Portland State University PDXScholar

Environmental Science and Management Faculty Publications and Presentations

Environmental Science and Management

2004

Relationships Between Needle Nitrogen Concentration and Photosynthetic Responses of Douglas-Fir Seedlings to Elevated CO2 and Temperature

James D. Lewis *Fordham University*

Melissa S. Lucash Portland State University, lucash@pdx.edu

David M. Olszyk US Environmental Protection Agency Western Ecology Division

David T. Tingey US Environmental Protection Agency Western Ecology Division

Let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Follow this and additional works at: http://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/esm_fac

Part of the Botany Commons, Environmental Monitoring Commons, and the Other Ecology and Evolutionary Biology Commons

Citation Details

Lewis, J. D., Lucash, M. M., Olszyk, D. M., & Tingey, D. T. (2004). Relationships between needle nitrogen concentration and photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to elevated CO2 and temperature. New Phytologist, 162(2), 355-364.

This Article is brought to you for free and open access. It has been accepted for inclusion in Environmental Science and Management Faculty Publications and Presentations by an authorized administrator of PDXScholar. For more information, please contact pdxscholar@pdx.edu.



Relationships between needle nitrogen concentration and photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to elevated CO_2 and temperature

J. D. Lewis¹, M. Lucash², D. M. Olszyk³ and D. T. Tingey³

¹Louis Calder Center – Biological Station, Fordham University, Armonk, NY 10504, USA; ²SUNY College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, NY 13210, USA; ³US Environmental Protection Agency Western Ecology Division, Corvallis, OR 97333, USA

Summary

Author for correspondence: James D. Lewis Tel: +1 914 2733078 ext. 24 Fax: +1 914 2736346 Email: jdlewis@fordham.edu

Received: 1 November 2003 Accepted: 6 January 2004

doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8137.2004.01036.x

• Here we examined correlations between needle nitrogen concentration ([N]) and photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) seedlings to growth in elevated temperatures and atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations ([CO₂]).

• Seedlings were grown in sunlit, climate-controlled chambers at ambient or ambient $+3.5^{\circ}$ C and ambient or ambient $+180 \ \mu$ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ in a full factorial design. Photosynthetic parameters and needle [N] were measured six times over a 21-month period.

• Needle [N] varied seasonally, and accounted for 30–50% of the variation in photosynthetic parameters. Across measurement periods, elevated temperature increased needle [N] by 26% and light-saturated net photosynthetic rates by 17%. Elevated [CO₂] decreased needle [N] by 12%, and reduced net photosynthetic rates measured at a common [CO₂], maximum carboxylation activity ($V_{c,max}$) and electron transport capacity (J_{max}), indicating photosynthetic acclimatization. Even so, elevated [CO₂] enhanced net photosynthesis, and this effect increased with needle [N].

• These results suggest that needle [N] may regulate photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir to climate change. Further, needle [N] may be altered by climate change. However, effects of elevated $[CO_2]$ on photosynthesis may be similar across growth temperatures.

Key words: acclimatization, carbon dioxide, climate change, nitrogen, photosynthesis, *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Douglas-fir), seasonal variation, temperature.

© New Phytologist (2004) 162: 355-364

Introduction

Increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations ([CO₂]) and increasing temperatures associated with climate change are predicted to have profound impacts on terrestrial ecosystems (Norby *et al.*, 1999; Ward & Strain, 1999). Considerable attention has been devoted to plant physiological and growth responses to elevated [CO₂]. By contrast, despite the 2–5°C increase in mean annual temperature predicted to accompany increasing atmospheric [CO₂] over the next century (IPCC, 2001), relatively few studies have examined the combined long-term effects of elevated [CO₂] and temperature. Further, although plant responses to elevated [CO₂] vary with the

availability of essential resources (Curtis & Wang, 1998; Saxe *et al.*, 1998; Poorter & Pérez-Soba, 2001), little is known about the roles of these factors in mediating the combined effects of elevated $[CO_2]$ and temperature on plants. Clearly, predictions of plant responses to climate change would benefit from an understanding of the influences of essential resources on these responses.

One of the key resources likely to regulate plant responses to climate change is nitrogen (N). Nitrogen often is the primary factor limiting plant growth under current climate conditions (Bormann & Likens, 1967; Vitousek & Howarth, 1991). Plant responses to growth in elevated $[CO_2]$ generally decline with decreasing nitrogen availability, as demonstrated under conditions ranging from growth chambers to free-rooted trees (Stitt & Krapp, 1999; Harmens et al., 2000; Oren et al., 2001; Poorter & Pérez-Soba, 2001; but see Lloyd & Farquhar, 1996). Characteristic photosynthetic responses of nitrogenlimited plants to elevated [CO₂] include reduced photosynthetic capacity and reallocation of nitrogen from photosynthetic to nonphotosynthetic components (Bowes, 1991; Gunderson & Wullschleger, 1994; Sage, 1994; Drake et al., 1997). The extent of these responses varies considerably, reflecting differences among species, the duration of exposure to elevated [CO₂] and other factors (Poorter & Pérez-Soba, 2001). For example, changes in leaf N concentration ([N]) associated with leaf development and senescence are a major factor regulating temporal variability in the magnitude of these responses (Wang et al., 1995; Wullschleger et al., 1997; Turnbull et al., 1998; Jach & Ceulemans, 2000).

The effects of nitrogen availability on photosynthetic responses to climate change may be mediated by effects of climate change on soil nitrogen availability. For example, increasing growth temperatures have been shown to increase soil N mineralization rates, increasing soil N availability (van Cleve *et al.*, 1990; van Breemen *et al.*, 1998). Increased soil N availability often leads to increased leaf [N] because of increased N uptake by plants (Kellomäki & Wang, 1997; Hobbie *et al.*, 2001). Because of the central role N plays in photosynthesis, leaf [N] is generally correlated with net photosynthetic rates (Field & Mooney, 1986; Evans, 1989), suggesting that net photosynthetic rates may increase if elevated growth temperatures increase soil N mineralization rates (Norby *et al.*, 1999).

Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), a dominant tree species in the Pacific north-west (Franklin & Dyrness, 1988; Hermann & Lavender, 1990), often grows in low-N soils (Gessel et al., 1973). Needle [N] is correlated with net photosynthetic rates of Douglas-fir (Bond et al., 1999; Ripullone et al., 2003), as well as maximum carboxylation rate of Rubisco $(V_{c,max})$ and electron transport capacity (J_{max} ; Ripullone *et al.* 2003). Net photosynthetic rates in Douglas-fir seedlings are generally increased by growth in elevated [CO₂] (Hollinger, 1987; Lewis et al., 2001) and by elevated mean annual temperatures (Lewis et al., 2001). However, these responses show significant seasonal variation (Lewis et al., 1999) that is not explained by seasonal changes in temperature (Lewis et al., 2001) or stomatal conductance (Lewis et al., 2002b). Thus, because N availability may influence photosynthetic responses to climate change, and regulates growth responses of Douglas-fir to climate change (Olszyk et al., 2003), the primary objective of this study was to examine relationships between needle [N] and photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to elevated [CO₂] and mean annual temperature. In addition, because needle [N] may vary seasonally, a related objective was to determine whether seasonal variation in photosynthetic responses to climate change paralleled seasonal changes in needle [N]. To examine mechanisms through which needle [N] may influence photosynthetic responses to climate

change, net photosynthetic rate vs intercellular $[CO_2]$ curves were measured to monitor changes in $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} over a 21-month period.

Materials and Methods

Growth conditions

Douglas-fir (P. menziesii (Mirb.) Franco) seed lots were collected at five low-elevation seed zones (< 500 m) in the Coast Range, Willamette Valley and the west slopes of the Cascade Mountains around Corvallis, OR, USA. Seedlings were grown for 1 yr in seed beds and 1 yr in nursery beds. In June 1993, 14 seedlings were transplanted as bare-root, 2-yr-old stock into each $(1 \times 2 \text{ m})$ surface area) chamber at the US Environmental Protection Agency's ecological research division in Corvallis, OR, USA. Each chamber consisted of a sun-lit upper compartment (1.3-1.5 m high) where air temperature, $[CO_2]$ and vapor pressure deficit were monitored and controlled, and a lower soil lysimeter (0.9 m deep) filled with a native coarse-textured sandy loam in which soil temperature and moisture were monitored (Tingey et al., 1996). Soil moisture content was controlled to reflect seasonal changes in soil moisture typical for the wet winter and dry summer climate in the Pacific north-west (Griffiths & Caldwell, 1990; Griffiths et al., 1991). Weekly water additions to the ambient [CO₂] and ambient temperature treatment were calculated based on this predicted pattern of soil moisture content. All treatments received the same weekly water additions. Seedlings were grown under ambient light, and without supplemental nutrients.

Ambient [CO₂] and air temperature were monitored at an adjacent meteorological station. The chambers were controlled to continuously track ambient [CO₂] or ambient +200 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ and ambient air temperature or ambient +4°C (Tingey et al., 1996). Target dew point depression was based on ambient conditions and controlled to track equivalent vapor pressure deficits across treatments. Actual chamber conditions across the course of the experiment differed slightly from targets. The elevated [CO₂] treatment averaged 180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ above ambient, with a 6% coefficient of variation for the differences in [CO2] across all days (Olszyk et al., 1998a). The elevated temperature treatment averaged 3.5°C above ambient, with a 12% coefficient of variation for the temperature differences across all days, and the vapor pressure deficit of chamber air in the elevated temperature treatment averaged 0.10 kPa above ambient (Olszyk et al., 1998a).

The experimental design was a full factorial with three replicate chambers in each of the four treatment combinations: ambient $[CO_2]$ and ambient temperature; ambient $[CO_2]$ and elevated temperature; elevated $[CO_2]$ and ambient temperature; and, elevated $[CO_2]$ and elevated temperature. Treatments were applied 24 h per day beginning in August 1993 and continuing until the end of the study in July 1997. Mid-day (10:00–14:00 hours Pacific Standard Time) $[CO_2]$ during the

1996 growing season typically ranged between 360 μ mol mol⁻¹ and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ in the ambient [CO₂] treatment.

Physiological measurements

Needle-level net photosynthetic rates were measured using an infrared gas analyser built into a leaf cuvette in an open-flow gas exchange system (LI-6400; Li-Cor, Lincoln, NE, USA). Measurements began in November 1995, 27 months after treatments were initiated. Additional measurements were made in February, March and October 1996, and March and July 1997. All measurements at a given measurement period were completed within a 7-d period. All measurements were made on intact fully expanded, unshaded needles from the most recent fully expanded cohort. In 1996, the mean date at which new needles reached full expansion was June 28 and did not significantly vary between treatments (Olszyk et al., 1998b). As a result, needles from the 1995 cohort were used for measurements made in November 1995 and February and March 1996, while the 1996 cohort was used for the remainder of the experiment.

Needles were arranged in the cuvette such that self-shading was minimized and all needles were parallel to the plane of the leaf chamber. Projected surface area of the measured needles was estimated using measurements of needle length and width. All measurements were made using ambient light. Photosynthetic photon flux densities (PPFD) at the upper needle surface generally ranged between 1200 and 2000 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹. No measurements were made at PPFD below 800 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹. A PPFD above 800 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ has been shown to be saturating for photosynthesis in Douglas-fir (Bond *et al.*, 1999; Lewis *et al.*, 2000).

The air-stream entering the cuvette was maintained at the desired $[CO_2]$ using the LI-6400 computer-controlled CO_2 mixing system. Needle, cuvette and air temperatures were measured with thermocouples linked to the LI-6400 computer. Needle temperature was maintained at the target temperature using a computer-controlled Peltier module mounted on the cuvette. Needle and cuvette air temperatures generally were similar during measurements. The needle-to-air vapor pressure deficit in the cuvette was maintained at the target vapor pressure deficit by regulating the airflow rate, and by using desiccant to scrub the incoming air-stream as necessary. For a given measurement period, the target needle temperature and vapor pressure deficit for the ambient temperature treatment reflected average ambient conditions between 10:00 hours and 14:00 hours. Across CO2 treatments, target needle temperatures for the elevated temperature treatment were 4.0°C higher than for the ambient treatment. The target vapor pressure deficit was the same for all treatments. The actual cuvette conditions deviated somewhat from actual chamber conditions because cuvette conditions were regulated to match the target chamber conditions, which themselves varied somewhat from actual chamber conditions (see above). Further, although average cuvette measurement $[CO_2]$ and needle temperatures matched target conditions, actual vapor pressure deficits were 0.3 kPa higher, on average, in the elevated temperature treatment than in the ambient temperature treatment. Although differences in vapor pressure deficit may influence photosynthesis through effects on stomatal conductance, across measurement periods neither stomatal conductance nor vapor pressure deficit significantly affected net photosynthetic rates in these seedlings (Lewis *et al.*, 2002b).

Before each measurement, needles were equilibrated in the cuvette at saturating PPFD, the growth [CO₂], and the target temperature and vapor pressure deficit. Photosynthetic vs intercellular $[CO_2]$ $(A-C_1)$ curves were measured at all dates except the final harvest, when measurements were made at only the growth [CO₂]. At all dates, light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at the growth $[CO_2]$ (A_{growth}) were determined at 350 or 550 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ for the ambient and elevated $[CO_2]$ treatments, respectively. For $A-C_i$ curves, measurements were made at cuvette chamber $[CO_2]$ of 80, 170, 260, 350, 450, 550, 700, 850, and 1000 μmol mol⁻¹. Data from $A-C_i$ curves were used to compare treatment effects on A_{growth} , the maximum carboxylation rate of Rubisco $(V_{\text{c.max}})$ and the capacity of electron transport mediated ribulose bisphosphate (RuBP) regeneration (J_{max}) , as well as on lightsaturated net photosynthetic rates at a common [CO₂] of 350 (A_{350}) or 550 µmol mol⁻¹ (A_{550}) . Measurements were made once needles equilibrated at the target $[CO_2]$. Needles were considered equilibrated once the total coefficient of variation for gas exchange parameters was less than 1% for one minute. In general, the equilibration period lasted c. 5 min. For a given measurement day, measurements were initiated at c. 09:00 hours Pacific Standard Time, and typically were completed by 12:00 hours Pacific Standard Time.

A biochemical model of photosynthesis was used to calculate $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} from $A-C_i$ curves using (Farquhar *et al.*, 1980; von Caemmerer & Farquhar, 1981):

$$A = \min\{A_{\rm c}, A_{\rm a}\} - R_{\rm d}$$

(*A* is the net photosynthetic rate, A_c and A_q are the photosynthetic rates limited by Rubisco activity and by electron transport rate, respectively; min {} refers to the minimum of the two rates; R_d is the daytime respiration rate resulting from processes other than photorespiration). The model was parameterized and run following Lewis *et al.* (1994) using the nonlinear regression model function in systar (SPSS, Evanston, IL, USA).

Needle nitrogen concentration

The 1995 and 1996 needle cohorts were sampled for [N] analysis three times during the first year of growth of each cohort. All collections were made within 2 wk of corresponding gas exchange measurements. At all collections except the final harvest (July 1997), 30–35 first-year needles were collected from around the crown of each tree in each chamber, with needles from all trees pooled to obtain one sample per chamber. At the final harvest, needles from the 1996 cohort were collected from 20 branches from around the crown of each of four trees per chamber, with all needles from a given chamber pooled to obtain one sample per chamber. After collection, needles were dried at 60°C and ground to pass through a 40-mesh screen. Samples were analysed for [N] using a Carlo Erba NC2500 elemental analyser (Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany). The internal standard was pine needles (NIST-SRM 1575; US National Institute of Standard and Technology, Standard Reference Materials Program). The coefficient of variation for quality control and duplicate samples for needle N analyses was less than 2%.

Statistical analyses

Treatment effects on seasonal patterns in leaf biochemical and physiological properties were analysed using repeated measures analysis of variance with growth $[CO_2]$ and temperature as the between-subjects factors and measurement period as the within-subjects factor. Regression analyses were conducted to examine relationships between needle [N] and photosynthetic properties within and between CO_2 and temperature treatments. Analyses were performed using the multivariate general linear model function (MGLH) in SYSTAT (SPSS). In general, needle gas exchange measurements were performed on one seedling in each chamber per measurement period. Individual branches were not repeatedly sampled over time, and across the study period measurements were made on several different seedlings from each chamber. Because the chamber was the experimental unit, measurements on multiple branches and seedlings from a chamber at a given measurement period were combined and the mean value used in the analyses. One chamber each in the ambient $[CO_2]$, elevated temperature treatment and the elevated $[CO_2]$, ambient temperature treatment were excluded from the analyses because of extensive insect damage to seedlings in these chambers.

Results

Across the 21-month study period, growth in elevated temperature was associated with significant increases in needle [N] in first-year needles, compared with the ambient temperature treatment (Fig. 1a; P = 0.021). By contrast, growth in elevated [CO₂] was associated with significant reductions in needle [N] compared to the ambient [CO₂] treatment (Fig. 2a; P = 0.025). Across CO₂ and temperature treatments, needle [N] exhibited significant (P = 0.035) variation between measurement periods (Figs 1a and 2a). Needle [N] generally was highest in the winter and spring, and lowest during the summer.

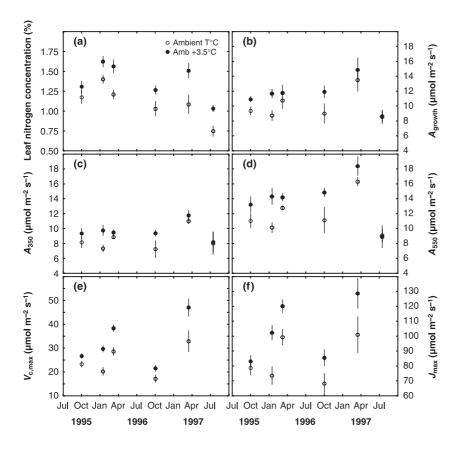
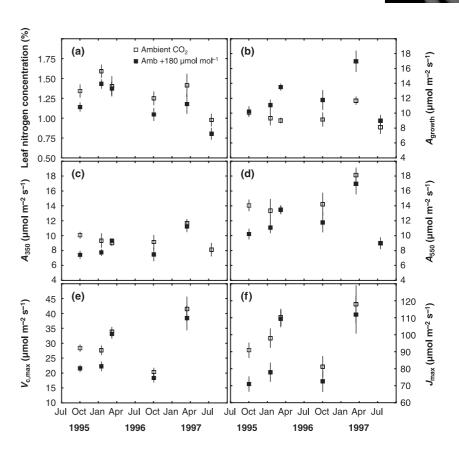


Fig. 1 Effects of growth temperature on seasonal patterns of mean (\pm SE) needle nitrogen concentrations of Douglas-fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) seedlings (a), lightsaturated net photosynthetic rates at the growth $[CO_2]$ (A_{growth}) (b), light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at 350 µmol mol-1 CO₂ (A₃₅₀) (c), light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at 550 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (A_{550}) (d), $V_{c,max}$ (e) and J_{max} (f). Data are combined across CO₂ treatments. The ambient temperature treatment tracked the ambient air temperature at an adjacent meteorological station. Across the study period, actual air temperatures in the elevated temperature treatment were 3.5°C higher on average compared with the ambient temperature treatment. Measurements between November 1995 and July 1996 were made on the 1995 needle cohort, while the 1996 needle cohort was measured between August 1996 and July 1997. For all measurement periods, n = 4 for the ambient treatment (open circles), n = 6 for the ambient +3.5°C treatment (closed circles).

Fig. 2 Effects of CO₂ supply on seasonal patterns of mean (± SE) needle nitrogen concentrations of Douglas-fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) seedlings (a), light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at the growth [CO₂] (Agrowth) (b), light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at 350 $\mu mol\ mol^{-1}\ CO_{2}$ (A350) (c), light-saturated net photosynthetic rates at 550 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (A₅₅₀) (d), $V_{c,max}$ (e) and J_{max} (f). Data are combined across temperature treatments. The ambient CO₂ treatment tracked ambient [CO₂] at an adjacent meteorological station; actual $[CO_2]$ in the elevated CO_2 treatment was c. 180 µmol mol-1 higher on average across the study period. Measurements between November 1995 and July 1996 were made on the 1995 needle cohort, while the 1996 needle cohort was measured between August 1996 and July 1997. Photosynthetic measurements in July 1997 were made at the growth [CO₂] only. For all measurement periods, n = 5 for the ambient treatment (open squares) and for the ambient +180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ treatment (closed squares).



Elevated temperature (Fig. 1b-f) was associated with significant (P = 0.089 in all cases) increases across the study period in net photosynthetic rates at the growth [CO₂] (A_{growth}) , at 350 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (A_{350}) and at 550 µmol mol⁻¹ CO_2 (A₅₅₀), maximum carboxylation activity of Rubisco $(V_{c,max})$ and electron transport-mediated RuBP regeneration capacity (J_{max}) . By contrast, there were significant interactions (P = 0.060 in all cases) between CO₂ treatment and measurement period (Fig. 2b–f) on A_{growth} , A_{350} , A_{550} , $V_{c,\text{max}}$, and J_{max} . Growth in elevated [CO₂] generally increased A_{growth} but reduced A_{350} , A_{550} , $V_{c,max}$, and J_{max} . For all parameters, values generally peaked each spring in the elevated [CO₂] treatment but exhibited relatively less seasonal variation in the ambient $[CO_2]$ treatment. As a result, the stimulatory effect of elevated $[\mathrm{CO}_2]$ on A_growth generally increased from fall to spring, associated with lessening of the inhibitory effect of elevated [CO₂] on A_{350} , A_{550} , $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} . There were no other significant interactions between CO₂ treatment, temperature treatment, and measurement period (P = 0.298 in all cases).

A significantly greater increase was seen in A_{growth} with increasing needle [N] in elevated compared with ambient [CO₂] (Fig. 3a; P < 0.001). A comparison of the slopes indicates that a unit increase in needle [N] was associated with a c. 70% greater increase in A_{growth} at elevated compared with ambient [CO₂]. It significantly increased with increasing needle [N] across temperature treatments (P < 0.001); however, the slope of the relationship between A_{growth} and needle [N] did not significantly vary between temperature treatments (Fig. 3b; P = 0.688). The relationships between needle [N] and A_{350} , A_{550} , $V_{c,\text{max}}$ or J_{max} did not significantly vary between CO₂ or temperature treatments. Across CO₂ and temperature treatments, A_{350} , A_{550} , $V_{c,\text{max}}$, and J_{max} significantly increased with increasing needle [N] concentration (Fig. 4a–d; P < 0.001 in all cases). Adjusted r^2 values indicated that needle [N] accounted for 27.1% of the variation in A350, 31.8% of the variation in A_{550} , 37.1% of the variation in $V_{c,\text{max}}$, and 43.9% of the variation in J_{max} . Consequently, the observed differences in these parameters with temperature (Fig. 1) likely are the result of changes in leaf [N] rather than a direct effect of temperature treatment.

Discussion

Needle [N] significantly varied between seasons, generally peaking in the winter and spring. Growth in elevated temperature increased needle [N] 26% and net photosynthetic rates 17%, on average, across the 21-month study period compared with the ambient temperature treatment. Increases in needle [N] were associated with a significant increase in the response of net photosynthetic rates to growth in elevated [CO₂]. Variation in needle [N] accounted for approximately 50% of the variation in net photosynthetic rates between CO₂

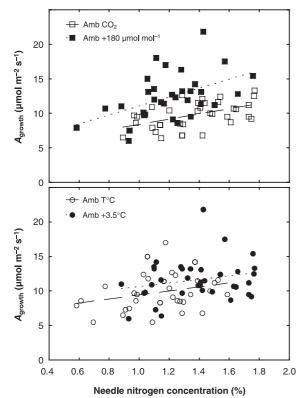


Fig. 3 Effects of CO_2 supply (a) and temperature treatment (b) on the relationship between light-saturated net photosynthetic rate at the growth $[CO_2]$ (A_{growth}) and needle [N] of Douglas-fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) seedlings. There was a significant interaction between CO₂ treatment and needle [N] on A_{growth} ($r^2 = 0.491$ for the combined model). Across temperature treatments, Agrowth was significantly correlated with needle [N] ($r^2 = 0.300$), and the slope of the relationship did not significantly vary between temperature treatments. The corresponding equations for the ambient and elevated [CO2] treatments, respectively, are: $A_{growth} = 4.65 + 3.75 \times \text{needle [N]}; \text{ and, } A_{growth} = 4.59 + 6.46 \times \text{needle [N]}.$ For the ambient and elevated temperature treatments, the corresponding equations, respectively, are: $A_{\text{growth}} = 6.49 + 2.92 \times \text{needle [N]}; \text{ and, } A_{\text{growth}} = 8.08 + 100 \text{ starter}$ 2.29 × needle [N]. (a) Open squares, ambient treatment; closed squares, ambient +180 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ treatment. (b) Open circles, ambient treatment; closed circles, ambient +3.5°C treatment.

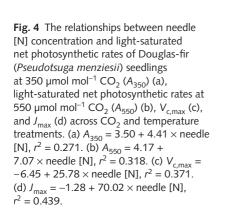
treatments over the study period. Increases in the response of photosynthesis to elevated $[CO_2]$ with increasing needle [N], coupled with increased needle [N] in the elevated temperature treatment, suggest that the effects of elevated $[CO_2]$ on photosynthesis increased with increasing growth temperature, paralleling the effects of growth temperature on needle [N]. However, the interactive effects of elevated $[CO_2]$ and temperature on photosynthesis were not statistically significant. Thus, effects of elevated $[CO_2]$ on photosynthetic processes were generally similar across temperature treatments in this study.

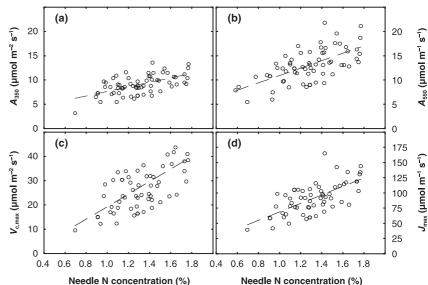
Increasing mean growth temperature has been shown to increase the relative response of photosynthesis to elevated [CO₂] in other studies (Callaway *et al.*, 1994; Kellomäki & Wang, 1996; Koike et al., 1996; but see Teskey, 1997; Wayne et al., 1998), as is predicted based on the relative effects of increasing temperature and [CO₂] on the carboxylation efficiency of Rubisco (Long, 1991). Elevated growth temperature has also been shown to enhance photosynthetic responses to elevated [CO₂] by increasing needle [N] (Kellomäki & Wang, 1997). While our results are partly consistent with these findings in that photosynthetic responses to elevated [CO₂] increased with increasing needle [N], the lack of significant interaction between elevated [CO₂] and temperature on photosynthesis indicates that other factors must also regulate plant responses to climate change. Thus, in addition to the potential effects of elevated [CO₂] and temperature on the carboxylation efficiency of Rubisco, the effects of climate change on carbon uptake are likely to reflect complex interactions with other factors, such as needle [N], that influence photosynthesis and that may be altered by elevated [CO₂] or temperature.

The relationship between changes in needle [N] and photosynthetic responses to elevated $[CO_2]$ also resulted in substantial seasonality in the response of A_{growth} to elevated $[CO_2]$. Peaks in needle [N] in the winter and spring were associated with relatively large responses of A_{growth} to elevated $[CO_2]$, while comparatively low needle [N] in the summer was associated with a relatively small response (Fig. 2a,b). The observed relationship between seasonal changes in leaf [N] and the response of net photosynthetic rates to elevated $[CO_2]$ is consistent with other studies on trees, and indicate that temporal changes in leaf [N] are a key factor regulating plant responses to climate change (Curtis & Teeri, 1992; Jach & Ceulemans, 2000).

The comparatively small response of A_{growth} to elevated [CO₂] during the summer suggests that the stimulatory effect of elevated [CO₂] on annual carbon uptake by Douglas-fir seedlings was relatively low during the summer. A limitation to these results is that only first-year needles were examined. Needle [N] of first-year needles has been shown to rise during the winter and decline during the summer, as occurred in this study, owing to seasonal patterns of allocation and remobilization (Fife & Nambiar, 1984; Helmisaari, 1992; Millard & Proe, 1992). By contrast, older cohorts show little N accumulation in the winter, and thus may be expected to show less of a wintertime enhancement of photosynthetic responses to elevated [CO₂]. Further, older needle cohorts in Douglas-fir have lower needle [N] than younger cohorts (Hobbie et al., 2001). These constraints on the effect of elevated $[CO_2]$ on annual carbon uptake may partly account for the lack of significant growth responses of these seedlings to elevated [CO₂] (Olszyk et al., 1998a; Olszyk et al., 2003).

Increases in the response of A_{growth} to elevated [CO₂] with increasing needle [N] were primarily due to a shift in electron transport capacity rather than Rubisco activity, as indicated by greater changes in J_{max} and A_{550} with increasing needle [N] compared with the changes in $V_{\text{c,max}}$ and A_{350} . For example,





relative to A_{350} , A_{550} increased 60% more rapidly with increasing needle [N] (Fig. 4). Increasing [CO₂] is predicted to shift control of photosynthesis from Rubisco activity towards electron-transport-mediated RuBP regeneration by increasing substrate availability for carboxylation and reducing the relative amount, and energetic cost, of photorespiration (Jordan & Ogren, 1984; Sharkey, 1988; Woodrow & Berry, 1988; Hikosaka & Hirose, 1998). Indeed, the stimulatory effect of elevated [CO₂] on Rubisco carboxylation is large enough that growth in elevated [CO₂] may induce reductions in photosynthetic capacity, often referred to as photosynthetic acclimatization, while still enhancing net photosynthetic rates (Sage, 1994; Woodrow, 1994; Medlyn, 1996; Tissue *et al.*, 1999).

Although growth in elevated [CO2] increased net photosynthetic rates 12% on average across the study, there was clear evidence of photosynthetic acclimatization in the elevated [CO₂] treatment. Net photosynthetic rates measured at a common [CO₂], as well as $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} , were reduced approximately 10-15%, on average, in the elevated [CO₂] treatment (Fig. 1). Similar reductions were observed in chlorophyll concentrations in the seedlings grown in elevated [CO₂] compared with the seedlings in the ambient [CO₂] treatment (Ormrod et al., 1999). Studies on a range of other tree species have also observed a reduction in photosynthetic capacity despite a stimulation of net photosynthetic rates by growth in elevated [CO₂] (Norby et al., 1999). Thus, for Douglas-fir and at least some other tree species, long-term photosynthetic responses to elevated [CO₂] may be substantially smaller than predicted from short-term studies.

Photosynthetic acclimatization was observed even though the seedlings in this study were grown in a large soil volume, and the fine root distribution pattern in the chambers was similar to that observed in same-age Douglas-fir seedling grown in similar soils in the field (M. G. Johnson, pers. comm.). Photosynthetic acclimatization to elevated $[CO_2]$ has frequently been observed in laboratory studies (Gunderson & Wullschleger, 1994; Curtis & Wang, 1998), and limited rooting volume has been identified as a key factor leading to acclimatization through effects on carbohydrate source-sink balance (Arp, 1991; Stitt, 1991; Thomas & Strain, 1991). However, acclimatization to elevated [CO₂] has also been demonstrated in several field studies (Lewis et al., 1996; Rey & Jarvis, 1998; Tissue et al., 1999; Griffin et al., 2000; Bernacchi et al., 2003), indicating that this phenomenon is not simply an artifact of limited rooting volume. Rather, acclimatization may reflect a variety of factors that influence carbohydrate sourcesink balance, including low growth rates (Poorter, 1998) and ontogeny (Coleman et al., 1994; Lewis et al., 2002a). Other factors that have been shown to influence acclimation include nutrient allocation (McConnaughay et al., 1993) and changes in leaf morphology (Luo et al., 1994).

In the present study, changes in N allocation may have been a key factor driving photosynthetic acclimatization to elevated [CO₂]. The 10–15% reduction in photosynthetic capacity in elevated $[CO_2]$ across the study period was paralleled by a 12% reduction, on average, in needle [N]. Reductions in leaf [N] are commonly seen during long-term exposure to elevated [CO₂] (Curtis & Wang, 1998), and generally reflect reallocation of N from photosynthetic machinery to other parts of the plant (Tissue et al., 1993; Sage, 1994; Griffin & Seemann, 1996; Wolfe et al., 1998; Tingey et al., 2003) or a dilution effect due to starch and sugar accumulation in leaves (Field et al., 1992). Reductions in needle [N] were associated with reallocation of N to nonphotosynthetic tissue in these seedlings (Hobbie et al., 2001; Tingey et al., 2003). Further, although needle carbon concentrations did not significantly vary with CO₂ treatment, needle carbohydrate concentrations were significantly greater in the elevated CO₂ treatment (Tingey et al., 2003). Increased needle carbohydrate concentrations without associated increases in needle carbon concentrations

suggest that elevated $[CO_2]$ did not affect needle [N] through a dilution effect but rather through reallocation in response to sink limitation associated with the lack of growth response to elevated $[CO_2]$.

By contrast to the reduction in photosynthetic capacity in the elevated [CO₂] treatment, growth in elevated temperature was associated with increased photosynthetic capacity, in conjunction with increased needle [N] (Fig. 1). Growth in elevated temperature also significantly increased chlorophyll concentrations (Ormrod et al., 1999), and significantly reduced needle carbohydrate concentrations of these seedlings, although needle carbon concentrations did not significantly vary between temperature treatments (Tingey et al., 2003). Increased needle [N] with increased growth temperature may result from increased soil nitrogen availability due to increased soil nitrogen mineralization rates (Rygiewicz et al., 2000; Hobbie et al., 2001), as has been observed in other studies (van Cleve et al., 1990; van Breemen et al., 1998). However, increased N uptake was not observed in this study (Tingey et al., 2003). Thus, these results suggest that, as with elevated $[CO_2]$, changes in N allocation rather than dilution effects on needle [N] or changes in nitrogen assimilation were a primary driver of photosynthetic responses to elevated temperature.

In summary, photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to growth in ambient +180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ showed similar trends across growth temperatures. In addition, these results suggest that needle [N] may regulate photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to climate change. Seasonal increases in needle [N] were associated with a significant increase in photosynthetic responses to growth in elevated [CO₂]. Further, changes in needle [N] accounted for nearly 50% of the variation between $[CO_2]$ treatments in net photosynthetic rates over the 21-month study period. Needle [N] also accounted for c. 30% of the variation in A_{350} and A_{550} , and for c. 40% of the variation in $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} . The link between seasonal patterns in needle [N] and the response of A_{growth} to elevated [CO₂] suggest that the effect of elevated [CO₂] on annual carbon uptake by Douglas-fir seedlings was lowest during the summer. Seasonality in photosynthetic responses of Douglas-fir to elevated [CO₂] may also be influenced by seasonal patterns in leaf temperature (Lewis et al., 2001) and ontogeny (Lewis et al., 1999). These constraints may partly account for the lack of significant growth responses of these seedlings to elevated [CO₂] (Olszyk et al., 1998a; Olszyk et al., 2003). Thus, the effects of elevated [CO₂] on carbon uptake in Douglas-fir seedlings are likely to reflect complex interactions with other factors, such as needle [N], that may be altered by elevated $[CO_2]$ or temperature.

Acknowledgements

We thank Joe Greene, Glenn Jarrell, Mark Johnson, Craig McFarlane, Paul Rygiewicz, Ron Waschmann, Jim Weber and Claudia Wise for their technical support in the design and execution of this study. Drs Peter Curtis, Jacqui Johnson and Matthew Turnbull, and two anonymous reviewers made valuable comments on earlier drafts of this manuscript. Seedlings were provided by the Weyerhauser Company. The research described in this article has been funded by the US Environmental Protection Agency. This document has been prepared at the EPA's Western Ecology Division in Corvallis, Oregon, through cooperative agreement CR-824072 with the National Research Council and through contract 68-C6-0005 with Dynamac, Inc. It has been subject to the agency's peer and administrative review. It has been approved for publication as an EPA document. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

References

- Arp WJ. 1991. Effects of source-sink relations on photosynthetic acclimation to elevated CO₂. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 14: 869–875.
- Bernacchi CJ, Calfapeitra C, Davey PA, Wittig VE, Scarascia-Mugnozza GE, Raines CA, Long SP. 2003. Photosynthesis and stomatal conductance responses of poplars to free-air CO₂ enrichment (PopFACE) during the first growth cycle and immediately following coppice. *New Phytologist* 159: 609–621.
- Bond BJ, Farnsworth BT, Coulombe RA, Winner WE. 1999. Foliage physiology and biochemistry in response to light gradients in conifers with varying shade tolerance. *Oecologia* 120: 183–192.
- Bormann FH, Likens GE. 1967. Small watersheds can provide invaluable information about terrestrial ecosystems. *Science* 155: 424–435.
- Bowes G. 1991. Growth at elevated CO₂: photosynthetic response mediated through Rubisco. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 14: 795–806.
- van Breemen N, Jenkins A, Wright RF, Beerling DJ, Arp WJ, Berend F, Beier C, Coll R, van Dam D, Rasmussen L, Verburg PSJ, Wills MA. 1998. Impacts of elevated carbon dioxide and temperature on a boreal forest ecosystem (CLIMEX project). *Ecosystems* 1: 345–351.
- von Caemmerer S, Farquhar GD. 1981. Some relationships between the biochemistry of photosynthesis and the gas exchange of leaves. *Planta* 153: 376–387.
- Callaway RM, DeLucia EH, Thomas EM, Schlesinger WH. 1994. Compensatory responses of CO₂ exchange and biomass allocation and their effects on the relative growth rate of ponderosa pine in different CO₂ and temperature regimes. *Oecologia* **98**: 159–166.
- van Cleve K, Oechel WC, Hom JL. 1990. Response of black spruce (*Picea mariana*) ecosystems to soil temperature modification in interior Alaska. *Canadian Journal of Forestry Research* 20: 1530–1535.
- Coleman JS, McConnaughay KDM, Ackerly DD. 1994. Interpreting phenotypic variation in plants. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 9: 187–191.
- Curtis PS, Teeri JA. 1992. Seasonal responses of leaf gas exchange to elevated carbon dioxide in *Populus grandidentata*. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 22: 1320–1325.
- Curtis PS, Wang X. 1998. A meta-analysis of elevated CO₂ effects on woody plant mass, form, and physiology. *Oecologia* 113: 299–313.
- Drake BG, Gonzàlez-Meler MA, Long SP. 1997. More efficient plants: a consequence of rising atmospheric CO₂? Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology 48: 609–639.
- Evans JR. 1989. Photosynthesis and nitrogen relationships in leaves of C₃ plants. *Oecologia* 78: 9–19.
- Farquhar GD, von Caemmerer S, Berry JA. 1980. A biochemical model of photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation in leaves of C₃ species. *Planta* 149: 78–90.

Field CB, Mooney HA. 1986. The photosynthesis-nitrogen relationship in wild plants. In: Givnish TJ, ed. On the economy of plant form and function. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 25–55.

Field CB, Matson PA, Mooney HA. 1992. Responses of terrestrial ecosystems to a changing atmosphere. A resource-based approach. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 23: 201–235.

Fife DN, Nambiar EKS. 1984. Movement of nutrients in Radiata Pine needles in relation to the growth of shoots. *Annals of Botany* 54: 303–314.

Franklin JF, Dyrness CT. 1988. Natural vegetation of Oregon and Washington. Corvallis, OR, USA: Oregon State University Press.

Gessel SP, Cole DW, Steinbrenner EC. 1973. Nitrogen balances in forest ecosystems of the Pacific Northwest. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 5: 19–34.

Griffin KL, Seemann JR. 1996. Plants, CO₂ and photosynthesis in the 21st century. *Chemistry and Biology* **3**: 245–254.

Griffin KL, Tissue DT, Turnbull MH, Whitehead D. 2000. The onset of photosynthetic acclimation to elevated CO₂ partial pressure in field-grown *Pinus radiata* D. Don. after 4 years. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 23: 1089–1098.

Griffiths RP, Caldwell BA. 1990. Douglas-fir forest soils colonized by ectomycorrhizal mats. I. Seasonal variation in nitrogen chemistry and nitrogen cycle transformation rates. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 20: 211–218.

Griffiths RP, Ingham ER, Caldwell BA, Castellano MA, Cromack K Jr. 1991. Microbial characteristics of ectomycorrhizal communities in Oregon and California. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* 11: 196–202.

Gunderson CA, Wullschleger SD. 1994. Photosynthetic acclimation in trees to rising atmospheric CO₂: a broader perspective. *Photosynthesis Research* **39**: 369–388.

Harmens H, Stirling CM, Marshall C, Farrar JF. 2000. Does down-regulation of photosynthetic capacity by elevated CO₂ depend on N supply in *Dactylis glomerata*? *Physiologia Plantarum* 108: 43–50.

Helmisaari H-S. 1992. Nutrient retranslocation within the foliage of *Pinus sylvestris. Tree Physiology* 10: 45–58.

Hermann RK, Lavender DP. 1990. Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirb.) Franco. In: Burns RM, Honkala BH, eds. Silvics of North America, Vol. 1: Conifers. Washington, DC, USA: US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, 527–540.

Hikosaka K, Hirose T. 1998. Leaf and canopy photosynthesis of C₃ plants at elevated CO₂ in relation to optimal partitioning of nitrogen among photosynthetic components: Theoretical prediction. *Ecological Modelling* 106: 247–259.

Hobbie EA, Olszyk DM, Rygiewicz PT, Tingey DT, Johnson MG. 2001. Foliar nitrogen concentrations and natural abundance of ¹⁵N suggest nitrogen allocation patterns of Douglas-fir and mycorrhizal fungi during development in elevated carbon dioxide concentration and temperature. *Tree Physiology* 21: 1113–1122.

Hollinger DY. 1987. Gas exchange and dry matter allocation responses to elevation of atmospheric CO₂ concentration in seedlings of three tree species. *Tree Physiology* 3: 193–202.

IPCC. 2001. Summary for policymakers. Report of Working Group I, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Geneva, Switzerland: IPCC.

Jach ME, Ceulemans R. 2000. Effects of season, needle age and elevated CO₂ on photosynthesis in Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*). *Tree Physiology* 20: 145–157.

Jordan DB, Ogren WL. 1984. The CO₂/O₂ specificity of ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase. Dependence on ribulose bisphosphate concentration, pH and temperature. *Planta* 161: 308–313.

Kellomäki S, Wang KY. 1996. Photosynthetic responses to needle water potentials in Scots pine after a four-year exposure to elevated CO₂ and temperature. *Tree Physiology* **16**: 765–772.

Kellomäki S, Wang KY. 1997. Effects of long-term CO₂ and temperature elevation on crown nitrogen distribution and daily photosynthetic performance of Scots pine. *Forest Ecology and Management* 99: 309–326.

Koike T, Lei TT, Maximov TC, Tabuchi R, Takahashi K, Ivanov BI. 1996. Comparison of the photosynthetic capacity of Siberian and Japanese birch seedlings grown in elevated CO₂ and temperature. *Tree Physiology* 16: 381–385.

Lewis JD, Griffin KL, Thomas RB, Strain BR. 1994. Phosphorus supply affects the photosynthetic capacity of loblolly pine grown in elevated carbon dioxide. *Tree Physiology* 14: 1229–1244.

Lewis JD, Tissue DT, Strain BR. 1996. Seasonal response of photosynthesis to elevated CO₂ in loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda* L.) over two growing seasons. *Global Change Biology* 2: 103–114.

Lewis JD, Olszyk D, Tingey DT. 1999. Effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ and temperature on seasonal patterns of photosynthetic light response in Douglas-fir seedlings. *Tree Physiology* **19**: 243–252.

Lewis JD, McKane RB, Tingey DT, Beedlow PA. 2000. Photosynthetic light response within an old-growth Douglas-fir and western hemlock canopy. *Tree Physiology* 20: 447–456.

Lewis JD, Lucash M, Olszyk D, Tingey DT. 2001. Seasonal patterns of photosynthesis in Douglas-fir seedlings during the third and fourth year of exposure to elevated carbon dioxide and temperature. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 24: 539–548.

Lewis JD, Wang XZ, Griffin KL, Tissue DT. 2002a. Effects of age and ontogeny on photosynthetic responses of a determinate annual plant to elevated CO₂ concentrations. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 25: 359–368.

Lewis JD, Lucash M, Olszyk DM, Tingey DT. 2002b. Stomatal responses of Douglas-fir seedlings to elevated carbon dioxide and temperature during the third and fourth years of exposure. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 25: 1411–1421.

Lloyd J, Farquhar GD. 1996. The CO_2 dependence of photosynthesis, plant growth responses to elevated atmospheric CO_2 concentrations and their interaction with soil nutrient status. I. General principles and forest ecosystems. *Functional Ecology* 10: 4–32.

Long SP. 1991. Modification of the response of photosynthetic productivity to rising temperature by atmospheric CO₂ concentrations: has its importance been underestimated? *Plant, Cell & Environment* 14: 729–739.

Luo Y, Field CB, Mooney HA. 1994. Predicting responses of photosynthesis and root fraction to elevated [CO₂]_a: interactions among carbon, nitrogen, and growth. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 17: 1195–1204.

McConnaughay KDM, Berntson GM, Bazzaz FA. 1993. Limitations to CO₂ induced growth enhancement in pot studies. *Oecologia* 94: 550–557.

Medlyn BE. 1996. The optimal allocation of nitrogen within C₃ photosynthetic systems at elevated CO₂. Australian Journal of Plant Physiology 23: 593–603.

Millard P, Proe MF. 1992. Storage and internal cycling of nitrogen in relation to seasonal growth of Sitka spruce. *Tree Physiology* 10: 33–43.

Norby RJ, Wullschleger SD, Gunderson CA, Johnson DW, Ceulemans R. 1999. Tree responses to rising CO₂ in field experiments: implications for the future forest. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 22: 683–714.

Olszyk D, Wise C, VanEss E, Tingey D. 1998a. Elevated temperature but not elevated CO₂ affects long-term patterns of stem diameter and height of Douglas-fir seedlings. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 28: 1046–1054.

Olszyk D, Wise C, VanEss E, Tingey D. 1998b. Phenology and growth of shoots, needles, and buds of Douglas-fir seedlings with elevated CO₂ and (or) temperature. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 76: 1991–2001.

Olszyk DM, Johnson MG, Tingey DT, Rygiewicz PT, Wise C, VanEss E, Benson A, Storm MJ, King R. 2003. Whole seedling biomass allocation, leaf area and tissue chemistry for Douglas-fir exposed to elevated CO_2 and temperature for four years. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* **33**: 269–278.

Oren R, Elsworth DS, Johnson KH, Phillips N, Ewers BE, Maier C, Schafer KVR, McCarthy H, Hendry G, McNulty SG, Katul GG. 2001. Soil fertility limits carbon sequestration by forest ecosystems in a CO₂-enriched atmosphere. *Nature* 411: 469–471.

Ormrod DP, Lesser VM, Olszyk DM, Tingey DT. 1999. Elevated temperature and carbon dioxide affect chlorophylls and carotenoids in Douglas-fir seedlings. *International Journal of Plant Science* 160: 529–534.

Poorter H. 1998. Do slow-growing species and nutrient-stressed plants respond relatively strongly to elevated CO₂? *Global Change Biology* 4: 693–698.

Poorter H, Pérez-Soba M. 2001. The growth response of elevated CO_2 under non-optimal environmental conditions. *Oecologia* **129**: 1-20.

Rey A, Jarvis PG. 1998. Long-term photosynthetic acclimation to increased atmospheric CO₂ concentration in young birch (*Betula pendula*) trees. *Tree Physiology* 18: 441–450.

Ripullone F, Grassi G, Lauteri M, Borghetti M. 2003. Photosynthesis-nitrogen relationships: interpretation of different patterns between *Pseudotsuga menziesii* and *Populus × euroamericana* in a mini-stand experiment. *Tree Physiology* 23: 137–144.

Rygiewicz PT, Martin KJ, Tuininga AR. 2000. Morphotype community structure of ectomycorrhizas on Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii* Mirb. Franco) seedlings grown under elevated atmospheric CO₂ and temperature. *Oecologia* 124: 299–308.

Sage RF. 1994. Acclimation of photosynthesis to increasing atmospheric CO₂: the gas exchange perspective. *Photosynthesis Research* **39**: 351–368.

Saxe H, Ellsworth DS, Heath J. 1998. Tree and forest functioning in an enriched CO₂ atmosphere. *New Phytologist* 139: 395–436.

Sharkey TD. 1988. Estimating the rate of photorespiration in leaves. *Physiologia Plantarum* 73: 147–152.

Stitt M. 1991. Rising CO₂ levels and their potential significance for carbon flow in photosynthetic cells. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 14: 741–762.

Stitt M, Krapp A. 1999. The interaction between elevated carbon dioxide and nitrogen nutrition: the physiological and molecular background. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 22: 583–622.

Teskey RO. 1997. Combined effects of elevated CO₂ and air temperature on carbon assimilation of *Pinus taeda* trees. *Plant, Cell* and Environment 20: 373–380. Thomas RB, Strain BR. 1991. Root restriction as a factor in photosynthetic acclimation of cotton seedlings grown in elevated CO₂. *Plant Physiology* 96: 627–634.

Tingey DT, McVeety B, Waschmann R, Johnson M, Phillips D, Rygiewicz PT, Oslzyk D. 1996. A versatile sun-lit controlled-environment facility for studying plant and soil processes. *Journal of Environmental Quality* 25: 614–625.

Tingey DT, McKane RB, Olszyk DM, Johnson MG, Rygiewicz PT, Lee EH. 2003. Elevated CO₂ and temperature affect nitrogen allocation in Douglas-fir. *Global Change Biology* 9: 1038–1050.

Tissue DT, Thomas RB, Strain BR. 1993. Long-term effects of elevated CO₂ and nutrients on photosynthesis and Rubisco in loblolly pine seedlings. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 16: 859–865.

Tissue DT, Griffin KL, Ball JT. 1999. Photosynthetic adjustment in field-grown ponderosa pine trees after six years of exposure to elevated CO₂. *Tree Physiology* **19**: 221–228.

Turnbull MH, Tissue DT, Griffin KL, Rogers GND, Whitehead D. 1998. Photosynthetic acclimation to long-term exposure to elevated CO₂ concentration in *Pinus radiata* D. Don is related to age of needles. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 21: 1019–1028.

Vitousek PM, Howarth RW. 1991. Nitrogen limitation on land and in the sea: How can it occur? *Biogeochemistry* 13: 87–115.

Wang K-Y, Kellomäki S, Laitinen K. 1995. Effects of needle age, long-term temperature and CO₂ treatments on the photosynthesis of Scots pine. *Tree Physiology* 15: 211–218.

Ward JK, Strain BR. 1999. Elevated CO₂ studies: past, present and future. *Tree Physiology* 19: 211–220.

Wayne PM, Reekie EG, Bazzaz FA. 1998. Elevated CO₂ ameliorates birch response to high temperature and frost stress: implications for modeling climate induced geographic range shifts. *Oecologia* 114: 335–342.

Wolfe DW, Gifford RM, Hilbert D, Luo Y. 1998. Integration of photosynthetic acclimation to CO₂ at the whole-plant level. *Global Change Biology* 4: 879–893.

Woodrow IE. 1994. Optimal acclimation of the C₃ photosynthetic system under enhanced CO₂. *Photosynthesis Research* 39: 401–412.

Woodrow IE, Berry JA. 1988. Enzymatic regulation of photosynthetic CO₂ fixation in C₃ plants. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology* **39**: 533–594.

Wullschleger SD, Norby RJ, Gunderson CA. 1997. Forest trees and their response to atmospheric carbon dioxide: a compilation of results. In: Advances in carbon dioxide effects research. ASA special publication, no. 61. Madision, WI, USA: American Society of Agronomy, 79–100.



About New Phytologist

- New Phytologist is owned by a non-profit-making charitable trust dedicated to the promotion of plant science, facilitating projects from symposia to open access for our Tansley reviews. Complete information is available at www.newphytologist.org
- Regular papers, Letters, Research reviews, Rapid reports and Methods papers are encouraged. We are committed to rapid processing, from online submission through to publication 'as-ready' via *OnlineEarly* average first decisions are just 5–6 weeks. Essential colour costs are **free**, and we provide 25 offprints as well as a PDF (i.e. an electronic version) for each article.
- For online summaries and ToC alerts, go to the website and click on 'Journal online'. You can take out a **personal subscription** to the journal for a fraction of the institutional price. Rates start at £108 in Europe/\$193 in the USA & Canada for the online edition (click on 'Subscribe' at the website)
- If you have any questions, do get in touch with Central Office (newphytol@lancaster.ac.uk; tel +44 1524 592918) or, for a local contact in North America, the USA Office (newphytol@ornl.gov; tel 865 576 5261)