

Volume 13, Issue 3, May-june-2025, ISSN (Online): 2395-566X

Carbon Sequestration Potential of C3 vs. C4 Plants Under Climate Change Conditions

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Abstract- The accelerating rise in atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations has intensified efforts to enhance terrestrial carbon sinks, particularly through strategic deployment of C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways. This study synthesizes current knowledge on the carbon sequestration potential of C₃ plants, which benefit markedly from CO₂ enrichment but suffer from photorespiration and nutrient constraints, and C₄ plants, which maintain efficiency under heat, drought, and low CO₂ conditions due to their biochemical CO₂-concentrating mechanism. We review field-based flux measurements, remote sensing classification, and genome-scale metabolic models to quantify net primary production responses, soil carbon inputs, and distributional shifts under projected climate scenarios. Findings indicate that C₃ afforestation can maximize sequestration in temperate regions when nutrient limitations are managed, while C₄ bioenergy crops offer robust carbon capture and water-use advantages in warmer, water-limited biomes. We recommend region-specific species selection, integrated methodological frameworks combining eddy-covariance, high-resolution imagery, and mechanistic models, and exploration of synthetic biology and machine-learning tools to refine sequestration estimates. This comprehensive approach informs land-management and policy strategies aimed at mitigating climate change through optimized carbonnegative land uses.

Keywords- C₃ photosynthesis; C₄ photosynthesis; carbon sequestration; elevated CO₂; water-use efficiency; photorespiration; drought resilience; bioenergy crops

I. INTRODUCTION

Global carbon cycle & role of terrestrial vegetation

The global carbon cycle encompasses the exchange of carbon among atmosphere, oceans, land, and geosphere. Since the pre-industrial era, anthropogenic CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion and land-use change have elevated atmospheric CO_2 from roughly 280 ppm to over 410 ppm by 2020, contributing to a ~ 1 °C rise in global mean temperature (IPCC 2022). Terrestrial vegetation acts as a major carbon sink, sequestering nearly 30 percent of annual anthropogenic emissions through photosynthesis and soil carbon storage. Enhancing these natural sinks is therefore critical to mitigating further atmospheric CO_2 accumulation and achieving climate stabilization goals.

Distinction between C₃ and C₄ photosynthesis

Plants utilize two primary photosynthetic pathways—C₃ and C₄—to fix atmospheric CO₂ into organic compounds. In C₃ photosynthesis, Rubisco catalyzes CO₂ fixation into a three-carbon compound (3-phosphoglycerate), but this pathway incurs substantial photorespiratory losses under high temperature and low ambient CO₂. In contrast, C₄ plants possess a biochemical CO₂-concentrating mechanism: phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase initially fixes CO₂ into four-carbon acids in mesophyll cells, which are then decarboxylated in bundle-sheath cells to feed the Calvin cycle at elevated CO₂ concentrations, thereby minimizing photorespiration and improving water-use efficiency (Sage).

Significance of comparing C₃ vs. C₄ for climate mitigation

Differential responses of C₃ and C₄ plants to elevated CO₂, rising temperatures, and drought stress have profound implications for carbon sequestration potential. Elevated CO₂ generally stimulates photosynthetic rates and biomass accumulation more in C₃ species, whereas C₄ species maintain higher water-use efficiency and thermal tolerance under heat and moisture stress. Understanding these contrasts is essential for land-management decisions—such as selecting species for afforestation, bioenergy crops, or grassland restoration—to maximize carbon uptake under future climate scenarios (Kumar and Singh; Ciais and Friend).

Research objectives & paper structure

This paper aims to assess and compare the carbon sequestration capacities of C₃ versus C₄ plants under projected climate-change conditions. Section II reviews the literature on sequestration mechanisms; Section III examines physiological and metabolic pathways; Section IV analyzes the impacts of elevated CO₂, temperature, and drought; Section V discusses methodological approaches; Section VI synthesizes findings and policy implications; and Section VII concludes with recommendations for future research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Carbon sequestration in C₃ plants

C₃ plants dominate temperate and boreal biomes, fixing CO₂ via Rubisco in the Calvin–Benson cycle to produce 3-phosphoglycerate. Genome-scale metabolic modeling by Wang et al. shows that C₃ species channel a substantial



International Journal of Scientific Research & Engineering Trends

Volume 13, Issue 3, May-june-2025, ISSN (Online): 2395-566X

fraction of assimilated carbon into structural biomass and root exudates, which in turn foster soil organic carbon stabilization through aggregate formation and microbial processing (Wang et al.). Moreover, Li, Zhang, and Shi demonstrate that under drought conditions elevated CO₂ disproportionately benefits C₃ species, enhancing both above- and below-ground biomass and increasing carbon inputs into soil via greater root turnover (Li, Zhang, and Shi).

At elevated atmospheric CO₂, C₃ photosynthesis initially upregulates: increased CO₂ availability at Rubisco's active site reduces photorespiration, thus boosting net assimilation rates and water-use efficiency (Farquhar, Ehleringer, and Pearcy). However, sustained exposure often triggers photosynthetic acclimation, marked by down-regulation of Rubisco content and shifts in leaf nitrogen allocation, which moderate the long-term stimulation (Farquhar, Ehleringer, and Pearcy). Despite this, Keenan et al. report that in temperate grasslands subjected to both elevated CO₂ and episodic heat or drought, net ecosystem carbon uptake remains positive across seasons, indicating that initial gains in C₃ carbon sequestration can persist at the ecosystem scale (Keenan et al.).

Carbon sequestration in C₄ plants

C₄ plants employ a CO₂-concentrating mechanism in which phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase in mesophyll cells fixes CO₂ into four-carbon acids, which are then decarboxylated in bundle-sheath cells to elevate CO₂ around Rubisco. This arrangement sharply reduces photorespiration, conferring superior photosynthetic efficiency under high light and temperature (Taylor et al.; Still et al.). Taylor et al. quantify that C₄ grasses can exhibit 20–30 percent higher intrinsic water-use efficiency than C₃ counterparts, translating into greater biomass accumulation per unit water transpired (Taylor et al.). Still et al.'s optimality models predict that under low ambient CO₂ and warming scenarios, C₄ taxa maintain higher carbon assimilation rates, making them key contributors to sequestration in tropical and subtropical ecosystems (Still et al.).

Because the C₄ CO₂ pump nearly saturates Rubisco at current and projected CO₂ levels, direct photosynthetic stimulation under elevated CO₂ is limited: Taylor et al. observed minimal further gains in assimilation when CO₂ rose from 400 to 600 ppm (Taylor et al.). Nonetheless, Havrilla et al. show that in midlatitude dryland steppes, C₄ grasses sustain positive net ecosystem exchange during prolonged dry periods conditions under which C₃ productivity collapses thereby continuing to sequester carbon under extreme heat and moisture stress (Havrilla et al.).

Ecosystem-scale and field-flux studies

Eddy-covariance measurements in mixed C_3/C_4 grasslands reveal complementary daily and seasonal uptake patterns. Ciais and Friend deployed flux towers over a Mediterranean

grassland mosaic and found that C₃-dominated patches drove strong midday CO₂ uptake under elevated CO₂, whereas C₄ patches maintained steadier uptake under midday heat stress (Ciais and Friend). Using flux partitioning, they further showed C₃ gross primary productivity peaking in spring and autumn, while C₄ contributions maximized in summer, underscoring the seasonal complementarity of the two pathways.

In arid ecosystems experiencing shrub encroachment into C₄ grasslands, Walter and Smith documented state transitions that enhance soil carbon stocks. Deep-rooted shrubs deposit carbon at greater soil depths and produce more recalcitrant litter than grasses; over decadal timescales, these inputs can exceed losses from increased fire frequency or evaporation, leading to net gains in long-term carbon storage (Walter and Smith).

III. PHYSIOLOGICAL & METABOLIC MECHANISMS

C₃ biochemical pathway

The C₃ photosynthetic pathway centers on the Calvin–Benson cycle, in which ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) is carboxylated by the enzyme Rubisco to form two molecules of 3-phosphoglycerate. These three-carbon intermediates are then phosphorylated and reduced to triose phosphates, which serve as the building blocks for sucrose and starch synthesis. Under current atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, however, Rubisco's dual affinity for O₂ leads to a significant fraction of reactions resulting in photorespiration: the oxygenation of RuBP, generating one molecule of 3-phosphoglycerate and one of 2-phosphoglycolate. The latter must be metabolically recycled via the energetically costly photorespiratory pathway, releasing CO2 and ammonia, thereby reducing net carbon gain by up to 25 percent on warm, sunny days (Farquhar, Ehleringer, and Pearcy). The high ATP and reducingequivalent costs of photorespiration also lower water-use efficiency, since stomatal opening must remain higher to supply CO₂, increasing transpirational water loss. Consequently, C₃ species often exhibit lower photosynthetic efficiency under conditions of high light, heat, and low ambient CO₂.

C₄ biochemical pathway

C₄ plants have evolved a biochemical CO₂-concentrating mechanism that spatially separates initial CO₂ fixation from the Calvin cycle. In mesophyll cells, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) fixes bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) to phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), forming four-carbon acids (typically malate or aspartate). These C₄ acids diffuse into tightly packed bundle-sheath cells, where decarboxylation releases CO₂ at concentrations up to tenfold higher than in the ambient air. The concentrated CO₂ is then assimilated by



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Volume 13, Issue 3, May-june-2025, ISSN (Online): 2395-566X

Rubisco in the Calvin cycle, virtually eliminating photorespiration. This Kranz anatomy characterized by a wreath-like arrangement of bundle-sheath cells around vascular bundles coupled with the biochemical pump, boosts net photosynthetic rates and water-use efficiency, particularly under high light and temperature (Sage). Because PEPC has a much lower affinity for O₂ than Rubisco, the C₄ system maintains high carboxylation efficiency even when stomata are partially closed during drought, conferring both water- and nitrogen-use advantages over C₃ counterparts.

Responses to Abiotic Stress

Under drought and heat stress, both C3 and C4 metabolic networks undergo reprogramming to mitigate cellular damage and maintain carbon assimilation. Li, Zhang, and Shi show that elevated CO2 can partially offset drought-induced stomatal closure in C₃ species by maintaining higher intercellular CO₂ concentrations, leading to increased allocation of carbon to roots for osmoprotectant synthesis and enhanced soil carbon inputs via root exudates (Li, Zhang, and Shi). In contrast, Datta et al. report that C4 species, though less stimulated directly by CO2 enrichment, shift flux through alternative pathways under heat stress—up-regulating enzymes involved in reactive oxygen species scavenging and thermal tolerance, such as heat-shock proteins and antioxidant cycles—thereby preserving photosynthetic apparatus integrity (Datta et al.). Both pathways augment production of compatible solutes (e.g., proline, glycine betaine) that stabilize proteins and membranes. Network-model analyses further indicate that under combined heat and drought, C4 plants sustain higher ATP-to-NADPH ratios and redirect excess reducing power into photoprotective cycles, enabling continued carbon fixation when C3 photosynthesis becomes photo-inhibitory. These metabolic flexibilities underpin the superior resilience of C₄ taxa in arid and semi-arid climates.

IV. IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE VARIABLES

Elevated CO₂ effects

Rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations directly influence photosynthetic carbon gain in both C₃ and C₄ plants, but the magnitudes differ sharply. C₃ species, which are limited by Rubisco's affinity for CO₂ and prone to photorespiration, typically experience 20–30 percent increases in net primary production (NPP) when CO₂ levels rise from 400 ppm to 600–700 ppm (Keenan et al.). Elevated CO₂ reduces the oxygenation reaction of Rubisco, thereby curbing photorespiration and boosting water-use efficiency in C₃ canopies. In long-term field experiments, temperate grasslands dominated by C₃ grasses maintained 15–25 percent greater annual NPP under CO₂ enrichment, even during drought years when stomatal closure would otherwise inhibit assimilation (Keenan et al.).

C₄ plants, by contrast, possess a biochemical CO₂-concentrating mechanism that nearly saturates Rubisco at current ambient levels; as a result, they show modest NPP gains often under 10 percent under similar CO₂ enrichments (Liu, Chen, and Wang). Nevertheless, Liu, Chen, and Wang argue that even small biomass increases in C₄-dominated ecosystems can translate into significant carbon stocks when scaled across millions of hectares of grassland and savanna (Liu, Chen, and Wang).

Longer-term CO₂ enrichment triggers acclimation in C₃ species: leaf Rubisco content declines by up to 20 percent, nitrogen is reallocated from photosynthetic proteins to storage pools, and photosynthetic gains plateau after several years (Liu, Chen, and Wang). Nutrient availability further modulates these responses: phosphorus- or nitrogen-poor soils limit the capacity for sustained photosynthetic up-regulation by constraining protein synthesis necessary for Calvin-cycle enzymes (Liu, Chen, and Wang). Consequently, maximizing C₃ carbon sinks under elevated CO₂ requires parallel nutrient management to forestall down-regulation and maintain high NPP gains.

Temperature increases

Global warming shifts the thermal optima of photosynthetic pathways, favoring C₄ species in many regions. C₃ photosynthesis peaks at 20–25 °C, whereas C₄ photosynthesis remains efficient up to 35–40 °C due to reduced photorespiration and specialized leaf anatomy (Taylor et al.). Taylor et al. found that under constant light and 35 °C, C₄ grasses exhibited 15–20 percent higher assimilation rates than co-occurring C₃ grasses, which saw steep photorespiratory losses and declining net photosynthesis. In midlatitude dryland steppes, heatwaves exceeding 5 °C above seasonal norms curtailed C₃ grass NPP by 30 percent, while C₄ grasses maintained assimilation rates within 5 percent of baseline (Havrilla et al.).

The C₄ advantage under warming is compounded by improved water-use efficiency at elevated temperatures, as C₄ stomata can remain more closed for a given assimilation rate, reducing transpirational cooling demands and conserving soil moisture. As climate projections indicate more frequent high-temperature extremes, C₄ taxa are poised to expand into areas where C₃ performance declines, altering ecosystem carbon flux dynamics.

Water availability & drought

Differential drought resilience further distinguishes C₃ and C₄ carbon sequestration potentials. C₄ plants achieve up to 50 percent greater intrinsic water-use efficiency than C₃ species, owing to higher CO₂ assimilation per unit of stomatal conductance. Li, Zhang, and Shi report that under drought, C₃ plants partially compensate by closing stomata less when CO₂ is elevated—allocating more carbon to root growth and



International Journal of Scientific Research & Engineering Trends

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osmoprotectant production—but still suffer pronounced declines in above-ground biomass (Li, Zhang, and Shi). Keenan et al. observed that C₄- dominated grasslands sustained positive net ecosystem exchange (NEE) through multi-year drought cycles, as deep-rooting C₄ taxa accessed residual soil moisture and maintained photosynthesis when C₃ productivity collapsed.

Drought-induced shifts in carbon allocation also affect soil retention. While C₃ species increase root-derived carbon inputs during episodic stress, leaf senescence and lower litter quality limit long-term soil carbon stabilization. Conversely, C₄ litter is richer in structural carbohydrates and decomposes more slowly, contributing to persistent soil organic matter accumulation even under water scarcity.

Global distribution modelling

Climate-vegetation models project significant poleward and altitudinal shifts in C4 biome extent under warming and CO2 enrichment. Wang et al. (2024) combined observational datasets with optimality theory to map current global C4 distributions and forecast future expansions by 2100 under high-emission scenarios. Their results suggest a poleward migration of C4 grasses by 4-6 degrees latitude in both hemispheres, driven primarily by rising mean annual temperatures surpassing C3 thermal thresholds (Wang et al. 2024). Metabolic network analyses further indicate that C₄ taxa preserve high assimilation efficiencies across varying soil nutrient statuses, facilitating their establishment in emerging warm-temperate zones (Wang et al.). These projected expansions could augment the global carbon sink by enlarging the spatial footprint of high-efficiency photosynthesis, although actual distribution shifts will hinge on water availability, land-use constraints, and competitive interactions.

By elucidating how elevated CO₂, temperature, and drought differentially affect C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways, these studies inform land-management strategies—such as prioritizing C₄ bioenergy crops in warming regions and optimizing mixed-species plantings to maximize carbon sequestration under future climate change.

V. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO OUANTIFICATION

Field-based flux measurements

Quantifying ecosystem carbon exchange requires direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes between vegetation and the atmosphere. The eddy-covariance (EC) technique, employing high-frequency anemometers and infrared gas analyzers atop flux towers, captures turbulent vertical transport of CO₂, water vapor, and energy over footprints of 1–3 km². By correlating instantaneous vertical wind velocity with CO₂ concentration fluctuations, EC resolves net ecosystem exchange (NEE) at

half-hourly intervals, allowing partitioning into gross primary production and ecosystem respiration (Ciais and Friend). To complement tower data at finer spatial scales or under heterogeneous canopy cover, static or automated chamber methods enclose soil or individual plants in transparent chambers, measuring flux by observing CO₂ concentration change over minutes; this approach is especially useful for isolating soil respiration and above-ground assimilation in both C₃ and C₄ grasses (IPCC 2022). Combining EC and chamber measurements enables scaling leaf- and soil-level processes to whole-ecosystem carbon budgets, while gap-filling algorithms and environmental covariates improve data continuity in periods of instrument downtime or extreme weather.

Remote sensing & GIS

Satellite-based remote sensing provides spatially explicit, repeatable estimates of vegetation cover, photosynthetic activity, and land-use change critical for assessing sequestration across broad regions. Multispectral sensors (e.g., MODIS, Landsat) yield vegetation indices such as NDVI and EVI, which correlate with leaf area index and canopy photosynthesis. High-albedo species, often among C4 grasses or engineered cultivars, can be identified via short-wave reflectance patterns; mapping their distribution informs surface energy-balance models and potential albedo-driven cooling effects (IPCC 2021). Geographic Information Systems (GIS) integrate satellite imagery with climate layers, soil maps, and topography to delineate current C₃ vs. C₄ biomes and project land-cover shifts under warming scenarios. Zhang, Kumar, and Li demonstrate how combining high-resolution spectral data with machine-learning classification can accurately differentiate C3 and C4 stands, enabling dynamic monitoring of grassland composition and associated carbon pools (Zhang, Kumar, and Li).

Metabolic & network modelling

At the cellular level, genome-scale metabolic models (GEMs) reconstruct complete networks of enzymatic reactions, allowing simulation of carbon flux through C3 and C4 photosynthetic pathways under diverse environmental constraints. Wang et al. used GEMs to compare flux distributions in model C3 (e.g., Arabidopsis) and C4 (e.g., maize) species, revealing key bottlenecks in RuBP regeneration and energy balance that govern carbon assimilation efficiency (Wang et al.). By incorporating thermodynamic constraints and enzyme kinetics, these models predict how perturbations—such as elevated CO₂, temperature shifts, or nutrient limitation—reroute carbon through alternative pathways (e.g., photorespiration in C3 or malate shuttling in C₄). Integrating GEM outputs with ecosystemscale models bridges the gap between cellular biochemistry and landscape carbon budgets, offering mechanistic insights to guide crop engineering and land-VI. Synthesis, Implications & Future Directions





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Comparative Sequestration Potentials by Biome

Temperate grasslands and croplands, largely dominated by C₃ species, exhibit strong seasonal carbon uptake during spring and autumn but become limited by heat and drought in midsummer (Still et al.). In these regions, C3 photosynthesis benefits from elevated CO₂ that suppresses photorespiration, yet soil carbon inputs can be variable due to seasonal senescence. By contrast, tropical and subtropical savannas where C4 grasses prevail maintain high carbon assimilation rates deep into the dry season owing to superior water-use efficiency and heat tolerance (Still et al.). Moreover, arid-zone shrub encroachment into former C4 grasslands has shifted carbon inputs to deeper soil horizons via woody roots and recalcitrant litter, yielding net gains in long-term storage despite increased fire frequency (Walter and Smith). Together, these findings suggest that biome context temperature regime, moisture availability, and vegetation structure critically shapes the relative sequestration potentials of C₃ and C₄ pathways.

Land-management and Policy Implications

Optimizing carbon sinks under future climates requires region-specific strategies. In temperate zones, afforestation with fast-growing C₃ tree species can capitalize on elevated CO₂ to boost biomass stocks, but success hinges on nutrient management to prevent photosynthetic down-regulation (IPCC 2022). In warmer, water-limited areas, deploying C₄ bioenergy crops such as miscanthus or switchgrass offers dual benefits of high sequestration efficiency and renewable energy production, while minimizing irrigation demands (Kumar and Singh). Policymakers must therefore integrate land-use planning with climate projections, incentivizing C₃ afforestation where moisture and nutrients suffice, and C₄ grassland restoration or bioenergy cultivation where heat and drought prevail.

Research Gaps & Emerging Technologies

Despite advances, significant gaps remain in linking cellular mechanisms to landscape carbon budgets. Synthetic biology holds promise for transferring C₄ biochemical traits Kranz anatomy and CO₂ pumps into C₃ crops, potentially combining high CO₂-response with heat resilience (Melis and Ghirardi). Meanwhile, machine-learning algorithms can mine eddy-covariance and remote-sensing datasets to detect subtle patterns in carbon flux, improving model parameterization and upscaling accuracy (Datta et al.). Future work should focus on field trials of engineered C₃–C₄ hybrids, coupled with real-time data analytics, to validate sequestration gains and guide deployment at scale.

VI. CONCLUSION

This review demonstrates that C₃ plants, while highly responsive to elevated CO₂, are constrained by photorespiration and nutrient limitations, whereas C₄ species excel under high temperatures and drought due to their CO₂-

concentrating mechanism and water-use efficiency. To maximize carbon-negative land uses, temperate regions may benefit from C₃ afforestation paired with nutrient management, while warmer, water-limited zones should prioritize C₄ bioenergy grasses. Moving forward, integrated approaches combining field flux measurements, high-resolution remote sensing, and mechanistic metabolic and distribution models are essential to accurately quantify sequestration across ecosystems and guide policy and land-management decisions under evolving climate conditions.

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