of transcription factors regulating photosynthetic and chlorophyll biosynthetic-genes has been reported in (Sakuraba *et al.,* 2017; Wang *et al.,* 2017; Yuan *et al.,* 2017). The differentially expressed photosynthetic and chlorophyll biosynthetic-genes were hierarchically clustered with the expression of potential transcription factors in rice using Genevestigator (https://genevestigator.com/gv/). We found a number of transcription factors co-expressed with the selected differentially expressed genes in flag leaves (Fig. S6). We, then, selected ten such transcription factors and profiled their gene expression at primordia 4 (P4) stage of leaf 4 (Table S5). At least six of those ten genes, including *GLK1*, *GLK2*, and *SIGMA* factors, were expressed at higher levels in wild rice with higher leaf photosynthesis (Fig. 5c). *O. glaberrima* and *O. sativa cv. Nipponbare*, with moderately high P_N, also showed higher expression of some of these transcription factors. Differential expression of these transcription factors suggested that differences in the transcriptional module regulating photosynthetic gene expression could be critical for determining leaf photosynthetic efficiency.

Rubisco activity differences across the selected rice genotypes

The catalytic properties of Rubisco vary considerably from diverse plant sources, suggesting that differences in the Rubisco activity might contribute to differences in photosynthetic activity (Parry *et al.,* 2003, 2013; Carmo-Silva *et al.,* 2015). To test this hypothesis, we measured the Rubisco activity across selected cultivated and wild rice species. The CO_2-saturated RuBP use and rate of Rubisco carboxylation activity (Vcmax) was found to be significantly higher for wild rice species, *O. latifolia*, *O. australiensis*, and *O. rufipogon*, compared to *Oryza sativa cv.* IR 64 (Fig. 5d,e). Interestingly, *Oryza sativa cv. Nipponbare*, a *japonica* variety, also had higher Rubisco activity compared to *indica* variety IR 64. The photosynthesis rate per unit area, as discussed earlier, was found to be higher in wild rice species as well as Nipponbare compared to IR 64 (Fig. 1a and 5e). Overall, these results showed the existence of variation in Rubisco carboxylation activity within the rice system, cultivated and wild rice, which was also reflected at the level of leaf photosynthetic differences. This possibility of the existence of Rubisco with higher carboxylation activity from the rice system itself could possibly be exploited for increasing CO_2 assimilation.

Discussion

The importance of investigating variations in leaf photosynthesis within and across species to be exploited for sustainable increases in crop yield and productivity has been emphasized (Parry *et al.*, 2018; Adachi *et al.*, 2019; van Bezouw *et al.*, 2019). A number of studies have shown the variation in photosynthesis and related traits within species, such as maize (Yabiku & Ueno, 2017), wheat (Driever *et al.*, 2014), rice (Adachi *et al.*, 2014; Qu *et al.*, 2017), soybean (Gilbert *et al.*, 2011), and even C_4 species *Gynandropsis gynandra* (Reeves *et al.*, 2018). Extensive comparative genetic and genomic studies have been undertaken to investigate the variation in photosynthetic efficiency across C_3 and C_4 species (Bräutigam *et al.*, 2011; Külahoglu *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014). Based on these studies, global efforts to engineer C_4 photosynthesis in rice are being made, which is challenging due to extensive genetic, developmental, and biochemical differences between C_4 plants and rice. An alternative and efficient strategy would be exploiting the photosynthetic variations within rice system itself, including cultivated and wild rice. There had been a few studies highlighting the photosynthetic differences within cultivated, and among cultivated and wild rice accessions (Kiran *et al.,* 2013; Kondamudi *et al.*, 2016; Rathore *et al.,* 2016; Haritha *et al.,* 2017; Sung *et al.,* 2017). In this study, we not only quantified leaf photosynthetic differences across cultivated and wild rice accessions, but also identified the underlying

anatomical, biochemical, and photochemical traits mediating higher leaf photosynthesis in

rice. In addition, we evaluated the relationship between photosynthesis and other

physiological traits, such as gas exchange, carboxylation efficiency, transpiration, and water

use efficiency for the wild and cultivated rice accessions.

Wild relatives of rice, *Oryza australiensis*, *Oryza latifolia*, and *Oryza rufipogon*, as

well as African domesticated rice *Oryza glaberrima* showed higher leaf photosynthesis per

unit area (P_N) compared to cultivated varieties of *Oryza sativa* (Fig. 1a). Stomatal

conductance (g_s) is known to be an important factor determining the leaf photosynthesis rate

(Kusumi *et al.*, 2012; Gago *et al.*, 2016; Xu *et al.*, 2019). Two wild rice species, *O.*

australiensis and *O. latifolia*, with highest P_N also had highest values of g_s, which in turn

resulted in higher internal CO_2 concentration (Ci) in those species (Fig. 1b,c), supporting a

strong correlation between P_N and g_s (Kanemura *et al.*, 2007; Giuliani *et al.*, 2013). *O.*

rufipogon with reasonably higher P_N, however, had lower g_s and Ci. The higher P_N in *O.*

rufipogon was likely due to highest carboxylation efficiency (CE) in the species among the

selected accessions (Fig. 1f). Further, *O. australiensis* and *O. latifolia* also had reasonably

higher CE. The P_N has been shown to be positively associated with CE in rice (Yeo *et al.*,

1994; Ding *et al.*, 2015). Indeed, quantification of photosynthesis and related physiological

parameters for introgressions from *O. rufipogon* in a cultivated background showed the

influence of both CE as well as g_s on higher leaf photosynthesis (Haritha *et al.*, 2017).

Furthermore, higher g_s and CE could also explain higher P_N across different PAR in the wild

rice (Fig 2a-II, S3a-III). Higher P_N in the wild species at different times of a day, even in the

afternoon when stomata tend to close (Condon *et al.*, 2004; Takai *et al.*, 2013), compared to

cultivated varieties could also be attributed to relatively higher g_s and CE in those species

(Fig. 2c, S3c). Notably higher photosynthetic efficiency in the wild rice species suggests that

leaf photosynthesis in cultivated rice has not yet reached the saturation level, and therefore,

can possibly be achieved by targeting higher g_s and/or higher CE. Moreover, increments in g_s

might also help in optimizing photosynthetic performance under environmental stress

conditions (Zheng *et al.*, 2011). *O. australiensis*, interestingly, appeared to be the most water-

use efficient among the selected accessions due to high P_N coupled with low transpiration rate

(E), making it an ideal genotype to investigate for maintaining higher leaf photosynthesis

under drought conditions (Fig. 1a,d,e). Many of the wild rice species, including *O.*

australiensis, have been marked for their potential usage towards tolerance to heat and

drought (Tian *et al.*, 2011; Sanchez *et al.*, 2013; Singh *et al.*, 2015; Menguer *et al.*, 2017).

The differences in g_s and E are likely related to differences in the stomatal features or

regulation of stomatal opening across the genotypes, as stomatal features are critical for

photosynthesis, gas exchange, and water use efficiency (Farquhar & Sharkey, 1982).

Kondamudi *et al.* (2016) showed that leaves with larger-sized stomata had higher

photosynthesis rate than the leaves with smaller-sized stomata due to higher g_s. Similarly,

rice species with broader leaves have been shown to exhibit higher P_N due to increased g_s

than species with narrow leaves (Farooq *et al.,* 2010; Giuliani *et al.,* 2013). Differences in

internal CO_2 concentration and/or biochemical differences, such as Rubisco activity, may

mediate the observed differences in the CE (Brodribb*,* 1996; Eichelmann & Laisk, 2002).

Nonetheless, efforts to increase g_s and CE in the cultivated rice varieties comparable to the

high photosynthetic wild species may help in increasing photosynthetic efficiency.

The strong correlation of leaf developmental traits with P_N is not surprising

considering the strong influence of leaf traits on light perception, gas exchange, CO_2

assimilation, and downstream photoassimilate partitioning. We observed a strong positive

association of P_N with leaf width and thickness (Fig. 3a). Leaf thickness has been suggested

to influence photosynthesis through efficient absorption and utilization of light by

homogenizing the leaf internal light distribution as well as maintaining leaf temperature

(Hanba *et al.*, 2002; Tholen *et al.,* 2012). The association of leaf width with photosynthetic

performance and yield in rice has been observed earlier. *WUSCHEL-RELATED*

HOMEOBOX (*WOX*) genes *NAL1*, *NAL2*, and *NAL3* have been shown to be associated with

increased leaf width, which in turn results in increased photosynthetic efficiency and yield

(Cho *et al.,* 2013; Fujita *et al.,* 2013; Ishiwata *et al.*, 2013; Jiang *et al.,* 2015). Introgression

of a natural variant of *NAL1* from a *japonica* to *indica* cultivar led to thicker and wider leaves

with higher leaf photosynthesis rate and yield (Takai *et al.,* 2013).

Rice system also displays significant inter-species variation for anatomical traits,

suggesting strong genetic control over leaf anatomical features (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2016).

Photosynthetically efficient wild rice species have mesophyll cell features that promote both

higher access to available CO_2 as well as efficient light harvesting. Larger sized and lobed

mesophyll cells in wild rice species likely provides increased surface area to access more

internal CO_2 (Fig. 2c-d), whereas the organized pattern and systematic distribution of

chloroplasts in the mesophyll cells of those species may promote efficient light capture to

enhance photosynthesis (Fig. S4; Fig. 6). Interestingly, *NAL1* (discussed above) promotes

leaf width and thickness by increasing mesophyll cell number and area. An increased vein

density has been suggested to facilitate higher leaf photosynthesis by promoting efficient

export of photosynthates (Amiard *et al.,* 2005; Feldman *et al.*, 2017). Lesser number of

mesophyll cells between two consecutive veins in photosynthetically efficient wild species, a

feature similar to C_4 plants, should be promoting efficient transport of photoassimilates.

Larger vein size in the wild rice species shall, further, be adding to efficient transport, thus

increasing the leaf photosynthesis. The larger mesophyll cells with bigger chloroplasts and

larger veins in photosynthetically efficient wild rice species are reminiscent of "Proto-kranz

anatomy," an evolutionary step towards C_4 photosynthesis and have been suggested to be an

essential step towards increasing photosynthetic efficiency (Osborne & Sack, 2012).

Photosynthetically efficient wild rice species with desirable anatomical features provide a

potential genetic resource towards the identification of genes for desirable manipulation in

mesophyll and vein features.

Wild species with higher P_N showed significantly higher F_v/F_m compared to cultivated

varieties, indicating better quantum efficiency of Photosystem II in those species. The F_v/F_m

is used as the most common parameter for monitoring 'stress' in leaves as stress results in

inactivation damage of PSII by lowering of F_v/F_m (Murchie & Niyogi, 2011). The

comparative higher values for quantum efficiency of PSII (ϕPSII), photochemical quenching

(qP), and Electron Transport Rate (ETR) in the wild rice indicate PSII reaction centres are

more receptive for electron transport from PSII to PSI, making an efficient link between light

and light-independent reactions to increase P_N (Kramer & Evans, 2011). A positive

correlation has been reported between chlorophyll fluorescence in leaf and grain yield (von

Kroff *et al.,* 2008). The wild species with better photochemical features and higher P_N

accumulates more biomass, and not grain yield, likely due to defects in photoassimilate

partitioning to the grain. Nonetheless, the desirable photochemical features, at least in part,

contribute to higher photosynthetic efficiency of the wild species. Gene expression studies

also showed higher expression of *LHC1* gene, which is involved in organization of reaction

centre, in photosynthetically efficient wild species.

Rubisco is the rate-limiting enzyme for photoassimilation of CO_2, and abundance and

activity of Rubisco strongly determines the photosynthetic performance of a plant (Sage,

2002; Parry *et al.,* 2013). High photosynthetic wild species had higher expression of genes

encoding Rubisco large subunit and small subunit, indicating the higher abundance of

Rubisco in those species (Fig. 5a). Those wild species also had higher expression of

chlorophyll biosynthetic genes. The photosynthetic process as such, and genes encoding key

components of photosynthesis are under strong regulation of transcription factors (Saibo *et*

al., 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2017). Differences in the expression of transcription factors, such as

GLKs involved regulation of chlorophyll biosynthesis and *SIGMA* factors regulating the

chloroplastic gens *Rubisco LS*, suggested the rewiring of transcriptional module regulating photosynthesis as a potential target to increase rice leaf photosynthesis. Moreover, we also observed a higher Rubisco carboxylation activity (Vcmax) in photosynthetically efficient wild species (Fig. 5d-e). The prospects of improving Rubisco catalysis to increase photosynthetic efficiency have been explored (Sharwood, 2017). It has been suggested that transplanting maize Rubisco in rice would improve on CO_2 assimilation (Sharwood *et al.,* 2016). This study suggests a possible existence of an efficient Rubisco in the rice system itself, photosynthetically efficient wild rice. Further studies are needed to characterize the sequence differences in Rubisco subunits across the cultivated and wild rice, and if those sequence differences contribute to Rubisco carboxylation activity.

In summary, we characterized photosynthetically efficient wild rice species for leaf developmental, photochemical, and biochemical differences. Leaf developmental features (larger and lobbed mesophyll cells, larger veins, and lesser number of mesophyll cells between two consecutive veins), photochemical features (quantum efficiency of PSII, Photochemical quenching, and Electron Transport Rate), Rubisco activity contributes to higher leaf photosynthesis in wild rice (Fig. 6). The study highlights the existence of significant exploitable variation in leaf photosynthesis and underlying traits across cultivated and wild rice. Future efforts to dissect the genetic and molecular basis of the underlying developmental, photochemical, and biochemical traits shall be instrumental in tailoring photosynthetically efficient rice.

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Author contributions

JM and AR conceptualized the study. JM, AS, and AR designed experiments. JM, AS, and VJ performed experiments, analysed data, and compiled figures. AS and AR wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to and edited the final manuscript.

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 Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Variations in leaf photosynthesis and related physiological parameters across

cultivated and wild rice species. Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of flag leaf

surface area (P_N, a), stomatal conductance (g_s, b), intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci, c),

transpiration rate (E, d), water use efficiency (WUE, e), and carboxylation efficiency (CE, f)

for six cultivated rice accessions and four wild rice species. Cultivated rice accessions and

wild species are marked in blue and green shading, respectively. Asterisks indicate

significant differences between genotypes (one-way ANOVA, n = 15, *$P < 0.05$*). Different

letters indicate significant groupings according to post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation.

Fig. 2 Effects of PAR intensity, CO_2 concentration, and diurnal time on leaf photosynthesis

(P_N), stomatal conductance (g_s), transpiration (E), and water use efficiency (WUE) of

different rice genotypes.

a) Quantification of P_N (I), g_s (II), E (III), and WUE (IV) in response to increasing PAR from

0 to 1500 $\mu mol\ m^2\ s^{-1}$.

b) Quantification of P_N (I), g_s (II), E (III), and WUE (IV) in response to increasing CO_2

concentration from 0 to 1400 $\mu mol\ mol^{-1}$.

c) Quantification of P_N (I), g_s (II), E (III), and WUE (IV) at different time points of a day

from 9.00 h to 15.00 h

Each value represents the mean of 5 data points ± SD.

Fig. 3 Leaf anatomical traits effecting photosynthesis rate and related physiological traits of

rice.

a) Pearson correlation analysis of net photosynthesis rate (P_N) and related physiological traits

with leaf developmental features. The level of significance (α) of correlation coefficients at

$P < 0.05$ (± 0.666; degree of freedom (df; n-2): 9-2 = 7).

b) Bright-field images of a flag leaf of the selected genotypes showing variations in

mesophyll cells and vasculature. Arrows indicate bulliform cells (bc), bundle sheath (bs),

epidermis (ep), mesophyll cells (mc), and minor veins (miv). Scale bars represent 100 μm at

10X magnification.

c) Bright-field microscopy images showing variations in mesophyll cell features, including

lobbing. Scale bar represents 100 μm at 100X magnification.

d-e) Quantification of mesophyll area (d) and minor vein height (e) of selected cultivated and

wild rice species. Cultivated accessions and wild species are shaded in blue and green,

respectively. Asterisks indicate significant differences between genotypes (one-way ANOVA,

n = 30, *P < 0.05*). Different letters indicate significant groupings according to post-hoc

Tukey HSD calculation.

1001

Fig. 4 Quantification of photochemical features of selected cultivated and wild rice species.

Total chlorophyll content (TCC) per gram of fresh weight (a), F_v/F_m in dark-adapted leaves

(b), Efficiency of PSII (ΦPSII, c), Photochemical quenching (qP, d), and Electron transport

rate (ETR, e) of the selected genotypes. Cultivated accessions and wild species are shaded in

blue and green, respectively. All the measurements were performed in fully developed leaves

of controlled growth chambers grown plants. Asterisks indicate significant differences

between genotypes (one-way ANOVA, n = 7, *P < 0.05*). Different letters indicate

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1010

Fig. 5 Expression analysis of genes and transcription factors regulating photosynthesis, and

differences in Rubisco activity for selected cultivated and wild rice species.

a) Expression levels of genes encoding key component of light harvesting complex, Rubisco,

and Triose phosphate/phosphate translocator.

b) Expression levels of chlorophyll biosynthetic genes in flag leaves.

c) Expression pattern of transcription factors regulating photosynthetic and chlorophyll-

biosynthetic genes in primordia 4 stage (P4) of leaf 4.

d) Continuous measurement of Rubisco activity through RuBP (ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate)

consumption (n mol s^{-1}) and Vcmax (μmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) demonstrating the conversion of RuBP to

3-PGA (3-phosphoglycerate). The data shows the time course of the decrease in A_{340} nm in

assays to four moles of NADH oxidation per RuBP.

e) Comparison of Vcmax and P_N for the selected genotypes.

Asterisks indicate significant differences between genotypes [one-way ANOVA, n = 6 (two

biological with three technical replications, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01]*. Different letters indicate

significant groupings according to post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation.

Gene abbreviations: GluTR, *Glutamyl-tRNA reductase*; PPOX, *Protoporphyrinogen oxidase*;

Mg-CHL, *Magnesium chelatase*; CHLSYN, *Chlorophyll synthase*; CAO, *Chlorophyllide a*

oxygenase; LHCI, *Light-harvesting chlorophyll protein complex I*; Rubisco SS, *Ribulose*

bisphosphate carboxylase small subunit; Rubisco LS, *Ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase*

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SIG, *Sigma factors (1, 2, 5,* and *6)*; ZML2, *ZINC FINGER PROTEIN 2*; ORE1, ORESARA1*;*

CGA1, *Cytokinin responsive GATA Factor*; GRF5, *Growth regulating factor 5.*

1033

Fig. 6 Compilation of developmental, photochemical, and biochemical traits contributing

towards leaf photosynthetic differences between two extreme genotypes: *Oryza sativa* ssp.

indica cv. IR 64 and *Oryza australiensis*. Wider leaf, larger mesophyll cells, larger veins,

fewer number of mesophyll cells between two consecutive veins, more chloroplasts, efficient

light harvesting and Electron Transport Rate along with more active Rubsico facilitate higher

leaf photosynthesis in wild rice species *Oryza australiensis* compared to cultivated *Oryza*

sativa ssp. *indica* cv. IR64.

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1042   **Supporting Information**

1043

1044   **Fig. S1** Representative images of cultivated and wild rice species showing remarkable

1045   differences in plant architectural traits, leaf features, and biomass. Shown are the field grown

1046   plants (a), and controlled growth chambers grown plants (b) of the selected genotypes.

1047

1048   **Fig.S2** Pair-wise Pearson correlation coefficient (r) analysis among net photosynthetic rate

1049   (P_N) and related physiological traits.

1050

1051   **Fig. S3** Quantification of P_N (max), Ci and CE in response to increasing PAR (a, I-III),

1052   increasing CO_2 concentration (b, I-III), andat different diurnal time (c, I-III) for selected

1053   cultivated and wild rice species. Each value represents the mean of 5 data points $\pm$ SD.

1054

1055   **Fig. S4** TEM images of organization of chloroplasts in mesophyll cells. Arrows indicate

1056   chloroplast (ch) and mitochondria (m). Scale bar represents 2.00 μm at 1000X magnification.

1057

1058   **Fig.S5** Pair-wise Pearson correlation coefficient (r) analysis among net photosynthetic rate

1059   (P_N), chlorophyll fluorescence traits, and photochemical features.

1060

1061   **Fig. S6** An *in silico* generated hierarchical clustering dendrogram for the expression pattern

1062   of key photosynthetic and chlorophyll-biosynthetic genes, and transcription factor regulating

1063   photosynthetic machinery across nine anatomical parts of rice plants (seedling, coleoptile,

1064 seedling leaf, stem, vegetative leaf, blade, collar, sheath, flag leaf). The data were collected

1065 and dendrograms was generated using Genevestigator (https://genevestigator.com/gv/).

1066

1067 **Table S1** Details of rice accessions used to investigate the leaf photosynthesis and related

1068 physiological features.

1069

1070 **Table S2** Variation in leaf photosynthesis and related physiological traits among cultivated

1071 and wild rice species under controlled conditions.

1072

1073 **Table S3** Quantitative measurement of flag leaf width (FLW, cm), flag leaf thickness (FLT,

1074 mm), Minor vein width (μm), Minor vein height (μm), and total veins (n) in the fully

1075 expanded flag leaf of cultivated and wild rice species.

1076

1077 **Table S4** Quantitative measurement of mesophyll lobes (n), length (μm), width (μm), and

1078 area (μm^2) and bundle sheath number (n), and area (μm^2) in the fully expanded flag leaf of

1079 cultivated and wild rice species.

1080

1081 **Table S5** Details of genes and transcription factors used for gene expression analysis.

1082

1083 **Table S6** List of primers for qRT-PCR analyses.

Fig .1 Variations in leaf photosynthesis and related physiological parameters across cultivated and wild rice species. Quantification of net photosynthesis per unit area of flag leaf surface area (P_N, a), stomatal conductance (g_s, b), intercellular CO_2 concentration (Ci, c), transpiration rate (E, d), water use efficiency (WUE, e), and carboxylation efficiency (CE, f) for six cultivated rice accessions and four wild rice species. Cultivated rice accessions and wild species are marked in blue and green shading, respectively. Asterisks indicate significant differences between genotypes (one-way ANOVA, n = 15, *P < 0.05*). Different letters indicate significant groupings according to post-hoc Tukey HSD calculation.

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Table S1 Details of rice accessions used to investigate the leaf photosynthesis and related physiological features.

Genome	Genotype	Cultivar/accession number
AA	*Oryza sativa ssp. japonica*	Nipponbare
AA	*Oryza sativa ssp. indica*	IR 64
AA	*Oryza sativa ssp. indica*	Swarna
AA	*Oryza sativa ssp. indica*	Nagina 22
AA	*Oryza sativa ssp. indica*	Vandana
AA	*Oryza glaberrima*	IR 102925
AA	*Oryza rufipogon*	IRGC 99562
BB	*Oryza punctata*	IRGC 105137
CCDD	*Oryza latifolia*	IRGC 99596
EE	*Oryza australiensis*	IRGC 105272

Table S2 Variation in leaf photosynthesis and related physiological traits among cultivated and wild rice species under controlled conditions. Each value represents the mean of 5 data points ± SD. One-way ANOVA analyses followed by LSD calculation by Fisher's test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Degree of freedom corresponding to numerator and denominator and F values calculating *p values*. Asterisks represent the significance of differences among genotypes. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, and ***$p < 0.001$.

Genotype(s)	2018-Controlled conditions					
	P_N	g_s	Ci	E	WUE	CE
O. sativa cv. Nipponbare	9.25 ± 0.48	0.10 ± 0.03	192.06 ± 48.11	5.46 ± 0.94	1.76 ± 0.47	0.05 ± 0.02
O. sativa cv. IR 64	7.98 ± 0.47	0.08 ± 0.02	180.63 ± 44.63	4.00 ± 0.69	2.00 ± 0.4	0.05 ± 0.01
O. sativa cv. Swarna	8.20 ± 0.64	0.09 ± 0.02	188.91 ± 38.66	4.90 ± 0.52	1.68 ± 0.19	0.04 ± 0.01
O. sativa cv. Nagina 22	7.87 ± 0.57	0.08 ± 0.01	196.93 ± 11.22	4.11 ± 0.54	1.93 ± 0.15	0.04 ± 0.00
O. sativa cv. Vandana	7.85 ± 0.46	0.09 ± 0.02	203.66 ± 31.00	4.78 ± 0.73	1.68 ± 0.33	0.04 ± 0.01
O. glaberrima	10.74 ± 0.42	0.11 ± 0.02	191.79 ± 19.28	5.77 ± 0.66	1.88 ± 0.19	0.06 ± 0.01
O. rufipogon	13.07 ± 0.75	0.18 ± 0.01	244.81 ± 8.24	4.72 ± 0.23	2.77 ± 0.12	0.05 ± 0.00
O. punctata	7.65 ± 0.42	0.06 ± 0.01	141.67 ± 31.40	3.52 ± 0.57	2.21 ± 0.31	0.06 ± 0.01
O. latifolia	12.59 ± 1.10	0.13 ± 0.03	190.43 ± 35.71	6.28 ± 1.20	2.05 ± 0.31	0.07 ± 0.01
O. australiensis	11.73 ± 0.86	0.10 ± 0.02	169.06 ± 22.43	5.40 ± 0.52	2.18 ± 0.16	0.07 ± 0.01
Mean ± SD	9.69 ± 0.62	0.1 ± 0.02	189.99 ± 29.07	4.89 ± 0.66	2.02 ± 0.26	0.05 ± 0.01
LSD	0.83	0.027	40.383	0.897	0.364	0.013
df	9, 40	9, 40	9, 40	9, 40	9, 40	9, 40
F value	53.911	12.951	3.364	7.368	6.433	5.595
p values	0.000***	0.000***	0.004**	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***

P_N – net photosynthesis rate (μmol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}); g_s – stomatal conductance to water (mol H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}); Ci – intercellular CO_2 concentration (μmol CO_2 mol^{-1}); E – transpiration rate (mmol H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}); WUE – Water use efficiency (ratios P_N : E); CE – Carboxylation efficiency (ratios P_N : Ci).

Table S3 Quantitative measurement of flag leaf width (FLW, cm), flag leaf thickness (FLT, mm), Minor vein width (µm), Minor vein height (µm), and total veins (n) in the fully expanded flag leaf of cultivated and wild rice species. Each value represents the mean ± SD. One-way ANOVA analysesfollowed by LSD calculation by Fisher's test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Degree of freedom corresponding to numerator and denominator and F values calculating *p values*. Asterisks represent the significance of differences among genotypes. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, and ***$p < 0.001$.

Rice genotypes	FLW	FLT	Minor vein width	Minor vein height	Total Veins
O. sativa cv. Nipponbare	1.55 ± 0.11	0.36 ± 0.06	55.54 ± 6.81	69.93 ± 6.24	77.33 ± 1.15
O. sativa cv. IR 64	1.52 ± 0.08	0.33 ± 0.09	48.38 ± 8.80	59.71 ± 8.82	73.33 ± 1.53
O. sativa cv. Swarna	2.17 ± 0.16	0.36 ± 0.07	62.24 ± 6.39	71.50 ± 9.16	96.33 ± 3.21
O. sativa cv. Nagina 22	2.01 ± 0.09	0.32 ± 0.05	49.64 ± 7.67	56.66 ± 8.41	80.00 ± 3.00
O. sativa cv. Vandana	1.51 ± 0.13	0.26 ± 0.05	41.95 ± 14.14	62.32 ± 9.20	82.00 ± 2.00
O. glaberrima	2.32 ± 0.19	0.63 ± 0.07	NA	NA	NA
O. rufipogon	2.40 ± 0.16	0.54 ± 0.11	50.94 ± 7.56	69.28 ± 7.40	111.00 ± 5.20
O. punctata	1.14 ± 0.10	0.27 ± 0.07	50.29 ± 6.34	60.66 ± 8.12	61.00 ± 2.00
O. latifolia	4.08 ± 0.43	0.68 ± 0.09	59.67 ± 8.72	79.47 ± 8.97	163.00 ± 7.81
O. australiensis	2.24 ± 0.18	0.41 ± 0.07	62.36 ± 8.19	88.29 ± 9.07	105.33 ± 5.13
Mean ± SD	2.09 ± 0.16	0.42 ± 0.07	53.45 ± 6.57	68.65 ± 9.66	94.37 ± 28.51
LSD	0.17	0.07	4.38	4.29	6.75
df	9, 90	9, 90	8, 261	8, 261	8, 18
F value	187.49	40.10	19.74	44.36	169.91
p values	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***

NA – Not available

Table S4 Quantitative measurement of mesophyll lobes (n), length (µm), width (µm), and area (µm^2) and bundle sheath number (n), and area (µm^2) in the fully expanded flag leaf of cultivated and wild rice species. Each value represents the mean ± SD. One-way ANOVA analyses followed by LSD calculation by Fisher's test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Degree of freedom corresponding to numerator and denominator and F values calculating *p values*. Asterisks represent the significance of differences among genotypes. *p < 0.05*, **p < 0.01*, and ***p < 0.001*.

Rice genotypes	Mesophyll (lobes)	Mesophyll (length)	Mesophyll (width)	Mesophyll (area)	#Bundle sheath	Bundle sheath (area)
O. sativa cv. Nipponbare	7.63 ± 0.85	551.86 ± 92.69	351.57 ± 41.34	2605.73 ± 313.04	22.78 ± 1.22	5479.19 ± 762.54
O. sativa cv. IR 64	7.03 ± 1.16	542.53 ± 130.35	336.62 ± 51.81	2468.26 ± 591.24	18.94 ± 0.89	4840.1 ± 792.46
O. sativa cv. Swarna	8.23 ± 1.36	571.61 ± 151.67	354.24 ± 43.33	2554.70 ± 393.38	24.33 ± 1.26	5145.77 ± 682.59
O. sativa cv. Nagina 22	7.3 ± 0.82	634.61 ± 100.33	356.84 ± 41.66	2853.24 ± 259.29	19.25 ± 1.00	4950.23 ± 2361.76
O. sativa cv. Vandana	7.73 ± 0.87	600.67 ± 111.46	352.44 ± 40.27	2688.79 ± 387.26	18.31 ± 1.09	4773.96 ± 786.02
O. glaberrima	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
O. rufipogon	7.57 ± 1.52	748.65 ± 146.21	473.50 ± 63.53	3639.71 ± 664.23	24.28 ± 0.97	4745.59 ± 837.37
O. punctata	7.33 ± 1.32	514.53 ± 94.45	355.37 ± 41.81	2297.97 ± 372.73	20.67 ± 0.76	4592.8 ± 967.88
O. latifolia	9.10 ± 1.81	1099.00 ± 316.53	648.13 ± 85.05	5414.77 ± 890.14	19.14 ± 0.96	5191.85 ± 795.21
O. australiensis	7.93 ± 1.05	783.99 ± 177.64	519.88 ± 71.76	3958.76 ± 660.07	21.36 ± 0.96	4656.88 ± 539.59
Mean ± SD	7.76 ± 0.58	671.94 ± 174.26	416.51 ± 101.9	3164.66 ± 952.38	21.01 ± 2.19	4930.71 ± 273.23
LSD	0.64	83.92	28.78	283.49	0.48	499.92
df	8, 241	8, 241	8, 241	8, 241	8, 315	8, 315
F value	6.72	37.52	106.50	97.71	185.67	2.61
p values	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***

NA – Not available

Table S5 Details of genes and transcription factors used for gene expression analysis.

Gene	Acronym	Locus ID	Function	[1]Pathway
Glutamyl-tRNA reductase	GluTR	LOC_Os10g35840.1	Synthesis of 5-Aminolevulinic acid (ALA)	CB
Protoporphyrinogen oxidase	PPOX	LOC_Os01g18320.1	Involved in the production of heme molecule	
Magnesium chelatase subunit ChlD	Mg-CHLD	LOC_Os03g59640.1	Insertion of Mg into protoporphyrin IX in an ATP-dependant manner	
Chlorophyll synthase	CHLSYN	LOC_Os05g28200.1	Conversion of chlorophyllide to chlorophyll a	
Chlorophyllide a oxygenase	CAO	LOC_Os10g41760.1	Oxidation of chlorophyll a to chlorophyll b	
Light-harvesting chlorophyll protein complex	LHC I	LOC_Os07g38960	Functions as a light receptor	P_N
Ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase	[2]Rubisco SS [3]Rubisco LS	LOC_Os12g17600.1 LOC_Os10g21268.1	Catalyzes the rate-limiting step of CO2 fixation in photosynthesis	
Triose phosphate/phosphate translocator	TPT	LOC_Os01g13770.1	Mediates the export of stromal triose-P into the cytosol in a counter exchange for cytosolic Pi	
Cytokinin responsive GATA Factor	CGA1	LOC_Os06g37450.1	Activates photosynthesis gene expression via promoting plastid development	TF
GATA Nitrate-inducible Carbon Metabolism	GNC	LOC_Os02g12790.1	Activates photosynthesis gene expression promoting plastid development	
Growth regulating factor 5	GRF5	LOC_Os06g02560.1	Positively regulates chloroplast division, causing an increase in the number of chloroplasts per cell	
ZINC FINGER PROTEIN	ZML2	LOC_Os06g48534.1	Promotes the expression of photo-protective genes and maintenance of chlorophyll content	
ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL 5	HY5	LOC_Os06g39960.1	bZIP transcription factor domain containing protein, promotes photosynthesis gene expression.	
PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTOR 4	PIF 4 PIF 5	LOC_Os07g05010.2 LOC_Os03g56950.2	H-L-H DNA-binding domain protein: negatively regulates the expression of photosynthesis genes.	
Golden like	GLK1 GLK2	LOC_Os06g24070.1 LOC_Os01g13740.1	MYB-like DNA-binding protein, promote the expression of LHC proteins and chlorophyll biosynthetic pathway genes.	
ORESARA1	ORE1	LOC_Os12g41680.1	NAC domain containing protein inhibiting the expression of GLK genes	
Plastid sigma factors	SIG 1 SIG 2 SIG 5 SIG 6	LOC_Os08g06630.1 LOC_Os11g26160.1 LOC_Os05g50930.1 LOC_Os08g14450.1	Mediate transcription initiation for plastid-encoded RNA polymerase (PEP)	

[1]Pathways: CB – Chlorophyll biosynthesis; P_N – Photosynthesis; TF – Transcription factor
[2]Rubisco SS– Small subunit, (nuclear)
[3]Rubisco LS– Large subunit, (plastidial)

Table S6 List of primers for qRT-PCR analyses.

Acronym	Primer pairs (5'-3')	
	Forward	**Reverse**
GluTR	AGGGAGCATCTATTCATGTTG	TGCATCCTTGAACATCCTATC
PPOX	CTGAAAGTGAGCTGGTAGAAG	CGAGGAACAATCCATCATAAC
Mg-CHLD	ATGCAATTAAAACTGCTCTGCTG	AGCATCATATTGAACTTGGTTAG
CHLSYN	GCATTATTTGGAACCCTTACTC	GTCAATCGCTCCTACACATATC
CAO	CGGTGACCTGAAAGATGATAC	CATTGGATTCTACCCTCACTAAC
LHC I	CATCTTTCCCCAACAACAAGTTC	GTGAAGGCCTGGAAAATGGTG
Rubisco SS	ACTCCAGCTTCGGCAACGTCAGCA	ATACGGACGAATGCATCAGGGTAC
Rubisco LS	ACACTGATATCTTGGCAGCATTCCGAG	GTAGAGCGCGTAGGGCTTTGAAAC
TPT	TGGAGAAGTACCCTGCCTTGATCA	AGTGTGGGCAAACGAGACTGCAAC
CGA1	GATGATGGCCTCCGGACTAC	CGTCGGCTCTCTTCTCCTTC
GRF5	TTACAAGTACCTCGTCGCCG	GTGGTGGTGGTGGTAGAAGG
ZML2	CAAGGGGATGTTGAGGGACC	TTCTTGCTCGGTGGTAGGTG
GLK1	CCATTGACTCCACCAGCACT	AACATCACCGATAGCTGCGT
GLK2	CGCCATGTTGCAGAGGTTTC	GGCAGCGAGTTTATTCCCCT
ORE1	GCACTTGTGGGGATGAGGAA	GCACACCTCCATCCTGTAC
SIG 1	ACGATCAAGGATGCACGAGT	AGCCAACTCAACACCAAGGT
SIG 2	TTGTGGAAGATGACGGGTCG	GGCCACCATTGTACTCTGCA
SIG 5	GACGGACTACAACGAGGTGG	CTTCCGCTTGGTCTGTTTGC
SIG 6	AGCTGCAGTCCTCTATTCGC	AACCCACTGCATCCATCCTG
Actin	GAAGTGCGACGTGGATATTAG	CAGACACTGTACTTCCTTTCAG