1 Acclimation and adaptation components of the temperature dependence of plant

2 photosynthesis at the global scale

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68 Summary

The temperature response of photosynthesis is one of the key factors determining
predicted responses to warming in global vegetation models (GVMs). The response may
vary geographically, due to genetic adaptation to climate, and temporally, due to
acclimation to changes in ambient temperature. Our goal was to develop a robust
quantitative global model representing acclimation and adaptation of photosynthetic
temperature responses.

75

We quantified and modelled key mechanisms responsible for photosynthetic temperature acclimation and adaptation using a global dataset of photosynthetic CO₂ response curves including data from 141 C₃ species from tropical rainforest to Arctic tundra. We separated temperature acclimation and adaptation processes by considering seasonal and commongarden datasets, respectively.

81

The observed global variation in the temperature optimum of photosynthesis was primarily explained by biochemical limitations to photosynthesis, rather than stomatal conductance or respiration. We found acclimation to growth temperature to be a stronger driver of this variation, than adaptation to temperature at climate of origin.

86

We developed a summary model to represent photosynthetic temperature responses and showed that it predicted the observed global variation in optimal temperatures with high accuracy. This novel algorithm should enable improved prediction of the function of global ecosystems in a warming climate.

91

92 Key words: Global vegetation models, climate of origin, growth temperature, V_{cmax}, J_{max},

93 maximum carboxylation capacity, maximum electron transport rate, AC_i curves

94 Introduction

The capacity of species to cope with increasing growth temperature is one of the key 95 determinants in range shifts and local extinction of species because their distribution and 96 range limits closely follow temperature isolines (Battisti et al., 2005). Evidence suggests that 97 many species are adapted to their thermal environment of origin (Berry & Björkman, 1980) 98 but also exhibit the capacity to adjust to temporal variations in the temperature of their 99 environment (Rehfeldt et al., 2001; Valladares et al., 2014). However, the mechanisms that 100 determine these responses are not well understood, making it challenging to predict the fate 101 of plants in a changing climate. 102

Global vegetation models (GVMs) are one of the principal tools used to predict future 103 terrestrial vegetation carbon balance (Rogers et al., 2017a; Mercado et al., 2018). The 104 temperature response of leaf-scale net photosynthesis (referred to as A_n-T response hereafter) 105 is one of the key processes in these models. The effect of warming on modelled 106 107 photosynthesis depends on the A_n-T response function used in the model, and in particular, the optimum temperature of photosynthesis (Topt_A) (Booth et al., 2012). Decades of 108 empirical studies have shown that the A_n-T responses of plants vary geographically, 109 suggesting genetic adaptation of species to their climate of origin (Fryer & Ledig, 1972; 110 Slatyer, 1977; Slatyer, 1978; Berry & Björkman, 1980; Gunderson et al., 2009). Considerable 111 evidence also shows that plants have the capacity to adjust the A_n-T response following 112 113 temporal changes in ambient temperature, a response known as thermal acclimation (Way & Sage, 2008; Hall et al., 2013; Way & Yamori, 2014; Yamaguchi et al., 2016; Way et al., 114 2017). In a recent review, Yamori et al. (2014) reported inherent differences in the An-T 115 response and its acclimation capacity among photosynthetic pathways (C₃, C₄ and CAM) and 116 functional types (annual vs perennial, deciduous vs evergreen) that often differ in their 117 climatic distributions. However, the current representations of An-T response in GVMs do not 118 capture this empirical knowledge well (Smith & Dukes, 2013; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; 119 Smith et al., 2016; Mercado et al., 2018). Most GVMs use either a single A_n-T response 120 function for all species or represent broad geographical variation in the An-T response by 121 using plant functional type(s) (PFTs)-specific functions without considering thermal 122 acclimation. Robust representation of adaptation and acclimation of A_n-T response in GVMs 123 is challenging as we lack a quantitative assessment of acclimation and adaptation of 124 photosynthetic temperature responses on a global scale (Stinziano et al., 2017). 125

126 Many GVMs incorporate the biochemical model of C₃ photosynthesis (Farquhar et al., 1980; Rogers et al., 2017a; referred to as FvCB hereafter). Therefore it is both tractable 127 and valuable to encapsulate the mechanisms of photosynthetic temperature adaptation and 128 acclimation in terms of parameters of the Farquhar model (Hikosaka et al., 1999; Dreyer et 129 al., 2001; Medlyn et al., 2002b; Dillaway & Kruger, 2010). The model has two key 130 parameters, for which the temperature response is particularly important; the maximum rate 131 of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase (Rubisco) activity (V_{cmax}) and the 132 maximum potential electron transport rate (J_{max}) (Farquhar *et al.*, 1980). GVMs use two basic 133 134 functional forms to characterize the instantaneous temperature response of the key FvCB model parameters, namely the standard and peaked Arrhenius functions (Medlyn et al., 135 2002a). Most empirical studies of the instantaneous temperature response of V_{cmax} and J_{max} 136 have used the peaked Arrhenius model, which has four key parameters; the basal rate of 137 either V_{cmax} or J_{max} at a standard temperature of 25°C (V_{cmax25} or J_{max25}), the activation energy 138 (E_a) , the de-activation energy (H_d) , and the entropy term (ΔS) . The peaked Arrhenius model 139 can also be used to calculate the optimum temperatures of V_{cmax} (*Topt*_V) and J_{max} (*Topt*_J). 140 These parameters have now been documented for a wide range of species from different 141 biomes and PFTs (Onoda et al., 2005; Rogers et al., 2017b; Slot & Winter, 2017). Evidence 142 143 suggests that the Arrhenius model parameters vary significantly across plant taxa but also that these parameters have the capacity to acclimate to the growth temperature (Crous *et al.*, 2013; 144 145 Crous et al., 2018).

Several meta-analytic studies have attempted to characterise species variation in the 146 model parameters. Medlyn *et al.* (2002a) compared the temperature response of key FvCB 147 model parameters across different species but reported a poor relationship overall between 148 the optimum temperature for photosynthesis and the temperature of the growing environment. 149 150 They reported lower *Topty* and *Toptj* for plants grown in boreal compared to temperate climates, but it was unclear whether this difference was due to inherent genetic differences 151 among the boreal and temperate species, or acclimation to prevailing growth temperature. In 152 an analysis of 23 species, (Hikosaka et al., 2006) identified two important mechanisms of 153 photosynthetic temperature acclimation, namely E_a of V_{cmax} (Ea_V) and J_{max} (Ea_J) and the ratio 154 of J_{max} : V_{cmax} (JV_r). The most comprehensive synthesis to date of the biochemically-based 155 plant photosynthetic temperature response is that of Kattge and Knorr (2007), who compared 156 the instantaneous temperature response of V_{cmax} and J_{max} across 36 species. This study found 157 a lack of thermal acclimation of Ea_V and Ea_J but reported significant acclimation 158

relationships for JV_r and ΔS of V_{cmax} (ΔS_V) and J_{max} (ΔS_J). Importantly, Kattge and Knorr (2007) synthesised these relationships into a simple and generalizable form that enabled direct implementation into GVMs, thus providing a means to quantify the effect of thermal acclimation of photosynthesis on terrestrial carbon cycle predictions (Chen & Zhuang, 2013; Lombardozzi *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 2016) as well as on biophysical consequences in future climates (Smith *et al.*, 2017).

Despite the success of the Kattge and Knorr (2007) algorithms, the functions have 165 several limitations. Firstly, the parameterization process did not consider potential inter-166 specific differences in photosynthetic temperature response; all changes were attributed to 167 differences in growth temperature. Hence, the response incorporates elements of both 168 temperature adaptation and acclimation without resolving the extent of the contribution of the 169 170 two processes. Given that acclimation can occur over days and adaptation takes many generations, the importance of resolving the relative contribution of the two processes is 171 critical. Recently, Mercado et al., (2018) showed that assuming the relationships represent 172 both adaptation and acclimation, or adaptation only, leads to significantly different 173 conclusions about the trajectory of future terrestrial carbon storage under warming. Their 174 results further highlight the importance of separating photosynthetic thermal adaptation and 175 176 acclimation when simulating current and future carbon storage. However, to date, few studies have separated species differences in temperature adaptation from temperature acclimation 177 processes (Lin et al., 2013). 178

Secondly, the data used to derive the Kattge and Knorr (2007) functions came mainly from northern temperate and boreal trees and lacked globally important PFTs such as tropical forests and Arctic tundra. As a result, the growth temperature range only varied from 11 to 29°C (Kattge and Knorr 2007), which is substantially narrower than growth temperatures simulated in GVMs. Therefore, the analysis of Kattge and Knorr (2007) could be improved with a broader global dataset directly addressing the relative roles of temperature acclimation and adaptation.

Thirdly, the ability of the acclimation functions to capture the observed differences in temperature optima of light saturated net photosynthesis ($Topt_A$) has not been directly tested. It is not clear whether making adjustments to $Topt_V$ and $Topt_J$ improves the ability of models to capture changes in $Topt_A$; some studies have reported similar $Topt_A$ values even with significantly different $Topt_J$ among species (Vårhammar *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, the photosynthetic temperature response is controlled not only by the photosynthetic

- biochemistry, but also by stomatal and respiratory processes. Sensitivity analysis suggests
- that all three component processes are equally important in determining the *Topt*_A at leaf
- scale (Lin *et al.*, 2012) as well as at canopy scale (Tan *et al.*, 2017) but none of the previous
- review studies addressed how the latter two components affected *Topt*_A.
- Given the need for robust representation of photosynthetic temperature acclimation 196 and adaptation in GVMs, and its importance in predicting future global carbon budget 197 (Lombardozzi et al., 2015, Smith et al., 2016, Mercado et al., 2018) and climate (Smith et al., 198 2017), we quantified and modelled the mechanisms that underlie the observed differences in 199 Topt_A among species and growth temperatures. We hypothesized that Topt_A would be 200 strongly driven by adaptation to the climate of origin, while temperature acclimation would 201 further modify the temperature optimum in response to seasonal changes in temperature of 202 the growth environment. To test these hypotheses, we compiled a global database of 203 photosynthetic CO₂ response curves measured at multiple leaf temperatures to simultaneously 204 resolve the temperature optima of A_{net} , V_{cmax} and J_{max} . The data comprised a total of 141 205 species from tropical rainforests to Arctic tundra. Included in this database were datasets: (i) 206 from common-garden studies, which were used to quantify effects of adaptation alone on 207 *Topt_A*; and (ii) comprising time course studies that measured plants under contrasting 208 prevailing ambient temperatures, which are used to quantify effects of temperature 209 acclimation alone. We combined the identified effects of climate adaptation and temperature 210 211 acclimation to derive a general global model of temperature responses that is then tested against (iii) a third, independent, biogeographic dataset measured on mature plants growing 212 213 in their native environments across the globe.
- 214

215 Materials and methods

216 *Data sources*

We compiled a global database of datasets consisting of leaf photosynthetic CO₂
response measurements (referred to as ACi curves hereafter) measured at multiple leaf
temperatures and saturating irradiance levels. The database covers 141 species from 38
experiments conducted around the world (Fig. S1, Table S1). Site latitude ranged from 42°48'
S to 71°16' N and mean annual growing season temperature (long-term average temperature
of months where mean monthly temperature is above 0°C) ranged from 3 to 30°C.

223 The method of data collection was consistent across all datasets. In most datasets, 224 measurements were started at ambient CO₂ levels (360-400 ppm; depending on the year of data collection) and changed stepwise through a series of subambient (40-400 ppm) to 225 226 superambient saturating CO₂ concentrations (400-2000 ppm). The same measurement protocol was repeated on the same leaf at different leaf temperatures. Measurements were 227 made at saturating irradiance (Table S1) using a portable photosynthesis system with standard 228 leaf chambers, in most cases the Licor 6400 (Licor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) although 229 some measurements were made with the Walz-CMS system (Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). We 230 visually inspected every ACi curve in the dataset for possible outliers and erroneous data 231 points (i.e. negative intercellular CO₂ concentrations). We used criteria based on De Kauwe 232 et al. (2016) to screen individual ACi curves for the analysis performed in this paper. Curves 233 were excluded from the analysis if the fitted function (see below) had a $r^2 < 0.99$ (however, if 234 the number of replicates available for a given occasion was limited, the threshold r^2 was 235 236 reduced to 0.90; ~9% of the total ACi curves included in the analysis). After screening, the dataset contained a total of 3498 ACi curves measured at leaf temperatures ranging from 1 to 237 50°C. 238

239

240 *Estimating temperature optimum for leaf net photosynthesis (Topt_A)*

Ambient leaf net photosynthesis (A_{net}) at each temperature was obtained from either the initial direct measurements at ambient CO₂ concentrations or extracted from the ACi curves. For curves where the first point was not measured at ambient CO₂ level, we extracted the A_{net} value at the measured sample CO₂ concentration falling between 300 and 400 ppm. We estimated the temperature optimum for A_{net} , $Topt_A$, by fitting a widely used model of instantaneous photosynthetic temperature response (Gunderson *et al.*, 2009; Crous *et al.*, 247 2013; Sendall *et al.*, 2015; Vårhammar *et al.*, 2015) (Eqn 1) to the net photosynthesis
248 measurements. The model is a quadratic equation, expressed as:

249
$$A_{net} = A_{opt} - b(T - Topt_A)^2$$
 Eqn 1

where A_{net} is the net photosynthetic rate (µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) at a given leaf temperature, $T(^{\circ}C)$,

251 *Topt*_A is the temperature optimum for photosynthesis (°C) A_{opt} is the net photosynthetic rate at

252 $Topt_A$, and the parameter b (unitless) describes the degree of curvature of the relationship.

253

254 Parameterising biochemical component processes of photosynthesis

We used the FvCB model to characterize photosynthetic biochemical component processes. The model represents leaf net photosynthesis rate as the minimum of three rates; the Rubisco carboxylation limited photosynthetic rate (W_c), the RuBP-regeneration limited photosynthetic rate (W_j), and the triose phosphate utilization limited rate (W_p). The widely used formulation and parameterization of the FvCB model is of the form (Eqn 2-6).

260
$$A_{net} = \min(W_c, W_j, W_p) \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma^*}{c_i}\right) - R_L$$
 Eqn 2
261
$$W_c = V_{cmax} \frac{C_i}{C_i + K_c \left(1 + \frac{O_i}{K_o}\right)}$$
 Eqn 3
262
$$W_j = \frac{J}{4} \frac{C_i}{(C_i + 2\Gamma^*)}$$
 Eqn 4

$$263 W_p = 3 TPU Eqn 5$$

264

where V_{cmax} is the maximum rate of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase 265 (Rubisco) activity, C_i and O_i (umol mol⁻¹) are intercellular CO₂ and O₂ concentrations 266 respectively, K_c and K_o (µmol mol⁻¹) are Michaelis–Menten coefficients of Rubisco activity 267 for CO₂ and O₂ respectively, Γ^* (µmol mol⁻¹) is the CO₂ compensation point in the absence of 268 photorespiration. TPU (umol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) is the rate of triose phosphate export from the 269 chloroplast, R_L (umol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the non-photorespiratory CO₂ evolution in the light, and J 270 (μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the rate of electron transport at a given light level. J is related to incident 271 photosynthetically active photon flux density (Q, µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) by 272 273

$$274 \quad \theta J^2 - (\alpha Q + J_{max})J + \alpha Q J_{max} = 0$$
 Eqn 6

- where J_{max} (µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the potential rate of electron transport, α (µmol mol⁻¹) is the quantum yield of electron transport, and θ (dimensionless) is the curvature of the light response curve (Farquhar *et al.*, 1980; Medlyn *et al.*, 2002a; Medlyn *et al.*, 2002b; Kattge &
- 279 Knorr, 2007; Sharkey *et al.*, 2007).

We parameterized Eqns 3-6 using the *fitacis* function within the *plantecophys* 280 package (Duursma, 2015) in R version 3.3.2 (R Development Core Team, 2012). We 281 assumed the Bernacchi et al. (2001) kinetic constants for the temperature response of K_c, K_o 282 and Γ^* as given in Medlyn *et al.* (2002a). We used measurement Q in Eqn 6 whenever 283 available (see Table S1); otherwise we assumed a fixed value of 1800 μ mol m⁻²s⁻¹. We 284 assumed constant values of α (0.24 µmol mol⁻¹) and θ (0.85; unitless) for all datasets (Medlyn 285 et al., 2007); these parameter values have a relatively minor effect on the magnitude of 286 287 estimated J_{max} (Medlyn *et al.*, 2002a). The estimated parameters, V_{cmax} and J_{max} , are apparent values as we assumed infinite mesophyll conductance (g_m) . The significance of g_m for V_{cmax} 288 and J_{max} estimates and their temperature response has been discussed elsewhere (Crous *et al.*, 289 2013; Bahar *et al.*, 2018), Here, there are insufficient data to quantify g_m and hence it would 290 291 have been inappropriate to include in our analysis (see Rogers et al., 2017a).

We tested two ACi curve fitting routines; one with and one without TPU limitation (Eqn 5). Accounting for TPU limitation in the FvCB model did not affect the estimated photosynthetic capacities, apparent V_{cmax} and J_{max} (Fig. S2) suggesting that at ambient CO₂ levels, net photosynthesis was rarely limited by TPU (results not shown). Hence, we focused on the temperature responses of apparent V_{cmax} and J_{max} as the principal biochemical components affecting the $Topt_A$.

The temperature responses of V_{cmax} and J_{max} were fitted using the peaked Arrhenius function:

300
$$k_{T_k} = k_{25} exp \left[\frac{E_a(T_k - 298.15)}{(298.15 R T_k)} \right] \frac{1 + exp \left(\frac{298.15 \Delta S - H_d}{298.15 R} \right)}{1 + exp \left(\frac{T_k \Delta S + H_d}{T_k R} \right)}$$
 Eqn 7

where k_{Tk} is the process rate (i.e. V_{cmax} or J_{max} ; μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) at a given temperature, T_k (K), k_{25} is the process rate at 25 °C, R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), and E_a (kJ mol⁻¹) is the activation energy term that describes the exponential increase in enzyme activity with the increase in temperature, H_d (kJ mol⁻¹) is the deactivation energy term that describes the decline in enzyme activity at higher temperature due to denaturation of enzymes, and ΔS (J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹) is the entropy term which characterize the changes in reaction rate caused by substrate concentration (Liang *et al.*, 2018). To avoid over-parameterization, we assumed a fixed value of 200000 J mol⁻¹ for H_d in Eqn 7 for all species (Dreyer *et al.*, 2001; Medlyn *et al.*, 2002a).

310 The optimum temperature for k_{Tk} is given by:

311
$$T_{opt} = \frac{H_d}{\Delta S - R \ln\left(\frac{E_a}{H_d - E_a}\right)}$$
 Eqn 8

312

313 Assessing the contribution of stomatal and respiratory processes

The optimum temperature for photosynthesis is determined by stomatal and respiratory 314 processes as well as biochemical processes (Medlyn et al., 2002a; Lin et al., 2012). Stomatal 315 conductance values are potentially affected by the measurement protocol used in ACi curve 316 measurements which rarely replicates the ambient conditions. Therefore, to assess the relative 317 contribution of stomatal processes to *Topt*_A, we calculated the net photosynthesis rate at a 318 fixed C_i of 275 umol mol⁻¹ from each ACi curve, interpolating the curve using the FvCB 319 model with parameters fitted to that curve. A fixed C_i of 275 µmol mol⁻¹ was chosen as it 320 roughly corresponds to 70% of ambient $[CO_2]$. When the photosynthetic rate is scaled to a 321 common C_i, it eliminates the effect of variation in stomatal conductance on photosynthesis, 322 isolating the temperature effects on photosynthetic biochemistry. Similar to net 323 photosynthesis, the temperature optimum for photosynthesis at a fixed C_i (*Topt*_{A275}) was 324 estimated for each species by fitting Eqn 1. We compared $Topt_{A275}$ with $Topt_A$ to estimate the 325 effect of variation in stomatal conductance on the temperature optimum for photosynthesis. 326 We fitted standard Arrhenius function (Eqn 9) to R_L values obtained from ACi curves 327 to assess the effect of respiratory component processes on *Topt*_A. We estimated two 328 329 parameters R_{L25} (R_L at 25°C) and activation energy of $R_L(E_a)$. Similar to J_{max} and V_{cmax} , linear

regression was used to test for temperature adaptation and acclimation of R_L .

331
$$R_L = R_{L_{25}} \exp\left(\frac{E_a(T_k - 298.15)}{298.15 R T_k}\right)$$
 Eqn 9

332 where,
$$R_{L25}$$
 is the rate of respiration in light at 25°C

333

334 *Test for local adaptation and seasonal temperature acclimation of Topt*_A

We divided the database into three subsets: (i) mature plants growing in their native environments; (ii) common-garden datasets; and (iii) datasets with seasonal photosynthetic measurements. We used a subset of the data collected in mature plants (i) to identify the patterns in photosynthetic temperature responses of plants in native environments and for

model evaluation. Temperature responses in this subset include the effects of both adaptation

to the native environment, and acclimation to the prevailing temperature. We used the

341 common garden (ii) and seasonal measurements (iii) subsets to estimate the relative

342 contributions of adaptation and acclimation, respectively, in determining the observed trends

343 with temperature for plants in native environments

For plants growing in native environments, we derived relationships between photosynthetic 344 parameters and the prevailing temperature of the growing environment defined as the mean 345 346 air temperature for the 30 days prior to gas exchange measurements (Kattge & Knorr, 2007) (T_{growth}) , to identify the temporal trends in photosynthetic temperature responses. We derived 347 348 T_{growth} using on-site measured real time daily air temperature for most of the datasets, but for three datasets (Hinoki cypress, Japan; Mongolian oak, Japan; and Scots pine, Finland; Table 349 S1), we extracted T_{growth} values from the original publications as on-site temperature 350 measurements were not available. We used a general linear model to parameterise the 351 352 observed responses in mature plants dataset (Eqn 10)

353

354 $f(T_{growth}) = a + bT_{growth}$

Eqn 10

355 where *a* and *b* are the intercept and slope respectively.

Seasonal datasets provide the opportunity to test the acclimation capacity of different species to temporal changes in the ambient temperature of the growing environment. Here, we correlated photosynthetic parameters with growth temperature, T_{growth} , defined as the mean air temperature for the 30 days prior to gas exchange measurements. Similar to the mature plants dataset, we derived T_{growth} using on-site measured daily air temperature for most of the datasets. For datasets where real-time meteorological data were not available, we extracted T_{growth} values from the original publications.

Common gardens provide an opportunity to test for adaptation, as species with different climates of origin are grown at a common growth temperature. The common garden datasets included field trials and experiments in controlled environmental conditions which included two or more species or provenances with contrasting climates of origin. We located the seed source of each species or provenance (latitude and longitude) using published 368 information (Table S1). We used 30" resolution WorldClim climatology data (WorldClim 1.4;(Hijmans et al., 2005)) to estimate long-term average (1960-1990) air temperature at seed 369 source. With reference to the species selection criteria used in several common garden 370 studies (Lin et al., 2013; Vårhammar et al., 2015), we defined mean maximum air 371 temperature of the warmest month at species' seed source as the species' home temperature 372 (T_{home}) and derived relationships between photosynthetic parameters and T_{home} to test for 373 adaptation of species' An-T response to climate of origin. We repeated the same analysis with 374 two other forms of species' home temperature, 1. mean growing season air temperature and 375 376 2. mean temperature of the warmest quarter, to test whether our results were altered depending on the definition of climate of origin. 377

For both common garden and seasonal subsets, we used linear regression against T_{home} and T_{growth} (Eqns 11, 12) to test for temperature adaptation and acclimation, respectively, of *Topt*_A, *Topt*_{A275}, the photosynthetic biochemical parameters (V_{cmax} , and J_{max}), and their temperature response parameters (see Eqns 7 and 8). To test the effect of different biochemical parameters on temperature optimum for photosynthesis, we used linear regression between *Topt*_{A275} and temperature response parameters of V_{cmax} and J_{max} .

385 *Representing acclimation and adaptation in vegetation models*

We derived functions to represent photosynthetic temperature acclimation and adaptation in GVMs. If a given parameter showed only acclimation to growth temperature, the function used was: $f(T_{growth}) = A_{ac} + \alpha_{ac}T_{growth}$ Eqn 11

where, A_{ac} is the parameter value when $T_{growth}=0$ and α_{ac} is the acclimation coefficient (°C⁻¹) 391

392 If a parameter showed only adaptation to climate of origin, the function was:

393
$$f(T_{home}) = A_{ad} + \alpha_{ad}T_{home}$$
 Eqn 12

394

We combined Eqns 11 and 12 to represent both acclimation and adaptation, defined as

397
$$f(T_{home}, T_{growth}) = A_{ad} + \alpha_{ad}T_{home} + \delta_{ac}(T_{growth} - T_{home})$$
 Eqn 13
398

here, δ_{ac} is the acclimation coefficient corresponding to a unit deviation in T_{growth} from the 399 species' T_{home} (°C⁻¹). We parameterised Eqn 11 and 12 independently using data from 400 seasonal photosynthetic response studies (Eqn 11) and common garden experiments (Eqn 401 12). Eqn 13 was parameterised using combined seasonal and common garden datasets. We 402 implemented the modified functions into the FvCB model (see Duursma, 2015) to simulate 403 photosynthetic temperature response curves at a constant Ci of 275 µmol mol⁻¹ and tested 404 how well the leaf scale photosynthesis model captured the observed temperature optimum of 405 photosynthesis in the mature plants dataset. This provided an independent comparison as the 406 407 mature plants dataset was not used to parameterise the temperature acclimation and adaptation functions (Eqn 11-13). 408

409

410 Statistical analysis

Parameters of Eqn 1, 7-9 were estimated in a non-linear mixed model framework (Zuur et al., 411 2009) using the *nlme* function within the *nlme* package in R version 3.3.2 (R Development 412 Core Team, 2012). Replicate trees and/or leaves of the same species were included as 413 random effects in model. However, when datasets contained measurements of multiple 414 species (e.g. Brazilian rainforests, Australian rainforests and Australian semi-arid woodland 415 datasets, Table S1), individual species were considered as a random variable in the model. 416 Similarly, Eqns 11-13 were parameterized in a linear mixed model framework using the 417 inverse of the standard error (SE) of each parameter of Eqn 1, 7-9 as the weighting scale to 418 account for parameter uncertainty (Zuur et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2015). We tested whether the 419 model parameters (Eqn 11-13) significantly differed among datasets (and/or species) by 420 fitting linear mixed models with and without random slopes and intercepts for each dataset 421 (and or species). These models were then compared using a likelihood ratio test (Zuur et al., 422 2009) to determine whether the acclimation and adaptation coefficients differed among 423 species. We used standard model validation tools (normal quantile plots and residual plots) to 424 test the underlying assumptions in linear mixed models and used marginal and conditional r^2 425 values to evaluate the goodness of fit (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013). The complete database 426 used for this analysis will be available as a public data product through (*link provided after* 427 acceptance). The code used for the entire analysis is publicly available through 428 429 https://bitbucket.org/Kumarathunge/photom

431 **Results**

432 *Temperature optimum for net photosynthesis at saturating irradiance (Topt_A)*

The temperature optimum for leaf level net photosynthesis at saturating irradiance (*Topt_A*) of mature plants in their natural habitats was strongly correlated with the temperature of the growth environment (T_{growth} ; mean air temperature of preceding 30 days) (Fig. 1a, Table 1). Values of *Topt_A* ranged from 16.3 to 32.4 °C, where the minimum and maximum values were observed for Arctic vegetation and tropical evergreen trees, respectively. The rate of increase in *Topt_A* was 0.62± 0.07 °C per °C increase in T_{growth} . In the seasonal dataset (Fig. 1b), we found strong evidence for acclimation of *Topt_A* to

440 the prevailing growth temperature. Topt_A showed a significant increasing trend with T_{growth} . The mean rate of increase in $Topt_A$ was 0.34 ± 0.05 °C per unit increase in T_{growth} (Table 1). 441 In contrast, no trend was observed with climate of origin in common garden studies (Table 442 1). Here, we tested for a relationship between $Topt_A$ and the T_{home} (1960-1990 mean 443 maximum air temperature of the warmest month at species' seed source) and we did not find 444 any significant relationship for $Topt_A$ with T_{home} . (Fig. 1c, Table 1). The results were similar 445 for the two alternative definitions of the climate of origin (Table S2). The lack of a significant 446 relationship with the species' home temperature in the common garden datasets suggests that 447 the variation in $Topt_A$ of mature plants across ecosystems (Fig. 1a) is more strongly driven by 448 acclimation to growth temperatures (Fig. 1b) than by local adaptation to climate of origin 449 (Fig. 1c). 450

451

452 *Temperature optimum for photosynthesis at a common* C_i (*Topt*_{A275})

Similar to *Topt*_A, *Topt*_{A275} showed a strong correlation with T_{growth} in mature plants 453 across ecosystems (Fig. 1d, Table 1). We found no significant differences in either intercept 454 or slope of the linear regression between $Topt_A$ and $Topt_{A275}$ vs T_{growth} (Table 1), in both the 455 mature (Fig 1a, d) and seasonal (Fig 1b, e) datasets, strongly suggesting that the observed 456 variation in *Topt*_A among ecosystems is not due to variation in the stomatal limitation of 457 Topt_A. This result also suggests that the observed seasonal pattern of Topt_A (Fig. 1b) was not 458 driven by stomatal processes but rather by the effects of photosynthetic biochemical 459 processes. Similar to *Topt_A*, species in common garden studies did not show significant trends 460 for *Topt*_{A275} with *T*_{home} (Fig. 1f). 461

463 Temperature dependence of biochemical capacities, J_{max} & V_{cmax}

Similar to $Topt_A$, we found a strong increase in both $Topt_V$ and $Topt_J$ with T_{growth} in the mature plants dataset (Fig. 2a,d). The slopes of the linear regression with T_{growth} were similar for $Topt_V$ and $Topt_J$ (0.71±0.20 and 0.63±0.15°C°C⁻¹ respectively). These sensitivities are similar in magnitude to the sensitivity of $Topt_A$ and $Topt_{A275}$ to T_{growth} in the mature plants dataset. For V_{cmax} , the trend in T_{opt} was caused by an increase (p≈0.06) in Ea_V with increasing T_{growth} , and a strong decline in ΔS_V (Fig. 2b,c). For J_{max} , however, there was no change in Ea_J , only a decline in ΔS_J with increasing T_{growth} (Fig. 2e,f).

We deconstructed the observed trends across biomes shown in Fig. 2 by looking at 471 seasonal datasets (Fig. 3) and common garden studies (Fig. 4) independently to identify the 472 effect of seasonal acclimation and local adaptation of photosynthetic biochemical component 473 processes. We found a strong increase in $Topt_V$ and $Topt_J$ with T_{growth} (Fig. 3a,d). The rate of 474 increase in *Topt_J* per unit increase in T_{growth} was slightly higher than the *Topt_V* (Table 1) but 475 the difference was not significant. Further, these sensitivities were found to be similar to the 476 sensitivity of both $Topt_A$ and $Topt_{A275}$ to T_{growth} . Similar to the mature plants dataset, we found 477 a significant positive trend for Ea_V and a decreasing trend (p ≈ 0.08) for ΔS_V with increasing 478 479 T_{growth} . (Fig. 3b,c). For J_{max} , however, there was no change in Ea_J , only a strong decline in ΔS_J with increasing T_{growth} . (Fig. 3e, f). 480

We found no evidence to support adaptation of $Topt_V$, Ea_V and ΔS_V to climate of origin as there were no significant trends observed with temperature at species' seed source (i.e. T_{home}) in the common garden dataset (Fig. 4a, b, c). These observations were consistent with the lack of significant trends for $Topt_A$ in the common garden dataset. However, $Topt_J$ and ΔS_J showed significant trends with T_{home} (Fig. 4d, e, f; Table 1), suggesting adaptation of both parameters to climate of origin. The results were similar for the two alternative definitions of the climate of origin (Table S2).

488

489 The balance between J_{max} and V_{cmax}

We found no detectable correlation between T_{growth} and the basal rate of V_{cmax} at a standard temperature 25°C for mature plants in their natural habitats, but the basal rate of J_{max} showed a strong decrease (Fig. 5a, b). The ratio of J_{max} : V_{cmax} at 25°C (JV_r) showed a 493 significant decrease with increasing T_{growth} (Fig. 5c, Table 1). We excluded the Scots pine, Finland dataset when fitting linear regression as the JV_r value significantly departed from the 494 general trend, and was therefore identified as an outlier (black circle in Fig. 5c). 495 Basal rates of V_{cmax} and J_{max} did not show significant trends with T_{growth} , but JV_r 496 responded negatively to T_{growth} in the seasonal dataset (Fig. 5d: f). We found no evidence to 497 support adaptation of basal rates of V_{cmax} and J_{max} to climate of origin; no parameters showed 498 any significant trend with Thome in the common garden dataset (Fig. 5g, h, Table 1). However, 499 there was evidence of adaptation of JV_r to climate of origin, as JV_r showed a significant 500 501 decrease with *T_{home}* in the common garden dataset (Fig. 5i, Table 1).

502

503 Assessing the role of day respiration

We found no detectable trends (Fig. S3, Table 1) for either R_{L25} or E_a of mature plants in native environments. Similar results were found for common garden studies and no seasonal trends were observed for either R_{L25} or E_a in the seasonal dataset. However, the data showed a slight negative trend for R_{L25} : V_{cmax25} ratio with increasing T_{growth} (of mature plants in native environments) and T_{growth} (of seasonal datasets) (Fig. S4). Also we observed negative E_a values in all three datasets (Fig. S4).

510

511 Model to represent acclimation and adaptation in vegetation models

Our results provide evidence that changes in the temperature response of 512 photosynthesis among datasets are principally driven by acclimation of photosynthetic 513 biochemistry to growth temperature. Both Ea_V and JV_r showed strong acclimation to growth 514 temperature with significant (albeit weak) acclimation of ΔS_V . We found little evidence to 515 support local adaptation of photosynthetic biochemistry to climate of origin. Only JV_r and 516 ΔS_J showed statistically significant, but weak signals of local adaptation. We further tested 517 whether variation in Ea_V and JV_r can explain the seasonal acclimation of temperature 518 optimum of photosynthesis observed in the seasonal dataset using linear regression analysis 519 (JV_r and Ea_V vs $Topt_{A275}$). We found a strong negative trend for the relationship between JV_r 520 and Topt_{A275} (Fig. 6a). Topt_{A275} increased by ~6°C for a unit decrease in JV_r . Also, we found 521 significant trend between Ea_V and $Topt_{A275}$; $Topt_{A275}$ increased by ~0.2°C for a unit increase 522 in Ea_V (Fig. 6b). Therefore, the observed trends in $Topt_A$ of mature plants in native habitats 523 524 (Fig. 1a) can be explained by the effect of growth temperature on $Ea_V, \Delta S_V, JV_r$ and the

- effects of both growth temperature and climate of origin on ΔS_J and JV_r . Hence,
- 526 photosynthetic temperature acclimation and adaptation can be implemented in GVMs using
- 527 these parameters. Therefore, we modified the baseline peaked Arrhenius functions (Eqn 8) to
- represent i) temporal variability of Ea_V and ΔS_V using Eqn 12, ii) geographical and temporal
- variation of JV_r ratio at 25°C and ΔS_J using Eqn 13. The full final model is given in Table 2.
- 530 We found that the new temperature response functions were able to predict the
- temperature optima of photosynthesis observed in field-grown mature plants with a high
- degree of accuracy ($r^2=0.80$). The slope (1.09±0.15) and intercept (-2.20±4.10) of the linear
- regression between the predicted and observed $Topt_A$ were not significantly different from
- unity and zero respectively (Fig. 7a, Table S3). Our new model outperformed the Kattge &
- 535 Knorr (2007) algorithms, which tend to underpredict *Topt*_A (Fig. 7b, Table S3). Further, the
- use of PFT-specific values of V_{cmax} , together with a standard unacclimated photosynthetic
- temperature responses (Leuning, 2002), was not able to predict the observed variability in
- 538 *Topt*_A as it predicts a *Topt*_A \approx 25°C for all datasets (Fig 7a). Note that the mature plant dataset
- was not included in fitting Eqn 11-13, so that the predicted $Topt_{A275}$ in Fig. 7a was
- 540 independent of the data used to derived the model parameters.

542 Discussion

We developed new mathematical functions to represent the photosynthetic temperature 543 response in vegetation models to account for both acclimation to growth temperature and 544 adaptation to climate of origin using a global database that contains more than 140 species. 545 We found acclimation to growth temperature to be the principal driver of the photosynthetic 546 temperature response, and observed only a few modest effects of adaptation to temperature at 547 the climate of origin. The observed variation of temperature optimum for leaf net 548 photosynthesis was primarily explained by the photosynthetic biochemical component 549 processes rather than stomatal or respiratory processes. The new temperature response 550 functions presented here capture the observed *Topt*_A across biomes with higher degree of 551 accuracy than previously proposed algorithms. 552

553

554 *Adaptation of Topt*_A to climate of origin

Despite a significant range in long term mean temperature at species' seed sources, we 555 found no predictable relationship for *Topt*_A with climate of origin when species were grown 556 in common gardens. Therefore, our results do not support the hypothesis *Topt*_A is adapted to 557 558 species' climate of origin (hypothesis 1). Our results contrast with previous studies which found that *Topt*_A is related to species climate of origin (Fryer & Ledig, 1972; Slatyer, 1977; 559 560 Slatyer, 1978; Robakowski et al., 2012), but there are a number of studies which compare the temperature response of photosynthesis and report a lack of local adaptation of Topt_A (Ledig 561 562 & Korbobo, 1983; Gunderson et al., 2000). We propose two hypotheses to explain the lack of local adaptation of *Topt_A*; i) there is a lack of specialization in photosynthetic biochemistry in 563 564 relation to climate of origin and ii) the capacity of species to adjust their *Topt*_A to temporal variations in local thermal environment could mask ecotypic thermal adaptation of Topt_A 565 566 (Robakowski et al., 2012).

567 With respect to hypothesis (i), Rubisco activity is one of the key photosynthetic 568 biochemical determinants and one of the most temperature responsive physiological process 569 (Galmés *et al.*, 2015). Several lines of evidence suggest that Rubisco catalytic properties, 570 including the relative specificity for CO_2/O_2 ($S_{c/o}$), the Michaelis–Menten constants for CO_2 571 (K_c) and O_2 (K_o), and the maximum turnover of carboxylation (k_c), differ among species that 572 have evolved under different thermal environments (Andersson & Backlund, 2008; Galmes *et al.*, 2014). However, it is not clear whether these differential responses are due to genetic

574 adaptation of Rubisco kinetics to climate of origin or to the temporal effects of growth temperature. Galmés et al. (2015) argued that closely related species could be less adapted to 575 their current thermal environment due to past strategies that limit adaptation of Rubisco to 576 new thermal regimes (Lambers et al., 2008). This hypothesis was further supported by Savir 577 et al. (2010) who suggested point mutations may not cause a significant improvement in 578 Rubisco activity due to its close optimality in the net photosynthetic rate (Tcherkez et al., 579 2006). As a result, the adaptive evolution of Rubisco to novel thermal environments may be 580 rare, as adaptation to a local environment will be working against the selective pressure to 581 582 cope with seasonal and annual temperature variations and would reduce species fitness, and expansion into new niches with different thermal environments. Other than the parameters 583 ΔS_J and JV_r , our results do not show evidence for thermal adaptation of photosynthetic 584 biochemical parameters. Thus we suggest that the lack of local adaptation of *Topt*_A, may be 585 partially explained by the lack of specialization in photosynthetic biochemistry, particularly 586 Rubisco kinetic properties to species climate of origin. 587

Regarding ii), we suggest that the capacity of Rubisco kinetic properties to adjust to 588 589 temporal variations in growth temperature could potentially mask the species' pre-adaptive responses to their original thermal environments. Here, we show strong evidence for the 590 591 acclimation of $Topt_A$ to species T_{growth} which is primarily due to the variations in photosynthetic biochemical component processes JV_r , $Ea_V \Delta S_V$ and ΔS_J in relation to the 592 593 seasonal temperature dynamics. Potential mechanisms by which the kinetic properties of Rubisco could be altered in response to changes in temperature include structural changes in 594 595 the Rubisco enzyme itself (Huner & Macdowall, 1979; Huner, 1985; Yamori et al., 2006); changes in the concentration of other photosynthetic enzymes such as Rubisco activase 596 597 (Yamori et al., 2005, Yamori et al., 2011); expression of cold/heat stable isozymes (Yamori et al., 2006); and by alterations in membrane fluidity (Falcone et al., 2004). A number of 598 599 previous studies have demonstrated short-term acclimation of Rubisco kinetics to growth temperature (Medlyn et al., 2002b; Yamori et al., 2006; Kattge & Knorr, 2007; Lin et al., 600 2013; Yamaguchi et al., 2016; Smith & Dukes, 2017; Crous et al., 2018) although the 601 sensitivities of the responses varied. In addition, studies that have compared the acclimation 602 capacity of multiple species in common growth temperatures have shown similar direction 603 and magnitude of short-term temperature acclimation of *Topt*_A (Berry & Björkman, 1980; 604 Sendall et al., 2015) and Rubisco kinetics (Lin et al., 2013; Smith & Dukes, 2017) across 605 species irrespective of their climate of origin. Therefore, we argue that the capacity of 606 species to adjust their photosynthetic biochemistry to temporal variations in growth 607

temperature provides a fitness advantage over that of local climatic adaptation of $Topt_A$ and its related mechanisms, by enabling species to optimize carbon balance in their current habitat (Hikosaka *et al.*, 2006).

611 The lack of a temperature adaptation response in this study contrasts with the results of a previous meta-analysis which found both evolutionary changes and an acclimation effect on 612 Topt_A (Yamori et al., 2014). Our common garden studies compared closely related species (or 613 provenances of the same species) in most cases. The most climatically divergent sets of 614 species included in this study were those of Vårhammar et al. (2015) (lowland and montane 615 tropical species) and Dillaway and Kruger (2010) (North American boreal and temperate 616 deciduous species; see Table S1). In contrast, Yamori et al. (2014) compared temperature 617 responses of C₃, C₄ and CAM plants and found evidence of evolutionary shifts among these 618 functional groups. Other common garden studies with taxonomically diverse species have 619 also provided evidence for evolutionary changes in *Topt*_A in relation to climate of origin 620 621 (Cunningham & Read, 2002; Reich et al., 2015).

622

623 *Acclimation of Topt*_A to growth temperature

Our observations of seasonal photosynthetic temperature response datasets suggest that 624 the seasonal plasticity in $Topt_A$ is principally driven by (i) the adjustment of the temperature 625 response of the Rubisco limited photosynthetic rate and (ii) the balance between Rubisco 626 limited and electron transport limited photosynthetic rates. These two mechanisms control the 627 seasonal shifts in *Topt*_A as follows. First, at biologically relevant leaf temperatures, the light 628 saturated net photosynthetic rate is mostly limited by Rubisco activity (Rogers & Humphries, 629 630 2000; De Kauwe et al., 2016; Yamaguchi et al., 2016). An increase in Ea_V along with a decrease in ΔS_V increases the Rubisco-limited photosynthetic rate with temperature, and thus 631 affects the shape of the photosynthetic temperature response. The rate of increase in Ea_V with 632 T_{growth} in this study (1.14 kJ mol⁻¹ °C⁻¹) aligns closely with previous reports (Hikosaka *et al.*, 633 2006: 1.01 kJ mol⁻¹ °C⁻¹). A number of potential causes have been suggested for variations in 634 Eav across species, including mesophyll conductance to CO₂ diffusion (Bernacchi et al., 635 636 2002; Warren et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2013; von Caemmerer & Evans, 2015), kinetic properties of Rubisco (Yamori et al., 2006), distribution of leaf nitrogen among 637 photosynthetic proteins (Yin et al., 2018) and the influence of other enzymes that affect the in 638 vivo activity of Rubisco (Onoda et al., 2005). Further, the Rubisco activation status could also 639

- be a significant factor contributing to the observed trends in Ea_V with T_{growth} as evidence
- 641 suggested that, plants have the capacity to maintain high Rubisco activation status through an
- 642 increase in Rubisco activase concentration and expression of heat stable Rubisco activase
- 643 isoforms (Crafts-Brandner & Salvucci, 2000; Sage et al., 2008; Yamori et al., 2014).
- However, not all authors find a change in Ea_V with growth temperature. Kattge and Knorr
- 645 (2007) did not find any temperature acclimation in Ea_V . They argued that the choice of a
- 646 standard, rather than peaked, Arrhenius model to fit the temperature response for V_{cmax}
- 647 without considering the deactivation energy would be a possible reason for the observed
- acclimation responses of Ea_V in previous studies (e.g. Hikosaka *et al.* 2006). However, here
- 649 we used the peaked Arrhenius model, and thus the acclimation of Ea_V that we observed is not 650 an artifact of model choice.
- The second important mechanism for acclimation was a change in the magnitude of 651 JVr, as has also been observed by (Kattge & Knorr, 2007; Crous et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2013; 652 Crous *et al.*, 2018). The ratio determines the transition between the two limiting steps, W_c and 653 W_i . As the temperature responses of W_c and W_i are different from each other with different 654 optimum temperatures (Topt of $W_c < \text{Topt of } W_i$), Topt_A is potentially determined by the 655 limiting step (von Caemmerer & Farquhar, 1981; Hikosaka, 1997). At higher JVr, the 656 657 photosynthetic rate is mostly limited by RuBP carboxylation, therefore, *Topt*_A tends to be a lower value and vice versa. 658
- The acclimation capacity of ΔS_V observed in this study (-0.38 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹) was lower compared to the -1.07 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹ °C⁻¹ reported in (Kattge & Knorr, 2007). The higher sensitivity observed in Kattge and Knorr (2007) would potentially be explained by the lack of variation in Ea_V . Both Ea_V and ΔS_V are correlated: a high sensitivity in Ea_V to T_{growth} would potentially cause ΔS_V to be less sensitive and vice versa.
- We observed changes in JV_r with temperature in all three datasets (Fig. 5), but only the 664 mature plant dataset showed a change in either of the two terms contributing to this ratio. In 665 this dataset, the reduction in JV_r is driven by a reduction in J_{max25} , whereas in the other two 666 datasets, there is no overall effect on either V_{cmax25} or J_{max25} . Some previous studies have 667 observed changes in V_{cmax25} with growth temperature in more limited datasets (Way & Oren, 668 2010; Lin et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2015; Scafaro et al., 2017; Crous et al., 2018; Smith & 669 Dukes, 2018), but here we did not find any consistent pattern in V_{cmax25} . It appears that JV_r 670 671 responded strongly and consistently to growth temperature, but whether this is achieved by increasing V_{cmax} , decreasing J_{max} , or both, is highly variable. We speculate that the global 672
- 673 pattern in J_{max} observed in Figure 5b may be a response to increasing light availability in the

tropics, following the co-limitation hypothesis, as proposed by Dong *et al.* (2017), rather thana response to growth temperature.

676

677 Improved temperature response functions for photosynthetic capacity

We demonstrate acclimation to growth temperature to be the principal driver, and only 678 a few modest effects of adaptation, in photosynthetic temperature responses at global scale. 679 Our results highlight the limitation of using a fixed set of parameters to determine *Topt*_A, and 680 challenge the use of PFT-specific V_{cmax25} and J_{max25} with a fixed set of temperature response 681 682 parameters without accounting for temperature acclimation and adaptation (Leuning, 2002) in global vegetation models (Harper et al., 2016; Rogers et al., 2017a). We also demonstrate 683 that the current representation of photosynthetic temperature acclimation (Kattge & Knorr, 684 2007) that has been implemented in some vegetation models (Smith & Dukes, 2013; 685 Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2016), was not able to predict the observed patterns in 686 $Topt_A$ across biomes. 687

We proposed new algorithms for temperature response that are based on a broad range 688 of data, account for both geographical and temporal variability in photosynthetic biochemical 689 690 component processes, and are able to capture observed variation of *Topt*_A across biomes with 691 a high degree of accuracy. The temperature response functions that we propose have a broad temperature domain ($\sim 3 - 37$ °C) which should enable their use in GVMs without outer 692 domain uncertainties (Stinziano et al., 2017)), a limitation of the algorithms proposed 693 previously (Katte & Knorr, 2007) that are widely implemented in GVMs (BETHY, CLM4.5, 694 695 Orchidee). Due to these advantages, our new photosynthetic temperature algorithms provide an improved representation of geographical and temporal variability in *Topt*_A and should 696 697 ultimately improve the accuracy of predicted future C cycle in GVMs.

698

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719 Author contribution statement

- 720 Project conceived by BEM. Analyses designed and carried out by DPK with guidance from
- BEM, JED, MGT, and contributions from MGD. Manuscript writing led by DK, BEM and
- 722 JED. All co-authors contributed data, ideas, and edited the manuscript.

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965 Supporting Information

- 966 Fig. S1 Distribution of the dataset used in this study
- 967 **Fig. S2** Relationship between apparent V_{cmax} and J_{max} values derived using two AC_i curve 968 fitting routines; with and without accounting for TPU limitation
- 969 Fig. S3 Temperature response parameters of photosynthetic respiratory component
 970 processes
- 570 processes
- 971 Fig. S4 R_{L25} : V_{cmax25} ratio at a standard leaf temperature 25°C
- 972 Table S1 List of data sources
- 973 Table S2 Results of the linear mixed effect models fitted for common garden dataset to test
- 974 for adaptation of photosynthetic temperature response parameters to species' climate of
- 975 origin
- 976 Table S3 Results of the linear regression analysis between observed and modelled
- 977 temperature optimum for photosynthesis at a fixed Ci of 275 μmol mol⁻¹ using model
- parameterizations given in Table 2 in the main text and Kattge and Knorr (2007) algorithm.

979 Figure Legends

Temperature optimum for (a, b, c) leaf net photosynthesis ($Topt_A$) and (d, e, f) net 980 Figure 1 photosynthesis at an intercellular CO₂ concentration of 275 μ mol mol⁻¹ (*Topt*_{A275}) of mature 981 plants growing in their native environments (a, d), species in field (grown at ambient growth 982 temperatures) measured at least in two or more seasons (b, e) and species or provenances 983 from contrasting climates of origin grown in common growth temperatures (common gardens 984 or controlled environments; c,f). T_{growth} is the mean air temperature of preceding 30 days. 985 T_{home} is the long-term (1960-1990) mean maximum temperature of the warmest month at 986 species' seed origin. Different colours in panels (a,b) depict Plant Functional Types: orange, 987 Tropical evergreen angiosperms (EA-Tr); light blue, Arctic tundra; red, Temperate deciduous 988 angiosperms (DA-Te); blue, Temperate evergreen angiosperms (EA-Te); green, Boreal 989 evergreen gymnosperms (EG-Br); purple, Temperate evergreen gymnosperms (EG-Te); in 990 panels (c, d, e, f) different datasets. The thick black lines in each panel are (a, d) least-991 squares linear regression fits; (b, c, e, f) linear mixed-effect model fits with random intercepts 992 for each dataset. The thin lines in respective colours are the fitted random intercept models 993 994 for individual datasets. Error bars represent ± 1 SE.

Figure 2 Biochemical temperature response parameters for the Mature plants dataset in relation to mean air temperature of preceding 30 days (T_{growth}). Different colours represent Plant Functional Types as in Fig. 1(a, d). Solid and dotted lines in each panel are the leastsquares linear regression fits (this study; coefficients and r^2 values given in Table 1) and the linear models proposed by Kattge and Knorr (2007) respectively. Error bars represent ±1SE. Legend follows Fig. 1(a, d).

Figure 3 Biochemical temperature response parameters for the Seasonal dataset in relation to mean air temperature of preceding 30 days (T_{growth}). Data were measured on field-grown plants (including whole-tree chamber experiments) in two or more seasons. Solid and dotted lines in each panel are the linear mixed-effect model fits (this study; coefficients and r^2 values are given in Table 1) and the linear models proposed by Kattge and Knorr (2007) respectively. Error bars represent ±1SE. Legend follows Fig. 1(b, e).

Figure 4 Biochemical temperature response parameters for the Common garden dataset in relation to the long-term (1960-1990) mean maximum temperature of the warmest month at species' seed origin (T_{home}). Data were measured in species or provenances from contrasting climates of origin grown at common growth temperatures (common gardens and controlled 1011 environments). Solid lines in each panel are the linear mixed-effect model fits (this study; 1012 coefficients and r^2 values are given in Table 1). Error bars represent ±1SE. Legend follows 1013 Fig. 1(c. f).

1014Figure 5 V_{cmax} , J_{max} and J_{max} : V_{cmax} ratio (JV_r) at a standard leaf temperature (25 °C) of1015(a,b,c) mature plants growing in their native environments; (d,e,f) field-grown plants1016measured in two or more seasons; and (g,h,i) species or provenances from contrasting1017climates of origin grown in common growth temperatures (common gardens or controlled1018environments). T_{growth} is the mean air temperature of preceding 30 days. T_{home} is the long-1019term (1960-1990) mean maximum temperature of the warmest month at species' seed origin

1020 respectively. Solid lines in each panel are the least-squares linear regression fits (panels b and

- 1021 c), linear mixed-effect model fits with random intercepts for each dataset (panels f and i).
- 1022 One outlier is circled in (c) (see text). Error bars represent ± 1 SE. Legend follows Fig. 1.
- **Figure 6** Relationship between JV_r and temperature optimum for photosynthesis at a fixed intercellular CO₂ concentration of 275 µmol mol⁻¹ (*Topt*_{A275}) (a) and relationship between Ea_V and *Topt*_{A275} (b). Data were measured on field-grown plants (including whole-tree chamber
- 1026 experiments) in two or more seasons. Lines in each panel are the linear mixed effect
- 1027 regression model fits (in panel a, $Topt_{A275} = 35.78 5.93 \times JV_r$; R²=0.36, in panel b,
- 1028 $Topt_{A275} = 13.11 + 0.20 \times Ea_{Vcmax}$; R²=0.49. Error bars represents ±1SE.

1029 Figure 7 Observed and modelled temperature optimum for photosynthesis at a fixed C_i of 275 µmol mol⁻¹ using model parameterizations given in Table 2. (a) With acclimation and 1030 adaptation functions developed in this study (y = 1.09x - 2.20, $r^2 = 0.80$), (b) Kattge and 1031 Knorr (2007) acclimation function (y = 1.58x - 13.82, $r^2 = 0.83$). The crossed circle in the x-1032 axis of panel a depicts the predicted $Topt_{A275}$ with a fixed set of parameters without 1033 acclimation and adaptation (Leuning, 2002). Thin lines: 1:1 relationship; Thick lines: least-1034 squares regression fit. In panel a, the intercepts and the slope of the linear regression were not 1035 significantly different from zero and unity respectively (Table S3). Error bars represent ± 1 SE. 1036

Table 1. Results of the linear regression analysis of the parameters of Eqn 1, 8 and 9. For common garden and seasonal datasets, linear mixed models were fit accounting for between datasets variations of a given parameter (see materials and methods for details). For mature plants in native environments, parameter values were derived by fitting simple linear regression models (Eqn 10). Values in parentheses are standard errors of estimates. Bold values are the significant parameters at $\alpha = 0.05$

1041 Mature plants in native environment (Eqn 10)				Seasonal dataset (Eqn 11)			Common garden dataset (Eqn 12)							
							r^2	r^2	P-			r^2	r^2	
Parameter	а	b	r^2	P-value	A_{ac}	α_{ac}	(Marginal)	(Conditional)	value	A_{ad}	$lpha_{ad}$	(Marginal)	(Conditional)	P-value
$Topt_A$	12.5 (1.4)	0.62 (0.1)	0.80	<0.001	18.2 (1.1)	0.34 (0.05)	0.27	0.87	<0.001	24.8 (2.1)	0.07 (0.1)	0.01	0.71	0.309
$ToptA_{275}$	14.9 (1.5)	0.63 (0.1)	0.84	<0.001	20.5 (1.2)	0.24 (0.05)	0.16	0.85	<0.001	26.8 (2.3)	0.07 (0.1)	0.03	0.30	0.400
Biochemical pa	rameters													
V _{cmax25}	85.3 (16.7)	-1.84 (0.8)	0.19	0.404	58.2 (12.0)	0.50 (0.4)	0.01	0.94	0.252	33.4 (28.0)	1.62 (0.9)	0.07	0.91	0.096
J_{max25}	194.7 (24.1)	-5.13 (1.2)	0.53	<0.001	141.3(18.8)	-1.35 (0.7)	0.03	0.95	0.053	92.7 (47.2)	1.63 (1.6)	0.02	0.95	0.312
Ea_V	48.7 (7.8)	0.82 (0.4)	0.14	0.067	39.7 (6.2)	1.14 (0.3)	0.32	0.91	<0.001	79.4 (13.1)	-0.37 (0.5)	0.14	0.14	0.450
Ea_J	43.5 (9.8)	-0.19 (0.5)	0.05	0.7143	27.2 (5.0)	0.26 (0.3)	0.04	0.82	0.325	51.5 (8.7)	-0.38 (0.3)	0.20	0.20	0.247
ΔS_V	662.0 (8.7)	-1.31 (0.5)	0.30	0.011	645.1 (4.6)	-0.38 (0.2)	0.09	0.82	0.089	647.9 (9.5)	-0.36 (0.3)	0.08	0.66	0.302
ΔS_J	667.3 (7.8)	-1.34 (0.4)	0.36	0.005	653.9 (4.6)	-0.85 (0.2)	0.22	0.94	<0.001	662.3 (7.5)	-0.99 (0.3)	0.49	0.84	<0.001
$Topt_V$	24.3 (3.8)	0.71 (0.2)	0.40	0.002	30.3 (1.9)	0.36 (0.1)	0.23	0.77	<0.001	34.3 (3.3)	0.12 (0.1)	0.05	0.36	0.335
Topt _J	19.9 (2.9)	0.63 (0.2)	0.52	<0.001	27.6 (1.8)	0.31 (0.1)	0.13	0.91	<0.001	24.8 (3.4)	0.42 (0.1)	0.42	0.60	< 0.001
JV_r	2.9 (0.2)	-0.06 (0.01)	0.66	<0.001	2.3 (0.2)	-0.03 (0.01)	0.07	0.17	<0.001	2.5 (0.3)	-0.03 (0.01)	0.13	0.64	0.005
Respiratory par	rameters													
R_{L25}	2.8 (0.5)	-0.09 (0.03)	0.38	0.0037	1.54 (0.42)	-0.01 (0.02)	0.01	0.25	0.502	1.16 (0.45)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01	0.61	0.583
Ea	-20.7 (14.3)	1.18 (0.78)	0.07	0.1508	-9.17 (11.49)	0.42 (0.61)	0.02	0.83	0.485	-4.25 (43.38)	0.12 (1.57)	0.01	0.93	0.937
		-0.001				-0.001				. /	-0.0005			
R_{L25} : V_{cmax25}	0.036 (0.01)	(0.0003)	0.22	0.033	0.03 (0.01)	(0.0003)	0.04	0.60	0.043	0.03 (0.01)	(0.0004)	0.06	0.53	0.149

1042 **Table 2**. Parameters of the temperature acclimation and adaptation functions developed in this study. *T_{home}* is the long-term (1960-1990) mean

- 1043 maximum temperature of the warmest month, T_{growth} is the mean air temperature of preceding 30 days. Plant Functional Types, DA-Te:
- 1044 deciduous angiosperms (temperate), EA-Te: evergreen angiosperms (temperate), EG-Te: evergreen gymnosperms (temperate), EG-Br: evergreen
- 1045 gymnosperms (boreal), EA-Tr: evergreen angiosperms (tropical) and Arctic tundra: Arctic spp

Parameter	Model representation	Value		Units
V _{cmax25}	PFT specific	DA-Te	39.0	μ mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
		EA-Te	82.9	
		EG-Te	42.8	
		EG-Br	80.4	
		EA-Tr	39.4	
		Arctic tundra	78.3	
J_{max25}	Acclimation + Adaptation	$V_{cmax25} imes JV_r$		μ mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
JV_r	Acclimation + Adaptation	$2.56 - 0.0375T_{ho}$	$_{me} - 0.0202(T_{growth} - T_{home})$	unitless
Ea_V	Acclimation	$42.6 + 1.14T_{growt}$	th -	kJ mol ⁻¹
Ea _J	Global mean	40.71		kJ mol ⁻¹
ΔS_{v}	Acclimation	$645.13 - 0.38T_{gr}$	owth	J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
ΔS_J	Acclimation + Adaptation	$658.77 - 0.84T_{ho}$	$_{me} - 0.52(T_{growth} - T_{home})$	J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹