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Richard J. Norby,¹ Jeffrey M. Warren,¹ Colleen M. Iversen,¹ Charles T. Garten, Jr.,¹ 3 Belinda E. Medlyn,² Ross E. McMurtrie³ 4 ¹Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 5 6 37830, USA 7 ²Department of Biological Sciences, Macquarie University, North Ryde NSW 2109, 8 9 Australia 10 ³School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of New South 11 12 Wales, Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia 13 Stimulation of terrestrial productivity by rising CO_2 concentration is projected to 14 reduce the airborne fraction of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions; coupled climate-15 carbon (C) cycle models, including those used in the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4), are sensitive to this negative feedback on atmospheric CO₂¹. The 16 17 representation of the so-called CO₂ fertilization effect in the 11 models used in AR4 and subsequent models^{2,3} was broadly consistent with experimental evidence from 18 19 four free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiments, which indicated that net 20 primary productivity (NPP) of forests was increased by $23 \pm 2\%$ in response to atmospheric CO₂ enrichment to 550 ppm⁴. Substantial uncertainty remains, 21 22 however, because of the expectation that feedbacks through the nitrogen (N) cycle will reduce the CO₂ stimulation of NPP^{5,6}; these feedbacks were not included in the 23 AR4 models and heretofore have not been confirmed by experiments in forests⁷. 24

CO₂ Enhancement of Forest Productivity Constrained by

Limited Nitrogen Availability

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Liquidambar styraciflua (sweetgum) forest stand in Tennessee, USA, that N 27 limitation has significantly reduced the stimulation of NPP by elevated atmospheric 28 CO₂ concentration (eCO₂). Isotopic evidence and N budget analysis support the premise that N availability in this forest ecosystem has been declining over time, and 29 30 declining faster in eCO₂. Model analyses and evidence from leaf- and stand-level 31 observations provide mechanistic evidence that declining N availability constrained 32 the tree response to eCO₂. These results provide a strong rationale and process 33 understanding for incorporating N limitation and N feedback effects in ecosystem 34 and global models used in climate change assessments.

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36 Policy decisions to mitigate climate change require dependable predictions of the 37 forcings and feedbacks to the climate provided by the terrestrial biosphere, particularly by forests⁸. Climate models that are coupled to terrestrial and oceanic C cycle models 38 39 simulate a positive feedback to climate change such that the airborne fraction of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions increases with, and amplifies, climatic warming¹. However, 40 41 the uncertainty in these projections is high, largely because of uncertainty in the offsetting 42 negative feedback that occurs if land C storage increases as atmospheric CO₂ concentration increases. Dynamic global vegetation models⁹ simulate an increased 43 terrestrial C sink resulting from the physiological responses of plants to eCO₂, and when 44 45 coupled to climate models, inclusion of the CO₂ fertilization effect slows the increase in 46 atmospheric CO₂ and the trajectory of climatic warming³. To reduce the large uncertainties in climate-C cycle projections, C cycle models must be constrained by 47 observational data^{1,8}. The AR4 models did not include N dynamics, which are predicted 48 to induce a negative feedback on vegetation NPP response over the longer term⁵. N 49 50 feedbacks have been observed to reduce the NPP response to eCO2 in nutrient-poor grasslands¹⁰, and severely N-limited forests show little response to eCO₂¹¹, but few forest 51

- 25 Here, we provide new evidence from a FACE experiment in a deciduous
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54	The Oak Ridge free-air CO ₂ enrichment (FACE) experiment has exposed replicate
55	plots in an established sweetgum (Liquidambar styraciflua) plantation forest to an
56	atmosphere with ~550 ppm CO_2 continuously since 1998 ¹² . Results from the first 6 years
57	of the experiment indicated that NPP was significantly enhanced by eCO ₂ (Fig. 1a) and
58	that this was a consistent and sustained response ⁴ . There was little enhancement of
59	aboveground or wood production, however (Fig. 1b); the bulk of the NPP increase
60	occurred as increased fine-root production, especially in the deeper soil profile ¹³ ;
61	Increased NPP was associated with greater C input to soil ¹⁴ and a gain in soil C ¹⁵ , and it
62	was this 6-year data set that was used in the FACE synthesis product ⁴ . Now, with 11
63	years of data, our analysis must be revised. The enhancement of NPP under eCO ₂ relative
64	to current ambient CO_2 (a CO_2) declined from 24% in 2001-2003 to 9% in 2008 (Fig. 1a).
65	The diminishing response to eCO_2 since 2004, which coincides with declining NPP in
66	both treatments, is confirmed by a significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{year}$ interaction in the NPP data
67	(Fig. 1a). The observed decline in NPP is an expected expression of forest stand
68	development; it can be caused by various environmental or internal factors, and the
69	timing and amount of decline vary with inherent stand productivity ¹⁶ .

70 We attribute the observed NPP decline in this ecosystem to a constraint imposed by 71 limited N availability. Additions of N fertilizer to an adjacent part of the same plantation 72 resulted in an immediate increase in aboveground production at the expense of fine roots¹⁷, which was sustained even as tree growth in control plots (and in eCO₂ plots) was 73 74 declining (Fig. 1b), thereby providing direct evidence that the forest stand was N limited. At the landscape level NPP is linearly related to foliar N concentration¹⁸. In our 75 76 sweetgum forest, foliar [N] declined over time (Fig. 2a), so NPP would be expected to 77 decline as well. Our analysis of the relationship between NPP and foliar [N] is guided by

the predictions of a simple model of the stand's carbon-nitrogen-water economy^{6, 19}. The model predicts an optimal balance with respect to foliar [N], stomatal conductance, and stand leaf area index (LAI) at which NPP is maximized. In aCO₂ and with prescribed water and N availability, the model predicts maximum NPP to occur at a foliar [N] of 16.6 mg g⁻¹ (ref. 19). Beginning in 2001 when NPP was at its peak, foliar [N] was less than this optimum, and NPP declined linearly with declining foliar [N] (Fig. 2b); prior to 2001, foliar [N] exceeded this optimum and was not well correlated with NPP.

85 Nitrogen relationships also can explain the decline in NPP response to eCO_2 . Foliar [N] was consistently lower in eCO₂ (Fig. 2a), but this was more than compensated by 86 increased photosynthetic N-use efficiency such that NPP was enhanced over that in 87 aCO2²⁰. As in aCO2, NPP in eCO2 declined with foliar [N] beginning in 2001 when NPP 88 was at its peak and foliar [N] corresponded to the modelled optimum of 14.3 mg g^{-1} . 89 However, the slope of the NPP-[N] relationship was steeper in eCO₂ than in aCO₂ (Fig. 90 2b), which explains the gradual loss of NPP response to CO₂ enrichment. Consistent with 91 92 empirical observations, the model also shows annual N uptake to above ground pools in the FACE experiment to decline steadily since 2001. The model predicts reduced CO₂ 93 94 enhancement of photosynthesis and NPP and reduced foliar [N] over time as N uptake 95 decreases, and it explains the N constraint on CO2 enhancement of NPP from plant 96 physiological considerations.

97 These stand-level observations and models have mechanistic support from 98 measurements of leaf-level photosynthesis. Light-saturated photosynthetic rates were 99 significantly greater (P < 0.05) at eCO₂ than at aCO₂ in 1999 (means ± s.e.m. were 14.5 ± 100 1.8 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ vs. 10.4 ± 1.0 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹), but photosynthesis was lower in both 101 treatments in 2008 (7.6 ± 0.7 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ vs. 6.4 ± 0.7 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹), and there was no 102 longer a significant stimulation by eCO₂. Reductions in leaf photosynthesis through time 103 and with CO₂ treatment reflect differences in foliar [N] and reductions in the parameters

104	of photosynthetic biochemistry, V_{cmax} and J_{max} , but there was no change in the
105	relationships between V_{cmax} or J_{max} and foliar N on a leaf area basis (N _{area}), either with
106	time or with CO_2 enrichment. N _{area} at the top of the canopy was reduced from 1999 to
107	2008, and was less in eCO ₂ than in aCO ₂ ; hence, V_{cmax} and J_{max} were reduced
108	concomitantly. Additionally, leaf mass per unit leaf area (LMA) increased in eCO_2 and
109	with time, which contributed to the decline in N_{mass} . Increased LMA in eCO ₂ due to
110	changes in leaf morphology can significantly reduce photosynthesis independently from
111	the effect of LMA on N_{mass}^{21} .

The long-term relationship among NPP, eCO₂, and N has been predicted by the 112 Progressive Nitrogen Limitation (PNL) hypothesis²², whereby increased sequestration of 113 N in long-lived biomass or soil pools under eCO₂ causes N availability to decline and 114 induces a negative feedback on further productivity increases in eCO₂. Nitrogen uptake 115 has been consistently greater in eCO_2^7 , attributable to increased fine-root production and 116 root proliferation deeper in the soil¹⁴, but after accounting for the N demand for fine-root 117 118 production, the increased root exploration has not been sufficient to support increased N 119 supply for leaf metabolism and wood production. Annual sequestration of N into 120 perennial tissue (wood) exceeded the input of exogenous N into this ecosystem, implying 121 a drawing down of the soil N capital. N availability should have declined in both 122 treatments. Because the larger N demand in eCO₂ was not compensated for by increased N mineralization in the top 10-15 $\text{cm}^{23,24}$, N availability should have declined faster in 123 eCO_2 . These predictions were confirmed by analysis of the ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratio in fresh leaf 124 litter (expressed as δ^{15} N). More negative values of δ^{15} N indicate more N immobilization 125 relative to N mineralization and lower N availability²⁵. Leaf litter δ^{15} N in each plot 126 declined linearly from 1998-2008 ($R^2 = 0.80$ to 0.94), and it declined more steeply in 127 eCO_2 (slopes of -0.32 ± 0.001 % yr⁻¹ in eCO_2 compared to -0.17 ± 0.006 % yr⁻¹ in aCO_2 , 128 P < 0.001), indicating a CO₂ effect on N availability as suggested by the PNL 129 hypothesis²². 130

We have considered other possible explanations for the decline in NPP and the loss 131 in capacity to respond to eCO₂ besides declining N availability. This FACE site had 132 133 already reached canopy closure before the CO_2 exposure commenced, and maximum 134 annual LAI did not differ significantly between treatments across years. Nevertheless, 135 LAI and its integration over the growing season (leaf area duration, LAD), vary year to 136 year as affected by variations in weather, and variation in LAD explains some of the 137 variation in NPP prior to 2004 (year-to-year coefficient of variation reduced by one-third 138 to one-half). The expression of NPP relative to LAD (Fig. 3) is similar to the Canopy Productivity Index (or growth efficiency¹⁶) previously proposed²⁶ as a robust indicator of 139 growth response to eCO₂. The decline in NPP/LAD after 2004 and the loss of response to 140 141 eCO₂ indicate that factors other than leaf area were responsible for the decline in productivity¹⁶, and this evidence is consistent with a decline in light-use efficiency 142 143 associated with N limitation. Progressively drier summers from 2004-2007 may be 144 partially responsible for declining NPP, but NPP continued to decline in 2008 despite 145 more mesic conditions. However, carryover effects of the 2007 drought into 2008, and 146 indirect effects of soil moisture on N availability, cannot be dismissed. There has been no effect of eCO₂ on tree height that could have created hydraulic constraints to 147 productivity¹⁶, and sap flow did not decline over time as trees grew taller²⁷. Other 148 potential causes of forest growth decline such as reproduction, mortality, or crown 149 abrasion¹⁶ do not apply to this stand. N limitation remains the most likely causative 150 151 factor.

It is not yet clear whether foliar [N] and CO₂ enhancement of NPP in this experimental forest stand will continue to decline or have reached a new steady state indicative of long-term forest response to eCO₂. Given the importance of the CO₂ fertilization effect in coupled climate-C cycle models that predict future climate change, there is an urgent need for further long-term experiments focusing on interactions between C and N cycles in forests. Failure to characterize these interactions and incorporate suitable algorithms into models will lead to unreliable predictions of the response of the terrestrial biosphere to atmospheric and climatic change. It may be fortuitous, but ultimately misleading, that models, which ignore the N cycle, have matched the previously reported FACE synthesis data, which preceded the onset of N limitation reported here. A longer record of experimental data and more sophisticated modeling are providing more dependable predictions of future responses.

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165 Methods

The experiment was established in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA (35° 54' N: 84° 20' W) in 166 1997 in a fully established 10-year-old plantation forest of the deciduous, broadleaf tree, 167 168 sweetgum (Liquidambar styraciflua L.). The experiment comprises five 25-m diameter plots, each with approximately 90 trees, an initial basal area of 29 m² ha⁻¹ and peak LAI 169 of 5.7^{12,27}. Beginning in April, 1998, two plots were exposed continuously during 170 daylight hours throughout the growing season to an elevated concentration of CO₂ (~550 171 ppm) using FACE apparatus²⁸. No N fertilizer has been added to the FACE plots; annual 172 N deposition is 12-15 kg ha⁻¹. Urea fertilizer (200 kg N ha⁻¹) was added to replicated plots 173 on an adjacent part of the plantation in early spring, 2004-2008¹⁷. 174

NPP was calculated as the sum of wood (bole, branch, and coarse root) increment,
leaf litter production, and fine-root production^{12,14}. Foliar N concentration was measured
in leaves collected from throughout the canopy in August each year using a C-N
analyzer²⁹. NPP and foliar [N] data were analyzed statistically as repeated measures data
using a mixed model with covariance structure chosen to minimize the AIC criterion.
¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratio in archived samples of freshly fallen leaf litter was determined on an
Integra-CN, continuous flow, isotope ratio, mass-spectrometer (PDZ-Europa, Cheshire,

Light-saturated photosynthetic rate was measured in upper canopy leaves using a LiCor 6400 system from 1998-2000 ²⁰ and again in July 2008. Response curves of assimilation versus internal leaf CO_2 (A-C_i) were used to estimate maximum Rubisco activity, V_{cmax}, and potential electron transport rate, J_{max}, using a consistent set of leaf photosynthesis model equations³⁰.

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270 C.T.G. measured and interpreted ¹⁵N content of leaf litter; B.E.M. analyzed photosynthesis data; R.E.M.

and B.E.M. provided modelling insights. R.J.N. supervised the project and wrote the paper; all authors

discussed the results and provided input to the manuscript.

273 Author Information Data from the FACE experiment are publicly available at:

274 <u>http://public.ornl.gov/face/ORNL/ornl_home.shtml</u>. Reprints and permissions information is available at

275 <u>www.nature.com/reprints</u>. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to R.J.N.

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Fig. 1. Tree growth responses to elevated CO_2 and nitrogen fertilization (a) NPP (g dry matter (DM) per m² land area per year) was measured as the sum of stem and coarse root increment, leaf litter production, and fine-root production. Data shown are the means of three aCO_2 plots (open symbols) and two eCO_2 plots (solid symbols) \pm s.e.m. The number at each point is the percentage increase

under eCO2. Repeated measures analysis indicated significant effects of CO2 (P 282 283 = 0.049), year (P < 0.001), and CO₂ × year interaction (P = 0.041). (b) Annual 284 increment in stem biomass in the FACE plots (solid lines) and in an adjacent section of the forest stand (dashed lines) where N fertilizer (200 kg N ha⁻¹ as 285 286 urea) was added annually beginning in April, 2004. Elevated CO₂ (solid circles) 287 caused a significant increase in aboveground growth in the first year after 288 treatment initiation (1998), but the response diminished in subsequent years and 289 was not statistically different from FACE controls (open circles). N fertilization 290 (shaded squares) caused an immediate and sustained increase in aboveground growth compared to unfertilized plots (open squares) (P < 0.001). 291

292 Fig. 2. Nitrogen relationships in FACE plots. (a) N concentration was measured 293 in leaves throughout the canopy of each plot after canopy expansion was 294 complete in July or August of each year. Data shown are the means of three 295 aCO_2 plots (open symbols) and two eCO_2 plots (solid symbols) \pm s.e.m. There 296 was no difference prior to treatment initiation (1996-1997); subsequently, the 297 effect of $[CO_2]$ was significant (P = 0.043) and there was no $CO_2 \times year$ 298 interaction. (b) Beginning in 2001, NPP declined linearly with foliar N 299 concentration. Data are values for each plot-year combination in aCO_2 (open 300 symbols) and eCO₂ (solid symbols) from 2001 to 2008. Regression equations are: NPP = $0.209 \times [N] - 1.67$ ($R^2 = 0.52$) in aCO₂ and NPP = $0.371 \times [N] - 2.17$ 301 $(R^2 = 0.71)$ in eCO₂. The slopes are significantly different (t = -2.54, df = 31, P = 302 303 0.0155).

Fig. 3. NPP per unit leaf area duration (LAD). LAD was calculated by summing daily values of leaf area index for each growing season. Data shown are the means \pm s.e.m. of three plots in aCO₂ (open symbols) and two plots in eCO₂ (solid symbols). CO₂ effect was significant (*P*< 0.001) from 1998-2004, but not significant (*P*=0.117) after 2004. **Fig. 1**



Fig. 2



Fig. 3



