Elevated CO2 enrichment induces a differential biomass response in a mixed species temperate forest plantation

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Elevated CO_2 enrichment induces a differential biomass response in a mixed species temperate forest plantation

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Summary

- In a free-air CO_2 enrichment study (BangorFACE) *Alnus glutinosa*, *Betula pendula* and *Fagus sylvatica* were planted in areas of one, two and three species mixtures (*n*=4). The trees were exposed to ambient or elevated CO_2 (580 µmol mol^{-1}) for four years, and aboveground growth characteristics measured.
- In monoculture, the mean effect of CO_2 enrichment on aboveground woody biomass was +29, +22 and +16% for *A. glutinosa, F. sylvatica,* and *B. pendula* respectively. When the same species were grown in polyculture, the response to CO_2 switched to +10, +7 and 0%, for *A. glutinosa, B. pendula,* and *F. sylvatica* respectively.
- In ambient atmosphere our species grown in polyculture increased aboveground woody biomass from 12.9 ± 1.4 kg m^{-2} to 18.9 ± 1.0 kg m^{-2}, whereas in an elevated CO_2 atmosphere aboveground woody biomass increased from 15.2 ± 0.6 kg m^{-2} to 20.2 ± 0.6 kg m^{-2}. The overyielding effect of polyculture was smaller (+7%) in elevated CO_2 than in an ambient atmosphere (+18%).
- Our results show that the aboveground response to elevated CO_2 is significantly affected by intra- and inter-specific competition, and that elevated CO_2 response may be reduced in forest communities comprised of tree species with contrasting functional traits.

keywords:

Free-air CO_2 enrichment (FACE), temperate forest, alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) , silver birch (*Betula pendula*) , European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) , biomass, allometry, polyculture, monoculture, overyielding.

Introduction

Forests occupy one third of the land surface of the Earth, and account for almost half of carbon stored in the terrestrial biosphere (Schlesinger & Lichter, 2001). In a summary of studies conducted to investigate the effects of increased atmospheric CO_2 on forest C cycles, Norby *et al.,* (2005) calculated that an enrichment of 200 ppm CO_2 above the current ambient CO_2 level caused a 23% median increase of forest net primary productivity. However, interactions with other environmental factors may dampen such response at larger temporal or spatial scales (Leuzinger *et al.*, 2011). Nevertheless, increasing atmospheric CO_2 concentrations may fundamentally alter forest ecosystem functioning by altering species growth, resource use and community interactions (Eamus & Jarvis, 1989). As forests are inextricably linked to the global carbon cycle, elevated CO_2 driven environmental change may impact upon global carbon storage in phytomass, complex biogeochemical feedback mechanisms and ultimately long term C sequestration in soils.

Empirical studies on woody plants exposed to elevated atmospheric CO_2 have demonstrated that growth and aboveground biomass production in woody plants increases, but that there is a considerable variation in response (Curtis & Wang, 1998). The observed variation of responses to elevated CO_2 has been attributed to a large number of confounding factors, such as the length of study, interactions with other environmental stresses, plant functional group, species morphological physiology (Poorter, 1993), symbiotic associations (Godbold *et al.*, 1997) and community dynamics (Kozovits *et al.*, 2005). Recent research efforts have been focused on studying whole ecosystem responses in near-natural conditions chiefly achieved by employing Free Air Carbon dioxide Enrichment (FACE) facilities (Hattenschwiler *et al.*, 2002; Karnosky *et al.*, 2003; Körner *et al.*, 2005; Hoosbeek *et*

84 *al.*, 2011). Körner (2006) has suggested dividing elevated CO_2 studies into the
85 following two types: (i) high abundance of major resources other than carbon –
86 'decoupled' systems and (ii) near to steady-state nutrient cycling and full canopy
87 development – 'coupled systems'. Type I systems include the present study, aspen
88 FACTS II FACE (Karnosky *et al.*, 2003), and EuroFACE (Calfapietra *et al.*, 2003)
89 experiments. The remaining three (type II) experiments have used CO_2 enrichment in
90 stands with an already closed canopy. The Oak Ridge (Norby *et al.*, 2002) and
91 DukeFACE (Oren *et al.*, 2001) experiments both started enrichment *ca*. 10-20 years
92 after planting, while at the Basel Web-FACE (Körner *et al.*, 2005) enrichment was
93 conducted in a mature deciduous forest comprised of four species more than 100 years
94 old. Using data from four of these studies (DukeFACE, FACTS II FACE, Oak Ridge
95 and EuroFACE), Norby *et al.,* (2005) demonstrated that an enrichment of 200 ppm
96 CO_2 above the current ambient CO_2 level caused a 23% median increase of forest net
97 primary productivity. This conclusion was largely based on the initial response of
98 forest ecosystems to elevated CO_2. Subsequent investigations have shown that this
99 response may not be maintained over a longer time horizon (Norby *et al.*, 2010), as
100 the response to elevated CO_2 has been found to both decline (Norby *et al.*, 2010) or be
101 maintained (Drake *et al.*, 2011; Zak *et al.*, 2011) after 10-11 years of exposure. In
102 both of these examples, the response to elevated CO_2 was likely mediated by N
103 availability. The decline in response to elevated CO_2 was attributed to N limitation
104 (Norby *et al.*, 2010), while no change in response was a result of greater N cycling
105 (Zak *et al.*, 2011). Comparison of these two studies clearly demonstrates that nutient
106 availability, in particular N, is a strong factor mediating the response of woody plants
107 to elevated CO_2.

Much of the research investigating species diversity, ecosystem functioning and productivity has been focused in grasslands (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Many experiments have shown a positive relationship between productivity and increased biodiversity (Tilman *et al.*, 1996; Tilman *et al.*, 1997). Fornara & Tilman (2009) suggested that the increased productivity of N-limited species rich plant communities is dependent on the seasonal accumulation of root N pools by N-fixing plants. The importance of incorporating N-fixing plants in the facilitation of greater plant community productivity was also supported by Hooper & Dukes, (2004), but argued that N-fixation is not the only mechanism explaining the overyielding of species rich communities. Elevated CO_2 has been found to stimulate symbiotic N fixation in several studies (eg. Hungate *et al.*, 1999; Schortemeyer *et al.*, 2002), and the incorporation of N-fixing plants to facilitate N dynamics of co-occurring species with elevated CO_2 was explored by Lee *et al.*, (2003) who found that in nine different grassland species assemblages incorporating N-fixing *Lupinus* did not facilitate a larger community growth response to elevated CO_2.

In forests, controversy surrounding the benefits of mixed species stand productivity dates back to the 18th century (Hartig, 1791), with silvicultural practice of mixed species forests being subject to much conjecture. Only recently have rigorous scientific studies been initiated to elucidate the precise mechanisms mediating the productivity differences of trees grown in polyculture (Pretzsch, 2005). For example, in Southern Germany, mixed stands of *Fagus sylvatica* and *Picea abies* produced up to 59% more aboveground biomass than adjacent pure stands (Pretzsch & Schütze, 2009). In contrast, Jacob *et al.* (2010) found decreases in aboveground biomass of *F. sylvatica* with increasing species richness in comparison to *F. sylvatica* in monoculture. Early on, most research on forest diversity focused on one or two tree

133 species, but recent studies included more species in an attempted to verify the
134 applicability of grassland findings to forest stands (DeClerck *et al.*, 2006; Vila *et al.*,
135 2007; Paquette & Messier, 2010). In large scale investigations, support has been
136 found for the assertion that increased tree diversity leads to increased biomass
137 production (Vila *et al.*, 2007; Paquette & Messier, 2010). The studies of both Vila *et*
138 *al.,* (2007) and Paquette & Messier (2010) used databases originating from national
139 forest inventories, while taking into account the effects of environment. Paquette &
140 Messier (2010) used 12,000 permanent forest plots in boreal and temperate forest in
141 Canada, and could show a strong positive and significant effect of tree biodiversity on
142 aboveground productivity. The study of Vila *et al.,* (2007) used over 8,000 permanent
143 forest plots in mediteranean forests in Catalonia, and could show a mean 30% higher
144 wood production in mixed forest compared to mono-specific stands, and a production
145 increase from 23% in two species stands to 59% in five species stands. In a meta-
146 analysis of 54 forest studies investigating diversity–productivity relationships, Zhang
147 *et al.,* (2012) could show a 24% higher productivity in polycultures than monocultures
148 with most of the variation accounted for by evenness, the heterogeneity of shade
149 tolerance, species richness and stand age, in decreasing order of importance. Recently,
150 high plant diversity has been shown to be required to maintain ecosystem function and
151 services through time (Isbell & Wilsey, 2011), however the role of tree diversity in
152 ecosystem productivity, resistance and resilience is still poorly investigated (DeClerck
153 *et al.*, 2006). In the case of resistance to drought, DeClerck *et al.* (2006) found that the
154 relative percentage of different species was more important than the species richness
155 *per se*. Differing species resistance to drought can change the competitive relationship
156 between the species and may thus result in changed species composition. Reich *et al.*,
157 (2001) could show that the enhancement of biomass accumulation in response to

158 elevated levels of CO_2 was smaller in species-poor than in species-rich assemblages
159 of herbaceous plants. However, although it has long been known that tree seedlings of
160 co-occurring species show differing response to CO_2 (Bazzaz & Miao, 1993), the
161 influence of elevated CO_2 on tree competition, and the influence of tree biodiversity
162 on community response to CO_2 has not been investigated.

163 The objectives of this work were to investigate the effects of elevated CO_2
164 (580 μmol mol^{-1}) on the species and community response of monocultures and
165 polycultures of tree mixtures under field conditions. Using a Free Air Carbon dioxide
166 Enrichment (FACE) system we investigated the aboveground response of
167 monocultures and a three species polyculture of *Alnus glutinosa, Betula pendula* and
168 *Fagus sylvatica* to elevated CO_2 over four years. We tested the hypothesis that
169 interspecific competition modifies the response of tree species to elevated CO_2.

170 **Materials and Methods**

171 *Site description*

172 The Bangor FACE experimental site was established in March 2004 at the Bangor
173 University research farm (53°14'N, 4°01'W) on two former agricultural fields with a
174 total area of 2.36 ha. Both fields were originally pastures, one field was used for small
175 scale forestry experiments for the last 20 years, the other field was ploughed and
176 planted with oil seed rape in 2003. Climate at the site is classified as Hyperoceanic
177 with a mean annual temperature in 2005 through 2008 of 11.5 ºC and an annual
178 rainfall of 1034 mm. Soil parent material is postglacial alluvial deposits from the Aber
179 river which comprises Snowdonian rhyolitic tuffs and lavas, microdiorites and
180 dolerite in the stone fractions and Lower Palezoic shale in the finer fractions. Soil is a
181 fine loamy brown earth over gravel (Rheidol series) and classified as Fluventic
182 Dystrochrept (Teklehaimanot *et al.*, 2002). Soil texture is 63% sand, 28% silt and 9%

183 clay, nitrogen content in the top 30 cm is 2.6% with C/N ratio of 10.5. The
184 topography consists of a shallow slope of approximately 1–2º on a deltaic fan. The
185 site aspect is northwesterly, with an altitude of 13 to 18 m a.s.l. The depth of the water
186 table ranges between 1 and 6 m.

187 Eight octagonal plots, four ambient and four CO_2 enriched were established at
188 the site, creating a 2 × 4 factorial block design across the two fields. We used three
189 tree species (*Alnus glutinosa* [L.] Gaertner*, Betula pendula* Roth. and *Fagus sylvatica*
190 L.) selected due to their contrasting shade tolerance, successional chronology and to
191 represent a range of taxonomic, physiological and ecological types. A replacement
192 series design (with inter-tree spacing constant between treatments) was selected
193 because of the experiments objective of being realistic in reflecting the practical
194 realities of how forests comprising monocultures or mixtures of potential canopy tree
195 species could be established (Jolliffe, 2000). The site was planted with 60 cm saplings
196 of each species with inter-tree spacing of 0.8 m, giving a density of 15,000 tree ha^{-1}. A
197 systematic hexagonal planting design (Aguiar *et al.*, 2001) was used to maximise the
198 mixing effect so that, in the three-species polyculture sub-plots, each tree was
199 surrounded by nearest neighbours of two-conspecific individuals and one and three
200 individuals of the other two species respectively, resulting in each tree having six
201 equidistant neighbours. Each plot was divided into seven planting compartments and
202 planted in a pattern creating areas of one, two and three species mixtures (Fig. 1). The
203 present study makes use of observations originating from three single species sub-
204 plots containing nine trees of *B. pendula, A. glutinosa* and *F. sylvatica*, and a fourth
205 sub-plot which contained a species balanced polyculture of all three species. The
206 planting pattern of each pair of control and elevated CO_2 plots was rotated by 90º to
207 avoid potential artefacts introduced by microclimate, soil and uneven growth rates of

208 the different species. Each plot was surrounded by a 10 m border of *B. pendula*, *A.*
209 *glutinosa* and *F. sylvatica* planted at the same density. The remaining field was
210 planted at a 1 m spacing (10,000 trees ha^{-1}) with a mixture of birch (*B. pendula*), alder
211 (*A. glutinosa*), beech (*F. sylvatica* L.), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior* L.), sycamore (*Acer*
212 *pseudoplatanus* L.), chestnut (*Castanea sativa* Mill.) and oak (*Quercus robur* L.). To
213 protect the saplings, the entire plantation was fenced.

214 Eight steel towers were erected around each plot to delineate the experimental
215 area and to provide supporting infrastructure for the CO_2 enrichment system in the
216 treatment plots. Ambient CO_2 control plots were identical to the treatment plots, but
217 for the absence of CO_2 injection piping, to ensure any infrastructure introduced
218 artefacts were applied to both the treatment and control. Carbon dioxide enrichment
219 was carried out using high velocity pure CO_2 injection (Okada *et al.*, 2001). In the
220 first two growing seasons, CO_2 was delivered from a horizontal pipe held at canopy
221 level. In the growing seasons 3 and 4, an additional pipe suspended 2 m below the
222 canopy pipe was added to provide adequate enrichment throughout the canopy.
223 Control of CO_2 delivery was achieved using equipment and software modified from
224 EuroFACE (Miglietta *et al.*, 2001). The target concentration in the elevated CO_2 plots
225 was ambient plus 200 ppm. The elevated CO_2 concentrations, measured at 1 minute
226 intervals, were within 30% deviation from the pre-set target concentration of 580 ppm
227 CO_2 for 75-79% of the time during the photosynthetically active (daylight hours
228 between budburst until leaf abscission) period of 2005 – 2008. Vertical profiles of
229 CO_2 concentration measured at 50 cm intervals through the canopy showed a
230 maximum difference of +7% from reference value obtained at the top of the canopy.
231 The effect of CO_2 fumigation on diameter and height of trees grown within the plots
232 was not modified by the distance from the CO_2 delivery pipe (Supporting Information

233 Fig. S1). The CO_2 used for enrichment originated from natural gas and had a $\delta^{13}C$ of -
234 39‰.
235
236 *Biometric Measurements*
237 Tree height and stem diameter at 22.5 cm were measured after tree establishment in
238 March 2005 and then February of each following year during CO_2 enrichment (2006-
239 2009). Tree measurements were taken during the winter dormant phase to prevent
240 growth introduced variation. Tree height was determined using a telescopic pole, and
241 two measurements of diameter were taken perpendicular to each other using digital
242 vernier callipers. To account for elliptical stem shape a geometric mean was
243 calculated. As the initial tree height was less than 137 cm it was only possible to
244 measure diameter at breast height (DBH) in subsequent years as the stand developed.
245
246 *Allometric Relationships, Stem Volume Index*
247 Two trees of each species were selected for destructive harvest from the downwind
248 buffer zone of each treatment and control plot. The selection of trees for each species
249 was based on average height and diameter data collected during the previous season.
250 Tree height and stem diameter at 22.5 cm were measured and the trees were excavated
251 to a root diameter of 3-4 mm then separated into leaves, branches stems and roots.
252 Roots were washed free of adhering soil and stems cut into 15-20 cm sections, oven
253 dried at 80 °C for 72 hrs and weighed. As a consequence, a power regression of stem
254 diameter and woody biomass was used to explain the allometric relationship for each
255 species studied since height was not found to contribute significantly to any of the
256 allometric models tested (Equation 1). Equation 2 shows the biomass allometric

257 equation in its linear form. Where D is stem diameter at 22.5 cm, with the power
258 regression scaling coefficients a (amplitude) and b (exponent).
259

Eqn 1

Eqn 2

260
261 Stem volume index (basal diameter^2 × height) was calculated and correlated against
262 allometrically determined biomass to test the accuracy of predicted biomass values.
263
264 *Overyielding*
265 To determine the effect of growing species in polyculture, the total measured
266 aboveground woody biomass values in the three-species polyculture sub-plots was
267 compared with a theoretical mixture calculated from the biomass of each species
268 growing in the monoculture sub-plots. Equation 3 shows the theoretical mixture
269 biomass calculation based on the stem number contribution of each species to the
270 polyculture, where $B_{Species}$ is the biomass component contributing to the mixture. The
271 theoretical basis of this calculation is directly analogous to the Relative Yield of
272 Mixtures index used to quantify the effects of competition (Wilson, 1988). The use of
273 Equation 3 in this experiment is comparable with the Relative Yield Total (Weigelt &
274 Jolliffe, 2003).
275

$$B_{mixture} = \left(\frac{1}{3} \times B_{Alnus}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times B_{Betula}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times B_{Fagus}\right) \quad \text{Eqn 3}$$

276
277

278 *Leaf N contents*

279 Leaf N contents were measured on five fully mature but otherwise unaltered leaves
280 collected throughout the canopy of each species sub-plot (120 leaves in total) in 2006
281 (Ahmed, 2006), 2007 (Anthony, 2007), and 2008 (Millett *et al.*, 2012).

282

283 *Leaf Area Index*

284 From the beginning of leaf senescence, fallen leaf litter was collected weekly using
285 litter baskets with an area of 0.11 m^2 until all leaves had abscised (October to
286 December). A litter basket was located in each of the monoculture sub-plots and the
287 three species polyculture sub-plot (4 in each experimental plot). Litter was washed in
288 a laboratory, sorted by species and then dried at 80 ºC for 24 hours. Dry weight of
289 each species was determined and recorded for each species sub-plot. Juvenile *Fagus*
290 *sylvatica* was excluded from the calculations as the beech trees retained the foliage
291 until bud burst the following season. Leaf area index was calculated according to
292 (McCarthy *et al.*, 2007). The specific leaf area was calculated from fresh leaves
293 collected during 2006 and dried archived leaves collected in 2007. Measurements of
294 leaf area were made with a LI 3000A portable area meter (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE,
295 USA). Immediately following area measurement leaves were dried at 80 ºC for 24
296 hours, and weighed to determine specific leaf area. The LAI values obtained were
297 then scaled to calibrate for the different number of trees per species per ground area in
298 the monoculture and polyculture plots

299

300 *Statistical Analysis*

301 Regression fitting was conducted using SigmaPlot v11.0 (Systat Software Inc,
302 Chicago, IL.). All statistical procedures were undertaken with SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc.,

303 Chicago, IL) with $P<0.05$ used as the limit for statistical significance. To avoid
304 psuedoreplication the mean woody biomass per unit area (g m^{-2}) was calculated from
305 the trees contributing to the single and mixed-species plots and data were subjected to
306 repeated measures ANOVA for time series analyses using the plots as replicates
307 (n=4); equality of variance was tested using Mauchly's test of sphericity. A General
308 Linear Model was used to calculate univariate analysis of variance for data
309 determined at conclusion of the experiment. Data were tested for normality using
310 Shapiro-Wilk's test and homogeneity of variance was determined using Levene's test.
311 Diameter distributions were compared by fitting a normal distribution into the
312 frequency data and testing for differences in the peak diameter by extra sum-of-
313 squares F test.
314
315
316 **Results**
317 *Stem diameter and tree height*
318 At the conclusion of the experiment, the treatment effect on diameter was most
319 pronounced in single species sub-plots with the largest effect of +14% observed in *A.*
320 *glutinosa* (ambient 49.1 mm, elevated CO_2 55.9 mm, P=0.007, Table 1). Elevated
321 CO_2 did not change stem diameter of *B. pendula* or *F. sylvatica* significantly.
322 We assessed the treatment effects on diameter distributions of all species by grouping
323 all measured trees into ten diameter classes with 10 mm step increment. For *A.*
324 *glutinosa*, *B. pendula* and *F. Sylvatica*, the most frequent diameter class was 50-60
325 mm, 40-50 mm and 20-30 mm, respectively. The diameter class distribution of *B.*
326 *pendula* and *F. sylvatica* grown in monoculture was not altered by elevated CO_2
327 enrichment (Supporting Information Fig. S2). However in *A. glutinosa*, there was a

328 shift towards larger diameter boles under elevated CO_2, where 39% of trees had a
329 diameter greater than 50-60 mm, which was in contrast to ambient plots, where only
330 11% of trees were in this diameter class (P=0.021). In polyculture, the mean of the
331 diameter distribution was not altered by elevated CO_2 in any of the species. Tree
332 height was unaffected by elevated CO_2 enrichment in either mono- or polyculture at
333 the end of observation (Table 1).
334
335 *Allometric Equations*
336 Height and diameter data gathered from trees in the vicinity of elevated and ambient
337 CO_2 plots were subjected to a stepwise biomass prediction regression. Height was
338 excluded during this analysis, as it did not significantly contribute to the regression
339 model. Ultimately a simple power regression of diameter predicted biomass with the
340 greatest accuracy. Power function scaling coefficients for the three species utilised in
341 this study are shown in Table 2. There were no changes in allometry due to elevated
342 CO_2 at this stage of tree development and subsequently all species specific data were
343 pooled to produce three allometric relationships with coefficients of variation ranging
344 from 0.78 to 0.85. Strong correlations between stem volume index and predicted
345 biomass confirmed the accuracy of predictions for *A. glutinosa* (R^2=0.98) and *B.*
346 *pendula* (R^2=0.99), but highlight a small underestimate of predicted *F. sylvatica*
347 biomass in elevated CO_2 plots (R^2=0.88).
348
349 *Aboveground biomass in monoculture and polyculture.*
350 Making use of the allometric equations to calculate tree aboveground woody biomass,
351 we show that species grown in monoculture responded to elevated CO_2 treatment
352 more than those grown in the three species polyculture. Fig. 3 and Table 3 detail the

353 relationship between time and biomass accruement for all species in ambient and
354 elevated atmospheric CO_2. Under ambient CO_2 both *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula*
355 accumulated aboveground woody biomass faster in the polyculture than in the
356 monocultures. The influence of elevated CO_2 on aboveground woody biomass
357 production varied between species and years. Unsurprisingly in an expanding system,
358 sampling year explained the greatest amount of variation in a repeated measures
359 ANOVA model, being highly significant for all species in both monoculture and
360 polyculture (Table 4). There were no significant year × treatment interactions for any
361 species in the polyculture or for *B. pendula* and *F. sylvatica* in the monocultures.
362 However, there was a significant year × treatment interaction for *A. glutinosa*
363 (P=0.008). Elevated CO_2 treatment produced a significant effect on aboveground
364 woody biomass in *A. glutinosa* grown in monoculture during 2005 (P=0.022), 2007
365 (P=0.025) and 2008 (P=0.002, Table 3). In polyculture, no statistically significant
366 effects of elevated CO_2 were found.
367 The temporal fluctuation in the treatment effect of *B. pendula* and *F. sylvatica* grown
368 in monoculture and polyculture became more apparent when the aboveground woody
369 biomass NPP for each year was calculated (Table 5). In the monocultures, *A.*
370 *glutinosa* showed a positive treatment effect throughout the 4 years of enrichment,
371 whereas in *B. pendula* both positive and negative treatment effects were found. In *F.*
372 *sylvatica,* aboveground woody biomass NPP was initially stimulated under elevated
373 CO_2, but the effect turned strongly negative in 2008. In polyculture, *A. glutinosa*
374 showed a strong positive treatment effect on aboveground woody biomass for all
375 years except 2007. Similarly in *B. pendula* a positive treatment effect on aboveground
376 woody biomass were shown for all years. In contrast, a negative effect of elevated
377 CO_2 was shown on the accumulation of aboveground woody biomass in *F. sylvatica*

in all years except 2006. Pooling the species contributing to the polyculture over all years, there was no effect of elevated CO_2 on overyielding in the mixture (P=0.094), nor did we observe any modification of the CO_2 fertilisation when growing trees in monoculture or polyculture (P=0.192, Fig. 3).

At the conclusion of the experiment with all species pooled, aboveground woody biomass reached 16.5 ± 0.8 kg m^{-2} in ambient CO_2 plots and 19.3 ± 0.4 kg m^{-2} in elevated CO_2 plots, a significant increase of 17% (P=0.022). The contribution of aboveground woody biomass within the elevated CO_2 plots followed the order *B. pendula* (10.1 ± 0.0 kg m^{-2}), *A. glutinosa* (8.6 ± 0.6 kg m^{-2}) and *F. sylvatica* (0.6 ± 0.0 kg m^{-2}). A significant 16% (P=0.046) increase in aboveground woody biomass was observed in *B. pendula* in response to CO_2 treatment. Pooling the values for each species, in the monocultures the aboveground woody biomass was 12.9 ± 1.4 kg m^{-2} in ambient, and 15.2 ± 0.6 kg m^{-2} in elevated CO_2 treatments. Polyculture aboveground woody biomass reached 18.9 ± 1.0 kg m^{-2} in ambient and 20.2 ± 0.6 kg m^{-2} in elevated CO_2 treatments. This resulted in an increase in aboveground woody biomass under elevated CO_2 of 18% in monoculture and 7% in polyculture.

To summarise, pooled aboveground woody biomass was significantly affected by elevated CO_2 (P=0.022). We also observed a significant positive effect of species mixture (P=0.001), but the interaction was not significant (P=0.534).

Leaf N content and aboveground NPP

Over the course of the experiment, leaf N contents were not significantly affected by elevated CO_2 (Table 6). However, we observed a strong increase in foliar N content in time (P<0.001), combined with significant differences between species (P<0.05) over the period 2006-2008 (Supporting Information Fig. S3). Leaf NUE, defined as unit of

403 aboveground NPP per unit of foliar N content (Yasumura *et al.*, 2002), fluctuated in
404 time (Fig. 5) and was significantly increased by elevated CO_2 from 44.0 to 53.7 g m^{-2}
405 mg g^{-1} averaged for all species and years (P=0.017). Due to data unavailability, we
406 could only establish the effect of mixture on leaf NUE in 2008. Four years into the
407 experiment, growing species in polyculture as opposed to monoculture significantly
408 increased the overall leaf NUE from 23.4 to 38.6 g m^{-2} mg g^{-1} (P=0.022, Fig. 6).
409 However, there was no effect of mixture or elevated CO_2 on leaf NUE in individual
410 species in 2008.
411
412 *Leaf Area Index*
413 Repeated measures ANOVA showed a significant year × species interaction for
414 species grown in monoculture (P<0.05) and polyculture (P<0.001; Table 7). The
415 response of LAI to elevated CO_2 when species were grown in monoculture was a
416 mean increase of 32% in *B. pendula,* and mean decrease of 6% in *A. glutinosa*. During
417 the four years of CO_2 enrichment LAI of *B. pendula* was between 1.1-3.2 m^2 m^{-2} in
418 ambient CO_2 and 0.8-4.0 m^2 m^{-2} in elevated CO_2 plots, whereas LAI of *A. glutinosa*
419 was between 1.4-7.6 m^2 m^{-2} and 1.4-8.2 m^2 m^{-2} in ambient and elevated CO_2 plots
420 respectively (Fig. 4). Elevated CO_2 initially increased LAI of *B. pendula* by 37%,
421 however this effect gradually declined to 24% in 2007, recovering to 32% by the
422 conclusion of the experiment. In both mono- and polyculture, peak LAI in *A.*
423 *glutinosa* and *B. pendula* was recorded in 2007, which was preceded by a severe
424 drought, summer crown defoliation, and leaf re-flushing during august of 2006, a
425 strong decline in LAI immediately followed in 2008 in monocultures. During 2008 in
426 polyculture the LAI was 4.6 and 4.4 times greater than in monoculture in ambient
427 atmosphere for *B. pendula* and *A. glutinosa*, respectively, whilst in monoculture the

LAI was 6.1 and 4.6 times greater than in elevated CO_2 for *B. pendula* and *A. glutinosa* respectively.

Discussion

Allometric relationships have commonly been used to estimate biomass of aboveground compartments. The allometric coefficients generated in this study were broadly similar to previously published coefficients (Hughes, 1971; Bartelink, 1997; Pajtik *et al.*, 2011), with the exception of *F. sylvatica*. The dimorphic growth characteristics of juvenile *F. sylvatica* under different light regimes during canopy development may explain the difference observed (Delagrange *et al.*, 2006). The application of species and site specific allometric relationships is likely to be valid for *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula.* However, the relationship for *F. sylvatica* appears a little weaker and may benefit from closer examination of the differences in morphology when trees are shade suppressed and growing in full light.

In this study, aboveground woody biomass accumulation in *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula* was greater in polyculture than in the monocultures. In species diverse communities, complementary use of resources may lead to higher yields than in monocultures (Loreau & Hector, 2001). Differences in the tree species life-history character traits, such as crown structure, rooting depth, shade tolerance, phenology, and photosynthetic light response may allow for differential access to resources (Kelty, 1992). If the chosen species occupying the same site differ substantially in these characteristics, they may capture site resources more completely or use resources more efficiently to produce biomass. Species with contrasting trait characteristics can be described as having complementary resource use (Haggar & Ewel, 1997) or good ecological combining ability (Harper, 1977). However, it should

453 be noted that complementarity may not necessarily result in a positive effect on
454 productivity, antagonistic interactions (negative complementarity) between species
455 may also occur due to character trait interferences that may lower the productivity of
456 species mixtures over those expected from monocultures (Wardle *et al*., 1998; Loreau
457 & Hector, 2001; Eisenhauer, 2012). In this study, Paquette & Messier (2010) in an
458 analysis of naturally occurring tree biodiversity could show a strong positive effect of
459 biodiversity on tree productivity. They further suggest that in the more productive
460 environment of temperate forest, competitive exclusion is the most probable outcome
461 of species interactions, but in the more stressful environment of boreal forest
462 beneficial interactions such as niche partitioning and facilitation may be more
463 important.

464 In our temperate forest mixture, we used two pioneer species and a late
465 successional species that strongly differ in their functional traits. *Betula pendula* is a
466 light demanding, early successional pioneer species which casts little shade and
467 rapidly occupies open areas due to fast juvenile growth (Fischer *et al.*, 2002). *Alnus*
468 *glutinosa* is an N-fixing, water demanding pioneer species, also with high juvenile
469 growth rates (Braun, 1974). The root system of *A. glutinosa* is adapted to wet soils,
470 with many vertically growing sinker roots that may reach 5 m depth (Claessens *et al.*,
471 2010). In mixed forests, its limited height growth and shade intolerance prevent it
472 from dominating in late successional forest. Lastly, *Fagus sylvatica* is shade tolerant
473 and slow growing when juvenile (Ellenberg *et al.*, 1991), can persist in the understory,
474 and often dominates late successional forest. The higher polyculture productivity in
475 our 4 year old plantation suggests that the dominant pioneer species *A. glutinosa* and
476 *B. pendula* are partitioning canopy space made available by *F. sylvatica*. However,
477 the flattening of the diameter class distribution in *B. pendula*, but not in *A. glutinosa*,

478 suggests that some *B. pendula* are being excluded. In our study, we did not
479 systematically determine crown architecture, but observed that in polyculture both *B.*
480 *pendula* and shorter *A. glutinosa* had deeper crowns. Indeed, we saw higher LAI in *A.*
481 *glutinosa* and *B. pendula* in polyculture compared to monocultures, but no difference
482 in stem height, which suggests alteration of crown architecture between monoculture
483 and polyculture grown trees. Claessen *et al*, (2010) suggest that *A. glutinosa* grown in
484 monoculture produces a straight bole and round crown, whereas when grown in
485 admixture with other species forms a stratified canopy. In the meta-analysis of species
486 richness productivity relationships by Zhang *et al.*, (2012), heterogeneity of shade
487 tolerance was the second most important factor explaining increased productivity in
488 mixtures. In addition to an aboveground partitioning of canopy space, an increase in
489 N availability via the N-fixing *A. glutinosa* could also be a factor in the higher
490 productivity of the polyculture. In *A. glutinosa* under ambient CO_2, the amount of N
491 content in the leaves did not differ between monoculture or polyculture (Millett *et al.*,
492 2012), however in polyculture leaves of *F. sylvatica* and *B. pendula* were less
493 enriched in ^{15}N compared to the leaves of these species growing in monoculture. This
494 difference suggests an incorporation of N fixed by the symbionts of *A. glutinosa*. In
495 other investigations, the contribution of transferred N to total N was 5–15%
496 (Arnebrant *et al.*, 1993) and 1–3% (Ekblad & HussDanell, 1995) on average between
497 *A. glutinosa* and *P. contorta* and *A. incana* and *P. sylvestris*, respectively.
498 Furthermore, leaves of both *F. sylvatica* and *B. pendula* with greater numbers of *A.*
499 *glutinosa* as direct neighbours were significantly depleted in ^{15}N compared to leaves
500 of those with fewer *A. glutinosa* as direct neighbours (Millett *et al.*, 2012), suggesting
501 a competition for N as a possible mechanism for exclusion of some of the *B. pendula.*

In response to elevated CO_2, aboveground woody biomass for all 3 species combined was increased by 22% in monocultures. A response of this magnitude is consistent with previously reported woody plant response of 28% calculated from meta-analyses of elevated CO_2 experiments (Curtis & Wang, 1998; Ainsworth & Long, 2005) or 23% from four forest FACE experiments after six years of enrichment (Norby *et al.*, 2005). Utilising observations spanning somewhat longer exposure to elevated CO_2 (up to 11 years), Norby *et al.*, (2010) have shown that NPP responsiveness decreases in time. The limitation of NPP stimulation may largely be attributed to progressive nitrogen limitation (PNL), however the observed reduction in NPP stimulation was almost entirely accounted for by changes in fine root production. Given the life history character traits of the species chosen in our experimental plantation, it is possible that the increased accruement of woody biomass we observed in polyculture may not decrease as the forest stand develops. The presence of *A. glutinosa* in the mixture should compensate for increased N uptake and thus negate or at least delay the onset of PNL. Several studies have shown that the rate of N-fixation in the nodules of trees supporting this type of symbiosis increases under elevated CO_2, presumably as a result of increased C availability (Hungate *et al.*, 1999; Schortemeyer *et al.*, 2002). *B. pendula* and *F. sylvatica* growing in our plantation have been shown to utilize N fixed by *A.glutinosa*, suggesting that the presence of an N-fixing species might alleviate N limitation for all species grown in a polyculture.

There were considerable temporal differences in the response to elevated CO_2 at our site. In the first growing season before canopy closure, all species responded to elevated CO_2 enrichment by increasing total biomass by 27-29%. Stimulation of *B. pendula* began to decline during the second growing season, whereas the response of *F. sylvatica* declined during the last two growing seasons – an effect often attributed

527 to acclimation to elevated CO_2 (Ainsworth & Long, 2005) or to nutrient limitation
528 (Oren *et al.*, 2001). In the present study leaf N was unaffected by elevated CO_2 during
529 all stages of development, and thus it is unlikely that the decreasing overall elevated
530 CO_2 effect is due to N limitation. Due to the history of land use at the site, we did not
531 expect lack of N to limit plant growth within the first four years. In fact, foliar N
532 increased while leaf NUE decreased with time in all treatments, indicating sufficient
533 N uptake. In all species pooled together, leaf NUE was increased by elevated CO_2 and
534 also by growing trees in a mixture. However, we did not observe any differences in
535 leaf NUE in individual species, suggesting that a different mechanism may explain
536 observed species-specific responses.

537 Since we observed an expanding system with at least two canopy levels, the
538 developmental phase of the stand and the strength of competition in our experiment
539 must also be considered. Each species used in this study differs in their shade
540 tolerance. Ellenberg (1991) characterised *F. sylvatica, A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula*
541 respectively as shade tolerant (3, out of 9), intermediate (5) and light demanding (7).
542 Low leaf mass per leaf unit area and high rate of carbon assimilation per unit leaf area
543 of light demanding species allow rapid occupancy of available space and some
544 canopy light penetration (Niinemets, 2006). Considering only monocultures in 2005,
545 the saplings of each species were initially not influenced by intra-specific competition
546 for light and space, allowing a greater response to elevated CO_2. The subsequent
547 decline in response of *F. sylvatica* to elevated CO_2, may be explained by strong
548 intraspecific competition through leaf morphology and crown architecture that
549 minimises canopy light penetration. In contrast, *A. glutinosa* sustained the stimulation
550 by elevated CO_2, ranging between 25-32% throughout the four year experiment.
551 Claessens *et al.*, (2010) described *A. glutinosa* as fast growing when juvenile, but as a

552 poor competitor that does not produce shade leaves. Respirational losses of crown
553 shaded leaves may result in a leaf carbon balance that approaches zero which can
554 lead to rapid leaf death (Reich *et al.*, 2009). In our ecosystem, fast juvenile growth
555 coupled with rapid self-pruning enabled *A. glutinosa* grown in monoculture to fully
556 utilise elevated levels of atmospheric CO_2 to accumulate aboveground woody
557 biomass, however, aboveground growth response to elevated CO_2 was dramatically
558 reduced when species were grown in polyculture. Initial increases in biomass of *F.*
559 *sylvatica* were marginal, eventually becoming suppressed in the last growing seasons.
560 The lack of stimulation of *F. sylvatica* is most likely due to faster canopy occupation
561 by *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula* under elevated CO_2. Changes in leaf area index (LAI)
562 may influence canopy light penetration and inter-specific competition under elevated
563 CO_2. In our study, in monocultures the LAI was unaffected by elevated CO_2, but was
564 there was a consistently higher trend in *B. pendula* for the first three years. During the
565 summer of 2006, a severe drought resulted in partial canopy defoliation, which may
566 explain the dramatic LAI increase in 2007. Both species possess indeterminate growth
567 characteristics that enabled an additional leaf flush when environmental conditions
568 improved later in the 2006 season. We propose two mechanisms to explain this
569 phenomena; (i) differences in rooting depth between the two species and (ii) the
570 ability to recover from defoliation related to N storage. *A.glutinosa* has been
571 characterised as possessing extensive root systems, with particularly deep tap roots
572 that enable it to access water below the normal water table (Schmidt-Vogt, 1971;
573 Claessens *et al.*, 2010). This confers a considerable advantage in leaf production
574 during, and following, drought conditions. The second explanation centres on the
575 storage of N in tree perennial organs which can be re-mobilised and support leaf
576 regrowth after defoliation. In combination with a flush of carbon and organic nirogen

577 compounds released for root uptake as the abscised litter decomposed mid-growing
578 season, this mechanism may have facilitated the development of leaf primordia and a
579 greater LAI during the following season (Tromp, 1983). Oksanen *et al.* (2001) found
580 that elevated CO_2 consistently increased leaf area index throughout the growing
581 season in aspen, birch and maple stands, which was attributed to larger leaves. In
582 contrast, Gielen *et al.* (2001) found that leaf area index of *P. nigra* increased by 225%
583 during the first growing season. However, a post-canopy closure analysis using a fish-
584 eye canopy analyser revealed no increase in leaf area index, which is in agreement
585 with data obtained at the Oak Ridge deciduous closed canopy elevated CO_2
586 experiment (Norby *et al.*, 2003.).
587 Our results clearly show that the aboveground response to elevated CO_2 is species
588 dependent, but also affected by intra- and inter-specific competition. Indeed, old
589 growth *F. sylvatica* have been reported to show only a limited response to CO_2
590 enrichment (Körner *et al.*, 2005). In our study, a small, but statistically non-significant
591 positive effect of elevated CO_2 on *F. sylvatica* in polyculture was shown in 2006, a
592 year in which a severe summer drought in June and July resulted in strong leaf loss in
593 *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula*. During this period only 44 mm of precipitation fell,
594 compared to 101, 216 and 85 mm in the same period of 2005, 2007 and 2008
595 respectively. In July 2006 maximum temperature was 34.5 ºC, 10 ºC warmer than in
596 other years. The increase in light penetration to the understory formed by *F. sylvatica*,
597 in combination with improved water use efficiency, may have stimulated a response
598 to elevated CO_2, at least until *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula* regrew some of their
599 foliage in late August. The literature suggests that much of the response of trees to
600 elevated CO_2 is linked to greater water availability, and that trees may be more
601 drought tolerant under elevated CO_2 (Eamus, 1991; Holtum & Winter, 2010;

602 Leuzinger *et al.*, 2011). If elevated CO_2 had conferred a greater tolerance to drought in
603 our experiment we would have expected the highest response to elevated CO_2 in
604 2006, this was clearly not the case for *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula*, however, the
605 severity of the drought in combination with higher temperatures and photosynthetic
606 oxidative stress should also be considered.
607 To date, the majority of tree elevated CO_2 experiments have used monospecific tree
608 stands and report a mean stimulation of NPP for the duration of the observation
609 (Norby *et al.*, 2010). We show that in a short-term empirical study of juvenile
610 deciduous temperate trees grown in polyculture that the aboveground woody biomass
611 response to elevated CO_2 was strongly decreased. This result may have implications
612 for estimating global forest response to elevated CO_2, as in natural mixed species
613 forest the response to CO_2 may be lower than previous estimates. However, caution
614 must be exercised when extrapolating data from small scale temperate plantations,
615 particularly when there is potential for experimental artefacts, arising from CO_2
616 enrichment systems and edge effects influencing the response of saplings planted in
617 complex arrangements at high planting densities. Although providing useful data
618 experimental plantations do not directly mimic the natural species diverse, multi-aged,
619 and complex structures of the majority of the world's forests that grow in differing
620 biomes, constrained by other physical and environmental drivers. Leuzinger *et al.*
621 (2011) suggest that an increase in the number of driver variables such as elevated
622 CO_2, drought, N addition will dampen ecosystem response to single factors through
623 contrasting driver interactions. Similarly, Langley & Megonigal (2010) could show
624 that in a grassland system, addition of N under high CO_2 promoted a shift in
625 community composition to C_4 species that were less responsive to CO_2, thus
626 decreasing overall community response. Further, Langley & Megonigal (2010)

627 suggest that if the addition of N favours species that respond strongly to CO_2, the
628 community response to CO_2 should increase. In our experimental mixture,
629 complementary resource acquisition has lead to greater community productivity
630 which has dampened the aboveground woody biomass response to elevated CO_2 even
631 though the most responsive species in monoculture (*A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula*) have
632 been promoted within the mixed community. This is most likely due to changes in
633 source-sink relationships and carbon allocation to belowground organs. Indeed, tree
634 root systems under elevated atmospheric CO_2 have been shown to expand deeper into
635 the soil (Lukac *et al.*, 2003; Iversen, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 2012). Clearly, we are only
636 beginning to understand how changes in elevated CO_2 influenced above- and
637 belowground processes may alter plant community dynamics.
638 In conclusion, atmospheric CO_2 enrichment did not alter species specific allometric
639 relationships. Estimation of aboveground biomass stocks and productivity revealed a
640 differential response to elevated atmospheric CO_2. Aboveground biomass responses to
641 CO_2 enrichment were species specific and strongly reduced when species were grown
642 in polyculture. In monoculture, *A. glutinosa* produced the largest and most consistent
643 response, maintaining growth response until the experiment's conclusion. In contrast,
644 the growth response of *B. pendula* and *F. sylvatica* diminished with time. In
645 polyculture growth of *F. sylvatica* was not enhanced by elevated CO_2. Our results
646 suggest that determining how the aboveground biomass response of deciduous species
647 grown in polyculture differs over single species plantations is imperative to improving
648 our understanding of future CO_2 will impact natural forest community dynamics.
649
650
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662

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Supporting Information

Supporting Information Fig. S1 – Effect of CO_2 fumigation on diameter at base (A) and height (B) of all trees grown within experimental plots.

Supporting Information Fig. S2 – Diameter class distributions at the conclusion of the Bangor FACE experiment of individual species grown in monoculture and a three species polyculture under ambient and elevated CO_2.

Supporting Information Fig. S3 – Foliar nitrogen content (a), aboveground NPP (b), and leaf NUE (c) in *A.glutinosa*, *B.pendula* and *F.sylvatica*.

Table 1 Overall effect of elevated CO_2 and probability of significance at the end of 2008 growing season after four years fumigation. The effect of elevated CO_2 is expressed as a percentage relative to control plot measurements of tree diameter at 22.5 cm and height of *A. glutinosa*, *B. pendula*, *F. sylvatica*. Trees were grown in monocultures and a three species polyculture. Statistically significant results are emboldened and denoted by an asterisk ($^{**}P<0.01$).

Planting patterm	Species	Diameter		Height	
		Effect	Probability	Effect	Probability
Mono	*A. glutinosa*	14%	**0.007****	3%	0.706
	B. pendula	6%	0.146	0%	0.935
	F. sylvatica	6%	0.603	0%	0.965
Poly	*A. glutinosa*	4%	0.618	1%	0.837
	B. pendula	5%	0.614	3%	0.728
	F. sylvatica	-5%	0.483	-12%	0.333

Table 2 Allometric relationship power function scaling coefficients for the three species utilised in this study determined by regression analysis.

Species	*a*	*b*	R^2
Alnus glutinosa	0.5200	2.020	0.85
Betula pendula	0.4414	2.163	0.86
Fagus sylvatica	0.6885	1.853	0.78

Table 3 Effect of CO_2 enrichment on aboveground woody biomass of *Alnus glutinosa*, *Betula pendula* and *Fagus sylvatica* when grown in monoculture and in a three species polyculture. Statistically significant results are emboldened and denoted by an asterisk ($^{*}P<0.05$).

Planting	Species	2005	2006	2007	2008	Overall
Mono	*A. glutinosa*	***+29%**	+25%	***+28%**	***+32%**	+29%
	B. pendula	+27%	+13%	+14%	+9%	+16%
	F. sylvatica	+28%	+33%	+20%	+9%	+22%
Poly	*A. glutinosa*	+13%	+12%	+3%	+8%	+10%
	B. pendula	+4%	+8%	+6%	+7%	+6%
	F. sylvatica	+2%	+5%	+2%	-8%	0%

Table 4 F-values and probability of significance for sampling year and sampling year × CO_2 treatment interactions from a repeated measures ANOVA of tree diameter, height and aboveground woody biomass for *A. glutinosa, B. pendula* and *F. sylvatica* grown in both monoculture and polyculture. Statistically significant results are emboldened and denoted by an asterisk ($^{*}P<0.1$, $^{**}P<0.05$, $^{***}P<0.001$).

Planting Pattern	Species	Source of Variation	Diameter		Height		Biomass	
			F	Probability	F	Probability	F	Probability
Mono	*A. glutinosa*	treatment	7.216	**0.036****	0.681	0.441	3.920	**0.095***
		year	506.525	**<0.001*****	512.615	**<0.001*****	253.786	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	2.689	0.055	0.603	0.664	5.546	**0.008****
	B. pendula	treatment	1.808	0.227	0.076	0.792	1.064	0.342
		year	428.974	**<0.001*****	394.712	**<0.001*****	113.580	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	0.610	0.659	0.193	0.940	0.078	0.971
	F. sylvatica	treatment	1.017	0.352	0.576	0.477	0.445	0.529
		year	123.828	**<0.001*****	200.403	**<0.001*****	47.454	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	0.454	0.769	1.124	0.368	0.250	0.860
Poly	*A. glutinosa*	treatment	0.319	0.592	0.110	0.751	0.271	0.622
		year	377.886	**<0.001*****	934.984	**<0.001*****	125.788	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	0.818	0.526	0.223	0.923	0.179	0.909
	B. pendula	treatment	0.440	**0.**532	0.368	0.566	0.355	0.573
		year	223.473	**<0.001*****	351.368	**<0.001*****	64.346	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	0.245	0.910	0.088	0.985	0.083	0.969
	F. sylvatica	treatment	0.003	0.958	0.695	0.436	0.270	0.622
		year	205.838	**<0.001*****	116.937	**<0.001*****	101.798	**<0.001*****
		year×treatment	0.651	0.632	0.950	0.453	1.240	0.325

Table 5 Effect of CO_2 enrichment on annual production of aboveground woody biomass in *Alnus glutinosa*, *Betula pendula* and *Fagus sylvatica* when grown in monocultures and polyculture with other species. Statistically significant results are emboldened and denoted by an asterisk ($^{*}P<0.05$).

Planting	Species	2005	2006	2007	2008	Overall
Mono	*A. glutinosa*	35%	20%	***33%**	***59%**	37%
	B. pendula	32%	-7%	15%	-8%	8%
	F. sylvatica	30%	38%	-4%	-31%	9%
Poly	*A. glutinosa*	27%	13%	-13%	29%	14%
	B. pendula	6%	13%	4%	7%	8%
	F. sylvatica	-2%	9%	-20%	-38%	-13%

Table 6 Leaf nitrogen content (% ± SEM) of *Alnus glutinosa*, *Betula pendula* and *Fagus sylvatica* grown under ambient and elevated CO_2. Figures in bold denote CO_2 effect significant at $P<0.05$. Source [a]Ahmed (2006), [b]Anthony (2007), [c]Millett *et al*. (2011).

Species	2006[a]		2007[b]		2008[c]	
	Ambient	FACE	Ambient	FACE	Ambient	FACE
A. glutinosa	**4.1 ± 0.5**	**3.1 ± 0.2**	3.4 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.2	4.1 ± 0.0	3.9 ± 0.1
B. pendula	3.0 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.5	2.5 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.1	3.8 ± 0.2
F. sylvatica	2.0 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	**1.6 ± 0.5**	**3.7 ± 0.1**	3.0 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1

Table 7 Analysis of the LAI of trees grown in monoculture and a three species polyculture under ambient and elevated CO_2 between 2005-2008 using repeated measures ANOVA. Statistically significant results are emboldened and denoted by an asterisk ($^{*}P<0.05$, $^{***}P<0.001$)

	Monoculture		Polyculture	
Source of Variation	F-Value	Probability	F-Value	Probability
year	44.478	**<0.001*****	33.451	**<0.001*****
year × treatment	1.318	0.283	0.106	0.956
year × species	3.715	**0.020***	19.008	**<0.001*****
year × treatment × species	0.423	0.737	1.174	0.333

40

Fig. 1 Layout of ambient and elevated CO_2 plots; a = *Alnus glutinosa*, b = *Betula pendula*, F = *Fagus sylvatica*. Each plot contains 27 trees per species. Monoculture species area is indicated by a solid lined oval and three species polyculture plots a dot-dash line oval.

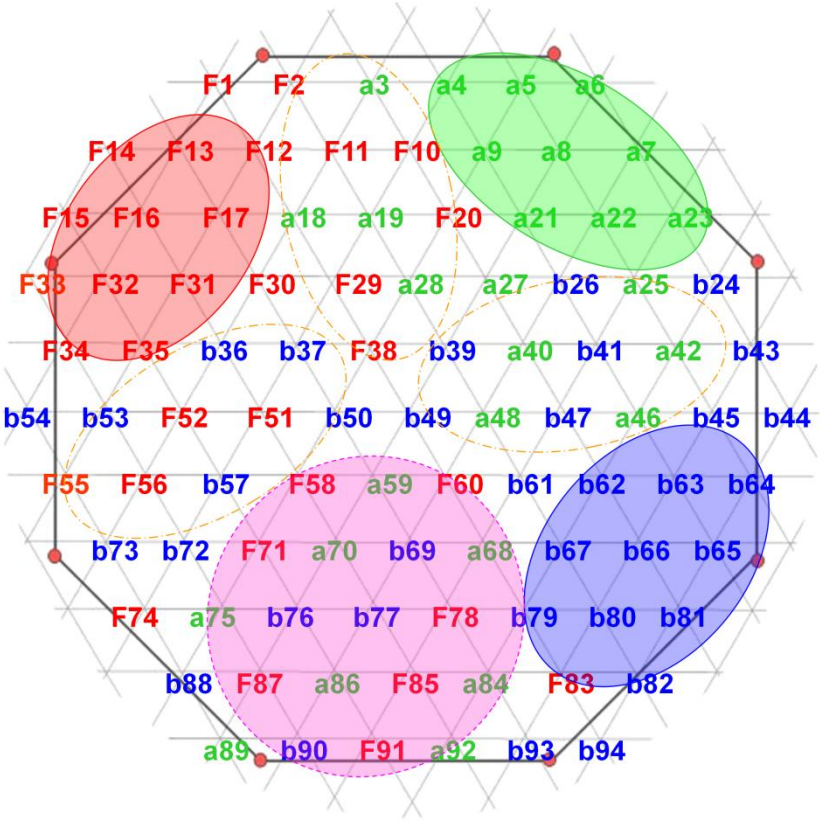

Fig. 2 Mean ± SE aboveground woody biomass for the species grown in monoculture sub-plots under elevated and ambient CO_2 for four years. Aboveground woody biomass was calculated from allometric relationship determined from whole tree harvesting in 2006. Hollow circles indicated elevated atmospheric CO_2 and filled circles indicate ambient CO_2.

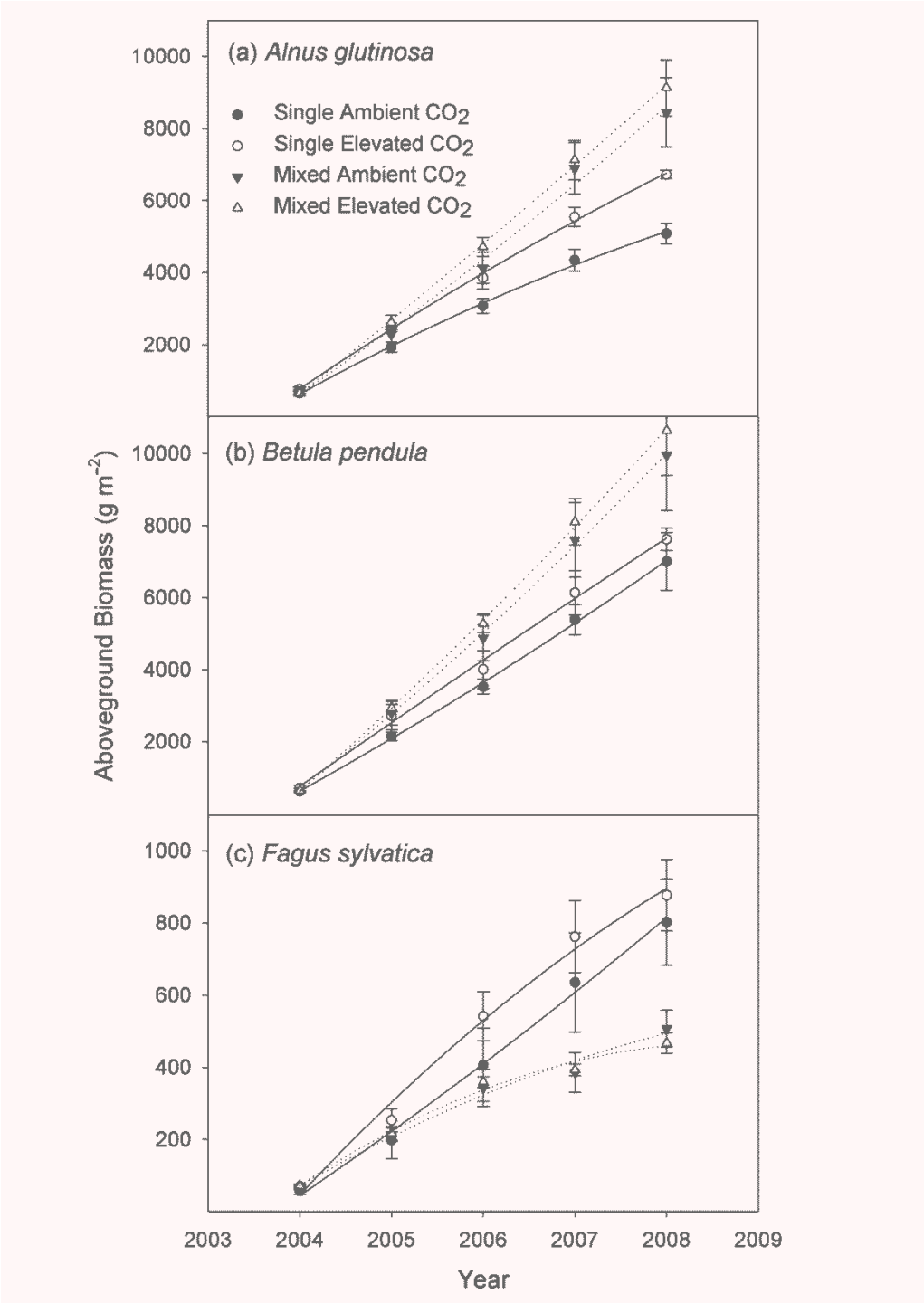

Fig. 3 Overyielding (a) and CO_2 fertilisation (b) effects in pooled data for *A.glutinosa*, *B.pendula* and *F.sylvatica*. Overyielding was calculated as aboveground woody biomass measured in polyculture over that predicted from monocultures. Predicted biomass was calculated by taking 1/3 of biomass observed in each species when grown in monoculture. CO_2 fertilisation was calculated as biomass in elevated over ambient CO_2 treatments. Values are mean ± SE, n=4.

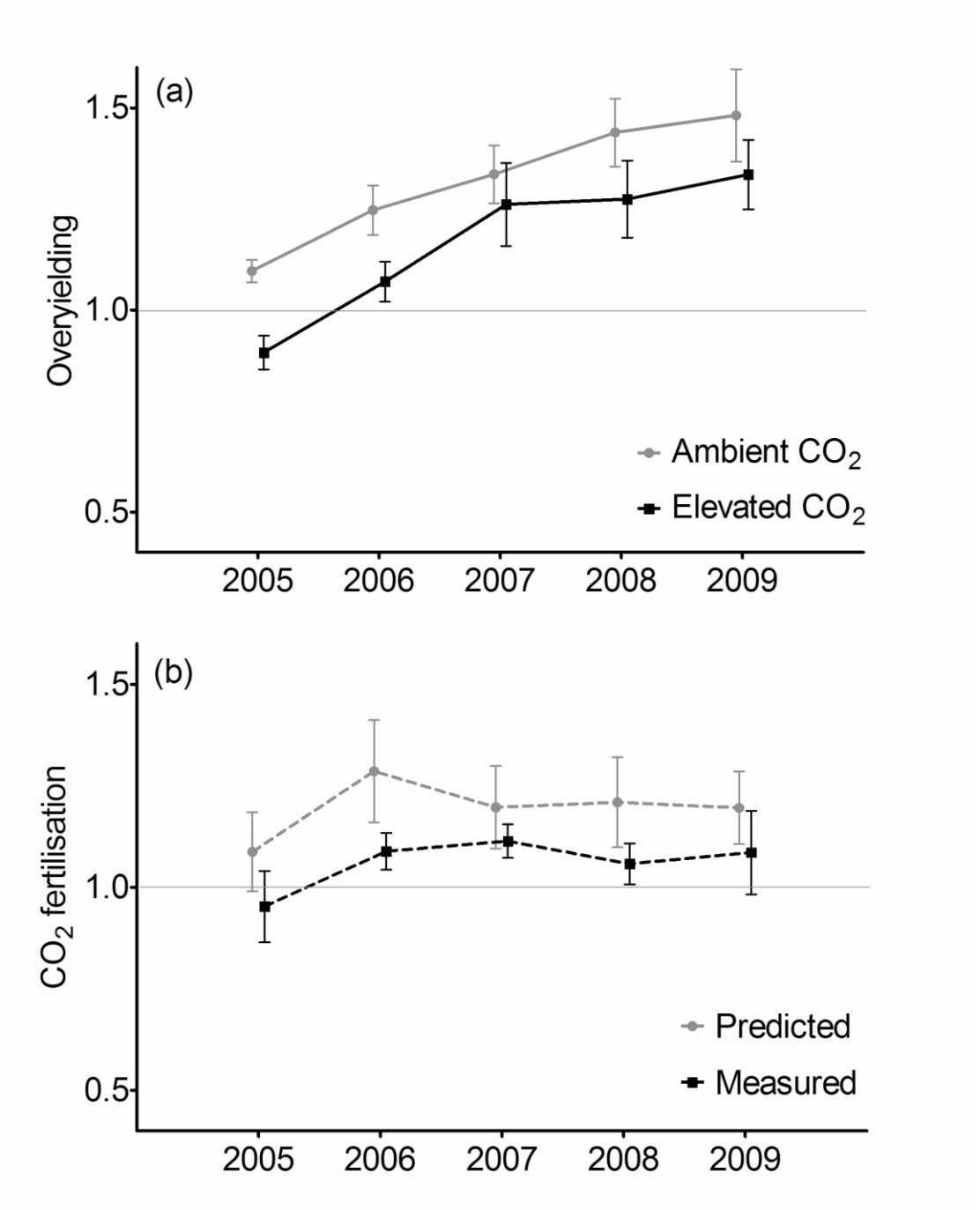

Fig. 4 Measured leaf area index for *A. glutinosa* and *B. pendula* grown under ambient and elevated CO_2 in monoculture (upper panel) and polyculture (lower panel). Values are mean ± SE.

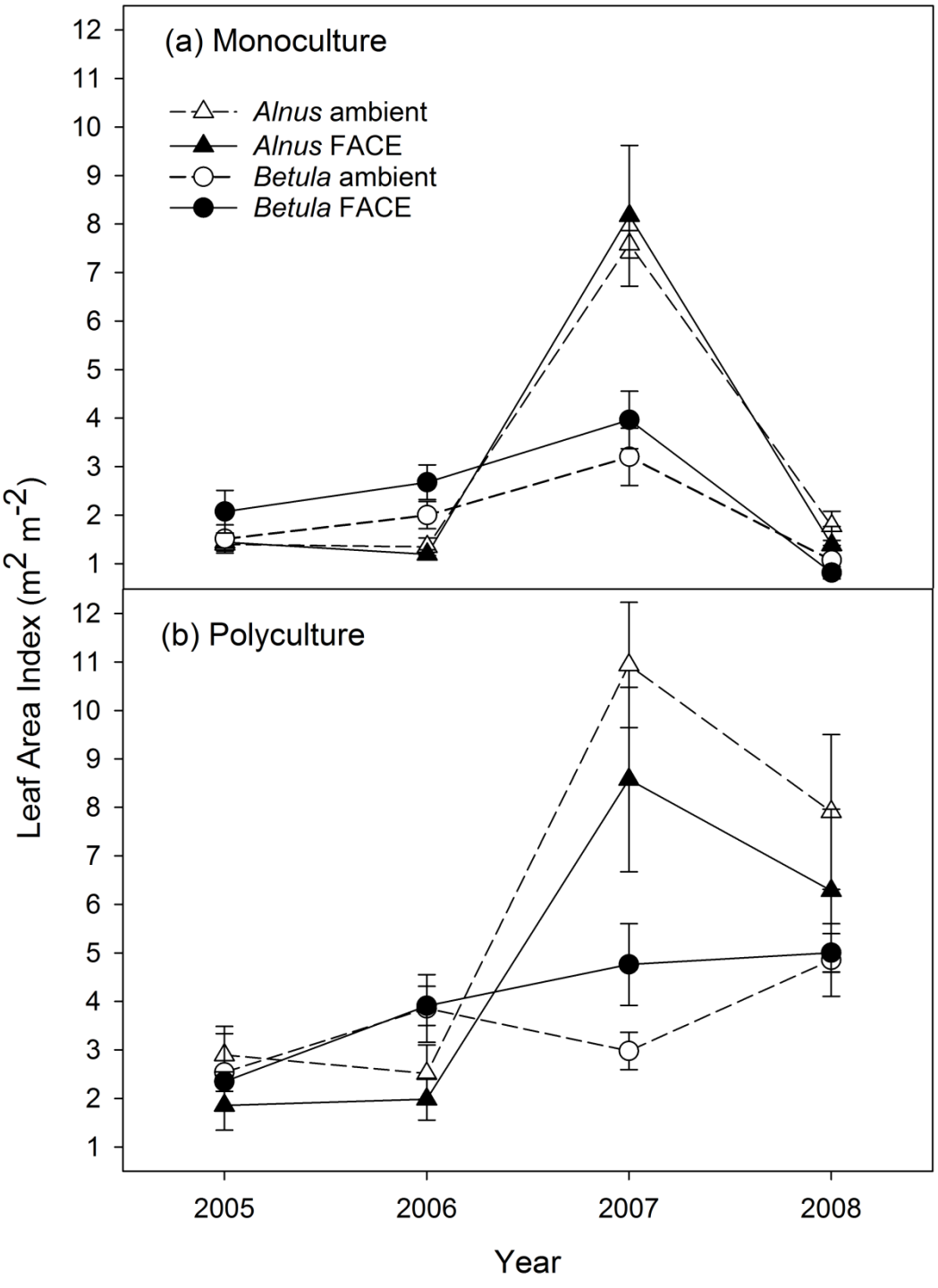

Fig. 5 Leaf Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE) defined as aboveground net primary production per unit of leaf N content. Leaf N Data for (a) *A.glutinosa*, (b) *B.pendula* and (c) *F.sylvatica* are from Ahmed (2006), Anthony (2007) and Millett *et al*. (2011). Values are mean ± SE, *n*=4.

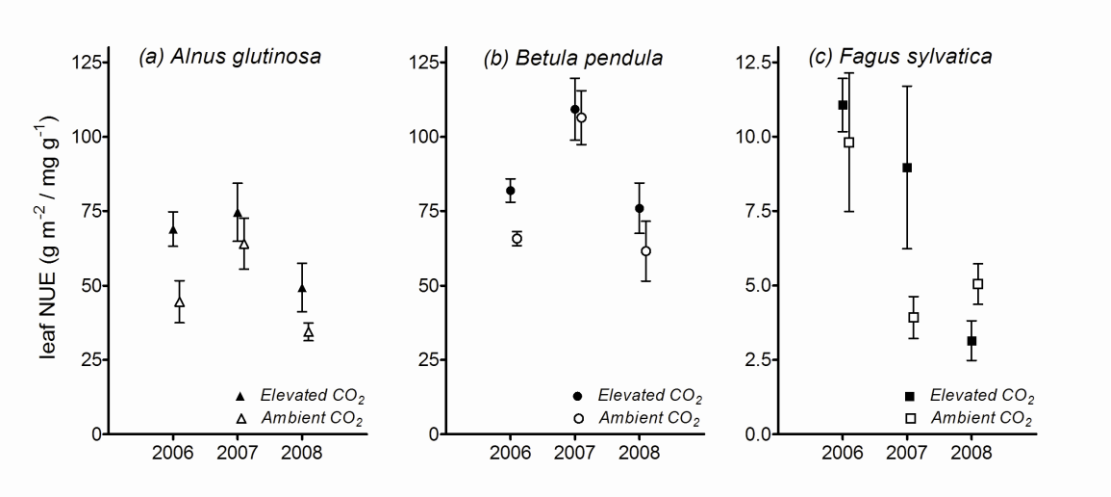

Fig. 6 Leaf Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE), defined as aboveground net primary production per unit of leaf N content, in trees grown in monocultures and a three species mixture. Leaf N Data for (a) *A.glutinosa*, (b) *B.pendula* and (c) *F.sylvatica* are from Ahmed (2006), Anthony (2007) and Millett *et al*. (2011). Values are mean ± SE, *n*=4.