Ecophysiological Responses of Northern Birch Forests to the Changing Atmospheric CO₂ and O₃ Concentrations

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ABSTRACT

The effects on birch (Betula spp.) of elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) and ozone (O_3) , which are both increasing in the troposphere, are surveyed in detail based on the literature. Birches establish themselves in the open field after disturbances, and then become dominant trees in temperate or boreal forests. Ecophysiological approaches include the measurement of photosynthesis, biomass, growth, and survival of seedlings and trees. Elevated CO₂ levels give rise to a net enhancement of the growth of birch trees, whereas high O₃ generally reduces growth. Although the effects of the two are opposed, there is also an interactive effect. Basic physiological responses of the single genus *Betula* to CO_2 and O_3 are set out, and some data are summarized regarding ecological interactions between trees, or between trees and other organisms.

Key words: *Betula*, Elevated carbon dioxide, Ozone, Tree physiology, Forest ecology

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent changes in atmospheric composition are likely to have a large influence on forest ecosystems (Lorenz and Lal, 2010; Karnosky *et al.*, 2003a). In particular, in East Asia, the effects are likely to be serious because of rapid industrialization with emission of greenhouse gases. Interactions between the atmosphere and biosphere have been studied for an extended period (Quillet *et al.*, 2010; Fowler *et al.*, 2009; Räisänen and Tuomenvirta, 2009; Smith, 1990); the principal concerns are the increasing tropospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and ozone (O₃) and their effect on future terrestrial ecosystems (IPCC, 2007; Sitch *et al.*, 2007). CO₂ is the substrate in photosynthesis but O₃ is toxic to plants. In considering forest

decline in Japan, it is necessary to examine the role of O₃ (Kume et al., 2009; Tamura et al., 2002). The atmospheric CO₂ concentration has steadily been increasing from 300 ppm at the beginning in 20th century to more than 390 ppm in 2011 (NOAA, 2012; IPCC, 2007), and it will reach 400 to 700 ppm at the year 2100 (IPCC, 2007). Tropospheric O₃ concentration also has increased by 0.5 to 2% per year at many monitoring stations around the world (Naja and Akimoto, 2004; Vingarzan, 2004), and in most areas of East Asia the O₃ concentration exceeded 40 ppb on yearly average (Nagashima et al., 2010) and reached 60 ppb in springtime (Nagashima et al., 2010; Yamaji et al., 2008). Ozone concentration in East Asia may reach 60 ppb on yearly average in 2020 (Yamaji et al., 2008) or during the 21st century (Vingarzan, 2004).

Reliable data on the effects of elevated CO_2 and/or O_3 on forest health and vitality have come from opentop chambers (OTCs) or free-air concentration enrichment systems (FACEs), which are semi-closed and open gas-treatment systems respectively, in which plants are grown in the atmospheric conditions believed to be likely in the future (Karnosky *et al.*, 2007). In general, elevated CO_2 reduces stomatal conductance, and this may limit O_3 uptake and consequently alleviate the effects of O_3 on plants (Volin *et al.*, 1998).

Birch is the collective name for deciduous broadleaved tree species in the genus *Betula*. There are more than 100 birch species (Govaerts and Frodin, 1998), and natural birch forests are broadly distributed across continents in the northern hemisphere: Eurasia (Hynynen *et al.*, 2010; Mao *et al.*, 2010; Zyryanova *et al.*, 2010; Alexeyev *et al.*, 2000), North America (Chapin *et al.*, 2006; Erdmann, 1990; Grelen, 1990; Lamson, 1990; Safford *et al.*, 1990), and Japan (Mao *et al.*, 2010).

Birches are commercially important species, as well as ecologically important. Following disturbances such as forest fires or clear cutting of forests, many birch trees establish themselves in the early stage of forest succession, because birch has light demanding traits

Common name	Coniferous			Broadleaved		
	Fir	Larch	Spruce	Birch	Oak	Linden
Stock ($\times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$) Density (g/cm ³)	203 (28%) 0.40	93 (13%) 0.50	66 (9%) 0.43	81 (11%) 0.67	52(7%) 0.68	39 (5%) 0.50

Table 1. Major tree genera in Hokkaido and their timber stocks and air-dried wood density.

Note: Values in parentheses express the proportion of total timber stock. Data on timber stock are from Hokkaido Prefecture (2011). Data on air-dried wood density are from FFPRI (2004) and refer to the following species: Fir: *Abies sachalinensis*, Larch: *Larix kaempferi*, Spruce: *Picea jezoensis*, Birch: *Betula maximowicziana*, Oak: *Quercus mongolica* var. *crispula*, Linden: *Tilia japonica*.

and high growth rate (Koike, 1988). As a result, birches play a key role in forest ecosystems, especially in boreal forests where the number of tree species is small. In Hokkaido, the northerly island in Japan, birch trees occupy about 11% of the total forest timber stock (Table 1), surpassing other genera in broadleaved forests (Hokkaido Prefecture, 2011). Moreover, birch has a high photosynthetic rate and responds rapidly to the environment (Koike, 1995a, 1988). Furthermore, birch wood is denser than that of almost all other dominant tree species in northern regions such as Hokkaido (FFPRI, 2004) and Alaska (Packee et al., 1992). The birch tree therefore has good carbon (C) accumulation capacity as well as its C assimilation capacity. The birch is regarded as an important tree in forest dynamics as well as commercial point.

In this review we describe the effects of elevated concentrations of CO₂ and/or O₃ on birch trees and forests. Although sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxide are still important issues of atmospheric environment in some region, rising CO2 and O3 concentrations have recently become more major concerns (Paoletti et al., 2010). These gases have effects on forest ecosystems including birch forest all around the world. Additionally, we focus on the similarity and difference for the traits of CO_2 and O_3 , both gases are absorbed through stomata on leaves but they bring opposite effects on tree. Different species of birch are all regarded as 'birches' and there are differences in characteristics within a genus, and even among individuals in a single species, in response to environmental changes (Vapaavuori et al., 2009).

2. EFFECTS OF CO₂

Increasing atmospheric CO₂ is a critical problem (IPCC, 2007), which can affect several physiological aspects of plants and biotic interactions between plants and insects (Körner *et al.*, 2007). Because a forest ecosystem consists of many trees, which contain various organs, we can detect the responses of whole tree through those organs: leaves, branches, stems and roots.

At leaf level, elevated CO₂ stimulates the rate of photosynthesis (the difference between the uptake and emission of CO_2) in the short-term. Over a long period, however, acclimation of plants to a higher concentration of CO_2 takes place; this process finally induces downward- or down-regulation of photosynthesis, observed in the decrease of photosynthetic parameters such as the maximum rate of carboxylation and the maximum rate of electron transport (Eguchi et al., 2008a; Cao et al., 2007; Zhang and Dang, 2006; Kitao et al., 2005; Rey and Jarvis, 1998; Tjoelker et al., 1998; Koike et al., 1996). The parameters specifying chlorophyll fluorescence, which indicates the stress condition of the photosynthetic pathway, suggests that elevated CO₂ should make birches more susceptible to stresses such as drought or heat (Kitao et al., 2007, 2005). It is obvious that elevated CO_2 affects the photosynthetic process, but over long timescales, elevated CO₂ may not increase C gain in birches very much.

Stomatal conductance is an important parameter, because it indicates gas exchange capacity such as photosynthesis and transpiration of a leaf. In most cases, elevated CO₂ decreases the stomatal conductance (Eguchi et al., 2008b; Zhang et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2007), implying that leaves can prevent water loss by narrowing their stomata. The decrease in stomatal conductance can also be explained as a consequence of the decrease in stomatal density of leaves (Kürschner et al., 1997; Rey and Jarvis, 1997). For individual trees, the reduced stomatal conductance of leaves does not always prevent water loss to the atmosphere, because of the higher total leaf area under elevated CO₂ (Kruijt et al., 1999). On the other hand, there is an exceptional case that stomatal conductance increased with CO2 enrichment (Kubiske and Pregitzer, 1997) and this may be due to increased root volume for water gain (Wang et al., 1998; Berntson et al., 1997).

Nitrogen (N) is a component of proteins, including the enzyme Ribulose-1,5-biphosphate-carboxylase/ oxygenase (Rubisco) which catalyzes the primary reaction involved in CO_2 assimilation in photosynthesis in



Fig. 1. Major trend in ecophysiological responses to elevated CO₂ in birch trees.

many plants; N concentrations in leaves tend to correlate positively with the photosynthetic rate (Lambers *et al.*, 2008; Cao *et al.*, 2007). In a high CO₂ environment, the leaf N concentration ordinarily decreases (Zhang *et al.*, 2008; Cao *et al.*, 2007; Mattson *et al.*, 2005; Juurola, 2003; Kuokkanen *et al.*, 2003; McDonald *et al.*, 1999; Tjoelker *et al.*, 1998; Kubiske and Pregitzer, 1996). The reduction in leaf N is partly explained by dilution of leaf N with more assimilates from photosynthesis under elevated CO₂, consistent with increased starch accumulation (Zhang *et al.*, 2008; Mattson *et al.*, 2005; Rey and Jarvis, 1998; Tjoelker *et al.*, 1998), which is believed to be a factor in the down-regulation of photosynthesis (Peterson *et al.*, 1999; Rey and Jarvis, 1998).

The C/N ratio (i.e. the ratio of C to N amount in plant tissue) is known to be a good indicator of leaf chemical characteristics. According to the results mentioned above, it is reasonable to suppose that the leaf C/N ratio increases with increasing CO₂ concentration (Koike et al., 2006; Mattson et al., 2005; Juurola, 2003). The increase in the C/N ratio brings changes in the photosynthetic capacity and also in defense capability against herbivores such as insects, which employs phenolic compounds accumulated in leaves. With some exceptions, Koike et al. (2006) and Wang et al. (2009) found a greater amount of tannin in leaves and an increased C/N ratio with CO₂ enrichment; also, herbivorous insects fed with leaves from a high CO₂ environment did less well. Other studies have also found changes in foliar chemical composition due to CO₂ enrichment (Ji et al., 2011; Mattson et al., 2005; Kuokkanen et al., 2003; McDonald et al., 1999). Because herbivory is an important component in C balance of trees, interactions between insect-herbivore and trees should also be taken into account in considering the effect on trees of atmospheric changes (Fig. 1).

An increase in leaf-level C due to CO_2 enrichment implies better growth of the whole tree, leading in turn to greater biomass of the tree (Kitao *et al.*, 2005; Castovsky and Bazzaz, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 1998; Berntson *et al.*, 1997; Rey and Jarvis, 1997; Wayne and Bazzaz, 1997; Poorter *et al.*, 1996) with much more available resources (Fig. 1).

A rise in CO₂ will also induce changes at broader ecological levels (Potvin et al., 2007), inducing changes not only in individual trees but in the overall tree population, tree community and the whole forest. Depending on the growth characteristics of tree species, and in the low-light conditions at the forest floor, shadetolerant trees (e.g. oak and maple) may grow better than shade-intolerant trees such as birch under elevated CO₂ (Sefcik *et al.*, 2006; Kerstiens, 1998; Kubiske and Pregitzer, 1996). Shade-intolerant trees are in fact more responsive to raised CO_2 than shade-tolerant trees in high-light environments such as open fields (Kubiske and Pregitzer, 1996). It is reasonable to consider that birch forests should expand into harsh fields by improving drought tolerance (Castovsky and Bazzaz, 1999) or nutrient acquisition with mycorrhiza (Berntson et al., 1997) at elevated CO₂ levels.

These studies show that high levels of CO_2 induce significant responses by birch trees and forests (Fig. 1). Most research set up experiments in which the ambient CO_2 concentration was set at 350 to 380 ppm, and elevated CO_2 at 500 to 720 ppm. The response of the forests is not necessarily linear with increasing CO_2 , and results over short periods are of little value to long-term prediction future, so it is necessary to conduct researches at high CO_2 levels over long periods in order to estimate the future of the forests. Interactions exist between environmental stress and elevated CO_2 (Song and Cheng, 2010; Luo *et al.*, 1999). Ozone is one such stress factor.

3. EFFECTS OF O₃

Ozone is formed in the troposphere by a photochemical reaction between hydrocarbons and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) , and human activity is responsible for a proportion of these (Stockwell et al., 1997). Since there is significant inter-continental transport of these O3 precursors (Nagashima et al., 2010; Naja and Akimoto, 2004), tropospheric O_3 pollution is a global problem (Sitch et al., 2007; Vingarzan, 2004; Akimoto, 2003). Ozone has very high oxidative capacity, and high O₃ concentrations cause injury to plants (Pellinen et al., 2002), although low concentrations of O₃ may stimulate plant growth (Jäger and Krupa, 2009; Yamaji et al., 2003). High O₃ levels eventually lead to significant reduction in whole-plant biomass, and perhaps increased susceptibility to other stresses such as insects or pathogens. Compared to preindustrial levels, the present O₃ level is likely to have reduced tree biomass by 7% in global terrestrial ecosystems (Wittig et al., 2009). The wood chemistry of pines (Smith, 1990) and the leaf surface characteristics of aspen (Percy et al., 2003, 2002) are affected by O₃, which renders trees susceptible to insect attack or pathogen infestation.

The impact of O_3 has been suggested by field observations such as tree-ring analysis in pine forests (Miller et al., 1997), and recent experiments now use OTCs or FACEs (Matyssek et al., 2010) in which trees are grown under gas treatments. Such kinds of researches revealed that damage or growth reduction of birch was observed even after O₃ treatment at low concentrations, meaning high sensitivity to O_3 (Betula pendula and Betula pubescens: Oksanen et al., 2009), but the O₃ sensitivity of birch may be less (*Betula platy*phylla: Yamaguchi et al., 2011; Kohno et al., 2005). Ozone sensitivity is variable among the genus Betula (Manninen et al., 2009; Oksanen and Rousi, 2001), and even among clones (genotypes) within the same species (Manninen et al., 2009; Oksanen, 2003) and this prevents us from generalizing unified O₃ effects on a single species.

Ozone is taken up mainly through leaf stomata, and exerts its toxicity upon foliar internal tissue (Tausz *et al.*, 2007). Stomatal O₃ uptake is largely responsible for the impact of O₃ on leaves and trees (Wittmann *et al.*, 2007). To explain the reduction in biomass of trees caused by O₃, a leaf-level stomatal flux-based model has been proposed in which non-stomatal O₃ deposition was taken into account (UNECE, 2004), improving on the conventional "accumulated exposure over a threshold" (AOT) model, which involves only the O₃ concentration. This novel flux-based model assumes that the leaves which are strongly irradiated by sunlight at the top of the canopy are responsible for the O₃ uptake of the tree. The flux-based model has been applied to several species (Emberson *et al.*, 2007) and its validity has been verified (Karlsson *et al.*, 2007; Uddling *et al.*, 2004). Hoshika *et al.* (2011a, b) used it to examine the spatial difference in maps created by flux-based and AOT modeling of forests in East Asia. Estimation of O₃ uptake by birch forests in China differed depending on the model, suggesting the importance of stomatal closure induced by water-stress in dry regions (Hoshika *et al.*, 2011a).

Here we shall review the responses of birches to O_3 stress. High O_3 damages chloroplasts (Prozherina *et al.*, 2003; Pääkkönen *et al.*, 1998) and reduces the photosynthetic rate (Mäenpää *et al.*, 2011; Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Uddling *et al.*, 2005; Shavnin *et al.*, 1999). This can be reflected in changes in chlorophyll fluorescence that reveals O_3 stress in photosynthetic pathways (Mao *et al.*, 2012; Wittmann *et al.*, 2007; Shavnin *et al.*, 1999). These negative effects of O_3 give rise to visible symptoms on leaves (Mao *et al.*, 2012; Vahala *et al.*, 2003).

It is generally believed that the stomatal conductance of birch is not significantly affected by O₃ (Matyssek et al., 2010; Wittig et al., 2007). Although Oksanen (2003) exceptionally reported that O_3 treatment had increased stomatal conductance, this could be attributed to increased stomatal density, which is common response to O₃ (Oksanen, 2005; Paoletti and Grulke, 2005; Pääkkönen et al., 1998; Maurer et al., 1997). Increase in stomatal density may be reflected in smaller leaf size under elevated O₃ (Oksanen, 2003, 2001; Oksanen and Saleem, 2001; Pääkkönen et al., 1998), for the ratio of guard cells (equal to stomata) to epidermal cells on leaf is unaffected by O_3 (Prozherina *et* al., 2003). In terms of the reason why stomatal conductance does not increase despite increased density of stomata under elevated O_3 , the effectiveness of low stomatal aperture against O₃ stress, or impaired photosynthetic pathway by O₃ seems to be a good answer (Paoletti and Grulke, 2005). There are cases where stomatal conductance decreased by O₃ (Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Oksanen et al., 2005a; Maurer et al., 1997). Above-mentioned inhibition of photosynthesis caused by O_3 , or exacerbation by other stresses (Oksanen et al., 2005a; Maurer et al., 1997) might cause the decrease in stomatal conductance. Altogether, responses of stomatal conductance to O_3 can be variable even in a single species (Betula pendula: Oksanen, 2005), and stomatal conductance alone should not be an indicator of O₃ stress.

Chemical compounds in leaf can be altered by O₃. Although N concentration in green leaf is not affected



Fig. 2. Major trend in ecophysiological responses to elevated O₃ in birch trees.

by O₃ so much (Manninen et al., 2009; Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Karlsson et al., 2003; Oksanen and Rousi, 2001; Saleem et al., 2001; Oksanen and Saleem, 1999; Pääkkönen et al., 1998), N concentration in leaf litter (fallen leaves) increased by O_3 treatment, suggesting the impaired capacity of trans-locating N from senescent leaves to tree body (Uddling *et al.*, 2005). This may lead increased N loss at the whole tree level. On the other hand, ozone reduces the Rubisco concentration (Oksanen, 2005; Yamaji et al., 2003; Oksanen and Rousi, 2001) and the concentration of chlorophyll (Wittmann et al., 2007; Oksanen et al., 2005a; Oksanen and Saleem, 1999; Shavnin et al., 1999) in leaves, which is involved in photosynthesis and consists of N as well as Rubisco. We believe that the allocation pattern of N in a leaf changes and much N is needed for repair of damaged tissue, resulting in impaired photosynthesis. Some other researchers did not observe decreases in chlorophyll or Rubisco (Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Saleem et al., 2001) despite decreases in the photosynthetic rate (Shimizu and Feng, 2007). It is possible that the slower photosynthetic rate is due to a decrease in stomatal conductance as a result from exclusion of O_3 from leaves (Shimizu and Feng, 2007).

In the tree, ozone stimulates detoxification substances such as phenolic compounds (Oksanen, 2005; Yamaji *et al.*, 2003; Saleem *et al.*, 2001; Pääkkönen *et al.*, 1998). Sugars for the formation of these substances in leaves may be increased (Landolt *et al.*, 1997) whereas starch may decrease (Oksanen, 2003; Oksanen, 2001; Saleem *et al.*, 2001) under O₃ treatment. Antioxidants such as ascorbates are believed to be stimulated in leaves by O₃, but this is not certain (Riikonen *et al.*, 2009). These reports above indicate stimulated C metabolism by O₃. As well as N, the allocation pattern of C also changes so that trees can cope with O₃ stress rather than invest C in their growth (Fig. 2).

Moreover, ozone stress also reduces the chance of C acquisition, with shorter leaf longevity (Oksanen, 2005; Uddling et al., 2005; Prozherina et al., 2003; Maurer et al., 1997), or with decreased leaf biomass (Manninen et al., 2009; Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Oksanen, 2001; Oksanen and Rousi, 2001), leaf area (Oksanen, 2001; Saleem et al., 2001; Oksanen and Saleem, 1999; Pääkkönen et al., 1998), and leaf number (Oksanen and Rousi, 2001; Pääkkönen *et al.*, 1998) per tree, in addition to impaired photosynthesis. Such C deficiency may lead to the reduction in tree growth at elevated O₃ (Manninen et al., 2009; Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Karlsson et al., 2003; Oksanen, 2001; Maurer and Matyssek, 1997), which in turn reflects in the growth of tree organ. Decreased stem growth (Matyssek et al., 2002) implies increased risk of stem breakage by disturbances such as wind and snow, and decreased root growth (Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Karlsson et al., 2003; Matsumura, 2001; Oksanen, 2001; Oksanen and Rousi, 2001) means water- and nutrient deficiency in birch trees under O₃ stress.

Although such biomass reductions have been observed in most cases, O_3 -induced compensatory responses have been reported, yielding either greater leaf biomass (Wittmann *et al.*, 2007; Karlsson *et al.*, 2003) or greater stem height (Oksanen and Rousi, 2001) or both (Yamaji *et al.*, 2003). Perhaps the annual growth patterns of trees (Kolb and Matyssek, 2003) or hormesis, i.e., growth stimulation by toxins at low concentrations (Jäger and Krupa, 2009) are related to this process.

In the way described, O_3 has a negative impact on the growth of birch trees, in contrast to the effect of CO_2 (Fig. 2). However, it is not easy to estimate interactions between O_3 and other stresses, and there are difficulties in scaling from results of individual- or population level experiments to a mature community (Matyssek and Sandermann, 2003). Drought (or watering) or application of fertilizer has been used in combination with O_3 (drought: Shimizu and Feng, 2007; Pääkkönen *et al.*, 1998; fertilization: Shavnin *et al.*, 1999; Landolt *et al.*, 1997; Maurer and Matyssek, 1997; Maurer *et al.*, 1997). Since these environmental factors and high CO₂ can influence and even negate the effect of O_3 (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2011), sensitivity to O_3 of every tree species must be evaluated according to the physical environment around trees (i.e., soil moisture or soil nutrient).

4. COMBINED EFFECTS OF CO₂ AND O₃

Of several types of environmental stress, O₃ was the strongest interactive factor with the atmospheric CO₂ concentration, because high CO₂ greatly mitigated the effect of O₃ on trees (Poorter and Pérez-Soba, 2001). It is important to assess the impacts of these gases on forests, because the gases are first absorbed through stomata into the leaf and may largely counteract the effects of each other. Mortensen (1995) first looked at the combined effects of CO_2 and O_3 on birch. The experimental period was relatively short, about one month, but the concentrations of the gases were about 560 ppm for (elevated) CO₂ and about 60 ppb for (elevated) O₃, which are realistic values. The Aspen FACE in the north-central USA is the only site that enables a free-air enrichment system of CO₂ and O₃ to forest stands, and many data gathered there have been published on the effect of elevated CO_2 and O_3 on birch forests (Karnosky et al., 2005, 2003b). King et al. (2005) reported a 5-year study at the Aspen FACE, revealing larger differences between treatments at the longer timescale. In many cases the increases in the biomass of birch trees due to elevated CO2 were weakened in the presence of high O_3 (*Betula papyrifera*: Kostiainen et al., 2008; King et al., 2005; Betula pubescens: Mortensen, 1995), but Riikonen et al. (2004: Betula pendula) and Matsumura et al. (2005: Betula platyphylla) found compensation, namely that combined treatment with both elevated CO₂ and O₃ resulted in no growth reduction compared to the trees under elevated CO₂ alone. There seems to be species difference in responses to the treatments among birch trees.

The compensated biomass under higher CO_2 and O_3 regimes is reflected in the difference in growth increment of trees (Kostiainen *et al.*, 2006; Riikonen *et al.*, 2004), which is further mediated by leaf processes. Responses of trees in the amount of foliage (Talhelm *et al.*, 2012; King *et al.*, 2005; Riikonen *et al.*, 2004) and also in the total leaf area (Uddling *et al.*, 2008; Kull *et al.*, 2005; Riikonen *et al.*, 2004) are

significant, as elevated CO_2 alleviated the negative effects of O_3 . These parameters may be affected by the treatments through changes in spatial leaf distribution within trees (Kull *et al.*, 2003), leaf size (Riikonen *et al.*, 2010, 2008a; Peltonen *et al.*, 2005; Mortensen, 1995), and leaf thickness (Riikonen *et al.*, 2010, 2008a, 2004; Oksanen *et al.*, 2005b; Eichelmann *et al.*, 2004).

Negative effects of O_3 on many photosynthetic parameters were alleviated by high CO_2 (Riikonen *et al.*, 2008a, 2005; Eichelmann *et al.*, 2004; Karnosky *et al.*, 2003b). Analyses of chlorophyll fluorescence indicated that the stress condition of the photosynthetic system caused by O_3 alone was relieved in a mixture of elevated CO_2 and O_3 (Kontunen-Soppela *et al.*, 2010; Riikonen *et al.*, 2005). For down-regulation of photosynthesis, which is typically triggered by high CO_2 concentrations, Riikonen *et al.* (2005) found little effect of O_3 alone or in combination with elevated CO_2 .

Ozone uptake to leaves was limited under elevated CO_2+O_3 conditions, as a result of lower stomatal conductance than in the ambient CO₂ environment (Uddling et al., 2009; Riikonen et al., 2008a, b, 2005; Padu et al., 2005). Based on these works, we understand that the O₃-induced depression of photosynthesis is slightly improved by high CO_2 at the leaf level. However, Uddling *et al.* (2010) stated that high CO_2 reduced stomatal conductance in only a single piece of FACE experiments. Canopy conductance is believed to increase, largely because of increased foliage and root biomass under elevated $CO_2 + O_3$ conditions (Uddling et al., 2009). Stomata act to exclude O₃ from leaves, but some defense functions within a leaf, such as accumulation of antioxidants, may be more effective than stomatal closure in reducing damage due to O_3 (Padu et al., 2005; Peltonen et al., 2005). There is no clear trend in the response of stomatal density to changes in elevated CO₂/O₃ (Riikonen et al., 2010, 2008b; Oksanen et al., 2005b; Vanhatalo et al., 2001). More studies on stomatal density should be conducted, because sample number in each study is very low.

The amount and the activity of Rubisco were decreased by elevated CO_2 or O_3 treatment; Rubisco also decreased under the combination treatment (Kontunen-Soppela *et al.*, 2010; Riikonen *et al.*, 2005; Eichelmann *et al.*, 2004). Elevated CO_2 induced a decrease in the leaf N concentration whether or not O_3 was elevated (Riikonen *et al.*, 2005), and the combination of the gases reduces leaf N more than treatments with either high CO_2 or high O_3 (Agrell *et al.*, 2005; Kopper *et al.*, 2001; Lindroth *et al.*, 2001). Also, the starch concentration in leaves tends to increase under a combination of elevated CO_2+O_3 more than in high concentrations of CO_2 or O_3 alone (Riikonen *et al.*, 2008a; Agrell *et al.*, 2005; Lindroth *et al.*, 2001; Kopper *et al.*, 2001). Consequently, we can say that the photosynthetic down-regulation in birch can be exacerbated under higher CO_2 and O_3 regime.

Birch leaves are relatively undesirable as food for insects when the concentrations of CO₂ and O₃ are both high because phenolic compounds increases more under CO₂+O₃ enrichment than with CO₂ alone (Peltonen et al., 2010; Karonen et al., 2006; Agrell et al., 2005; Kopper et al., 2001; Lindroth et al., 2001). Besides aboveground C dynamics, atmospheric changes can alter belowground C dynamics through changes in foliar chemistry. Fallen leaves decompose on forest soil. Much work has focused on changes in decomposition rate of leaf litter (Parsons et al., 2008; Kasurinen et al., 2007, 2006). Elevated O₃ accelerated, and elevated CO₂ delayed, the decomposition of leaves. There was an interactive effect, such that the decomposition rate was slowest under the combined treatment (Parsons et al., 2008). The decomposition of leaves by soil microbes and living roots of trees involves respiration, and has been investigated. Only CO₂ treatment causes difference in soil respiration in general (Kasurinen et al., 2004; King et al., 2001), but the combination treatments yielded the highest respiration rates (Pregitzer et al., 2006; Kasurinen et al., 2004). These interactive results might be due to changes in soil temperature which is affected by leaf area (Pregitzer et al., 2006). Therefore, under elevated CO₂ and O₃ regime, CO₂ emission from forest soil may offset increased C sequestration capacity of the soil.

Nutrient dynamics in forest soil is similarly affected. Elevated CO_2 increased, and elevated O_3 decreased, the input of many nutrients to soil (Talhelm et al., 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2007). This is due to litter amount, and O_3 has also detrimental effects on soil microbes controlling soil N dynamics, with which mineralization, nitrification, and immobilization processes are all involved (Holmes et al., 2003), and on mycorrhizae (Kasurinen et al., 2005). In this way, belowground changes in soil nutrient, in mycorrhiza association, and in root volume are considered to cause aboveground responses to atmospheric changes (Zak et al., 2007a; Kasurinen et al., 2005; Holmes et al., 2003). In addition, since the responses in N acquisition of birch and aspen trees to changing CO_2/O_3 regimes clearly differ (Zak *et al.*, 2007b), the better survival of birch than aspen when they grow together (Kubiske et al., 2007) implies changes in the community composition of birch forests in the future. Changes in nutrient concentration of plant bodies might therefore have a large effect on future ecosystem dynamics through complex processes (Lindroth, 2010), and we do not have any unified trends especially in interactive effects of elevated CO_2 and O_3 on belowground processes.

Darbah *et al.* (2008) found that O_3 stimulated flowering of the birch trees, and CO_2 improved the seed quality. It is possible that allergy due to birch pollen will increase in the future. As the greatest amount of catkins under combined CO_2+O_3 treatment indicated (Vanhatalo *et al.*, 2003), O_3 may accelerate aging of birch trees; the trees come into bloom at a younger age, and a greater C amount under elevated CO_2 gives rise to higher seed biomass (Riikonen *et al.*, 2004). Interactions of these gases in the future may lead to changes in propagation process of birch trees.

Overall, negative effects of O_3 are alleviated under elevated CO_2 . It is easy to overestimate or underestimate the structure and function of birch forests when either of elevated CO_2 or O_3 alone is considered. Although there are many publications, most derive from researches in the Aspen FACE or in Finland, not Asian birch forests. Because uncertainties still exist about photosynthesis, especially regarding stomatal response (Onandia *et al.*, 2011) and down-regulation, and C/N allocation for repair of leaves, it is particularly important to determine how CO_2 and O_3 , independently and together, influence photosynthetic and metabolic pathways.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Changes in tree biomass caused by rising atmospheric CO₂ and O₃ have been confirmed. Because of enriched CO₂, birch forests are likely to accumulate much C in the future, particularly if tropospheric O_3 is low. Where the O_3 level is high, the fertilization effect of CO_2 will be reduced. For photosynthesis and for withintree allocation of C and N, the responses to changing CO_2 and O_3 have not yet been quantified adequately because the researchers have been reported variable results. There are not size-dependent, or species-specific differences in response to the gas treatments in most cases. The number of birch species used in the experiments is about 10. The ages and/or sizes of the trees in the experiments are comparable. Although the degree of compensation in biomass under elevated CO_2 plus O_3 regimes tends to differ depending on the species, other responses under the condition may vary rather than have general trends. This is considered to be results from experimental condition such as soil environment or short-term responses to other stresses. Furthermore, scaling presents further difficulties (Kolb and Matyssek, 2003; Matyssek and Sandermann, 2003). Responses to O_3 may differ between juvenile and mature trees, due to differences in the amount of

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living tissue which involves respiratory costs, stomatal aperture, C allocation and the light conditions in the tree canopy (Kolb and Matyssek, 2003). Responses of mature birch trees have not been elucidated experimentally. On the other hand, high CO_2/O_3 treatment for short periods could cause long-term carry-ever effects (Oksanen and Saleem, 2001; Rey and Jarvis, 1997), so that it is reasonable to consider the effects of atmospheric change by seedling experiments. Field surveys of trees and their environmental conditions, and comparison of the resulting data, should make it possible to find a new factor currently missing but evidently needed to determine responses to environmental stresses.

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