

Rethinking economic theories of plant water use

Adam B. Roddy

Institute of Environment, Department of Biological Sciences, Florida International University, Miami, FL, USA

5 aroddy@fiu.edu ORCID: 0000-0002-4423-8729

A central assumption in plant ecophysiology is that carbon is the primary currency for plant fitness. To this end, plants are thought to maximize carbon gain and any deviations from maximum carbon gain are ascribed to resource limitations (e.g. temperature, drought), biophysical limitations (e.g. biophysical limits on cell size), or variation in plant life history that may prioritize future carbon gain over current carbon gain (i.e. applying an economic discount rate to carbon). Compared to living in water, living on land made accessing CO₂ substantially easier: CO₂ diffuses approximately 10,000 times faster in air than in water. However, because this CO₂ must diffuse into the aqueous environment of the living mesophyll cells where photosynthetic metabolism occurs (Théroux-Rancourt *et al.* 2021), the greater CO₂ supply of the terrestrial lifestyle also comes with a cost: losing approximately 200–400 molecules of water by transpiration for every molecule of CO₂ fixed by photosynthesis (Nobel *et al.* 2005). Water, therefore, is considered a valuable resource to be conserved and not wasted. As such, much of the field of plant ecophysiology posits carbon as the central currency for which water is traded.

Our conceptual framing of water and carbon is based in Neoclassical economic theory. By expending water to enable photosynthesis, the traditional thinking goes, then the fixed carbon can be allocated to the three components of individual fitness: growth, reproduction, and survival (Violle *et al.* 2007). However, in a recent review, Blonder *et al.* (2023) argue that this framing ignores important uses of water that may not be directly linked to carbon and certainly not to short-term carbon gain. Blonder *et al.* (2023) point out various functions of water itself, separate from its exchange rate for carbon. Elevating water use to be on par in importance with carbon allocation may illuminate critical plant ecological strategies and behaviors that may otherwise be easy to ignore.

While carbon is undoubtedly important to plant function, can it be the metric of fitness so often assumed by ecophysiologicalists? Most ecophysiologicalists would agree that the ultimate goal of all resource allocation is integrated lifetime reproductive fitness. While it is typically assumed that short-term transpiration to support more carbon uptake allows for greater investment in reproduction, water is expended to support reproductive functions directly and independently of carbon. For example, water is critical for building flowers that are cheap but nonetheless attractive and biomechanically robust (Olson and Pittermann 2019; Roddy *et al.* 2019; Roddy *et al.* 2023) and for attracting and rewarding pollinators (De la Barrera and Nobel 2004; von Arx *et al.* 2012; Dahake *et al.* 2022). Water may be preferentially directed towards reproductive organs over vegetative organs, particularly under conditions of water scarcity (Harrison Day *et al.* 2022; Sinha *et al.* 2022).

40 Beyond reproduction, water is used for means other than promoting individual carbon gain
and may be lost inadvertently because of either unavoidable tradeoffs or constraints due to
other plant functions or limitations. As a major source of latent heat loss, transpired water
can be critical to maintaining plant leaves and reproductive organs within safe operating
45 2023). This effect may extend beyond the individual leaf-level to include the whole canopy,
as excessive transpiration by sun leaves may provide a cooler, darker microclimate for
shade leaves so that they may photosynthesize closer to their light optimum at lower water
cost (Blonder *et al.* 2023). But Blonder *et al.* (2023) move beyond the individual leaf- or
plant-level to suggest how individual plant water use influences populations and
50 communities. The capitalist underpinnings of Neoclassical economic thinking assumes that
most interactions between plants have negative outcomes (Simha *et al.* 2022). However,
given that plants almost universally have evolved while embedded within communities,
mutually beneficial interactions that reduce the costs of competition may have been
particularly advantageous. Blonder *et al.* (2023) point to hydraulic redistribution as one
55 example: deep-rooted trees may passively move water into shallower soil layers, which
improves growth of shallow-rooted species and can have positive feedbacks on deep-
rooted plants, such as increasing nutrient availability (Dawson 1993). Importantly, Blonder
et al. (2023) note that while many of the various types of water use they detail may be
under selection, there are also some non-adaptive processes that use water. For example, it
60 is impossible to completely stop water loss because cuticles covering the epidermis are
inherently permeable. How much plants invest in limiting cuticular water loss could
depend on a variety of factors, and the conductance of the cuticle is thought to be a critical
trait affecting drought tolerance and water use (Roddy *et al.* 2016, 2023; Duursma *et al.*
2019). Broadening our thinking about how water is used by plants, as Blonder *et al.* (2023)
65 argue, is vital to explaining observed hydraulic behavior and predicting plant responses to
climate change.

Furthermore, the review by Blonder *et al.* (2023) begs us to consider more broadly how
our understanding of plants (and biology more generally) may be limited not only by
Neoclassical economics but by historical contingency, dominant sociopolitical paradigms,
70 and self-interested bias (Simha *et al.* 2022). If we insist upon applying economic theory to
plant ecophysiology, then we should at the very least update our heuristics to account for
more developments in economic theory. One of the major advances in economics over the
last half century has been the recognition of the role of individual psychology in economic
behavior. The foundational work of Kahneman and Tversky starting in the 1970s showed
75 that humans often make economic decisions that prioritize desires and values beyond just
monetary gain and that are limited by incomplete information and their psychology
(Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Camerer *et al.* 2004). People's short-term economic
decisions often depend on their financial context: their monetary wealth and whether they
have experienced financial instability (Piff *et al.* 2012; Côté *et al.* 2015). For example,
80 people often save money more effectively when they have the stability of wealth but spend
any new income more readily when they lack wealth, such that a psychology of scarcity–
and the material constraints imposed by scarcity–traps people into making financial
decisions that do not prioritize their long-term financial well-being. Plant water use
strategies can be similarly variable within species due to resource availability (Guo *et al.*

2020; Driscoll *et al.* 2020) and among species due to the history of selection that has shaped individual traits and overall physiological and life history strategies (Silvertown and Doust 1993; Martínez-Vilalta *et al.* 2014; Meinzer *et al.* 2016; Roddy *et al.* 2020).

The predominant thinking among plant biologists is that plants are mere biophysical reactors to their environments that lack cognitive capacity (Mallatt *et al.* 2021). However, plants, like all biological systems, must store, process, perceive, and transmit information as an inherent part of converting energy and matter and make consequential decisions about their short-term and long-term well-being (Gagliano *et al.* 2016; Gagliano 2017; Hoke *et al.* 2021). Thus, they may be strategic, optimizing among multiple functions (e.g. carbon uptake or reproduction), planning for the future depending on their experience of resource availability (e.g. switching between monocarpy and polycarpy; Cotado and Munné-Bosch (2020)), and expressing some sense of agency or action regarding other individuals in the population or community (as discussed by Blonder *et al.*, 2023), or even-like humans-making seemingly poor water use decisions based on incomplete information or their past history of resource scarcity. Maintaining some level of imperfection in water use may actually be under selection: just as genetic mutations-though often detrimental-are the source of innovation and maintained by selection (Orr 2000; Swings *et al.* 2017), so too may seemingly detrimental water use by plants be beneficial in some contexts, particularly when there is increasing unpredictability in conditions due to climate change.

Human economics may not be the best analogy for plant water use. Selection acts on reproductive success and only on plant water use insofar as it maximizes reproductive success-be it through increased carbon uptake, reproductive assurance, or supporting other individuals in the population and community. By contrast, in human societies subject to Neoclassical economics greater monetary wealth is largely unrelated to reproductive fitness. Seeing the strengths and also the weaknesses of the metaphors and analogies we use to understand biological systems is critical to better understanding these systems. Blonder *et al.* (2023) should remind us to more fully embrace and enact objectivity in our work by acknowledging our own subjectivity (Intemann 2016). Science is, after all, a social endeavor performed by people embedded in social contexts. Despite our proclaimed objectivity, scientific knowledge is subject to who does science, what questions they ask, and how that knowledge is perceived. Moving out of the shadow of dominant economic theories that have shaped plant biology would allow for a more nuanced, more complete understanding of the future functioning of plants and ecosystems under ever-more varied and unpredictable environments.

Acknowledgments

Julia D. Monk and Renee M. Borges provided valuable feedback on earlier drafts of this paper. A.B.R. was supported by US National Science Foundation grants CMMI-2029756 and IOS-2243971.

References

- 125 Blonder BW, Aparecido LMT, Hultine KR, Lombardozzi D, Michaletz ST, Posch BC, Slot M, and Winter K *New Phytologist* **n/a** <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.18800>
- Borges RM, Somanathan H, and Kelber A 2016 *The Quarterly Review of Biology* **91** 389–418
- Camerer CF, Loewenstein G, and Rabin M (Eds) 2004 *Advances in Behavioral Economics* (Princeton: Princeton University Press)
- 130 Cotado A and Munné-Bosch S 2020 *Annals of Botany* **125** 413–21
- Côté S, House J, and Willer R 2015 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **112** 15838–43
- Dahake A, Jain P, Vogt CC, Kandalaft W, Stroock AD, and Raguso RA 2022 *Nat Commun* **13** 7773
- 135 Dawson TE 1993 *Oecologia* **95** 565–74
- De la Barrera E and Nobel PS 2004 *Trends in Plant Science* **9** 65–9
- Driscoll AW, Bitter NQ, Sandquist DR, and Ehleringer JR 2020 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 202008345
- Duursma RA, Blackman CJ, López R, Martin-StPaul NK, Cochard H, and Medlyn BE 2019 *New Phytologist* **221** 693–705
- 140 Gagliano M 2017 *Communicative & Integrative Biology* **10** e1288333
- Gagliano M, Vyazovskiy VV, Borbély AA, Grimonprez M, and Depczynski M 2016 *Sci Rep* **6** 38427
- Guo JS, Hultine KR, Koch GW, Kropp H, and Ogle K 2020 *New Phytologist* **225** 713–26
- 145 Harrison Day BL, Carins-Murphy MR, and Brodribb TJ 2022 *Plant, Cell & Environment* **45** 69–79
- Hoke KL, Zimmer SL, Roddy AB, Ondrechen MJ, Williamson CE, and Buan NR 2021 *Integrative and Comparative Biology* **61** 2082–94
- Intemann K 2016 Feminist Objectivity; in: *The Wiley Blackwell Encyclopedia of Gender and Sexuality Studies* (eds) A Wong, M Wickramasinghe, renee hoogland, and NA Naples (Singapore: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd) pp 1–4
- 150 Kahneman D and Tversky A 1979 *Econometrica* **47** 263–91
- Kullberg AT, Slot M, and Feeley KJ 2023 *Plant, Cell & Environment* **46** 831–49
- Mallatt J, Blatt MR, Draguhn A, Robinson DG, and Taiz L 2021 *Protoplasma* **258** 459–76

- 155 Martínez-Vilalta J, Poyatos R, Aguadé D, Retana J, and Mencuccini M 2014 *New Phytologist* **204** 105–15
- Meinzer FC, Woodruff DR, Marias DE, Smith DD, McCulloh KA, Howard AR, and Magedman AL 2016 *Ecology Letters* **19** 1343–52
- Nobel PS *et al.* 2005 *Physicochemical & Environmental Plant Physiology* (Academic Press)
- 160 Olson ME and Pittermann J 2019 *New Phytologist* **223** 8–10
- Orr HA 2000 *Genetics* **155** 961–8
- Patiño S and Grace J 2002 *Plant, Cell & Environment* **25** 41–51
- Piff PK, Stancato DM, Côté S, Mendoza-Denton R, and Keltner D 2012 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **109** 4086–91
- 165 Roddy AB 2019 *International Journal of Plant Sciences* **180** 944–53
- Roddy AB *et al.* 2020 *International Journal of Plant Sciences* **181** 75–87
- Roddy AB, Brodersen CR, and Dawson TE 2016 *Plant, Cell & Environment* **39** 2123–32
- Roddy AB, Guilliams CM, Fine PVA, Mambelli S, Dawson TE, and Simonin KA 2023 2023.04.11.536372
- 170 Roddy AB, Jiang G.-F., Cao K-F, Simonin KA, and Brodersen CR 2019 *New Phytologist* **223** 193–203
- Silvertown J and Doust L 1993 *Introduction to Plant Population Biology* (Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publishing)
- Simha A, Pardo-De la Hoz CJ, and Carley LN 2022 *The American Naturalist* **200** 89–100
- 175 Sinha R *et al.* 2022 *New Phytologist* **235** 611–29
- Swings T *et al.* 2017 *eLife* **6** e22939
- Théroux-Rancourt G *et al.* 2021 *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **288** 20203145
- Violle C, Navas M-L, Vile D, Kazakou E, Fortunel C, Hummel I, and Garnier E 2007 *Oikos* **116** 882–92
- 180 von Arx M, Goyret J, Davidowitz G, and Raguso RA 2012 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **109** 9471–6