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A meta-analysis of elevated CO₂ effects on woody plant mass, form, and physiology

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Abstract Quantitative integration of the literature on the effect of elevated CO₂ on woody plants is important to aid our understanding of forest health in coming decades and to better predict terrestrial feedbacks on the global carbon cycle. We used meta-analytic methods to summarize and interpret more than 500 reports of effects of elevated CO₂ on woody plant biomass accumulation and partitioning, gas exchange, and leaf nitrogen and starch content. The CO₂ effect size metric we used was the log-transformed ratio of elevated compared to ambient response means weighted by the inverse of the variance of the log ratio. Variation in effect size among studies was partitioned according to the presence of interacting stress factors, length of CO2 exposure, functional group status, pot size, and type of CO₂ exposure facility. Both total biomass (W_T) and net CO₂ assimilation (A) increased significantly at about twice ambient CO₂, regardless of growth conditions. Low soil nutrient availability reduced the CO_2 stimulation of W_T by half, from +31% under optimal conditions to +16%, while low light increased the response to +52%. We found no significant shifts in biomass allocation under high CO₂. Interacting stress factors had no effect on the magnitude of responses of A to CO₂, although plants grown in growth chambers had significantly lower responses (+19%) than those grown in greenhouses or in open-top chambers (+54%). We found no consistent evidence for photosynthetic acclimation to CO₂ enrichment except in trees grown in pots < 0.51 (-36%) and no significant CO₂ effect on stomatal conductance. Both leaf dark respiration and leaf nitrogen were significantly reduced under elevated CO₂ (-18% and -16% respectively, data

expressed on a leaf mass basis), while leaf starch content increased significantly except in low nutrient grown gymnosperms. Our results provide robust, statistically defensible estimates of elevated CO₂ effect sizes against which new results may be compared or for use in forest and climate model parameterization.

Key words Elevated $CO_2 \cdot Meta$ -analysis $\cdot Woody$ plants

Introduction

Forested ecosystems cover approximately 35% of the world's land surface and may accounted for as much as 70% of terrestrial net primary productivity (Meyer and Turner 1992; Mellilo et al. 1993). Their future prospects are of concern to many millions of people who rely on forests directly or indirectly for food, fuel, building material, and the myriad of ecological goods and services they provide. Increasing atmospheric CO₂ has the potential to fundamentally alter forest ecosystem functioning through effects on tree growth, resource use, and species interactions (Eamus and Jarvis 1989). Because of their prominent role in the global carbon cycle, forests may in turn affect the rate of atmospheric CO₂ increase (Walker and Kasting 1992). The extent and manner with which trees respond to changes in CO₂ concentration has thus been of interest to the forest products industry, natural resource managers, ecologists, and atmospheric scientists.

Empirical research on CO₂ effects in forests has proceeded along numerous lines of inquiry, but the great majority of studies share certain common features. In these experiments, the CO₂ treatments to which plants are exposed are typically ambient (c. 35 Pa) and twice ambient (c. 70 Pa) CO₂ partial pressure with additional levels occasionally included. Atmospheric CO₂ levels are expected to reach 70 Pa in the next 100–150 years (Houghton et al. 1990). Elevated CO₂ treatments are imposed as a single step change from ambient CO₂ levels

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by adding 100% CO₂ to the input air supply of controlled environment growth chambers (GC), greenhouses (GH) or field-based open-top chambers (OTC) (Schulze and Mooney 1994). First-year seedlings or young plants propagated from cuttings are used most often as experimental material, although occasionally mature trees or branches of trees are studied (e.g., Cipollini et al. 1993; Liu and Teskey 1995). Of considerable interest to workers studying elevated CO₂ has been the effect of interacting environmental variables on the magnitude of CO₂ responses by trees. Consequently, experiments are often set up as two-way factorial designs, with CO₂ crossed with another factor such as nitrogen availability or ozone level. While the specific objectives of individual researchers and the duration of their experiments vary widely, basic measures of plant growth (e.g., biomass, leaf area), physiological performance (e.g., gas exchange), and tissue composition (e.g., leaf N content) are often reported.

These common design and measurement characteristics are an advantage when attempting to integrate results across studies. Nonetheless (and not surprisingly), there is a substantial degree of variation in the magnitude of reported CO₂ effects on trees, ranging from significant inhibition of growth by elevated CO₂, to enhancements in excess of 500% relative to ambient grown plants (McGuire et al. 1995). An important goal in reviews of this work is to partition this variation into that which can be explained by treatment effects common to groups of studies and that which is due to sampling error or other idiosyncratic effects specific to individual studies. For example, in a set of 102 measurements of total tree biomass, growth at elevated CO₂ resulted in an average weight gain of 29% across a range of from -31% (inhibition) to +284% (stimulation) (Fig. 1). One obvious way to partition this data set is by whether or not another factor that could affect the magnitude of the CO₂ response was included in the experimental design of each study. While this narrows the range of responses within groups, there remains both broad overlap in responses between groups and substantial variation within groups (Fig. 1). Further partitioning of groups might be according to factors not considered explicit treatments by the primary researchers but that could help account for this remaining variation, such as length of study, size of pots in which plants were grown, or "quality" of the science being reported (however that might be defined). One objective of such an exercise is to identify groups of studies whose combined results can lead to meaningful generalizations regarding the response parameter under study, in this case percent change in whole plant biomass.

In a traditional narrative literature review, results from those individual studies that are judged by the reviewer to be representative or otherwise noteworthy are summarized qualitatively, serving as the basis for generalization, extrapolation, or other objectives of the reviewer. Although the narrative approach has been, and will no doubt continue to be, of fundamental importance

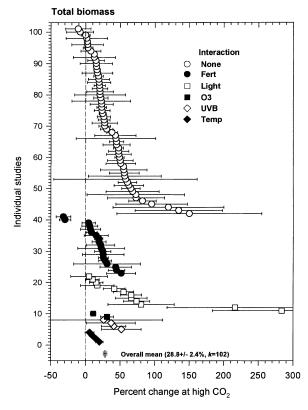


Fig. 1 Percent change in total (above + belowground) biomass in woody plants grown under elevated compared to ambient CO_2 as reported in 102 different experiments. Results are grouped according to whether plants were exposed either to no stress (*None*), low nutrient availability (*Fert*), low light levels (*Light*), high ozone (*O3*), high UVB (*UVB*) or low or high temperature (*Temp*) in addition to the CO_2 treatment. Mean \pm 1 SE calculated from the log-transformed response ratio

in synthesizing many types of scientific research, it is inadequate for the quantitative integration of large numbers of research reports (Cooper and Rosenthal 1980). Review of the literature on elevated CO₂ has for some time included both narrative reviews and quantitative summaries, with the latter in some cases involving results from hundreds of published reports (e.g., Cure 1985; Idso and Idso 1994). Quantitative summaries have been important in model parameterization and in establishing benchmarks against which other work can be compared (e.g., Kimball 1983). Unfortunately, their utility has been hampered by *ad hoc* sampling and analysis methods that do not allow statistically robust hypothesis testing or comparison among groups.

Statistical methods have been developed for the quantitative integration of research results from independent experiments (Hedges and Olkin 1985; Cooper and Hedges 1994). Such formal integration, or meta-analysis, of data has been conducted extensively in the social and medical sciences (Mann 1994) and has recently been extended to ecological studies (Arnqvist and Wooster 1995). The advantage of meta-analysis over quantitative methods previously used in reviews of work on elevated CO₂ is the ability to place confidence limits

around effect size estimates, to discriminate statistically among subsets of the data, and to compare critically the variance within and among studies. More generally, it requires of reviewers the same rigor in sampling and analysis as is required of primary researchers.

Here, we used meta-analytic methods to summarize and interpret 508 reports of CO₂ effects on tree physiology and growth taken from 79 separate publications and 59 species (Appendices 1 and 2). This paper extends the work of Curtis (1996) and introduces a new metaanalytic metric, the weighted log ratio. Our review has two primary objectives: (1) to provide estimates of the magnitude and significance of elevated CO2 effects on tree biomass accumulation and partitioning, gas exchange, and leaf nitrogen and starch content; and (2) to determine how experimental design factors or taxonomic affinity affects the magnitude of these CO₂ responses. We do not address the issue of how, or under what conditions, these results may be scaled up to predict the behavior of entire forests or biomes. As with any effort to integrate and interpret scientific information, considerable caution is advised when extrapolating beyond the range of ones data.

Methods

Database development

Bibliographic resources used in developing the meta-database were Strain and Cure (1986, 1994), and the Current Advances in Plant Science and Current Contents citation indices. Our literature survey was intended to be comprehensive, with all published studies conducted with woody species available through December 1995 included. We extracted information on 36 response variables, ten of which will be reported on here. Those are: total above- + belowground biomass (W_T) , below-ground biomass (W_B) , stem biomass (W_S) , total leaf biomass (W_L) , light saturated net CO₂ assimilation (A), photosynthetic acclimation or downregulation (A_{accl}) , stomatal conductance (g_S) , leaf dark respiration $(R_d$, expressed on a leaf mass basis), leaf starch concentration (S_L) , expressed on a mass basis), and leaf nitrogen concentration (N_L) , expressed on a mass basis).

For results from any given study to be included in the metadatabase there was a general requirement that response means $(\overline{X}_e, \overline{X}_a)$, standard deviations (S_e, S_a) (or standard errors), and sample sizes (n_e, n_a) of elevated and ambient CO₂ grown plants respectively be reported as numerical or graphical data in the manuscript, or be available by personal communication. This requirement was necessary for the weighting of response ratios according to precision of the primary results. Given the unevenness with which these basic statistical measures were reported, this requirement resulted in many published observations being excluded from consideration. An additional requirement was that ambient treatments be below 40 Pa CO₂ and elevated treatments be between 60 and 80 Pa CO₂. Most meta-analytic methods require that individual observations be statistically independent so only one measurement point per treatment per study was used. In most cases these were data obtained following the longest period of CO₂ exposure reported in that study. "Treatment" included species identity as well as crossed experimental factors interacting with CO2 such as ozone level or soil nutrient availability. Thus, a study examining a number of species in a multi-factorial design could contribute several observations for each response variable measured (e.g., Bazzaz and Miao 1993; Kubiske and Pregitzer 1996)

We were specifically interested in how different categorical variables influenced the magnitude of elevated CO2 responses. The five categorical variables whose effects we discuss here are, environmental stress factors (Stress), plant functional group (Func Grp), length of CO₂ exposure (Time), pot size (Pot), and type of exposure facility (Method) (Table 1). We required information on each of these variables for a study to be included in the database. For purposes of meta-analysis we established discrete levels for each variable and coded each observation accordingly. In most cases coding decisions were unambiguous but occasionally subjective interpretations were required to place a particular experimental design or treatment within one of these categorical levels. For example, field studies having "native soil" were considered unstressed unless some stress factor had been clearly identified by the author. Low N studies with N_2 -fixing plants and low P studies with mycorrhizal plants were also considered unstressed. The basis for coding decisions was described in more detail by Curtis (1996). The Stress factor associated with each study is also listed in Appendix 2.

Meta-analysis of response ratios

Meta-analytic studies depend on some estimate of treatment effect size, commonly the magnitude of an experimental treatment mean (in this case, \overline{X}_e) relative to the control treatment mean (in this case, \overline{X}_a) (Cooper and Hedges 1994). In a previous meta-analysis of the elevated CO₂ literature, Curtis (1996) used the standardized difference between experimental and control means, the so-called d-index, as the estimate of CO₂ effect size from a particular study. While the d-index had certain statistical advantages and was widely used in the social and medical sciences, it was not an effect size

Table 1 Categorical variables used in describing experimental conditions, and the values (levels) they could assume in the analysis of between-group heterogeneity (Q_b) . Note that Time and Pot were

entered as continuous variables in the meta-database. There were additional Stress levels encountered in the CO₂ literature but not considered in this analysis

Categorical variable	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level	Level 7	Level 8
Stress	None (optimal growth conditions)	Fert (low N or P treatment)	Light (low light treatment)	O ₃ (high ozone treatment)	UVB (high UV-B treatment)	Temp (low or high temperature treatment)	H ₂ 0 (drought treatment)	Comp (competition treatment)
Time Func Grp	≤59 days Angiosperm	60–99 days Gymnosperm	100–365 days N ₂ fixer	> 365 days		,		
Pot Method	≤0.5 l GC (indoor growth chamber)	0.6–2.4 1 GH (greenhouse)	2.5–9 l OTC (open-top chamber)	≥10 l FACE (free-air CO ₂ enrichment)	In ground Branch (branch chamber)			

metric commonly used to assess responses to elevated CO_2 . A much more common effect size metric in elevated CO_2 studies (as well as in other areas of ecology) is the response ratio, $r = \overline{X}_e/\overline{X}_a$. An impediment to the meta-analysis of response ratios, however, has been poor understanding of the sampling distribution of r and the lack of any formal statistical methods for its integration across independent studies.

L.V. Hedges, J. Gurevitch, and P.S. Curtis (unpublished ms) have developed new statistical methods for the meta-analysis of response ratios. These methods have been incorporated into statistical software for performing meta-analyses (MetaWin, Rosenberg et al. 1996) and this software was used in the present study. In brief, r first must be log-transformed such that $lr = \ln(r) = \ln(\overline{X}_e) - \ln(\overline{X}_a)$. If \overline{X}_e and \overline{X}_a are normally distributed and \overline{X}_a is unlikely to be negative, then lr is approximately normally distributed with a mean of approximately the true response log ratio and variance, v, equal to

$$v = \frac{S_e^2}{n_e \overline{X}_e^2} + \frac{S_a^2}{n_a \overline{X}_a^2} \tag{1}$$

The 95% confidence interval for an individual log response ratio is then

95% CI =
$$1r - 1.96\sqrt{v}$$
 to $1r + 1.96\sqrt{v}$ (2)

and the corresponding confidence limits for the unlogged response ratio obtained by computing their respective antilogs.

In summarizing results from independent studies, weighted means are normally used since individual experiments often differ in their statistical precision (e.g., Fig. 1). Giving greater weight to experiments whose estimates have greater precision (i.e., smaller standard error) will increase the precision of the combined estimate. The weighted mean log ratio (\overline{lr}^*) that produces the greatest precision (minimum variance) is

$$\overline{lr}^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i^* l r_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i^*}$$
 (3)

where the weighting factor $w_i^* = 1/(v_i + \hat{\sigma}_{\lambda}^2)$ is the reciprocal of the total variance of lr_i . Here, a mixed model analysis is assumed in which the pooled within-class variance, $\hat{\sigma}_{\lambda}^2$, is added to ν (Gurevitch and Hedges 1993).

Because each of the k individual log ratios is approximately normally distributed, the weighted mean is normally distributed with confidence intervals calculated as in Eq. 2, where the standard error is

$$S(\overline{\mathbf{lr}^*}) = \sqrt{1 / \sum_{i=1}^k w_i^*} \tag{4}$$

Partitioning variance within and between groups

With meta-analysis, one can test whether categorical groups (e.g., angiosperms or gymnosperms) are homogeneous with respect to effect size (i.e., that observed differences in lr among studies are due to sampling error), and whether there are significant differences in mean response between those groups (Hedges and Olkin 1985). In a procedure analogous to the partitioning of variance in analysis of variance, the total heterogeneity for a group of comparisons (Q_T) is partitioned into within-class heterogeneity (Q_w) and between-class heterogeneity (Q_b) , such that $Q_T = Q_w + Q_b$. The Q statistic follows a chi-square distribution, with k-1 degrees of freedom.

A central goal of our meta-analysis was to understand the source of variation in CO_2 effect size among studies and to determine whether particular growth conditions or groups of species elicited quantitatively different responses. The approach we took was to partition total heterogeneity (Q_T) within and between levels of each categorical variable. For example, the categorical variable Time (= length of the CO_2 exposure) was partitioned into short (\leq 59 days), medium (60–99 days), long (100–365 days) and very

long (> 365 days) exposure periods (levels). Grouping the data according to Time classes we could test whether there was significant between-group heterogeneity with respect to CO_2 exposure duration. This is analogous to examining the significance level of a particular source of variation in a conventional analysis of variance.

Partitioning of variance proceeded in two steps. First, betweengroup heterogeneity (Q_b) for each categorical variable was examined across all data for a given response variable. Second, the data set was subdivided according to levels of those categorical variables revealing significant Q_b and the first step repeated. Mean log ratios were calculated when the number of categorical variables exhibiting significant Q_b had been reduced to one or zero, suggesting no further partitioning of the dataset was justified. Means were considered to be significantly different from one another if their 95% CIs were non-overlapping and were significantly different from zero if the 95% CI did not overlap zero (Gurevitch and Hedges 1993).

Results

Biomass responses to elevated CO₂ were strongly affected by environmental stress factors and to a lesser degree by duration of CO₂ exposure and functional group affiliation (Table 2). Total biomass increased significantly at high CO_2 (+28.8%, k=102, Fig. 1) but there were also significant differences among stress categories (Fig. 2). Plants grown under nutrient stress showed only half the percentage growth stimulation (+15.5%) of plants with no stress treatment (+30.9%)and one-third that of plants grown under low light (+52.3%). Examination of each of these sub-groups for other significant categorical divisions (e.g., Pot or Time) showed no additional significant between-group heterogeneity (Q_b) (data not shown). This suggests that across all studies, there were significant differences in CO₂ response among plants grown under different stress regimes, but not, for example, among those grown in different pot size classes. The small number of studies incorporating environmental stresses other than Fert and Light (e.g., O3, UVB, Temp) resulted in large confidence

Table 2 Between-group heterogeneity (Q_b) for CO_2 effect size across five categorical variables for total biomass (W_T) , belowground biomass (W_B) , stem biomass (W_S) , leaf biomass (W_L) , net CO_2 assimilation (A), photosynthetic acclimation (A_{accl}) , stomatal conductance (g_s) , leaf dark respiration (R_d) , leaf starch concentration (St_L) , and leaf nitrogren concentration (N_L) . The categorical variables and their levels are as in Table 1. Each response variable was represented by k studies

Variable	k	Func Grp	Time	Pot	Method	Stress
$\overline{W_{T}}$	102	0.23	3.75	1.13	2.03	21.74***
W_{B}	64	2.23	9.40*	3.20	1.40	9.23*
$W_{\rm S}$	47	1.94	4.88	1.24	1.10	8.47*
$\widetilde{W_{\mathrm{L}}}$	50	5.97*	5.60	2.58	2.20	11.80**
A	79	0.71	6.19	10.33*	7.91*	1.20
$A_{\rm accl}$	28	0.24	3.64	9.57*	3.64	2.23
$g_{\rm s}$	48	0.22	2.32	4.15	2.14	1.34
$R_{\rm d}$	16	0.26	1.46	3.15	2.46	0.38
St_L	17	5.96*	6.58	6.65*	4.84	7.46**
$N_{\rm L}$	41	0.32	6.39	1.85	1.35	0.03

^{*} P < 0.05. ** P < 0.01. *** P < 0.001

limits and little power to draw statistical inferences regarding the relative magnitude of their mean effects.

Belowground biomass responses to CO_2 were highly significant overall (+38%, k=64) but were affected by environmental stress factors and length of the CO_2 exposure (Table 2). Thus, there were significant time effects (across all stress types), but also significant stress effects (across all time categories). Further partitioning of this dataset showed that for plants exposed to no stress treatment, time categories were no longer significantly different nor was there any other significant Q_b

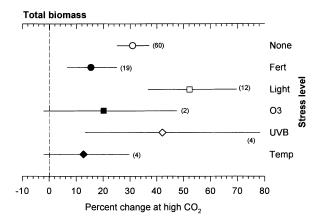


Fig. 2 The effect of environmental stress on the biomass response of trees to elevated CO_2 . Plants were exposed either to no stress (*None*), low nutrient availability (*Fert*), low light levels (*Light*), high ozone (*O3*), high UVB (*UVB*) or low or high temperature (*Temp*). Mean \pm 95% confidence interval (k)

Table 3 Between-group heterogeneity (Q_b) for subgroups of response variables presented in Table 2. Data sets were partitioned according to the variable level in **bold type**, and Q_b for all catego-

(Table 3). It should be noted that as the data set was divided, not every categorical variable level was represented in each sub-group. For example, there was no pot level 5 (= planting in ground) represented in the 36 studies reporting $W_{\rm B}$ measurements in unstressed trees. In this group, $W_{\rm B}$ increased 41.5% under elevated CO₂ (Fig. 3).

In contrast to the unstressed group, among all remaining W_B studies (i.e., those including Fert, UVB, and

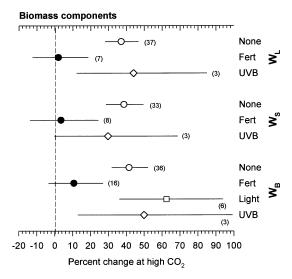


Fig. 3 The effect of elevated CO_2 on biomass allocation to leaves (W_L) , stem (W_S) , or roots (W_B) in plants grown with (Fert, UVB, Light) or without (None) interacting stress conditions. Mean \pm 95% confidence interval (k)

rical variables was then calculated. The specific levels represented for each categorial variable in the k set of studies are also presented

Var	k	Stress level	Stress $Q_{\rm b}$	Time level	Time $Q_{\rm b}$	Func Grp level	Func Grp $Q_{\rm b}$	Pot level	Pot $Q_{\rm b}$	Method level	Method $Q_{\rm b}$
$W_{\rm B}$	36	None	-	All	5.26	Angio, Gymno	0.01	1–4	1.77	All	0.05
$W_{\rm B}$	25	Fert, UVB, Light	5.58	3,4	7.83**	Angio, Gymno	4.62*	1–3, 5	4.35	All	4.72
$W_{\rm B}$	22	Fert, UVB, Light	12.44**	3	_	Angio, Gymno	2.33	1–3	0.61	GC, GH	0.66
$W_{\rm L}$	37	None	_	All	4.78	Angio, Gymno	2.05	All	4.53	All	0.95
$W_{\rm L}$	10	Fert, UVB	5.38*	3	_	Angio, Gymno	6.69**	1–3	8.06*	GC, GH	3.98*
A	59	All	0.90	All	5.78	All	0.12	All	11.31*	GH, OTC	2.78
A	50	All	0.80	All	8.94*	All	0.59	3–5	4.49	GH, OTC	0.42
A	19	None, Fert	1.03	1–3	0.43	All	4.04	1–4	2.54	GC	_
$A_{\rm accl}$	24	None	_	All	2.04	All	0.40	2–5	0.53	GC, GH, OTC	1.15
St_L	12	None, Fert	0.90	1–3	0.87	Angio	_	3–5	0.92	GC, OTC	0.85
$\operatorname{St}_{\operatorname{L}}$	4	None, Fert	7.45**	4	-	Gymno		4	-	OTC	_

^{*} P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001

Light stress) there were significant Time and Func Grp effects but no significant differences among Stress categories (Table 3). Examination of these data revealed a small (n = 2) group of long-duration studies (>365 days), both involving gymnosperms, whose belowground response was over twice that of the remaining 22 studies. Excluding those two studies (both from Johnson et al. 1994), which restricted Time to level 3 (100–365 days), resulted in a significant Stress Q_b but no other. That is, there were significant differences among Stress category means, but only after removal of the two outlier studies. While these two studies might well merit further examination (e.g., why were they outliers?), they were clearly distinct from the other 22 studies and obscured significant differences among Stress categories in that group. Below-ground biomass response to CO₂ was not significantly different from zero under fertility stress (+10.6%, ns) and was not affected by low light or UVB stress relative to unstressed plants although low sample sizes renders this latter conclusion very tentative (Fig. 3).

Leaf biomass responses to CO₂ also showed significant Q_b for several categorical variables. Across the entire dataset, leaf biomass increased significantly under high CO₂ (+31%, k=50) but the magnitude of this response depended on both interacting stresses and on functional group affiliation (Table 2). Studies with no interacting stress treatment (k = 37) had no other significant Q_b (Table 3) and showed a mean stimulation of $W_{\rm L}$ under high CO₂ of 37.1% (Fig. 3). The remaining ten studies showed significant variation among Stress (Fert, UVB), Func Grp (Angiosperm, Gymnosperm), Pot (<0.5–9 l), and Method (GC, GH) levels. It was not possible to partition this variation completely since several categorical variables were confounded. For example, all four gymnosperm studies were conducted in growth chambers in pots < 2.5 l. Stress treatments were not confounded with any other variable, however. Fertility stress reduced the W_L CO₂ response to zero while the magnitude of the CO₂ response under UVB stress was not significantly different from that of unstressed plants (Fig. 3). Stem biomass response to CO₂ showed a very similar pattern to W_B and W_L (Table 2, Fig. 3), with unstressed plants having a highly significant response (+38.6%, k=33) but with low soil fertility reducing this growth stimulation to zero.

There was no evidence for significant Stress, Time, or Func Grp effects on A at high CO_2 (Table 2). Pot and Method did, however, show significant Q_b . For plants grown in GCs there was no Pot Q_b (Table 3) and an overall mean stimulation of A of 27.5% at high CO_2 (Fig. 4). For plants grown in GHs or OTCs and in pots >2.4 L, A was stimulated 54.3% under CO_2 enrichment (Table 3, Fig. 4), although there remained a significant Time Q_b for this group. The time effect was difficult to account for, with the level 3 mean (100–365 days) being greater than means from levels 1, 2, or 4 which were not different from one another (data not shown). Net CO_2 assimilation in GH or OTC plants grown in pots < 2.5 1

was significantly less (19%, k = 9) than in plants grown in larger pots or in the ground.

Elevated CO₂ stimulation of A in mature, opengrown Pinus taeda exposed to c. 55 Pa CO₂ for 2 years in a FACE experiment (Ellsworth et al. 1997) was 31%, outside the 95% CI of OTC and GH grown plants but very similar to the GC mean (Fig. 4). Part of the explanation for a reduced response relative to other 'field-grown' trees may be lower CO₂ levels used in this free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) study compared to most OTC experiments (c. 70 Pa). Photosynthetic acclimation could also be more severe than in non-FACE systems (see below). With a sample size of one it is impossible to test for a "FACE effect" per se, and additional data are of great importance in resolving differences in the CO₂ response, if any, between FACE-grown trees and those from the bulk of our other experimental systems.

Photosynthetic acclimation, calculated as the ratio of A in elevated compared to ambient grown plants both measured at elevated CO₂, was affected overall only by pot size, with plants in small pots (<0.5 l), showing significant A_{accl} (-36%, k=5), while plants grown in larger pots showed no evidence for A_{accl} under any conditions (Tables 2, 3, Fig. 4). FACE-grown Pinus taeda showed A_{accl} of -16.5%, outside the 95% CI of other "large pot" studies. The likelihood of low water or nutrient supply contributing to the FACE A_{accl} response was low since Stress showed no significant Q_b in the overall data set. Increased sample size and estimates of among-FACE experiment variation clearly are needed to increase the power of these quantitative comparisons. Stomatal conductance showed a modest (-11%) but not statistically significant reduction in plants grown under high CO_2 while R_d (expressed on a leaf mass basis) was significantly reduced (-18%) (Fig. 4). Neither g_s nor R_d

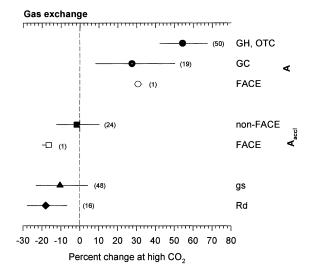


Fig. 4 Gas exchange responses of trees to elevated CO_2 . Net CO_2 assimilation rate (A), acclimation to elevated CO_2 (A_{accl}) , stomatal conductance (g_s) and leaf dark respiration (R_d) in plants grown under elevated compared to ambient CO_2 . Mean \pm 95% confidence interval (k) (GH greenhouse, OTC field-based open-top chamber, FACE free-air CO_2 enrichment, GC growth chamber)

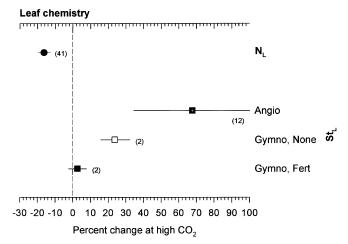


Fig. 5 Leaf nitrogen $(N_{\rm L})$ and starch $({\rm St_L})$ content in elevated compared to ambient ${\rm CO_2}$ grown plants. Both nitrogen and starch were reported on a tissue mass basis. Further subdivision of ${\rm St_L}$ studies was by angiosperm (Angio) vs. gymnosperm (Gymno) and no interacting stress (None) vs. low-fertility stress (Fert). Mean \pm 95% confidence interval (k)

responses were affected by any categorical variable (Table 2).

Leaf nitrogen (mass basis) showed a highly significant reduction at high CO₂ (-16.4%, Fig. 5) and this response was unaffected by Stress level or other categorical variables (Table 2). Leaf starch response to elevated CO₂ was affected by Stress, Pot, and Func Grp (Table 2). In angiosperms, St_L increased 67.6% at high CO₂, significantly more than in unstressed (+23.6%), or stressed (ns) gymnosperms (Fig. 5).

Discussion

Our meta-analysis of CO₂ responses in trees leads to a number of conclusions that we can state with considerable certainty, being based on many independent studies sharing numerous experimental design features. In particular, it is clear that both A and W_T increase significantly at twice ambient CO₂, regardless of growth conditions. These results agree qualitatively with other reviews of this literature, but our quantitative summary of CO₂ effect sizes often differ significantly from earlier estimates. For example, our CO2 effect size estimate of +31% for $W_{\rm T}$ under non-stressed, control conditions was less than half the CO₂ effect calculated by McGuire et al. (1995). In their review of 77 studies of elevated CO₂ involving N manipulations they found a 71% biomass increase in high CO₂, higher N treatment trees compared to ambient CO₂, higher N treatment trees. However, as their results were drawn only from studies involving soil N manipulations, the higher N and lowest N treatments could have provided greater soil N than the typical nostress and low fertility treatments respectively in our analysis. Interestingly, the 50% relative reduction in the CO₂ growth response calculated by McGuire et al.

(1995) as due to low soil N availability (i.e., only a 35% growth enhancement in the lowest N treatments) was identical to our observation of a 50% reduction in CO_2 stimulation of W_T in nutrient-stressed plants (+16%). Eamus and Jarvis (1989) also estimated a significantly greater biomass response to elevated CO_2 (+40%) than we found, while Ceulemans and Mousseau (1994) distinguished between the CO_2 growth response of conifers (+38%) and broadleaved species (+68%), a division with no statistical basis in our dataset. Lastly, Wullschleger et al. (1995) calculated virtually the same overall dry weight response to CO_2 in unstressed plants (+32%, k=295) as we did, but found no reduction in this response under low nutrient conditions (+30%, k=82).

These reviews differ from one another in many respects, including their overall objectives, their scope, and the collection of literature under consideration. It is difficult, therefore, to identify precisely the component(s) responsible for these differences in CO₂ effect size estimates. A contributing factor certainly must be basic differences in the authors' approach to quantitative research integration and the statistical tools (or lack thereof) that were used. To the extent that resolving differences of 2–3 fold in our estimates of CO₂ effects on tree growth is of importance (and we suggest it is) we must abandon ad hoc or ill-defined concepts for summarizing independent research results in favor of statistically robust meta-analytic methods. Only then will we be able to critically evaluate competing estimates of the likely magnitude of CO₂ stimulated tree growth on, for example, low nutrient soils, or the relative importance of taxonomic or functional group affiliation in the CO₂ response.

There has been considerable debate whether CO₂ enrichment results in shifts in root:shoot ratio (R/S) and, if so, under what conditions this occurs. Biomass allocation models such as functional balance (Davidson 1969) and carbon/nutrient substrate ratio (Reynolds and Thornley 1982) predict that as tissue C:N ratios rise and N becomes more limiting relative to C, biomass allocation to roots will increase. Thus, high CO₂ should elicit similar shifts in R/S as does low soil N. Evidence for such a CO₂ effect in trees has been equivocal, however. Eamus and Jarvis (1989) considered the bulk of the evidence to indicate an increase in R/S, particularly under low nutrient conditions, a conclusion supported by Ceulemans and Mousseau (1994). Norby (1994) observed that CO₂ effects on root allocation could easily be confounded with CO₂ effects on developmental rate and he estimated a modest (+6%) increase in R/S at high CO₂, with no differential response under nutrient stress. Similarly, neither McGuire et al. (1995) nor Wullschleger et al. (1995) found evidence for a significant CO₂ effect on biomass allocation under any conditions. We analyzed CO₂ effects on individual biomass components rather than R/S, which are rarely reported with error estimates, and found little evidence to support significant shifts in allocation, whether to leaves, stems, or

roots, under most environmental or cultural conditions. The only condition under which allocation might shift in favor of roots was nutrient stress, but this response was not statistically significant. It is interesting to note, however, that the CO_2 effect on W_T under nutrient stress although reduced was still significant and the only biomass component with a similar mean CO_2 effect size under nutrient stress was W_B . This observation lends qualified support to predictions of increased R/S at high CO_2 under low soil nutrient availability but additional data clearly will be needed to resolve this important issue.

There is broad agreement among reviewers on the overall magnitude of tree photosynthetic responses to CO₂ enrichment, although less so on factors affecting that response. Estimates of overall CO_2 effects on A range from +44% (Gunderson and Wullschleger 1994) to +54% (this study). Low soil nutrients have often been considered of primary importance in reducing the magnitude of this response (e.g., McGuire et al. 1995; Curtis 1996) but rarely have the relative effects of other environmental factors been compared quantitatively to that of soil nutrients. We found significant Pot and Method Q_b across all 79 studies in our database but no significant differences among stress categories. However, of 50 GH and OTC studies that were conducted in large pots or in the ground, only 7 involved low nutrient treatments, a small sample conveying relatively little statistical power. While our failure to detect significant nutrient effects may be due to sampling error, this example illustrates a general concern that must be confronted by quantitative reviewers of the literature on the effects of elevated CO₂. That is, all identifiable sources of variation in a dataset must be examined before summary statistics are calculated and conclusions drawn. If this is not done, variation due to one factor (e.g., pot size) may be confounded with that of another (e.g., soil nutrients), leading to inaccurate or erroneous conclusions regarding the importance of either factor. This is particularly true for studies with elevated CO₂ where cultural conditions are known to affect the magnitude of the treatment response (Thomas and Strain 1991; McConnaughay et al. 1993; Kennedy 1995). Our results clearly show that environmental stress is of less importance than certain cultural factors in altering the magnitude of photosynthetic responses to high CO₂ and that significant, sustained increases in A can be expected in trees as atmospheric CO₂ levels rise.

Photosynthetic acclimation, or down-regulation, represents a suite of physiological processes which cause photosynthetic capacity in plants grown under high CO_2 to decline relative to plants grown under ambient CO_2 (Stitt 1991). To evaluate the magnitude of $A_{\rm accl}$ in trees grown under high CO_2 we adopted the convention suggested by Gunderson and Wullschleger (1994) of comparing A in plants grown under elevated and ambient CO_2 measured at a common CO_2 level (either internal or external to the leaf). Our results show no consistent evidence for $A_{\rm accl}$ (-1%, ns), except in trees grown in pots < 0.51 (-36%, P < 0.01). This is in

contrast to both the prevailing view based on narrative reviews (Ceulemans and Mousseau 1994; McGuire et al. 1995) and the overall 21% acclimation response across 20 studies reported by Gunderson and Wullschleger (1994). The 24 "larger pot" studies remaining in our dataset were almost evenly divided among those showing strong A_{accl} (e.g., Johnsen 1993; Curtis et al. 1995), no A_{accl} (e.g., Downton et al. 1990; Grulke et al. 1993), and significant up-regulation (e.g., Kaushal et al. 1989; Sharkey et al. 1991). Given the heterogeneity of this group, and the small number of studies with common stress treatments, we suggest it is premature to conclude that photosynthetic acclimation is a universal response by trees to growth under high CO₂ under any particular set of conditions. Additional results from forest FACE experiments could help define those conditions but within and among-study variance estimates will be required for any rigorous statistical tests to be made.

Interpreting the effects of elevated CO_2 on tree g_s presents similar problems to those raised regarding A_{accl} . Reviewers of data on g_s responses, including measurements from herbaceous species, generally suggest a significant reduction in g_s to be the norm, with the well documented sensitivity of stomata to internal CO2 level (Farquhar and Sharkey 1982) offered as a plausible response mechanism. Acclimation of g_s to high CO₂ is a possibility, however, and while no physiological mechanism for acclimation has been proposed, one result of acclimation could be a change in stomatal sensitivity to CO₂ (Sage 1994). Eamus and Jarvis (1989) estimated a reduction of from -10% to -60% in g_s of trees grown under elevated compared to ambient CO₂ but acknowledged numerous exceptions. We found considerable variation in the magnitude of CO_2 effects on g_s as well. Although the overall mean response across 48 studies was a modest -11%, this effect was not statistically different from zero, nor were there significant stress or cultural modifiers to this response. As with the distribution of A_{accl} values, our g_s dataset contained numerous studies reporting strongly negative (e.g., Bassow et al. 1994; Eamus et al. 1995), not statistically significant (e.g., Hollinger 1987; Bunce 1992), and strongly positive (e.g., Norby and O'Neill 1991; Pettersson and McDonald 1992) effects of high CO₂ on g_s. Additional data will be required before we can state with certainty either the magnitude or the direction of CO₂ effects on

In contrast to the uncertainty regarding CO_2 effects on $A_{\rm accl}$ and $g_{\rm s}$, our analysis provides strong support and robust summary statistics for the widely accepted view (e.g., Amthor 1994; Wullschleger et al. 1994) that growth at elevated CO_2 results in significant reductions in $R_{\rm d}$ and $N_{\rm L}$ when both are expressed on a tissue mass basis. Working with a similar, though somewhat smaller dataset, Curtis (1996) found reduced $N_{\rm L}$ when reported on a leaf mass but not when reported on a leaf area basis, suggesting that in most circumstances the massbased N reduction under CO_2 enrichment was due to increased leaf density rather than N reallocation. In the

present study we documented large increases in St_L under all conditions except in nutrient stressed gymnosperms. Given the strong positive relationship between tissue N content and both photosynthesis (Field and Mooney 1986) and maintenance respiration (Ryan 1991) it is important to determine when growth at high CO₂ leads to a net decrease in non-storage leaf N content as opposed to reduced leaf N concentration due to changes in specific leaf area. The extent to which CO₂ enrichment leads to functional decreases in $N_{\rm L}$ could be an important determinant of long-term growth and allocational responses to elevated CO₂ (Luo et al. 1994). It is also important to determine whether reduced $N_{\rm L}$ of green leaves carries over into an increased C:N ratio of naturally senesced leaf litter. Although evidence that elevated CO₂ alters leaf decomposition rates is at present equivocal (O'Neill and Norby 1996), reduced N mineralization from soil organic matter could provide a potent negative feedback on long-term forest productivity with rising CO₂ (Zak et al. 1993).

It is important to note that no single meta-analysis is likely to be definitive, and that multiple approaches and perspectives should be encouraged. For example, while our conclusions regarding CO_2 effects on A, A_{accl} , and g_s are in broad agreement with those of Curtis (1996), the differences in effect size metric (lr vs. d-index) and in the strategies for partitioning within and between group variance in the two meta-analyses resulted in several qualitatively different outcomes. The most important was for A_{accl} , where Curtis (1996, Fig. 3a) found a highly significant (although numerically modest) overall CO₂ effect, while in the present study we found no CO₂ effect in non-FACE studies (Fig. 4). However, the overall mean effect size estimate in Curtis (1996) included the responses of plants grown in small pots (<0.5 l) which were shown in both studies to have significantly greater A_{accl} than plants grown in larger pots. Here, these plants were excluded from the overall analysis, leading to the result of no significant A_{accl} . In addition, where the number of studies within a category is small, as was the case in numerous instances here, it is particularly important to repeat the meta-analysis as new data becomes available.

In conclusion, quantitative integration of the elevated CO₂ literature has been hampered by inappropriate sampling and statistical methods, leading to uncertainty in the magnitude of CO₂ effects on fundamental processes controlling carbon gain in woody vegetation and of the importance of environmental factors in altering the magnitude of these effects. Statistically defensible methods of integrating diverse research results have been developed over the past 50 years and are now firmly in place in the medical and social sciences (Mann 1990). Meta-analysis is not a substitute for well designed, multi-factorial experiments and it is important to acknowledge the limits to establishing causal relationships from meta-analytic results where categorical groups created by the meta-analyst were not randomly assigned treatments within the primary studies (Miller and Pollock 1994). What meta-analysis does offer is an objective and statistically rigorous methodology for integrating primary research results with the goal of estimating the magnitude of treatment effects within and among categorical groups. We suggest that it is important from a scientific as well as a policy perspective that elevated CO_2 research results continue to be integrated using these tools.

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Appendix 2 The species, environmental stress factors in addition to CO_2 (Stress), variables measured, and citation for all studies used in the meta-analysis. The variables measured were: total above+ below-ground biomass (W_T) , below-ground biomass (W_B) , stem biomass (W_S) , total leaf biomass (W_L) , light saturated net CO_2 assimilation (A), photosynthetic acclimation or downregulation (A_{accl}) , stomatal conductance (g_S) , leaf dark respiration $(R_d$, expressed on a leaf mass basis), leaf nitrogen concentration (N_L, \exp_T) expressed on a mass basis), and leaf starch concentration (SL_L)

expressed on a mass basis). The entire database, containing nearly 800 observations (at the time of this writing), is available for public use from the Carbon Dioxide Information and Analysis Center (CDIAC, Oak Ridge National Laboratory). Files may be obtained by anonymous FTP at address: cdiac.esd.ornl.gov, directory pub/db1018. Access codes and other important information are viewable in the readme file. The database can also be accessed via CDIAC's homepage: http://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov, under Products and Services, Anonymous FTP Service, FTP area, db1018.

Species	Stress	W_{T}	$W_{\rm L}$	$W_{\rm S}$	W_{B}	A	$A_{accl} g_s$	$R_{\rm d}$	$N_{ m L}$	$\operatorname{St}_{\operatorname{L}}$	Citation
Acacia mangium	None					*					Ziska et al. (1991)
Acer pensylvanicum	Fert		*	*			*				Bassow et al. (1994)
Acer pensylvanicum	Fert				*						Bassow et al. (1994)
Acer pensylvanicum	Fert/light				*						Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Acer pensylvanicum	Fert/light	*									Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Acer pensylvanicum	Fert/light	*									Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Acer rubrum	Fert/light				*						Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Acer rubrum	Fert/light	*									Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Acer rubrum	Fert/light	*									Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Acer rubrum	None	*									Bunce (1992)
Acer rubrum	Light					*	*		*		Kubiske and Pregitzer (1996)
Acer saccharinum	None	*				*	*				Bunce (1992)
Acer saccharum	None	*	*						*	*	Lindroth et al. (1993)
Acer saccharum	Temp					*	*				Norby et al. (1996)
Acer saccharum	None								*		Reid and Strain (1994)
Acer saccharum	None					*					Reid and Strain (1994)

Appendix 2 (continued)

Species	Stress	W_{T}	W_{L}	$W_{\rm S}$	$W_{\rm B}$	A	A _{accl}	$g_{\rm s}$	$R_{\rm d}$	$N_{ m L}$	$\operatorname{St}_{\operatorname{L}}$	Citation
Alnus glutinosa	None					*		*	*	*		Vogel and Curtis (1995)
Alnus rubra	Fert	*	*	*	*	*				*		Amone and Gordon (1990)
Betula alleghaniensis	Fert		*	*	*			*				Bassow et al. (1994)
Betula alleghaniensis	Fert/light	*			*							Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Betula alleghaniensis	Fert/light	*										Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Betula alleghaniensis	None	*	*	*	*					*		Rochefort and Bazzaz (1992)
Betula lenta	None	*	*	*	*	*		*		*		Rochefort and Bazzaz (1992)
Betula papyrifera	Light None	*	*	*	*	•				*		Kubiske and Pregitzer (1994) Rochefort and Bazzaz (1992)
Betula papyrifera Betula papyrifera	None	-	-	-	-					*	*	Roth and Lindroth (1994)
Betula pendula	Temp	*				*	*		*			Mortensen (1994)
Betula pendula	None	*				*		*		*	*	Pettersson and McDonald
Devina permina	1,0110											(1992)
Betula pendula	Fert									*	*	Pettersson et al. (1993)
Betula populifolia	Fert		*	*	*			*				Bassow et al. (1994)
Betula populifolia	Fert/light	*			*							Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Betula populifolia	Fert/light	*										Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Betula populifolia	None	*	*	*	*					*		Rochefort and Bazzaz (1992)
Betula pubescens	O ₃ /temp	*	*	*	*	*						Mortensen (1995)
Brachychiton populneum	None	*		*		•						Idso and Kimball (1993)
Castanea sativa Castanea sativa	None None	~		r					*			Couteaux et al. (1992)
Castanea sativa Castanea sativa	Fert	*	*	*	*				•	*		El Kohen et al. (1991) El Kohen et al. (1992)
Castanea sativa Castanea sativa	None	*	*	*	*	*						El Kohen et al. (1993)
Castanea sativa	None	*	*	*	*	*			*			Mousseau (1993)
Castanea sativa	None	*		*	*							Mousseau and Enoch (1989)
Cecropia obtusifolia	None/comp	*				*		*				Reekie and Bazzaz (1989)
Cedrus atlantica	None					*	*	*			*	Kaushal et al. (1989)
Citrus aurantium	None		*	*	*							Ferguson et al. (1986)
Citrus aurantium	None					*						Idso et al. (1991)
Citrus sinensis	None	*	*	*	*	*	*					Downton et al. (1987)
Eucalyptus microtheca	None					*						Idso and Kimball (1993)
Eucalyptus	None					*						Idso and Kimball (1993)
polyanthemus	NI					*						F
Eucalyptus tetrodonta Fagus grandifolia	None None					*				*		Eamus et al. (1995a) Reid and Strain (1994)
Fagus sylvatica	None					*						El Kohen et al. (1993)
Fagus sylvatica	None					*	*					Jarvis et al. (1994)
Ficus obtusifolia	None					*						Ziska et al. (1991)
Fraxinus americana	Fert/light	*			*							Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Fraxinus americana	Fert/light	*										Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Garcinia mangostana	None		*	*	*	*	*					Downton et al. (1990)
Gliricidia sepium	Fert									*		Thomas et al. (1991)
Lindera benzoin	None									*		Cipollini et al. (1993)
Liquidambar styraciflua	None					*	*	*	*	*		Fetcher et al. (1988)
Liriodendron tulipfera	None					*		*	*	*		Wullschleger et al. (1992a)
Liriodendron tulipifera	None	*	*	*	*	*		*		*		Gunderson et al. (1993)
Liriodendron tulipifera Liriodendron tulipifera	Fert None	•	*	*	•	*		•	*	•		Norby and O'Neill (1991) Norby et al. (1992)
Liriodendron tulipifera	None		•	•		*		*	*		*	Wullschleger et al. (1992b)
Malus domestica	None	*				*		*				Bunce (1992)
Maranthes corymbosa	None	*	*	*	*							Berryman et al. (1993)
Maranthes corymbosa	None					*	*	*				Eamus et al. (1993)
Maranthes corymbosa	None							*				Eamus et al. (1995b)
Myriocarpa longipes	None/comp	*				*		*				Reekie and Bazzaz (1989)
Nothofagus fusca	None	*				*	*	*				Hollinger (1987)
Picea abies	None						*					Marek et al. (1995)
Picea abies	Temp	*				*	*		*			Mortensen (1994)
Picea abies	O_3	*										Polle et al. (1993)
Picea glauca	UVB	*	*	*	*							Yakimchuk and Hoddinott
Diana anamian	East/II O	*				*	*	*				(1994)
Picea mariana	Fert/H ₂ O UVB	*	*	*	*		W-	-				Johnsen (1993)
Picea mariana	UVD	•										Yakimchuk and Hoddinott (1994)
Pinus banksiana	UVB	*										Stewart and Hoddinott
i and camsum	O 1 D											(1993)
Pinus banksiana	UVB	*	*	*	*							Yakimchuk and Hoddinott
												(1994)

Appendix 2 (continued)

Species	Stress	W_{T}	W_{L}	$W_{\rm S}$	$W_{\rm B}$	A	A_{accl}	$g_{\rm s}$	$R_{\rm d}$	$N_{ m L}$	$\operatorname{St}_{\operatorname{L}}$	Citation
Pinus echinata	None	*		*								Norby et al. (1987)
Pinus echinata	None	*	*	*	*							O'Neill et al. (1987)
Pinus eldarica	None		*									Garcia et al. (1994)
Pinus nigra	None					*	*	*			*	Kaushal et al. (1989)
Pinus ponderosa	Temp	*							*			Callaway et al. (1994)
Pinus ponderosa	None		*			*	*	*		*		Grulke et al. (1993)
Pinus ponderosa	Fert				*							Johnson et al. (1994)
Pinus ponderosa	None							*				Surano et al. (1986)
Pinus radiata	Fert							*				Conroy et al. (1988)
Pinus radiata	None	*				*	*	*				Hollinger (1987)
Pinus strobus	None									*	*	Roth and Lindroth (1994)
Pinus sylvestris	Temp					*	*		*			Wang et al. (1995)
Pinus taeda	None					*	*	*				Fetcher et al. (1988)
Pinus taeda	Fert									*		Lewis et al. (1994)
Pinus taeda	None					*	*	*				Liu and Teskey (1995)
Pinus taeda	None		*	*	*							Sullivan and Teramura
												(1994)
Pinus taeda	None					*						Teskey (1995)
Pinus taeda	Fert					*					*	Tissue et al. (1993)
Pinus taeda	H_2O		*	*	*							Tschaplinski et al. (1993)
Pinus taeda	None		*							*	*	Williams et al. (1994)
Pinus taeda	None					*	*					Ellsworth et al. (1997)
Piper auritum	None/comp	*				*		*				Reekie and Bazzaz (1989)
Populus euramericana	None					*		*				Gaudillere and Mousseau
<i>T</i>												(1989)
Populus euramericana	Fert	*	*	*	*					*		Pregitzer et al. (1995)
Populus grandidentata	None			*	*	*	*	*		*		Curtis and Teeri (1992)
Populus grandidentata	None					*	*	*				Curtis et al. (1994)
Populus interamericana	None					*						Lemeur et al. (1992)
Populus tremuloides	Fert									*		Brown (1991)
Populus tremuloides	None	*	*							*	*	Lindroth et al. (1993)
Populus tremuloides	None					*	*					Sharkey et al. (1991)
Populus euramericana	Fert	*				*	*		*	*	*	Curtis et al. (1995)
Pseudotsuga menziesii	None		*		*							Gorissen et al. (1995)
Pseudotsuga menziesii	None	*				*	*	*				Hollinger (1987)
Quercus alba	None					*		*				Gunderson et al. (1993)
Quercus alba	Fert		*	*	*	*						Norby and O'Neill (1989)
Quercus alba	None		*	*						*		Norby et al. (1986)
Quercus alba	None	*	*	*								O'Neill et al. (1987)
Quercus alba	None					*	*					Sharkey et al. (1991)
Quercus alba	None								*			Wullschleger and Norby
2												(1992)
Quercus alba	None					*		*	*		*	Wullschleger et al. (1992a)
Ouercus alba	None								*			Wullschleger et al. (1995)
Quercus prinus	None	*				*		*				Bunce (1992)
Quercus robur	None					*		*				Bunce (1992)
Ouercus rubra	Fert/light	*			*							Bazzaz and Miao (1993)
Quercus rubra	Fert/light	*										Bazzaz et al. (1993)
Quercus rubra	Light					*				*		Kubiske and Pregitzer
<u> </u>	<i>3</i>											(1996)
Ouercus rubra	None	*	*							*	*	Lindroth et al. (1993)
Senna multijuga	None/comp	*				*		*				Reekie and Bazzaz (1989)
Tabebuia rosea	None					*						Ziska et al. (1991)
Trichospermum	None/comp	*				*		*				Reekie and Bazzaz (1989)
mexicanum	· · · / - · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·											(-5-5)

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