Leaf anatomy and photosynthesis:
Unravelling the CO₂ diffusion pathway in C₃ leaves

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Abstract

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Optimizing photosynthesis can contribute to improving crop yield, which is necessary to meet the increasing global demand for food, fibre, and bioenergy. One way to optimize photosynthesis in C₃ plants is to enhance the efficiency of CO₂ transport from the intercellular air space to Rubisco. The drawdown of CO₂ between these locations is commonly modelled by Fick's first law of diffusion. This law states that the flux from the air spaces to Rubisco is proportional to the difference in partial pressure between these locations. The proportionality constant is the mesophyll conductance. Its inverse is mesophyll resistance. Mesophyll resistance is a complex trait, which lumps various structural barriers for CO₂ transport and processes that add or remove CO₂ along the diffusion pathway. In order to better understand how and to what extent these factors affect photosynthesis, it is necessary to find a more mechanistic description of CO₂ transport in the mesophyll. The aim of this dissertation is to investigate how leaf anatomical properties and CO₂ sources and sinks along the CO₂ diffusion pathway in C₃ leaves affect the photosynthetic capacity of these leaves. In this study, Solanum lycopersicum was used as a model organism. In a first approach, we developed a model in which we partitioned mesophyll resistance into two sub-resistances. The model assumed that CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration was released between the two sub-resistance components. By quantifying these resistances using measured thicknesses, exposed mesophyll and chloroplast surfaces, and assumed diffusive properties, we were able to simulate the effect of various anatomical properties on photosynthesis. A disadvantage of this two-resistance approach is that it assumes either that (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place in the outer cytosol or that there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol. Therefore, in a second approach we modelled CO₂ transport, production and consumption by use of a reaction-diffusion model. This model is more flexible in terms of determining the
Abstract

location of CO₂ sources and sinks. We developed methods to estimate physiological parameters of this model using combined gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements on leaves. The results suggest that the rate of respiration depends on the oxygen partial pressure, which is often not considered in previous photosynthesis models. We also presented a method to calculate the fraction of (photo)respiratory CO₂ that is re-assimilated. We found that this fraction strongly depends on both environmental factors (CO₂, irradiance), the location of mitochondria relative to the chloroplast, stomatal conductance and various physiological parameters. The reaction-diffusion model and associated methods presented in this study provide a more mechanistic framework to describe the CO₂ diffusion pathway in C₃ leaves. This model could, therefore, contribute to identifying targets to increase mesophyll conductance in future research.

Keywords: CO₂ diffusion, C₃ photosynthesis, mesophyll conductance, mesophyll resistance, re-assimilation, photorespiration, respiration, tomato
Table of contents

Chapter 1 General introduction 1

Chapter 2 Reaction-diffusion models extend our understanding of C₃ leaf photosynthesis: opportunities and challenges. 13

Chapter 3 Modelling the relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties in tomato leaves 45

Chapter 4 Localization of (photo)respiration and CO₂ re-assimilation in tomato leaves investigated with a reaction-diffusion model 95

Chapter 5 Quantitative analysis of the effects of environmental and physiological factors on the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂, using a reaction-diffusion model 145

Chapter 6 General discussion 221

References 245

Summary 259

Samenvatting 267

Acknowledgements 275

Curriculum vitae 281

List of publications 283

PE&RC Training and Education Statement 285

Funding 286
CHAPTER 1

General introduction
Chapter 1

1.1 Introduction

Photosynthesis can be defined as the process in which light energy is converted into chemical energy (Reece et al., 2011). This process is of vital importance for life on Earth; photosynthesis allows phototrophic organisms to convert sun light and inorganic carbon into biomass. More specifically, in green plants, photosynthesis refers to the conversion of CO₂ from the atmosphere into sugars and other organic compounds. This assimilation of CO₂ consumes energy. Green plants obtain this energy by the absorption of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR). Understanding the mechanisms of photosynthesis in green plants is of interest from an agronomical perspective. In 2009, the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) expected the global population to increase by 34% to 9 billion people in 2050 (FAO, 2009a). In order to fulfil this global demand for more food and production due to the growing world population, the FAO estimated that the global food production had to increase by 70% from 2009 to 2050 to meet the global demand for food, feed, and fibres (FAO, 2009b). This can be achieved in two ways; using larger areas of land for crop production or increasing the efficiency of the production process (Ort et al., 2015).

Increasing of the efficiency of the process can be done by increasing the efficiency of light absorption by crops, by increasing the conversion of absorbed light energy into biomass and by increasing the harvest index (Long et al., 2006). During the second half of the 20th Century, there have already been major improvements in increasing the efficiency of the production process. Between 1960 and 2005, the global food production has been increased by 160%, while the total area of cropland has only increased by 27% (Burney et al., 2010). This increase of the global food production can mainly be explained by the increase in harvest index. Although there is some potential to further increase the efficiency of light absorption and the harvest index, the scope of possibilities to further improve these is very limited (Long et al., 2006).

Therefore, further increase of crop yield can mainly be achieved by increasing the conversion efficiency of absorbed light into biomass; i.e. by optimizing photosynthesis. Zhu et al. (2010) identified several possibilities to further increase the efficiency of photosynthesis. These possibilities include alterations at the canopy level,
the leaf tissue (mesophyll) level, and the molecular level. One of the possibilities on
the leaf level is the decrease of the resistance for \( \text{CO}_2 \) transport from the intercellular
airspaces to the sites of \( \text{CO}_2 \) fixation. This resistance is determined by biochemical
processes in the mesophyll, leaf anatomical properties, and environmental conditions.
Since it is affected by such a wide variety of factors, it is hard to conceive how this
property can be altered to optimize photosynthesis. Nevertheless, it can be very
beneficial to examine the mechanism of mesophyll resistance. Zhu et al. (2010)
estimated that decreasing the mesophyll resistance can potentially lead to an increase
of 20% of the photosynthetic capacity. In this dissertation, I will contribute to this by
investigating the mechanism of mesophyll resistance.

1.2 \( \text{CO}_2 \) consumption and production in leaves

The net \( \text{CO}_2 \) assimilation rate is the difference between the rates of \( \text{CO}_2 \) consumption
and production in the leaves. In this section, I will briefly review each of the
biochemical processes that consume or produce \( \text{CO}_2 \) in the mesophyll cells of leaves
in \( \text{C}_3 \) plants.

1.2.1 \( \text{CO}_2 \) consumption by RuBP carboxylation

The Calvin cycle is a cycle of biochemical reactions, in which inorganic \( \text{CO}_2 \) is
converted into sugars. Fig. 1.1 contains a schematic overview of the Calvin cycle. It
takes place in the stroma; the fluid filled cavity in a chloroplast outside the thylakoids
(a system of interconnected membrane sacs). The first step in the Calvin cycle is the
assimilation of inorganic carbon in the form of \( \text{CO}_2 \) by the carboxylation of ribulose-
1,5-biphosphate (RuBP). This biochemical reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme
ribulose-1,5-biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco). The next steps in the
Calvin cycle consist of a series of redox reactions that result in the production of
glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P). G3P is either converted into sugars or it is used to
regenerate RuBP to close the biochemical cycle. Both the conversion of RuBP and
\( \text{CO}_2 \) into G3P and the regeneration of RuBP require energy. The energy required for
these processes are obtained by the absorption of PAR in the thylakoids, in which
photons are absorbed by chlorophyll. This is the first step in a chain of redox reactions,
which ultimately results in the production of oxygen (a waste product in this context) and the reduction of NADP\(^+\) to NADPH. In the electron transport chain, energy is released, while electrons are transferred from one acceptor to the next one. This energy is used to phosphorylate adenosine-diphosphate (ADP) to adenosine-triphosphate (ATP). Both NADPH and ATP act as cofactors; they transfer energy to the Calvin cycle to support the production of G3P and the regeneration of RuBP.

**1.2.2 CO\(_2\) production by photorespiration**

One source of CO\(_2\) is photorespiration. Fig. 1.2 shows a schematic overview of this process. It also shows how photorespiration and photosynthesis are connected. Rubisco has affinity for both CO\(_2\) and O\(_2\). If Rubisco binds O\(_2\), it will catalyse the oxygenation of RuBP instead of its carboxylation. The oxygenation initiates a chain of redox reactions, which results in the production of 2-phosphoglycolate (G2P) and G3P. Since this G3P is converted back to RuBP rather than converted into sugars,
photorespiration consumes energy without contributing to the production of sugars. G2P is further converted into glycolate and transferred from the chloroplasts to peroxisomes. In the peroxisomes, glycolate is converted into glycine. Glycine is transferred from the peroxisomes to the mitochondria. In the mitochondria, glycine is further transformed to serine with the concurrent release of CO₂. Photorespiration is a wasteful process, since the carbon in the released CO₂ comes from RuBP and will most likely be lost to the atmosphere.

1.2.3 CO₂ production by respiration

Another source of CO₂ production is respiration (Fig. 1.3). This process takes place in the mitochondria. In this process, sugars are reduced to release energy to supply the production of the cofactors ATP and NADH. The reduction of sugars can be either
aerobic (cellular respiration) or anaerobic (fermentation). In either case, ultimately CO$_2$ is released from the mitochondria into the cytosol (Nobel, 2009).

### 1.3 Modelling CO$_2$ assimilation

In photosynthesis, plants absorb light energy and use this energy to assimilate CO$_2$. Therefore, the net CO$_2$ assimilation in a leaf strongly depends on the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the atmosphere around this leaf and the irradiance. A major step forward in the understanding of how the irradiance and the CO$_2$ partial pressure in C$_3$ plants affects its photosynthetic efficiency was the development of the Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model (Farquhar et al., 1980), which has been abbreviated in the literature as “FvCB model”. This biochemical model states that the net rate of CO$_2$ consumption by RuBP carboxylation $W$ is either limited by the number of binding sites and the turnover rate of Rubisco (Rubisco-limited RuBP carboxylation) or by the rate of RuBP regeneration which is assumed to be determined by the rate of electron transport $J$. For both limitations, Farquhar et al. (1980) derived mathematical expressions for the potential rates of RuBP carboxylation. The actual net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is the minimum of these two potential rates. If there is both a high level of CO$_2$ and light, RuBP carboxylation can also be limited by the rate at which triose phosphates are utilised in the synthesis of starch and sucrose. This is the rate of triose phosphate utilization. In order to consider this limitation as well, Sharkey (1985) expanded the FvCB model with a potential rate limited by the rate of triose phosphate utilization. In this extended form of the FvCB model, the actual rate of RuBP carboxylation is the minimum of three potential RuBP carboxylation rates. Throughout this dissertation, we will apply this form of the FvCB model.

### 1.4 CO$_2$ transport in leaves

CO$_2$ molecules in the atmosphere have to cross various barriers to reach Rubisco (Fig. 1.3). First, CO$_2$ from the turbulent atmosphere has to cross a laminar boundary layer to reach the leaf surface. Second, CO$_2$ can only diffuse from the leaf surface into the stomatal cavity in the interior part of the leaf through the pores of stomata. These pores are surrounded by guard cells. Plants can regulate the size of these pores by the
General introduction

Figure 1.3: Schematic overview of the CO₂ diffusion pathway from the turbulent atmosphere to Rubisco in the stroma.

contraction and relaxation of the guard cells. Third, CO₂ molecules can further diffuse into the interior of the leaf through a network of interconnected intercellular air space. Fourth, CO₂ has to enter the mesophyll cells. These cells are partly exposed to the intercellular airspaces. In order to enter the mesophyll cells, CO₂ has to dissolve in the water filled pores of the cell wall. Once inside, CO₂ has to cross a number of subcellular structures before it reaches Rubisco in the chloroplast stroma. These subcellular barriers are the cell wall, the plasma membrane, the cytosol and the chloroplast envelope. While diffusing into the stroma, CO₂ molecules are finally assimilated by Rubisco. Besides diffusion, CO₂ transport in the plasma membrane, the cytosol, the chloroplast envelope and the stroma may be facilitated by the activity of carbon anhydrases. These enzymes catalyse the interconversion between CO₂ and HCO₃⁻. This process makes new CO₂ available to replace CO₂ that is assimilated, thereby increasing the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco and the net CO₂ assimilation rate (Terashima et al., 2011). The atmosphere is not the only source of CO₂ for assimilation. As stated earlier, respiration and photorespiration produce CO₂ in mitochondria and release this into the cytosol. This (photo)respired CO₂ can either
diffuse out of the leaf or into the chloroplast stroma, where it can be assimilated by Rubisco. This latter process is called re-assimilation.

1.5 CO₂ transport in leaves affects the net CO₂ assimilation rate

RuBP carboxylation in the chloroplast stroma is a strong sink of CO₂ and various structures that limit CO₂ diffusion in both the gas phase and the liquid phase of the diffusion path generate barriers to CO₂ transport from the atmosphere to Rubisco. Therefore, the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco is not the same as the CO₂ partial pressure in the atmosphere. When leaves are illuminated, the steady-state CO₂ partial pressure in chloroplast is smaller than in the atmosphere under most environmental conditions. Since the net CO₂ assimilation rate under both Rubisco-limited and electron transport-limited conditions depends on the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco, the various barriers for CO₂ transport in leaves constrain the assimilation of CO₂ as well. In photosynthesis models, these barriers are commonly modelled as resistances. In many studies, the overall resistance for CO₂ transport in leaves is partitioned into three resistances. These are the resistance of the boundary layer \( r_b \), the resistance of the stomata \( r_s \) and the resistance of the mesophyll \( r_m \). Fig. 1.3 shows the location of each of these resistances along the CO₂ diffusion pathway. Resistance models can be used to express the net rate of CO₂ assimilation \( A_N \) under steady state conditions as:

\[
A_N = \frac{(C_a - C_s)}{r_b} \\
A_N = \frac{(C_s - C_i)}{r_s} \\
A_N = \frac{(C_i - C_c)}{r_m}
\]
where $C_a$ is the CO₂ partial pressure in the turbulent atmosphere, $C_s$ is the CO₂ partial pressure at the leaf surface, $C_i$ is the CO₂ partial pressure in the intercellular air space, and $C_c$ is the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco. These partial pressures can be expressed in Pa. $A_n$ is the net CO₂ assimilation rate, expressed in μmol CO₂ m⁻² leaf area s⁻¹. Gas exchange measurements can be used to measure $A_n$ as the net CO₂ flux into the leaf for a certain $C_a$. Von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) exploited the fact that the diffusion pathways of CO₂ and water vapour from transpiration overlap in the stomata and the boundary layer. They derived equations to determine $r_b$ and $r_s$ from simultaneous gas exchange measurements of CO₂ and water vapour fluxes at the leaf surface. This framework allows the calculation of $C_i$ from gas exchange measurements.

Determining $r_m$ and $C_c$ is more challenging, since there is currently no framework available to measure these variables directly in vivo. The simplest approach to deal with this is to assume that $r_m$ is negligible (Aalto and Juurola, 2001), which allows to assume that $C_c = C_i$. However, this assumption will result in the overestimation of $C_c$ if $r_m$ is actually not negligible. Consequently, if the FvCB model is used to estimate photosynthetic parameters under his assumption from gas exchange measurements, these estimates are biased and can lead to wrong predictions of the net CO₂ assimilation rate (Niinemets et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2014). There are various methods to estimate $r_m$ from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with measurements of chlorophyll fluorescence (Harley et al., 1992a also reviewed by Yin and Struik (2009) and Pons et al. (2009)) or isotope discrimination (Pons et al., 2009). These methods have certain limitations. First, they lump all biochemical processes and physical barriers in the mesophyll cells in a single parameter $r_m$. Second, they rely on the assumption that $r_m$ does not vary with the irradiance and $C_c$. Several studies (Harley et al., 1992a; Flexas et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2009; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Tholen et al., 2012) present proof that this latter assumption does not hold.
1.6 Objectives

The overview above shows that both biochemical processes and physical barriers on the CO₂ diffusion pathway in leaves can substantially reduce the efficiency of photosynthesis. One major contribution to understand the relationship between environmental circumstances and photosynthesis was the development of the FvCB model (Farquhar et al., 1980) that gives an accurate description of the kinetics of CO₂ assimilation by Rubisco. Another major contribution was the model from von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981). This model allowed the calculation of $r_s$ and $r_b$ from gas exchange measurements. Both models are widely used (for instance, LI-COR (1999)) and contributed to a better understanding of how photosynthesis can be limited by the stomata. The remaining challenge is to understand what factors affect the last part of the CO₂ diffusion pathway between the atmosphere and Rubisco, i.e. the diffusion pathway in the mesophyll. The mechanism of how structural barriers and biochemical process within mesophyll cells constrain CO₂ transport from the intercellular air space to Rubisco in still largely unknown. The main aim of my PhD project is to investigate how anatomical properties along the CO₂ diffusion pathway in a C₃ leaf and biochemical processes that add or remove CO₂ to this diffusion path affect its photosynthetic capacity. In my view, the commonly used resistance models, (equations (1.1-1.3)), cannot fully capture the complexity of this relationship. I will demonstrate this in my dissertation. An alternative to these resistance models is reaction-diffusion models. These models are more flexible than resistance models, which makes it more feasible to include all processes and leaf anatomical structures separately that affect the efficiency of CO₂ transport in the mesophyll. Still, this type of models is considerably less frequently used than resistance models. A possible reason is that they are more complex from a mathematical point of view (Parkhurst, 1977, 1994). In this study, we apply this type of models as well to gain more insights into what biochemical and leaf anatomical factors affect the efficiency of CO₂ transport. I will answer the following questions in this dissertation:

Q1. How have mesophyll resistance models been used to study photosynthesis in previous work?
Q2. What leaf anatomical properties can potentially affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate?

Q3. How have reaction-diffusion models been used to study photosynthesis in previous work?

Q4. How can reaction-diffusion models be used as an alternative to resistance models?

Q5. How does the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate?

Q6. To what extent and under which combination of light, CO₂ and O₂ levels does the re-assimilation of CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate of CO₂?

Throughout this dissertation, I will use various tomato (Solanum lycopersicum L.) cultivars as model organism to answer the research questions.

1.7 Outline of the thesis

Chapter 2 is a literature review, in which I will answer research questions Q1 and Q3. I will do so by explaining what the physical basis of both reaction-diffusion models and resistance models is, critically reviewing how both types of models have been used in the past, and comparing both types of models.

In Chapter 3, I will answer research question Q2. For this purpose, I will describe the development of a resistance model to study how photosynthesis is constrained by a variety of anatomical properties of mesophyll cells. In order to do so, I will partition mesophyll resistance into several sub-resistances for CO₂. Rather than estimating these resistances, I will directly calculate them based on measurements of leaf anatomical properties and assumed diffusive properties and curvature factors. In a sensitivity analysis, I will investigate how and under what light and CO₂ levels the net CO₂ assimilation rate is determined by leaf anatomical properties. I will also specify the assumptions of this model and analyse which assumptions can possibly be avoided by the use of reaction diffusion models.
Chapter 1

In Chapter 4, I will describe the development and the validation of a reaction-diffusion model for CO₂ transport in leaves. In almost all the literature studies, a combination of the FvCB and a resistance model is used to determine photosynthetic parameters from gas exchange measurements. Rather than this common approach, I will use the reaction-diffusion model to directly estimate photosynthetic parameters from gas exchange measurements. By doing so, I will answer research question Q4. I will also answer research question Q5 by using the model to vary the position of (photo)respiratory CO₂ release relative to the chloroplasts and compare simulated light response curves and CO₂ response curves for these different positions.

In Chapter 5, I will answer research question Q6 by simulating how the fraction of CO₂ that is re-assimilated changes with different levels of CO₂, O₂, and light.

In Chapter 6, I will summarize the answers to the research questions, discuss implications and make recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER 2

Reaction-diffusion models extend our understanding of C_3 leaf photosynthesis: opportunities and challenges

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Abstract

One of the ways to increase global potential crop yield may be increasing mesophyll conductance $g_m$. This variable determines the difference between the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the intercellular air spaces $C_i$ and near Rubisco $C_c$. There are various methods to determine $g_m$ from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with measurements of chlorophyll fluorescence or carbon isotope discrimination. $g_m$ lumps all biochemical and physical factors that determine the drawdown of $C_c$ from $C_i$. Moreover, $g_m$ appears to vary with $C_i$. This variability indicates that $g_m$ does not satisfy the physical definition of a conductance according to Fick’s first law. Uncertainty about the mechanisms that determine $g_m$ can be limited to some extent by the use of analytical models that partition $g_m$ into separate conductances. Yet such models are still not capable of capturing the full complexity of the CO$_2$ diffusion path in leaves. They also make implicit assumptions about the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$. As an alternative, reaction-diffusion models could be used. Rather than quantifying $g_m$, these models explicitly account for factors that affect the efficiency of CO$_2$ transport in the mesophyll. Disadvantages of this approach are the uncertainties of diffusive properties and curvature factors, the need to collect leaf anatomical data, and higher computational costs. However, these models provide a mechanistic description of the CO$_2$ diffusion pathways, which can help to identify traits that can be improved to increase $g_m$ and, thereby, global crop yield.

Keywords

CO$_2$, photosynthesis, mesophyll conductance, reaction-diffusion models, 3D models, C$_3$ plants
2.1. Introduction

In 2009, the FAO predicted that the global population will increase between 2009 and 2050 by 34% to 9 billion people (FAO, 2009a). Given this increase in global population and the change in dietary requirements, the global crop yield has to increase by 70% to meet the global demand for food, feed, fibres, and bioenergy (FAO, 2009b). Increasing the efficiency of photosynthesis could greatly contribute by increasing the global yield, given the limited availability of arable land or the limited scope of alternative possibilities to further increase the global yield, like increasing the harvest index or the efficiency of light absorption by crops (Long et al., 2006; Ort et al., 2015).

A major step in the understanding of leaf-level C$_3$ photosynthesis was the introduction of the Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model (FvCB model hereafter), which relates the CO$_2$ partial pressure $C_c$ near Rubisco to the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate (Farquhar et al., 1980). $C_c$ is, in most cases, lower than the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the atmosphere $C_a$ outside the leaf. This can be explained by various structural barriers for CO$_2$ transport between the ambient air and the site of Rubisco (Von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1981; Evans et al., 2009; Tosens et al., 2012b) and biochemical processes along the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway that produce or consume CO$_2$ (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Tholen et al., 2012). The CO$_2$ partial pressure in the leaf’s intercellular air space $C_i$ can be calculated directly from water vapour and CO$_2$ gas exchange measurements, since diffusion paths of CO$_2$ and water vapour overlap (Von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1981). In contrast, $C_c$ cannot be measured directly. $C_c$ is commonly determined using mesophyll conductance models, but unfortunately these models do not explicitly describe the factors that cause the difference between $C_i$ and $C_c$. However, it is very important to understand the mechanisms responsible for $C_c$ and $C_i$ differences, to find possibilities for improving mesophyll conductance to CO$_2$. For example, Zhu et al. (2010) estimated that increasing mesophyll conductance can potentially lead to an increase of photosynthetic capacity by as much as 20%.
In this review, we will show that current models for mesophyll conductance (Harley et al., 1992a; Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Yin et al., 2009; Tholen et al., 2012) can only explain to a limited extent the mechanisms that cause the drawdown of the CO$_2$ partial pressure from the intercellular air space to Rubisco. Since reaction-diffusion models are more flexible than mesophyll conductance models (as described below), they provide an alternative to study the mechanisms that cause the drawdown between $C_i$ and $C_c$. This literature review aims to discuss how reaction-diffusion models can be used to improve our understanding of CO$_2$ transport to Rubisco in comparison with the more common mesophyll conductance models. First, we describe how the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate depends on $C_c$. Second, we analyse the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway to Rubisco. Third, we explain what conductance models are, why these models are important to model photosynthesis, and discuss their usefulness and their limitations. Fourth, we will introduce reaction-diffusion models, their flexibility and how this type of model has been used in previous studies to simulate CO$_2$ transport in leaves. Finally, we reflect on the advantages and disadvantages of reaction-diffusion models compared with mesophyll conductance models and make recommendations for further research.

2.2. CO$_2$ consumption and production in leaves

The FvCB model states that the rate of CO$_2$ consumption through ribulose-1,4-biphosphate (RuBP) carboxylation by Rubisco is either limited either by the capacity of Rubisco to carboxylate RuBP or by the regeneration of RuBP, which depends on the rate of electron transport (Farquhar et al., 1980). The FvCB model contains mathematical expressions for the corresponding potential rates of RuBP carboxylation. If there is a surplus of both CO$_2$ and light, the recycling of RuBP, which is determined by the rate of triose phosphate utilization, can limit RuBP carboxylation (Sharkey, 1985). The actual rate of RuBP carboxylation, $W$, is the minimum of the three.

\[
W = \min(W_c, W_j, W_p)
\]
Chapter 2

where $W_c$ is the potential rate of RuBP carboxylation limited by Rubisco ($\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$), $W_j$ the potential rate of RuBP carboxylation limited by the rate of electron transport ($\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$), and $W_p$ the potential rate of RuBP carboxylation limited by triose phosphate utilization ($\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$).

Besides the consumption of CO$_2$, CO$_2$ is produced by respiration and photorespiration. Respiration is CO$_2$ production due to the aerobic and anaerobic reduction of sugars in mitochondria. In photorespiration, Rubisco’s dual affinity (for both CO$_2$ and O$_2$) allows the oxygenation of RuBP, instead of its carboxylation. The net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is defined as the difference between the rate of CO$_2$ consumption by RuBP carboxylation $W$ and the rates of CO$_2$ production by respiration $R_d$ and photorespiration $R_p$. $R_p$ can be calculated as $\frac{\Gamma^*}{C_c} W$ (Long and Bernacchi, 2003). Here $\Gamma^*$ is the CO$_2$ compensation point, i.e., the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco at which the amount of CO$_2$ produced by photorespiration equals the amount of CO$_2$ consumed by RuBP carboxylation. The net CO$_2$ assimilation rate can be expressed as:

$$A_N = W - R_p - R_d = \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_c}\right) \min(W_c, W_j, W_p) - R_d \tag{2.2}$$

After substitution of the mathematical expressions for the potential rates of RuBP carboxylation in equation (2.2), the full FvCB model (Farquhar et al., 1980), extended with triose-phosphate-limited RuBP carboxylation (Sharkey, 1985), can be written as:

$$A_N = \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_c}\right) \min\left(\frac{C_c V_{\text{max}}}{C_c + K_{mc} \left(1 + \frac{O}{K_{mO}}\right)}, \frac{C_c J}{4C_c + 8 \Gamma^*}, \frac{3T_p}{1 - \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_c}}\right) - R_d \tag{2.3}$$

where $O$ is the oxygen partial pressure and $V_{\text{max}}$ the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation by Rubisco. The term $K_{mc}(1 + O/K_{mO})$ represents the apparent Michaelis-Menten constant for RuBP carboxylation by Rubisco, in presence of both
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of C₃ photosynthesis. O₂ and CO₂. The term implies that CO₂ and O₂ compete for Rubisco binding sites. Within this term, \( K_{mC} \) is the Michaelis-Menten constant for RuBP carboxylation by Rubisco in absence of oxygen and \( K_{mo} \) represents the Michaelis-Menten constant for RuBP oxygenation by Rubisco in absence of carbon dioxide. \( T_{p} \) is the rate of triose phosphate utilization. \( J \) is the rate of electron transport. The relationship between \( J \) and the irradiance \( I_{inc} \) can be described as a non-rectangular hyperbole (Johnson and Thornley, 1984; Yin et al., 2004; Yin et al., 2009). One of the forms of this relationship is presented by Yin et al. (2009) as:

\[
J = \frac{\kappa_{2LL}I_{inc} + J_{max} - \sqrt{(\kappa_{2LL}I_{inc} + J_{max})^2 - 4\theta J_{max}\kappa_{2LL}I_{inc}}}{2\theta}
\]  

(2.4)

where \( \kappa_{2LL} \) is the conversion factor of incident radiation into linear electron transport, \( J_{max} \) is the maximum rate of linear electron transport and \( \theta \) is a convexity factor.

2.3. CO₂ diffusion pathway in leaves

In order to reach Rubisco, CO₂ molecules have to diffuse first from the turbulent atmosphere through the laminar boundary layer at the leaf surface (Raschke, 1956). Next, they have to pass through the stomatal pores in the epidermis to reach the substomatal cavity inside the leaf. The efficiency of the latter transfer depends on the stomatal density, the radius of the stomatal pore and the length of the stomatal tube. Plants can regulate the radius of the stomatal pores and the size of the stomatal tube by changing the conformation of the guard cells that surround the stomatal pores (Nobel, 2009) and, thereby, control both the influx of CO₂ and the efflux of water vapour produced by transpiration (Hall and Schulze, 1980). Once inside the leaf in the substomatal cavity, CO₂ molecules will spread through the leaf by diffusion through the intercellular air space. From the intercellular air space, CO₂ molecules can only enter mesophyll cells by dissolving in the water of water-filled pores of cell walls that are exposed to the intercellular air space. Hence, the surface area of mesophyll cells
exposed to the intercellular air space ($S_m$) is an important determinant of the amount of CO$_2$ that can be taken up by the mesophyll cells (Nobel et al., 1975; Nobel, 1977). Since CO$_2$ molecules can only be assimilated in chloroplasts, von Caemmerer and Evans (1991) and Tholen et al. (2008) argued that the surface area of chloroplasts that is facing the intercellular air space, $S_c$, is a better determinant than $S_m$ for the extent of CO$_2$ uptake from the intercellular air space by mesophyll cells. Once CO$_2$ has dissolved in the water of the pores of the cell wall, it diffuses, either in the form of dissolved CO$_2$ or HCO$_3^-$, through various liquid phase compartments of the mesophyll. These compartments consist of the pore network of the cell wall, the plasma membrane, the aqueous cytosol, the chloroplast envelope, and the stroma (Flexas et al., 2008; Evans et al., 2009; Nobel, 2009). CO$_2$ can pass a membrane (plasma membrane or chloroplast envelope) through either the lipid phase or the aquaporins (Terashima et al., 2011). After passing the chloroplast envelope, CO$_2$ enters the stroma. While in the stroma, CO$_2$ can be fixed through RuBP carboxylation. Besides CO$_2$ from the atmosphere, there is a second source of CO$_2$ that can be used for RuBP carboxylation. Inside the mesophyll cells CO$_2$ is produced by both respiration and photorespiration. The CO$_2$ molecules produced by these processes, may diffuse from the mitochondria (in the cytosol) into the chloroplast stroma, to be assimilated by RuBP carboxylation. This is usually called re-assimilation of CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration, and may be especially important if chloroplasts are packed close together (Sage and Sage, 2009). Various studies (Loreto et al., 1999; Haupt-Herting et al., 2001; Pärnik and Keerberg, 2007; Tholen et al., 2012; Busch, 2013; Ho et al., 2016) have estimated the percentages of re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$. There is great variety in the reported values of re-assimilation, ranging from 14%-18% in sunflower (Pärnik and Keerberg, 2007) to 100% in tomato (Loreto et al., 1999). This illustrates that re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$ may vary and increases the uncertainty for estimating the actual $C_c$, particularly when CO$_2$ assimilation rates are low.
2.4. The physical definition of conductance

Equations for the conductance of a physical barrier for transport of dissolved particles can be derived from Fick’s first law. According to Fick (1855), the direction of the diffusive flux of any type of particle is from high- to low concentration, which is similar to the movement of heat from high- to low-temperature regions. In a one-dimensional space, Fick’s first law can be written as:

$$\varphi = -D \frac{dc}{dx}$$ (2.5)

where $\varphi$ is the flux and $D$ is the diffusion coefficient, a proportionality constant between the flux of a particle and its gradient. Equation (2.5) can be discretized ($dc/dx \equiv \Delta c/\Delta x$) and rewritten to describe the flux between locations $x_2$ and $x_1$ ($\Delta x = x_2 - x_1$) with concentrations $c_1$ and $c_2$:

$$\varphi = \frac{D}{x_2 - x_1} (c_1 - c_2)$$ (2.6)

where $D/(x_1 - x_2)$ is the conductance (m s$^{-1}$). In photosynthesis research, densities of CO$_2$ are more commonly expressed as partial pressures $p$ rather than in molar concentrations $c$. In order to express the flux as a function of the concentration difference, the ideal gas law is applied by substituting $p/RT$ for the concentrations $c_1$ and $c_2$ in equation (2.6). Some rearranging yields:

$$\varphi = \frac{D}{LRT} (p_1 - p_2) = g(p_1 - p_2)$$ (2.7)
\[ g = \frac{D}{LRT} \]  

(2.8)

where \( L \) is the thickness of the compartment \( (L = |x_1 - x_2|) \) through which the flux goes, \( T \) is the temperature (K) and \( R \) is the universal gas constant \( (8.314 \text{ Pa m}^3 \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}) \). \( g \) is the conductance expressed in mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) Pa\(^{-1}\). The inverse of \( g \) is called the resistance.

### 2.5. Application of gas exchange measurements to determine mesophyll conductance

According to Gaastra (1959), the overall conductance for CO\(_2\) transport can be partitioned into three conductances, namely the boundary layer conductance \( g_b \), the stomatal conductance \( g_s \) and the conductance of the mesophyll \( g_m \). This partitioning of the leaf conductance is still commonly used in most C\(_3\) photosynthesis studies. Since the diffusion pathway of CO\(_2\) and water vapour are overlapping in the gas phase, \( g_b \) and \( g_s \) can be calculated from gas exchange measurements from equations derived by Von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) and are commonly used in gas exchange measurements (LI-COR, 1999). From the measured net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate \( A_N \), \( C_i \) can be calculated as:

\[
C_i = C_a - \left( \frac{1}{\frac{1}{g_s} + \frac{1}{g_b}} \right) A_N
\]

(2.9)

This equation assumes that the conductance of the intercellular air space is infinite. This assumption has been questioned in the past (Parkhurst, 1994). We will adopt this assumption for now, but we will discuss it later on. Determination of \( C_c \) is considerably more challenging. \( C_c \) can be expressed as:
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of C₃ photosynthesis

\[ C_c = C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m} \]  

(2.10)

g_m cannot be calculated directly from gas exchange measurements, because it does not share a diffusion pathway with water and can, therefore, not be determined from the transpiration rate. Consequently, equation (2.10) has two unknown variables: \( C_c \) and \( g_m \). Gaastra (1959) assumed \( C_c = 0 \), which reduces the number of unknowns in equation (2.10) to one, allowing calculation of \( g_m \). If this specific calculation of \( g_m \) is used, it should be considered as a serial conductance that lumps the mesophyll conductance and the carboxylation conductance. With the introduction of the widely used FvCB model (Farquhar et al., 1980), this assumption was rejected (Flexas et al., 2008) and \( g_m \) no longer includes the carboxylation conductance. Instead, Farquhar et al. (1980) assumed that \( g_m = \infty \) and, thereby, that \( C_c = C_i \). This assumption was adopted in various studies, which used the FvCB model to estimate photosynthetic parameters (Harley et al., 1992b; Wullschleger, 1993; Aalto and Juuruola, 2001; Lenz et al., 2010). However, it has been shown in recent work that the estimates of the parameter values for \( V_c_{\text{max}} \) can be considerably underestimated if \( g_m \) is assumed infinite, while actually finite (Niinemets et al., 2009; Gu and Sun, 2014; Sun et al., 2014a; Sun et al., 2014c). Such an assumption can also lead to an underestimation of \( J_{\text{max}} \), but to a much lesser extent, if it is also estimated from gas exchange measurements. It can be argued that this bias may not be a problem, because the lower estimates for \( V_c_{\text{max}} \) and \( J_{\text{max}} \) will compensate for the absence of mesophyll conductance in models that predict CO₂ response curves. However, several studies showed that this can lead to wrong predictions. Niinemets et al. (2009) estimated \( V_c_{\text{max}} \), \( J_{\text{max}} \), and \( T_p \) from CO₂ response curves using models that either assumed a finite or an infinite mesophyll conductance. Next, they used these estimates to predict how the net CO₂ assimilation rate varies over a day in leaves from plants in the field. They noticed that the model performs considerably better in predicting the midday drop in the net CO₂ assimilation rate if \( g_m \) is not assumed to be infinite and if \( V_c_{\text{max}} \)
and $J_{\text{max}}$ are estimated with a model including this non-infinite $g_m$. Sun et al. (2014b) showed that global climate models can considerably underestimate the response of the global terrestrial productivity to increasing CO$_2$ levels in the atmosphere, if $g_m$ is considered infinite. These studies show that $g_m$ should not be assumed infinite in photosynthesis models, and highlight the importance of a reliable estimation of $g_m$.

There are various methods in the literature to determine $g_m$, without adopting the assumption from early studies that either $C_c = 0$, or has a fixed value close to zero. Most recent methods are based on gas exchange measurements, often combined with measurements of either chlorophyll fluorescence or carbon isotope discrimination.

One commonly used method based on gas exchange methods and chlorophyll fluorescence is the constant $J$ method (Harley et al., 1992a), in which the term for $C_c$ in equation (2.10) is substituted for $C_c$ in $W_j$ in equation (2.3). This equation is subsequently solved for $J$, which results in:

$$J = (A_N + R_d) \frac{4 \left( \left( C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m} \right) + 2\Gamma^* \right)}{\left( C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m} \right) - \Gamma^*}$$

(2.11)

First $R_d$ and $\Gamma^*$ are determined. Next, the range of at least three different $C_i$ points in $A - C_i$ curve is identified, based on chlorophyll fluorescence data which indicate that $J$ is constant (normally the last few points of $A - C_i$ curve). Then, a test value of $g_m$ is used to calculate $J$ using equation (2.11) at each $C_i$. The average value of $J$ for these points ($J_a$) with this test $g_m$ is thereof obtained. $J_a$ is then used to calculate the variance $\Sigma_i^2 (J_i - J_a)^2 / (n - 1)$, where $J_i$ is $J$ for a single point in the $A - C_i$ curve, $n$ is the total number of points used in this analysis. This is repeated for a number of test values for $g_m$. The test value for $g_m$ that minimizes the variance is considered as the final estimate of $g_m$. 

22
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of $C_3$ photosynthesis

Another method is the variable $J$ method. In this method, equation (2.11) is further rewritten to express $g_m$:

\[
   g_m = \frac{A_N}{C_i - \frac{\Gamma^* (J + 8(A_N + R_d))}{J - 4(A + R_d)}}
\]

(2.12)

where $J$ is determined from an empirical relationship for $J$ with the irradiance and the quantum yield of Photosystem II, determined from chlorophyll fluorescence data. An advantage of the variable $J$ method is that $J$ does not have to be constant for different values of $C_i$. Both the variable $J$ method and the constant $J$ method are only valid if the rate of RuBP carboxylation is limited by the rate of electron transport, as explained by Yin and Struik (2009).

Ethier and Livingston (2004) and Ethier et al. (2006) derived equations to express both the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate under Rubisco-limited conditions ($A_c$) and under RuBP-limited conditions ($A_j$) in a generic model as:

\[
   A_N = \min(A_c, A_j)
\]

(2.13)

\[
   A_N = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}
\]

(2.14a)

\[
   a = -\frac{1}{g_m}
\]

(2.14b)

\[
   b = \begin{cases} 
   \frac{(V_{c_{\text{max}}} - R_d)}{g_m} + C_i + K_mC (1 + \frac{O}{K_{mO}}) & \text{if } A_N = A_c \\
   \frac{\left(\frac{1}{4}J - R_d\right)}{g_m} + C_i + 2\Gamma^* & \text{if } A_N = A_j 
   \end{cases}
\]

(2.14c)
Chapter 2

\[
c = \begin{cases} 
R_d \left(C_i + K_c \left(1 + \frac{O}{K_m o}\right) - V_{cmax} (C_i - \Gamma^*)\right) & \text{if } A_N = A_c \\
\left(\frac{1}{4}J - R_d\right) g_m + C_i + 2\Gamma^* & \text{if } A_N = A_j
\end{cases}
\]  (2.14d)

\(A_c\) and \(A_j\) are the potential net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate, limited by RuBP carboxylation and electron transport respectively. Equations (14a-d) are used to simultaneously estimate \(g_m\) with \(R_d\), \(V_{cmax}\), and \(J_{max}\) from photosynthetic response curves by non-linear regression (Ethier et al., 2006). In order to do so, a certain cut-off value for \(C_i\) has to be defined; below this value, \(A_N = A_c\), above this value, \(A_N = A_j\). This method to determine \(g_m\) is called the curve-fitting method. Yin et al. (2009) presented an extension of this framework with the possibility to estimate \(g_m\) from a combination of gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. This extension includes methods to determine \(\Gamma^*\), \(R_d\), and \(J_{max}\) from this combination of measurements under photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions \textit{a priori}. After determination of these parameters, only two parameters remain to be estimated (\(V_{cmax}, g_m\)). This limited number of parameters allows simultaneous estimation of \(V_{cmax}\) and \(g_m\) using the whole model (equation (2.13-2.14a-d)) directly, rather than defining an arbitrary cut-off value for \(C_i\).

The constant and variable \(J\) methods (Harley et al., 1992a) and the curve fitting methods to estimate \(g_m\) (Ethier et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2009) are all based on substitution of a term for \(C_c\) in the FvCB model. In contrast, methods to estimate mesophyll conductance from gas exchange models combined with carbon isotope discrimination methods can be used to determine \(C_c\). The obtained term for \(C_c\) can subsequently be used to calculate \(g_m\) (Evans et al., 1986; Evans and von Caemmerer, 1996). For this purpose, carbon isotope discrimination needs to be measured, as the change of \(^{12}\text{C}:^{13}\text{C}\) in CO\(_2\) of air after exposure to a leaf (\(\Delta_{13}\)). According to Farquhar and Cernusak (2012), the model of Farquhar et al. (1982) can be expressed by the sum
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of $C_3$ photosynthesis

of all processes that affect this ratio due to differences in diffusion coefficient or
differences in biochemical reaction rates for $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$:

$$\Delta_{13} = \frac{1}{1-t} \left( a_b \frac{C_a - C_s}{C_a} + a' \frac{C_s - C_i}{C_a} \right)$$
$$+ \frac{1 + t}{1 - t} \left( b_s + a_t \right) \frac{C_i - C_c}{C_a} + b \frac{C_c}{C_a} - \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_e} e \frac{R_d C_c}{k \alpha_a} - \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_f} f \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a} \right) \right)$$

where $a_b$ is the fractionation due to boundary layer diffusion. $a'$ is the fractionation
due to diffusion in the air. $b_s$ is the fractionation due to CO$_2$ entering the liquid phase.
$a_1$ is the fractionation due to CO$_2$ diffusion in the liquid phase. $b$ is the fractionation
due to RuBP carboxylation. $k$ is the carboxylation efficiency. $e$ and $f$ are the
fractionations due to respiration and photorespiration respectively. $a_b$, $a_e$ and $a_f$ are
$1 + b$, $1 + e$ and $1 + f$, respectively. This model contains a parameter $t$ for a ternary
correction (Farquhar and Cernusak, 2012), which accounts for the influence of
transpiration on the CO$_2$ diffusion from the air to the intercellular air space. $t$ is
defined as:

$$t = \frac{\alpha_{ac} E}{2 g_b}$$

where $E$ is the transpiration rate, $\alpha_{ac}$ is $1 + \bar{a}$, the weighted diffusion fraction across
the leaf boundary layer and stomata:

$$\bar{a} = \frac{a_b (C_a - C_s) + a' (C_s - C_i)}{C_s - C_i} \quad (2.17)$$
Although values for $e$ and $f$ are still under debate, $g_m$ can be estimated when combining the above with measurements of leaf gas exchange, on the basis that the measured $\Delta_{13}$ are lower than predicted, when assuming $C_c = C_i$. For this, an infinite $g_m$ can be assumed to derive the predicted $\Delta_{13}$:

$$
\Delta_i = \frac{1}{1 - t} \left[ a_b \frac{C_a - C_s}{C_a} + a_s \frac{C_s - C_l}{C_a} \right] + \frac{1 + t}{1 - t} \left[ b \frac{C_i}{C_a} - \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_e} e \frac{R_d}{A + R_d} \frac{C_l - \Gamma^*}{C_a} - \frac{\alpha_b}{\alpha_f} \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_a} \right]
$$

To allow for the estimation of $\Delta_i$ from measurement of leaf gas exchange ($A_N$), Equation (2.18) is modified from Equation (2.15) by substituting $C_c$ for $C_i$ and $C_c/k/k$ for $(C_i - \Gamma^*)(A_N + R_d)$. The resulting difference between $\Delta_i$ (from gas exchange) and $\Delta_{13}$ (from carbon isotope discrimination) then yields $g_m$:

$$
g_m = \frac{1 + t}{1 - t} \left( b - (b_s - a_l) - \frac{a_b}{a_e} e \frac{R_d}{A + R_d} \right) A_N \frac{\Delta_i - \Delta_{13}}{PC_a}
$$

where $P$ is the atmospheric pressure. It should be noted that this approach assumes that any respired CO$_2$ from mitochondria would have to diffuse through the chloroplasts, implying complete re-assimilation.

**2.6. Determination of $g_m$ based on leaf anatomical properties**

A disadvantage of the methods described above is that $g_m$ should be considered as an apparent variable as it lumps the effect of any individual leaf anatomical properties on CO$_2$ transport in the mesophyll. Therefore, these models cannot be used directly to assess how individual leaf anatomical properties affect the photosynthesis. An
alternative is to calculate $g_m$ from leaf anatomical properties, curvature factors, and assumed diffusion coefficients and/or conductances. In these models, the physical definition of a conductance $g$ (equation (2.8)) is directly applied to quantify the conductance of some of the components in the liquid phase for CO$_2$ transport in the mesophyll (Evans et al., 1994; Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003; Evans et al., 2009; Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013) in order to calculate $g_m$. Once the conductance of each component is quantified, the liquid phase conductance, $g_{liq}$ can be calculated as (Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013):

$$g_{liq} = \frac{1}{g_{wall}} + \frac{1}{g_{mem}} + \frac{1}{g_{cyt}} + \frac{1}{g_{env}} + \frac{1}{g_{str}} \tag{2.20}$$

where $g_{wall}$, $g_{mem}$, $g_{cyt}$, $g_{env}$, and $g_{str}$ are the conductances of the cell wall, the plasma membrane, the cytosol, the chloroplast envelope, and the chloroplast stroma respectively. Note that each of these conductances is expressed in mol m$^{-2}$ exposed chloroplast surface area s$^{-1}$ Pa, instead of mol m$^{-2}$ leaf area s$^{-1}$. In order to calculate expressed $g_{liq}'$, the liquid phase conductance in mol m$^{-2}$ leaf area s$^{-1}$, $g_{liq}$ has to be multiplied with $S_c/S$, which is the ratio of the area of chloroplast surface exposed to the intercellular air space to the leaf area. A common way to determine this parameter is to first measure the ratio of $L_m/L$ and $L_c/L_m$ from TEM (transmission electron microscopy) or light microscopic images. $L_m/L$ represents the length ratio of the exposed mesophyll surface to total length of the section. $L_c/L_m$ represents the ratio of the length of the part of the chloroplast facing the intercellular air space to the total length of the mesophyll in the image. The length ratio $L_m/L$ can be converted to the equivalent surface ratio $S_m/S$ by determining the curvature factor of the tissue from a series of paradermal and transversal sections and multiply this factor with $L_m/L$ (Thain, 1983; Evans et al., 1994). $g_{liq}'$ is then calculated as:
\[ g_{\text{liq}}' = \frac{S_c}{S} g_{\text{liq}} = \frac{S_m S_c}{S} g_{\text{liq}} = \frac{S_m L_c}{S} L_m g_{\text{liq}} \]  

(2.21)

Strictly speaking, there is no reason to assume that the length ratio \( L_c/L_m \) equals its equivalent surface area ratio \( S_c/S_m \). Nevertheless, this assumption is made in all aforementioned studies that determined \( S_c/S_m \). \( g_m \) is defined as a gas phase conductance, while \( g_{\text{liq}} \) is a liquid phase conductance. Therefore, Henry's law has to be applied, which states that the ratio between the concentrations of a chemical species in a gas and in an adjacent solvent is constant at steady state conditions (Ho et al., 2010; Tosens et al., 2012b):

\[ g_m = \frac{H}{RT} g_{\text{liq}}' \]  

(2.22)

where \( H \) is Henry's law constant for CO\(_2\). There are a couple of disadvantages to this approach. First, the collection of all microscopic images required to determine the curvature factors for the calculations of \( S_m/S \) is laborious. There are alternative methodologies to determine \( S_m/S \) mentioned in literature; (1) they can be measured directly from a tomography obtained by X-ray synchrotron microscopy (Verboven et al., 2015) or by the reconstruction of the three-dimensional structure from light microscopic images of macerated palisade and spongy parenchyma cells (Ivanova and Pyankov, 2002; Ivanova et al., 2006; Ivanova, 2012). (2) the conductance of each mesophyll component in equation (2.20) either has to be measured directly or to be calculated by equation (2.8). Still, measuring the conductance or the diffusion coefficients of these components directly is very challenging and the amount of published data is very limited (Evans et al., 2009). (3) The diffusion path length of the cell wall and the cytosol can be set equal to the measured thickness of these components. However, this is not valid for the stroma, since CO\(_2\) molecules can be
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of C3 photosynthesis

carboxylated by Rubisco while they are diffusing in the mesophyll, resulting in a diffusion path length shorter than the chloroplast thickness. Various studies (Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013) assumed that the diffusion path length of CO$_2$ in the stroma is half its thickness. However, this implies that the local CO$_2$ partial pressure linearly decreased with the distance that the molecules diffuse in the stroma. This is unlikely as the ratio of the stromal CO$_2$ diffusion path length to the stromal thickness is probably considerably smaller than 0.5 (Tholen and Zhu, 2011) and may depend on the sink strength. The power of this type of models is the fact that they can link mesophyll conductance directly to leaf anatomical properties by modelling these properties explicitly. They have recently been used to investigate how $g_m$ is affected by leaf development and light and water availability (Tosens et al., 2012b), to explain differences in $g_m$ between two Abies species (Peguero-Pina et al., 2012), and to check whether leaf anatomical properties can explain differences in $g_m$ among different levels of drought stress (Tomas et al., 2013; Tomas et al., 2014). However, there are also limitations to this approach. Several of these limitations, i.e. the uncertainty of the length of the CO$_2$ diffusion path in the stroma and the absence of variability of $g_m$ with $C_i$, can be solved by the use of reaction-diffusion models. We will discuss this type of models in sections 2.9-2.12 of this chapter.

2.7. Variability of $g_m$

One of the fundamental assumptions of models for the conductance of a material for a certain chemical species is that it does not change with the concentration of this chemical species, since diffusive transport only depends on the diffusion coefficient, the thickness of the material, and the temperature (equation (2.8)). The assumption that $g_m$ does not change with $C_i$ was confirmed in a recent study (Tazoe et al., 2009) in wheat, but several other recent studies report considerable changes in the estimate of $g_m$ if the above methods to determine it are applied at different CO$_2$ levels (Flexas et al., 2007; Hassiotou et al., 2009; Vrabl et al., 2009; Bunce, 2010; Douthe et al., 2011; Tazoe et al., 2011) as reviewed by Flexas et al. (2012). Importantly, this reported variability violates the definition of a physical conductance and implies that $g_m$ is not
a lumped conductance but instead an apparent variable that depends on $C_i$. The mechanism of the dependence of $g_m$ on $C_i$ is largely unclear (Flexas et al., 2012), which makes it hard to mechanistically model it. One solution to this issue is to describe the variability of $g_m$ by a phenomenological model instead (Yin et al., 2009):

$$g_m = \frac{\delta(A + R_d)}{C_c - \Gamma^*} \quad (2.23)$$

where parameter $\delta$ defines the $C_c:C_i$ ratio at saturating light as $(C_c - \Gamma^*)/(C_i - \Gamma^*) = 1/(1 + 1/\delta)$. Substitution of this term in the curve-fitting method equation (2.14a-d) and considerable re-arranging yields:

$$A_N = \frac{-B + \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A} \quad (2.24a)$$

$$A = X_2 + \Gamma^* + \delta(C_i + X_2) \quad (2.24b)$$

$$B = -(X_2 + \Gamma^*)(X_1 - R_d) + (C_i + X_2)[\delta(X_1 - R_d)] + \delta[(X_1(C_i - \Gamma^*) - R_d(C_i + X_2))] \quad (2.24c)$$

$$C = \delta(X_1 - R_d)[X_2(C_i - \Gamma^*) - R_d(C_i + X_2)] \quad (2.24d)$$

$$X_1 = \begin{cases} V_{cmax} & \text{if } A_N = A_c \\ \frac{1}{4} & \text{if } A_N = A_j \end{cases} \quad (2.24e)$$

$$X_2 = \begin{cases} K_{mc} \left(1 + \frac{0}{K_m0}\right) & \text{if } A_N = A_c \\ \frac{2\Gamma^*}{2\Gamma^*} & \text{if } A_N = A_j \end{cases} \quad (2.24f)$$

Yin et al. (2009) demonstrated that equations (2.24a-f) can be used to estimate $\delta$ and $V_{cmax}$ and subsequently to simulate how $g_m$ varies with $C_i$ as:
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of $C_3$ photosynthesis

$$g_m = \frac{A_N - \delta(A_N + R_d)}{C_i - \Gamma^*} \quad (2.25)$$

The advantage of this model is that it allows the estimation of photosynthetic parameters, while still considering the variability of $g_m$. However, since this is a phenomenological model, it does not explain any of the mechanisms that determine $g_m$. Tholen et al. (2012) designed a mathematical framework to show that this variability may be explained by the release of (photo)respiratory $CO_2$ from the mitochondria in the cytosol. In this framework $g_m$ is partitioned into two serial conductances $g_{wp}$ (serial conductance of cell wall and plasma membrane) and $g_{chl}$ (serial conductance of chloroplast envelope and stroma). According to this framework, $g_m$ can be expressed as:

$$g_m = \frac{g_{wp}g_{chl}}{g_{chl} + g_{wp}\left(1 + \frac{R_d + R_p}{A_N}\right)} \quad (2.26)$$

An interesting feature of this model for $g_m$ is that it gives a more mechanistic explanation for the variability of $g_m$ with the $CO_2$ partial pressure than the Yin et al. (2009) model, although it explains only the initial part of the commonly recorded variability (i.e., the increase of $g_m$ with increasing $C_i$). It can also be parameterized from gas exchange methods combined with isotope discrimination, so leaf anatomical measurements and assumed diffusion coefficients for $CO_2$ in mesophyll compartments are not required to quantify $g_{wp}$ and $g_{chl}$. Nevertheless, it has an important limitation as it is assumed implicitly that $CO_2$ release by (photo)respiration takes place in a cytosol compartment between the cell wall and the chloroplast envelope. Subsequently, this $CO_2$ shares its diffusion pathway with $CO_2$ taken up from the atmosphere from the cytosol to Rubisco. This either implies that (1) diffusion of $CO_2$ in the cytosol is so fast, compared to $CO_2$ diffusion in the stroma, that there is no gradient of $CO_2$ in the cytosol (Tholen et al., 2014) or that (2) (photo)respired $CO_2$
release is restricted to a layer of cytosol between the cell wall and the part chloroplast envelope facing the intercellular air space. In case (1), the placement of mitochondria in relation to chloroplasts does not have any effect on the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂. In case (2), the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ may be underestimated, because the diffusion distance of (photo)respired CO₂ between the mitochondria is then very short, compared to a situation in which they are placed between the part of the chloroplast envelope facing the vacuole and the tonoplast. Fig. 2.1 shows a schematic overview of the description of the CO₂ diffusion path by (a) an unpartitioned mesophyll conductance model, (b) a partitioned mesophyll conductance model assuming that CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration is released in the outer layer of the cytosol. (c) a partitioned mesophyll conductance model assuming that CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration can be released anywhere and that CO₂ diffusion in the cytosol is very fast.

2.8. Mesophyll conductance; potentials and limitations

Mesophyll conductance models have a large number of applications as described in the two sections above. They are particularly useful for the estimation of parameters. Their use prevents the underestimation of photosynthetic parameters in the FvCB model (Farquhar et al., 1980) and prevent the propagation of such errors if the FvCB model is used for further predictions after parameterization (Niinemets et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2014b). Moreover, mesophyll conductance can be partitioned into sub-conductances, which allows modelling of the effects of leaf anatomical properties on mesophyll conductance (Evans et al., 1994; Tosens et al., 2012b) and photosynthesis (Tholen et al., 2012). However, the various types of mesophyll conductance models have several limitations. (1) Models that determine \( g_m \) from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with chlorophyll fluorescence or isotope discrimination methods, are prone to statistical artefacts that may lead to errors in the estimates of photosynthetic parameters (Yin and Struik, 2009; Gu and Sun, 2014; Sun et al., 2014a; Sun et al., 2014c; Sharkey, 2015). (2) These models do not give a mechanistic explanation on which processes and structures that determine \( g_m \) and, thereby, \( C_c \) and the net CO₂ assimilation rate. Models that quantify \( g_m \) by anatomical measurements
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of $C_3$ photosynthesis

Figure 2.1: Schematic overview of the CO$_2$ diffusion path according to the framework that assumes that a): the drawdown of the CO$_2$ partial pressure between the intercellular air space and Rubisco is determined by a single conductance $g_m$. b): mesophyll conductance is partitioned into two subconductances $g_{wp}$ and $g_{chl}$. Mitochondria in the outer cytosol layer release (photo)respired CO$_2$ between these two conductances. c) Mitochondria at any location release CO$_2$ between the two subresistances assuming that diffusion in the cytosol is very fast.
and assumed diffusive properties can be used to study the relationship between leaf structures and $g_m$. However, both models that determine $g_m$ from gas exchange measurements and from leaf anatomical measurements do not contain a mechanistic explanation for the variability of $g_m$ with $C_i$. According to the conductance model of Tholen et al. (2012), the variability of $g_m$ can be partly explained by the release of (photo)respired CO$_2$ in the cytosol. However, this model either restricts the position of the mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts to an outer cytosol layer between the cell wall and the chloroplast envelope facing the intercellular air space or assumes that there is no CO$_2$ gradient in the cytosol. Both assumptions have implications for predictions of the amount of (photo)respired CO$_2$ being re-assimilated. Lastly, (3), mesophyll conductance models are inflexible. Adding various forms of complexity to conductance models makes the mathematical expressions for $g_m$ and $A_N$ complex and, therefore, cumbersome to use (Parkhurst, 1977). For instance, the curve fitting method of Ethier et al. (2006) requires substitution of $C_c = C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m}$ in the FvCB model, which lead to the complex set of equations (2.13) and (2.14a-d). These terms become even more complicated, when a phenomenological model for the variability of $g_m$ is added (Yin et al., 2009) (equations (2.24a-f,2. 25)). The inflexibility and the algebraic complexity of mesophyll conductance models make it hard to understand the model’s behaviour and the lack of a mechanistic description makes it hard to interpret the results of these models. Therefore, it may be worthwhile to find an alternative for the $g_m$ type of models. The alternatives that we review in the next sections are reaction-diffusion type models, which overcome the above-mentioned limitations.

2.9. Fundamentals of reaction-diffusion models

The accumulation of the concentration of a certain substance can be defined as the difference between the rate of concentration increase due to the net production of this substance (source term $S$) and the rate of concentration decrease due to the net outflux (formulated as the gradient of the outflux $-\nabla \varphi$) of this substance. This can be described by a reaction-diffusion equation:
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of $C_3$ photosynthesis

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = -\nabla \varphi + S$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.27)

where $t$ is the time. Substitution of $\varphi$ in equation 27 as defined by Fick’s first law, results in Fick’s second law (Fick, 1855).

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot D \nabla c + S$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.28)

Equation (2.28) can be solved over an arbitrary geometry called a computational domain. The exact expression of the gradient operator $\nabla$ (expressed in m$^{-1}$) depends on the coordinate system and the number of dimensions. Solving equation (2.28) also requires boundary conditions that define either the net flux or the concentration at the boundary of the computational domain. The steady state distribution can be calculated by setting $\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = 0$ in equation (2.24):

$$\nabla \cdot D \nabla c + S = 0$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.29)

Almost all reaction-diffusion models for leaf photosynthesis in the literature are steady-state models, just like all mesophyll conductance models. So, they satisfy equation (2.29). Solving this equation can be done analytically in certain simple cases (Parkhurst, 1977; Rand, 1977, 1978). More commonly, they have to be solved numerically by the means of finite element or finite volume methods (Lewis et al., 2004). The power of reaction-diffusion models is that they are very flexible. It is possible to solve them over any geometry, explicitly define in which subdomain specific sinks or sources are present, and to define the diffusion coefficient for each subdomain.
2.10. Early reaction-diffusion models for photosynthesis

To the best of our knowledge, the earliest reaction-diffusion models for CO$_2$ transport in leaves were published in the 1970s (Parkhurst, 1977; Rand, 1977; Sinclair et al., 1977). Parkhurst (1977) simulated a “leaf plug” as a rectangular cuboid. This 3D domain is modelled as a homogeneous medium, in which the diffusion coefficient is calculated as the weighted average diffusion coefficient in the gas phase and liquid phase. The CO$_2$ uptake was calculated as the ratio of the concentration difference between the air space and the site of carboxylations to the sum of the “carboxylation resistance” and the resistance of the intracellular liquid. This model predicted a gradient of CO$_2$ from the stomata to the internal leaf parts. In a later study, the stomatal pore was explicitly modelled. Parkhurst (1984) modelled a stomatal pore explicitly as a cylindrical tube attached to a larger cylinder representing the mesophyll. He varied the size of this pore to assess how the CO$_2$ profile is affected. There are three problems with the concepts of the models described above. First, none of the models described above, except for Parkhurst and Mott (1990), were validated with data. This limits their use to strictly theoretical analyses and may result in wrong conclusions, if the assumed parameter values are unrealistic. Second, some of the models above assume that $C_c$ is constant under all environmental conditions and is considered to be very small, a concept that was frequently used before the era of the FvCB model. This leads to large concentration differences between the intercellular air space and the binding sites of Rubisco. Therefore, the net influx of CO$_2$ in mesophyll cells is large, which can lead to overstimation of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. This limitation can be overcome by adding a source term that considers RuBP carboxylation (Parkhurst and Mott, 1990). Thirdly, another limitation is the porous medium approximation. It assumes that CO$_2$ can be assimilated at any place in the media, since only CO$_2$ transport in the gas phase is explicitly modelled. This results in a simulated CO$_2$ gradient (Parkhurst, 1977; Rand, 1977, 1978) from the stomatal opening to the internal parts of the leaf and may lead to the conclusion that the air space may contribute substantially to the overall mesophyll conduction. In reality, CO$_2$ consumption by RuBP carboxylation is limited to the chloroplasts, which only fill a
small fraction of the whole mesophyll. They are almost always concentrated near the interface between the intercellular air space and the exposed mesophyll surface area (Haberlandt, 1904). Consequently, the real diffusion path length in the liquid phase is very short, compared to the diffusion path length in the gas phase. The concentration of chloroplasts near the exposed mesophyll surface area also makes the diffusion path one-dimensional; this means that the CO₂ gradient is mainly from the exposed cell wall to the binding sites of Rubisco and not, as simulated by porous media approaches, from the adaxial to the abaxial leaf surface. More recent reaction-diffusion models for CO₂ transport in leaves generally model the liquid phase and the gas phase for CO₂ transport explicitly (Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto et al., 1999; Aalto and Juurola, 2002; Juurola et al., 2005; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2016), which allows separation of the CO₂ gradient in the liquid phase and the gas phase.

2.11. Modern reaction-diffusion models for CO₂ transport

The first reaction-diffusion model for CO₂ in leaves that separates the gas phase and liquid phase of CO₂ transport is proposed by Vesala et al. (1996). They modelled a leaf as a stoma and a stomatal cavity, connected by a stomatal pore (Vesala et al., 1995). The stomatal cavity was flanked with liquid phase compartments that formed the liquid phase of CO₂ transport, in which RuBP carboxylation takes place. A reaction-diffusion model was solved over this structure and the net CO₂ assimilation rate of the leaf and the CO₂ concentration profile was calculated. This distribution showed a substantial decline of the CO₂ concentration from the interface of the stomatal pore and the stomatal cavity to the bottom of the stomatal cavity. According to Vesala et al. (1996), this result confirmed the hypothesis of Parkhurst (1994) that the intercellular air space can be a major barrier for CO₂ transport. However, this conclusion is controversial, as Vesala et al. (1996) modelled all mesophyll below the stomatal cavity as a liquid phase compartment. They state that this assumption ignores the air channels between the palisade and spongy parenchyma, which interconnects these tissues. To compensate for that, they assumed that the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in the liquid phase was ten times as large as for water. Consequently, the conductance of the liquid phase for CO₂ transport is much higher than suggested in
most studies. Aalto et al. (1999) used a similar model to run a sensitivity analysis for the diffusion coefficient of CO$_2$ in the liquid phase. Indeed, they found that the gradient of CO$_2$ in the intercellular air space becomes steeper when the diffusion coefficient of CO$_2$ in the liquid phase is increased.

Aalto and Juurola (2002) presented a new reaction-diffusion model. In this model, the palisade and spongy parenchyma cells were represented as simple geometrical shapes (cylinders with half-spherical caps and spheres, respectively) and the epidermis cells were represented as a rectangular cuboids. The abaxial epidermis contained a stomatal air filled pore, modelled as a cylindrical hole. Stomatal conductance could be regulated by varying the radius of the stomatal pore. This was the first reaction-diffusion model, in which loose chloroplasts are modelled near the mesophyll surface area exposed to the intercellular air space. Unlike previous models that assumed very high liquid phase diffusion coefficients (Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto et al., 1999), the diffusion coefficient of CO$_2$ in the liquid phase compartments was now set to the one in water. The calculated CO$_2$ concentration profile revealed that there was no CO$_2$ gradient under ambient CO$_2$ levels from interface between the stomatal pore and the intercellular air space and the upper side of the leaf. In contrast, there was a strong gradient from the exposed mesophyll surface area to the centre of the chloroplasts. This finding rejected the hypothesis of a strong CO$_2$ gradient in the air space.

Besides studying CO$_2$ gradients in the air phase and liquid phase of CO$_2$ transport, the model from Aalto and Juurola (2002) provided various other insights that cannot be obtained by previously described mesophyll conductance models. Juurola et al. (2005) expanded the model with the temperature dependency of various photosynthetic parameters, with diffusion coefficients and with the solubility of CO$_2$ in the liquid phase. They used the model to re-estimate photosynthetic parameters and parameters for their temperature dependence. The parameter estimates were sometimes remarkably different from the estimates based on the same data in a previous study (Aalto and Juurola, 2001), in which an infinite mesophyll conductance was assumed while estimating photosynthetic parameters. This supports the statement that $g_m$ cannot be ignored. It was the first time that a reaction-diffusion model is directly used
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of C₃ photosynthesis

to estimate photosynthetic parameters and their temperature dependencies. This allowed separation of temperature dependencies of physical parameters (diffusion coefficients, CO₂ solubility) and biochemical parameters ($K_{mc}$, $K_{mo}$, $V_{max}$, $J_{max}$, $R_d$). Juurola et al. (2005) stated that the temperature dependencies of each of these parameters may be partly lumped in $g_m$, in case a mesophyll conductance model is used (Bernacchi et al., 2002; Scafaro et al., 2011). The temperature dependencies may be even more biased, if it is assumed that $g_m$ is negligible (Harley et al., 1992b; Aalto and Juurola, 2001).

Tholen and Zhu (2011) developed another reaction-diffusion model. Their computational domain consisted of a sphere that represented a single mesophyll cell. This sphere was further subdivided into subdomains representing loose spherical chloroplasts, mitochondria, and a spherical centrale volume, which is the vacuole. The remaining space was the cytosol. Tholen and Zhu (2011) aimed to address all factors that affect mesophyll resistance and, thereby, $C_c$ and the net rates of CO₂ assimilation. These factors included the diffusion coefficient of various compartments and CO₂ facilitation by carbonic anhydrases. This was also one of the first studies proved that a reaction-diffusion model describes gas exchange measurements, in this case an $A_N - C_i$ curve, reasonably well.

Another reaction-diffusion model was developed by Ho et al. (2016). The geometry used in this study was directly obtained from a 3-D tomography of a leaf obtained by 3-D X-ray synchrotron microscopy (Verboven et al., 2015). This geometry was subdivided into subdomains (chloroplasts, cytosol, vacuole, intercellular air space, epidermis). Within this highly complex 3-D computational domain a gas exchange model was solved. The high degree of realism of the internal structure of the mesophyll in the tomography allowed to solve a Monte Carlo ray tracing model to simulate light propagation through the leaf (Watté et al., 2015). This resulted in similar profiles as measured for photosynthetic capacity (Sun et al., 1998; Vogelmann and Evans, 2002; Evans and Vogelmann, 2003). Ho et al. (2016) used this combined CO₂ and light transport model to simulate how the distribution of chloroplasts (“face” or “profile”) (Tholen et al., 2008) affects the light distribution profile in the leaf and its
photosynthesis. They also used this model to confirm that the net CO₂ assimilation is optimal if the gradient of the photosynthetic capacity follows the light absorption gradient. Local CO₂ concentrations in the intercellular air space, that appeared to be highly interconnected, were about the same throughout the intercellular air space. On the other hand, strong gradients of CO₂ were found in the cytosol and the chloroplasts. Again, this confirmed that the conductance of the intercellular air space is very high compared to the conductance of the remaining part of the mesophyll. It was also the first time that such a reaction-diffusion model was explored to calculate the amount of refixation of CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration. The model from Ho et al. (2016) allowed to study processes related to photoynthesis at small scale in greater detail than ever before. Nevertheless, this approach also has some disadvantages. First, the model requires a high resolution 3-D tomography, which requires access to advanced equipment, like X-ray microscopy (Verboven et al., 2008; Verboven et al., 2015). Second, this tomography cannot be systematically changed. Consequently, if a new leaf type is studied, a new tomography has to be made. Third, the model requires a very dense mesh due to the very detailed geometry. This makes the model very computationally expensive and, therefore, limited by the number of simulations that can be done. Using such a model requires access to powerful supercomputers. Some of these problems may become less of an issue in the future, when computers have become more powerful or if it is easier to frequently access high resolution 3-D visualisation facilities like 3-D X-ray synchrotron microscopy. In the next paragraph, we will discuss for which purposes mesophyll conductance models can be used in future research and for which purposes we think it is necessary to use reaction-diffusion models as an alternative.

2.12 Why (not) use reaction-diffusion models as an alternative to mesophyll conductance models?

If mesophyll resistance is simply ignored during the estimation of FvCB model parameters (Farquhar et al., 1980), $V_{c\text{max}}$ and $J_{\text{max}}$ can be underestimated considerably. Climate and crop models that use these biased parameters for predictions may
underestimate the CO₂ uptake by plants considerably and, therefore, generate wrong predictions (Niinemets et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2014b). Although mesophyll conductance models have often been used to determine \( C_c \), they have some disadvantages. First, the models that estimate \( g_m \) are prone to statistical artefacts (Yin and Struik, 2009), which can result in wrong estimation of photosynthetic parameters as well. Second, they lump both biochemical processes and leaf anatomical structures in a single parameter. This makes it impossible to assess to what extent each structure and biochemical process affects \( C_c \) and \( A_N \), particularly in response to environmental variables. This problem can be tackled somewhat by the partitioning of mesophyll conductance in subconductances (Evans et al., 1994; Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003; Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013), but these models do not consider variability of \( g_m \) with \( C_i \). Mesophyll conductances are useful to estimate parameters of the FvCB model. It is possible to consider the variability of \( g_m \) with \( C_i \) in estimation procedures, if a phenomenological model is used to describe this variability (Yin et al., 2009; Gu et al., 2012). However, mesophyll conductance models are not flexible enough to give a mechanistic description of the CO₂ diffusion pathway. If one is interested to identify individual factors that affect CO₂ transport from the intercellular air space, reaction-diffusion models could be used as an alternative.

Reaction diffusion models have various advantages over mesophyll conductance models. (1) They are more flexible than mesophyll conductance models, which makes it easier to extend them with additional factors, like CO₂ transport facilitation by carbonic anhydrase activity (Tholen and Zhu, 2011) or light propagation (Watté et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2016). (2) They can be used to study the effect of \( S_c/S_m \) or the position of mitochondria on the net CO₂ assimilation and the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ (Ho et al., 2016). (3) They can be used to give a mechanistic explanation on why the efficiency of CO₂ transport depends on environmental conditions, rather than lumping all factors that cause this in a single parameter \( g_m \). (4) They can separately describe the effects of physical and biochemical factors on the efficiency of CO₂ transport in leaves.
It is important to simulate the gas phase and the liquid phase separately, because a porous volume approach, used in the older reaction-diffusion models, may overestimate the gradient of CO$_2$ between the stomatal pore and the internal leaf parts. This limitation has been solved by the introduction of methods to model the liquid phase and the gas phase separately (Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto and Juurola, 2002). Nevertheless, reaction-diffusion models do have other limitations, which do not necessarily occur in mesophyll conductance models. The most important limitations are (1) that the diffusion coefficients and the diffusion path length in the stroma are uncertain. Although reaction diffusion models are physically more realistic and provide a more mechanistic description of CO$_2$ transport, the downside is that some of the physical parameters are uncertain. Therefore, we emphasize that reaction-diffusion models need to be validated after parameterization, whenever possible. Also, (2) they require leaf anatomical data to reconstruct the computational domain. The collection of these data is considerably more laborious than gas exchange measurements if it is done by TEM and/or light microscopy (Thain, 1983; Evans et al., 1994; Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013) or it requires access to advanced 3-D visualization technology like X-ray synchrotron microscopy (Verboven et al., 2008; Verboven et al., 2015). This latter problem may become obsolete over the years due to technological advancement of visualization technology. Finally, (3) there is a trade-off between the degree of realism of the desired geometry in the computational domain and the computational time. Again, this problem may become obsolete over time, if the speed of computers further increases.

The prediction from Zhu et al. (2010) that the photosynthetic efficiency can be increased by 20% by increasing $g_m$ opens great possibilities to increase crop productivity and meet the global demand for food, fibres and bioenergy. Nevertheless, in this review we explained that in current models, this parameter lumps a large number of biochemical factors and physical factors. In order to examine ways to increase $g_m$, we therefore have to understand which of these factors we may have to alter to achieve increases of $g_m$. In our view, the possibilities to do so with conventional mesophyll conductance models are very limited, due to restricted
Reaction diffusion models extend our understanding of C3 photosynthesis capability to provide a mechanistic description of the CO2 diffusion path in the mesophyll. Even though reaction-diffusion models also have their limitations, their separation of biochemical and physical factors are key to identifying targets to increase $g_m$ and photosynthesis, to ultimately find ways to increase global crop productivity.
CHAPTER 3

Modelling the relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties in tomato leaves

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Abstract

The CO₂ concentration near Rubisco and, therefore, the rate of CO₂ assimilation, is influenced by both leaf anatomical factors and biochemical processes. Leaf anatomical structures act as physical barriers for CO₂ transport. Biochemical processes add or remove CO₂ along its diffusion pathway through mesophyll. We combined a model that quantifies the diffusive resistance for CO₂ using anatomical properties, a model that partitions this resistance and an extended version of the Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model. We parametrized the model by gas exchange, chlorophyll fluorescence and leaf anatomical measurements from three tomato cultivars. There was generally a good agreement between the predicted and measured light and CO₂ response curves. We did a sensitivity analysis to assess how the rate of CO₂ assimilation responds to changes in various leaf anatomical properties. Next, we conducted a similar analysis for assumed diffusive properties and curvature factors. Some variables (diffusion pathway length in stroma, diffusion coefficient of the stroma, curvature factors) substantially affected the predicted CO₂ assimilation. We recommend more research on the measurements of these variables and on the development of 2-D and 3-D gas diffusion models, since these do not require the diffusion pathway length in the stroma as predefined parameter.

Key words: Leaf anatomy, photosynthesis, diffusion, mesophyll resistance, mesophyll conductance, C₃
3.1. Introduction

The biochemical model of Farquhar, von Caemmerer & Berry (‘the FvCB model’ hereafter) (Farquhar et al., 1980) has been widely used to study leaf physiology and to predict leaf photosynthesis under various environmental conditions. This model states that Rubisco-limited and electron-transport-limited rates of CO₂ assimilation depend on the CO₂ partial pressure at the carboxylation sites of Rubisco, \( C_c \) (see Table 3.1 for the definition of symbols used in this study). Assessing \( C_c \) is complicated by the mesophyll resistance that substantially constrains CO₂ diffusion from the intercellular air space to Rubisco (Flexas et al., 2008; Niinemets et al., 2009; Tholen et al., 2012b; Sun et al., 2014).

Traditionally, mesophyll resistance \( r_m \) is defined as a lumped resistance as:

\[
r_m = \frac{(C_i - C_c)}{A_N}
\]

where \( C_i \) is CO₂ partial pressures in intercellular air-spaces, and \( A_N \) is the net rate of CO₂ assimilation. The inverse of mesophyll resistance is mesophyll conductance \( g_m \). Various methods have been developed to estimate \( r_m \) indirectly with either chlorophyll fluorescence measurements (Yin and Struik, 2009) or \(^{13}\text{C} \) isotope discrimination methods (Pons et al., 2009). One of the most widely used methods to estimate \( r_m \) based on chlorophyll fluorescence measurements is the variable \( J \) method (Harley et al., 1992). This method, when applied to various \( C_i \) or light levels, often shows an initial increase and then decrease of \( g_m \) with an increasing \( C_i \) or of a continuous increase of \( g_m \) with an increasing irradiance \( I_{inc} \) (Flexas et al., 2008; Yin and Struik, 2009). This method is, in principle, only valid for the electron-transport-limited CO₂ assimilation, and caution is needed when applying it to Rubisco or triose-phosphate-utilization-limited CO₂ assimilation. For example, that the variable \( J \) method may
### Table 3.1. List of variables and their units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A_N)</td>
<td>Net rate of (CO_2) assimilation</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_a)</td>
<td>(CO_2) partial pressure in the atmosphere</td>
<td>(\mu \text{bar CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_i)</td>
<td>(CO_2) partial pressure in the intercellular air space</td>
<td>(\mu \text{bar CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_{i0})</td>
<td>(CO_2) partial pressure in the intercellular air space if (I_{\text{inc}} = 0)</td>
<td>(\mu \text{bar CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_c)</td>
<td>(CO_2) partial pressure near Rubisco</td>
<td>(\mu \text{bar CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(D_{CO_2,i})</td>
<td>Diffusion coefficient of (CO_2) in component (i)</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(D_{CO_2,\text{water}})</td>
<td>Diffusion coefficient of (CO_2) in water</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f_i)</td>
<td>Fraction of the diffusive path length of component (i) and its thickness</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f_{\text{pal}})</td>
<td>Fraction of the exposed mesophyll surface area that belongs to the palisade parenchyma</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F)</td>
<td>Rate of photorespiratory (CO_2) release</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g_{\text{mem}})</td>
<td>Permeability of the cell wall</td>
<td>(\text{m s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g_{\text{env}})</td>
<td>Permeability of the chloroplast envelope</td>
<td>(\text{m s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h)</td>
<td>Henry’s law constant for (CO_2)</td>
<td>(\text{Pa m}^{-3} \text{ mol}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I_{\text{inc}})</td>
<td>Irradiance incident at the leaf surface</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(J)</td>
<td>Rate of electron transport through Photosystem II</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol e}^{-} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I_{\text{max}})</td>
<td>Maximum rate of electron transport through Photosystem II at saturating light</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol e}^{-} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(K_{\text{mC}})</td>
<td>Michaelis-Menten constant of Rubisco for (CO_2)</td>
<td>(\mu \text{bar CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(K_{\text{mO}})</td>
<td>Michaelis-Menten constant of Rubisco for (O_2)</td>
<td>(\text{mbar O}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(L_i)</td>
<td>Diffusion path length of component (i)</td>
<td>(\text{m})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\frac{L_{\text{m}}}{L_{\text{tissue}}})</td>
<td>Fraction of exposed mesophyll length relative to the width of the section at one side of the leaf in a certain tissue (either palisade parenchyma or spongy parenchyma)</td>
<td>(\text{m} \text{ m}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P_o)</td>
<td>(O_2) partial pressure</td>
<td>(\text{mbar O}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p_{\text{eff},i})</td>
<td>Effective porosity of component (i)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(q)</td>
<td>Power in the power law that describes the empirical relationship between (C_i) and (I_{\text{inc}})</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r_i)</td>
<td>Resistance for (CO_2) transport of component (i) in the mesophyll</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r_{\text{chl}})</td>
<td>Lumped resistance for (CO_2) transport of the chloroplast envelope and the stroma, and half the resistance of the cytosol</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r_{\text{diff}})</td>
<td>Total resistance for (CO_2) transport of the physical barriers in the mesophyll</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r_{\text{m}})</td>
<td>Apparent mesophyll resistance</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r_{\text{wp}})</td>
<td>Lumped resistance for (CO_2) transport of the cell wall, the plasma membrane, and half the resistance of the cytosol</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s} \text{ bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)</td>
<td>Universal gas constant</td>
<td>(\text{J} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R_d)</td>
<td>Rate of mitochondrial respiration in the light</td>
<td>(\mu \text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R_i)</td>
<td>Resistance for (CO_2) transport of component (i) in the mesophyll</td>
<td>(\text{s} \text{ m}^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(s)</td>
<td>Slope of the assumed linear relationship between (A_N) and (\frac{1}{2}I_{\text{inc}}\Phi_2) under strictly electron-transport-limited conditions</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\frac{S_e}{S})</td>
<td>Fraction of the exposed chloroplast surface area of the palisade parenchyma and the spongy parenchyma relative to leaf surface area at one side of the leaf</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ chloroplast m}^{-2} \text{ leaf})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\frac{S_e}{S_{\text{m}}})</td>
<td>Fraction of the exposed chloroplast surface area of the palisade parenchyma and the spongy parenchyma relative to the exposed mesophyll surface area of these tissues</td>
<td>(\text{m}^2 \text{ chloroplast m}^{-2} \text{ mesophyll})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S_{C/O})</td>
<td>Relative (CO_2/O_2) specificity factor of Rubisco</td>
<td>(\text{mbar O}_2 \text{ mbar}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S_m$</td>
<td>Fraction of the exposed mesophyll surface area of the palisade parenchyma and the spongy parenchyma relative to leaf surface area at one side of the leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>Weighted average thickness of a mesophyll component $i$ in the palisade and the spongy parenchyma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
<td>Temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_p$</td>
<td>Rate of triose phosphate utilization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_{2LL}$</td>
<td>Quantum yield of electron transport through Photosystem II under strictly electron-transport-limiting conditions on the basis of light absorbed by both Photosystem I and Photosystem II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_{tissue}$</td>
<td>Curvature factor of a certain tissue (either palisade parenchyma or spongy parenchyma)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma^*$</td>
<td>CO₂ compensation point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\theta$</td>
<td>Convexity factor of the response of $J$ to $I_{inc}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\zeta_i$</td>
<td>Reduction factor of the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ relative to $D_{CO₂,water}$ in component $i$ due to the higher viscosity of $i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\kappa_{2LL}$</td>
<td>Conversion factor of incident irradiance into electron transport under electron-transport-limited conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Phi_2$</td>
<td>Quantum yield of electron transport through Photosystem II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\omega$</td>
<td>Ratio of $r_{chl}$ to $r_{diff}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nevertheless, the variability of $g_m$ with $C_i$ in the low $C_i$ range can at least partially be explained by the release of photorespired CO₂ (Tholen et al., 2012b; Tholen et al., 2014). Photorespiration starts in the stroma with the production of phosphoglycolate through RuBP oxygenation by Rubisco. Phosphoglycolate is converted to glycolate, which is transferred from the stroma to the peroxisomes. In the peroxisome, glycolate is converted to glycine, which is then transferred to a mitochondrion, where glycine is converted to serine and CO₂. Additionally, mitochondrial respiration also releases CO₂. The CO₂ concentration difference between the cytosol and intercellular air space is, therefore, smaller than one would expect.

Tholen et al. (Tholen et al., 2012b) developed a framework to calculate $C_c$, in which they distinguished the different physical barriers for CO₂ transported from the intercellular air-spaces and CO₂ released from (photo)respiration. They defined $r_{diff}$ as the lumped constant resistance for CO₂ transport due to these barriers in the diffusion pathway of the mesophyll:

underestimate $g_m$ for the low $C_i$ range where CO₂ assimilation is limited by Rubisco activity (Yin et al., 2009).
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

\[ r_{\text{diff}} = r_{wp} + r_{\text{chl}} \]  

where \( r_{wp} \) is defined as the lumped resistance of the cell wall and plasma membrane, and \( r_{\text{chl}} \) is defined as the lumped diffusive resistance of the chloroplast envelope and the stroma. Based on their framework, \( C_c \) can be expressed as:

\[ C_c = C_i - r_{\text{diff}}(A_N - \omega(F + R_d)) \]  

where \( \omega = \frac{r_{\text{chl}}}{r_{\text{diff}}} \), \( F \) and \( R_d \) are rates of photorespired and respired CO₂ release, respectively (see also Cano et al. (2014)).

A number of studies (Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013) have been conducted to investigate the possibility to further partition \( r_{\text{chl}} \) and \( r_{wp} \) and calculate each of these resistances based on leaf anatomical measurements and assumptions related to the diffusivity for CO₂ of each of these components. These authors found that there was a mismatch between the values for \( r_m \) calculated by the variable \( J \) method and the values for \( r_{\text{diff}} \) at ambient CO₂ levels and saturating light. This mismatch may be explained by the framework of Tholen et al. (2012b) that \( r_m \) is variable with \( C_i \) and that this variability can be associated with the varying levels in the release of photorespired CO₂.

In summary, \( C_c \), and thereby the rate of CO₂ assimilation, is influenced by both leaf anatomical features that act as physical barriers for CO₂ transport and biochemical processes that act as sources and sinks for CO₂ along the CO₂ diffusion pathway in leaves. To the best of our knowledge, there has been no report on predicting the rate of CO₂ assimilation by combining gas exchange, chlorophyll fluorescence, and leaf anatomical measurements. We present a model that combines the model of Tosens et al. (2012b) quantifying \( r_{\text{diff}} \) from leaf anatomical measurements, the model of Tholen et al. (2012b) partitioning \( r_{\text{diff}} \), and an extended version of the original FvCB model.
(Farquhar et al., 1980; Sharkey, 1985; Yin et al., 2009). We will use this combined model to investigate to what extent various leaf anatomical traits affect the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation at various light and CO$_2$ levels. We will also use the model for a sensitivity analysis with regard to mesophyll curvature factors and a number of diffusive properties of subcellular components. The results of this analysis demonstrate that some of these parameters substantially affect the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation and that their values should therefore not be taken for granted.

### 3.2. Materials and methods

#### 3.2.1 Plant material and growth conditions

We carried out an experiment in a UNIFARM glasshouse of Wageningen University, using three cultivars of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.): Admiro (Syngenta, The Netherlands), Doloress (De Ruiter Seeds, The Netherlands) and Growdena (Syngenta, The Netherlands). All measurements involved four replicates. In order to spread the measurements over time, seeds were sown in small pots in a staggered way, i.e., on February 18, February 27, March 11, and March 21 of 2013, providing plants of the four replicates, respectively. The plants were grown on substrate blocks saturated with UNIFARM standard tomato nutrient solution (0.854% Calsal™, 0.15% Amnitra™, 0.36% Sulfakal™, 0.682% Bascal™, 0.864% Magnesul™; all from Yara Benelux, The Netherlands), 0.43% 6 M nitric acid and 0.118% 6 M phosphoric acid. The nutrient solution was supplied by a hydroponic irrigation system. The photoperiod in the greenhouse was 16 h. During day time, supplemental light from 600 W HPS Hortiflux Schréder lamps (Monster, South Holland, The Netherlands, 0.4 lamps m$^{-2}$) were switched off as soon as the intensity of the global solar radiation dropped below 400 W m$^{-2}$. Day and night temperatures were kept at 21°C and 16°C (±3°C), respectively. All measurements were carried out on plants that were at least 42 days old, using distal leaflets of the compound leaves that were 15 days old or 25 days old (typically at the fifth and the ninth nodes from the bottom).
3.2.2 Simultaneous gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements

We used the LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis System (Li-Cor BioSciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) to simultaneously measure gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence. We measured both light and CO₂ response curves. During all measurements, the leaf temperature was kept at 25°C, and the leaf-to-air vapour pressure difference was kept at 1.0-1.6 kPa.

We measured the CO₂ response curves under an incident irradiance ($I_{\text{inc}}$) of 1500 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ under both 21% and 2% O₂ conditions. The low O₂ condition was created using a gas mixture of 2% O₂ and 98% N₂, and the IRGA calibration was adjusted for the O₂ composition of the gas mixture. The leaflet was consecutively exposed to different levels of CO₂, i.e., 400, 300, 200, 100, 50, 400, 600, 800, 1000, 1200, 1600, and 2000 μmol mol⁻¹. For light response curves, two sets of conditions were used. First, the light response curve was measured when $C_a$ was kept constant at 400 μmol mol⁻¹ combined with 21% O₂. The light response was also obtained under a non-photorespiratory condition, using 1000 μmol mol⁻¹ $C_a$ combined with the 2% O₂ gas mixture. During the light response measurements, the leaflet was consecutively exposed to $I_{\text{inc}}$ levels of 1500, 1000, 750, 500, 300, 150, 100, 50, and 25 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹. During all measurements, the plant was allowed to adapt to a new level of CO₂ or light for three minutes, except for the transfer from $C_a = 50$ μmol mol⁻¹ to $C_a = 400$ μmol mol⁻¹. In the latter case, the plant was allowed to adapt for 12 minutes. Preliminary measurements had indicated that such an interval was long enough to obtain steady-state values reliably. Each combination of measured values for $A_N$ and $C_i$ was corrected for leakage in and out of the cuvette, using thermally killed leaves, as described by Flexas et al. (2007).

At each light or CO₂ step during the measurements, the steady-state fluorescence $F_s$ was measured. Next, a saturating light pulse (8500 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) was applied for less than a second to measure the maximum fluorescence $F_{m'}$. These parameters were used
to calculate the apparent operating quantum yield of Photosystem II as \( \Phi_2 = \frac{F_m' - F_s}{F_m'} \) (Genty et al., 1989).

### 3.2.3 Sample preparation for light and transmission electron microscopy

After the gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements, small leaflet samples (5 x 1 mm²) were cut parallel to the main vein. The samples were vacuum infiltrated in 3% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH =7.2), postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH=7.2), and dehydrated in an ethanol series. They were then infiltrated and embedded with Spurr’s resin (Spurr, 1969). The samples were put in an oven for 8 h at 70°C for polymerization.

### 3.2.4 Light microscopy

Sections of 1 μm thick were cut using an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC6), and they were stained using methylene blue. The sections were viewed and photographed by a digital inverted microscope (VOS, AMC-3206) at 20x magnification. The microscopic images were digitized using in house MATLAB (The Mathworks Inc, Natick, Massachusetts, USA) software (Mebatsion et al., 2006). The digitized images were subsequently loaded into COMSOL 3.5a (COMSOL AB, Stockholm, Sweden). The ratio of the length of the mesophyll exposed to the intercellular air space \( L_m \) to the length of the section \( L \) was calculated using measurements from these images. The exposed mesophyll surface area per unit of leaf area \( \frac{S_m}{S} \) was calculated for both the palisade parenchyma and the spongy parenchyma as:

\[
\left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)_{tissue} = \gamma_{tissue} \left( \frac{L_m}{L} \right)_{tissue}
\]  

(3.4)

where the subscript tissue indicates either palisade parenchyma or spongy parenchyma tissue, and \( \gamma_{tissue} \) is the curvature factor (Thain, 1983; Evans et al., 1994) of the tissue. We adopted \( \gamma_{tissue} \) values for *S. lycopersicum* leaves determined by
Galmes et al. (Galmes et al., 2013): 1.497 and 1.281 for the palisade and the spongy parenchyma, respectively.

### 3.2.5 Measurements using transmission electron microscopy

Sections of 80 nm thick were cut using an ultramicrotome, stained by lead citrate, and photographed using a transmission electron microscope (TEM Zeiss EM 900). The ratio of the length of chloroplasts exposed to intercellular air space \( L_c \) to the length of exposed mesophyll \( L_m \) was measured for both the palisade and the spongy parenchyma. The exposed mesophyll surface area covered by chloroplast per unit of leaf area was calculated as:

\[
\frac{S_c}{S} = \left( \frac{L_c}{L_m} \right)_{\text{pal}} \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)_{\text{pal}} + \left( \frac{L_c}{L_m} \right)_{\text{spo}} \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)_{\text{spo}}
\]  

(3.5)

where the subscripts ‘pal’ and ‘spo’ indicate palisade parenchyma and spongy parenchyma, respectively.

Cell wall thickness \( t_{\text{wall}} \), cytosol thickness \( t_{\text{cyt}} \), and chloroplast stroma thickness \( t_{\text{str}} \) were measured from these images (Fig. 3.1). The thickness of the cytosol was measured as the average distance between the cell wall and the chloroplast envelope. For each compartment \( i \), the overall thickness \( t_i \) was calculated as a weighted average between the thickness of compartment \( i \) in the palisade parenchyma and the spongy parenchyma:

\[
t_i = f_{\text{pal}} t_{i,\text{pal}} + (1 - f_{\text{pal}}) t_{i,\text{spo}}
\]

(3.6)
Figure 3.1:

a): Sample TEM image. A single chloroplast in the palisade parenchyma in a 25-day-old *S. lycopersicum* L. cv. Admiro leaf. The double arrows represent the thicknesses of the cell wall $t_{\text{wall}}$, the cytosol $t_{\text{cyt}}$ and the chloroplast $t_{\text{str}}$.

b): Schematic representation of the resistance model used in this study. The circles represent CO$_2$ partial pressures in the intercellular air space ($C_i$), in the middle of the cytosol ($C_{\text{cyt}}$) and in the stroma near Rubisco ($C_c$). The boxes represent the resistances of the cell wall ($R_{\text{wall}}$), the plasma membrane ($R_{\text{mem}}$), the two compartments of the cytosol ($R_{\text{cyt}}$), the chloroplast envelope ($R_{\text{env}}$) and the stroma ($R_{\text{str}}$). The double arrows show the assumed thickness of the resistances of the cell wall, the cytosol and the stroma. The single arrows show the CO$_2$ sink (rate of CO$_2$ carboxylation $W$) and the sources (rate of mitochondrial respiration in the light $R_d$ and the rate of photorespiration $F$).

where $f_{\text{pal}}$ is the fraction of exposed mesophyll surface area covered by chloroplast in the palisade parenchyma relative to the total mesophyll surface area covered by chloroplasts.

### 3.2.6 Model to calculate the sub-resistances in the mesophyll

Sub-resistance components in the mesophyll, $R_{\text{wall}}$, $R_{\text{cyt}}$ and $R_{\text{str}}$, were calculated as described by Niinemets and Reichstein (2003) and Tosens *et al.* (Tosens *et al.*, 2012b):
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

\[ R_i = \frac{f_i t_i}{p_{\text{eff},i} \zeta_i D_{\text{CO₂,water}}} \] (3.7)

where \( R_i \) is the resistance of component \( i \). \( t_i \) is the thickness of component \( i \). \( D_{\text{CO₂,water}} \) is the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in pure water at standard pressure and temperature (\( D_{\text{CO₂,water}} = 1.79 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}, P = 101325 \text{ Pa}, T = 298.15 \text{ K} \)). \( p_{\text{eff},i} \) is the effective porosity for CO₂. \( \zeta_i \) is a reduction factor of the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ relative to that of water due to a higher viscosity. \( f_i \) is the fraction of the effective diffusion path length in component \( i \). We assumed that \( \zeta_i = 1.0 \) for the cell wall and 0.5 for the cytosol (i.e., \( \zeta_{\text{wall}} = 1, \zeta_{\text{cyt}} = 0.5 \)) following Tholen and Zhu (2011) and Ho et al. (2016). It was also assumed that \( \zeta_i = 0.5 \) for the stroma (Ho et al., 2016), \( f_{\text{str}} = 0.25 \) (Tholen and Zhu, 2011), \( f_i = 1 \) for other components, and \( p_{\text{eff},i} = 1 \) for the cytosol and the chloroplast stroma. Finally, we assumed that \( p_{\text{eff},i} = 0.2 \) for the cell wall (Fanta et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2016). By applying equation (3.7), we adopt the commonly used assumption (Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012a; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013) that the cell wall thickness measured from transmission electron micrographs is not affected by the dehydration and embedding procedures of the sample preparation (von Caemmerer and Furbank, 2003).

While there are only few data available, reported values of the permeability of the plasma membrane \( G_{\text{mem}} \) and the chloroplast envelope \( G_{\text{env}} \) varied considerably (Evans et al., 2009). Gutknecht et al. (1977) found that the permeability of an artificial lipid bilayer membrane that consists of egg lecithin and cholesterol had a permeability of \( 3.5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m s}^{-1} \). Due to the lack of data, we set \( G_{\text{mem}} \) equal to this value. Since the chloroplast envelope is a double membrane, we assumed that \( G_{\text{env}} = \frac{1}{2} G_{\text{mem}} = 1.75 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m s}^{-1} \). \( G_{\text{mem}} \) lumps the permeability of aquaporins and the bulk plasma membrane (Terashima et al., 2006).
During gas exchange measurements, the rate of photosynthesis is commonly expressed in \( \mu \text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ leaf s}^{-1} \) and the CO\(_2\) level is in \( \mu \text{bar CO}_2 \). Consequently, the unit of diffusive mesophyll resistance is \( \text{m}^2 \text{ leaf s bar CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2 \), rather than in \( \text{s m}^{-1} \) for \( R_{\text{diff}} \), resulting from anatomical measurements. We calculated the resistance, expressed in \( \text{m}^2 \text{ s bar mol}^{-1} \), from the resistances expressed in \( \text{s m}^{-1} \). For this purpose, we used equation (3.8) to calculate this resistance for the cell wall, plasma membrane and cytosol and equation (3.9) for the chloroplast envelope and the stroma:

\[
 r_{i1} = \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5 p_{\text{eff}} i_1 D_{\text{CO}_2, \text{water}}} \quad \text{(3.8)}
\]

\[
 r_{i2} = \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5 p_{\text{eff}} i_1 D_{\text{CO}_2, \text{water}}} \quad \text{(3.9)}
\]

where \( H \) is Henry’s law constant for CO\(_2\) (\( H = 2941 \text{ Pa m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \) at \( T = 298.15 \text{ K} \) and standard pressure. \( 10^5 \) is a conversion factor to convert Pascals to bars. Its unit is \( \text{Pa bar}^{-1} \). In equation (3.8), the subscript \( 1 \) refers to the first set of resistance components (i.e., the cell wall, the plasma membrane and the cytosol). The subscript \( 2 \) in equation (3.9) refers to the second set of resistance components (i.e., chloroplast envelope, stroma). We describe the derivation of equations (3.8) and (3.9) in Appendix 3.1. Equation (3.9) implies that we assume that only chloroplasts that are exposed to the intercellular air space affect the net rate of CO\(_2\) assimilation. It is also important to emphasize that we scaled resistances of the cell wall, the plasma membrane and the cytosol with the exposed mesophyll surface area (equation (3.8)) and the resistance of the chloroplast envelope and stroma with the exposed chloroplast surface area. This modification of the original resistance model presented by Tosens et al. (Tosens et al., 2012b) was necessary to correct for the fact that the mesophyll surface area available for CO\(_2\) uptake is larger than the chloroplast surface area (Tomas et al., 2013).
3.2.7 Model to calculate $\omega$  

The diffusive resistance of the mesophyll $r_{\text{diff}}$ (expressed in m$^2$ s bar mol$^{-1}$) can be considered as a series of sub-resistances. These sub-resistances are resistances of the cell wall, plasma membrane, cytosol, chloroplast envelope, and chloroplast stroma (Evans et al., 2009):

$$r_{\text{diff}} = r_{\text{wall}} + r_{\text{mem}} + r_{\text{cyt}} + r_{\text{env}} + r_{\text{str}} \quad (3.10)$$

where $r_{\text{wall}}$, $r_{\text{mem}}$, $r_{\text{cyt}}$, $r_{\text{env}}$ and $r_{\text{str}}$ are the resistances of the cell wall, plasma membrane, cytosol, chloroplast envelope and chloroplast stroma (Tholen et al., 2014). Since we assume that the source for (photo)respired CO$_2$ release is located halfway in the diffusion pathway in the cytosol (Fig. 3.1), we can calculate $\omega$ as:

$$\omega = \frac{r_{\text{env}} + r_{\text{str}} + \frac{1}{2}r_{\text{cyt}}}{r_{\text{diff}}} \quad (3.11)$$

Note that the diffusive resistance $r_{\text{diff}}$ is not the same as the previously defined mesophyll resistance $r_{\text{m}}$ (Tholen et al., 2014). The first one is the sum of the resistances to CO$_2$ diffusion of all cellular components; the latter one, as defined by equation (3.1), lumps the effect of $r_{\text{diff}}$ and biochemical processes on the overall resistance to CO$_2$ transport from the intercellular air space to Rubisco [10].

3.2.8 The FvCB model to calculate the rate of photosynthesis

The generic form of the FvCB model is:
$A_N = \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma^*}{C_c}\right)\left(\frac{C_cX_1}{C_c + X_2}\right) - R_d$ \hspace{1cm} (3.12)

where $R_d$ is day respiration (i.e., the CO$_2$ release other than by photorespiration), and $\Gamma^*$ is CO$_2$ compensation point in the absence of $R_d$. In equation (3.12), $X_1 = V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ and $X_2 = K_{mc}\left(1 + \frac{o}{K_{m0}}\right)$ if the rate of carboxylation is limited by Rubisco, where $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ is the maximum rate of carboxylation by Rubisco, $K_{mc}$ and $K_{m0}$ are the Michaelis-Menten kinetic constants of Rubisco for RuBP carboxylation and oxygenation, respectively. If the rate of carboxylation is limited by the rate of electron transport $J$ and this rate is limited by NADPH production rather than ATP production, $X_1 = \frac{1}{4}J$ and $X_2 = 2\Gamma^*$. $J$ can be calculated as:

$$J = \frac{\kappa_{2LL}I_{\text{inc}} + J_{\text{max}} - \sqrt{(\kappa_{2LL}I_{\text{inc}} + J_{\text{max}})^2 - 4\theta J_{\text{max}}\kappa_{2LL}I_{\text{inc}}}}{2\theta}$$ \hspace{1cm} (3.13)

where $I_{\text{inc}}$ is the incident irradiance; $\kappa_{2LL}$ is the efficiency of converting incident irradiance to electron transport under limiting light; $J_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum rate of electron transport; and $\theta$ is a convexity factor. If the rate of CO$_2$ assimilation is limited by the rate of triose phosphate utilization $T_p$ (Sharkey, 1985), $X_1 = 3T_p$ and $X_2 = -\Gamma^*$.

### 3.2.9 Parameters of the FvCB model

The CO$_2$ compensation point $\Gamma^*$ can be calculated as $\Gamma^* = \frac{0.50}{S_{C/O}}$, where $S_{C/O}$ is the relative CO$_2$/O$_2$ specificity factor of Rubisco. We adopted the values $S_{C/O} = 3.26$ mbar µbar$^{-1}$, $K_{mc} = 267$ µbar and $K_{m0} = 164$ mbar (Ho et al., 2016). The cultivars used in this study were the same as in our study. The parameter $R_d$ was calculated by linear regression as the intercept of the line $A_N = s(I_{\text{inc}}\Phi_2/4) - R_d$ as described by Yin et al. (2009), using data of the electron-transport-limited range of the $A - I_{\text{inc}}$ ($I_{\text{inc}} \leq 200$ µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) curve under non-photorespiratory conditions. The
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

slope s of this linear regression was used as a calibration factor to calculate values of electron transport rate: \( J = s I_{\text{inc}} \Phi_2 \) (Yin et al., 2009). We estimated the efficiency of photosystem II under light limiting conditions (\( \Phi_{2\text{LL}} \)) according to the method described by Yin et al. (2009). We calculated \( \kappa_{2\text{LL}} \) as \( s \Phi_{2\text{LL}} \). We then used the calculated values for \( \kappa_{2\text{LL}} \) as an input to estimate \( J_{\max} \) and \( \theta \) for each leaf type by fitting the calculated \( J (J = s I_{\text{inc}} \Phi_2) \) to equation (3.13).

### 3.2.10 Coupling of the FvCB model with the gas diffusion model

Combining the FvCB model, equation (3.12), with the CO₂ diffusion model, equation (3.3), results in:

\[
A_N = \frac{-B - \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}
\]  

(3.14)

with

\[
A = X_2 + \Gamma^* (1 - \omega)
\]  

(3.15)

\[
B = -\left\{ [X_2 + \Gamma^* (1 - \omega)](X_1 - R_d) - \omega(R_d X_2 + \Gamma^* X_1)
\]

\[
+ (C_i + X_2) \left[ \frac{1}{r_{\text{diff}}} (X_2 + \Gamma^*) \right] \right\}
\]

(3.16)

\[
C = -\omega (R_d X_2 + \Gamma^* X_1)(X_1 - R_d)
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{r_{\text{diff}}} (X_2 + \Gamma^*) [X_1 (C_i - \Gamma^*) - R_d (C_i + X_2)]
\]

(3.17)

Equations (3.14-3.17) were applied to calculate the net rate of CO₂ assimilation limited by Rubisco \( (A_{N,c}) \) or by electron transport \( (A_{N,j}) \). We calculated the net rate of CO₂ assimilation limited by triose phosphate utilization \( (A_{N,p}) \) as \( A_{N,p} = 3T_p - R_d \). The actual net rate of CO₂ assimilation was the minimum of these three potential rates.
This model was used to estimate $V_{cmax}$ and $T_p$, using already estimated or measured parameter values as input.

### 3.2.11 Relationship between $C_i$ and $I_{inc}$

In order to interpolate the rate of photosynthesis for light levels that were not measured, it is necessary to know $C_i$. An empirical relationship between $C_i$ and $I_{inc}$ was found by fitting data for $C_i$ and $I_{inc}$ to a power law:

$$C_i = C_{i0} I_{inc}^q$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.18)

Next, we simulated two additional light response curves for 25-day-old Admiro leaves for both ambient and low oxygen levels. In each of these curves, $C_i$ is fixed to the average of all $C_i$ measurements in the light response curve measurements rather than that calculated by equation (3.18).

### 3.2.12 Sensitivity analysis

We simulated light and CO$_2$ response curves for 15-day-old Admiro leaves at ambient O$_2$ levels using different assumed parameter values ($\gamma_{pal}$, $\gamma_{spo}$, $P_{eff,wall}$, $G_{mem}$, $\zeta_{cyt}$, $G_{env}$, $f_{str}$ and $\zeta_{str}$) and measured leaf anatomical properties ($t_{wall}$, $t_{cyt}$, $t_{str}$, $\frac{L_m}{L}$, $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$). Each time, one of these properties was changed by -25%, and +25%, respectively, while keeping the remaining variables at their default value.

### 3.3. Results

#### 3.3.1 Leaf anatomical measurements

Table 3.2 shows the ratio of the measured length of mesophyll exposed to the intercellular air space to the total width of the section $\frac{L_m}{L}$. The values of $\frac{L_m}{L}$ varied between 4.87 and 6.01 in the palisade parenchyma and between 6.28 and 7.06 in the
spongy parenchyma. The ratio of the length of chloroplasts exposed to the intercellular air space to the length of exposed mesophyll $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$ was also measured.

We calculated values for $\frac{S_c}{S}$ for the palisade parenchyma, the spongy parenchyma and the whole mesophyll (Table 3.2). The values for $\frac{S_c}{S}$ in the mesophyll ranged from 14.3 to 16.4.

The thicknesses of the mesophyll components were measured for each cultivar, leaf age, and tissue type. Table 3.3 shows the weighted average thicknesses of the mesophyll components (see equation (3.6)). The average cell wall thickness ranged from 0.089 μm to 0.208 μm. The weighted average thickness of the cytosol ranged from 0.172 μm to 0.492 μm and of the stroma from 2.035 μm to 2.708 μm.

3.3.2 Determination of $R_i$, $r_{\text{diff}}$, and $\omega$

The thicknesses of the cell wall, cytosol and stroma and the assumed values of $p_{\text{eff}}$, $f_i$ and $\zeta_i$ were used to calculate the resistance for each component in the mesophyll ($R_i$; see equation (3.7)). Since we assumed that the permeability of the membranes $G_{\text{mem}} = G_{\text{env}} = 3.5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ was the same for all leaf types, their resistances were the same as well. Table 3 shows the values of these partitioned resistances. We used equation (3.8) and (3.9) to convert the unit for the resistance of each component from s m$^{-1}$ to m$^2$ s bar mol$^{-1}$. Table A3.2.2 shows the values of these partitioned resistances. We applied equation (3.10) and (3.11) to calculate $r_{\text{diff}}$ and $\omega$. Table 3.4 shows the calculated values of these variables. The values for $\omega$ varied between 0.62 and 0.67 (Table 4). For all cultivars, $\omega$ was higher for 15-day-old leaves than for 25-day-old leaves. The values for $r_{\text{diff}}$ varied between 3.85 and 5.09 m$^2$ s bar mol$^{-1}$. For all cultivars $r_{\text{diff}}$ was higher for 15-day-old leaves than for 25-day-old leaves.

3.3.3 Parameters relationship between $I_{\text{inc}}$ and $C_i$

Table A3.2.3 displays the estimates for $C_{i0}$ and $q$ that describe the relationship between $I_{\text{inc}}$ and $C_i$. At $O = 210$ mbar and $C_a = 400 \mu$bar, $C_{i0}$ varies between 617
Chapter 3

Table 3.2. Measurements of the ratio of $\frac{s}{S}$ for each cultivar (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena), leaf age (15 days and 25 days after appearance) and tissue type (palisade parenchyma and spongy parenchyma and total mesophyll).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>Tissue type</th>
<th>$S_m/S$</th>
<th>$L_c/L_m$</th>
<th>$S_c/S$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal$^1$</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>8.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo$^2$</td>
<td>8.04</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes$^3$</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>8.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>8.31</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>6.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>7.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>8.94</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>8.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>17.23</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>8.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>17.41</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>8.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>7.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>17.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>6.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>8.97</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>7.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^1$ pal: palisade parenchyma 
$^2$ spo: spongy parenchyma 
$^3$ mes: whole mesophyll

and 862 µbar and $q$ varies between -0.126 and -0.218. At $O = 20$ mbar and $C_a = 1000$ µbar, $C_{i0}$ varies between 1224 µbar and 1949 µbar and $q$ varies between -0.070 and -0.204. Fig. A3.2.2 shows the simulated and the measured relationship between $I_{inc}$ and $C_i$.

3.3.4 Estimation of photosynthetic parameters

The estimated values for $R_d$ varied from 1.35 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ to 2.65 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, and the values for $s$ varied from 0.413 to 0.529 (Table A3.2.4). For all cultivars and leaf ages, $\Phi_{2LL}$ was larger at $O = 210$ mbar than at $O = 20$ mbar (Table A3.2.5). The estimated values for $J_{max}$ ranged from 157.1 to 263.7 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ at $O = 210$ mbar and $C_a = 400$ µbar, and from 149.8 to 179.8 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ at $O = 20$ mbar and $C_a = 1000$ µbar (Table A3.2.5). The values for $J_{max}$ were higher in 15-
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

Table 3.3. Average thicknesses (± the standard errors of the mean) of the cell wall, cytosol and stroma for all studied cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena), leaf ages (15 days and 25 days after emergence) and tissue types (palisade and spongy parenchyma and total mesophyll).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>Tissue type</th>
<th>Cell wall</th>
<th>Cytosol</th>
<th>Stroma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal¹</td>
<td>0.120 ± 0.006⁵</td>
<td>0.256 ± 0.036</td>
<td>2.691 ± 0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo²</td>
<td>0.117 ± 0.010</td>
<td>0.229 ± 0.019</td>
<td>2.366 ± 0.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes³,⁴</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>0.168 ± 0.020</td>
<td>0.257 ± 0.035</td>
<td>2.273 ± 0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>0.170 ± 0.022</td>
<td>0.235 ± 0.021</td>
<td>2.613 ± 0.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>0.104 ± 0.008</td>
<td>0.172 ± 0.023</td>
<td>2.691 ± 0.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>0.151 ± 0.026</td>
<td>0.263 ± 0.042</td>
<td>2.577 ± 0.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>0.146 ± 0.008</td>
<td>0.184 ± 0.027</td>
<td>2.552 ± 0.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>0.145 ± 0.015</td>
<td>0.269 ± 0.044</td>
<td>2.213 ± 0.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>0.089 ± 0.005</td>
<td>0.194 ± 0.041</td>
<td>2.218 ± 0.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>0.125 ± 0.009</td>
<td>0.304 ± 0.098</td>
<td>2.035 ± 0.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>2.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>0.177 ± 0.022</td>
<td>0.404 ± 0.098</td>
<td>2.708 ± 0.691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>spo</td>
<td>0.208 ± 0.023</td>
<td>0.492 ± 0.093</td>
<td>2.550 ± 0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ pal: palisade parenchyma
² spo: spongy parenchyma
³ mes: total mesophyll
⁴ The values represent the weighted average thicknesses of these compartments in the palisade and the spongy parenchyma.
⁵ standard error of the mean

day-old leaves than in 25-day-old leaves only under \( O = 20 \) mbar. The values for \( \theta \) ranged from 0.760 to 0.851 (Table A3.2.5). Finally, Table A3.2.5 shows the calculated values of \( \kappa_{2LL} \) (as \( \kappa_{2LL} = s\Phi_{2LL} \)). The estimates for \( V_{cmax} \) and \( T_p \) are shown in Table A3.2.6. The estimates for \( V_{cmax} \) vary between 219 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) and 274 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\). The standard errors of the estimates of \( V_{cmax} \) are relatively high.

This may either reflect that the number of data points in the Rubisco-limited range was limited, or that anatomical data on \( r_{diff} \) and \( \omega \) may not match the curvature of the initial part of \( A - C_i \) curves from gas exchange measurements, or both. The estimates for \( T_p \) vary between 12.6 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) and 13.6 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\). There was no triose-phosphate-limitation for 25-day-old Doloress leaves.
3.3.5 Comparison of measured and simulated CO₂ and light response curves

Fig. 3.2 displays both the measured and modelled CO₂ response curve for each leaf type and oxygen level. Fig. 3.3 shows both the measured and simulated light response curves for each leaf type and condition (either $O = 210$ mbar and $C_a = 400$ µbar or $O = 20$ mbar and $C_a = 1000$ µbar). In general, the model reasonably fitted to the data, although the model underestimates the net rate of CO₂ assimilation at high CO₂ and light levels for 25-day-old Doloress leaves except for the light response curves measured at ambient O₂ and CO₂ levels. The underestimation of the net CO₂ assimilation rate may be caused by the estimate of $s$ (Table A3.2.4). The estimate of $s$ for 25-day-old Doloress leaves ($s = 0.413$) and, thereby, the calculated value of $k_2LL$ ($k_{2LL} = s\Phi_{2LL}$) are considerably lower than in the other five leaf types (between 0.462 and 0.529). This may have resulted in an underestimation of $J_{max}$, which may explain the mediocre fit of the model with the data at high CO₂ and light levels. This suggests that the $s$ estimate for this leaf type from the lower part of the $A - I_{inc}$ curve under the non-photorespiratory condition does not represent the situation across the high light and CO₂ ranges. The model also predicted that the rate of CO₂ assimilation somewhat decreased with increased irradiances. This contradicts the measurements that did not show this trend.

3.3.6 Sensitivity analysis of CO₂ response curves

The left panels of Figs. 3.4-3.7 display simulated $A - C_i$ curves for each leaf type at ambient oxygen and $I_{inc} = 1500$ µmol m⁻² s⁻¹. In each simulated curve, one of the
model parameters was either increased or decreased by 25%, while the remaining parameter values were kept at their default values. Not surprisingly, in the parts of the simulated curves limited by triose-phosphate-utilization, the rate of CO₂ assimilation was the same for any parameter value. In the remaining parts of the simulated curves, the response of $A_N$ to 25% changes in any parameter value shows the following pattern. Initially, at low CO₂ levels the difference between the predicted rate of CO₂ assimilation with an adjusted parameter value and the rate of CO₂ assimilation with the default parameter value increased with $C_i$. At higher CO₂ levels, this difference decreased with $C_i$. The predicted rate of CO₂ assimilation increased with $\frac{L_m}{L}$, $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$, $p_{eff}$, $G_{mem}$, $\zeta_{cyt}$, $G_{env}$, $\zeta_{str}$, $\gamma_{pal}$ and $\gamma_{spo}$ in the non-triose-phosphate-utilization-limited parts of the simulated curves. In contrast, the predicted rate of CO₂ assimilation decreased with $t_{wall}$, $t_{cyt}$, $t_{str}$ and $f_{str}$. We did not show the simulated $A - C_i$ curves for 25% changes of $t_{wall}$, $t_{cyt}$, $p_{eff}$, and $G_{mem}$ because 25% change in these parameters only resulted in a small response of the net rate of CO₂ assimilation, which can hardly be made visible in these figures. We did not increase $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$ by 25%, because the value of this parameter cannot be larger than 1. Table 3.5 shows for the sensitivity analysis of each parameter what the maximum difference in the predicted $A_N$ between changed parameter values and default parameter values was. CO₂ assimilation was most sensitive to 25% changes in the values of $\frac{L_m}{L}$ and $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$.

3.3.7 Sensitivity analysis of light response curves

The right panels of Figs. 3.4-3.6 display simulated $A - I_{inc}$ curves for each leaf type at ambient CO₂ and O₂ levels, when one of the model parameters was either increased or decreased by 25% while the remaining parameter values were kept at their default values. The response of CO₂ assimilation to 25% changes in any of the parameter values showed the following pattern. The difference between $A_N$ predicted using an
Figure 3.2: Measured and simulated CO$_2$ response curves at saturating light ($I_{\text{inc}} = 1500$ µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$). Measured rates of net CO$_2$ assimilation at $O = 210$ mbar (diamonds±one standard error) and at $O = 20$ mbar and (squares±one standard error) for three cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena) and two leaf ages (15 days and 25 days after emergence). Simulated rates of net CO$_2$ assimilation at $O = 210$ mbar (solid lines) and at $O = 20$ mbar (squares).
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

Figure 3.3: Measured and simulated light response curves. Measured rates of net CO₂ assimilation at O = 210 mbar and Cₐ = 400 µbar (diamonds±one standard error) and at O = 20 mbar and Cₐ = 1000 µbar (squares±one standard error) for three cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena) and two leaf ages (15 days and 25 days after emergence). Simulated rates of net CO₂ assimilation at O = 210 mbar and Cₐ = 400 µbar (solid lines) and at O = 20 mbar and Cₐ = 1000 µbar (squares)
Table 3.5. Maximum difference in $A_N$ and the corresponding $C_i$ in simulated $A - C_i$ curves, if a parameter $\varphi$ is 25% increased or decreased.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>$\max(\Delta A_N)$</th>
<th>$\max(\Delta A_N)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\varphi = (1 - 0.25)\varphi_{\text{default}}$</td>
<td>$\varphi = (1 + 0.25)\varphi_{\text{default}}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_m$ 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>-4.97</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>-3.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_c$ 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>-3.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{wall}}$</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>0.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{cyt}}$</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>0.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{str}}$</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_{\text{eff}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G_{\text{mem}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-0.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\zeta_{\text{cyt}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-0.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G_{\text{env}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\zeta_{\text{str}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{\text{str}}$</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>-1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_{\text{pal}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_{\text{spo}}$</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>-2.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 $\varphi$ denotes the parameter which was varied. $\varphi_{\text{default}}$ denotes the default value of this parameter.
2 Both $\left(\frac{L_m}{L}\right)_{\text{pal}}$ and $\left(\frac{L_m}{L}\right)_{\text{spo}}$ were respectively decreased or increased by 25%.
3 Both $\left(\frac{L_c}{L_m}\right)_{\text{pal}}$ and $\left(\frac{L_c}{L_m}\right)_{\text{spo}}$ were respectively decreased or increased by 25%.
4 Since $\left(\frac{L_c}{L_m}\right)_{\text{pal}}$ and $\left(\frac{L_c}{L_m}\right)_{\text{spo}}$ cannot be larger than 1, we did not increase this parameter by 25%.

adjusted parameter value and $A_N$ using the default value increased with $I_{\text{inc}}$. Table 6 shows the maximum difference between the simulated value of $A_N$ for default parameters values and for parameter values for which one is 25% increased or decreased. CO$_2$ assimilation was most sensitive to 25% changes in the values of $\frac{L_m}{L}$ and $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$. We did not show the simulated $A - I_{\text{inc}}$ curves for 25% changes of $t_{\text{wall}}$, $t_{\text{cyt}}$, $\zeta_{\text{cyt}}$, $p_{\text{eff}}$, and $G_{\text{mem}}$, because 25% change in these parameters only resulted in a small response of the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation, which can hardly be made visible in these figures. We found that setting $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$ to 1 (Fig. 3.4) for both the palisade and the spongy parenchyma results in an increase in the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation of 0.87 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ at 1500 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$. 

68
3.4 Discussion

In this study, we combined the leaf anatomical model described by Tosens et al. (2012b) and the biochemical models for C₃ photosynthesis described by Farquhar et al. (1980) and Yin et al. (2009) and the CO₂ diffusion model of Tholen et al. (2012). We used this combined model to directly calculate the rate of CO₂ assimilation based on a combination of leaf anatomical and photosynthetic parameters. The model generally agreed well with the data, although the net rate of CO₂ assimilation tended to slightly decrease as the light intensity increased at high light levels. We used the model to simulate how the net rate of CO₂ assimilation responds to changes in thickness of mesophyll subcellular components,
Figure 3.4: Sensitivity analysis $A - C_i$ curve and $A - I_{inc}$ curve for $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$. Parameter $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$ of the model is either decreased by 25% (dashed line) or set to 1 (short dashed line). The continuous line represents the simulated $A - C_i$ curve for default parameter values.

Figure 3.5: Sensitivity analysis $A - C_i$ curve and $A - I_{inc}$ curve for $G_{env}$. Parameter $\frac{L_c}{L_m}$ of the model is either decreased by 25% (dashed line) or increased by 25% (short dashed line). The continuous line represents the simulated $A - C_i$ curve for default parameter values.
Figure 3.6: Sensitivity analysis $A - C_i$ curves and $A - I_{inc}$ curves for $t_{str}$, $f_{str}$ and $\zeta_{str}$. Model parameters are either decreased by 25% (long dashed line) or increased by 25% (short dashed line). The continuous line represents the simulated $A - C_i$ curve for default parameter values.
Figure 3.7: Sensitivity analysis $A - C_1$ curves and $A - I_{inc}$ curve for $\gamma_{\text{pal}}, \gamma_{\text{spo}}$ and $\frac{L_m}{L}$. Model parameters are either decreased by 25% (long dashed line) or increased by 25 (short dashed line). The continuous line represents the simulated $A - C_1$ curve for default parameter values.
exposed mesophyll and chloroplast surface areas, palisade and spongy mesophyll curvature factors, and a range of assumed diffusive properties. Although there were large differences between the extent of the response of the rate of CO2 assimilation to each parameter, we found two overall trends. At low $C_i$ levels, the increase or decrease of the rate of CO2 assimilation in response to changing a parameter value initially increased with $C_i$. For higher CO2 levels, it later decreased with $C_i$. Second, this increase or decrease increased with $I_{inc}$. These two findings have important consequences. Tholen et al. (2012a) reviewed the progress of genetic engineering of specific leaf anatomical traits to improve the efficiency of CO2 transport in leaves. The results of our sensitivity analysis indicate that the potential gain of photosynthetic capacity by changing leaf anatomical traits may strongly depend on the CO2 and light levels in the environments of such an enhanced plant.

Since this is the first study that uses a resistance model to directly calculate the net CO2 assimilation rate based on leaf anatomical measurements, we found it was necessary to compare our results with the overall mesophyll conductances calculated in earlier studies. Therefore, we first used our current model to calculate $C_c$ by combining equations (3.3) and (3.12). Second, we calculated the overall mesophyll conductance as $g_m = \frac{A_N}{(C_i - C_c)}$ at $I_{inc} = 1500 \mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ and ambient O2 and CO2. The results are shown in Table S6. According to our analysis, $g_m$ varies between 0.085 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$ and 0.223 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$. There is quite some variation in $g_m$ for tomato. Galmes et al. (2013) calculated the overall mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) by the variable $J$ method (Harley et al., 1992a) in a range of Mediterranean accessions grown under well-watered conditions. They reported that $g_m$ varies between 0.170 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$ and 0.289 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$ under saturating light and ambient CO2. We also used the variable $J$ method to calculate $g_m$ from another data-set consisting of combined gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements on the same cultivars as the ones used in this study (Ho et al., 2016). We found that $g_m$ varied between 0.0718 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$ and 0.246 mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$. The values for $g_m$,
calculated by the model presented in the current study, are within the range of the values determined from these earlier studies.

The results of the sensitivity analysis model indicate that $\frac{S_M}{S}$ and $\frac{S_c}{S_m}$ are the most important anatomical properties in determining photosynthetic capacity. The most important assumed diffusive properties are $G_{\text{mem}}$, $\zeta_{\text{str}}$ and $f_{\text{str}}$. The results of our sensitivity analysis showed that changing $t_{\text{wall}}$ had less influence on the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. This may contradict with the results from Tosens et al. (Tosens et al., 2012b), which suggest that the cell wall determines more than half of $r_{\text{diff}}$. This may be explained by the fact that the range of $t_{\text{wall}}$ for the species used in their study was considerably higher (from 252 nm to 420 nm) than in our study (119 nm to 193 nm). It may also be explained by the value of $p_{\text{eff,wall}}$ that we chose, which is higher than that assumed in their study. It is important to emphasize that assumptions on the diffusive properties of the different components of the liquid phase of the mesophyll may affect the calculated value for $r_{\text{diff}}$. These properties are hard to measure and uncertain (Evans et al., 2009). Evans et al. (2009) argued that the value of $p_{\text{eff,wall}}$ varies between 0.02 and 0.2. In our model, we assumed that $p_{\text{eff,wall}} = 0.2$ and $\zeta_{\text{str}} = 0.5$. The latter value is considerably higher than the ones applied in a number of other studies (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003; Peguero-Pina et al., 2012; Tosens et al., 2012b; Tomas et al., 2013). These authors all assumed that the reduction factor of the diffusion coefficient for CO$_2$ in the stroma relative to water is equal to the ratio of the effective water self-diffusion coefficients in duck embryo and in water [24]. However, the application of their assumed values of $\zeta_{\text{str}}$ resulted in considerable underestimations of the rate of CO$_2$ assimilation at high light or low CO$_2$ levels (Fig. A3.2.1a-b) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves at both $p_{\text{eff,wall}}=0.02$ and $p_{\text{eff,wall}} = 0.2$. When we changed $\zeta_{\text{str}}$ from 0.294 to 0.5, while keeping $p_{\text{eff,wall}}$ at 0.02, the underestimation of the rate of CO$_2$ assimilation became considerably less. We conclude that the rate of CO$_2$ assimilation is sensitive to the diffusion coefficient of the stroma for the whole range of biologically relevant values of $p_{\text{eff}}$ (Evans et al., 2009). This makes the assumed diffusive properties that make up this diffusion coefficient; $f_{\text{str}}$ and $\zeta_{\text{str}}$, important parameters. In the resistance model described by
The relationship between CO$_2$ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

Tosens et al. (Tosens et al., 2012b), it is assumed that the diffusion path length of CO$_2$ molecules in the chloroplasts is half the total thickness of the chloroplasts ($f_{str} = 0.5$). In contrast, results from CO$_2$ diffusion simulations in a virtual 3D cell (Tholen and Zhu, 2011) suggest that $f_{str} = 0.25$ at saturating light and a CO$_2$ intercellular partial pressure of 30 Pa. In our model, we adopted the latter value as the default value for $f_{str}$. Figs. A3.2.1c-d in Appendix 3.2 show $A-C_i$ curves and $A-I_{inc}$ curves for different combinations of values for $p_{eff,wall}$ and $\zeta_{str}$ if we would have assumed that $f_{str} = 0.5$, as suggested by Tosens et al. (Tosens et al., 2012b). These curves show that the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation at 21% O$_2$ is underestimated, even if we assume high values for $\zeta_{str}$ and $p_{eff}$. This analysis shows that $f_{str}$ and, therefore, the length of the diffusion pathway is an important parameter to determine the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation. Additionally, the diffusion pathway length of CO$_2$ in the stroma may depend on the CO$_2$ sink, i.e. RuBP carboxylation, which depends on $C_c$ and $I_{inc}$. This suggests that $f_{str}$ may vary with environmental conditions. We recommend more research on both the diffusion coefficient for CO$_2$ and the length of the diffusion pathway in the stroma. The uncertainty of the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway length can be tackled by the use of 2D (Ho et al., 2012) or 3D models (Parkhurst, 1977; Aalto and Juurla, 2002; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016) to simulate CO$_2$ transport in mesophyll cells, since these models do not require a predefined value for $f_{str}$.

Other assumed diffusive properties may also be important. Uehlein et al. (Uehlein et al., 2008) attempted to measure the permeability of the plasma membranes and the chloroplast envelopes for CO$_2$ in Nicotiana tabacum L. from isolated vesicles from these membranes, and found that these permeability values were $8 \cdot 10^{-5}$ m s$^{-1}$ and $2 \cdot 10^{-5}$ m s$^{-1}$, respectively. However, these methods have a number of shortcomings which may result in large underestimation of the permeability values of membranes (Tholen and Zhu, 2011). Gutknecht et al. (1977) estimated that the permeability of lipid bilayers was $3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ m s$^{-1}$ based on $^{14}$CO$_2$ flux measurements through artificial lipid bilayer membranes that consisted of egg lecithin and cholesterol. Due to a lack of data, we adopted this value for $G_{mem}$ and assumed that $G_{env} = \frac{1}{2} G_{mem}$.
because the chloroplast envelope is a double membrane. We also assumed that both $G_{\text{mem}}$ and $G_{\text{env}}$ are parallel resistances that lump the permeabilities of aquaporines and the remaining parts of the membranes (Terashima et al., 2006).

Our model requires the calculation of $\frac{S_m}{S}$. Evans et al. (Evans et al., 1994) described how $\frac{S_m}{S}$ can be calculated, after the determination of curvature factors (Thain, 1983) from a combination of paradermal and transversal leaf sections. In our measurements, no paradermal sections were collected. We adopted the curvature factors $\gamma_{\text{pal}}$ and $\gamma_{\text{spo}}$ for the palisade and the spongy parenchyma of tomato from a previous study (Galmes et al., 2013). We showed in our sensitivity analysis that the simulated rate of photosynthesis was sensitive to changes of $\gamma_{\text{pal}}$ and $\gamma_{\text{spo}}$. Tomas et al. (Tomas et al., 2013) measured both curvature factors for 15 different species with a wide range of foliage characteristics. They found that $\gamma_{\text{pal}}$ varied from 1.4 to 1.5 and $\gamma_{\text{spo}}$ from 1.16 to 1.4. Combined with the results of our sensitivity analysis, this suggests that it is important to measure this parameter for unknown species, if one wants to relate $\frac{S_m}{S}$ to the photosynthetic capacity of these leaves. The need for a method to calculate curvature factors to calculate $\frac{S_m}{S}$ can be circumvented by measuring exposed mesophyll surfaces directly from 3D leaf images. One way to obtain these images is to use synchrotron radiation X-ray tomography. Verboven et al. (2015) used this technique to measure $\frac{S_m}{S}$ directly and also validated the method of Thain (1983) by determining the curvature factors from 2D sections of the tomography. An advantage of this method over the method of Thain (1983) is that it does not require a fixed orientation of all samples and that it requires fewer samples. This technique or other 3-D imaging techniques may be used in future research to determine $\frac{S_m}{S}$ as an alternative to the method of Thain (1983).

Both in the framework of Tholen et al. (2012b) and in our model, it is assumed that all CO$_2$ produced by normal respiration and photorespiration is released by mitochondria in the cytosol between the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope. It is not clear where the mitochondria are located in the cytosol (either between chloroplast
envelope and plasma membrane, between chloroplast envelope and tonoplast, or both), but their location may strongly affect the reassimilation of (photo)respired CO2. Tholen et al. (2014) pointed out that if the mitochondria are located between the tonoplast and the chloroplast envelope, the effect of (photo)respiration on mesophyll resistance may be small or even insignificant. We observed that the model predicts a slightly decreasing rate of CO2 assimilation with increasing $I_{inc}$ at high light levels and ambient oxygen and CO2 levels in 25-day-old leaves (Fig. 3.3). In contrast, we did not see this behaviour at non-photorespiratory conditions ($C_a = 1000$ µbar, $O = 20$ mbar). Our assumptions about the location of mitochondria may partly explain this behaviour. If the predicted rate of photorespiration is high, there is a considerable release of CO2 in the cytosol. This CO2 release will decrease the concentration difference between the cytosol and the intercellular air space and, thereby, will decrease the predicted CO2 flux over the plasma membrane and the cell wall. An alternative explanation is that we described the relationship between $I_{inc}$ and $C_i$ by equation (3.18) (Fig. A3.2.2). This empirical relationship predicts that $C_i$ can decrease with $I_{inc}$, a commonly observed trend that is possibly a consequence of regulation set by stomatal resistance. This decrease in $C_i$ means an increase in the rate of photorespiration under these high light conditions. If we set $\omega$ equal to 0, we implicitly assume that (photo)respired CO2 release and CO2 consumption by photosynthesis take place in the same compartment (i.e. the stroma). In this specific case, there is no longer a CO2 source halfway the diffusion path in the cytosol, so any decrease of net CO2 assimilation can fully be explained by equation (3.18). Fig. A3.2.3 shows a simulated light response curve for 25-day-old Growdena leaves for $\omega = 0$. The decrease of the net CO2 assimilation rate with $I_{inc}$ (Fig. A3.2.3) is strongly reduced compared to assuming the default value for $\omega$. This suggests that the empirical relationship between $C_i$ and $I_{inc}$ used in this model can only partly explain the simulated decrease of the CO2 assimilation rate with $I_{inc}$. We therefore suspect that at least part of the mitochondria may be located between the chloroplast envelope and the tonoplast. In future studies, the effect of different locations of mitochondria may be better studied in 2D (Ho et al., 2012) or 3D modelling approaches (Parkhurst, 1977; Aalto and Juurola,
2002; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016). These models are much more flexible in terms of changing the modelled leaf structure than resistance models (Parkhurst, 1994) like the one used in this study.

It has been frequently debated whether or not carbonic anhydrases (CA) facilitate CO₂ transport in the mesophyll (Evans et al., 2009; Terashima et al., 2011; Flexas et al., 2012). Results from studies on Nicotiana tabacum mutants, in which CA activity was knocked out by antisense RNA, suggest that the rate of CO₂ assimilation is not affected at ambient CO₂ at both saturating light (Price et al., 1994) and lower light (150 – 400 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) conditions (Williams et al., 1996) compared with wild type individuals. On the other hand, Gillon and Yakir (2000) suggest that CA activity in the chloroplasts has an influence on the CO₂ assimilation rate in species with high \( \frac{r_{wp}}{r_{chl}} \) ratios like Quercus robur (oak) where they found that \( \frac{r_{wp}}{r_{chl}} = 3.2 \). Our anatomical data and assumed diffusive properties show for different cultivars and ages after emergence that \( \frac{r_{wp}}{r_{chl}} \) is between 0.48 and 0.62. These values are all even smaller than the ratio \( \frac{r_{wp}}{r_{chl}} = 0.8 \) found in N. tabacum, in which no significant reduction of the net rate of CO₂ assimilation was found in several studies (Price et al., 1994; Williams et al., 1996; Gillon and Yakir, 2000). We therefore surmise that CA facilitation only has a limited effect on the net rate of CO₂ assimilation in the leaves used in this study and, therefore, we did not model CA facilitation explicitly. Evans et al. (Evans et al., 2009) argued that CA facilitation mainly takes place in the cytosol and the stroma. Therefore, if CA facilitation does occur, its effect on CO₂ transport is lumped in the parameters \( \zeta_{cyt} \) and \( \zeta_{str} \) of our model.

To the best of our knowledge, this study presents the first attempt to quantify the rate of CO₂ assimilation by combining a resistance model based on leaf anatomical measurements and diffusive properties, and simultaneous gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. This approach can potentially contribute a lot to understand the relationship between leaf anatomy and leaf photosynthesis, but it relies on a number of unknown diffusive properties and curvature factors. We
demonstrated that the diffusion path length for CO₂ and its diffusion coefficient in the stroma, and the curvature factors of palisade and spongy parenchyma substantially affect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate. We therefore recommend more research to measure these parameters and to develop sophisticated 2-D or 3-D models that do not require the diffusion path length of the stroma as an input factor.

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Appendix 3.1: Calculation of resistances of mesophyll components

A3.1.1 Introduction

Equations (3.8-3.9) describe how the resistance of a subcomponent of the mesophyll can be calculated, expressed in m$^2$ s bar mol$^{-1}$. The aim of this section is to derive these equations. It is based on the explanation about fluxes provided by Nobel (2009) and the anatomical resistance model described by Tosens et al. (2012) and Evans et al. (2009).

A3.1.2 Fundamentals of Fick’s first law of diffusion

Fick’s first law of diffusion (Fick, 1855) states that particles move from higher concentrations to lower concentrations. In other words, the direction of the flux of these particles is in the opposite direction of the direction of the gradient of these particles. Mathematically, this can be expressed as:

$$\varphi = -D \nabla c \quad \text{(A3.1.1)}$$

where $c$ is the concentration (mol m$^{-3}$), $\varphi$ is the flux (mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) and $\nabla$ is the gradient operator (m$^{-1}$). Parameter $D$ (m$^2$ s$^{-1}$) is the diffusion coefficient. In 1D space, equation (A3.1.1) can be expressed as:

$$\varphi = -D \frac{dc}{dx} \quad \text{(A3.1.2)}$$

Equation (A3.1.2) can be discretized and rearranged as:
The relationship between $CO_2$ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

\[
\varphi = -D \frac{dc}{dx} \cong -D \frac{c(x + \Delta x) - c(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{D}{\Delta x} (c(x) - c(x + \Delta x)) \quad (A3.1.3)
\]

where equation (A3.1.3) describes the flux between a point $x$ and a point $x + \Delta x$ in 1D space. In equation (A3.1.3), the concentration difference is multiplied by a factor $\frac{D}{\Delta x}$. This factor is called the permeability or the conductance for diffusion $G_{\text{diff}}$ (m s$^{-1}$). The inverse of $G_{\text{diff}}$ is the resistance for diffusion $R_{\text{diff}}$.

**A3.1.3 Fick’s first law applied to sub-resistances in the mesophyll**

Equation (A3.1.3) can be applied to calculate the flux of $CO_2$ through a component $i$ of the mesophyll:

\[
\varphi = \frac{D_{CO_2,i}}{\Delta x} ([CO_2](x) - [CO_2](x + \Delta x)) \quad (A3.1.4)
\]

$[CO_2]$ is the $CO_2$ concentration, $x$ is the end location of the component $i$ facing the outer side of the cell and $x + \Delta x$ the other end of component $i$ facing the inner side of the cell. The conductance and the resistance of component $i$ can be calculated as:

\[
G_{\text{diff},i} = \frac{D_{CO_2,i}}{\Delta x}, \quad R_{\text{diff},i} = \frac{1}{G_i} = \frac{\Delta x}{D_{CO_2,i}} \quad (A3.1.5)
\]

If the solvent for $CO_2$ in component $i$ is water, the diffusion coefficient of $CO_2$ in this component can be expressed as:
\[ D_{\text{CO}_2,i} = p_{\text{eff},i} \zeta_i D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}} \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.6)

where \( p_{\text{eff},i} \) is the effective porosity of component \( i \) and \( \zeta_i \) is a reduction factor of the diffusion coefficient due to the higher viscosity of component \( i \) relative to pure water.

Substitution of the term for \( D_{\text{CO}_2,i} \) in equation (A3.1.6) into equation (A3.1.5) results in the following term for the resistance of component \( i \):

\[ R_i = \frac{\Delta x}{p_{\text{eff},i} \zeta_i D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}} \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.7)

The term \( \Delta x \) in equation (A3.1.7) is the diffusion path length for \( \text{CO}_2 \) in component \( i \). If there is no source or sink for \( \text{CO}_2 \) in component \( i \), \( \Delta x \) is the same as the measured thickness of the component \( t_i \). However, if there is a sink for \( \text{CO}_2 \) on the diffusion pathway, for example \( \text{CO}_2 \) assimilation, it can no longer be assumed that \( t_i = \Delta x \). Instead, \( \Delta x \) is a fraction \( f \) of the total thickness \( t_i \). Substitution of \( \Delta x = f t_i \) in equation (A3.1.7) results in equation (A3.1.8):

\[ R_i = \frac{f t_i}{p_{\text{eff},i} \zeta_i D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}} \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.8)

In the context of \( \text{CO}_2 \) assimilation, densities of \( \text{CO}_2 \) are usually expressed in partial pressures (Pa or \( \mu \text{bar} \)) rather than \( \text{CO}_2 \) concentrations (\( \text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \)). The ideal gas law can be stated for \( \text{CO}_2 \) as:

\[ p_{\text{CO}_2,\text{gas}} = [\text{CO}_2]_{\text{gas}} RT \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.9)
where $p$ is the partial pressure of a gas CO$_2$ (Pa), $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{gas}}$ is the concentration of CO$_2$ in the gas phase (mol m$^{-3}$), $R$ is the universal gas constant (8.314 Pa m$^3$ K$^{-1}$ mol$^{-1}$), and $T$ is the temperature (K). Since CO$_2$ is dissolved in the liquid phase, we have to apply Henry’s law as well to calculate the CO$_2$ concentration in the liquid phase. Henry’s law states that at steady state, the ratio between free and dissolved molecules of a gas at a constant temperature at an interface between a gas phase and a liquid phase is a constant. This law can be applied on CO$_2$, expressed as:

$$[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{liq}} = \frac{RT}{H}[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{gas}} \quad \text{(A3.1.10)}$$

where $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{liq}}$ is the concentration of CO$_2$ in the liquid phase and $H$ is Henry’s law constant (Pa m$^3$ mol$^{-1}$). Rearrangement of equation (A3.1.10) and substitution in equation (A3.1.9) and results in:

$$p_{\text{CO}_2,\text{gas}} = H[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{liq}} \quad \text{(A3.1.11)}$$

Equation (A3.1.11) can be rearranged as:

$$[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{liq}} = \frac{p_{\text{CO}_2,\text{gas}}}{H} \quad \text{(A3.1.12)}$$

Substitution of equation (A3.1.12) for $c$ in equation (A3.1.2) gives:
\( \varphi = -\frac{D_{\text{CO}_2} dp_{\text{CO}_2\text{gas}}}{H} \frac{dx}{dx} \) \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.13)

Discretization of equation (A3.1.13) for \( x \) and some rearrangement gives:

\[ \varphi = -\frac{D_{\text{CO}_2} dp_{\text{CO}_2\text{gas}}}{H} \frac{dx}{dx} \geq \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2\text{liq}}}{H\Delta x} \left( p_{\text{CO}_2\text{gas}}(x) - p_{\text{CO}_2\text{gas}}(x + \Delta x) \right) \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.14)

In the manuscript, the CO\(_2\) partial pressures \( C \) are expressed in \( \mu \text{bar} \). Since 1 bar is equal to \( 10^5 \) Pa \( (C = 10^5 p_{\text{CO}_2}) \), equation (A3.1.14) satisfies:

\[ \varphi \cong 10^5 \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2\text{liq}}}{H\Delta x} \left( C(x) - C(x + \Delta x) \right) \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.15)

where the unit of \( 10^5 \) is \( \text{Pa bar}^{-1} \). Equation (A3.1.15) describes the CO\(_2\) flux of over either the mesophyll surface (flux through the cell wall, the plasma membrane or the cytosol) \( \varphi_1' \) or the chloroplast surface exposed to the intercellular air space (through the chloroplast envelope or the stroma) \( \varphi_2' \):

\[ \varphi_1' \cong 10^5 \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2\text{liq}}}{H\Delta x} \left( C(x) - C(x + \Delta x) \right) \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.16)

\[ \varphi_2' \cong 10^5 \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2\text{liq}}}{H\Delta x} \left( C(x) - C(x + \Delta x) \right) \] \hspace{1cm} (A3.1.17)

However, net flux of CO\(_2\) is commonly described as the amount of CO\(_2\) per second per unit of leaf area. In order to express the fluxes through the mesophyll components
The relationship between CO$_2$ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

in these units as well, $\varphi_1'$ and $\varphi_2'$ have to be rescaled again by $\frac{S_m}{S}$ and $\frac{S_c}{S}$ respectively. This yields the amount of CO$_2$ per second per unit of leaf area $\varphi_1$ and $\varphi_2$ through the mesophyll components:

$$
\varphi_1 \approx 10^5 \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{liq}}}{H \Delta x} (C(x) - C(x + \Delta x)) \quad (A3.1.18)
$$

$$
\varphi_2 \approx 10^5 \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{liq}}}{H \Delta x} (C(x) - C(x + \Delta x)) \quad (A3.1.19)
$$

The terms $10^5 \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}}{H \Delta x}$ and $10^5 \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right) \frac{D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}}{H \Delta x}$ in A3.1.18 and A3.1.19 can be considered as conductances, the inverse of these terms can be considered to be resistances analogous to $R_i$ as defined in equation (A3.1.8).

$$
r_{i_1} = \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5} R_{i_1} \quad (A3.1.20)
$$

$$
r_{i_2} = \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5} R_{i_2} \quad (A3.1.21)
$$

Combining equations (A3.1.20) and (A3.1.1) with equations (A3.1.6), (A3.1.7) and (A3.1.8) gives:

$$
r_{i_1} = \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5} \frac{f_{i_1} t_{i_1}}{p_{\text{eff},i_1} \zeta_{i_1} D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}} \quad (A3.1.22)
$$

$$
r_{i_2} = \left( \frac{S_c}{S} \right)^{-1} \frac{H}{10^5} \frac{f_{i_2} t_{i_2}}{p_{\text{eff},i_2} \zeta_{i_2} D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}}} \quad (A3.1.23)
$$
Chapter 3

which correspond to equations (3.8-3.9) in the main text.
Appendix 3.2: supplementary tables and figures

Table A3.2.1: Calculated resistances for each subcomponent of the mesophyll for each cultivar and leaf age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>Cell wall</th>
<th>Plasma membrane</th>
<th>Cytosol</th>
<th>Chloroplast envelope</th>
<th>Stroma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>542</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A3.2.2: Calculated resistances for each subcomponent of the mesophyll for each cultivar and leaf age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>Cell wall</th>
<th>Plasma membrane</th>
<th>Cytosol</th>
<th>Chloroplast envelope</th>
<th>Stroma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>0.469</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>0.404</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td>0.483</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.476</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.914</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table A3.2.3:** Estimated parameter values for $C_{i0}$ and $q$ describing the empirical relationship between $I_{inc}$ and $C_i$ in $A - I_{inc}$ curves for each cultivar (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena), leaf age (15 and 25 days after emergence) and conditions (either $C_a = 400$ µbar and $O = 210$ mbar or $C_a = 1000$ µbar and $O = 20$ mbar)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>$C_{i0}$ (µbar)</th>
<th>$q$</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>617.1</td>
<td>-0.128</td>
<td>0.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1225.9</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>0.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>683.9</td>
<td>-0.152</td>
<td>0.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1260.3</td>
<td>-0.077</td>
<td>0.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>615.03</td>
<td>-0.126</td>
<td>0.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1224.1</td>
<td>-0.070</td>
<td>0.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>862.5</td>
<td>-0.205</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1639.4</td>
<td>-0.150</td>
<td>0.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>653.7</td>
<td>-0.142</td>
<td>0.936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1429.5</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>0.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>844.1</td>
<td>-0.218</td>
<td>0.947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1949.4</td>
<td>-0.204</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table A3.2.4:** Estimates of $R_d$ and $s$ for each cultivar (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena) and each leaf age (days after emergence)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>$R_d$ (µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$s$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>0.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.480</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

Table A3.2.5: Estimates of $\Phi_{2LL}$, $J_{max}$, $\theta$ and their standard errors (SE), the calculated value for $\kappa_{2LL}$ for each cultivar, leaf age, and conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>$\Phi_{2LL}$</th>
<th>$J_{max}$ (µmol e⁻ m⁻² s⁻¹)</th>
<th>$\theta$</th>
<th>$\kappa_{2LL}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(days)</td>
<td>(µbar)</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>263.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.0105</td>
<td>162.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.00484</td>
<td>242.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>0.0075</td>
<td>179.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>0.0089</td>
<td>223.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>0.0116</td>
<td>164.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>0.0040</td>
<td>157.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.0141</td>
<td>140.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>0.0061</td>
<td>191.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.0076</td>
<td>151.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0.673</td>
<td>0.0178</td>
<td>149.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.0094</td>
<td>141.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table A3.2.6: Estimates of the parameters $V_{cmax}$ and $T_p$ and their standard errors (SE) for each cultivar (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena) and leaf age (15 days and 25 days after emergence)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>$V_{cmax}$ (µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$T_p$ (µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A3.2.7: Apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) calculated by the model at ambient CO$_2$ levels ($C_a = 400$ µbar) and saturating irradiance ($I_{inc}$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (Days after emergence)</th>
<th>$g_m$ (mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ bar$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The relationship between CO₂ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

\[ f_{str} = 0.25 \]

\[ f_{str} = 0.5 \]

**Figure A3.2.1**: Simulated light and CO₂ response curves for alternative assumed diffusive properties. Measured (dots) and simulated \( A - C_i \) (a+c) and \( A - I_{inc} \) (b+d) curves for 15-day-old Admiro leaves under ambient O₂ (210 mbar) and CO₂ (400 µbar). In panel a and b, \( f_{str} = 0.25 \). In panel c and d, \( f_{str} = 0.5 \). The simulated response curves were simulated for different combinations of values for \( p_{eff,wall} \) and \( \zeta_{str} \): \( \{ p_{eff,wall} = 0.02, \zeta_{str} = 0.294 \} \) (dashed line), \( \{ p_{eff,wall} = 0.2, \zeta_{str} = 0.294 \} \) (dotted line), \( \{ p_{eff,wall} = 0.02, \zeta_{str} = 0.5 \} \) (dashed dotted line), \( \{ p_{eff,wall} = 0.2, \zeta_{str} = 0.5 \} \) (continuous line, default parameter values for \( p_{eff,wall} \) and \( \zeta_{str} \)).
Chapter 3

Figure A3.2.2: Measured and simulated $C_i-I_{inc}$ relationships. Measured $C_i-I_{inc}$ relationships at $O = 210$ mbar and $C_a = 400$ µbar (diamonds±one standard error) and at $O = 20$ mbar and $C_a = 1000$ µbar (squares±one standard error) for three cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growdena) and two leaf ages (15 days and 25 days after emergence). Simulated $C_i-I_{inc}$ at $O = 210$ mbar and $C_a = 400$ µbar (solid lines) and at $O = 20$ mbar and $C_a = 1000$ µbar (dotted lines).
The relationship between CO$_2$ assimilation and leaf anatomical properties

**Figure A3.2.3:** Light response curve with and without cytosol as separate compartment. Simulated $A - I_{\text{inc}}$ curves for a 25-day-old Growdena leaf at the default value for $\omega$ ($\omega = 0.70$) (continuous line) and at $\omega = 0$ (dashed line)
CHAPTER 4

Localization of (photo)respiration and CO₂ re-assimilation in tomato leaves investigated with a reaction-diffusion model

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Abstract

The CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco, $C_c$, is commonly calculated by models using the overall mesophyll resistance. A disadvantage of such models is that they do not provide a mechanistic explanation for the CO₂ concentration difference between the intercellular air space and the carboxylation site. This study provides an alternative by presenting a reaction-diffusion model for CO₂ transport, production and fixation in leaves. It is parameterized by both leaf physiological and leaf anatomical data. The anatomical data consisted of the thickness of the cell wall, cytosol and stroma, and the area ratios of mesophyll exposed to the intercellular air space to leaf surfaces ($S_m/S$) and exposed chloroplast to exposed mesophyll surfaces ($S_c/S_m$). The model was used directly to estimate photosynthetic parameters from a part of the measured light and CO₂ response curves; the remaining data were used for validation. The model predicted light and CO₂ response curves reasonably well for 15 days old tomato (cv. Admiro) leaves, if (photo)respiratory CO₂ release was assumed to take place in the inner cytosol or in the gaps between the chloroplasts. The model was also used to calculate the fraction of CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration that is re-assimilated in the stroma, and this fraction ranged from 56 to 76%. In future research, the model should be further validated to better understand how the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ is affected by environmental conditions and physiological parameters.

Keywords: CO₂ diffusion, internal conductance, leaf anatomy, mesophyll conductance, mesophyll resistance, re-assimilation, re-fixation, reaction-diffusion model, photorespiration

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Chapter 4

4.1 Introduction

The mesophyll of C$_3$ plants can substantially constrain CO$_2$ transport from the intercellular air space to Rubisco (Harley et al., 1992a; Flexas et al., 2008; Niinemets et al., 2009; Flexas et al., 2012). This results in a significant drawdown between the CO$_2$ partial pressures in the intercellular air space ($C_i$) and near the binding sites of Rubisco ($C_c$) where CO$_2$ is fixed. $C_c$ is an input variable for the widely used Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model (Farquhar et al., 1980) (abbreviated as “FvCB model”) that is used to predict the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation ($A_N$) of a leaf. In order to calculate $C_c$, the mesophyll resistance ($r_m$) to CO$_2$ transport is commonly introduced as:

\[ C_c = C_i - r_m A_N \] (4.1)

This approach has several limitations. $r_m$, or its inverse (mesophyll conductance $g_m$), in equation (4.1) needs to be estimated by one of the various gas exchange-based methods described in literature (see Pons et al. (2009) for a review). This makes this method prone to measurement errors and statistical artefacts (Yin and Struik, 2009; Gu and Sun, 2014). Additionally, it has been shown that the mesophyll resistance is not constant, but possibly varies with light and CO$_2$ levels (Flexas et al., 2007). One way to incorporate this variability in equation (4.1) is to use a Leuning-type phenomenological model (Leuning, 1995) that describes the correlation between $C_c$ and $g_m$ (Yin et al., 2009; Gu et al., 2012). However, this approach does not provide a mechanistic explanation for the variability of $r_m$ with light and CO$_2$ levels.

Tholen et al. (2012) provided a mathematical framework to allow for the fact that CO$_2$ fixation takes place in chloroplasts whereas respiratory and photorespiratory CO$_2$ is released in mitochondria that are in the cytosol. Using this framework, they showed that the variability of $r_m$ with CO$_2$ levels can at least partly be explained by the difference in the diffusion pathway between the (photo)respired CO$_2$ and the CO$_2$
Localization of (photo)respiration

coming from the intercellular air space. Their model assumes that CO₂ production by (photo)respiration takes place in a cytosol compartment between the cell wall and the chloroplast envelope and that there is CO₂ influx from the intercellular air space into this compartment. This implies that CO₂ from the intercellular air space and CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration share the diffusion pathway from the cytosol to Rubisco, where CO₂ is fixed. However, there can only be a shared diffusion pathway of these two sources of CO₂ if one of the following two conditions is met. Either, the mitochondria releasing (photo)respired CO₂ are located between the plasma membrane and the chloroplasts (instead of between the tonoplast and the chloroplasts) or CO₂ in the cytosol is completely mixed. Tholen et al. (2014) commented on their earlier framework (Tholen et al., 2012) that this latter assumption was made. Complete mixture of CO₂ from the atmosphere and CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration implies that CO₂ diffusion in the cytosol is much faster than diffusion in the combined cell wall and plasma membrane and in the chloroplast. Physically, this means that under these assumptions the location of mitochondria does not affect $C_c$ and that the Tholen et al. (2012) framework cannot be used to investigate the effect of the placement of mitochondria. However, the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplast may affect net CO₂ assimilation rate. If most of the (photo)respired CO₂ is produced between the chloroplast envelope and the tonoplast, the released CO₂ will likely be re-assimilated. This is especially the case when the space between the chloroplasts is small (Sage and Sage, 2009; Busch et al., 2013). The exposed mesophyll surface that is not covered by chloroplasts may provide a pathway for CO₂ to escape to the intercellular air space.

In order to deal with most of the limitations of the concept of mesophyll resistance and to study the influence of several leaf structural and biochemical properties on leaf photosynthesis separately, it may be necessary to move beyond resistance models. Several reaction-diffusion models of a leaf have been produced. Parkhurst (1977) modelled a leaf as a porous volume and modelled CO₂ transport and assimilation within this volume. In later studies, the leaf structure was modelled more explicitly to study the effect of stomatal opening state and pore size, gradients of CO₂ in the...
intercellular air space (Parkhurst and Mott, 1990; Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto and Juurola, 2002), and the effect of temperature dependency of carbon anhydrase activity, CO$_2$ solubility and diffusion related parameters (Aalto et al., 1999; Aalto and Juurola, 2002; Juurola et al., 2005) on CO$_2$ assimilation. A limitation of these models is that they assume that (photo)respiration and CO$_2$ assimilation take place in the same compartments. More recent reaction-diffusion models (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016) describe the structure in more detail in order to compartmentalize these processes, allowing mechanistic modelling of the contribution of (photo)respired CO$_2$ to the calculated mesophyll resistance. An advantage of these models, compared with resistance models that use anatomical properties to calculate $r_m$ and $C_c$ (Tosens et al., 2012; Tomas et al., 2013) is that these models do not require a predefined diffusion distance in the chloroplasts. Tholen and Zhu (2011) implemented a 3-D reaction-diffusion model for CO$_2$ and HCO$_3^-$ into a detailed representation of a single mesophyll cell. Ho et al. (2016) described a similar model, but incorporated the geometry of leaf tissue based on synchrotron computed laminography images. This complexity has consequences. The model of Tholen and Zhu (2011) describes a very detailed cell microstructure. Therefore, it may become computationally expensive if a whole mesophyll tissue sample is modelled in this way. This feature is important, because the computationally expensive models are unattractive to use for procedures that require a large number of model runs, like optimization or parameter estimation procedures. The 3-D leaf geometry from Ho et al. (2016) is a direct reconstruction of a whole leaf section, which makes it impossible to change to structure of mesophyll cells. The computational time of this model is also very high.

In the current study, we first present a simple microstructural model of a leaf, in which CO$_2$ transport, CO$_2$ production by (photo)respiration, and CO$_2$ consumption by carboxylation is modelled. The mesophyll microstructures in the model are very simple and flexible. This makes the model easy to apply to a wide range of C$_3$ species and also computationally inexpensive. We will demonstrate that by directly using the model to analyse simultaneously measured data for gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence. The model can contribute to the understanding of the mechanisms that
determine $C_c$. We will demonstrate this by investigating how the position of the sites of (photo)respiration relative to the chloroplast stroma affect the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation and the re-assimilation of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration.

4.2 Material and methods

4.2.1 Plant material and experimental data

The experiment was carried out in a UNIFARM glasshouse of Wageningen University, using three cultivars of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.). In this experiment, a LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis System (Li-Cor BioSciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) was used to simultaneously measure gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence. CO$_2$ response curves were measured at an incident irradiance ($I_{\text{inc}}$) of 1500 $\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ under both 21% and 2% O$_2$ conditions. The same leaf material was used to prepare samples for both light microscopy and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). From the obtained light microscopic images, $L_m/L$ (the ratio of the length of the exposed mesophyll cell to the total length of the image) was measured. Subsequently, curvature factors (Thain, 1983; Evans *et al*., 1994) were adopted from Galmes *et al*. (2013), to calculate the ratio of the exposed mesophyll surface to the leaf surface $S_m/S$. From the obtained transmission electron microscopic images, $S_c/S_m$ (the ratio of the chloroplast surface area exposed to the intercellular air space to the exposed mesophyll surface area, the thickness of the cytosol, the stroma and the cell wall were determined. More detailed information on the experimental procedure is described in Chapter 3. For our present study, we only used the gas exchange, chlorophyll fluorescence and leaf anatomical data for 15-days old leaves of cv. ‘Admiro’.

4.2.2 Overall description of the model

The model consists of two main parts; a description of the geometry of the computational domain and a mathematical formulation, in the form of partial differential equations and boundary conditions, of the processes that are simulated.
within this geometry. The next two sections describe the geometry and the mathematical formulation of processes, respectively.

**4.2.3 Geometry description**

The computational domain consists of a rectangular section with dimensions $l \times h$ of a mesophyll cell exposed to the intercellular space (Fig. 4.1). This section contains a single chloroplast. CO$_2$ enters the domain by diffusing through the cell wall and plasma membrane into the outer cytosol (thickness $t_{cyt, out}$). From there, it diffuses through the double chloroplast membrane into the stroma (thickness $t_{str}$). Part of the CO$_2$ may diffuse through cytosol gaps between the chloroplasts (height $h_{gap}$) and enter the inner cytosol (thickness $t_{cyt, in}$). CO$_2$ may be produced through (photo)respiration in either the outer cytosol, inner cytosol or the cytosol gaps between the chloroplasts, depending on where mitochondria are located. (Photo)respired CO$_2$ either escapes towards the intercellular space, or diffuses back into the chloroplasts, being re-assimilated. For reasons of symmetry, the height of the cytosol gap at the bottom and the top of the computational domain was half of that of the total gap height ($h_{gap}$); similarly, it is assumed that $t_{cyt, in} = t_{cyt, out}$ (hereafter they are denoted collectively as $t_{cyt}$). More details on the reconstruction of the geometry can be found in Supplementary text 1. The chloroplast envelope was modelled as a thin film diffusion barrier. Since preliminary simulations showed that the presence of a vacuole did barely affect the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate, Fig. 4.1 does not include a vacuole. An insulated boundary condition (net flux is zero) was applied over the tonoplast, which is the membrane between the inner cytosol and the vacuole.

In all simulations an assumption from Tholen and Zhu (2011) was adopted; namely, the aspect ratio $q$ of the chloroplasts (in this study, $q = \frac{t_{str}}{h_{str}}$) was constant and equal to 2.5. The gap width $h_{gap}$ was varied in order to produce geometries with different values of $S_c/S_m$. It can be expressed as:
Figure 4.1: Schematic drawing of the computational domain and its position relative to the intercellular air space and the vacuole.

\[ h_{\text{gap}} = q t_{\text{str}} \left( \left( \frac{S_c}{S_m} \right)^{-1} - 1 \right) \]  

(4.2)

More details on the derivation of equation (4.2) can be found in Supplementary text 2. By applying this geometry, it is assumed that all anatomical parameters \((S_c/S_m, t_{\text{str}}, t_{\text{cyt}}, \text{and } q)\) are uniform in the paradermal direction.
4.2.4 Process description

Diffusion equation for CO$_2$ transport

In a steady state, CO$_2$ diffusion, consumption and production should be in balance as:

\[ \nabla \cdot D_{CO_2,i} \nabla [CO_2] = w_i - r_{p,i} - r_{d,i} \] (4.3)

where the subscript ‘i’ denotes the medium (either a cytosol compartment or the stroma). $D_{CO_2,i}$ is the diffusion coefficient of CO$_2$ ($m^2 s^{-1}$) in compartment i. $w$ is the volumetric rate of carboxylation by Rubisco (mol CO$_2$ m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$), which is only non-zero in the stroma. $r_p$ is the volumetric rate of photorespiration (mol CO$_2$ m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$), which is only non-zero in the cytosol. $r_d$ is the volumetric rate of respiration (mol CO$_2$ m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$) that is only non-zero in the cytosol and was taken as a constant. [CO$_2$] is the CO$_2$ concentration (mol m$^{-3}$). $\nabla$ (m$^{-1}$) is the gradient operator. The diffusion coefficient for CO$_2$ transport depends on the porosity and the viscosity of the medium. For the cytosol and the stroma, the diffusion coefficient for CO$_2$ was calculated as (Tosens et al., 2012):

\[ D_{CO_2,i} = p_{eff,i} \zeta_i D_{CO_2,water} \] (4.4)

where $p_{eff}$ is the effective porosity of the medium. It is assumed that the effective porosity of the cytosol and the stroma is 1.0. $\zeta_i$ is a reduction factor in the medium compared to pure water due to a higher viscosity of the media compared to water. It is assumed to be 0.5 for the stroma and the cytosol and 1.0 for the cell wall (Ho et al., 2016). Table 4.1 shows physical parameter values used in this study and their units.
Table 4.1: Physical and biochemical constants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$D_{\text{CO}_2, \text{water}}$</td>
<td>Diffusion coefficient of CO$_2$ in water at $T = 298.13$ K</td>
<td>$1.79 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m$^2$ s$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Tosens et al. (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G_{\text{mem}}$</td>
<td>Plasma membrane permeability</td>
<td>$3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ m$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Gutknecht et al. (1977)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G_{\text{env}}$</td>
<td>Chloroplast envelope permeability</td>
<td>$\frac{1}{2} G_{\text{mem}}$</td>
<td>Ho et al. (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$g_s$</td>
<td>Stomatal conductance at ambient CO$_2$ and O$_2$, and saturating light</td>
<td>$1.53$ mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ Pa$^{-1}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H$</td>
<td>Henry’s constant for CO$_2$ at $T = 298.13$ K</td>
<td>$2941$ Pa m$^3$ mol$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Sander (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_{m\text{C}}$</td>
<td>Michaelis-Menten constant for RuBP carboxylation by Rubisco</td>
<td>$26.7$ Pa</td>
<td>Bernacchi et al. (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_{m\text{O}}$</td>
<td>Michaelis-Menten constant for RuBP oxygenation by Rubisco</td>
<td>$16.4$ kPa</td>
<td>Bernacchi et al. (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_{\text{eff, wall}}$</td>
<td>Effective porosity of the cell wall</td>
<td>$0.2$</td>
<td>Evans et al. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R$</td>
<td>Universal gas constant</td>
<td>$8.314$ Pa m$^3$ mol$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Nobel (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{\text{C/O}}$</td>
<td>Rubisco specificity factor</td>
<td>$2.6$ mmol $\mu$mol$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Tholen et al. (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
<td>Temperature (constant at room temperature in this study)</td>
<td>$298.13$ K</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\zeta_{\text{cyt}}$</td>
<td>Fraction of CO$_2$ diffusion coefficient in cytosol to CO$_2$ diffusion coefficient in water</td>
<td>$0.5$</td>
<td>Tosens et al. (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\zeta_{\text{str}}$</td>
<td>Fraction of CO$_2$ diffusion coefficient in stroma to CO$_2$ diffusion coefficient in water</td>
<td>$0.5$</td>
<td>Tosens et al. (2012)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carboxylation rate

The FvCB model (Farquhar et al., 1980), expanded with triose phosphate utilization limited carboxylation (Sharkey, 1985), was used to quantify the rate of carboxylation by Rubisco $w$ in the stroma:

$$w = \min \left\{ \frac{[\text{CO}_2]v_{\text{cmax}}}{[\text{CO}_2] + k_{\text{mc}} \left( 1 + \frac{[\text{O}_2]}{k_{\text{mo}}} \right)}, \frac{j[\text{CO}_2]}{4[\text{CO}_2] + 8\gamma^*}, 3t_p \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma^*}{[\text{CO}_2]} \right) \right\}$$

(4.5)

where $v_{\text{cmax}}$ is the maximum volumetric rate of carboxylation by Rubisco (mol m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$); $k_{\text{mc}}$ and $k_{\text{mo}}$ are the Michaelis-Menten constants of Rubisco (mol m$^{-3}$) for carboxylation and oxygenation, respectively; $j$ is the volumetric rate of electron transport (mol m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$); $t_p$ is the volumetric rate of triose phosphate utilization (mol m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$); and $\gamma^*$ is the CO$_2$ compensation point, the CO$_2$ concentration (mol m$^{-3}$) in the
stroma at which the amount of CO₂ consumed by carboxylation equals the amount of
CO₂ released by photorespiration.

Photorespiration rate

The rate of CO₂ production due to photorespiration was modelled as (Tholen and Zhu, 2011):

\[
\text{\( r_p = \left( \iint_{\text{Stroma}} \frac{\gamma^* w}{[CO_2]} \, dx \, dy \right) \left( \iint_{\text{(Photo)respiration}} \, dx \, dy \right)^{-1} \)}
\]

(4.6)

where “Stroma” is the stroma compartment in the computational domain. “(Photo)respiration” is the location in the computational domain, in which CO₂ release by (photo)respiration is assumed to take place. Three different scenarios for the location for CO₂ release by (photo)respiration were considered: either (1) the inner cytosol, or (2) the outer cytosol, or (3) the cytosol gaps between the chloroplasts.

Unit conversions

The variables \( v_{cmax}, r_d, r_p, t_p, J, \) and \( w \) in equations (4.3), (4.5) and (4.6) are rates per unit of volume. Their equivalents expressed in rate per unit of leaf area (mol m⁻² s⁻¹) are denoted here in capitals; \( V_{cmax}, R_d, R_p, T_p, J, \) and \( W. \) In order to calculate \( J, v_{cmax} \) and \( t_p, J, V_{cmax} \) and \( T_p \) are multiplied with the ratio \( S/V_{str}, \) which is the ratio of the leaf area to the total volume of the stroma in a leaf. Supplementary texts 2 and 3 explain how this term is derived mathematically; \( r_d \) is calculated by multiplying \( R_d \) with \( S/V_{cyt,inner}, S/V_{cyt,outer}, \) or \( S/V_{cyt,gap}, \) depending on the scenario. Table 4.2 shows mathematical expressions for these surface to volume fractions. There are also a number of parameters that represent concentrations (\( k_{mC}, k_{mO}, \gamma^*, [O_2], [CO_2] \)) expressed in mol m⁻³. In most photosynthesis research, these parameters
are expressed as partial pressures instead (here written as $K_{mC}$, $K_{mO}$, $\Gamma^*$, $O$). These parameters are expressed in Pa. The ideal gas law and Henry’s law were applied (Ho et al., 2010) to convert all mentioned partial pressure parameters, expressed in gas phase ($K_{mC}$, $K_{mO}$, $\Gamma^*$), into concentrations in the liquid phase.

### 4.2.5 Quantification of parameters

**Quantification of leaf anatomical parameters**

Leaf anatomical parameters ($t_{cyt}$, $t_{str}$, $S_c/S_m$, $S_m/S$, $t_{wall}$) for 15-day-old Admiro leaves were adopted from Chapter 3. $S_c/S_m$, $t_{cyt}$, and $t_{str}$ were used to generate a unique geometry for this leaf, as described in Supplementary materials 1-3. The model was solved for the combination of input parameter values for each leaf type. The anatomical parameter values are listed in Table 4.3. The measured cytosol thicknesses in Table 4.3 are considerably smaller than the thickness of mitochondria assumed by Tholen and Zhu (2011). To the best of our knowledge, there have been no systematic measurements of diameters of mitochondria and some sample images from a number of studies (Busch et al., 2013; Gielwanowska et al., 2015; Moser et al., 2015) suggest that this diameter can vary considerably. Due to lack of data, we assumed that the thickness is equal to the cytosol thickness measured on the TEM images from Chapter 3.

---

**Table 4.2: Overview of surface to volume ratios and parameterizations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Mathematical expression</th>
<th>Meaning of ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$1 / (t_{str} / S)$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total chloroplast volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{str}$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$S_m / S$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume of the inner cytosol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{cyt,inner}$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$t_{cyt} / S$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume of the outer cytosol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{cyt,outer}$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$s_m / S$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume of the cytosol gaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{cyt,gap}$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$S / t_{str} (S - S_c / S_m) / S$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume of the cytosol gaps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 4

Table 4.3: Values of leaf anatomical properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$q$</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio of the height of a chloroplast to its thickness</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>Assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\frac{S_m}{S}$</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ratio of the area of the mesophyll cell surface, exposed to the intercellular air space, to the leaf surface area</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\frac{S_c}{S_m}$</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ratio of the area of the chloroplast surface, facing the intercellular air space, to the mesophyll surface area, exposed to the intercellular air space</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{wall}}$</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>Cell wall thickness</td>
<td>$1.18 \cdot 10^{-7}$</td>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{cyt}}$</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>Cytosol thickness</td>
<td>$1.18 \cdot 10^{-7}$</td>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{\text{str}}$</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>Stroma thickness</td>
<td>$2.54 \cdot 10^{-6}$</td>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quantification of Rubisco kinetic parameters

We adopted the Michaelis-Menten constants for carboxylation ($K_{mc}$) and oxygenation ($K_{mo}$) by Rubisco from Bernacchi et al. (2002). We further assumed that the specificity factor of Rubisco for CO$_2$ and O$_2$, $S_{c/o}$, equals 2.6 (Tholen et al., 2012). For $S_{C/O}$, we calculated the CO$_2$ compensation point $\Gamma^*$ as:

$$\Gamma^* = \frac{0.5O}{S_{c/o}} \tag{4.7}$$

Determination of the rate of electron transport

We used $A_N - I_{\text{inc}}$ data measured at 2% O$_2$ under limiting irradiance conditions ($I_{\text{inc}}$ equal to 25, 50, 100, and 150 $\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ ) to fit $A_N$ against $\frac{1}{4} \Phi_2 I_{\text{inc}}$ by linear regression (where $\Phi_2$ is the measured quantum yield of Photosystem II). Based on the estimated slope of this regression ($s$), we calculated the rate of electron transport $J$ for each combination of measured values for $I_{\text{inc}}$ and $\Phi_2$ as in (Yin et al., 2009):

$$J = s \Phi_2 I_{\text{inc}} \tag{4.8}$$

106
4.2.6 Boundary conditions

In the model, it is assumed that the resistance of the intercellular air space for CO$_2$ transport is negligible. The cell wall and the plasma membrane were not modelled as separate domains, because they were very thin. Together with the stomata, they were incorporated in the boundary conditions of the combined cell wall and plasma membrane (Fig. 4.1) instead. The following convection boundary conditions were thus assigned to these edges:

$$\phi_{wp} = \frac{1}{G_s} + \frac{t_{wall}}{p_{eff,wall}D_{CO_2,water}} + \frac{1}{G_{mem}} \left( \frac{RT}{H} [CO_2]_a - [CO_2] \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.9)

where $\phi_{wp}$ is the net flux of CO$_2$ over the cell wall from the intercellular air space normal to the mesophyll surface; $[CO_2]_a$ is the CO$_2$ concentration at the leaf surface; $G_{mem}$ is the plasma membrane conductance (m s$^{-1}$); $t_{wall}$ is the cell wall thickness; $p_{eff}$ is the effective porosity of the cell wall; $R$ is the universal gas constant; $T$ is the temperature; and $H$ is Henry’s law constant for CO$_2$ at temperature $T$ and standard pressure. The term $RT/H$ represents the dimensionless Henry’s law constant that is used to convert gas phase concentrations into liquid phase concentrations (Ho et al., 2010; Tosens et al., 2012). It is assumed that $G_{mem} = 3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ m s$^{-1}$ (Gutknecht et al., 1977) and $p_{eff,wall} = 0.2$ (Fanta et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2016). $G_s$ represents the stomatal conductance expressed in m s$^{-1}$. It was calculated from the measured stomatal conductance, expressed in mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ Pa$^{-1}$, as:

$$G_s = g_s \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1} \cdot RT$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.10)
Chapter 4

The flux over the chloroplast envelope was modelled as a resistance with conductance \( G_{\text{env}} = \frac{1}{2} G_{\text{mem}} \). Since the chloroplast envelope is a double membrane, it was assumed that its conductance was half that of the plasma membrane. By applying equations (4.9) and (10), it was assumed that the resistance of the intercellular air space was negligible. All other boundaries of the computational domain were insulated as explained earlier.

4.2.7 Estimation of leaf physiological parameters

We used the reaction-diffusion model directly to estimate the parameters \( R_d \) and \( V_{\text{cmax}} \).

Estimation of \( R_d \)

We estimated \( R_d \), based on the assumed location of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release (inner cytosol, outer cytosol, or cytosol gaps between chloroplasts). For this estimation, we only used the \( A_N \) and \( g_s \) measurements from \( A_N - I_{\text{inc}} \) curve measurements at \( I_{\text{inc}} \) set at 25, 50, 100, and 150 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\). For this range of light levels, we estimated \( R_d \) by minimizing the squared difference between average measured net rates of CO\(_2\) assimilation and the ones for each light level simulated by the reaction-diffusion model. For these light levels, the RuBP carboxylation rate is always limited by electron transport; so, \( R_d \) is expected to be estimated using \( J \) and \( \Gamma^* \) as inputs.

Determination of \( T_p \)

In order to calculate \( T_p \), we first determined the triose-phosphate-utilization-limited net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate \( A_p \) as the average measured net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate at \( C_a = 200 \) Pa, \( O = 21 \) kPa and \( I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \) \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\). From that average net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate, we calculated \( T_p \) as:

\[
T_p = \frac{(A_p + R_d)}{3}
\]  

(4.11)
where we used the previously estimated values of $R_d$ as input for equation (4.11).

Estimation of $V_{cmax}$

For the estimation of $V_{cmax}$, we only used the $A_N$ and $C_i$ measurements from $A_N - C_i$ curves measured at $I_{inc} = 1500 \ \mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ $O = 21$ kPa and $C_a$ equal to 5, 10, 15, and 20 Pa. We estimated $V_{cmax}$ by minimizing the squared difference between the average measured and simulated net CO$_2$ assimilation rates at these ambient CO$_2$ levels, assuming that the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is limited by Rubisco. During this procedure, we used the previously determined values for $R_d$ and $T_p$ as input variables. In order to do this estimation, we used COMSOL 5.1 with MATLAB livelink (COMSOL AB, Stockholm, Sweden) to convert the COMSOL model into a MATLAB 2014b (The Mathworks, Natick, USA) script to allow optimization.

4.2.8 Validation

We did not use the measurements of the $A_N - C_i$ at ambient CO$_2$ levels if the leaf was exposed to CO$_2$ partial pressures between 40 Pa and 160 Pa for the estimation of $s$, $R_d$, $T_p$, and $V_{cmax}$. Neither did we use the $A_N - I_{inc}$ measurements at irradiances between 300 and 1500 $\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$. We used these remaining combinations of measured values for $O$, $I_{inc}$ and $C_i$ to predict the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate and compared these predictions with the experimental data.

4.2.9 Solving the model and post-processing

The model was implemented and solved in the finite element software COMSOL Multiphysics 5.1. After solving the model, the rate of CO$_2$ production by RuBP carboxylation rate $W$, expressed as the rate per unit of leaf area per second, was calculated by multiplying the average volumetric rate of RuBP carboxylation by the total stroma volume and dividing this by the leaf surface area:
Chapter 4

\[ W = \left( \frac{S}{V_{\text{str}}} \right)^{-1} \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} w \, dx \, dy \right) \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} \, dx \, dy \right)^{-1} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.12)

The rate of CO\textsubscript{2} production per unit of leaf area by photorespiration was calculated as:

\[ R_p = \left( \frac{S}{V_{\text{str}}} \right)^{-1} \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} \frac{w \gamma^*}{[\text{CO}_2]} \, dx \, dy \right) \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} \, dx \, dy \right)^{-1} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.13)

The net rate of CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation was calculated as:

\[ A_N = W - R_p - R_d \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.14)

4.2.10 Estimating re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2}

The model was used to calculate the fraction \( f_{\text{rec}} \) of CO\textsubscript{2} produced by (photo)respiration that is re-assimilated. The method to achieve this is largely based on the method described by Ho \textit{et al.} (2016), who used their model to conduct an \textit{in silico} experiment mimicking the \textit{in vivo} experiment described by Haupt-Herting \textit{et al.} (2001). In Haupt-Herting \textit{et al.}’s experiment, a leaf was adapted to ambient CO\textsubscript{2} levels and saturating light. Under ambient conditions, atmospheric CO\textsubscript{2} mainly consists of \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2} isotopes. After adaptation, the leaf was exposed to air that contained \textsuperscript{13}CO\textsubscript{2}, but no \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2}. The concentrations of \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2} and \textsuperscript{13}CO\textsubscript{2} at the leaf surface reached new equilibrium concentrations after about 12 seconds. Although no atmospheric \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2} is taken up, the assimilates still contain mainly \textsuperscript{12}C isotopes, so all CO\textsubscript{2} produced by (photo)respiration consists of \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2}. It takes a longer period (20-30 s) than the 12-seconds adaptation time before measureable amounts of \textsuperscript{13}CO\textsubscript{2} are released by (photo)respiration. Haupt-Herting \textit{et al.} (2001) exploited this fact by stating that \textsuperscript{12}CO\textsubscript{2}
and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ are in quasi steady state during this period of 12 seconds. Since all (photo)respired CO$_2$ consists of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$, the measured net $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ assimilation rate $^{13}A_N$ equals the carboxylation rate $W$. Next they measured the $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ concentrations in the intercellular air space. The total CO$_2$ concentration ($[^{12}\text{CO}_2] + [^{13}\text{CO}_2]$) is constant during the experiment. Since the discrimination of $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ is very small (0.27\%) (Farquhar et al., 1982), Haupt-Herting et al. therefore assumed it to be negligible and stated that $^{12}A_N = \frac{[^{12}\text{CO}_2]}{[^{13}\text{CO}_2]}^{13}A_N$. The symbols $[^{12}\text{CO}_2]$ and $[^{13}\text{CO}_2]$ represent the concentrations of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ respectively, in the intercellular air space. Since all assimilated CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration consists of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$, $^{12}A_N$ is also the rate of CO$_2$ re-assimilation.

For the in silico experiment in this study, equation (4.3) was replaced by separate reaction-diffusion equations for $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ transport. Since all CO$_2$ production by (photo)respiration consists of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$, the partial differential equations for $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ can be expressed as:

$$\nabla \cdot D_{^{12}\text{CO}_2} \nabla [^{12}\text{CO}_2] = w_{12} - r_d - r_p$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.15)

$$\nabla \cdot D_{^{13}\text{CO}_2} \nabla [^{13}\text{CO}_2] = w_{13}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.16)

Since the total CO$_2$ concentration does not change after $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ in the air near the leaf surface was replaced by $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, $[^{12}\text{CO}_2] + [^{13}\text{CO}_2]$ were substituted for $[\text{CO}_2]$ in equations (4.5) and (4.6). The volumetric consumption of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ by RuBP carboxylation ($w_{12}$ and $w_{13}$) were expressed as:

$$w_{12} = \frac{[^{12}\text{CO}_2]}{[^{12}\text{CO}_2] + [^{13}\text{CO}_2]} w$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.17)
In order to determine the rate of CO$_2$ re-assimilation, it is necessary to know what the concentration of $^{12}$CO$_2$ in the intercellular air space is. It cannot be assumed to be 0, because this would imply that once $^{12}$CO$_2$ enters the intercellular air space, it cannot be re-assimilated anymore. Instead, it is assumed that the $^{12}$CO$_2$ concentration at the leaf surface is zero and applied the following conditions at the mesophyll cell surface, in analogy to equation (4.9)

$$
\phi_{wp,^{12}CO_2} = -\frac{1}{G_s + \frac{t_{wall}}{p_{eff,wall} D_{CO_2,water}} + \frac{1}{G_{mem}}} \left[^{12}CO_2\right]
$$

$$
\phi_{wp,^{13}CO_2} = \frac{1}{G_s + \frac{t_{wall}}{p_{eff,wall} D_{CO_2,water}} + \frac{1}{G_{mem}}} \left(\frac{RT}{H} \left[^{13}CO_2\right]_a - [^{13}CO_2]\right)
$$

where $\phi_{wp,^{12}CO_2}$ and $\phi_{wp,^{13}CO_2}$ are the net fluxes of $^{12}$CO$_2$ and $^{13}$CO$_2$ respectively over the stomata, the intercellular air space, the cell wall and the plasma membrane; $[^{13}CO_2]_a$ is the concentration of $^{13}$CO$_2$ at the leaf surface.

The re-assimilation rate was calculated, equivalent to the rate $^{12}$CO$_2$ consumption due to RuBP carboxylation $W_{12}$, as:

$$
W_{12} = \left(\frac{S}{V_{str}}\right)^{-1} \left(\iint_{\text{Stroma}} w_{12} \, dx \, dy\right) \left(\iint_{\text{Stroma}} \, dx \, dy\right)^{-1}
$$
Localization of (photo)respiration

The fraction of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration that is re-assimilated is calculated as (Ho et al., 2016):

$$f_{\text{rec}} = \frac{W_{12}}{R_d + R_p}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.22)

4.2.11 Additional analyses

Supplementary text 4 contains the description of a sensitivity analysis for $t_{\text{cyt, in}}$ and $t_{\text{cyt, out}}$ to assess how these parameters may affect $A_N$ and $f_{\text{rec}}$. Supplementary material 5 contains a description of an analysis in which the mitochondria were modelled explicitly to assess to what extent modelling loose mitochondria may change the calculated values of $A_N$ and $f_{\text{rec}}$.

4.3. Results

4.3.1 Estimates of $R_d$, $T_p$, and $V_{\text{cmax}}$

Table 4.4 shows the value of $s$ estimated by the Yin et al. (2009) method, the parameter values $R_d$ and $V_{\text{cmax}}$ and their standard errors estimated by our model, and the calculated values of $T_p$. The estimate of $s$ was 0.529. The estimates for $R_d$ were 3.43 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, 3.36 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, and 3.41 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ assuming the (photo)respired CO$_2$ takes place in the inner cytosol, the outer cytosol and the cytosol gap compartments, respectively. These $R_d$ and the measured $A_j$ values were used to calculate $T_p$, which was 13 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ for each assumed location of (photo)respiration. The estimates of $V_{\text{cmax}}$ were 174 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, 177 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, and 227 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ assuming (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release in the inner cytosol, the outer cytosol and the cytosol gaps respectively. Although the standard errors of the estimates of $V_{\text{cmax}}$, assuming (photo)respired CO$_2$ release in the inner cytosol or cytosol gap were small relative to the parameter value, the standard
Table 4.4: Estimated values of parameters of the FvCB model for each scenario for (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} release (it takes either place in the inner cytosol, in the outer cytosol, or in the cytosol gap)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Inner cytosol</th>
<th>Outer cytosol</th>
<th>Cytosol gaps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$s$</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Slope of the assumed linear relationship between $J$ and $I_{inc}\Phi_2/4$ at low light levels and low O\textsubscript{2} levels</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_d$</td>
<td>(\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1})</td>
<td>Rate of normal respiration</td>
<td>3.44±0.36</td>
<td>3.36±0.36</td>
<td>3.41±0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_p$</td>
<td>(\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1})</td>
<td>Rate of triose phosphate utilization</td>
<td>13.39</td>
<td>13.38</td>
<td>13.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{cmax}$</td>
<td>(\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1})</td>
<td>Rate of RuBP carboxylation by Rubisco</td>
<td>174±29</td>
<td>177±251</td>
<td>227±29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

errors were larger than the estimated parameter value assuming (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} in the outer cytosol.

4.3.2 Validation

Figure 4.2 shows a comparison between the simulated and measured net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates. Only the lower parts of the $A - I_{inc}$ curve ($I_{inc} \leq 200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and the $A - C_a$ curves were used for the estimation of photosynthetic parameters ($C_a \leq 30 \text{ Pa}$) of $s$ and $R_d$. Only the measurements at $C_a = 200 \text{ Pa}$ in the $A - C_a$ curve were used to determine $T_p$. The model was validated by predicting $A_N$ for the remaining levels of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ that were used in the experiment. If (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} is released in the inner cytosol, the model predictions of $A_N$ generally agrees well with the measurements. The same is true if (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} release is assumed to take place in the cytosol gap compartment, although the model tends to slightly underestimate $A_N$ for intermediate $C_a$ levels in the $A - C_a$ curve. This underestimation is considerably higher if (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} is assumed to take place in the outer cytosol. Additionally, if $I_{inc} \geq 500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, the predicted $A_N$ is substantially lower than the measured $A_N$, if (photo)respiratory CO\textsubscript{2} release takes place in the outer cytosol.
Figure 4.2: Measured (symbols) and simulated (lines) $A - C_a$ (left) and $A - I_{inc}$ (right) curves for different scenarios for the location of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release. The error bars represent one standard deviation. In the simulated $A - C_i$ curves, (photo)respiration either takes place in the inner cytosol (upper panels), in the outer cytosol (middle panels) or in the cytosol gaps (lower panels). The solid line represents the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates for values of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ that were neither used in the estimation procedure of $R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$ nor for the determination of $T_p$. The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates under the remaining values of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ with the solid curve.
4.3.3 CO₂ concentration profiles

Fig. 4.3 shows CO₂ concentration profiles at ambient CO₂ levels (\(C_a = 40 \, \text{Pa}\)) and saturating light (\(I_{inc} = 1500 \, \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}\)) for three scenarios. It is assumed that (photo)respiratory CO₂ is released in the inner cytosol (Fig. 4.3A), in the outer cytosol (Fig. 4.3B) or in the cytosol gaps (Fig. 4.3C). If CO₂ is released in the outer cytosol, the CO₂ partial pressure decreases along the diffusion pathway from the cell wall to the tonoplast. If CO₂ is released in the inner cytosol or in the cytosol gap, the CO₂ partial pressure also decreases along the diffusion pathway from the cell wall to near the inner chloroplast envelope. However, in these two scenarios, it slightly increases again in the inner cytosol (Fig. 4.3).

4.3.4 Re-assimilation of CO₂

The fraction of re-assimilation of CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration, \(f_{rec}\), was calculated under ambient CO₂ levels (\(C_a = 40 \, \text{Pa}\)) and saturating light (\(I_{inc} = 1500 \, \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}\)). The highest values for \(f_{rec}\) were obtained if (photo)respired CO₂ release took place in the inner cytosol (\(f_{rec} = 0.75\)). The lowest values were obtained if it took place in the outer cytosol (\(f_{rec} = 0.56\)). If it took place in the cytosol gap, \(f_{rec} = 0.69\).

4.4 Discussion

In this study, a microstructural model for photosynthesis was developed based on a simplified geometry of a mesophyll cell consisting of three layers (outer cytosol, chloroplasts, inner cytosol) (Fig. 4.1). The microstructural model was parameterized by the measured leaf anatomical properties \(S_c/S_m\), \(t_{cyt}\), and \(t_{str}\) (Table 4.3), which were determined from transmission electron microscopic images (Chapter 3), and an assumed value for the aspect ratio of a chloroplast. Within the microstructural model, a reaction-diffusion model was solved for CO₂. The model was used directly to estimate the parameters \(R_d\) and \(V_{cmax}\) for each scenario of (photo)respired CO₂ release. By estimating \(R_d\) with the model, the estimation method does not make the assumption
Localization of (photo)respiration

**Figure 4.3:** $\text{CO}_2$ partial pressure profile within half the computational domain at $C_i = 25 \text{ Pa}$ levels and saturating light ($I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The color bar displays partial pressures (Pa). (Photo)respired $\text{CO}_2$ is produced in either the inner cytosol (A), the outer cytosol (B), or the cytosol gaps (C).
that there is no re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂, which is made implicitly in simpler models to estimate $R_d$ (Kok, 1948, 1949; Laisk, 1977; Yin et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2011). Current models for mesophyll resistance models either made the implicit assumption that CO₂ release by (photo)respiration takes place in the stroma itself (Harley et al., 1992a; Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Pärnik and Keerberg; Yin et al., 2009), in the outer cytosol (Chapter 3) or that there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol (Tholen et al., 2012; Tholen et al., 2014). By estimating $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ with the 2-D model, the estimation method also avoids the assumption that respiration, photorespiration and RuBP carboxylation take place in the same compartment.

The model was validated by comparing the predicted $A_N$ with measurements for $A_N$ that were not used for estimation of $R_d$ and $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ or the determination of $T_p$ (Fig. 4.2). The model described the data well for both the light and the CO₂ response curves, if it is assumed that (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place in the inner cytosol. In the other two simulated cases for the location of (photo)respiration (outer cytosol and cytosol gap), the model tended to predict lower values for the net CO₂ assimilation rate for high light levels and/or low CO₂ levels than in the case of (photo)respiratory CO₂ release in the inner cytosol. The estimate of $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ for the scenario that assumes release of (photo)respired CO₂ in the cytosol gaps is higher than in the scenario that assumes release of (photo)respired CO₂ in the inner cytosol (Table 4.4). An explanation for the difference between both $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ estimates is that the model that assumes (photo)respired CO₂ release in the cytosol gaps attempts to compensate the shorter diffusion path for (photo)respired CO₂ with a more efficient RuBP carboxylation. The very high standard error in the scenario of the model that assumes (photo)respired CO₂ release in the outer cytosol suggests that $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ cannot be properly estimated by this scenario. An explanation is that the model cannot sufficiently compensate the short length of the diffusion path by increasing the efficiency of RuBP carboxylation by estimating a higher $V_{c_{\text{max}}}$ value. These results suggests that CO₂ release by (photo)respiration is more likely to take place in the inner cytosol or the cytosol gaps than in the outer cytosol.
After validation, the model was extended to allow simulating the transport, consumption and production of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ simultaneously. This approach allowed us to implement \textit{in silico} experiments to determine the percentage for re-assimilation of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration. Our results show that the re-assimilation percentage varied from 56\% to 75\%, on the scenario. The range of reported values for $f_{\text{rec}}$ in literature is large. Haupt-Herting \textit{et al.} (2001) determined that 23\%-29\% of the (photo)respired CO$_2$ is recycled. However, this percentage is likely underestimated, because they assumed in their calculations that the ratio of the concentrations $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ to $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ in the intercellular air space is the same as in the chloroplasts, which is very unlikely (Ho \textit{et al.}, 2016). Tholen \textit{et al.} (2012) used a resistance model to calculate that this percentage is between 25\% and 40\% in tobacco. However, they assumed that the CO$_2$ concentration is completely mixed throughout the cytosol. Results from our study clearly show that this is not the case (Fig. 4.3). Loreto \textit{et al.} (1999) found that 100\% of the (photo)respired CO$_2$ is re-assimilated in tomato and over 80\% is re-assimilated in a number of other species. Pärnik and Keerberg (2007) found re-assimilation percentages between 14\% and 18\% in sunflower and rye and between 42\% and 50\% in wheat. This summary shows that the range of possible values for $f_{\text{rec}}$ is considerable and that the use of different species, and methodologies and their assumptions affects the calculated or measured value of $f_{\text{rec}}$. In future research, this model can be used to determine $f_{\text{rec}}$ for different species without these assumptions.

An advantage of the 2-D model presented in this study is that it does not require to determine mesophyll resistances, because several factors that determine mesophyll resistance are explicitly modelled. However, the model requires a number of assumed values of diffusion coefficients and permeabilities of several mesophyll cell compartments. The permeability of both the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope was adopted from (Gutknecht \textit{et al.}, 1977). We assumed that this permeability lumps the permeability for CO$_2$ of aquaporins and the phospholipid bilayer in these membranes (Terashima \textit{et al.}, 2006). We also assumed that the permeability of the chloroplast envelope is twice as low as the plasma membrane.
Values for the effective porosity of the cell wall $p_{\text{eff,wall}}$ were adopted from Fanta et al. (2012) and effective diffusion coefficients from the stroma and cell wall from Ho et al. (2016). Since there are only a very few measurements of these assumed diffusive properties and permeabilities available (Evans et al., 2009), it can be argued that these uncertainties can result in large errors in the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. Nevertheless, validation of the model showed that the model predicted the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate reasonably well for both the case that (photo)respiration takes place in the inner cytosol and in the cytosol gap (Fig. 4.2). This suggests that even though each single assumed permeability or diffusion coefficient can be biased, the combination of these assumptions results in reasonable predictions of light and CO$_2$ response curves.

Compared with other recent reaction-diffusion models for CO$_2$ transport in leaves (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Watté et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2016), we made a number of simplifications in both the modelled leaf structure and in the processes. These simplifications are as follows. (i) The compartment in which (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is released is a compartment in which mitochondria and cytosol are lumped, rather than modelling individual mitochondria like (Tholen and Zhu, 2011) did. (ii) It is assumed that the resistance of the intercellular air space is negligible, rather than explicitly model the intercellular air space like (Ho et al., 2016). (iii) The leaf model is 2-D, instead of 3-D as was done by Ho et al. (2016) and Tholen and Zhu (2011) did. (iv) The leaf structure is reduced to simple geometrical shapes. (v) The light absorption gradient is not explicitly modelled like Watté et al. (2015) and Ho et al. (2016) did. (vi) The activity of carbonic anhydrases is lumped in the apparent diffusion coefficient of the stroma and the cytosol, rather than modelling its activity and HCO$_3^-$ transport explicitly. We have made these simplifications, because adding more complexity requires also additional assumed parameter values, that cannot easily be measured. Adding complexity will also make the model less flexible and more computational demanding, which makes the model cumbersome and unattractive to use. Nevertheless, any of these simplifications can potentially have a substantial impact on the predictions. We therefore checked how these simplifications may affect
the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate. We investigated simplification (1) in supplementary material 5 where we presented a modified version of the model in which we modelled individual mitochondria explicitly and compared the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate and $f_{rec}$ with the predictions of the default model. We saw that modelling loose mitochondria barely changes these predictions. The assumption of no CO₂ gradient in the intercellular air space (2) is reasonable for tomato leaves. The intercellular air space in tomato leaves are highly interconnected (Verboven et al., 2015). This high interconnectivity, combined with the fact that the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in air is about $10^4$ times as large as in water at room temperature (Nobel, 2009), makes it very unlikely that there is a CO₂ gradient in the intercellular air space in tomato leaves or any other homobaric leaf with highly interconnected air space. This was demonstrated by Aalto and Juurola (2002). They used a 3-D model to simulate CO₂ diffusion in both the intercellular air space and within mesophyll cells. There was only a stomatal pore modelled at the abaxial leaf surface. They found that the CO₂ concentration difference between the upper and lower boundary was less than 0.1%. In order to discuss the impact of modelling a 2-D leaf structure (3), instead of 3-D leaf structure, we will first discuss potential problems of a 2-D approach and then how we dealt with these issues. If a digitized transversal leaf image is used as a computational domain (Pachepsky et al., 1995; Ho et al., 2012), it is implicitly assumed that the length ratio of the exposed mesophyll surface area to the length of the section $L_m/L$, measured from leaf transversal sections, equals $S_m/S$. This assumption will result in the underestimation of the exposed mesophyll surface available for CO₂ uptake (Thain, 1983; Evans et al., 1994) and, thereby, the net CO₂ assimilation rate. In our model, we dealt with this issue by modelling the leaf as a rectangular geometry in two dimensions and assuming that each of the leaf anatomical parameters ($t_{wall}$, $t_{cyt}$, $t_{str}$, $q$, $S_c/S_m$, $S_m/S$) does not change in the direction of the third dimension. A consequence of this 2-D approach is that air spaces seem isolated if they are not in 3-D space. Another assumption of a 2-D reaction model from a previous study (Ho et al., 2012b) was that air spaces that seemed isolated in 2-D microscopic images from transversal leaf sections were also isolated in three dimensional space. This makes these the mesophyll surface exposed to these isolated
Chapter 4

air spaces unavailable for CO₂ uptake, which lower the net CO₂ assimilation rate even more. Ho et al. (2012b) solved these two limitations by estimating the diffusion coefficients for CO₂ in the epidermis and the cell wall from gas exchange measurement data. This resulted in diffusion coefficients for CO₂ that were about 100 times as large as water. Although applying these diffusion coefficients resulted in a reasonable fit of gas exchange measurements with simulated $A_N - C_i$ and $A_N - I_{inc}$ curves, their concentration profiles show that the cell wall and the interface between the epidermal cells and the mesophyll cells are a major diffusion pathways for CO₂, which is very unlikely. In the current 2-D model, the issue of isolated air spaces solved by assuming that the resistance for CO₂ transport in the intercellular air space is negligible and by implementing stomatal conductance in the boundary conditions of the outer border of the computational domain. In supplementary material 6, we checked whether our other assumptions, namely, the reduction of the leaf structure to simple geometrical shapes (4) and not explicitly modelling the light gradient (5) and carbonic anhydrase activity (6), affect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate. We did so by comparing simulated $A - C_a$ curves modelled by a complex 3-D model that does not have any of these simplifications (Ho et al., 2016) with $A - C_a$ curves modelled by the model from this study. The net CO₂ assimilation rates were about the same. All these analyses above show that the simplifications in our model, at least for tomato, do not affect the predictions of the net CO₂ assimilation rate.

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first attempt to directly assess how the localization of released CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration could affect both the net rate of CO₂ assimilation and re-assimilation. This is important, because previous resistance models (Harley et al., 1992a; Yin et al., 2009; Tholen et al., 2012; Tholen et al., 2014; Yin et al.), and the model described in Chapter 3, make implicit assumptions about the location of (photo)respiration or about the CO₂ gradients in the cytosol. A finding of our study is that it is unlikely that (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place in the outer cytosol and also that it is unlikely that there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol. Additionally, none of the aforementioned models allows to model CO₂ diffusion through the gaps between the chloroplasts, which can affect the predicted net
CO₂ assimilation rate and about the re-assimilation of CO₂. Since the parameter estimates in this study are directly estimated by the model, for each estimate it is clear what the assumed location of (photo)respiration is. As far as the authors know, the only attempt in which a reaction diffusion model is directly used to estimate FvCB parameters is described by Juurola et al. (2005). They estimated parameters for the FvCB model and parameters for the temperature response of these FvCB model parameters by both a 3-D model (Aalto and Juurola, 2002) and by a simple photosynthesis model (Aalto and Juurola, 2001). They found that the estimates can be quite different, because their 3-D model is capable of partitioning the temperature response of photosynthesis due to physical (solubility of CO₂ in the liquid phase, temperature response of the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in water) and biochemical (temperature dependency of kinetic constants of Rubisco) parameters. Our model also has the capability to distinguish how CO₂ transport is affected by biochemical processes and leaf structural barriers. Therefore it can be interesting to use the model in future research to re-examine the temperature response of various photosynthetic parameters. It would also be interesting to further validate the model for other tomato cultivars, species and environmental conditions and subsequently investigate how this affects the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ and the estimates of photosynthetic parameters. Finally, the results of the validation of the 2-D model in this study suggest that it is possible to simplify both the structures and the processes, while the model still is capable of predicting the net CO₂ assimilation well.

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Chapter 4

discrimination and re-assimilation, and Alejandro Morales Sierra MSc and Laurens Krah BSc for comments on an early version of the manuscript.
Appendix 4.1: Construction of the 2-D computational domain

The computational domain represents a section of a mesophyll cell that contains a single chloroplast surrounded by cytosol. It consists of an $l \times h$ rectangle $\Omega_0$ with boundaries $\Gamma_1$ (length $l$), $\Gamma_2$ (length $h$), $\Gamma_3$ (length $l$), and $\Gamma_4$ (length $h$). Boundary $\Gamma_2$ represents the tonoplast. Boundary $\Gamma_4$ represents the combined cell wall and plasma membrane (Fig. A4.1.1).

Ω₀ was subdivided into three rectangular subdomains $\Omega_1$, $\Omega_2$, and $\Omega_3$. The dimensions of $\Omega_1$, $\Omega_2$, and $\Omega_3$ are $t_{cyt} \times h$, $t_{str} \times h$ and $t_{cyt} \times h$ respectively, where $t_{cyt}$ represents...
Chapter 4

Figure A4.1.2: Schematic drawing of the computational domain, after compartmentation of $\Omega_0$ into inner cytosol compartment $\Omega_1$ and outer cytosol compartment $\Omega_3$, and a subdomain $\Omega_2$ between $\Omega_1$ and $\Omega_3$.

The thickness of the cytosol and $t_{\text{str}}$ represents the thickness of the stroma. Subdomain $\Omega_1$ represents the outer cytosol. Subdomain $\Omega_3$ represents the inner cytosol. Subdomain $\Omega_2$ lies between $\Omega_1$ and $\Omega_3$ (Fig. A4.1.2).

$\Omega_2$ was further subdivided into a rectangular stroma compartment $\Omega_4$ and two half rectangular cytosol gaps $\Omega_5$ and $\Omega_6$. The two $t_{\text{str}} \times \frac{1}{2} h_{\text{gap}}$ half cytosol gaps $\Omega_5$ and $\Omega_6$ are adjacent to $\Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_3$, respectively. The remaining part of $\Omega_2$ consists of the $t_{\text{str}} \times h_{\text{str}}$ stroma compartment $\Omega_4$. The boundaries of the stroma compartments form the chloroplast envelope. Supplementary Fig. A4.1.3 shows the final geometry of the computational domain.
Figure A4.1.3: Schematic drawing of the computational domain, after compartmentation of $\Omega_2$ into a stromal compartment $\Omega_4$ and two cytosol gaps $\Omega_5$ and $\Omega_6$. 
Appendix 4.2: Parameterization of the 2-D computational domain

Several studies use measurements of $t_{\text{cyt}}$ and $t_{\text{str}}$ to quantify the resistance of the cytosol and stroma, respectively. Some studies also describe the measurements of $S_{c}/S_{m}$, the ratio of the chloroplast surface area facing the intercellular air space to the mesophyll surface area facing the intercellular air space. This ratio is a measure to what extent the exposed mesophyll surface is covered with chloroplasts. The aim of this section is to design a flexible geometry that can be generated by different combinations of values for anatomical parameters $t_{\text{str}}$, $t_{\text{cyt}}$, and $S_{c}/S_{m}$. For this purpose, the length of a number of boundaries ($h$, $h_{\text{gap}}$, $h_{\text{str}}$) in Fig. A4.1.3 has to be written as a function of these parameters.

A4.2.1 Parameterization $h_{\text{str}}$

The height of the stroma compartment $h_{\text{str}}$ can be written as a function of $t_{\text{str}}$:

$$h_{\text{str}} = q t_{\text{str}} \quad (A4.2.1)$$

A4.2.2 Parameterization $h_{\text{gap}}$

In our model, it is assumed that the 2-D computational domain is a cross section of a 3-D rectangular cuboid. Therefore, the ratio of length of the chloroplast exposed to the intercellular air space to the length of the mesophyll exposed to the intercellular air space is:

$$\frac{h_{\text{str}}}{h} = \frac{q t_{\text{str}}}{h} = \frac{S_{c}}{S_{m}} \quad (A4.2.2)$$
which can be rewritten as:

\[ h = \left( \frac{S_c}{S_m} \right)^{-1} q t_{str} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.2.3)

From equations (A4.2.1) and (A4.2.2), the height of the gaps between two chloroplast can be expressed as:

\[ h_{gap} = h - h_{str} = \left( \left( \frac{S_c}{S_m} \right)^{-1} - 1 \right) q t_{str} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.2.4)

**A4.2.3 Parameterization \( l \)**

The distance \( l \) between the cell wall and the tonoplast of the computational domain can be expressed as:

\[ l = 2 t_{cyt} + t_{str} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.2.5)
Appendix 4.3: Parameterization of volume to volume and area to volume ratios

The process model contains several rate parameters and variables, expressed in mol m$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$. In this study, these parameters are called “volumetric rate parameters”. These volumetric rate parameters are the rates of CO$_2$ production by respiration in the light and photorespiration ($r_d$ and $r_p$), the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation ($v_{cmax}$), the Rubisco limited rate of RuBP carboxylation ($w$), the rate of electron transport ($j$), and the rate of triose phosphate utilization ($t_p$). These parameters can be calculated from the parameters $W$, $R_d$, $R_p$, $V_{cmax}$, $J$, and $T_p$. These parameters can be determined by combined gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements and are expressed in mol m$^{-2}$ leaf s$^{-1}$. In this study, the volumetric rate parameters need to be calculated from some of the rate parameters expressed in mol m$^{-2}$ leaf s$^{-1}$, and vice versa. For this purpose, the volumes of the compartments in the computational domains, in which each process takes place, need to be expressed mathematically.

4.3.1 Parameterization of area to volume fractions

Since it is assumed that the 2-D computational domain is a cross section of a rectangular cuboid, the total volume of chloroplasts is equal to $S_c t_{str}$. Here, $S_c$ is the total surface area of chloroplast exposed to the intercellular air space for a leaf area $S$. The ratio of the leaf area to the chloroplast volume could be expressed as:

$$\frac{S}{V_{str}} = \frac{S}{t_{str} S_c} = \frac{1}{t_{str}} \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{S_c}{S_m} \right)^{-1}$$ (A4.3.1)

Similarly, the volume of either the inner or the outer cytosol can be expressed as $S_m t_{cyt}$. Here, $S_m$ is the total surface area of mesophyll exposed to the intercellular air space for a leaf area $S$. The ratio of the leaf area to either the inner or the outer cytosol volume can be expressed as:
Table A4.3.1: Overview of volume to volume, area to volume, length to area fractions, and length to length ratios used for the sensitivity analysis for $t_{cyt,in}$ and $t_{cyt,out}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Mathematical expression</th>
<th>Meaning of ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$q$</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>$h_{str} / t_{str}$</td>
<td>Stroma height to stroma thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$1 / t_{str} (S_m / S)^{-1} (S_c / S_m)^{-1}$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_c$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$1 / t_{cyt,in} (S_m / S)^{-1}$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume inner cytosol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{cyt,in}$</td>
<td>m$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$1 / t_{cyt,out} (S_m / S)^{-1}$</td>
<td>Leaf area to total volume outer cytosol</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\frac{S}{V_{cyt,inner}} = \frac{S}{V_{cyt,outer}} = \frac{S}{t_{cyt} S_m} = \frac{1}{t_{cyt}} \left( \frac{S_m}{S} \right)^{-1}
\]

(A4.3.2)

Since the cytosol gaps are also rectangular cuboids, we can express the ratio of the leaf area to the cytosol gap as:

\[
\frac{S}{V_{gap}} = \frac{S}{t_{str} (S_m - S_c)} = \left( \frac{S_m - S_c}{S} \right)^{-1} = \left( t_{str} \left( \frac{S_m}{S} - \frac{S_c S_m}{S} \right) \right)^{-1}
\]

(A4.3.3)
Appendix 4.4 Sensitivity analysis of $f_{rec}$ and $A_N$ to $t_{cyt,in}$ and $t_{cyt,out}$

In the main text, it is assumed that $t_{cyt,in} = t_{cyt,out} = t_{cyt}$ and that the thickness of the cytosol compartments equals the ones measured from TEM images. Mitochondria compartments were not modelled explicitly, because this would increase the computational time considerably and because the dimensions of mitochondria are very uncertain. It was not possible to systematically measure the thickness from the TEM images from Chapter 3, because the mitochondria were often hard to distinguish from the cytosol or from other organelles. As far as the authors know, there have been no previous studies that systematically measured the dimensions of mitochondria in mesophyll cells. Some sample images from a number of studies (Busch et al., 2013; Gielwanowska et al., 2015; Moser et al., 2015) suggest that these dimensions can vary considerably. In some cases, the thickness reported is larger than the assumed cytosol thicknesses in this study. In this section, a sensitivity analysis will be done for $t_{cyt,in}$ and $t_{cyt,out}$ to assess how uncertainty in the thickness of the inner and the outer cytosol could affect the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate and the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$.

A4.4.1 Re-parameterization of the geometry

In order to conduct sensitivity analyses for $t_{cyt,in}$ and $t_{cyt,out}$ separately, it can no longer be assumed that $t_{cyt,in} = t_{cyt,out} = t_{cyt}$. This has implications for all parameterized ratios in Table 4.2 that depend on the cytosol thickness. First, $t_{cyt,inner}$ was substituted for $t_{cyt}$ in the mathematical term for the ratio $S/V_{cyt,inner}$. Second, substituted $t_{cyt,out}$ was substituted for $t_{cyt}$ in the term for the ratio $S/V_{cyt,out}$. Supplementary table S1 shows the updated mathematical terms for all volume to volume, length to volume and surface to volume ratios.
Localization of (photo)respiration

Figure A4.4.1: Simulated values of $f_{\text{rec}}$ (left) and the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate (right) for different cytosol thicknesses, under the condition of ambient CO$_2$ ($C_a = 40$ Pa) and O$_2$ ($O = 21$ kPa) and saturating light levels ($I_{\text{inc}} = 1500$ μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$). The solid lines represent simulations assuming that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is released in the inner cytosol. The dashed lines are simulations which assume (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release in the outer cytosol.

A4.4.2 Sensitivity analysis of $A_N$ and $f_{\text{rec}}$ to $t_{\text{cyt,in}}$ and $t_{\text{cyt,out}}$

For this analysis, the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate under ambient CO$_2$ and O$_2$ levels and saturating light levels was simulated for two scenarios. (Photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes either place in the inner or in the outer cytosol. During this analysis, the thickness (either $t_{\text{cyt,in}}$ or $t_{\text{cyt,out}}$) of the compartment in which (photo)respiration was assumed to take place was varied. Fig. A4.4.1A shows these simulated values of $A_N$. Additionally, a sensitivity analysis of $f_{\text{rec}}$ was done under ambient CO$_2$ ($C_a = 40$ Pa) and saturating light ($I_{\text{inc}} = 1500$ μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) by varying either $t_{\text{cyt,in}}$ or $t_{\text{cyt,out}}$. Fig. A4.4.1B shows the result of this analysis. $f_{\text{rec}}$ and $A_N$ hardly change with an increase in $t_{\text{cyt,in}}$. Additionally, $f_{\text{rec}}$ hardly changes with an increase in $t_{\text{cyt,out}}$. $f_{\text{rec}}$ does decrease with an increase in $t_{\text{cyt,out}}$, but the rate of decrease is relatively low.
Appendix 4.5: Modelling individual mitochondrial compartments

In the main text, loose mitochondria are not modelled explicitly. Instead, the cytosol compartment in which (photo)respiration takes place (inner cytosol, outer cytosol or gap) is lumped with the mitochondria. The volume, in which (photo)respiration takes place, is larger than in the case in which loose mitochondria would have been modelled within this compartment. The volumetric rates of (photo)respiration $r_d$ and $r_p$ may therefore be underestimated, which can lead to an overestimation of the re-assimilation fraction of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration. In this section, it is described how loose mitochondria can be added to the model to see to what extent distinguishing the cytosol and the mitochondria may affect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates and the fraction of re-assimilated (photo)respired CO$_2$.

4.5.1 Reconstruction 2-D computational domain

The 2-D computational domain was reconstructed as described in Supplementary texts 1 and 2 to obtain the geometry shown in Fig. A4.1.3. Two loose mitochondria were modelled as $\frac{1}{2} t_{cyt} \times \frac{1}{2} q_{cyt}$ rectangular subdomains $\Omega_7$ and $\Omega_8$. We placed the left bottom corner of $\Omega_7$ at different positions $(x_p, y_p)$ in either the inner or the outer cytosol. The left bottom corners of mitochondria $\Omega_7$ and $\Omega_8$ were placed at locations (See also Fig. A4.5.1):

A). $\Omega_7: (x_p, y_p) = \left(\frac{5}{4} t_{cyt} + t_{str}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap}\right)$

$\Omega_8: (x_p, y_p) = \left(\frac{5}{4} t_{cyt} + t_{str}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + h_{str} - \frac{1}{2} q_{cyt}\right)$

B). $\Omega_7: (x_p, y_p) = \left(\frac{1}{4} t_{cyt}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap}\right)$

$\Omega_8: (x_p, y_p) = \left(\frac{1}{4} t_{cyt}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + h_{str} - \frac{1}{2} q_{cyt}\right)$
Localization of (photo)respiration

C). \( \Omega_7: (x_p, y_p) = \left( \frac{5}{4} t_{cyt} + t_{str}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + \frac{1}{2} h_{str} - \frac{1}{2} q t_{cyt} \right) \).

\( \Omega_8: (x_p, y_p) = \left( \frac{5}{4} t_{cyt} + t_{str}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + \frac{1}{2} h_{str} \right) \)

D). \( \Omega_7: (x_p, y_p) = \left( \frac{1}{4} t_{cyt}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + \frac{1}{2} h_{str} - \frac{1}{2} q t_{cyt} \right) \)

\( \Omega_8: (x_p, y_p) = \left( \frac{1}{4} t_{cyt}, \frac{1}{2} h_{gap} + \frac{1}{2} h_{str} \right) \)

These letters A, B, C, D correspond to the letters in Fig. A4.5.1.

4.5.2 Re-parameterization

In the original model without loose chloroplasts, the volumetric respiration rate \( r_d \) was calculated by multiplying \( R_d \) by the ratio of the leaf area \( S \) to the volume to the compartment \( V_{resp} \), in which (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release is assumed to take place. It was also assumed that the mitochondria and the cytosol are a lumped compartment. The fraction of the leaf area to the total volume, in which (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release takes place, \( S/V_{resp} \), could equal \( S/V_{cyt, inner} \), \( S/V_{cyt, outer} \) or \( S/V_{cyt, gap} \). This depends on the assumed location of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release. Supplementary text 3 contains a derivation of a mathematical formulation of these terms expressed in leaf anatomical properties. For the simulations described in this supplementary material - respiration and (photo)respiration are now restricted to loose mitochondria - it is necessary to further multiply \( S/V_{resp} \) by the fraction of the \( S/V_{mit} \), which is the fraction of the leaf area to the volume of mitochondria. Since both the compartment in which (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release takes place and the mitochondria are modelled as rectangular cuboids and it is further assumed that the mitochondria structure does not change with the third dimension, we express \( V_{resp}/V_{mit} \) as:
where “Respiration default” is the volume in which (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place, in the default model in which the mitochondria are not explicitly modelled. In this analysis, two mitochondria are only placed in either the inner cytosol or the outer cytosol. These compartments have, aside from the analysis in Supplementary text 4, the same volume. Since \( \iiint_{\text{Respiration default}} dxdy = t_{\text{cyt}}(h_{\text{str}} + h_{\text{gap}}) \) and \( \iiint_{\text{Mitochondria}} dxdy \)⁻¹ = \( 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} t_{\text{cyt}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} q t_{\text{cyt}} \), we can express \( \frac{V_{\text{resp}}}{V_{\text{mit}}} \) as:

\[
\frac{V_{\text{resp}}}{V_{\text{mit}}} = \frac{t_{\text{cyt}}(h_{\text{str}} + h_{\text{gap}})}{\frac{1}{2} t_{\text{cyt}} q t_{\text{cyt}}}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.5.2)

Substitution of equation (A4.2.1) and (A4.2.4) for \( h_{\text{str}} \) and \( h_{\text{gap}} \) respectively in equation (A4.5.2), results in:

\[
\frac{V_{\text{resp}}}{V_{\text{mit}}} = \frac{t_{\text{cyt}} \left( \left( \frac{S_c}{S_m} \right)^{-1} - 1 \right) q t_{\text{str}} + q t_{\text{str}}}{\frac{1}{2} t_{\text{cyt}} q t_{\text{cyt}}}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.5.3)

which can be rearranged to:
\[
\frac{V_{\text{resp}}}{V_{\text{mit}}} = 2 \frac{t_{\text{str}}}{t_{\text{cyt}}} \left( \frac{S_{c}}{S_{m}} \right)^{-1}
\]

(A4.5.4)

**4.5.3 Results**

The model was used to calculate \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) under saturating light and and ambient CO\(_2\) and O\(_2\) concentrations for each of the simulated positions of the mitochondria mentioned in the section “Reconstruction computational domain”. Figs. A4.5.7A-D show the CO\(_2\) concentration profiles and the calculated values of \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) for different positions of loose mitochondria in the outer cytosol (Fig. A4.5.7A-B) and inner cytosol (Fig. A4.5.7C-D). Figs A4.5.7E and AS4.5.7F show the CO\(_2\) concentration profile in \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) for the default model, in which the mitochondria are lumped with either the outer (E) or the inner (F) cytosol compartment. \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) are about the same for the model that assumes (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release in the inner cytosol and the model that assumes that this CO\(_2\) release takes place in mitochondria located in the inner cytosol. \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) are also about the same for the model that assumes (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release in the outer cytosol and the model that assumes that this CO\(_2\) release takes place in mitochondria located in the outer cytosol. The results suggest that modelling loose mitochondria will not substantially change \( A_N \) or \( f_{\text{rec}} \) and can therefore be lumped with the cytosol compartment and the mitochondria.
\[ A_N = 21.4 \, \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]
\[ f_{\text{rec}} = 0.75 \]

\[ A_N = 19.1 \, \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]
\[ f_{\text{rec}} = 0.56 \]

\[ A_N = 21.5 \, \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]
\[ f_{\text{rec}} = 0.76 \]

\[ A_N = 19.0 \, \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]
\[ f_{\text{rec}} = 0.55 \]

Figure A4.5.1: CO₂ concentration profiles in case loose mitochondria are modelled explicitly (A-D) or if they are lumped with a cytosol compartment (E-F). It is either assumed that loose mitochondria are located in the inner cytosol (A,C) or in the outer cytosol (B,D) or that they are lumped with the inner cytosol (E) or with the outer cytosol (F). The loose mitochondria, if present, are either placed near the cytosol gap (A,C) or as far away as possible from the cytosol gap (B, D) Below each curve, the calculated values of \( A_N \) and \( f_{\text{rec}} \) are displayed.
Appendix 4.6: The impact of simplifications in the leaf geometry and transport processes on $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$

The model described in the main text of this manuscript makes various simplifications about both the leaf structure and the processes that take place in the leaf. These simplifications are:

1). It is assumed that (photo)respiration takes place in a cytosol compartment, rather than a loose mitochondrion in this compartment

2). It is assumed that the light absorption does not vary with the leaf depth.

3). It is assumed that there is full CO$_2$ transport facilitation by carbon anhydrase.

4). It is assumed that $q$, $S_m/S$, $S_c/S_m$, $t_{wall}$, $t_{cyt}$ and $t_{str}$ do not vary in the $z$-dimension.

In Supplementary text 5, it is already shown that modelling loose mitochondria in either the inner cytosol or outer cytosol hardly affects the values of $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$ predicted by the default model. This demonstrates that, in the case of tomato, simplification 1 is reasonable. The aim of the current supplementary text is to show that the remaining three limitations also will not affect $A_N$. This will be done by comparing the values of $A_N$ predicted by the model in this study with the values predicted by the model from Ho et al. (2016) that does not have simplifications 2,3, and 4.

A4.6.1 Summary description model from Ho et al. (2016)

The model described by Ho et al. (2016) describes CO$_2$ transport, production, and consumption in tomato leaves. The leaf geometry is a discretized 3-D tomography (Ho et al., 2016), which was obtained by X-ray synchrotron microscopy (Verboven et al., 2015). Next, the mesophyll cells from the obtained 3-D leaf geometry was compartmented into a chloroplast layer that is exposed to the intercellular air space, a
cytosol layer, and a vacuole. Finally, the chloroplast layer was subdivided into spherical chloroplasts and cytosol compartments in between. Additionally, the remaining compartments were subdivided into intercellular air space and the epidermis. Fig. A4.6.1A shows how the obtained microstructure looked like. Monte-Carlo ray tracing was applied to calculate the light absorption gradient within this geometry (Watté et al., 2015). Stomatal opening was modelled by making a cylindrical air hole in the epidermis that connects the intercellular air space with the ambient air. This air hole is the stomatal aperture. Over this discretized geometry, a system of partial differential equations for CO$_2$ transport and HCO$_3^-$ transport were solved. The equations that were used are listed below; the notation of symbols is adjusted in such a way that the notation is the same as the symbols used in the 2-D model from the current study:

\[ \nabla \cdot D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{gas}} \nabla [\text{CO}_2] = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.1)
Localization of (photo)respiration

\[ \nabla \cdot \rho_{\text{eff},i} D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{water}} \nabla [\text{CO}_2] - w_i + r_{p,i} + r_{d,i} - B = 0 \tag{A4.6.2} \]

\[ \nabla \cdot \rho_{\text{eff},i} D_{\text{HCO}_3,\text{water}} \nabla [\text{HCO}_3^-] + B = 0 \tag{A4.6.3} \]

where \( B \) is the conversion rate of \( \text{CO}_2 \) into \( \text{HCO}_3^- \). The subscript \( i \) indicates that the value depends on the compartment. \( D_{\text{CO}_2,\text{gas}} \) is the diffusion coefficient of \( \text{CO}_2 \) in the gas phase.

For the simulations with the 3-D model that are considered in this supplementary text, it is assumed that \( \text{CO}_2 \) transport is facilitated by carbon anhydrases in the cytosol and the stroma. In the presence of carbon anhydrases, \( B \) was represented as (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016):

\[
B = \frac{k_{\text{CA}}[\text{CA}]{\left[\text{CO}_2\right] - \left[\text{H}^+\right]\left[\text{HCO}_3^-\right]}}{K_{\text{CA,CO}_2} + K_{\text{CA,HCO}_3^-}\frac{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}{[\text{CO}_2]}} \tag{A4.6.4}
\]

where \( k_{\text{CA}}, K_{\text{eq}}, \) and \([\text{CA}]\) are the turnover rate, the equilibrium constant and the concentration of carbon anhydrases respectively. \( K_{\text{CA,CO}_2} \) and \( K_{\text{CA,HCO}_3^-} \) are the Michaelis-Menten constants of hydration and dehydration, respectively. Equation (A4.6.4) implicitly assumes that the further dehydration of \( \text{HCO}_3^- \) into \( \text{CO}_3^{2-} \) is negligible under the pH levels in leaves.

**A4.6.2 Quantification parameter values in the 2-D model and in the 3-D model**

The parameter values in equation (A4.6.1 - A4.6.4) can be found in the supplementary material of the study from Ho et al. (2016). For the simulations in the current study, the same parameter values were used for \( s, S_c, \overline{S}^*, R_d, V_{\text{cmax}}, \) and \( T_p \) as by (Ho et al., 2016). For the anatomical parameters, it was assumed that \( S_m/S = 16 \), \( t_{\text{str}} = 2.5 \mu m \), and \( t_{\text{cyt}} = 250 \) nm. The values \( t_{\text{wall}} = 200 \) nm and \( S_c/S_m = 0.90 \) were adopted from Ho et al. (2016). In the 3-D model by Ho et al. (2016), it is assumed that the radius of
the stomatal pore does not change with increased $C_a$. Unlike the 2-D model in the current study, the 3-D model does not use stomatal conductance as an implicit input value in the 3-D model. In order to use the same stomatal conductance as input for the 2-D model as for the model from Ho et al. (2016), first $C_i$ and $A_N$ were calculated for each value of $C_a$ from the solution of the 3-D model:

$$W = \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} w \, dx \, dy \, dz \right) S^{-1}$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.5)

$$R_p = \left( \iiint_{\text{Stroma}} \frac{w \gamma^*}{[CO_2]} \, dx \, dy \, dz \right) S^{-1}$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.6)

$$R_d = \left( \iiint_{\text{Cytosol}} r_d \, dx \, dy \, dz \right) S^{-1}$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.7)

$$C_i = RT \left( \iiint_{\text{Intercellular air space}} [CO_2] \, dx \, dy \, dz \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.8)

$$A_N = W - R_p - R_d$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.9)

$$g_s = \frac{A_N}{C_a - C_i}$$  \hspace{1cm} (A4.6.10)

Fig. A4.6B shows a CO$_2$ concentration profile in Admiro lower leaves for $C_a = 380 \ \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $O = 210 \ \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, and $I_{inc} = 1000 \ \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

**A4.6.3 Comparison of simple 2-D model to complex 3-D model**

For each combination of $C_a$ calculated values of $g_s$ (equations (A4.6.5-S6.10)) were used as input values for the 2-D model. Furthermore, the values of $J$, calculated by the 3-D model, were used as input for the 2-D model. The calculations are done for
Figure A4.6.2: Net CO₂ assimilation rate predicted by the 2-D model is plotted against the net CO₂ assimilation rate predicted by the 3-D model from Ho et al. (2016) for three leaf types. These are “Admio lower leaf” (A,D), “Doloress lower leaf” (B,E), “Growdena lower leaf” (C, F). Simulation with the 2-D model were run for two scenarios; (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place in the inner cytosol (A-C) or in the cytosol gaps (D-F). The solid line is the 1 to 1 line.
three of the six tomato leaf types examined by Ho et al. (2016). These leaf types are “Admiro lower leaf”, “Doloress lower leaf”, and “Growdena lower leaf”. Fig. A4.6.1 shows diagrams, in which the values of $A_N$ for each value of $C_a$ predicted by the 2-D model are plotted against $A_N$ values for the same $C_a$ predicted by the 3-D model. This shows that all values of $A_N$, with a possible exception of the highest values of $C_a$ ($C_a = 100$ Pa and $C_a = 150$ Pa) for Doloress lower leaf and Growdena lower leaf, are about the same for both the 2-D and the 3-D model.
CHAPTER 5

Quantitative analysis of the effects of environmental and physiological factors on the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂, using a reaction-diffusion model

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Abstract

Current methods to estimate the rates of respiration C₃ leaves do not consider the re-assimilation of respired CO₂. This may result in an underestimation of the rate of respiration in the light of \( R_d \). Additionally, determining the rate of RuBP carboxylation and photorespiration is even more complex due to their dependence on the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco \( C_c \). Although mesophyll conductance models can be used to calculate \( C_c \), they do not explain the various factors along the CO₂ diffusion pathway that determine \( C_c \). Reaction-diffusion models can be used to overcome these limitations. In this study, we demonstrate how such a model can be used to analyse gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence data on tomato and how such a model can be validated. We found that, under non-photorespiratory conditions (low O₂ and high CO₂), the re-assimilation at low light levels is very low and that the estimate of \( R_d \) is not affected by this process. We also found that \( R_d \) under photorespiratory conditions is substantially higher than under non-photorespiratory conditions, which suggests that \( R_d \) is oxygen dependent. Next, we investigate how the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated, is affected by physiological factors and environmental conditions. We found that stomatal conductance, the sink strength for CO₂ and the location of mitochondria could strongly affect this fraction. Further research should focus on measuring the diffusion coefficients of the various mesophyll components along the CO₂ diffusion pathway and on validating this model for other species as well.
5.1 Introduction

According to the widely used Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model (‘FvCB model’) (Farquhar et al., 1980), the net CO₂ assimilation rate $A_N$ can be calculated as the difference between the rates of CO₂ consumption for RuBP carboxylation $W$ and the net CO₂ production by respiratory processes. The rate of respiratory processes is the sum of the rate of photorespiration ($R_p$) and the rate of CO₂-release by processes other than photorespiration (the latter commonly denoted as respiration with rate $R_d$):

$$A_N = W - R_p - R_d$$

Both photorespiration and respiration can substantially reduce the net CO₂ uptake in C₃ plants. Yin and Struik (2015) estimated that at room temperature and under ambient O₂ and a CO₂ partial pressure $C_c$ near Rubisco of 25 Pa, the rate of photorespiration can be 35% of the rate of CO₂ consumption by RuBP carboxylation, thereby substantially reducing the efficiency of CO₂ assimilation. Although ratio of the amount of CO₂ that is produced by leaf respiration to the amount of CO₂ fixed at moderate irradiance is rather small (Nobel, 2009), this ratio can rapidly increase with decreased irradiance. Therefore, it is important to reliably determine $R_p$ and $R_d$.

$R_p$ can be calculated from the RuBP carboxylation rate as $R_p = \frac{r^*}{C_c} W$ (Long and Bernacchi, 2003). Here, $C_c$ is the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco and $r^*$ is the CO₂ compensation point; this is the CO₂ partial pressure at which the amount of CO₂ produced by photorespiration equals the amount of CO₂ consumed by RuBP carboxylation. In order to quantify $W$ and, thereby, $R_p$, parameters of the FvCB model have to be estimated. This requires an accurate value for $R_d$. There are various methods reported in literature to estimate $R_d$ in C₃ plants from gas exchange measurements (Kok, 1948, 1949; Laisk, 1977), sometimes combined with chlorophyll fluorescence measurements (Yin et al., 2009). The Laisk method requires several
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

$A_N - C_i$ curves ($C_i$ is the intercellular CO$_2$ partial pressure), measured at different irradiances ($I_{inc}$). The curves are typically obtained at low $C_i$ levels where the response of $A_N$ to $C_i$ is linear. The negative net CO$_2$ assimilation rate at the point at which the linear $A_N - C_i$ curves intersect is the rate of $R_d$ estimated by the Laisk method. The Kok method (Kok, 1948) exploits the fact that the response of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to irradiance is approximately linear at low irradiances. $R_d$ is calculated as the intercept of this linear relationship. The Yin et al. (2009) method also exploits this linear relationship. It requires $A_N - I_{inc}$ curves measured at low irradiance, combined with simultaneously measured chlorophyll fluorescence to assess the quantum yield of Photosystem II ($\Phi_2$). $R_d$ is estimated as the intercept of the relationship between $A_N$ and $\frac{1}{4} \Phi_2 I_{inc}$. In contrast to the Kok method, which assumes that $\Phi_2$ is invariant with changing $I_{inc}$, the Yin et al. method accommodates for the commonly observed fact that $\Phi_2$ decreases with increasing $I_{inc}$ even within the limiting irradiance range (Yin et al., 2014). Because of such a difference, the value of $R_d$ estimated by the Yin et al. method is somewhat higher than that estimated by the Kok method (Yin et al., 2011). Each of the methods mentioned above has limitations, as described by Yin et al. (2011). Additionally, each of these methods implicitly assumes that all CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration escapes into the atmosphere. Since this recycling of CO$_2$ is not accounted for in most methods to determine $R_d$, the true $R_d$ is possibly underestimated. This also implies that $W$ and $R_p$ may also be incorrectly calculated, if underestimated values for $R_d$ are used to estimate other photosynthetic parameters from $A_N - C_i$ and/or $A_N - I_{inc}$ curves. In fact, there is both experimental (Loreto et al., 1999; Haupt-Herting et al., 2001; Pärnik and Keerberg, 2007; Busch et al., 2013) and theoretical (Tholen et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2016) evidence that a substantial fraction of the CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration is used for RuBP carboxylation in the chloroplasts, before it can escape to the atmosphere. According to the resistance model of Tholen et al. (2012), the fraction of re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$ depends on the CO$_2$ sink and source strengths in mesophyll cells. Since these source and sink strengths also depend on the CO$_2$ concentration and the irradiance, the re-assimilation is also affected by the
environment. In this study, we will investigate to what extent re-assimilation depends on these sources and sink strengths and to what extent the re-assimilation is affected by environmental circumstances.

Besides re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2}, determining the actual rates of RuBP carboxylation and photorespiration is even more complicated due to the fact that they both depend on $C_c$. $C_c$ can be calculated as (Harley \textit{et al.}, 1992):

$$C_c = C_i - \frac{A_N}{g_m}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.2)

where $g_m$ is the mesophyll conductance. This parameter is apparent, because it lumps various factors that affect CO\textsubscript{2} transport from the intercellular air spaces to Rubisco. $g_m$ can be estimated from gas exchange measurements (Harley \textit{et al.}, 1992; Ethier and Livingston, 2004), gas exchange measurements combined with chlorophyll fluorescence (Yin and Struik, 2009) or by gas exchange measurements combined with isotope discrimination methods (Farquhar \textit{et al.}, 1982; Evans \textit{et al.}, 1986; Farquhar and Cernusak, 2012; Evans and Von Caemmerer, 2013). Most of these methods consider that the mesophyll conductance does not change with an increase in CO\textsubscript{2} concentration or irradiance. However, it has been shown that $g_m$ varies considerably with CO\textsubscript{2} concentration and irradiance (Flexas \textit{et al.}, 2007). Yin \textit{et al.} (2009) and Gu \textit{et al.} (2012) tried to deal with this by calculating $g_m$ with a phenomenological Leuning-type model (Leuning, 1995), which allows $g_m$ to change with $C_i$ and with $I_{inc}$. Although this can be an effective method to estimate photosynthetic parameters, it does not explain why $g_m$ varies with $C_i$. According to Tholen \textit{et al.} (2012), the variability of $g_m$ with $C_i$ can be at least partially explained by the fact that (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} is released in the cytosol, interfering with the CO\textsubscript{2} diffusion pathway from ambient air into the chloroplast. Tholen \textit{et al.} (2012) developed a framework in which the diffusion of CO\textsubscript{2} along the diffusion pathway is described by a resistance model that consists of two serial conductances. One of them is the
combined conductance of the cell wall and the plasma membrane, and the other is the combined conductance of the chloroplast envelope and the stroma. Between these two serial resistances, CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration is released in the cytosol by mitochondria. CO₂ produced by mitochondria shares the diffusion pathway of CO₂ from the cytosol to Rubisco. Unfortunately, this type of model either assumes that there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol (Tholen et al., 2014) or that the mitochondria are located in a cytosol layer between the cell wall and the chloroplasts (Chapter 4). In Chapter 4, we explained that the first assumption is very unlikely. We also showed that assuming that (photo)respiration takes place in the outer cytosol potentially leads to an underestimation of the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate.

The CO₂ diffusion pathway in the mesophyll is complicated, due to processes that add or remove CO₂ from the diffusion path, due to various structural barriers for CO₂ transport and due to the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂, which can be affected by the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts. Resistance models cannot fully capture this complexity. Therefore, we consider it necessary to use reaction-diffusion models to study how the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere, the irradiance, leaf structural properties, diffusion and biochemical processes affect the efficiency of photosynthesis. Various reaction-diffusion models have been published to study the complex CO₂ diffusion pathway in mesophyll cells (Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto and Juurola, 2002; Juurola et al., 2005; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016). These models are potentially useful to answer questions that cannot be tackled by resistance models. However, they mostly use photosynthetic parameter values as input values that were previously estimated based on more simple models that implicitly assume that re-assimilation of CO₂ released from respiration does not take place (Laisk, 1977; Yin et al., 2009), or that all CO₂ from (photo)respiration is released in the cytosol region between the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope (Chapter 3) and/or that mesophyll conductance is simply infinite (Aalto and Juurola, 2001). Only Juurola et al. (2005) used their 3-D model directly to estimate the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation $V_{cmax}$ and the maximum rate of electron transport $J_{max}$. One reason why reaction-diffusion models are seldom used to estimate
photosynthetic parameters is that these models can be demanding in computational time. In Chapter 3, we described the development and validation a 2-D CO₂ reaction-diffusion model that reduces the computational time considerably, but is still capable of describing how CO₂ consumption, production, re-assimilation and diffusion along the diffusion path affect the photosynthetic capacity. The reduced computational time makes it considerably more feasible to use this model for operations that require a large number of simulations, like optimization and parameter estimation. In this study, we will further explore the usefulness of this simple reaction-diffusion model in analysing re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂. First, we will assess whether the reaction-diffusion model indeed will produce higher estimates of $R_d$ than the Kok and the Yin et al. methods. Next, we try to use the model to answer the following questions:

- How do physiological processes affect the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂?
- How do atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, O₂ and irradiances affect the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ and the apparent mesophyll conductance?
- What is the most likely position of (photo)respired CO₂, and how does this position affect the apparent mesophyll conductance?

5.2 Material and methods

5.2.1 Plant material and experimental data

We used data sets from two experiments, both consisting of simultaneous measurements of gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence, with details given by Ho et al. (2016) and in Chapter 4, respectively. In brief, for the first experiment, measurements were conducted on leaves from three different tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) cultivars, Admiro, Dolores and Growdena (Ho et al., 2016). For each cultivar, two types of leaflets were used for measurements. The first was the distal leaflet of the uppermost fully expanded leaf, which we will refer to as “upper leaf”. The second one was the most distal leaflet from a leaf four layer below the upper leaf, which we will refer to as “lower leaf”. For each leaflet, the gas exchange
measurements consisted of a CO₂ response curve measured at saturating light \( (I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \, \text{µmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}) \) in combination of either an ambient oxygen level \( (O = 21 \, \text{kPa}) \) or a low oxygen level \( (O = 2 \, \text{kPa}) \) and light response curves measured under photorespiratory \( (C_a = 38 \, \text{Pa}, \ O = 21 \, \text{kPa}) \) and non-photorespiratory conditions \( (C_a = 100 \, \text{Pa}, \ O = 2 \, \text{kPa}) \). In the second data set (Chapter 3), measurements were taken from the distal leaflet from 15-day and 25-day old leaves, using the same cultivars as in the experiment described by Ho et al. (2016). The measurements consisted again of CO₂ response curves at ambient \( (O = 21 \, \text{kPa}) \) and low \( (O = 2 \, \text{kPa}) \) oxygen levels under saturating light \( (I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \, \text{µmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}) \) and light response curves measured under photorespiratory \( (C_a = 40 \, \text{Pa}, \ O = 21 \, \text{kPa}) \) and non-photorespiratory conditions \( (C_a = 100 \, \text{Pa}, \ O = 2 \, \text{kPa}) \). Additionally, after measuring gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence, the leaflets were harvested and transversal sections were prepared for light microscopy (LM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). From the light microscopy images, \( S_m/S \) (surface area ratio of the mesophyll surface exposed to the intercellular air spaces to the leaf surface) was determined. From the TEM images, cell wall thickness \( (t_{\text{wall}}) \), cytosol thickness \( (t_{\text{cyt}}) \), stroma thickness \( (t_{\text{str}}) \) and the surface area ratio of the chloroplast surface exposed to the intercellular air spaces to the total exposed mesophyll surface \( (S_c/S_m) \) were determined.

### 5.2.2 Mesophyll microstructural model and CO₂ reaction-diffusion model

We used the anatomical properties measured from the TEM images to parameterize a 2-D model for the leaf microstructure. More details on the reconstruction of the leaf geometry can be found in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4. We meshed the geometry for CO₂ transport and solved a reaction-diffusion model that includes \( W \) in a stroma compartment as a sink term for CO₂ and \( R_d + R_p \) as a source term. We assumed that release of CO₂ by (photo)respiration takes place either in the inner cytosol (region between inner chloroplast envelope and tonoplast), or in the outer cytosol (region between the outer chloroplast envelope and the plasma membrane), or in the cytosol gaps. From the steady state solution and the measurements from TEM and LM, we
calculated $W$, $R_d$, and $R_p$ and applied equation (5.1) to calculate $A_N$. The model was implemented in the finite element software COMSOL Multiphysics 5.1 (COMSOL AB, Stockholm). More details on the reaction-diffusion model and its upscaling are explained in Chapter 4. In that study, we also demonstrated how the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated, $f_{rec}$, can be calculated by solving a system of reaction-diffusion equations over the computational domain.

5.2.3 Determining $s$ and $J$

For each leaf type, the lumped calibration factor $s$ was determined according to the method described by Yin et al. (2009). This parameter can be defined as the slope of the relationship between $A_N$ and $\frac{1}{4}I_{inc}\Phi_2$, where $\Phi_2$ is the quantum yield of Photosystem II. Subsequently, for each measurement the rate of electron transport $J$ was calculated as $J = sI_{inc}\Phi_2$, where $I_{inc}$ is the irradiance ($\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) and $\Phi_2$ is the quantum yield of Photosystem II.

5.2.4 Parameterization and validation of the 2-D reaction diffusion model

The reaction-diffusion model was used to estimate $R_d$ for each leaf type in both data sets by minimizing the squared difference between the measured and the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rate, using the data from the light response curves under either photorespiratory or non-photorespiratory conditions. We only used the data for which the irradiance was 150 $\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ or lower. We estimated $R_d$ for each scenario for the location of the release of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration. The values estimated by the reaction diffusion model will be compared with the values of $R_d$ estimated by two more classical methods; the Yin et al. method and the Kok method. $T_p$ was determined as $(A_p + R_d)/3$, where $A_p$ is the observed value at the highest $C_a$ of the CO$_2$ response curve measured under photorespiratory conditions (Chapter 4). The reaction-diffusion model was also used to estimate $V_{cmax}$ by minimizing the squared difference between the predicted and the measured net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. We estimated $V_{cmax}$ for each scenario for the location of the release of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration. For this analysis, only data from the CO$_2$ response curve
measured for $O = 21$ kPa and $C_a < 20$ Pa were used. We validated the model for each leaf type by predicting the net CO2 assimilation rate for each combination of $I_{inc}$, $C_a$, and $O$ in the measurements, which we did not use to estimate $R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$ or determine $T_p$.

5.2.5 Response of $g_m$ to $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$

We used the reaction-diffusion model to calculate the apparent mesophyll conductance $g_m$ for each leaf type and each scenario. In order to do so, we first used the model to calculate $A_N$ as described in Chapter 4. Next, we determined $C_i$ and $C_c$:

$$C_i = C_a - \frac{A_N}{g_s} \tag{5.3}$$

$$C_c = H \left( \iint_{Stroma} [CO_2] \, dxdy \right) \left( \iint_{Stroma} dx \, dy \right)^{-1} \tag{5.4}$$

where $g_s$ is stomatal conductance, and $H$ is Henry’s law constant for CO2. Finally we re-arranged equation (5.2) to express $g_m$ and use the values of $C_i$ and $C_c$, determined by equations (5.3) and (5.4), to calculate $g_m$.

5.2.6 Response of $f_{rec}$ to $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$

We calculated the fraction of CO2 produced by respiration and photorespiration that is re-assimilated, $f_{rec}$, for various levels of $C_a$, $O$ and $I_{inc}$. In Chapter 4, we described how this fraction can be calculated by the reaction-diffusion model.

5.2.7 Sensitivity of $f_{rec}$ and $A_N$ to leaf physiological parameters

We calculated $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$ for a range of values of stomatal conductance $g_s$, $R_d$, the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation $V_{cmax}$, and the rate of electron transport to investigate how these parameters affect $f_{rec}$ and $A_N$ under ambient CO2 levels and irradiance.
5.2.8 Model selection

As stated, we assumed three scenarios for the position of releasing CO₂ by (photo)respiration (i.e., CO₂ released in inner cytosol, outer cytosol, or cytosol gaps). In order to identify the most likely scenario, we calculated the Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1974) for each combination of measured and simulated response curves and for each scenario. In order to do so, we first minimized the negative log likelihood $L$ for the standard deviation $\sigma$ for each curve type (light response under non-photorespiratory conditions, light response curve under photorespiratory conditions and CO₂ response curve at $O = 21$ kPa, $O = 2$ kPa) and cultivar separately:

\[
L_{\text{min}} = \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi) + \frac{N}{2} \log(\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (A_{N,i} - \overline{A_{N,i}})^2
\]

\[
AIC = 2L_{\text{min}} + 2k
\]

where $L_{\text{norm}}$ is the negative log likelihood assuming normally distributed residuals. $k$ is the number of estimated parameters in the maximum negative likelihood function. Since we optimized only for $\sigma$ to obtain the maximum negative log likelihood, $k = 1$. $A_{N,i}$ is the measured net CO₂ assimilation rate $i$ for a certain curve type for a certain cultivar and $\overline{A_{N,i}}$ and the modelled net CO₂ assimilation rate under the same circumstances. $N$ is the total number of measurements for this curve type for this cultivar. For each scenario, curve type and cultivar, we calculated $\Delta$AIC as:

\[
\Delta AIC_i = AIC_i - AIC_{\text{min}}
\]
where $\text{AIC}_{\text{min}}$ is the lowest AIC value among different scenarios. The model, for which $\Delta \text{AIC} = 0$, is considered the best model. According to Burnham and Anderson (2004), $\Delta \text{AIC}$ represents the information loss if an alternative model is fitted to the data, rather than the best model. They stated that the alternative model has “substantial support” if $\Delta \text{AIC} \leq 2$. We adopt this interpretation of $\Delta \text{AIC}$ in our study.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Estimation of $R_d$

We used the reaction-diffusion model to estimate $R_d$ from the dataset described in Chapter 3 and from leaves from the experiment described by Ho et al. (2016). Additionally, we estimated $R_d$ by the Yin et al. and the Kok method for these leaves. For each method, we estimated separate $R_d$ for photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions. In all but one case (“Admiro upper leaf”, Table 5.2), the $R_d$ values estimated by the reaction-diffusion model under photorespiratory conditions were higher than the $R_d$ values under non-photorespiratory conditions. The values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction-diffusion model did not differ for different assumed positions of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release. In all instances, the values of $R_d$ estimated by the Yin et al. method were higher than the $R_d$ values estimated by the Kok method. In all cases, the values of $R_d$ estimated by the Yin et al. method under non-photorespiratory conditions were close to the values estimated by the reaction-diffusion model. Under photorespiratory conditions, this was not always the case. The $R_d$ values estimated by the reaction-diffusion model were sometimes more than 0.5 μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ higher (15-day old Doloress leaves, Table 5.1) than the $R_d$ values estimated by the Yin et al. method.

5.3.2 Determination of $T_p$

There were almost no differences between the estimates of $T_p$ for the same leaf types and different locations of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release (Table 5.3). This is not
Table 5.1: Estimates of the lumped calibration factor $s$ and $R_d$, either estimated by the Kok (1948) method, the Yin et al. (2009) method or by the reaction diffusion model for three locations of (photo)respiration. Data from Chapter 3 of this dissertation for three cultivars and two leaf ages were used for estimation. Estimates were made both for photorespiratory (PR, i.e., $C_a = 40 \text{ Pa, } O = 21 \text{ kPa}$) and non-photorespiratory (NPR, i.e., $C_a = 100 \text{ Pa, } O = 2 \text{ kPa}$) conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf age (days)</th>
<th>$s$</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>$R_d$ ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>Kok: 2.94, Yin: 3.17, Reaction-diffusion model: Inner: 3.44±0.36, Outer: 3.36±0.36, Gap: 3.41±0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>1.72, 2.14, 2.04±0.61, 2.04±0.61, 2.04±0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>2.54, 2.76, 3.43±0.36, 3.36±0.36, 3.41±0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>1.26, 1.67, 1.74±0.27, 1.74±0.27, 1.74±0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>2.86, 3.05, 3.67±0.32, 3.50±0.33, 3.65±0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>1.91, 2.31, 2.24±0.33, 2.24±0.33, 2.24±0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>3.45, 3.66, 3.51±0.31, 3.46±0.33, 3.50±0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>0.78, 1.11, 1.01±0.10, 1.01±0.10, 1.00±0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Inner: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction-diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the inner cytosol.
2 Outer: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction-diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the outer cytosol.
3 Gaps: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction-diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the cytosol gaps between chloroplasts.
4 Estimated value of $R_d \pm$ standard deviation.

It is surprising, since there were also almost no differences between the estimates of $R_d$ for the same leaf type and different locations of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release.

5.3.3 Estimation of $V_{cmax}$

The estimate of $V_{cmax}$ for each leaf type was lower if it was assumed that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes place in the inner cytosol than if it was assumed that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes place in the cytosol gaps. In case (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes place in the outer cytosol, the estimate of $V_{cmax}$ was always of the same order of magnitude as its standard error. Sometimes this standard error was larger than the estimate itself.
Table 5.2: Estimates of the lumped calibration factor $s$ and $R_d$, either determined by the Kok (1948) method, the Yin et al. (2009) method or by the reaction-diffusion model. Data from Ho et al. (2016) were used for estimation. Estimates were done under both photorespiratory (PR, i.e., $C_a = 38 \text{ Pa}$, $O = 21 \text{ kPa}$) and non-photorespiratory (NPR, i.e., $C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}$, $O = 2 \text{ kPa}$) conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf type s</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>$R_d$ (μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>Reaction-diffusion model</th>
<th>Gaps$^3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kok</td>
<td>Yin</td>
<td>Inner$^1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>Upper 0.52</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>2.04±0.28</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower 0.41</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.99±0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.54±0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>PR</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.62±0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>Upper 0.49</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>2.10±0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower 0.46</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.96±0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.44±0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growdena</td>
<td>Upper 0.50</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>2.22±0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower 0.46</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>2.19±0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NPR</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.33±0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Inner: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction-diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the inner cytosol.
2. Outer: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the outer cytosol.
3. Gaps: This column contains the values of $R_d$ estimated by the reaction diffusion model for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the cytosol gaps between chloroplasts.
4. Estimated value of $R_d$ ± standard deviation.

Table 5.3: Values for $T_p$ and $V_{cmax}$ estimates for different scenarios of the location of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf type</th>
<th>$T_p$ (μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$V_{cmax}$ (μmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3</td>
<td>Admiro</td>
<td>15 days old</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>11.61</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25 days old</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>11.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doloress</td>
<td>15 days old</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td>10.61</td>
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<td>Ho et al.</td>
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1. Inner: This column contains the estimates for $T_p$ and $V_{cmax}$ for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the inner cytosol.
2. Outer: This column contains the estimates for $T_p$ and $V_{cmax}$ for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration in the outer cytosol.
3. Gaps: This column contains the estimates for $T_p$ and $V_{cmax}$ for the scenario that assumed release of CO$_2$ from (photo)respiration the cytosol gaps between chloroplasts.
4. Estimated value of $V_{cmax}$ ± standard deviation.
Chapter 5

5.3.4 Further validation

As stated earlier, we only used a part of the data for model parameter estimation, i.e., data from CO₂ curves for $C_a \leq 20$ Pa under photorespiratory conditions to estimate $V_{cmax}$, data from light response curves for $I_{inc} \leq 150$ µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ under both photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions to estimate $R_d$, and data measured under photorespiratory conditions at the highest value of $C_a$ to determine $T_p$.

After calibration, we used the reaction-diffusion model to predict the net CO₂ assimilation rate for the remaining combinations of $I_{inc}$, $C_a$, and $O$ that were used in the measurements. The solid curves in Figs 5.1 and 5.2 show these predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates for 15-day old Admiro leaves. Figs A5.1.1-A5.1.22 in the Appendix show the comparison between the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates and the measured ones for the remaining leaves considered in this study.

The predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate generally agreed well with measured net CO₂ assimilation rates for all curve types, if it was assumed that the release of (photo)respired CO₂ takes place in the inner cytosol. There were barely differences between the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates for different assumed locations of (photo)respired CO₂ release for the light response curve measured under non-photorespiratory conditions. For the CO₂ response curves under both normal and low oxygen levels, and for the light response curves at low normal oxygen levels, the net CO₂ assimilation rate was higher if (photo)respired CO₂ was released in the inner cytosol than if it was assumed that (photo)respired CO₂ is released in the cytosol gaps. Further, the net CO₂ assimilation rate was smaller if (photo)respired CO₂ was assumed to take place in the outer cytosol than if it is assumed that it takes place in the cytosol gaps. In case of $T_p$ limitation, the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate was the same for each scenario for the location of (photo)respired CO₂ release. The patterns described above can be found for each leaf type considered in this study (Figs A5.1.1-A5.1.22).

There is one exception. For all scenarios, the model structurally underestimated the net CO₂ assimilation rate of 25-day old Dolores leaves in the CO₂ response curves. In Chapter 3, we explained that this underestimation probably stems from a possible underestimation of $J$ due to errors in the calibration.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1} \]

**Figure 5.1:** Measured (dots) and simulated (solid lines and dashed lines) CO\(_2\) response curves for 15-day-old Admiro leaves. (Photo)respiration is assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light \((I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1})\) and either an ambient O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 21 \text{kPa})\) or a low O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 2 \text{kPa})\). The error bar represents one standard error.

that was derived from measurements at 2 % O\(_2\) on the quantum yield of photosystem II and the net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate at low light levels.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{ Pa} \quad \text{or} \quad O = 2 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

Figure 5.2: Measured (dots) and simulated (solid lines and dashed lines) light response curves for 15-day-old Admiro leaves. (Photo)respiration is assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory \( (C_a = 40 \text{ Pa}, O = 21 \text{ kPa}) \) or non-photorespiratory conditions \( (C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, O = 2 \text{ kPa}) \). The errors bars represent one standard error.

5.3.5 Analysis of sensitivity of \( A_N \) and \( f_{rec} \) to physiological parameters

We simulated how the net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate and \( f_{rec} \) respond to changes in stomatal conductance \( g_s \) (Fig. 5.3A-B), the normal rate of respiration \( R_d \) (Fig. 5.3C-D), the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation \( V_{max} \) (Fig. 5.4A-B), the rate of electron transport \( J \) (Fig. 5.4C-D) and the rate of triose phosphate utilization \( T_p \) (Fig. 5.4E-F)
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

**Figure 5.3:** Response of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate and the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated to increasing stomatal conductance (A-B) or rate of respiration (C-D) under ambient O$_2$ levels ($O = 21$ kPa) and CO$_2$ levels ($C_a = 40$ Pa), and saturating light ($I_{inc} = 1500$ µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves. The release of CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration is either assumed to take place in the inner cytosol (solid line), the outer cytosol (dotted line) or the cytosol gaps (dashed line).

Under ambient CO$_2$ and O$_2$ levels, and saturating light. For each scenario, $A_N$ increased with increasing $g_s$. The rate of this increase declined with increasing $g_s$. $f_{rec}$ decreased with increasing $g_s$. The rate of this decrease declined with increasing $g_s$. Both $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$ decreased with increasing $R_d$. Although $R_d$ was varied between 0 and 5 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate decreased considerably less than 5 µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ over this interval of $R_d$. This can be explained by the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$. We also simulated how the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate and $f_{rec}$ responded to changes in $V_{cmax}$, $J$, and $T_p$. For each of these parameters, both $f_{rec}$ and $A_N$ increased with
Figure 5.4: Response of the net CO₂ assimilation rate and the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated to maximum rates of RuBP carboxylation (A-B), increasing rates of electron transport (C-D) or rates of triose phosphate utilization under ambient O₂ levels (\(O = 21\) kPa) and CO₂ levels (\(C_a = 40\) Pa), and saturating light (\(I_{inc} = 1500\) µmol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)) in 15-day-old Admio leaves. The release of CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration is either assumed to take place in the inner cytosol (solid line), the outer cytosol (dotted line) or the cytosol gaps (dotted line).

increasing these parameters. For each of them, the rate of decrease was decreasing and both \(A_N\) and \(f_{rec}\) approached an equilibrium value.
5.3.6 Response of $f_{rec}$ to $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$

We used the reaction-diffusion model to calculate $f_{rec}$ for each measured combination of $C_a$, $g_s$, $I_{inc}$, and $O$ measured in the CO$_2$- as well as light-response curves. Fig. 5.5 shows the response curve of $f_{rec}$ to $C_a$ if $O = 21$ kPa (A) and if $O = 2$ kPa (B) and saturating light. The relationship was sigmoidal under both oxygen levels. At low levels of $C_a$, $f_{rec}$ did not change much with increased $C_a$. At intermediate $C_a$ levels, $f_{rec}$ decreased with an increase in $C_a$. At the highest $C_a$ levels in these curves, the rate of decrease decreased and $f_{rec}$ levelled off with an increase in $C_a$. $f_{rec}$ was always higher if (photo)respired CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol and if it took place in the outer cytosol for the same scenario and leaf type. If it took place in the cytosol gap, $f_{rec}$ was between the $f_{rec}$ values of the other two scenarios. However, it was closer to the $f_{rec}$ value for the scenario that assumed (photo)respired CO$_2$ release in the inner cytosol. The differences in $f_{rec}$ between the different scenarios decreased with an increase in $C_a$. The patterns described above can be seen in all other leaf types as well, although it was not always very clear that the $f_{rec}$ levelled off at high $C_a$ values, which may be explained by the fact that this levelling off took place at high $C_a$ values that were outside the range of $C_a$ used for the measurements. It should be noted that, although $f_{rec}$ was higher under photorespiratory conditions than under non-photorespiratory conditions for the same scenario and leaf type, at high levels of $C_a$ $f_{rec}$ tended to approach the same value for both conditions.

Fig. 5.6 shows the response curve of $f_{rec}$ to $I_{inc}$. The supplementary materials contain this relationship for the other leaf types. $f_{rec}$ was always larger when (photo)respired CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol and if it took place in the outer cytosol for the same light level. If it took place in the cytosol gap, $f_{rec}$ was between the $f_{rec}$ values of the other two scenarios. $f_{rec}$ was increasing with increasing $I_{inc}$ for any scenario. The rate of increase decreased with $I_{inc}$ under both photorespiratory conditions and non-photorespiratory conditions. The same trend was observed in all other leaf types in the data set from Chapter 3 as well. However, in the Ho et al. (2016) data set, $f_{rec}$ slightly decreased with an increase in $I_{inc}$ for high light levels.
Chapter 5

Figure 5.5: Response of the simulated apparent fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated ($f_{rec}$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) and saturating light ($I_{inc} = 1500$ µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) levels (B) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set described in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure 5.6: Response of the simulated apparent fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated ($f_{rec}$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set described in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

5.3.7 Response of $g_m$ to $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$

We used the model to calculate $C_c$, $C_i$ and $A_N$ and subsequently calculated $g_m$ according to equation (5.2). Fig. 5.7 shows how $g_m$ responded to $C_a$ in 15-days old Admiro leaves. The supplementary materials contain this relationship for the other leaf types. The relationship between $C_a$ and $g_m$ shows the same trend for ambient O$_2$. 

164
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure 5.7: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) and saturating light ($I_{inc} = 1500$ µmol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set described in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure 5.8: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in 15-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set described in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ is assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

levels and low O$_2$ levels in all leaf types. If (photo)respired CO$_2$ release took place in the outer cytosol or in the cytosol gap, $g_m$ increased with $C_i$. If (photo)respired CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol, $g_m$ decreased with $C_a$. $g_m$ was always larger if (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol than in the cytosol gaps. $g_m$ was also always larger if (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the cytosol gaps than in the outer cytosol. For each scenario, $g_m$ tended to approach an equilibrium value. This equilibrium value was about the same for each scenario. It
should also be noted that, for the same leaf type, the equilibrium value was the same for photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions. We also calculated how $g_m$ responded to $I_{inc}$. The results are shown in Fig. 5.8 for 15-day old Admiro leaves and in the supplementary materials for the other leaf types. $g_m$ increased with an increase in $I_{inc}$ if (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the outer cytosol or the cytosol gaps. The rate of increase decreased with $I_{inc}$ and $g_m$ tended to approach an equilibrium value. $g_m$ decreased with an increase in $I_{inc}$, if (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol. This rate of decrease decreased with an increase in $I_{inc}$. For each scenario, $g_m$ tended to approach an equilibrium value at higher light levels. Under non-photorespiratory conditions, this equilibrium value was very similar for each scenario. Under photorespiratory conditions, there were substantial differences between the equilibrium values of $g_m$ for each scenario.

5.3.8 Model selection

We calculated $\Delta$AIC for each scenario for each measured light response curve and for each CO$_2$ response curve. Tables 5.4 and 5.5 show the results of this analysis. The $\Delta$AIC values in the table are made bold if $\Delta$AIC $\leq$ 2. This indicates that the corresponding scenario has substantial support. There was only one case (Table 5.5, Admiro lower leaf CO$_2$ response curves at ambient O$_2$) out of 48 in which the scenario that assumed that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the outer cytosol had substantially more support than the scenario that assumed that this took place in the inner cytosol. There was one case out of 48 in which the scenario that assumed that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ took place in the cytosol gaps had more support than the other two scenarios (Table 5.1, 15-day old Growdena leaves, CO$_2$ response curves at low O$_2$). In all other 46 cases, the model that assumed that (photo)respired CO$_2$ release took place in the inner cytosol had either the most support or substantial support relative to the best model. In all cases, all three scenarios had substantial support for the light response curves measured under non-photorespiratory conditions.
Table 5.4: ΔAIC for different cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growena), leaf ages (15 days or 25 days after emergence), and scenarios (release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration in inner cytosol, outer cytosol or cytosol gaps). Experimental data were from the dataset described in Chapter 3 of this dissertation.

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¹ Variable; during the measurement of a response curve either $C_a$ or $I_{inc}$ was varied, while the other variable was kept constant.
² Inner: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration in the inner cytosol.
³ Outer: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration in the outer cytosol.
⁴ Gaps: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration in the cytosol gaps between chloroplasts.
⁵ Bolt values indicate that the corresponding model is either the best one from the three models (ΔAIC = 0) or has substantial support relative to the best one (0 < ΔAIC ≤ 2).

5.4 Discussion

In this study, we used a reaction-diffusion model from our previous study directly to determine photosynthetic parameters ($R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$) from data that consisted of simultaneous gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. These measurements were taken from leaves from three cultivars with different leaf layers or leaf ages. Next, we compared the estimates of $R_d$ estimates for different scenarios for the localization of release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration: release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration takes either place in the inner cytosol, in the outer cytosol, or in the
Table 5.5: ΔAIC for different cultivars (Admiro, Doloress, Growena), leaf layers (upper leaf and lower leaf), and scenarios (release of CO\textsubscript{2} from (photo)respiration in inner cytosol, outer cytosol or cytosol gaps). Experimental data were from the Ho \textit{et al.} (2016) data set.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>Leaf layer</th>
<th>Curve</th>
<th>(C_a) (Pa)</th>
<th>(O) (kPa)</th>
<th>(I_{inc}) (μmol m\textsuperscript{-2} s\textsuperscript{-1})</th>
<th>Inner\textsuperscript{2}</th>
<th>Outer\textsuperscript{3}</th>
<th>Gaps\textsuperscript{4}</th>
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</tr>
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</table>

\textsuperscript{1}Variable; during the measurement of a response curve either \(C_a\) or \(I_{inc}\) was varied, while the other variable was kept constant.

\textsuperscript{2}Inner: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO\textsubscript{2} from (photo)respiration in the inner cytosol.

\textsuperscript{3}Inner: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO\textsubscript{2} from (photo)respiration in the outer cytosol.

\textsuperscript{4}Gaps: This column contains the ΔAIC values for the scenario that assumed release of CO\textsubscript{2} from (photo)respiration the cytosol gaps between chloroplasts.

\textsuperscript{5}Bolt values indicate that the corresponding model is either the best one from the three models (ΔAIC = 0) or has substantial support relative to the best one (0 < ΔAIC ≤ 2).

cytosol gaps. We compared these estimates with estimates using traditional methods (Kok, 1948, 1949; Yin \textit{et al.}, 2009; Yin \textit{et al.}, 2011) to assess to what extent re-assimilation may affect the estimates of \(R_d\) by our model. After solving the model using the estimated parameters, we calculated the response of \(f_{rec}\) and \(g_m\) to different atmospheric partial pressures of CO\textsubscript{2} and O\textsubscript{2} and irradiances from our simulated results. Finally, we used model selection based on AIC (Akaike, 1974) to assess what
the most likely localization of release of CO₂ from (photo)respiration is, given the assumptions of the model.

5.4.1 Estimation of $R_d$

We hypothesized that the estimates of $R_d$ by our model would be larger than the estimates by the Yin et al. method and the Kok method. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 show these estimates. In all but one case, the $R_d$ values estimated by the Kok method were indeed smaller than the estimates by the reaction-diffusion model under photorespiratory conditions, but not always under non-photorespiratory conditions. The $R_d$ values by the Yin et al. method were not consistently smaller than the $R_d$ values estimated by the reaction-diffusion models. In fact, they were almost the same under non-photorespiratory conditions. Furthermore, there were almost no differences between the estimates of $R_d$ by the reaction-diffusion models for the different assumed locations of (photo)respiratory CO₂ release. $f_{rec}$ was very low under low light levels, which were used to estimate $R_d$. All these results suggest that the Yin et al. method predicts $R_d$ reasonably well under non-photorespiratory conditions, because re-assimilation does not substantially affect $A_N$ under these conditions and low light levels (Fig. 5.6). It was also noticeable that in almost all cases, $R_d$ was higher under photorespiratory conditions than under non-photorespiratory conditions. This implies that $R_d$ is oxygen dependent. This finding has consequences. It shows that $R_d$ estimated by the Yin et al. method and the Kok method under non-photorespiratory conditions, which are the only conditions for which these methods are theoretically valid (see Yin et al. 2011), cannot be used to describe $R_d$ under photorespiratory conditions.

5.4.2 Estimation of $V_{cmax}$ and the likely location of (photo)respiratory CO₂ release

After estimating $R_d$ and determining $T_p$, we estimated $V_{cmax}$ (Table 5.3). We found that the estimate of $V_{cmax}$ was always higher if (photo)respiratory CO₂ release took place in the cytosol gap than in the inner cytosol. Since the re-assimilation of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was higher if (photo)respiratory CO₂ was released in the inner
cytosol than in the cytosol gaps, the model compensated the lower re-assimilation by a more efficient RuBP carboxylation under Rubisco limited conditions by estimating a higher $V_{cmax}$. If (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release took place in the outer cytosol, the standard error was very high. This indicates that for this scenario, $V_{cmax}$ was very uncertain. An explanation could be that the model cannot fully compensate for the discrepancy between its prediction of $A_N$ and the measured $A_N$ for this scenario by estimating a high value for $V_{cmax}$. The latter explanation suggests that this scenario is less likely than the other two scenarios, which is supported by the $\Delta$AIC analysis. In only one of the 48 cases, the model that assumed (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ cytosol release in the outer cytosol had substantially more support than the model that assumed that (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes place in the inner cytosol. In all other cases, this scenario had either less support than the other two scenarios or similar support (Table 5.4-5.5).

5.4.3 Re-assimilation and its relation to physiological and environmental factors

After parameterization and validation of the model, we did a sensitivity analysis for $g_s$ and the FvCB parameters to assess how $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$ would respond to changes in these parameters. We found that $g_s$ had a substantial influence on $A_N$; increasing $g_s$ resulted in higher values of $A_N$ (Fig. 5.3A). At the same time, opening the stomata will make it more likely that CO$_2$ molecules escape from the intercellular air spaces to the atmosphere, which explains the decrease of $f_{rec}$ with increasing $g_s$ (Fig 5.3B).

Next, we conducted a sensitivity analysis for $R_d$. We varied $R_d$ between 0 and 5 $\mu$mol m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ and calculated the response of $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$ (Fig. 5.3C-D). The net CO$_2$ assimilation rate and $f_{rec}$ only slightly decreased with increasing $R_d$. The difference between the predicted $A_N$ for $R_d = 0$ $\mu$mol m$^{-1}$ and $R_d = 5$ $\mu$mol m$^{-1}$ was considerably less than 5, which can be explained by the re-assimilation of respired CO$_2$ (Fig. 5.3C).

We also conducted sensitivity analyses of $J$, $V_{cmax}$ and $T_p$ (Fig. 5.4) to assess how the sink strength for CO$_2$ in the chloroplasts (i.e., the rate of RuBP carboxylation $W$) affects $f_{rec}$. Each of these parameters positively affects one of the potential rates of
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

RuBP carboxylation. These potential rates are the RuBP carboxylation rates limited by the capacity of Rubisco, electron transport and triose phosphate utilization, respectively. If the values of either $J$, $V_{\text{cmax}}$ or $T_p$ were high, $A_N$ and $f_{\text{rec}}$ did not change with a further increase in these parameters, because RuBP carboxylation was then no longer determined by the potential rate that is affected by this parameter. If the parameter values were low, both $A_N$ and $f_{\text{rec}}$ increased with an increase in one of these parameters. This demonstrates that the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO$_2$ is determined by sink strength.

We also did a sensitivity analysis to investigate how $f_{\text{rec}}$ changes with an increase in $C_a$, either at ambient O$_2$ levels or low O$_2$ levels and for $I_{\text{inc}}$ under photorespiratory or non-photorespiratory conditions (Figs 5.5-5.6). This analysis showed that $f_{\text{rec}}$ depends on the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the atmosphere at low CO$_2$ partial pressures. Depending on the scenario for (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release, $f_{\text{rec}}$ either decreased with $C_a$ (CO$_2$ release in inner cytosol) or increased with $C_a$ (both other scenarios). For high CO$_2$ partial pressures, $f_{\text{rec}}$ no longer changed with $C_a$. Under low oxygen levels, $f_{\text{rec}}$ was less sensitive to $C_a$ than under ambient oxygen levels. We also found that $f_{\text{rec}}$ at low light levels increased with an increase in $I_{\text{inc}}$, which can be explained by the fact that increasing $I_{\text{inc}}$ increases $J$ and, thereby, sink strength. However, at high light levels, $f_{\text{rec}}$ slightly decreased with an increase in $I_{\text{inc}}$ in the leaves from the (Ho et al., 2016) data set. This can be explained by the increase in stomatal conductance with an increase in $I_{\text{inc}}$. This can affect $C_c$, even though RuBP carboxylation is not limited by the rate of electron transport under these light levels.

There are large differences between the different values of $f_{\text{rec}}$ reported in literature (Loreto et al., 1999; Haupt-Herting et al., 2001; Pärnik and Keerberg, 2007; Tholen et al., 2012; Busch et al., 2013). The reported values for $f_{\text{rec}}$ refer between 14%-18% (Pärnik and Keerberg, 2007) in sunflowers to 100% in tomato (Loreto et al., 1999). The results of our sensitivity analyses prove that $f_{\text{rec}}$ can be strongly affected by different physiological factors (stomatal conductance, sink strength, source strength) (Figs. 5.3 and 5.4), leaf anatomical properties (for instance, the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts) (Figs 5.1 and 5.2, Figs A5.1.1-A51.22), and
environmental factors (CO₂ partial pressure in atmosphere, irradiance, Figs A5.1.24-A5.1.44). Additionally, Ho et al. (2016) demonstrated that (photo)respired CO₂ is also affected by \( S_c/S_m \).

5.4.4 Apparent mesophyll conductance and its relation to likely positions of (photo)respired CO₂ release

Our reaction-diffusion model does not use mesophyll conductance models to determine physiological parameters, but it still considers that physical barriers for CO₂ transport in the leaves and biochemical processes affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate by modelling all these factors explicitly. We used our model to calculate the net CO₂ assimilation rate, the average CO₂ partial pressure in the chloroplasts and in the intercellular air spaces. Next, we used these calculated values to calculate \( g_m \) for different values of \( C_a \) and \( I_{\text{inc}} \) (Figs 5.5-5.6, Figs A5.1.45-A5.1.66). For all leaf types, we saw the same trend in the response of \( g_m \) to these environmental conditions. If (photo)respired CO₂ release was assumed to take place in the inner cytosol, \( g_m \) decreased with an increase in \( C_a \), with an exception of the very lowest \( C_a \) values. The shape of this response was similar to the response of \( g_m \) to \( C_i \) observed in various other studies (Harley et al., 1992; Flexas et al., 2007; Yin and Struik, 2009; Tholen and Zhu, 2011). These models either implicitly assume that (photo)respired CO₂ release takes place in the same compartment as RuBP carboxylation does or in compartments between the chloroplasts and the vacuole (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016). The rate of decrease of \( g_m \) decreased with an increase in \( C_i \) and \( g_m \) approached an equilibrium value. If (photo)respired CO₂ release was assumed to take place in the outer cytosol or in the cytosol gaps, the shape of the response was more similar to the ones calculated by Tholen et al. (2012) and in Chapter 3 of this dissertation which predicted that \( g_m \) increased with \( C_i \). These two studies implicitly assumed that (photo)respiratory CO₂ release takes place in the outer cytosol, unless there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol (Tholen et al., 2014). In Chapter 3, we showed that there is a clear CO₂ gradient in the cytosol. Our \( \Delta \text{AIC} \) analysis shows that (photo)respiratory CO₂ release in the outer cytosol is the least likely scenario of the three scenarios. It is more likely that (photo)respired CO₂ release takes place in the
inner cytosol. This is an important finding, because it shows that the classical model of \( g_m \) in equation (5.2) gives, at least in tomato, a better description of the response of \( g_m \) to \( C_i \) than some recent resistance models (Tholen et al., 2012; Chapter 3). These recent models describe the diffusion of CO\(_2\) by a model that consists of two resistances and a source of CO\(_2\) production in between. It should be noticed though that the model that assumes that (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) release takes place in the cytosol gaps also predicts that \( g_m \) increases with \( C_i \), but there are only two occasions (Table 5.4-5.5) where this model had substantially more support than the scenario that assumed (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) in the inner cytosol. The opposite was true for 14 other cases (Tables 5.4-5.5).

**5.4.5 Future research needs**

An advantage of using reaction-diffusion models for data analysis is that they do not require calculation of \( g_m \) in order to parameterize them, since factors that potentially affect \( g_m \) are modelled explicitly. Another advantage of using reaction-diffusion models over resistance models is that they are more flexible, since they can be used to explicitly define where various biochemical reactions take place. Their flexibility makes it also relatively easy to add features like the temperature sensitivity of Rubisco kinetic constants, other physiological parameters, solubility of CO\(_2\) in water and the diffusion coefficient of CO\(_2\) (Juurola et al., 2005). Unlike a mesophyll conductance model, in which all these factors are lumped in \( g_m \) or in the temperature dependency of \( g_m \), reaction-diffusion models allow studying the effect of each of these individual factors on the efficiency of CO\(_2\) transport to Rubisco. This makes it possible to use these models to identify specific targets that can be altered to increase the net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate.

Nevertheless, there are a few things that need to be considered if this model, or similar ones, are used as an alternative to resistance models. First, the reaction-diffusion model used in this study made various simplifications in both the leaf structure and biochemical processes taking place in the leaf. Second, it is implicitly assumed that there is full facilitation of CO\(_2\) transport by carbonic anhydrase, which allowed us to
lump this process in the apparent diffusion coefficients of the cytosol and the stroma. Third, it is assumed that the leaf geometry can be modelled as a few rectangles. In order to assess to what extent these simplifications affect the predictions of the model, we compared a CO$_2$ response curve modelled by this model with the CO$_2$ response curve predicted by another model with a much more sophisticated 3D structure (Ho et al., 2016) that does consider carbon anhydrase activity and HCO$_3^-$ explicitly. In Chapter 4, we found that these simplifications barely affect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rate in tomato. Also, we lumped the mitochondria and the cytosol compartment in which (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ release takes place, rather than modelling loose mitochondria explicitly. In our previous study, we found that modelling loose mitochondria does barely change the predicted values of $A_N$ and $f_{rec}$. Although these simplifications of the model for the leaf microstructure can apparently be done for tomato, it does not necessarily mean that these simplifications are valid for other plant species as well. Therefore, we recommend validating the model again, if it is used in future research on other species. Furthermore, the diffusion coefficients in various locations of the CO$_2$ diffusion path are uncertain and hard to measure (Evans et al., 2009). The apparent diffusion coefficients used in this study were adopted from literature (Gutknecht et al., 1977; Fanta et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2016). The combination of assumed diffusion coefficients for different subcellular compartments resulted in reasonable predictions of the light and CO$_2$ response curves in tomato. However, this does not necessarily mean that each individual diffusion coefficient has a realistic value and therefore, again the model needs to be validated if it is applied to other species than tomato or they have to be measured directly. In future research, we therefore recommend to use this model to analyse data from other plant species as well to check which simplifications and assumptions can generally be made (i.e., which assumptions about diffusion coefficients, biochemical processes, and leaf structural properties do not substantially affect CO$_2$ diffusion in leaves) and which ones are essential to understand how leaf structural and biochemical properties affect its photosynthetic capacity.
Acknowledgements

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Appendix 5.1

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1} \]

Inner

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1} \]

Outer

Gap

Figure A5.1.1: Measured (dots) and simulated (solid lines and dashed lines) CO\(_2\)-response curves for 25-days old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\(_2\) partial pressure (\(O = 21 \text{ kPa}\)) (left) or a low O\(_2\) partial pressure (\(O = 2 \text{ kPa}\)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

$O = 21\text{ kPa}, C_a = 40\text{ Pa}$

$O = 2\text{ kPa}, C_a = 100\text{ Pa}$

Figure A5.1.2: Measured (dots) and simulated (solid lines and dashed lines) light-response curves for 25-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions ($O = 21\text{ kPa}, C_a = 40\text{ Pa}$) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions ($O = 21\text{ kPa}, C_a = 100\text{ Pa}$) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates for values of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ that were neither used in the estimation procedure of $R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$ nor for the determination of $T_p$. The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates under the remaining values of $I_{inc}$ with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, I_{inc} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{kPa}, I_{inc} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

Figure A5.1.3: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\(_2\) (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 15-day-old Dolores' leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 21 \text{kPa})\) (left) or a low O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 2 \text{kPa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{inc}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{cmax}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

$O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{Pa}$

$O = 2 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa}$

Figure A5.1.4: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 15-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions ($O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{Pa}$) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions ($O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa}$) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates for values of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ that were neither used in the estimation procedure of $R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$ nor for the determination of $T_p$. The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates under the remaining values of $I_{inc}$ with the solid lines.
$O = 21 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

$O = 2 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

**Figure A5.1.5:** Measured (dots) and simulated CO$_2$ (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 25-day-old Doloress leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O$_2$ partial pressure ($O = 21 \text{ kPa}$) (left) or a low O$_2$ partial pressure ($O = 2 \text{ kPa}$) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates for values of $C_a$ and $I_{\text{inc}}$ that were neither used in the estimation procedure of $R_d$ and $V_{\text{cmax}}$ nor for the determination of $T_p$. The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates under the remaining values of $C_a$ with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 40 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

Figure A5.1.6: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 25-day-old Doloress leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 40 \text{ Pa})\) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 100 \text{ Pa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{inc}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{cmax}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(I_{inc}\) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ l_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \ \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, \ l_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \ \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

**Figure A5.1.7:** Measured (dots) and simulated CO₂ (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O₂ partial pressure (\(O = 21 \text{ kPa}\)) (left) or a low O₂ partial pressure (\(O = 2 \text{ kPa}\)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Inner

\[ \text{\[O = 21 \text{kPa}, \text{C}_a = 40 \text{Pa}\]} \]

Outer

\[ \text{\[O = 2 \text{kPa}, \text{C}_a = 100 \text{Pa}\]} \]

Gap

Figure A5.1.8: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \( (O = 21 \text{kPa}, \text{C}_a = 40 \text{Pa}) \) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \( (O = 21 \text{kPa}, \text{C}_a = 100 \text{Pa}) \) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \( \text{C}_a \) and \( I_{\text{inc}} \) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \( R_d \) and \( V_{\text{cmax}} \) nor for the determination of \( T_p \). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \( I_{\text{inc}} \) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \text{ } I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, \text{ } I_{\text{inc}} = 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \]

**Figure A5.1.9:** Measured (dots) and simulated CO\(_2\) (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 25-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) (left) or a low O\(_2\) partial pressure \((O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Figure A5.1.10: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for 25-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions ($O = 21$ kPa, $C_a = 40$ Pa) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions ($O = 2$ kPa, $C_a = 100$ Pa) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates for values of $C_a$ and $I_{inc}$ that were neither used in the estimation procedure of $R_d$ and $V_{cmax}$ nor for the determination of $T_p$. The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO$_2$ assimilation rates under the remaining values of $I_{inc}$ with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

Figure A5.1.11: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\textsubscript{2} (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves Admire upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\(O = 21\) kPa) (left) or a low O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\(O = 2\) kPa) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) and \(I_{inc}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{cmax}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \; C_a = 38 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, \; C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

**Figure A5.1.12**: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Admiro upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \( O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \; C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \( O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \; C_a = 40 \text{ Pa} \) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \( I_{\text{inc}} \) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \( R_d \) and \( V_{\text{cmax}} \) nor for the determination of \( T_p \). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \( I_{\text{inc}} \) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

Figure A5.1.13: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\textsubscript{2} (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Admiro leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photos)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\( O = 21 \text{kPa} \)) (left) or a low O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\( O = 2 \text{kPa} \)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates for values of \( C_a \) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \( R_d \) and \( V_{\text{cmax}} \) nor for the determination of \( T_p \). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates under the remaining values of \( C_a \) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 38 \text{Pa} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa} \]

Figure A5.1.14: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\(_2\) (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Admiro leaves lower from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{Pa})\) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[
O = 21 \text{kPa}, \ I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \quad O = 2 \text{kPa}, \ I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}
\]

Inner

![Graphs showing CO₂ assimilation rates for different O₂ partial pressures and light intensities.]  

Outer

![Graphs showing CO₂ assimilation rates for different O₂ partial pressures and light intensities.]  

Gap

![Graphs showing CO₂ assimilation rates for different O₂ partial pressures and light intensities.]  

Figure A5.1.15: Measured (dots) and simulated CO₂ (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Doloress upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O₂ partial pressure (\(O = 21 \text{kPa}\)) (left) or a low O₂ partial pressure (\(O = 2 \text{kPa}\)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 38 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

**Inner**

**Outer**

**Gap**

Figure A5.1.16: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\(_2\) (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Dolores' upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{ Pa})\) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{ Pa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(I_{inc}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{c,max}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(I_{inc}\) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

Figure A5.1.17: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\textsubscript{2} (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Dolores's lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. Respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\(O = 21 \text{kPa}\)) (left) or a low O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure (\(O = 2 \text{kPa}\)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{max}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 38 \text{Pa} \quad \text{and} \quad O = 2 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa} \]

Figure A5.1.18: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Doloress lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{Pa})\) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{Pa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{cmax}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

Figure A5.1.19: Measured (dots) and simulated CO\textsubscript{2} (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Growdena upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure \((O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) (left) or a low O\textsubscript{2} partial pressure \((O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{max}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\textsubscript{2} assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 38 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

Figure A5.1.20: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Growdena upper leaves from the from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \( (O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 40 \text{ Pa}) \) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \( (O = 21 \text{ kPa}, \ C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}) \) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates for values \( I_{inc} \) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \( R_d \) and \( V_{cmax} \) nor for the determination of \( T_p \). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates under the remaining values of \( I_{inc} \) with the solid lines.
\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, I_{\text{inc}} = 1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \]

**Figure A5.1.21:** Measured (dots) and simulated CO\(_2\) (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Growdena lower leaves from the Ho *et al.* (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under saturating light and either an ambient O\(_2\) partial pressure (\(O = 21 \text{ kPa}\)) (left) or a low O\(_2\) partial pressure (\(O = 2 \text{ kPa}\)) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(C_a\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{\text{max}}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(C_a\) with the solid lines.
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

\[ \text{Inner} \]
\[ O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 38 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ \text{Outer} \]
\[ O = 2 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{ Pa} \]

\[ \text{Gap} \]

Figure A5.1.22: Measured (dots) and simulated light (solid lines and dashed lines) response curves for Growdena lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. (Photo)respiration was assumed to take place in either the inner cytosol (top row), the outer cytosol (middle row) or the cytosol gaps (bottom row). Measurements were taken under either photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 40 \text{ Pa})\) (left) or non-photorespiratory conditions \((O = 21 \text{ kPa}, C_a = 100 \text{ Pa})\) (right). The error bars represent one standard deviation. The solid lines represent the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates for values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) that were neither used in the estimation procedure of \(R_d\) and \(V_{c,nax}\) nor for the determination of \(T_p\). The dashed lines connect the predicted net CO\(_2\) assimilation rates under the remaining values of \(I_{\text{inc}}\) with the solid lines.
Chapter 5

Figure A5.1.23: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO2 that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO2 levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21 \text{ kPa}$) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2 \text{ kPa}$) (B) in 25-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO2 was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.24: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO2 that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 40 \text{ Pa}, O = 21 \text{ kPa}$) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, O = 2 \text{ kPa}$) conditions (B) in 25-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO2 was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.25: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased ambient CO₂ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2$ kPa) (B) in 15-day-old Doloress leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.26: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in 15-day-old Doloress leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.27: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2$ kPa) (B) in 25-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.28: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in 25-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.29: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO\(_2\) that is re-assimilated \(f_{\text{rec}}\) to increased ambient CO\(_2\) levels under ambient oxygen (\(O = 21\) kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels (\(O = 2\) kPa) (B) in 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.30: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO\(_2\) that is re-assimilated \(f_{\text{rec}}\) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (\(C_a = 40\) Pa, \(O = 21\) kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory (\(C_a = 100\) Pa, \(O = 2\) kPa) conditions (B) in 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.31: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO₂ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21 \text{kPa}$) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2 \text{kPa}$) (B) in 25-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.32: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 40 \text{ Pa}, O = 21 \text{kPa}$) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, O = 2 \text{kPa}$) conditions (B) in 25-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.33: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ $f_{rec}$ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2$ kPa) (B) in Admiro upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.34: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in Admiro upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.35: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2$ kPa) (B) in Admiro lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.36: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in Admiro lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.37: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ $f_{\text{rec}}$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO₂ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21 \text{kPa}$) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2 \text{kPa}$) (B) in Dolores' upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.38: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 38 \text{ Pa}, O = 21 \text{kPa}$) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, O = 2 \text{kPa}$) conditions (B) in Dolores' upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO₂ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.39: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} that is re-assimilated \(f_{\text{rec}}\) to increased ambient CO\textsubscript{2} levels under ambient oxygen \((O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) (A) and low oxygen levels \((O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) (B) in Doloress lower leaves from the Ho \textit{et al.} (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\textsubscript{2} was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.40: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO\textsubscript{2} that is re-assimilated \(f_{\text{rec}}\) to increased light levels under photorespiratory \((C_a = 38 \text{ Pa, } O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory \((C_a = 100 \text{ Pa, } O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) conditions (B) in Doloress lower leaves from the Ho \textit{et al.} (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\textsubscript{2} was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.41: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) (A) and low oxygen levels ($O = 2$ kPa) (B) in Growdena upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.42: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{\text{rec}}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in Growdena upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Chapter 5

Figure A5.1.43: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) Growdena lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.44: Response of the fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated $f_{rec}$ to increased light levels under photorespiratory ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) conditions (A) and non-photorespiratory ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) conditions (B) in Growdena lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

**Figure A5.1.45:** Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) 25-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

**Figure A5.1.46:** Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in 25-day-old Admiro leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.47: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in 15-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.48: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in 15-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.49: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance \( (g_m) \) to increased ambient CO\(_2\) levels under ambient oxygen \( (O = 21 \text{ kPa}) \) levels (A) and low oxygen \( (O = 2 \text{ kPa}) \) levels (B) 25-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.50: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance \( (g_m) \) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions \( (C_a = 40 \text{ Pa}, \ O = 21 \text{ kPa}) \) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions \( (C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, \ O = 2 \text{ kPa}) \) in 25-day-old Dolores leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.51: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.52: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in 15-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.53: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in 15-days old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.54: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 40$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in 25-day-old Growdena leaves from the data set of Chapter 3. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.55: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in Admiro upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.56: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in Admiro upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.57: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in Admiro lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.58: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in Admiro lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.59: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in Doloress upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.60: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in Doloress upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Figure A5.1.61: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance \( g_m \) to increased ambient CO\(_2\) levels under ambient oxygen \((O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) levels (A) and low oxygen \((O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) levels (B) in Dolores lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.62: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance \( g_m \) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions \((C_a = 38 \text{ Pa}, O = 21 \text{ kPa})\) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions \((C_a = 100 \text{ Pa}, O = 2 \text{ kPa})\) in Dolores lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO\(_2\) was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Chapter 5

Figure A5.1.63: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in Growdena upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.64: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in Growdena upper leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
Quantitative analysis of re-assimilation

Figure A5.1.65: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased ambient CO$_2$ levels under ambient oxygen ($O = 21$ kPa) levels (A) and low oxygen ($O = 2$ kPa) levels (B) in Growdena lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).

Figure A5.1.66: Response of the simulated apparent mesophyll conductance ($g_m$) to increased light levels under photorespiratory (A) conditions ($C_a = 38$ Pa, $O = 21$ kPa) and non-photorespiratory (B) conditions ($C_a = 100$ Pa, $O = 2$ kPa) in Growdena lower leaves from the Ho et al. (2016) data set. The release of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ was assumed to either take place in the inner cytosol (upward pointing triangle), the outer cytosol (downward pointing triangle) or the cytosol gaps (dots).
CHAPTER 6

General discussion
Chapter 6

According to the widely used Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model, abbreviated as FvCB model, the net CO₂ assimilation rate in C₃ plants depends on the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco, if RuBP carboxylation is either limited by Rubisco or by electron transport (Farquhar et al., 1980). Due to various factors along the diffusion path, the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco is lower than in the atmosphere under most environmental conditions. In order to predict the net CO₂ assimilation rate of a C₃ plant correctly, it is important to calculate this drawdown of CO₂ partial pressure correctly. Although the CO₂ transport mechanism from the atmosphere to the intercellular air space is well understood and the CO₂ partial pressure in the intercellular air space can be readily calculated from gas exchange measurements at the leaf surface (Von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1981), the mechanism that determines the efficiency of CO₂ on the remaining part of the diffusion pathway, is still unclear. Therefore, the main objective of my dissertation was to investigate how structural barriers along the CO₂ diffusion pathway in a C₃ leaf and biochemical processes that add or remove CO₂ to this diffusion path affect its photosynthetic capacity. In order to answer this question, I will pointwise answer the research questions that I stated in Chapter 1, the General Introduction, based on the findings in other Chapters of this thesis. Next, I will make some recommendations for further research.

6.1. How have mesophyll resistance models been used to study photosynthesis in previous work?

Chapter 2 is a critical literature review, in which I try to explain which factors may cause the difference between the CO₂ partial pressure in the intercellular air space and near Rubisco and how these factors were accounted for in photosynthesis models.

6.1.1 The mesophyll is an important barrier for CO₂ transport from the atmosphere to Rubisco

A very common way to deal with the drawdown of CO₂ from the intercellular air space to Rubisco is simply to assume that the drawdown is negligible and that the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco equals the one in the intercellular air space (Farquhar et al., 1980; Harley et al., 1992b; Wullschleger, 1993; Aalto and Juurola, 2001; Lenz et
In models that adopt this assumption, CO₂ transport from the intercellular air space from the mesophyll to Rubisco is only limited by the resistances for CO₂ transport of the boundary layer and the stomata. If these models are used to estimate parameters of the FvCB model from measured photosynthetic response curves, the predictions of these models may properly fit with the data. This good fit does not necessarily prove that the drawdown of CO₂ between the intercellular air space and Rubisco is negligible, as its effect may be lumped in the estimated FvCB model parameters. The most common type of models to describe the CO₂ drawdown from the intercellular air space to Rubisco is based on the mesophyll resistance concept. Niinemets et al. (2009) demonstrated how important it can be to validate whether or not mesophyll resistance does affect CO₂ transport. They parameterized both a model with a negligible mesophyll resistance and a model with a substantial mesophyll resistance. Next, they used both parameterized models to predict the diurnal variations in the net CO₂ assimilation rate in the evergreen species Quercus ilex and compared the predictions with measurements. They found that the model that assumed negligible mesophyll resistance performed considerably worse in predicting the diurnal net CO₂ assimilation than the model that did contain a substantial mesophyll resistance.

Assuming a negligible mesophyll resistance can also affect long-term predictions of global carbon cycle models. Sun et al. (2014) showed that the long-term responsiveness of global terrestrial productivity to CO₂ fertilization is underestimated by these models, if it is assumed that mesophyll resistance is negligible. The conclusions of Niinemets et al. (2009) and Sun et al. (2014) in terms of model prediction may need to be critically assessed, as different in vivo Michaelis-Menten constants were obtained when using negligible mesophyll resistance and substantial mesophyll resistance models (Bernacchi et al., 2001; Bernacchi et al., 2002). The analyses of Niinemets et al. (2009) and Sun et al. (2014) gave little consideration of such a dependence of Michaelis-Menten constants on mesophyll resistance scenarios. Nevertheless, to understand the mechanisms with regard to photosynthesis-limiting factors, it is important to identify whether mesophyll resistance is significant, and if so, to quantify the magnitude of its variation.
6.1.2 Mesophyll resistance can be determined from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with chlorophyll fluorescence or carbon isotope discrimination measurements

Mesophyll resistance models are based on Fick's first law of diffusion (Fick, 1855). The formulation of this law can be that the net flux of a chemical species through a component is proportional to the concentration difference between both sides of this component. The proportionality constant is the conductance; the inverse of this conductance is the resistance. From the perspective of mesophyll resistance models, the net flux represents the net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate and the resistance represents the mesophyll resistance. Often, methods to assess mesophyll resistance determine this one the latter from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. Most of these methods are based on the following steps (Harley et al., 1992a; Ethier et al., 2006; Pons et al., 2009; Yin and Struik, 2009; Yin et al., 2009):

1. Rearrange Fick's first law to express CO\(_2\) partial pressure near Rubisco as a function of the mesophyll resistance, the net CO\(_2\) assimilation rate and the CO\(_2\) partial pressure in the intercellular air space.

2. Substitute of this term in the FvCB model.

3a. Rearrange this term to either express mesophyll resistance directly, or

3b. Rearrange this term to express another variable in the FvCB model that can be measured.

In case 3a, the mesophyll resistance can be directly calculated. In case 3b, the mesophyll resistance can be determined by nonlinear regression. Gas exchange measurements, combined with isotope discrimination methods (Farquhar et al., 1982; Evans et al., 1986; Farquhar and Cernusak, 2012; Evans and Von Caemmerer, 2013), can also be used to determine the CO\(_2\) partial pressure near Rubisco. Only in this case, this partial pressure is calculated directly from a number of fractionation coefficients of \(^{12}\)C and \(^{13}\)C. If necessary, one can determine the mesophyll resistance afterwards.
6.1.3 Mesophyll resistance may not be constant, but instead variable with the CO₂ partial pressure in the intercellular air space

All the above-mentioned methods implicitly assume that the resistance of the mesophyll does not change with the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco. However, various studies that used a method to calculate the mesophyll resistance directly under various environmental conditions showed that this assumption does not hold (Harley et al., 1992a; Flexas et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2009; Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Tholen et al., 2012). The mechanism of this variability is unclear, which makes it hard to model it. Yin et al. (2009) and Gu et al. (2012) dealt with this problem by using a phenomenological model, rather than a mechanistic model, to describe the mesophyll resistance and used this model for parameterization.

6.1.4 Mesophyll resistance models do not give a mechanistic description of the CO₂ diffusion pathway

The methods described above can be used to parameterize the FvCB model, without ignoring the contribution of the mesophyll to the overall resistance of the CO₂ transport from the atmosphere to Rubisco. Nevertheless, they do not give a mechanistic explanation for what factors determine the resistance of the mesophyll. With the exception of the Yin et al. (2009) model, which includes a phenomenological model for mesophyll resistance, they also do not provide a description of the variation of the mesophyll resistance with the CO₂ partial pressure near Rubisco. However, this phenomenological model does not provide information on the cause of the variability of mesophyll resistance. The lack of a mechanistic description of mesophyll resistance makes it hard to identify leaf traits that can be altered to increase the mesophyll resistance and thereby improve the efficiency of CO₂ diffusion in leaves and the photosynthesis. In this dissertation, I hope to contribute to identifying possible targets to decrease the mesophyll resistance by proposing a mechanistic model for mesophyll resistance.
6.2 What leaf anatomical properties can potentially affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate?

In Chapter 3, I present a resistance model that links the net CO₂ assimilation rate to various leaf anatomical properties that affect the mesophyll resistance models. In order to make this model, I first identified, in Chapter 2, various leaf anatomical properties that may substantially affect the mesophyll resistance and evaluated how these properties have been used in the past to make models for mesophyll resistance.

6.2.1 Mesophyll resistance is affected by various leaf anatomical structures and available surfaces for CO₂ uptake

CO₂ molecules have to diffuse to Rubisco in the chloroplast stroma in order to be assimilated. After CO₂ molecules from the atmosphere have passed the boundary layer at the leaf surface and the stomata, they diffuse dispersed throughout the network of intercellular air space surrounding the mesophyll cells. From there, they still have to cross various barriers to reach the stroma. First, they have to dissolve in the water filled pores of cell walls that are exposed to the intercellular air space. This makes the surface area of the mesophyll cells exposed to these air space in a leaf a potential determinant of the amount of CO₂ that can be taken up by this leaf (Nobel et al., 1975; Nobel, 1977). From the cell wall, they have to cross the plasma membrane to enter the cytosol. From the cytosol, they have to cross the chloroplast envelope to enter the stroma. Since these mesophyll structures contribute to the total CO₂ diffusion path in the mesophyll, the individual resistance of each of these components contributes to the mesophyll resistance (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003). While diffusing in the stroma, CO₂ molecules move a certain distance before they are assimilated. Therefore, the resistance of the stroma also contributes to the mesophyll resistance (Tosens et al., 2012).
6.2.2 Mesophyll resistance can be partitioned into sub-resistances for various compartments in the mesophyll

Tosens et al. (2012) calculated the mesophyll resistance as a serial resistance, i.e. as the sum of individual resistances along the diffusion pathway of CO$_2$ in the mesophyll. Values for these resistances were either calculated from their assumed diffusion coefficients and their measured thickness or were set equal to an assumed value. In order to calculate the mesophyll resistance from the obtained liquid phase resistance, it has to be multiplied with the ratio of the exposed chloroplast surface to the leaf area and Henry's law has to be applied. The power of this approach is that it can be used to directly link mesophyll conductance to leaf anatomical properties. However, the Tosens et al. (2012)-model also does not give an explanation for the variability of the mesophyll conductance with the intercellular CO$_2$ partial pressure. Moreover, it requires a number of parameter values (diffusion coefficients, assumed resistances, diffusion path length in stroma) which are very uncertain. Tholen et al. (2012) developed a resistance model, in which they described CO$_2$ transport with two sub-resistances (i.e. resistance of combined cell wall and plasma membrane and resistance of chloroplast). Between these two sub-resistances, they placed a source of CO$_2$ which consists of CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration. According to this framework, the variability of mesophyll conductance can be partly explained by the release of photorespired CO$_2$ along the diffusion pathway, which depends on the CO$_2$ concentration near Rubisco, in the mesophyll.

6.2.3 The ratio of the exposed mesophyll surface area to the leaf area and the ratio of the exposed chloroplast surface area to the leaf area are main determinants of photosynthesis in tomato

The power of describing the CO$_2$ diffusion pathways by more than one resistance (Tholen et al., 2012), is that it allows describing CO$_2$ transport along different parts of the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway explicitly. This also allows adding the source for CO$_2$ halfway the diffusion pathway, instead of assuming that respiration and photorespiration take place in the same compartment, making the model more
mechanistic than conventional mesophyll resistance models. The power of calculating individual resistances along the CO$_2$ diffusion pathways from curvature factors, diffusion coefficients and thicknesses (Tosens et al., 2012), is that it allows to link leaf anatomical properties directly to mesophyll conductance. The power of the various FvCB parameter estimations described by Yin et al. (2009) is that it allows determining various photosynthetic parameters from chloroplast, before using the curve-fitting method. In Chapter 3, I combined the strengths of these three approaches. First, I quantified the rate of respiration and the rate of electron transport using the procedures described by Yin et al. (2009). Second, I used the Tosens et al. (2012) model to quantify the individual resistances of subcellular compartment along the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway. Third, I calculated the two sub-resistances from the Tholen et al. (2012) model from these individual sub-resistances. Fourth, I substituted the modified definition of the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco from Tholen et al. (2012) in the curve-fitting method described by Yin et al. (2009) (the version without a phenomenological model for mesophyll resistance) to determine the remaining FvCB parameters. Combining the models from Yin et al. (2009), Tholen et al. (2012), and Tosens et al. (2012) allowed me running a sensitivity analysis for the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to assess the importance of various leaf anatomical properties. I found that the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate photosynthesis was most sensitive to (1) the ratio of the mesophyll surface area exposed to the intercellular air space to the leaf area and (2) the ratio of the exposed chloroplast surface area to the exposed mesophyll surface area.

6.2.4 Sensitivity of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to changes in leaf anatomy depends on the irradiance and the CO$_2$ partial pressure

The sensitivity analysis in Chapter 3 for the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate also showed that the extent of the response of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to leaf anatomical properties depends on the environmental conditions. First, the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate does not respond to changes in any leaf anatomical property if the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is limited by the rate of triose phosphate utilization. This is not surprising, as the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is not determined by CO$_2$ levels or irradiances under these conditions. If the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is not limited by triose phosphate utilization, the
General discussion

response of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to changes in leaf anatomical properties becomes stronger with increased irradiance. Under saturating light, the response of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to changes in leaf anatomy is strongest if the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the intercellular air space is about 25 Pa. My finding that the sensitivity of the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate to changes in leaf anatomy depends on the environmental conditions suggests that the success of attempts to increase the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate by altering the leaf anatomy in a crop depends on the environmental conditions in which this crop grows.

6.2.5 Resistance models cannot be used to mechanistically describe the effect of the placement of mitochondria relative to the stroma

In Chapter 3, I used a resistance model to describe the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway in the mesophyll. Unlike the conventional resistance model, this model is capable of studying the relationship between the leaf anatomy and the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate directly. However, it is important to realize that this model makes implicit assumptions about the location of the release of CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration. It is assumed that the diffusion paths of CO$_2$ from the intercellular air space and the CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration share their diffusion path in half the cytosol and in the chloroplast. Consequently, the source of CO$_2$ is placed in the middle of the cytosol layer between the plasma membrane and the part of the chloroplast envelope facing the intercellular air space ("outer cytosol"). If the mitochondria would be located in the cytosol layer between the tonoplast and the part of the chloroplast facing the vacuole ("inner cytosol") in reality, this approach may underestimate the fraction of (photo)respiratory CO$_2$ that is re-assimilated. The structure of the model in Chapter 3 is based on the model from Tholen et al. (2012). This model also assumes that there is CO$_2$ release in the cytosol and that there is a shared diffusion pathway of CO$_2$ from the atmosphere and CO$_2$ produced by (photo)respiration through the chloroplasts. This implies that they made the same assumption. Tholen et al. (2014) reflected on their earlier framework and claimed that the Tholen et al. (2012) model does not necessarily assume that mitochondria are placed in the outer cytosol, because it can also be assumed that there is no CO$_2$ gradient in the cytosol. However, this can only be true if
CO₂ diffusion in the cytosol is much faster than in the chloroplast. If this is the case, the location of the mitochondria will not have any effect on the re-assimilation.

6.2.6 Resistance models cannot be used to study the effect of the gap size between chloroplasts

The mesophyll surface is normally not fully covered with chloroplasts, which may make the effective area for CO₂ uptake smaller than the total mesophyll surface area (Von Caemmerer and Evans, 1991). In the model from Chapter 3, I dealt with this by assuming that, although the whole mesophyll surface is available for CO₂ transfer from the intercellular air space to the cytosol, only the chloroplast surface facing the intercellular air space is available for CO₂ transfer from the chloroplast envelope to Rubisco. However, another consequence of the presence of gaps between the chloroplasts is that these gaps provide a pathway for (photo)respired CO₂ to escape to the intercellular air space, in case that there are mitochondria in the inner cytosol. The resistance model from Chapter 3 is not capable of simulating this escape of (photo)respired CO₂ through the gaps. In order to study the effect of these gaps on the net CO₂ assimilation rate and the location of mitochondria relative to chloroplasts on the net CO₂ assimilation rate, I developed a more complex reaction-diffusion model in Chapter 4.

6.3 How have reaction-diffusion models been used to study photosynthesis in previous work?

Reaction-diffusion models normally need to be solved numerically and they are mathematically considerably more complex than the resistance models described above. This may be an important reason why they are not used often to study CO₂ transport in leaves. However, they are considerably more flexible than resistance models. Therefore, there are certain questions that these models can answer, which cannot be done by resistance models. In order to understand both the opportunities that these reaction-diffusion models can provide and their limitations, I reviewed reaction-diffusion models used to study CO₂ transport in leaves in Chapter 2.
6.3.1 In reaction-diffusion models for net CO₂ assimilation, the liquid phase and the gas phase should be modelled separately

Most early reaction-diffusion models (Parkhurst, 1977; Rand, 1978; Parkhurst, 1984; Parkhurst and Mott, 1990) used a porous volume approach to simulate CO₂ diffusion in the mesophyll. This means that they considered the mesophyll as a composed medium with one apparent diffusion coefficient. The models predict a clear CO₂ gradient between the adaxial and the abaxial leaf area. This gradient may not be there in reality in homobaric leaves. A major disadvantage of a porous volume approach is that it assumes that RuBP carboxylation can take place at any place in the leaf. In reality, the chloroplasts, in which this process takes place, fill only a fraction of the total mesophyll volume. Almost always, chloroplasts tend to be as close as possible to the exposed mesophyll surface (Haberlandt, 1904). As a consequence, the effective length of the CO₂ diffusion pathway is very small compared to the length of the intercellular air space. Since the intercellular air space, at least in tomato, are highly interconnected (Verboven et al., 2015) and the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in air is $10^4$ as high as in water, I surmise that there is barely a gradient of CO₂ in the intercellular air space of homobaric leaves in reality. In contrast, there is a strong gradient between the intercellular air space to the inner chloroplast envelope. This view is confirmed in some more recent studies. A major step forward in the use of reaction-diffusion models to understand the CO₂ diffusion pathway in the mesophyll was the partitioning of the computational domain into a gas phase domain and a liquid phase domain, as proposed by Vesala et al. (1996). Aalto and Juurola (2002) also modelled the gas phase and the liquid phase for CO₂ transport separately. They used their reaction-diffusion model to show that there is almost no difference between the steady state CO₂ concentration at the abaxial and the adaxial leaf side in a homobaric and hypostomatous leaf. Further proof for the absence of a CO₂ gradient in a leaf was delivered by Ho et al. (2016). They solved a reaction-diffusion model over a tomography, which was partitioned into intercellular air space, epidermis, cytosol, vacuole, and chloroplasts. They also found that the CO₂ partial pressure was about the same throughout the intercellular air space.
6.3.2 Reaction-diffusion models can be used to study the effect of leaf anatomical properties and biochemical processes separately

Another major contribution in using reaction-diffusion models to understand the CO₂ diffusion pathway was the explicit modelling of loose chloroplasts, which was done for the first time by Aalto and Juurola (2002). Ho et al. (2016) used this approach in a reaction-diffusion model to assess how the light gradient and the net CO₂ assimilation rate within a leaf are affected by placing mitochondria in a face or a profile conformation (Tholen et al., 2008) in mesophyll cells and to investigate how the net CO₂ assimilation and the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ are affected by the ratio of the exposed chloroplast surface area to the leaf area. The partitioning of the liquid phase into sub-compartments also allows modelling explicitly where in mesophyll cells various processes that add or remove CO₂ from the diffusion pathway (carbon anhydrases, respiration, photorespiration, RuBP carboxylation) occur. Since reaction-diffusion models describe all physical barriers, processes and their locations separately, they can be used to investigate the effect of each of these factors on photosynthesis separately, rather than lumping most of these processes in the mesophyll resistance.

6.3.3 Reaction-diffusion models always need to be validated due to uncertain values of the diffusion coefficients

An important disadvantage of reaction-diffusion models is that they require diffusion coefficients for each sub-compartment in the mesophyll. The values of these diffusion coefficients are hard to measure and the amount of data is very limited (Evans et al., 2009). If a wrong combination of diffusion coefficients is used to parameterize the reaction-diffusion model, the model may produce errors that are worse than the ones produced by conventional mesophyll resistance models. Several reaction-diffusion models (Parkhurst, 1977; Rand, 1977; Rand and Cooke, 1980; Parkhurst, 1984; Vesala et al., 1996; Aalto et al., 1999; Aalto and Juurola, 2002) did not compare their predictions with actual data, which restricts them to strictly theoretical analysis. Conclusions drawn from the results of these studies may be wrong if the wrong
combination of diffusion coefficients is chosen. In some other studies, this problem was tackled by comparing measured CO₂ response curves with CO₂ response curves (Tholen and Zhu, 2011; Ho et al., 2016) or light response curves (Ho et al., 2016) simulated by the ones simulated by a reaction-diffusion models. It is important to realize that this only proves that the model correctly reproduces CO₂ response curves for the combination of assumed diffusion coefficients. This problem also applies to the resistance model presented in Chapter 3, since I calculated the individual resistances for CO₂ transport in the mesophyll from assumed diffusion coefficients. In Chapter 3, I conducted a sensitivity analysis for alternative values for the assumed diffusive properties. It was not possible to properly fit the model to the data using these alternative values for the diffusion coefficients. This does not necessarily mean that the each of the assumed diffusion coefficients for the mesophyll components has a realistic value. It is therefore controversial to use calculated resistances of individual components to conclude to what extent each individual component constrains CO₂ transport in leaves. Therefore, it has to be noticed that there is less uncertainty in sensitivity analysis for the mesophyll surface area to the leaf area and the chloroplast surface area to the leaf area than in the sensitivity analysis of the individual mesophyll components.

6.4. How can reaction-diffusion models be used as an alternative to resistance models?

In Chapter 4, I developed a reaction-diffusion model for CO₂ transport to analyse combined gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence data and to study how the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplast affects the net CO₂ assimilation rate.

6.4.1 Reaction-diffusion model was used directly to determine FvCB model parameters

Since mesophyll resistance models are particularly useful for the parameterization of the FvCB model, the reaction-diffusion model should be capable of doing this as well, if it is used as an alternative to mesophyll resistance models. The reaction-diffusion
model from Ho et al. (2016) uses a priori estimated FvCB parameters to simulate CO₂ and light response curves. A disadvantage of this approach is that these a priori estimation methods make certain assumptions about the RuBP carboxylation and the CO₂ diffusion pathway. First, the estimates of the rate of respiration were obtained by the Yin et al. (2009) method. This method assumes, just like other commonly used methods to estimate this parameter (Kok, 1948; Laisk, 1977), that none of the respired CO₂ is re-assimilated. This assumption may considerably underestimate the rate of respiration. Therefore, I found it important to use the reaction-diffusion model directly to estimate this parameter for light response curves and described a method in Chapter 4 to do so. Second, Ho et al. (2016) estimated values for the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation from a curve-fitting method, combined with a phenomenological model for mesophyll resistance. This model assumes that (photo)respiration and photosynthesis take place in the same compartment and, additionally, this parameter has to be estimated simultaneously with a parameter in the phenomenological model for mesophyll resistance from Yin et al. (2009). Given the strong correlation between mesophyll resistance and the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation, the estimates may be biased. Therefore, I also described a procedure to use the reaction-diffusion model directly to estimate this parameter without the need to simultaneously estimate another parameter. I only used measured net CO₂ assimilation rates measured at the lowest light levels to determine the rate of respiration and measured net CO₂ assimilation rates measured at the lowest CO₂ levels to estimate the maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation. I validated the model by simulating the remaining parts of the light and CO₂ response curves and compare them with data that I did not use for the estimation of any parameters.

6.4.2 Reaction-diffusion model should be computational inexpensive, whenever possible

One of the attractive features of mesophyll resistance models is that they are analytical, which makes it possible to use these models for procedures that require a large number of simulations. This is particularly useful if these models are used for the estimation of FvCB model parameters within seconds. In contrast, reaction-diffusion
models have to be solved numerically and the time per simulation is much longer. Especially if the computational domain is complex, the amount of time per simulation is much higher in mesophyll resistance models. This makes it unfeasible to use reaction-diffusion models for most purposes. For instance, I run an early version (Ho et al., 2012a) of the 3-D model from Ho et al. (2016) on my computer (Processor: Intel(R) Xeon CPU W3550 @ 3.07 GHz 3.06 GHz, Installed memory: 24 GB RAM) to simulate a CO₂ response curve. It took about 9 hours to simulate a single point in the curve. Consequently, it took several days to simulate a CO₂ response curve with 10 points. This can be considerably speeded up by the use of parallel computing using supercomputers, but even then it takes hours before a single curve is simulated. Therefore, it is currently not feasible to use this model for parameterization, which is a main application of mesophyll resistance models. In the model that I presented in Chapter 4, I presented a much simpler reaction-diffusion model. I tried to keep the time per simulation as low as possible by using various simplifications, compared to the approach from Tholen and Zhu (2011), Watté et al. (2015) and Ho et al. (2016):

(1) modelling the computational domain in 2-D.

(2) modelling the computational domain as rectangles.

(3) modelling the mitochondria and the cytosol layer that contains them as one single domain, rather than modelling loose mitochondria.

(4) not explicitly modelling carbon anhydrase activity.

(5) not modelling the transport of light explicitly.

(6) not modelling CO₂ transport in the intercellular air space explicitly.

The price of these simplifications is that oversimplification can potentially lead to wrong model predictions. Therefore, I validated the model extensively in both Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. In Chapter 4, I investigated whether the simplifications in both the processes and the leaf structure had an effect on the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate by comparing a CO₂ response curve predicted by the model in Chapter 4 with a CO₂ response curve the model from Ho et al. (2016) for the same conditions. I found
that there was almost no difference between the predictions of both models. Since the model from Ho et al. (2016) does not contain mitochondria either, I did an additional validation by making a version of the model that contains mitochondria and I compared the net CO₂ assimilation rate with the predicted by the default model and the one by the model that contained loose mitochondria. Again, I did not find differences between the predictions of both models.

6.5 How does the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate?

Conventional mesophyll resistance models assume that CO₂ uptake by RuBP carboxylation and CO₂ release by (photo)respiration take place in the same compartment. In reality, RuBP carboxylation occurs in chloroplasts and the production of (photo)respired CO₂ takes place in the mitochondria. This CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration can either leave the leaf, or be re-assimilated after it has diffused into the chloroplast. Since conventional mesophyll resistance models do not describe this process explicitly, its effect on the drawdown between the CO₂ partial pressure in the intercellular air space and Rubisco is likely lumped in the estimate of the mesophyll resistance. Re-assimilation can be modelled explicitly by describing the CO₂ diffusion path by more than one resistance, like Tholen et al. (2012) did. The disadvantage of this approach is that it requires making assumptions about the location of the mitochondria. They are either located in the outer cytosol (Chapter 3), or it has to be assumed that CO₂ diffusion in cytosol is so much faster than in the chloroplasts (Tholen et al., 2014) that the placement of mitochondria does not affect the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂. These assumptions may affect the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rates. In Chapters 4 and 5, I used reaction-diffusion models to check whether the location of mitochondria affects the net CO₂ assimilation rate, while not making the assumption of very fast diffusion of CO₂ in the cytosol.
6.5.1 The position of the mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts affects the net CO₂ assimilation rate and the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂

I parameterized and validated the reaction-diffusion model in Chapter 4 for three scenarios. I assumed that (photo)respiratory CO₂ takes place either in the inner cytosol, or in the outer cytosol, or in the cytosol gaps between the chloroplast. In all leaf types investigated, the predicted net CO₂ assimilation rate was higher if (photo)respired CO₂ takes place in the inner cytosol than in the outer cytosol. If I assumed that (photo)respired CO₂ release took place in the cytosol gaps, the net CO₂ assimilation was in between, but closer to the one predicted by the scenario assuming that (photo)respired CO₂ release takes place in the inner cytosol. In Chapter 4, I also described a method to use the reaction-diffusion model to calculate the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated. I calculated this fraction for each scenario for (photo)respired CO₂ release under saturating light and ambient CO₂ and O₂ partial pressure in the atmosphere. This fraction was strongly affected by the position of the mitochondria. The scenario that assumed that (photo)respired CO₂ took place in the outer cytosol predicted that 56% of the (photo)respired CO₂ was re-assimilated, while the scenario that assumed that this took place in the inner cytosol predicted that 75% was re-assimilated. The scenario that assumed (photo)respired CO₂ release in the cytosol gap predicted 69%.

6.5.2 It is not likely that (photo)respired CO₂ is released in the outer cytosol

In Chapter 4, I validated the reaction-diffusion model by investigating whether the model was capable of predicting the light and CO₂ response curves for light and CO₂ levels that were not used for calibration. It appeared that the model that assumed (photo)respired CO₂ release in the inner cytosol performed best in predicting the net CO₂ assimilation rate, while the model that assumed (photo)respired CO₂ release in the outer cytosol performed worst. The latter model considerably underestimated the net CO₂ assimilation rate at low CO₂ levels or high irradiances. In Chapter 5, I used Akaike's Information Criterion (Akaike, 1974) to compare the predicted and measured CO₂, measured under low and ambient O₂ levels, and light response curves measured
under photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions. There is not a single case in which the model that assumed (photo)respired CO₂ release in the outer cytosol performed substantially better than the other two models. In contrast, in 28 other curves it performed substantially worse than at least one of the other two scenarios. This implies that this scenario is not likely and that it should be avoided in models presented in future research, which use either reaction-diffusion models or models with a partitioned mesophyll resistance.

6.6 To what extent and under which combination of light, CO₂ and O₂ levels does the re-assimilation of CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration affect the net CO₂ assimilation rate of CO₂?

6.6.1 The fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated strongly depends on both environmental conditions and various leaf physiological traits

In order to assess the importance of re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂, in Chapter 5 I used the reaction-diffusion model developed in Chapter 4 to calculate the fraction of re-assimilated CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration under various combinations of irradiances and CO₂ partial pressures in the atmosphere and two O₂ partial pressures. I did these calculations for each scenario of the location of (photo)respired CO₂ release. The differences between the predicted fractions of re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂ were large, especially at high irradiances or low CO₂ partial pressures in the atmosphere. Nevertheless, for all 24 tomato leaf types from two experiments that I used in this study I found very similar trends. The relationship between the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated with the ambient CO₂ level is S-shaped at any oxygen concentration. This fraction can vary considerably with the environmental conditions. For instance, while under intermediate CO₂ ambient conditions (20-40 Pa) this fraction is about 0.8 in 15-day old cv. Admiro tomato leaves, it is only 0.3 at very high CO₂ ambient conditions. I also found that the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated increases with the irradiance, but this increase tends to level off at higher irradiances. We also conducted a sensitivity analysis under ambient CO₂ and
saturating light for this fraction to various FvCB model parameters. Although the response to changes in the rate of respiration in the light was rather weak, the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated responded very strongly to changes in FvCB model parameters that determine the rate of RuBP carboxylation. In addition to the results of Chapters 4 and 5, various studies have attempted to determine the fraction of CO₂ that is re-assimilated. There is a wide variation in the reported values that were obtained by various methodologies. Loreto et al. (1999) determined that 100% of the CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration is re-assimilated in tomato. In contrast, Pärnik and Keerberg (2007) found percentages between 14% and 18% in sunflower. Various other studies reported values in between (Haupt-Herting et al., 2001; Tholen et al., 2012; Busch et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2016). The results from Chapter 5 suggest that these differences can likely be explained by the environmental conditions used in these different studies and/or by the different traits of the leaves that were used. Additionally, Busch et al. (2013) and Ho et al. (2016) showed that this fraction depends on the ratio between the exposed chloroplast surface area to the exposed mesophyll surface area. Since the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ does not only depend on environmental conditions, but also on leaf specific properties, this fraction is likely to be species dependent as well.

6.6.2 The estimates for the rate of respiration are not affected by re-assimilation, but they do depend on oxygen partial pressure

Commonly used models to estimate the rate of respiration in the light (Kok, 1948, 1949; Yin et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2011) exploit the linear relationship between the irradiance and the net CO₂ assimilation rate to estimate the rate of respiration in the light. This assumption of a linear relationship is valid under conditions of low oxygen and light, because under these conditions RuBP carboxylation is limited by electron transport and there is no photorespiration (Yin et al., 2011). However, none of these methods accounts for the re-assimilation of respired CO₂ and implicitly assumes that all respired CO₂ is lost to the atmosphere. This can potentially lead to an underestimation of the rate of respiration if these methods are used. In order to test this hypothesis, I estimated the rate of respiration under photorespiratory and non-
Chapter 6

photorespiratory conditions with the reaction-diffusion models for three scenarios for (photo)respired CO₂ release in Chapter 5. I found that there were almost no differences between the estimates of the respiration rate in the light of the scenarios that assumed that (photo)respiration takes place in the inner cytosol, the outer cytosol or the cytosol gaps between the chloroplasts. Additionally, I showed that the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated is low under low irradiances. I concluded that re-assimilation of respired CO₂ does not have much impact on the net CO₂ assimilation rate under the conditions in which Kok (1948) method and the Yin et al. (2009) method are used to estimate the rate of respiration. This conclusion is further supported by the fact that when I compared the estimates of the Yin et al. (2009)-method with the estimates of the reaction-diffusion models under non-photorespiratory conditions, the estimates by both methods were almost the same. When I compared the estimates of the rate of respiration by the reaction-diffusion model at non-photorespiratory conditions with the estimates at photorespiratory conditions, I found considerable differences between them. For all but one leaf type, the estimate of the rate of respiration was considerably higher at photorespiratory conditions than at non-photorespiratory conditions. This result strongly suggests that the rate of respiration in the light is oxygen dependent. This finding has implications for the use of the Kok (1948) method and Yin et al. (2009) method. These methods are strictly speaking not valid at ambient O₂ levels (Yin et al., 2011) and may therefore only be used under low O₂ levels. However, if the respiration rate is oxygen dependent, the estimates obtained under low O₂ levels cannot be assumed equal to the estimates obtained under normal O₂ levels. In Chapter 3, I actually did make this assumption. This likely explains why there is generally a reasonable fit between the measured and the simulated net CO₂ assimilation by the resistance model from Chapter 3, even though this model assumed that (photo)respired CO₂ is released in the outer cytosol.

6.7 Concluding remarks

Zhu et al. (2010) estimated that decreasing the mesophyll resistance can potentially lead to an increase of the photosynthetic capacity by 20%. Attempts to decrease the mesophyll resistance can therefore potentially contribute to an increase in global crop
yield necessary to fulfil the growing demand for food, feed, fibres and bioenergy (FAO, 2009a; FAO, 2009b). Throughout this dissertation, I showed that mesophyll resistance is very complex. It violates the definition of a physical resistance, because it varies with the intercellular CO₂ concentration and should therefore be considered as an apparent parameter, instead of a resistance. It lumps the effects of physical barriers for CO₂ transport, biochemical processes that add or remove CO₂ along the CO₂ diffusion pathway and the re-assimilation of (photo)respired CO₂. In order to achieve the increase of photosynthetic efficiency by decreasing mesophyll resistance, it is necessary to identify specific targets to alter, and, therefore, to understand all factors that affect mesophyll resistance. In this dissertation, I contributed to this understanding by developing models that describe these factors explicitly and that are capable of simulating their effects on net CO₂ assimilation rate. The first approach I used was to develop a resistance model in Chapter 3. In this model, the mesophyll resistance is partitioned into sub-resistances for various leaf structures. The advantage of this approach is that it allowed directly linking leaf anatomical properties to net CO₂ assimilation rate, but important disadvantages were that respiration and photorespiration were assumed to take place in the outer cytosol and that the diffusion path length of CO₂ in the stroma was uncertain. Therefore, I developed a reaction-diffusion model in Chapter 4 that does not have these disadvantages. I showed in Chapter 5 that this model can be used to quantify the fraction of (photo)respired CO₂ that is re-assimilated and the mesophyll resistance, and to investigate how each individual component along the CO₂ diffusion path affects these factors.

Although these procedures cannot be done by a mesophyll resistance model, it does not necessarily mean that reaction-diffusion models are always preferable over mesophyll resistance models in future research. As long as one is not interested in identifying specific targets to decrease mesophyll resistance or find mechanistic explanations why mesophyll resistance differs along experimental treatments, mesophyll resistance models are a very powerful tool to estimate FvCB model parameters. However, if mesophyll resistance models are used, I want to recommend the use of a phenomenological model (Yin et al., 2009; Gu et al., 2012) These models
are capable of describing the variability of the mesophyll resistance with the intercellular CO₂ partial pressure, unlike mesophyll resistance models that assume a fixed value for this mesophyll resistance. In Chapter 5, I showed that the mesophyll conductance (inverse of mesophyll resistance) calculated by the reaction-diffusion model, assuming (photo)respired CO₂ release in the inner cytosol, has a very similar response to the response calculated by conventional (unpartitioned) mesophyll resistance models (Harley et al., 1992a; Yin and Struik, 2009). This provides further proof that mesophyll resistance is variable and that a phenomenological model is necessary to properly deal with these variations, if one choses to use resistance models. A clear advantage of the phenomenological model for mesophyll resistance from Yin et al. (2009) over the reaction-diffusion model in Chapter 5 is that it does not require predefined diffusion coefficients or leaf anatomical parameters. However, both this framework and models with a constant mesophyll resistance are not able to describe the CO₂ diffusion pathway mechanistically. Therefore, I think that any attempt to partition the mesophyll resistance as defined in these models will constrain the mitochondria to the outer cytosol (Chapter 3), will assume that there is no CO₂ gradient in the cytosol, requires the estimation of more resistances than can be estimated from gas-exchange data, possibly combined with chlorophyll fluorescence or carbon isotope discrimination. In any case, it is not possible to study the position of mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts.

In order to use reaction-diffusion models to investigate how altering these targets can result in an increase in the photosynthetic efficiency, diffusion coefficients of various mesophyll components need to be quantified. Given the uncertainty of these diffusion coefficients, my first recommendation for further research is that more effort should be put on measuring these diffusion coefficients directly. Since these measurements are very challenging and there are very few available (Evans et al., 2009), this may not be feasible in the short term. In order to still exploit the power of reaction-diffusion models as much as possible, my second recommendation is to validate the reaction-diffusion models. This is especially important, if assumed diffusion coefficients are used as input. In Chapters 4 and 5, I showed various examples to do so. Although the
diffusion coefficients of individual mesophyll components may not be realistic, I showed proof that the combination of them makes sense. In order to use the reaction-diffusion model from Chapters 4 and 5 in future studies, I recommend collecting a combination of leaf anatomical data and gas exchange from other C3 species than tomato for further validation. Such a future study is especially interesting if the species that are used have considerably different leaf anatomical and/or physiological properties from tomato. This will contribute to a general understanding of the CO2 diffusion pathway. My final recommendation is to extend the model with explicit descriptions of the temperature sensitivity of physical parameters (diffusion coefficients for CO2, the solubility of CO2 in water and in membranes) and physiological parameters (stomatal conductance, kinetic constants Rubisco, rates of respiration, electron transport, and triose phosphate utilization). Over the next decades, the ambient CO2 partial pressure in the atmosphere and the temperature are both expected to rise (Meehl et al., 2007). Such an extended model may be helpful to understand how leaf photosynthesis is affected by these climate change variables and how various components that affect mesophyll resistance may be altered for crops to adapt to climate change.
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Summary

Photosynthesis can be defined as the process in which light energy is converted into chemical energy. This process is of vital importance for life on Earth, as it allows plants to convert sun light and inorganic carbon (CO$_2$) into biomass. A better understanding of photosynthesis is important from an agronomic perspective. In 2009, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations estimated that the global crop yield has to be increased by 70% by 2050 to meet the global demand for food, fibres and bioenergy due to the increase of the global population. Increasing the efficiency of photosynthesis is necessary to meet this increasing demand, because other measures (increasing the harvest index, the efficiency of light absorption) can only further increase to a small extent and the availability of arable land is limited.

According to the widely used Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry model ("FvCB model"), the net rate of CO$_2$ assimilation is determined by the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco under both Rubisco and electron-transport limited conditions. This CO$_2$ partial pressure is smaller than the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the atmosphere due to various structural barriers that CO$_2$ has to cross to reach Rubisco and various processes that add or remove CO$_2$ along this diffusion pathway. The CO$_2$ partial pressure in the intercellular air spaces of leaves can be directly calculated from gas exchange measurements of CO$_2$ and water vapour. The drawdown of the CO$_2$ partial pressure from the intercellular air spaces to Rubisco is more challenging to determine, as it cannot be determined directly from gas exchange measurements. It is commonly modelled by Fick's first law of diffusion. A formulation of this law is that the flux of a chemical species over a barrier is proportional to the difference in partial pressure of this species at both sides of this barrier. The proportionality constant is the conductance. The inverse of a conductance is a resistance. Commonly, mesophyll resistance models are used to calculate the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco. Decreasing the mesophyll resistance can potentially increase the crop yield by 20%, which can be a major contribution to reach the required 70% increase in crop yield. However, mesophyll resistance is a complex trait. It lumps various barriers for CO$_2$ transport and involves various processes that add or remove CO$_2$ to the diffusion
Summary

pathway. This complexity makes it challenging to identify targets to decrease mesophyll resistance. Therefore, it is necessary to find a more mechanistic description of CO$_2$ transport in the mesophyll. The aim of this dissertation is to investigate how leaf anatomical properties along the CO$_2$ diffusion pathway in C$_3$ leaves and biochemical processes that add CO$_2$ to this diffusion path or remove it affect the photosynthetic capacity of these leaves. In this study, I used *Solanum lycopersicum* (tomato) as a model plant.

Chapter 2 is a literature review, in which I discuss how mesophyll resistance models have been used in previous work and what the advantages and disadvantages of various approaches are. The simplest approach is to assume that the mesophyll resistance is negligible such that the CO$_2$ partial pressure in the intercellular air spaces equals the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco. The disadvantage of this approach is that if these simple models are used to estimate parameters of the FvCB model, the potential effect of mesophyll resistance will be lumped in these biochemical parameters. It has been shown in previous work that this could lead to wrong results, if this model is used for predictions after parameterization. Various methods have been proposed to estimate mesophyll resistance from gas exchange measurements, sometimes combined with chlorophyll fluorescence. These methods are based on (1) Fick's first law to express the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco as a function of the intercellular CO$_2$ partial pressure and the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. (2) Substitute this term in the FvCB model. (3a) either rewrite this term to express the mesophyll resistance directly or (3b) rewrite this term to a term that can be determined from gas exchange measurements or chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. Alternatively, the CO$_2$ partial pressure near Rubisco can be determined by combined measurements of gas exchange and carbon isotope discrimination. Subsequently, the mesophyll resistance can be calculated. Finally, some models use measurements of leaf anatomical properties and assumed values of diffusion coefficients for CO$_2$ of the subcomponents of the mesophyll to calculate the resistance of each subcomponent. These values are used to calculate the overall mesophyll resistance. Each of these methods assumes that the mesophyll resistance is a serial physical resistance. This
means that it is only determined by the temperature and by the thicknesses and the diffusion coefficients for CO$_2$ of various mesophyll components. However, several studies showed that the mesophyll resistance obtained by these methods depends on the intercellular CO$_2$ partial pressure. Consequently, mesophyll resistance must be considered as an apparent variable, rather than a physical resistance. One way to deal with this problem is to use a phenomenological model to describe the mesophyll resistance for parameterization of the FvCB model. Although such a model does consider the variability of the mesophyll resistance, it does not provide any mechanistic explanation for the variability of the mesophyll resistance with the intercellular CO$_2$ partial pressure.

A possible partial explanation for this variability is the release of CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration half way the CO$_2$ diffusion path. This can be modelled by partitioning the mesophyll resistance into two sub-resistances. These are the combined resistance of the cell wall and the plasma membrane and the combined resistance of the chloroplast envelope and the stroma. Between these two resistances, i.e. the cytosol, it is assumed that the release of CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration takes place. In Chapter 3, I used this approach to model CO$_2$ transport in the mesophyll. I quantified the sub-resistances based on leaf anatomical properties. This combined use this model and the partitioning of the mesophyll resistance into two sub-resistances allowed me to directly simulate how changes in leaf anatomical properties affect the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate. I showed that the net CO$_2$ assimilation rate is most sensitive to changes in the ratio of the exposed mesophyll surface area to the leaf area and to the ratio of the the exposed chlorophyll surface area to the exposed mesophyll surface area.

This approach has some limitations. It needs assumed values of diffusion coefficients for CO$_2$ and the ratio of the length of the CO$_2$ diffusion path in the stroma to the stroma thickness. These values area uncertain. The approach of two sub-resistances with a CO$_2$ source in between either assumes that (1) CO$_2$ produced by respiration and photorespiration is released in the outer cytosol (cytosol layer between plasma membrane and chloroplast envelope) or (2) there is no CO$_2$ gradient in the cytosol.
Summary

case (1), the fraction of CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration that is re-assimilated may be underestimated. This can result in an underestimation of the net CO₂ assimilation rate. In case (2), the position of mitochondria relative to the stroma does not have any effect on the re-assimilation of CO₂ produced by (photo)respiration which is not realistic. It is also not possible to use this model to study CO₂ diffusion in the cytosol gaps between the chloroplast. These gaps may be used in reality as a pathway for CO₂ produced by respiration and photorespiration to escape to the intercellular air spaces. Finally, photosynthesis models that include mesophyll resistance are algebraically complex. This makes it both hard to make adjustments and to understand the model's behaviour.

Reaction-diffusion models can be used as an alternative to mesophyll resistance models, since they avoid certain assumptions. First, reaction-diffusion models do not need a predefined ratio of the length of the diffusion pathway in the stroma to the stroma thickness. Second, they allow to specify the position of the mitochondria relative to the chloroplast. In Chapter 2, I describe a literature study in which I investigated the use of these models in previous photosynthesis research. The earliest reaction-diffusion models often used a porous medium approach. A disadvantage of this approach is that it assumes that CO₂ assimilation can take place at any location of the leaf. However, in reality the CO₂ assimilation only occurs in the chloroplasts. Chloroplasts only fill a small fraction of the mesophyll and are concentrated near the exposed mesophyll surface area. Using a porous medium approach results in a predicted CO₂ gradient between the adaxial and the abaxial sides which may not be there in reality. This issue was solved by the modelling CO₂ transport in the gas phase and the liquid phase separately in more recent reaction-diffusion models. Other important improvements are the explicit modelling of individual chloroplasts and restricting RuBP carboxylation to these chloroplasts and respiration and photorespiration outside them. In Chapter 4, I developed a reaction-diffusion model, which I used to analyse gas exchange data combined with chlorophyll fluorescence data. I also used it to study how the position of mitochondria affects the net CO₂ assimilation rate. I found that the predicted net CO₂ assimilation under high
Summary

irradiances or low ambient CO_2 partial pressure is considerably higher if it is assumed that respiration and photorespiration take place in the inner cytosol than in the outer cytosol. If these processes take place in the cytosol gaps, the predicted net CO_2 assimilation is in between. I only used gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence data measured at low irradiiances or low CO_2 partial pressures to estimate of FvCB model parameters with the reaction-diffusion model. In Chapters 4 and 5, I tested the model by predicting the net CO_2 assimilation rate for the remaining combination of oxygen levels, irradiiances and CO_2 partial pressures. In almost all cases, the model that assumed that CO_2 release by respiration and photorespiration take place in the inner cytosol predicted the measurements reasonably well. The models that assumed that these processes take place in the outer cytosol performed worse in predicting CO_2 response curves under photorespiratory conditions, and light response curves in almost all leaf types.

In Chapter 4, I also presented a method to calculate the fraction of (photo)respired CO_2 that is re-assimilated. In Chapter 5, I further used this method to investigate how re-assimilation responds to changes in environmental conditions and leaf physiological parameters. I found that the relationship between the ambient CO_2 partial pressure and the fraction of (photo)respired CO_2 that is re-assimilated has an inverse S shape. It is high at low and intermediate ambient CO_2 levels. For higher CO_2 levels, it strongly decreases. At high ambient CO_2 levels it stabilizes again. The fraction of (photo)respired CO_2 that is re-assimilated is low at low irradiiances and it increases with increased irradiance. The rate of this increase decreased with increased irradiance. I found that increases in the stomatal conductance and the FvCB parameters that determine the sink strength of CO_2 in the chloroplasts can strongly increase the fraction of CO_2 produced by (photo)respiration that is re-assimilated under saturating light and ambient CO_2 levels. In contrast, the fraction of (photo)respired CO_2 that was re-assimilated only slightly decreased with increased rates of respiration under these conditions.

Commonly used methods to estimate the rate of respiration in the light implicitly assume that all CO_2 produced by respiration is released in the atmosphere. This
Summary

assumption can potentially underestimate the respiration rate. In Chapter 5, I investigated this by using the reaction-diffusion model to estimate the rate of respiration directly for each of the scenarios of (photo)respired CO$_2$ release. Under both photorespiratory and non-photorespiratory conditions, the estimate was not affected by the position of the mitochondria relative to the chloroplasts. This can be explained by the low fraction of (photo)respired CO$_2$ that is reassimilated at low light levels. However, I did find that the estimates of the rate of respiration were considerably higher than under non-photorespiratory conditions. This is an indication that the rate of respiration depends on the oxygen partial pressure and that estimates of the rate of respiration obtained under non-photorespiratory conditions should not be assumed equal to the rate of respiration under photorespiratory conditions.

Based on the results of this dissertation, I do not think that mesophyll resistance models are capable of identifying the targets to decrease mesophyll resistance. It is an apparent variable that lumps various structural barriers for CO$_2$ transport and biochemical processes. In order to explain the drawdown of the CO$_2$ partial pressure between the intercellular air spaces and Rubisco, it is necessary to make models that are capable of studying all these factors separately. This can only be done to a limited extent with resistance models that partition the mesophyll resistance into sub-resistances. However, these models either constrain the location of mitochondria in the outer cytosol, and assume that there is no CO$_2$ gradient in the cytosol or require more sub-resistances than can be determined by gas exchange measurements combined with either chlorophyll fluorescence or carbon isotope discrimination measurements. In order to use reaction-diffusion models in further studies, I recommend to put more effort in the measurement of diffusion coefficients for CO$_2$ of various mesophyll components and/or to validate the model from Chapters 4 and 5 for more plant species to check whether the combination of assumed diffusion coefficients makes sense. I want to emphasize that an important disadvantage of reaction-diffusion models is that they may have long computational times, due to the fact that they have to be solved numerically in almost all cases. This limits the number of simulations that can be done by these models within an acceptable time frame. Therefore, I want to recommend to
keep these models simple, whenever possible, to minimize the computational time. Finally, I recommend to extend the model with explicit descriptions of the temperature sensitivity of physical and physiological parameters. This may help to understand how leaf photosynthesis may be affected by the expected rise in both the CO₂ partial pressure and temperature.
**Samenvatting**

Fotosynthese is een proces, waarin lichtenergie wordt omgezet in chemische energie. Dit proces is van vitaal belang voor het leven op aarde, aangezien het planten in staat stelt om geabsorbeerde zonlicht en anorganische koolstof, in de vorm van CO$_2$, om te zetten in biomassa. Vanuit een landbouwkundig gezichtspunt is het belangrijk om dit proces goed te begrijpen. De Food and Agriculture Organization van de Verenigde Naties heeft geschat dat in 2050 de globale gewasopbrengst moet toenemen met 70% ten opzichte van 2009 om te kunnen voldoen aan de globale vraag voor voedsel, vezels en bio-energie vanwege de groeiende wereldbevolking en veranderende voedingspatronen. Het is daarom noodzakelijk dat de efficiëntie van fotosynthese hoger wordt, aangezien andere ingrepen slechts zeer beperkt kunnen bijdragen aan het verhogen van de gewasopbrengst. Ook is er maar een beperkte hoeveelheid landbouwgrond beschikbaar.

Volgens het veel gebruikte model van Farquhar, Von Caemmerer en Berry ("FvCB-model"), hangt de netto snelheid van CO$_2$-opname af van de CO$_2$-partieeldruk bij Rubisco – het sleutelenzym van de koolstoffixatie. Dit geldt zowel als de CO$_2$-opname wordt gelimiteerd door de capaciteit van Rubisco als door de snelheid van elektronentransport. De CO$_2$-partieeldruk bij Rubisco is kleiner dan de CO$_2$-partieeldruk onder de meeste omstandigheden vanwege verschillende barrières die CO$_2$ moet passeren om Rubisco te bereiken en vanwege verschillende processen die CO$_2$ kunnen toevoegen of verwijderen van het diffusiepad. De CO$_2$-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte binnen bladeren kan direct worden bepaald van gasuitwisselingsmetingen voor CO$_2$ en waterdamp op het bladoppervlak. Het verschil in de CO$_2$-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte en Rubisco is moeilijker om te onderzoeken, omdat dit niet direct kan worden bepaald met gaswisselingsmetingen. Gewoonlijk wordt dit verschil bepaald met behulp van de eerste wet van Fick voor diffusie. Volgens deze wet is de flux van een stof over een barrière evenredig met het verschil in partieeldruk aan beide zijdes van deze barrière. De evenredigheidsconstante van dit verband is de geleidbaarheid. De inverse van de geleidbaarheid is de weerstand. Gewoonlijk worden modellen voor mesofylweerstand gebruikt om de CO$_2$-
Samenvatting

partieeldruk bij Rubisco te bepalen. Het verkleinen van de mesofylweerstand kan mogelijk leiden tot een toename van de gewasopbrengst met 20%, wat een belangrijke bijdrage kan zijn om de noodzakelijke 70% toename van de globale gewasopbrengst te behalen. De mesofylweerstand is echter een ingewikkelde bladeigenschap. Hij wordt bepaald door de weerstand van allerlei barrières voor CO₂-transport en wordt ook beïnvloed door verschillende processen die CO₂ toevoegen of verwijderen van het CO₂-diffusiepad in het mesofyl. Deze complexiteit maakt het moeilijk om specifieke eigenschappen of processen aan te wijzen die kunnen worden worden veranderd om de mesofylweerstand te verlagen. Daarom is het nodig om een meer mechanistische beschrijving voor CO₂-transport in bladeren te vinden. Het doel van dit proefschrift is om uit te zoeken hoe de efficiëntie van fotosynthese wordt beïnvloed door anatomische eigenschappen van bladeren van C₃-planten en biochemische processen die CO₂ toevoegen of verwijderen van het diffusiepad. In dit onderzoek heb ik tomaat als modelplant gebruikt.

Hoofdstuk 2 is een literatuuroverzicht, waarin ik bespreek hoe het concept mesofylweerstand werd toegepast in eerder onderzoek en wat de voor- en nadelen van verschillende benaderingen zijn. De makkelijkste benadering is om aan te nemen dat de weerstand van het mesofyl verwaarloosbaar is. De CO₂-partieeldruk bij Rubisco is dan gelijk aan die van de intercellulaire ruimte. Het nadeel van deze benadering is dat het effect van de mesofylweerstand invloed heeft op geschatte waardes van parameters van het FvCB model. Uit eerder onderzoek is gebleken dat deze benaderingen kunnen leiden tot verkeerde resultaten, als zo een model wordt gebruikt voor voorspellingen nadat de FvCB parameters zijn geschat. Er zijn verschillende methoden beschreven om de weerstand van het mesofyl te schatten met behulp van gaswisselingsmetingen, soms in combinatie met metingen van chlorofylfluorescentie. Deze methodes zijn gebaseerd op (1) het uitdrukken van de CO₂-partieeldruk bij Rubisco als een functie van de CO₂-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte, (2) substitutie van deze term in het FvCB model, en (3a) het herschrijven van deze term naar de mesofylweerstand ofwel (3b) het herschrijven van deze term naar een andere term die met metingen van gaswisseling en chlorofylfluorescentie kan worden bepaald. In plaats van deze
Samenvatting

benaderingen kan de CO₂-partieeldruk worden bepaald met behulp van een combinatie van gaswisselingsmetingen en metingen van de discriminatie van koolstofisotopen. Vervolgens kan de mesofylweerstand worden berekend. Tenslotte worden in een aantal onderzoeken bladantomische eigenschappen en aangenomen waarden van diffusiecoëfficiënten voor CO₂ van verschillende individuele onderdelen van het mesofyl gebruikt om de weerstand van elk onderdeel uit te rekenen. Vervolgens kan de mesofylweerstand worden berekend. Elk van de bovengenoemde methoden gaat er vanuit dat de mesofylweerstand een samengestelde weerstand is. Dit betekent dat zijn waarde slechts afhangt van de temperatuur en van de diffusiecoëfficiënten van de verschillende onderdelen van het mesofyl. Uit verschillende onderzoeken bleek echter dat de waarde van de mesofylweerstand, die met deze methoden is bepaald, afhangt van de CO₂-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte. Dit geef aan dat de mesofyl weerstand moet worden beschouwd als een functie die afhangt van de de CO₂-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte en niet als een fysische weerstand. Een manier om met de variabiliteit van de mesofylweerstand om te gaan is om een fenomenologisch model te gebruiken om de mesofylweerstand te beschrijven om de parameters van het FvCB model te kunnen schatten. Hoewel zo een model in staat is om de variabiliteit van de mesofylweerstand te beschrijven, geeft het geen mechanistische uitleg waarom de mesofylweerstand varieert met de CO₂-partieeldruk in de intercellulaire ruimte.

Een mogelijke uitleg voor deze variabiliteit is het vrijkomen van CO₂, geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie. Dit vindt halverwege het CO₂-diffusiepad in het mesofyl plaats. Een manier om dit te modelleren is het opdelen van de mesofylweerstand in twee individuele weerstanden. Dit zijn de samengestelde weerstand van de celwand en het plasmamembraan en de samengestelde weerstand van de chloroplastenveloppe en de stroma van chloroplasten. Tussen deze weerstanden bevindt zich het cytosol, waarin CO₂ vrijkomt dat is geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie. In Hoofdstuk 3 heb ik deze benadering gebruikt om de mesofylweerstand te modelleren en ik heb de twee individuele weerstanden bepaald door ze te berekenen met aangenomen diffusiecoëfficiënten en bladantomische
Samenvatting
eigenschappen. Door deze benadering toe te passen kon ik direct simuleren hoe de netto CO₂-opname wordt beïnvloed door veranderingen van bladanatomische eigenschappen. Ik heb zo laten zien dat de netto CO₂ het meest afhangt van de verhouding van de oppervlakte van het mesofyl dat blootgesteld is aan de intercellulaire ruimte en de oppervlakte van het blad en van de verhouding van de oppervlakte van de chloroplasten aan de kant van de intercellulaire ruimte en het oppervlakte van het blootgestelde mesofyl.

De benadering heeft een aantal beperkingen. Het is noodzakelijk om waardes aan te nemen voor de diffusiecoëfficiënten van CO₂ en voor de verhouding van de lengte van het CO₂-diffusiepad in de stroma en de totale dikte van de stroma. Deze waarden zijn onzeker. Verder gaat de benadering van twee weerstanden er van uit dat ofwel (1) CO₂ geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie vrijkomt in het buiten-cytosol (de laag cytosol tussen het plasmamembraan en de chloroplastenveloppe aan de kant van de intercellulaire ruimte), ofwel (3) dat er geen CO₂-gradiënt in het cytosol is. In het eerste geval (1) kan het percentage van CO₂ dat door ademhaling en fotorespiratie wordt geproduceerd en opnieuw wordt opgenomen worden onderschat. In het tweede geval (2) zal de positie van mitochondriën geen enkel effect hebben op de re-assimilatie van CO₂ geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie. Dit is niet realistisch. Het is ook niet mogelijk om met dit model CO₂-diffusie te modelleren in de cytosolruimtes tussen de chloroplasten. In werkelijkheid vormen deze gaten een pad, waarover CO₂ geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie kan ontsnappen naar intercellulaire ruimte. Tenslotte zijn fotosynthesemodellen met mesofylweerstand algebraïsch complex. Dit maakt het zowel moeilijk om het model aan te passen als om het gedrag van het model te begrijpen.

Reactie-diffusiemodellen kunnen worden gebruikt als alternatief voor modellen met mesofylweerstand, aangezien bepaalde aannames niet door deze modellen worden gemaakt. Ten eerste hebben reactie-diffusiemodellen geen aangenomen verhouding van de lengte van het diffusiepad in de stroma en de dikte van het stroma nodig als invoerparameter. Ten tweede is het in reactie-diffusiemodellen wel mogelijk om aan te geven waar de mitochondriën zich bevinden ten opzichte van de chloroplasten.
Hoofdstuk 2 bevat een literatuuronderzoek, waarin ik beschrijf hoe reactiediffusiemodellen in het verleden werden toegepast in onderzoek over fotosynthese. De vroegste reactie-diffusiemodellen gebruikten vaak de benadering van een poreus medium om de structuur van het mesofyl te modelleren. Het nadeel van deze benadering is dat wordt aangenomen dat CO₂-opname op elke mogelijke plaats in het mesofyl kan plaatsvinden. In werkelijkheid vindt CO₂-opname slechts plaats in de chloroplasten. Deze nemen slechts een klein deel van het totale volume mesofyl in en bevinden zich voornamelijk vlakbij het oppervlakte van het mesofyl dat is blootgesteld aan de intercellulaire ruimte. Wanneer de benadering van poreuze media wordt toepast, kan er een CO₂-gradiënt worden voorspeld tussen de bovenkant en de onderkant van het blad die er in werkelijkheid niet is, er vanuit gaande dat er slechts huidmondjes zijn aan de onderkant van het blad. Dit probleem werd opgelost door de gasfase en de vloeibare fase van CO₂-diffusie in het mesofyl in gescheiden compartimenten te modelleren. Een andere belangrijke verbetering in meer recente modellen is dat chloroplasten als losse compartimenten werden gemodelleerd en dat RuBP carboxylatie slechts in deze compartimenten plaatsvindt en CO₂-productie door ademhaling en fotorespiratie daarbuiten. In Hoofdstuk 4 beschrijf ik een reactie-diffusiemodel dat ik gebruikte om data van metingen van gaswisseling en chlorofylfluorescentie te analyseren. Ik heb dit model ook gebruikt om na te gaan hoe de positie van de mitochondriën invloed heeft op de netto CO₂-opname. Ik heb gevonden dat de snelheid van netto CO₂-opname hoger is als wordt aangenomen dat CO₂ productie door ademhaling en fotorespiratie plaatsvindt in het binnencytosol dan als deze processen plaatsvinden in het buitencytosol. Dit verschil is vooral duidelijk waar te nemen bij lage CO₂ niveaus of hoge lichtintensiteiten Als deze processen plaatsvinden in de cytosolruimtes tussen de chloroplasten, dan ligt de snelheid van netto CO₂-opname daar tussenin. Ik heb bij de schatting van de parameters van het FvCB model met het reactie-diffusiemodel slechts gebruik gemaakt van data van gaswisseling en chlorofylfluorescentie gemeten bij lage CO₂-niveaus en lichtintensiteiten. In Hoofdstuk 4 en 5 heb ik het reactie-diffusiemodel gevalideerd voor de overgebleven data gemeten onder andere combinaties van zuurstofniveaus, CO₂-niveaus en lichtintensiteiten. In vrijwel alle gevallen was het model voldoende in
Samenvatting

staat om deze metingen te beschrijven, als werd wordt aangenomen dat CO₂ geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie vrij komt in het binnencytosol.

In Hoofdstuk 4 heb ik een methode beschreven waarmee het percentage kan worden berekend van de CO₂ geproduceerd door ademhaling en fotorespiratie die opnieuw wordt opgenomen. In Hoofdstuk 5 heb ik deze methode verder gebruikt om uit te zoeken hoe re-assimilatie afhankt van het milieu en van bladfysiologische parameters. Ik heb gevonden dat de relatie tussen dit percentage en de CO₂-partieeldruk in de atmosfeer een sigoïdaal verloop heeft. Bij lage en gemiddelde CO₂-niveaus ligt het percentage hoog. Daarna vindt er een sterke daling plaats als de CO₂-partieeldruk in de atmosfeer verder wordt verlaagd. Bij hoge CO₂-partieeldruk stabiliseert het percentage weer. Het percentage van CO₂, geproduceerd door ademhaling en ftorespiratie, is laag bij lage lichtniveaus en stijgt met een toenemende lichtintensiteit. Ik heb ook gevonden dat de het percentage sterk toeneemt onder standaard CO₂-niveaus in de atmosfeer en verzadigde lichtintensiteit met toenemende geleidbaarheid van de huidmondjes en toenemende waardes van parameters van het FvCB model die de snelheid van CO₂-verbruik voor RuBP carboxylatie bepalen.

De gebruikelijk methoden om de snelheid van CO₂-productie door ademhaling gaan er impliciet vanuit dat alle CO₂, geproduceerd door ademhaling in het licht, verloren gaat aan de atmosfeer. Mogelijk kan deze aannname de snelheid van ademhaling in het licht onderschatten. In Hoofdstuk 5 heb ik dit onderzocht door het reactie-diffusiemodel direct te gebruiken om de snelheid van ademhaling in het licht te schatten van data van gaswisseling en chlorofylfluorescentie. Onder zowel omstandigheden met ftorespiratie als zonder ftorespiratie, heb ik gevonden dat de positie van de mitochondriën ten opzichte van de chloroplasten geen invloed heeft op de schattingen van de snelheid van ademhaling in het licht. Dit kan worden verklaard doordat het percentage van CO₂, geproduceerd door ademhaling en ftorespiratie, zeer laag is onder lage lichtniveaus. Ik heb echter wel gevonden dat de schattingen van de snelheid van ademhaling substantieel hoger zijn onder omstandigheden met ftorespiratie dan bij omstandigheden zonder ftorespiratie. Dit is een indicatie dat de snelheid van ademhaling afhangt van de O₂-partieeldruk en dat schattingen van de snelheid van
Samenvatting

ademhaling onder omstandigheden zonder fotorespiratie niet zonder meer gelijk kunnen worden gesteld aan de snelheid van ademhaling onder omstandigheden met fotorespiratie.

Op basis van de resultaten in dit proefschrift denk ik niet dat modellen voor de weerstand van het mesofyl in staat zijn om factoren te identificeren die kunnen worden veranderd om de mesofylweerstand te veranderen. Mesofylweerstand is een CO₂-afhankelijke functie die barrières voor CO₂-transport en biochemische processen samenvoegt. Het is noodzakelijk om deze barrières en processen expliciet te modelleren om een verklaring te vinden voor de afname van de CO₂-particeldruk tussen de intercellulaire ruimte en Rubisco. Dit doel kan in beperkte mate worden bereikt met weerstandsmodellen die de mesofylweerstand opdelen in twee individuele weerstanden. Deze modellen gaat er echter vanuit dat mitochondriën zich slechts in het buitencytosol bevinden, of ze nemen aan dat er geen CO₂-gradiënt in het cytosol bestaat, of ze zullen meer weerstanden nodig hebben dan dat er kunnen worden bepaald aan de hand van gaswisselingmetingen gecombineerd met metingen van chlorofylfluorescentie of discriminatie van koolstofisotopen. Als reactie-diffusiemodellen in toekomstig fotosynthese onderzoek worden gebruikt, dan raad ik aan om meer prioriteit te geven aan het meten van de diffusiecoëfficiënten van de verschillende onderdelen van het mesofyl en/of om modellen, zoals die in Hoofdstuk 4 en 5, verder te valideren voor andere plantensoorten dan tomaat om te zien of combinatie van aangenomen diffusiecoëfficiënten nog steeds resulteert in correcte voorspellingen van de netto-snelheid van CO₂-opname. Ik wil benadrukken dat een belangrijk nadeel van reactie-diffusiemodellen is dat ze lange rekentijden kunnen hebben, aangezien ze vrijwel altijd numeriek moeten worden opgelost. Dit beperkt het aantal simulaties dat met deze modellen kan worden gedaan binnen een aanvaardbare tijdsduur. Daarom raad ik sterk aan om deze modellen, waar mogelijk, zo eenvoudig mogelijk te houden om de rekentijd te minimaliseren. Tenslotte wil ik aanraden om het model uit te breiden met expliciete beschrijvingen van de reactie van fysische en fysiologische parameters ten opzichte van de temperatuur. Dit kan helpen om beter te
Samenvatting

begrijpen hoe de bladfotosynthese wordt beïnvloed door de in de toekomst verwachte stijgingen van de CO$_2$-partieeldruk in de atmosfeer en de temperatuur.
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For me, doing a PhD meant that I had to do a lot of work on my own. This is a lonely business. I sometimes tended to focus so much on my own project that I was not able to see the overall picture anymore. The CSA Photosynthesis Discussion Group was a great opportunity for me to interact with other PhD students, postdocs, and permanent staff in CSA, who are working on photosynthesis. This platform helped me significantly to develop my ideas and improve my research. I want to thank my supervisors prof. dr. ir. Paul Struik and dr. Xinyou Yin for stimulating me to establish this discussion group. I also want to thank Peter van der Putten, Alejandro Morales Sierra and dr. ir. Tjeerd-Jan Stomph for their willingness to actively participate in this discussion group for years. Tjeerd-Jan, I appreciated your very broad interest, your enthusiasm and your useful advices during these discussion group meetings. Alejandro, I am really impressed by your modelling skills. I am also impressed by
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Curriculum vitae

Herman Nicolaas Cornelis Berghuijs was born on November 29, 1986, in Voorburg, the Netherlands. He grew up in Zoetermeer, the Netherlands. There, he graduated from high school in 2005. In 2008, he obtained his BSc degree Biology at Leiden University (the Netherlands), in which he specialized in molecular microbiology. During his BSc thesis, he examined whether *Bacillus subtilis* strains can be used as a biocontrol agent to prevent infection of tomato roots by the soil-borne pathogenic fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* sp. *lycorpersici*. This research was done under the supervision of dr. Floricia Constantinescu and prof. Cees van den Hondel. Afterwards, he started his MSc Biology at Wageningen University, in which he specialized in mathematical biology. During his MSc, he finished two theses. In his first thesis, he developed a mathematical model to compare weed seed bank dynamics in a crop rotation system and in a monoculture system. This research was done under the supervision of dr. Lammert Bastiaans and dr. Wopke van der Werf in the Crop and Weed Ecology group of the Centre for Crop Systems Analysis. During his second thesis, he developed a reaction-diffusion model to simulate the dispersal of the predator carabid beetle *Pterostichus melanarius* on arable lands. This research was done under the supervision of dr. Bas Allema, dr. Lia Hemerik in Biometris and dr. Wopke van der Werf. Both theses have resulted in papers that have been presented at international conferences. In 2011, he obtained his MSc degree. Afterwards, he started his joined PhD at Wageningen University and the Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (Belgium) under supervision of prof. dr. Paul Struik, prof. dr. Bart Nicolaï and dr. Xinyou Yin. During this period, he worked both in the Centre for Crop Systems Analysis (Wageningen University) and the MeBioS division (Katholieke Universiteit Leuven). He examined how leaf anatomy and various biochemical processes that add or remove CO₂ from the CO₂ diffusion pathway in the mesophyll affect the photosynthetic capacity of C₃ leaves. The details of his PhD research can be found in this thesis.
List of publications


**Retta MA, Ho QT, Yin X, Verboven P, Berghuijs HNC, Struik PC, Nicolaï BM.** 2016 A two-dimensional model of gas exchange during photosynthesis in maize (Zea mays L.) leaves. Accepted by *Plant Science*
PE&RC Training and Education Statement

With the training and education activities listed below the PhD candidate has complied with the requirements set by the C.T. de Wit Graduate School for Production Ecology and Resource Conservation (PE&RC) which comprises of a minimum total of 32 ECTS (= 22 weeks of activities)

Review of literature (6 ECTS)
- Reaction-diffusion models extend our understanding of C₃ leaf photosynthesis: opportunities and challenges

Writing of project proposal (4.5 ECTS)
- Physiological and genetic analysis of 3D microscale gas exchange and light penetration

Post-graduate courses (6.8 ECTS)
- Photosynthesis, climate and change; PE&RC (2012)
- Theoretical ecology; RSEE (2012)
- Biofluidics; KU Leuven (2013)

Laboratory training and working visits (1.5 ECTS)
- LICOR Training; LICOR BioScience (2012)
- Various work visits; COMSOL Multiphysics (2012-2014)

Invited review of (unpublished) journal manuscript (1 ECTS)
- PlosOne: relationship between mesophyll conductance and patchy stomatal closure (2015)

Competence strengthening / skills courses (2.4 ECTS)
- Project and time management; WGS (2015)
- Interpersonal communication skills; WGS (2015)
- Career assessment; WGS (2015)

PE&RC Annual meetings, seminars and the PE&RC weekend (1.5 ECTS)
- PE&RC Weekend, first year (2012)
- PE&RC Weekend, last year (2014)

Discussion groups / local seminars / other scientific meetings (7.5 ECTS)
- Modelling and statistics discussion group (2012-2014)
- CSA Photosynthesis discussion group; including the coordination (2012-2015)

International symposia, workshops and conferences (8.3 ECTS)
- COMSOL Conference (2015)
- Biosolar cells cluster meeting (2012, 2014)
- Biosolar cells annual meeting (2012-2014)

Lecturing / supervision of practical’s / tutorials (1.5 ECTS)
- Plant adaptation and plasticity (2012)
- Crop systems analysis (2012, 2013)
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