


RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1029/2021MS002470

Key Points:

- A parameter-sparse model of C₄ photosynthetic acclimation to changes in environmental conditions based on photosynthetic least cost theory
- Including acclimation will improve simulations of C₄ carbon assimilation and water/nutrient-use efficiencies under present/future conditions
- In simulated competition experiments with a similar C₃ model, C₄ 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 C₄ 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

A Model of C₄ 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 C₃ plants, but not C₄ 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 C₄ photosynthetic acclimation to above-ground abiotic conditions. We then compare our model's responses to a similar model of C₃ photosynthetic acclimation and find that C₄ photosynthesis has the highest simulated advantage over C₃ photosynthesis in hot, dry, and low CO₂ environments. We find that this advantage predicts C₄ abundance globally, but that the shallower CO₂ response of C₄ as compared to C₃ photosynthesis will reduce C₄ plant competitiveness under future conditions, despite higher temperatures. We also show that an acclimated model predicts similar or faster rates of C₄ under all conditions than a model that does not consider acclimation, suggesting that Earth System Models (ESMs) are underestimating future C₄ 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 C₄ 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 C₄ species and show that the model yields expected results based on where C₄ 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; Dusenge et al., 2019; Smith & Dukes, 2013; Way & Yamori, 2014; Yamori et al., 2014). Previous studies have shown that including C₃ 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 C₄ photosynthetic pathway.

Photosynthetic acclimation has been observed for C₄ 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; Maherli 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 C₃ species (Maherli et al., 2002; Yamori et al., 2014). For instance, the mesophyll cells of C₄ leaves contain phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPc), which captures incoming CO₂ 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, C₄ species operate at lower stomatal conductance rates than C₃ species and show a reduced sensitivity of photosynthetic processes to CO₂, temperature, and vapor pressure deficit (Sage, 1999). High CO₂ concentrations in the bundle sheath and the Kranz anatomy may partially explain C₄ species difficulty to fully acclimate to changing conditions as quickly as C₃ species (Maherli 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 C₃ and C₄ 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 C₄ plants at geologic timescales (Zhou et al., 2018). These studies have confirmed C₄ advantages in warm, arid, high light, and low CO₂ 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 C₃ photosynthetic acclimation (Wang et al., 2017) presents the opportunity to perform similar theoretical comparisons between C₃ and C₄ species while accounting for acclimation with the complimentary development of a theoretical model for C₄ photosynthesis.

Here, we develop a novel theoretical model of C₄ 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 C₃ species to C₄ 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, C₄ 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 CO₂, photosynthetic biochemistry, and photosynthesis of C₄ 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 C₄ species have greater carbon assimilation rates than C₃ species.

2. Methods

We developed this theoretical model of C₄ 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.

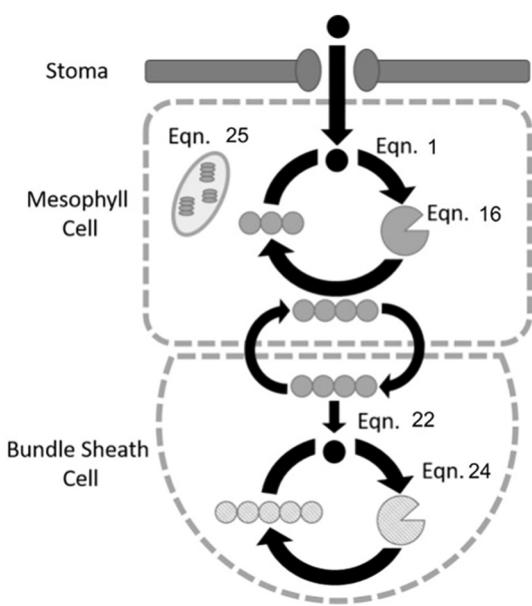


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the main features of the acclimated C_4 model. CO_2 diffuses into the mesophyll cell, where it is fixed into a C_4 acid by PEPc at the rate of $V_{p\max}$. The C_4 is concentrated in the bundle sheath at the rate of g_{bs} , where it is unpackaged, and fixed by RuBisCO at the rate of $V_{c\max}$. 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 χ_m . We then use χ_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 ($V_{p\max}$) and RuBisCO ($V_{c\max}$) as well as electron transport (J_{\max}). First, we present a theoretical model to estimate χ_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} , $V_{p\max}$, and $V_{c\max}$.

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)).

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

χ_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 η^* is the viscosity of water relative to its value at $25^\circ C$ ($\eta^* = \eta/\eta_{ref}$; unitless).

The value β (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 β , which was fit to a world-wide data set of carbon isotope discrimination values for C_4 species (Cornwell et al., 2018). This β value is in contrast to the β 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

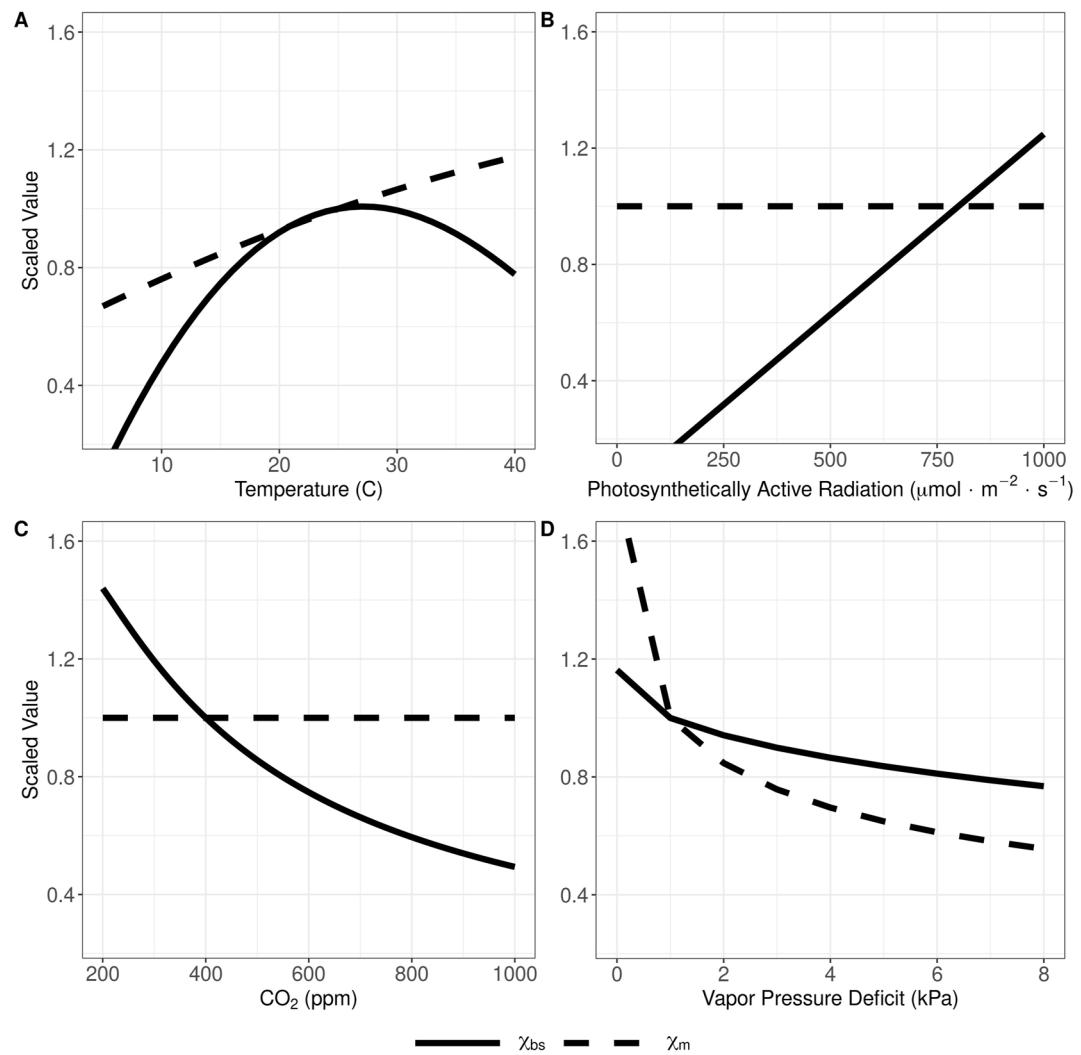


Figure 2. Response of χ_m (dashed black line) and χ_{bs} (solid black line) to (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric CO₂, and (d) vapor pressure when all others are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C, CO₂ = 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, CO₂, 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 ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$), θ is the curvature of the PAR response curve, assumed to be 0.85 (unitless), and ϕ_{PSII} is the realized quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport (mol mol^{-1}). Γ^* is the photorespiratory CO_2 compensation point (calculated below in Equation (10)). For the calculation of ω , we assumed the non-varying parameter c , defined as the derivative of A_L with respect to the maximum rate of electron transport (J_{\max}), to be equivalent to the standard value for C_3 species, 0.053 (Smith et al., 2019).

There is much uncertainty around the value of ϕ_{PSII} . We expect the value of ϕ_{PSII} to be different for C_4 plants from the value for C_3 plants, and there is evidence that the different sub-types of C_4 may have different ϕ_{PSII} values as well (Ehleringer & Pearcy, 1983; Ogle, 2003). There is experimental evidence that the value of ϕ_{PSII} is lower in C_4 plants (Oberhuber & Edwards, 1993). This is expected because of the additional costs of 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 ϕ_{PSII} value and temperature response equation as is used for 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 C_3 specific value because of the lack of consensus for a C_4 value. C_4 specific estimates of ϕ_{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°C, 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.

Γ^* 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 Γ_{25}^* is 2.6 Pa at sea level, determined by using the definition $\Gamma_{25}^* = \gamma^* O_m$, where γ^* is half the reciprocal of RuBisCO specificity, 0.000193 (Von Caemmerer, 2000). $\Delta H_{a(g)}$ is 37,830 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 CO_2 leakage from the bundle sheath to the mesophyll. This assumes that the steady state rate of PEP carboxylation and the rate of C_4 acid decarboxylation are equal. $A_{P\text{gross}}$ is the rate of PEP carboxylase, as defined by the Michelis-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 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 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 (ϕ_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 ϕ_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:

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

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:

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

where $K_{p(25)}$ is equal to $60.5 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta H_{a(p)}$ is equal to 27.2 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 CO_2 at the carboxylation site, the bundle sheath cell (Pa). K_c responds to temperature as follows:

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

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

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

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

where $K_{o(25)}$ is equal to 29.2 kPa , and $\Delta H_{a(o)}$ is equal to 10.5 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 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 χ_m , we calculated the ratio of bundle sheath to atmospheric 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 ₄ Value	Unit	Reference	Equation	C ₃ 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 ₂₅ [*]	2.6	Pa	—	10	4.332
ΔH _{a(g)}	37,830	J mol ⁻¹	Bernacchi et al. (2001)	10	37,830
K _{p(25)}	60.5	μmol mol ⁻¹	Boyd et al. (2015)	18	—
ΔH _{a(p)}	27.2	kJ mol ⁻¹	Boyd et al. (2015)	18	—
K _{c(25)}	121	Pa CO ₂	Boyd et al. (2015)	20	41.03
ΔH _{a(c)}	64.2	kJ mol ⁻¹	Boyd et al. (2015)	20	79.43
K _{o(25)}	29.2	kPa CO ₂	Boyd et al. (2015)	21	28.21
ΔH _{a(o)}	10.5	kJ mol ⁻¹	Boyd et al. (2015)	21	36.38
g _{bs}	3	mmol m ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	Von Caemmerer (2000)	22	—

Note. The C₃ values are those that were used in the analogous C₃ model (Smith et al., 2019).

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

The optimal maximum rate of electron transport (J_{max}; μmol m⁻²s⁻¹) 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 C₄ species.

2.4. C₃ Comparison

We compared simulated photosynthetic rates from the C₄ acclimation model to an analogous C₃ 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 C₄ model, there are three possible limiting rates, while the C₃ model has only two (A_p is unique to the C₄ model). While some parameters, such as those for A_L, 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 C₃ and C₄ values.

In addition to comparing the absolute values of assimilation rates, we also determined the difference between the rates as a percent of the C₃ level (ΔA):

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

A_{C3} and A_{C4} are the simulated rates of photosynthesis via the C₃ and C₄ pathways respectively. We made these comparisons across multiple CO₂ (200–1,000 ppm), temperature (1–40°C), PAR (0–1,000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹), and VPD values (1–8 kPa). In all cases, non-varying conditions were kept constant at standard conditions (CO₂ = 400 ppm, temperature = 25°C, PAR = 800 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹, and VPD = 1).

2.5. Model Comparison to Global Relative C₄ Abundance

To estimate how well our model predicted the observed patterns of C₄ 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 C₄ photosynthetic pathway. The data set is global, divided into 1° 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 C₄ dominance. We fit a linear regression with ΔA as the dependent variable and the percentage of C₄ vegetation as the independent variable. We calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient to assess the strength of the relationship between our predicted ΔA value and the C₄ 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 χ_m , χ_{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°C, CO₂ = 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 CO₂ (200–1,000 ppm), temperature (1–40°C), PAR (0–1,000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), and VPD₀ 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 χ_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 χ_m directly due to D 's presence in Equation (2). Changes in CO₂ and PAR did not impact χ_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 C₃ and C₄ model.

The χ_{bs} value follows the same trends as χ_m (Figure 2).

Predicted optimal J_{\max} increases with temperature, PAR, and CO₂, and decreases slightly with VPD (Figure 3). The non-linear increase with temperature is due to the simultaneous increase of ϕ_{PSII} and Γ^* (within the ω 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 CO₂. Finally, J_{\max} decreases with VPD due to decreases in C_m within the ω 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 ϕ_{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 CO₂ levels, as more CO₂ 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 χ_m .

Like $V_{p\max}$, the optimal $V_{c\max}$ increases with temperature and PAR and decreases with CO₂ due to similar drivers (Figure 3). The temperature increases continuously within the physiologically relevant range, rather than peaking before 40°C due to the combined effects increases in K_c and Γ^* (Equation 24). $V_{c\max}$ increases with PAR linearly. The linear relationship is due to the dependence of χ_{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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ due to the greater partial pressure of CO₂ in the bundle sheath as compared to the mesophyll. $V_{c\max}$ increased slightly in response to VPD.

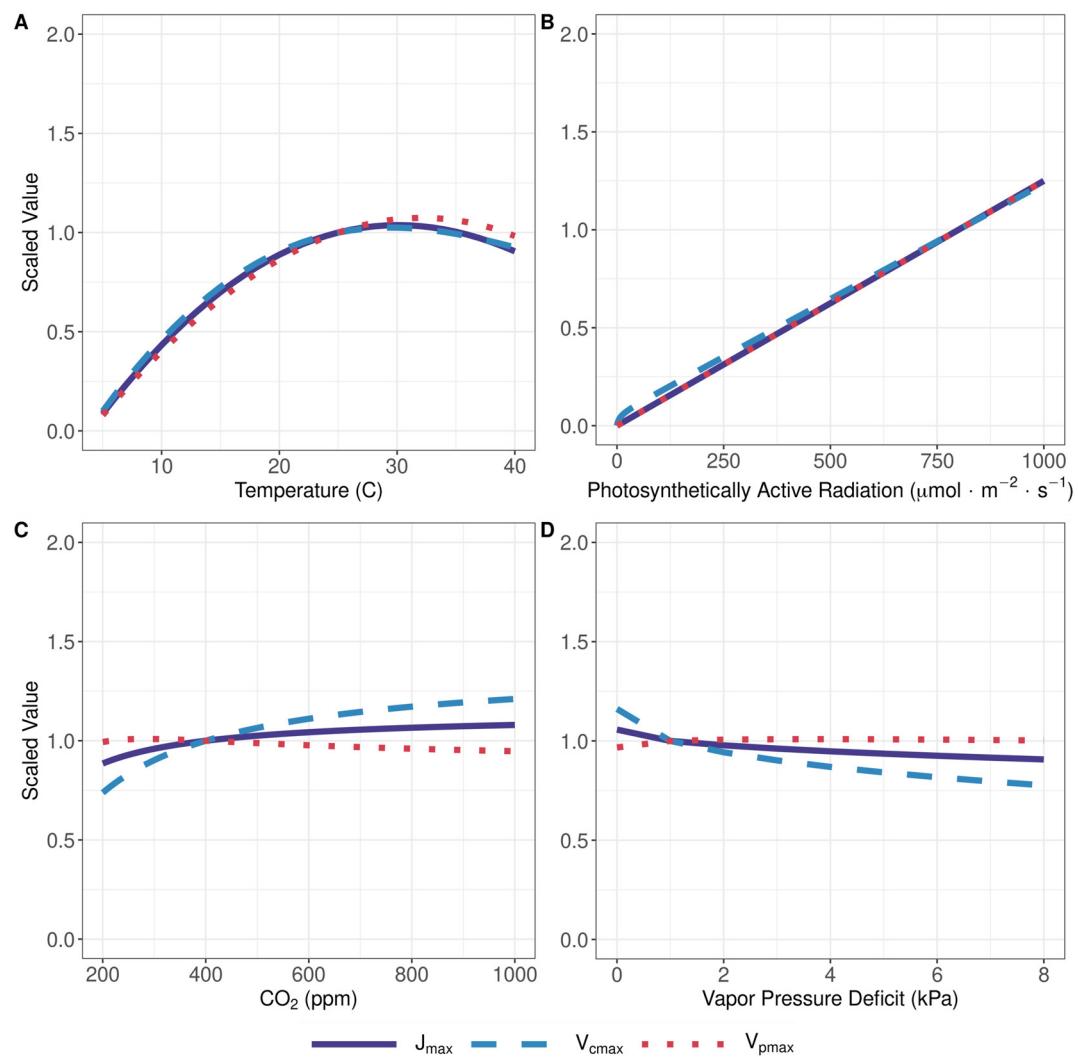


Figure 3. Response of optimal J_{\max} (solid purple line), $V_{c\max}$ (dashed blue line), and $V_{p\max}$ (dotted red line) to (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric CO_2 , and (d) vapor pressure when all others are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C, 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, 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 C_4 photosynthesis over environmental conditions (Figure 5). Predicted optimal A increased non-linearly with temperature to approximately 25°C after which it decreased.

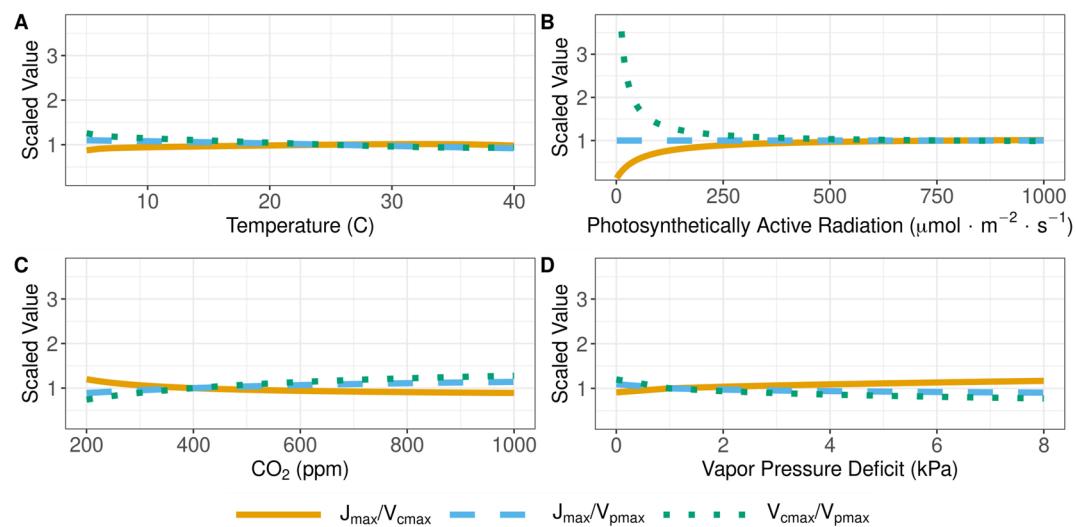


Figure 4. Predicted response of optimal ratios of $J_{\max}/V_{c\max}$ (solid yellow line), $J_{\max}/V_{p\max}$ (dashed blue line), and $V_{c\max}/V_{p\max}$ (dotted green line) to (a) temperature and (b) PAR when all other conditions are held constant at standard values. Values are standardized to the predicted value at “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C, CO₂ = 400 ppm, PAR = 800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). At standard conditions, $J_{\max}/V_{c\max}$ 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 CO₂ and decreases with VPD.

When the absolute values of assimilation rates are compared, C₄ photosynthetic rates were always higher than the C₃ rates (Figure 5). This is possibly due to the model overestimation of C₄ photosynthesis because of the use of an overestimated ϕ_{PSII} value (as discussed in Equation (9)). With the given ϕ_{PSII} value, photosynthetic rates were most similar at low light, low temperature, and high CO₂ 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 CO₂ the rate of increase of assimilation slows below the acclimated value of CO₂. However, acclimation results in decreased assimilation with increasing VPD. The instantaneous model is unresponsive to VPD because χ_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 ΔA correlated strongly with the percent of vegetation with the C₄ 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 C₄ photosynthetic pathway accounts for 20% of global carbon assimilation and is present in many critical agricultural species, including maize (Ehleringer et al., 1997). While C₄ 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 C₄ photosynthetic acclimation suitable for use in ESMs. In addition to its

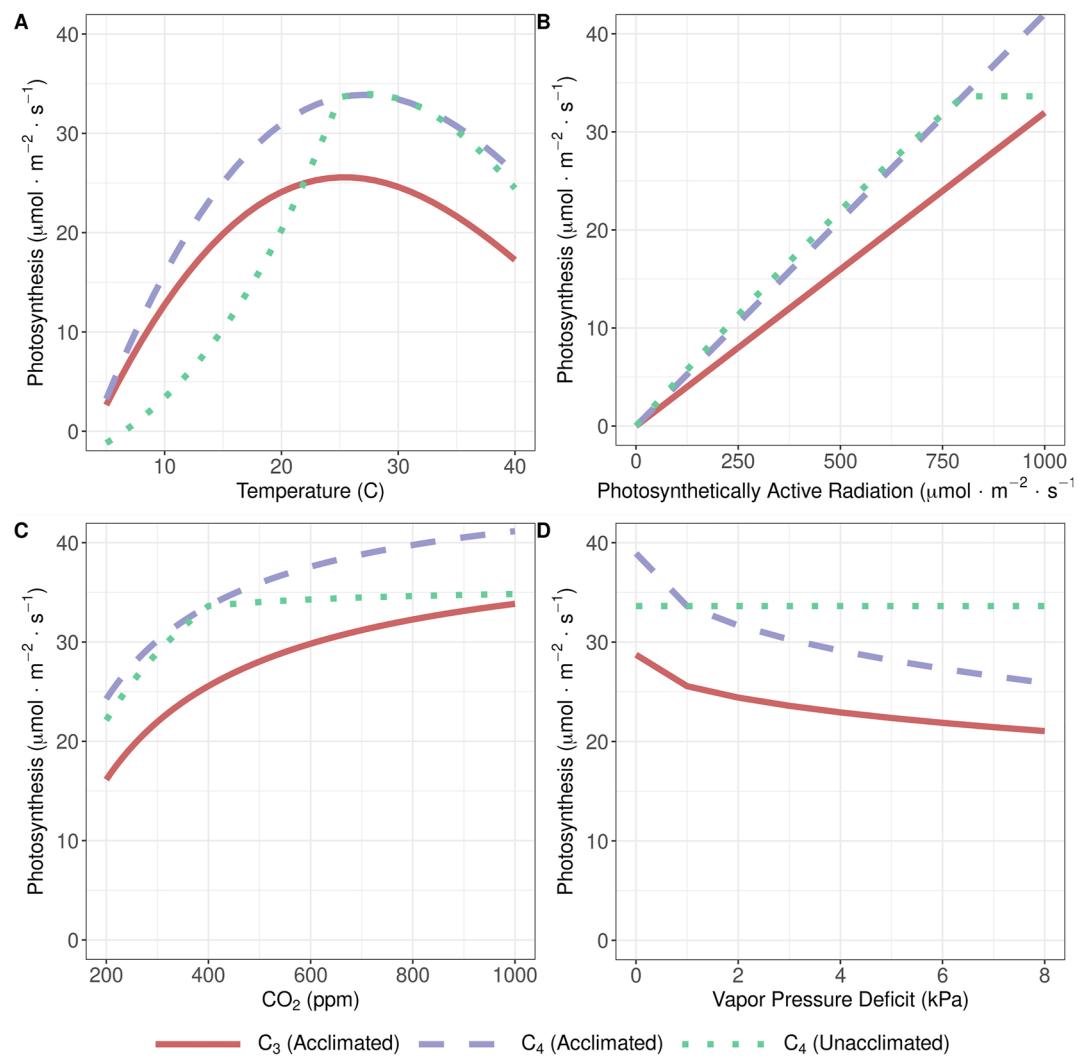


Figure 5. Predicted photosynthetic assimilation by acclimated C₄ plants (dashed purple line), unacclimated C₄ plants (dotted green line) and acclimated C₃ plants (solid red line) varies with (a) temperature, (b) PAR, (c) atmospheric CO₂, and (d) vapor pressure deficit when all other conditions are held constant at standard values (temperature = 25°C, CO₂ = 400 ppm, PAR = 800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). C₄ rates were predicted from the model presented in the text, while C₃ rates were predicted from (Smith et al., 2019) as updated in Smith and Keenan (2020) (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.3874938). In both cases, similar ϕ_{PSH} values were used. At standard conditions, the C₄ 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 C₄ species, including their competition with C₃ 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 C₄ 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 C₄ 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 C₄ plants is more scarce than data available for C₃ plants (Kattge & Sandel, 2020), limiting our ability to more directly test the model's mechanisms. Nonetheless, our theory provides

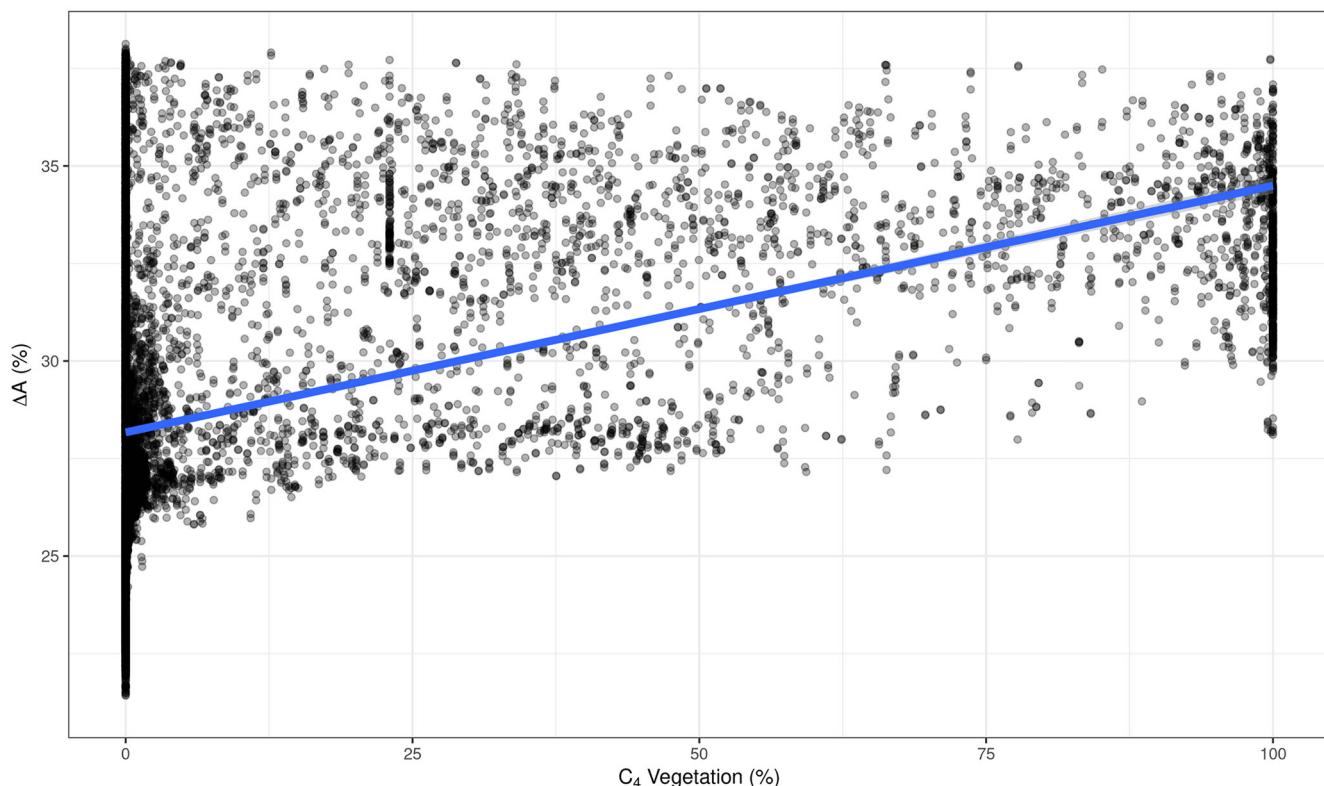


Figure 6. Relationship between the predicted optimal photosynthetic advantage of C_4 over C_3 plants (ΔA) to the percentage of C_4 vegetation from the International Satellite Land-Surface Climatology Project (Still et al., 2009). Points represent 1° grid cells in locations described by MODIS as grasslands, open shrublands, savannas, or woody savannas. Insert statistics show the statistics from a linear model relationship of ΔA and percent C_4 vegetation. The blue line show 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 χ_m to be 0.56 under “standard” conditions (temperature = 25°C , CO_2 = 400 ppm, PAR = $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, elevation = 0 m ASL, and VPD = 1 kPa). This χ 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 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 CO_2 (Ainsworth & Long, 2005) and VPD (Wherley & Sinclair, 2009) in particular. The 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 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 $V_{c\max}$, were all high but relatively close. Our predictions for $V_{p\max}$, however, were very low. Our predictions at a temperature of 25°C was closest to $V_{p\max}$ 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 ϕ_{PSII} would lead to a better approximation of the data.

4.2. Acclimation to Elevated Temperature and CO₂ Reduces Optimal Enzyme Requirements, Possibly Reducing Nitrogen Use

These results suggest that future, warmer conditions may increase the photosynthetic rates of C₄ 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 C₃ 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 CO₂ (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 C₃ plants in models (Smith & Keenan, 2020), and in the field (Davey et al., 1999). Long-term field experiments with C₄ plants observed increased NUE in response to warming and elevated CO₂ (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 C₄ plants.

4.3. C₄ Advantage Will Decrease in Future

Our theory indicates that future high temperature, high CO₂ environments will disproportionately favor C₃ plants over C₄ plants. While we expected C₃ photosynthetic rates to increase with temperature and CO₂ (Smith & Dukes, 2013), we expected C₄ plants to increase with temperature only (Alberto et al., 1996), while remaining unchanged or to increase very little in response to CO₂ (Poorter & Navas, 2003; Sage & Coleman, 2001). Our model predicted these results when compared to the analogous C₃ model (Smith et al., 2019). We found that the ΔA value increased with temperature and decreased with CO₂. When the two vary simultaneously, C₄ retain their current competitive advantage in high CO₂ environments only when the acclimated temperature is also very high. For example, at a growing season temperature of 15°C at 400 ppm CO₂, C₄ photosynthesis assimilates roughly 26% more carbon than C₃ photosynthesis. However, this same ΔA value can only be achieved at a growing season temperature of 37°C when CO₂ reaches 1,000 ppm. Looking forward, these comparisons may indicate future restrictions of C₄ species to extremely hot environments. A similar comparison between ΔA values at current (400 ppm) and low (250 ppm) CO₂ values can also be used to infer the evolutionary history of C₄ plants, many of which first appeared when CO₂ levels were much lower than they are today.

Previous results question the longevity of such a competitive decline of C₄ plants when plants acclimate to increased CO₂ 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 C₄ plants to accumulate organic matter in the soil may further help C₄ plants to thrive in nutrient and water poor environment, and may help to ameliorate the

ΔA differential caused by high CO₂ concentrations, keeping C₄ 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 C₄ plants compared to C₃ plants. We were limited in the construction of this model by the relative lack of C₄-specific experimental data. More experimental data is needed to find C₄-specific values for parameters such as ϕ_{PSII} that are incorrectly assumed to be equal to C₃ 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 C₄ photosynthetic acclimation into ESMs. Some work has been done to incorporate C₃ photosynthetic acclimation into ESMs (Smith & Dukes, 2013), but little work has been done to incorporate C₄ photosynthetic acclimation. The model presented here provides the means to calculate acclimated rates of χ_m , χ_{bs} , J_{max} , V_{pmax} , and V_{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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