Seventeen years of carbon dioxide enrichment of sour orange trees: final results

BRUCE A. KIMBALL*, SHERWOOD B. IDSO†, STEPHANIE JOHNSON* and MATTHIAS C. RILLIG‡§

*US Arid Land Agricultural Research Center, USDA, Agricultural Research Service, 21881 North Cardon Lane, Maricopa, AZ 85239, USA, †Center for the study of Carbon Dioxide and Global Change, Tempe, AZ 85285, USA, ‡Division of Biological Sciences, University of Montana, Missoula, MT 59812, USA, §Institut für Biologie, Freie Universität Berlin, Altensteinstr. 6, D-14195 Berlin, Germany

Abstract

The long-term responses of trees to elevated CO_2 are especially crucial (1) to mitigating the rate of atmospheric CO_2 increase, (2) to determining the character of future forested natural ecosystems and their spread across the landscape, and (3) to determining the productivity of future agricultural tree crops. Therefore, a long-term CO₂-enrichment experiment on sour orange trees was started in 1987, and the final results after 17 years are reported herein. Four sour orange trees (Citrus aurantium L.) were grown from seedling stage at 300 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ above ambient in open-top, clear-plastic-wall chambers at Phoenix, AZ. Four control trees were similarly grown at ambient CO₂. All trees were supplied ample water and nutrients comparable with a commercial orchard. After a peak 2-4 years into the experiment, there was a productivity plateau at about a 70% enhancement of annual fruit and incremental wood production over the last several years of the experiment. When summed over the duration of the experiment, there was an overall enhancement of 70% of total biomass production. Much of the enhancement came from greater numbers of fruits produced, with no change in fruit size. Thicker trunks and branches and more branches and roots were produced, but the root/shoot ratio was unaffected. Also, there was almost no change in the elemental composition of the biomass produced, perhaps in part due to the minimal responsiveness of root-symbiotic arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi to the treatment.

Keywords: carbon dioxide, citrus, climate change, CO₂, density, global change, growth, orange, tree, yield

Received 30 November 2006; revised version received 29 May 2007 and accepted 31 May 2007

Introduction

The CO_2 concentration of earth's atmosphere continues to rise, and general circulation models predict a consequent global warming and changes in precipitation patterns (IPCC, 2001). Plants in general are responsive to changing CO_2 concentrations, which portends changes in agricultural productivity around the world. At the same time, the ability of plants to absorb CO_2 during photosynthesis and then store the carbon in their tissues and/or sequester it in the soil has potential for slowing the rise of the atmospheric CO_2 concentration. The long-term responses of trees to elevated CO_2

© 2007 The Authors Journal compilation © 2007 Blackwell Publishing Ltd are especially crucial (1) to mitigating the rate of atmospheric CO_2 increase, (2) to determining the character of future forested natural ecosystems and their spread across the landscape, and (3) to determining the productivity of future agricultural tree crops. This important nexus between trees and climate and future natural ecosystems and tree crop productivity led us to initiate a long-term CO₂-enrichment experiment on sour orange trees in 1987 using the open-top-chamber approach (e.g. Idso et al., 1991). Since then, several free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiments have also been initiated in open-field plots of tree species (e.g. Nowak et al., 2004; Delucia et al., 2005; Körner et al., 2005; Norby et al., 2005; Asshoff et al., 2006; Kubiske et al., 2006; Liberloo et al., 2006), as well as in sunlit controlled-temperature-and-CO₂ chambers (Medhurst *et al.*, 2006), and these studies

Correspondence: Dr Bruce A. Kimball, tel. +520 316 6369, fax +520 316 6330, e-mail: bkimball@uswcl.ars.ag.gov

are yielding important information about the likely responses of forests to future elevated levels of CO₂.

However, our study was the longest such continuousrunning CO_2 -enrichment experiment ever conducted to this point in time, revealing significant interannual changes in response to elevated CO_2 as the trees grew from saplings and well into middle-age reproductive maturity. Unfortunately, the closure of our USDA-ARS laboratories in Phoenix, AZ, necessitated the termination of the experiment in January 2005. Herein, we report the final biomass and several other results from this long-term CO_2 -enrichment experiment on sour orange trees.

Materials and methods

Eight sour orange trees (Citrus aurantium L.) were grown from seedling stage in four identically vented, open-top, clear-plastic-wall chambers at Phoenix, AZ (Idso et al., 1991). Sour orange is an ornamental tree often used for root stocks in commercial citrus orchards because of its disease and frost resistance. The trees were planted directly into the ground (Avondale loam; Kimball et al., 1992) in July 1987. The four chambers were constructed around pairs of trees. Initially, the chambers were $5.3 \text{ m} \log \times 2.6 \text{ m} \text{ wide} \times 2.0 \text{ m}$ high. As the plants grew, the chambers were periodically enlarged until they reached 6.3 m long \times 5.1 m wide \times 9.0 m high. The target CO2 concentration of the enriched chambers was $300\,\mu mol\,mol^{-1}$ above that of the ambient chambers, and the sampling manifold was placed at about 3/4 the height of the trees. The automatic sampling/control system was described by Kimball et al. (1992). Except for short periods of chamber enlarging and very infrequent mechanical problems, enrichment was continuous 24 h day⁻¹ every day since November 1987. The trees were fertilized and flood irrigated similar to practice in commercial orchards so as to maintain ample nutrients and soil moisture.

Every month during the course of the experiment, measurements were taken of the trunk circumferences, and these were converted to biovolumes using an allometric relationship established during years 2 and 3 of the experiment (Idso & Kimball, 1992a). Biomass was computed from the biovolumes using wood densities determined from pruned branches. From time to time over the years, we reported the progress of the experiment using such data (Idso & Kimball, 1997, 2001; Kimball & Idso, 2005), but herein the entirety of these data is presented.

In late winter or early spring each year, the fruit were harvested, counted, weighed, and in some years, subsamples were taken for determination of water content. After the trees became so large that branches were rubbing against and poking holes in the walls of the chambers, some pruning was done, generally just after the fruit harvests were completed for the particular year. The prunings were weighed and subsamples dried for biomass determinations. Except for a study during the 13th year of the experiment when fallen leaves and aborted fruits were collected and weighed (Idso *et al.*, 2001), the fallen leaves and aborted fruits were allowed to remain on the soil surface and decompose. Therefore, the amounts of biomass from these sources are not included in the results reported herein, nor are fine roots or root exudates.

On January 27, 2005, CO₂ enrichment ceased, and the final biomass harvest commenced. First, to facilitate access, the plastic walls were removed. Then starting with the trunks, all the major branches were mapped and coded. Then, one by one using a reciprocating saw, the major branches were cut off at the trunk. Fruit was picked, weighed, counted, and a subsample taken for moisture content. Each whole branch was weighed on a hanging scale and its maximum length measured. Using lopping shears, all twigs with leaves (only a few had none) were cut off, placed in a basket, and weighed. Then based on stem diameter, the median 20% of the twigs were selected out, and their leaves were stripped off. The separate twigs and leaves were weighed, and leaves were counted and passed through a leaf area meter (Model LI-3100, LiCor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). These subsamples of leaves and twigs were oven dried (70 °C) and reweighed to determine water content, which was used to compute biomass of the whole twig and leaf samples. Subsamples were also taken for elemental, biochemical, and other analyses. Two 10-cm sections were cut from the basal and tip ends of each major branch, and their diameter measured. After oven drying and weighing, densities were computed assuming the samples were cylinders.

After all the major branches were removed, the trunks were marked where several cuts were to be made with a chain saw to obtain disk-shaped samples to send to various laboratories for further analyses, including a 10 cm thick one from about the 35 cm height, whose volume was later precisely determined by immersion in water. The lowest cut at about a 2-cm height was as low as possible with the chain saw. Fresh weights were measured on all the trunk sections and summed. After the volume measurements, those sections were split into many splinters to hasten drying, and then they were oven-dried at 70 °C. They required about 6 months before loss of weight ceased, after which the initial water contents were calculated and applied to the whole trunks.

Following the harvest of the trunks, about 15 cm of soil was hand shoveled out of the chambers down to

where we encountered the tops of major roots. Next, using a back-hoe, a trench was dug along the south sides of the chambers. The trench was about 2.5 m deep, 0.5 m wide, and about 1.5 m outside the chambers. Then, using high-pressure sprayers, soil was washed off the roots and down into the trench. A pump with a long hose removed excess water from the trench. We washed down to roughly 1.0 m below the original soil surface and exposed almost all the roots. A few, perhaps 5%, were deeper or outside the washed area. Similar to the branches, the major roots were cut off from the stump areas, and their azimuth angles noted. Any remaining soil was removed by washing in a tank. Fresh weights and lengths were measured. Like the branches, 10-cm lengths were cut from the basal and tip ends. Their diameters were measured, they were weighed, dried, and reweighed; and water contents and densities were calculated, again assuming cylinders. Finally, the stumps themselves were freed, remaining soil was washed off, and they were weighed. Their dry biomass was calculated assuming their water content was the same as that of the trunks.

Dried samples of leaves, twigs, the trunk, and roots were sent to a commercial laboratory (IAS Laboratories, Phoenix, AZ) for analyses of C, N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S, Na, Fe, Zn, Mg, Cu, and B. There were six leaf samples per tree taken from south and north sides at lower, middle, and top portions of the tree canopies. Three twig samples per tree were taken from lower, middle, and top portions of the canopy. Two root samples per tree were taken from south and north sides of each tree.

Soil cores (separated into 0-15 and 15-30 cm depths) were used to extract soil and fine root samples (before the destructive root system harvest described above) for the determination of the abundance of key root microbial symbionts, arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), known to be important to the growth of the highly mycorrhiza-dependent C. aurantium (Jifon et al., 2002). Subsamples (4.0 g) of soil were used to extract extraradical hyphae of AMF using the aqueous extraction/ filtration and quantification method described in Rillig et al. (1999). The abundance of AMF inside of roots was quantified by picking fine roots pieces (>20 cm total length) out of the soil cores, and measuring root colonization after staining with Trypan Blue (Rillig et al., 1999). We additionally fingerprinted the AMF community colonizing roots using terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis based on the small subunit of the ribosomal RNA gene, following the protocol of Mummey et al. (2005). The latter analysis was based on samples frozen at the time of harvest.

The biomass and number data in Table 1 and Figs 1–3 were adjusted to correct for a flaw in our experimental design that only became apparent about half way

through. The chambers were in an east-west row, and initially, they were totally separate, but with a larger gap between Chambers 3 and 4 to allow access to some greenhouses. After several years of chamber enlargement, Chambers 1-3 shared common walls. A consequence was that three enriched trees had end positions with more light, whereas only one ambient tree was in an end position. To remove bias from the data, for each parameter, the ratio of the average of the 'end' enriched trees to the value from the more shaded enriched tree was calculated, and similarly the ratio of the value from 'end' ambient tree to the average from the more shaded ambient trees was calculated. Then the values of all the more shaded trees (three ambient and one enriched) were multiplied by the average of the two ratios to make them equivalent to the trees in end positions, thereby removing the bias. As an example of the amount of the adjustment, the ratio of the mean final total biomass of the enriched trees to that of the ambient trees was 1.59 for the raw data and 1.51 for the adjusted data.

Means and standard errors in Tables 1-3 were calculated using trees as the experimental unit (i.e. n = 4, ignoring the pairing within chambers). The standard errors of the ratios (enriched/ambient or E/A) were calculated using the equation $\Delta r = (|D\Delta N|)$ + $|N\Delta D|$) D^{-2} , where Δ indicates the standard error, D is the ambient mean value in the denominator, N is the enriched mean value in the numerator, and the vertical bars denote absolute values. However, the statistical significance of differences among the means did account for the pairing within chambers, as determined using SAS procedure mixed with CO₂ level and chamber number as classes with chamber (co2) number defined as random. For those parameters sampled at more than one position (i.e. leaves from south and north at three heights in the canopy), position was an additional class that was a subsample within the main CO₂ treatment, as per the following where 'item' is the parameter being analyzed:

proc mixed; class chamber co2 position; model item = co2 | position/ddfm = kr; random chamber(co2) position × chamber(co2); run;

Results

Biomass and organ numbers

The sour orange trees were highly responsive to the elevated CO_2 , as indicated by the final wood biomass values and the monthly trunk circumferences (Fig. 1a).

2174 B. A. KIMBALL et al.

	Enriched		Ambient				
Item	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	$\Pr. > F$	Significance	
Biomass at final harvest (spring 2005 after 17	years)						
Fruit biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	32.9	2.1	10.9	0.6	0.0001	***	
Leaf biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	33.6	0.9	26.2	1.1	0.0024	**	
Twig biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	30.1	1.2	26.8	1.6	0.2607		
Branch biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	124.6	6.4	78.8	5.1	0.0309	*	
Trunk biomass (kg tree ^{-1})	110.0	10.9	80.4	2.0	0.1616		
Stump biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	41.0	2.6	26.3	0.3	0.0014	**	
Large root biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	40.6	1.7	27.7	2.2	0.0035	**	
Total biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	413.8	16.7	274.8	9.0	0.0250	*	
Miscellaneous parameters at final harvest							
Above-ground biomass (kg tree ⁻¹)	332.3	13.8	220.9	6.9	0.0294	*	
Below-ground biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	81.6	4.2	53.9	2.5	0.0013	**	
Root/shoot ratio	0.246	0.010	0.244	0.006	0.8952		
Number of fruits/tree	863	62	311	19	0.0182	**	
Average fruit weight (g fruit ⁻¹)	39.2	1.4	38.3	0.5	0.5511		
Number of leaves/tree	78 300	2500	66 000	2700	0.0167	*	
Leaf area/tree (m^2 tree ⁻¹)	249	8	223	8	0.1564		
Area per leaf (cm ² leaf ⁻¹)	31.8	1.1	33.7	0.9	0.4181		
Specific leaf area ($cm^2 g^{-1}$)	73.8	1.2	85.1	3.9	0.1945		
Number of major branches/tree	35.7	1.8	28.7	1.4	0.0209	*	
Number of major roots/tree	29.3	1.3	26.0	0.7	0.0698		
Total branch length (m tree $^{-1}$)	98.5	6.3	68.7	4.3	0.0904		
Total root length (m tree $^{-1}$)	82.3	5.0	65.0	3.4	0.1316		
Final trunk diameter (cm)	24.4	0.2	21.0	0.3	0.0157	*	
Trunk density (kg m ⁻³)	703	7	697	4	0.6894		
Branch base density $(kg m^{-3})$	634	40	536	46	0.2852		
Branch tip density (kg m ^{-3})	663	50	572	51	0.2621		
Cumulative parameters summed over duration	of experiment						
Harvested fruit biomass (kg tree $^{-1}$)	518.2	26.4	280.8	11.5	0.0002	***	
Number of fruit per tree	13840	350	7660	180	0.0001	***	
Fruit size (kg fruit $^{-1}$)	37.3	0.9	36.4	0.7	0.4693		
Biomass of prunings (kg tree ^{-1})	197.7	16.0	110.8	13.7	0.0995		
Total cumulative biomass (kg tree ^{-1})	1127	35	664	25	0.0148	*	

Table 1 Means, standard errors, and statistical significance of differences due to CO₂ level between the means of the final biomass of six organ classes of the sour orange trees, of several other miscellaneous response parameters, and of the cumulative sums over the 17-year experiment of five other parameters, including total cumulative biomass

*, **, and *** indicate significance at the 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 levels of significance, respectively.

Note that in Fig. 1a, the circumference-based data have been scaled using the ratio of the final wood biomass measurements (306 and 212 kg tree⁻¹ for enriched and ambient, respectively) to that of the last circumference-based data (505 and 301 kg tree⁻¹, respectively). The final harvested biomass values were only about 2/3 of the last measurements based on trunk circumferences, so the absolute values of wood production we have reported previously (e.g. Idso & Kimball, 1997, 2001; Kimball & Idso, 2005) were in error. Such a large extrapolation error is not surprising considering that the final biomasses were about 50 times greater than those in year 3. Nevertheless, the final ratio of enriched to ambient aboveground wood biomass was similar to

those determined from trunk circumferences and still substantial, about a 51% enhancement (Figs 1a and 2, Table 1).

Based on the monthly trunk circumference measurements scaled using the final aboveground wood biomass values (Fig. 1a), there was considerable variation is the annual increments of wood addition (Fig. 1b). Yet it is apparent that after about year 3, the enriched trees steadily added about 8 more kg tree⁻¹ than did the ambient trees. After about year 5, the trees put more biomass into their annual fruit production (Fig. 1c) than into wood (Fig. 1b). Like wood, however, there was considerable interannual variation in fruit production, but nevertheless, it is obvious that the elevated CO₂ stimulated fruit production more than it did the annual wood production, even amounting to more than a doubling in some years.

The enriched to ambient ratio of annual wood plus fruit production peaked in years 2–4 of the experiment at about 2.4 (Fig. 1d). Following the peak there was a decline through year 8. From year 8–17, however, the ratios were more or less at a plateau that corresponded with the value of the ratio at final harvest of 1.69. It is fortuitous that we were able to continue the experiment beyond year 8. Otherwise, extrapolating the years



4–8 decline, one might have concluded that the ratio would have reached 1.00 at about year 13 instead of the steady 1.69.

Focusing on the effects of elevated CO_2 on the final biomass of individual organs, the large branches, trunks, stumps, and large roots were all stimulated about 55% (Fig. 2). Leaves and twigs were somewhat lower at about 20%. Fruit production in the final year was stimulated a surprising 200% (Fig. 2). However, this high value appears to be somewhat of an aberration because during the last year the fruit production of the ambient trees dropped more than that of the enriched trees compared with the last several years of fruit production (Fig. 1c). The stimulation of fruit biomass was due entirely to the stimulation of fruit numbers, there being no significant effect of CO_2 on fruit size during the final year (Table 1).

Both total above- and belowground (stumps + roots) biomass were stimulated about 50% by elevated CO_2 (Fig. 2), and as a result, there was no significant effect on the root/shoot ratio.

The number of leaves per tree tended to increase (about 20%) due to elevated CO_2 , whereas the area per leaf tended to decrease (about 10%) (Fig. 2, Table 1). Therefore, leaf area per tree tended to increase about 10%. Mean specific leaf area (leaf area per unit of mass) also tended to decrease about 13%.

The CO₂-enriched trees looked more bushy to our eyes, and this aspect was confirmed because the number of large branches per tree increased about 24%, and the total lengths of the large branches tended to be increased by about 43% (Fig. 2, Table 1). The number and total lengths of large roots tended to increase somewhat (13% and 27%, respectively) as well, but the changes lacked significance.

Diameters of the trunk disk samples increased 16% due to elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2, Table 1), consistent

Fig. 1 (a) Final means (and standard errors) of measured aboveground wood biomass (twigs + branches + trunks + stumps) for the CO₂-enriched and ambient sour orange trees. Also shown are cumulative mean aboveground wood production and standard errors vs. time based on using monthly trunk circumference measurements in an allometric relationship from Idso & Kimball (1992a) converted from biovolume to biomass using final trunk density measurements and then scaled to the final actual biomass values. (b) Annual increments of wood production based on the trunk circumference data in (a) adjusted for the ratio of final measured aboveground wood to that estimated from the circumferences. (c) Annual fruit biomass harvests. (d) Ratios of enriched to ambient sums of adjusted aboveground wood from (b) plus the fruit biomass from (c). Also shown is the final measured ratio of enriched to ambient aboveground wood plus cumulative fruit production.

^{© 2007} The Authors Journal compilation © 2007 Blackwell Publishing Ltd, *Global Change Biology*, **13**, 2171–2183



Fig. 2 Percentage changes due to CO_2 enrichment of the final biomasses of six organ classes of the sour orange trees, of several other miscellaneous response parameters, and of the cumulative sums over the 17-year experiment of five other parameters, including total cumulative biomass.

with estimates of wood biomass accumulation from circumference measurements during the course of he experiment (Fig. 1a). However, trunk density was not affected, and while the base and tip densities of the branches tended to be higher, these differences lacked statistical significance (Fig. 2, Table 1).

The cumulative amount of biomass due to fruit production over the duration of the experiment was increased 85% due to elevated CO_2 (Figs 2 and 3, Table 1). The increase was entirely from an increase in fruit number, with no increase in fruit size. Similarly, the cumulative amount of prunings biomass removed from the enriched chambers tended to be higher (78%) than that removed from the ambient chambers. Adding up the total amounts of biomass from the final harvest plus the cumulative amounts of fruit and prunings biomass removed during the course of the experiment, the total amounts of biomass produced in the CO_2 -enriched and ambient treatments were 1127 and 664 kg tree⁻¹, respectively, which amounts to an overall stimulation of 70% due to elevated CO_2 (Fig. 3, Table 1).

Elemental composition

The concentrations of C, N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S, Na, Fe, Zn, Mg, Cu, and B in leaf, twig, trunk, and root samples had almost no response to the elevated CO_2 treatment (Table 2). There were some differences detected with respect to where samples of leaves and twigs were taken on the trees (Table 2 footnotes). However, the only significant changes detected due to CO_2 were: an increase in Na in the trunks, increases in Fe and Cu in the leaves, and an



Fig. 3 Total biomass produced over the 17 years by the sour orange trees at enriched and ambient levels of CO_2 from cumulative fruit harvests, cumulative prunings, and the final biomass harvest.

increase in Zn in the roots. Of course, the lack of changes in concentration (Table 2) coupled with the large increases in biomass (Table 1) implies that there were large increases in nutrient content and in nutrient uptake from the soil under elevated CO_2 in proportion to the increases in biomass.

Arbuscular mycorrhiza

Other than a tendency for there to be longer hyphal lengths at the 15–30 cm depth (P < 0.056), no responses of AMF to the treatment were evident, both in the intraradical and extraradical phase (Table 3). No obvious trend was apparent in the community of AMF colonizing the roots, as represented by the number of different terminal restriction fragment sizes (corresponding to fungal ribotypes).

Discussion

An overall stimulation of 70% in total biomass production of the sour orange trees over the 17 years of this experiment due to a $300 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{mol}^{-1}$ increase in CO₂ (Fig. 3) is larger than generally observed for most plants, including woody species (Kimball, 1983; Poorter, 1993; Ceulemans & Mousseau, 1994; Idso & Idso, 1994; Wullschleger *et al.*, 1997; Curtis & Wang, 1998; Norby *et al.*, 1999; Janssens *et al.*, 2000; Kimball *et al.*, 2002). It is also larger than the increases in net primary production reported from forest FACE projects (Nowak *et al.*, 2004; DeLucia *et al.*, 2005; Körner *et al.*, 2005; Norby *et al.*, 2005; Asshoff *et al.*, 2006; Kubiske *et al.*, 2006; Liberloo *et al.*, 2006). For example, Norby *et al.* (2005) report a median increase of $23 \pm 2\%$ with enrichment to $550 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{mol}^{-1}$ across a broad range of productivity levels. Linearly scaled to our CO₂ levels, their value would be about a 35% increase, still much below the 70% stimulation of our orange trees.

However, there are several instances of growth responses approaching that of our trees (e.g. Janssens *et al.*, 2000). Focusing on citrus, Koch *et al.* (1986, 1987) obtained seedling growth increases of about 80% for a doubling of CO₂. Downton *et al.* (1987) observed about a 70% increase in productivity of 3-year-old Valencia oranges enriched with CO₂ only during the third year. Martin *et al.* (1995) observed a 87% increase in the growth of lemon at elevated CO₂ at supraoptimal temperatures, but the increase was only 21% at optimum temperatures.

Of course, one important difference between our sour orange tree experiment and the forest FACE experiments is that we fertilized our trees with soil nutrients like a commercial fruit orchard, whereas the natural forests were limited to the nitrogen available from their own soil processes, and generally, if soil nitrogen is limiting growth, then the response to elevated CO_2 of woody plants is smaller (e.g. Ceulemans & Mousseau, 1994; Cotrufo *et al.*, 1998; Curtis & Wang, 1998; Kimball *et al.*, 2002).

Fertilization regime might also explain the general lack of responsiveness of AMF we documented here, contrary to some previous field studies (reviewed in Rillig et al., 2002; Treseder, 2004). However, our results are consistent with those of Jifon et al. (2002); these researchers, also using high-nutrient-grown sour orange trees, did not find increases in AMF root colonization in their short-term elevated CO₂ pot experiment, reporting comparable levels of colonization. Nevertheless, in our study AMF continued to be present in comparable levels and diversity (t-RF richness) at high CO₂, with even a stimulation of the soil hyphal lengths at greater depth (Table 3). This may have been a contributing factor for the observed tree biomass increase of this mycorrhiza-dependent genotype (Jifon et al., 2002).

Several other mechanisms likely were also operative to cause the large stimulation of biomass due to elevated CO_2 in this long-term experiment (Figs 1–3; Table 1). Over years 2 and 3 of the study, the ratio of enriched to ambient net leaf photosynthesis was fairly steady at about 2.2, thus indicating no significant down regulation or acclimation (Idso & Kimball, 1991, 1992b) at that time. However, some acclimation appeared later, as indicated by a decline in the enhancement ratio of net photosynthesis to 1.28 in the 14th year (Adam *et al.*, 2004).

		Enriched		Ambient					
Element	Organ	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	\Pr .> F	Significance	E/A	SE
C (%)	Leaves	41.75	0.06	41.71	0.09	0.787		1.001	0.004
	Twigs	44.33	0.17	44.17	0.24	0.732		1.004	0.009
	Trunks	49.80	0.49	50.15	0.32	0.740		0.993	0.016
	Roots	48.83	0.14	49.33	0.13	0.306		066.0	0.005
N (%)	Leaves	2.158	0.037	2.208	0.022	0.534		0.977	0.026
	Twigs	0.892	0.055	0.902	0.027	0.925*		0.989	060.0
	Trunks	0.328	0.021	0.368	0.010	0.138		0.891	0.082
	Roots	0.505	0.028	0.498	0.028	0.876		1.015	0.112
P (%)	Leaves	0.112	0.002	0.113	0.003	0.891		0.996	0.039
	Twigs	0.118	0.002	0.117	0.008	0.915		1.007	0.085
	Trunks	0.0038	0.0004	0.0056	0.0002	0.143		0.681	0.097
	Roots	0.017	0.003	0.015	0.002	0.672		1.139	0.333
K (%)	Leaves	0.675	0.026	0.671	0.030	0.927^{*}		1.006	0.084
	Twigs	0.425	0.008	0.450	0.029	0.313^{\ddagger}		0.944	0.079
	Trunks	0.0693	0.0016	0.0750	0.0032	0.229		0.924	0.061
	Roots	0.0896	0.0135	0.0805	0.0079	0.744		1.113	0.276
Ca (%)	Leaves	5.317	0.309	5.758	0.203	0.528		0.923	0.086
	Twigs	3.083	0.155	3.708	0.212	$0.256^{\$}$		0.831	060.0
	Trunks	0.603	0.050	0.735	0.079	0.266		0.821	0.156
	Roots	0.764	0.121	0.716	0.028	0.826		1.066	0.210
Mg (%)	Leaves	0.342	0.011	0.353	0.010	0.448		0.968	0.060
	Twigs	0.111	0.005	0.136	0.008	0.204		0.818	0.084
	Trunks	0.00010	0.00000	0.00033	0.00023	0.374		0.308	0.213
	Roots	0.0060	0.0025	0.0063	0.0025	0.941		0.945	0.781
S (%)	Leaves	0.179	0.008	0.160	0.001	0.154^{\P}		1.117	0.061
	Twigs	0.047	0.003	0.048	0.001	0.729		0.972	0.079
	Trunks	0.020	0.000	0.023	0.002	0.374		0.889	0.099
	Roots	0.039	0.002	0.035	0.002	0.337		1.107	0.133
Na (%)	Leaves	0.017	0.002	0.018	0.002	$0.804^{ }$		0.930	0.210
	Twigs	0.017	0.001	0.016	0.002	0.808**		1.053	0.192
	Trunks	0.180	0.010	0.125	0.010	0.014	*	1.440	0.190
	Roots	0.143	0.017	0.121	0.010	0.516		1.180	0.231
Fe (ppm)	Leaves	104.0	5.2	125.3	5.0	0.004	**	0.829	0.074
	Twigs	89.5	12.8	103.8	7.3	0.402		0.862	0.184
	Trunks	19.7	5.8	19.3	2.0	0.762		1.022	0.406
	Roots	46.9	11.3	39.5	11.9	0.691		1.187	0.642

Journal compilation © 2007 Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Global Change Biology, 13, 2171-2183

0.096	0.104	0.295	0.322	0.103	0.148	0.051	0.356	0.036	0.042	0.417	0.531	0.120	0.058	0.072	0.231	ves.
0.978	0.858	0.978	1.743	0.980	0.884	1.080	1.133	0.835	0.902	1.406	1.013	0.986	0.926	1.018	1.119	s more than lower leav
			*					*								s, and higher leaves
$0.606^{\dagger \dagger}$	0.169	0.867	0.039	0.871	0.616	060.0	0.623	0.015	0.091	0.437	0.976	$0.796^{\ddagger\ddagger}$	0.086	0.759	0.614	sides. <i>w</i> . the north side: sides.
0.7	0.6	0.67	0.30	0.74	0.25	0.06	0.40	0.16	0.22	0.05	0.66	7.1	0.32	0.10	0.47	am the bottoms. om the bottoms. m the bottoms. m the bottoms. nose from the north s om the bottoms. Erfrom above or belov Zn than those from
18.7	19.4	4.89	4.34	21.29	7.92	2.15	2.99	8.08	6.83	1.65	2.45	202.1	18.08	5.75	5.31	<i>c</i> , respectively. re N than those frc ore K than those fro ore K than those fro re K than those fro ore S than those fro 009) more S than those less Na than those fro less Na than those > F = 0.0007) more > F = 0.0007) more 027) more B than t
1.1	1.5	0.79	0.87	1.48	0.95	0.05	0.61	0.16	0.10	0.62	0.63	17.2	0.75	0.32	0.70	evels of significance (Pr. > $F = 0.014$) mo (Pr. > $F = 0.049$) m (Pr. > $F = 0.012$) mo (Pr. > $F = 0.034$) less ficantly (Pr. > $F = 0.032$) les (Pr. > $F = 0.032$) les tity (Pr. > $F = 0.004$) uty significantly (Pr. > $F = 0.004$)
18.3	16.7	4.78	7.56	20.88	7.00	2.32	3.38	6.75	6.17	2.32	2.48	199.2	16.75	5.85	5.94	te 0.05 and 0.01 le had significantly had significantly had significantly had significantly the trees had significant ees had significant he trees had significant he trees had significant
Leaves	Twigs	Trunks	Roots	Leaves	Twigs	Trunks	Roots	Leaves	Twigs	Trunks	Roots	Leaves	Twigs	Trunks	Roots	e significance at the tops of the trees e tops of the trees tops of the trees tops of the trees e south sides of the e tops of the trees e middle of the tr e of the trees e south sides of the trees e nuth sides of the trees e south sides of the trees e south sides of the trees e south sides of the trees the trees the south sides of the trees the south sides of the trees the tr
(mqq) nZ				(mdd) uM				Cu (ppm)				B (ppm)				* and ** indicat *Twigs from the †Leaves from th †Twigs from the §Twigs from th "Leaves from th **Twigs from th **Leaves from th

© 2007 The Authors

Journal compilation © 2007 Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Global Change Biology, 13, 2171-2183

Table 3 Means, standard errors, statistical significance of differences due to CO ₂ between the means, and ratios and standard
errors of arbuscular mycorrhizae extraradical hyphal lengths, AMF root colonization percentages, and the number of different
terminal restriction fragment sizes (t-RF) reflecting the AMF community colonizing roots from the sour orange trees grown for 1
years at enriched or ambient levels of CO_2

		Enriched		Ambient				SE
Item	Depth (cm)	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	\Pr . > F	E/A	
Hyphal length (m)	0–15	3.41	0.74	2.87	0.31	0.526	1.187	0.386
<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>	15-30	3.14	0.25	2.21	0.30	0.056	1.421	0.307
Colonization (%)	0–15	6.00	1.67	7.57	3.17	0.779	0.793	0.553
	15-30	9.29	4.39	8.20	3.84	0.919	1.132	1.065
t-RF number	0-15	11.3	0.9	13.8	0.9	0.189	0.818	0.113
	15–30	11.3	1.0	12.8	0.9	0.486	0.882	0.140

Statistical significance was determined using SAS procedure mixed with CO_2 level and chamber number as classes with chamber number defined as random.

Moving from the leaf to a whole canopy level, the annual productions of fruit plus wood in year 3 were 6.6 and 3.1 kg tree^{-1} for enriched and ambient trees, respectively (Idso & Kimball, 1992a) from leaf areas of 47 and 27 m² tree⁻¹, respectively. These data result in canopy productivity indices (CPIs; annual biomass production per leaf area, e.g. Norby et al., 1999) of 0.14 and $0.12 \text{ kg yr}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$, respectively. Averaging over the last 3 years of the experiment, the annual wood plus fruit productions were 192 and 123 kg tree^{-1} (Fig. 1b and c) from leaf areas of 249 and 223 m² (Table 1) resulting in CPIs of 0.26 and 0.18, respectively. Thus, the CPIs were substantially higher at the end of the experiment than they were in year 3. Moreover, elevated CO₂ increased the CPI in year 3 by 23% and by 41% in years 15-17. The value of 23% is close to the mean of 12 CO₂-enrichment experiments on trees reviewed by Norby et al. (1999), whereas a 41% increase due to elevated CO₂ is higher than any of the previous experiments reviewed by them.

Another operative factor contributing to our large CO_2 stimulation was that the enhancement at low light within the canopy more than compensated for self-shading produced by the CO_2 -induced proliferation of leaf area (Idso *et al.*, 1993b). Undoubtedly, another important aspect for the large growth response in our hot climate is that the elevated CO_2 raised the upper-limiting leaf temperature for positive net photosynthesis by approximately 7 °C, which resulted in a 75% enhancement at a leaf temperature of 31 °C, 100% enhancement at 35 °C, and 200% at 42 °C (Idso *et al.*, 1995).

Another possible mechanism for the large biomass stimulation is that elevated CO_2 decreased dark leaf respiration by 20% (Idso & Kimball, 1992b), as shown by cuvette measurements taken in the second year of the experiment, although it now appears that the cuvette technique is suspect (Amthor *et al.*, 2001). Whether elevated CO_2 directly affects dark respiration remains con-

troversial, yet other 'dark' processes can also be affected (e.g. Bunce, 2002, 2005). The forest FACE projects (e.g. Norby *et al.*, 2005) generally enriched only during the daytime, whereas we enriched $24 \text{ h} \text{ day}^{-1}$, and Bunce (2005), for example, found that elevated CO₂ stimulated the grain yield of soybeans by 34% with daytime only enrichment but by 62% with 24 h enrichment.

Another interesting mechanism that helps explain why the orange trees had a strong response to elevated CO₂ is that they produced three putative storage proteins in their leaves with molecular masses of 33, 31, and 21 kDa (Nie & Long, 1992; Idso et al., 2001). The evergreen sour orange trees generally possess 2 years worth of leaves at any given time. In the spring, there is bud burst that produces a new cohort of branches and leaves. The new branch growth following bud burst of the enriched trees was enormous compared with that of the ambient trees, reaching a peak six times greater (Idso et al., 2000). Amounts of the three proteins were generally lower in the CO₂-enriched leaves during the central part of the year, but they were higher in late fall, winter, and early spring (Idso et al., 2001). The decrease from their high wintertime levels in the CO₂-enriched trees possibly provided a source of nitrogen needed to sustain the rapid spring-time branch growth. Leaves of an age greater than 2 years fall throughout the year, and during most of the year, the ratio of leaf fall from the enriched to ambient trees was steady at about 1.3 (Idso et al., 2001). Surprisingly, around mid-October there was a sharp peak with the ratio reaching 2.7, indicating a significant qualitative difference in the behavior of the enriched and ambient trees. The enriched trees appeared to be reabsorbing N from second-year leaves during the process of accelerated senescence. This N was stored in the storage proteins of the first-year leaves, from which it was removed in the spring to sustain the enormous burst of new branch growth in the enriched trees.

The almost complete lack of changes in elemental composition (C, N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S, Na, Fe, Zn, Mn, Cu, and B) due to elevated CO₂ (Table 2) is rather surprising considering that at least in the case of N, it is common for elevated CO2 to cause lower concentrations (e.g. Cotrufo et al., 1998; Curtis & Wang, 1998; Norby et al., 1999; Kimball et al., 2002). However, these measurements from the 17th year are mostly consistent with similar measurements made on these trees in earlier years. Gries et al. (1993) detected no significant changes in N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S, Na, Fe, Zn, Mn, Cu, or B in the soil or roots of the well-fertilized sour orange trees 3 years into the experiment. However, concentrations of N, K, Ca, and Mn were slightly reduced in the leaves of enriched trees. Leaves from enriched trees sampled at bimonthly intervals from years 4-7 of the experiment had 4.8% less N (as well as chlorophyll a) than those from the ambient trees (Idso et al., 1996). Similarly working with bimonthly leaf samples, Peñuelas et al. (1997) reported there were clear seasonal trends in the concentration of most elements. There were initial decreases in the leaf concentration of N and the xylem-mobile and phloem-immobile Mn, Ca, and Mg, as well as a sustained increase in B. The initial reductions of N, Ca, Mn, and Mg gradually disappeared with time from years 4–7, and as reported in Table 2, they were not present in year 17.

Although the elemental concentration data in Table 2 strongly suggest that elevated CO₂ had almost no effect on the composition of the sour orange trees, perhaps also as a consequence of the minimal to absent mycorrhizal stimulation, we should mention that some changes were detected in prior studies in addition to the three putative storage proteins already discussed (Nie & Long, 1992; Idso et al., 2001). During the third and fourth years of the experiment, starch content per unit of leaf area was doubled while specific leaf mass increased 10-20% (Idso et al., 1993a). Interestingly, at that time, the area of each leaf was also increased an average of about 10%, which contrasts with final year 17 when individual leaf areas were decreased 10% in elevated CO₂ (Table 1, Fig. 2). Soluble sugars in sunacclimated leaves were doubled due to elevated CO₂ at 7.5 years into the experiment, whereas those in shade were unaffected (Schwanz et al., 1996). Whether leaves were sun- or shade-acclimated made big differences in their ascorbate and glutathione antioxidant contents and activities 7.5 years into the experiment (Schwanz et al., 1996), but CO₂ treatment effects were not significantly different. The activities of superoxide dismutases were similar in the sun- and shade-acclimated leaves, but they decreased in response to elevated CO₂. In contrast, elevated CO₂ caused increases in ascorbate content of the sun-acclimated leaves. Similarly, the vitamin C content of the fruit was increased 7% based on samples taken from the fourth through the 12th years of the experiment (Idso *et al.*, 2002).

Conclusions

The 17 years of CO_2 -enrichment at $300 \,\mu mol \, mol^{-1}$ above ambient caused substantial increases in growth and productivity of the sour orange trees. Rather than a continual acclimation, instead there was a sustained enhancement of about 70% in annual fruit and incremental wood production over the last several years of the experiment and an overall enhancement of 70% when total biomass production was summed over the duration of the experiment. Much of the enhancement came from greater numbers of fruits produced, with no change in fruit size. Thicker trunks and branches and more branches and roots were produced, but the root/ shoot ratio was unaffected. Also, there was almost no change in the elemental composition of the biomass produced due to elevated CO₂ – just more of it. There are several mechanisms which likely contributed to the large biomass response, which was bigger than reported from the early years of FACE forest projects. While the latter are probably more representative of the natural ecosystems in which they are being conducted, nevertheless this experiment shows that the effects of elevated CO₂ on trees can be large and sustained for many years, and it suggests that the future high CO₂ concentrations likely will stimulate citrus production.

Acknowledgements

During the early years of the experiment, it was supported in part by the US Department of Energy, Carbon Dioxide Research Division, Interagency Agreements DE-AI05-88ER-69014 and DE-AI02-93ER-61720. The work associated with the final massive harvest was supported by the National Research Initiative of the USDA Cooperative State Research, Education and Extension Service, grant number 2004-35100-14919. We gratefully acknowledge the technical assistance of Gary Peresta, Ron Seay, Robert Suich, Mathew Conley, Laura Olivieri, George Johnson, Ken Pletz, Chris McNeely, Mason Conley, Myrl Lucktett, and Frank Ruggiero. The advice of Bruce Mackey with regard to the statistical analysis is greatly appreciated. We thank D. Mummey and D. Warnock for help with the mycorrhizal analyses.

References

- Adam NR, Wall GW, Kimball BA, Idso SB, Webber AN (2004) Acclimation of photosynthesis in leaves of sour orange trees grown at elevated CO₂ for 14 years. *New Phytologist*, 163, 341–347.
- Amthor JS, Koch GW, Willms JR, Layzell DB (2001) Leaf O₂ uptake in the dark is independent of coincident CO₂ partial pressure. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **52**, 2235–2238.

- Asshoff R, Zotz G, Korner C (2006) Growth and phenology of mature temperate forest trees in elevated CO₂. *Global Change Biology*, **12**, 848–861.
- Bunce JA (2002) Carbon dioxide concentration at night affects translocation from soybean leaves. *Annals of Botany*, **90**, 399–403.
- Bunce JA (2005) Seed yield of soybeans with daytime or continuous elevation of carbon dioxide under field conditions. *Photosynthetica*, **43**, 435–438.
- Ceulemans R, Mousseau M (1994) Effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on woody plants. *New Phytologist*, **127**, 425–446.
- Cotrufo MF, Ineson P, Scott A (1998) Elevated CO₂ reduces the nitrogen concentration of plant tissues. *Global Change Biology*, **4**, 43–54.
- Curtis PS, Wang X (1998) A meta-analysis of elevated CO₂ effects on woody plant mass, form, and physiology. *Oecologia*, **113**, 299–313.
- DeLucia EH, Moore DJ, Norby RJ (2005) Contrasting responses of forest ecosystems to rising atmospheric CO₂: implications for the global C cycle. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, **19**, GB3006, doi: 10.1029/2004GB002346.
- Downton WJS, Grant WJR, Loveys BR (1987) Carbon dioxide enrichment increases yield of Valencia orange. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology*, **14**, 493–501.
- Gries C, Idso SB, Kimball BA (1993) Nutrient uptake during the course of a year by sour orange trees growing in ambient and elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. *Journal of Plant Nutrition*, **16**, 129–147.
- Idso CD, Idso SB, Kimball BA, Park HS, Hoober JK, Balling Jr RC (2000) Ultra-enhanced spring branch growth in CO₂-enriched trees: can it alter the phase of the atmosphere's seasonal CO₂ cycle? *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **43**, 91–100.
- Idso KE, Hoober JK, Idso SB, Wall GW, Kimball BA (2001) Atmospheric CO₂ enrichment influences the synthesis and mobilization of putative vacuolar storage proteins in sour orange tree leaves. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **48**, 199–211.
- Idso KE, Idso SB (1994) Plant responses to atmospheric CO₂ enrichment in the face of environmental constraints: a review of the past 10 years' research. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, **69**, 153–203.
- Idso SB, Idso KE, Garcia RL, Kimball BA, Hoober JK (1995) Effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment and foliar methanol application on net photosynthesis of sour orange tree (*Citrus aurantium*; Rutaceae) leaves. *American Journal of Botany*, **82**, 26–30.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA (1991) Downward regulation of photosynthesis and growth at high CO₂ levels. *Plant Physiology*, **96**, 990–992.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA (1992a) Aboveground inventory of sour orange trees exposed to different atmospheric CO₂ concentrations for 3 full years. Agriculture Ecosystem and Environment, 60, 145–151.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA (1992b) Effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on photosynthesis, respiration and growth of sour orange trees. *Plant Physiology*, **99**, 341–343.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA (1997) Effects of long-term atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on the growth and fruit production of sour orange trees. *Global Change Biology*, **3**, 89–96.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA (2001) CO₂ enrichment of sour orange trees: 13 years and counting. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **46**, 147–153.

- Idso SB, Kimball BA, Allen SG (1991) CO₂ enrichment of sour orange trees: two-and-a-half years into a long-term experiment. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 14, 351–353.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA, Hendrix DL (1993a) Air temperature modifies the size-enhancing effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on sour orange tree leaves. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **33**, 293–299.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA, Hendrix DL (1996) Effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on chlorophyll and nitrogen concentrations of sour orange tree leaves. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, 36, 323–331.
- Idso SB, Kimball BA, Shaw PE, Widmer W, Vanderslice JT, Higgs DJ, Montanari A, Clark WD (2002) The effect of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on the vitamin C concentration of (sour) orange juice. *Agriculture Ecosystems and Environment*, **90**, 1–7.
- Idso SB, Wall GW, Kimball BA (1993b) Interactive effects of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment and light intensity reductions on net photosynthesis of sour orange tree leaves. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **33**, 367–375.
- IPCC (2001) Climate change 2001: The Scientific Basis: Contribution of Working Group I to the Third Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (eds Houghton JT, Ding Y, Griggs DJ, Noguer M, Van der Linden PJ, Dai X, Maskell K, Joihnson CA), Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Janssens IA, Mousseau M, Ceulemans R (2000) Crop ecosystem responses to climatic change: tree crops. In: *Climate Change and Global Crop Productivity* (eds Reddy KR, Hodges HF), pp. 245–270. CABI Publishing, New York.
- Jifon JL, Graham JH, Drouillard DL, Syvertsen JP (2002) Growth depression of mycorrhizal citrus seedlings grown at high phosphorus supply is mitigated by elevated CO₂. *New Phytologist*, **153**, 133–142.
- Kimball BA (1983) Carbon dioxide and agricultural yield: an assemblage and analysis of 430 prior observations. *Agronomy Journal*, 75, 779–788.
- Kimball BA, Idso SB (2005) Long-term effects of elevated CO₂ on sour orange trees. In: *Plant Responses to Air Pollution and Global Change* (eds Omasa K, Nouchi I, De Kok LJ), pp. 73–79. Springer-Verlag, Tokyo.
- Kimball BA, Kobayashi K, Bindi M (2002) Responses of agricultural crops to free-air CO₂ enrichment. *Advances in Agronomy*, 77, 293–368.
- Kimball BA, Mauney JR, LaMorte RL et al. (1992) Carbon dioxide enrichment: data on the response of cotton to varying CO₂ irrigation and nitrogen. Report ORNL/CDIAC-44-NDP-037, Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, US Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, TN, 592 pp.
- Koch KE, Allen LH Jr, Jones P, Avigne WT (1987) Growth of citrus rootstock (Carrizo Citrange) seedlings during and after long-term CO₂ enrichment. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, **112**, 77–82.
- Koch KE, Jones PH, Avigne WT, Allen LH Jr (1986) Growth, dry matter partitioning, and diurnal activities of RuBP carboxylase in citrus seedlings maintained at two levels of CO₂. *Physiologia Plantarum*, **67**, 477–484.
- Körner C, Asshoff R, Bignucolo O *et al.* (2005) Carbon flux and growth in mature deciduous forest trees exposed to elevated CO₂. *Science*, **309**, 1360–1362.

- Kubiske ME, Quinn VS, Heilman WE *et al.* (2006) Interannual climatic variation mediates elevated CO₂ and O₃ effects on forest growth. *Global Change Biology*, **12**, 1054–1068.
- Liberloo M, Calfapietra C, Lukac M *et al*. (2006) Woody biomass production during the second rotation of a bio-energy *Populus* plantation increases in a future high CO₂ world. *Global Change Biology*, **12**, 1094–1106.
- Martin CA, Stutz JC, Kimball BA, Idso SB, Akey DA (1995) Growth and topological changes of *Citrus limon* (L.) Burm.
 F. 'Eureka' in response to high temperatures and elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, **120**, 1025–1031.
- Medhurst J, Parsby J, Linder S, Wallin G, Ceschia E, Slaney M (2006) A whole-tree chamber system for examining tree-level physiological responses of field-grown trees to environmental variation and climate change. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, **29**, 1853–1869.
- Mummey DL, Rillig MC, Holben WE (2005) Neighboring plant influences on arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal community composition as assessed by T-RFLP analysis. *Plant and Soil*, **271**, 83–90.
- Nie GY, Long SP (1992) The effect of prolonged growth in elevated CO₂ concentrations in the field on the amounts of different leaf proteins. In: *Research in Photosynthesis*, Vol. IV (ed. Murata N), pp. 885–858. Kluwer Academic Press, Dordrecht, the Netherlands.
- Norby RJ, DeLucia EH, Gielen B Jr (2005) Forest response to elevated CO₂ is conserved across a broad range of productivity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science*, **102**, 18052–18056.
- Norby RJ, Wullschleger SD, Gunderson CA, Johnson DW, Ceulemans R (1999) Tree responses to rising CO₂ in field experiments: implications for the future forest. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, **22**, 683–714.

- Nowak RS, Ellsworth DS, Smith SD (2004) Functional responses of plants to elevated atmospheric CO₂ – do photosynthetic and productivity data from FACE experiments support early predictions? *New Phytologist*, **162**, 253–280.
- Peñuelas J, Idso SB, Ribas A, Kimball BA (1997) Effects of long-term atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on the mineral concentration of sour orange tree leaves. *New Phytologist*, 135, 439–444.
- Poorter H (1993) Interspecific variation in the growth response of plants to an elevated ambient CO₂ concentration. In: CO₂ and *Biosphere* (eds Rozema J, Lambers H, Van de Geijn SC, Cambridge ML), pp. 77–79. Kluwer Acacemic Publishers, Dordrecht, the Netherlands.
- Rillig MC, Allen MF, Field CB (1999) Soil biota responses to longterm atmospheric CO₂ enrichment in two California annual grasslands. *Oecologia*, **119**, 572–577.
- Rillig MC, Treseder KK, Allen MF (2002) Global change and mycorrhizal fungi. In: *Mycorrhizal Ecology (Ecological Studies)*, Vol. 157 (eds van der Heijden MGA, Sanders IR), pp. 135–160. Spinger-Verlag, Berlin, Germany.
- Schwanz P, Kimball BA, Idso SB, Hendrix DL, Polle A (1996) Antioxidants in sun and shade leaves of sour orange trees (*Citrus aurantium*) after long-term acclimation to elevated CO₂. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **47**, 1941–1950.
- Treseder KK (2004) A meta-analysis of mycorrhizal responses to nitrogen, phosphorus, and atmospheric CO₂ in field studies. *New Phytologist*, **164**, 347–355.
- Wullschleger SD, Norby RJ, Gunderson CA (1997) Forest trees and their response to atmospheric carbon dioxide enrichment: a compilation of results. In: *Advances in Carbon Dioxide Research* (eds Allen Jr LH, Kirkham MB, Olszyk DM, Whitman CE), pp. 79–100. American Society of Agronomy, Crop Science Society of America, and Soil Science Society of America, Madison, WI.