

Correlation of foliage and litter chemistry of sugar maple, *Acer saccharum*, as affected by elevated CO₂ and varying N availability, and effects on decomposition

J. S. King, K. S. Pregitzer, D. R. Zak, M. E. Kubiske and W. E. Holmes

King, J. S., Pregitzer, K. S., Zak, D. R., Kubiske, M. E. and Holmes, W. E. 2001. Correlation of foliage and litter chemistry of sugar maple, *Acer saccharum*, as affected by elevated CO₂ and varying N availability, and effects on decomposition. – Oikos 94: 403–416.

Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide has the potential to alter leaf litter chemistry, potentially affecting decomposition and rates of carbon and nitrogen cycling in forest ecosystems. This study was conducted to determine whether growth under elevated atmospheric CO₂ altered the quality and microbial decomposition of leaf litter of a widely distributed northern hardwood species at sites of low and high soil nitrogen availability. In addition, we assessed whether the carbon–nutrient balance (CNB) and growth differentiation balance (GDB) hypotheses could be extended to predict changes in litter quality in response to resource availability. Sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*) was grown in the field in open-top chambers at 36 and 55 Pa partial pressure CO₂, and initial soil mineralization rates of 45 and 348 µg N g⁻¹ d⁻¹. Naturally senesced leaf litter was assessed for chemical composition and incubated in the laboratory for 111 d. Microbial respiration and the production of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were quantified as estimates of decomposition. Elevated CO₂ and low soil nitrogen resulted in higher litter concentrations of nonstructural carbohydrates and condensed tannins, higher C/N ratios and lower N concentrations. Soil N availability appears to have had a greater effect on litter quality than did atmospheric CO₂, although the treatments were additive, with highest concentrations of nonstructural carbohydrates and condensed tannins occurring under elevated CO₂–low soil N. Rates of microbial respiration and the production of DOC were insensitive to differences in litter quality. In general, concentrations of litter constituents, except for starch, were highly correlated to those in live foliage, and the CNB/GDB hypotheses proved useful in predicting changes in litter quality. We conclude the chemical composition of sugar maple litter will change in the future in response to rising atmospheric CO₂, and that soil N availability will exert a major control. It appears that microbial metabolism will not be directly affected by changes in litter quality, although conclusions regarding decomposition as a whole must consider the entire soil food web.

J. S. King and K. S. Pregitzer, School of Forestry and Wood Products, Michigan Technological Univ., Houghton, MI 49931, USA (jsking@mtu.edu) (KSP also at USDA Forest Service, North Central Research Station, Houghton, MI 49931, USA). – D. R. Zak and W. E. Holmes, School of Natural Resources and Environment, Univ. of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA. – M. E. Kubiske, Dept of Forestry, Mississippi State Univ., Mississippi State, MS 39762, USA.

There is little doubt that conditions for plant growth are changing due to human activity. Changes in land use have the greatest direct impact on plant and animal communities (Vitousek 1994), but society is also rendering more subtle, yet continuous changes to global element cycles that may ultimately have a more extensive

Accepted 12 March 2001

Copyright © OIKOS 2001

ISSN 0030-1299

Printed in Ireland – all rights reserved

influence on ecosystem function. By increasing the availability of limiting resources for plant growth, human activities may be changing complex feedback relationships with unforeseen results. In particular, concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) and rates of nitrogen deposition are projected to continue rising well into the next century (Galloway et al. 1995, Houghton et al. 1996), and both are expected to directly affect net primary production and ecosystem C-N cycling. Hypothesized effects range from alteration of competitive relationships and community dynamics (Patterson and Flint 1980, Strain and Bazzaz 1983, Wray and Strain 1987), accelerated rates of insect herbivory (Lincoln et al. 1993, Williams et al. 1994), greater net primary productivity (Eamus and Jarvis 1989, Amthor 1995), and greater C sequestration in soils through reduced rates of decomposition as a result of altered litter quality (Lambers 1993, van de Geijn and van Veen 1993, Cotrufo et al. 1994).

Two main hypotheses have guided our thinking about how changes in resource availability will affect plant secondary metabolism and consequent chemical composition of tissue, as reviewed recently by Koricheva et al. (1998). The carbon-nutrient balance (CNB) hypothesis (Bryant et al. 1983) postulates that concentrations of carbon-based secondary compounds (CBSC) increase under conditions favoring carbohydrate accumulation in excess of that needed for growth. This hypothesis predicts lower concentrations of CBSCs when growth is enhanced more than photosynthesis (e.g. under fertilization), but higher concentrations when photosynthesis is stimulated more than growth (high light, elevated CO₂). Very similar predictions are obtained by the growth differentiation balance (GDB) hypothesis (Loomis 1932, Lorio 1986, Herms and Mattson 1992). This model states that growth is generally limited by water and nutrients, whereas differentiation (chemical and morphological changes that occur in maturing cells) depends on available carbohydrates. Therefore, production of CBSCs (a differentiation process) is enhanced when factors other than photosynthate supply are sub-optimal for growth. In general, plant responses are consistent with the two hypotheses when considering pooled CBSCs and carbohydrates, but less so for biosynthetically distinct compounds, such as hydrolyzable tannins and terpenoids (Koricheva et al. 1998). CBSCs are considered a major defense mechanism of plants against herbivores (Feeny 1976, Rhoades and Cates 1976), but little is known about the relationship between altered foliage chemistry and the quality of leaf litter as a substrate for soil microorganisms (Findlay et al. 1996).

Strain and Bazzaz (1983) hypothesized that rates of N and P mineralization might be reduced due to slower decomposition of plant litter produced under elevated atmospheric CO₂, caused primarily by increased C/N and C/P ratios, or higher amounts of protective

polyphenols. We refer to this as the “negative feedback” hypothesis. Since that time a vigorous debate has ensued in the literature, with researchers reporting results that both support, and fail to support, this hypothesis. In a recent review of the CO₂-decomposition literature Norby and O’Neill (1996) found that many of the earlier studies performed with small potted plants, often grown in growth chambers, exhibited reduced litter quality and slower rates of decomposition, while larger-scale experiments (open-top chambers) found little or no effect. Thus, experimental approach must be considered when interpreting results. More recently, scientists convening at an international symposium addressing the effects of elevated CO₂ on litter decomposition concluded there is insufficient evidence to support the negative feedback hypothesis (Norby and Cotrufo 1998). As researchers continue to report results that both support (Ball and Drake 1997, Prior et al. 1997; Robinson et al. 1997, Cotrufo et al. 1998, Torbert et al. 1998, Van Ginkel and Gorissen 1998) and fail to support (Coûteaux et al. 1991, Cotrufo et al. 1994, Cotrufo and Ineson 1995, Norby and O’Neill 1996, Randlett et al. 1996, King et al. 2001) the hypothesis, it is clear that a quantitative synthesis (i.e. meta-analysis) of the CO₂-decomposition literature, as well as further experimentation at more realistic scales (e.g. free air carbon dioxide enrichment) are warranted. Furthermore, as different stages of the decomposition process may respond differently to elevated CO₂ (Hättenschwiler et al. 1999), we must be cognizant of effects specific to both micro- and macro-decomposers in early and late stages of decay.

The current work has two goals. First, to ascertain whether growth under elevated atmospheric CO₂ will alter the microbial decomposition of leaf litter of a widely distributed north temperate tree species under conditions of both high and low N availability. Second, by comparing the chemical composition of leaves at the peak of physiological activity and after senescence, we test whether predictions of the CNB and GDB hypotheses can be extended to litter, at least for sugar maple (*Acer saccharum* Marsh.). These hypotheses may form a useful conceptual framework for considering how changes in environmental factors will affect the cycling of C in forest ecosystems as mediated by soil microbial communities. Sugar maple is highly shade-tolerant and has determinate growth (Barnes and Wagner 1981). It is characterized by relatively low rates of photosynthesis and growth, and production of CBSCs is stimulated by elevated atmospheric CO₂ (Lindroth 1996). In North America, it is distributed from Nova Scotia, west to Ontario and Minnesota, south to Missouri and east to Tennessee and North Carolina (Godman et al. 1990). Across its range it is an important commercial species, and is used for hardwood lumber and maple syrup.

To examine the interactive effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ and varying soil N availability on sugar maple leaf litter quality and decomposition, we conducted an open-top chamber experiment at the University of Michigan Biological Station. After the second growing season under the experimental treatments, naturally senesced leaf litter was collected from the chambers and incubated in the laboratory, where rates of decomposition were related to chemical quality. In accordance with the CNB/GDB hypotheses, we expected to see higher concentrations of non-structural carbohydrates in litter produced under elevated CO₂ or low N availability. We hypothesized this would be accompanied by higher concentrations of CBCs in litter and reduced rates of decomposition.

Methods

Field site

In the spring of 1997, a randomized complete block design of CO₂ and soil N treatments was established in an open-top chamber facility at the University of Michigan Biological Station, near Pellston, MI. The 20 open-top chambers measured 3 m in diameter, and were of a design commonly used in elevated CO₂ research (Rogers et al. 1983, Pregitzer et al. 1995, Tissue et al. 1996). The CO₂ fumigation system has been described previously (Curtis et al. 2000, King et al. 2001). Briefly, it consisted of a centrally located intake line that monitored ambient atmospheric CO₂ concentration and sample lines and CO₂ dispensing lines distributed to each elevated CO₂ chamber (10 chambers). Ambient and treatment sample lines were switched to a Li-Cor 6262 infra-red gas analyzer by a computer control system that also recorded 2-min averages of CO₂ concentration every 22 min over a 24-h period. Carbon dioxide dispensing lines ran from a common manifold connected to a 6-ton liquid CO₂ reservoir, through individual volume flow regulators, and out to each elevated CO₂ chamber. Carbon dioxide concentrations in each chamber were monitored over the course of the day and flow rates adjusted manually to maintain the treatment differential at + 20 Pa (± 10%).

Chambers were fumigated continuously from 17 April 1998 to 23 October 1998. Mean daytime ambient and elevated CO₂ concentrations (standard deviation) were 36.85 Pa (2.51) and 55.92 Pa (2.73), respectively. The chambers were installed above open-bottom root boxes (3.5 m × 3.5 m × 0.5 m) filled with one of two soil mixes (Pregitzer et al. 1995). The soil mixes resulted in levels of N-availability characteristic of the range found in the northern Great Lakes region (Zak and Pregitzer 1990). The high N-availabil-

ity soil consisted of a homogenized A-horizon of a Kalkaska series soil (sandy, mixed, frigid, Entic Haplorthod) having a net initial N-mineralization rate of 348 μg N g⁻¹ d⁻¹. The low N-availability soil consisted of a 4:1 mix of Rubicon series C-horizon soil (sandy, mixed, frigid, Entic Haplorthod) with A-horizon of the Kalkaska series soil and had a net initial N-mineralization rate of 45 μg N g⁻¹ d⁻¹. Other physical and chemical properties of the soil mixes can be found in Curtis et al. (2000).

Maple seed was collected from a wild source in Baraga County, Michigan, in autumn 1996, refrigerated moist, and propagated in March 1997. Twelve sugar maple seedlings approximately 10 cm tall were planted in the chambers in early spring 1997 in association with 12 trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx.), and the chambers were maintained free of understory vegetation. Because the growth of aspen was much more rapid than that of sugar maple, analysis of litter chemistry and decomposition for that species was performed in the first year of the study (King et al. 2001). Sugar maple was allowed to grow for the entire 1997 and 1998 growing seasons before sampling was conducted for the current study. Live foliage was sampled at the peak of physiological activity (30 August 1998) by randomly selecting a fully expanded leaf from the middle of the canopy of four randomly selected trees. This material was flash frozen with dry ice, lyophilized, ground to pass a 0.5-mm mesh, and stored at -20°C. Near the end of the season, all senesced foliage (litter) that had fallen to the floor of the chambers was collected each morning and allowed to air dry in a nearby greenhouse. All litter was composited by chamber and ground in a Wiley mill to pass a 4-mm mesh that created large fragments simulating coarse leaf litter. A subset of this material was ground to pass a 0.5-mm mesh, and chemical determinations for the live foliage and litter were carried out immediately thereafter.

Laboratory incubations

To assess litter quality effects on decomposition, laboratory incubations were initiated using the coarsely ground, air-dried litter in January 1999. One gram of this material was placed in the top compartment of modified microlysimeters (Falcon Filter Unit #7102, Becton Dickinson and Co., Cockeysville, MD; Zak et al. 1993). Fiberglass screen with 1 mm mesh separated litter from 40 g of homogenized sand that had been inoculated with sieved A-horizon soil collected from a forest adjacent to the field site. The sieved soil mix was placed on glass-fiber filter paper (1.7 μm pore size) that divided the top and bottom portions of the microlysimeters. The four outlets in the microlysimeters (2 top, 2 bottom) were closed with butyl rubber septa and all seams were sealed with silicone

sealant. The incubations were started by initially extracting the litter and soil with 50 ml 0.01 M CaCl₂ (Herbert and Bertsch 1995, Randlett et al. 1996), flushing the units with CO₂-free air, and placing them in an incubator at 25°C.

The incubation was started with eight complete sets of microlysimeters (25 units/set), which included five replicates of each field treatment (CO₂, soil N), and five blanks that contained soil mix but no litter. One set was destructively harvested every two weeks. At each harvest, a sample of headspace gas from each unit was collected through a septum with a syringe and temporarily stored in a sealed 3-ml serum vial. Litter and soil within the units was extracted with 50 mL of 0.01 M CaCl solution (Herbert and Bertsch 1995), which was collected in the bottom half of the microlysimeters by placing them under a vacuum. The extracts were collected with a large syringe, passed through a 0.45-µm filter into sample bottles, acidified to pH 2–3 with HCl and stored at 4°C to inhibit microbial growth. Tissue samples were collected by removing the fiberglass screen to which most of the solid material adhered. These were placed in paper envelopes, frozen, and freeze-dried to constant mass. All remaining units were extracted with 0.01 M CaCl₂, fertilized with 25 mL of a dilute nutrient solution containing 0.002 M CaCl₂, 0.002 M MgCl₂, 0.005 M KCl, and 0.005 M Ca(H₂PO₄)₂ to replace nutrients lost during the extractions, flushed with CO₂-free air, and returned to the incubator (Randlett et al. 1996).

Chemical determinations

Carbon dioxide concentrations of the headspace gas were determined by injecting samples into a Tracor Model 540 gas chromatograph (San Jose, CA) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector. Concentrations of total dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the CaCl₂ extracts were determined using a Shimadzu TOC-5000A (Wooddale, IL) total organic carbon analyzer, which oxidizes the sample with a Pt on alumina catalyst (680°C) to quantify total carbon content in samples from which inorganic carbon (i.e. CO₂) has been removed. Total carbon (% C) and total nitrogen (% N) in the decomposed litter samples were measured using a Carlo Erba NA1500 Series II elemental analyzer (Beverly, MA) run with National Institute of Standards and Technology pine needle and peach leaf standards.

Total nonstructural carbohydrates (starch and soluble sugars) in the decomposed leaf samples were quantified using the method of Tissue and Wright (1995). Samples were extracted with methanol:chloroform:water to release soluble sugars and the remaining pellet was digested with 35% perchloric acid to hydrolyze starch into soluble sugars. Both soluble

and insoluble sugars (i.e. starch) were quantified colorimetrically by comparing sample absorption to that of glucose standards. Condensed tannins were chosen to characterize the response of C-based secondary compounds because they are known to respond to elevated atmospheric CO₂ in sugar maple foliage (Lindroth 1996) and play an important role in the decomposition process (Horner et al. 1988, Tiarks et al. 1992, Schimel et al. 1996). Condensed tannins were determined after hydrolysis in acid butanol (Porter et al. 1986, Hagerman and Butler 1989). Samples (75 mg) were extracted with an acetone-ascorbic acid mixture. Extracts (500 µl of sample) were treated with acid butanol and ferric-ammonium sulfate activated with HCl, and heated at 100°C for 50 min. Absorbance of the extracts was read with a spectrophotometer and compared to a standard curve prepared from purified Quebracho tannin. Because the reactivity of condensed tannins varies by species, concentrations expressed here as Quebracho equivalents should only be used as an index of relative treatment responses and not expressions of absolute amounts.

Statistical analyses

Effects of CO₂ and soil N availability on tissue chemistry and decomposition were tested using two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) for a randomized complete-block design. Effect of physiological status (live foliage vs litter) on chemical parameters was tested by including a "state" variable in the model (live or dead). This split-plot ANOVA converted the analysis to a repeated measures design, with the split-plot effect corresponding to time (Meredith and Stehman 1991). The experimentwise error rate for the multiple statistical tests on the decomposition data was controlled by dividing the overall level of confidence (α) by the number of tests on each response variable. Differences in rates of decline of litter constituent concentrations were tested by fitting the semi-log regression model $\ln C = -kt + \ln(C_0)$, where C_0 and C are the constituent concentrations at time = 0 and subsequent time periods, respectively, $-k$ is the constant, fractional loss rate and t is time (d). Rearranging and taking antilogarithms of both sides of this equation expresses the fraction remaining as the familiar exponential decay model $C/C_0 = e^{-kt}$ (Olson 1963). Differences in rates of decline were indicated by significant interactions between the experimental treatments (CO₂ or N availability) and time. Inspection of residuals and normal probability plots ensured data conformed to the assumptions of ANOVA, and when necessary, data were log or square root transformed to normalize variances across treatments (Sokal and Rohlf 1995). The overall level of confidence was maintained at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Results

Foliage and litter quality

Production of foliage as estimated by total litter biomass ranged from 107.6 g to 229.9 g, and increased significantly (Table 1) due to both elevated CO₂ (42%) and high soil N availability (45%). Concentrations of soluble sugars ranged from 49.4 to 89.0 mg/g in foliage, and 20.7 to 43.3 mg/g in litter and exhibited a significant CO₂ × N × Time interaction. The response to elevated CO₂ was modified by level of N availability, and the transition to litter strongly reduced soluble sugar concentrations (Table 1). Under ambient CO₂, the reduction in soluble sugar concentration due to high soil N availability was 25% for foliage and 52% in litter, whereas under elevated CO₂ the reduction in foliage was 44% while that in litter was 24%. Starch concentrations ranged from 72.4 to 108.0 mg/g in foliage and 68.2 to 81.0 mg/g in litter and, in contrast to soluble sugars, were affected to a similar extent by CO₂, soil N availability and time main effects. Averaged over the other factors, elevated CO₂ resulted in a 14% increase in starch, while high soil N availability resulted in a 13% decline. Similarly, the transition to litter resulted in an average 16% decline in starch concentrations.

Condensed tannin concentrations were markedly different between foliage (195 to 588 mg/g) and litter (1.31 to 3.31 mg/g) (Table 1). All treatment main effects were highly significant, and significant two-way interactions with time would seem to indicate that responses to the CO₂ and soil N availability treatments were different for foliage and litter. However, elevated CO₂ caused a 39% increase in condensed tannins in foliage and a 34% increase in litter. Similarly, high soil N availability caused a 49% decrease in foliage and a 46% decrease in litter. We believe this apparent inconsistency between the statistical tests and responses stems from the overwhelmingly large effect of time on condensed tannin concentrations, making interpretation of interactions between time and the other factors in the split-plot analysis problematic. Independent ANOVAs on the foliage and litter confirm the CO₂ and soil N availability main effects, with no significant CO₂ × N interactions (data not shown), and from the data presented here it is obvious the effects of time were highly significant.

Nitrogen concentration ranged from 11.96 to 21.08 mg/g in foliage and 4.96 to 10.12 mg/g in litter, and all main effects were highly significant (Table 1). A significant CO₂ × Time interaction was due a greater reduction in N concentration in elevated compared to ambient CO₂-grown foliage (18%) vs litter (15%). The N main effect resulted from much higher concentrations of N in foliage (43% greater) and litter (75% greater) produced at high soil N availability. C/N ratios ranged from 22.16 to 40.05 in foliage and 43.60 to 86.60 in litter, and all main effects were highly significant (Table

1). The increase in C/N ratio due to elevated CO₂ (litter and foliage) ranged from 22 to 26% at both high and low soil N availability, except in litter at low N, which exhibited a 6% decrease, resulting in the significant CO₂ × N × Time interaction.

Litter decomposition

Soluble sugar concentrations declined to less than 10 mg/g after d 28, and approached zero by the end of the incubation (Fig. 1A). Effects of elevated CO₂ and soil N availability were not significant (Table 2), the differences in soluble sugar concentrations between treatments being nominal (Fig. 1A). Starch concentrations declined 39% to an average of 47.04 mg/g after 111 d (Fig. 1B). Treatment effects on starch concentrations were not significant at any time during the incubation (Table 2).

Initially, concentrations of condensed tannins in litter were affected by atmospheric CO₂ and soil N availability (Table 1). Over the course of the incubation, however, only the N availability treatment remained significant (Table 2). Litter produced at low N had consistently higher concentrations, until the last harvest at 112 d (Fig. 1C). Condensed tannin concentrations declined exponentially, and regression analysis indicated that the rate of decline was significantly greater for litter produced at low compared to high N availability ($P = 0.015$).

Nitrogen concentration of the initial, and decomposing litter was significantly affected by both the N availability and atmospheric CO₂ treatments (Fig. 2A, Tables 1, 2). Nitrogen concentration was 60% higher, on average, in litter produced at high compared to low N availability. It was 16% lower, on average, in litter produced at elevated compared to ambient CO₂. A CO₂ × N interaction occurred due to a much greater effect of elevated CO₂ at high compared to low N availability (Fig. 2A). Although this appears to have been consistent throughout the incubation, variation in the data was such that it was statistically significant on only one of the eight harvest dates (Table 2). N concentration increased on average 62% over the incubation, and regression analysis indicated the rate of increase did not differ between treatments ($P = 0.439$).

CO₂ and N availability main effects were highly significant for C/N ratio in the initial litter, but only N availability remained significant throughout the incubation (Fig. 2B, Table 2). Litter produced at low N had on average 70% higher C/N ratios than that produced at high N throughout the incubation, while the increase due to elevated CO₂ averaged only 14%. C/N ratio decreased on average 42% during the incubation, and regression analysis indicated that rates of decline in C/N ratio did not differ between N availability treatments ($P = 0.454$).

Table 1. Means (standard error of the mean; $N = 4$ or 5) and statistical significance (P -values) of biomass and chemical constituents of sugar maple foliage and leaf litter produced at two levels of atmospheric CO_2 and two levels of soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station. Live foliage was collected on 30 August 1998 and litter was collected after leaf fall.

Treatment	Total litter biomass ^λ		Soluble sugars				Starch				Condensed tannins [§]				N				C/N									
	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L	L	F	F	L
Ambient CO_2 Low N	107.63 (9.56)	78.46 (2.97)	43.24 (4.04)	80.58 (4.47)	94.70 (10.67)	483.45 (51.45)	2.53 (0.09)	15.10 (0.40)	5.50 (0.28)	32.01 (0.97)	86.60 (4.56)																	
Ambient CO_2 High N	171.71 (33.16)	59.12 (3.80)	20.75 (0.78)	68.20 (0.96)	72.42 (6.71)	195.93 (11.79)	1.31 (0.09)	21.08 (0.45)	10.12 (0.42)	22.16 (0.66)	43.60 (2.36)																	
Elevated CO_2 Low N	168.37 (46.70)	89.03 (0.55)	43.64 (4.62)	78.00 (5.78)	108.06 (2.45)	588 (49.35)	3.31 (0.29)	11.96 (0.38)	4.96 (0.33)	40.05 (1.37)	80.96 (8.97)																	
Elevated CO_2 High N	229.94 (30.08)	49.46 (8.26)	33.32 (2.77)	81.00 (11.27)	93.64 (7.66)	354.57 (43.89)	1.83 (0.08)	17.54 (0.30)	8.26 (0.13)	27.09 (0.50)	55.09 (0.62)																	
Source	0.048	0.269	0.045	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005																	
CO_2	0.026	0.000	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																	
$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$	0.953	0.411	0.379	0.163	0.206	0.147																						
Time ^π	-	0.000	0.039	0.000	0.000	0.000																						
$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{Time}$	-	0.031	0.263	0.006	0.001	0.083																						
$\text{N} \times \text{Time}$	-	0.546	0.220	0.000	0.114	0.253																						
$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N} \times \text{Time}$	-	0.026	0.856	0.274	0.212	0.035																						

^λ Units for biomass are g; soluble sugars, starch, condensed tannins and N concentrations are all mg/g.

^π Refers to time of collection, corresponding to column headings "F" and "L", for foliage and litter, respectively.

[§] Because we used Quebracho tannin as a standard, concentrations of condensed tannins should only be used for relative comparisons between treatments and are not reliable estimates of absolute concentrations.

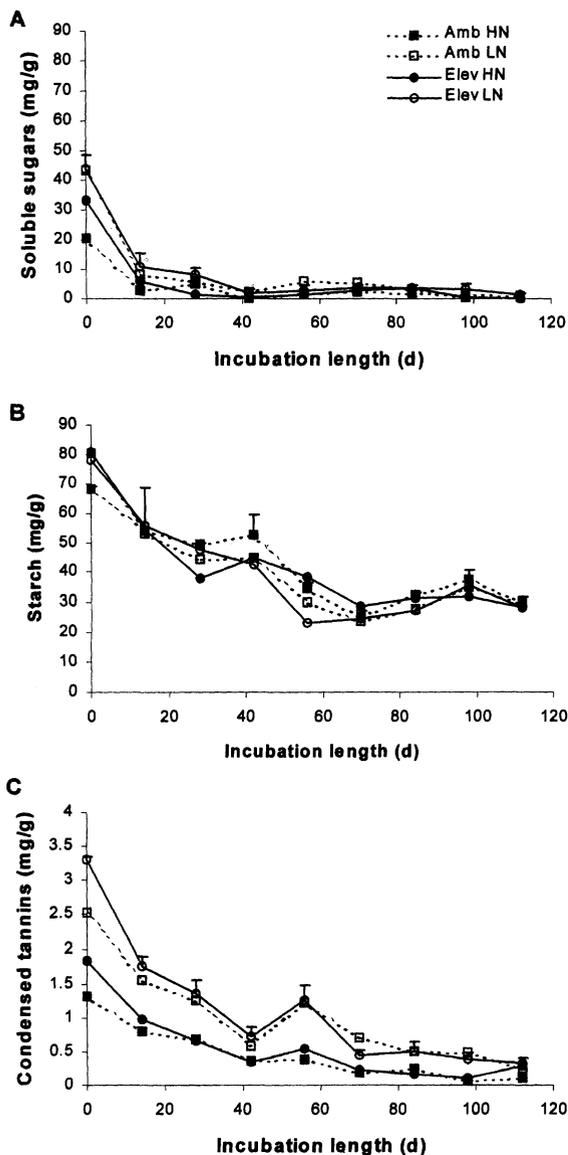


Fig. 1. Mean concentrations of soluble sugars (A), starch (B), and condensed tannins (C) in decomposing sugar maple leaf litter produced at ambient (Amb) and elevated (Elev) atmospheric CO₂, and low (LN) and high (HN) soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station. Incubations were carried out in microlysimeters in the dark at 25°C and field capacity soil moisture. Values are means ($N = 4$ to 5) and bars are SEM (given on Elev LN treatment only). Note different scale on y-axis of panel C.

Microbial respiration and soil solution

During the first 14 d of incubation, microbial respiration resulted in the accumulation of an average of 3.26 mg C in the microlysimeters, and there were no significant differences between treatments (Table 2). Microbial respiration declined consistently until 84 d, when it leveled off at approximately 1.49 mg C evolved per 14-d interval, representing a 54% decrease from initial rates (Fig. 3A). Similarly, DOC extracted after 14 d averaged

3.53 mg, and declined exponentially to 0.07 mg per 14-d interval by the end of the incubation. Treatment effects were not significant in influencing the amount of DOC produced (Table 2).

The initial extraction of the litter at the start of the incubation yielded large quantities of dissolved C. The DOC content of the 50-ml extracts averaged 16.81 mg and was not affected by the CO₂ or soil N treatments (Table 3). Soluble sugars in the extracts ranged from 3.98 to 6.27 mg and a significant CO₂ main effect resulted in an average 38% increase from litter produced at elevated CO₂. Condensed tannins in the extracts ranged from 20.43 to 122.6 mg, and were responsive to both atmospheric CO₂ and soil N availability (Table 3). Extracts from litter produced at elevated CO₂ contained on average 101% more condensed tannins than that from ambient CO₂, while litter extracts from the high soil N availability treatment contained 60% less than those from low N. Over the course of the incubation, soluble sugars in the soil extracts declined very rapidly (Fig. 3B) and treatment effects were not significant. Similarly, condensed tannins in the soil extracts after the incubation had begun were essentially zero for the entire experiment.

Discussion

Overall we found reasonable correspondence between predictions of the CNB/GDB hypotheses and responses of sugar maple litter quality to the availability of C and N. In addition, although we documented large differences in litter quality, rates of decomposition appeared insensitive to the elevated CO₂ and soil N availability treatments.

Foliage production, chemistry, and the C-N balance

Total litter production, which should be very closely correlated to total foliage production, increased approximately 40% due to elevated CO₂ and high soil N availability. This indicates that growth was limited at the lower level of availability of both factors. According to the CNB and GDB hypotheses, if growth were reduced more than assimilation we would expect to see higher levels of nonstructural carbohydrates and CBCs in foliage grown at elevated atmospheric CO₂ or low soil N availability (Koricheva et al. 1998). Although statistical inferences based on our data are complicated by the large differences in concentrations of some constituents in foliage vs litter, our data provide compelling support for this model of carbon allocation in plants in response to resource availability.

In general, starch and soluble sugars increased under conditions of elevated CO₂ or low soil N availability,

Table 2. *P*-values for biochemical constituents of decomposing sugar maple foliage produced under conditions of ambient and elevated atmospheric CO₂, and low and high soil N availability. Column headings: Numbers refer to number of days from beginning of incubation that a set of microlysimeters (25) was harvested. To maintain the overall level of confidence ($\alpha = 0.05$), only *P*-values ≤ 0.002 are considered significant.

Constituent	Source	14	28	42	56	70	84	98	112
Sol. sugar	CO ₂	ns							
	N	ns							
	CO ₂ × N	ns							
Starch	CO ₂	ns							
	N	ns							
	CO ₂ × N	ns							
Tannin	CO ₂	ns							
	N	0.001	0.002	ns	0.000	0.001	ns	0.000	ns
	CO ₂ × N	ns							
N	CO ₂	ns	0.001	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.000	ns
	N	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002
	CO ₂ × N	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.001	ns
C/N ratio	CO ₂	ns							
	N	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
	CO ₂ × N	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.002	ns	ns	ns
Microbial respiration	CO ₂	ns							
	N	ns							
	CO ₂ × N	ns							
DOC	CO ₂	ns							
	N	ns							
	CO ₂ × N	ns							

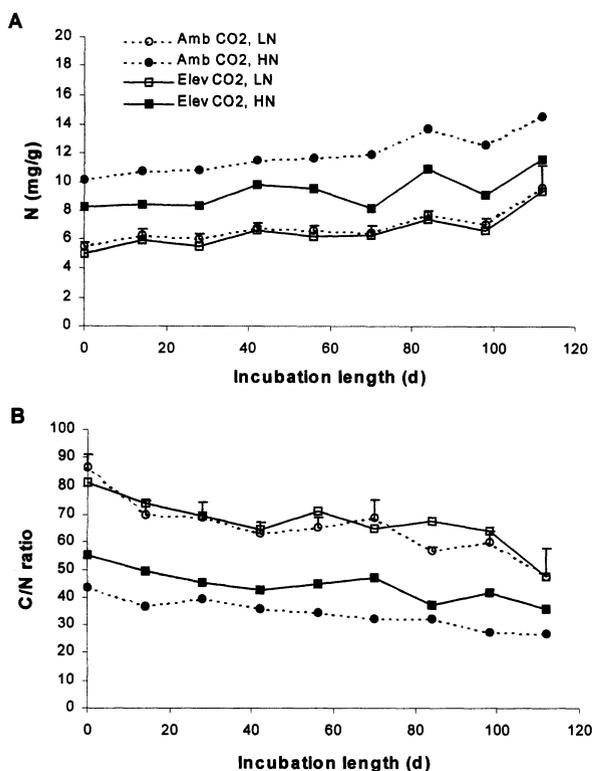


Fig. 2. Mean concentration of nitrogen (A) and C/N ratio (B) of decomposing sugar maple leaf litter produced at ambient (Amb CO₂) and elevated (Elev CO₂) atmospheric CO₂, and low (LN) and high (HN) soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station. Incubations were carried out in microlysimeters in the dark at 25°C and field capacity soil moisture. Values are means ($N = 4$ to 5) and bars are SEM (given on Amb CO₂ LN treatment only).

and were highest in the elevated CO₂-low soil N treatment. Similarly, condensed tannins in foliage responded in a manner consistent with the CNB/GDB hypotheses: elevated CO₂ or low soil N availability caused an increase, and concentrations were highest in foliage produced in the elevated CO₂-low soil N availability treatment. Further support for the CNB/GDB hypotheses was the marginally significant positive correlation between foliar concentrations of sugars and tannins.

These results are in contrast to King et al. (2001) who found poor correspondence between predictions of the CNB/GDB hypotheses and the quality of litter of trembling aspen produced under similar treatments of atmospheric CO₂ and soil N availability. We attribute this to the contrasting life history patterns of the two species, and consequent responses to changes in resource availability (Borman and Likens 1979, Griffin et al. 1995). Trembling aspen is an early successional species, characterized by relatively high photosynthetic rates and rapid, indeterminate growth; it is extremely shade intolerant. Sugar maple is a late-successional species having lower photosynthetic rates, slower, determinate growth and very high shade tolerance (Barnes and Wagner 1981, Godman et al. 1990, Perala 1990).

As phenylalanine is the rate-limiting precursor for phenylpropanoid synthesis (e.g. lignin, flavonoids, condensed tannins) and also an essential amino acid for protein synthesis, production of secondary defense compounds and growth are in direct competition for C (Margna 1977, McClure 1979, Da Cunha 1987, Margna et al. 1989). Growth-dominated species typically have low constitutive resistance to herbivores (low levels of

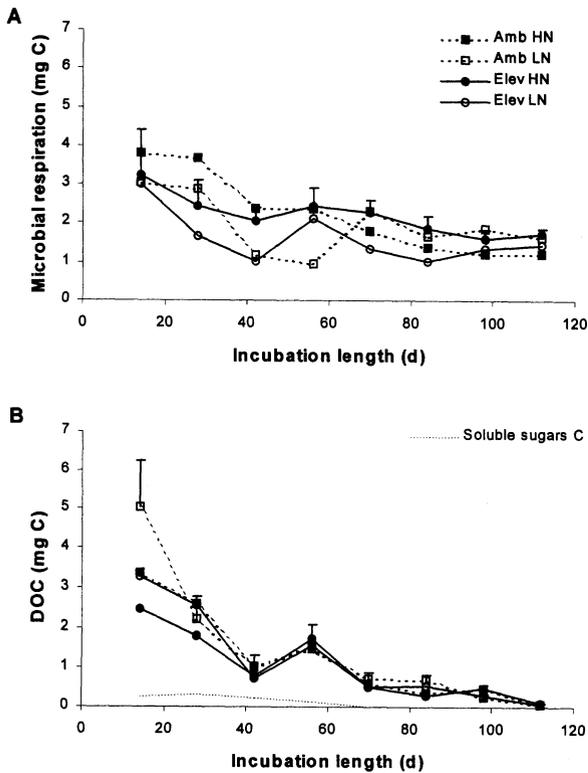


Fig. 3. Decomposition of sugar maple leaf litter produced at two levels of atmospheric CO₂ and two levels of soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station. Incubations were carried out in microlysimeters in the dark at 25°C and field capacity soil moisture. Decomposition is expressed as microbially respired carbon (A) and the production of dissolved organic carbon (B). Values are means (*N* = 4 to 5) and bars are SEM (given on Elev HN and Amb LN treatments only).

secondary metabolites) while differentiation-dominated species invest more heavily in defense (Herms and Mattson 1992, and references therein). We extend this discussion by hypothesizing that accumulation of stable secondary metabolites (little metabolic turnover) in differentiation-dominated species is more responsive to changes in resource availability than that of growth-dominated species, in which growth would be expected to be most responsive. Thus, concentrations of condensed tannins in sugar maple litter varied as a function of soil N availability, while those of trembling aspen were unresponsive (King et al. 2001).

There were large, significant reductions in the concentrations of most constituents due to the transition from fresh foliage to senesced litter, and substantial increases in the C/N ratio. In general, concentrations of all constituents in foliage were highly correlated to those in litter (Spearman rank correlation $r = 0.63$ to 0.92), the exception being that levels of starch in live foliage were not significantly correlated to those in litter (Table 4). This “decoupling” of starch concentrations

Table 3. Means (standard error of the mean; *N* = 4) and statistical significance (*P*-values) of DOC, soluble sugars, and condensed tannins content (mg) in initial extracts of litter produced at two levels of atmospheric CO₂ and two levels of soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station.

Treatment	DOC	Soluble sugars	Condensed tannins*
Amb LN	16.03 (1.22)	4.87 (0.50)	68.28 (9.88)
Amb HN	16.24 (1.64)	3.98 (0.46)	20.43 (2.83)
Elev LN	16.79 (2.39)	6.27 (0.58)	122.64 (11.32)
Elev HN	18.20 (1.90)	5.91 (0.18)	56.11 (11.06)
Source			
CO ₂	0.787	0.008	0.000
N	0.877	0.258	0.000
CO ₂ × N	0.373	0.622	0.338

* Because we used Quebracho tannin as a standard, estimates of condensed tannin contents should only be used for relative comparisons between treatments and are not reliable estimates of absolute carbon content.

in foliage and litter could be seen as a limitation to the direct application of the CNB/GDB hypotheses to litter. Nonetheless, the pattern of response of soluble sugars and condensed tannins to the treatments was consistent with that in foliage and the treatment with the highest litter concentrations of soluble sugars and condensed tannins was elevated CO₂-low soil N availability, as predicted by the hypotheses. Therefore, our data suggest that the CNB/GDB hypotheses are useful tools for predicting bulk C-N composition of litter in response to changes in resource availability, but may not be useful for predicting some specific chemical constituents such as starch.

The cardinal property of condensed tannins, the ability to strongly bind to protein and carbohydrates, and their wide distribution across plant taxa (Hagerman et al. 1997) makes this class of compounds especially likely to affect the decomposition of plant litter. In the present study, concentrations of condensed tannins contained in litter were highly correlated with those of the live foliage ($r = 0.73$), but were less than 25% of the original content. Although this might at first appear to decrease the role of tannins as a direct control on litter decomposition, effects on the activity and/or composition of soil microbial communities could be significant after tannins have leached from the litter. The initial extraction of the litter resulted in leaching of from 10 to 21% of the condensed tannins contained in the live foliage. This would explain, in part, the tea-brown color of the initial extracts, and is analogous to the tannin stained waters of acidic forest streams and lakes that occur throughout North America. It is reasonable to expect the soluble fraction of condensed tannins to have less of an influence on the decomposition of the litter than the recalcitrant fraction, which is probably bound to proteins in the tissue. The remainder of the condensed tannins that were “lost” probably leached from the senescing foliage while it was still attached to

Table 4. Spearman rank correlation coefficients of different biochemical constituents of sugar maple foliage and litter produced at two levels of atmospheric CO₂ and two levels of soil N availability at the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station. Values are the correlation coefficient (*r*), *P*-value, and number of paired observations (*N*). “F” and “L” refer to foliage and litter constituents, respectively. To maintain the overall level of confidence ($\alpha = 0.05$), only *P*-values ≤ 0.005 are considered significant.

	Fsugar	Lsugar	Fstarch	Lstarch	Ftannin	Ltannin	F[N]	L[N]	F(C/N)	L(C/N)
Fsugar	1.000	0.632	0.275	0.196	0.616	0.680	-0.739	-0.751	0.762	0.523
	0.000	0.006	0.268	0.451	0.006	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.025
	18	17	18	17	18	18	18	18	18	18
Lsugar		1.000	0.394	-0.138	0.508	0.849	-0.818	-0.729	0.825	0.721
		0.000	0.117	0.571	0.026	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
		19	17	19	19	19	17	19	17	19
Fstarch			1.000	0.034	0.558	0.496	-0.492	-0.396	0.463	0.263
			0.000	0.896	0.016	0.036	0.037	0.103	0.053	0.291
			18	17	18	18	18	18	18	18
Lstarch				1.000	0.282	0.017	-0.185	-0.211	0.208	0.181
				0.000	0.241	0.943	0.476	0.386	0.422	0.459
				19	19	19	17	19	17	19
Ftannin					1.000	0.735	-0.738	-0.678	0.729	0.654
					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.002
					20	20	18	20	18	20
Ltannin						1.000	-0.928	-0.849	0.927	0.714
						0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
						20	18	20	18	20
F[N]							1.000	0.916	-0.996	-0.724
							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
							18	18	18	18
L[N]								1.000	-0.915	-0.817
								0.000	0.000	0.000
								20	18	20
F(C/N)									1.000	0.723
									0.000	0.000
									18	18
L(C/N)										1.000
										0.000
										20

the tree. In addition, condensed tannins become less extractable upon drying of the tissue (during senescence) and more difficult to detect due to the formation of oxidation products that inhibit formation of the chromophore (anthocyanidin) in the acid-butanol assay (P. E. Laks pers. comm.).

The concentration of N (or C/N ratio) also has been implicated as a strong control on decomposition (Melillo et al. 1982, Enríquez et al. 1993). Concentrations of N in foliage were very highly correlated with those in litter, and inversely correlated with concentrations of carbohydrates and condensed tannins in both foliage and litter, providing further support for the CNB/GDB hypotheses. Soil N availability exerted a much greater effect on foliage and litter N concentrations than did the CO₂ treatment, causing a 75% increase in litter at high N, compared to 15% higher concentrations at ambient CO₂. The treatment with the highest N concentration and lowest C/N ratio was ambient CO₂-high soil N, again, as predicted by the CNB/GDB hypotheses. We found no evidence for differences in N retranslocation due to elevated CO₂, with 55–56% of N being retained in the litter of both CO₂ treatments, consistent with Norby et al. (2000). Litter produced at low soil N availability retained only 38% of the N, while that produced at high soil N availability

retained 47%, although the lack of a statistically significant N × Time interaction would suggest this difference was not important. If we consider the C/N ratio an index of “decomposability” (sensu Enríquez et al. 1993) we would expect litter produced at ambient CO₂-low soil N (C/N = 86.6) to decompose much more slowly than that from ambient CO₂-high soil N (C/N = 43.6), but as discussed below, this was not the case.

Atmospheric CO₂, soil N availability, and decomposition

Our measures of decomposition were selected to capture both short-term (microbially respired CO₂) and longer-term (DOC) responses of the microbial community to litter produced under differing levels of resource availability. It has been demonstrated that increases in soil respiration under elevated CO₂ can be due to more rapid cycling of labile carbon substrates by the soil microbial community (Hungate et al. 1997). In contrast, formation of DOC is thought to result from the degradation of more recalcitrant forms of carbon (tannins, lignin, humic substances), but may contain significant quantities of labile constituents such as low molecular weight organic acids and carbohydrates

(Herbert and Bertsch 1995). In agreement with similar microlysimeter studies using *Populus* litter (Randlett et al. 1996, King et al. 2001), we found few consistent treatment effects on either measure of decomposition. This is surprising, given the two-fold differences in C/N ratios of litter produced in our experiment. In a recent study, Hättenschwiler et al. (1999) report that beech leaf litter produced under elevated CO₂ decomposed more slowly than that produced under ambient CO₂, but the effect was small to non-existent during the first 100 d of incubation, and there was no effect on spruce branchlets. They found increased litter consumption and feces production by isopod detritivores, and proposed this could offset the reduced quality of litter produced at elevated CO₂, resulting in no net effect on decomposition (see also Lussenhop et al. 1998). These results illustrate the importance of understanding the effects of altered litter quality on both micro- and macro-decomposers in early and late stages of the decomposition process. Our data indicate that even large differences in litter quality are unlikely to directly affect the dynamics of soil microbial communities during the early stages of leaf litter decay.

Changes in litter quality through time

To gain insight into the dynamics of microbial processing of litter as affected by resource availability, it is helpful to examine changes in litter quality through time. Concentrations of soluble sugars dropped rapidly to very low levels, while starch concentrations declined only 39% by the end of the incubation. This is in contrast to King et al. (2001), who reported that starch concentrations decreased to near zero in trembling aspen litter after just 55 d of incubation, and may be related to the much higher N concentrations (average 22 mg/g) of the litter in that study. Initial treatment effects on litter soluble sugars and starch disappeared during the incubation, suggesting changes in these constituents in response to elevated atmospheric CO₂ or soil N availability will be rapidly neutralized by soil microorganisms and/or physical effects (leaching). Concentrations of condensed tannins in decomposing litter declined to near zero by the end of the incubation, and interestingly, the strong reduction in concentration due to high soil N availability persisted almost until the end of the incubation, at which point all treatments converged. The rate of decline in condensed tannin concentrations was significantly faster in litter produced at low soil N availability, indicating greater microbial utilization until an apparent threshold was reached after 112 d of incubation. As a recalcitrant material, we would expect the concentration of condensed tannins to increase with time (Waring and Schlesinger 1985), but clearly our data show the opposite. This suggests that condensed tannins may be utilized by microbial decom-

posers as an energy source to a greater extent than has previously been suspected.

Concentrations of N in the decomposing litter of this study were similar to the range of concentrations reported for decomposing sugar maple litter during the period in which approximately 50% of the original mass had been lost (Aber and Melillo 1980). This reassures us that the quality of the litter produced in this study is representative of that produced naturally. In contrast, King et al. (2001) found that leaf litter of trembling aspen produced in open-top chambers had much higher N concentrations than natural litter, indicating that some species may be more appropriate as model systems in growth chambers than are others. Apparently, the rapidly growing, "exploitive" aspen (*sensu* Griffin et al. 1995) responded to the experimental treatments by assimilating more N relative to wild plants, whereas the slower growing "conservative" sugar maple was less likely to alter nutrient uptake and biochemistry. Regression analysis established that rates of increase in N concentration (and decrease in C/N ratios) as the litter decomposed did not differ by treatment, supporting the conclusion that our treatments had little effect on rates of decomposition.

Dynamics of carbon loss

By comparing microbial respiration and DOC over time we can get an idea of the relative magnitudes of these contrasting pathways of C loss from the decomposing litter. Microbial respiration was greatest early in the incubation, then declined to a steady rate at approximately 40 to 60 d of incubation. This closely approximates the pattern of starch degradation, indicating utilization of labile substrates at the very early stages of decomposition. Total C lost as microbially respired CO₂ was 15.97 mg, averaged across the treatments. In contrast, the initial extraction of the litter leached an average of 16.81 mg C as DOC. Although the coarse grinding of the litter (necessary to ensure uniform substrate) may have artificially increased fragment surface area, we feel these data illustrate the potentially large C fluxes that occur in forest ecosystems during the period of leaf senescence. Autumn is typically a wet time of year at our field site with precipitation occurring over several months; a longer period of leaching that should to some extent compensate for grinding of the litter. As demonstrated, much of the initial DOC was composed of highly labile soluble sugars (31%) and condensed tannins (actual quantity unknown). In nature, much of this material is trapped in the soil profile where it can be consumed by microorganisms (Herbert and Bertsch 1995); however, cooling soil temperatures at this time of year may reduce microbial activity allowing this material to be leached from the system. DOC in the extracts gradually

declined during the incubation, approaching zero by 112 d. Chemical analyses revealed that this material contained very little soluble sugars or condensed tannins, and probably resulted from microbial degradation of more recalcitrant litter constituents. By the end of the incubation the amount of C lost from the decomposing litter as DOC totalled 26.57 mg, representing a 66% greater flux than that of microbial respiration. These results differ from MacDonald et al. (1999), who found that microbial respiration dominated C fluxes (> 50 mg C) compared to DOC losses (~ 2.7 mg C) during a 32-wk incubation of soil from the same site as ours. The carbon in our study was fresh litter containing large quantities of labile C, while MacDonald et al. (1999) used intact soil monoliths that had been collected in April of 1994, from which most of the easily leached labile C had probably been lost during the previous fall and winter. The DOC in their experiment must have originated from the degradation of recalcitrant forms of C, whose low rate of flux resembled that found in the later stages of decomposition in this study.

Conclusions

By varying the availability of atmospheric CO₂ or soil N, we found that the biochemical response of sugar maple foliage is in agreement with predictions of the CNB/GDB hypotheses. Conditions favoring accumulation of nonstructural carbohydrates relative to growth enhanced production of condensed tannins, a major carbon-based secondary compound (CBSC). Further, high correlation between biochemical constituents in foliage and litter indicate that the CNB/GDB hypotheses provide a useful tool for predicting litter quality in response to changing environmental conditions, for some but not all chemical constituents. Our data indicate that elevated CO₂, and especially soil N availability, can substantially alter litter C/N ratios and levels of condensed tannins that persist through time, but these changes have little direct effect on rates of decomposition by soil microorganisms. Finally, large quantities of C may be lost from forest ecosystems in autumn as labile constituents are leached from senescing litter and exported as DOC.

Acknowledgements – We would like to acknowledge the continued support of the Univ. of Michigan Biological Station for our global change research. Paul Higgins managed the open-top chamber facility and collected the senescing litter. His professionalism and dedication to the project were crucial to this study. Jamie Johnson and Todd Schmidt provided much needed help during the harvests of the microlysimeter units and some of the chemical analyses. Jill Fisher helped organize the harvests and performed the C and N analyses. This research was funded by the U.S. Department of Energy PER (DE-FG02-93ER6166) and U.S. Forest Service Global Change Research programs, and an NSF equipment grant (DIB 9413407) funded the purchase of the CHN and DOC analyzers.

References

- Aber, J. D. and Melillo, J. M. 1980. Litter decomposition: measuring relative contributions of organic matter and nitrogen to forest soils. – *Can. J. Bot.* 58: 416–421.
- Amthor, J. S. 1995. Terrestrial higher-plant response to increasing atmospheric [CO₂] in relation to the global carbon cycle. – *Glob. Change Biol.* 1: 243–274.
- Ball, A. S. and Drake, B. G. 1997. Short-term decomposition of litter produced by plants grown in ambient and elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. – *Glob. Change Biol.* 3: 29–35.
- Barnes, B. V. and Wagner, W. H., Jr. 1981. Michigan trees. – Univ. of Michigan Press.
- Borman, F. H. and Likens, G. E. 1979. Pattern and process in a forested ecosystem. Disturbance, development and the steady state based on the Hubbard Brook ecosystem study. – Springer-Verlag.
- Bryant, J. P., Chapin III, F. S. and Klein, D. R. 1983. Carbon/nutrient balance of boreal plants in relation to vertebrate herbivory. – *Oikos* 40: 357–368.
- Cotrufo, M. F. and Ineson, P. 1995. Effects of enhanced atmospheric CO₂ and nutrient supply on the quality and subsequent decomposition of fine roots of *Betula pendula* Roth. and *Picea sitchensis* (Bong.) Carr. – *Plant Soil* 170: 267–277.
- Cotrufo, M. F., Ineson, P. and Rowland, A. P. 1994. Decomposition of tree leaf litters grown under elevated CO₂: effect of litter quality. – *Plant Soil* 163: 121–130.
- Cotrufo, M. F., Briones, M. J. I. and Ineson, P. 1998. Elevated CO₂ affects field decomposition rate and palatability of tree leaf litter: importance of changes in substrate quality. – *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 30: 1565–1571.
- Coûteaux, M.-M., Mousseau, M., Célérier, M.-L. and Bottner, P. 1991. Increased atmospheric CO₂ and litter quality: decomposition of sweet chestnut leaf litter with animal food webs of different complexities. – *Oikos* 61: 54–64.
- Curtis, P. S., Vogel, C. S., Wang, X. et al. 2000. Gas exchange, leaf nitrogen, and growth efficiency of *Populus tremuloides* in CO₂ enriched atmosphere. – *Ecol. Appl.* 10: 3–17.
- Da Cunha, A. 1987. The estimation of L-phenylalanine ammonia-lyase shows phenylpropanoid biosynthesis to be regulated by L-phenylalanine supply and availability. – *Phytochemistry* 26: 2723–2727.
- Eamus, D. and Jarvis, P. G. 1989. The direct effects of increase in the global atmospheric CO₂ concentration on natural and commercial temperate trees and forests. – *Adv. Ecol. Res.* 19: 1–54.
- Enriquez, S., Duarte, C. M. and Sand-Jensen, K. 1993. Patterns in decomposition rates among photosynthetic organisms: the importance of detritus C:N:P content. – *Oecologia* 94: 457–471.
- Feeny, P. 1976. Plant apparency and chemical defense. – *Rec. Adv. Phytochem.* 10: 1–40.
- Findlay, S., Carreiro, M., Krischik, V. and Jones, C. G. 1996. Effects of damage to living plants on leaf litter quality. – *Ecol. Appl.* 6: 269–275.
- Galloway, J. N., Schlesinger, W. H., Levy II, H. et al. 1995. Nitrogen fixation: anthropogenic enhancement-environmental response. – *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles* 9: 235–252.
- Godman, R. M., Yawney, H. W. and Tubbs, C. H. 1990. *Acer saccharum* Marsh., sugar maple. – In: Burns, R. M. and Honkala, B. H. (eds), *Silvics of North America*, Vol. 2, *Hardwoods*. USDA Forest Service Handbook Number 654, Washington, DC, pp. 78–91.
- Griffin, K. L., Winner, W. E. and Strain, B. R. 1995. Growth and dry matter partitioning in loblolly and Ponderosa pine seedlings in response to carbon and nitrogen availability. – *New Phytol.* 134: 547–556.
- Hagerman, A. E. and Butler, L. G. 1989. Choosing appropriate methods and standards for assaying tannin. – *J. Chem. Ecol.* 15: 1795–1810.

- Hagerman, A. E., Zhao, Y. and Johnson, S. 1997. Methods for determination of condensed and hydrolyzable tannins. – In: Shahidi, F. (ed.), Antinutrients and phytochemicals in food. American Chemical Society, Washington, pp. 209–222.
- Hättenschwiler, S., Buhler, S. and Körner, C. 1999. Quality, decomposition and isopod consumption of tree litter produced under elevated CO₂. – *Oikos* 85: 271–281.
- Herbert, B. E. and Bertsch, P. M. 1995. Characterization of dissolved and colloidal organic matter in soil solution: a review. – In: McFee, W. W. and Kelly, J. M. (eds), Carbon forms and functions in forest soils. Soil Science Society of America, Madison, WI, pp. 63–88.
- Herns, D. A. and Mattson, W. J. 1992. The dilemma of plants: to grow or defend. – *Q. Rev. Biol.* 67: 283–335.
- Horner, J. D., Gosz, J. R. and Cates, R. G. 1988. The role of carbon-based plant secondary metabolites in decomposition in terrestrial ecosystems. – *Am. Nat.* 132: 869–883.
- Houghton, J. T., Meira Filho, L. G., Callander, B. A. et al. 1996. Technical summary. – In: Houghton, J. T., Meira Filho, L. G., Callander, B. A. et al. (eds), Climate change 1995: the science of climate change. Contribution of Working Group I to the Second Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge Univ. Press, pp. 13–49.
- Hungate, B. A., Holland, E. A., Jackson, R. B. et al. 1997. The fate of carbon in grasslands under carbon dioxide enrichment. – *Nature* 388: 576–579.
- King, J. S., Pregitzer, K. S., Zak, D. R. et al. 2001. Quality and decomposition of litter from *Populus tremuloides* Michx. grown under elevated atmospheric CO₂ and varying nutrient availability. – *Glob. Change Biol.* 7: 65–74.
- Koricheva, J., Larsson, S., Haukioja, E. and Keinänen, M. 1998. Regulation of woody plant secondary metabolism by resource availability: hypothesis testing by means of meta-analysis. – *Oikos* 83: 212–226.
- Lambers, H. 1993. Rising CO₂, secondary plant metabolism, plant-herbivore interactions and litter decomposition. – *Vegetatio* 104/105: 263–271.
- Lincoln, D. E., Fajer, E. D. and Johnson, R. H. 1993. Plant-insect herbivore interactions in elevated CO₂ environments. – *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 8: 64–68.
- Lindroth, R. L. 1996. CO₂-mediated changes in tree chemistry and tree-Lepidoptera interactions. – In: Koch, G. W. and Mooney, H. A. (eds), Carbon dioxide and terrestrial ecosystems. Academic Press, pp. 105–120.
- Loomis, W. E. 1932. Growth-differentiation balance vs. carbohydrate-nitrogen ratio. – *Proc. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 29: 240–245.
- Lorio, P. L. 1986. Growth-differentiation balance: a basis for understanding southern pine beetle-tree interactions. – *For. Ecol. Manage.* 14: 259–273.
- Lussenhop, J., Treonis, A., Curtis, P. S. et al. 1998. Response of soil biota to elevated atmospheric CO₂ in poplar model systems. – *Oecologia* 113: 247–251.
- MacDonald, N. W., Zak, D. R. and Pregitzer, K. S. 1999. Temperature effects on kinetics of microbial respiration and net nitrogen and sulfur mineralization. – *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 59: 233–240.
- Margna, U. 1977. Control at the level of substrate supply—an alternative in the regulation of phenylpropanoid accumulation in plant cells. – *Phytochemistry* 16: 419–426.
- Margna, U., Margna, E. and Vainjarv, T. 1989. Influence of nitrogen nutrition on the utilization of L-phenylalanine for building flavonoid in buckwheat seedling tissues. – *J. Plant Physiol.* 134: 697–702.
- McClure, J. W. 1979. The physiology of phenolic compounds in plants. – *Rec. Adv. Phytochem.* 12: 525–556.
- Melillo, J. M., Aber, J. D. and Muratore, J. F. 1982. Nitrogen and lignin control of hardwood leaf litter decomposition dynamics. – *Ecology* 63: 621–626.
- Meredith, M. P. and Stehman, S. V. 1991. Repeated measures experiments in forestry: focus on analysis of response curves. – *Can. J. For. Res.* 21: 957–965.
- Norby, R. J. and O'Neill, E. G. 1996. Litter quality and decomposition of foliar litter produced under CO₂ enrichment. – In: Koch, G. W. and Mooney, H. A. (eds), Carbon dioxide and terrestrial ecosystems. Academic Press, pp. 87–103.
- Norby, R. J. and Cotrufo, M. F. 1998. A question of litter quality. – *Nature* 396: 17–18.
- Norby, R. J., Long, T. M., Hartz-Rubin, J. S. and O'Neill, E. G. 2000. Nitrogen resorption in senescing tree leaves in a warmer, CO₂-enriched atmosphere. – *Plant Soil* 224: 15–29.
- Olson, J. S. 1963. Energy storage and the balance of producers and decomposers in ecological systems. – *Ecology* 44: 322–331.
- Patterson, D. T. and Flint, E. P. 1980. Potential effects of global atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on the growth and competitiveness of C₃ and C₄ weed and crop plants. – *Weed Sci.* 28: 71–75.
- Perala, D. A. 1990. *Populus tremuloides* Michx., quaking aspen. – In: Burns, R. M. and Honkala, B. H. (eds), Silvics of North America, Vol. 2, Hardwoods. USDA Forest Service Handbook Number 654, Washington, DC, pp. 555–569.
- Porter, L. J., Hrstich, L. N. and Chan, B. G. 1986. The conversion of procyanidins and prodelphinidins to cyanidin and delphinidin. – *Phytochemistry* 25: 223–230.
- Pregitzer, K. S., Zak, D. R., Curtis, P. S. et al. 1995. Atmospheric CO₂, soil nitrogen and turnover of fine roots. – *New Phytol.* 129: 579–585.
- Prior, S. A., Torbert, H. A., Runion, G. B. et al. 1997. Free-air carbon dioxide enrichment of wheat: soil carbon and nitrogen dynamics. – *J. Environ. Qual.* 26: 1161–1166.
- Randlett, D. L., Zak, D. R., Pregitzer, K. S. and Curtis, P. S. 1996. Elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide and leaf litter chemistry: influences on microbial respiration and net nitrogen mineralization. – *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 60: 1571–1577.
- Rhoads, D. F. and Cates, R. G. 1976. Toward a general theory of plant antiherbivore chemistry. – *Rec. Adv. Phytochem.* 10: 168–213.
- Robinson, C. H., Michelsen, A., Lee, J. S. et al. 1997. Elevated atmospheric CO₂ affects decomposition of *Festuca vivipara* (L.) Sm. litter and roots in experiments simulating environmental change in two contrasting arctic ecosystems. – *Glob. Change Biol.* 3: 37–49.
- Rogers, H. H., Heck, W. W. and Heagle, A. S. 1983. A field technique for the study of plant responses to elevated carbon dioxide concentration. – *J. Air Poll. Cont. Assoc.* 33: 42–44.
- Schimel, J. P., van Cleve, K., Cates, R. G. et al. 1996. Effects of balsam poplar (*Populus balsamifera*) tannins and low molecular weight phenolics on microbial activity in taiga floodplain soil: implications for changes in N cycling during succession. – *Can. J. Bot.* 74: 84–90.
- Sokal, R. R. and Rohlf, F. J. 1995. Biometry: the principles and practice of statistics in biological research, 3rd ed. – Freeman.
- Strain, B. R. and Bazzaz, F. A. 1983. Terrestrial plant communities. – In: Lemon, E. R. (ed.), CO₂ and plants: the response of plants to rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide. Westview Press, pp. 177–222.
- Tiarks, A. E., Meier, C. E., Flagler, R. B. and Steynberg, E. C. 1992. Sequential extraction of condensed tannins from pine litter at different stages of decomposition. – In: Hemingway, R. W. and Laks, P. E. (eds), Plant polyphenolics: synthesis, properties, significance. Plenum Press, pp. 597–608.
- Tissue, D. T. and Wright, S. J. 1995. Effect of water availability on phenology and the annual shoot carbohydrate cycle of tropical forest shrubs. – *Funct. Ecol.* 9: 519–527.
- Tissue, D. T., Thomas, R. B. and Strain, B. R. 1996. Growth and photosynthesis of loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*) after exposure to elevated CO₂ for 19 months in the field. – *Tree Physiol.* 16: 49–59.

- Torbert, H. A., Prior, S. A., Rogers, H. H. and Runion, G. B. 1998. Crop residue decomposition as affected by growth under elevated atmospheric CO₂. – *Soil Sci.* 163: 412–419.
- van de Geijn, S. C. and van Veen, J. A. 1993. Implications of increased carbon dioxide levels for carbon input and turnover in soils. – *Vegetatio* 104/105: 283–292.
- Van Ginkel, J. H. and Gorissen, A. 1998. In situ decomposition of grass roots as affected by elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide. – *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 62: 951–958.
- Vitousek, P. M. 1994. Beyond global warming: ecology and global change. – *Ecology* 75: 1861–1876.
- Waring, R. H. and Schlesinger, W. H. 1985. *Forest ecosystems: concepts and management.* – Academic Press.
- Williams, R. S., Lincoln, D. and Thomas, R. B. 1994. Loblolly pine grown under elevated CO₂ affects early instar pine sawfly performance. – *Oecologia* 98: 64–71.
- Wray, S. M. and Strain, B. R. 1987. Competition in old-field perennials under CO₂ enrichment. – *Ecology* 68: 1116–1120.
- Zak, D. R. and Pregitzer, K. S. 1990. Spatial and temporal variability of nitrogen cycling in northern Lower Michigan. – *For. Sci.* 36: 367–380.
- Zak, D. R., Pregitzer, K. S., Curtis, P. S. et al. 1993. Elevated atmospheric CO₂ and feedback between carbon and nitrogen cycles. – *Plant Soil* 151: 105–117.