

11 Nutrient Acquisition of Terrestrial Plants in a Changing Climate

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11.1 Introduction

The previous chapters highlighted the many ways by which nutrient acquisition can regulate plant response to the environment. Today, ecosystems and ecological processes are impacted by a suite of anthropogenic agents that will define plant ecology in ways that were not imagined even as little as five decades ago. Changes in land use and anthropogenic production of environmental pollutants have all but devastated many native systems of the world and will remain a growing danger to the health of the remaining native systems. Ecologists, particularly those working with plants and ecosystems, bear the intellectual task of reliably predicting the potential consequences of global change. Such knowledge will be critical in management and policy measures designed to halt further deterioration of native systems. In this chapter, we argue that reliable predictions of the fate of terrestrial plant communities, and thereby the policy and management choices of the future, will require a clear understanding of plant nutrient uptake in a changing climate.

By the end of this century, most of the globe will be experiencing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations twice as high as those encountered during the mid-20th century, while the global temperature is likely to rise by as much as 5 °C during the same period. In addition to their direct effects, the higher concentration of CO₂ and other greenhouse gasses will impact terrestrial ecosystems via dramatic changes in climate pattern, including the occurrence of extreme drought and flooding. Major biomes of the earth will also experience above-average input of atmospheric N, ozone (stratospheric ozone will decrease and tropospheric levels increase), and UV-B radiation. Either individually or collectively, alterations in these environmental factors will change plant nutrient demand. Unless these demands are met via adjustments in nutrient availability and/or uptake, the productivity and composition of plant communities may change irreversibly.

Obviously, we will not be able to cover all the components of global change in this chapter. Chapter 10 (this Vol.) has covered soil temperature as a component of global change. Here, we will focus on the impacts of three major components of global change, and examine the state of the knowledge on how these factors affect plant nutrient uptake. The components of global change focused on here are elevated tropospheric ozone, increased incident UV-B radiation, and elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration.

11.2 Elevated Tropospheric Ozone or Elevated UV-B Radiation

11.2.1 Extent of the Problem and Relevance to Nutrient Uptake

At first consideration, elevated levels of tropospheric ozone (O₃) and elevated levels of UV-B solar radiation would appear to have little similarity. Nonetheless, these topics will be considered together because of the shared themes that emerge from the literature: both have direct effects upon aboveground plant organs, both have the potential to generate oxidative damage, and both have the potential to alter biomass accumulation and partitioning. Fundamentally, however, little is known about the effect of either of these stresses on nutrient acquisition from the soil environment.

Tropospheric O₃ is the major phytotoxic constituent of photochemical smog, and was first identified as damaging to plants in the 1950s (Richards et al. 1958). Large areas of Asia, Africa, Australia, and the Americas have high potential for the production of elevated tropospheric O₃, based on predicted energy use patterns and global solar radiation patterns (Kickert and Krupa 1990). Ozone reduces photosynthesis, growth, and yield, increases respiration, causes accelerated foliar senescence, reduces root:shoot ratios, and can increase plant susceptibility to pathogens (Runeckles and Krupa 1994).

Elevated UV-B, resulting from stratospheric O₃ depletion, has the potential to affect a wide range of ecosystems and plant types. In some sensitive species, laboratory experiments have demonstrated that UV-B can reduce photosynthesis, leaf area, water use efficiency, growth, and yield as well as altering many aspects of plant morphology (Runeckles and Krupa 1994). However, these impacts of UV-B exposure are minimal in many plant species, and by and large the evidence available to date predicts no impact for most species at UV-B levels that reflect realistic environmental dosages (Searles et al. 2001).

11.2.2 Direct Effects on Nutrient Uptake

11.2.2.1 Changes in Root-to-Shoot Ratios, Morphology and Architecture

A shift in biomass allocation to the shoots (a decrease in root-to-shoot ratios, RSR) has been observed in a wide range of plant species in response to O₃ exposure (Cooley and Manning 1987). The shift in partitioning to the shoot is generally ascribed to increased use of carbohydrates for repair of O₃-induced damage in the leaves, and O₃-induced disruption of phloem loading (Cooley and Manning 1987). However, when assessing the effects of environmental treatments upon RSR shifts, it is important to evaluate the impact of changes in plant size as a causal factor in altered RSR (Ledig et al. 1970; Coleman et al. 1994). Coleman and McConnaughay (1995) emphasized the need for caution with their reexamination of a study of biomass partitioning involving the air pollutant SO₂. When they accounted for treatment-induced changes in plant size, they eliminated differences in RSR that previously appeared to support a conclusion of altered biomass partitioning. Similarly, when Bielenberg et al. (2002) investigated the effects of O₃ on biomass partitioning in hybrid poplar, shifts in RSR occurred as a result of treatment-induced changes in plant size, and not from specific alterations in biomass partitioning.

The root:shoot ratio can also be affected by UV-B exposure (Sullivan 1997), although the results from different experiments have been variable. Increased, decreased and unchanged RSR have all been reported in response to UV-B exposure (Sullivan 1997; Weih et al. 1998). Alterations in RSR induced by UV-B can be subtle and sometimes transient. UV-B increased RSR in the first year of a 2-year study by Sullivan et al. (1994). No differences in RSR were detected in the second year of the study (Sullivan et al. 1994). Ziska et al. (1993) reported a strong reduction of RSR in cassava by UV-B, without changes in whole-plant biomass. Reduced biomass allocation to roots may decrease nutrient uptake, as well as reducing the yield of economically important plant parts (Ziska et al. 1993). It remains to be determined whether most UV-B-induced changes in RSR result from altered ontogeny or from altered partitioning priorities.

Root system architecture is also affected by exposure to O₃, although specific changes in architecture appear variable and highly species-specific. In an O₃-sensitive loblolly pine selection, O₃ was shown to decrease both total root surface area and root surface area per unit root mass (Qiu et al. 1992). Reduced root surface area may limit nutrient uptake. However, Taylor and Davies (1990) noted an increase in specific root length (length per unit mass) in response to O₃ in beech seedlings. Temple et al. (1993) reported an increase in fine root mass, and a decrease in coarse root mass in a field study with ponderosa pine. Nutrient acquisition is facilitated by increased specific root length and increased fine root numbers. Finally, no impact of

O₃ on the proportion of coarse and fine root biomass, or the specific root length of the coarse and fine fractions was reported in birch (Maurer and Matyssek 1997).

11.2.2.2 Changes in Root Respiration and Carbohydrate Supply to the Roots

Root respiration is generally reduced by O₃ stress. Theoretically, such reduction can limit the energy supply required for active nutrient uptake. In some cases, decreases in total root system respiration are attributable to decreases in total root mass (Coleman et al. 1996), while in other cases a reduction in respiration on a specific root mass basis has been suggested (Edwards 1991). A large fraction of total root respiration is related to nutrient uptake (Lambers 1987), but nutrient uptake was not measured in either of these studies.

A number of studies using isotopic tracers have shown that proportionately less photosynthate is translocated from leaves to roots in O₃-stressed plants (Nouchi et al. 1995; Pausch et al. 1996a; Samuelson and Kelly 1996). The decrease in translocation of C to the roots is viewed as the cause of decreased root mass (Cooley and Manning 1987). By decreasing both root growth and root respiration, it is likely that O₃ also limits nutrient acquisition from the soil environment.

11.2.2.3 Changes in Root Uptake Kinetics

The preceding sections indicate O₃ has the potential to alter nutrient uptake by reducing carbohydrate availability, decreasing root biomass, and altering root architecture. Direct investigations of the effect of O₃ on nutrient uptake are few, and indicate species-specific differences in response. Nouchi et al. (1991) reported a specific reduction in ammonium uptake in roots excised from O₃-treated rice plants. Pausch et al. (1996b) showed a shift in N acquisition away from N-fixing nodules to N acquisition from the root zone in O₃-exposed soybean, and ascribed this reduction to reduced photosynthate translocation to roots from the shoots (Pausch et al. 1996a). However, Bielenberg et al. (2002) showed no O₃ impact on labeled N uptake by hybrid poplars on a whole-plant basis at two levels of N availability. Similarly, in one of the few studies that included other mineral nutrients besides N, chronic O₃ exposure did not affect tissue concentrations or shoot uptake of a number of these (N, P, K, S, Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn, and Zn) in spring wheat (Fangmeier et al. 1997). However, a later study in potato found that tuber concentrations of N and Mg significantly increased in response to O₃ exposure, but this effect may be attributable to reduced biomass, rather than increased nutrient uptake (Fangmeier et al. 2002).

Few studies to date have addressed the effect of UV-B exposure on root system uptake of nutrients from the soil environment (Baker and Allen 1994; Sullivan 1997; Caldwell et al. 1998; Zepp et al. 1998). A small number of studies have investigated the effect of UV-B on whole-plant accumulation of nutrients. These studies have used nutrient content (mass nutrient per plant or plant part; Murali and Teramura 1985; Yue et al. 1998) or concentration (mass nutrient per dry weight of plant or plant part; Elawad et al. 1985; Larsson et al. 1998; Moorthy and Kathiresan 1998; de la Rosa et al. 2001; Shukula and Kakkar 2002) in the standing biomass (shoot, leaves, or whole plant) as an indication of whole-plant uptake. Nutrients increase in concentration (Larsson et al. 1998), or remain unchanged (de la Rosa et al. 2001) in plant tissues in response to UV-B exposure. In the studies where nutrient content was measured along with concentration (Murali and Teramura 1985; Yue et al. 1998), plant content was usually unaffected or very slightly reduced in response to UV-B exposure. Therefore, UV-B appears to have very little or no effect on nutrient accumulation on a whole-plant basis. Plant nutrient concentration changes appear to result from UV-B-induced biomass reductions, rather than changes in the physiology of nutrient acquisition.

11.2.2.4 Changes in Foliar Uptake/Leaching

Solutes, particularly cations and small-molecular weight molecules, can be taken up by the leaf through the waxy cuticle that forms the outer boundary of the leaf surface. Atmospheric deposition of nitrogen and sulfur onto leaf surfaces can result in significant foliar uptake of these nutrients (Lambers et al. 1998). The ease with which uptake occurs is inversely related to cuticle thickness. UV-B has been shown to increase the thickness of the cuticle layer surrounding the leaf (Grammatikopoulos et al. 1998), potentially limiting the uptake of nutrients such as N and S deposited from the atmosphere.

Similarly, UV-B-induced thickening of leaf cuticles may reduce leaching of foliar nutrients. Foliar leaching can result in considerable loss of nutrients, particularly Ca and Mg, in moist climates (Marschner 1995). Foliar leaching may negatively impact the plant by removing essential nutrients, but also may increase the soil availability of nutrients for new growth that are inefficiently remobilized from older leaves (Marschner 1995). In areas of acidic deposition, however, foliar leaching and pH-induced soil leaching may result in significant losses of cations from the plant-soil system (Edwards et al. 1995).

11.2.3 Indirect Effects on Nutrient Uptake

Chronic O₃ stress has been demonstrated to cause accelerated senescence of leaves in many species of plants (Reich and Lassoie 1985; Sanders et al. 1992;

Wiltshire et al. 1993; Sicher and Bunce 1998; Pell et al. 1999). UV-B has also been shown to trigger early senescence of cotyledons and leaves (Ambler et al. 1975; Ernst et al. 1997). Additionally, UV-B impaired remobilization of Zn (Ambler et al. 1975), and Fe, Mg, and Mn (Ernst et al. 1997) from cotyledons of seedlings. Early leaf loss will alter the schedule of litter-fall availability to the decomposer community, and may change temporal patterns of soil nutrient cycling and availability.

In addition to altering the timing of leaf fall, O₃ affects the tissue quality and decomposition of abscised foliage (Kickert and Krupa 1990). In a study of the effect of O₃ on leaf loss and decomposition in poplar, Jones et al. (1994) demonstrated that leaf litter resulting from O₃-induced accelerated senescence contained greater amounts of N and bound phenolic compounds. Contrary to the expectation that increased N would speed decomposition, this change in litter quality resulted in slowed decomposition, presumably as a result of phenolic-N complexation. Additionally, naturally senescing leaves from the same O₃-exposed plants had reduced N content, compared to leaves abscised from non-O₃-exposed plants (Jones et al. 1994).

UV-B exposure frequently induces the synthesis of UV-absorbing phenylpropanoid compounds (Zepp et al. 1998). Grammatikopoulos et al. (1998) reported increased phenolics and tannins, and decreased N content in leaves of *Laurus nobilis* and *Ceratonia siliqua*. In contrast, no effects of UV-B exposure upon leaf litter quality (nutrient or phenolic contents) were found in a study of *Quercus robur* (Newsham et al. 2001). These compounds can affect nutrient cycling by retarding the rate of decomposition and/or affecting the availability of other nutrients in leaf litter (Zepp et al. 1998). A slowed rate of decomposition could result in lower turnover of organic matter and mineral nutrients in the soil, potentially reducing productivity as more and more nutrients are sequestered. However, no direct effects of UV-B exposure on litter decomposition were found in a dune grassland system (Verhoef et al. 2000).

Far more attention has been paid to the effects of O₃ than of UV-B on root characteristics and function. Much of the O₃ literature is contradictory and indicates that, depending upon species, there may be a wide range of responses to elevated tropospheric O₃. Additional studies involving a wider range of functional types are needed to predict possible community and ecosystem alterations resulting from O₃-impaired nutrient acquisition. The little UV-B literature that exists indicates that only limited, if any, effects on direct nutrient uptake can be expected. Both stresses have potential for indirect effects upon ecosystem nutrient cycling in the long term. More studies are needed to assess the potential for species- and community-level feedbacks of elevated O₃ or UV-B on nutrient cycling that result from alterations in phenology, litter quality, or decomposition processes.

11.3 Elevated Atmospheric CO₂ Concentration

11.3.1 Extent of the Problem and Relevance to Nutrient Uptake

The advent of the industrial revolution, increased combustion of fossil fuel, and deforestation have substantially accelerated the rate of CO₂ production on earth, and thereby its accumulation in the atmosphere. Data from ice-core gasses indicate that between 1750 and the pre-industrial revolution, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration remained constant at roughly 280 ppm (Houghton et al. 2001). Since then, however, the average CO₂ concentration has risen to 370 ppm. More importantly, direct atmospheric CO₂ measurements from Mauna Loa, Hawaii, indicate that more than 60 % of this dramatic rise in CO₂ has occurred in the last 40 years (Keeling and Whorf 2002). At this rate, it is expected that by the end of this century, the CO₂ concentration of the atmosphere will be double the current levels.

One of the most common plant responses to increased CO₂ concentration is the reduction in foliage N and many other nutrients (BassiriRad et al. 2001). This is perhaps why most researchers in this field suggest that while short-term exposure to CO₂ enrichment stimulates growth and photosynthetic C fixation, in most managed and natural ecosystems long-term growth and photosynthetic responses may be confined by the limited availability of mineral nutrients, particularly nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P; Kramer 1981; Eamus and Jarvis 1989; Bazzaz 1990; Conroy 1992; Sinclair 1992; McKee and Woodward 1994; Wolfenden and Diggle 1995; Lloyd and Farquhar 1996). Therefore, factors that may affect the availability and uptake of nutrients are critical in determining plant and ecosystem responses to high CO₂. Here, we distinguish between responses in plant ability to take up nutrients (direct effects), as opposed to ecosystem availability of nutrients (indirect effects).

11.3.2 Direct Effects of CO₂ on Plant Nutrient Uptake

11.3.2.1 Changes in Root-to-Shoot Ratios

Most of the early work in this area was based on the assumption that plant responses to high CO₂ would be driven by the functional balanced model. Such theoretical underpinning predicts that at high availability of C, biomass allocation to the roots should increase. Over the past three decades, considerable debate has emerged as to whether high CO₂ stimulates root biomass allocation (Stulen and den Hertog 1993). Although earlier literature indicated that elevated CO₂ almost universally increased root-to-shoot ratios (Eamus and Jarvis 1989; Bazzaz 1990; Poorter 1993), more recent literature reveals a less pronounced effect (Norby 1994; Rogers et al. 1994). Ceulemans and Mousseau

(1994) reviewed the literature between 1989 and 1993 for woody plants, and confirmed the earlier conclusions that more biomass is allocated to roots in response to high CO₂, but such a shift in biomass was less likely when supplemental N was added to the experimental plants. In contrast, in a survey of 224 observations of woody plants grown at high CO₂, Wullschleger et al. (1995) found a significant increase in root-to-shoot ratio in only 6% of the cases. Norby (1994) also concluded that elevated CO₂ does not lead to a significant shift in biomass allocation, regardless of soil N availability. The conclusion that elevated CO₂ will not alter biomass allocation to roots is further confirmed by results of a meta-analysis by Curtis and Wang (1998), and the earlier review by McGuire et al. (1995). More recently, Poorter and Nagel (2000) reviewed 170 observations from 80 publications, and concluded that there would be no significant changes in response to a doubling of CO₂ concentration.

The survey by Poorter and Nagel (2000) is particularly relevant to our discussion here, because they highlighted the importance of other environmental factors, e.g., light, water and nutrients, in regulating plant biomass allocation responses to CO₂. Therefore, caution must be exercised when the results of experiments with dissimilar protocols are compared. When comparable experiments are considered, it is often observed that changes in root-to-shoot ratio in response to CO₂ enrichment depend on soil nutrient availability, i.e., increased root-to-shoot ratio is often associated with nutrient limitation (McDonald et al. 1991; Ericsson et al. 1992) – a response that could be suppressed when nutrient limitation is avoided (Bazzaz 1990; Pettersson and McDonald 1992; Ceulemans and Mousseau 1994). In their survey of more than 40 tree species, McGuire et al. (1995) reported that as N availability increased, the CO₂-induced increase in biomass allocation to roots was substantially decreased, and overall the effect was not statistically significant. However, they attributed the lack of a statistical difference in root-to-shoot ratio at high vs. low N availability to an inadequate sample size.

In addressing the effects of elevated CO₂ on root growth, particularly as it relates to plant nutrient uptake, the relative distribution of biomass between fine and coarse roots may be particularly important. For example, a mere increase in root-to-shoot ratio may not be highly informative in terms of plant nutrient acquisition, although it is an important parameter in terms of plant C allocation, particularly if biomass is allocated into taproots or other highly suberized components of the root system not involved in nutrient uptake. Even when it is used to evaluate C partitioning in response to CO₂, root-to-shoot ratio may be a poor indicator of root carbon allocation since it does not take into account biomass lost by fine root turnover (Pregitzer et al. 1995) or root exudation. Therefore, a more relevant indicator of root characteristics that could potentially enhance plant nutrient capture is the proportion of biomass allocated to fine roots (BassiriRad et al. 1996a, 1997a, b). The fine root ratio, defined as fine roots relative to total plant bio-

mass, is sensitive to nutrient availability (Körner and Renhardt 1987), but depending upon the species, it may or may not be sensitive to CO₂ levels (BassiriRad et al. 1997b).

Fine root biomass allocation responses to high CO₂ provide a robust estimate of plant nutrient acquisition only if it is complimented with information about root turnover. In many deciduous forest species, fine root turnover can account for as much as 80 % of annual NPP (Ceulemans and Mousseau 1994). Pregitzer et al. (1995) showed that growth in high CO₂ increased root turnover in *Populus tremuloides*. Elevated CO₂ has also been shown to increase root turnover in a number of grassland species (Fitter et al. 1996, 1997; Hungate et al. 1997). Matamala and Schlesinger (2000) distinguished between live fine root (LFR) and dead fine root (DFR) in a loblolly pine stand under ambient and elevated CO₂, and found that after one season of fumigation LFR increased by 86 % in response to CO₂ enrichment, but DFR was relatively unaffected by the CO₂ treatment. In the same system, Pritchard et al. (2001) used mini-rhizotron observations and reported only modest changes in root turnover, but found a significant CO₂ by depth interaction on root mortality. It is therefore necessary that biomass allocation studies consider spatial and temporal dynamics of root growth responses to elevated CO₂.

11.3.2.2 Changes in Root Morphology and Architecture

Alterations in root morphology (e.g., root length and radius) and architecture (e.g., branching pattern) are also effective mechanisms that influence plant nutrient acquisition (Caldwell 1987; Fitter and Hay 1987). Finer roots can confer greater nutrient uptake per unit root mass. Quantitative assessments of such root characteristics, particularly in natural ecosystems, are difficult, which is perhaps why very little information is available as to how these parameters change in response to high CO₂. In a growth chamber study, Rogers et al. (1992) demonstrated that elevated CO₂ doubled root length and increased root diameter by 27 %, but had no effect on the number of first-order laterals. Ferris and Taylor (1995) found that elevated CO₂ had contrasting effects on root morphological and architectural characteristics among four native chalk grassland species. After 100 days of treatment, the root-to-shoot ratio was unchanged but root length was significantly higher in three out of four species grown at high vs. ambient CO₂. In contrast, specific root length (m/g) significantly increased in response to CO₂ enrichment in only one of the four species. Berntson and Woodward (1992) examined the root branching pattern of *Senecio vulgaris*, a common fast-growing annual in Britain, and found that elevated CO₂ resulted in longer roots and increased root branching. However, they found that root density (root length per volume of soil) was unaffected by growth at high CO₂. More recently, Berntson and Bazzaz (1997) examined a number of architectural

parameters in roots of yellow birch, and found no elevated CO_2 effects on specific root length and specific root number.

It is also clear that mycorrhizal associations will be an important component of the root system responses to CO_2 that may regulate nutrient acquisition capacity of the whole plant. We have not discussed this topic here, but the reader is encouraged to consult the following works for a more comprehensive treatment of that topic: O'Neill (1994), Fitter et al. (2000), and BassiriRad et al. (2001). The growth and morphological characteristics discussed here are all important factors in plant nutrient acquisition, and many of them appear to respond to CO_2 enrichment. However, studies of root morphology and architecture have seldom, if ever, shown a direct link between these structural characteristics and nutrient uptake responses to high CO_2 . Future studies in this field must make such linkages in order to establish a clear cause-and-effect relationship between form and function.

11.3.2.3 Changes in Root Uptake Kinetics

There are at least three theoretical reasons why kinetics of root nutrient uptake should respond to changes in atmospheric CO_2 concentration. First, given the energy requirement for the active transport of nutrients, one would expect that higher availability of carbohydrates under CO_2 would result in up-regulation of root nutrient transporters. Second, elevated CO_2 , at least in the short term, has been shown to accelerate growth. Higher growth rate should then increase plant nutrient demand and uptake capacity (Lee 1982; Clarkson 1985). Third, models of whole-plant carbon nutrient balance (Bloom et al. 1985; Johnson 1985; Robinson 1986; Luo et al. 1994; Gutschick and Kay 1995) predict that resources of abundant availability – C – must be allocated to increase the uptake of the most limiting resource – nutrients. A large number of CO_2 studies have demonstrated both a short-term stimulation of growth and an increased supply of root respiratory substrates (Cruz et al. 1993; Tschaplinski et al. 1993; Norby et al. 1995). Yet to date, the data on root uptake kinetics show no consistent pattern of uptake response to high CO_2 .

The earliest direct measurements of root uptake responses to CO_2 enrichment were reported by Newbery et al. (1995) who examined the rates of N, P and K uptake in *Agrostis capallaris*, at three different external concentrations, and found no significant CO_2 effect. Using field-grown loblolly pine saplings that had been exposed to 18 months of CO_2 treatment, BassiriRad et al. (1996b) found no significant changes in V_{\max} of NH_4^+ uptake, but elevated CO_2 significantly enhanced V_{\max} for NO_3^- uptake. Jackson and Reynolds (1996) also found no effect of elevated CO_2 on NH_4^+ uptake rates of six grassland annuals, but NO_3^- uptake rate was inhibited in response to CO_2 enrichment. Other studies (see BassiriRad 2000; BassiriRad et al. 2001) also produced

equally inconsistent patterns. Even in cases where similar species are examined, the effect of CO_2 on the kinetics of NH_4^+ varies from one experiment to the other (BassiriRad et al. 1996a, b).

The observed variability in root nutrient uptake responses to high CO_2 is consistent with that observed in other plant characteristics such as root growth (Tingey et al. 2000), shoot growth (Norby et al. 1999) as well as water use efficiency, photosynthetic rate, tissue N concentration, and nonstructural carbohydrates (Luo et al. 1999). Until we find a unified mechanism to explain such variability, our predictive capacity for plant and ecosystem responses to elevated CO_2 will remain limited. Some of the variations in response to high CO_2 may simply result from differences in experimental protocols. However, Zerihun and BassiriRad (2001) examined NH_4^+ and NO_3^- uptake kinetic responses of six broad-leaf and conifer tree species grown under identical conditions, and found that root NH_4^+ uptake kinetic responses to high CO_2 are clearly species-dependent.

Interspecific variation in root physiological characteristics may explain why some species do not exhibit a commonly observed decline in tissue nutrient concentration at high CO_2 . In a study of three desert species, BassiriRad et al. (1997b) showed that elevated CO_2 decreased foliar N and P concentrations in *Larrea tridentata* and *Prosopis glandulosa*, but not in *Bouteloua eriopoda* that was the only species that had up-regulated its root uptake rate for both N and P. Species-specific responses of N uptake kinetics can also be one of the potential mechanisms by which elevated CO_2 may affect competitive balance among co-occurring species, thereby affecting ecosystem productivity and composition (Berntson et al. 1998).

It is important to note that on their own, changes in root uptake kinetics will not be a meaningful index of plant nutrient acquisition responses to elevated CO_2 . Often, in cases where kinetics of uptake are severely down-regulated, the overall plant growth response to CO_2 is still positive. This is partly because root uptake kinetic response is only one potential mechanism that can lead to changes in nutrient uptake. Compensatory adjustments in other root characteristics, such as morphology and life span, along with increased nutrient use efficiency, can prevent the need for a positive adjustment in uptake kinetics. Jackson and Reynolds (1996) examined root physiological uptake capacity for N, and root biomass responses of a mixed community of annual grasses and forbs. They reported that N uptake responses to elevated CO_2 were more closely correlated with root physiological capacity under low N availability, but correlated more strongly with root biomass under relatively high N availability. Zerihun et al. (2000) reported that the relative contribution of root physiological uptake capacity in determining the overall plant responses to CO_2 enrichment must be evaluated in conjunction with other root mechanisms that can also influence nutrient acquisition. Therefore, future studies addressing the relative contribution of active ion uptake to plant nutrient status and growth responses to high CO_2 will require experi-

mental designs that monitor changes in these mechanisms simultaneously (Berntson and Bazzaz 1996, 1997; Berntson et al. 1998).

11.3.3 Indirect Effects of CO₂ on Nutrient Availability at the Root Surface

Indirectly, elevated CO₂ can alter nutrient availability at the root surface via a number of mechanisms. Increased C supply to the soil can enhance microbial activities (Dhillion et al. 1996), accompanied by higher mineralization and plant uptake (Zak et al. 1993; Rice et al. 1994), although this effect is not universally observed (Diaz et al. 1993). A higher microbial activity was also reported for a grassland system by Hungate et al. (1997), but they argued that this enhancement was caused by reduced transpiration and improved soil moisture, rather than improved C supply to the soil. Reduced transpiration response to high CO₂ has also been invoked as a possible indirect mechanism that suppressed mass flow of K⁺ to the root surface in wheat, but this effect was offset by a higher diffusion rate (Van Vuuren et al. 1997). Finally, availability of nutrients such as N in many ecosystems could also increase due to chronic deposition of atmospheric N (Ollinger et al. 1993; Lovett 1994; Galloway et al. 1995; Vitousek et al. 1997; Norby 1998). Whether ecosystem availability of nutrients in response to rising CO₂ concentration will keep pace with increased plant nutrient demand is not the focus of this chapter. However, such information is important for models designed to reliably predict CO₂ responses in natural ecosystems.

11.4 Summary

There are many facets of global climate change that could synergistically affect native vegetation. Whenever possible, experimental approaches must consider the consequences for plants under realistic, multiple stress conditions. Models designed to predict plant and ecosystem responses to global change should integrate more thoroughly the role of plant nutrient acquisition, and how it may respond to a changing climate. Our current mechanistic models are largely based on plant gas-exchange parameters. We can significantly improve the robustness of these models by incorporating parameters of nutrient uptake, e.g., root system characteristics. We also highlight the need to examine the root system controllers of nutrient uptake collectively, rather than individually. It is not reasonable to assume that the knowledge of changes in just one parameter, e.g., root-to-shoot ratio, can elucidate the mechanism and/or the extent of the effects of global change on plant nutrient uptake, much the same way that we do not expect that the knowledge of

changes in leaf area alone will be sufficient to reliably predict canopy gas-exchange in response to climate change. Within this context, we recommend that future studies should pay more attention to the collective effects of root morphology, mycorrhizal association (Chap. 9, this Vol.), kinetics (Chap. 6, this Vol.) and architecture (Chap. 7, this Vol.), as well as life span (Chap. 8, this Vol.) in determining whole-plant nutrient responses to global change.

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