



Title	Root Production of <i>Fagus crenata</i> Blume Saplings Grown in Two Soils and Exposed to Elevated CO ₂ Concentration : an 11-Year Free-Air-CO ₂ Enrichment (FACE) Experiment in Northern Japan
Author(s)	Agathokleous, Evgenios; Watanabe, Makoto; Eguchi, Norikazu; Nakaji, Tatsuro; Satoh, Fuyuki; Koike, Takayoshi
Citation	Water, air, and soil pollution, 227(6), 187 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-016-2884-1
Issue Date	2016-06
Doc URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2115/65840
Rights	The final publication is available at Springer via http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11270-016-2884-1
Type	article (author version)
File Information	WATER AIR SOIL POLL227 -6_187.pdf



[Instructions for use](#)

24 fine root production and extensive foraging strategy of saplings in both soils, a
25 phenomenon that may partly a) adjust the biogeochemical cycles of ecosystems, b) form
26 their response to global change and c) increase the size and/or biodiversity of soil fauna.
27 We recommend that future researches consider testing a soil with a higher degree of
28 infertility than the one we tested.

29 **Key words:** Air pollution, Atmospheric environment, Climate change, Ecophysiology,
30 Greenhouse gas, NPP

31 **Key message:** Siebold's beech saplings had different root response to elevated CO₂
32 concentrations between fertile and infertile soils, and thus net primary productivity is likely
33 to vary among regions

34 **Author contribution statement:**

35 Evgenios Agathokleous: Root measurements, data analysis and interpretation, and synthesis
36 and production of the manuscript

37 Makoto Watanabe: Data collection and discussion on the study

38 Norikazu Eguchi: Discussion on the study based on the FACE from 2003

39 Tatsuro Nakaji: Guidance on root research and discussion on the study

40 Fuyuki Satoh: Management of the FACE system

41 Takayoshi Koike: Funds, excavation of the roots and collection of data, management of all
42 the technical procedures and discussion

43 **Acknowledgements:** The authors do appreciate Mr. Tatsushiro Ueda of Dalton Co.
44 (Hokkaido Branch) for his continuous engineering assistance in the FACE system and Mr.

45 K. Ichikawa of Hokkaido University Forests for the operation of the bulldozer. They are
46 further grateful to Dr. Rhett Loban of the University of New South Wales, Australia, for
47 proofreading the manuscript and two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments
48 and suggestions on an earlier version of the manuscript. The senior author (E.A.)
49 acknowledges the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) for funding
50 (scholarship no: 140539). Part of the findings of this study was presented by E.A. at the 6th
51 International Symposium on Physiological Processes in Roots of Woody Plants which was
52 held in 2014 at Nagoya, Japan. This study was financially supported by JSPS via research
53 funds to T.K. (Innovation research: 21114008, Type B: 26292075).

54 **Conflict of interest:** Authors declare no conflict of interest. The funding source (JSPS) is a
55 non-profit organization. JSPS had not involvement in study design; in the collection,
56 analysis and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit
57 the article for publication

58 **1. INTRODUCTION**

59 A hitherto weak point in knowledge on effects of future atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂)
60 levels on trees is the lack of long-term studies; most studies have dealt with seedlings at a
61 juvenile stage and for a short-term of exposure (e.g. Körner 2009; Norby and Zak 2011).
62 Phytochemistry research on several aspen genotypes revealed that the effects of elevated
63 CO₂ levels on forest trees are temporally dynamic over decadal time periods, and
64 underlined the need for long-term research (Couture 2014). Such long-term studies should
65 be conducted in different regions with different edaphoclimatological conditions in order to

66 shed light on CO₂ effects on trees after canopy closure and mature stage and to quantify the
67 effect (Leuzinger et al. 2011). The importance of studies conducted in different regions is
68 also highlighted by the latitude-dependency of the effect of atmospheric changes on forest
69 productivity (Silva and Anand 2013). Additionally, another weakness is the wide spacing
70 of plants which has been implemented in several experiments (Körner 2006). Wide spacing
71 leads to artifacts due to the influence of nutritional resources: If a first year effect is induced
72 by offering open space as a surrogate for ample nutrients, that signal will propagate into the
73 future (even if CO₂ exposure is terminated), which is even worse than short experimental
74 duration (Körner 2006). As such, most data do not truly represent the effects of future
75 elevated CO₂ levels on tree roots, the responses of which to elevated CO₂ levels are still not
76 well understood (Körner 2011; Wang et al. 2016).

77 Fine roots (production and turnover) partly adjust the biogeochemical cycles of ecosystems
78 and form their response to global change (Norby et al. 2004). Moreover, fine root data
79 along with models contribute to the understanding of the global belowground diversity and
80 biogeochemical processes in the terrestrial biosphere (McCormack 2015). Root dynamics
81 can explain elevated-CO₂-induced differences among ecosystems (Norby et al. 2004);
82 however, fine-root biomass can vary across years (Pregitzer et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2016),
83 as fine root production is also related to biotic factors, such as soil fauna (Lipson et al.
84 2014). In addition, future changes in allocation to belowground of trees in response to
85 elevated CO₂ levels are likely to alter the fungal community (Lipson et al. 2014; Wang et al.
86 2016).

87 Short-term experiments might not represent the actual responses of tree root system to CO₂
88 (Norby and Zak 2011; Kostianen et al. 2014) due to physiological age and size dependency,
89 stand development, community composition, nitrogen deposition, ground-surface ozone,
90 etc. (Asshoff et al. 2006; Körner 2006; Pregitzer et al. 2008; Kostianen et al. 2009, 2014;
91 Bader et al. 2013; Yan et al. 2014; Agathokleous et al. 2016a). Despite the importance of
92 roots, knowledge about their response to future elevated CO₂ concentrations remains
93 meager (e.g. Körner 2011; Wang et al. 2016). What is also surprising is the prevailing
94 unawareness in the role of soils in belowground responses of trees to atmospheric CO₂
95 despite that soils have greater influences on responses of plants to other applied treatments
96 (Spinnler et al. 2002, 2003; Körner 2011; Sigurdsson et al. 2013). To our knowledge, there
97 are no available studies on the decadal belowground response to CO₂ of trees grown in
98 different soils.

99 Siebold's beech (*Fagus crenata* Blume; Fagaceae) is a late-successional, deciduous,
100 broadleaf tree native to Japan (Koike et al. 1998). It has a distribution from Kyushu (c.
101 30.5° N) to southern Hokkaido (c. 42.8° N) and a climatic threshold close to the cool-
102 temperate zone (Horikawa 1972; Fang and Lechowicz 2006). Thus, it is a dominant species
103 in the cool temperate zone of Japan (Asuka et al. 2004a). Among the beech species,
104 Siebold's beech is adapted to and occurs in the most humid conditions of cold areas (Fang
105 and Lechowicz 2006). Phenological events (e.g. flowering and autumnal surcease of
106 growth) of late successional taxa, such as Siebold's beech, are primarily controlled by
107 photoperiod and not temperature (Körner and Basler 2010). This species is vital to

108 ecosystem functioning and biodiversity conservation (Asuka et al. 2004b; Hara 2010), and
109 northern Siebold's beech forests are included in the World Heritage (UNESCO 2002).

110 The objective of the present study was to quantify the belowground net primary production
111 (NPP), in terms of root production, and carbon (C) allocation balance between aboveground
112 and belowground part of Siebold's beech saplings grown under ambient or elevated CO₂
113 levels and in fertile brown forest soil (BF) or infertile, immature volcanic ash plus pumice
114 soil (VA) for 11 years, in a free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) system. This system was
115 established in northern Japan, in a transition zone between cool temperate and boreal
116 forests, a part of the Asian boreo-nemoral ecotone and sensitive to global climate changes
117 (Uemura 1992; Matsuda et al. 2002). Thus, this research will provide a new piece of
118 information which can be used to determine the future C abundance in trees and NPP
119 (Körner 2003, 2006; Leuzinger et al. 2011; Norby and Zak 2011). We hypothesized that the
120 response of saplings to elevated CO₂ levels would be affected by soil fertility.

121 **2. MATERIALS & METHODS**

122 **2.1 Experimental Design:** The present research was conducted in the FACE system
123 located in the Sapporo Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University, Japan (43°06' N,
124 141°20' E, 60 m a.s.l), with a split-plot factorial design and employing the randomized
125 block method (Filion et al. 2000). The CO₂ treatments were ambient and elevated CO₂,
126 with three site replicates for each treatment. The design of these FACE facilities was based
127 on the system used at the Stillberg, Davos, in the Swiss Alps (Hättenschwiler et al. 2002).
128 The soil treatments were BF (Matsui 2001) and VA (Kato 1983), both at each site with a

129 distance of 1.5 m between them. VA is a nutrient-poor soil that was excavated and brought
130 from Tomakomai Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University (42°40' N, 141°37' E, 30 m
131 a.s.l.); this soil is widespread in Hokkaido island. Since BF is native to the Sapporo
132 Experimental Forest, half of each FACE rings was excavated to a depth of about 15 cm,
133 and it was refilled with VA. For the purpose of soil physical properties uniformity, the
134 same process was followed for BF, *i.e.* the excavated soil was back-filled. Although roots
135 can go much deeper, usually most of the nutrients accessed by plants are those found by
136 exploring fine roots at top soil; in this case, most of the lateral and fine roots were
137 distributed between the soil surface and a depth of 10–15 cm. Chemical and physical
138 properties of BF and VA used in the present study can be found in Watanabe et al. (2013).
139 The sites were completed in autumn 2002.

140 **2.2 Climatic & meteorological conditions:** The snow-free period lasted from early May to
141 mid. November. Meteorological data were collected from a station located in Sapporo
142 (WMO, ID: 47412) at 43°03.6'N and 141°19.7'E (Japan Meteorological Agency, 2015). The
143 monthly means of air temperature, wind speed, and relative humidity and the monthly totals
144 of sunshine duration and precipitation were averaged per year (Table 1). The mean values
145 for the years 2003-2013 were 9.31 (± 0.08 se) °C, 3.54 (± 0.04 se) m s⁻¹, 68.5 (± 0.39 se) %,
146 1709.86 (± 27.37 se) h, and 1150.14 (± 43.55 se) mm, for each variable, respectively.

147 **2.3 Plant Materials:** Seedlings of Siebold's beech, obtained from Hokkaido Hort-green
148 Company Co. Ltd. (located near Sapporo city), were used as experimental subjects. These
149 seedlings originated from Kuromatsunai town (42°40.14'N 140°18.26'E), the northern

150 boundary of beech stands in Japan (Koike et al. 1998). In order to limit tree growth and
151 avoid compound interest effects (Körner 1995, 2006), 2-year-old seedlings ($h = 15.3 \text{ cm} \pm$
152 1.5 cm SD , $d = 0.42 \text{ mm} \pm 0.08 \text{ mm SD}$) were planted in the FACE rings at a distance of 30
153 cm among them, after the snow had melted in 2003, with an equal number of 8 individuals
154 in each research condition. In surrounding areas within the same plots (not between beech
155 saplings to avoid interspecific competition), plants of different species or families, such as
156 alder, birches, larch and oak, were also planted at different times throughout the 11
157 experimental years (Eguchi et al. 2008; Watanabe et al. 2013; Agathokleous et al. 2016b,
158 see Koike et al. 2015 for a complete list of references).

159 **2.4 CO₂ treatment:** Treatment with CO₂ was carried out in 11 consecutive Julian years
160 (2003-2013). Seedlings were exposed to CO₂ in each growing season during daytime, when
161 the photosynthetic photon flux (PPF) exceeded the $70 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (*i.e.* light compensation
162 point of photosynthesis, Koike 1988), from leaf emergence to leaf senescence (from May
163 until late November). This FACE system consisted of six rings from which the three were
164 enriched with CO₂ to raise the atmospheric CO₂ concentration to a target of $500 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$
165 (hereafter “eCO₂”); this concentration corresponds to the predicted CO₂ concentration for
166 the Julian years 2040–2050 (Stocker et al. 2013). The three control plots remained under
167 ambient CO₂ (about $370\text{-}390 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) (hereafter “aCO₂”) (see Eguchi et al. 2008;
168 Watanabe et al. 2013). In order to control the CO₂ concentration, the Vaisala CARBOCAP®
169 Carbon Dioxide Probe GMP343 (Vaisala ©), an accurate and rugged probe-type instrument
170 for ecological measurements, was used. This FACE regime was in accordance with other
171 FACE regimes for studying trees (Karnosky et al. 2005; Liberloo et al. 2009; Norby et al.

172 2010; Ellsworth et al. 2012). More information can be found in previous publications (see
173 Koike et al. 2015 for a complete list of references). The mean daytime CO₂ concentrations,
174 as measured in the center of each FACE site, during fumigation period 2003-2012 was 498
175 μmol mol⁻¹. The CO₂ concentration was 500 ± 50 or 500 ± 100 μmol mol⁻¹ for 64 or 89 %
176 of the fumigation period, respectively.

177 **2.5 Sampling & measurements:** At the end of the last growing season (2013), the trunk
178 basal diameter was measured for each beech sapling and all the roots were excavated using
179 a small bulldozer. This mechanistic method was previously compared with the manual
180 method (by hand), in different species, and it was revealed that excavation by this method
181 results in 10-30 % less root biomass (Matsunami 2008); this assumes equal error across all
182 the subjects. After the excavation, the following procedures were followed. First, the root
183 tips in horizon A (10-15 cm) were immediately sampled and dried at 75 °C for more than
184 five days. The dry masses of intermediate ($d = 2 - 4$ mm) and fine ($d = < 2$ mm) roots –
185 including ectomycorrhizae – were determined. Second, the whole root systems were left on
186 the field to physically dry; this was unavoidable because of the huge root systems. The next
187 summer (2014), measurements were taken for the total root system dry mass (TDM). Forty
188 one beech saplings were sampled and measured, with an average number of 3 (± 1 CI)
189 randomly selected saplings from each soil in each experimental unit.

190 **2.6 Statistics:** Trunk diameter data were transformed to area ($Area = \pi \times \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2$ cm²). The
191 level of significance was predefined at $\alpha=.05$. In order to treat the heterogeneity (Saitanis et
192 al. 2015), the data of each variable were subjected to T-scoring standardization using the

193 formula $T = \left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \times 10 + 50$, where X is the raw score, μ the mean, and σ the standard
194 deviation. Consequently, the mean became equal to 50 and the standard deviation equal to
195 10. The average T-score of each treatment in each experimental unit constituted the real
196 replicate in the overall analysis ($n = 3$). All the data were subjected to split-plot general
197 linear model randomized by block (GLM), based on Kuehl (1999), and, if needed, Tukey
198 range, posthoc test was followed. For data presentation purpose, the untransformed, instead
199 of transformed, values are presented.

200 In order to find the effect size (*ES*) of the treatments and to compare the *ES* with that of a 4-
201 year experiment with a broadleaved community in the same plots (see Agathokleous et al.
202 2016b) the unbiased Cohen's δ (Cohen, 1988; Hedges and Olkin 1985) was calculated
203 (using T-scores) for each pair of treatments (Table 2). Values of δ reported by
204 Agathokleous et al. (2016b) were corrected (Hedges and Olkin 1985) and presented in
205 Table 2. Absolute *ES* values within the arbitrary segments 00.00-0.20, 0.20-0.50, 0.50-0.80
206 and 0.80+ indicate neutral, small, moderate and large effect, respectively. Finally, in order
207 to find the percentile gain in experimental conditions, the Cohen's U_3 index (Cohen 1977)
208 was calculated, along with the overlapping coefficient (OVL) (Reiser and Faraggi 1999).
209 Unbiased δ , U_3 and OVL were calculated only for the pairs with statistically significant
210 difference in order to quantify the size of the difference. Data processing and statistical
211 analyses were conducted using the MS EXCEL 2010 (Microsoft ©) and STATISTICA v.10
212 (StatSoft Inc. ©) software.

3. RESULTS

213

214 Elevated CO₂ had a significant impact to all the variables except trunk area (Table 2). Soil
215 per se and its interaction with CO₂ had also significant impact on trunk area, TDM,
216 intermediate root biomass, and ratio of fine root biomass to intermediate root biomass
217 (Fine/Intermediate); the impact on trunk area to TDM rate (Area/TDM) and fine root
218 biomass was insignificant. Particularly, eCO₂ led to a large increase in TDM, fine root
219 biomass, and Fine/Intermediate of 20, 53, and 81 %, respectively, and a large decrease in
220 Area/TDM and intermediate root biomass of 21 % and 39 % (Tables 2 and 3). The eCO₂-
221 induced increase of fine root biomass was visible even to the naked eye (Fig 1). VA
222 induced a large increase (80 %) in the Fine/Intermediate and a decrease in trunk area
223 (18 %), TDM (13 %), and intermediate root biomass (33 %), of large, medium, and large
224 *ES*, respectively (Table 3).

225 According to Tukey range tests (n = 3), the only statistically significant difference between
226 the aCO₂ and eCO₂ when the saplings had grown in BF was that of fine root biomass,
227 where eCO₂ caused a large increase (41 %) (Tables 2 and 3). Furthermore, variant results
228 were obtained when the saplings had grown in VA: eCO₂ did not significantly alter the
229 trunk area and the Area/TDM, but it did induce a large increase in TDM, fine root biomass,
230 and Fine/Intermediate, of 48, 63, and 90 %, respectively, and a large decrease in
231 intermediate root biomass (73 %) (Tables 2 and 3). The largely reduced mass of
232 intermediate root biomass (Table 3), when saplings had grown in VA and exposed to eCO₂,
233 was apparently accounted for the significant reduction in intermediate root biomass by
234 eCO₂ as a main factor (Table 2).

235 Under aCO₂, VA caused significant reductions of large size in the trunk area (36 %) and
236 TDM (44 %). On the other hand, under eCO₂, VA caused a large reduction (71 %) in the
237 intermediate root biomass and, consequently, a large increase (88 %) in the Area/TDM
238 (Tables 2 and 3). Although, under eCO₂, saplings grown in VA had 19 % increased TDM
239 and 14 % increased fine root biomass (compared to those grown under eCO₂ and BF), these
240 differences were not significant ($p>0.05$) and, therefore, should be considered neither
241 educationally nor practically/clinically significant (Wolf 1986).

242 Finally, the fine root biomass to trunk basal area (Fine:Area) rate was largely increased by
243 eCO₂ (50 %), regardless of soil (Tables 2 and 3). Soil and the interaction between CO₂ and
244 Soil were insignificant factors (Table 2).

245 **4. DISCUSSION**

246 To our knowledge, this is the first study evaluating the decadal independent or interactive
247 effects between elevated levels of CO₂ and soil fertility on root production of a late-
248 successional, deciduous, broadleaved species in a transition zone between cool temperate
249 and boreal forests and at the Asian boreo-nemoral ecotone. Saplings were subjected to the
250 treatments for the entire active growth period, and during the 11-year exposure, they were
251 progressing towards the mature phase of wood production and canopy closure.

252 Interestingly, eCO₂ did not alter the trunk area while VA affected it. Particularly, saplings
253 grown under aCO₂×VA had smaller trunk area, of a large *ES*, than those grown under
254 aCO₂×BF. Similarly, although root biomass was significantly increased by eCO₂, as a

255 single factor, this was mainly due to the large negative effect of VA on saplings under
256 ambient CO₂ environment (44 % lower, *cf.* BF). In fact, there were no statistically
257 significant differences among the treatments a) aCO₂×BF, b) eCO₂×BF, and c) eCO₂×VA,
258 however our data come from very wet years. The insignificant responses are in agreement
259 with aboveground ecophysiological findings: The leaf area index (mean of the canopy of a
260 community of ten species including beech) was higher in eCO₂ in 2nd growing season of
261 CO₂ treatment, but not in the following growing seasons (Koike et al. 2015). In addition,
262 leaf mass per area, area-based and mass-based N content of leaf, chlorophyll fluorescence
263 and most photosynthetic traits of beech saplings in the BF were not affected by eCO₂
264 (Watanabe et al. 2016). A 10-year experiment with wet and dry years also revealed that
265 there were no sustained increases in the biomass of a community of perennial plants
266 (Newingham et al. 2013). It is nevertheless clinically noteworthy that eCO₂ led to a largely
267 higher TDM of VA saplings, compared to aCO₂. In both variables (trunk area and TDM),
268 eCO₂ mediated the negative impact of VA and as such the interaction of CO₂×soil was
269 significant. Our findings (CO₂×VA), do not support the conclusion of Oren et al. (2001),
270 based on light demanding pine stands, that “...fertility can restrain the response of wood
271 carbon sequestration to increased atmospheric CO₂.”

272 As to the Area/TDM, the only significant difference was that of aCO₂ vs. eCO₂; apparently,
273 eCO₂ led to a higher TDM per trunk area, decreasing thus the Area/TDM. Area/TDM
274 derives from the *Pipe Model* theory of tree form and can be used as an index for foliage
275 mass against stem mass (Shinozaki et al. 1964a, b), indicating C allocation within plant
276 body. According to meta-analyses, on average, eCO₂ does not change plant allometry

277 (Poorter and Nagel 2000; Poorter et al. 2012). However, our results indicate changed plant
278 allometry, and this is in contrast to the previous findings (Agathokleous et al. 2016b) from
279 a sapling community of three birches and an oak exposed to eCO₂ for 4 years in the same
280 facilities. In the latter case, the saplings were more widely spaced (50 cm vs. 30 cm in the
281 present study). The present and previous results (Agathokleous et al. 2016b), at a wet
282 region, are in agreement and differ to the general conclusion that soil infertility affects plant
283 allometry (Poorter and Nagel 2000; Poorter et al. 2012), according to the *functional*
284 *equilibrium* theory (Brouwer 1962; Poorter and Nagel 2000). It can only be postulated that
285 the degree of soil infertility was not adequate to change the plant allometry during 11
286 growing seasons. In long-term experiments, in contrast to short-term experiments, there is
287 an input of nutrients, through litterfall and decomposition, which may increase the soil
288 fertility.

289 Regarding the results of the root classes, the large eCO₂-induced fine root biomass was
290 certainly very high and clinically significant (Wolf 1986). This is in agreement with our
291 previous results (Table 3, Agathokleous et al. 2016b), but does not coincide with the
292 findings of Bader et al. (2009) where unchanged or reduced fine root biomass of trees
293 occurred at a mature deciduous forest exposed to 7 years FACE. We optically observed an
294 increased length of the small class of roots (Fig 1). Essentially, there was no individual or
295 interactive soil effect, even though we were expecting VA to be a critical factor altering
296 fine roots production through a force to seek nutrients. This is another indication that
297 future research should consider more nutrient-starving soil. The significant independent and
298 interactive effects of CO₂ and soil are again attributed to an effect of VA under eCO₂,

299 which caused a reduction of the intermediate root biomass and thus an increase of the
300 Fine/Intermediate. We cannot confidently explain why the intermediate root biomass was
301 reduced by VA only under eCO₂, but we could say that it may be explained by the large
302 increase of fine root biomass – even higher than in eCO₂×BF. Through this morphogenesis
303 of expanding fine roots at the expense of intermediate roots, saplings under eCO₂ succeed
304 to compensate the negative effects of VA. It is also possible that root turnover was faster
305 under eCO₂ (Wang et al. 2016), and fewer roots grew older which might decreased
306 intermediate roots.

307 Saplings underwent extensive foraging strategy of fine roots, as indicated by higher
308 Fine:Area, under eCO₂ (Ostonen et al. 2011; Leppalammi-Kujansuu et al. 2014) so as to
309 increase fine root mass and length in order to achieve greater absorbing area (Ostonen et al.
310 2011). This effect was as large as it was in our previous study (Agathokleous et al. 2016b),
311 however VA had no significant effects which is inconsistent with our previous findings
312 (Agathokleous et al. 2016b) where VA had a large effect. In the latter case, an initial effect
313 might be caused by wider spacing and as such propagated in following years.

314 Short-term exposure of very young or small seedlings to CO₂ and artifacts usually reveal
315 high responses of tree species to elevated CO₂ (Pregitzer et al. 1995; Tissue et al. 1997;
316 Kgope et al. 2009; Lavola et al. 1995; Duan et al. 2014), which can be even higher than
317 those of herbaceous species (Körner 2006). Artifacts are caused by inappropriate growth
318 conditions such as wide spacing and fertile artificial substrates. Our results do not
319 correspond with some of those short-term experiments where a high, and likely

320 overestimated, total root biomass response to elevated CO₂ was found: There was an
321 increase in biomass when saplings had grown in VA, however, there was an insignificant
322 response when grown in BF. On the other hand, the fine root biomass was not only high,
323 but often even higher than in some short-term experiments, for saplings grown in both soils.

324 With reference to short-term experiments, long-term CO₂ experiments with saplings usually
325 provide contradictory evidence (e.g. Bader and Körner 2010; Norby et al. 2010; Bader et al.
326 2013; Li et al. 2014; Warren et al. 2015). For instance, Li et al. (2014) found that 11 years
327 of FACE treatment with 475 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of CO₂ led to widely-ranged (-6 to +28%) annual
328 plant production of grazing pasture and as little as 3 % higher (or even lower) final pasture
329 production for the elevated CO₂ treatment, *cf.* ambient. Kostianen et al. (2014) exposed 4
330 clones of *Populus tremuloides* and *Betula papyrifera* saplings to 560 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of CO₂ for
331 11 years and found that most saplings responses to treatments were observed in the early
332 phase of the experiment. Similarly, Dawes et al. (2015) reported that 9 years of FACE
333 treatment (+200 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) did not significantly change the coarse root biomass or total
334 biomass of either *Larix decidua* or *Pinus uncinata*, approximately 40-year-old trees.

335 Interestingly, Norby et al. (2004, 2010) found 24 % higher NPP –the prime contributor
336 being a more than doubled annual fine root production- in plants of a more widely spaced,
337 deciduous community during the 4th to 6th growing season after exposure to 550 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$
338 of CO₂ began. However, the NPP enhancement declined to just 9 % after 11 growing
339 seasons. In contrast, Pregitzer et al. (2008) exposed a community of *Populus tremuloides* to
340 560 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of CO₂ for 10 years and found that elevated CO₂ led to \approx 20 % greater fine
341 and total root mass.

342 It is obvious that there is a wide range of responses in short-term and long-term research.
343 Nonetheless, in most of the long-term cases the elevated CO₂-induced differences were
344 insignificant (e.g. Norby et al. 2010; Newingham et al. 2013; Kostianen et al. 2014; Li et al.
345 2014; Dawes et al. 2015) and this is consistent with our findings. The total root growth
346 simulation in mature Siebold's beech stands with closed canopies was much smaller or
347 neutral for the present two common types of soil when compared to the control treatment of
348 aCO₂×BF. However, if we take into account the large simulation caused by eCO₂ under VA,
349 compared to aCO₂×VA, it will be very important for relevant regions.

350 The key issue is that CO₂ enrichment must be applied to closed canopy stands to avoid the
351 compound interest effect artifact (including wide spacing, fertile artificial substrates, etc.).
352 What is needed is intact undisturbed natural soil *in situ* such as Sigurdsson et al. (2013)
353 used for experiments with mature Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) Karst) trees exposed to
354 elevated CO₂ for 3 years, where limited nutrient availability in soil restricted the tree
355 response to elevated CO₂ (Sigurdsson et al. 2013). Spinnler et al. (2002, 2003) found that
356 beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) responded negatively to 4-year CO₂ enrichment when grown in
357 acidic soil, but responded positively when grown in calcareous soil, where growth
358 stimulation was observed –due to compound interest effect- during the first 2-3 growing
359 seasons. In agreement with the findings of Spinnler et al. (2002, 2003), our findings show
360 that we would draw false conclusions, if we had chosen to experiment with only one soil
361 type (brown forest soil).

362 Increased belowground allocation in poor soil caused by elevated CO₂ levels, as observed
363 in our study, may have wider consequences in the long term. Saxe et al. (2001) noted
364 “climatic adaptation seems to be the most important component in the evolutionary process
365 of temperate and boreal tree species.” The root response of trees may affect the
366 performance of the whole trees and the interactions and distributions of populations and
367 species (de Kroon 2007). Fine roots contribute significantly to NPP (DeLucia et al. 1999),
368 however, the NPP impact by CO₂ is species specific and depends on other factors such as
369 nitrogen deposition (Norby et al. 2010; Yan et al. 2014). The variant NPP responses may
370 affect species’ composition of forests under future climate change (Yan et al. 2014).

371 Overall, Siebold’s beech saplings may not experience significant belowground effects in
372 regions with fertile soils, but may experience significant positive effects in regions with
373 infertile soils. The former case can be translated to insignificant effects on NPP, while in
374 the latter case to a higher NPP and quicker reach of high storage age, so called *buying time*,
375 (Körner 2006) in such regions. Regarding the large increase in biomass production caused
376 by eCO₂ under VA, there is no benefit if we compare it with aCO₂×BF, but the net (real)
377 surplus will be large to areas with VA. Natural forests at mountainous and remote regions
378 often have infertile soils and are not easily accessible to humans, while urban forests and
379 trees at plains usually have fertile soils. At remote infertile areas eCO₂ impacts could be
380 higher than at nearby areas and this should be taken into account when planning relevant
381 experiments.

5. CONCLUSIONS

382

383 The response to eCO₂ and soil fertility of saplings of the late-successional, deciduous,
384 broadleaved Siebold's beech (*Fagus crenata*) was studied after 11 years of exposure, in a
385 transition zone between cool temperate and boreal forests and at the Asian boreo-nemoral
386 ecotone.

387 Elevated CO₂ led to a large enhancement of the total root production of saplings grown in
388 VA, compensating the negative effect of VA under aCO₂, however, there was no significant
389 effect of eCO₂ on saplings grown in BF. Since the effects of eCO₂×VA on total root
390 production were not significantly different from aCO₂×BF, the eCO₂-enhancement is not
391 quantitatively noteworthy compared to other soils, but this enhancement will be practically
392 significant for regions with VA (or similar soil). In such regions, a higher NPP may be
393 noticed, meaning that the projected elevated CO₂ concentrations may have a different
394 impact in regions with different soil fertility.

395 A large eCO₂-induced fine root biomass (with higher biomass per basal trunk area) was
396 observed, and it was certainly high, for both soils. Unexpectedly, there were no individual
397 or interactive soil effects, something pointing out that future research should consider more
398 nutrient-starving soil. A morphogenesis of roots was evident in saplings exposed to eCO₂
399 and VA, through which saplings succeed to compensate the negative effects of VA by
400 expanding fine roots at the expense of intermediate roots.

401

402

LITERATURE CITED

403

404 Agathokleous, E., Saitanis, C.J., Wang, X., Watanabe, M., Koike, T. (2016a) A review
405 study on past 40 years of research on effects of tropospheric O₃ on belowground structure,
406 functioning and processes of trees: a linkage with potential ecological implications. *Wat.*
407 *Air Soil Poll.*, 227,33.

408 Agathokleous, E., Watanabe, M., Nakaji, T., Wang, X., Satoh, F., Koike, T. (2016b).
409 Impact of elevated CO₂ on root traits of a sapling community of three birches and an oak: a
410 free-air-CO₂ enrichment (FACE) in northern Japan. *Trees*, 30, 353-362.

411 Asshoff, R., Zotz, G., Körner, C. (2006). Growth and phenology of mature temperate forest
412 trees in elevated CO₂. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 12, 848-861.

413 Asuka, Y., Tomaru, N., Nisimura, N., Tsumura, Y., Yamamoto, S. (2004a). Heterogeneous
414 genetic structure in a *Fagus crenata* population in an old-growth beech forest revealed by
415 microsatellite markers. *Mol. Ecol.*, 13, 1241-1250.

416 Asuka, Y., Tani, N., Tsumura, Y., Tomaru, N. (2004b). Development and characterization
417 of microsatellite markers for *Fagus crenata* Blume. *Mol. Ecol. Notes*, 4, 101–103.

418 Bader, M., Hiltbrunner, E., Körner, Ch. (2009). Fine root responses of mature deciduous
419 forest trees to free air carbon dioxide enrichment (FACE). *Funct. Ecol.*, 23, 913-921.

420 Bader, M., Körner, Ch. (2010). No overall stimulation of soil respiration under mature
421 deciduous forest trees after 7 years of CO₂ enrichment. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 16, 2830-2843.

422 Bader, M.K.-F., Leuzinger, S., Keel, S.G., Siegwolf, R.T.W., Hagedorn, F., Schleppei, P.,
423 Körner, Ch. (2013). Central European hardwood trees in a high-CO₂ future: synthesis of an
424 8-year forest canopy CO₂ enrichment project. *J. Ecol.*, 101, 1509-1519.

425 Brouwer, R. (1962). Distribution of dry matter in the plant. *Neth. J. Agr. Sci.*, 10, 399–408.

426 Cohen, J. (1977). *Statistical power analysis for behavioral sciences* (revised ed.).
427 Academic Press, New York, 474pp.

428 Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences, 2nd edn.* Lawrence
429 Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey, 590pp.

430 Couture, J.J., Holeski, L.M., Lindroth, R.L. (2014). Long-term exposure to elevated CO₂
431 and O₃ alters aspen foliar chemistry across developmental stages. *Plant Cell Environ.*, 37,
432 758-765.

433 Dawes, M.A., Philipson, C.D., Fonti, P., Bebi, P., Hättenschwiler, S., Hagedorn, F., Rixen,
434 C. (2015). Soil warming and CO₂ enrichment induce biomass shifts in alpine treeline
435 vegetation. *Glob. Change Biol.*, Online 30 Jan 2015. DOI: 10.1111/gcb.12819

436 De Croon, H. (2007). How Do Roots Interact? *Science*, 318, 1562-1563.

437 De Lucia, E.H., Hamilton, J.G., Naidu, S.L., Thomas, R.B., Andrews, J.A., Finzi, A.,
438 Lavine, M., Matamala, R., Mohan, J.E., Hendrey, G.R., Schlesinger, W.H. (1999). Net
439 primary production of a forest ecosystem with experimental CO₂ enrichment. *Science*, 284,
440 1177-1179.

441 Duan, H., Duursma, R.A., Huang, G., Smith, R.A., Choat, B., O'Grady, A.P., Tissue, D.T.
442 (2014). Elevated [CO₂] does not ameliorate the negative effects of elevated temperature on
443 drought-induced mortality in *Eucalyptus radiata* seedlings. *Plant Cell Environ.*, 37, 1598-
444 1613.

445 Eguchi, N., Karatsu, K., Ueda, T., Funada, R., Takagi, K., Hiura, T., Sasa, K., Koike, T.
446 (2008) Photosynthetic responses of birch and alder saplings grown in a free air CO₂
447 enrichment system in northern Japan. *Trees*, 22, 437-447.

448 Ellsworth, D.S., Thomas, R., Crous, K.Y., Palmroth, S., Ward, E., Maier, C., De Lucia, E.,
449 Oren, R. (2012). Elevated CO₂ affects photosynthetic responses in canopy pine and
450 subcanopy deciduous trees over 10 years: a synthesis from Duke FACE. *Glob. Chang Biol.*,
451 18, 223–242.

452 Fang, J., Lechowicz, M.J. (2006). Climatic limits for the present distribution of beech
453 (*Fagus* L.) species in the world. *J. Biogeogr.*, 33, 1804–1819.

454 Fillion, M., Dutilleul, P., Potvin, C. (2000). Optimum experimental design for Free-Air-
455 Carbon dioxide Enrichment (FACE) studies. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 6, 843-854.

456 Hara, M. (2010). Climatic and historical factors controlling horizontal and vertical
457 distribution patterns of two sympatric beech species, *Fagus crenata* Blume and *Fagus*
458 *japonica* Maxim., in eastern Japan. *Flora*, 205, 161-170.

459 Hättenschwiler, S., Hanada, I.T., Egli, L., Asshoff, R., Ammann, W., Körner, C. (2002).
460 Atmospheric CO₂ enrichment of alpine treeline conifers. *New Phytol.*, 156, 363–375.

461 Hedges, L.V., Olkin, I. (1985). *Statistical methods for meta-analysis*, 1st edn. Academic
462 Press, Orlando, FL. 369pp.

463 Horikawa, Y. (1972). *Atlas of the Japanese flora: an introduction to plant sociology of East*
464 *Asia*. Gakken Co. Ltd, Tokyo.

465 Japan Meteorological Agency (2012). <http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/indexe.html> Website
466 accessed on 29th January 2015.

467 Karnosky, D.F., Pregitzer, K.S., Zak, D.R., Kubiske, M.E., Hendrey, G.R., Weinstein, D.,
468 Nosal, M., Percy, K.E. (2005). Scaling ozone responses of forest trees to the ecosystem
469 level in a changing climate. *Plant Cell Environ.*, 28, 965–981.

470 Kato, Y. (1983). Generation mechanism of volcanic ash soil. In: Takai Y (ed) *Volcanic ash*
471 *soil*. Hakuyusha, Tokyo, pp 5–30 (In Japanese).

472 Kgope, B.S., Bond, W.J., Midgley, G.F. (2010). Growth responses of African savanna trees
473 implicate atmospheric [CO₂] as a driver of past and current changes in savanna tree cover.
474 *Austral. Ecol.*, 35, 451-463.

475 Koike, T. (1988). Leaf structure and photosynthetic performance as related to the forest
476 succession of deciduous broad-leaved trees. *Plant Species Biol.*, 3, 77-87.

477 Koike, T., Kato, S., Shimamoto, Y., Kitamura, K., Kawano, S., Ueda, K., Mikami, T.
478 (1998). Mitochondrial DNA variation follows a geographic pattern in Japanese beech
479 species. *Bot. Acta*, 111, 87 – 92.

480 Koike, T., Watanabe, M., Watanabe, Y., Agathokleous, E., Eguchi, N., Takagi, K., Satoh,
481 F., Kitaoka, S., Funada, R. (2015). Ecophysiology of deciduous trees native to Northeast
482 Asia grown under FACE (Free Air CO₂ Enrichment). *J. Agr. Meteorol.*, 71, 174-184.

483 Körner, Ch. (1995). Towards a better experimental basis for upscaling plant responses to
484 elevated CO₂ and climate warming. *Plant Cell Environ.*, 18, 1101-1110.

485 Körner, Ch. (2003). Carbon limitation in trees. *J. Ecol.*, 91, 4-17.

486 Körner, Ch. (2006). Plant CO₂ responses: an issue of definition, time and resource supply.
487 *New Phytol.*, 172, 393-411.

488 Körner, Ch., Basler, D. (2010). Phenology under global warming. *Science*, 327, 1461-1462.

489 Körner, Ch., Asshoff, R., Bignucolo, O., Hättenschwiler, S., Keel, S.G., Pelaez-Riedl, S.,
490 Pepin, S., Siegwolf, R.T.W., Zotz, G. (2005). Carbon flux and growth in mature deciduous
491 forest trees exposed to elevated CO₂. *Science*, 309, 1360-1362.

492 Körner, Ch. (2009). Responses of Humid Tropical Trees to Rising CO₂. *Annu. Rev. Ecol.*
493 *Evol. Syst.*, 40, 61-79.

494 Körner, Ch. (2011). The grand challenges in functional plant ecology. *Frontier Plant Sci.*, 2,
495 1-3.

496 Kostianen, K., Kaakinen, S., Saranpää, P., Sigurdsson, B.D., Lundqvist, S.-O., Linder, S.,
497 Vapaavuori, E. (2009). Stem wood properties of mature Norway spruce after 3 years of
498 continuous exposure to elevated CO₂ and temperature. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 15, 368-379.

499 Kostianen, K., Saranpaa, P., Lundqvist, S.-O., Kubiske, M.E., Vapaavuori, E. (2014).
500 Wood properties of *Populus* and *Betula* in long-term exposure to elevated CO₂ and O₃.
501 *Plant Cell Environ.*, 37, 1452-1463.

502 Kuehl, R.O. (1999). *Design of experiments: Statistical principles of research design and*
503 *analysis*, 2nd ed. Duxbury Press, Boston. pp. 688.

504 Lavola, A., Nybakken, L., Rousi, M., Pusenius, J., Petrelius, M., Kellomaki, S., Julkunen-
505 Tiitto, R. (2013). Combination treatment of elevated UVB radiation, CO₂ and temperature
506 has little effect on silver birch (*Betula pendula*) growth and phytochemistry. *Physiol.*
507 *Plantarum*, 149, 499-514.

508 Leppalammi-Kujansuu, J., Aro, L., Salemaa, M., Hansson, K., Kleja, D.B., Helmisaari, H.-
509 J. (2014). Fine root longevity and carbon input into soil from below- and aboveground litter
510 in climatically contrasting forests. *Forest Ecol. Manag.*, 326, 79-90.

511 Leuzinger, S., Luo, Y., Beier, C., Dieleman, W., Vicca, S., Körner, C. (2011). Do global
512 change experiments overestimate impacts on terrestrial ecosystems? *Trends Ecol. Evol.*, 26,
513 236-241.

514 Li, F.Y., Newton, P.C.D., Lieffering, M. (2014). Testing simulations of intra- and inter-
515 annual variation in the plant production response to elevated CO₂ against measurements
516 from an 11-year FACE experiment on grazed pasture. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 20, 228-239.

517 Liberloo, M., Lukac, M., Calfapietra, C., Hoosbeek, M.R., Gielen, B., Miglietta, F.,
518 Scarascia-Mugnozza, G.E., Ceulemans, R. (2009). Coppicing shifts CO₂ stimulation of

519 poplar productivity to above-ground pools: a synthesis of leaf to stand level results from the
520 POP/EUROFACE experiment. *New Phytol.*, 182, 331–346.

521 Lipson, D.A., Kuske, C.R., Gallegos-Graves, L.V., Oechel, W.C. (2014). Elevated
522 atmospheric CO₂ stimulates soil fungal diversity through increased fine root production in a
523 semiarid shrubland ecosystem. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 20, 2555-2565.

524 Matsui, K. (2001). Classification of soil production. In: S. Asami., (Ed.), *University*
525 *textbook of soil geography*. Kokonshoin, Tokyo, pp 7–30. (In Japanese)

526 McCormack, M.L., Dickie, I.A., Eissenstat, D.M., Fahey, T.J., Fernandez, C.W., Guo, D.,
527 Helmisaari, H.-S., Hobbie, E.A., Iversen, C.M., Jackson, R.B., Leppalammi-Kujansuu, J.,
528 Norby, R.J., Phillips, R.P., Pregitzer, K.S., Pritchard, S.G., Rewald, B., Zadworny, M.
529 (2015). Redefining fine roots improves understanding of belowground contributions to
530 terrestrial biosphere processes. *New Phytol.*, 207, 505-18.

531 Matsuda, K., Shibuya, M., Koike, T. (2002). Maintenance and rehabilitation of the mixed
532 conifer-broadleaf forests in Hokkaido, northern Japan. *Eurasian J. For. Res.*, 5, 119–130.

533 Newingham, B.A., Vanier, C.H., Charlet, T.N., Ogle, K., Smith, S.D., Nowak, R.S. (2013).
534 No cumulative effect of 10 years of elevated [CO₂] on perennial plant biomass components
535 in the Mojave Desert. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 19, 2168-2181.

536 Norby, R.J., Hanson, P.J., O'Neill, E.G., Tschaplinski, T.J., Weltzin, J.F., Hansen, R.A.,
537 Cheng, W., Wullschleger, S.D., Gunderson, C.A., Edwards, N.T., Johnson, D.W. (2002).

538 Net primary productivity of a CO₂-enriched deciduous forest and the implications for
539 carbon storage. *Ecol. Appl.*, 12, 1261-1266.

540 Norby, R.J., Ledford, J., Reilly, C.D., Miller, N.E., O'Neill, E.G. (2004). Fine-root
541 production dominates response of a deciduous forest to atmospheric CO₂ enrichment. *PNAS*,
542 101, 9689-9693.

543 Norby, R.J., Warren, J.M., Iversen, C.M., Medlyn, B.E., McMurtrie, R.E. (2010). CO₂
544 enhancement of forest productivity constrained by limited nitrogen availability. *PNAS*, 107,
545 19368–19373.

546 Norby, R.J., Zak, D.R. (2011). Ecological Lessons from Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment (FACE)
547 Experiments. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.*, 42, 181-203.

548 Oren, R., Ellsworth, D.S., Johnsen, K.H., Phillips, N., Ewers, B.E., Maier, C., Schafer,
549 K.V.R., McCarthy, H., Hendrey, G., McNulty, S.G., Katul, G.G. (2001). Soil fertility limits
550 carbon sequestration by forest ecosystems in a CO₂-enriched atmosphere. *Nature*, 411, 469-
551 472.

552 Ostonen, I., Helmisaari, H.-S., Boriken, W., Tedersoo, L., Kukumagi, M., Bahram, M.,
553 Lindroos, A.-J., Nojd, P., Uri, V., Merila, P., Asi, E., Lohmus, K. (2011). Fine root
554 foraging strategies in Norway spruce forests across a European climate gradient. *Glob.*
555 *Change Biol.*, 17, 3620–3632.

556 Poorter, H., Nagel, O. (2000). The role of biomass allocation in the growth response of
557 plants to different levels of light, CO₂, nutrients and water: a quantitative review. *Aust. J.*
558 *Plant Physiol.*, 27, 595–607.

559 Poorter, H., Niklas, K.J., Reich, P.B., Oleksyn, J., Poot, P., Mommer, L. (2012). Biomass
560 allocation to leaves, stems and roots: meta-analyses of interspecific variation and
561 environmental control. *New Phytol.*, 193, 30–50.

562 Pregitzer, K.S., Burton, A.J., King, J.S., Zak, D.R. (2008). Soil respiration, root biomass,
563 and root turnover following long-term exposure of northern forests to elevated atmospheric
564 CO₂ and tropospheric O₃. *New Phytol.*, 180, 153-161.

565 Reiser, B., Faraggi, D. (1999). Confidence intervals for the overlapping coefficient: The
566 normal equal variance case. *J. R. Stat. Soc.*, 48, 413-418.

567 Saitanis, C., Lekkas, D.V., Agathokleous, E., Flouri, F. (2015). Screening agrochemicals as
568 potential protectants of plants against ozone phytotoxicity. *Environ. Pollut.*, 197, 247-256.

569 Saxe, H., Cannell, M.G.R., Johnsen, Ø., Ryan, M.G., Vourlitis, G. (2001). Tree and forest
570 functioning in response to global warming. *New Phytol.*, 149, 369-400.

571 Shinozaki, K., Yoda, K., Hozumi, K., Kira, T. (1964a). A quantitative analysis of plant
572 form-the pipe model theory I. Basic analyses. *Jpn. J. Ecol.*, 14, 97–105.

573 Shinozaki, K., Yoda, K., Hozumi, K., Kira, T. (1964b). A quantitative analysis of plant
574 form—the pipe model theory II. Further evidence of the theory and its application in forest
575 ecology. *Jpn. J. Ecol.*, 14, 133–139.

576 Sigurdsson, B.D., Medhurst, J.L., Wallin, G., Eggertsson, O., Linder, S. (2013). Growth of
577 mature boreal Norway spruce was not affected by elevated [CO₂] and/or air temperature
578 unless nutrient availability was improved. *Tree Physiol.*, 33, 1192–1205.

579 Silva, L.C.R., Anand, M. (2013). Probing for the influence of atmospheric CO₂ and climate
580 change on forest ecosystems across biomes. *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 22, 83-92.

581 Spinnler, D., Egli, P., Körner, C. (2002). Four-year growth dynamics of beech-spruce
582 model ecosystems under CO₂ enrichment on two different forest soils. *Trees*, 16, 423-436.

583 Spinnler, D., Egli, P., Körner, C. (2003). Provenance effects and allometry in beech and
584 spruce under elevated CO₂ and nitrogen on two different forest soils. *Basic Appl. Ecol.*, 4,
585 467–478.

586 Stocker, T.F., Qin, D., Plattner, G.-K., Tignor, M., Allen, S.K., Boschung, J., Nauels, A.,
587 Xia, Y., Bex, V., Midgley, P.M. (2013). *Climate change 2013: The physical science basis.*
588 *Contribution of working group I to the fifth assessment report of the intergovernmental*
589 *panel on climate change.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, p. 1535.

590 Tissue, D.T., Thomas, R.B., Strain, B.R. (1997). Atmospheric CO₂ enrichment increases
591 growth and photosynthesis of *Pinus taeda*: a 4 year experiment in the field. *Plant Cell*
592 *Environ.*, 20, 1123-1134.

593 Uemura, S. (1992). Environmental factors controlling the distribution of forest plants with
594 special reference to floral mixture in the boreo-nemoral ecotone, Hokkaido island. *Environ.*
595 *Sci. Hokkaido University*, 15, 1-54.

596 UNESCO (2002). *Properties inscribed on the World Heritage List*. World Heritage Centre,
597 Paris, France.

598 Wang, X.N., Agathokleous, E., Qu, L.Y., Watanabe, M., Koike, T. (2016). Effects of CO₂
599 and/or O₃ on the interaction between root of woody plants and ectomycorrhizae. *J. Agr.*
600 *Meteorol.*, 72(2), 1-11.

601 Warren, J.M., Jensen, A.M., Medlyn, B.E., Norby, R.J., Tissue, D.T. (2015). Carbon
602 dioxide stimulation of photosynthesis in *Liquidambar styraciflua* is not sustained during a
603 12-year field experiment. *AoB PLANTS*, 7, plu074.

604 Watanabe, M., Mao, Q., Novriyanti, E., Kita, K., Takagi, K., Satoh, F., Koike, T. (2013).
605 Elevated CO₂ enhances the growth of hybrid larch F₁ (*Larix gmelinii* var. *japonica* × *L.*
606 *kaempferi*) seedlings and changes its biomass allocation. *Trees*, 27, 1647-1655.

607 Watanabe, M., Kitaoka, S., Eguchi, N., Watanabe, Y., Satomura, T., Takagi, K., Satoh, F.,
608 Koike, T. (2016). Photosynthetic traits of Siebold's beech seedlings in changing light
609 conditions by removal of shading trees under elevated CO₂. *Plant Biol.*, 18, 56-62.

610 Wolf, F.M. (1986). *Meta-analysis: Quantitative Methods for Research Synthesis*. Beverly
611 Hills, CA: Sage.

612 Yan, J., Zhang, D., Liu, J., Zhou, G. (2014). Interactions between CO₂ enhancement and N
613 addition on net primary productivity and water-use efficiency in a mesocosm with multiple
614 subtropical tree species. *Glob. Change Biol.*, 20, 2230-2239.

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629 **Captions**

630 **Table 1** The yearly averages of the monthly average air temperature, average wind speed,
631 average relative humidity, total sunshine duration, and total precipitation, for the
632 experimental Julian years 2003-2013

633 **Table 2** Summary of the GLM results and mean untransformed values (\pm se) of the
634 measured variables trunk basal area (Trunk Area), total belowground dry mass (TDM),
635 Area/TDM rate, fine and intermediate roots dry masses, ratio of fine root biomass to
636 intermediate root biomass (Fine/Intermediate) and fine root to trunk basal area rate
637 (Fine/Area). The lowercase letters above the mean values indicate the significant
638 differences among the 4 combination treatments. The results of each variable obtained by a
639 GLM analysis or a Tukey range, post-hoc test, after significant results of the GLM analysis,
640 based on standardized data. Means within each variable marked with different lowercase
641 letters differ statistically significantly at a level of significance $\alpha=0.05$. Data obtained from
642 Siebold's beech (*Fagus crenata*) saplings exposed to ambient (370–390 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) or
643 elevated (500 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) CO_2 and grown either in brown forest soil or immature volcanic
644 ash plus pumice soil for 11 consecutive years. Three real replicates were used for each
645 experimental condition

646 **Table 3** The unbiased Cohen δ , Cohen U_3 index and overlapping coefficient (OVL) of the
647 measured variables trunk basal area (Trunk Area), total belowground dry mass (TDM),
648 Area/TDM rate, fine and intermediate roots dry masses, ratio of fine root biomass to
649 intermediate root biomass (Fine/Intermediate) and fine root to trunk basal area rate
650 (Fine/Area). The effect size (ES), for each pair with statistically significant difference, is

651 indicated by the letters M and L for Moderate and Large effect, respectively. “n/a” shows
652 that there was no statistically significant effect and therefore the values are not available.
653 The small-size and underlined values in the columns “ δ ” are the values found by
654 Agathokleous et al. (2015b) but corrected for estimate bias.

655 **Fig. 1** Typical difference of 10 cm root tips. Samples were obtained from Siebold’s Beech
656 (*Fagus crenata*) saplings which were grown in two different types of soil (BF: brown forest
657 soil or VA: volcanic ash soil including pumice) and exposed either to ambient CO₂ (370–
658 390 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) or to elevated CO₂ (500 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) for 11 growing seasons (2003-2013)

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669 **Table 1**

Julian Year	Air Temperature (°C)	Wind Speed (m s ⁻¹)	Relative Humidity (%)	Sunshine Duration (h)	Precipitation (mm)
2003	8.8	3.6	68	1787.1	0916.0
2004	9.7	3.6	66	1668.4	1130.5
2005	8.9	3.6	68	1700.5	1236.5
2006	9.1	3.8	68	1725.4	1145.5
2007	9.4	3.4	68	1730.1	1028.5
2008	9.5	3.5	68	1844.5	0843.0
2009	9.4	3.6	68	1604.4	1147.0
2010	9.8	3.4	69	1526.9	1325.0
2011	9.3	3.3	69	1753.6	1253.5
2012	9.3	3.5	70	1819.6	1279.0
2013	9.2	3.6	71	1647.9	1347.0
Average	9.3	3.5	69	1709.9	1150.1

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686 Table 2

	GLM results			Means (\pm se) & Tukey's range test results ($\text{CO}_2 \times \text{Soil}$)			
	CO_2	Soil	$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{Soil}$	a $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{BF}$	e $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{BF}$	a $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{VA}$	e $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{VA}$
Trunk Area ($\text{cm}^2/100$)	F = 00.55, $p = 0.48$	F = 06.63, $p < 0.05$	F = 08.26, $p < 0.05$	0.357 ^a (0.038)	0.306 ^{ab} (0.024)	0.227 ^b (0.003)	0.313 ^{ab} (0.015)
TDM (kg)	F = 16.92, $p < 0.01$	F = 05.95, $p < 0.05$	F = 43.62, $p < 0.01$	1.617 ^a (0.046)	1.421 ^a (0.104)	0.908 ^b (0.090)	1.748 ^a (0.060)
Area/TDM ($\text{cm}^2/\text{kg} \times 10$)	F = 10.86, $p < 0.01$	F = 01.16, $p = 0.31$	F = 00.07, $p = 0.81$	0.288 ^a (0.016)	0.233 ^a (0.014)	0.273 ^a (0.008)	0.209 ^a (0.028)
Fine root biomass (g)	F = 42.48, $p < 0.01$	F = 00.01, $p = 0.93$	F = 03.39, $p = 0.10$	0.122 ^a (0.021)	0.207 ^b (0.036)	0.090 ^a (0.013)	0.242 ^b (0.031)
Intermediate root biomass (g)	F = 23.82, $p < 0.01$	F = 15.26, $p < 0.01$	F = 20.72, $p < 0.01$	0.750 ^a (0.085)	0.730 ^a (0.051)	0.790 ^a (0.064)	0.209 ^b (0.033)
Fine/Intermedia te (g/g)	F = 20.90, $p < 0.01$	F = 20.27, $p < 0.01$	F = 19.58, $p < 0.01$	0.249 ^a (0.036)	0.285 ^a (0.053)	0.268 ^a (0.059)	2.463 ^b (0.480)
Fine/Area ($\text{g}/\text{cm}^2 \times 100$)	F = 42.20, $p < 0.001$	F = 01.44, $p = 0.26$	F = 00.14, $p = 0.72$	0.347 ^a (0.012)	0.691 ^b (0.065)	0.394 ^a (0.028)	0.780 ^b (0.086)

687

688 **Table 3**

	aCO ₂ vs. eCO ₂			BF vs. VA			aCO ₂ ×BF vs. eCO ₂ ×BF			aCO ₂ ×VA vs. eCO ₂ ×VA		
	δ	U ₃	OVL	δ	U ₃	OVL	δ	U ₃	OVL	δ	U ₃	OVL
Trunk Area (cm²)	n/a <u>1.560(L)</u>	n/a	n/a	1.159(L) <u>n/a</u>	0.877	0.562	n/a <u>n/a</u>			n/a <u>5.573(L)</u>		
TDM (kg)	1.001(L) <u>1.430(L)</u>	0.842	0.617	0.544(M) <u>n/a</u>	0.707	0.786	n/a <u>n/a</u>			7.782(L) <u>3.720(L)</u>	1.000	0.000
Area/TDM (cm²/kg ×10)	2.003(L) <u>n/a</u>	0.977	0.317	n/a <u>n/a</u>			n/a <u>n/a</u>			n/a <u>n/a</u>		
Fine root biomass (g)	2.630(L) <u>2.680(L)</u>	0.996	0.189	n/a <u>0.585(M)</u>			6.395 (L) <u>2.800(L)</u>	1.000	0.001	4.490(L) <u>7.004(L)</u>	1.000	0.025
Intermediate root biomass (g)	1.359(L) <u>4.306(L)</u>	0.913	0.497	0.995(L) <u>n/a</u>	0.840	0.619	n/a <u>3.999(L)</u>			8.013(L) <u>6.919(L)</u>	1.000	0.000
Fine/Intermediate (g/g)	1.220(L) <u>0.817(L)</u>	0.889	0.542	1.194(L) <u>n/a</u>	0.884	0.551	n/a <u>3.203(L)</u>			4.537(L) <u>n/a</u>	1.000	0.023
Fine/Area (g/cm² × 100)	3.875(L) <u>0.942(L)</u>	0.100	0.053	n/a <u>2.350(L)</u>			5.223 (L) <u>n/a</u>	1.000	0.009	4.238(L) <u>4.201(L)</u>	1.000	0.034

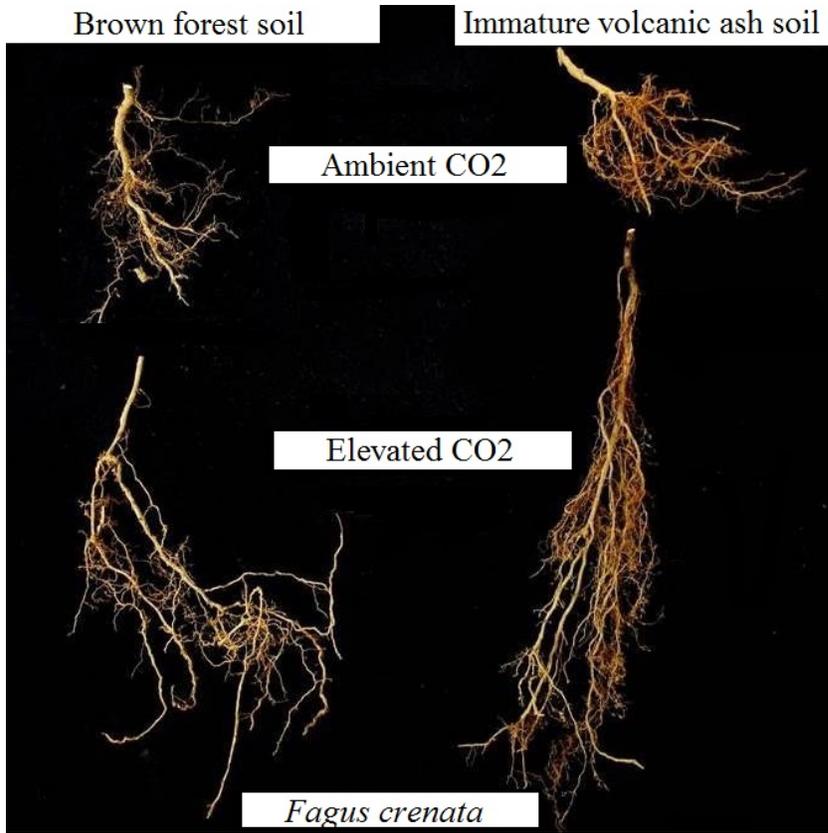
689

690

691

692

693 **Fig 1**



694

695

696