

Variation in Photosynthetic Pathways

I. Overall patterns of the C₃ carboxylation cycle (PCR) - (Figure)

- C₃ carboxylation cycle using ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco) is found in all plants
- Rubisco catalyses the carboxylation and oxygenation of RuBP and because of the high amount of oxygen (21%) to carbon dioxide (~0.037%) in our atmosphere, carboxylation efficiency of Rubisco is poor (competitive inhibition by O₂); see last section on evolution
- Functional significance of oxygenase activity of Rubisco is poorly understood but appears it is an unavoidable product of the reaction mechanism for carboxylation (an inherent constraint) but is also linked to "recycling activities" for phosphoglycolate and for nitrate reduction in leaves

II. Mechanisms to improve carboxylation efficiency

- A. Increases in the CO₂/O₂ specificity of Rubisco (Figures)
- CO₂/O₂ specificity spans an order of magnitude in different organisms
 - possible evolutionary modification of Rubisco?
 - anaerobic organisms lowest CO₂/O₂ specificity
 - C₃ plants highest specificity
- B. CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (2 types)
- biochemical mechanisms - C₄ acid synthesis; eg. C₄ plants and CAM plants
 - biophysical mechanisms - bicarbonate pump; e.g. many aquatic plants (see Bowes 1985, Raven et al. 1985)

III. Biochemical CO₂ concentrating mechanisms

- initial fixation of atmospheric carbon by phosphoenol pyruvate (PEP) carboxylase
 - initial formation of C₄ acid (malate, aspartate)
 - decarboxylation of C₄ acid to produce CO₂ which is fixed in C₃ cycle
- A. C₄ photosynthetic pathway (Figures)
- spatial separation of RuBP carboxylase and PEP carboxylase is essential
 - specialized morphology called **Kranz** anatomy (Figures)
 - the PEPcase system acts as a CO₂ concentrating mechanism or "CO₂ pump" creating high CO₂ levels in the bundle sheath cells
 - three C₄ variants do occur: NADP-ME; NAD-ME; PEP-CK (Figures)
- B. CAM photosynthetic pathway (Figures)
- temporal separation of PEP and Rubisco activity
 - succulent tissue with large vacuoles required for storage of acid overnight
 - high CO₂ concentration created behind closed stomata during daylight period

IV. Benefits of biochemical CO₂ concentrating mechanisms

- A. Increased water-use efficiency (WUE)
1. C₄ plants:
 - C₄ plants would have to have lower stomatal conductance to maintain equivalent photosynthetic rates as C₃ plants (Figure)

- CO₂ 'pump' results in different photosynthetic dependence on intercellular CO₂ in C₄ plants compared to C₃ plants (Figure)
- much lower intercellular CO₂ in C₄ plants (Figure) is always seen

2. CAM plants:

- stomatal opening mainly at night when temperature is lower and humidity is higher results in less water loss (Figure)

B. Increased nitrogen-use efficiency (NUE)

- in order to maintain the same photosynthetic rates, C₄ plants require less investment in RuBisCo (a large, high nitrogen content protein; Figures)

V. Costs of biochemical CO₂ concentrating mechanisms.

- extra energy (ATP, NADPH) costs in both C₄ and CAM plants
- energy costs dependent on environmental conditions

A. C₄ plants:

- extra energy costs reflected in quantum yield requirements in C₃ and C₄
- C₃ quantum yield dependent on CO₂ concentration and temperature (Figure)
- C₄ quantum yield independent of CO₂ (or O₂) concentration and temperature (Figure)
- all else equal expect C₄ plants to be most efficient and abundant in hot, dry, high light habitats (Figures, and last section)
- C₄ plants also occur in cool environments and aquatic environments high NUE may be beneficial in aquatic habitats

B. CAM plants:

- CAM well adapted to hot, dry environments, high WUE
- CAM plants can be adapted to aquatic environments
- uptake of CO₂ at night when CO₂ is most readily available in vernal pools
- trade-off of desiccation or starvation (Figures)
- 50% of all CAM plants are epiphytes
- CO₂ acquisition at night provides competitive advantage (Figure)
- high energy costs and low CO₂ assimilation rates result in low productivity

VI. Shifts in photosynthetic pathway

- C₃ - CAM shifts dependent on water availability or salinity (Figure)
- CAM epiphyte shifts to C₃ when rooted on ground (eg. *Clusia*)
- Frerea* has deciduous C₃ leaves and CAM stems (Figure)
- Eleocharis* (an aquatic plant) has C₄ terrestrial leaves, C₃ submerged leaves
- Isoetes* has CAM leaves when submerged, C₃ leaves when emergent

VII. The evolution of C₃, C₄, and CAM photosynthesis: paleo-evidence and phylogenetic patterns

- C₃ pathway present in all phyla and orders - most widespread photosynthetic syndrome
- C₄ present only in angiosperms; available data suggest multiple, independent evolutionary origins (Figure, Table)

- C. CAM present in ferns, gymnosperms, and angiosperms; independent evolutionary origins probably also occurred (Table)
- D. C₃ and C₄ appear in a single genus several times (Table)
 - C₄ pathway is clearly a CO₂ concentrating mechanism - Did it evolve in response to low [CO₂] or high aridity (?) ==- Look at Paleo-evidence (Figures)
- E. Changes in ambient [CO₂] and the ratio of photorespiration to photosynthesis may have been more important than aridity in the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis (Figures) - but -
- F. Broad patterns may depend upon if a species is a monocot or dicot (Figures)

Table A. Genera which have been shown to possess both C₃ and C₄ species

see Also: Sage & Monson (1999).

Family	Genus
Aizoaceae	<u>Mollugo</u>
Amaranthaceae	<u>Aerva</u> <u>Alteranthera</u>
Boraginaceae	<u>Heliotropium</u>
Chenopodiaceae	<u>Atriplex</u> <u>Bassia</u> <u>Kochia</u> <u>Suaeda</u>
Compositae	<u>Flaveria</u> <u>Pectis</u>
Cyperaceae	<u>Cyperus</u> <u>Scirpus</u>
Euphorbiaceae	<u>Chamaesyce</u> <u>Euphorbia</u>
Gramineae	<u>Alloteropsis</u> <u>Panicum</u>
Nyctaginaceae	<u>Boerhaavia</u>
Zygophyllaceae	<u>Kallstroemia</u> <u>Zygophyllum</u>

Table B. Plant families known to possess the **C₄ photosynthetic pathway** (also see Table 1 from Ehleringer et al., 1997 below).

Acanthaceae	Cyperaceae
Aizoaceae	Euphorbiaceae
Amaranthaceae	Gramineae
Boraginaceae	Nyctaginaceae
Capparidaceae	Polygonaceae
Caryophyllaceae	Portulacaceae
Chenopodiaceae	Scrophulariaceae
Cleomaceae	Zygophyllaceae
Compositae	

Table C. Plant families known to possess the **Crassulacean Acid Metabolism (CAM) pathway**.

Polypodiales	Polypodiaceae (ferns)
Gymnospermae	Welwitschiaceae
Monocotyledonae	Agavaceae
	Bromeliaceae
	Liliaceae
	Orchidaceae
Dicotyledonae	Aizoaceae
	Asclepiadaceae
	Bataceae
	Cactaceae
	Capparidaceae
	Caryophyllaceae
	Chenopodiaceae
	Compositae
	Crassulaceae
	Cucurbitaceae
	Didiereaceae
	Euphorbiaceae
	Geraniaceae
	Labiatae
	Oxalidaceae
	Passifloraceae
	Piperaceae
	Plantaginaceae
	Portulacaceae
	Tetragoniaceae
	Vitaceae
	? - other unknown desert families

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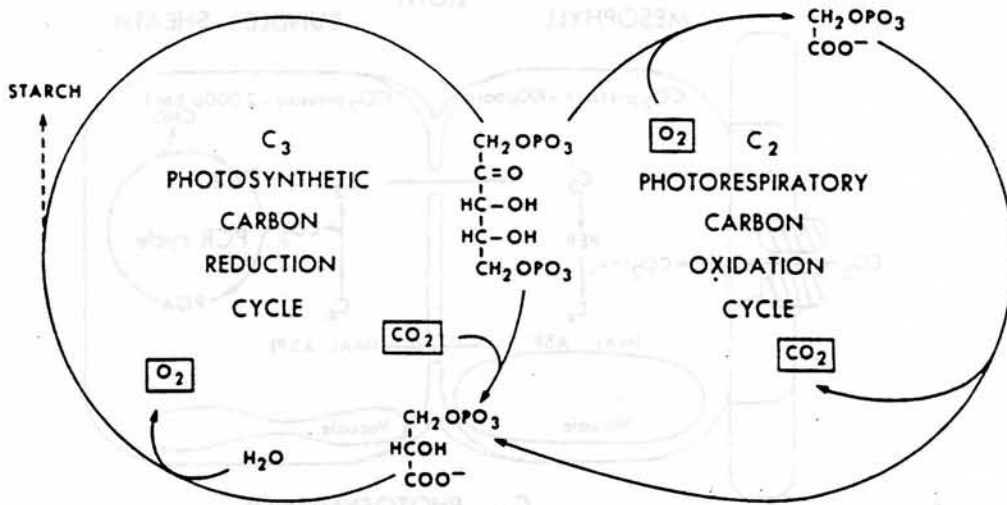


Fig. 15.1. Linkage of the photosynthetic carbon reduction cycle and the photorespiratory carbon oxidation cycle by RuP₂ carboxylase-oxygenase and its reaction products

Lecture Topic 9 - Figures

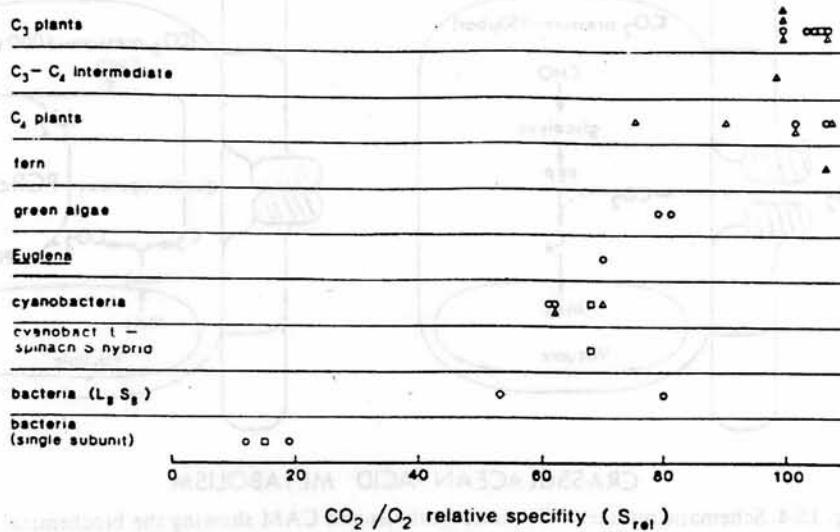


Fig. 3. The relative specificity (s_{rel}) scale; $s_{rel} = [V_c/K_c]/[V_o/K_o]$. Data were taken from: ○, Jordan and Ogren (1981); △, Jordan and Ogren (1983); □, Andrews and Lorimer (1985); ◇, Jordan and Chollet (1985). The s_{rel} values from different laboratories vary according to the pK' assumed for the $CO_2 \leftrightarrow HCO_3^-$ equilibrium. This pK' decreases linearly with the logarithm of ionic strength and thus becomes relatively insensitive to ionic strength above ionic strength 0.1. Ionic strengths of approximately 0.1 and above are usual in most carboxylase assay buffers. Therefore, we have recalculated published s_{rel} values in accordance with a pK' of 6.12, which is the value appropriate to an ionic strength of 0.1 at 25°C (Yokota and Kitaoka, 1985).

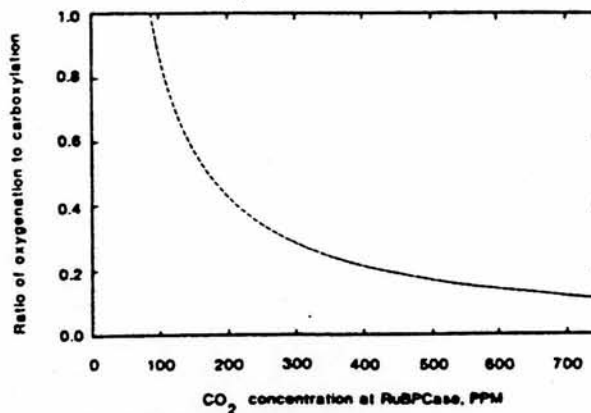
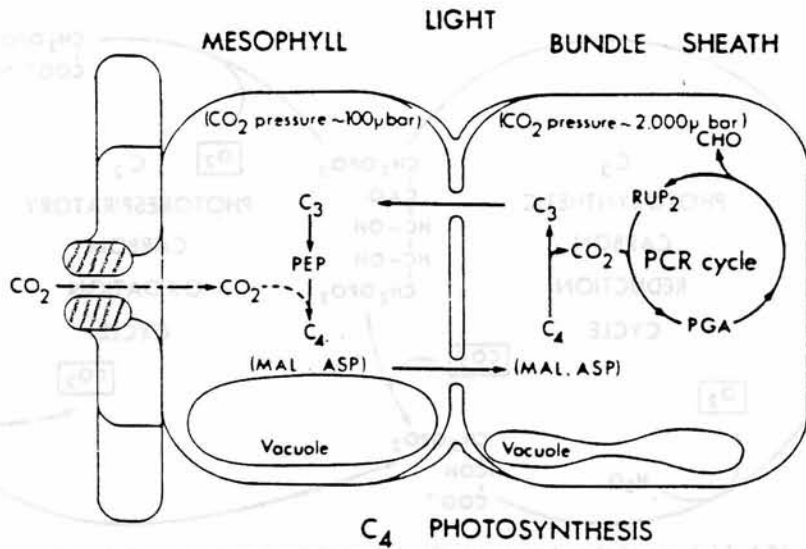


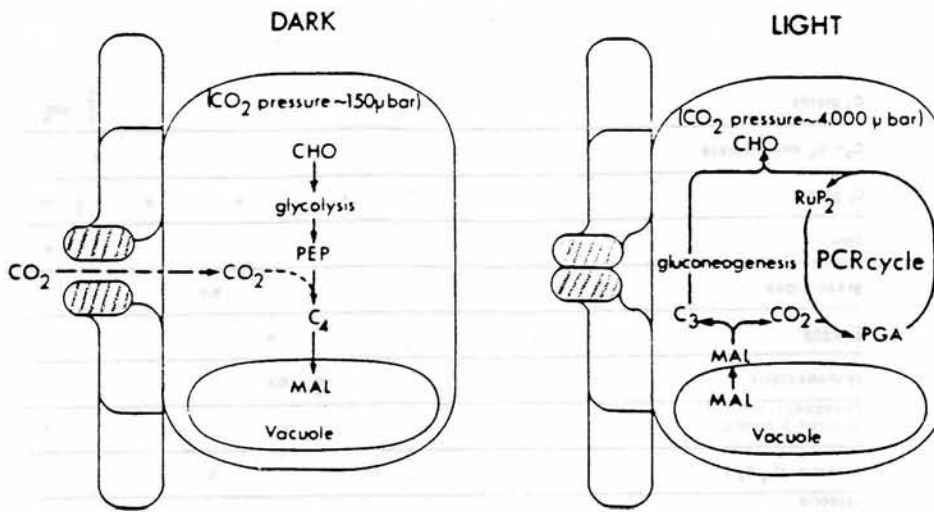
Fig. 1. The ratio of oxygenation to carboxylation as a function of CO₂ concentration at the site of carboxylation. The data are calculated for C₃ type RuBPCase at 25°C using the value for gamma star (Γ) from Brooks and Farquhar 1985.

Photosynthetic Pathway Variation
Figures for :

Separation of activities in space



Separation of activities in time



CRASSULACEAN ACID METABOLISM

Fig. 15.4. Schematic outline of C₄ photosynthesis and CAM showing the biochemical analogies between the two pathways, as well as the differences in spatial (C₄) and temporal (CAM) organization of the component processes. (After BJÖRKMÄN 1973)

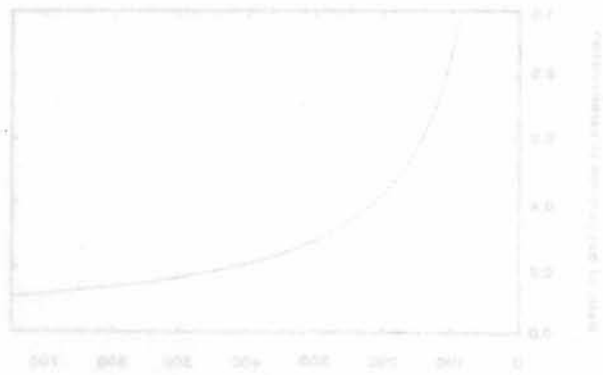
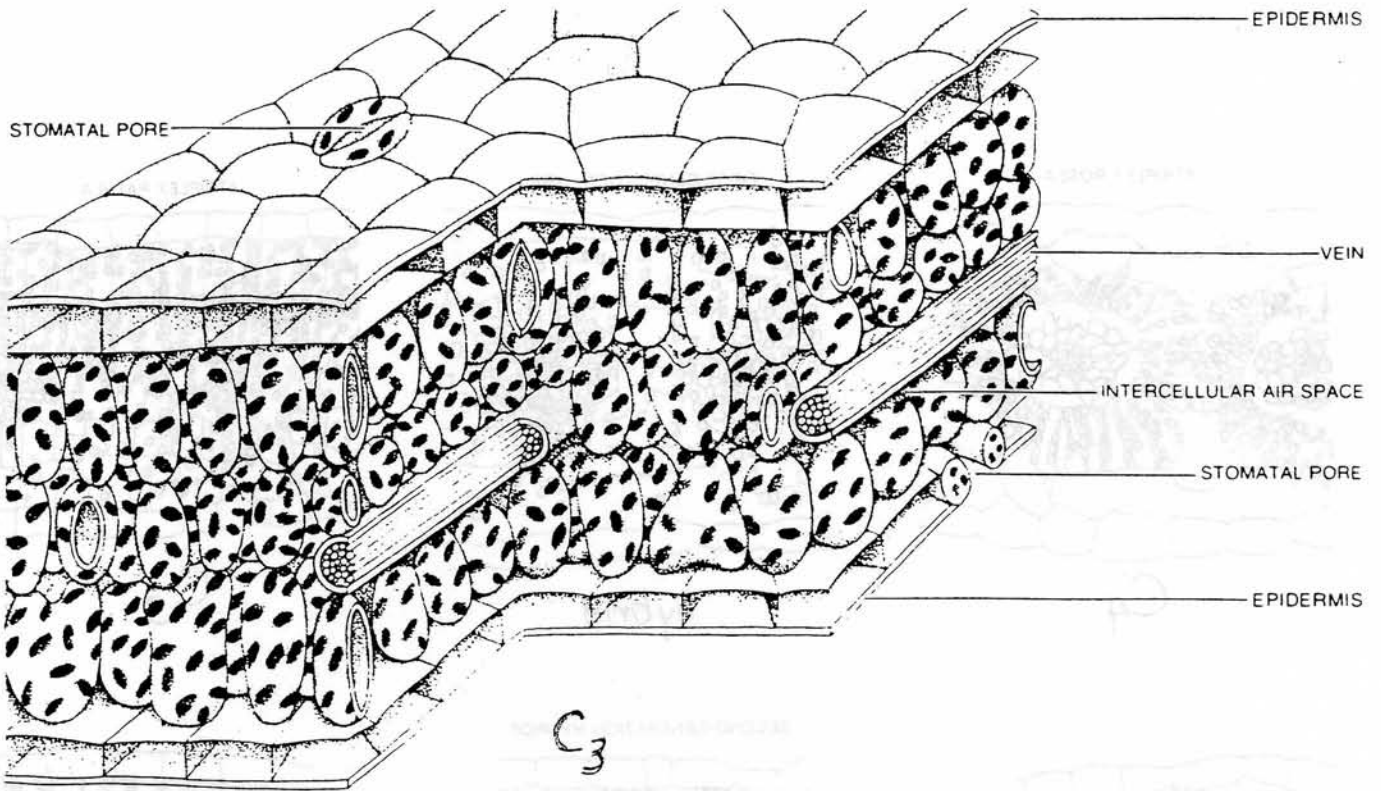
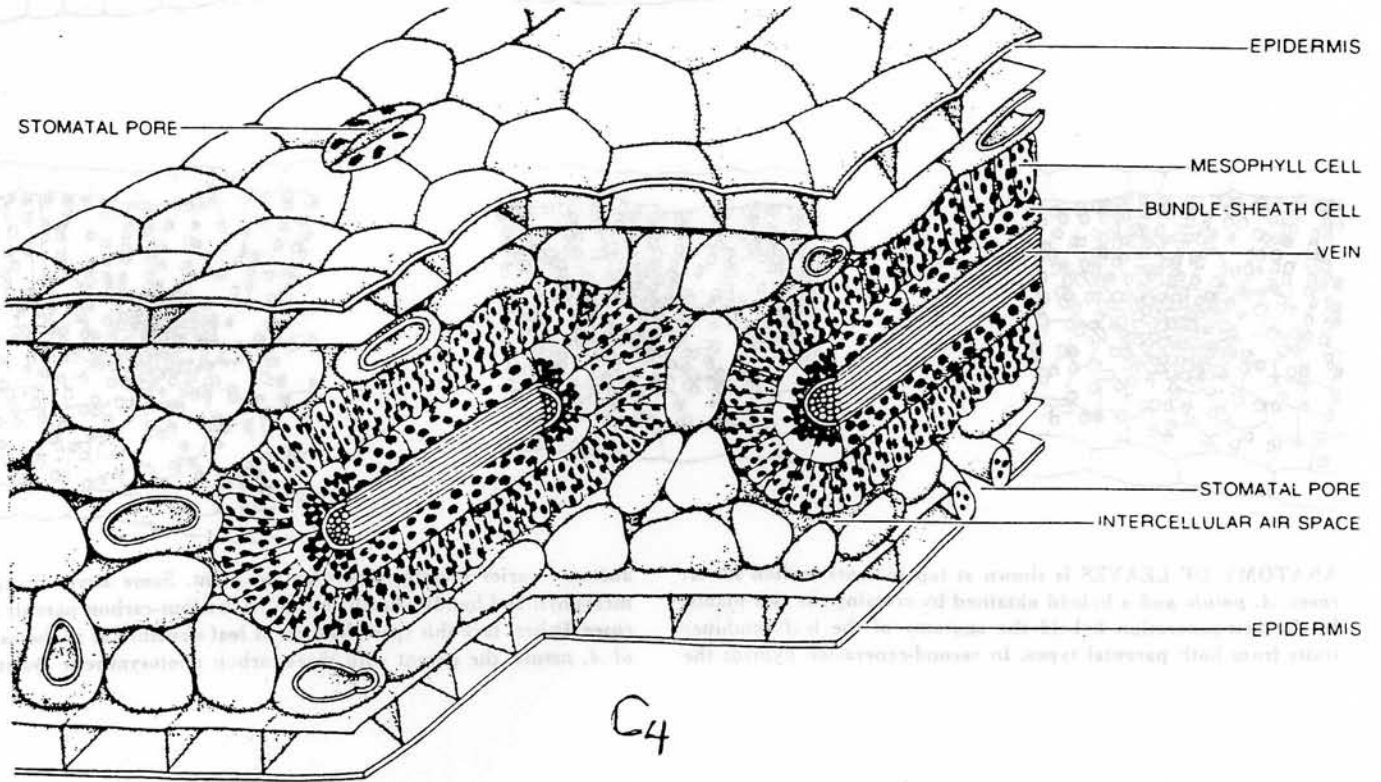


Fig. 1. The ratio of oxygenation to carboxylation as a function of CO₂ concentration at the site of carboxylation. The data are calculated for C₄ type plants at 25°C using the values for gamma (Γ) from Björkman and Ogren (1977).



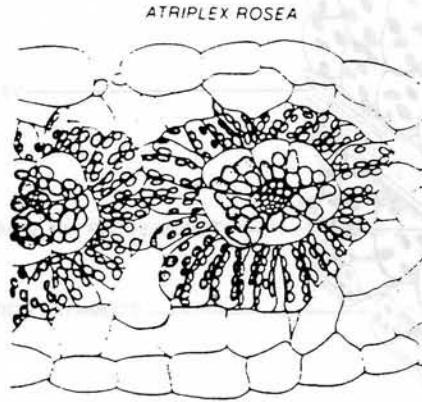
LEAF STRUCTURE of the three-carbon plant *Atriplex patula* is portrayed. As in other typical leaves the cells, containing chlorophyll, which is shown in color, are of a single type, and they are

found throughout the interior of the leaf. *A. patula* has a relative, *A. rosea*, that employs the four-carbon pathway for photosynthesis and has a different leaf structure, shown in the illustration below.



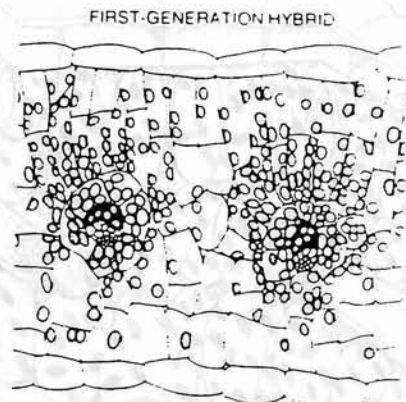
SPECIALIZED LEAF of *A. rosea* has nearly all its chlorophyll in two types of cells, which form concentric cylinders around the

fine veins of the leaf. The cells of the outer cylinder are mesophyll cells; those of the inner cylinder are bundle-sheath cells.



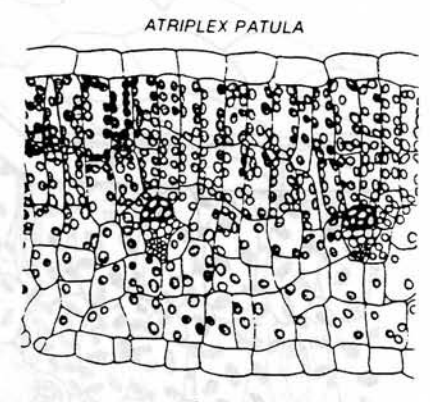
ATRIPLEX ROSEA

C₄



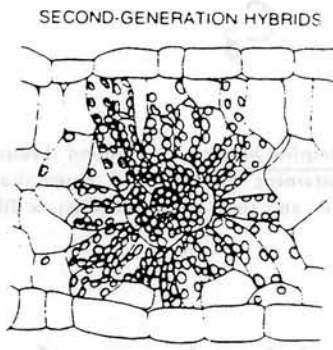
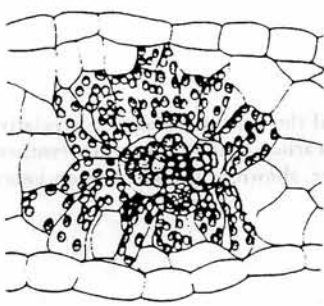
FIRST-GENERATION HYBRID

hybrid

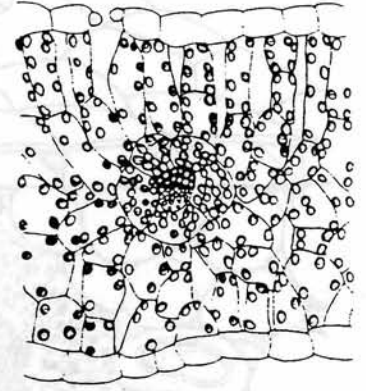
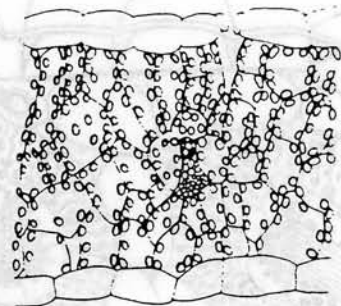
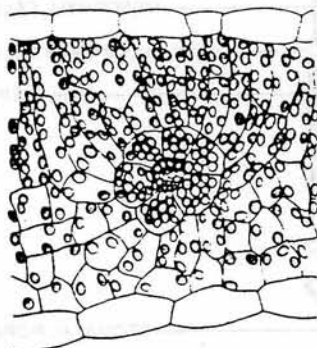
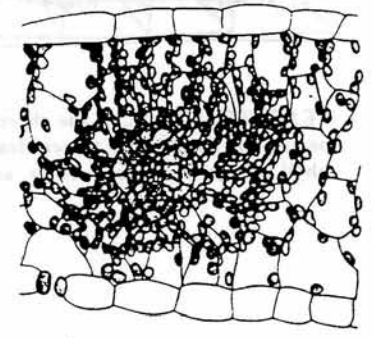


ATRIPLEX PATULA

C₃



SECOND-GENERATION HYBRIDS



ANATOMY OF LEAVES is shown at top in cross section for *A. rosea*, *A. patula* and a hybrid obtained by crossing the two plants. In the first-generation hybrid the anatomy of the leaf combines traits from both parental types. In second-generation hybrids the

anatomy varies greatly from plant to plant. Some have distinct mesophyll and bundle-sheath cells as in the four-carbon parent, *A. rosea*. Others lack this specialization of leaf structure as in the case of *A. patula*, the parent with three-carbon photosynthetic system.

TABLE 9.4. Three variants of the C₄ photosynthetic carbon assimilation cycle

Principal C ₄ acid transported to the bundle sheath cells	Decarboxylating enzyme	Variant name	Principal C ₃ acid returned to mesophyll cells	Examples
Malate	NADP-dependent malic enzyme (chloroplast)	NADP-ME	Pyruvate	Maize, crabgrass, sugarcane, sorghum
Aspartate	NAD-dependent malic enzyme (mitochondria)	NAD-ME	Alanine	Millet, pigweed (<i>Panicum miliaceum</i>)
Aspartate	Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (cytoplasm)	PEP-CK	Alanine/pyruvate	Guinea grass (<i>Panicum maximum</i>)

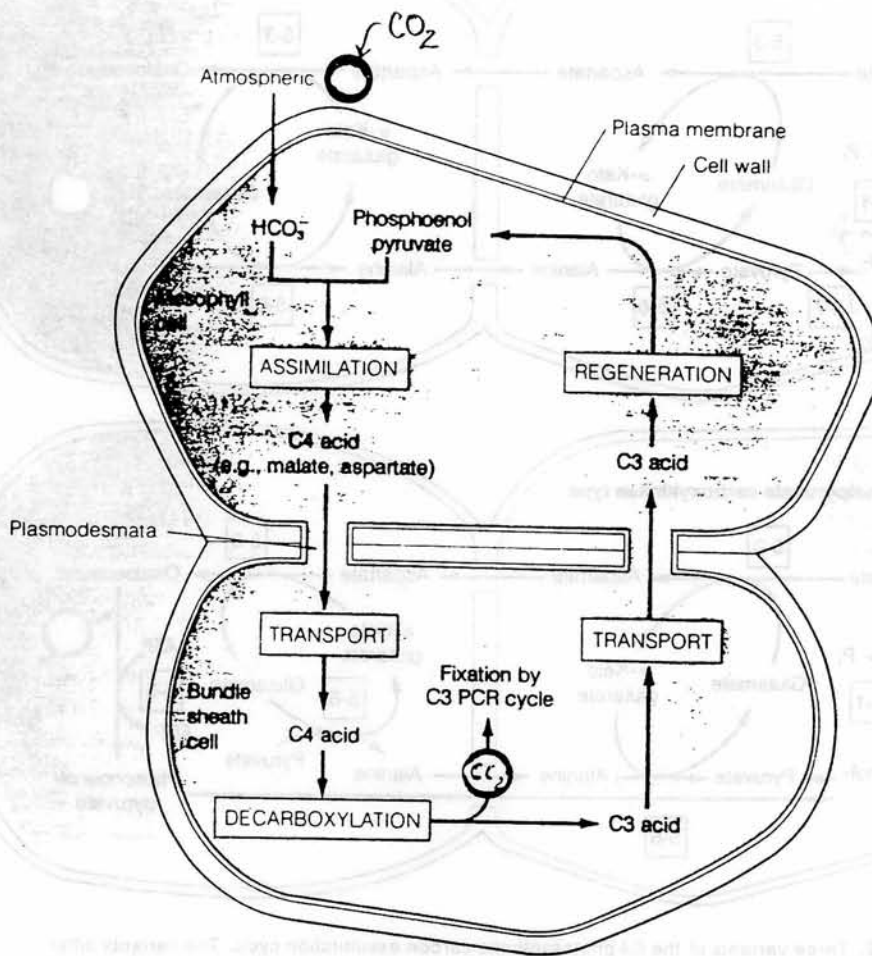


FIGURE 9.11. The basic C₄ photosynthetic carbon assimilation cycle involves two cell types and proceeds in four stages: *assimilation* of CO₂ and its incorporation into a four-carbon acid in the mesophyll cells; *transport* of the four-carbon acid from the mesophyll cells to the bundle sheath cells; *decarboxylation* of the four-carbon acid, generating a high concentration of CO₂ in the bundle sheath cells; and *transport* of a three-carbon acid back to the mesophyll cells, where the original CO₂ acceptor, phosphoenolpyruvate, is regenerated. The C₄ PCA cycle effectively concentrates CO₂ in the bundle sheath cells, to which Rubisco and the other enzymes of the C₃ PCR cycle are restricted. This high concentration of CO₂ in the bundle sheath cells effectively suppresses oxygenation via the C₂ PCO cycle.

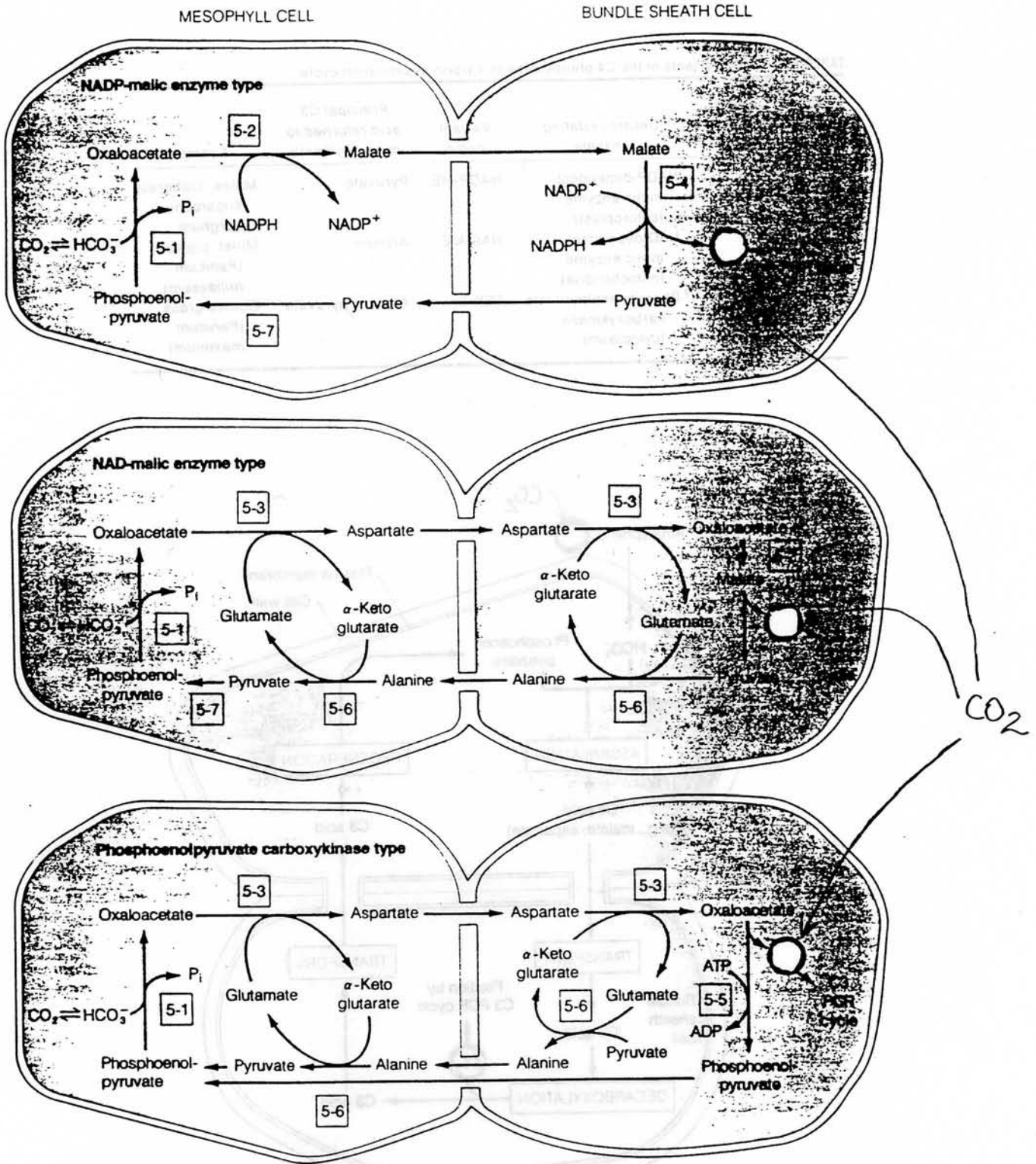


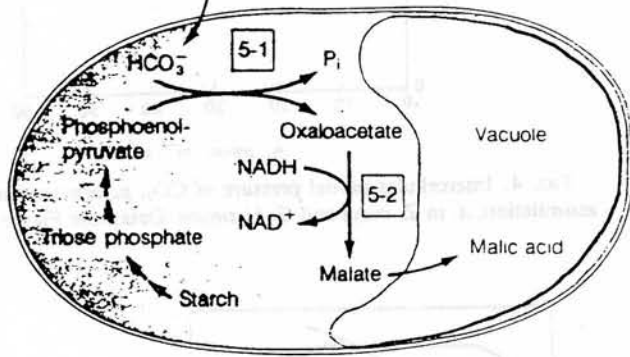
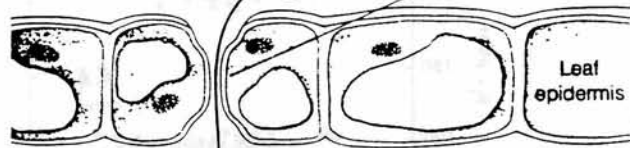
FIGURE 9.12. Three variants of the C4 photosynthetic carbon assimilation cycle. The variants differ principally in (1) the nature of the four-carbon acid (malate or aspartate) transported into the bundle sheath cell and of the three-carbon-acid (pyruvate or alanine) returned to the mesophyll cell and (2) the nature of the enzyme catalyzing the decarboxylation step in the bundle sheath cell. The three variants are named after the decarboxylation mechanism. The reactions (5-1, 5-2, etc.) are more fully described in Table 9.5. Within a mesophyll cell or a bundle sheath cell, different reactions can occur in different compartments, such as the cytosol, the mitochondrion, or the chloroplast.

Darkness

Assimilation of CO₂ through open stomata dark acidification

Atmospheric CO₂

Open stomata permit entry of CO₂ and loss of H₂O



Light

Decarboxylation of stored malate and re-fixation of internal CO₂ light decarboxylation

Closed stomata prevent H₂O loss and CO₂ uptake

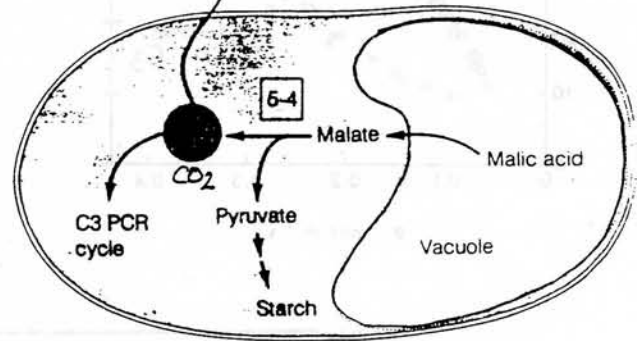
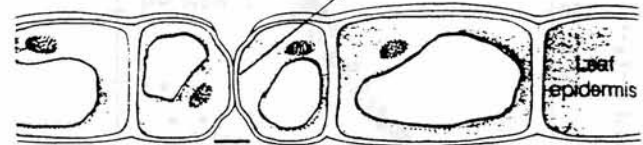


FIGURE 9.14. Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) involves the temporal separation of CO₂ assimilation at night and decarboxylation and re-fixation of the internally released CO₂ during day. CAM is primarily an adaptation to minimize the loss of water that occurs whenever stomata are opened to permit the entry of CO₂. In CAM plants, the stomata are opened in the cool of the night. CO₂ is assimilated as malic acid, which is stored in the vacuole. As malic acid accumulates, the leaf vacuoles undergo dark acidification. Upon illumination, the stomata close, and the leaf decarboxylates. The malic acid is recovered from the vacuole and undergoes decarboxylation. The CO₂ that is released is prevented from escaping by stomatal closure and is fixed via the C₃ PCR cycle, using photochemically generated ATP and NADPH.

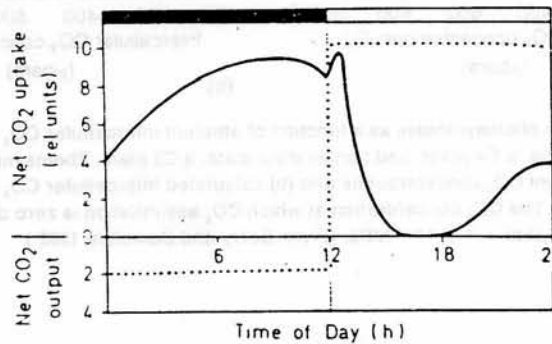


Fig. 5.1. Schematic standard curves of CO₂ exchange in a CAM plant (—) and a C₃ plant (.....)

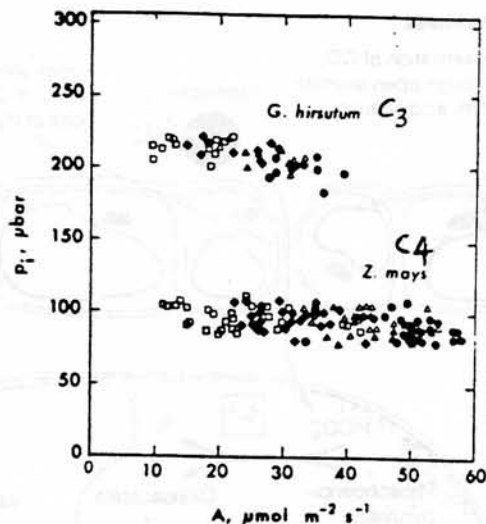
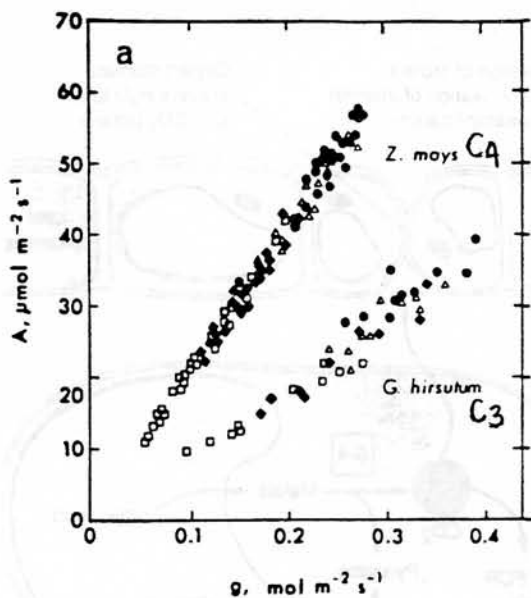


FIG. 4. Intercellular partial pressure of CO₂, p_i , against rate of CO₂ assimilation, A , in *Z. mays* and *G. hirsutum*. Data from Figure 3(a).

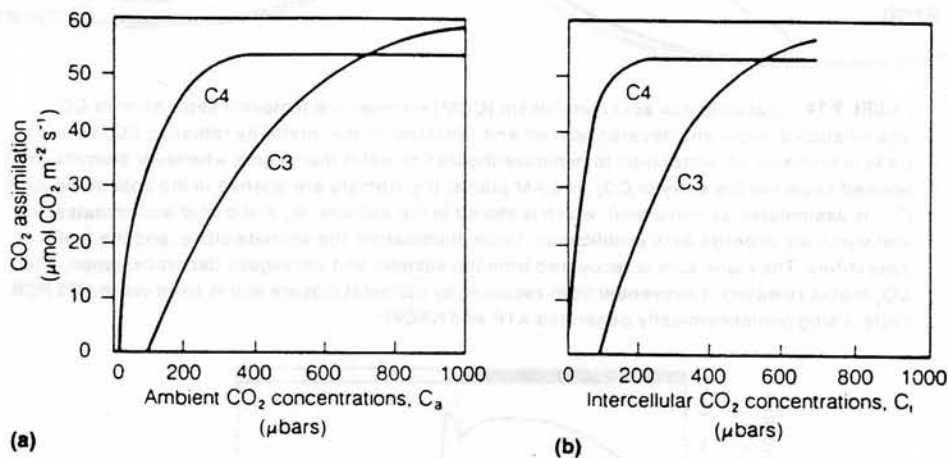


FIGURE 10.10. Changes in photosynthesis as a function of ambient intercellular CO₂ concentrations in *Tidestromia oblongifolia*, a C₄ plant, and *Larrea divaricata*, a C₃ plant. Photosynthetic rates are plotted against (a) ambient CO₂ concentrations and (b) calculated intercellular CO₂ concentrations inside the leaf (Eq. 10.5). The CO₂ concentration at which CO₂ assimilation is zero defines the CO₂ compensation point. 100 $\mu\text{bar} = 1 \times 10^{-8}$ MPa. (From Berry and Downton, 1982.)

Table 1. Rate of CO₂ Assimilation ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), A , Leaf Conductance to CO₂ Transfer ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), g , and Intercellular Partial Pressure of CO₂ (μbar), p_i , Measured with $2 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ Photon Flux Density at the Illuminated Surface, 305 μbar Ambient Partial Pressure of CO₂, 30°C Leaf Temperature, and 20 mbar Vapor Pressure Difference between Leaf and Air

	A	g	p_i
C₃ species			
<i>Atriplex hastata</i>	29.8	0.35	225
<i>Eucalyptus camaldulensis</i>	35.4	0.32	201
<i>Eucalyptus pauciflora</i>	26.0	0.29	228
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	33.0	0.35	216
<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	26.7	0.35	235
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	23.0	0.26	228
<i>Rumex acetosa</i>	14.0	0.12	194
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	22.2	0.20	196
C₄ species			
<i>Amaranthus edulis</i>	34.0	0.16	96
<i>Imperata cylindrica</i>	20.3	0.09	88
<i>Pennisetum purpureum</i>	55.7	0.26	98
<i>Zea mays</i>	53.0	0.25	94

INSTANTANEOUS WATER USE EFFICIENCY (A/E) FOR NET CO₂ ASSIMILATION OF SPECIES EXHIBITING DIFFERENT PHOTOSYNTHETIC PATHWAYS

Species	Photoperiod	A/E (mmol CO ₂ /mol H ₂ O)
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i> (C ₃)	light	3.4
<i>Zea mays</i> (C ₄)	light	6.7
<i>Opuntia inermis</i> (CAM)	dark	10.0
<i>Opuntia inermis</i> (CAM)	light	5.0

Measurements refer to a ΔW of 20 mbar. Tissue temperatures: 30 °C for *G. hirsutum* and *Z. mays*, unspecified for *O. inermis*. Data were taken from Wong (1979) and Osmond et al. (1979b).

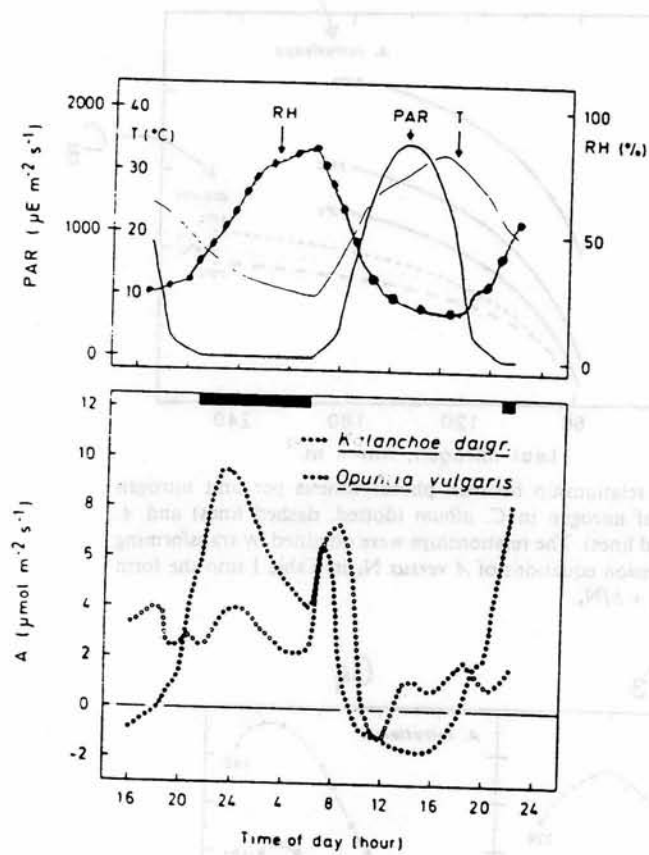


Fig. 8.4. Daily time course of PAR, ambient temperature (T), ambient relative air humidity (RH) and net CO₂ assimilation (A) of a leaf of *Kalanchoe daigremontiana* and a cladode (horizontally oriented) of *Opuntia vulgaris* in the Würzburg Botanic Garden on July 21/22, 1983. Ambient temperature and relative air humidity were automatically tracked inside the gas exchange cuvette. Plants were well watered and had been pre-conditioned for 3 weeks to the high light and temperature conditions prevailing during this particular summer period. (Winter and Meyer, unpublished.)

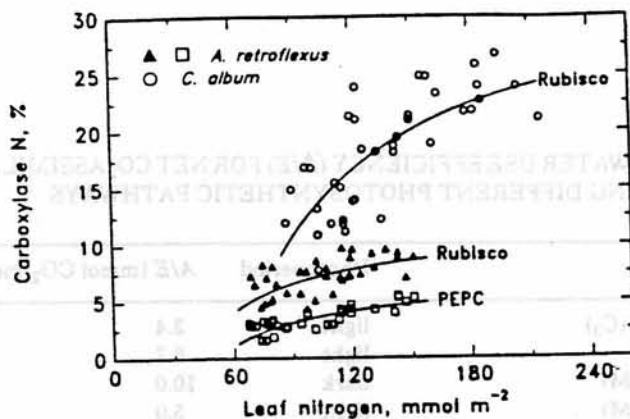


FIG. 4. Percent of leaf nitrogen in Rubisco as a function of organic leaf nitrogen in *C. album* (○) and *A. retroflexus* (▲), and the percent of leaf nitrogen in PEPC as a function of organic leaf nitrogen in *A. retroflexus* (□). The fitted curves represent the responses calculated by transforming the respective linear regressions of carboxylase content versus N_o into the form of equation 2, and assuming that carboxylase protein is 16% N.

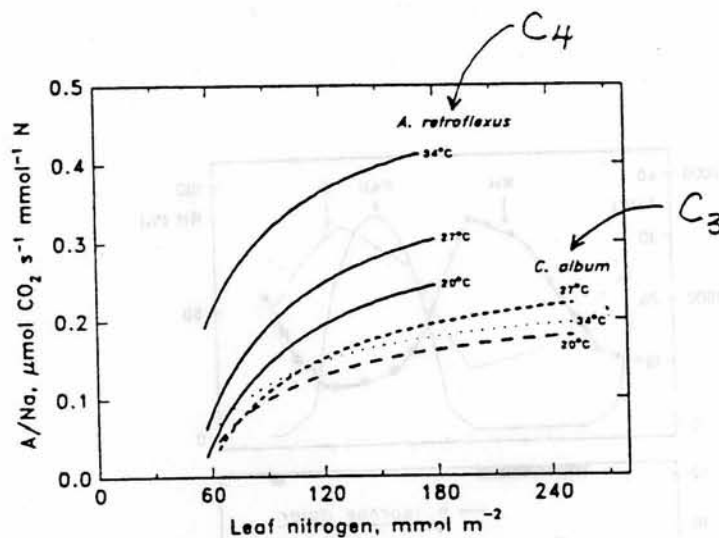


FIG. 2. The relationship between photosynthesis per unit nitrogen and organic leaf nitrogen in *C. album* (dotted, dashed lines) and *A. retroflexus* (solid lines). The relationships were obtained by transforming the linear regression equations of A versus N_o in Table I into the form $A/N = dA/dN_o + b/N_o$.

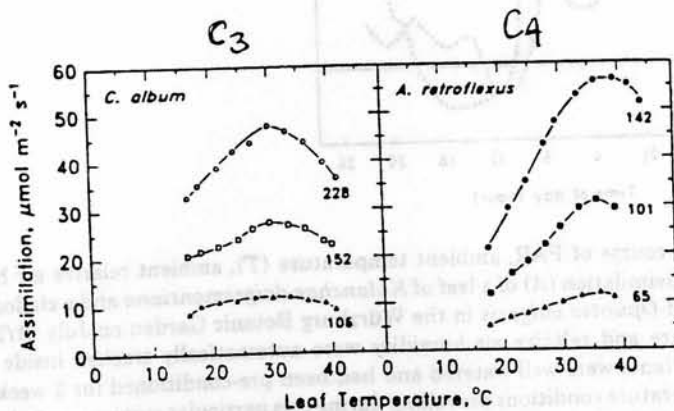


FIG. 5. The temperature of photosynthesis in *C. album* and *A. retroflexus* at light saturation. The values beside each curve represent organic leaf nitrogen content in mmol m^{-2} .

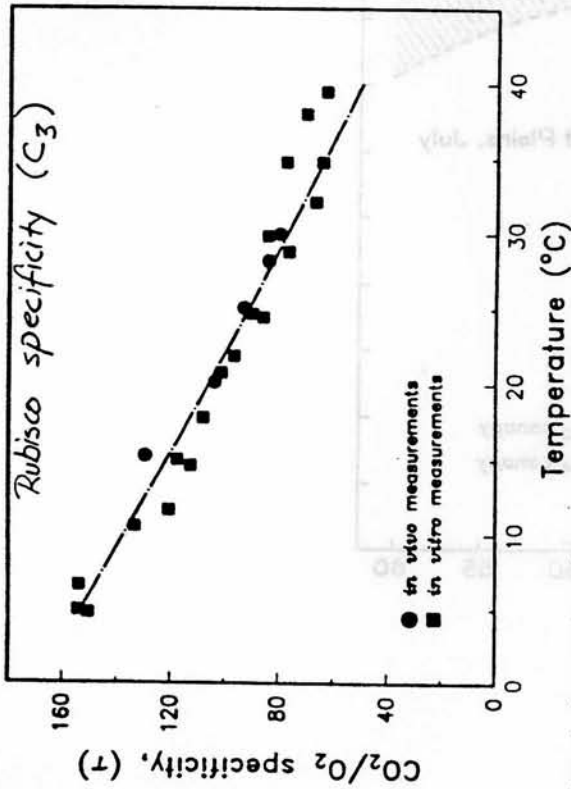
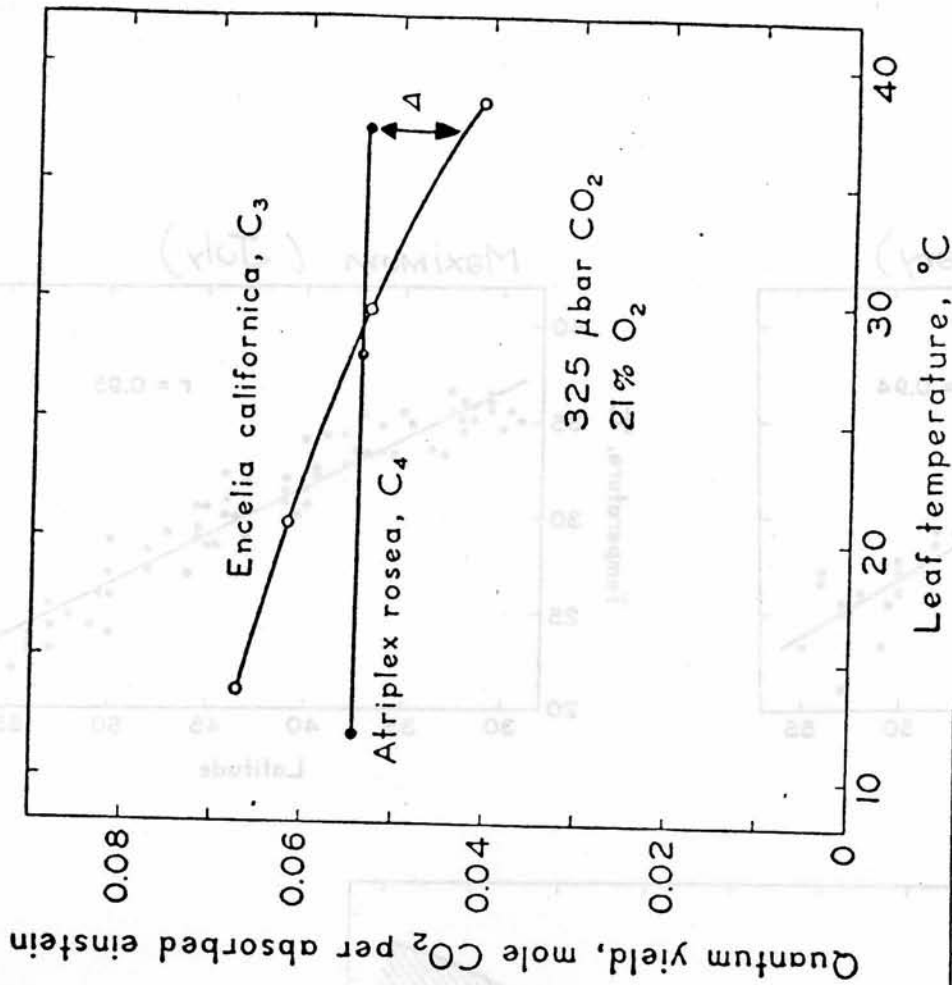
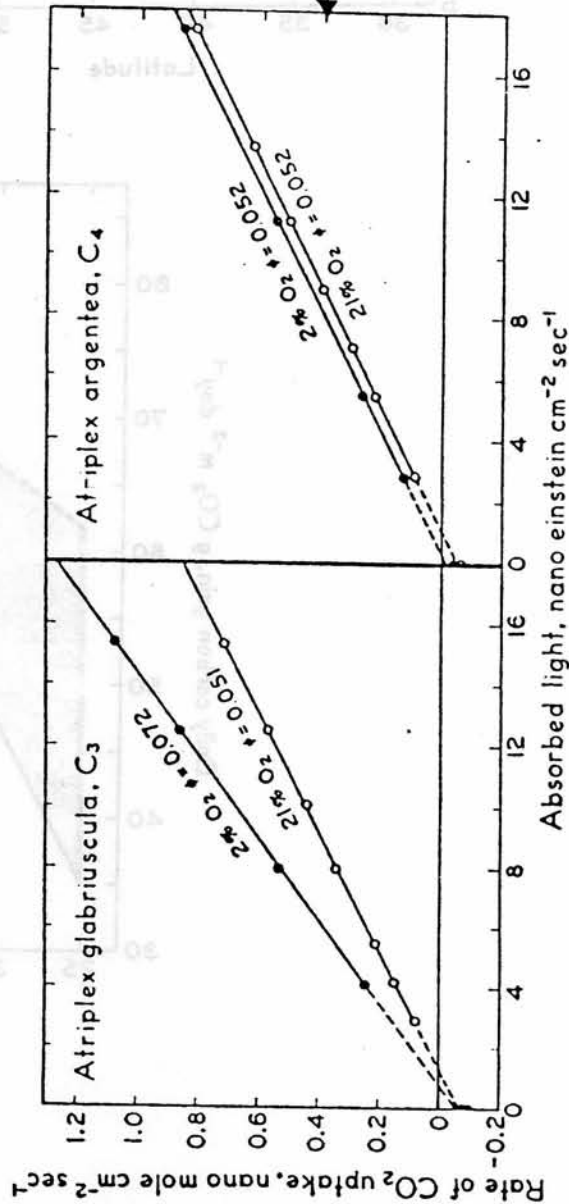


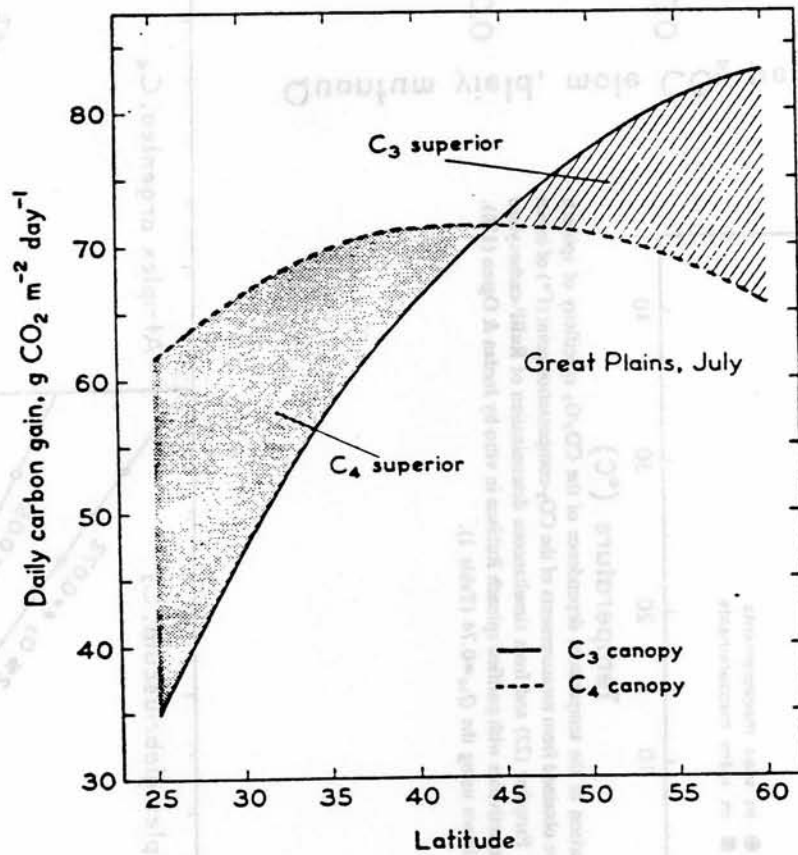
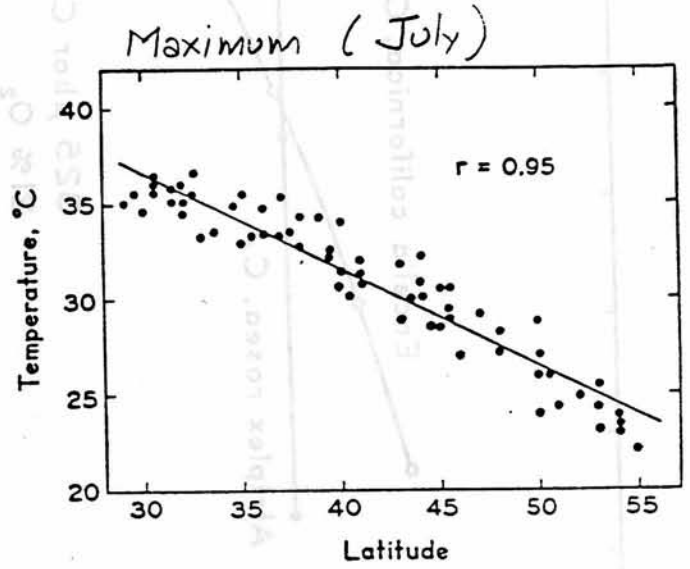
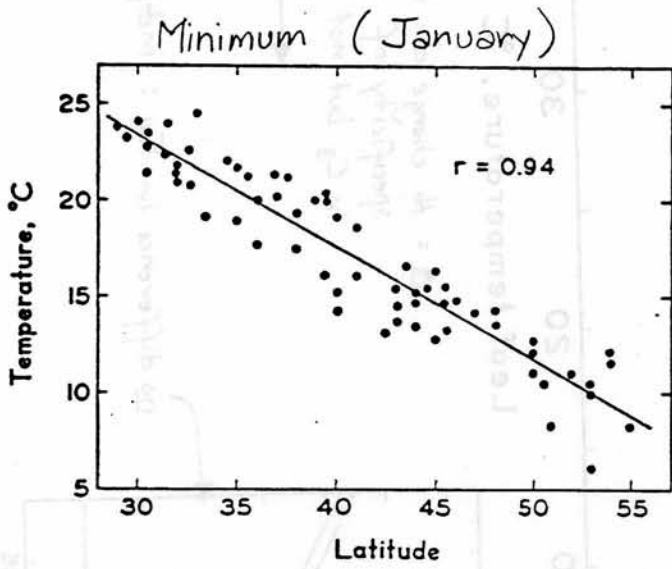
Figure 1 A comparison of the temperature dependence of the CO₂/O₂ specificity of spinach Rubisco. Values were obtained from measurements of the CO₂-compensation point (Γ*) of intact leaves by Brooks & Farquhar (22) and from simultaneous determination of RuBP-carboxylase and RuBP-oxygenase activities with purified spinach Rubisco in vitro by Jordan & Ogren (128). The dashed line is drawn using the Q₁₀=0.74 (Table 1).

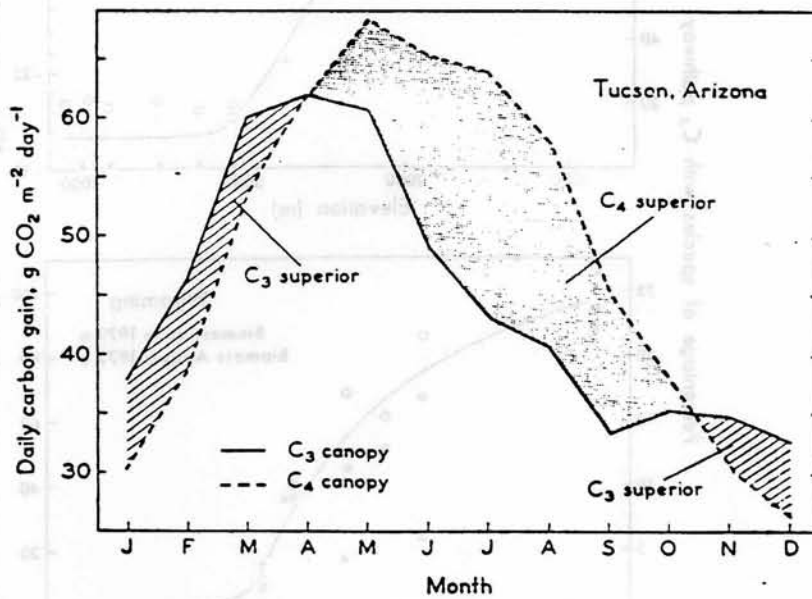
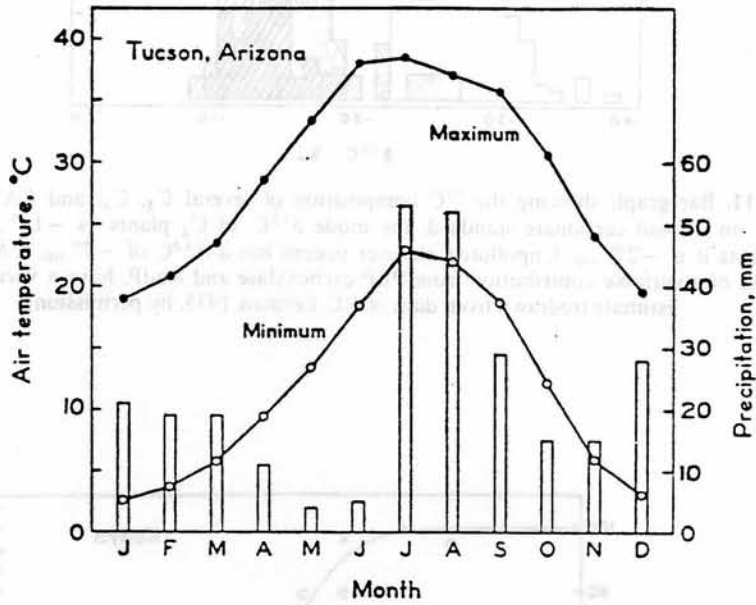


Δ = the change due to CO₂/O₂ specificity of Rubisco in C₃ but not C₄

no difference in C₄: independent of [O₂]







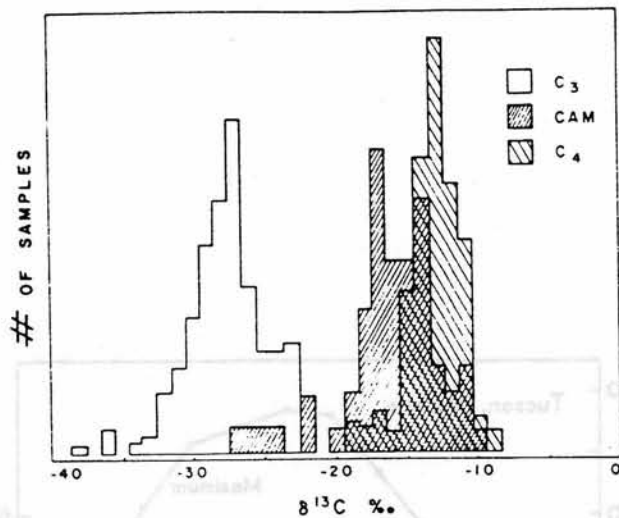


Fig. 3.11. Bar graph showing the ^{13}C composition of several C_3 , C_4 , and CAM species. Based on a fossil carbonate standard, the mode $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_4 plants is -11‰ and for C_3 plants it is -27‰ . Unpolluted air over oceans has a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -7‰ . CAM plants, because of a variable contribution from PEP carboxylase and RuDP, have a variable $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ estimate (redrawn from data of J. C. Lerman, 1975, by permission)

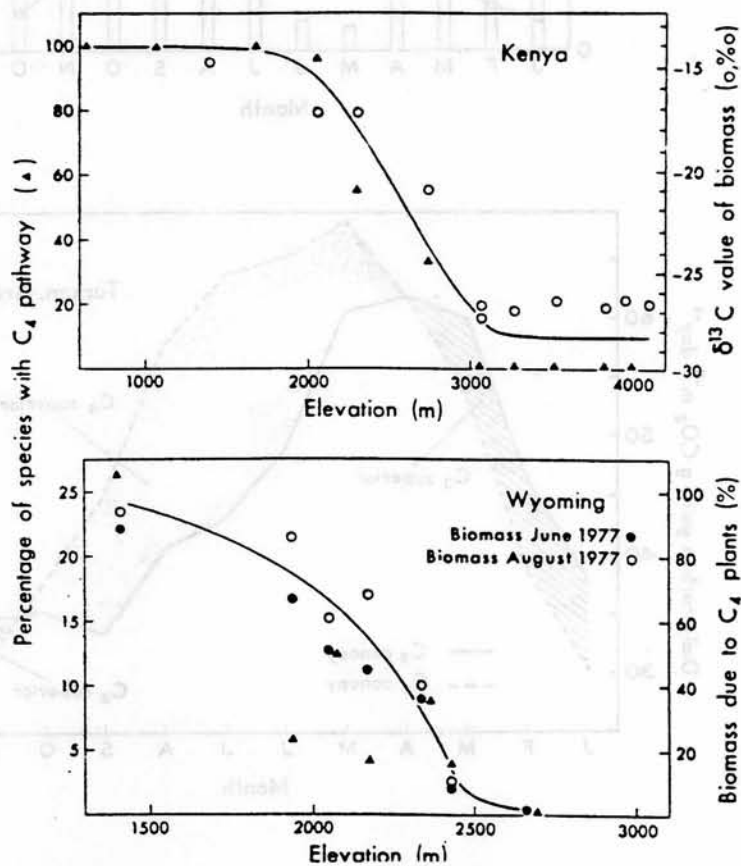


Fig. 15.19. Correlations between the percentage of taxa which are C_4 plants and the biomass due to C_4 plants for two grassland ecosystems. Contribution of C_4 plants to biomass was estimated by $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value (Kenya) or by taxonomic evaluation (Wyoming). (Redrawn from data of TIESZEN et al. 1979; BOUTTON et al. 1980)

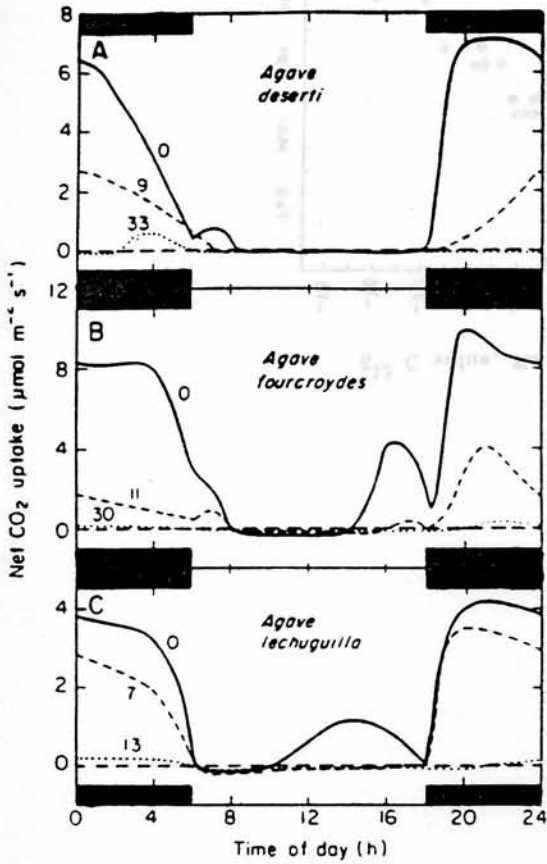


Figure 3.17. CO₂ exchange over a 24-h period by leaves of agaves after various periods of drought, indicated in days next to the curves. Data for (A) *Agave desertii* are adapted from Nobel (1984a), for (B) *A. fourcroydes* from Nobel (1985a), and for (C) *A. lechuguilla* from Nobel and Quero (1986). Gas exchange was measured in the laboratory under nearly saturating PAR, and the night temperature was constant at about the mean annual value of 15°C for *A. desertii*, 20°C for *A. fourcroydes*, and 9°C for *A. lechuguilla*.

↑ numbers on the different lines represent the # of days since the plant received water.

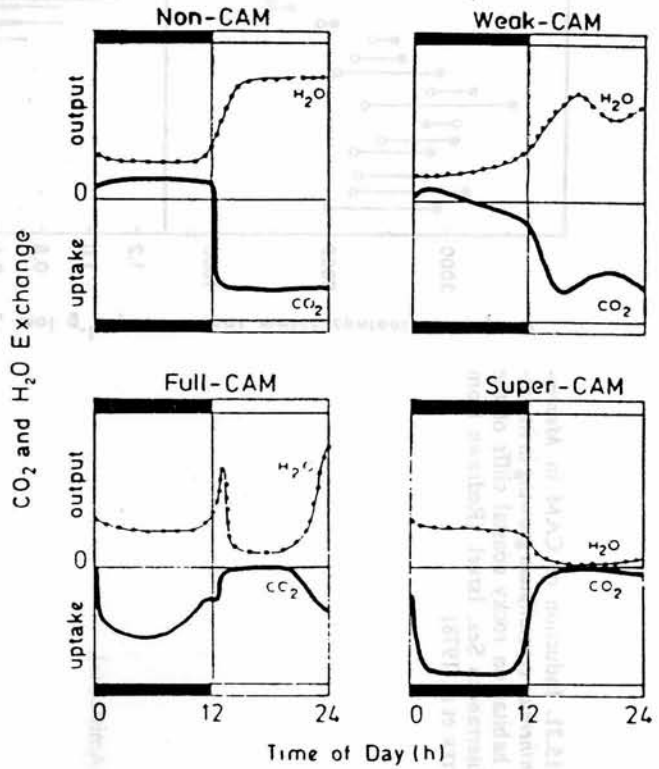
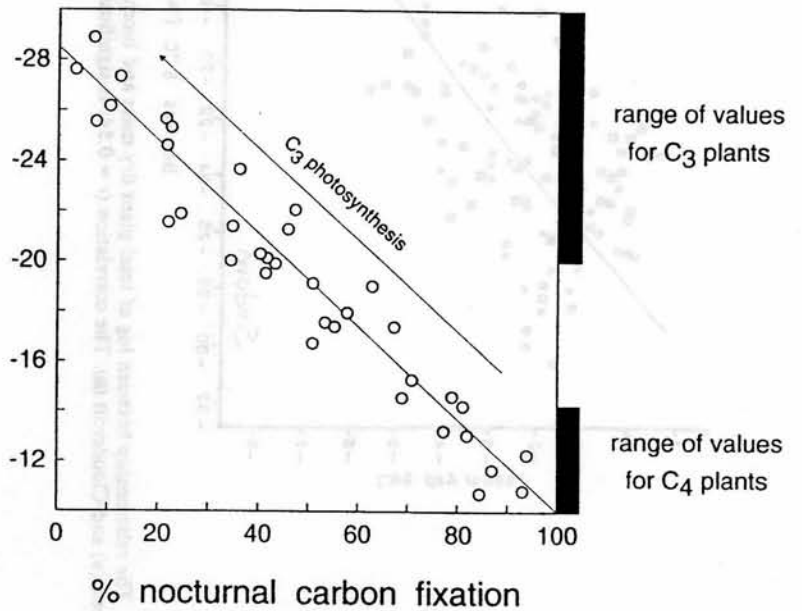


Fig. 5.2. Schemes of gas-exchange patterns as performed by CAM plants (after Neales, 1975, by permission)

stable carbon isotope values of CAM plants



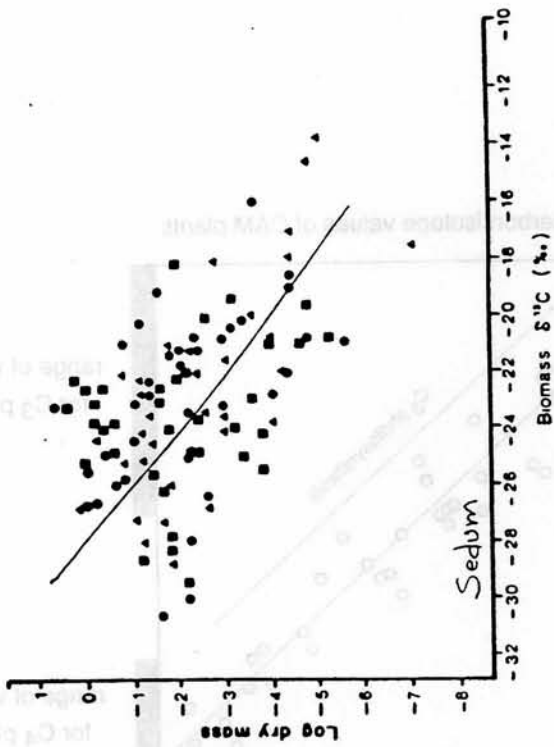


FIG. 3. The relationship between log of total plant dry mass and biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value for three populations: Amistad (Δ), Fern Canyon (\bullet) and Cloudcroft (\blacksquare). The correlation ($r = 0.54$) is significant at the .0001 level.

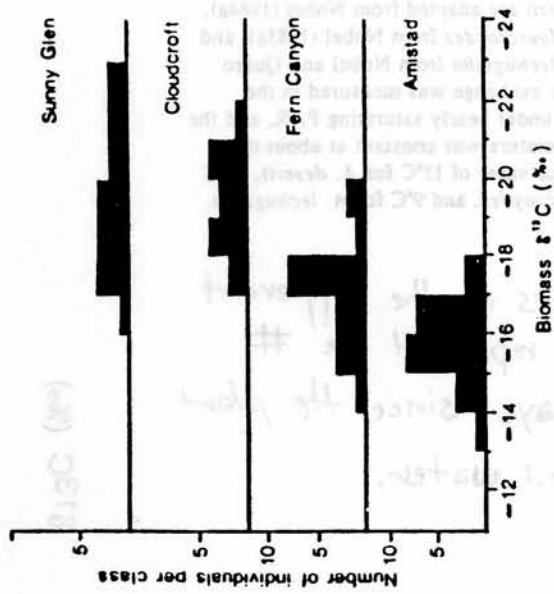
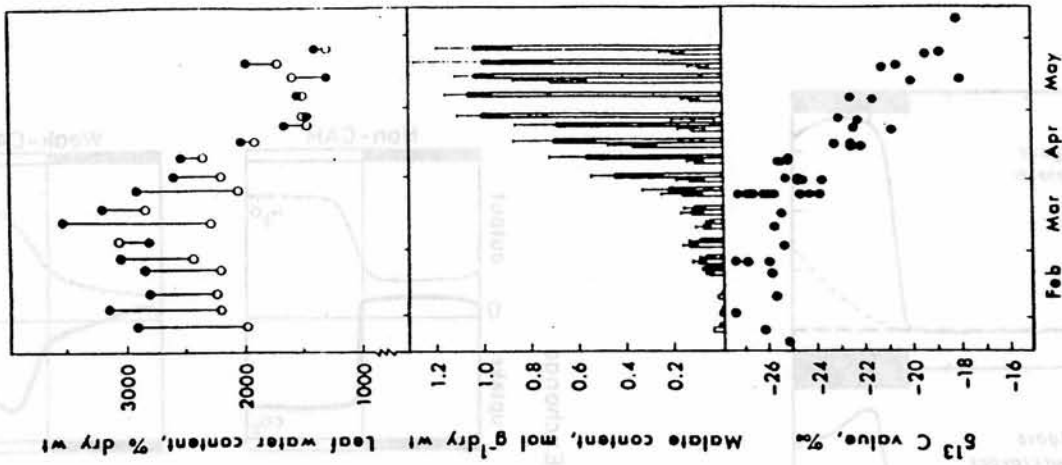


FIG. 2. Field biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the most recently expanded leaf from individuals of four populations of *Sedum wrightii*.

Fig. 15.21. Induction of CAM in *Mesembrythemum crystallinum* growing in its natural habitat on rocky coastal cliffs of the Mediterranean Sea, Israel. (Redrawn from WINTER et al. 1978)



from
Teeri

Temporal variations in water availability

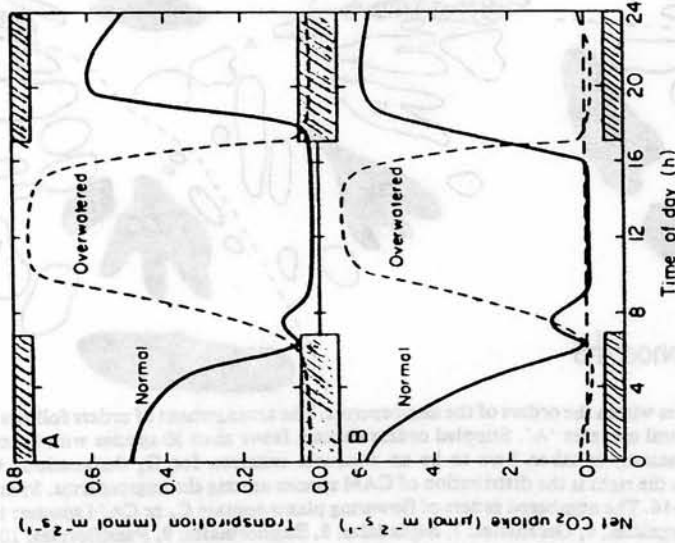


Figure 3.15. Influence of water status on (A) the daily pattern of transpiration and (B) net CO₂ uptake for *Agave deserti*. "Normal" refers to a plant receiving daily watering for two weeks, and "overwatered" refers to the same plant after an additional ten weeks of daily watering. Modified from Hartsock and Nobel (1976).

A response that happens in leaf-succulent CAM plants; not in stem-succulent taxa

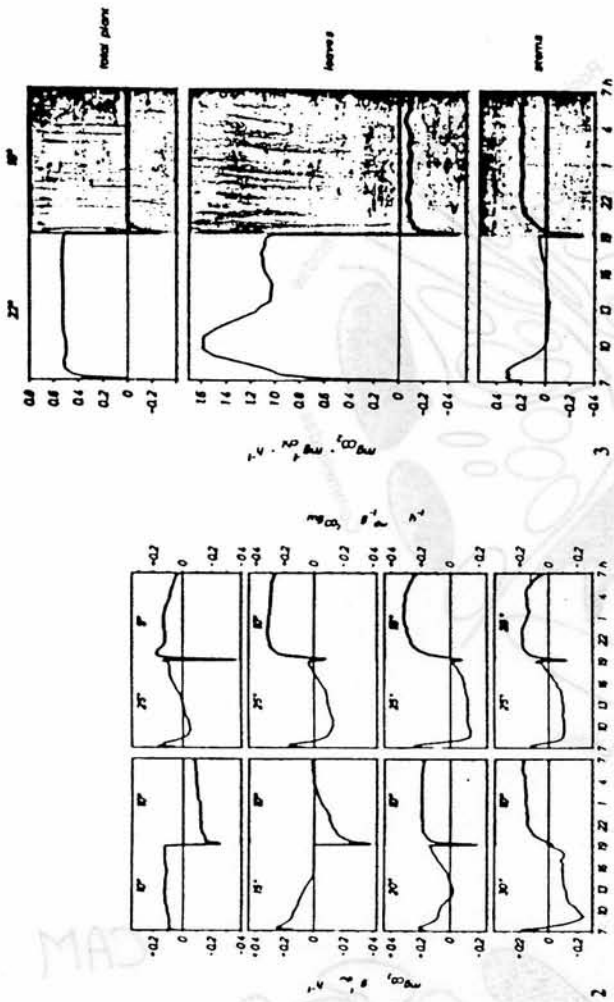


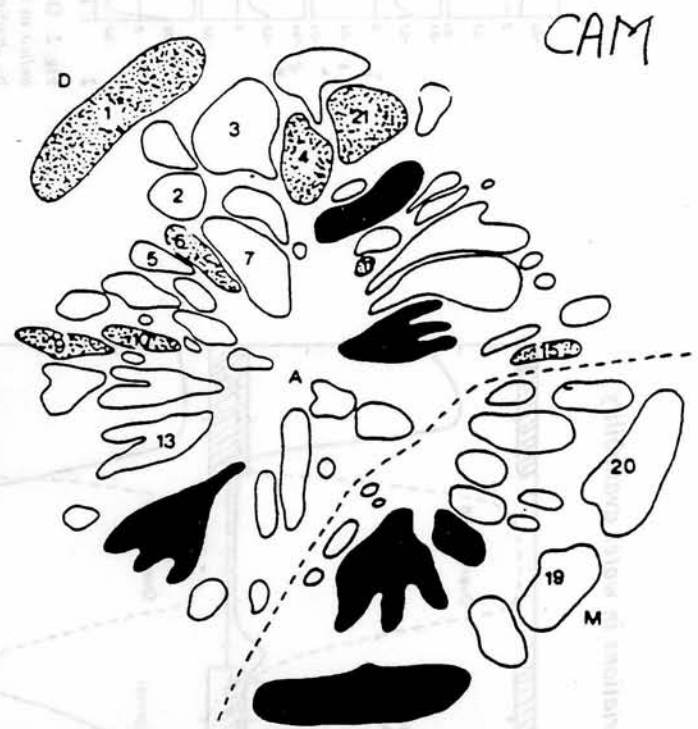
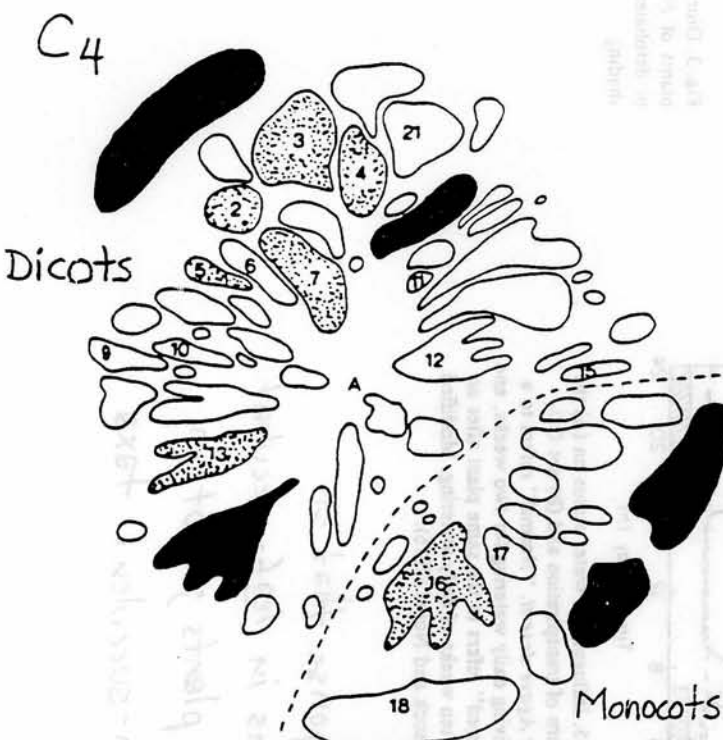
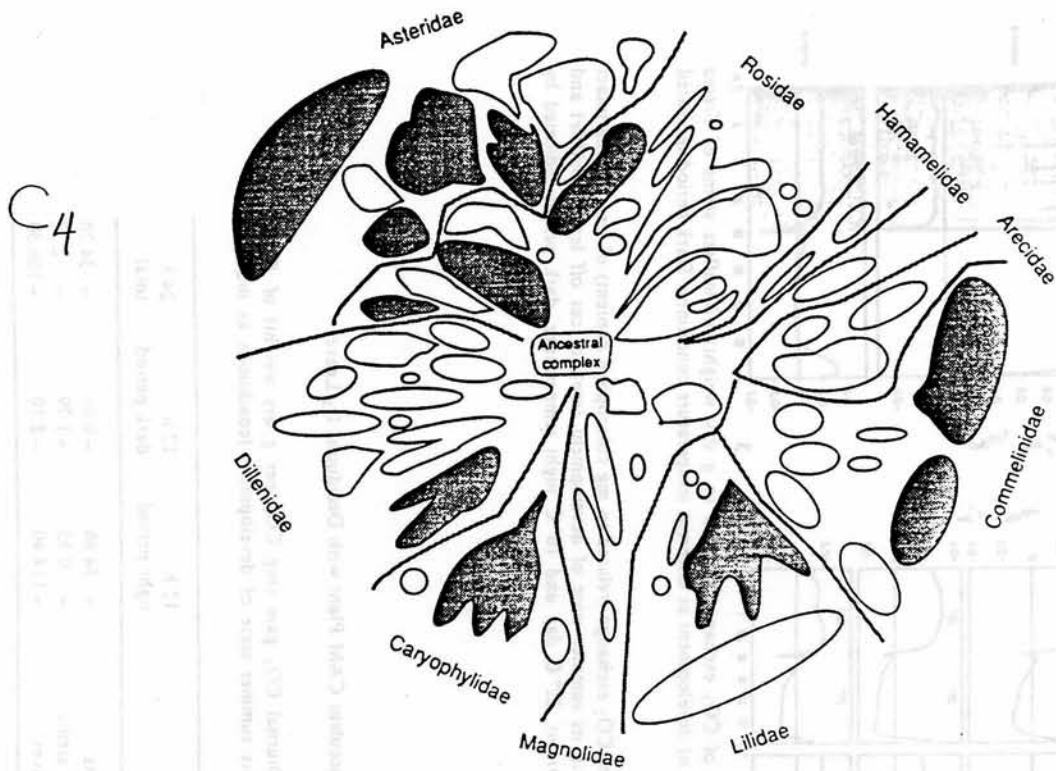
Fig. 2. Diurnal courses of CO₂ exchange (related to g dry weight) of leafless stems of *Frerea indica* in its winter state of development at different temperature conditions. Dark period indicated by shading

Fig. 3. Diurnal courses of CO₂ exchange (related to mg chlorophyll content) of leaf bearing intact plants of *Frerea indica* in its summer state of development (top), of cut off leaves (middle) and of defoliated stems (bottom). 22°C day and 10°C night temperature. Dark period indicated by shading

A Stem Succulent CAM Plant with Deciduous C₃ Leaves

Table 1. Diurnal CO₂ gain (mg CO₂ per g dry weight) of *Frerea indica* in its summer state of development (conditions as indicated in Fig. 3)

	12 h light period	12 h dark period	24 h total
Total plants	+ 34.86	-0.66	+ 34.20
Defoliated stems	+ 0.53	+ 1.79	+ 2.32
Cut off leaves	+ 114.40	- 8.10	+ 106.30



The diagram on the left shows the distribution of C₄ species within the orders of the angiosperms. The arrangement of orders follows Stebbins¹², in which they are shown to radiate from a proposed ancestral complex 'A'. Stippled orders contain fewer than 30 species with C₄ characteristics, shaded orders contain more than 30 species. Kranz anatomy is taken here to be an adequate criterion for C₄ designation, which may be questionable⁹. D, dicotyledons; M, monocotyledons. On the right is the distribution of CAM species among the angiosperms. Symbols as above. The data given in both diagrams are derived from refs 13-16. The numbered orders of flowering plants contain C₄ or CAM species: 1, Asterales; 2, Polemoniales; 3, Scrophulariales; 4, Gentianales; 5, Polygalales; 6, Geraniales; 7, Sapindales; 8, Euphorbiales; 9, Passiflorales; 10, Violales; 11, Rhamnales; 12, Rosales; 13, Capparales; 14, Caryophyllales; 15, Piperales; 16, Liliales; 17, Bromeliales; 18, Orchidales; 19, Cyperales; 20, Poales (Graminea); 21, Lamiales.

Stippled areas = orders with < 30 species
 Black areas = orders with > 30 species

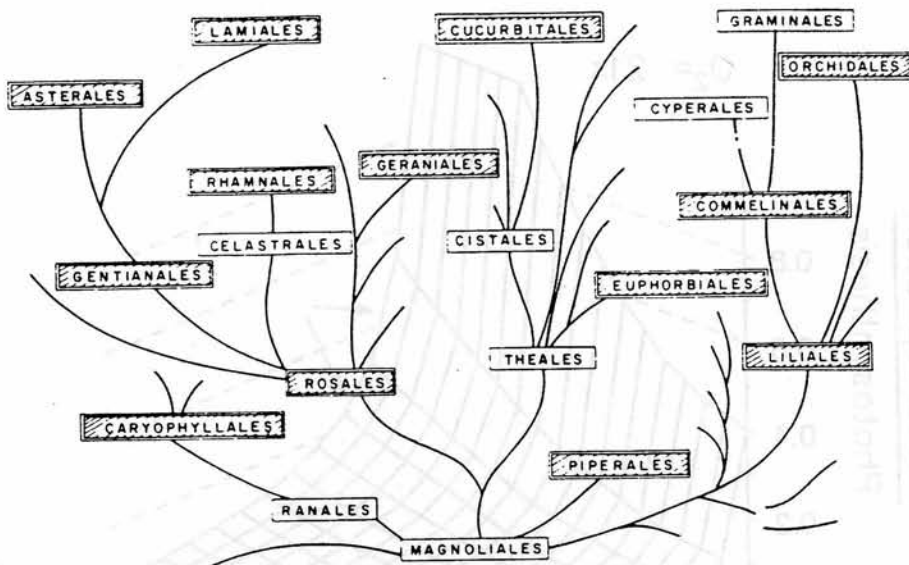


Fig. 1.1. Modified phylogenetic tree showing distribution of CAM families within orders. Tree drawn after Taktajan (1969). Asterales (Asteraceae); Caryophyllales (Aizoaceae, Cactaceae, Didieriaceae, Portulacaceae); Commelinales (Bromeliaceae); Cucurbitales (Cucurbitaceae); Euphorbiales (Euphorbiaceae); Gentianales (Asclepiadaceae); Geranales (Geraniaceae, Oxiladaceae); Lamiales (Labiatae); Liliales (Agavaceae, Liliaceae); Orchidales (Orchidaceae); Piperales (Piperaceae); Rhamnales (Vitaceae); Rosales (Crassulaceae)

Taxonomy and Geographical Distribution of CAM Plants

Table 1.1. Flowering plant families known to have species showing CAM

Agavaceae	Euphorbiaceae
Aizoaceae	Geraniaceae
Asclepiadaceae	Labiatae
Asteraceae	Liliaceae
Bromeliaceae	Oxalidaceae
Cactaceae	Orchidaceae
Crassulaceae	Piperaceae
Cucurbitaceae	Portulacaceae
Didieriaceae	Vitaceae

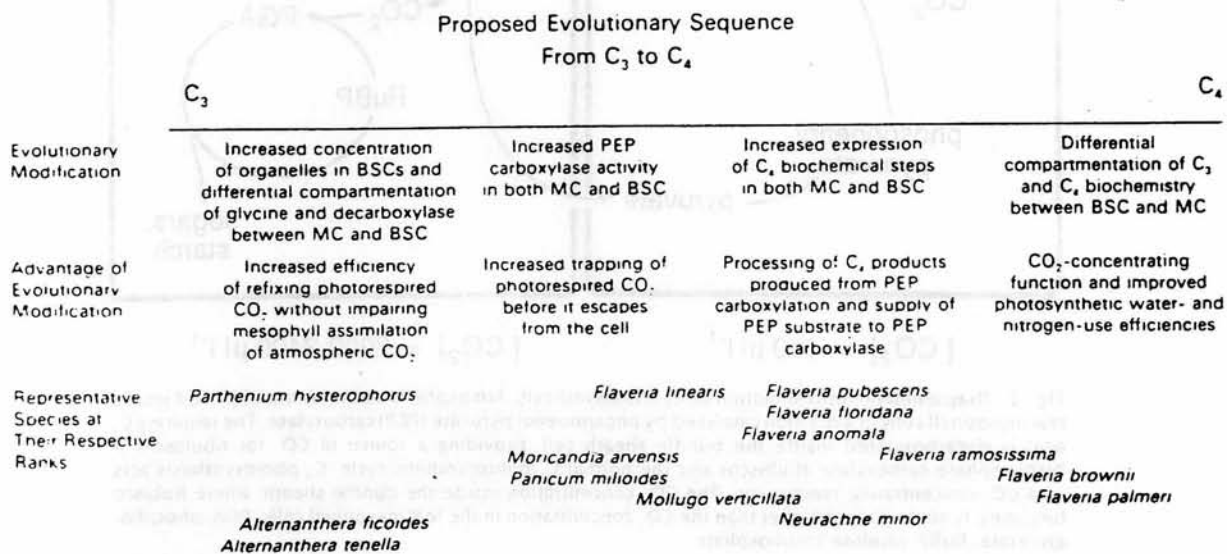
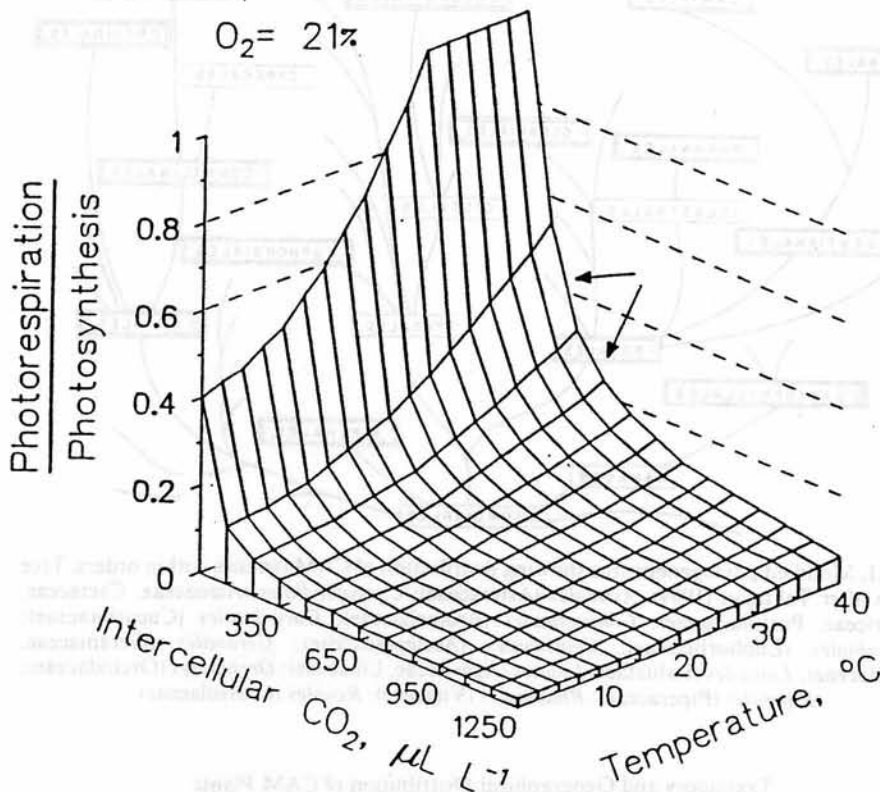


Fig. 5. An evolutionary scheme to explain the steps taken during the evolution of C_4 plants from C_3 plants. Representative C_3 - C_4 intermediates are presented at their respective positions along the proposed evolutionary sequence. Not all of the proposed evolutionary traits have been described for the species listed under that trait. For example, the presence of differential compartmentation of glycine decarboxylase has only been reported for two species, *Flaveria ramosissima* and *Moricandia arvensis*.



The Ratio of Photorespiration to Photosynthesis as a Function of Temperature and CO₂

from: Ehleringer et. al., 1991

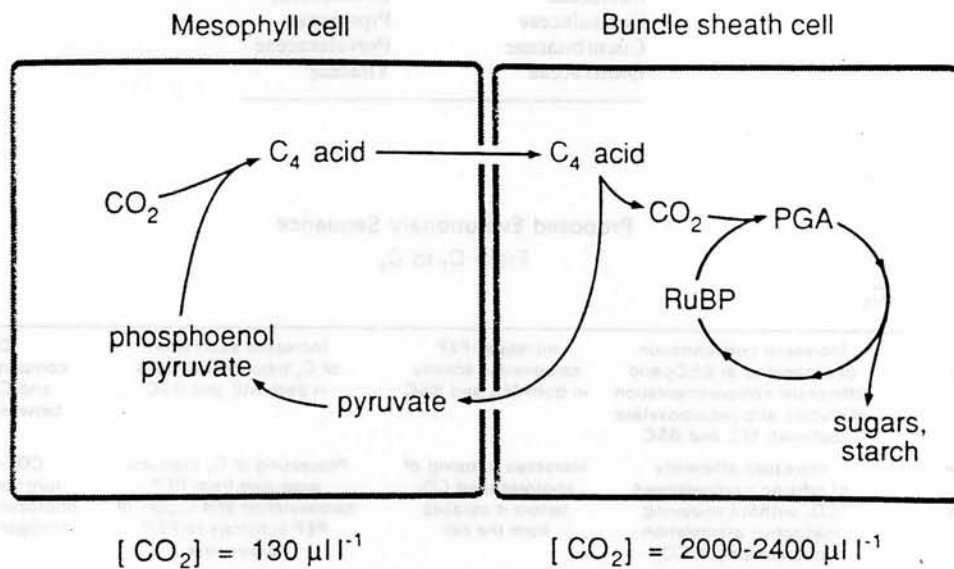
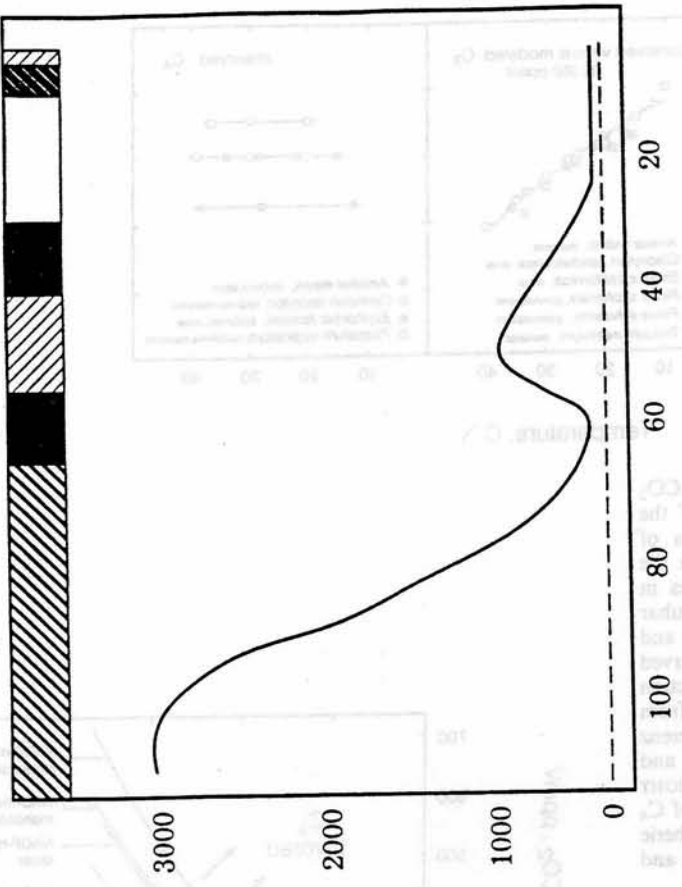
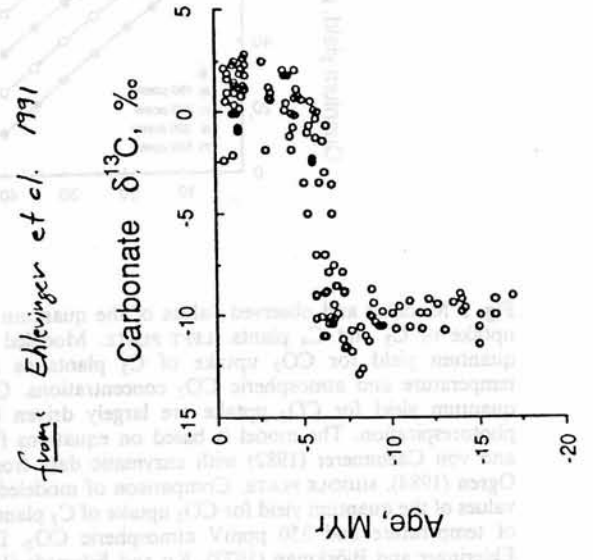


Fig. 2. Diagrammatic representation of C₄ photosynthesis. Atmospheric carbon is initially fixed inside leaf mesophyll cells in a reaction catalysed by phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) carboxylase. The resulting C₄ acid is decarboxylated inside the bundle sheath cell, providing a source of CO₂ for ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco) and the normal C₃ photosynthetic cycle. C₃ photosynthesis acts as a CO₂-concentrating mechanism. The CO₂ concentration inside the bundle sheath, where Rubisco functions, is 10- to 20-fold higher than the CO₂ concentration in the leaf mesophyll cells. PGA, phosphoglycerate; RuBP, ribulose bisphosphate.

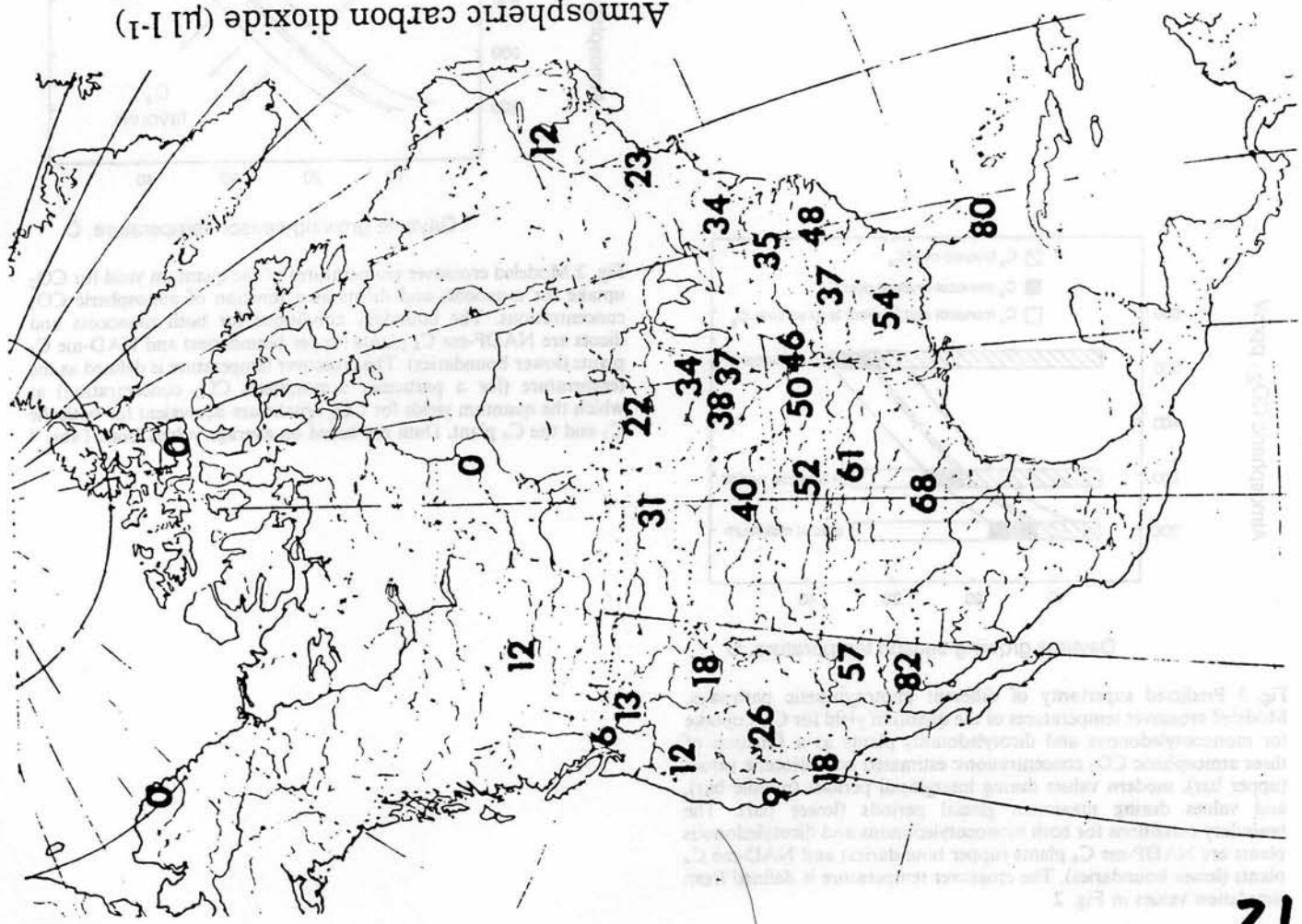
Cretaceous
Paleocene
Eocene
Oligocene
Miocene
Pliocene
Pleistocene



from: Ehleringer et al. 1991



Atmospheric carbon dioxide (ppm)



from: Terri & Stowe (1976)

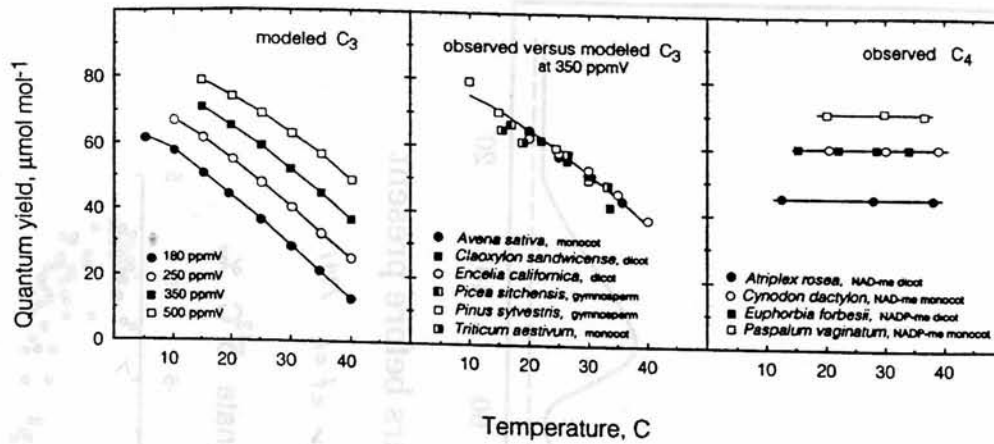


Fig. 1 Modeled and observed values of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake of C₃ and C₄ plants. LEFT PLATE. Modeled values of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake of C₃ plants as a function of temperature and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. Changes in the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake are largely driven by changes in photorespiration. The model is based on equations from Farquhar and von Caemmerer (1982) with enzymatic data from Jordan and Ogren (1984). MIDDLE PLATE. Comparison of modeled and observed values of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake of C₃ plants as a function of temperature and 350 ppmV atmospheric CO₂. Data are from Ehleringer and Björkman (1977), Ku and Edwards (1978), Leverenz and Jarvis (1979), Robichaux and Pearcy (1980), Ehleringer and Pearcy (1983), Öquist and Strand (1986), and Wang (1996). RIGHT PLATE. Observed values of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake of C₄ plants as a function of temperature and 320–340 ppmV atmospheric CO₂. Data are from Ehleringer and Björkman (1977), Robichaux and Pearcy (1980), and Ehleringer and Pearcy (1983)

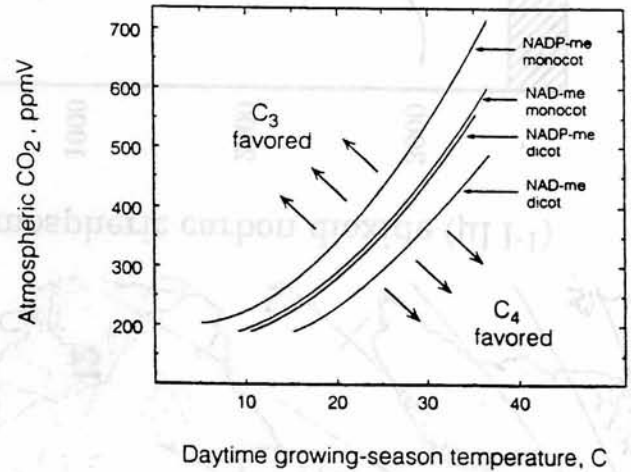


Fig. 2 Modeled crossover temperatures of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake for monocots and dicots as a function of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. The boundary conditions for both monocots and dicots are NADP-me C₄ plants (upper boundaries) and NAD-me C₄ plants (lower boundaries). The crossover temperature is defined as the temperature (for a particular atmospheric CO₂ concentration) at which the quantum yields for CO₂ uptake are equivalent for both the C₃ and the C₄ plant. Data are based on average values from Table 4

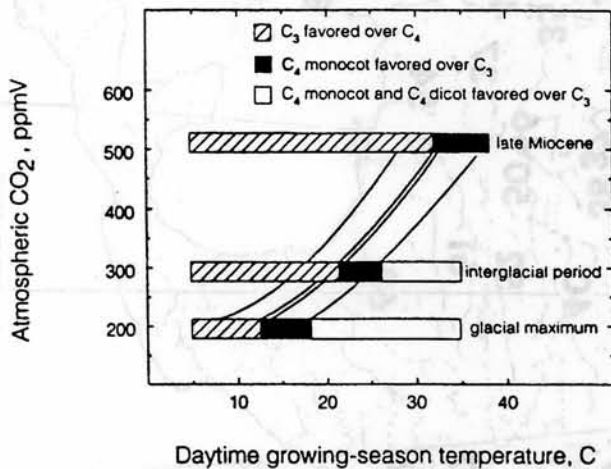


Fig. 3 Predicted superiority of different photosynthetic pathways. Modeled crossover temperatures of the quantum yield for CO₂ uptake for monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants as a function of three atmospheric CO₂ concentrations: estimated late Miocene values (upper bar), modern values during interglacial periods (middle bar), and values during maximum glacial periods (lower bar). The boundary conditions for both monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants are NADP-me C₄ plants (upper boundaries) and NAD-me C₄ plants (lower boundaries). The crossover temperature is defined from simulation values in Fig. 2