



## RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1029/2021MS002470

## Key Points:

- A parameter-sparse model of  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation to changes in environmental conditions based on photosynthetic least cost theory
- Including acclimation will improve simulations of  $C_4$  carbon assimilation and water/nutrient-use efficiencies under present/future conditions
- In simulated competition experiments with a similar  $C_3$  model,  $C_4$  photosynthesis becomes less advantageous under increased carbon dioxide

## Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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## Citation:



Scott, H. G., & Smith, N. G. (2022). A model of  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation based on least-cost optimality theory suitable for Earth System Model incorporation. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 14, e2021MS002470. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021MS002470>

Received 13 JAN 2021

Accepted 2 FEB 2022

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# A Model of $C_4$ Photosynthetic Acclimation Based on Least-Cost Optimality Theory Suitable for Earth System Model Incorporation

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**Abstract** Empirical studies have shown that plant photosynthetic responses to environmental change can vary over time due to acclimation, but acclimation responses are often not included in Earth System Models. Photosynthetic least cost theory can be used to develop models of photosynthetic acclimation that are simple and testable. The theory is based on the idea that plants will acclimate to minimize the ratio of carbon costs to photosynthetic assimilation rate (Prentice et al., 2014, <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12211>). Formulations of this theory have been developed for  $C_3$  plants, but not  $C_4$  plants, which account for over 20% of global photosynthesis and are over-represented among widely grown crops. Here, we use photosynthetic least cost theory to derive a model for  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation to above-ground abiotic conditions. We then compare our model's responses to a similar model of  $C_3$  photosynthetic acclimation and find that  $C_4$  photosynthesis has the highest simulated advantage over  $C_3$  photosynthesis in hot, dry, and low  $CO_2$  environments. We find that this advantage predicts  $C_4$  abundance globally, but that the shallower  $CO_2$  response of  $C_4$  as compared to  $C_3$  photosynthesis will reduce  $C_4$  plant competitiveness under future conditions, despite higher temperatures. We also show that an acclimated model predicts similar or faster rates of  $C_4$  under all conditions than a model that does not consider acclimation, suggesting that Earth System Models (ESMs) are underestimating future  $C_4$  carbon uptake by not including acclimation. Our model is designed for easy incorporation into such ESMs.

**Plain Language Summary** Plants change their rate of photosynthesis in response to their environment. Their photosynthetic rates can change minute to minute based on the quick changes in their environment, but they can also change over much longer timescales as the plants become accustomed to a new environmental condition. Long-term (days to weeks) regulation of photosynthesis is termed acclimation. When we predict how plants will behave in the future, we must take acclimation into account so that we can more accurately predict the future carbon, water, and nutrient cycles. Previous studies have developed mathematical models of photosynthetic acclimation for some, but not all, plants. One understudied group of plants that lacked an acclimation model were the  $C_4$  species, a subtype of plants often found in deserts and other arid environments, but one that also includes important agricultural crops such as maize. In this study, we develop a theoretical model of photosynthetic acclimation for  $C_4$  species and show that the model yields expected results based on where  $C_4$  plants currently grow. Our model can improve the predictions of carbon, water, and nutrient cycling in larger Earth System Models.

## 1. Introduction

Current Earth System Models (ESMs) are highly sensitive to the representation of photosynthetic processes and their response to environmental conditions (Booth et al., 2012). These models commonly predict photosynthetic process rates based on instantaneous responses (i.e., seconds to minutes; Smith & Dukes, 2013). However, decades of empirical studies have shown that plants adjust their responses when subjected to longer-term (days to weeks) changes in environmental conditions, due to acclimation (Bazzaz, 1990; Berry & Bjorkman, 1980; Boardman, 1977; Dusenke et al., 2019; Smith & Dukes, 2013; Way & Yamori, 2014; Yamori et al., 2014). Previous studies have shown that including  $C_3$  photosynthetic acclimation alters biophysical and biogeochemical feedback in ESMs (Friend, 2010; Kattge & Knorr, 2007; King et al., 2006; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Mercado et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2016, 2017; Thornton et al., 2007a; Zaehle & Friend, 2010). However, there is no acclimation model for plants that use the  $C_4$  photosynthetic pathway.

Photosynthetic acclimation has been observed for  $C_4$  species (Bellasio & Griffiths, 2014; Dwyer et al., 2007; Sage, 1999; Smith & Dukes, 2017; Yamori et al., 2014) and may occur through changes in both stomatal (Bellasio & Griffiths, 2014; Maherali et al., 2002) and biochemical (Sage & Kubien, 2007; Smith & Dukes, 2017) processes. However, it is essential to note that these acclimation responses may differ from those observed in  $C_3$  species (Maherali et al., 2002; Yamori et al., 2014). For instance, the mesophyll cells of  $C_4$  leaves contain phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPc), which captures incoming  $CO_2$  and shuttles carbon to ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) in specialized bundle sheath cells (Kanai & Edwards, 1999). The high concentration of carbon shuttled to the bundle sheath cells increases the relative amount of carboxylation versus oxygenation that RuBisCO performs (Kanai & Edwards, 1999). Because of this specialized anatomy,  $C_4$  species operate at lower stomatal conductance rates than  $C_3$  species and show a reduced sensitivity of photosynthetic processes to  $CO_2$ , temperature, and vapor pressure deficit (Sage, 1999). High  $CO_2$  concentrations in the bundle sheath and the Kranz anatomy may partially explain  $C_4$  species difficulty to fully acclimate to changing conditions as quickly as  $C_3$  species (Maherali et al., 2002; Sage & McKown, 2006; Yamori et al., 2014). However, there are not many experimental comparisons available in the literature.

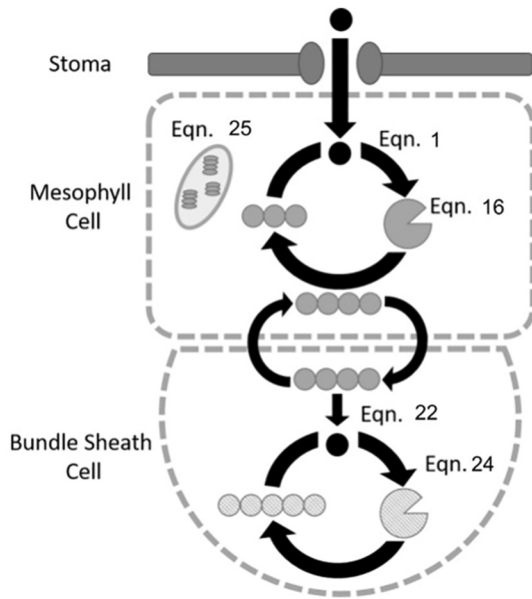
In complement to empirical studies, theoretical models of photosynthetic functioning can help elucidate the mechanisms underlying environmental responses (Collatz et al., 1991, 1992; Ehleringer et al., 1997; Farquhar et al., 1980; Wang et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2018). Classic work has used these models to compare simulated photosynthetic rates of  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species under varying environmental conditions as a way of explaining geographic patterns in the abundance of species utilizing different photosynthetic pathways (Ehleringer et al., 1997). Other studies have used theoretical models to predict historical ranges of  $C_4$  plants at geologic timescales (Zhou et al., 2018). These studies have confirmed  $C_4$  advantages in warm, arid, high light, and low  $CO_2$  environments. However, these studies have either omitted acclimation (Ehleringer et al., 1997) or only included simplified empirical representations of acclimation processes (Zhou et al., 2018). The recent development of theoretical models for  $C_3$  photosynthetic acclimation (Wang et al., 2017) presents the opportunity to perform similar theoretical comparisons between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species while accounting for acclimation with the complimentary development of a theoretical model for  $C_4$  photosynthesis.

Here, we develop a novel theoretical model of  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation to above-ground environmental conditions. The model is based on the least-cost theory of photosynthesis (Wright et al., 2003), extending the original theory based on  $C_3$  species to  $C_4$  species. The least-cost hypothesis states that plants will acclimate to minimize the carbon costs to assimilate carbon through photosynthesis on a per-leaf-area basis (Prentice et al., 2014). The combined carbon costs include the costs of carboxylation and transpiration (Prentice et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Carboxylation incurs a carbon cost due to the creation and maintenance of proteins, including RuBisCO (Wang et al., 2017). Here,  $C_4$  plants may incur a greater carbon cost, due to the need to maintain additional enzymes, including PEPc. Transpiration incurs a carbon cost because of the need to maintain living tissues to support water transport (Wang et al., 2017). By minimizing costs, the photosynthetic assimilation rate is maximized per carbon cost so the least cost hypothesis could also be called a maximum photosynthetic efficiency hypothesis. We develop the model using a similar approach to Wang et al. (2017) and use it to predict acclimated values for intracellular  $CO_2$ , photosynthetic biochemistry, and photosynthesis of  $C_4$  leaves under varying environmental conditions.

We use the theoretical model to compare responses to environmental conditions in leaves under acclimated and non-acclimated conditions to explore potential impacts the model might have on carbon uptake if included in an ESM. We also replicate classical theoretical competition experiments (Ehleringer et al., 1997) to explore the conditions under which  $C_4$  species have greater carbon assimilation rates than  $C_3$  species.

## 2. Methods

We developed this theoretical model of  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation by combining the coordination theory of photosynthetic biochemistry (Maire et al., 2012; J.-L. Chen et al., 1993) and the least-cost hypothesis of stomatal conductance (Prentice et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2003). The primary assumption is that optimally acclimated plants will minimize the ratio of carbon costs to photosynthetic assimilation rate (Prentice et al., 2014). Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of the model.



**Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the main features of the acclimated  $C_4$  model.  $CO_2$  diffuses into the mesophyll cell, where it is fixed into a  $C_4$  acid by PEPc at the rate of  $V_{pmax}$ . The  $C_4$  is concentrated in the bundle sheath at the rate of  $g_{bs}$ , where it is unpackaged, and fixed by RuBisCO at the rate of  $V_{cmax}$ . The rate of the electron transport chain ( $J_{max}$ ) limits PEP and RuBP regeneration. Arrows indicate the path of molecule diffusion.

The least-cost hypothesis predicts the optimal ratio of intercellular  $CO_2$  ( $C_i$ ) to atmospheric  $CO_2$  ( $C_a$ ), referred to here as  $\chi_m$ . We then use  $\chi_m$  to estimate the concentration of  $CO_2$  in the mesophyll cell ( $C_m$ ) and the bundle sheath cell ( $C_{bs}$ ). These  $CO_2$  concentrations, along with the growing season conditions of light available for photosynthesis (photosynthetically active radiation, or PAR) and temperature, serve as inputs to calculate the maximum rates of carboxylation by PEPc ( $V_{pmax}$ ) and RuBisCO ( $V_{cmax}$ ) as well as electron transport ( $J_{max}$ ). First, we present a theoretical model to estimate  $\chi_m$ , parameterized with a worldwide data set of isotope discrimination in  $C_4$  plants. We then describe how we use the coordination theory to predict optimal  $J_{max}$ ,  $V_{pmax}$ , and  $V_{cmax}$ .

### 2.1. Optimal $C_m$ Calculation

We developed a modified version of the  $C_3$  least-cost model from Prentice et al. (2014) for  $C_4$  plants to calculate the partial pressure of  $CO_2$  present in the mesophyll cells ( $C_m$  (Pa)). We calculate  $C_m$  as a fraction of atmospheric  $CO_2$  ( $c_a$  (Pa)).

$$C_m = \chi_m c_a \quad (1)$$

$\chi_m$  is the ratio of atmospheric to mesophyll  $CO_2$ , we define it as:

$$\chi_m = \frac{\xi}{\xi + \sqrt{D}}, \text{ where } \xi = \sqrt{\frac{\beta K_p}{1.6\eta^*}} \quad (2)$$

where  $D$  is the vapor pressure deficit (Pa),  $K_p$  is the Michaelis-Menten constant for PEPc (Pa), and  $\eta^*$  is the viscosity of water relative to its value at 25°C ( $\eta^* = \eta/\eta_{ref}$ ; unitless).

The value  $\beta$  (unitless) in Equation (2) is the ratio (b/a) of dimensionless cost factors for maintaining carboxylation (b) to maintaining transpiration (a). We use a value of 166 for  $\beta$ , which was fit to a world-wide data set of carbon isotope discrimination values for  $C_4$  species (Cornwell et al., 2018). This  $\beta$  value is in contrast to the  $\beta$  value for  $C_3$  plants, 240 (Wang et al., 2017).

Here, we assumed that the  $C_m$  was equal to the intercellular  $CO_2$  ( $C_i$ ). This will correspond to infinite mesophyll conductance, where there is no resistance to the movement of  $CO_2$  from the intercellular space into mesophyll cells.

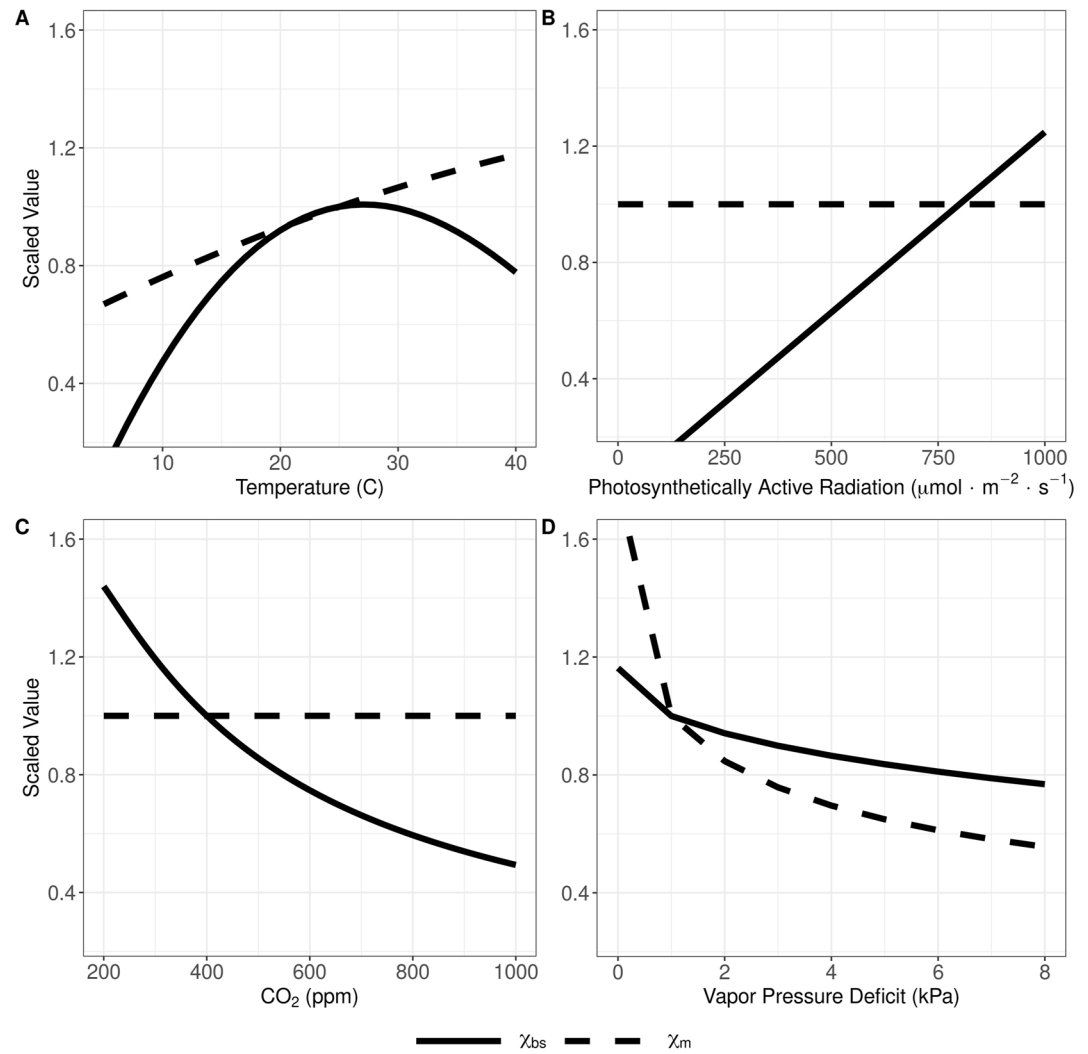
One key difference between Equation (2) and the original  $C_3$  version is the assumption that no mesophyll photorespiration is occurring in  $C_4$  plants. Because of this simplification, there are no terms in this equation dependent on atmospheric  $CO_2$  levels. The effects of this assumption are shown and discussed later with Figure 2. For the full derivation of Equation (2), see the Supporting Information S1.

### 2.2. Coordination Hypothesis

The rate of  $C_4$  photosynthetic assimilation ( $A$ ) is the minimum value of possible photosynthetic rates limited by different factors (Collatz et al., 1992; Von Caemmerer, 2000; Von Caemmerer & Furbank, 1999). The three primary limiting rates for  $C_4$  photosynthesis are: (1) electron transport rate-limited photosynthesis ( $A_L$ ), limited by enzymes that use PAR to drive the electron transport chain that regenerates PEP and RuBP, (2) PEPc limited photosynthesis ( $A_P$ ), limited by the rate of carboxylation by PEPc, and (3) RuBisCO limited photosynthesis ( $A_C$ ), limited by the rate of RuBisCO carboxylation. The rate of photosynthesis ( $A$ ) in  $C_4$  plants can be represented as:

$$A = \min \{ A_L, A_P, A_C \} \quad (3)$$

The coordination hypothesis states that under acclimated conditions, optimal leaf biochemistry will lead to equal rates of ( $A_L$ ), ( $A_P$ ), and ( $A_C$ ) or



**Figure 2.** Response of  $\chi_m$  (dashed black line) and  $\chi_{bs}$  (solid black line) to (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , and (d) vapor pressure when all others are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR = 800  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR, elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa).

$$A_L = A_P = A_C \quad (4)$$

These three rates vary independently from one another based on above-ground environmental conditions, including PAR, temperature,  $\text{CO}_2$ , and vapor pressure deficit (VPD), allowing us to derive optimally acclimated biochemical rates under different acclimated conditions. To do this, we calculated  $A_L$  as in Smith et al. (2019):

$$A_L = \frac{\phi_{PSII} I m \omega^*}{8\theta} \quad (5)$$

where

$$m = \frac{C_i - \Gamma^*}{C_i + 2\Gamma^*} \quad (6)$$

and

$$\omega^* = 1 + \omega - \sqrt{(1 + \omega)^2 - 4\theta\omega} \quad (7)$$

and

$$\omega = -(1 - 2\theta) + \sqrt{(1 - \theta) \left( \frac{1}{\frac{4c}{m} \left( 1 - \theta \frac{4c}{m} \right)} - 4\theta \right)} \quad (8)$$

where  $I$  is the incident photosynthetically active photon flux density ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\theta$  is the curvature of the PAR response curve, assumed to be 0.85 (unitless), and  $\phi_{PSII}$  is the realized quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport ( $\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ ).  $\Gamma^*$  is the photorespiratory  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point (calculated below in Equation (10)). For the calculation of  $\omega$ , we assumed the non-varying parameter  $c$ , defined as the derivative of  $A_L$  with respect to the maximum rate of electron transport ( $J_{\text{max}}$ ), to be equivalent to the standard value for  $\text{C}_3$  species, 0.053 (Smith et al., 2019).

There is much uncertainty around the value of  $\phi_{PSII}$ . We expect the value of  $\phi_{PSII}$  to be different for  $\text{C}_4$  plants from the value for  $\text{C}_3$  plants, and there is evidence that the different sub-types of  $\text{C}_4$  may have different  $\phi_{PSII}$  values as well (Ehleringer & Pearcy, 1983; Ogle, 2003). There is experimental evidence that the value of  $\phi_{PSII}$  is lower in  $\text{C}_4$  plants (Oberhuber & Edwards, 1993). This is expected because of the additional costs of  $\text{C}_4$  photosynthesis, such as the regeneration of PEPc and elevated cyclic transport, which both lower the efficiency of the electron transport system.

Despite these known differences, we have chosen to use the same  $\phi_{PSII}$  value and temperature response equation as is used for  $\text{C}_3$  species, which was initially presented in Bernacchi et al. (2001).

$$\phi_{PSII} = -0.0805 + 0.022T - 0.00034T^2 \quad (9)$$

We chose to use this  $\text{C}_3$  specific value because of the lack of consensus for a  $\text{C}_4$  value.  $\text{C}_4$  specific estimates of  $\phi_{PSII}$  range from 0.45 (Oberhuber & Edwards, 1993) to 0.7 (Farquhar et al., 1989). However, the value used for the intercept term of Equation (9) does not impact the predicted environmental responses only the absolute values of the model predictions. Hence, results of the model presented in this paper are standardized to their values at “standard” conditions (temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR =  $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR, elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa) to better compare the trends than absolute values. We discuss the effects of this choice in Section 3.3.

$\Gamma^*$  varies with temperature according to:

$$\Gamma^* = \Gamma_{25}^* \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H_{a(g)}}{R} \left( \frac{1}{298.15} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \right] \quad (10)$$

where  $\Gamma_{25}^*$  is 2.6 Pa at sea level, determined by using the definition  $\Gamma_{25}^* = \gamma^* O_m$ , where  $\gamma^*$  is half the reciprocal of RuBisCO specificity, 0.000193 (Von Caemmerer, 2000).  $\Delta H_{a(g)}$  is  $37,830 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$ ,  $T$  is the acclimated leaf temperature in Kelvin, and  $R$  is the ideal gas constant (Bernacchi et al., 2001).

$A_p$  is defined in terms of the mesophyll reactions (Von Caemmerer, 2021):

$$A_p = A_{p_{\text{gross}}} - L \quad (11)$$

where  $A_{p_{\text{gross}}}$  is the rate of PEP carboxylation and  $L$  is the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  leakage from the bundle sheath to the mesophyll. This assumes that the steady state rate of PEP carboxylation and the rate of  $\text{C}_4$  acid decarboxylation are equal.  $A_{p_{\text{gross}}}$  is the rate of PEP carboxylase, as defined by the Michaelis-Menten equation:

$$A_{p_{\text{gross}}} = \frac{V_{p_{\text{max}}} C_m}{K_p + C_m} \quad (12)$$

where  $V_{p_{\text{max}}}$  is the maximum rate of PEPc carboxylation ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $K_p$  is the Michaelis-Menten constant for PEPc (Pa), and  $C_m$  is the concentration of  $\text{CO}_2$  at the site of carboxylation, the mesophyll chloroplast (Pa).

$L$ , leakage ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), is typically given by (Von Caemmerer, 2021):

$$L = g_{bs} (C_{bs} - C_m) \quad (13)$$

where  $C_{bs}$  and  $C_m$  are  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations in  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ ,  $g_{bs}$  is a constant  $3 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Von Caemmerer, 2000).

However, we cannot use this equation, as there are too many unknown variables. Therefore, we rely on the measure of leakiness ( $\phi_L$ ), a term coined by Farquhar (1983), which defines leakage as a fraction of the rate of PEP carboxylation and thus describes the efficiency of the  $C_4$  cycle leakiness.

$$\phi_L = L / A_{p\text{gross}} \quad (14)$$

We chose to use a value of 0.2, because values of leakiness inferred from organic material carbon isotope composition varied around 20%–30% (Farquhar, 1983). We left the value of leakiness as a parameter that the user can set for  $\phi_L$ .

This assumption of leakiness allows us to estimate the leakage rate in terms of  $A_L$ :

$$L = \frac{\phi_L A_L}{1 - \phi_L} \quad (15)$$

Using Equations (5) and (12), we can solve for optimal  $V_{p\text{max}}$  as:

$$V_{p\text{max}} = (A_L + L)(K_p + C_m) C_m \quad (16)$$

$K_p$  is dependent on temperature in the following manner:

$$K_p = K_{p(25)} \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H_{a(p)}}{298.15 RT} \right] \quad (17)$$

where  $K_{p(25)}$  is equal to  $60.5 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  and  $K_p$  is dependent on temperature in the following manner:

$$K_p = K_{p(25)} \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H_{a(p)}}{298.15 RT} \right] \quad (18)$$

where  $K_{p(25)}$  is equal to  $60.5 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  and  $\Delta H_{a(p)}$  is equal to  $27.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (Boyd et al., 2015).

$A_C$  can also be defined using the Michaelis-Menten equation:

$$A_C = \frac{V_{c\text{max}} (C_{bs} - \Gamma^*)}{K_c (1 + O_{bs}/K_o) + C_{bs}} \quad (19)$$

$K_c$  is the Michaelis-Menten coefficient of RuBisCO's carboxylation activity (Pa) and  $C_{bs}$  is the concentration of  $\text{CO}_2$  at the carboxylation site, the bundle sheath cell (Pa).  $K_c$  responds to temperature as follows:

$$K_c = K_{c(25)} \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H_{a(c)}}{298.15 RT} \right] \quad (20)$$

where  $K_{c(25)}$  is equal to 121 Pa, and  $\Delta H_{a(c)}$  is equal to  $64.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (Boyd et al., 2015).

The Michaelis-Menten coefficient of RuBisCO's oxygenation activity,  $K_o$  (Pa) responds to temperature as well.

$$K_o = K_{o(25)} \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H_{a(o)}}{298.15 RT} \right] \quad (21)$$

where  $K_{o(25)}$  is equal to 29.2 kPa, and  $\Delta H_{a(o)}$  is equal to  $10.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (Boyd et al., 2015).

We can express  $C_{bs}$  mathematically as:

$$C_{bs} = C_m + \frac{A_{p\text{gross}} - A_L}{g_{bs}} \quad (22)$$

where  $C_{bs}$  and  $C_m$  are  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations in  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ ,  $g_{bs}$  is a constant  $3 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Von Caemmerer, 2000).

For direct comparison with trends seen in  $\chi_m$ , we calculated the ratio of bundle sheath to atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  as:

$$\chi_{bs} = C_{bs} / C_a \quad (23)$$

We solved for optimal  $V_{c\text{max}}$  substituting the  $A_L$  from 5 for  $A_C$  in 19, yielding:

**Table 1**  
*Photosynthetic Parameters (at 25°C) Used in the Model*

| Parameter                    | C <sub>4</sub> Value | Unit                                 | Reference                | Equation | C <sub>3</sub> value |
|------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| Θ                            | 0.85                 | Unitless                             | Farquhar and Wong (1984) | 7 & 8    | 0.85                 |
| c                            | 0.053                | Unitless                             | Smith et al. (2019)      | 4        | 0.053                |
| Γ <sub>25</sub> <sup>*</sup> | 2.6                  | Pa                                   | —                        | 10       | 4.332                |
| ΔH <sub>a(g)</sub>           | 37,830               | J mol <sup>-1</sup>                  | Bernacchi et al. (2001)  | 10       | 37,830               |
| K <sub>p(25)</sub>           | 60.5                 | μmol mol <sup>-1</sup>               | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 18       | —                    |
| ΔH <sub>a(p)</sub>           | 27.2                 | kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>                 | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 18       | —                    |
| K <sub>c(25)</sub>           | 121                  | Pa CO <sub>2</sub>                   | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 20       | 41.03                |
| ΔH <sub>a(c)</sub>           | 64.2                 | kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>                 | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 20       | 79.43                |
| K <sub>o(25)</sub>           | 29.2                 | kPa CO <sub>2</sub>                  | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 21       | 28.21                |
| ΔH <sub>a(o)</sub>           | 10.5                 | kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>                 | Boyd et al. (2015)       | 21       | 36.38                |
| g <sub>bs</sub>              | 3                    | mmol m <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> | Von Caemmerer (2000)     | 22       | —                    |

*Note.* The C<sub>3</sub> values are those that were used in the analogous C<sub>3</sub> model (Smith et al., 2019).

$$V_{cmax} = \frac{\phi_{PSII} I \omega^*}{8\theta} \frac{C_{bs} + K_c (1 + O_{bs}/K_o)}{C_{bs} - \Gamma^*} \quad (24)$$

The optimal maximum rate of electron transport ( $J_{max}$ ; μmol m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) is calculated as in Smith et al. (2019) as:

$$J_{max} = \phi_{PSII} I \omega \quad (25)$$

### 2.3. Parameterization of the Model

The free parameters in the theoretical model were defined based on empirical data (Table 1). Where possible, these were defined using data from C<sub>4</sub> species.

### 2.4. C<sub>3</sub> Comparison

We compared simulated photosynthetic rates from the C<sub>4</sub> acclimation model to an analogous C<sub>3</sub> presented in Smith et al. (2019) as updated in Smith and Keenan (2020) (model code available at DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.3874938). Both models rely upon the coordination hypothesis; however, in the C<sub>4</sub> model, there are three possible limiting rates, while the C<sub>3</sub> model has only two (A<sub>p</sub> is unique to the C<sub>4</sub> model). While some parameters, such as those for A<sub>L</sub>, are identical between the two models, others differ, though they are present in analogous equations. See Table 1 for a full list of parameters with their respective C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> values.

In addition to comparing the absolute values of assimilation rates, we also determined the difference between the rates as a percent of the C<sub>3</sub> level (ΔA):

$$\Delta A = \frac{A_{C_4} - A_{C_3}}{A_{C_3}} * 100 \quad (26)$$

A<sub>C3</sub> and A<sub>C4</sub> are the simulated rates of photosynthesis via the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> pathways respectively. We made these comparisons across multiple CO<sub>2</sub> (200–1,000 ppm), temperature (1–40°C), PAR (0–1,000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), and VPD values (1–8 kPa). In all cases, non-varying conditions were kept constant at standard conditions (CO<sub>2</sub> = 400 ppm, temperature = 25°C, PAR = 800 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, and VPD = 1).

### 2.5. Model Comparison to Global Relative C<sub>4</sub> Abundance

To estimate how well our model predicted the observed patterns of C<sub>4</sub> species abundance, we predicted ΔA values globally and compared these values to relative abundance data from the International Satellite Land-Surface



Climatology Project (Still et al., 2009). The data set estimates the percentage of vegetation (0–100) with the  $C_4$  photosynthetic pathway. The data set is global, divided into  $1^\circ$  grid cells. For the comparison, we selected cells that fell within grasslands, open shrublands, savannas, and woody savannas, as defined by the MODIS Land Cover Type Product MCD12Q1 International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) legend and class descriptions (Friedl & Sulla-Menashe, 2015). These land cover types were selected because they each had high values of  $C_4$  dominance. We fit a linear regression with  $\Delta A$  as the dependent variable and the percentage of  $C_4$  vegetation as the independent variable. We calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient to assess the strength of the relationship between our predicted  $\Delta A$  value and the  $C_4$  percent coverage.

## 2.6. Instantaneous Model

To compare the acclimated response to the unacclimated instantaneous response, we developed a second model without acclimation. This instantaneous model used the same parameters and core equations, but with static values for  $\chi_m$ ,  $\chi_{bs}$ ,  $J_{\max}$ ,  $V_{p\max}$ , and  $V_{c\max}$ . The values used were those predicted from the acclimated model under standard conditions (temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR =  $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). We compared acclimated and unacclimated photosynthetic rates across a range of  $\text{CO}_2$  (200–1,000 ppm), temperature (1– $40^\circ\text{C}$ ), PAR (0–1,000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), and VPD<sub>0</sub> values (0–8 kPa). In all cases, non-varying conditions were kept constant at the standard conditions listed above.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Optimal Photosynthesis-Environment Responses

In response to increased temperature, our theory predicted an increase in  $\chi_m$  (Figure 2). Two factors contributed to the increase: an increase in the Michaelis-Menten constant of PEPc ( $K_p$ ) and a decrease in the viscosity of water (Equation 2). Increased VPD resulted in a non-linear decrease in  $\chi_m$  directly due to  $D$ 's presence in Equation (2). Changes in  $\text{CO}_2$  and PAR did not impact  $\chi_m$ , as these conditions are not part of the theoretical equation (Equation 2). This represents the assumption that no photorespiration is occurring, and is a key difference between the  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  model.

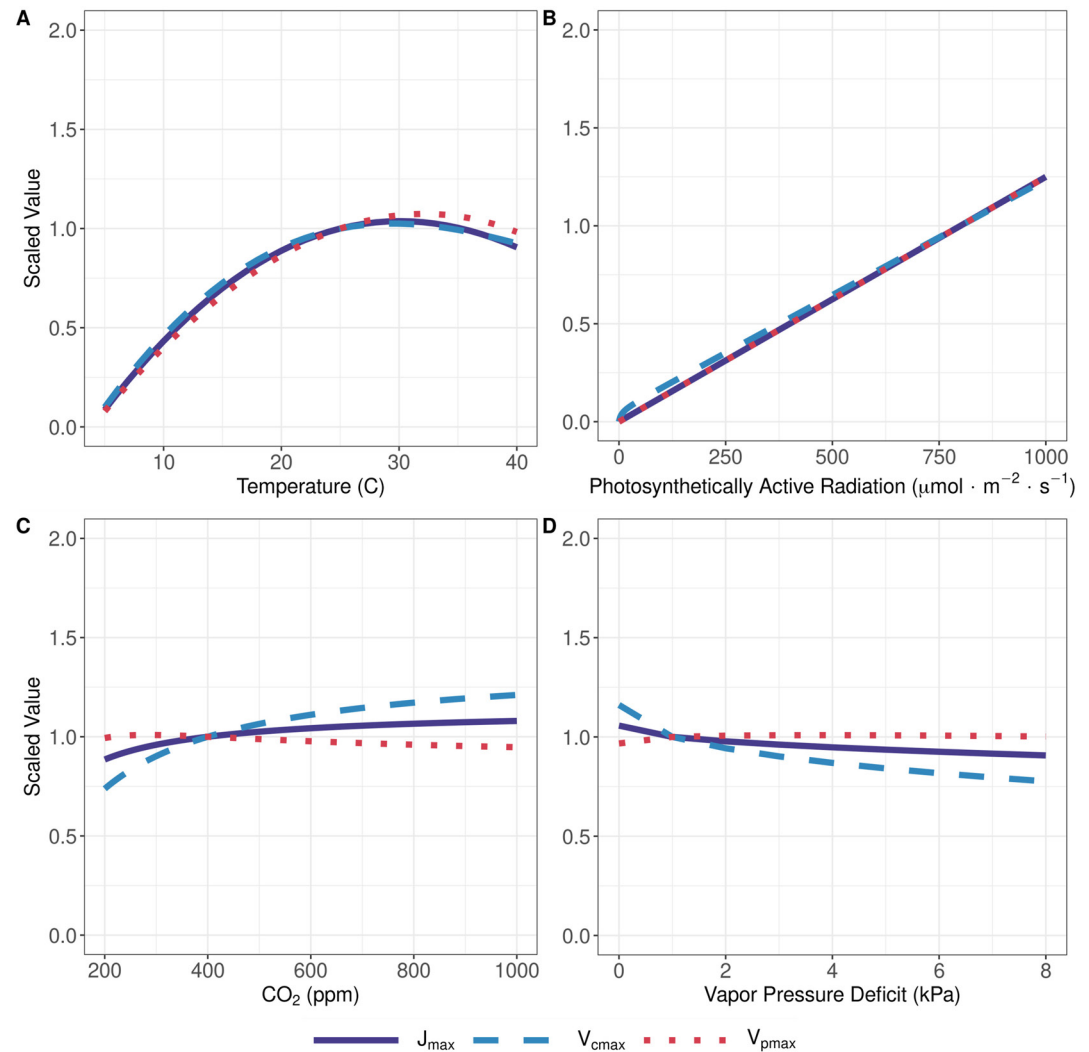
The  $\chi_{bs}$  value follows the same trends as  $\chi_m$  (Figure 2).

Predicted optimal  $J_{\max}$  increases with temperature, PAR, and  $\text{CO}_2$ , and decreases slightly with VPD (Figure 3). The non-linear increase with temperature is due to the simultaneous increase of  $\phi_{PSII}$  and  $\Gamma^*$  (within the  $\omega$  term), which control  $J_{\max}$  values linearly in Equation (25). The linear increase with PAR is predicted in Equation (25). Unlike the other biochemical processes,  $J_{\max}$  increases very slightly with  $\text{CO}_2$ . Finally,  $J_{\max}$  decreases with VPD due to decreases in  $C_m$  within the  $\omega$  term (Equations 6 and 8).

The model predicts an increase in  $V_{p\max}$  with temperature and PAR (Figure 3). As noted in Equation (18), the Michaelis-Menten constant,  $K_p$  is temperature dependent, as is  $\phi_{PSII}$  (Equation 9). As both are present in the numerator of Equation (16),  $V_{p\max}$  increases with temperature.  $V_{p\max}$  increased linearly in response to PAR, as a result of a linear increase in  $A_L$ .  $V_{p\max}$  decreased in response to increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  levels, as more  $\text{CO}_2$  allowed for nutrient-use of PEP carboxylation necessary to equate  $A_L$  and  $A_p$ . The model predicted a slight, non-linear, increase in  $V_{p\max}$  with increased vapor pressure deficit due to reduced  $\chi_m$ .

Like  $V_{p\max}$ , the optimal  $V_{c\max}$  increases with temperature and PAR and decreases with  $\text{CO}_2$  due to similar drivers (Figure 3). The temperature increases continuously within the physiologically relevant range, rather than peaking before  $40^\circ\text{C}$  due to the combined effects increases in  $K_c$  and  $\Gamma^*$  (Equation 24).  $V_{c\max}$  increases with PAR linearly. The linear relationship is due to the dependence of  $\chi_{bs}$  on PAR (Equation 22) in addition to the linear relationship of  $A_L$  with PAR (Equation 24). The decrease of  $V_{c\max}$  in response to increased  $\text{CO}_2$  is due to a down-regulation of carboxylation activity to match  $A_c$  rates to the unaffected  $A_L$  rates.  $V_{c\max}$  decreases to a lesser degree than  $V_{p\max}$  with increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  due to the greater partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the bundle sheath as compared to the mesophyll.  $V_{c\max}$  increased slightly in response to VPD.





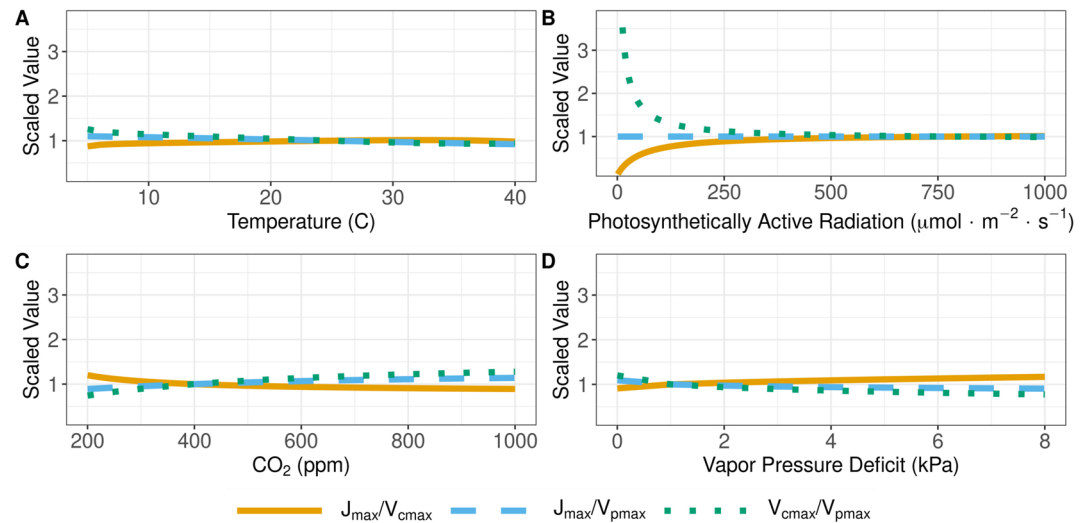
**Figure 3.** Response of optimal  $J_{\max}$  (solid purple line),  $V_{c\max}$  (dashed blue line), and  $V_{p\max}$  (dotted red line) to (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , and (d) vapor pressure when all others are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR =  $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). At standard conditions,  $J_{\max}$  is equal to 457.75,  $V_{c\max}$  is equal to 77.62, and  $V_{p\max}$  is equal to 53.96.

### 3.2. Allocation of Resources to Different Biochemical Processes

Figure 4 shows the ratios of  $J_{\max}$  to  $V_{c\max}$ ,  $J_{\max}$  to  $V_{p\max}$ , and  $V_{c\max}$  to  $V_{p\max}$  across varying temperature and PAR values. There is no change in ratios in response to PAR, as all of the biochemical variables respond linearly to PAR. However, the ratios all do vary, if only slightly in response to temperature,  $\text{CO}_2$  and VPD.  $J_{\max} : V_{c\max}$  decreases with temperature, as the increase of the  $V_{c\max}$  with temperature quickly outpaces the increase of  $J_{\max}$ .  $J_{\max} : V_{p\max}$  decreased slightly across the temperature range. This muted response is due to  $J_{\max}$  and  $V_{p\max}$ 's similar responses as seen in Figure 3. The  $V_{c\max}$  to  $V_{p\max}$  ratio increases with temperature. The increase of  $V_{c\max} : V_{p\max}$  with temperature is due to  $V_{c\max}$ 's large absolute values due to the carbon concentrating mechanism, and  $V_{c\max}$ 's increase with temperature. None of the ratios changed significantly with PAR or VPD.

### 3.3. Predicted Optimal Photosynthetic Rates

First we look at the general trends of acclimated  $\text{C}_4$  photosynthesis over environmental conditions (Figure 5). Predicted optimal  $A$  increased non-linearly with temperature to approximately  $25^\circ\text{C}$  after which it decreased.



**Figure 4.** Predicted response of optimal ratios of  $J_{\max}/V_{c\max}$  (solid yellow line),  $J_{\max}/V_{p\max}$  (dashed blue line), and  $V_{c\max}/V_{p\max}$  (dotted green line) to (a) temperature and (b) PAR when all other conditions are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR = 800  $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ , elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). At standard conditions,  $J_{\max}/V_{c\max}$  is equal to 5.90,  $J_{\max}/V_{p\max}$  is equal to 8.48, and  $V_{c\max}/V_{p\max}$  is equal to 1.44.

$A$  increased linearly with PAR, concurrent with increases in biochemical process rates.  $A$  increases with atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and decreases with VPD.

When the absolute values of assimilation rates are compared,  $C_4$  photosynthetic rates were always higher than the  $C_3$  rates (Figure 5). This is possibly due to the model overestimation of  $C_4$  photosynthesis because of the use of an overestimated  $\phi_{PSII}$  value (as discussed in Equation (9)). With the given  $\phi_{PSII}$  value, photosynthetic rates were most similar at low light, low temperature, and high  $\text{CO}_2$  levels.

### 3.4. Acclimated Versus Non-Acclimated Responses

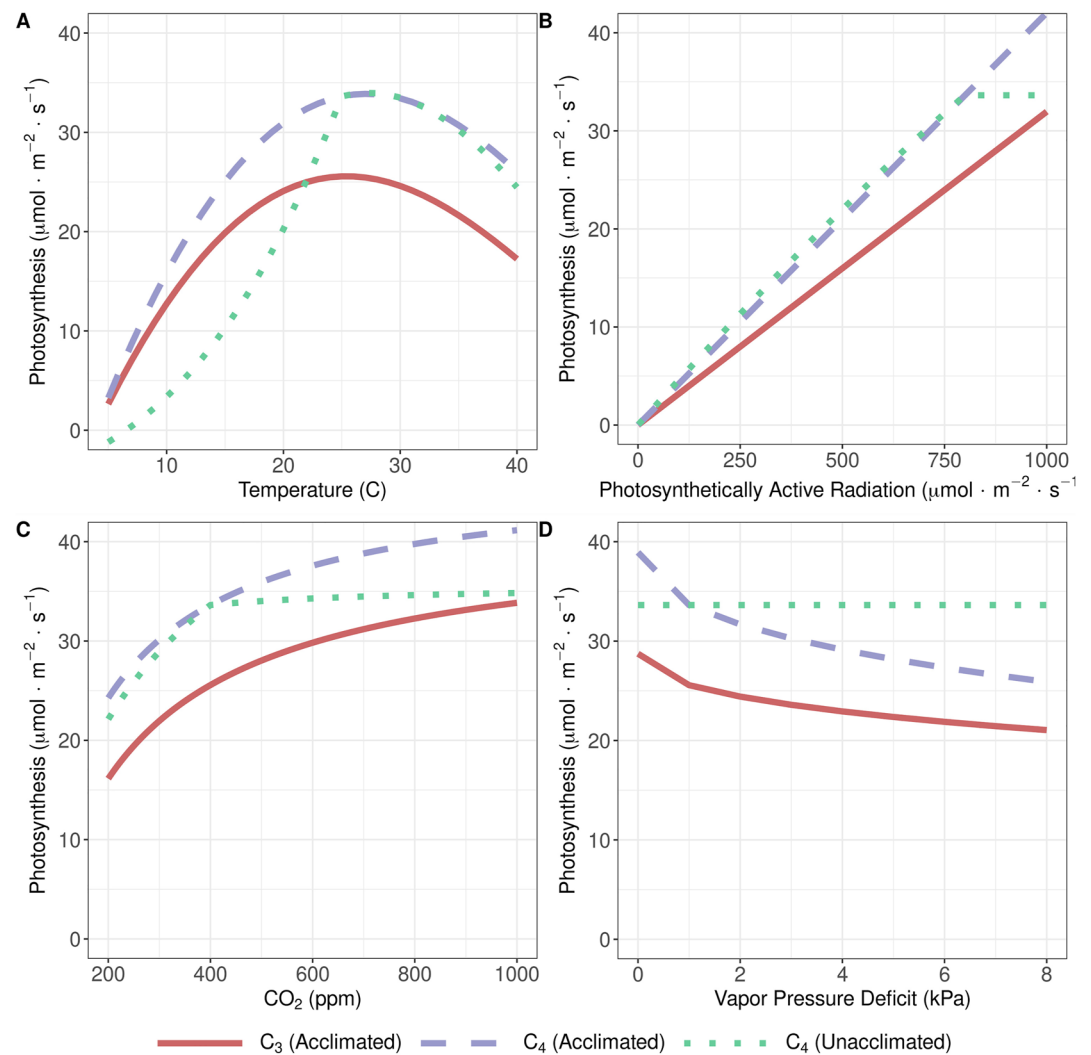
Optimal photosynthetic acclimation either increased assimilation or decreased photosynthetic costs (Figure 5). For all environmental conditions, when the environmental variables are equal to the acclimated conditions, the assimilation rates in the acclimated and instantaneous models are equal. For temperatures above or below the acclimation temperature, the assimilation was higher for the acclimated model. With increasing PAR, instantaneous assimilation is unable to increase beyond the acclimated condition and plateaus, whereas the acclimation model continues to increase linearly. Similarly, with increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  the rate of increase of assimilation slows below the acclimated value of  $\text{CO}_2$ . However, acclimation results in decreased assimilation with increasing VPD. The instantaneous model is unresponsive to VPD because  $\chi_m$  is not decreasing. We expected acclimated plants to decrease assimilation with increasing VPD to conserve water, therefore minimizing the cost of assimilation.

### 3.5. Model-Data Comparison

Global values for  $\Delta A$  correlated strongly with the percent of vegetation with the  $C_4$  photosynthetic pathway from the International Satellite Land-Surface Climatology Project (Still et al., 2009;  $P < 0.001$ ; Figure 6). This indicates that our model captures trends in the distribution of plants with different photosynthetic types globally.

## 4. Discussion

The  $C_4$  photosynthetic pathway accounts for 20% of global carbon assimilation and is present in many critical agricultural species, including maize (Ehleringer et al., 1997). While  $C_4$  species are known to acclimate to changes in environmental conditions (Sage & McKown, 2006), ESMs do not include this acclimation. Here, we present a novel theoretical model for  $C_4$  photosynthetic acclimation suitable for use in ESMs. In addition to its

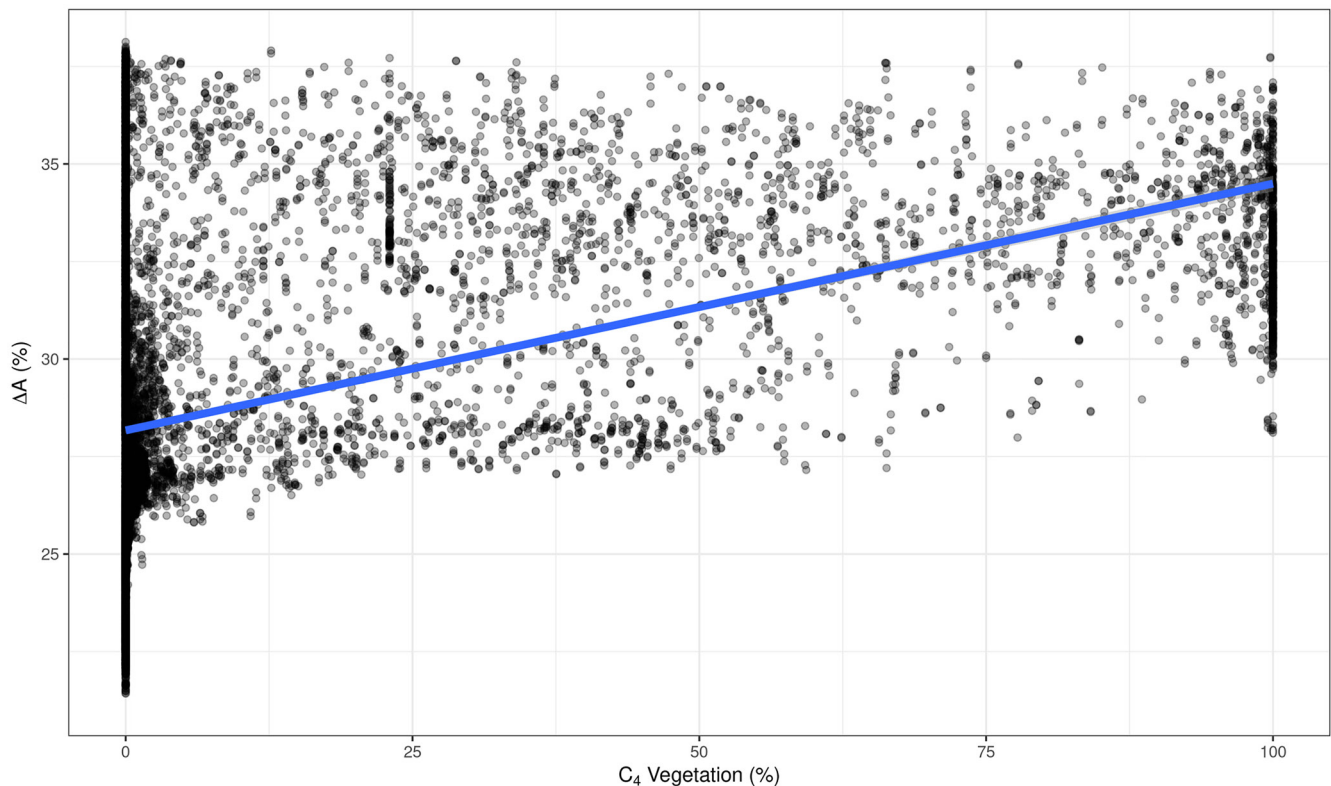


**Figure 5.** Predicted photosynthetic assimilation by acclimated  $\text{C}_4$  plants (dashed purple line), unacclimated  $\text{C}_4$  plants (dotted green line) and acclimated  $\text{C}_3$  plants (solid red line) varies with (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , and (d) vapor pressure deficit when all other conditions are held constant at standard values (temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  = 400 ppm, PAR =  $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa).  $\text{C}_4$  rates were predicted from the model presented in the text, while  $\text{C}_3$  rates were predicted from (Smith et al., 2019) as updated in Smith and Keenan (2020) (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.3874938). In both cases, similar  $\phi_{PSII}$  values were used. At standard conditions, the  $\text{C}_4$  model predicts photosynthesis rates of  $33.63 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

potential to improve ESM simulations' reliability, the theoretical model may also be informative for understanding other ecological aspects of  $\text{C}_4$  species, including their competition with  $\text{C}_3$  species under different environmental contexts. Below we discuss the insights we gleaned from this model exercise and its potential for improving our understanding of plant ecology under variable environments.

#### 4.1. Insights Into Photosynthetic Efficiency and Plasticity

Our theory provides insights into long-appreciated aspects of  $\text{C}_4$  photosynthesis, including the mechanisms underlying their water and nutrient-use efficiencies and photosynthetic acclimation. First, our theory's broad fidelity to global observation-based estimates of  $\text{C}_4$  species abundance suggests that, across large spatial scales, realized assimilation are principally determined by the optimization in response to environmental conditions. It is essential to note that photosynthetic data for  $\text{C}_4$  plants is more scarce than data available for  $\text{C}_3$  plants (Kattge & Sandel, 2020), limiting our ability to more directly test the model's mechanisms. Nonetheless, our theory provides



**Figure 6.** Relationship between the predicted optimal photosynthetic advantage of  $C_4$  over  $C_3$  plants ( $\Delta A$ ) to the percentage of  $C_4$  vegetation from the International Satellite Land-Surface Climatology Project (Still et al., 2009). Points represent  $1^\circ$  grid cells in locations described by MODIS as grasslands, open shrublands, savannas, or woody savannas. Insert statistics show the statistics from a linear model relationship of  $\Delta A$  and percent  $C_4$  vegetation. The blue line shows the fit from the linear model.

a framework for developing hypotheses for how  $C_4$  photosynthesis varies across environments. It will be critical to explore these responses across a range of temporal scales as more data becomes available.

Second, Equation (2) predicts  $\chi_m$  to be 0.56 under “standard” conditions (temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2 = 400$  ppm,  $\text{PAR} = 800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , elevation = 0 m ASL, and  $\text{VPD} = 1$  kPa). This  $\chi$  value is considerably lower than values found in  $C_3$  plants (Wang et al., 2017), indicating higher WUE in  $C_4$  plants than  $C_3$  plants. Our theory confirms that this observed difference between photosynthetic types is due to the relative lack of oxygenation in  $C_4$  plants (Sage, 1999; Sage & McKown, 2006).

Third, the increased concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  at the site of RuBisCO fixation ( $C_{bs}$ ) relative to that in  $C_3$  plants allows for a reduced need for RuBisCO enzymes, thus leading to potentially greater NUE in  $C_4$  plants. Greater NUE in  $C_4$  versus  $C_3$  has been observed previously (Sage & Pearcy, 1987). Our theory confirms previous estimates indicating that this is due to RuBisCO's greater efficiency due to reduced oxygenation and further reinforces the importance of high  $C_{bs}$  in driving this response (Sage et al., 1987).

Finally, our theory sheds light on the photosynthetic plasticity observed in  $C_4$  plants. Experimental studies have shown that  $C_4$  photosynthesis is less sensitive than  $C_3$  photosynthesis in general (Sage & McKown, 2006) and in response to  $\text{CO}_2$  (Ainsworth & Long, 2005) and VPD (Wherley & Sinclair, 2009) in particular. The  $\text{CO}_2$  and VPD responses are consistent with our theory. Importantly, our theory confirms that this is due to greater efficiency afforded to  $C_4$  species by concentrating a high amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the bundle sheath. Notably, our theory also finds high plasticity in response to temperature and PAR, similar to that of  $C_3$  species, suggesting that the mechanisms driving acclimation to these conditions (Smith et al., 2019; Smith & Keenan, 2020; Wang et al., 2017) are similar across species with different photosynthetic types, confirming previous experimental results in response to temperature (Smith & Dukes, 2017; Yamori et al., 2014). However, previous experimental results suggest the PAR response of  $C_4$  species to be less plastic than  $C_3$  species (Sage & McKown, 2006), contrasting with

our results. Coupled theory-experiment analyses would help to understand further the mechanisms driving this disconnect.

As discussed with Equation (2), we are uncertain in the absolute values of the model predictions due to uncertainties around key parameters. However, we did compare the model predictions with experimental data and existing theoretical predictions.

When compared with the experimental data from Massad et al. (2007) and the theoretical predictions from (D. Chen et al., 1994), our model predictions for photosynthetic rate,  $J_{\max}$ , and  $V_{\max}$ , were all high but relatively close. Our predictions for  $V_{\max}$ , however, were very low. Our predictions at a temperature of 25°C was closest to  $V_{\max}$  measurements at much lower temperatures. These discrepancies could be due to the existing work's focus on instantaneous responses rather than acclimation, or due to inaccuracies in the derivation or parameterization of the model. We believe that a better parameterization of values such as  $\phi_{PSII}$  would lead to a better approximation of the data.

#### 4.2. Acclimation to Elevated Temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> Reduces Optimal Enzyme Requirements, Possibly Reducing Nitrogen Use

These results suggest that future, warmer conditions may increase the photosynthetic rates of C<sub>4</sub> plants (Figure 5). However, our theory suggests that this will come alongside a reduction in nitrogen-heavy carboxylation enzymes, possibly increasing future nutrient-use efficiency (NUE), as has been suggested for C<sub>3</sub> plants (Smith & Keenan, 2020).

The potential reduction in leaf-level nitrogen demand suggested by our theory may critically impact ESM simulations that include a dynamic N cycle. Such models indicate that progressive nitrogen limitation will limit increases in future productivity driven by increases in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Finzi et al., 2007; Luo et al., 2004; P. Reich et al., 2006; Thornton et al., 2007b; Wieder et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2019). To correctly predict the magnitude and extent of progressive nitrogen limitation, models of photosynthesis must correctly simulate changing leaf NUE. Our theory predicts increased NUE in the future, driven by a critical tenant of the least-cost hypothesis: maximizing photosynthesis while minimizing carbon costs (Wright et al., 2003). Acclimation led to increased NUE in C<sub>3</sub> plants in models (Smith & Keenan, 2020), and in the field (Davey et al., 1999). Long-term field experiments with C<sub>4</sub> plants observed increased NUE in response to warming and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Carvalho et al., 2020). These results suggest that future increases in leaf NUE must be considered by ESMs to predict future ecosystem N limitation accurately. Our model provides an avenue for doing this for C<sub>4</sub> plants.

#### 4.3. C<sub>4</sub> Advantage Will Decrease in Future

Our theory indicates that future high temperature, high CO<sub>2</sub> environments will disproportionately favor C<sub>3</sub> plants over C<sub>4</sub> plants. While we expected C<sub>3</sub> photosynthetic rates to increase with temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> (Smith & Dukes, 2013), we expected C<sub>4</sub> plants to increase with temperature only (Alberto et al., 1996), while remaining unchanged or to increase very little in response to CO<sub>2</sub> (Poorter & Navas, 2003; Sage & Coleman, 2001). Our model predicted these results when compared to the analogous C<sub>3</sub> model (Smith et al., 2019). We found that the  $\Delta A$  value increased with temperature and decreased with CO<sub>2</sub>. When the two vary simultaneously, C<sub>4</sub> retain their current competitive advantage in high CO<sub>2</sub> environments only when the acclimated temperature is also very high. For example, at a growing season temperature of 15°C at 400 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis assimilates roughly 26% more carbon than C<sub>3</sub> photosynthesis. However, this same  $\Delta A$  value can only be achieved at a growing season temperature of 37°C when CO<sub>2</sub> reaches 1,000 ppm. Looking forward, these comparisons may indicate future restrictions of C<sub>4</sub> species to extremely hot environments. A similar comparison between  $\Delta A$  values at current (400 ppm) and low (250 ppm) CO<sub>2</sub> values can also be used to infer the evolutionary history of C<sub>4</sub> plants, many of which first appeared when CO<sub>2</sub> levels were much lower than they are today.

Previous results question the longevity of such a competitive decline of C<sub>4</sub> plants when plants acclimate to increased CO<sub>2</sub> levels on a multi-decadal timescale (P. B. Reich et al., 2018). That study and others (Wolf & Ziska, 2018) indicate the importance of including nutrient feedbacks, plant growth rates, and plant life spans in systems where nutrients or water may be limiting. The ability of C<sub>4</sub> plants to accumulate organic matter in the soil may further help C<sub>4</sub> plants to thrive in nutrient and water poor environment, and may help to ameliorate the

$\Delta A$  differential caused by high  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, keeping  $\text{C}_4$  plants competitive in a greater number of habitats. Coupling our theory to a model that can predict these higher-order processes is the next step in understanding the interplay between leaf photosynthesis and ecosystem-scale processes.

#### 4.4. Future Work

We hope that future work in the field will address the relative lack of experiments with  $\text{C}_4$  plants compared to  $\text{C}_3$  plants. We were limited in the construction of this model by the relative lack of  $\text{C}_4$ -specific experimental data. More experimental data is needed to find  $\text{C}_4$ -specific values for parameters such as  $\phi_{\text{PSII}}$  that are incorrectly assumed to be equal to  $\text{C}_3$  values here. Other experiments designed to measure longer-term acclimation could be used to test and validate these model predictions.

This study provides the basis for the incorporation of  $\text{C}_4$  photosynthetic acclimation into ESMs. Some work has been done to incorporate  $\text{C}_3$  photosynthetic acclimation into ESMs (Smith & Dukes, 2013), but little work has been done to incorporate  $\text{C}_4$  photosynthetic acclimation. The model presented here provides the means to calculate acclimated rates of  $\chi_m$ ,  $\chi_{bs}$ ,  $J_{\text{max}}$ ,  $V_{\text{pmax}}$ , and  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ . In an ESM, these rates could be calculated using acclimated conditions and used as reference rates that are modified based on instantaneous conditions. One major difficulty is determining the appropriate timescale for acclimation, which is unknown and can impact model simulations (Dietze, 2014). To more reliably simulate acclimated processes, future work should focus on determining this time scale and the drivers of its variability.

#### Data Availability Statement

Data used from Cornwell et al. (2018) was retrieved from <https://github.com/wcornwell/leaf13C>. All data, model code, and analysis code, including the code to reproduce the figures have been published in an open-access repository (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.5239881).

#### Acknowledgments

We acknowledge support from the National Science Foundation (DEB-2045968) and Texas Tech University. This work is a contribution to the LEMONTREE (Land Ecosystem Models based On New Theory, observations and Experiments) project, funded through the generosity of Eric and Wendy Schmidt by recommendation of the Schmidt Futures program. We thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on earlier drafts of the manuscript.

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