

P. D. Coley · M. Massa · C. E. Lovelock · K. Winter

Effects of elevated CO₂ on foliar chemistry of saplings of nine species of tropical tree

Received: 1 October 2001 / Accepted: 6 June 2002 / Published online: 31 July 2002
© Springer-Verlag 2002

Abstract This study examined the effects of elevated CO₂ on secondary metabolites for saplings of tropical trees. In the first experiment, nine species of trees were grown in the ground in open-top chambers in central Panama at ambient and elevated CO₂ (about twice ambient). On average, leaf phenolic contents were 48% higher under elevated CO₂. Biomass accumulation was not affected by CO₂, but starch, total non-structural carbohydrates and C/N ratios all increased. In a second experiment with *Ficus*, an early successional species, and *Virola*, a late successional species, treatments were enriched for both CO₂ and nutrients. For both species, nutrient fertilization increased plant growth and decreased leaf carbohydrates, C/N ratios and phenolic contents, as predicted by the carbon/nutrient balance hypothesis. Changes in leaf C/N levels were correlated with changes in phenolic contents for *Virola* ($r=0.95$, $P<0.05$), but not for *Ficus*. Thus, elevated CO₂, particularly under conditions of low soil fertility, significantly increased phenolic content as well as the C/N ratio of leaves. The magnitude of the changes is sufficient to negatively affect herbivore growth, survival and fecundity, which should have impacts on plant/herbivore interactions.

Keywords Phenolic compounds · Elevated CO₂ · Tropical trees · Fertilization · Panama

Introduction

Atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ are expected to double within 50–100 years (IPCC 1998) and it is clear that elevated CO₂ will have profound impacts on plant growth and allocation. Plant responses will also have cascading effects on herbivores, perhaps greatly altering plant/herbivore interactions and community structure (Coley 1998; Peñuelas and Estiarte 1998; Coviella and Trumble 2000). Thus, understanding how elevated CO₂ changes plant nutritional quality and defense is an essential first step in predicting how herbivores will respond to this component of climate change.

Two key leaf traits that affect their suitability as food for herbivores are leaf protein and secondary metabolites (Scriber and Slansky 1981; Rosenthal and Berenbaum 1992; Stamp and Casey 1993). The majority of experiments using elevated CO₂ have found a 15–30% reduction in leaf nitrogen per unit leaf dry mass and an increase in the carbon/nitrogen (C/N) ratio (Reekie and Bazazz 1989; Körner and Arnone 1992; Arnone and Körner 1995; Poorter et al. 1997; Bezemer and Jones 1998; Coley 1998; Curtis and Wang 1998; but see Díaz et al. 1998). As insect herbivores are typically limited by dietary protein, their growth and fecundity is significantly lower on leaves grown under conditions of enriched CO₂ (Lincoln et al. 1993; Watt et al. 1995; Lindroth 1996a, b; Kinney et al. 1997; Lindroth et al. 1997; Coley 1998; McDonald et al. 1999; Agrell et al. 2000).

Fewer studies have examined changes in defensive chemistry, and almost all of these are for temperate species. Carbon-based defenses, such as simple phenols and tannins, frequently increase in response to elevated CO₂ (see reviews by Lindroth 1996a, b; Coley 1998; Koricheva et al. 1998; Peñuelas and Estiarte 1998). This is consistent with predictions of the carbon/nutrient balance (CNB) hypothesis, which suggests that carbon in excess of growth demands will be allocated to defenses (Bryant et al. 1983). Thus, high light or CO₂ should lead to an accumulation of carbohydrate reserves relative to nitrogen and thus to an increase in carbon-based defenses.

P.D. Coley (✉) · M. Massa
Biology Department, University of Utah, Salt Lake City,
UT 84112, USA
e-mail: coley@biology.utah.edu
Fax: +1-801-5814668

C.E. Lovelock
Smithsonian Environmental Research Center, Edgewater,
MD 21037, USA

P.D. Coley · K. Winter
Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Balboa,
Republic of Panama

Overall, temperate species do seem to increase phenolic compounds under enriched CO₂ (Lindroth 1996a, b; Coley 1988; Koricheva et al. 1998; Peñuelas and Estiarte 1998), although responses vary among species and environmental conditions (e.g. Fajer et al 1992; Kinney and Lindroth 1997). However, enriched CO₂ does not appear to increase terpene concentration, raising questions regarding the universality of the CNB hypothesis (Koricheva et al. 1998; Hamilton et al. 2001). In the only study from the tropics, two rainforest species from Australia gave inconsistent patterns for the effect of enriched CO₂ on leaf phenolics (Kanowski 2001).

Many of the above experiments were conducted with potted plants in greenhouses. More recent work in open-top chambers or FACE rings suggests that plants exhibit different allocation patterns in response to elevated CO₂ when they are planted in the ground (Arnone and Körner 1995; O'Neil and Norby 1996; Lovelock et al. 1998). These advances in experimental work may allow more realistic predictions of plant and animal responses to increases in atmospheric CO₂.

In this paper we examine the responses of nine species of neotropical rainforest trees growing in open-top chambers under conditions of ambient and enriched CO₂. Additional experiments on two species focus on the interaction between nutrient fertilization and CO₂ enrichment. Data on photosynthesis are reported elsewhere (Lovelock et al. 1998; Winter et al. 2000, 2001). Here we present data on plant growth, phenolic compounds and C/N contents, as these have important implications for insect herbivores.

Materials and methods

Site description

The experiments were conducted near the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute's canopy crane site in Parque Natural Metropolitano in central Panama (8°58' N, 79°34' W). Annual mean temperature is 27°C and annual precipitation averages 1,740 mm with a dry season lasting from late December until early May.

Elevated CO₂ experiment

In this experiment, we quantified the effect of elevated CO₂ on phenolic content for nine native species of trees grown in six octagonal chambers on vacant grasslands adjacent to the forest at Parque Metropolitano. Each open-top chamber was 2 m across and 2.5 m tall and was constructed with an aluminum frame covered with clear plastic film. Saplings were planted directly in the natural soil, which eliminated pot effects. The soil at the site was poor, having a pH of 5.9, 2.25% organic matter, 0.144% total nitrogen, 0.013% total phosphorus, 1.42% total carbon and a C:N ratio of approximately 10. The CO₂ concentrations within the three ambient chambers were slightly above 400 ppm at dawn and decreased to 350 ppm during the course of the day. The elevated CO₂ chambers were about 300–400 ppm above ambient. CO₂ was bubbled through a saturated solution of potassium permanganate to remove ethylene impurities before it was delivered to the chambers (see Lovelock et al. 1998 for additional details).

Temperature within the chambers varied between 24° and 33°C, exceeding air temperatures outside the chambers by a maxi-

um of 2°C. Photon flux densities (PFD) reached up to 2,000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and were similar inside and outside the chambers. By the end of the experiment, PFD at ground level in the chambers was approximately 10% of the PFD incident at the top of the chamber. Relative humidity declined during the day from almost 100% to approximately 65% and was similar inside and outside the chambers.

Nine native species of trees (three late-successional, three mid-successional, three early-successional) were grown in each chamber. Shade-tolerant late-successional species consisted of *Calophyllum longifolium* Willd. (Guttiferaceae), *Tetragastris panamensis* (Engler) O. Kuntze (Burseraceae) and *Virola surinamensis* (Rol.) Warb. (Myristicaceae). Mid-successional species consisted of *Anacardium excelsum* (Bertero & Balb.) Skeels (Anacardiaceae), *Antirrhoea trichantha* (Griseb.) Hemsl. (Rubiaceae) and *Cordia alliodora* (R. & P.) Cham. (Boraginaceae). Light-demanding early-successional species consisted of *Cecropia longipes* Bertol. (Moraceae), *Ficus insipida* Willd. (Moraceae) and *Luehea seemanii* Tr. & Planch. (Tiliaceae).

The nine native species were planted within a 3×3 matrix, and then surrounded with a border of a tenth species exotic to Panama, *Swietenia macrophylla* (Meliaceae). We used *Swietenia* as a border in order to minimize edge effects on experimental plant species. *Swietenia* was not included in the analysis. Among the three pairs of chambers there was a different arrangement of the three successional groups. Late-successional species were dispersed among other faster growing species in order to generalize the results for any arrangement of species. Beginning in February 1996, species were transplanted into the chambers and watered for the remainder of the dry season. All plants had at least 50 cm² leaf area at the beginning of the experiment and were harvested after 6 months. Harvested plant material was dried to a constant weight at 60°C. Dried leaf material was ground in a Wiley Mill and stored at -20°C until further analysis.

Carbon and nitrogen fertilization experiment

The second experiment addressed the effects of both elevated CO₂ and high nutrient availability on phenolic content for *Ficus insipida*, an early successional species and *Virola surinamensis*, a late-successional species. The plants used in this experiment were grown in the same six chambers described above plus two more identical chambers. The experimental design was split into two different time periods in order to compare fertilized versus unfertilized chambers. In the first series of this experiment, the upper 30 cm of soil was replaced with uniform soil from another site to increase comparability between chambers and experiments. In the second series of experiments the top 30 cm of soil was also replaced with uniform soil and Osmocote-plus fertilizer (0.56 kg per m², N-P-K 16–8–12 and Mg, Fe, Mn, Cu, Mo and B; Scotts-Sierra, Maryland, Ohio) was evenly distributed on the soil surface and covered with leaf litter. Eight weeks later an additional 0.56 kg per m² of fertilizer was added to each chamber. Eighteen seedlings of each species, up to 20 cm tall, were planted in each chamber. The first series of this experiment (unfertilized chambers) began on 10 December 1996 and lasted 30 weeks. The second series (fertilized chambers) began on 25 August 1997 and lasted 16 weeks. Due to logistical constraints, the fertilization and non-fertilization experiments were not run simultaneously, possibly confounding season with treatment. However, measures of environmental variables taken within the chambers were extremely similar in both experiments. Temperatures ranged from nighttime values of 24°C to daytime maxima of 33°C and relative humidity varied from 65% to 98% (see Winter et al. 2000, 2001 for additional details). As there were more cloudy days during the second experiment, total solar radiation averaged 13.2% less than during the first (29.5 vs 25.6 mol m⁻² day⁻¹). Thus plants in the second experiment experienced conditions of lower C/N primarily due to greatly enhanced nutrient fertilization as well as slightly less light than in the unfertilized experiment. Plants were watered if necessary. Plants were also classified as being in the center or edge of the chamber, as

light levels were higher in edge positions. Plants were harvested and dried at 60°C.

Foliar chemistry analysis

Leaf tissue was analyzed for total phenolic content using the Folin-Denis method (Mole and Waterman, 1987; Torti et al. 1995). All 54 plants were analyzed in the first experiment. In the second experiment, a random subset of plants was sampled, with a minimum of two replicates per position (center and edge) in each chamber, for a total of 66 *Ficus* and 70 *Virola* plants. A 20 mg sample was taken from the total ground leaf sample for each individual plant. Each sample was extracted in 10 ml of 80% methanol then placed in an ice bath and homogenized with a polytron for 30 s. Samples were centrifuged, the pellet was discarded, and the supernatant was lyophilized and stored at -20°C until further assay. For analysis, samples were resolubilized in 80% methanol and measured at three different concentrations. Tannic acid was used as a standard.

Because species differ in the reactivity of their phenolic defense compounds, values obtained with a tannic acid standard do not necessarily reflect the true investment in phenolic defenses (Wisdom et al. 1987; Appel et al. 2001). Thus, it may be misleading to compare absolute values among species. However, we were interested in how the CO₂ and fertilization treatments affected phenolic content within a species, a relative comparison for which it is legitimate to use a single standard.

Tissue concentrations of starch and total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) were determined on mature leaves. Leaves were harvested at dusk, immediately placed in liquid nitrogen and freeze-dried for storage. Results and details of the extraction methods for starch and soluble sugars are described in previous publications (Winter et al. 2000, 2001). We also present the C/N ratio, which is the ratio of the total carbon and leaf nitrogen as measured in a CHN Element Analyzer (Heraeus, Hanau, Germany).

Plant growth

At the end of the experiments, above- and below-ground plant material was harvested and weighed. Roots were carefully excavated using a high-pressure water hose. Tissue was dried to constant weight at 60°C and total biomass determined. For the comparison of nine species growing in ambient and enriched CO₂, the amount of biomass accumulated during the 6-month experiment was used as a measure of growth. For the fertilization experiments, plants were harvested when *Ficus*, the tallest plants, were about 1.5 m

tall. In the unfertilized treatments where growth was slower, plants reached this height and were harvested after 30 days, whereas in the fertilized treatments, plants grew more quickly and reached 1.5 m in only 16 weeks. Thus, the only meaningful growth comparisons are within a fertilization treatment.

Statistical analysis

In order to assess the change in phenolic content between species in ambient and elevated CO₂ environments, data for the nine native species were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA, SAS 1997), with chamber nested within CO₂ treatment. For each ANOVA we used a type III SS. In the second experiment, plant responses to CO₂ and fertilization were analyzed by ANOVA, with chamber nested within CO₂ treatment. Because there was a significant species × fertilization interaction, we also analyzed the two species separately.

Results

Effects of elevated CO₂ on nine species

There was a significant effect of CO₂ concentration on leaf phenolic content (Tables 1, 2). In eight of the nine species, there was a tendency for tannin concentrations to increase under elevated CO₂ levels (Fig. 1). *Cecropia longipes*, an early-successional species, was the only species that responded to elevated CO₂ with a decrease in phenolic concentrations (n.s.). On average, tannin concentration (percent dry weight of leaves) increased by 47.6% (Table 1). The C/N ratio and carbon allocation to non-structural carbohydrates also increased under conditions of elevated CO₂ (Table 1).

Effects of CO₂ and nutrient fertilization on two species

There was a significant effect of nitrogen fertilization on phenol production for both *Virola* and *Ficus* (Table 3), with concentrations being lower in fertilized plants regardless of the CO₂ levels. There was no significant

Table 1 Responses of phenolic compounds and non-structural carbohydrates to elevated CO₂ for nine species of rainforest plants. Species are classified as early, mid and late successional. The percent dry weight concentration of phenolic compounds in mature leaves is given for plants grown in ambient and elevated

CO₂ (mean and standard error). Total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) and C/N values are from Lovelock et al. (1998). Changes in phenols, TNC and C/N are calculated as the percent increase in response to elevated CO₂

Species	Status	Phenols ambient CO ₂ (% dry weight)	Phenols elevated CO ₂ (% dry weight)	Percent change in phenols	Percent change in TNC	Percent change in C/N
<i>Cecropia longipes</i>	Early	6.51 (1.1)	4.75 (1.5)	-27.0	1.3	14.5
<i>Ficus insipida</i>	Early	0.64 (0.1)	0.86 (0.1)	34.4	20.0	25.5
<i>Luehea seemannii</i>	Early	4.53 (0.8)	6.87 (0.6)	51.7	25.3	29.9
<i>Anacardium excelsum</i>	Mid	12.73 (0.3)	13.56 (1.5)	6.5	43.4	41.9
<i>Antirrhoea trichantha</i>	Mid	5.20 (1.0)	7.51 (0.2)	44.4	20.4	29.7
<i>Cordia alliodora</i>	Mid	2.47 (0.6)	5.42 (1.6)	119.4	44.2	41.1
<i>Calophyllum longifolium</i>	Late	3.72 (1.9)	7.48 (1.4)	101.1	25.3	36.4
<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Late	9.76 (3.7)	14.66 (2.0)	50.2	27.9	32.2
<i>Virola surinamensis</i>	Late	4.82 (0.9)	7.14 (1.4)	48.1	23.3	40.1
Average overall	-	-	-	47.6	25.7	25.4

Table 2 ANOVA results for phenolic responses of nine species to elevated CO₂. Species was nested within successional status and chamber was nested within the different CO₂ levels

Source of variation	df	F value	P value
CO ₂	1	11.80	0.0014
Species	8	18.65	0.0001
Chamber (CO ₂)	4	3.17	0.0237
CO ₂ ×Species	8	1.28	0.2797

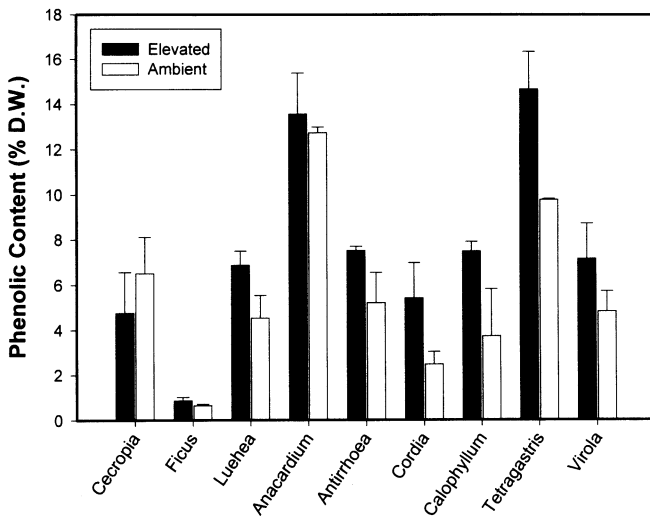


Fig. 1 Phenolic content (% dry weight) of mature leaves for nine species of tropical tree grown in open-top chambers under conditions of ambient and elevated CO₂. Error bars indicate SE

main effect of CO₂ concentration. However, because there was a significant species × fertilization effect ($P < 0.001$) and a marginally significant species × CO₂ effect ($P < 0.1$), we analyzed the species separately in order to determine how they were responding to particular treatments.

Virola surinamensis: interactions between nitrogen and carbon enrichment

For *Virola*, there was a strong fertilization effect on phenolic content (Table 4). Unfertilized plants had approximately 1.5 times the phenolic concentrations of fertilized plants (Fig. 2). In both fertilization treatments, plants grown at elevated CO₂ had non-significant, but slightly higher phenolic concentrations.

Phenolic concentrations were also analyzed for plants growing on the edges of the chamber where they received more light as compared to plants growing at the center, although light levels were well below saturation in both cases (between 1% and 8% of light levels above the canopy; Winter et al. 2000, 2001). There was no significant effect of location for *Virola* nor was there a significant fertilization × location effect (Table 4). Although phenolic concentrations in *Virola* responded strongly to

Table 3 Results of ANOVA analysis for the effects of CO₂ and nutrient fertilization on foliar phenolic content. The sources of variation are CO₂ levels (ambient or elevated), fertilization (fertilized or unfertilized) and species (*Ficus insipida* or *Virola surinamensis*). Chamber was nested within the different CO₂ levels

Source of variation	df	F value	P value
Species	1	683.13	0.0001
Fertilization	1	36.61	0.0001
CO ₂	1	2.16	0.1442
Chamber (CO ₂)	6	1.45	0.2016
Species×Fertilization	1	34.65	0.0001
Species×CO ₂	1	2.80	0.0965
Fertilization×CO ₂	1	0.86	0.3552
Species×Fertilization×CO ₂	1	0.90	0.3435

Table 4 Results of ANOVA analysis for phenol production by *Virola surinamensis* in the fertilization experiment with CO₂ (ambient or elevated) and nutrients (fertilized or unfertilized). Location within the chamber (center or edge) was also included. Chamber was nested within the different CO₂ levels

Source of variation	df	F value	P value
Fertilization	1	39.45	0.0001
CO ₂	1	2.59	0.1132
Location	1	0.43	0.5167
Chamber (CO ₂)	6	1.43	0.2207
Fertilization×CO ₂	1	0.92	0.3425
CO ₂ ×Location	1	2.09	0.1543
Fertilization×Location	1	0.19	0.6677
Fertilization×CO ₂ ×Location	1	0.37	0.5438

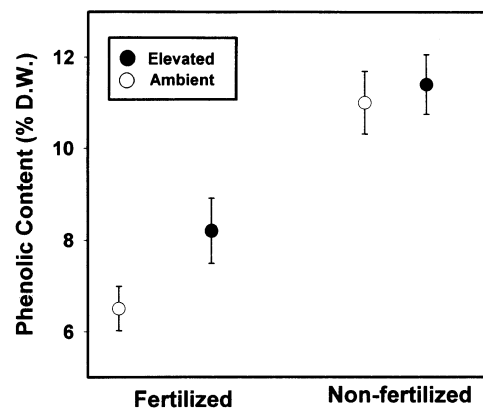


Fig. 2 Phenolic content (% dry weight) of mature leaves for *Virola surinamensis* grown under conditions of high and low nutrients and ambient and elevated CO₂ ($n = 70$ plants). Error bars indicate SE

fertilization and marginally to elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2), light had no effect.

Unfertilized plants accumulated less biomass than fertilized plants, even though the unfertilized experiment ran for almost twice as long (Table 5). In addition to lower growth, non-fertilized plants accumulated more carbon in the leaves (Table 5). Increases in starch accumulation were positively associated with phenolic con-

Table 5 Effects of nutrient and CO₂ fertilization on growth and phenolic and carbohydrate concentrations in mature leaves of *Virola surinamensis*. Growth was measured as the total above-and below-ground biomass accumulated per plant during the experi-

Treatments	Phenols (% dry weight)	Biomass (g)	Starch (mg g ⁻¹)	TNC (mg g ⁻¹)	C/N
Fertilized, ambient	6.5 (0.48)	5.1 (0.35)	6.6 (0.6)	67 (6.3)	19.3 (0.2)
Fertilized, elevated	8.2 (0.71)	6.5 (0.28)	14.2 (3.3)	58 (4.2)	21.3 (0.6)
Non-fertilized, ambient	11.0 (0.69)	4.5 (0.34)	33.0 (1.6)	145 (4.3)	39.1 (1.1)
Non-fertilized, elevated	11.4 (0.66)	4.3 (0.43)	82.6 (8.3)	174 (10.1)	48.7 (0.9)

Table 6 Results of ANOVA analysis for phenol production by *Ficus insipida* in the fertilization experiment with CO₂ (ambient or elevated) and nutrients (fertilized or unfertilized). Location within the chamber (center or edge) was also included. Chamber was nested within the different CO₂ levels

Source of variation	df	F value	P value
Fertilization	1	6.10	0.0168
CO ₂	1	0.76	0.3876
Location	1	23.08	0.0001
Chamber (CO ₂)	6	2.01	0.0814
Fertilization×CO ₂	1	2.40	0.1272
CO ₂ ×Location	1	0.00	0.9928
Fertilization×Location	1	31.74	0.0001
Fertilization×CO ₂ ×Location	1	0.06	0.8040

centrations. Phenolic content was most highly correlated with the C/N ratio ($r=0.95$, $P<0.05$). Fertilization had a large effect on C/N ratios, while CO₂ did not.

Ficus insipida: interactions between nitrogen and carbon enrichment

Ficus had significantly lower phenolic concentrations in fertilized as compared to unfertilized chambers (Table 6). There was also a significant interaction between fertilization and location of plants within the chamber suggesting that the phenolic concentration of fertilized and non-fertilized plants responded differently to light (Table 6). For example, all fertilized plants had similar phenolic concentrations regardless of their location (Fig. 3). In contrast, unfertilized plants responded to the

ment. Starch and total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) were measured on leaves collected at dusk. Values for growth and carbohydrates are from Winter et al. (2000, 2001). Values are means (SE)

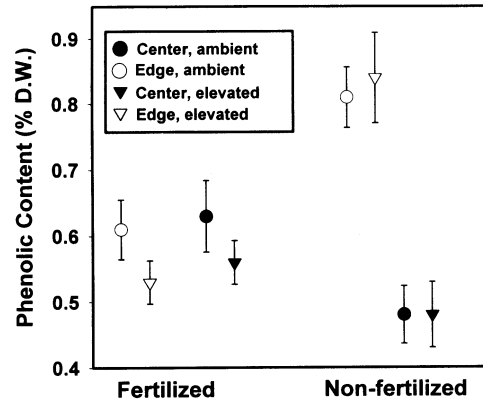


Fig. 3 Phenolic content (% dry weight) of mature leaves for *Ficus insipida* grown under conditions of high and low nutrients, and ambient and elevated CO₂. In addition, plants were divided depending on location within the chamber, as edge plants received higher light and had less root competition ($n=66$ plants). Error bars indicate SE

increased light availability at edge locations by greatly increasing phenolic concentrations (Fig. 3). In ambient and elevated CO₂ chambers, *Ficus* plants located on the edge had 69% and 66% higher phenolic levels, respectively (Fig. 3). There was no effect of elevated CO₂ on phenolic concentrations (Fig. 3). Thus, for *Ficus*, light and nutrients caused significant effects on carbon allocation to phenolics, but elevated CO₂ did not.

In contrast to *Virola*, phenolic concentrations in *Ficus* were not correlated with starch, TNC or C/N ratios. Carbohydrate concentrations were most affected by fertilization and CO₂ concentrations, while phenolic content was

Table 7 Effects of nutrient and CO₂ fertilization on growth and phenolic and carbohydrate concentrations in mature leaves of *Ficus insipida*. Location of plants within the chambers (edge vs center) affects light levels and root competition. Growth was measured as the total

Treatments	Phenols (% dry weight)	Biomass (g)	Starch (mg g ⁻¹)	TNC (mg g ⁻¹)	C/N
Fertilized, ambient, edge	0.61 (0.05)	200 (2.5)	31 (4.4)	149 (11.2)	9.5 (0.1)
Fertilized, elevated, edge	0.53 (0.03)	307 (9.0)	83 (6.7)	195 (12.6)	10.0 (0.1)
Fertilized, ambient, center	0.63 (0.05)	111 (1.3)	40 (2.1)	169 (12.8)	9.0 (0.1)
Fertilized, elevated, center	0.56 (0.03)	168 (6.8)	68 (5.7)	175 (13.4)	9.3 (0.2)
Non-fertilized, ambient, edge	0.81 (0.05)	159 (6.0)	68 (3.9)	219 (6.4)	16.1 (0.5)
Non-fertilized, elevated, edge	0.84 (0.07)	193 (10.5)	187 (4.1)	299 (2.4)	23.8 (0.5)
Non-fertilized, ambient, center	0.48 (0.04)	77 (6.0)	73 (8.6)	188 (10.2)	18.7 (1.3)
Non-fertilized, elevated, center	0.48 (0.05)	90 (1.8)	194 (6.7)	294 (8.2)	28.9 (0.3)

above-and below-ground biomass accumulated per plant during the experiment. Starch and total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) were measured on leaves collected at dusk. Values for growth and carbohydrates are from Winter et al. (2000, 2001). Values are means (SE)

more affected by light (edge vs center locations, Table 7). Growth responded strongly to both fertilization and light, and less so to CO₂ (Table 7).

Discussion

Phenolic content increases in response to elevated CO₂

This is the first study to examine the effects of elevated CO₂ on secondary metabolites for tropical trees grown in their natural environment and in soil rather than pots. In temperate trees, leaf phenolic contents tend to increase by 20–60% under conditions of enriched CO₂, although there is substantial variation among species (Koricheva et al. 1998; Peñuelas and Estiarte 1998; McDonald et al. 1999; Agrell et al. 2000; Hartley et al. 2000). We found similar results for the nine tropical tree species in our study. The average increase in phenolics was 48%, with one species showing a decline, and the most responsive species showing a two-fold increase (Table 1). In the only other tropical study, potted seedlings of one species showed no response to CO₂, and the other species increased phenolics in one soil type but not the other (Kanowski 2001). Thus, both temperate and tropical trees show large interspecific variation in the extent of their response to CO₂, although the overwhelming pattern is for an increase in phenolics by approximately 50%.

Phenolic content is correlated with starch accumulation

A possible explanation for the increase in phenolics when trees are grown under conditions of elevated CO₂ is the CNB hypothesis (Bryant et al. 1983). This hypothesis says that if plants increase photosynthesis and carbon gain under enriched CO₂, the “excess” carbon will be allocated to carbon-based defenses. Although this prediction is not borne out with all carbon-based defenses, particularly terpenes, it does seem to apply to products of the shikimate pathway such as phenolics (Reichart et al. 1991; Koricheva et al. 1998; Peñuelas and Estiarte 1998). In our study with nine species, CO₂ treatments did not enhance growth, suggesting that plants were limited by other resources, presumably nutrients. Thus, an increase in CO₂ would be expected to lead to an accumulation of carbon in the leaf and an increase in the C/N ratio, as it did in all nine species (Table 1). A decrease in leaf nitrogen and an increase in the C/N ratio have been seen in other studies of tropical trees (Arnone and Körner 1995; Kanowski 2001; but see Arnone et al. 1995).

The CNB hypothesis also predicts that excess carbon should be allocated to phenolics, and this was true for eight of the nine species. Across all species, there was a positive but marginally significant correlation between the percent increase in TNC and the percent increase in phenolics ($r=0.53$, $P=0.09$). In other words, species that responded to enhanced CO₂ with a greater accumulation

of carbohydrates also exhibited a greater increase in phenolics (Table 1).

The CNB hypothesis also suggests that nutrient fertilization will affect the C/N ratio of the plant, and hence the allocation of resources to carbon-based defenses (Bryant et al. 1983). With fertilization, carbon can be shunted into growth so that other carbon pools, such as carbohydrates and phenolics, should decrease. In the experiments with *Virola*, fertilization increased growth and reduced leaf carbohydrates (Table 5), as predicted by the CNB hypothesis. There was a marginally significant positive correlation between TNC and phenolic contents ($r=0.88$, $P=0.08$) and an even stronger one for the C/N ratio and phenols ($r=0.95$, $P=0.05$). Fertilization had a much larger effect on phenolics than did CO₂ or light (Fig. 3). This is not surprising as fertilization also had a much larger effect on TNC, starch and the C/N ratio (Tables 4, 5). Thus, in this late successional species, the levels of carbohydrates in the leaf were strongly linked to the concentrations of phenolic compounds.

For *Ficus*, the allocation of resources to growth and phenolics also followed predictions of the CNB hypothesis (Bryant et al. 1983). At high light and low nutrients phenols accumulated, while under fertilization, growth increased and phenols dropped (Fig. 3, Table 7). However, the phenolic changes were not correlated with changes in the C/N ratios of plants in different treatments. Thus, it appears that storage carbohydrates and phenolics are not linked and are responding to different carbon sources. For example, the C/N ratio was more affected by CO₂ and phenols were more affected by light (location) (Table 7).

Impacts of leaf quality on herbivores

Although species differed in their responsiveness to treatments, elevated CO₂ had significant effects on both phenolic and nitrogen contents of leaves. An average increase of 48% phenolic content is likely to have substantial negative effects on herbivore performance. In general, studies have shown that increased phenolic content lengthens the developmental time, increases mortality and reduces adult size and fecundity for insect herbivores (Fajer et al. 1989; Lincoln et al. 1993; Lindroth et al. 1993, 1995; Roth and Lindroth 1995; Kinney et al. 1997; Coley and Kursar 2001). In addition, increases in phenolics were accompanied by increases in C/N ratios (Table 1), a common, but not universal response for trees (Lincoln et al. 1993; Arnone et al. 1995; Watt et al. 1995; Lindroth 1996b). This dilution of the protein content of the leaf can also limit herbivore growth and fitness (Scriber and Slansky 1981). Finally, a nutritionally poor diet can exacerbate the negative effects of secondary metabolites (Slansky 1992, 1993). Thus the combined increases in phenolics and C/N ratios of leaves under elevated CO₂ may have substantial negative impacts on herbivores.

Under conditions of elevated CO₂, herbivore mortality could be increased because of direct effects of high

phenolic content and low protein, as discussed above. In addition, longer developmental times allow greater opportunities for predation and parasitism, further reducing herbivore survival (Price et al. 1980; Benrey and Denno 1997; Stiling et al. 1999). Thus, one might expect densities of herbivores and rates of herbivory to drop. However, a survey of 56 studies showed that herbivores tend to eat between 20 and 90% more on high phenol diets, presumably in an attempt to compensate for poor diet quality (Coley 1998; Coley and Kursar, 2001). It is therefore difficult to predict the outcome of elevated CO₂ for rates of herbivory. What is clear is that across a broad range of temperate and tropical tree species, elevated CO₂ decreases leaf nutritional value and increases phenolic compounds. These two traits strongly shape herbivore fitness and may therefore have a major impact on plant/herbivore interactions.

Acknowledgements We thank the authorities of Parque Natural Metropolitano in Panama City for their permission to conduct this experiment. We thank Thomas Kursar and Aurelio Virgo for technical help. Funding was provided by NSF grants DEB-9419543 and DEB-0108150 to P.D.C. and funds from the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute and the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation to K.W.

References

- Agrell J, McDonald EP, Lindroth RL (2000) Effects of CO₂ and light on tree phytochemistry and insect performance. *Oikos* 88:259–272
- Appel HM, Governor HL, D'Ascenzo M, Siska E, Schultz JC (2001) Limitations of foliar assays of foliar phenolics in ecological studies. *J Chem Ecol* 27:761–778
- Arnone JA, Körner C (1995) Soil and biomass carbon pools in model communities of tropical plants under elevated CO₂. *Oecologia* 104:64–71
- Arnone JA, Zaller JG, Ziegler C, Zandt H, Körner C (1995) Leaf quality and insect herbivory in model tropical plant communities after long-term exposure to elevated atmospheric CO₂. *Oecologia* 104:72–78
- Benrey B, Denno RF (1997) The slow-growth-high-mortality hypothesis: a test using the cabbage butterfly. *Ecology* 78:987–999
- Bezemer RM, Jones TH (1998) Plant-insect interactions in elevated atmospheric CO₂: quantitative analyses and guild effects. *Oikos* 82:212–222
- Bryant JP, Chapin FS, Klein DR (1983) Carbon/nutrient balance of boreal plants in relation to vertebrate herbivory. *Oikos* 40:357–368
- Coley PD (1998) Possible effects of climate change on plant/herbivore interactions in moist tropical forests. *Clim Change* 39:455–472
- Coley PD, Kursar TA (2001) Herbivory, plant defenses and natural enemies in tropical forests. In: Anaya AL, Cruz-Ortega R, Espinosa-García FJ (eds) *Interacciones químicas entre organismos: aspectos básicos y perspectivas de aplicación*. Plaza y Valdés, Mexico, pp 401–424
- Coviella CE, Trumble JT (2000) Effects of elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide on insect-plant interactions. *Conserv Biol* 13:700–712
- Curtis PS, Wang X (1998) A meta-analysis of elevated CO₂ effects on woody plant mass, form and physiology. *Oecologia* 113:299–313
- Díaz S, Fraser LH, Grime JP, Falczuk V (1998) The impact of elevated CO₂ on plant-herbivore interactions: experimental evidence of moderating effects at the community level. *Oecologia* 117:177–186
- Fajer ED, Bowers MD, Bazzaz FA (1989) The effects of enriched CO₂ atmospheres on plant-insect herbivore interactions. *Science* 243:1198–1200
- Fajer ED, Bowers MD, Bazzaz FA (1992) The effect of nutrients and enriched CO₂ environments on production of carbon-based allelochemicals in *Plantago*: a test of the carbon/nutrient balance hypothesis. *Am Nat* 140:707–723
- Hamilton J, Zangerl A, DeLucia E, Berenbaum M (2001) The carbon-nutrient balance hypothesis: its rise and fall. *Ecol Lett* 4:86–95
- Hartley SE, Jones CG, Couper GC, Jones TH (2000) Biosynthesis of plant phenolic compounds in elevated atmospheric CO₂. *Global Change Biol* 6:497–506
- IPCC (1998) *The regional impacts of climate change; an assessment of vulnerability*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Kanowski J (2001) Effects of elevated CO₂ on foliar chemistry of seedlings of two rainforest trees from north-east Australia: implications for folivorous marsupials. *Aust Ecol* 26:165–172
- Kinney KK, Lindroth RL (1997) Responses of three deciduous tree species to atmospheric CO₂ and soil NO₃⁻ availability. *Can J For Res* 27:1–10
- Kinney KK, Lindroth RL, Jung SM, Nordheim EV (1997) Effects of CO₂ and NO₃⁻ availability on deciduous trees: phytochemistry and insect performance. *Ecology* 78:215–230
- Koricheva J, Larsson S, Haukioja E, Keinänen M (1998) Regulation of woody plant metabolism by resource availability: hypothesis testing by means of a meta-analysis. *Oikos* 83:212–226
- Körner C, Arnone JA III (1992) Responses to elevated carbon dioxide in artificial tropical ecosystems. *Science* 257:1672–1675
- Lincoln DE, Fajer ED, Johnson RH (1993) Plant-insect herbivore interactions in elevated CO₂ environments. *Trends Ecol Evol* 8:64–68
- Lindroth RL (1996a) Consequences of elevated atmospheric CO₂ for forest insects. In: Körner C, Bazzaz FA (eds) *Carbon dioxide, populations, and communities*. Physiological ecology series. Academic Press, San Diego, pp 347–361
- Lindroth RL (1996b) CO₂-mediated changes in tree chemistry and tree-Lepidoptera interactions. In: Koch GW, Mooney HA (eds) *Carbon dioxide and terrestrial ecosystems*. Physiological ecology series. Academic Press, San Diego, pp 105–120
- Lindroth RL, Kinney KK, Platz CL (1993) Responses of deciduous trees to elevated atmospheric CO₂: productivity, phytochemistry and insect performance. *Ecology* 74:763–777
- Lindroth RL, Arteel GE, Kinney KK (1995) Responses of three saturniid species to paper birch grown under enriched CO₂ atmospheres. *Funct Ecol* 9:306–311
- Lindroth RL, Roth S, Kruger EL, Volin JC, Koss PA (1997) CO₂ mediated changes in aspen chemistry: effects on gypsy moth performance and susceptibility to virus. *Global Change Biol* 3:279–289
- Lovelock CE, Winter K, Mersits R, Popp M (1998) Responses of communities of tropical tree species to elevated CO₂ in a forest clearing. *Oecologia* 116:207–218
- McDonald EP, Agrell J, Lindroth RL (1999) CO₂ and light effects on deciduous trees: growth, foliar chemistry and insect performance. *Oecologia* 119:389–399
- Mole S, Waterman PG (1987) A critical analysis of techniques for measuring tannins in ecological studies. *Oecologia* 72:137–147
- O'Neil EG, Norby RJ (1996) Litter quality and decomposition rates of foliar litter produced under CO₂ enrichment. In: Koch GW, Mooney HA (eds) *Carbon dioxide and terrestrial ecosystems*. Physiological ecology series. Academic Press, San Diego, pp 87–103
- Peñuelas J, Estiarte M (1998) Can elevated CO₂ affect secondary metabolism and ecosystem function? *Trends Ecol Evol* 13:20–24
- Poorter H, Van Berkel Y, Baxter R, Den Hertog J, Dijkstra P, Gifford RM, Griffen KL, Roumet C, Roy J, Wong SC (1997)

- The effect of elevated CO₂ on the chemical composition and construction costs of leaves of 27 C₃ species. *Plant Cell Environ* 20:472–482
- Price PW, Bouton CE, Gross P, McPheron BA, Thompson JN, Weis AE (1980) Interactions among three trophic levels: influences of plants on interactions between insect herbivores and natural enemies. *Annu Rev Ecol Syst* 11:41–65
- Reekie EG, Bazzaz FA (1989) Competition and patterns of resource use among seedlings of five tropical trees grown at ambient and elevated CO₂. *Oecologia* 79:9212–9222
- Reichardt PB, Chapin III FS, Bryant JP, Mattes BR, Clausen TP (1991) Carbon/nutrient balance as a predictor of plant defense in Alaskan balsam poplar: potential importance of metabolite turnover. *Oecologia* 88:401–406
- Rosenthal GA, Berenbaum MR (eds) (1992) *Herbivores: their interactions with secondary plant metabolites*, 2nd edn, vol II. Academic Press, New York
- Roth SK, Lindroth RL (1995) Elevated atmospheric CO₂ effects on phytochemistry, insect performance and insect parasitoid interactions. *Global Change Biol* 1:173–182
- Scriber JM, Slansky F Jr (1981) The nutritional ecology of immature insects. *Annu Rev Entomol* 26:183–211
- Slansky F Jr (1992) Allelochemical-nutrient interactions in herbivore nutritional ecology. In: Rosenthal GA, Berenbaum MR (eds) *Herbivores: their interactions with secondary plant metabolites*, 2nd edn, vol II. Academic Press, New York, pp 135–174
- Slansky F Jr (1993) Nutritional ecology: the fundamental quest for nutrients. In: Stamp NE, Casey TM (eds) *Caterpillars: ecological and evolutionary constraints of foraging*. Chapman and Hall, New York, pp 29–91
- Stamp NE, Casey TM (eds) (1993) *Caterpillars: ecological and evolutionary constraints on foraging*. Chapman and Hall, New York
- Stiling P, Rossi AM, Hungate B, Dijkstra P, Hinkle CR, Knott WM, Drake B (1999) Decreased leaf-miner abundance in elevated CO₂: reduced leaf quality and increased parasitoid attack. *Ecol Appl* 9:240–244
- Torti SD, Dearing DM, Kursar TA (1995) Extraction of phenolic compounds from fresh leaves: a comparison of methods. *J Chem Ecol* 21:117–125
- Watt AD, Whittaker JB, Docherty M, Brooks G, Lindsay E, Salt DT (1995) The impact of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on insect herbivores. In: Harrington R, Stork NE (eds) *Insects in a changing environment*. Academic Press, London, pp 198–217
- Winter K, Garcia M, Lovelock CE, Gottsberger R, Popp M (2000) Responses of model communities of two tropical tree species to elevated atmospheric CO₂: growth on unfertilized soil. *Flora* 195:289–302
- Winter K, Garcia M, Gottsberger R, Popp M (2001) Marked growth response of communities of two tropical tree species to elevated CO₂ when soil nutrient limitation is removed. *Flora* 196:47–58
- Wisdom CS, Gonzalez-Coloma A, Rundel PW (1987) Ecological tannin assays. Evaluation of proanthocyanidins, protein binding assays and protein precipitating potential. *Oecologia* 72:395–401