

Review Article

Improving The Photosynthetic Efficiency and Productivity of Cowpea in Sub Saharan Africa: A Review Paper

Abstract

Recent studies have found compelling evidence that enhancing photosynthetic mechanisms through genetic engineering can increase crop yield potential. This paper focuses on cowpea productivity in Sub-Saharan Africa, its importance, factors limiting photosynthetic potential, and techniques towards boosting cowpea photosynthetic efficiency. High light intensity, low temperature, low CO₂ environment, and water scarcity have all been identified as key limiting factors for crop photosynthetic efficiency. Deactivation of Rubisco functioning in shade has also been noted to reduce cowpea photosynthetic potential. However, recent successes have been observed through genetic manipulation of photosynthesis traits so as to improve photosynthetic efficiency and yield under control conditions with considerable increase in yield from 14 to 40%. Thus, improving photosynthesis has the potential to increase crop productivity.

Keywords: cowpea, productivity, photosynthetic efficiency, photosynthetic potential

1. Introduction

The efficiency with which a crop collects light and turns it into biomass over the growing season is a crucial driver of eventual output, be it biomass or grain (Furbank *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). Yield potential is the highest yield possible from a crop, and it is defined as the maximum yield feasible when the best-adapted crop variety is grown under perfect conditions with no biotic or abiotic stress (Langridge *et al.*, 2021). Light availability, light collection, energy conversion, and the shape of the plant canopy are the factors that influence yield potential. Energy conversion, which is dictated by photosynthetic efficiency, is a factor? in crops including rice, wheat, and maize, as well as cowpeas, that contributes to yields below their potential maximum (Bhattacharya, 2021; Srivastava *et al.*, 2022). Because

Formatted: Highlight

photorespiration might lose up to 50% of fixed carbon under some conditions, **the efficiency of this energy conversion to harvestable biomass is still unknown**. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) enrichment experiment has continuously provided compelling evidence towards enhanced yields. It might be obtained by greater CO₂ uptake, indicating that improved photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation can result in higher yields (Curtis *et al.*, 2000; Tang *et al.*, 2022). Despite the fact that some studies have indicated a negative relationship between leaf area ~~photosynthesis~~ and yield, Makino (2011) discovered a positive relationship between photosynthetic rates, biomass, and wheat production.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Strikethrough

Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L. Walp.), also called black-eyed pea, is an annual leguminous crop widely produced in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Cowpeas are grown for both their grains and their veggies (Owade *et al.*, 2020). ~~It is one of the nutrient dense African indigenous vegetables with the potential to improve food and nutrition security in Sub-Saharan Africa.~~ The cowpea plant is a warm-season herbaceous annual that requires temperatures of at least 18 °C at all stages of development, with an optimal growing temperature of around 28 °C (Dhanasekar *et al.*, 2021). The seeds of cowpea varieties ~~each varieties??~~ **Approve with reference** weigh between 80 and 320 milligrams and are spherical to kidney-shaped. Cowpea is generally a day-shortening or, in some cases, day-neutral plant. In many cowpea accessions, floral bud initiation and development are photoperiods sensitive, and the degree of photoperiod sensitivity (the amount of blooming delay) is controlled by temperature in some genotypes (Hussain, 2018; Bhattacharya, 2022). It grows well in a wide range of soils and conditions, although it thrives in well-drained sandy loams or sandy soils with pH values between 5.5 and 6.5 (Aina, 2022; Burger, 2022). The crop performs well even when produced in poor nutrient soils due to its ability to (BNF) fix nitrogen in the soil (Ayalew and Yoseph, 2022). Cowpea is a multipurpose crop that nourishes both humans and animals while also delivering a lucrative and constant income flow to farmers and grain traders (Ngum *et al.*, 2022; Jackson *et al.*, 2022). ~~It is one of the nutrient-dense African indigenous vegetables with the potential to improve food and nutrition security in Sub-Saharan Africa.~~ [this section is designated to highlight the social, nutrition and other benefits of Cowpea](#)

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Strikethrough, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

It is vital to the livelihoods of millions of people in Sub-Saharan Africa (Horn *et al.*, 2022; Kondwakwenda *et al.*, 2022) and comes in a variety of forms, including young leaves, green pods, and green seeds that are eaten as vegetables, as well as dry seeds that are used in a variety of food preparations. Cowpea is an important source of protein, minerals, and vitamins in daily diets across Sub-Saharan Africa, with 25 percent protein (on a dry-weight

basis) in its seeds and young leaves (Simon, 2018; Uebersax et al., 2022). Owade *et al.* (2020) and Philipo *et al.* (2021) noted cowpea leaves as a vegetable are rich in micronutrients including iron and vitamin A whose deficiencies are prevalent in Sub Saharan Africa. By combining the synergistic effects of high protein and high lysine from cowpea with high methionine and high energy from starchy foods like yam, maize, and cassava, even a small quantity of cowpea ensures nutritional balance and improves protein quality.

The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of current research on increasing cowpea crop photosynthetic efficiency. It explores the production of cowpea in sub Saharan African, importance of cowpea, factors that limit photosynthetic potential in cowpea and strategies towards improving photosynthetic efficiency in cowpea productivity

2. Cowpea Production in Sub Saharan Africa

Cowpea is widely grown in the tropics, with widespread cultivation in Africa. Due to the non-existent of data on cowpea production since the late 1970s by the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), current production data for most nations has been extremely difficult to come across. However, it was able to estimate cowpea production by subtracting production statistics for dry beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*), broad beans, peas, chickpeas, and lentils from FAO production data for total pulses.

Around 11 million hectares of cowpea were cultivated in Africa in 2017, with the majority of output concentrated in West Africa (10.6 million hectares), especially in Niger, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, and Mali. According to FAOSTAT (2017), Africa produces approximately 87% of cowpeas. Brazil, on the other hand, increased cowpea farming in South America, and the country is currently the world's third-largest producer. Cowpeas are mostly grown in West Africa Taylor *et al.* (2022), which accounts for 60% of global production in Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2017, the globe produced more than 7.4 million tons of dried cowpeas, with Africa generating about 7.1 million. Nigeria, Africa's greatest producer and consumer, is responsible for 48 % of African production and 46 % of global production. Africa only exports and buys a little number of goods. According to Olayiwola and Soremi, (2014), 52% of Africa's cowpea crop is used for food, 13% for animal feed, 10% for seeds, 9% for other uses, and 16% is wasted. for each reason this important percent of crop is wasted (give a minimum of reasons) ????

Formatted: Highlight

Table 1: Top 12 cowpea producing countries in Africa (2020)

NO	Countries	Harvested area (ha)	Yield (Kg/ha)
1	Burkina Faso	1376717	483.8
2	Cameroon	225086	789.6
3	Kenya	239131	1104.7
4	Mali	406698	491.2
5	Mozambique	349589	264.4
6	Niger	5723820	460.8
7	Nigeria	4695849	776.7
8	Sudan	853088	173.7
9	DR Congo	159681	444.5
10	Senegal	289895	875.8
11	Tanzania	126987	1099.0
12	Ghana	150126	1362.9

Source: FOASTAT, 2020

3. Importance of Cowpea

Cowpeas are often consumed as a dry grain or raw vegetable. Mathiot (2020) and Carmo-Silva (2022) cowpeas are grown throughout incomplete idea Africa because of their high protein content, but especially important in West Africa, where they are the most important source of vegetable protein. Cowpea grain contains high protein, carbs, vitamins, and fibre. It also contains minimal fat, which is beneficial in the prevention of a variety of metabolic and cardiovascular illnesses (Bettino *et al.*, 2019). Horn *et al.* (2022) explained that cowpea is the cheapest source of protein in most farming areas in sub-Saharan Africa. It has multiple benefits as animal feed, food, and source of income (Simons, 2019; Kebede and Bekeko, 2020). In certain situations, full-sized pods are plucked right before they dry up, and the grains are cooked and consumed like a vegetable. Its popularity as a fresh leafy vegetable has grown rapidly in Sub-Saharan Africa (Nkomo *et al.*, 2021). Cowpea varieties that mature early are essential in providing food during the ravenous time before other crops such as maize, rice, pearl millet, sorghum, and other landraces of cowpeas and peanuts are harvested (Nkomo *et al.*, 2021). Phares *et al.* (2020), also reveals that cowpeas play enormous role in improving soil fertility. Cowpea cultivars when inter seeding as a living mulch crop such as

Formatted: Highlight

maize, reduce weed biomass and biodiversity, which consequently improve soil physical properties (Mustapha *et al.*, 2021). Intercropping with cowpea has been reported to reduce and smother weeds in dryland farming systems in the smallholder farming sector, according to (Mlango 2018; Nkomo *et al.*, 2021). Other cowpea varieties have been shown **to control the nematode** [How?? \(a brief description to get the reader a simple idea\)](#) (*Scutellonema cavenessi*), a serious pest of various crops in Sub-Saharan Africa (Nderi, 2020). Using cowpeas as cover crops can suppress pests, prevent erosion, and increase carbon sequestration (Adetunji *et al.*, 2020; Grabau and Rios, 2021; Ndiritu *et al.*, 2022).

Formatted: Highlight

4. Factors That Limit Photosynthetic Potential in Cowpea

Photosynthesis efficiency of crops is limited when subjected to stress conditions such as high light intensity, low temperature, low CO₂ environment, and water limitation. Keys (1986) and Fernie and Bauwe, (2020) regarded photosynthesis as a wasteful process in their studies.

[Because the importance of the document, I propose talk about of other limiting abiotic stress factors such as salinity, heavy metals....](#)

Taylor *et al.* (2022) indicated that deactivation of Rubisco functioning in shade reduce cowpea photosynthetic potential. Little is known about the biochemical processes that determine chlorophyll content chloroplast photosynthetic efficiency or the ability to convert light energy into carbon gain (Ahmad *et al.*, 2022). [No, I don't agree, these are well studied and published among the literature. Sorry, you need to modify this part of discussion.](#)

. Thus, photosynthesis efficiency is a balance between energy provided for plant growth and energy used to preserve the photosynthetic equipment from light damage (Pralon, 2020; Gao *et al.*, 2022). Because of an evolutionary adaptive carbon-concentrating process that enriches RuBisCO with CO₂ to maximum saturation limits, C3 and C4 crops are photosynthetically more effective than the former (Gurbachan *et al.*, 2020). CO₂ leakage was reduced by concentrating CO₂ in the bundle sheath cells, allowing Rubisco's carboxylase activities to be maximized (Hussain *et al.*, 2020). Other research [\(reference?\)](#) explains that lowering the Rubisco concentration in crops reduces photosynthetic efficiency. Water stress has been found to stand out amongst various abiotic stress that limits photosynthesis efficiency for its large area occurrence (Bhardwaj *et al.*, 2022; Nunes, 2022). Some other factors such as photorespiration, structure of the plant leaf, CO₂ concentration and temperature have been well studied and are discussed below.

4.1 Structure of the plant leaf

Three or more layers of leaves are typical of a mature, healthy plant. At midday, the uppermost layer of leaves in plants with leaves that are about horizontal covers the majority of the light, while the second layer receives 10% of the light and the layer below that receives a mere 1%. As a result, at least two-thirds of the energy that is blocked by the highest leaves goes unused. Plant architecture should be changed to allow the highest leaves to capture a smaller fraction of the light, allowing more light to reach the leaves in the lower layers (Sampson and Smith, 1993; Niinemets, 2010; Mubarak *et al.*, 2022). This is possible when the highest leaves are vertical and the lowermost leaves are horizontal (Sampson and Smith, 1993; Niinemets, 2010; Mubarak *et al.*, 2022). An erect leaf at a 75° angle to the horizontal leaf would catch just enough light energy per unit area to saturate photosynthesis. The remaining direct light would reach the canopy's lowest tiers' leaves (Hatfield and Dold, 2019; Miglani *et al.*, 2021; Tooley, 2022; Zhi, 2022). With an optimal distribution of leaves on the main stem, models have anticipated an increase in light energy-use efficiency. According to the model proposed by Miglani *et al.* (2021), replacing plants with roughly horizontal leaves with upright upper leaves would result in a more than twofold gain in light energy-use efficiency at midday in full sunlight. Earlier kinds of rice with more horizontal leaves have been replaced by newly bred types with more vertical leaves in the top layer, based on predictions from such models (Murchie, and Burgess, 2022). The effect of this change in canopy design is significant. The increase in yield is greatest when the Sun is directly overhead but as the Sun angle decreases, this benefit gradually diminishes. Kumagai *et al.* (2022) and some other studies (add other reference of study or modify other studies by other authors, by Gitelson *et al.* (2014) investigated whether a drop in chlorophyll content would result in an increase in canopy photosynthesis in soybeans using several canopy photosynthesis models. Correlation between leaf Chlorophyll content, leaf optical characteristics, and biochemical capacity in several soybean accessions, as well as a wild type and a Chlorophyll content—deficient mutant, using a variety of criteria was tested (References?). It was concluded that canopy photosynthesis could be conserved by lowering leaf chlorophyll content and increasing light interception by lower canopy leaves. This will result in a reduction in extra photon load on upper canopy leaves and enrichment of lower canopy leaves with sufficient light to contribute to photosynthetic yield. The key limiting factor for canopy photosynthesis in lower biomass canopies was leaf area, according to

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Digrado *et al.* (2022); while, the major limiting factor in greater biomass canopies was the light environment rewrite the sentence to be more understanding. According to Digrado *et al.* (2022); canopy architecture has a considerable impact on canopy photosynthetic efficiency and water consumption efficiency, implying that enhancing canopy structures can help increase agricultural yields.

Formatted: Highlight

4.2 Temperature

Studies by Hall and Rao, (1999) have shown that at low light intensities, (Indicate when light intensity is low (Values of measure)) the rate of photosynthesis is the same at 15 °C and 25°C (precise the specie or the group of plant (C3,C4..)). The reaction in the light limiting region, like true photochemical reaction are not sensitive to temperature. At higher light intensities (Indicate when light intensity is high (Values of measure)), however, the rate of photosynthesis is much higher at 25°C than 15°C. Thus, factors other than mere photon absorption influence photosynthesis in light saturation region. Temperature, both at low temperatures (chill stress) and at high temperatures (heating stress), is a potential abiotic stress factor in reducing photosynthetic efficiency, productivity, and yield of planted crops around the world (references). Temperature is an important abiotic factor that affects plant growth and development (Muhammed *et al.*, 2021). Abiotic stress, such as high temperatures, reduces the plant's photosynthetic rate (Sharma *et al.*, 2020) rewrite these sentences avoiding repetition of idea and vocabualries (Temperature, abiotic stress). The plant's vegetative development characteristics and metabolic activities are also negatively impacted precise the factor. Aside from it, emergence, maturity/ripening, harvesting time (duration/stage), and plant production are all influenced (Prasad *et al.*, 2008; Shah *et al.*, 2011). Low temperatures (chilling stress) have also been shown to affect plant metabolism and severely effect plant growth and development (Bhattacharya, 2022). Low temperatures (chilling stress) also have an adverse effect on germination, seedling emergence, and plant vigor, resulting in a reduction in plant productivity (Sabagh *et al.*, 2020). (At the begning of this paragraph, author talk about chill and heating stress(“ Temperature, both at low temperatures (chill stress) and at high temperatures (heating stress)”), for this reason it is needed to describe heating stress effects on the different parameters affected by chill stress.

Formatted: Font color: Red

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Font color: Red

Formatted: Font color: Red, Not Highlight

Formatted: Not Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Underline, Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Font color: Red

Formatted: Font color: Red, Not Highlight

Formatted: Font color: Red, Not Highlight

Formatted: Font color: Red, Not Highlight

Formatted: Font color: Red

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

4.4 photorespiration

Photorespiration (also called the oxidative photosynthetic carbon cycle or C₂ cycle) is a plant metabolic process in which the enzyme RuBisCO oxygenates RuBP, losing some of the energy gained by photosynthesis. In crop plants such as tobacco plants growing in full sunshine, photorespiration plays a significant role in the regulation of photosynthetic electron transport under fluctuating light and under natural conditions where plants are subjected to dynamic changes in light intensities (Wang *et al.*, 2022). However, plant carbon fixation is limited by photorespiration, which releases CO₂ and uses cellular energy to recycle the RuBisCO oxygenation product, 2-phosphoglycolate, back into the Calvin cycle. This process reduces agricultural output by emitting CO₂ and dissipating energy (Trudeau *et al.*, 2018). Around one-third of the carbohydrate in C3 plants is lost due to photorespiration (Monteith, 1977). This physiological process can be viewed as a necessary evil because the cyclic mechanism (also known as the C2 cycle) is capable of recovering 75% of the carbon lost during RuBP oxidation. It also plays a role in N-metabolism and keeps levels of the hazardous metabolite 2-phosphoglycolate generated by the RuBisCO oxygenation reaction to a minimum. **In warm environments (Temperature? Or indicate region)**, the rate of photorespiration increases as the temperature rises (reference). The photorespiratory C2 metabolism downstream of RuBisCO can be delayed by removing or downregulating an enzyme in the C2 pathway (Refrence).

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Highlight

4.5 CO₂ concentration

Hall and Rao (1999) **there are many recent studies explain more this phenomena, reported that in the light-limiting zone, lowering CO₂ content has no effect on photosynthesis rate (it's obvious, because in the limiting zones all photosynthesis is inhibited and subsequently the amount of co2 has no effect,** which implies that CO₂ does not participate directly in the photochemical activity!!!please be sure. Photosynthesis is significantly increased by raising CO₂ concentration at light intensity above the light limitation area. As indicated by the constantly declining leaf net photosynthetic rate with higher CO₂ concentrations, CO₂ causes down-regulation of leaf photosynthesis (Zheng *et al.*, 2019). The maximum carboxylation rate and the maximum electron transport rate were both drastically reduced at higher CO₂ concentrations, exceeding their ideal values of roughly 600 ppm and 400 ppm, respectively (Zheng *et al.*, 2019). Reduced stomatal conductance was partly related to photosynthesis at high CO₂ concentrations, as evidenced by decreases in stomatal density and area, as well as alterations in the spatial distribution pattern of stomata (Xiong and Flexas, 2020). Reduced photorespiration and dark respiration, as well as increased carboxylation efficiency, may

Formatted: Highlight

contribute to increased net photosynthesis rate under high CO₂ concentrations. In response to rising carbon dioxide levels, specific leaf area shrank considerably (Gamage *et al.*, 2018).

Baligar *et al.* (2021) found that increasing carbon dioxide and PPF_D (replace the abbreviation by the correct vocabularies and put PPF_D between parentheses) levels greatly boosted net

Formatted: Highlight

photosynthesis and water-use efficiency attributes but dramatically reduced stomatal conductance and transpiration in cacao genotypes. The stomatal conductance of water is reduced by an average of 22% when CO₂ levels are increased (Baca Cabrera *et al.*, 2021).

Because photosynthesis and stomatal activity are so important to plant carbon and water metabolism, plant development in high CO₂ environments has a wide range of downstream consequences on plant physiology. The CO₂ concentration outside continues to rise, now

reaching 400 parts per million (ppm) – and significantly higher in urban areas (?? Explain more and give reference). While this rise has severe environmental consequences, it is a key

Formatted: Highlight

component of photosynthesis, which boosts plant growth in a subtle way. The CO₂

Formatted: Highlight

concentration inside a greenhouse, on the other hand, is rarely at 400 ppm. When

greenhouses are closed for the winter and loaded with crops, for example, CO₂ is utilized by

the plants, and the concentration drops to as low as 200 ppm. Low CO₂ concentration has two

repercussions, according to Hudson *et al.* (1992): photosynthesis is reduced and the light

saturation point is reduced (The light saturation point is the point at which further increases in

light have no effect on photosynthesis). At low CO₂ concentrations, the value of additional

lighting is diminished. Photosynthesis increases as CO₂ levels rise until it reaches a saturation

point usually around 1,000 ppm. I propose that author rewrite this section and essay to

summarize the same ideas in one sentence and give the reference (s)...there are the same

results that are repeated in different sentences.

Reorganise all the paragraph 4.5 CO₂ concentration (describe the parameters one by one, if the author finish the discussion of a parameter, he must not repeat the talk about it in another time of the paragraph.)

5 Strategies for Improving Photosynthetic Efficiency in Cowpea

The previously achieved extraordinary improvement in agricultural yields has now come to a halt, as the limits of selection and optimization of cultivation processes have reached a halt (Kubis and Bar-Even 2019). Novel techniques to improve the proficiency with which plants can transform additional light energy into biomass are needed to attain the photosynthetic efficiency and sustain crop productivity (yield) needed to feed the growing global population.

In the past, improvements in the harvest index, rather than an increase in biomass, have accounted for the majority of gains in wheat yield potential. Because of the limitations given by low biomass to translocate reserve assimilates to grain sinks, further extraordinary progress in the harvest index is unlikely in the current context. The potential for increasing productive biomass and harvestable grain exists, but photosynthetic limitations create constraints such as chlorophyll retention, radiation utilization, and RuBisCO efficiency that must be overcome to boost crop yield. Even a minor increase in net photosynthetic rate can result in significant increases in biomass and thus yield (Parry *et al.* 2011).

5.1 Stay Green

The heritable delayed foliar senescence trait in model and agricultural plant species is known as Stay-Green. It's an important trait for improving the genetics of numerous crops because it helps plants to maintain their leaves active photosynthetically even when they're stressed (Kamal *et al.*, 2019; Wu *et al.*, 2022). Chlorophyll degradation during leaf senescence, on the other hand, is required for the mobilization of mineral nutrients, particularly nitrogen, to newly formed sinks. When mutations in genes producing enzymes such as Mg-dechelataase and chl b reductase occur, the catabolic pathway is disrupted, resulting in tissue greenness (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Stay greens were divided into two categories in studies by Miglani *et al.* (2021):

- i. cosmetic stay-green, in which a lesion prevents chlorophyll degradation at an early stage.
- ii. functional stay-greens, in which the transition from the carbon-capture to the nitrogen-mobilization (senescence) phase of canopy development is delayed and/or the senescence syndrome is sluggish.

Delay in senescence has a physiological influence on carbon capture and nutrient transport to growing sinks, and it is thought to be a useful characteristic in conferring abiotic stress tolerance (How? the relationship between the two ideas mentioned, is not clear -...)(Khan *et al.*, 2021). Empirical selection for functional stay-green has been demonstrated in studies (references??) to help increase crop yields, especially when used as part of a strategy that includes targets other traits like sink capacity and environmental sensitivity and is combined with proper crop management techniques (Howard and Ougham, 2014).

Formatted: Highlight

What author propose for Cowpea?

5.2 Enhancing Photosynthetic Processes by Modifying Photorespiration Metabolism

The successful creation of this pathway, as well as the improved growth of plants overexpressing the functional pathway, provide independent proof that diverting glycolate metabolism from the photorespiratory pathway in the chloroplast can really boost photosynthesis. Recycling the 2-phosphoglycolate produced by Rubisco's oxygenase process necessitates a complex and energy-intensive series of events known as the photorespiratory cycle. **Several ways (such as.)** have been proposed to reduce rates of photorespiratory energy

or carbon loss, based on either natural variation screening or genetic engineering. **Recent**

research suggests **(references)** that altering photorespiratory fluxes or creating artificial bypasses to photorespiration can significantly boost plant production. **Photorespiration is the**

principal physiological process that detoxifies 2-phosphoglycolate (2-PG) and is responsible

for 20–50% yield loss, depending on the environmental circumstances and the kind of

photosynthesis used by the plant species (Hernandez and Nägele, 2022). A "bin" is a genetic

map location with a distinct segregation pattern that is separated from neighboring bins by a

single recombination event (Abed *et al.*, 2022). Between two fixed Core Markers, the genetic

maps are partitioned into 100 segments, called bins, of 20 cM each according to (Thakur *et*

***al.*, 2021). A bin is the interval between the leftmost or top Core Marker and the following**

Core Marker that includes all loci. The accuracy with which a locus is assigned to a bin is

determined on the precision of mapping data, which improves as the number of markers or

populations grows. Bin 1 refers to the beginning of a range, while bin 2 refers to the end of

the range, whenever the placement is statistically ambiguous. For one gene, two or more

chromosomal numbers or bins may exist. Many gene families and proteins are formed as a

result of gene duplication. Duplication may have happened at an evolutionary time point,

causing gene sequences to diverge over time, resulting in genes being present in many

chromosomal positions (what is the aim of author? Why author give theses descriptions of

genetic details??? RuBisCO, for example, is made up of eight small subunits coded by the

nuclear multigene family *rbcS* and eight large subunits coded by the chloroplast genome's

single gene *rbcL* (Martin-Avila *et al.*, 2020). *OsRBCS1*, *OsRBCS2*, *OsRBCS3*, *OsRBCS4*,

and *OsRBCS5* are the eight *rbcS* cDNA clones produced from five separate *rbcS* genes.

While *OsRBCS1* is found on chromosome 2, the rest are found on chromosome 12. (Migliani

***et al.*, 2021). This process involves an energy-intensive metabolic route that recycles**

RuBisCO oxygenation reactions' harmful by products. The energy used in this inefficient

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

process (equal to 12.25 ATP per cycle) lowers assimilate production and raises agricultural yield costs. As a result, research into alternate pathways (which metabolize 2-PG in the same production compartment, i.e., chloroplast, oxidation of 2-PG at a lower energy cost) is predicted to improve the photorespiratory mechanism.

Enhancing Photosynthetic Processes by Modifying Photorespiration Metabolism is the title of this section, why author furnish genetic data base and details? Author must talk about the precisely strategy suggested . Why author do not precise the plant subject of molecular experiments described?

In this era of synthetic biology, these pathways will provide significant yield advances by providing new chances for enhancing photosynthetic efficiency (Batista-Silva *et al.*, 2020). Moore *et al.* (2021) also highlighted a variety of ways for decreasing substrate entrance in the photorespiratory pathway to boost crop yield, such as optimizing metabolite flow and reducing RuBP oxygenation. Optimizing the flux of the toxic metabolite 2-PG to speed up 3-phosphoglycerate recovery could be a potential method for increasing production. However, anatomical changes should be made to ensure that inter-organellar metabolic flux is not restricted by spatial constraints, such as the conversion of glycolate into glycine in the peroxisome and further decarboxylation in the mitochondrial compartment in the photorespiration salvage pathway. Transgenics overexpressing mitochondrial glycine decarboxylase also showed better photosynthesis as a result of increased metabolic flux via photorespiration (Timm and Hagemann, 2020). As indicated by Eisenhut *et al.* (2019), genetic interventions that construct new synthetic bypasses of photorespiration in a single chloroplast compartment will be very useful in enhancing photosynthetic efficiency. Alternative photorespiratory pathways have the potential to boost C3 crop output significantly. Alternative photorespiratory methods have been tried in tobacco, including the *E. coli* glyoxylate oxidation pathway, glycolate oxidase, and malate dehydrogenase pathways. Without the involvement of mitochondria or peroxisomes, Arabidopsis and potato convert 2-glycolate to glycerate completely in chloroplasts (Bauwe and Fernie, 2021).

In tobacco chloroplasts, Naseem *et al.* (2020) assessed the outcomes of these three different photorespiratory (AP) routes. Plant development and carbon fixation were likewise slowed in mutant rice lines with defective Os PLGG1. This was due to the function of PLGG1 in regulating glycolate/glycerate concentrations in chloroplasts to safe levels (South *et al.*,

Formatted: Highlight

2017). These researches on creating photorespiratory bypass channels by membrane transporter alterations pave the way for greater photosynthetic efficiency and agricultural yield potential (long et al., 2015; Simkin et al., 2019). However, so far, genetic-engineering technology has had only little success in enhancing photosynthetic efficiency (Eisenhut and Weber, 2019). Modification of genes regulatory sequences could be another way to improve photosynthetic efficiency. Fine-tuning gene expression, modifying substrate affinities to improve enzyme catalytic performance, and inducible systems are all innovative ways to manipulate photorespiration in agricultural plants. A promising method for increasing photosynthetic productivity is to reduce photorespiratory loss.

Thank you for the large amount of information, but there are no links between ideas I propose rewriting this part to be more understanding

UNDER PEER REVIEW

5.3 Carbon Concentration Mechanism

The Carbon Concentration Mechanism is a biological response to low carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere. It is a technique that boosts photosynthetic output in algal cells by elevating inorganic carbon levels several times higher than the carbon dioxide concentration in the environment. Price *et al.* (2008) regard carbon concentration mechanism (CCM) as a unique adaptation that many photosynthetic organisms have acquired to increase photosynthetic efficiency in low-CO₂ aquatic environments. Synthetic biology, on the other hand, offers fresh techniques to manipulating C3 metabolism downstream of the oxygenation phase. Changes in RuBisCO's catalytic capabilities or an increase in CO₂ concentration at the RuBisCO site could be an effective way to boost photosynthesis. Because of the sluggish diffusion of CO₂ in apoplastic space and RuBP oxygenation by RuBisCO, C3 plants' photosynthetic efficiency declines under hot, dry circumstances. The RuBisCO catalysis fixes oxygen instead of carbon when the CO₂ concentration in the chloroplasts falls below 50 ppm (mg/L). This is a huge waste of energy, and the RuBisCO only runs at about a fifth of its maximum speed as a result. Plants with a CCM surrounding the RuBisCO site are able to overcome the problem of photorespiration (C4 and CAM plants). Under current atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, C4 photosynthesis has a significantly higher conversion efficiency than C3 photosynthesis (Spangle, 2016). PEPC levels increased with reduced sensitivity of photosynthetic absorption to O₂ in transgenic rice and Arabidopsis overexpressing C4-specific PEP carboxylase (PEPC) (Miyao, 2003). Overexpression of PEPC in transgenics results in the generation of extra amino acids and proteins due to its anaplerotic role in replenishing organic acids in C3 plants (Doubnerová and Rylavá, 2011). Thus, simply overexpressing C4 enzymes like PEPC to achieve photosynthetic enhancement would put a strain on plant roots for N nutrition, resulting in the production of extra proteins with lower requirements, which should be taken into account during C3 to C4 interconversion for a specific crop species.

For decades, a significant number of worldwide consortia have been attempting to increase photosynthesis and the transition of C3 rice into C4 rice. C4 rice that is transgenic has yet to be developed. The C4 rice consortium's research sheds light on the constraints imposed by compartmentalization of a two-celled C4 mechanism in a single-celled C3 rice biological system. Another feasible technique for C4 rice engineering is to introduce a single-celled C4 mechanism similar to that found in Hydrilla (which lacks normal kranz anatomy, i.e., no compartmentalization of initial and final fixation of CO₂ in mesophyll and bundle sheath cell;

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

famously known as non-Kranz C4). In constructing C4 crops like rice, these investigations demonstrated the importance of aspects including diurnal regulation of enzyme activity, enzyme manufacturing site, and phosphorylation status inside chloroplasts (Daniell *et al.*, 2021). However, incorporating the increasingly efficient C4 photosynthetic pathway into staple grains will be a major accomplishment. The C4 photosynthetic pathway is more efficient than the C3 pathway in terms of light, nitrogen, and water usage. However, if anthropogenic activities under the banner of "progress" continue to increase atmospheric CO₂, this efficiency advantage is projected to fade in the near future.

5.4 Manipulation of Rubisco Biogenesis

The enzyme Ribulose 1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase (RuBisCO) is responsible for the fixation of carbon from atmospheric CO₂ as part of the Calvin-Benson cycle, which leads to the creation of glucose, which is required for most photosynthetic organisms' growth. Despite its critical role in CO₂ fixation in autotrophs like food crops, RuBisCO's moderate catalytic turnover rate and poor oxygenation reactions make it a viable target for improving photosynthetic efficiency. This information are mentioned previously in the beginning of the document why author repeat description?. When ribulose 1, 5- bisP (RuBP) regeneration is limited, modifying Rubisco to increase selectivity for CO₂ compared to oxygen would reduce photorespiration and increase photosynthesis (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). The amount of CO₂ fixed per Rubisco protein would increase if the catalytic turnover rate was increased. However, manipulating is huge challenge especially in higher plant as a result of it multi nature and regulation by nuclear and chloroplast ~~encoded~~ genes (Parry *et al.*, 2011). Rubiscos with higher specificity have been discovered naturally in red algae, and Rubiscos from C4 species have higher catalytic turnover rates. Crop models suggest that integrating a "better Rubisco" into C3 crop species will result in significant increases in canopy photosynthesis (Parry *et al.*, 2011). Rubisco is a hexadecamer made up of eight chloroplast-encoded large subunits and eight nucleus-encoded tiny subunits found in higher plants. Rubisco structure-function investigations of higher plant Rubisco have been impeded by the inability to build Rubisco from any photosynthetic eukaryote within Escherichia coli ~~rewrite these sentences without repetition and give reference~~. Understanding chaperoning action in the folding and assembly of hexadecameric Rubisco is progressing (Liu *et al.*, 2010). Despite the availability of Rubisco crystal structures, the idea of increasing Rubisco's kinetic characteristics through

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

rational design remains a goal for the future. Meanwhile, novel **Rubiscos** are being created through directed evolution in *E. coli* that is dependent on **Rubisco** activity (Hauser *et al.*, 2015). Chloroplast transformation mechanisms must be created in additional species to modulate Rubisco inside higher plants. The development of a tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) master line that expresses **Rubisco** from *Rhodospirillum rubrum* allows for the quick transformation of tobacco with changed **Rubisco** (Li *et al.*, 2021). Avoid repetition

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Another method for improving photosynthetic performance of our food crops is to bioengineer a thermo stable RuBisCO ~~activase~~activate (RCA). RCA activates RuBisCO by eliminating sugar-phosphate analogs that are comparable to RuBP. In heated conditions, however, RuBisCO's effectiveness suffers due to its high thermo-sensitivity. In Arabidopsis, replacing native RCA with thermostable RCA has been shown to increase photo synthetic yield in heat-stressed settings repeat redaction of this section in order to be better organised and claire (Sales *et al.*, 2021). Better choice another vocabulary or fragment such as: More efficient—RuBisCO with efficient catalytic ability is another technique for increasing photosynthetic carbon uptake. **The catalytic effectiveness of RuBisCO is determined by two**

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Strikethrough

Formatted: Strikethrough

Formatted: Highlight

key factors: stronger CO₂ specificity and a faster carboxylation turnover rate. Specificity and RuBP carboxylation turnover rate have been found to be inversely related in studies (Parry *et al.*, 2003). So, in order to improve RuBisCO catalysis, these two aspects must be prioritized. Higher plants have also been found to have a wide range of RuBisCO catalysis. According to a study on such RuBisCO variants in the Triticeae tribe to increase wheat photosynthesis, such variation in RuBisCO turnover rate and specificity factor can be used for a CO₂-enriched crop (Parry *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, changes in carboxylation efficiency are due to the L-subunit, which contributes directly to catalytic action. Genetic modification of the chloroplast-encoded L-subunit is another viable method for enhancing RuBisCO catalysis and thus photosynthetic efficiency. Important, but not well described

5.5 Accelerating recovery from photoprotection (NPQ)

The dissipation of surplus energy in the form of heat, known as non-photochemical quenching (NPQ), is a key technique for photoprotection. Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) is a technique used by plants and algae to protect themselves from the harmful effects of too much light (Muller *et al.*, 2001; Wu *et al.*, 2015; Van Amerongen and Chmeliov, 2020). Exposure to light in the lack of appropriate photoprotection reduces photosynthetic light usage efficiency, according to ~~—(Kromdijk and Walter (2022)).~~ Under low light

Formatted: Font color: Red

conditions, the maximum efficiency with which light may be used to drive electron transport (PSII_{max}) or CO₂ fixation (CO_{2,max}) and photosynthesis can be determined (Kromdijk and Walter, 2022). When the amount of light absorbed by a leaf exceeds the leaf's assimilatory capacity, the proton conductance of the chloroplast ATPase decreases, resulting in a fast drop in the thylakoid lumen pH- (Zivcak *et al.*, 2015; Kanazawa *et al.*, 2017). By dispersing the surplus absorbed light energy as heat, a change in pH activates and protects the photosynthetic equipment against short-term changes in light intensity (Kono and Terashima, 2014; Long *et al.*, 2022). A major stage in the NPQ process is the activation of the xanthophyll cycle, which is dependent on the activities of the enzymes violaxanthin de-epoxidase (VDE) and zeaxanthin epoxidase (ZEP), as well as the detection of changes in lumen pH by PsbS, a PSII protein. This induction mechanism occurs on a second-to-season time frame and is unaffected by changes in gene expression (Reference). Although NPQ changes occur quickly, they are not instantaneous. Down-regulation of PSII occurs long after light levels have restored to non-stress levels, which can lead to loss of potential photosynthetic capacity (Simkin *et al.*, 2019). Both components of the NPQ system were adjusted by Kromdijk and Walter (2022), who increased the amount of PsbS for pH sensing and the amount of ZEP (indicate the correct vocabularies and put abbreviation between parenthesis) and VDE (indicate the correct vocabularies and put abbreviation between parenthesis) for faster xanthophyll cycle kinetics. These plants had a faster NPQ relaxation and CO₂ fixation rate recovery, as well as potentially improved photoprotection under high light circumstances. The overall CO₂ fixation of plants subjected to varying light conditions could be enhanced without directly affecting photosynthetic capacity, maximal carboxylation capacity (V_{cmax}), or ribulose biphosphate regeneration capacity (J_{max}). Under both controlled and field situations, crops evaluated exhibited a 14–20% increase in biomass (Reference). Accelerating NPQ responses increased photosynthetic efficiency and biomass productivity by 15% in both greenhouse and field environments (Kromdijk and Walter, 2022). The effects of overexpression of PsbS (indicate the correct vocabularies and put abbreviation between parenthesis) and VPZ on photosynthetic efficiency and productivity appear to be species and growth situation specific. Walter and Kromdijk (2022) increased plant density in many staple crops, which resulted in an increased proportion of leaves being exposed to strong light intensity variations, potentially making output more dependent on photosynthetic efficiency. Adapting photosynthetic and photoprotective responses to changing production conditions could improve photosynthetic efficiency and productivity of crops like cassava, cowpea and soybean, among other important crops.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

6. Enhancing Cowpea Yield by Improving Photosynthetic Efficiency

Formatted: Font: Bold

Crop photosynthetic systems haven't made much progress in recent years, and photosynthetic efficiency remains considerably below its biological limit. Interactions with crop growth, development dynamics, and temperature changes may limit the yield outcome of manipulating photosynthetic machinery. Wu *et al.* (2019) developed a reliable model in wheat and sorghum that predicts which photosynthetic changes in plants can increase yield in these crops.

In real-world agricultural situations, this model can estimate yield gains due to photosynthesis. Increasing photosynthesis alone will not always result in increased crop production. In water-limited cropping circumstances, enhanced photosynthesis, for example, resulted in a yield drop in sorghum (Wu *et al.* 2019). Keeping the rate of CO₂ entering or water vapor exiting the stomata consistent can help to prevent yield loss. Excessive investments in photosynthesis to fulfill demand for mineral components required in the maintenance of chlorophyll, the electron transport chain, and enzyme activities during CO₂ fixation will result in a nutritional load on the plant system. As a result, in cowpea yield-improvement initiatives targeted at increasing photosynthetic efficiency, Θ optimizing crops to improve light absorption and CO₂ assimilation throughout the canopy has been proposed by Digrado *et al.* (2019) as a strategy to increase yield and meet the needs of a growing population by 2050, and root and canopy design must be taken into account. RIPE team have proposed about nine research strategies to increase crop yield. They have, however, looked into a few major photosynthesis manipulation targets to boost crop yield: (i) increasing the activity of RuBisCO, a key photosynthetic enzyme; (ii) increasing the capacity of plant leaves to transport electrons; and (ii) increasing CO₂ movement via the internal layers of the leaf involved in yield formation (Wu *et al.*, 2019). Under non-irrigated conditions, the researchers reported yield variations ranging from 1% reduction to 12% increase depending on the combination of photosynthetic targets, crop, and climatic factors such as water availability (Wu *et al.*, 2019). (iv) \mathbb{H} improving genes involved in relaxation of photoprotection and up-regulate the genes that speed up this relaxation, the researcher reported an increase in yield by 14 to 20% after replicated in field conditions (Kromdijk *et al.*, 2016).

Formatted: Subscript

[What about Cowpa](#)

[What authors suggest?](#)

7. Conclusion

Limitation of photosynthetic potential in cowpea have been uncovered and effort have taken to increase its efficiency to improve cowpea productivity. Improving photosynthetic conversion efficiency will necessitate a systems approach informed by coupled models capable of correlating a change in the chloroplast to yield in the field, as well as a full suite of tools such as genome editing approaches for endogenous gene modification, gene transfer, and synthetic biology in bringing about the desired photosynthesis alteration. Improving cowpea productivity in SSA should be possible since factors such as high light intensity, low temperature, low CO₂ environment, water limitation and deactivation of Rubisco functioning in shade have been noted to limit photosynthetic potential in cowpea productivity.

Improving photosynthesis is one technique for increasing yield potential, but in order to provide resilience, improvements in water use efficiency (WUE), nitrogen use efficiency (NUE), and biotic and abiotic stress response will be required.

Modification of gene(s) (specify which genes?) regulatory sequences could be another way to improve photosynthetic efficiency. Fine-tuning gene expression, modifying substrate affinities to improve enzyme catalytic performance, and inducible systems are all innovative ways to manipulate photorespiration in agricultural plants. A promising method for increasing photosynthetic productivity is to reduce photorespiratory loss.

Accelerating NPQ responses increased photosynthetic efficiency and biomass productivity by 15% in both greenhouse and field environments. In order to boost cowpea output in SSA, a 60 percent increase in photosynthetic conversion efficiency is expected think carefully before keeping this part in the conclusion. The potential for improving photosynthetic efficiency and cowpea productivity exists, but photosynthetic limitations create constraints such as

Formatted: Highlight

chlorophyll retention, radiation utilization, and RuBisCO efficiency that must be overcome to boost crop yield.

Reference

- Abed, A., Badea, A., Beattie, A., Khanal, R., Tucker, J., & Belzile, F. (2022). A high-resolution consensus linkage map for barley based on GBS-derived genotypes. *Genome*, 65(2), 83-94.
- Adetunji, A. T., Ncube, B., Mulidzi, R., & Lewu, F. B. (2020). Management impact and benefit of cover crops on soil quality: A review. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 204, 104717.
- Ahmad, S., Wang, G. Y., Muhammad, I., Farooq, S., Kamran, M., Ahmad, I., ... & Zhou, X. B. (2022). Application of melatonin-mediated modulation of drought tolerance by regulating photosynthetic efficiency, chloroplast ultrastructure, and endogenous hormones in maize. *Chemical and Biological Technologies in Agriculture*, 9(1), 1-14.
- Aina, F. B. (2022). *Evaluation of Insecticide Spraying Times and Weeding Regime on Cowpea Insect Pests and Grain Yield in the Southern Guinea Savanna of Nigeria* (Doctoral dissertation, Kwara State University (Nigeria)).
- Ayalew, T., & Yoseph, T. (2022). Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L. Walp.): A choice crop for sustainability during the climate change periods. *Journal of Applied Biology and Biotechnology*, 10(3), 1-6.
- Baca Cabrera, J. C., Hirl, R. T., Schäufele, R., Macdonald, A., & Schnyder, H. (2021). Stomatal conductance limited the CO₂ response of grassland in the last century. *BMC biology*, 19(1), 1-14.
- Bailey-Serres, J., Parker, J. E., Ainsworth, E. A., Oldroyd, G. E., & Schroeder, J. I. (2019). Genetic strategies for improving crop yields. *Nature*, 575(7781), 109-118.
- Batista-Silva, W., da Fonseca-Pereira, P., Martins, A. O., Zsögön, A., Nunes-Nesi, A., & Araújo, W. L. (2020). Engineering improved photosynthesis in the era of synthetic biology. *Plant communications*, 1(2), 100032.
- Battino, M., Forbes-Hernández, T. Y., Gasparini, M., Afrin, S., Cianciosi, D., Zhang, J., ... & Giampieri, F. (2019). Relevance of functional foods in the Mediterranean diet: The role of olive oil, berries and honey in the prevention of cancer and cardiovascular diseases. *Critical reviews in food science and nutrition*, 59(6), 893-920.
- Bauwe, H., & Fernie, A. R. (2021). With a Little Help from My Friends: The Central Role of Photorespiration and Related Metabolic Processes in the Acclimation and Adaptation of

- Plants to Oxygen and to Low-CO₂ Stress. In Photosynthesis, Respiration, and Climate Change (pp. 355-385). *Springer*, Cham.
- Bhardwaj, S., Sharma, D., Singh, S., Ramamurthy, P. C., Verma, T., Pujari, M., ... & Prasad, R. (2022). Physiological and molecular insights into the role of silicon in improving plant performance under abiotic stresses. *Plant and Soil*, 1-19.
- Bhattacharya, A. (2021). Dry Matter Production, Partitioning, and Seed Yield Under Soil Water Deficit: A Review. *Soil Water Deficit and Physiological Issues in Plants*, 585-702.
- Bhattacharya, A. (2022). Effect of Low-Temperature Stress on Germination, Growth, and Phenology of Plants: A Review. *Physiological Processes in Plants Under Low Temperature Stress*, 1-106.
- Bhattacharya, A. (2022). Physiological processes in plants under low temperature stress. *Springer verlag*, singapor.
- Blommaert, L., Chafai, L., & Bailleul, B. (2021). The fine-tuning of NPQ in diatoms relies on the regulation of both xanthophyll cycle enzymes. *Scientific reports*, 11(1), 1-16.
- Burger, J. (2022). Quantifying the Role of Soil Microbial Activity in Cover Crops on Newly Established Fruit Trees in the Western Cape.
- Curtis, P. S., Vogel, C. S., Wang, X., Pregitzer, K. S., Zak, D. R., Lussenhop, J., ... & Teeri, J. A. (2000). Gas exchange, leaf nitrogen, and growth efficiency of *Populus tremuloides* in a CO₂-enriched atmosphere. *Ecological Applications*, 10(1), 3-17.
- Daniell, H., Jin, S., Zhu, X. G., Gitzendanner, M. A., Soltis, D. E., & Soltis, P. S. (2021). Green giant—a tiny chloroplast genome with mighty power to produce high-value proteins: history and phylogeny. *Plant biotechnology journal*, 19(3), 430-447.
- Dhanasekar, P., Souframanien, J., & Suprasanna, P. (2021). Breeding cowpea for quality traits: A genetic biofortification perspective. In *Breeding for Enhanced Nutrition and Bio-Active Compounds in Food Legumes* (pp. 157-179). Springer, Cham.
- Digrado, A., Mitchell, N. G., Montes, C. M., Dirvanskyte, P., & Ainsworth, E. A. (2020). Assessing diversity in canopy architecture, photosynthesis, and water-use efficiency in a cowpea magic population. *Food and energy security*, 9(4), e236.
- Doubnerová, V., & Ryšlavá, H. (2011). What can enzymes of C4 photosynthesis do for C3 plants under stress?. *Plant Science*, 180(4), 575-583.
- Eisenhut, M., Roell, M. S., & Weber, A. P. (2019). Mechanistic understanding of photorespiration paves the way to a new green revolution. *New Phytologist*, 223(4), 1762-1769.

- Fernie, A. R., & Bauwe, H. (2020). Wasteful, essential, evolutionary stepping stone? The multiple personalities of the photorespiratory pathway. *The Plant Journal*, 102(4), 666-677.
- Furbank, R. T., Jimenez-Berni, J. A., George-Jaeggli, B., Potgieter, A. B., & Deery, D. M. (2019). Field crop phenomics: enabling breeding for radiation use efficiency and biomass in cereal crops. *New Phytologist*, 223(4), 1714-1727.
- Gamage, D., Thompson, M., Sutherland, M., Hirotsu, N., Makino, A., & Seneweera, S. (2018). New insights into the cellular mechanisms of plant growth at elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations. *Plant, cell & environment*, 41(6), 1233-1246.
- Gitelson, A. A., Peng, Y., Arkebauer, T. J., & Schepers, J. (2014). Relationships between gross primary production, green LAI, and canopy chlorophyll content in maize: Implications for remote sensing of primary production. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 144, 65-72.
- Grabau, Z. J., & Rios, E. (2021). Management of Nematodes with Cowpea Cover Crops: ENY712/IN516, 12/2021. *EDIS*, 2021(6).
- Hall, D. O., & Rao, K. (1999). *Photosynthesis*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hatfield, J. L., & Dold, C. (2019). Photosynthesis in the solar corridor system. In *The solar corridor crop system* (pp. 1-33). Academic Press.
- Hauser, T., Popilka, L., Hartl, F. U., & Hayer-Hartl, M. (2015). Role of auxiliary proteins in Rubisco biogenesis and function. *Nature Plants*, 1(6), 1-11.
- Hernandez, J. S., & Nägele, T. (2022). The trade-off function of photorespiration in a changing environment. *bioRxiv*.
- Horn, L. N., Nghituwamata, S. N., & Isabella, U. (2022). Cowpea Production Challenges and Contribution to Livelihood in Sub-Saharan Region. *Agricultural Sciences*, 13(1), 25-32.
- Hudson, G. S., Evans, J. R., von Caemmerer, S., Arvidsson, Y. B., & Andrews, T. J. (1992). Reduction of ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase content by antisense RNA reduces photosynthesis in transgenic tobacco plants. *Plant Physiology*, 98(1), 294-302.
- Hussain, S. T. Role of Crop Management in Mitigation of Heat Stress in different Agro-climate Regions. *Application of new technologies in agriculture to avoid environmental contamination*, 59.
- Jackson, J., Kinabo, J., Lekalake, R., & Mogotsi, K. (2022). Processing and Utilization of Dry Beans and Pulses in Africa. *Dry Beans and Pulses: Production, Processing, and Nutrition*, 409-430.

Formatted: English (Ireland)

- Kalaji, H. M., Bosa, K., Kościelniak, J., & Żuk-Gołaszewska, K. (2011). Effects of salt stress on photosystem II efficiency and CO₂ assimilation of two Syrian barley landraces. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, 73, 64-72.
- Kamal, N. M., Gorafi, Y. S. A., Abdelrahman, M., Abdellatef, E., & Tsujimoto, H. (2019). Stay-green trait: A prospective approach for yield potential, and drought and heat stress adaptation in globally important cereals. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 20(23), 5837.
- Kanazawa, A., Ostendorf, E., Kohzuma, K., Hoh, D., Strand, D. D., Sato-Cruz, M., ... & Kramer, D. M. (2017). Chloroplast ATP synthase modulation of the thylakoid proton motive force: implications for photosystem I and photosystem II photoprotection. *Frontiers in plant science*, 719.
- Kebede, E., & Bekeko, Z. (2020). Expounding the production and importance of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) in Ethiopia. *Cogent Food & Agriculture*, 6(1), 1769805.
- Keys, A. J. (1986). Rubisco: its role in photorespiration. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. B, Biological Sciences*, 313(1162), 325-336.
- Khan, M. I. R., Jalil, S. U., Chopra, P., Chhillar, H., Ferrante, A., Khan, N. A., & Ansari, M. I. (2021). Role of GABA in plant growth, development and senescence. *Plant Gene*, 26, 100283.
- Kondwakwenda, A., Mutari, B., Simango, K., Nchanji, E. B., Chirwa, R., Rubyogo, J. C., & Sibiya, J. (2022). Decades of Cultivar Development: A Reconciliation of Maize and Bean Breeding Projects and Their Impacts on Food, Nutrition Security, and Income of Smallholder Farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa. In *Food Security for African Smallholder Farmers* (pp. 3-26). Springer, Singapore.
- Kono, M., & Terashima, I. (2014). Long-term and short-term responses of the photosynthetic electron transport to fluctuating light. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*, 137, 89-99.
- Kromdijk, J., & Walter, J. (2022). *Relaxing non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) to improve photosynthesis in crops*. Burleigh Dodds Science Publishing.
- Kromdijk, J., Głowacka, K., Leonelli, L., Gabilly, S. T., Iwai, M., Niyogi, K. K., & Long, S. P. (2016). Improving photosynthesis and crop productivity by accelerating recovery from photoprotection. *Science*, 354(6314), 857-861.
- Kumagai, E., Burroughs, C. H., Pederson, T. L., Montes, C. M., Peng, B., Kimm, H., ... & Bernacchi, C. J. (2022). Predicting biochemical acclimation of leaf photosynthesis in

- soybean under in-field canopy warming using hyperspectral reflectance. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 45(1), 80-94.
- Langridge, P., Braun, H., Hulke, B., Ober, E., & Prasanna, B. M. (2021). Breeding crops for climate resilience. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 134(6), 1607-1611.
- Li, S., Chang, L., & Zhang, J. (2021). Advancing organelle genome transformation and editing for crop improvement. *Plant communications*, 2(2), 100141.
- Long, S. P., Marshall-Colon, A., & Zhu, X. G. (2015). Meeting the global food demand of the future by engineering crop photosynthesis and yield potential. *Cell*, 161(1), 56-66.
- Long, S. P., Taylor, S. H., Burgess, S. J., Carmo-Silva, E., Lawson, T., De Souza, A. P., ... & Wang, Y. (2022). Into the Shadows and Back into Sunlight: Photosynthesis in Fluctuating Light. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, 73, 617-648.
- Makino, A. (2011). Photosynthesis, grain yield, and nitrogen utilization in rice and wheat. *Plant physiology*, 155(1), 125-129.
- Martin-Avila, E., Lim, Y. L., Birch, R., Dirk, L. M., Buck, S., Rhodes, T., ... & Whitney, S. M. (2020). Modifying plant photosynthesis and growth via simultaneous chloroplast transformation of Rubisco large and small subunits. *Plant Cell*, 32(9), 2898-2916.
- Mathiot, C. (2020). *Measurement of photosynthetic linear and cyclic electron flows, CO₂ capture in green microalgae* (Doctoral dissertation, Aix-Marseille).
- Miglani, G. S., Kaur, R., Sharma, P., & Gupta, N. (2021). Leveraging photosynthetic efficiency toward improving crop yields. *Journal of Crop Improvement*, 35(3), 361-402.
- Miyao, M. (2003). Molecular evolution and genetic engineering of C₄ photosynthetic enzymes. *Journal of experimental botany*, 54(381), 179-189.
- Mlango, D. B. (2018). *EFFECTS OF SONCHUS (S. oleraceus) IN MAIZE AND COWPEA CROPPING SYSTEMS* (Doctoral dissertation, Pwani University).
- Moore, C. E., Meacham-Hensold, K., Lemonnier, P., Slattery, R. A., Benjamin, C., Bernacchi, C. J., ... & Cavanagh, A. P. (2021). The effect of increasing temperature on crop photosynthesis: from enzymes to ecosystems. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 72(8), 2822-2844.
- Mubarak, A. N. M., Musthapha, M., Roshana, M. R., & Kumara, A. D. N. T. (2022). Influence of canopy architecture on the light interception, photosynthetic and biomass productivity in irrigated elite Sri Lankan rice varieties.
- Muhammad, I., Shalmani, A., Ali, M., Yang, Q. H., Ahmad, H., & Li, F. B. (2021). Mechanisms regulating the dynamics of photosynthesis under abiotic stresses. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 11, 2310.

Formatted: English (Ireland)

- Muller, P., Li, X. P., & Niyogi, K. K. (2001). Non-photochemical quenching. A response to excess light energy. *Plant physiology*, 125(4), 1558-1566.
- Murchie, E. H., & Burgess, A. J. (2022). Casting light on the architecture of crop yield. *Crop and Environment*.
- Naseem, M., Osmanoglu, Ö., & Dandekar, T. (2020). Synthetic rewiring of plant CO₂ sequestration galvanizes plant biomass production. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 38(4), 354-359.
- Nderi, L. M. (2020). *Effect of different spacing intervals on growth and yield of cowpea varieties in Kilifi County, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, KeMU).
- Ndiritu, J. M., Kinama, J. M., & Muthama, J. N. (2022). Assessment of ecosystem services knowledge, attitudes, and practices of coffee farmers using legume cover crops. *Ecosphere*, 13(4), e4046.
- Ngum, N. Q., Babalola, O. O., Ekwomadu, T. I., Nleya, N., & Mulunda, M. (2022). Six Main Contributing Factors to High Levels of Mycotoxin Contamination in African Foods. *Toxins*, 14(5), 318.
- Niinemets, Ü. (2010). A review of light interception in plant stands from leaf to canopy in different plant functional types and in species with varying shade tolerance. *Ecological Research*, 25(4), 693-714.
- Nkomo, G. V., Sedibe, M. M., & Mofokeng, M. A. (2021). Production constraints and improvement strategies of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L. Walp.) genotypes for drought tolerance. *International Journal of Agronomy*, 2021.
- Olayiwola, M. O., & Soremi, P. A. S. (2014). Variability for dry fodder yield and component traits in cowpea [*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp]. *Electronic Journal of Plant Breeding*, 5(1), 58-62.
- Owade, J. O., Abong', G., Okoth, M., & Mwang'ombe, A. W. (2020). A review of the contribution of cowpea leaves to food and nutrition security in East Africa. *Food Science & Nutrition*, 8(1), 36-47.
- Parry, M. A. J., Andralojc, P. J., Mitchell, R. A., Madgwick, P. J., & Keys, A. J. (2003). Manipulation of Rubisco: the amount, activity, function and regulation. *Journal of experimental botany*, 54(386), 1321-1333.
- Parry, M. A., Reynolds, M., Salvucci, M. E., Raines, C., Andralojc, P. J., Zhu, X. G., ... & Furbank, R. T. (2011). Raising yield potential of wheat. II. Increasing photosynthetic capacity and efficiency. *Journal of experimental botany*, 62(2), 453-467.

- Phares, C. A., Atiah, K., Frimpong, K. A., Danquah, A., Asare, A. T., & Aggor-Woananu, S. (2020). Application of biochar and inorganic phosphorus fertilizer influenced rhizosphere soil characteristics, nodule formation and phytoconstituents of cowpea grown on tropical soil. *Heliyon*, 6(10), e05255.
- Philipo, M., Ndakidemi, P. A., & Mbega, E. R. (2021). Importance of common bean genetic zinc biofortification in alleviating human zinc deficiency in sub-Saharan Africa. *Cogent Food & Agriculture*, 7(1), 1907954.
- Price, G. D., Badger, M. R., Woodger, F. J., & Long, B. M. (2008). Advances in understanding the cyanobacterial CO₂-concentrating-mechanism (CCM): functional components, Ci transporters, diversity, genetic regulation and prospects for engineering into plants. *Journal of experimental botany*, 59(7), 1441-1461.
- Sabagh, A. E., Hossain, A., Islam, M. S., Iqbal, M. A., Fahad, S., Ratnasekera, D., & Llanes, A. (2020). Consequences and mitigation strategies of heat stress for sustainability of soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr.) production under the changing climate. *Plant stress physiology*.
- Sales, C. R., Wang, Y., Evers, J. B., & Kromdijk, J. (2021). Improving C₄ photosynthesis to increase productivity under optimal and suboptimal conditions. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 72(17), 5942-5960.
- Sampson, D. A., & Smith, F. W. (1993). Influence of canopy architecture on light penetration in lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta* var. *latifolia*) forests. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 64(1-2), 63-79.
- Sharma, A., Kumar, V., Shahzad, B., Ramakrishnan, M., Singh Sidhu, G. P., Bali, A. S., ... & Zheng, B. (2020). Photosynthetic response of plants under different abiotic stresses: a review. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation*, 39(2), 509-531.
- Short, A. H., Fay, T. P., Crisanto, T., Hall, J., Steen, C. J., Niyogi, K. K., ... & Fleming, G. R. (2022). Xanthophyll-cycle based model of the rapid photoprotection of Nannochloropsis in response to regular and irregular light/dark sequences. *The Journal of Chemical Physics*.
- Simion, T. (2018). Breeding cowpea *Vigna unguiculata* L. Walp for quality traits. *Annals of Reviews and Research*, 3(2), 555609.
- Simkin, A. J., López-Calcagno, P. E., & Raines, C. A. (2019). Feeding the world: improving photosynthetic efficiency for sustainable crop production. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 70(4), 1119-1140.

- South, P. F., Walker, B. J., Cavanagh, A. P., Rolland, V., Badger, M., & Ort, D. R. (2017). Bile acid sodium symporter BASS6 can transport glycolate and is involved in photorespiratory metabolism in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Cell*, 29(4), 808-823.
- Spangle, D. (2016). May 5, 2016 Photosynthesis Can Be Optimized to Feed and Fuel the World: Evolutionary Challenges and Engineering Possibilities.
- Srivastava, R., Kobayashi, Y., Koyama, H., & Sahoo, L. (2022). Overexpression of cowpea NAC transcription factors promoted growth and stress tolerance by boosting photosynthetic activity in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Science*, 319, 111251.
- Tang, C., Gao, X., Shao, Y., Wang, L., Liu, K., Gao, R., & Che, D. (2022). Investigation on the Rotary Regenerative Adsorption Wheel in a New Strategy for CO₂ Enrichment in Greenhouse. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 118043.
- Thakur, S., Kumar, R., Vikal, Y., Vyas, P., Sheikh, I., & Dhaliwal, H. S. (2021). Molecular mapping of popping volume QTL in popcorn (*Zea mays* L.). *Journal of Plant Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 30(3), 496-503.
- Thomas H, Ougham H. The stay-green trait. *J Exp Bot*. 2014 Jul;65(14):3889-900. doi: 10.1093/jxb/eru037. Epub 2014 Mar 5. PMID: 24600017.
- Timm, S., & Hagemann, M. (2020). Photorespiration—how is it regulated and how does it regulate overall plant metabolism?. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 71(14), 3955-3965.
- Tooley, E. G. (2022). The unique canopy structure, leaf morphology, and physiology of *Cornus drummondii* (Doctoral dissertation). Tooley, E. G. (2022). The unique canopy structure, leaf morphology, and physiology of *Cornus drummondii* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Uebersax, M. A., Urrea, C., & Siddiq, M. (2022). Physical and Physiological Characteristics and Market Classes of Common Beans. *Dry Beans and Pulses: Production, Processing, and Nutrition*, 57-80.
- van Amerongen, H., & Chmeliov, J. (2020). Instantaneous switching between different modes of non-photochemical quenching in plants. Consequences for increasing biomass production. *Biochimica et biophysica acta (BBA)-Bioenergetics*, 1861(4), 148119.
- Wang, H., Wang, X. Q., Zeng, Z. L., Yu, H., & Huang, W. (2022). Photosynthesis under fluctuating light in the CAM plant *Vanilla planifolia*. *Plant Science*, 317, 111207.
- Wu, A., Hammer, G. L., Doherty, A., von Caemmerer, S., & Farquhar, G. D. (2019). Quantifying impacts of enhancing photosynthesis on crop yield. *Nature plants*, 5(4), 380-388.

Wu, H., Jiang, H., Liu, C., & Deng, Y. (2015). Growth, pigment composition, chlorophyll fluorescence and antioxidant defenses in the red alga *Gracilaria lemaneiformis* (Gracilariales, Rhodophyta) under light stress. *South African Journal of Botany*, 100, 27-32.

Wu, N., Yao, Y., Xiang, D., Du, H., Geng, Z., Yang, W., ... & Xiong, L. (2022). A MITE variation-associated heat-inducible isoform of a heat shock factor confers heat tolerance through regulation of JASMONATE ZIM-DOMAIN genes in rice. *New Phytologist*, 234(4), 1315-1331.

Xiong, D., & Flexas, J. (2020). From one side to two sides: the effects of stomatal distribution on photosynthesis. *New Phytologist*, 228(6), 1754-1766.

Zhang, A., Carroll, A. L., & Atsumi, S. (2017). Carbon recycling by cyanobacteria: improving CO₂ fixation through chemical production. *FEMS microbiology letters*, 364(16).

Zhang, C., Liu, J., Shang, J., Dong, T., Tang, M., Feng, S., & Cai, H. (2021). Improving winter wheat biomass and evapotranspiration simulation by assimilating leaf area index from spectral information into a crop growth model. *Agricultural Water Management*, 255, 107057.

Zhang, J., Li, H., Huang, X., Xing, J., Yao, J., Yin, T., ... & Xu, B. (2022). STAYGREEN-mediated chlorophyll a catabolism is critical for photosystem stability during heat-induced leaf senescence in perennial ryegrass. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 45(5), 1412-1427.

Zheng, Y., Li, F., Hao, L., Yu, J., Guo, L., Zhou, H., ... & Xu, M. (2019). Elevated CO₂ concentration induces photosynthetic down-regulation with changes in leaf structure, non-structural carbohydrates and nitrogen content of soybean. *BMC plant biology*, 19(1), 1-18.

Zhi, X. (2022). Hyperspectral sensing methods and genome-wide association studies to improve photosynthetic capacity in sorghum.

Zivcak, M., Brestic, M., Kunderlikova, K., Sytar, O., & Allakhverdiev, S. I. (2015). Repetitive light pulse-induced photoinhibition of photosystem I severely affects CO₂ assimilation and photoprotection in wheat leaves. *Photosynthesis research*, 126(2), 449-463.

Formatted: English (Ireland)