

This is a preprint of a manuscript under review at *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*. Subsequent versions of this manuscript may have slightly different content. If accepted, the final version will be available via the “peer-reviewed publication DOI” link on EarthArXiv.

December 9, 2020

Differences in carbon isotope discrimination between angiosperm and gymnosperm woody plants, and their relationship to atmospheric O₂:CO₂ ratio, physiology, and environment

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Abstract

For most of the Phanerozoic Eon, Earth's woody vegetation has been dominated by C₃ plants – predominantly gymnosperms - with angiosperms only emerging as the dominant plant group as CO₂ declined during the Cenozoic (66 Ma onward). At present, differences in carbon isotope discrimination ($\Delta^{13}\text{C}$) between angiosperm and gymnosperm plants are relatively small (2–3 ‰), but an increasing body of evidence points to larger differences across geological times (up to 6–7 ‰), potentially associated with varying environmental conditions and atmospheres (i.e. concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide, [CO₂], and oxygen, [O₂] could have ranged from ~ 180 to 1100 ppm, and ~ 15 to 25 %, respectively, across the past 250 Ma). Yet, differences in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between the two plant groups, and their potential link to climatic and environmental changes, have not yet been fully explored and understood. Here, we combine a comprehensive *ab initio* model of discrimination, with a recent model of plant eco-physiology based on least-cost optimality theory, to show how differences in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between angiosperms and gymnosperms arise. We train the comprehensive model using a very large ($n > 7000$) database of leaf and tree ring data spanning the past 110 years. We find that averaged differences in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between angiosperm and gymnosperms decrease modestly with atmospheric [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios, and increase strongly with vapor pressure deficit (D). These relationships can be explained by three key physiological differences: (1) the ratio of cost factors for transpiration to carboxylation (higher in angiosperms); (2) the ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductances of CO₂ (lower in gymnosperms); and (3) differences in photorespiration. In particular, the amount of CO₂ released from photorespiration per oxygenation reaction, λ , is generally lower in gymnosperms than in angiosperms. As a result of these factors, $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ is more sensitive to [CO₂] in angiosperms, and to D in gymnosperms. We propose a simplified empirical model to account for this behaviour, and test it against isotopic data from leaves, tree rings and previously-published plant chamber experiments, along with geological data from the Cenozoic. Overall, these data agree with our model over range of [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios from 100 to 650 mol mol⁻¹ (equivalent to a CO₂ range around 323 – 525 ppm at 21% O₂), and D levels between 0.45 and 1.1 kPa ($R^2 = 0.51$, RMSE = 0.538‰). Our simplified empirical model offers a new explanation for secular trends in the geological record, and suggests a way

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forward to improve paleo-[CO₂] proxies based on terrestrial discrimination models by incorporating the effects of [O₂], phylogeny, and photorespiration. Lastly, the framework predicts that the average difference in Δ¹³C between woody C₃ plant groups will increase in the future if both [CO₂] and global *D* continue to rise as suggested by projections.

Keywords: carbon isotope discrimination - C₃ photosynthesis - gymnosperms - angiosperms - atmospheric CO₂ - atmospheric O₂ - paleo-proxies

1. Introduction

During photosynthesis, terrestrial plants fix atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) into the simple sugars they need to grow, a process which sustains almost all life on Earth. In all vascular C₃ plants, CO₂ first enters the leaf through the stomata, before diffusing to the sites of carboxylation in the chloroplast. At each step along the pathway of carbon from the atmosphere to the leaf sugars, plants discriminate strongly against the heaviest stable carbon isotope (¹³C), leading to a substantial difference between the stable carbon isotope compositions (δ¹³C) of the source atmospheric CO₂ (δ¹³CO₂), and of the carbon fixed within the leaf (δ¹³C_{leaf}). This difference is commonly defined as the leaf-level carbon isotopic discrimination (referred to Δ¹³C) and expressed in per mil (‰) as:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2 - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}}{1 + \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}/1000} \quad (1)$$

The two dominant groups of woody C₃ plants, i.e. angiosperms and gymnosperms, have different physiological traits, including distinct vascular structures and reproductive habits (e.g. exposed seeds versus seeds enclosed in fruit). There are also subtle, yet significant, differences in Δ¹³C between the two plant groups. Globally, modern leaf isotope data (e.g. [Diefendorf et al. \(2010\)](#)) show that angiosperms are 2-3 ‰ more depleted in ¹³C than gymnosperms (see Fig. 1). This isotopic offset is observed in pre-industrial wood cellulose ([Stuiver and Braziunas, 1987](#)) and in modern tree rings of the same age growing in the same location and thus under the same conditions of evaporative demand and soil water availability ([Leavitt and Newberry, 1992](#)), which suggests that differences in Δ¹³C levels are primarily driven by physiology, as opposed to environment. However, this is clearly not always the case as the Δ¹³C offset tends to decrease with latitude/temperature gradients ([Leavitt and Newberry, 1992](#); [Stuiver and Braziunas, 1987](#); [Pedentchouk et al., 2008](#)). No single clear physiological or environmental factor is therefore responsible for differences in Δ¹³C between angiosperm and gymnosperm plants, and the reasons for the observed isotopic offsets between the two plant groups are yet to be fully explored and understood.

In addition to these factors, Δ¹³C values in gymnosperm and angiosperm plants are sensitive to changing atmospheric composition. Several emerging lines of evidence from δ¹³C data derived from tree rings ([Voelker et al., 2016](#)), cellulose and faunal collagen ([Hare et al., 2018](#)), species-specific lipid biomarkers ([Schouten et al., 2007](#)), and speleothems ([Breecker, 2017](#)), suggest that Δ¹³C in angiosperms and gymnosperms has responded differently to past changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration (hereafter [CO₂]). Chamber experiments have also shown clear effects of changing O₂ concentration, [O₂], on Δ¹³C, depending on C₃ phylogeny ([Porter et al., 2017](#)). Atmospheric [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios have varied substantially since the radiation of gymnosperms in the Mesozoic Era (252

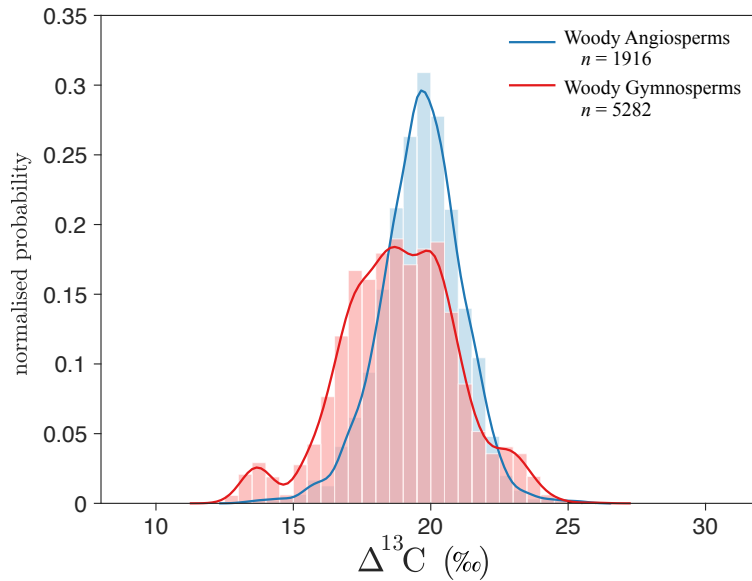


Figure 1: Distribution of carbon isotope discrimination in C₃ woody angiosperm and gymnosperm plants, compiled from global bulk leaf and tree ring cellulose records (see Methods). Note: In this figure, tree ring cellulose $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are corrected for post-photosynthetic fractionation by the subtraction of 2.1‰.

29 - 66 Ma), when [CO₂] was high (> 1000 ppm). During these times, [O₂] was generally higher than present-day
 30 values of 21 %, perhaps as high as 29 % (Mills et al., 2016). As [CO₂] declined over the Cenozoic (66 Ma on-
 31 wards), angiosperms rapidly diversified to become the dominant land plant group. It is thought that the radiation of
 32 angiosperms coincided with important evolutionary adaptations to lower [CO₂] within this plant group; including
 33 a higher mesophyll conductance to CO₂, denoted g_m (Yiotis and McElwain, 2019; Flexas and Carriquí, 2020), an
 34 increased vein density (De Boer et al., 2012), and more efficient stem hydraulic properties (Zanne et al., 2014).
 35 Concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ regularly reached their geological minima, ~180 ppm, during the Pleistocene
 36 ice ages (2.58 Ma to 11.7 ka) (Bereiter et al., 2015). Taken together, the full geological range of [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios
 37 experienced by both gymnosperms and angiosperms over the Cenozoic is between approximately 150 mol mol⁻¹
 38 (Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum, PETM; ~ 56 Ma) and 1150 mol mol⁻¹ (Last Glacial Maximum, LGM;
 39 21 ka). This is a substantial range, and it is possible that these atmospheric changes led to differences in C₃ plant
 40 discrimination, although the exact magnitudes of group-specific responses remain uncertain.

41 In geological contexts, it is generally assumed that isotope discrimination in C₃ plants is independent of phylogeny.
 42 This implies that the offset in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between angiosperms and gymnosperms is more or less constant over time. As
 43 a result, offsets of 2-3‰ between ancient tissues from each plant group are sometimes regarded as indications of
 44 fossil integrity, i.e. resistance to diagenesis (Diefendorf et al., 2015; Schlanser et al., 2020a). However, emerging
 45 evidence suggests that isotope discrimination might vary between different C₃ plant groups (Sheldon et al., 2020),
 46 and substantial changes in the difference of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between angiosperms and gymnosperms are occasionally
 47 observed in the geological record. For instance, this offset ranged from less than -3 ‰ (Diefendorf et al., 2015)
 48 to greater than +4 ‰ (Schouten et al., 2007; Schlanser et al., 2020a) before, during, and after the extreme climate
 49 states of the PETM. Some of these changes have been explained by differences in plant water-use efficiency (WUE),

50 i.e. the ratio of carbon assimilated to water transpired, which is intrinsically coupled to leaf-level discrimination
51 (Soh et al., 2019; Lavergne et al., 2019). On the other hand, they could also be explained by diagenesis, or
52 variability in post-photosynthetic fractionations, particularly in the case of plant lipids (Diefendorf et al., 2019).
53 Underlying all these explanations, it is also plausible that a substantial proportion of these changes was driven
54 by fundamental physiological differences between the two plant groups, modulated by atmospheric [O₂]:[CO₂]
55 ratios. Thus, no satisfactory unifying framework yet exists to explain the variability observed in the geological
56 record; a full understanding of the drivers responsible for the different plant responses between C₃ groups is still
57 needed.

58 The aim of this study is to propose a model for isotope discrimination in C₃ plants that can account for differences in
59 phylogeny, and that can reasonably explain variations in the geological record. First, we examine the impact of plant
60 physiology on $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ among the two groups by combining a comprehensive *ab initio* model of leaf discrimination,
61 with a stomatal model based on the least-cost optimality hypothesis (Prentice et al., 2014). The optimal model has
62 been used for exploring stomatal responses to the environment as recorded in modern isotopic samples derived
63 from C₃ plants (Wang et al., 2017; Lavergne et al., 2020a), but its application to geological timescales is novel.
64 We then train the coupled stomatal-discrimination model against a large literature compilation of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ measures
65 derived from tree ring and leaf samples spanning the 20th century to identify the key parameters that give rise
66 to the different physiological responses between angiosperms and gymnosperms. We then investigate how the
67 difference in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between the two plant groups can be explained and predicted from environmental factors
68 such as vapor pressure deficit (*D*), and from changes in atmospheric [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios. We then compare our
69 predictions with isotopic data derived from leaves, tree-rings, plant chamber experiments, and ultimately geological
70 data.

71 Finally, we discuss the implications of our findings for the interpretation of the geological record and for the
72 reconstruction of paleo-[CO₂]. Models of C₃ carbon isotope discrimination are routinely used to estimate paleo-
73 [CO₂] (Schubert and Jahren, 2012; Cui et al., 2020; Franks et al., 2014), but seldom account for differences
74 between plant groups, changes in *D*, or [O₂] levels over time - although all three effects might influence terrestrial
75 paleo-proxies (Porter et al., 2019; Hollis et al., 2019) and thereby affect estimates of the (paleo)climate sensitivity
76 - the amount of warming experienced after a doubling of [CO₂] during geological times. Thus, our findings
77 may ultimately contribute to ongoing efforts to better constrain paleo-[CO₂] reconstructions and thus predict more
78 accurately the (paleo)climate sensitivity.

79 2. Theory

80 Farquhar et al. (1982) proposed a mathematical description of the discrimination against ¹³C, based on a model
81 used to describe the biochemistry of CO₂ assimilation in C₃ leaves - the 'FvCB' model (Farquhar et al., 1980).
82 Both the FvCB model and the corresponding discrimination model are foundational to our understanding of C₃
83 photosynthesis, having been applied to a wide range of scientific questions in plant eco-physiology, paleoecology
84 and geochemistry. In addition, the FvCB model has been widely used in Earth System modeling to predict the rate

85 of carbon assimilation (A) by plants, and thus to study the carbon cycle. A comprehensive *ab initio* description of
 86 bulk leaf discrimination derived from Farquhar et al. (1982) can be written following Busch et al. (2020):

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = \frac{1}{1-t} \left[a_b \frac{C_a - C_s}{C_a} + a_s \frac{C_a - C_s}{C_a} \right] + \frac{1+t}{1-t} \left[a_m \frac{C_i - C_c}{C_a} + b \frac{C_c}{C_a} - \frac{R_d}{A} \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_e \alpha_R} e \frac{C_c}{C_a} - \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_f \alpha_R} \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a} (f - wh) \right] \quad (2)$$

87
 88 C_a , C_s , C_i , and C_c are the concentrations of CO_2 along the CO_2 diffusion pathway, i.e., in the atmosphere, the
 89 leaf surface, the intercellular space and the chloroplast, respectively, while a_b , a_s , a_m , and b , are the fractionations
 90 associated with the CO_2 diffusion through the boundary layer (2.9‰), stomata (4.4‰), and mesophyll (1.8‰), and
 91 carboxylation by the enzyme Rubisco (30‰), respectively. The values for the fractionations are relatively well-
 92 constrained from theory (Craig, 1954) as well as *in vitro* experiments and molecular dynamics simulations (see
 93 discussion in Ubierna and Farquhar (2014)). By comparison, the fractionations due to mitochondrial respiration,
 94 e , and photorespiration, f , are relatively poorly constrained. e is often regarded as negligible (e.g. Ghashghaie
 95 et al. (2003)), and literature values of f range from 7 to 16‰, with a theoretical value of around 11‰ (Tcherkez,
 96 2006).

97 h is the apparent fractionation associated with several processes such as starch formation, and the export of 3-
 98 phosphoglycerate (3-PG) and is currently difficult to constrain (Busch et al., 2020). w is a factor given by
 99 $(6C_c + 9\Gamma^*) / (5C_c + 10\Gamma^*)$, which is approximately 1.1, at typical values of C_c and Γ^* . t is the ternary correction
 100 factor depending on the rate of transpiration and the conductance to CO_2 diffusion in air (Farquhar and Cernusak
 101 (2012)), and α_i values ($i = a, b, f$, and e) are the formal fractionation factors associated with the respective
 102 processes (i.e., diffusion, carboxylation, mitochondrial respiration and photorespiration, respectively). R_d is the
 103 rate of mitochondrial respiration and Γ^* is the photorespiratory compensation point in absence of mitochondrial
 104 respiration, i.e., the value of C_i at which the rate of photosynthetic CO_2 uptake equals that of photorespiratory CO_2
 105 evolution. A full list of variables, and their respective definitions, can be found in Table 1.

106 In its full form, Eqn. (2) is not easily applied to the geological record because of uncertainties in the values of some
 107 terms in the equation. Assuming that both ternary and respiration effects are negligible ($t \approx 0$ and $e \approx 0$) and that
 108 $\alpha_i \approx 1$, Ubierna and Farquhar (2014) proposed the following approximation that is applicable in a broad range of
 109 environmental conditions:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = a_s(1 - \chi) + a_m(\chi - \chi_c) + b\chi_c - (f - wh) \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a} \quad (3)$$

110
 111 where we adopt the notation $\chi = C_i/C_a$, and $\chi_c = C_c/C_a$. Note that we have slightly modified the original equation
 112 to retain the w and h terms proposed by Busch et al. (2020). This equation is more mathematically tractable than
 113 Eqn. (2), and accurate for a first order understanding of plant $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$, because it includes fractionations associated
 114 with photorespiration and CO_2 diffusion in the mesophyll which are critical for reproducing the observed global
 115 trends in atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during the 20th century (Keeling et al., 2017). The non-negligible photorespiratory
 116 effect on the discrimination is also increasingly acknowledged in geological studies (Schubert and Jahren, 2018;
 117 Zhang et al., 2019; Porter et al., 2019). At current CO_2 levels (~ 410 ppm), the photorespiration term in Eqn. (3)

118 contributes only slightly to isotope discrimination, e.g. $< 1\%$ at a typical Γ^* of ~ 3.2 Pa, at 20°C (value from
 119 [Bernacchi et al. \(2002\)](#)), assuming h is negligible. However, its contribution increases at lower CO_2 concentrations,
 120 and/or higher Γ^* (higher leaf temperature). Because Rubisco has an affinity for both O_2 and CO_2 , Γ^* also depends
 121 on the oxygen concentration in the chloroplast, O_c , and on the amount of CO_2 released from photorespiration per
 122 oxygenation reaction - a variable defined by [Busch \(2020\)](#) as λ . The relationship between these variables can be
 123 written as:

$$124 \quad \Gamma^* = \frac{\lambda O_c}{S_{c/o}} \quad (4)$$

125 where $S_{c/o}$ is the Rubisco specificity factor. Emerging studies (e.g. [Busch et al. \(2018\)](#)) have shown that λ
 126 depends on the relative proportions of glycine and 5,10-methylene tetrahydrofolate ($\text{CH}_2\text{-THF}$) exported from the
 127 photorespiratory pathway. Glycine is an important building block of compounds manufactured by plants under
 128 stress, and $\text{CH}_2\text{-THF}$ is the chemical precursor of lignin and many other secondary products. Typically, λ is around
 129 0.5 (corresponding to 25% of the 2-phosphoglycerate carbon lost as CO_2), but as the relative proportion of these
 130 components change, so too does λ - and the discrimination against ^{13}C due to photorespiration.

131 Incorporating mesophyll effects, and retaining the photorespiration terms (see full derivation in Electronic Annex-
 132 ure), Eq. (3) can be rewritten more succinctly as:

$$133 \quad \Delta^{13}\text{C} = \bar{a} + [b - \bar{a}]\chi_c - (f - wh)\frac{\Gamma_c^*}{C_a} \quad (5)$$

134 where $\bar{a} = (a_s\theta_m + a_m)/(1 + \theta_m)$ and θ_m is the ratio of mesophyll conductance to stomatal conductance (g_m/g_s).
 135 \bar{a} thus represents all the fractionation processes during the CO_2 diffusion along the pathway from the atmosphere to
 136 the site of photosynthesis (chloroplast). Note that if the photorespiration is assumed negligible, and the mesophyll
 137 conductance is assumed infinite (i.e. $\chi_c = \chi$), Eqn. (5) can be rewritten as: $\Delta^{13}\text{C} \approx a_s + (b - a_s)\chi$. This simple
 138 formulation has been widely used in the literature for modern and paleo studies (see also [Lavergne et al. \(2019\)](#),
 139 and [Hare et al. \(2018\)](#)).

140 Eqn. (5) offers a more complete formalism than its simplest version, but lacks an expression for the χ_c term. A
 141 theoretical model for χ_c was recently derived by [Wang et al. \(2017\)](#) using an evolutionary optimality approach that
 142 assumes that C_3 land plants minimise the summed unit costs of transpiration and carboxylation. In this framework,
 143 χ_c depends on C_a , the daytime leaf temperature (T_d , $^\circ\text{C}$), the leaf-to-air vapour pressure deficit (D , kPa), and the
 144 ratio of cost factors for carboxylation to transpiration at 25°C (β_c , unitless), as:

$$145 \quad \chi_c = \frac{\Gamma_c^*}{C_a} + \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma_c^*}{C_a}\right) \frac{\xi_c}{\xi_c + \sqrt{D}} \quad (6)$$

146 where

$$147 \quad \xi_c^2 = [\beta_c(K + \Gamma_c^*)]/[1.6\eta^*(1 + 1/\theta_m)] \quad (7)$$

Table 1: List of symbols used in this study, and their definitions.

Variables (units)	Description	Refs.
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	leaf-level carbon isotope discrimination	1,2,3
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{a-g}}^*$ (‰)	difference between average co-located angiosperm and gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ at constant T_d , P_{atm} , & D	<i>this study</i>
$\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}}$ (‰)	post-photosynthetic fractionation during biosynthesis of leaf lipids	4,5
$\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}}$ (‰)	post-photosynthetic fractionation during biosynthesis of cellulose	6,7
t	ternary correction factor	1,2,3
a_s, a_m (‰)	fractionations for CO_2 diffusion in air, 4.4‰, and water, 1.8‰	8,1
b (‰)	fractionation during Rubisco carboxylation, 30‰	1
f (‰)	fractionation during photorespiration, 8-18‰ (theoretical: 11‰)	9
h (‰)	apparent fractionation resulting from starch formation, and/or the kinetic fractionation associated with the export of triose phosphates (TP) from the chloroplast, and/or enzymes such as aldolase, transaldolase, transketolase and TP isomerase	3
w (unitless)	coefficient of h in $f - wh$	3
α_b ; α_e ; α_f (unitless)	fractionation factors for $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ during carboxylation $\alpha_b = 1 + b$; respiration $\alpha_e = 1 + e$; photorespiration $\alpha_f = 1 + f$	1
α_h (unitless)	as above, for h	3
λ (unitless)	amount of CO_2 released from photorespiration per oxygenation reaction, relative to that of <i>N. tabacum</i> at 25°C (λ_{ref})	10
λ_a, λ_g (unitless)	average λ , woody angiosperms, woody gymnosperms	<i>this study</i>
ε_f (unitless)	gradient of the slope of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{a-g}}^*$ vs $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$ at constant T_d	<i>this study</i>
ε_{ab} (unitless)	gradient of the slope of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{a-g}}^*$ vs D at constant T_d	<i>this study</i>
α_G ; α_T (unitless)	proportion of glycine removed from the photorespiratory pathway; proportion of 2-Phosphoglycolate carbon exported as $\text{CH}_2\text{-THF}$ from the photorespiratory pathway	11,10
C_a (Pa)	atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_s (Pa)	leaf-surface $p\text{CO}_2$ (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_i (Pa)	leaf intercellular $p\text{CO}_2$ (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_c (Pa)	chloroplastic $p\text{CO}_2$ (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
O_c ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$)	chloroplastic oxygen concentration	
g_s ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	stomatal conductance	12,13
g_m ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	mesophyll conductance	12,13
β_c (unitless)	ratio of carboxylation to transpiration cost factors at 25 °C	14
K_c (Pa)	Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco carboxylation	15
K_o (Pa)	Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco oxygenation	15
K (Pa)	effective Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco	15
Γ_c (Pa)	chloroplastic CO_2 compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration, when $A = 0$	2
Γ^* (Pa)	chloroplastic CO_2 compensation point, absence of mitochondrial respiration, when $A = -\mathcal{R}_d$	2
$S_{c/o}$ (mol mol^{-1})	Rubisco CO_2/O_2 specificity	16
T_d (°K)	daytime leaf temperature	
D (kPa)	daytime vapour pressure deficit	
$[\text{O}_2]$ (mol mol^{-1})	atmospheric oxygen concentration	
$[\text{CO}_2]$ (mol mol^{-1})	atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration	

1. Ubierna and Farquhar (2014) 2. Ubierna et al. (2019) 3. Busch et al. (2020) 4. Diefendorf et al. (2012) 5. Diefendorf et al. (2019) 6. Frank et al. (2015) 7. Lavergne et al. (2020a) 8. Craig (1954) 9. Tcherkez (2006) 10. Busch (2020) 11. Busch et al. (2018) 12. Flexas and Carriquí (2020) 13. Yiotis and McElwain (2019) 14. Wang et al. (2017) 15. Bernacchi et al. (2002) 16. Galmés et al. (2016)

148 η^* (unitless) is the viscosity of water relative to its value at 25 °C and K (Pa) is the effective Michaelis constant for
149 Rubisco-limited photosynthesis at ambient partial pressure of O₂ (Pa). Note that Eqn. (6) implicitly links both D
150 and C_a to plant WUE, via the relationship between χ_c and intrinsic WUE, i.e. $iWUE = \theta_m / (1 + \theta_m) C_a (1 - \chi_c)$.
151 (Ehleringer et al., 1993; Soh et al., 2019; Lavergne et al., 2019).

152 What differences in discrimination are expected between the two C₃ plant groups according to this theory? The
153 terms in Equations (5-7) can be divided into three categories: (1) constants associated with kinetic fractionation (a_s ,
154 a_m , b , f), (2) atmospheric and environmental variables (D , C_a and η^*), and variables associated with the kinetics
155 of Rubisco (K and Γ^* , both temperature- and atmospheric pressure-dependent); and finally, (3) plant-specific
156 parameters related to vascular/leaf morphology (β_c and g_m/g_s), and metabolism (λ). Because Rubisco is common
157 to all oxygenic phototrophs, and is thought to have suffered relatively little modification through geological times, it
158 is reasonable to assume that differences in $\Delta^{13}C$ between C₃ plant groups arise from β_c , g_m/g_s and λ , modulated
159 by site-specific environmental conditions. These three plant-specific parameters are unitless, and are assumed to
160 be constants, independent of environmental changes.

161 Here, we first examine the expected values for β_c , g_m/g_s , and λ using a large compilation of leaf and tree ring $\Delta^{13}C$
162 measurements, spanning a wide range of environments. We then perform sensitivity analyses using Eqns. (5-7) to
163 determine the impacts of T_d and D variations on changes in $\Delta^{13}C$, across the full range of Cenozoic [O₂]:[CO₂]
164 ratios. Finally, we propose a simple empirical model for describing the dependence of the offset in $\Delta^{13}C$ values
165 between angiosperm and gymnosperms upon [O₂]:[CO₂] ratio, at any given T_d and D .

166 3. Methods

167 3.1. Compilation of tree ring and leaf stable carbon isotope measurements

168 We used a large global dataset (the “training dataset”) of leaf and tree ring $\delta^{13}C$ measurements, developed and
169 partly used elsewhere (Lavergne et al., 2020b), spanning the whole 20th century ([CO₂] ranging between 297
170 and 401 ppm). The leaf isotopic dataset was derived from three published compilations (Cornwell et al., 2016;
171 Diefendorf et al., 2010; Sheldon et al., 2020), while the tree ring isotopic dataset was provided by Lavergne
172 et al. (2020a). After removal of duplicate values, we used the TRY database (Kattge et al., 2020) to assign
173 leaf phenology (deciduous/evergreen), plant vascular type (angiosperm/gymnosperm) and woodiness (woody/non-
174 woody plants) to each plant material. We only selected data from C₃ woody plants for the analyses (total of
175 $n = 7098$ measurements with $n = 1916$ for angiosperms and $n = 5282$ for gymnosperms). Note that because the
176 theory for $\Delta^{13}C$ is only valid for well-mixed atmospheric $\delta^{13}CO_2$, we excluded data showing the ‘canopy effect’,
177 i.e. those from tropical closed-canopy locations, and/or $\delta^{13}C < -30\text{‰}$ (i.e. we adjusted the Kohn (2010) cutoff value
178 of -31.5‰ by $\sim 1.1\text{‰}$ to account for the Suess effect). We corrected tree ring $\delta^{13}C$ data for post-photosynthetic
179 fractionations ($\delta^{13}C$ being more depleted in leaves than in tree rings, e.g. Cernusak et al. (2009)) using two different
180 approaches, which we labelled correction “A” and correction “B”. Correction “A” assumed a constant value for
181 post-photosynthetic fractionation of $\varepsilon_{cellulose} = -2.1 \pm 1.2\text{‰}$ as used in earlier studies (Frank et al., 2015; Lavergne
182 et al., 2020a). Because the factors influencing post-photosynthetic fractionation are currently uncertain (Gessler

183 et al., 2014), it is also possible that $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}}$ varies between plant species. Therefore, correction “B” used averaged
184 estimates of $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}}$ calculated from Guerrieri et al. (2016) and Guerrieri et al. (2019) data for each species (if
185 available). The average correction “B” was $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose,angio}} = -2.8\text{‰}$ for angiosperms, and $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose,gymno}} = -4.7$
186 ‰ for gymnosperms.

187 3.2. Atmospheric and environmental data

188 To calculate $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ from $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for our training dataset, we used mean annual $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{CO}_2$ data from Graven et al.
189 (2017). CO_2 concentrations were taken from the compilation of Köhler et al. (2017), which is based on a spline
190 interpolation of direct observations (yearly average), and ice core measurements. $[\text{CO}_2]$ was converted from ppm
191 to Pa using site elevation data obtained from high-resolution sources using the coordinates of the selected sites (e.g.
192 NED1 (USGS) in North America, SRTM1 (NASA) in Europe). For each site, daytime growing season temperature,
193 T_d , and vapour pressure deficit, D , were calculated from monthly 0.5° resolution historical climate data provided
194 by the Climatic Research Unit (CRU TS4.03) (Harris et al., 2014). Note that the T_d values were adjusted to leaf
195 values following Helliker and Richter (2008), i.e., sub-tropical to boreal leaf temperatures converging to 21.4 ± 2.2
196 $^\circ\text{C}$. Further details of these calculations can be found in Text S1 of Lavergne et al. (2020b), and in the Electronic
197 Annexure.

198 3.3. Estimation of plant-specific parameters

199 To estimate the parameters β_c , g_m/g_s and λ , we employed a Markov chain Monte Carlo technique (MCMC)
200 in MATLAB R2017b (Mathworks, Inc.), based on widely-used delayed rejection adaptive Metropolis (DRAM)
201 algorithm of Haario et al. (2006). The approach was chosen because it allowed us to better incorporate prior
202 constraints on parameters (for instance, leaf gas exchange measurements have shown that g_m/g_s in gymnosperms
203 range around 0.5-4.3 (Yiotis and McElwain, 2019)). Parameters for C_3 woody angiosperms and gymnosperms
204 were estimated using the training dataset (Section 3.1), but also using the tree ring and leaf data from the training
205 dataset individually (the latter calibrated parameters are reported in the Electronic Annexure). In all cases, we
206 considered a model of the form of Eqns. (5-7), with Gaussian errors, and constants $b = 30\text{‰}$, $a_s = 4.4\text{‰}$,
207 $a_m = 1.8\text{‰}$ (Ubierna and Farquhar, 2014), $R = 8.3145 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, and $f = 11 \pm 4\text{‰}$ (Tcherkez, 2006). In
208 practice, we found that the best fit (lowest RMSE) was obtained using a value of $h = -1 \text{‰}$ for angiosperms,
209 and $h = -10 \text{‰}$ for gymnosperms. Rubisco kinetic parameters measured on tobacco leaves were taken from
210 Bernacchi et al. (2002). The estimated values of λ for each plant vascular group were reported relative to that of
211 tobacco at 25°C , denoted λ_{ref} . Full details of the fitting procedure, and simulation of Rubisco kinetics, can be
212 found in the Electronic Annexure.

213 3.4. Simulations of plant $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over variable $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios, and comparison to tree ring and chamber isotopic 214 data

215 We simulated the expected responses of plant $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ to environmental changes across a range of $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios
216 spanning the Cenozoic era (66 Ma onwards) from ~ 200 (e.g. Paleogene) to $1200 \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$ (e.g. LGM) using
217 Eqns. (5-7) and our best-fit values for β_c , g_m/g_s , and $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$. The simulations were performed at 20°C for two

218 different levels of vapour pressure deficit: low D (0.23 kPa) and high D (1.54 kPa). Although this choice of D
219 levels may seem arbitrary, it encompasses a reasonably wide range of environments (optimal $D \sim 0.8$ kPa).

220 We then compared our results against our “testing dataset” which was comprised of averaged $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ differences
221 calculated from the tree ring and leaf isotopic compilation, Cenozoic geological data from the available literature
222 sources (Diefendorf et al., 2015; Bechtel et al., 2008, 2019; Schlanser et al., 2020a; Schouten et al., 2007), and the
223 chamber experiments data derived from Porter et al. (2017). The chamber experiments from the latter study were
224 conducted on woody angiosperms and gymnosperms under conditions of variable $[\text{O}_2]$ and $[\text{CO}_2]$, i.e. ranging
225 from 16 to 21 % and from 428 to 1916 ppm, respectively. Note that for various reasons, we excluded these data from
226 the training dataset to estimate the plant-specific parameters. These included potential uncertainties in chamber
227 design (Porter et al., 2015), and estimation of chamber $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ values (Leavitt, 2001), which occasionally result in
228 high variability of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$. In these previously-published chamber experiments, angiosperm and gymnosperm plants
229 were grown at constant T_d and D (20 °C and 0.82 kPa, respectively). In order to be comparable to our compilation,
230 non-woody species (*Z. aethiopica*) from Porter et al. (2017) were excluded from our analysis, and we selected
231 available tree ring data at the same T_d and D levels. Tree ring data were averaged for $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$ intervals of 10
232 mol mol⁻¹ over the range 200-1200 mol mol⁻¹, and for D intervals of 0.5 kPa over the range 0.4-1.0 kPa.

233 4. Results

234 4.1. Plant-specific parameters for woody angiosperms and gymnosperms

235 Significant differences between woody angiosperms and gymnosperms are identified in all three plant-specific
236 parameters (see Table 2, Fig. 2). The best-fit values of β_c (combining leaf and tree ring datasets, correction “A”)
237 are 210 ± 25 (1σ) for angiosperms and 147 ± 10 for gymnosperms. The value for angiosperms is in excellent
238 agreement with that obtained by Lavergne et al. (2020b) using robust linear regressions (i.e. 211 ± 1.8), but that
239 for gymnosperms is lower than the one obtained by the same study (i.e. 286 ± 1.6), and the value first estimated by
240 Wang et al. (2017), i.e. 343.

241 For both corrections, g_m/g_s is higher in angiosperms (e.g. 2.6 ± 0.7) than in gymnosperms (e.g. 0.98 ± 0.10),
242 with greater spread in the values for angiosperms. These general trends echo the findings of previous studies
243 (Yiotis and McElwain, 2019; Flexas and Carriquí, 2020) showing higher g_m in angiosperms than in gymnosperms
244 using leaf-gas exchange measurements. For instance, Yiotis and McElwain (2019) found g_m/g_s values in the range
245 1.8 ± 1.1 for angiosperms and 0.9 ± 0.1 for gymnosperms, in good agreement with our values. Flexas and Carriquí
246 (2020) found a slightly lower range of 0.8-1.7 for angiosperms (95% CI), but their range of 0.5-1.3 for gymnosperms
247 is also in good agreement with our findings.

248 The most pronounced differences between the two plant groups are observed for $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$ (Fig. 2c), with values
249 around 5.2 for angiosperms and 0.1 for gymnosperms. Using species-specific $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}}$ (correction “B”), $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$ is
250 slightly higher than using correction “A” for gymnosperms (0.2), but still significantly lower than the comparable
251 value for angiosperms (4.0).

Table 2: Best fit plant-specific parameters for Eqns. (5-7) fitted to global $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ data from leaves and tree rings. Parameters are: β_c , the ratio of carboxylation to transpiration cost factors at 25°C; g_m/g_s , the ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductance; and $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$, the amount of CO_2 released from transpiration per oxygenation reaction, relative to that of *N. tabacum* at 25°C. All values are unitless, errors are 1σ . Correction “A” used a constant post-photosynthetic fractionation factor for tree ring cellulose, $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}} = -2.1\text{‰}$, whereas correction “B” used species-specific post-photosynthetic fractionation factors (i.e., $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose,angio}} = -2.8\text{‰}$ for angiosperms and $\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose,gymno}} = -4.7\text{‰}$ for gymnosperms). Lowest RMSE values were found with $h = -1\text{‰}$ for angiosperms, and $h = -10\text{‰}$ for gymnosperms.

	β_c	g_m/g_s	$\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$	RMSE
woody angiosperms				
Correction “A”	210 ± 25	2.6 ± 0.7	5.2 ± 0.2	1.436
Correction “B”	213 ± 25	2.5 ± 0.7	4.0 ± 0.2	1.463
woody gymnosperms				
Correction “A”	147 ± 10	0.98 ± 0.10	0.1 ± 0.1	1.767
Correction “B”	281 ± 18	0.93 ± 0.10	0.2 ± 0.2	2.140

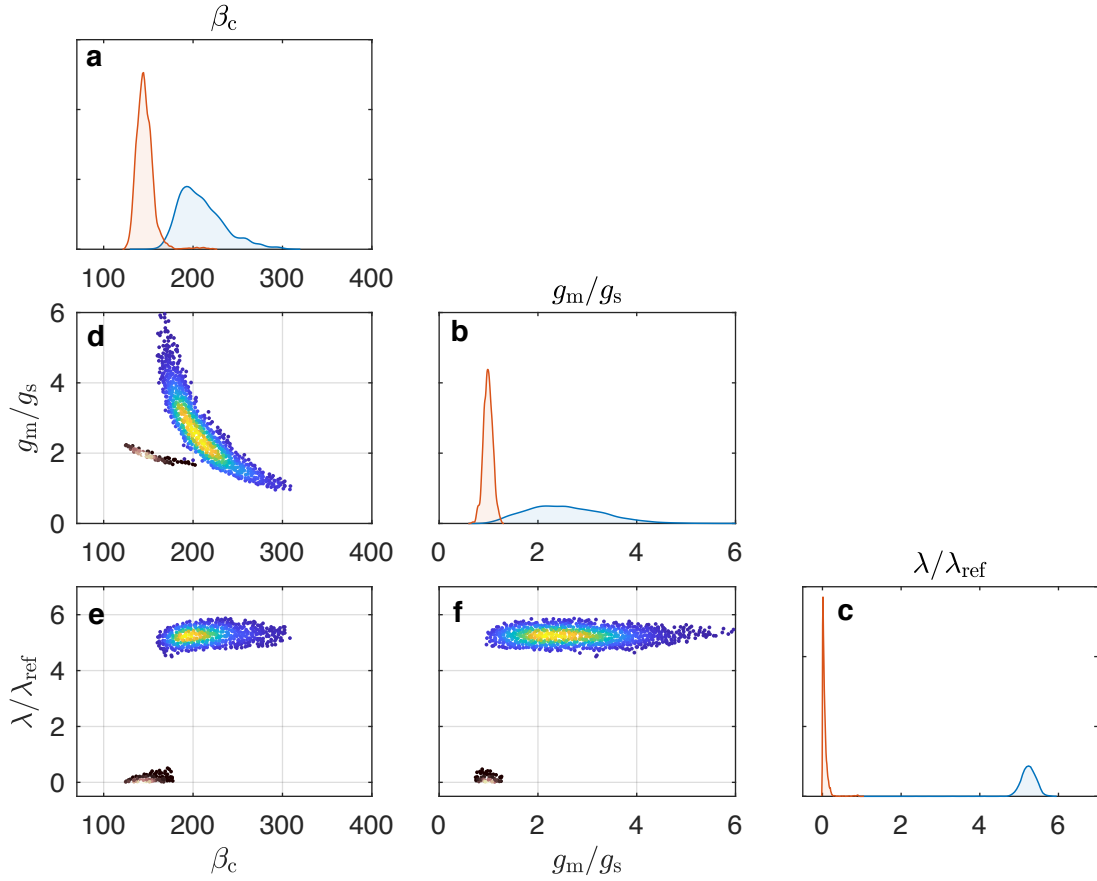


Figure 2: Probability distributions for three plant-specific parameters, estimated by MCMC for angiosperm (blue) and gymnosperm (red) species from global compilations of leaf and tree ring $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ (correction “A”). (a) shows β_c , the ratio of carboxylation to transpiration cost factors); (b) shows g_m/g_s , the ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductance; and (c) shows $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$, which is the amount of CO_2 released from photorespiration per oxygenation reaction, relative to that of *N. tabacum* at 25°C. All three parameters are unitless. (d-f) Two dimensional probability distributions showing covariance between parameters, estimated by MCMC.

252 *4.2. Simulations of plant $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over variable $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios*

253 Using our best-fit values for β_c , g_m/g_s , and $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$, we simulated the expected responses of angiosperm and
 254 gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ to $[\text{CO}_2]$ from 200 to 1200 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3a), and $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios from ~ 200 to 1200
 255 mol mol^{-1} (Fig. 3b), both at 20°C. The simulations show that gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ does not change with $[\text{O}_2]$ or
 256 $[\text{CO}_2]$ levels, but decreases by ~ 6 ‰ when D is increased from 0.23 kPa (solid red lines, Fig. 3a) to 1.43 kPa
 257 (dashed red lines). For angiosperms, $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ decreases strongly with lower $[\text{CO}_2]$ at low D (solid blue lines), but
 258 decreases slightly with lower $[\text{CO}_2]$ at high D (dashed blue lines). The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ offset between gymnosperms and
 259 angiosperms varies across $[\text{CO}_2]$ levels.

260 For simplicity, we define the offset in discrimination between co-located (i.e same T_d and D) angiosperm and
 261 gymnosperm plants as $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^* = \Delta_{\text{a}} - \Delta_{\text{g}}$, where the subscripts “a” and “g” are adopted to indicate each plant group,
 262 respectively. The asterisk (*) denotes an average isotopic offset between two tissues, rather than a fractionation in
 263 the strict sense. Figures 3b,c show that $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ decreases linearly with increasing $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio, when T_d and D
 264 are held constant. In addition, $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ values are greater at higher D (dashed purple lines, Fig. 3c) and high T_d (Fig.
 265 S3, see Electronic Annexure).

266 Because most ($> 70\%$) of the plants in our training dataset grew between $D = 0.23$ and 1.54 kPa, Figure 3c
 267 shows that $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ is expected to fall in a large range between +3.5 and -4.0 ‰ at 20 °C, over $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ levels
 268 likely experienced over the Cenozoic (shaded purple region). The dependence of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ on T_d is weaker, and
 269 does not significantly affect this range, given the T_d values in our dataset ($> 80\%$ between 17 and 23 °C). The
 270 simulations show that the linear relationship between $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ and $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio is predominantly affected by the
 271 photorespiration term, rather than by the diffusion and carboxylation terms (Fig. 3c). Overall, at low $D = 0.23$
 272 kPa, the photorespiration term contributes to up to -9% of the difference in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between the two groups over
 273 the entire range of $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio, while the terms related to diffusion and Rubisco carboxylation account for
 274 $+4\%$ of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ over this range.

275 *4.3. Dependence of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ on D and atmospheric $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio: a semi-empirical linear model*

276 A semi-empirical expression can be derived for describing $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ in terms of both D and $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios when
 277 plants from the two vascular groups are growing under the same environmental conditions:

$$278 \quad \Delta_{\text{a-g}}^* \approx \varepsilon_f \frac{[\text{O}_2]}{[\text{CO}_2]} + \varepsilon_{ab} D + \varepsilon_0 \quad (8)$$

279 where ε_f is a coefficient related to the difference in fractionation between angiosperms and gymnosperms due to
 280 photorespiration terms, and ε_{ab} is a coefficient related to differences attributed to CO_2 diffusion and carboxylation.
 281 At this stage the meaning of the third term, ε_0 is not fully clear, but is included to describe all other remaining
 282 contributions (including differences in respiration, random effects, etc.), which we assume to be constant. Because
 283 the CO_2 compensation point is related to λ , the chloroplastic oxygen concentration O_c (in turn related to $[\text{O}_2]$) and

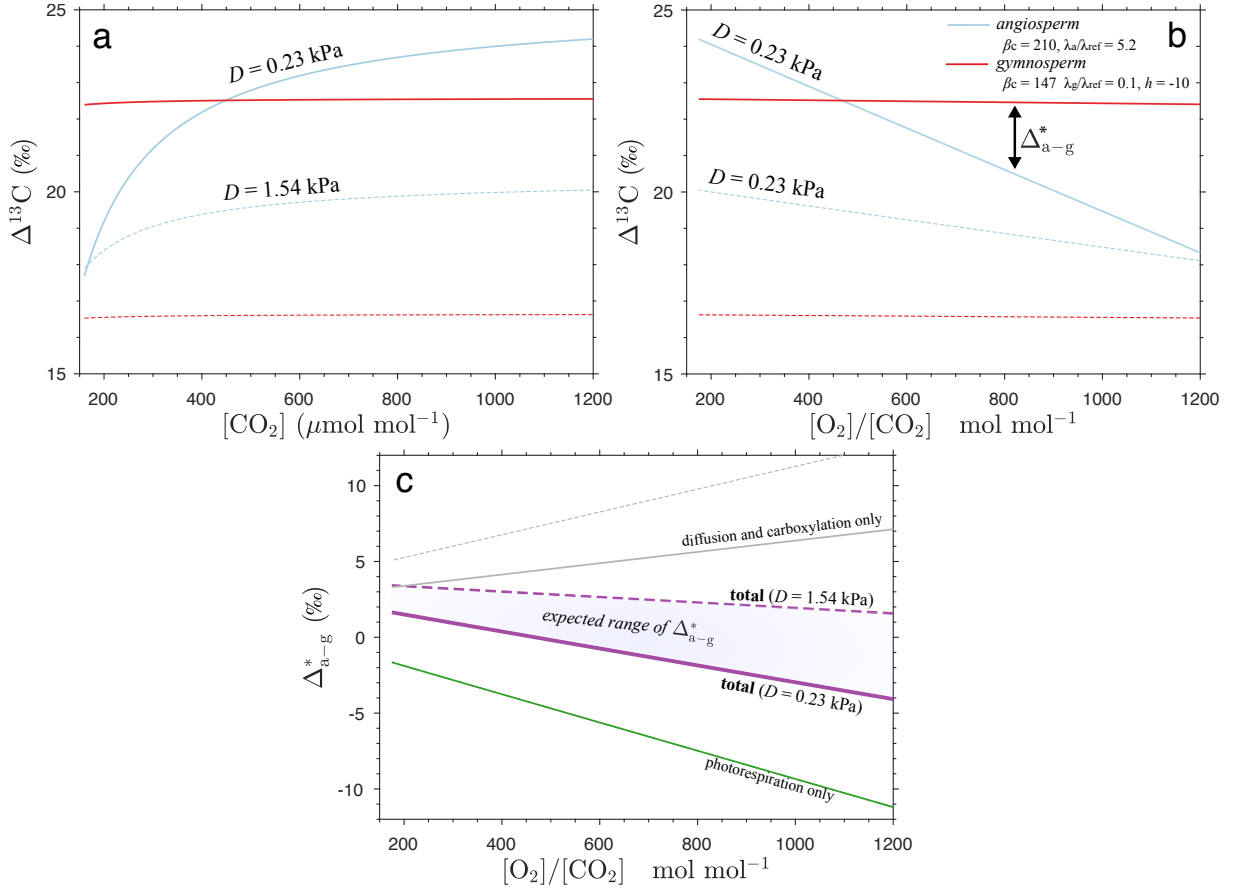


Figure 3: Simulations of the effects of $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ ratio on plant $\Delta^{13}C$ for different environmental conditions. We used the best-fit values for plant specific traits (β_c , ratio of carboxylation to transpiration cost factors; g_m/g_s , ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductances; and λ , the amount of CO_2 released by photorespiration per oxygenation reaction) as estimated from the MCMC approach applied to Eqns. (5-7). Parameters are listed in Table (2). (a) shows the effect of atmospheric CO_2 concentrations on $\Delta^{13}C$ for angiosperms (blue curves) and gymnosperms (red), both at vapour pressure deficits of $D = 1.54$ kPa (dashed lines) and $D = 0.23$ kPa (solid lines); (b) shows the corresponding curves plotted against $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ ratio, and (c) $\Delta^*_{a-g} = \Delta_a - \Delta_g$ against $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ (purple curves), along with contributions from each term separately (green and grey lines).

284 the Rubisco specificity, $S_{c/o}$ (Busch, 2020), the first term can be approximated (using Eqns. 4-5) as:

$$285 \quad \varepsilon_f \approx S_{c/o}^{-1} [\lambda_g(f - wh_g) - \lambda_a(f - wh_a)] \quad (9)$$

286 where the subscripts a and g denote angiosperm and gymnosperm-specific λ values, respectively. Eqns. (8-9)
 287 provide a simple, but powerful framework for interpreting co-located plant isotope records. Eqn. 8 predicts that
 288 Δ^*_{a-g} will vary linearly with both D and $[O_2]:[CO_2]$, if ε_{ab} and ε_f are constant. Eqn. 9 predicts the slope of Δ^*_{a-g}
 289 versus $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ will be negative if $\lambda_a > \lambda_g$, and will be steeper if differences in λ increase. It is possible that
 290 λ may vary in a subtle way from species to species within each plant group, although this is yet to be determined.
 291 Such variations might lead to slightly different ε_f when comparing a single species of gymnosperm to another
 292 species of angiosperm at any given location. However, when several species are compared, we expect this variation
 293 will be averaged out, because according to our analysis, differences in λ appear to be fairly robust across each plant
 294 group.

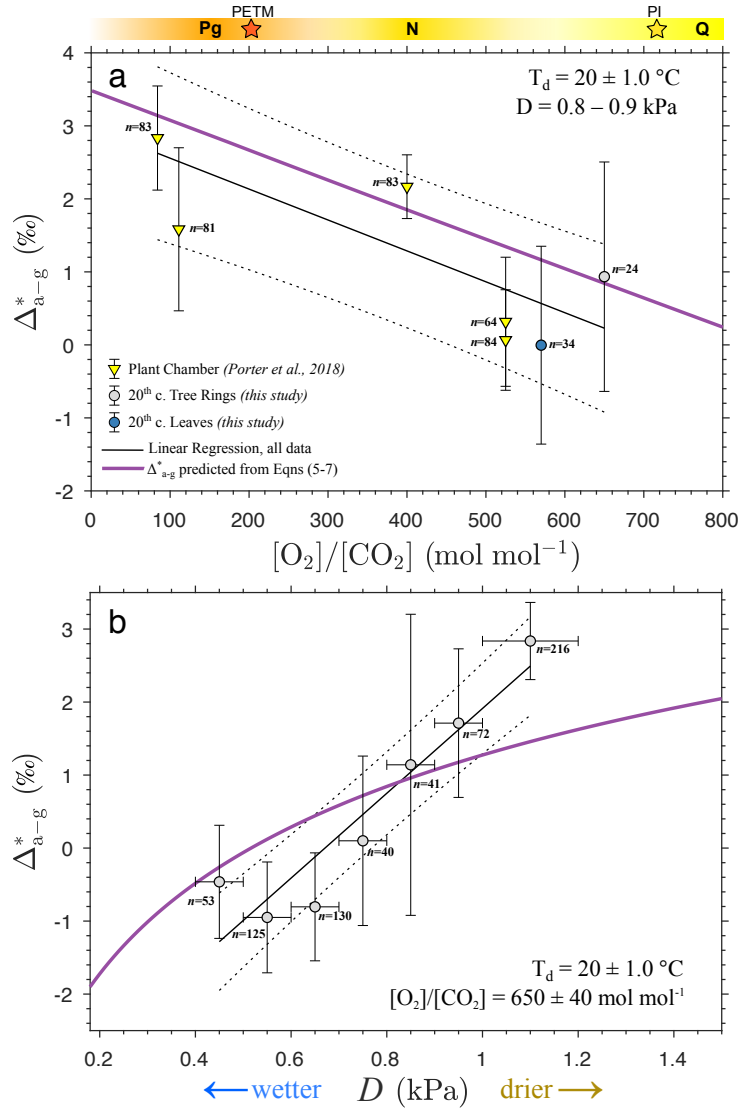


Figure 4: Differences between average angiosperm and gymnosperm carbon isotope discrimination, Δ^*_{a-g} , inferred from plant chamber, leaves and tree ring data at 20 °C, (a) plotted against $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ at vapor pressure deficit (D) of 0.85 kPa, and (b) against vapor pressure deficit at $[O_2]/[CO_2] = 650$ mol mol⁻¹. The bars represent the 95% confidence intervals of the Δ^*_{a-g} values. (a) shows linear partial least-squares fit in black over a range of $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ from 400-650 mol mol⁻¹, with 1 σ prediction bounds. Errors in $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ are approximately the size of each datapoint. In (b), a partial linear least-squares fit is shown in black over 0.45 to 1.1 kPa, error bars indicating the bin width, with the total number (n) of angiosperm and gymnosperm data within each bin indicated next to each datapoint. The fitted coefficients are $\varepsilon_f = -0.004 \pm 0.002$ ‰ mol mol⁻¹, $\varepsilon_{ab} = 5.9 \pm 1.3$ ‰ mol mol⁻¹ (1 σ), and $\varepsilon_0 = -0.9$ ‰ (Eqn. 8). The relationship predicted according to the comprehensive *ab initio* model (Eqns 5-7) is also shown in heavy purple lines. For comparison, a rough timescale for the Cenozoic is shown at the top of the figure (note: it is likely that there was considerable overlap in the $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ range of the Palaeogene and Neogene). PI = pre-industrial value, Q = Quaternary, N = Neogene, Pg = Paleogene, PETM = Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum.

295 Our proposed model (Eqn. 8) is simple enough to be tested against stable carbon isotope data from plant chamber
 296 experiments, as well as tree rings and leaves (see Fig. 4a,c caption, and details of “testing dataset” in Methods).
 297 Overall, Δ^*_{a-g} shows significant variation with both D (Fig. 4b) and $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ (Fig. 4a). Δ^*_{a-g} decreases with
 298 $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ modestly, from approximately 100 to 650 mol mol⁻¹ (Fig. 4a), as would be expected from our linear
 299 model (Eqn. 8). The linear fit to the data over the 100–650 mol mol⁻¹ range of $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ values yields a slope of

300 $\varepsilon_f = -0.004 \pm 0.002 \text{ ‰ mol mol}^{-1}$ (1σ), with an intercept of $3.0 \pm 1.0 \text{ ‰}$. Although there is more scatter in this
301 relationship (adjusted $R^2 = 0.51$) and the trend is modest, it is in agreement with the slope predicted by Eqns. (5-7)
302 to within 1σ prediction bounds. Note that to ensure robust binning, a minimum number of 6 angiosperms and 6
303 gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were used in the calculation of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$. Fits are found to be somewhat insensitive to the
304 binning procedure when a different bin width (i.e., 30 mol mol^{-1}) is chosen; the resulting regressed coefficients are
305 not significantly different ($\varepsilon_f = -0.0037 \pm 0.0014 \text{ ‰ mol mol}^{-1}$). All binned data can be found in the Electronic
306 Annexure.

307 The slope of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ versus D is higher than that of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ versus $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$, and in the opposite direction (Fig. 4b).
308 A linear fit to the binned data in Figure 4b yielded a positive slope of $\varepsilon_{ab} = 5.9 \pm 1.3 \text{ ‰ mol mol}^{-1}$ (1σ), with
309 an intercept of -3.9 ± 1.0 (adjusted $R^2 = 0.86$). This result is in general agreement with the predictions (purple
310 lines, Fig. 4b) at moderate D levels (i.e. between 0.7 and 1 kPa). However, the slope of $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ versus D as implied
311 by the data, is greater than that predicted by Eqns. (5-7). Figure 4b shows that the predictions using Eqns. (5-7)
312 diverge slightly from the trend in the data at $0.5 < D < 0.7$ kPa and at > 1 kPa.

313 Finally, using our fitted value for ε_f , it is possible to calculate the Rubisco specificity ($S_{\text{c/o}}$) using Eqn. 9. We
314 estimated that $S_{\text{c/o}} = 290 \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$, assuming $f = 11\%$, $h_{\text{a}} = -1\%$, $h_{\text{g}} = -10\%$, $\lambda_{\text{ref}} = 0.6$, and using the
315 previously-estimated values for $\lambda_{\text{a}}/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$, and $\lambda_{\text{g}}/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$ (i.e., 5.2 and 0.1, respectively, Section 4.1), as well as the
316 solubility conversion factors (liquid to gas phase) from Galmés et al. (2016).

317 5. Discussion

318 5.1. Basis for the relationships between $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$, D , and $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$

319 The relationships between $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ and vapor pressure deficit (D), and between $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ and $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$, at least over
320 100 to 650 mol mol^{-1} , are both noteworthy. To the best of our knowledge, none of them has been described
321 before - but both follow from the comprehensive *ab initio* model of discrimination (see Sections 2 and 4.2), and
322 from key differences in plant-specific traits. These traits are: β_{c} , the ratio of cost factors for carboxylation and
323 transpiration; $g_{\text{m}}/g_{\text{s}}$, the ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductances for CO_2 ; and $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$, the parameter related
324 to photorespiration (Section 4.1). Gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ is more sensitive to D than angiosperms. This is because
325 lower values of $g_{\text{m}}/g_{\text{s}}$ in gymnosperms amplify the response of χ_{c} to D , via Eqn. (6). In addition, gymnosperms
326 are less responsive to $[\text{CO}_2]$ because $\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$ is generally much lower in this plant group than in angiosperms,
327 reducing the photorespiratory compensation point (Eqn. 4). Our findings therefore support the recent study of
328 Sheldon et al. (2020), who found that gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values obtained from herbarium records were largely
329 insensitive to rising levels of $[\text{CO}_2]$ from 1850 CE to present - and provide a mechanistic explanation for these
330 authors' observations.

331 Rubisco specificity is fairly well constrained in C_3 plants, with a range of around 85-110 mol mol^{-1} at 25°C , with
332 little variation according to C_3 phylogenetic group (Orr et al., 2016). Using a compilation of *in vitro* data, as well as
333 leaf data, Galmés et al. (2016) obtained an average value of 108 mol mol^{-1} at 20°C . Our value of 290 mol mol^{-1}
334 is thus higher than the range of values obtained in the literature, although relatively of the same order of magnitude.

335 It is worth noting that a rough estimate of the Rubisco specificity - a fundamental parameter in the biochemistry
336 of photosynthesis - can be obtained independently from carbon isotopic measurements at known $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ levels
337 using a simple linear fit. It gives us confidence in the generality of our findings. One possible explanation for our
338 higher than average estimate might be inaccuracies in the (assumed) values of λ_{ref} and h . For instance, a value of
339 0.2 for λ_{ref} would decrease our estimate of $S_{c/o}$ to 97 mol mol⁻¹, which would be more consistent with values
340 from the literature. We expect that it will be possible to better constrain $S_{c/o}$ once further information about λ_{ref}
341 and h become available.

342 How can the variation in λ/λ_{ref} be interpreted? There is currently no published study investigating the values for
343 λ , but we can get insights from the theory. [Busch \(2020\)](#) define the variable as $\lambda = 0.5(1 - \alpha_G) + \alpha_T$, where α_G is
344 the proportion of glycine removed from the photorespiratory pathway, and α_T is proportion of 2-phosphoglycolate
345 carbon exported as CH₂-THF. Glycine is produced via the photorespiratory pathway, and forms a key precursor of
346 compounds (e.g. dehydrins, glycine betaine) which are accumulated in higher plants in response to environmental
347 stresses such as desiccation and damage by reactive oxygen radicals, e.g. [Sakamoto and Murata \(2002\)](#). We
348 suggest that higher α_G values in gymnosperms (hence lower λ) is consistent both with ecology (e.g. conifer
349 tolerance to drought), as well as gymnosperm evolutionary history (evolution under high $[O_2]$ atmospheres). The
350 effects of λ/λ_{ref} on $\Delta^{13}C$ also underscore the importance of incorporating photorespiration into models of C₃
351 plant discrimination, which has been suggested by other studies ([Schubert and Jahren, 2018](#); [Zhang et al., 2019](#);
352 [Lavergne et al., 2019](#)). We note that the value of $h = -10$ ‰, found in our study for gymnosperms, is consistent
353 with the analysis of [Schubert and Jahren \(2018\)](#). According to our analysis, and Eqn. (3), the term $f - wh$ behaves
354 as an apparent fractionation with large combined magnitude of ~ 21 ‰, which is close to the best-fit value of f
355 proposed by [Schubert and Jahren \(2018\)](#) of 19.2 ‰, without considering h .

356 Our results also imply that our values for λ are higher than tobacco (λ_{ref}). This could be interpreted as higher
357 proportion of CH₂-THF exported for lignin production, because our compilation is almost entirely from trees (as
358 opposed to lab-grown herbaceous plants). [Walker et al. \(2017\)](#) suggested $\lambda_{ref} = 0.6$ at 25°C for tobacco, and
359 identified a positive relationship between λ and temperature. However, these relationships are still speculative, and
360 so robust quantification of the true value of λ is not currently possible using our dataset. Regardless of the true
361 values of λ or λ_{ref} , differences between λ/λ_{ref} for our gymnosperm and angiosperm records appear to be robust,
362 and offer a convincing explanation for group-specific responses to changes in atmospheric $[CO_2]$ in tree ring studies
363 (e.g. [Voelker et al. \(2016\)](#)) and faunal collagen ([Hare et al., 2018](#)), and to changes in $[O_2]$ levels ([Porter et al.,](#)
364 [2017](#)).

365 5.2. Implications for Cenozoic records of stable carbon isotopes

366 Although previous geological studies (e.g. [Diefendorf et al. \(2015\)](#); [Bechtel et al. \(2019\)](#); [Schlanser et al. \(2020a\)](#))
367 have assumed a constant offset of 2-3 ‰ between co-located angiosperm and gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}C$ plants, our
368 results suggest that this offset (i.e., Δ_{a-g}^*) is variable over geological timescales. Our empirical linear model for
369 Δ_{a-g}^* (Eqns. 8-9) is directly applicable to the terrestrial geological record, assuming that the fossil plant materials
370 considered for gymnosperms and angiosperms came from the same area, and plants originally grew under similar

371 environmental conditions. In these cases, Δ_{a-g}^* should increase at higher D and atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ (assuming
372 constant $[\text{O}_2]$). According to our fits (Fig. 4), these relationships should hold for many levels of D , $[\text{O}_2]$ and
373 $[\text{CO}_2]$ over the Cenozoic, although more data are needed to evaluate whether it holds at much higher $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$,
374 i.e. LGM to pre-Industrial conditions of $> 700 \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$. No published data are yet available for testing this
375 hypothesis, but it would be a good test of the framework, because Δ_{a-g}^* should be negative during the LGM, when
376 $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$ was very high, and D was generally lower.

377 Δ_{a-g}^* values calculated from Cenozoic paleo-data generally support our novel interpretation. Figure 5 shows that
378 Δ_{a-g}^* values were very high (around $+4 \text{ ‰}$ and higher) during the Palaeocene-Eocene ($\sim 63 - 52 \text{ Ma}$), when
379 $[\text{CO}_2]$ was high, but decreased to around $+2.5 \text{ ‰}$ in the Miocene (Bechtel et al., 2019, 2008), when $[\text{CO}_2]$ was
380 lower. The lowest Δ_{a-g}^* values (-2 ‰) are observed in the 20th century from leaves and tree rings records when
381 $[\text{CO}_2]$ and/or D levels were lower. In this figure, the observed Δ_{a-g}^* values are plotted against those predicted from
382 the comprehensive model (Eqn. 5-7), using the palaeo- $[\text{CO}_2]$ curve of Foster et al. (2017), and assuming $[\text{CO}_2]$
383 equal to $\sim 1010 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ over the PETM according to Gehler et al. (2016). Note that it is difficult to estimate
384 the corresponding growing-season D and T_d values for paleo-data, but for simplicity, we have chosen nominal
385 values of 0.8 kPa and 20°C . These values describing a relatively moist atmosphere are consistent with moderate
386 to high levels of moisture availability as reconstructed from paleobotanical data for the Paleocene-Eocene (Eberle
387 and Greenwood, 2012; Greenwood et al., 2010; West et al., 2015) and Miocene (Bechtel et al., 2019) sites.

388 Figure 5 also shows trends in modern tree ring data. In an extensive survey, Leavitt and Newberry (1992) found
389 that average differences in identical-age rings from Wisconsin formed in 1992 CE (green squares) decreased with
390 site latitude across a gradient from 41°N (average $D = 1.3 \text{ kPa}$) to 45.5°N (average $D = 0.8 \text{ kPa}$). These trends
391 are also consistent with our model, which predicts that Δ_{a-g}^* must decrease with increasing site latitude, because
392 D decreases.

393 Our results show a slight deviation from the 1:1 line. The *ab initio* model based on Eqns. (5-7) generally
394 underestimates the high Δ_{a-g}^* values and overestimates the low values - but the observed and predicted Δ_{a-g}^*
395 values are in relatively good agreement across different tissues (tree rings cellulose/lipid), time periods, and
396 angiosperm and gymnosperm species ($R^2 = 0.509$, $\text{RMSE} = 0.538$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). The slight deviation of
397 predicted values from the observations might be due to systematic biases in the paleo-data or issues with some of
398 the model assumptions. Further work using a larger observational dataset, particularly derived from plant chamber
399 experiments, will very likely contribute to improve the predictive skills of the model.

400 It is worth noting that other factors not accounted for in our framework could potentially modulate Δ_{a-g}^* variations
401 in the geological record. For instance, it is possible that some of the range in Δ_{a-g}^* values, particularly in the case
402 of lipid data, could be explained by group-specific post-photosynthetic fractionations. In Figure 5 we corrected
403 fossil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data for post-photosynthetic fractionations following Diefendorf et al. (2012), i.e., using constant values
404 of $\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}} = -0.4 \text{ ‰}$ and $\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}} = -0.6 \text{ ‰}$ for angiosperm and gymnosperm terpenoids, respectively. However,
405 a recent study has shown that $\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}}$ values vary substantially between different gymnosperm clades (Diefendorf

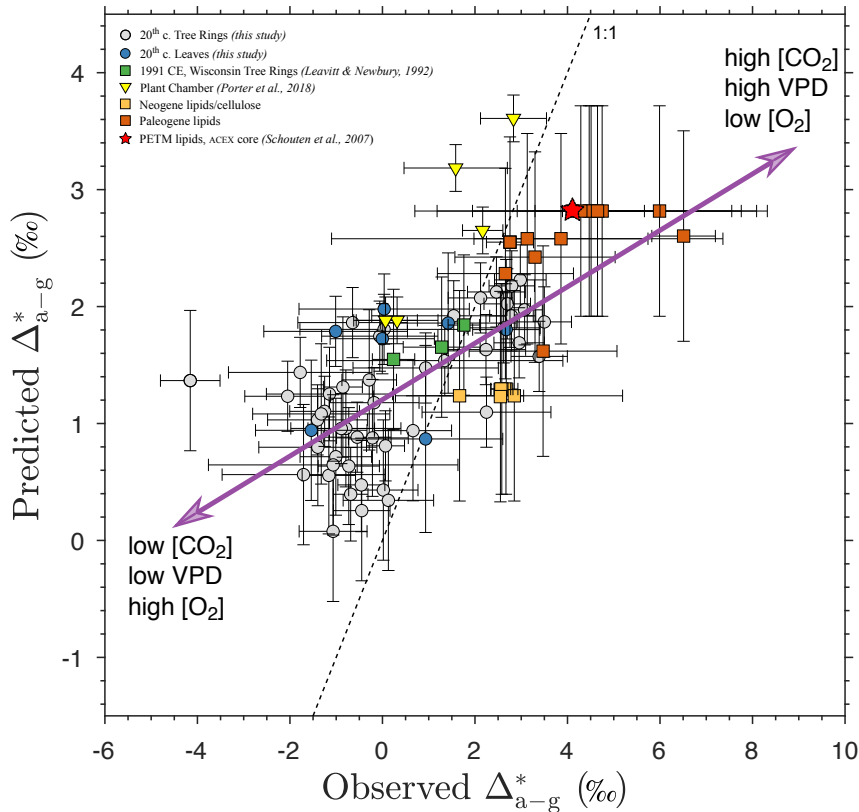


Figure 5: Changes in Δ_{a-g}^* across the Cenozoic, predicted from Eqns. (5-7), versus observed values, including 20th century tree ring and leaf data (grey and blue circles), tree ring data from [Leavitt and Newberry \(1992\)](#) (green squares), and plant chamber experiments ([Porter et al., 2017](#)) (yellow triangles). Errorbars are 95% CI. Paleogene lipid data: Bighorn Basin, Wyoming ([Diefendorf et al., 2015](#)), Canadian Arctic, and Driftwood Canyon, British Columbia ([Schlanser et al., 2020a](#)), ACEX core, Arctic [Schouten et al. \(2007\)](#). Neogene lipid and cellulose data: Poland and Austria [Bechtel et al. \(2008, 2019\)](#). Lipid data are corrected for variations in post-photosynthetic fractionations between angiosperms and gymnosperms (e.g. $\epsilon_{lipid} = -0.4$ ‰ and $\epsilon_{lipid} = -0.6$ ‰ for angiosperm and gymnosperm terpenoids ([Diefendorf et al., 2012](#)), respectively). PETM: Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum.

406 [et al., 2019](#)). This variation is expected to be averaged if several species of gymnosperms grew together, but it is
 407 difficult to know the size of the effect on Δ_{a-g}^* if the isotopic record considered is biased towards one particular
 408 species. There are other potentially confounding effects on geological Δ_{a-g}^* values. Older leaves tend to be more
 409 depleted in ^{13}C than younger leaves, by up to 2.1 ‰ ([Vogado et al., 2020](#)), because ^{13}C -depleted photosynthetic
 410 carbon is used along with carbon imported from outside the leaf as the leaf develops. This might lead to age-related
 411 difference in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between plant species that retain their leaves for long times (e.g. evergreens) and deciduous
 412 plants. Further research is needed to better understand and quantify these effects on Δ_{a-g}^* .

413 5.3. Implications for paleo-[CO₂] proxies based on C₃ plant discrimination

414 Two models of carbon isotope discrimination are currently used to estimate paleo-[CO₂] from fossil C₃ plant matter
 415 ([Schubert and Jahren, 2012; Franks et al., 2014](#)), and both models have been extensively applied to Cenozoic records
 416 ([Cui and Schubert, 2018; Cui et al., 2020; Reichgelt et al., 2020; Royer et al., 2019](#)). Both formulations are related
 417 to the FvCB model ([Schubert and Jahren, 2018; Hollis et al., 2019](#)) but differ according to their parameterisation
 418 and assumptions. In the [Franks et al. \(2014\)](#) model, phylogenetic dependencies are incorporated via a term for

419 the maximum total conductance of CO₂ ($g_{s,max}/1.6$) obtained from measurements of stomatal size and density,
 420 and photorespiration is assumed to be negligible. In the Schubert and Jahren (2018) model (see also Schubert
 421 and Jahren (2012)), discrimination is assumed to be largely independent of phylogeny (with constant Δ_{a-g}^*),
 422 but photorespiration terms are effectively included (i.e. the hyperbolic relationship in this model is functionally
 423 equivalent to Eqn. (5) but assuming constant Γ^*). Presently, there is no easy way to include a term for atmospheric
 424 humidity (i.e. D , indirectly related to soil moisture availability), [O₂], or variable Γ^* , explicitly in either model.
 425 All of these effects could lead to biases in palaeo-[CO₂] estimated from fossil C₃ plant matter, if unaccounted
 426 for (Hollis et al., 2019). Porter et al. (2019) recently suggested that these paleo-[CO₂] proxies could be further
 427 improved by correcting for the effects of [O₂] and phylogeny, while Steinthorsdottir et al. (2020) recently showed
 428 that better precision and accuracy can sometimes be achieved if several angiosperm and gymnosperm species from
 429 one location are used, rather than individual species. These suggestions are consistent with our approach and give
 430 us confidence about the relevance of our findings.

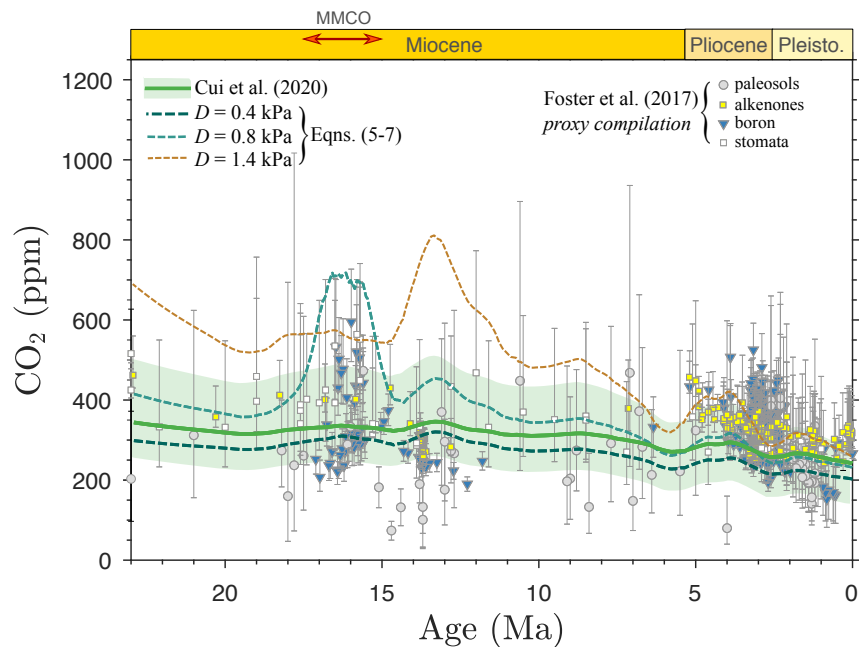


Figure 6: Paleo-[CO₂] proxies across the Cenozoic, showing the recent curve of Cui et al. (2020), based on the model of C₃ land plant discrimination of Schubert and Jahren (2012, 2018) (heavy green line, with shaded green area representing 84% confidence intervals from Cui et al. (2020)). Dashed green lines represent paleo-[CO₂] estimated by numerical solution of Eqns. (5-7), this study, applied to the same data compilation of Cui et al. (2020), with locally weighted (LOWESS, $\alpha=0.15$) fits through $n = 461$ data points (not shown), at three different levels of vapor pressure deficit ($D = 0.4, 0.8, 1.4$ kPa). For numerical modeling, best-fit parameters for angiosperms (Section 4.1, this study) were used. For comparison, raw paleo-[CO₂] proxy data from the compilation of Foster et al. (2017) is also shown (see references therein for paleosol, alkenone, boron, and stomatal datasets). Pleisto: Pleistocene; MMCO: Mid-Miocene Climatic Optimum.

431 Overall, our results suggest that all the above-mentioned factors - photorespiration, [O₂], phylogenetic dependence,
 432 and variable Γ^* - are important to include in paleo-[CO₂] proxies based on discrimination in terrestrial C₃ plants.
 433 Although further investigations are necessary (but are beyond the scope of this study), the framework presented here
 434 should provide a way forward to correct paleo-[CO₂] proxies for these effects. To illustrate this point, we consider
 435 the recent record of palaeo-[CO₂] from Cui et al. (2020) dominated by angiosperm plants growing in sites with

436 relatively high atmospheric humidity (low D). In Figure 6 we compare the respective paleo-[CO₂] data points with
437 those predicted from Eqns (5-7) (numerical solution estimated using the MATLAB ‘solve’ function) using the Cui
438 et al. (2020) dataset and the best-fit values from our Table 2 for angiosperms. The resulting paleo-[CO₂] predicted
439 by this method (dashed curves in Fig. 6) agrees with the curve of Cui et al. (2020) at low D levels ($D = 0.4$ kPa,
440 dashed heavy teal line), to within uncertainties. In this figure, we also plot palaeo-[CO₂] data derived from the
441 compilation of Foster et al. (2017). Our curve at $D = 0.4$ kPa also agrees with the spline of Foster et al. (2017) (for
442 clarity, not shown) to within uncertainties. We note that the agreement with Cui et al. (2020) at low D is perhaps
443 unsurprising, considering that the Schubert and Jahren (2018) model is biased towards chamber data, with low D
444 levels.

445 However, our [CO₂] curves at higher D levels (i.e., $D = 0.8$ and $D = 1.4$ kPa, dashed blue and brown lines) are
446 significantly higher than the curve of Cui et al. (2020). Considering that fewer than 10% of trees in our modern
447 global compilation grew at $D < 0.4$ kPa, and over 50% of angiosperms grew at $D > 1.0$ kPa, higher D levels are
448 possible in the fossil record. If C₃ plants originally grew under higher D levels, then our estimates at $D = 0.8$
449 and $D = 1.4$ kPa would result in [CO₂] values ranging between 550 and 700 ppm at the Mid-Miocene Climatic
450 Optimum (MMCO, 17 to 15 Ma ago).

451 Steinhorsdottir et al. (2020) recently estimated paleo-[CO₂] from MMCO Lagerstätte deposits using different
452 approaches; i.e., 402 - 614 ppm using stomatal methods, 364 - 609 ppm using the Franks et al. (2014) method,
453 and 471 - 624 ppm using the C₃ proxy method of Schubert and Jahren (2012). Their estimates are higher than
454 previously inferred from carbonate and $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ (400 - 450 ppm; Foster et al. (2017)). [CO₂] values around 400 - 450
455 ppm as suggested by the last study imply extremely high equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS), i.e. warming of
456 5 °K at the MCO for a doubling of [CO₂], which is out of the 2.3 - 4.7 °K range proposed by a growing number
457 of studies based on both modern and paleo-records (e.g., Sherwood et al. (2020)). The range of [CO₂] values
458 implied by our re-modeling of the Cui et al. (2020) compilation, and by Steinhorsdottir et al. (2020) are more
459 consistent with an ECS lower than 5 °K, suggesting that [CO₂] should be revised upwards for the MCO in paleo
460 reconstructions.

461 Although incorporating greater diversity of plant physiological responses (Porter et al., 2019; Yiotis and McElwain,
462 2019; Steinhorsdottir et al., 2020), and/or increasing the number of parameters into models (Konrad et al., 2020)
463 might help to improve the accuracy of paleo-[CO₂] proxies, there are nevertheless disadvantages to our approach.
464 For instance, our proposed framework assumes constant anatomical and physiological differences across plant
465 evolutionary history (particularly with respect to photorespiration), or even within a single plant lifetime, which
466 might not be the case (Reich et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the differences identified here are robust across a wide
467 variety of woody species, and environments. Further research is needed to determine whether these relationships
468 hold over a wider range of temperatures, [O₂]:[CO₂] ratios, water availability, and nutrient regimes.

469 6. Conclusion

470 In this study, we aimed to better understand the factors that influence differences in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ between angiosperm
471 and gymnosperm C_3 woody plants. Using a comprehensive *ab initio* model of carbon isotope discrimination, and
472 training it against a very large 20th century dataset, we demonstrated that isotope discrimination is phylogeny-
473 dependent. Multiple intrinsic physiological factors give rise to differences in gymnosperm and angiosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$
474 values - including β_c - the ratio of cost factors for carboxylation to transpiration (related to leaf physiology), g_m/g_s
475 - the ratio of mesophyll to stomatal conductances for CO_2 (related to leaf morphology), and λ - the fraction of CO_2
476 released during photorespiration (related to plant carbon metabolism).

477 We also showed that the $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ offset between the two C_3 plant groups is very likely not constant over time, but
478 varies with environmental conditions, and changes in atmospheric $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio. Overall, our results can be
479 summarised as follows:

- 480 • $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in angiosperms is more sensitive to $[\text{CO}_2]$ than in gymnosperms;
- 481 • $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in gymnosperms is more sensitive to D than in angiosperms;
- 482 • $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ increases modestly with decreasing $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratio, and/or increasing $[\text{CO}_2]$,
- 483 • $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ increases strongly with increasing D .

484 These findings have important implications for geological studies because they suggest that the substantial variations
485 of stable carbon isotopic composition observed in the geological record (up to 7 ‰) reflect not only diagenesis, or
486 post-photosynthetic fractionation (as has been previously assumed), but also different plant responses to D , and
487 changing atmospheric $[\text{O}_2]:[\text{CO}_2]$ ratios. On the other hand, the simple model presented here for $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ (Eqn. 8)
488 presents an opportunity to refine $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ -based proxies of paleoatmospheric composition, if diagenesis can be ruled
489 out, and D levels can be independently constrained.

490 Our framework reconciles previously unexplained observed patterns, such as covariation of modern tree ring $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$
491 with latitude (and D) (Leavitt and Newberry, 1992), variable $[\text{O}_2]$ (Porter et al., 2017), and differences during
492 glacial maxima (Hare et al., 2018; Breecker, 2017). It also offers a testable relationship that can be evaluated and
493 refined using plant chamber experiments and field observations. For instance, we predict that $\Delta_{\text{a-g}}^*$ will increase
494 in future decades of the 21st century, because D is likely to rise along with anthropogenic $[\text{CO}_2]$ emissions.

495 *Declaration of Competing Interest*

496 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have
497 appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

498 Acknowledgments

499 This work was supported by a South African NRF - ERC Partnership Grant (No. 120141) to VJH for research leave
500 to Imperial College, kindly hosted by H. Graven. A.L. was supported by a Marie Skłodowska-Curie Individual

501 Fellowship under the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme (Grant agreement no:
502 838739 ECAW-ISO). We thank S. Leavitt, I. C. Prentice, and Caitlyn Witkowski, for helpful suggestions, and
503 comments. The meticulous and constructive comments of three anonymous reviewers are appreciated.

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Differences in carbon isotope discrimination between angiosperm and gymnosperm woody plants, and their relationship to atmospheric O₂:CO₂ ratio, physiology, and environment

(ELECTRONIC ANNEX)

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1 Locations of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ dataset

Figure S1 shows the location of the tree ring and leaf data sites for angiosperm and gymnosperm plants used in the study. The isotopic data are derived from diverse species and plant functional types growing in a wide range of environments characterised by different soil water content and evaporative demand (vapour pressure deficit, D , ranging around 0.1 and 2 kPa).

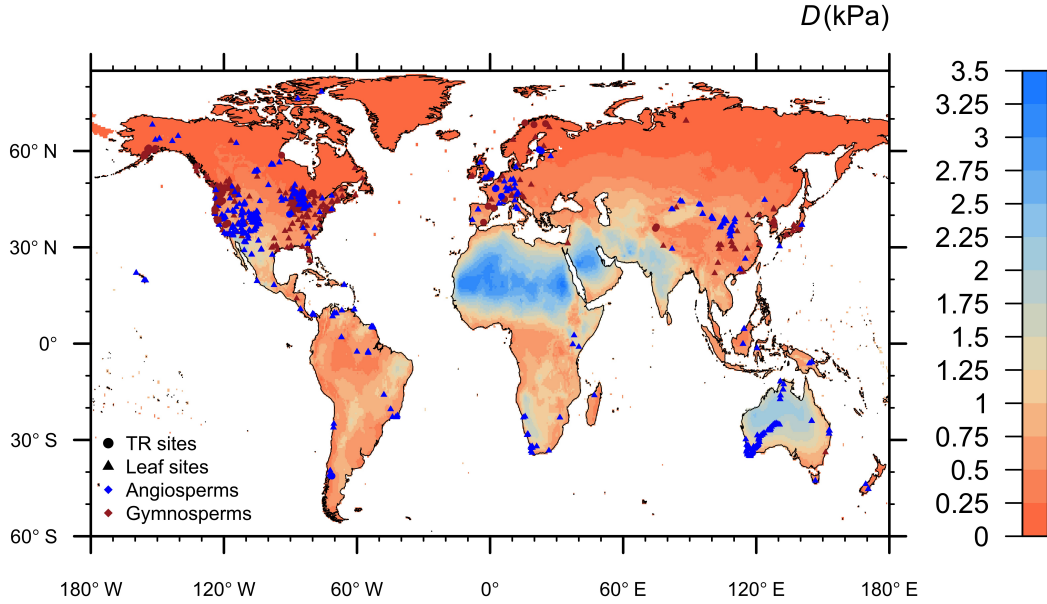


Figure S1: Global locations of tree ring (TR) and leaf stable carbon isotopic data. Blue points correspond to angiosperms, while red points are for gymnosperms. Yearly-averaged daytime vapour pressure deficit (D) is given in kPa.

2 Derivation of expression for $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C_c -basis (Eq. 4, main text)

An comprehensive expression for leaf carbon isotope discrimination, assuming finite mesophyll conductance, and including photorespiration terms (but excluding fractionation during respiration), was proposed by [14] as:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = a_s(1 - \chi) + a_m(\chi - \chi_c) + b\chi_c - (f - wh)\frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a} \quad (2.1)$$

where for convenience we adopt the notation suggested by ref. [16] of $\chi = C_i/C_a$, and $\chi_c = C_c/C_a$. Assuming that the CO_2 flux from the outside of the leaf to the intercellular spaces is equal to the flux from the intercellular spaces to the chloroplast, Fick's law yields:

$$A = g_s(C_a - C_i) = g_m(C_i - C_c) \quad (2.2)$$

which can be rewritten as:

$$g_s(1 - \chi) = \theta_m g_s(\chi - \chi_c) \quad (2.3)$$

where θ_m is the ratio of mesophyll (g_m) to stomatal conductance (g_s). Rearranging this expression yields

$$(1 - \chi) = \frac{\theta_m(1 - \chi_c)}{1 + \theta_m}, \text{ and} \quad (2.4)$$

$$(\chi - \chi_c) = \frac{1 - \chi_c}{1 + \theta_m} \quad (2.5)$$

Inserting Eqns 1.4-1.5 into Eq. 1.1 yields the expression for $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in terms of χ_c :

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = \bar{a} + [b - \bar{a}]\chi_c - f\frac{\Gamma_c}{C_a} \quad (2.6)$$

where $\bar{a} = (a_s\theta_m + a_m)/(1 + \theta_m)$.

3 Rubisco kinetics

Parameters associated with Rubisco kinetics include the Michaelis-Menten coefficients for CO_2 , K_c (Pa), and O_2 , K_o (Pa), as well as Γ_c (Pa). The former two parameters are combined into the effective Michaelis-Menten coefficient for Rubisco, K (Pa), as follows:

$$K = K_c \left(1 + \frac{p\text{O}_2}{K_o}\right) \quad (3.1)$$

Both K_c and K_o exhibit an Arrhenius temperature response which depends on their respective activation energies ($E_{a,Kc}$ and $E_{a,Ko}$). At any given temperature T (K), these variables in (Pa) were computed as follows:

$$K_c(T) = K_{c,25} \times 10^{-6} P_{\text{atm}} \exp\left[\frac{E_{a,Kc}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{298.15} - \frac{1}{T}\right)\right] \quad (3.2)$$

$$K_o(T) = K_{o,25} \times 10^{-3} P_{\text{atm}} \exp\left[\frac{E_{a,Ko}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{298.15} - \frac{1}{T}\right)\right] \quad (3.3)$$

Values for $K_{c,25}$, $E_{a,Kc}$, $K_{o,25}$, and $E_{a,Ko}$ were taken from study [11] as $272.38 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $80.99 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, $165.82 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1}$, and $23.72 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ respectively. For leaf and tree ring data, $p\text{O}_2$ was estimated from altitude (z , in meters) via a standard barometric formula:

$$p\text{O}_2 [\text{Pa}] = 101325 \times (1 - (2.25577 \times 10^{-5})z)^{5.25588} \quad (3.4)$$

Finally, the photorespiratory CO_2 compensation point (Pa) was calculated as:

$$\Gamma_c(T) = \Gamma_{c,25} \times 10^{-6} P_{\text{atm}} (\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}) \exp\left[\frac{E_{a,\Gamma_c}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{298.15} - \frac{1}{T}\right)\right] \quad (3.5)$$

Likewise, $\Gamma_{c,25}$ and E_{a,Γ_c} were taken from [11] as $37.43 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and $24.46 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$. Since these values were estimated for tobacco at 25°C , we use the λ_{ref} value inferred from [15] as 0.6.

4 Estimation of daytime growing leaf temperature, T_d

Latitude and longitude were used to extract minimum and maximum temperatures (T_{min} and T_{max} , $^\circ\text{C}$), and actual vapor pressure (e_a) for each site from monthly 0.5° resolution data provided by the Climatic

Research Unit (CRU Ts4.03; Ref. [9]). We calculated the raw monthly mean daytime air T ($T_{d,raw}$) to consider only the part of the day when photosynthesis occurs, as:

$$T_{d,raw} = T_{max} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{1-x^2}}{2\arccos x} \right] + T_{min} \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{1-x^2}}{2\arccos x} \right] \quad (4.1)$$

where $x = -\tan\phi\tan\delta$, with ϕ the latitude, and δ the average solar declination for the month.

We then convert raw monthly mean daytime air temperature to rough estimation of leaf temperature, T_d , using the relationship identified between mean daytime air temperature (growing season) and leaf temperature in [10] (illustrated in Figure S2, S3). A regression was performed on the [10] data, excluding outlier values for the high Arctic (shown in red). The regression yielded a slope of 0.2998, and an intercept of 15.287 °C ($R^2 = 0.3$). This attenuates the variation in the raw values, to a range between 12 and 23 °C (e.g. for gymnosperms, shown below).

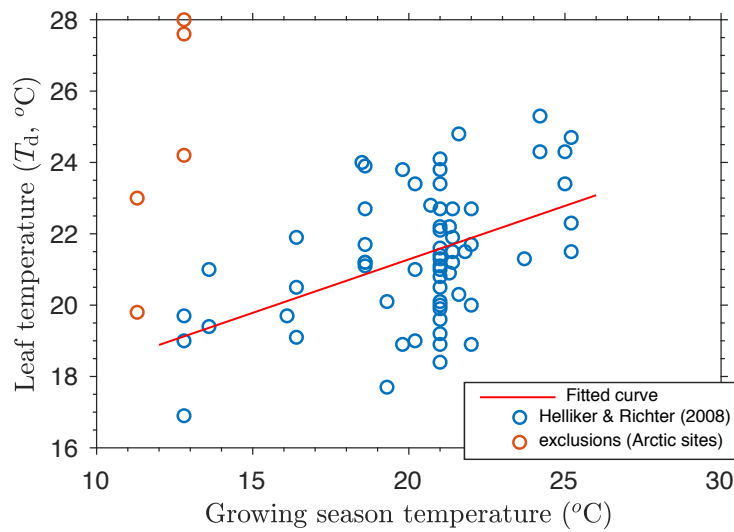


Figure S2: MCMC chains for estimation of angiosperm parameters (leaf + tree ring).

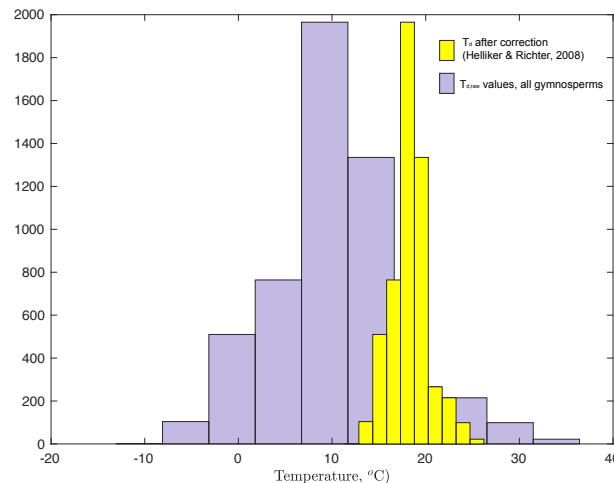


Figure S3: Comparison of raw (purple) and corrected (yellow) daytime leaf growing temperatures, after correction using the regressed relationship in Figure S2)

5 Full list of symbols used

Variable (units)	Description	Reference
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	leaf-level carbon isotope discrimination	[14, 13, 3]
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}_a$ (‰)	leaf-level carbon isotope discrimination, average angiosperm	this study
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}_g$ (‰)	leaf-level carbon isotope discrimination, average gymnosperm	this study
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{a-g}^*$ (‰)	difference between average co-located angiosperm and gymnosperm $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ at constant T_d , P_{atm} , & D	this study
$\varepsilon_{\text{lipid}}$ (‰)	post-photosynthetic fractionation during biosynthesis of leaf lipids	
$\varepsilon_{\text{cellulose}}$ (‰)	post-photosynthetic fractionation during biosynthesis of cellulose	
t	ternary correction factor	[14, 13, 3]
a_s (‰)	fractionation for CO_2 diffusion in air, 4.4‰	[5]
a_m (‰)	fractionation for CO_2 diffusion in water, 1.8‰	[14]
b (‰)	fractionation during Rubisco carboxylation, 30‰	[14]
f (‰)	fractionation during photorespiration, 8-18‰ (theoretical: 11‰)	[12]
h (‰)	apparent fractionation resulting from starch formation, and/or the kinetic fractionation associated with the export of triose phosphates (TP) from the chloroplast, and/or enzymes such as aldolase, transaldolase, transketolase and TP isomerase	[3]
w (unitless)	coefficient of h in $f - wh$	[3]
α_b (unitless)	fractionation factor for $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ during carboxylation, $\alpha_b = 1 + b$	[14]
α_e (unitless)	fractionation factor for $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ during respiration, $\alpha_e = 1 + e$	[14]
α_f (unitless)	fractionation factor for $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ during photorespiration, $\alpha_f = 1 + f$	[14]
α_h (unitless)	as above, for h	[3]
λ (unitless)	amount of CO_2 released from photorespiration per oxygenation reaction, relative to that of <i>N. tabacum</i> at 25°C	[2]
λ_a (unitless)	average λ , woody angiosperms	this study
λ_g (unitless)	average λ , woody gymnosperms	this study
ε_f (unitless)	gradient of the slope of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{a-g}^*$ vs $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$ at constant T_d , D .	this study
ε_{ab} (unitless)	intercept of the slope of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{a-g}^*$ vs $[\text{O}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]$ at constant T_d , D .	this study
α_G (unitless)	proportion of glycine removed from the photorespiratory pathway	[4, 2]
α_T (unitless)	proportion of 2-Phosphoglycolate carbon exported as $\text{CH}_2\text{-THF}$ from the photorespiratory pathway	[2]
C_a (Pa)	atmospheric pCO_2 (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_s (Pa)	leaf-surface pCO_2 (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_i (Pa)	leaf intercellular pCO_2 (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
C_c (Pa)	chloroplastic pCO_2 (Pa), or as concentration ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	
O_c (mol mol^{-1})	chloroplastic oxygen concentration	
g_s ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	stomatal conductance	[6, 17]
g_m ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	mesophyll conductance	[6, 17]
β_c (unitless)	ratio of carboxylation to transpiration cost factors at 25 °C	[16]
A ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	net rate of CO_2 assimilation	
η^* (unitless)	viscosity of water relative to its value at 25°C	[16]
K_c (Pa)	Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco carboxylation	[1]
K_o (Pa)	Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco oxygenation	[1]
K (Pa)	effective Michaelis-Menten coefficient of Rubisco	[1]
$S_{c/o}$ (mol mol^{-1})	Rubisco CO_2/O_2 specificity	[7]
Γ_c (Pa)	chloroplastic CO_2 compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration, when $A = 0$	[13]
Γ^* (Pa)	chloroplastic CO_2 compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration, when $A = -\mathcal{R}_d$	[13]
z (m)	elevation	
P_{atm} (kPa)	atmospheric pressure	
T_d (°K)	daytime leaf temperature	
D (kPa)	daytime vapour pressure deficit	
$[\text{O}_2]$ (mol mol^{-1})	atmospheric oxygen concentration	
$[\text{CO}_2]$ (mol mol^{-1})	atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration	

Note: Partial pressure and concentration are equivalent in equations for $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ when used in χ or χ_c terms, but when C_a appears as the denominator, e.g. Γ^*/C_a , the units should match that of Γ^* .

6 Fitting procedure

We employed a Markov chain Monte Carlo technique (MCMC) based on the delayed rejection adaptive Metropolis (DRAM) algorithm of ref. [8] for robust parameter estimation of β_c , g_m/g_s , and λ/λ_{ref} . All MATLAB code is available from the authors.

We estimated these parameters for both combined and individual leaf and tree ring datasets. In all cases, we consider a model in the form of Eqns. (5-8), with Gaussian errors, and constants $b = 30 \text{ ‰}$, $a_s = 4.4 \text{ ‰}$, $a_m = 1.8 \text{ ‰}$, $R = 8.3145 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, and $f = 11 \pm 2 \text{ ‰}$. Rubisco kinetic parameters were taken from [1], and computed as in Section 2. Parameters for angiosperms were modelled as:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_c &\sim \text{Uniform}(70,1000) \\ g_m/g_s &\sim \text{Norm}(\mu_1, s_1^2), g_m/g_s \in [0.06, 6.3] \\ \lambda/\lambda_{ref} &\sim \text{Uniform}(0,10)\end{aligned}$$

Whereas parameters for gymnosperms were modelled as:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_c &\sim \text{Uniform}(70,1000) \\ g_m/g_s &\sim \text{Norm}(\mu_2, s_2^2), g_m/g_s \in [0.5, 4.3] \\ \lambda/\lambda_{ref} &\sim \text{Uniform}(0,10)\end{aligned}$$

Our choice was motivated as follows. Constraints on the range of β_c (between 70 and 1000) were chosen in accordance to other analyses (e.g. [11, 16]), and are quite conservative. The range of g_m/g_s was chosen to reflect the isotope-independent measurements reported in ref. [17], and initial values of μ_1, s_1, μ_2 , and s_2 chosen from the same study as 1.8, 1.1, 0.9, and 0.1, respectively. λ/λ_{ref} must be greater than 0, and is expected to be around 1. It could also be greater than 1 if the proportion of $\text{CH}_2\text{-THF}$ exported from the photorespiratory pathway increases. Thus, we use a likely range of values between 0 and 10.

MCMC chains were run for 15000 iterations. To assess chain quality and algorithm convergence, we considered both integrated correlation time, τ (a measure of the averaged number of iterations required to achieve independent sampling), and a Geweke test (the output of which is equivalent to a Z-test). Lower τ values, and a Geweke statistic approaching 1 ($p \ll 0.05$) can be regarded as indications of acceptable chain convergence.

Figure S5 shows the chain outputs for the combined angiosperm datasets, as an example. All statistics can be found in Tables S1-S4. In all cases, chains converged rapidly on the stationary distribution ($\tau < 48$).

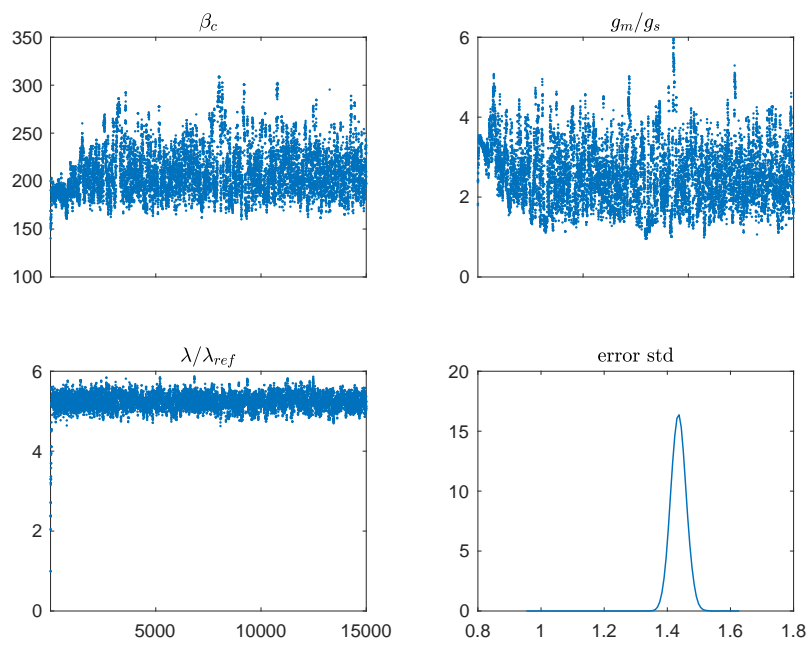


Figure S4: MCMC chains for estimation of angiosperm parameters (leaf + tree ring).

Table S1. Fitted parameters: angiosperm leaf $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ dataset.

Parameter	μ	$\pm 1\sigma$	MC error	τ	Geweke
β_c	214	26	1.9	48	0.89
g_m/g_s	2.5	0.77	0.06	54	0.70
$\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$	5.2	0.31	0.02	58	0.95

Table S2. Fitted parameters: angiosperm tree ring $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ dataset.

Parameter	μ	$\pm 1\sigma$	MC error	τ	Geweke
β_c	284	25	0.6	20	0.99
g_m/g_s	3.2	0.74	0.03	45	0.86
$\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$	4.8	0.3	0.01	31	0.96

Table S3. Fitted parameters: gymnosperm leaf $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ dataset.

Parameter	μ	$\pm 1\sigma$	MC error	τ	Geweke
β_c	346	40	3.6	107	0.85
g_m/g_s	0.94	0.09	0.005	36	0.94
$\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$	7.3	0.75	9×10^{-3}	190	0.81

Table S4. Fitted parameters: gymnosperm tree ring $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ dataset

Parameter	μ	$\pm 1\sigma$	MC error	τ	Geweke
β_c	140	10	0.5	28	0.96
g_m/g_s	0.89	0.10	0.006	34	0.91
$\lambda/\lambda_{\text{ref}}$	0.44	0.22	1×10^{-2}	27	0.70

7 Sensitivity analyses

In Section 4.1 of the main manuscript, we conducted sensitivity analyses across a range of $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ ratios from 200 (e.g. Palaeogene) to 1200 (e.g. LGM) using Eqns. (5-7) and our best-fitted values for β_c , g_m/g_s , and λ/λ_{ref} at 20°C, at two different levels of vapour pressure deficit. In fact, these simulations were a subset of a larger number of simulations over variable D (shown in Fig S5a) and variable T_d (shown in Fig. S5b). The MATLAB code is also available from the authors.

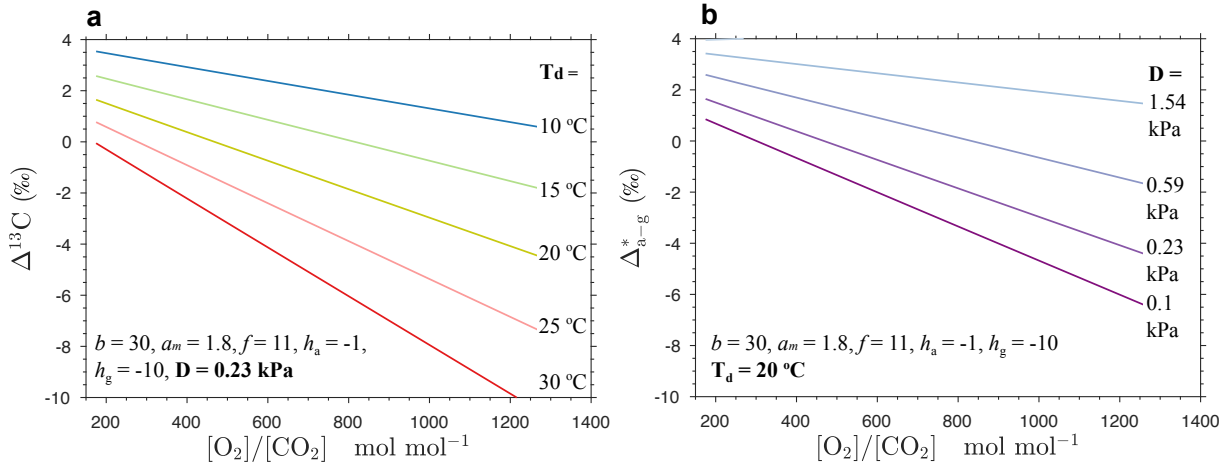


Figure S5: Simulations of the effects of $[O_2]:[CO_2]$ ratio on Δ_{a-g}^* for different environmental conditions, using parameters for plant specific traits (β_c , g_m/g_s , and λ/λ_{ref}). (a) shows the effect of variable T , at constant D , at two different scenarios for λ/λ_{ref} (dashed and solid lines); and (b) shows the effect of variable D , at constant T , for the same scenarios of λ/λ_{ref} as in (a).

These simulations show that Δ_{a-g}^* decrease with increasing $[O_2]/[CO_2]$ when $\lambda_a > \lambda_g$ (solid lines), and that the magnitude of this decrease is stronger with increasing T and/or decreasing D (the highest gradients are for $T = 30^\circ C$, and $D = 0.1$ kPa).

Our simulations also show that the D effect is stronger than the T effect, considering the range of leaf T_d estimated according to Section 4 (above). D levels higher than 1.5 kPa indicate significant water demand for transpiration. Note that because higher D is usually also accompanied by higher temperatures, the two effects are expected to partly cancel each other out with respect to Δ_{a-g}^* . However, the D effect is much stronger, and ultimately wins!

8 Datasets

The following datasets are included in this paper, in excel format:

Global13Cdata.xlsx

Binned13Cdata.xlsx

(both available via link: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12722423.v1>)

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