



Anatomical and diffusional determinants inside leaves explain the difference in photosynthetic capacity between *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*, Orchidaceae

Zhong-Hui Yang^{1,2,3} · Wei Huang^{1,2} · Qiu-Yun Yang^{1,2} · Wei Chang^{1,2} · Shi-Bao Zhang^{1,2}

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Abstract

Comparing with other angiosperms, most members within the family Orchidaceae have lower photosynthetic capacities. However, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* are closely related phylogenetically in Orchidaceae, but their photosynthetic performances are different. We explored the roles of internal anatomy and diffusional conductance in determining photosynthesis in three *Cypripedium* and three *Paphiopedilum* species, and quantitatively analyzed their diffusional and biochemical limitations to photosynthesis. *Paphiopedilum* species showed lower light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_N), stomatal conductance (g_s), and mesophyll conductance (g_m) than *Cypripedium* species. A_N was positively correlated with g_s and g_m . And yet, in both species A_N was more strongly limited by g_m than by biochemical factors or g_s . The greater g_s of *Cypripedium* was mainly affected by larger stomatal apparatus area and smaller pore depth, while the less g_m of *Paphiopedilum* was determined by the reduced surface area of mesophyll cells and chloroplasts exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area, and much thicker cell wall thickness. These results suggest that leaf anatomical structure is the key factor affecting g_m , which is largely responsible for the difference in photosynthetic capacity between those two genera. Our findings provide new insight into the photosynthetic physiology and functional diversification of orchids.

Keywords Leaf anatomy · Mesophyll conductance · Orchidaceae · Photosynthetic limitations · Stomatal conductance

Abbreviations

A_N	Light-saturated net rate of CO ₂ assimilation at 380 μmol mol ⁻¹ CO ₂ concentration (20 °C for <i>Cypripedium</i> and 25 °C for <i>Paphiopedilum</i>) (μmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
A_s	Area of individual stomata (μm ²)
A_{sc}	Area of intercellular airspace in the substomatal cavity (μm ²)

C_a	Ambient CO ₂ concentration (μmol mol ⁻¹)
C_c	Chloroplast CO ₂ concentration (μmol mol ⁻¹)
C_i	CO ₂ concentration in substomatal cavities (μmol mol ⁻¹)
CT_{ab}	Abaxial cuticle thicknesses (μm)
CT_{ad}	Adaxial cuticle thickness (μm)
$C_{transition}$	Chloroplast CO ₂ concentration at which the transition from Rubisco to RuBP regeneration limitation occurs
ET_{ab}	Abaxial epidermis thickness (μm)
ET_{ad}	Adaxial epidermis thickness (μm)
ETR	Rate of linear electron transport in photochemistry at A_N (μmol electron m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
f_{ias}	Intercellular airspace as a percentage of leaf volume (%)
g_m	Mesophyll conductance (mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
g_s	Stomatal conductance (mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
g_{tot}	Total conductance (mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
J_{max}	Maximum rate of electron transport (μmol electron m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
K_c	Michaelis–Menten constants for CO ₂ (μmol mol ⁻¹)

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✉ Shi-Bao Zhang
sbzhang@mail.kib.ac.cn

¹ Key Laboratory of Economic Plants and Biotechnology, Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Kunming 650201, China

² Yunnan Key Laboratory for Wild Plant Resources, Kunming 650201, Yunnan, China

³ University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

K_o	Michaelis–Menten constants for O_2 (mmol mol ⁻¹)
L_b	Biochemical limitation of photosynthesis (%)
L_c	Total length of chloroplast perimeter facing the intercellular airspace ($\mu\text{m m}^{-2}$)
LMA	Leaf dry mass per unit area (g m^{-2})
L_{mc}	Mesophyll conductance limitation (%)
L_{mes}	Total length of mesophyll cell perimeter facing the intercellular airspace ($\mu\text{m m}^{-2}$)
L_s	Stomatal limitation (%)
LT	Leaf thickness (μm)
MT	Mesophyll layer thickness (μm)
N_{area}	Leaf nitrogen content per unit area (g m^{-2})
N_{mass}	Leaf nitrogen content per unit dry mass (%)
O	Intercellular O_2 concentration (mmol mol ⁻¹)
PD	Pore depth (μm)
PNUE	Photosynthetic nitrogen use efficiency ($\mu\text{mol s}^{-1} \text{CO}_2 \text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{N}$)
R_d	Rate of mitochondrial respiration measured in the dark ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)
RH	Relative humidity (%)
SA	Stomatal aperture area (μm^2)
$S_{c/o}$	In vitro Rubisco specificity factor
S_c/S	Chloroplast surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)
S_c/S_{mes}	Proportion of exposed chloroplast to mesophyll surface areas ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)
SCD	Substomatal cavity depth (μm)
SD	Stomatal density (mm^{-2})
SL	Stomatal length (μm)
S_{mes}/S	Mesophyll surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit leaf area ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)
S_s	Cross-sectional areas for mesophyll cells ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)
SW	Stomatal width (μm)
T_{chlor}	Chloroplast thickness (μm)
T_{cw}	Cell wall thickness (μm)
$V_{c,max}$	Maximum rate of carboxylation ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)
$V_{o,max}$	Maximum RuBP saturated rate of oxygenation ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)
VPD	Vapor pressure deficit (kPa)
W	Width of leaf section (μm)
I^*	CO_2 concentration at which net CO_2 fixation offsets CO_2 loss from photorespiration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)

Introduction

The Orchidaceae is one of the largest and most diverse families of flowering plants. With approximately 28,000 species spanning 736 genera, this family is widely distributed in

various ecosystems throughout the world, except at the two Poles and in desert regions (Dressler 1993; Christenhusz and Byng 2016). However, because of their great economic importance to floral and pharmaceutical industries, as well as recent habitat losses, many of those species are now only locally distributed and becoming rare (Crain and Tremblay 2014). The photosynthetic potential is lower for most members of this family than for other angiosperm species (Assmann and Zeiger 1985; Hew and Yong 2004; Moreira et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2015). Orchid plants usually grow slowly and have a long vegetative period (Shefferson 2006). This slower growth might be attributed to their reduced photosynthetic capacity (Obeso 2002). Although this low potential in some orchids might be due to crassulacean acid metabolism (Kerbaudy et al. 2012), some C_3 orchids also have this characteristic (Assmann and Zeiger 1985; Zhang et al. 2015). Therefore, the reasons for the low photosynthetic efficiencies in orchids remain unclear, especially our understanding of the correlation between leaf internal structure and photosynthetic capacity.

Although both *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* belong to the diandrous orchid subfamily Cypripedioideae (Cox et al. 1997; Cameron et al. 1999) and are closely related phylogenetically (Cox et al. 1997), the photosynthetic capacity of species in the former is approximately three to four times greater than that of species in the latter (Zhang et al. 2010; Chang et al. 2011). Both genera also have obvious differences in their leaf characters and geographical distribution. *Cypripedium* is a genus with ~50 species; they are perennial geophytes which are dormant in the winter. China is the main distribution area with 32 species and one variant at altitudes of above 1800 m in southwest China, including 24 endemic species. These species usually grow in humus-rich soils with good properties for absorbing and holding water in alpine grasslands, subalpine woodlands, and understory areas. However, *Paphiopedilum* are evergreen plants; there are 66 species, with 27 known species in China. Most of these species grow in karst limestone areas below an altitude of 2000 m with relatively poor soil and low water availability (Guan et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2012). Therefore, these wide contrasts in morphology and photosynthesis, accompanied by their close relatedness, make *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* a valuable system for exploring the association of leaf structure with photosynthetic capacity in Cypripedioideae.

Investigating leaf morphology and anatomy is crucial to understanding why Orchidaceae often has such low photosynthetic potential, because those traits somewhat affect plant resource acquisition, gas diffusional resistance, physiological functions, and adaptations to environmental changes (Holbrook and Putz 1996). Leaf photosynthesis is determined by the concentration of CO_2 inside the photosynthetic carboxylation sites and by the efficiency of plants to assimilate CO_2 (Evans and von Caemmerer 1996; Muir

et al. 2014). However, before atmospheric CO₂ arrives at the carboxylation site, it must pass through a series of ‘physical barriers’, including the stomata, intercellular airspaces, cell walls, plasma membrane, cytosol, and chloroplast envelopes and stroma (Evans and von Caemmerer 1996; Flexas et al. 2012; Tomas et al. 2013; Muir et al. 2014). Hence, net CO₂ assimilation is directly affected by CO₂ diffusion resistance from ambient air to carboxylation sites in the chloroplasts (Farquhar and Sharkey 1982; Ball et al. 1987; Peguero-Pina et al. 2012). It is possible that the low photosynthetic rate found with Orchidaceae may be attributed to diffusional limitations that involve stomatal conductance (g_s , the conductance of CO₂ from the atmospheric environment into stomata) and mesophyll conductance (g_m , the conductance of CO₂ from the substomatal cavity to the carboxylation sites) to CO₂ (Grassi and Magnani 2005; Gago et al. 2013). See the list of all abbreviations provided at the beginning of the paper. At each step in the diffusion pathway, leaf morphology and anatomy impact CO₂ conductance (Flexas et al. 2006; Niinemets and Sack 2006; Muir et al. 2014). Because stomata represent important channels for this diffusion into the leaf, the pattern of stomatal distribution on the abaxial and adaxial leaf surfaces as well as stomatal density, aperture, and size are key anatomical traits that influence g_s (Franks and Beerling 2009; Giuliani et al. 2013). For example, the unique stomatal structure and lack of chloroplasts in the guard cells can limit stomatal opening in *Paphiopedilum*, resulting in low photosynthetic performance (Zhang et al. 2010). Stomatal conductance is also correlated with leaf morphological traits, including leaf density (as leaf dry mass per unit area divided by leaf thickness) and thickness, leaf area, and abaxial and adaxial epidermis thicknesses (Dunbar-Co et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2010, 2012). One potential strategy for improving performance is to increase stomatal density and reduce pore size because smaller stomata have greater sensitivity to environmental change (Franks and Farquhar 2007). Although researchers already recognize that orchids have lower stomatal density and larger stomata than other angiosperms (Guan et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2015), it is still unclear how those traits affect photosynthesis in orchids.

The role that mesophyll conductance has in photosynthesis is a new focus of research that has produced results suggesting that g_m is finite and variable, and is a major limiting factor (Grassi and Magnani 2005; Niinemets et al. 2005, 2009; Muir et al. 2014; Gago et al. 2016; Han et al. 2016). Resistance to mesophyll diffusion due to specific anatomical structures can be quantified in terms of leaf dry mass per unit area, leaf thickness, leaf density, surface area of the mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area, and the fraction of the mesophyll occupied by intercellular airspace (Oguchi et al. 2003; Peguero-Pina et al. 2012; Tosens et al. 2012). However, the most powerful sources of g_m variation are the amount of chloroplast

surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area and the cell wall thickness (Tholen and Zhu 2011; Carriqui et al. 2015; Tosens et al. 2016). This influence of leaf anatomy on g_m differs by species (Flexas et al. 2014), but the impact of such anatomical parameters on g_m and photosynthesis has rarely been tested in orchids.

Photosynthetic capacity can also be affected by biochemical factors, such as leaf N content, Rubisco activity, and N-partitioning into photosynthetic components. Being widely distributed in organelles that have photosynthetic functioning, Rubisco is the most abundant naturally occurring protein on earth. Consequently, it can directly affect net photosynthetic production, and its content and activity can modulate the rate of CO₂ assimilation in plants (Sawada et al. 2003; Yamori et al. 2012). Nitrogen is an important raw material for chlorophyll and carboxylase, and leaf photosynthesis in numerous plants, including eucalyptus and orchid, is closely related to their leaf N contents (Laclau et al. 2004; Yamori et al. 2011).

Leaf photosynthetic performance is generally regulated through a combination of stomatal, mesophyll, and biochemical limitations (Grassi and Magnani 2005; Flexas et al. 2012; Tomas et al. 2013). For example, the biochemical limitation (L_b) is the largest factor depressing photosynthesis in seven angiosperms and eight wild relatives of *Solanum* sect. *Lycopersicon*, followed by mesophyll conductance (L_{mc}) and stomatal (L_s) limitations, while L_{mc} is the most important factor controlling fern photosynthesis, followed by L_s and L_b (Muir et al. 2014; Carriqui et al. 2015). Those findings indicate that the extent to which biochemical and diffusional factors affect photosynthetic performance varies across species (Terashima et al. 2006; Flexas et al. 2008, 2012). Despite these scientific advances, however, no investigations have been reported on the relative contribution of those three types of limitations to the low photosynthetic capacity of orchids.

We selected six closely related C₃ orchid species (three each from *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*) and compared their rates of photosynthesis, as well as key anatomical and physiological traits. Our main objectives were to improve our understanding of (1) how leaf anatomical structures affect stomatal and mesophyll conductance and photosynthetic performances and (2) the relative roles of stomatal, mesophyll, and biochemical limitations to orchid photosynthesis.

Materials and methods

Plant materials and growing conditions

We investigated the association between photosynthesis and orchid leaf anatomy, diffusional resistance, and biochemistry, using three *Cypripedium* species (*C. flavum*, *C.*

tibeticum, and *C. yunnanense*) and three *Paphiopedilum* species (*P. armeniacum*, *P. micranthum*, and *P. dianthum*). The photosynthetic type of these six selected species is C_3 photosynthesis (Guan 2010). The aim of selecting those closely related species was to alleviate the effect of large morphological and physiological differences caused by phylogeny (Peguero-Pina et al. 2017). The ecological, habitat, and leaf characteristics of the six species are shown in Appendix S1. Because the optimal growth conditions are different between *Paphiopedilum* and *Cypripedium* (Guan et al. 2010; Chang et al. 2010), they were cultivated at two sites to ensure their best growth and physiological performances. The *Paphiopedilum* species were grown in a greenhouse in Kunming Botanical Garden (elevation 1990 m; 102°41'0"E, 25°01'N). The growth conditions included an air temperature of 20–25 °C (day) and 10–15 °C (night), 70–80% of relative humidity (RH), and with a maximum mid-day PPF of approximately 800 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The three *Cypripedium* species were grown in Shangrila Alpine Botanical Garden (elevation 3260 m; 99°50'E, 27°48'N) with a temperature of 15–23 °C at day and approximately 10 °C at night, and RH ranging from 60 to 85% during the growing period. The maximum light intensity received by the plants was approximately 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. All sampling and measurements were conducted during their respective flowering periods in 2016, i.e., *Paphiopedilum* in September and *Cypripedium* in June.

Monitoring of photosynthetic gas exchange

All measurements of leaf gas exchange were performed on clear days by clamping fully expanded and healthy leaves from each species into 2-cm² cuvettes in an open infrared gas exchange system with an integrated fluorescence chamber (LI-6400-40; Li-Cor, Lincoln, NE, USA). To ensure that the results from these two genera would be comparable, mature leaves (the species of *Cypripedium* at a leaf age of 60 days and *Paphiopedilum* at a leaf age of 2 years) were used for photosynthetic measurements under the optimum conditions established previously (Chang et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2006). For photosynthetic measurements, RH was maintained at approximately 60%, vapor pressure deficit (VPD) at approximately 1.5 kPa, and leaf temperatures at 25 °C for *Paphiopedilum* and 20 °C for *Cypripedium* (see Guan et al. 2011; Chang et al. 2011 for temperatures used in previous studies). The leaf steady-state conditions of these two genera were induced for 25–30 min prior to the measurement period, using a chamber CO₂ concentration of 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and a saturating photosynthetic photon flux density of 400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for *Paphiopedilum* and 800 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for *Cypripedium*.

Photosynthetic CO₂ response curves were tested with CO₂ concentrations ranging from 0 to 2000 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$.

The automatic protocol system for the LI-6400-40 was used to maintain a light intensity of 400 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for *Paphiopedilum* and 1200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for *Cypripedium* (Zhang et al. 2006; Guan et al. 2011; Chang et al. 2011). Photosynthetic rates and chlorophyll fluorescence were recorded within a steady state by setting the wait time of each concentration at 3 min. Five leaves per species were sampled from different plants.

The photosynthetic response curves for CO₂ were fitted by Photosyn Assistant software V1.1 (Dundee Scientific, UK), and the maximum rate of carboxylation ($V_{c,\text{max}}$) was determined as described by Long and Bernacchi (2003). Using the A_N - C_i curves, mesophyll conductance was calculated according to the method of Harley et al. (1992):

$$g_m = \frac{A_N}{C_i - \Gamma^* [ETR + 8(A_N + R_d)] / [ETR - 4(A_N + R_d)]},$$

where A_N , C_i , and ETR are the net photosynthetic rate, the CO₂ concentration in substomatal cavities, and the rate of electron transport at the ambient CO₂ concentration, respectively. Synchronized with the measurement of photosynthetic CO₂ response curve, the value of ETR was determined by a portable photosynthesis analysis system with a LI-6400-40 fluorescence chamber. R_d is the dark respiration rate and was measured after 30-min dark adaptation at daytime. The CO₂ concentration at which net CO₂ fixation offsets CO₂ loss from photorespiration (Γ^*) was calculated from Rubisco specificity factor at a temperature of 20 °C in *Cypripedium* species and 25 °C in *Paphiopedilum* using the following equation (von Caemmerer 2000; Sharkey et al. 2007):

$$\Gamma^* = \frac{0.5 \cdot [O_2]}{S_{c/o}},$$

where $S_{c/o}$, the Rubisco specificity factor, was derived from Rubisco kinetics as

$$S_{c/o} = \frac{V_{c,\text{max}}K_o}{V_{o,\text{max}}K_c},$$

where $V_{o,\text{max}}$, the maximum RuBP saturated rate of oxygenation, equals 1/2 $V_{c,\text{max}}$. K_c and K_o are Michaelis constants for CO₂ and O₂, respectively. Because K_o and K_c are temperature dependent, their values at given temperatures for each species (20 °C for *Cypripedium* species and 25 °C for *Paphiopedilum*) were calculated by an exponential function (Harley et al. 1992; Bernacchi et al. 2001; Long and Bernacchi 2003; Sharkey et al. 2007). The values of Rubisco specificity factor were 23.95 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for *Cypripedium* species and 32.21 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for *Paphiopedilum* species.

The value for chloroplast CO_2 concentration (C_c) was estimated by the following equation (Harley et al. 1992; Yamori et al. 2011):

$$C_c = C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m}$$

Analysis of quantitative photosynthetic limitations

According to the method proposed by Grassi and Magnani (2005), the quantitative limitations on photosynthesis can be partitioned into stomatal conductance, mesophyll conductance, and biochemical capacity, i.e., $L_s + L_{mc} + L_b = 1$. Thus, the relative importance of stomatal diffusion, mesophyll diffusion, and photosynthetic biochemistry to the photosynthetic potential of each species was calculated as follows:

$$L_s = \frac{g_{\text{tot}}/g_s \cdot \partial A_N / \partial C_c}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_N / \partial C_c},$$

$$L_{mc} = \frac{g_{\text{tot}}/g_m \cdot \partial A_N / \partial C_c}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_N / \partial C_c},$$

$$L_b = \frac{g_{\text{tot}}}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_N / \partial C_c},$$

where g_{tot} is the total conductance of CO_2 from ambient air to carboxylation sites ($1/g_{\text{tot}} = 1/g_s + 1/g_m$) (Grassi and Magnani 2005). The photosynthetic limitation was calculated using the values of A_N and C_c at the ambient CO_2 concentration.

Further, we have calculated the limitations of the two biochemical processes (RuBP carboxylation or RuBP regeneration) on photosynthesis (Yamori et al. 2011). Chloroplast CO_2 concentration at which the transition from Rubisco to RuBP regeneration limitation occurs ($C_{\text{transition}}$) was calculated as

$$C_{\text{transition}} = \frac{K_c(1 + O/K_o)J_{\text{max}}/4V_{c,\text{max}} - 2\Gamma^*}{1 - J_{\text{max}}/4V_{c,\text{max}}},$$

where O and J_{max} are the intercellular O_2 concentration and the maximum rate of electron transport, respectively.

Leaf anatomical traits

After the gas exchange parameters were examined, the middle parts of the same leaves used in those measurements were fixed in FAA (95% ethanol:distilled water:formaldehyde:glacial acetic acid, 10:7:2:1, v/v/v/v) for at least 24 h. These samples were cleaned with

water prior to anatomical analysis. Transverse sections (18–40 μm) were made with a Microtome Cryostat (CM3050S; Leica, Germany) and then examined and photographed with a light microscope (U-CMAD3; Olympus Inc., Tokyo, Japan).

For further investigation, 1×1 mm pieces were excised from the portion of the leaf that was enclosed in the chamber. Those pieces were quickly infiltrated in the fixative 2.5% glutaraldehyde for at least 12 h and then post-fixed in 1% osmic acid for 2 h before being further dehydrated in an ethanol and acetone series. After the samples were embedded in LR White resin for 1 h, the cross sections (40 nm) were obtained with an ultramicrotome (Leica-R) and then stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. The ultrathin sections were viewed at the magnifications of $\times 1800$ to $\times 40,000$ by a JEOL JEM-1011 transmission electron microscope (JEOL Ltd. Tokyo, Japan) and photographed with an Olympus-SIS Megaview digital camera (Olympus Soft Imaging Solutions GmbH, Münster, Germany).

The images were used for determining the following parameters, using the ImageJ software package: leaf thickness (LT), mesophyll layer thickness (MT), adaxial and abaxial cuticle thicknesses (CT_{ad} and CT_{ab}), adaxial and abaxial epidermis thicknesses vertically (ET_{ad} and ET_{ab}), mesophyll cell length and width, chloroplast thickness (T_{chlor}), cell wall thickness (T_{cw}), total length of mesophyll cell perimeter facing the intercellular airspace (L_{mes}), and total length of chloroplast perimeter facing the intercellular airspace (L_c). Afterward, the mesophyll surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit leaf area (S_{mes}/S) and chloroplast surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area (S_c/S) were calculated by applying the method of Tosens et al. (2012):

$$S_{\text{mes}}/S = \frac{L_{\text{mes}}}{W} \gamma,$$

$$S_c/S = \frac{L_c}{L_{\text{mes}}} S_{\text{mes}}/S,$$

where W is the width of the sections measured and γ is the curvature correction factor for each species, calculated as described by Thain (1983).

The fraction of intercellular airspace (f_{ias}) was determined as

$$f_{\text{ias}} = 1 - \frac{\sum S_s}{\text{MT} \cdot W},$$

where $\sum S_s$ is the sum of cross-sectional areas for mesophyll cells.

For a given section, all parameters were determined from at least eight fields of view, and at least five sections per species were analyzed.

Leaf morphology

The abaxial epidermis from the middle part of a mature leaf was coated with a thin layer of colorless, transparent nail polish. After the polish dried, the film was gently torn away from the leaf surface with tweezers. These films were mounted on a microscope slide and images were taken with the light microscope. Randomly selected images (40 per species) were used to obtain the stomatal number and stomatal density (SD). Stomatal length (SL) and width (SW), referring to the length and width of the guard cells, were measured for 80 stomata, from which the stomatal aperture area (SA) could then be calculated as $1/4 \times \pi \times SL \times SW$ (James and Bell 2001). Pore depths were determined by examining those transverse sections (Lawson et al. 1998).

Leaf areas of the mature leaves used for monitoring gas exchange were measured with a leaf portable area meter (LI-3000A; Li-Cor). Afterward, the samples were oven-dried at 80 °C to a constant weight. The leaf dry mass was then weighed on a Mettler-Toledo analytical balance (ME 204; China) so that leaf dry mass per unit area (LMA) could be calculated. Then the leaf total nitrogen content (N_{mass} and N_{area}) was measured using an elemental analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Vario EL III, Hanau, Germany). And the photosynthetic nitrogen use efficiency (PNUE) was determined as

$$\text{PNUE} = \frac{A_N}{N_{\text{area}}},$$

where A_N is the maximum photosynthetic rate at 380 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ CO_2 concentration and N_{area} is the leaf nitrogen content per unit area.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with the IBM SPSS 21.0 software package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Differences in leaf anatomical traits, photosynthetic parameters, and biochemical traits among species were determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests. A Pearson correlation analysis was used to evaluate the associations between parameters. Graphic images were produced using the Sigma Plot 10.0 package (Systat Software Inc., Richmond, CA, USA).

Results

Leaf morphologies and anatomies of *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*

Most of the leaf morphological and anatomical characteristics differed significantly between our selected species of *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* (Table 1, Appendix S2). Compared with *Cypripedium*, *Paphiopedilum* species had thicker leaves ($LT = 1062 \pm 85 \mu\text{m}$) due to their larger adaxial epidermis cells (E_{ad}) and mesophyll thickness (MT). The values for ET_{ad} and MT of *Paphiopedilum* were sixfold and threefold higher, respectively, than that for *Cypripedium*. Stomatal density (SD) and substomatal cavity area (A_{sc}) did

Table 1 Differences in leaf anatomical and photosynthetic characteristics among *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* species based on *t* tests of independent samples

Parameter	<i>Cypripedium</i>	<i>Paphiopedilum</i>	<i>P</i> value
LT (μm)	292.7 \pm 10.9	1062 \pm 85	0.001
CT _{ad} (μm)	–	21.3 \pm 0.2	–
CT _{ab} (μm)	–	12.6 \pm 1.4	–
ET _{ad} (μm)	48.9 \pm 1.2	298.4 \pm 71.1	0.025
ET _{ab} (μm)	43.4 \pm 0.6	72.6 \pm 2.0	0.000
MT (μm)	199.2 \pm 12.8	653.8 \pm 70.7	0.003
SD (mm^{-2})	32.9 \pm 2.5	35.8 \pm 5.8	0.665
A_s (μm^2)	3386 \pm 357	1549 \pm 179	0.010
PD (μm)	26.7 \pm 0.9	43.8 \pm 1.1	0.000
A_{sc} (μm^2)	2751 \pm 513	2941 \pm 460	0.796
SCD (μm)	41.2 \pm 2.6	60.8 \pm 4.4	0.018
T_{cw} (μm)	0.45 \pm 0.03	1.15 \pm 0.20	0.072
S_{mes}/S ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)	6.45 \pm 0.09	3.85 \pm 0.26	0.001
S_c/S ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)	3.98 \pm 0.11	1.99 \pm 0.10	0.000
S_c/S_{mes}	0.62 \pm 0.02	0.52 \pm 0.04	0.066
f_{ias} (%)	27.1 \pm 1.4	21.7 \pm 1.3	0.046
LMA (g m^{-2})	47.4 \pm 1.4	151.5 \pm 15.6	0.003
N_{mass} (%)	2.53 \pm 0.04	1.26 \pm 0.07	0.001
N_{area} ($\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$)	1.20 \pm 0.05	1.90 \pm 0.14	0.011
PNUE ($\mu\text{mol s}^{-1} \text{CO}_2 \text{g}^{-1} \text{N}$)	7.68 \pm 0.89	1.50 \pm 0.28	0.013
A_N ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	9.15 \pm 0.77	2.77 \pm 0.44	0.002
g_s ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	0.22 \pm 0.03	0.04 \pm 0.01	0.003
g_m ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.001
R_d ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	–1.17 \pm 0.26	–0.89 \pm 0.05	0.387
$V_{\text{c,max}}$ ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	34.6 \pm 3.4	33.4 \pm 6.8	0.883
C_i ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	298.6 \pm 2.1	258.8 \pm 7.9	0.008
C_c ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	108.2 \pm 4.5	72.1 \pm 9.7	0.028
ETR ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	85.8 \pm 6.5	38.2 \pm 2.2	0.002

Mean values \pm SE ($n=3$). *P* values indicate significant difference between species based on independent *t* test for each feature. Values in bold indicate the maximum value

not differ between the two genera. However, pore depth (PD) and substomatal cavity depth (SCD) were significantly larger for *Paphiopedilum* than for *Cypripedium*, while the area of individual stomata (A_s) was 2.2-fold higher.

Leaf anatomical traits were significantly different between genera (Table 1, Appendix S2, Figs. 1, 2). For example, the cell wall thickness (T_{cw}) was approximately 2.6-fold higher for *Paphiopedilum* than for *Cypripedium*, whereas the values calculated for the surface of mesophyll cells (S_{mes}/S) and the chloroplast (S_c/S) intercellular airspaces per leaf area were much larger for *Cypripedium* than for *Paphiopedilum*. Although the proportion of exposed chloroplast to mesophyll surface areas (S_c/S_{mes}) was 62% for *Cypripedium* but 52% for *Paphiopedilum*, no significant difference between genera was found for the intercellular airspaces (f_{ias}).

The leaf N content (N_{mass}) of *Cypripedium* was about twofold higher than that of *Paphiopedilum*. Conversely, the value of N_{area} was $1.20 \pm 0.05 \text{ g m}^{-2}$ for *Cypripedium*, but $1.90 \pm 0.14 \text{ g m}^{-2}$ for *Paphiopedilum*. In addition, there were obvious differences in leaf dry mass per unit area (LMA) and photosynthetic

nitrogen use efficiency (PNUE) between *Cypripedium* ($47.4 \pm 1.4 \text{ g m}^{-2}$ and $7.68 \pm 0.89 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ N}$, respectively) and *Paphiopedilum* ($151.5 \pm 15.6 \text{ g m}^{-2}$ and $1.50 \pm 0.28 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ N}$, respectively) (Table 1).

Photosynthetic performances of *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*

At ambient CO_2 , these six species differed greatly in their photosynthetic capacities (Table 1; Fig. 3, Appendix S3), with the net CO_2 assimilation rate being approximately 3.3-fold higher for members within *Cypripedium*. In particular, the A_N values range from $10.4 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for *C. flavum* down to only $1.94 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for *P. dianthum* (Fig. 3). Similarly, the electron transport rate (ETR) was approximately 2.2-fold higher for *Cypripedium* (Fig. 4b). However, the maximum carboxylation rate ($V_{c,max}$) did not differ significantly between genera. Stomatal conductance was much higher for *Cypripedium* and the value of mesophyll conductance was approximately fivefold higher in that genus. Finally, mean values calculated for the substomatal

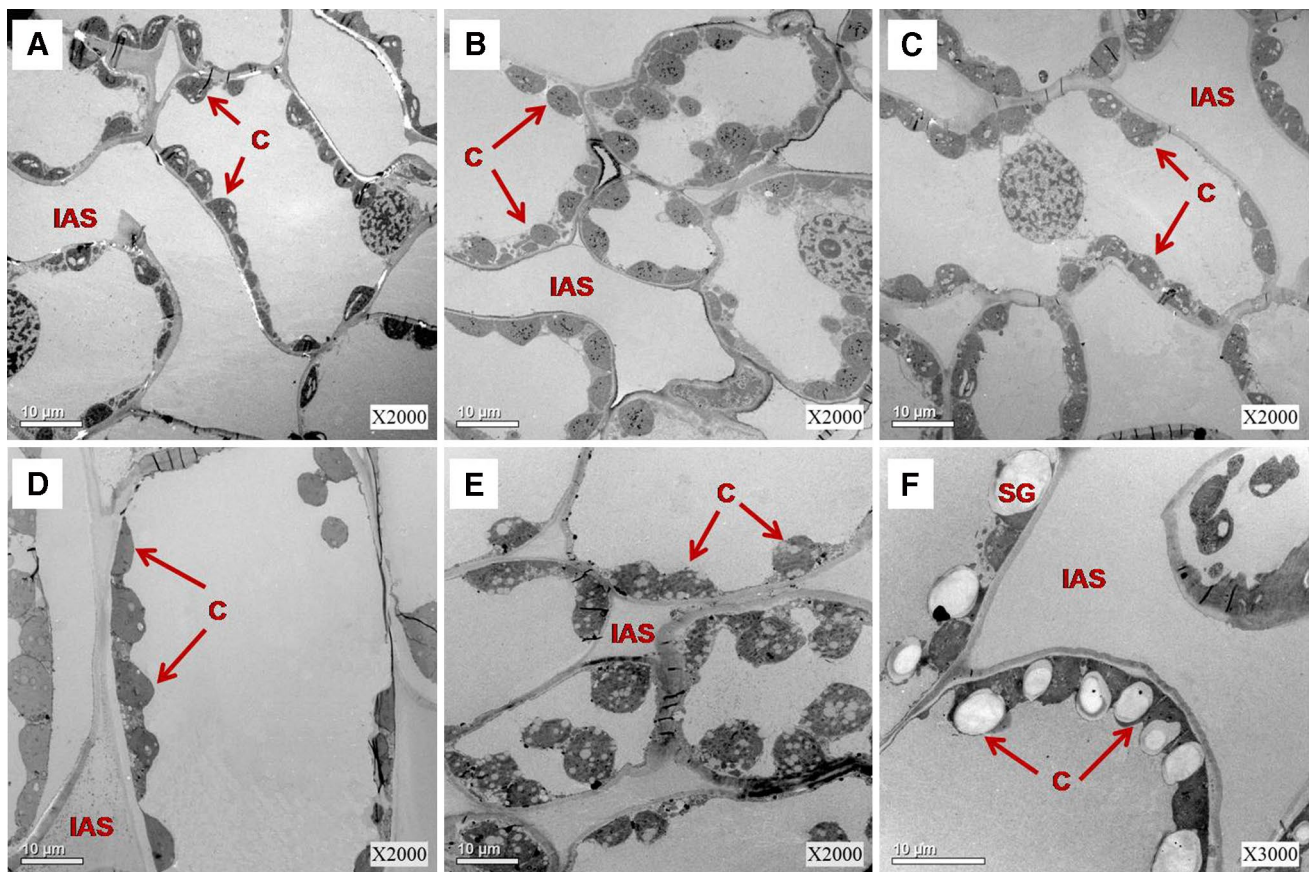


Fig. 1 Transmission electron micrographs of transverse sections from adaxial mesophyll cells of *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*: **a** *C. flavum*, **b** *C. tibeticum*, **c** *C. yunnanense*, **d** *P. armeniacum*, **e** *P. micran-*

thum, and **f** *P. dianthum*. *C* chloroplast, *IAS* intercellular airspace, *SG* starch grains

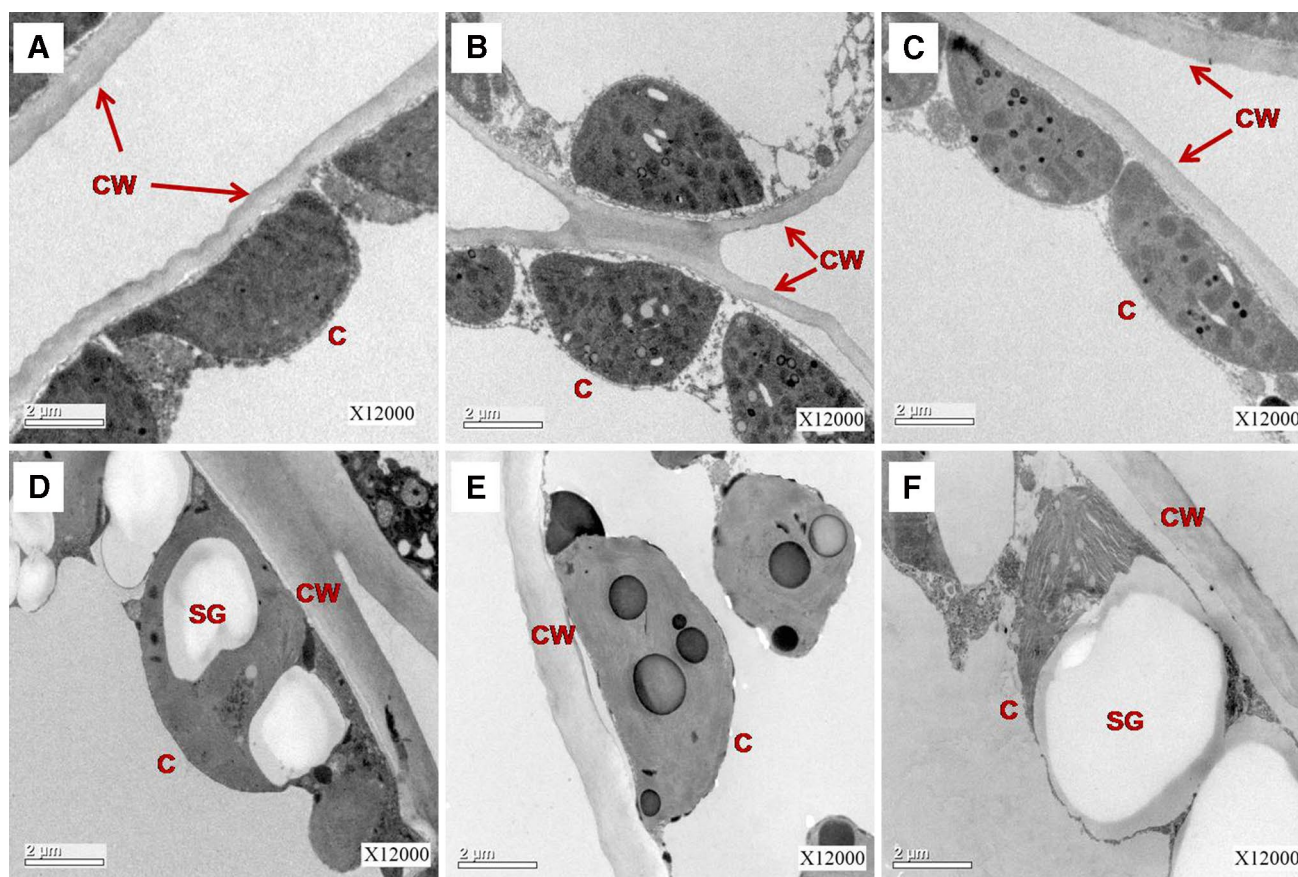


Fig. 2 Transmission electron micrographs of transverse sections from cell walls of *Cyripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*: **a** *C. flavum*, **b** *C. tibeticum*, **c** *C. yunnanense*, **d** *P. armeniacum*, **e** *P. micranthum*, and **f** *P. dianthum*. CW cell wall, C chloroplast, SG starch grains

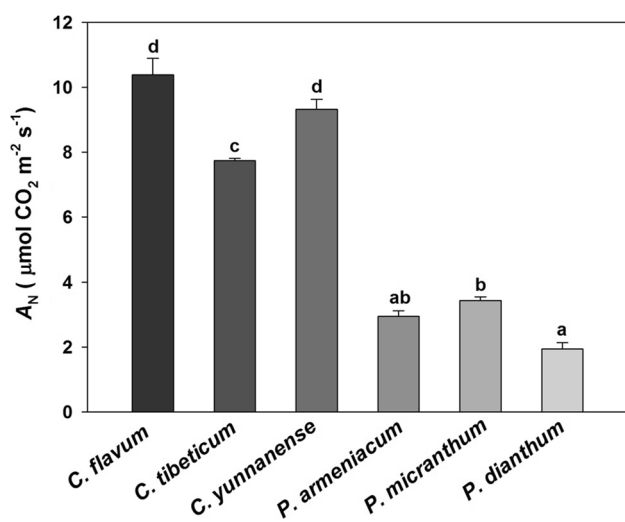


Fig. 3 Light-saturated rate of CO_2 assimilation at $380 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ CO_2 concentration (A_N) for six species from *Cyripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*. Values are means \pm SE ($n=5$)

and chloroplastic CO_2 concentrations were slightly higher in species of *Cyripedium*.

Correlations between photosynthesis and leaf morphology and anatomy

Across species, several significant correlations were found between leaf structural traits, diffusional conductance, and photosynthetic rates (Figs. 5, 6, and Appendix S4). For example, A_N was strongly and positively correlated with g_s ($r=0.997$; Fig. 5a) and g_m ($r=0.996$; Fig. 6a). In addition, A_N was significantly associated with leaf morphological and anatomical traits. For example, it was correlated negatively with LT, ET_{ad} , ET_{ab} , MT, PD, SCD, and LMA, but positively with A_s , S_{mes}/S , and S_c/S . We also found that g_s was strongly correlated with A_s and PD ($r=0.95$ and -0.96 , respectively), and g_m was strongly correlated with S_{mes}/S , S_c/S , and T_{cw} ($r=0.99$, 0.98 , and -0.81 , respectively). In addition, g_s was negatively related to LT, ET_{ab} , and LMA, while g_m had a negative correlation with LT, MT, and LMA.

We conducted a photosynthetic quantitative limitation analysis to examine the relative impacts of stomatal,

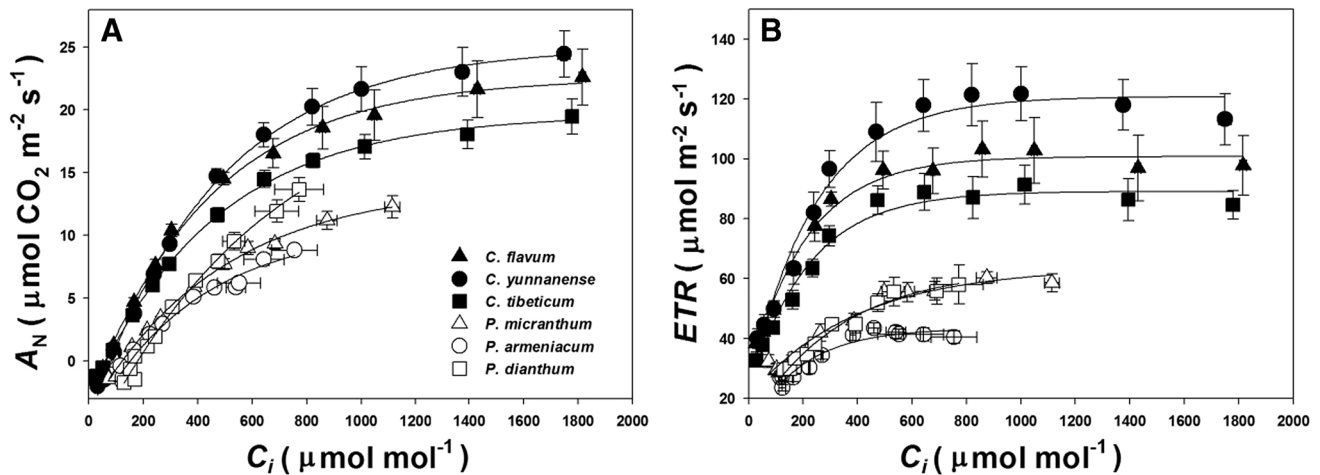


Fig. 4 Response of CO₂ assimilation rate (A_N) (a) and electron transport rate (ETR) (b) to incident intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i) in *Cypripedium* (black) and *Paphiopedilum* (white). Values are means ± SE (n=5)

mesophyll conductance, and biochemical limitations on the photosynthetic potential of two genera (Fig. 7). Among those three, L_{mc} had the greatest influence on *Cypripedium* (55.9% of the total) and *Paphiopedilum* (59.7%), while L_s had the least impact, i.e., 12.3% for *Cypripedium* and 19.8% for *Paphiopedilum*. Finally, the total diffusional limitation ($L_s + L_{mc}$) on photosynthesis was larger for *Paphiopedilum* (79.5%) than for *Cypripedium* (68.2%). We also analyzed the limitations of two biochemical processes on photosynthesis and found that C_c for A_{380} (A_N at 380 mmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ concentrations, Table 1) was less than the $C_{transition}$ (197.2 μmol mol⁻¹ for *Paphiopedilum*, but 116.9 μmol mol⁻¹ for *Cypripedium*), indicating that CO₂ assimilation was limited by RuBP carboxylation in both genera.

Discussion

We believe that this study is the first report to explore why orchids have low photosynthetic potential by using an integrated approach. Using six species of *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*, we demonstrated that leaf anatomy and morphology play key roles in regulating leaf diffusional conductance, thereby affecting photosynthetic performance. Our results indicated that many of the leaf morphological, anatomical, and physiological traits measured here differed significantly between these closely related genera. Compared with *Cypripedium*, *Paphiopedilum* species had much thicker leaves and cell walls, expanded adaxial epidermal cells, very large mesophyll cells, greater pore depth, and higher leaf dry mass per unit area, but smaller area for the stomatal apparatus, less surface area for mesophyll cells, and reduced intercellular airspaces in the chloroplasts per leaf area. Meanwhile, *Cypripedium* had a reduced T_{cw} and

larger S_{mes}/S and S_c/S , but significantly higher stomatal conductance, mesophyll conductance, leaf nitrogen content, photosynthetic nitrogen use efficiency, electron transport rate, and photosynthetic capacity. Some of these findings are in accordance with the results reported previously (Chang et al. 2011; Guan et al. 2011). These obvious differences in leaf traits between the closely related genera reflect the adaptation to their habitats. The natural growth conditions of *Cypripedium* are usually characterized by nutrient-rich soils and high soil moisture content during the growing season. Conversely, the natural habitats of *Paphiopedilum* in the karst limestone area are accompanied by low availability of substrates for storing water and nutrients. *Paphiopedilum* has features which may enable growth in moderate xerophytic conditions due to periodic shortages of water; this includes large epidermal cells, a thicker layer of mesophyll cells, a thicker cuticle, small stomata, high leaf dry mass per unit area, a relatively low leaf N content, and photosynthetic nitrogen use efficiency. These features could prevent excessive transpiration, support storage of water, with investment of more resources (C and N) into the construction and maintenance of leaves and less into the photosynthetic apparatus. We believe that the lower photosynthetic capacity of *Paphiopedilum* was caused by the lower values of N_{mass} , PNUE, ETR, g_s , and g_m compared with *Cypripedium*. And all of these observations provide evidence that differences among species in their leaf structures and photosynthetic performances are indicative of their abilities to adapt to their environments.

Our results showed that leaf morphological and anatomical structures have crucial roles in regulating diffusional resistance and photosynthetic performance for *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*. This may occur because such traits control the diffusion of gas between the outside and the inside

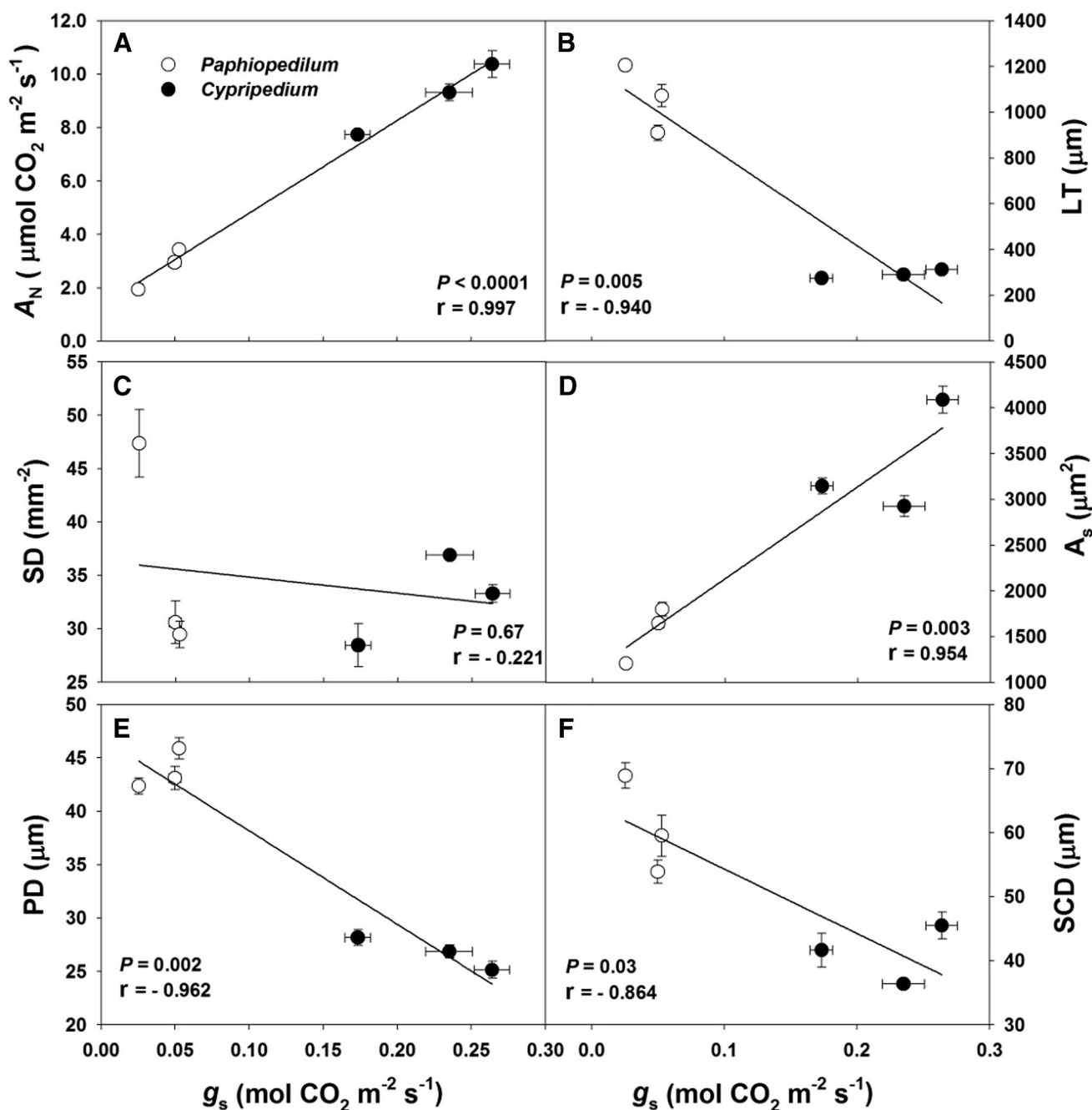


Fig. 5 Correlations between CO_2 assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, and leaf structure: **a** stomatal conductance (g_s) versus CO_2 assimilation rate (A_N); **b** g_s versus leaf thickness (LT); **c** g_s versus stomatal density (SD); **d** g_s versus stomatal apparatus area (A_s); **e**

g_s versus pore depth (PD); and **f** g_s versus substomatal cavity depth (SCD). Values are means \pm SE ($n=5$) for *Cyripedium* (black dots) and *Paphiopedilum* (white dots)

of the leaf (Niinemets and Sack 2006; Boyer 2015). Stomata are keys in determining internal CO_2 concentrations (Farquhar and Sharkey 1982; Araujo et al. 2011; Taylor et al. 2012). We found that the g_s value was lower in *Paphiopedilum* than in *Cyripedium*, and g_s was positively correlated with A_N across the six species. This relationship is in accordance with the theoretical basis of the Ball–Berry

model (Ball et al. 1987). Our analysis of photosynthetic limitations confirmed that stomatal factors were stronger in *Paphiopedilum*. A positive correlation between maximum A_N and g_s has been observed in other species and various habitats (Patakas et al. 2003; Gago et al. 2013, 2016). The lower g_s of *Paphiopedilum* means that this genus displays greater stomatal resistance that reduces the concentration

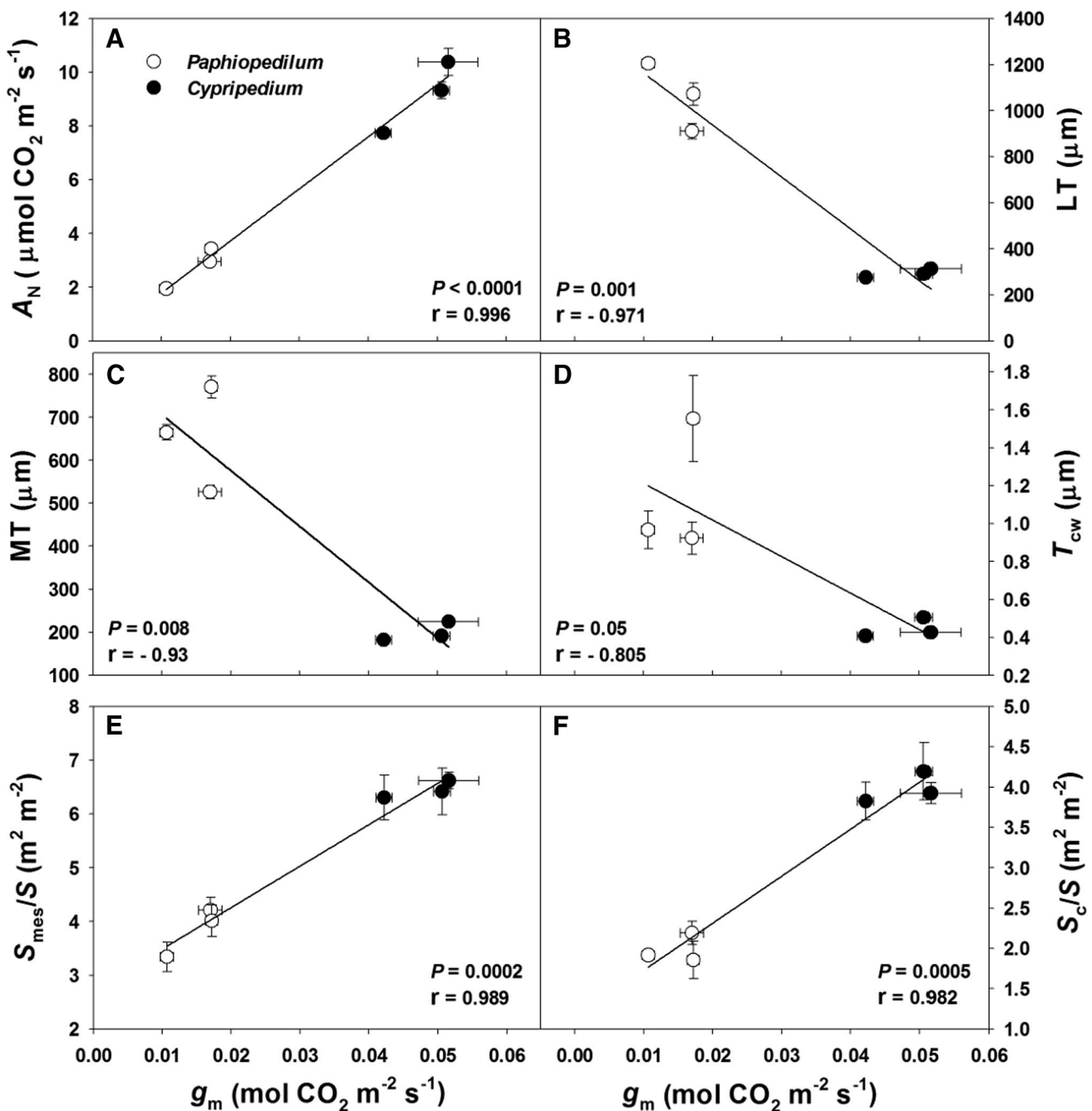


Fig. 6 Correlations between CO₂ assimilation rate, mesophyll conductance, and leaf structure: **a** mesophyll conductance (g_m) versus CO₂ assimilation rate (A_N); **b** g_m versus leaf thickness (LT); **c** g_m versus mesophyll layer thickness (MT); **d** g_m versus cell wall thickness (T_{cw}); **e** g_m versus surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to airspace

per unit of leaf area (S_{mes}/S); and **f** g_m versus chloroplast surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area (S_c/S). Values are means \pm SE ($n=5$) for *Cypripedium* (black dots) and *Paphiopedilum* (white dots)

of CO₂ in the chloroplasts and leads to a lower photosynthetic rate. It is commonly thought that g_s is mainly affected by both stomatal density/size and whether the stomata are open (Franks and Beerling 2009; Ocheltree et al. 2012; de Boer et al. 2016). In contrast, our results indicated that g_s is strongly linked to A_s , PD, SCD, and LMA, but is not

significantly correlated with SD. Therefore, we might conclude that A_s and PD are the most conspicuous stomatal features that determine the degree of stomatal opening and the distance that CO₂ diffuses through the stomata, respectively, thereby jointly affecting the leaf internal CO₂ concentration. Some previous studies have also shown that A_s

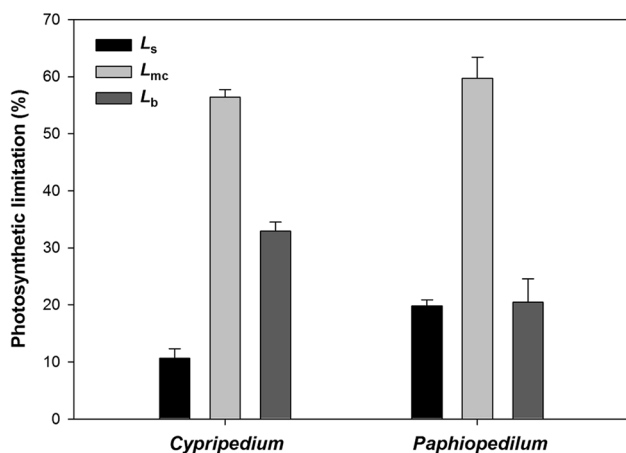


Fig. 7 Relative stomatal (L_s), mesophyll conductance (L_{mc}), and biochemical (L_b) limitations to photosynthesis in *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum*

is closely correlated with g_s (Giuliani et al. 2013; Brodribb et al. 2016). Overall, our results suggest that stomatal area and pore depth, rather than stomatal density, are the most important factors that influence g_s in our selected species.

Mesophyll conductance plays an important role in determining the CO_2 concentration at the sites of carboxylation inside the chloroplasts. Other researchers have also demonstrated that g_m is an important factor for the limitation of photosynthesis (Flexas et al. 2008, 2012; Sagardoy et al. 2010) and is positively correlated with the photosynthetic rate (Loreto et al. 2003; Singaas et al. 2004; Grassi and Magnani 2005; Warren and Adams 2006). For example, g_m is responsible for the lower photosynthetic capacity in ferns when compared with angiosperms (Carriqui et al. 2015). We also noted the role that g_m has in controlling photosynthesis in our tested species and found that *Paphiopedilum* has a higher mesophyll limitation than does *Cypripedium*. The positive relationship between photosynthetic rate and mesophyll conductance for *Cypripedium* and *Paphiopedilum* growing in their natural distribution areas was also confirmed by our study (Appendix S5) and a previous study (Chang et al. 2011), respectively. This has also been revealed elsewhere. For example, Tomas et al. (2013) reported that g_m is highly correlated with S_c/S and T_{cw} in 15 fern species, but that the effects of leaf anatomical features on g_m vary among species. For plants with mesophytic leaves, membrane permeability, the cytosol, and stromal conductance dictate g_m , while T_{cw} is the most important limitation for plants with sclerophytic leaves. In fact, some models have estimated that approximately 25–50% of the variability in g_m can be explained by differences in cell wall thickness (Evans et al. 2009; Tosens et al. 2012). However, other researchers have suggested that the majority of g_m variation is due to the combination of three parameters: S_{mes}/S , S_c/S , and T_{cw} (Fini

et al. 2016; Xiong et al. 2016). Our evaluation of six orchid species indicated that g_m increased linearly with S_{mes}/S and S_c/S but decreased linearly with T_{cw} . We were surprised to learn that g_m was also related to LT, MT, and LMA. While leaf thickness and cell wall thickness affect the length of the CO_2 diffusion path, S_{mes}/S and S_c/S determine the number of photosynthetic carboxylation sites adjacent to the intercellular airspace (Flexas et al. 2012; Tosens et al. 2012). These relationships collectively demonstrate that the leaf anatomical structure is associated with the internal diffusion of CO_2 conductance and photosynthetic performances of species within *Paphiopedilum* and *Cypripedium*.

In summary, the combination of stomatal, mesophyll, and biochemical factors help determine the photosynthetic potentials of *Paphiopedilum* and *Cypripedium*. However, photosynthetic capacity is more strongly influenced by diffusional limitations than by biochemical limitations. Mesophyll conductance plays a vital role in the performance of the six orchids tested here. Both stomatal apparatus area and pore depth are the key anatomical traits that affect stomatal conductance, while mesophyll conductance is modulated by the surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area, the chloroplast surface area exposed to intercellular airspace per unit of leaf area, and cell wall thickness. Therefore, the lower photosynthetic rate in *Paphiopedilum* species can largely be explained by diffusional resistance, particularly internal resistance which is imposed by their unique leaf anatomy and morphology. These findings provided new insight into the evolution of leaf structures, photosynthetic physiology, and slow growth rates by orchids. However, the phenotypes of plants are a consequence of differences in their genotypes and response to their environments; thus, further studies on structural and biochemical differences between representative species in these genera growing in their natural habitats will be of interest.

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