

Growth, Radiation Use Efficiency, and Canopy Reflectance of Wheat and Corn Grown under Elevated Ozone and Carbon Dioxide Atmospheres

Bernardo F. T. Rudorff,* Charles L. Mulchi,† Craig S. T. Daughtry,‡ and Edward H. Lee§

 $oldsymbol{E}$ stimates of increases in future agricultural production in response to increases in carbon dioxide (CO2) concentrations in the atmosphere are often based on the beneficial physiological effect of CO2 enrichment on plant growth, especially in C3 plants. However, these estimates fail to consider the negative impact of ozone (O₃) air pollution on crop production. Increases in tropospheric concentrations of both gases, CO₂ and O₃, have been observed over the past century, and both are predicted to continue to increase at even higher rates in the near future to levels when they may have a significant impact on agricultural production. Field studies with wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) in 1991 and 1992, and corn (Zea mays L.) in 1991 were conducted using open-top chambers to mimic atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ (~500 μL^{-1} CO₂) and O₃ (~40 nL L⁻¹ O₃ above ambient air $[O_3]$ during 7 h day⁻¹, 5 days week⁻¹) that are predicted to occur at the Earth's surface during the first half of the 21st century. Wheat and corn (C3 vs. C4) produced clearly different responses to CO₂ enrichment, but similar responses to O₃ exposure. In wheat, O₃ exposure led to reduced grain yield, biomass, and radiation use efficiency (RUE, phytomass production per unit of energy received); in both years; but reduction in accumulated absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (AAPAR)

was observed only in 1991. Conversely, CO₂ enrichment produced greater grain yield, dry biomass, and RUE. With CO₂ enrichment, the O₃-induced stress to wheat plants was apparently ameliorated since responses were equivalent to the control group (low O₃ and ambient CO₂) for all variables. In contrast, corn demonstrated no benefit to CO2 enrichment for measured variables, and corn grain yield was the only parameter negatively influenced by O₃ exposure that is attributed to O₃-induced damage during the flowering process. Additionally, no treatment differences were observed for leaf area index (LAI) as determined nondestructively using the LICOR LAI-2000 Plant Canopy Analyzer. Also, treatment differences for normalized difference vegetation index (ND) were only observed for wheat plants from the high-O₃ and ambient-CO₂ treatment, at some growing stages. Otherwise, ND data were not helpful for identifying damage due to O₃ fumigation or benefits due to CO₂ enrichment. Significant interactive effects of CO2 vs. O3 were observed only for wheat grain yield in 1991 (p < 0.10), indicated that the detrimental effect of O₃ air pollution was more than overcome under the CO2-enriched environment.

INTRODUCTION

It is widely accepted that both CO₂ and O₃ have concurrently increased in concentration in the troposphere over the past century and are expected to continue to increase at even higher rates to levels where they may have a significant impact on crop production (Krupa and Kickert, 1989). Much attention has been given to separate effects of CO₂ and O₃ with respect to plant

^{*}National Institute for Space Research, Division of Remote Sensing, São José dos Campos, Brazil

[†]Department of Agronomy, University of Maryland, College Park †USDA/ARS, Remote Sensing Research Laboratory, Beltsville, Maryland

[§] USDA / ARS, Climate Stress Laboratory, Beltsville, Maryland

Address correspondence to Craig S. T. Daughtry, USDA/ARS Remote Sensing Research Lab., Bldg. 007 BARC-West, 10300, Baltimore Ave., Beltsville, MD 20705-2350.

Received 10 May 1995; revised 24 August 1995.

characteristics, as was recently reviewed by Rudorff (1993). However, insufficient attention has been given to the joint effects of these gases on vegetation (Krupa and Kickert, 1989; Ashmore and Bell, 1991; Allen, 1990; Kimball, 1986). Only a few studies available in the literature are concerned with the interactive effects of long-term exposure to CO₂ and O₃ on vegetation (Barnes and Pfirrmann, 1992; Polle et al., 1993; Noble et al., 1992), and even fewer address crop production (Mulchi et al., 1992). Mulchi et al. (1992) showed that the combined effects of enhanced CO₂ and O₃ on soybean grain yield were largely additive (i.e., independent), which means that the CO₂ enriched environment was able to counteract the negative impact of O₃ on growth and yields. Similar conclusions were also drawn by Barnes and Pfirrmann (1992) for the dry weight of radish plants. From these studies, it seems that CO2 has a protective role against O₃ damage while, conversely, O₃ reduces the beneficial effect of CO₂ enrichment on plant growth. The ability of CO₂ to counteract O₃-induced stress on plants will be determined not only by the CO₂ concentration and the plant response to CO2 enrichment but also by the magnitude of the O₃-induced stress (Cure and Acock, 1986; Heagle et al., 1988).

To better understand the impact of global change on agricultural production, it is important to concentrate research efforts in areas where uncertainties can be reduced (Schneider, 1989), and this will require close cooperation and communication among scientists from multiple disciplines (Krupa and Kickert, 1989). Projections of global impacts often account for the beneficial physiological effect of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on plant growth without considering the air quality factor (Mulchi et al., 1992; Barnes and Pfirrmann, 1992). These projections are also based on results from plants grown under experimental conditions. Refinement of crop growth models for predictive purposes cannot be made before interactive studies of elevated CO₂ and other important environmental factors such as water availability, temperature, and air quality are better understood (Allen, 1990; Barnes and Pfirrmann, 1992). Therefore, published projections of global climate change impact on agriculture (e.g., Adams et al., 1990; Stockle et al., 1992) may be overestimated.

Remote sensing techniques have potential value for estimating important crop parameters, over large areas, related to growth and yield that are manifested in the multispectral crop canopy reflectance (Bauer, 1985). Daughtry et al. (1992) demonstrated that the fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation ($f_{\rm A}$) can be estimated with canopy reflectance measurement. Unsworth et al. (1984) and Leadley et al. (1990) observed a significant decrease in the radiation use efficiency (RUE; phytomass production per unit of energy received) in soybean plants exposed to enhanced O_3 concentration (~ 100 nL L^{-1} O_3). Their studies were

based on measured fraction of intercepted radiation (f_i) ; however, fraction of absorbed solar radiation used in photosynthesis ("biologically effective" f_A) rather than intercepted energy by the crop canopy is likely to yield better results due to the nature of O3 exposure stress on vegetation (decreased chlorophyll content and visual leaf injury). In general, differences between the fraction of intercepted energy f_I and f_A for healthy crops are less than 4% when measured by traditional approaches (Daughtry et al., 1992). Multispectral vegetation indices respond to the photosynthetically active portion of the canopy; therefore, they offer a superior method for evaluating the biologically effective f_A (Daughtry et al., 1992; Pinter, 1993). Reduced chlorophyll content and early senescence caused by O₃ exposure are likely to reduce the seasonally accumulated absorbed PAR, which should be related to reduced biomass production. However, the efficiency with which the absorbed radiation is converted to dry matter production should be approached with caution (Demetriades-Shah et al., 1992). Light absorption is only one of many variables related to the production of biomass. For example, both O₃ and CO₂ have important roles in many physiological and biochemical processes not related to the light absorption process, which may impose limitations on the use of remote sensing techniques to detect effects of O₃ and CO₂ on crop growth and yield. Therefore, remote sensing data should be used in combination with weather and other ancillary data to increase the capability to identify specific types of stress and how they relate to biomass and yield production (Bauer, 1985).

The objectives of this study were to investigate the combined (i.e., interactive) effects of long-term exposure to O_3 air pollution and CO_2 enrichment on two distinctive crop species: winter wheat (C_3 crop) and corn (C_4 crop) grown in open-top field chambers. Information of interest include: leaf area index and canopy reflectance during the crop growing season; radiation use efficiency over the crop growing season; and above-ground dry biomass and grain yields at harvest.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental Site and Atmospheric Treatments

Experiments were carried out at the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA)/Beltsville Agriculture Research Center (BARC) at Beltsville, Maryland. Soft red winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and corn (*Zea mays* L.) were chosen as models for their major relevance to world agricultural production. Winter wheat was sown in October of 1990 (cv. Massey) and 1991 (cv. Saluda) in rows spaced 0.17 m apart with a seed rate of 3.3 g m⁻¹ of row. Wheat row direction was north–south in 1990/91 and east–west in 1991/92. A short-statue hybrid of field corn (cv. Pioneer 3714) was

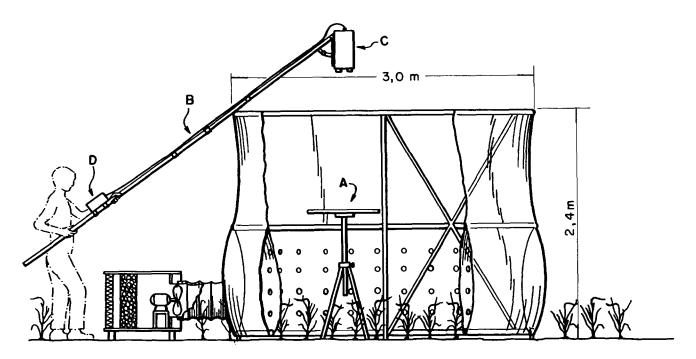


Figure 1. Arrangement for spectral measurements within open-top chambers: A) reference panel supported by a camera tripod; B) boom; C) spectroradiometer; D) data logger.

sown on 14 May 1991 in rows spaced 0.5 m apart. Plants within rows were 30 cm apart which resulted in a population of 60,000 plants ha⁻¹. Row direction for the corn study was north-south. Irrigation water was applied several times during the corn growing season to supplement seasonal rainfall.

Plants were grown in open-top chambers (OTCs; Fig. 1; Heagle et al., 1973) in the field under controlled atmospheric environments predicted to occur during the first half of the coming century in terms of O₃ (Hough and Derwent, 1990) and CO₂ (Schneider, 1989). Fumigation with gases was performed to simulate realistic environmental conditions (Rudorff, 1993). Two levels of O_3 and two levels of CO_2 were arranged in a 2×2 factorial randomized complete block design. Low levels of O₃ were achieved by filtering the air through charcoal filters. High levels of O3 were achieved by adding a mean concentration of ~ 40 nL L⁻¹ O₃ on the top of the existing ambient air O₃ concentrations during 7 h day⁻¹, 5 days week⁻¹, from early growth until physiological maturity. To mimic the natural O₃ concentration dynamic in the ambient air, O3 was dispersed to the OTCs from Monday through Friday during 7 H (09:00-16:00 h EST) according to the following protocol: 20 nL L⁻¹ O₃, 30 nL L⁻¹ O₃, 40 nL L⁻¹ O₃, 50 nL L⁻¹ O₃, and 60 nL L⁻¹ O₃ were added on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, respectively (Rudorff, 1993). Fumigation with O₃ was not performed on rainy days. Also, O3 fumigation was not allowed to exceed the National Ambient Air Quality Standard (120 nL L⁻¹ O₃). Charcoal filters were used in all OTCs

during the wheat and corn studies of 1991 while during the wheat study of 1992 the ambient air was filtered only for treatments with low-O₃ level. Therefore, wheat and corn plants from high-O3 treatments were exposed to charcoal filtered air (CF) during the weekends and whenever O₃ fumigation was not performed in 1991, while in the wheat study of 1992 plants were exposed to ambient air during the weekends and outside the time frame of O₃ fumigation (16:00-09:00 EST) when ambient O₃ concentrations are in general below the threshold for O₃ damage to wheat (30 nL L⁻¹ CO₃; Adams et al., 1988; Fig. 3). The CO2 levels consisted of ambient CO₂ (~350 µL L⁻¹ CO₂) and enriched CO₂ (~500 μL L⁻¹ CO₂). Carbon dioxide enrichment was performed during 12 h day⁻¹ (07:00-19:00 h EST). Treatments were as follows; 1) low-O₃ and ambient-CO₂ (i.e., control); 2) high-O₃ and ambient-CO₂; 3) low-O₃ and enriched-CO₂; 4) high-O₃ and enriched-CO₂. See Table 1 for actual 7-h mean (09:00-16:00 EST) and 1-h mean peak O₃ concentrations during the crop growing seasons. The winter wheat and corn studies had four and three block replicates, respectively. Wheat plants were enclosed in the chambers shortly after spring growth began and corn plants were enclosed in the chambers 3 weeks after emergence, when treatments were initiated. The fumigation treatments were terminated at physiological maturity of the wheat and corn plants.

Leaf Area Index

Nondestructive leaf area index (LAI) measurements were taken under overcast sky conditions with the Plant

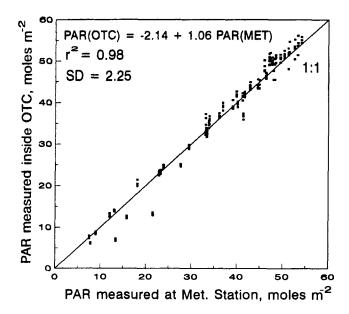


Figure 2. Relationship between incident PAR (I_0) measured inside four open top chambers (OTCs) and I_0 measured at a meteorological station close to the experimental site.

Canopy Analyzer¹ (Model LAI-2000, LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska). The instrument estimates LAI as a function of incoming diffuse solar radiation at the top and at the bottom of the canopy. Pinter (personal communication, 1995) observed that the LAI-2000 underestimated absolute wheat LAI by 25–30% but provided good comparative LAI data in their free air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiment. The instrument is sensitive to both green and brown elements in the canopy, and it is likely to provide a relative overestimate of green LAI for plants with leaf injury caused by high-O₃ exposure. Due to the small amount of plant material within each OTC, it was not possible to compare the LAI-2000 measurements with absolute LAI.

During the wheat studies the LAI-2000 measurements were performed on a weekly basis at fixed positions within the individual chambers (three samples per OTC) from early growth until maximum LAI was reached at the beginning of heading (stage 10.1). Leaf area index measurements for the corn experiment were also performed on a weekly basis from growth stage 1.5 (sixth leaf fully emerged) until shortly after maximum LAI was reached at growth stage 6.0 (12 days after silking). These weekly LAI data were linearly interpolated to estimate LAI on days coincident with spectral canopy reflectance measurements described below.

Canopy Reflectance

Spectral reflectance measurements of the canopy were made on 11 dates for wheat and nine dates for corn

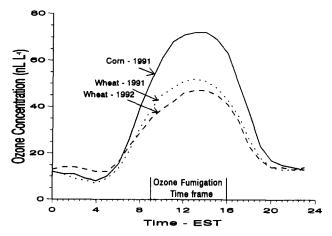


Figure 3. Diurnal pattern of the mean hourly ambient O_3 concentrations for wheat and corn studies. Values were averaged over the respective crop-year periods presented in Table 1.

at approximately weekly intervals, weather permitting, from early vegetative stages until maturation. An Exotech radiometer (Model 100 BX, Exotech Inc., Bethesda, Maryland) with a 15° field of view was used to obtain canopy reflected radiance values in four spectral bands similar to the Landsat TM bands (i.e., 450-520 nm, 520-600 nm, 630-690 nm, and 760-900 nm). The radiometer was mounted on the upper end of a hand-held boom, elevated approximately 3.0-3.6 m above the soil, and leveled for a nadir view as illustrated in Figure 1. The field of view was a circular area of about 0.7 m in diameter at the beginning of the growing season, but decreased as the plants grew. Four readings per OTC, around the center of the chamber, were acquired to minimize sampling errors due to the small field of view (Daughtry et al., 1982) and also to minimize specular reflection from the chamber plastic. Measurements were taken under clear skies (i.e., no clouds near solar disc) around solar noon to avoid shade projections from the chamber walls on the center part of the canopy. During the experiments of 1991 spectral reflectance measurements were also obtained in four wheat and three corn chambers without the bottom plastic walls of the OTCs (ambient-CO₂ and -O₃ concentrations) that could mostly influence the reflectance measurements due to specular reflectance of the inflated bottom chamber walls. These measurements were performed to estimate the influence of the specular reflection on the canopy reflectance measurements and to demonstrate the feasibility of using remote sensing techniques for plants grown in OTCs.

Canopy reflectance factor (RF) was calculated as the ratio of the reflected radiance from vegetation to that reflected from a reference panel. The reference panel was barium sulfate and maintained in a horizontal position above the canopy within one of the OTC (Fig. 1). Measurements over the reference panel were repeated at intervals of approximately 5–10 min. Reflec-

¹Company and trade names are given for the benefit of the reader and do not imply any endorsement of the product or the company.

Crop-Year			Air Quality						
	Period	Statistic ^a	Ambient		Low-O ₃		High-O ₃		$\Delta [O_3]$ High- O_3 –AA
			7-h Mean	1-h Peak	7-h Mean	1-h Peak	7-h Mean	1-h Peak	7-h Mean
Wheat-1991	l Apr-31 May	Mean	45.5	55.6	18.6	21.9	60.7	67.7	15.2
		SD	15.6	18.8	7.8	9.6	31.2	37.6	
Wheat-1992	14 Apr-23 Jun	Mean	40.7	51.0	20.2	24.1	64.8	77.1	24.1
		SD	15.2	19.7	7.4	9.7	29.0	33.1	
Corn-1991	14 Jun-15 Aug	Mean	60.8	80.6	19.8	22.8	70.2	81.5	9.4
		SD	22.6	28.6	10.4	8.4	38.5	44 7	

Table 1. 7-h Mean (9:00 to 16:00 EST) and 1-h Mean Peak O₃ Contentrations (nL L⁻¹) for Ambient Air (AA), Low O₃ (Charcoal-Filtered Air) and High-O₃ (AA + 40 nL L⁻¹ O₃ during 7 h day⁻¹, 5 days week⁻¹) for the Wheat and Corn Experiments

tance factor values acquired on 11 dates throughout the 1991 and 1992 growing season were converted to the normalized difference vegetation index (ND; Tucker, 1979).

Radiation Use Efficiency

Radiation use efficiency in this study was used to relate dry biomass production to energy received by the crop and has units g MJ⁻¹. To assess the accumulated absorbed PAR over the crop growing seasons, we first used the canopy reflectance data (transformed to ND) to estimate the fraction of absorbed PAR (f_A) based on a linear empirical relationship between ND and f_A) developed for corn and soybeans by Daughtry et al. (1992):

$$f_A = -0.205 + 1.254 \text{ ND}$$
. (1)

The authors suggested that the relationship could also be used to estimate f_A for other crops and that variances observed in the ralationship appears to originate in the ND of bare soil. Since the present study was performed on the same soil type as for one of the experiments carried out by Daughtry et al. (1992), we used the relationship shown in Eq (1) not only to estimate f_A for the corn experiment but also for the wheat experiments. Further, Eq. (1) is quite similar to the equation obtained by Asrar et al. (1984) for wheat $(f_A = -0.109 + 1.253 \text{ ND})$.

Incident PAR (I_0) measurements from a meteorological station close to the experimental site were related to I_0 measurements inside four OTCs during the wheat study of 1992 over a period of 47 days (day of year 128 to 176; Fig. 2). The close 1:1 relationship suggested that the I_0 measurements from the meteorological station were a good estimate of the I_0 inside the OTCs. Therefore, I_0 measurements from the meteorological station were used in both years (1991 and 1992) without performing any correction due to radiation attenuation by the plastic wall of the OTC.

Using f_A from Eq. (1) and the I_0 from the meteorological station, absorbed PAR (APAR) could then be estimated as

$$APAR = f_{\Lambda}I_0, \qquad (2)$$

according to the methods presented by Daughtry et al. (1992).

Daily APAR was obtained through linear interpolation since canopy reflectance readings were obtained only on a weekly basis. Also, bare soil reflectance data were included in the analysis to interpolate data between emergence and first canopy reflectance measurements. This allowed us to obtain APAR values from emergence to physiological maturity which were integrated to estimate the seasonal accumulated APAR. Finally, the RUE could be assessed:

$$RUE = \frac{above ground dry biomass}{accumulated APAR} \qquad (g MJ^{-1}). \quad (3)$$

Plant Characteristics and Statistical Procedure

Whole wheat and corn plants were harvested at maturity. Total above ground dry biomass and grain weight were measured. Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures appropriate for randomized complete block design with two factors. Mean differences among the four treatments were evaluated by the least significant difference (LSD) method. All statistical analysis were performed using the software developed by Statistical Analysis System (SAS; SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Air Quality and Environmental Conditions

The 7-h mean (09:00-16:00 EST) and the 1-h mean peak O₃ concentration for both ambient air (AA) and chamber air quality (low- and high-O₃ levels) for the wheat and corn studies are contained in Table 1. During the wheat growing seasons of 1991 and 1992 the 7-hour mean O₃ concentration for the high-O₃ level was 15.2 nL L⁻¹ O₃ (33%) and 24.1 nL L⁻¹ O₃ (59%) above ambient air (AA) O₃ concentration, respectively (Table 1). This remarkable difference between the two wheat growing seasons is mainly due to the use of charcoal

^a SD = standard deviation.

Table 2. Summary of Meteorolog Experimental Periods	gical Conditions for the	e Wheat and C	Corn
	Air Temperature (°C)	Radiation	Rainfall

		Radiation	Rainfall				
Crop-Year	Period	Min	Max	Mean	$(MJ m^{-2})$	(mm)	
Wheat-1991	1 Apr-31 May	11.0	22.8	17.1	18.5 day-1	46	
Wheat-1992	14 Apr-23 Jun	11.0	21.6	16.4	16.8 day-1	232	
Corn-1991	14 Jun-15 Aug	19.3	29.8	24.6	18.7 day-1	94	

filters (CF) in all OTCs in 1991 while in 1992 the incoming air was only filtered in OTCs subjected to low-O₃ treatments. Therefore, during the weekends, when O₃ fumigation was not performed, wheat plants from the high-O₃ treatments were exposed to CF air in 1991 and to AA in 1992. The influence of the use of charcoal filters on plants treated with high-O₃ air is expected to be minor since it affected only lower levels of O₃ (Rudorff, 1993). The 7-h mean O₃ concentration for the high-O₃ level during the corn study was only 9.4 nL L^{-1} O₃ (15%) above AA (Table 1), which is the result of frequent halted O₃ fumigation in order to stay within the limits of the air quality standard (120 nL L⁻¹ O₃). The charcoal filters effectively reduced the seasonal 7-h mean ambient O₃ concentrations in all seasons (Table 1) to levels below the threshold for O₃ damage to wheat and corn (Adams et al., 1988).

The diurnal pattern of the mean hourly ambient O₃ concentration for the wheat and corn studies are illustrated in Figure 3. Hourly O₃ concentrations for ambient air, over the time frame from 9:00 to 16:00 EST, during the corn season were considerably higher than levels recorded during the spring (Fig. 3). due to the higher solar radiation levels during the summer months (Table 2). The two wheat growing seasons had substantial weather differences with 1991 being characterized by warm and sunny weather while 1992 was unseasonably cool with lower solar radiation (Table 2). The wheat crop appeared to develop approximate 2-3 weeks faster in 1991 than in 1992 (Table 3).

Winter Wheat

No treatment effect was observed for LAI during any measurement date in either 1991 or 1992, where mean maximum LAI were 5.6 and 4.6, respectively (Fig. 4). The difference in LAI between years is likely due to the combined effects of intervear weather differences and/or the use of different cultivars in each study. Reduction in green leaf area in response to visually noticeable O₃ symptoms in the high-O₃ treatments was not detected with the LI-2000 canopy analyzer, since no distinction between green and senesced leaf material is possible with this instrument.

Canopy reflectance data transformed to the normalized difference vegetation index (ND) showed signifi-

cantly lower values for plants grown under the high-O₃ level. Reduced ND values were coincident with the appearance of visual O₃ symptoms on wheat leaves in both years; however, plants were more sensitive to O₃ fumigation in 1991 than in 1992, where first O₃ symptoms appeared 30 days later than in the previous year (Fig. 5). This might be attributed to differences in cultivar sensitivity to O_3 exposure. Late in the season, after physiologic maturity, ND values were not influenced by O₃ exposure. The canopy spectral ratio was not sensitive enough to detect the increased biomass observed in plants from the CO₂-enriched treatments, possibly because ND values tended to reach their maximum values at LAI around 3.5, which was considerably below the maximum LAI for wheat. Figure 5a (wheat 1991) also presents mean ND values for the chambers without the bottom inflated plastic wall (ambient-CO2 and -O3), and results indicate that ND values were not significantly influenced by the OTCs system and that the use of remote sensing techniques for crops growing within OTCs are feasible.

Table 4 presents the ANOVA results in two years (1991 and 1992) for the main and simple effects of CO₂ and O₃ on four variables: grain yield, above ground dry biomass, accumulated APAR (AAPAR), and radiation use efficiency (RUE). The O₃ factor reduced grain yield by 15.1% in 1991 (p < 0.01) and 10.7% in 1992 (p < 0.05). Dry biomass production was reduced by 10.5% in 1991 (p < 0.01) and 9.2 in 1992 (p < 0.10). Accumulated AAPAR was reduced by 2.5% only in 1991 (p < 0.05) in response to O_3 exposure. Reduced RUE values in response to O_3 exposure in 1991 (8.4%; p < 0.01) and in 1992 (8.5%; p < 0.05) indicate that wheat growth was essentially limited by factors other than the amount of AAPAR. The overall negative impacts of O₃ exposure were largely associated with high-O₃ level at ambient-CO₂ concentration. Ozone acted to reduce the amount of photosynthesizing tissue (i.e., senesced leaf spots) and also reduced the capacity of plants to convert absorbed PAR into carbohydrates by reducing the rate of photosynthesis (Rudorff, 1993).

Conversely, the CO₂ factor increased grain yield by 26.0% in 1991 (p < 0.01) and 14.7% in 1992 (p < 0.05). Dry biomass was increased by 15.4 in 1991 (p < 0.01) and 9.0% in 1992 (p < 0.10). Carbon dioxide had no

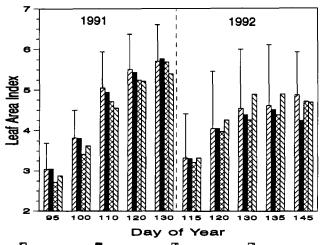
	5 Leaf Erected	6 First Node Visible	7 Second Node Visible	8 Last Leaf Visible	9 Ligule Visible	10 In "Boot"	10.1 First Ears Visible	10.5 Ears out of Sheath	11 Milky- Ripe	11.2 Mealy- Ripe
DOY 1991	83	90	94	102	110	118	120	125	135	150
DOY 1992	105	110	114	120	126	132	135	140	135	175

Table 3. Day of Year (DOY) and Key Growth Stages (Feekes-Large Scale) in Wheat Studies of 1991 and 1992

effect on AAPAR in either year. It is likely that the CO₂ effect on AAPAR was missed in the present study because measurements did not start until the canopies were substantially developed. Pinter et al. (1994) observed that CO₂ enrichment stimulates early season development of f_A and that by mid- to late season the f_{A} advantage disappears. The increases observed in RUE ($\sim 15\%$ in 1991 and $\sim 8\%$ in 1992) in response to CO_2 enrichment is likely to be the combined result of both overall increased photosynthetic rates and increase in productive tillers determined early in the spring growth (Rudorff, 1993). The greater impact of CO₂ enrichment in 1991 compared with 1992 may be attributed to higher temperatures observed in 1991 (Table 2). Significant interactive effects of CO2 vs. O3 were observed only for grain yield in 1991 (p < 0.10), indicating that the detrimental effect of O₃ air pollution was more than overcome under the CO₂ enriched environment.

The simple effect analysis is also illustrated in Table 4. Interesting to note is that the differences between the control (low-O₃/ambient-CO₂) and the high-O₃/ enriched-CO₂ treatments are not significant (p < 0.05)for any of the variables presented in Table 4. Again, this indicates that the CO₂-enriched environment had

Figure 4. Mean leaf area index (LAI) from early growth (growth stage 7) until maximum LAI (growth stage 10.5.2) in response to O₃ and CO₂ treatments for wheat in 1991 and 1992. Bars indicate LSD values with p < 0.05.



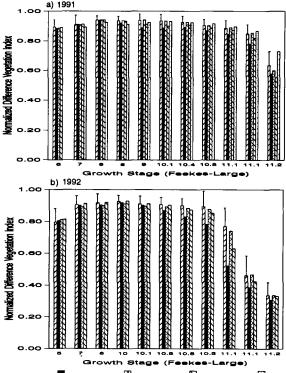
□ Low-03/Ambient-CO2 ■ High-03/Ambient-CO2 □ Low-03/Enriched-CO2 □ High-03/Enriched-CO2

a counteractive effect against O₃-induced stress. The visual O₃ symptoms were considerably less for plants grown under enriched-CO2 than for those grown under ambient-CO₂. Mean RUE in response to O₃ and CO₂ treatments are also presented in Figure 6. RUE values are likely overestimated since the control treatment (low-O₃ / ambient-CO₂) had considerably higher RUE values than those reported by Kiniry et al. (1989) for wheat prior to grain filling (2.8 g MJ⁻¹). However, the time frame over which the radiation data are integrated is crucial in determining RUE, and it is difficult to compare results from different studies.

Corn

Plants grown under enriched CO₂ environment had trends for higher LAI values (not significant) at growth

Figure 5. Mean normalized difference vegetation index (ND) from early growth (growth stage 6 in 1991 and growth stage 7 in 1992) until maturity (growth stage 11.2) in response to O₃ and CO₂ treatments for wheat in 1991 and 1992. Bars indicate LSD values with p < 0.05.



Low-03/Ambient-C02 High-03/Ambient-C02 Low-03/Enriched-C02 High-03/Enriched-C02 Ambient 03&C02

Table 4. Main and Simple Effects of CO ₂ and O ₃ on Grain Yield (g m ⁻²), Dry Biomass (g m ⁻²), Accumulated Absorbe
PAR (AAPAR; MJ m ⁻²), and Radiation Use Efficiency (RUE; g MJ ⁻¹) in Wheat in 1991 and 1992 ^a

Chamber Treatments		Grain Yield	Dry Biomass	AAPAR	RUE	Grain Yield	Dry Biomass	AAPAR	RUE
O_3	CO_2 $(g m^{-2})$	$(g m^{-2})$	$(g m^{-2})$	$(MJ m^{-2})$	$(g MJ^{-1})$	$(g m^{-2})$	$(g m^{-2})$	$(MJ m^{-2})$	$(g MJ^{-1})$
			19	91			19	992	
CO ₂ treatment means									
Ambi-	$ent-CO_2$	476	1392	353	3.94	477	1406	392	3.58
Enrich	$_{ m red\text{-}CO_2}$	600	1606	356	4.52	547	1533	396	3.87
Percent change		+ 26.0	+ 15.4	+0.8	+14.7	+14.7	+ 9.0	+ 1.0	+8.1
Statistical signification	ance	**	**	NS	**	*	†	NS	†
O ₃ treatment means									
L_{ow-O_3}		582	1583	359	4.41	541	1541	396	3.89
$\mathbf{High}\text{-}\mathbf{O}_3$		<mark>494</mark>	1416	<mark>350</mark>	4.04	<mark>483</mark>	1399	<mark>392</mark>	3.56
Percent change		-15.1	-10.5	-2.5	-8.4	-10.7	- 9.2	-1.0	-8.5
Statistical signification	ance	**	**	*	**	*	†	NS	*
O ₃ and CO ₂ treatments	s								
Low-O ₃ and ambien	ıt-CO2	538b	1513b	359b	4.22b	$520\mathrm{b}$	1506ab	397	3.78ab
High-O ₃ and ambier	nt-CO ₂	414a	1272a	347a	3.66a	434a	1307a	387	3.38a
Low-O ₃ and enriche	ed-CO₂	627e	1653b	359b	4.61c	561b	1577b	<mark>394</mark>	4.00b
High-O ₃ and enrich	$\overline{\mathrm{ed}\text{-}\mathrm{CO_2}}$	574bc	1559b	352ab	4.42bc	532b	1490ab	398	3.75ab
LSD $(p < 0.05)$		<mark>58</mark>	156	11	0.36	71	206	32	0.43

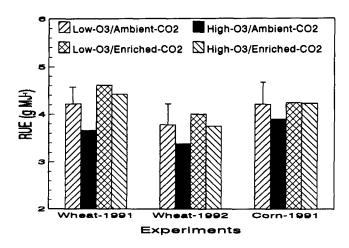
^a Significance of main effects: ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05; † p < 0.10; NS, not significant. Means followed by the same letters are NS different at 5% by LSD.

stages 2.0 and 2.5. As the season progressed, plants from all treatments had similar LAI (Fig. 7).

Normalized difference vegetation index values were not sensitive to any effect caused by either CO_2 or O_3 enhancement. The lack of visual leaf O_3 symptoms and the minor impact of CO_2 enrichment on corn were likely the major reasons for the general absence of treatment effects on ND values (Fig. 8). The OTC also had no significant impact on corn ND values (Fig. 8: ambient- O_3 and $-CO_2$) as was also demonstrated in the previous section for the wheat study.

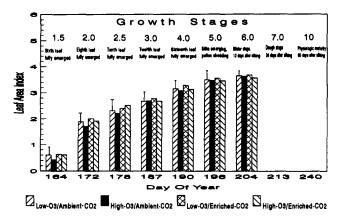
Table 5 illustrates the ANOVA for the main and simple effects of CO₂ and O₃ treatments on grain yield,

Figure 6. Mean radiation use efficiency in response to O_3 and CO_2 treatments for wheat in 1991 and 1992 and corn in 1991.



above-ground dry biomass, accumulated APAR (AAPAR), and radiation use efficiency (RUE) for corn. Decreases in grain yield (9%; p < 0.10) and dry biomass (5.8%; p = 0.11) resulting from O₃ exposure were marginally significant. It is likely that reduced grain production in the enhanced O₃ environment was caused by O₃ damage during the flowering process. Increased grain yield and dry biomass (~4%) resulting from CO₂ enrichment were not statistically significant. Apparently, AAPAR (Table 5) and RUE (Table 5 and Fig. 6) were not influenced by either CO₂ or O₃ in corn. Seasonal RUE value for the control treatment (4.21 g MJ⁻¹ for 6 plants m⁻²; low-O₃ / ambient-CO₂) was similar to that reported by Gallo et al. (1993) for corn (3.71 g MJ⁻¹ and 4.38 g

Figure 7. Mean leaf area index (LAI) in response to O_3 and CO_2 treatments for corn in 1991. Bars indicate LSD values with p < 0.05.



Chamber Treatments		Grain _ Yield	Dry Biomass	AAPAR	RUE	
O_3	CO_2	$(g m^{-2})$ $(g m^{-2})$		$(MJ m^{-2})$	(gMJ^{-1})	
CO ₂ treatment means						
Ambien	t-CO ₂	1167	2005	494	4.05	
Enriched	l - CO_2	1210	2079	491	4.23	
Percent change		+ 3.7	+ 3.7	-0.6	- 4.4	
Statistical significan	ce	NS	NS	NS	NS	
O ₃ treatment means						
Low-O ₃		1244	2103	498	4.23	
High-O ₃		1133	1981	489	4.06	
Percent change		-8.9	- 5.8	-1.8	-4.0	
Statistical significan	ce	†	p = 0.11	NS	NS	
O ₃ and CO ₂ treatments						
Low-O ₃ and ambient-CO ₂		1236	2100	499	4.21	
High-O ₃ and ambient	$-CO_2$	1097	1910	490	3.90	
Low-O ₃ and enriched	-CO ₂	1251	2106	496	4.24	
High-O ₃ and enriched-CO ₂		1168	2052	486	4.23	
$LSD \ (p < 0.05)$	172	223	26	0.45		

Table 5. Main and Simple Effects of CO₂ and O₃ on Grain Yield (g m⁻²), Dry Biomass (g m⁻²), Accumulated Absorbed PAR (AAPAR; MJ m⁻²), and Radiation Use Efficiency (RUE; g MJ⁻¹) in Corn in 1991a

MJ⁻¹ for 5 plants m⁻² and 10 plants m⁻², respectively) using APAR data estimated from ND values.

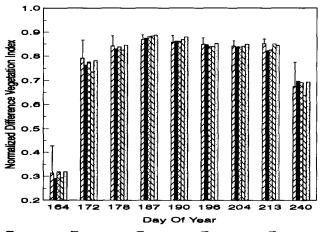
Reductions in both grain yield and dry biomass in response to O₃ exposure were much smaller when plants were grown under enriched-CO2 environment, indicating that CO₂ enrichment partially counteracted the damaging effect of O₃ exposure (Table 5). The counteracting effect of CO₂ enrichment against O₃-induced stress was also observed in wheat (see previous section), soybeans (Mulchi et al., 1992) and radish (Barnes and Pfirrmann, 1992). The CO₂ vs. O₃ interaction was not significant for any plant characteristic in corn.

Carbon dioxide enrichment under low-O₃ level typically caused no impact on plant characteristics (Table 5). This agrees with a recent study from Hocking and Meyer (1991) reporting that corn was not sensitive to CO₂ enrichment. Similar results were also noted by Surano and Shinn (1984) for corn grown in OTCs under enriched CO₂ environment. However, large discrepancies were observed by Rogers et al. (1983), who reported an increase in dry biomass of almost 50% under a CO₂-doubling atmosphere. Based on several studies on CO₂ enrichment in corn, Cure and Acock (1986) reported grain yield and dry biomass increases of 29% and 9%, under a doubling of current ambient CO2 concentration, respectively. Due to such inconsistent results for CO2 enrichment studies in corn, future research should be more tightly controlled.

SUMMARY

Concentrations of both carbon dioxide (CO₂) and ozone (O₃) in the troposphere are expected to increase to levels where they may have a significant impact on crop production. We conducted field studies with wheat and corn using open-top chambers to mimic atmospheric concentrations expected during the first half of the 21st century. Wheat and corn plant characteristics produced clearly different responses to CO₂ enrichment, but similar responses to O₃ exposure. In both crops, O₃ exposure reduced grain yields. In wheat, CO₂ enrichment produced greater grain yield, dry biomass, and radiation use efficiency and apparently ameliorated the O₃ damage. In contrast, corn demonstrated no benefit to CO2 enrich-

Figure 8. Mean normalized difference vegetation index (ND) from early growth (growth stage 1.5) until physiologic maturity (growth stage 10) in response to O3 and CO2 treatments for corn in 1991. Bars indicate LSD values with p < 0.05. See Figure 7 to reference for growth stages.



Low-03/Amblent-C02 High-03/Amblent-C02 Low-03/Enriched-C02 High-03/Enriched-C02

^a Significance of main effects: $\dagger p < 0.10$; NS, not significant.

ment. Ozone exposure reduced corn grain vield in response to O₃ damage during the flowering process. Visible and near-infrared reflectance data were not helpful for identifying damage due to O3 fumigation in combination with CO2 enrichment. Thus remotely sensed data may have limited value in monitoring subtle changes in reflectance percentage due to chronic exposure to elevated levels of O₃ under CO₂-enriched environment. Also, these gases had a major impact on physiological processes that are independent on PAR absorption. Therefore, radiation use efficiency (RUE) in response to gases treatments, in wheat, was significantly increased in response to CO2 enrichment and significantly reduced in response to O3-induced stress. Similar results were observed for the control treatment and the high-O₃ / enriched-CO₂ treatment, indicating that the damaging effect of O₃ air pollution was counteracted by the beneficial effect of CO2 enrichment without any interactive effects between the two gases for the measured variables except for grain yield, during the first wheat experiment, where the CO2-enriched environment more than overcame the O₃-induced stress.

REFERENCES

- Adams, R. M., Glyer, J. D., and McCarl, B. A. (1988), The NCLAN economic assessment: approach, findings and implications, in Assessment of Crop Loss from Air Pollutants, Proceedings of the International Conference, Raleigh, NC (W. W. Heck, O. C. Taylor, and D. T. Tingey, Eds.), Elsevier, London, pp. 473–504.
- Adams, R. M., Rosenzweig, C., Peart, R. M. et al. (1990), Global climate change and US agriculture, *Nature* 345: 219–224.
- Allen, L. H., Jr. (1990), Plant responses to rising carbon dioxide and potential interactions with air pollutants, J. Environ. Qual. 19:15-34.
- Ashmore, M. R., and Bell, J. N. (1991), The role of ozone in global change, Ann. Bot. 67(S1):39-48.
- Asrar, G., Fuchs, M., Kanemasu, E. T., and Hatfield, J. L. (1984), Estimating absorbed photosynthetical radiation and leaf area index from spectral reflectance in wheat, Agron. J. 76(2):300-306.
- Barnes, J. D., and Pfirrmann, T. (1992), The influence of CO₂ and O₃, singly and in combination, on gas exchange, growth and nutrient status of radish (*Raphanus sativus L.*), *New Phytol.* 121(3):403–412.
- Bauer, M. E. (1985), Spectral inputs to crop identification and condition assessment, in *Proc. IEEE* 73(6):1071–1085.
- Cure, J. D., and Acock, B. (1986), Crop responses to carbon dioxide doubling: a literature survey, Agric. For. Meteorol. 38:127–145.
- Daughtry, C. S. T., Vanderbilt, V. C., and Pollara, Y. J. (1982), Variability of reflectance measurements with sensor altitude and canopy type, *Agron. J.* 74:744-751.
- Daughtry, C. S. T., Gallo, K. P., Goward, S. N., Price, S. D.,

- and Kustas, W. P. (1992), Spectral estimates of absorbed radiation and phytomass production in corn and soybean canopies, *Remote Sens. Environ.* 39:141–152.
- Demetriades-Shah, T. D., Fuchs, M., Kanemasu, E. T., and Flitcroft, I. (1992), A note of caution concerning the relationship between cumulated intercepted solar radiation and crop growth, *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 58:193-207.
- Gallo, K. P., and Daughtry, C. S. T. (1985), Spectral estimates of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation in corn canopies. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 17:221–232.
- Gallo, K. P., and Daughtry, C. S. T., and Wiegand, C. L. (1993), Errors in measuring absorbed radiation and computing crop radiation use efficiency, Agron. J. 85:1222– 1228.
- Heagle, A. S., Body, D. E., and Heck, W. W. (1973), An open-top field chamber to assess the impact of air pollution on plants, J. Environ. Qual. 2(3):365-368.
- Heagle, A. S., Kress, L. W., Temple, P. J., Kohut, R. J., Miller,
 J. E., and Heggestad, H. E. (1988), Factors influencing
 ozone dose-yield response relationships in open-top field
 chambers studies, in Assessment of Crop Loss from Air
 Pollutants, Proceedings of the International Conference,
 Raleigh, NC (W. W. Heck, O. C. Taylor, D. H. Tingey,
 Eds.), London, Elsevier, pp. 141-180.
- Hocking, P. J., and Meyer, C. P. (1991), Effects of CO₂ enrichment and nitrogen stress on growth, and partitioning of dry matter and nitrogen in wheat and maize, *Austr. J. Plant Physiol.* 18:339–356.
- Hough, A. M., and Derwent, R. G. (1990), Changes in the concentration of tropospheric ozone due to human activities, *Nature* 344:645–648.
- Kimball, B. A. (1986), CO₂ stimulation of growth and yield under environmental restraints, 67. in *Carbon Dioxide Enrichment of Greenhouse Crops*, Vol. II. Physiology, Yield, and Economics. (H. Z. Enoch and B. A. Kimball, Eds.), CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, pp. 53-67.
- Kiniry, J. R., Jones, C. A., O'Toole, J. C., Blanchet, R., Cabelguenne, M., and Spanel, D. A. (1989), Radiation-use efficiency in biomass accumulation prior to grain-filling for five grain-crop species, *Field Crops Res.* 20:51–64.
- Krupa, S. V., and Kickert, R. N. (1989), The greenhouse effect: impacts of ultraviolet-B (UV-B) radiation, carbon dioxide (CO₂), and ozone (O₃) on vegetation, *Environ. Pollut.* 61: 263–396.
- Leadley, P. W., Reynolds, J. E., Flagler, R., and Heagle, A. S. (1990), Radiation utilization efficiency and the growth of soybeans exposed to ozone: a comparative analysis, *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 51:293–308.
- Mulchi, C. L., Slaughter, L., Saleem, M., Lee, H. E., Pausch, R., and Rowland, R. (1992), Growth and physiological characteristics of soybean in open-top chambers in response to ozone and increased atmospheric CO₂, Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 38:107-118.
- Noble, R., Jensen, K. F., Ruff, B. S., and Loats, K. (1992), Responses of *Acer saccharum* seedlings to elevated carbon dioxide and ozone, *Ohio J. Sci.* 92(3): 60–62.
- Pinter, P. J., Jr. (1993), Solar angle independence in the relationship between absorbed PAR and remotely sensed data for alfalfa, Remote Sens. Environ. 46:19–25.
- Pinter, P. J., Jr., Kimball, B. A. Mauney, J. R., Hendrey, G.

- R., Lewin, K. F., and Nagy, J. (1994), Effects of free-air carbon dioxide enrichment on PAR absorption and conversion efficiency by cotton, Agric. For. Meteorol. 70:209-230.
- Polle, A., Pfirrmann, T., Chakrabarti, S., and Rennenberg, H. (1993), The effects of enhanced ozone and enhanced carbon dioxide concentrations on biomass, pigments and antioxidative enzymes in spruce needles (Picea abies L.), Plant Cell Environ. 16:311-316.
- Rogers, H. H., Bingham, G. E., Cure, J. D., Smith, J. M., and Surano, K. A. (1983), Responses of selected plant species to elevated carbon dioxide in the field, J. Environ. Qual. 12(4):569-574.
- Rudorff, B. F. T. (1993), Interactive effects of enhanced tropospheric ozone and carbon dioxide on wheat and corn, Ph.D. thesis, University of Maryland, College Park, 192 pp.
- Schneider, S. H. (1989), The greenhouse effect: science and policy, Science 243:771-781.

- Stockle, C. O., Dyke, P. T., Williams, J. R., Jones, C. A., and Rosenberg, N. J. (1992), A method for estimating the direct and climate effects of rising atmospheric carbon dioxide on growth and yield of crops. II. Sensitivity analysis at three sites in the midwestern USA, Agric. Syst. 38:239-256.
- Surano, K. A., and Shinn, J. A. (1984), CO2 and water stress effects on yield, water-use efficiency, and photosynthate partitioning in field grown corn, UCRL-90771, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, CA.
- Tucker, C. J. (1979), Red and photographic infrared linear combination for monitoring vegetation, Remote Sens. Environ. 8(2):127-150.
- Unsworth, M. H., Lesser, V. M., and Heagle, A. S. (1984), Radiation interception and the growth of soybeans exposed to ozone in open-top field chambers. J. Appl. Ecol. 21: 1059-1079.