

Increased leaf area compensated photosynthetic downregulation in response to elevated CO₂ and warming in white birch

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Abstract

Predicting photosynthetic acclimation to elevated CO_2 and warming is difficult because they have opposite effects. We investigated physiological and morphological responses in white birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marshall) to a combination of CO_2 and temperature (ACT — 400 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO_2 , current temperature; ECT — 750 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO_2 , current + 4 °C temperature). ECT reduced photosynthesis, maximum Rubisco carboxylation (V_{cmax}), maximum electron transport rate (J_{max}), photorespiration, daytime respiration, leaf N, and stomatal and mesophyll conductance, but increased biomass, height, total leaf area, electron partitioning to carboxylation and oxygenation ratio, and CO_2 compensation point. The photosynthetic acclimation is consistent with the optimal carbon gain theory (carbon gain drives the coordination of carboxylation, electron transport, and respiration). While the photosynthetic acclimation was similar to acclimation to elevated CO_2 , ECT reduced J_{max}/V_{cmax} , which is consistent with the response to warming but opposite to the response to elevated CO_2 , suggesting that thermal acclimation may be the primary mechanism of photosynthetic acclimation to ECT and ECT probably altered N allocation between machinery for carboxylation and that for ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate regeneration. The increase in total leaf area by ECT more than offset the negative effect of photosynthetic downregulation on carbon sequestration, resulting in faster growth and greater biomass under ECT.

Key words: white birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marshall), elevated CO₂, photosynthetic acclimation, electron transport, leaf area, carbon gain

Résumé

Il est difficile de prédire l'acclimatation photosynthétique à un taux élevé de CO_2 et au réchauffement, car ils ont des effets opposés. Nous avons étudié les réponses physiologiques et morphologiques du bouleau gris (*Betula papyrifera* Marshall) à une combinaison de CO_2 et de température (ACT : 400 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO_2 , température actuelle ; ECT : 750 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO_2 , température actuelle + 4 °C). L'ECT a réduit la photosynthèse, la carboxylation maximale de la Rubisco (V_{cmax}), la vitesse maximale de transport des électrons (J_{max}), la photorespiration, la respiration diurne, l'azote foliaire, la conductance stomatique et mésophylle, mais a augmenté la biomasse, la hauteur, la surface foliaire totale, le ratio de partage des électrons vers la carboxylation et l'oxygénation et le point de compensation du CO_2 . L'acclimatation photosynthétique est conforme à la théorie du gain optimal de carbone (le gain de carbone détermine la coordination de la carboxylation, du transport d'électrons et de la respiration). Alors que l'acclimatation photosynthétique était similaire à l'acclimatation au CO_2 élevé, l'ECT a réduit J_{max}/V_{cmax} , ce qui est cohérent avec la réponse au réchauffement mais opposé à la réponse au CO_2 élevé, suggérant que l'acclimatation thermique peut être le mécanisme principal de l'acclimatation photosynthétique à l'ECT et que l'ECT a probablement modifié l'allocation de l'azote entre la machinerie pour la carboxylation et celle pour la régénération du RuBP (« ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate »). L'augmentation de la surface foliaire totale par l'ECT a plus que compensé l'effet négatif de la dérégulation photosynthétique sur la séquestration du carbone, ce qui a entraîné une croissance plus rapide et une plus grande biomasse sous l'ECT. [Traduit par la Rédaction]

Mots-clés : bouleau gris (*Betula papyrifera* Marshall), CO₂ élevé, acclimatation photosynthétique, transport d'électrons, surface foliaire, gain de carbone

Introduction

Atmospheric CO_2 is expected to continue to increase in the foreseeable future, along with increasing temperature (Kurepin et al. 2018). The associated climate change will have far-reaching impacts on vegetation (Tcherkez et al. 2017). Climate change may increase the probability of extreme weather events, posing serious challenges to both natural vegetation and cultivated crops (Birami et al. 2020; Slot et al. 2021). Long-term elevated CO_2 reduces photosynthetic capacity and leaf nitrogen (N) concentration (Dusenge et al. 2019; Dingkuhn et al. 2020) but promotes plant growth by 10%– 30% (Kimball 2016; Pastore et al. 2019). A good understanding of the mechanisms of plant morphological and physiological responses to elevated CO_2 and temperature is the basis for predicting the impacts of climate change and for developing adaptive strategies (Tcherkez et al. 2017).

The effects of single factors such as increasing CO₂ or temperature on plant growth have been well studied. It is believed that elevated CO₂ induces photosynthetic acclimation of plants (Smith and Keenan 2020), which is manifested by reducing photosynthetic capacity (V_{cmax}, J_{max}), and nitrogen content, and inhibiting the respiration of leaves (Birami et al. 2020; Dusenge et al. 2020; Ainsworth and Long 2021) (Table 1). Warming can cause thermal acclimation of plants (Murphy and Way 2021). For example, an appropriate temperature rise can increase the activation energy of carboxylation and oxidation rubisco, reduce J_{max}/V_{cmax} , accelerate photosynthesisrelated biochemical processes, and drive carbon sink intensity (Smith and Dukes 2017; Weigt et al. 2018). However, there was no relatively unified conclusion on the combined effect of elevated CO₂ and temperature on plants. Some studies found positive interaction between elevated temperature and CO₂ (Ainsworth and Long 2021), which promoted growth and increased resistance of plants (Apgaua et al. 2019). Other research suggests that the two factors have no obvious interaction or that their effects offset each other (Dusenge et al. 2019, 2020). Therefore, it is difficult to predict the combined effect of elevated temperature and CO₂ (Jayawardena et al. 2019).

Photosynthetic acclimation is a typical manifestation of plant long-term growth under elevated CO_2 and has been found to be independent of growth temperature and water conditions (Salazar-Parra et al. 2015). Photosynthetic acclimation usually resulted in a significant decrease in leaf V_{cmax} and J_{max} (Murphy and Way 2021); however, it stimulates an increase in plant biomass (Apgaua et al. 2019). These processes are also profoundly affected by temperature changes (Bermudez et al. 2021). Considering that elevated atmospheric CO_2 drives global warming, the effects of elevated temperature and CO_2 on plants are shown indistinguishable under future climate change conditions (Ainsworth and Long 2021). Therefore, it is important to investigate the characteristics of photosynthesis by combining elevated temperature and CO_2 treatments.

White birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marshall) is a widely distributed tree species in the Changbai Mountain forest region in China. It has great ecological values to the ecosystem as well as one of the most valuable commercial species in the region. This study evaluated the photosynthetic and morphological responses of the species to the elevations of CO_2 and temperature to elucidate the physiological mechanisms of the responses. We discussed the coordination between physiological and morphological parameters in the context of whole tree response. Further, we attempted to synthesize the response mechanisms of trees based on our findings and the literature.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

White birch (*B. papyrifera*) seeds were collected from a natural forest in the Changbai Mountain (42°12′N, 127°51′E) of China in 2018. Seeds were germinated in germination trays (50 cm × 25 cm × 5 cm) filled with a mixture of vermiculite and peat moss (1:1, *v*:*v*) in the Lakehead University greenhouse complex (Thunder Bay). The temperatures and photoperiod during the germination were set to 25/16 °C (day/night) and 16 h. Natural light was supplemented with high-pressure sodium lamps when the flux density of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was below 500 µmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. The seedlings were transplanted into 3.5 L pots with the same growing medium as used in the germination when they developed two leaves.

Experimental design and treatments

The experiment was conducted in four environmentcontrolled greenhouses at Lakehead University (Thunder Bay). The combined treatment of CO_2 and temperature (CT) had two levels (Table 1): (i) ACT = ambient CO_2 (400 μ mol·mol⁻¹) and current temperature (25/16 °C day/ night temperatures); (ii) ECT = elevated CO_2 (750 μ mol·mol⁻¹) and elevated temperature (current + 4 °C, 29/20 °C day/night temperature). The experimental design was randomized block. Each treatment level had two independent replicates (total of four separate greenhouses) and the replicates green house as blocking factor. Since there may be a position effect within the same greenhouse (Potvin and Tardif 1988), the positions of trees within the same greenhouse were rotated weekly. There were six seedlings in each treatmentreplicate combination. All the seedlings were irrigated to the drip point every 2 days and fertilized twice a week with a fertilizer solution containing 150 mg·L⁻¹ nitrogen using All-purpose 25-10-25 N-P-K fertilizer (Plant Products Co. Ltd.).

The environmental conditions of the greenhouses (i.e., temperature, light, photoperiod, CO_2 , and humidity) were monitored and controlled with an Argus Titan Environmentcontrol system (Argus Control Systems Ltd., Vancouver, BC, Canada). The CO_2 elevation was achieved using CO_2 generators (model GEN-2E; Custom Automated Products Inc., Riverside, CA, USA) which were controlled by the Argus system.

Measurements of biomass, height growth, and foliar N

Seedling height was measured at the end of the experiment. The total leaf area per tree was measured using Regent

Table 1. Definition of acronyms.

Acronym	Definition	Unit
A/C _i	Net photosynthesis rate vs. intercellular CO ₂ concentration response curve	
ACE	Apparent carboxylation efficiency	
ACT	Treatment of ambient 400 μ mol \cdot mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$ and ambient temperature	
An	Net photosynthesis rate	$\mu mol{\cdot}m^{-2}{\cdot}s^{-1}$
A _{n-t}	$A_{\rm n}$ at the transition point from RuBP carboxylation to regeneration limitation	$\mu mol {\cdot} m^{-2} {\cdot} s^{-1}$
ACT-C400	ACT treated seedlings gas exchange measured at 400 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ CO ₂	
ACT-C750	ACT treated seedlings gas exchange measured at 750 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ CO ₂	
C400	400 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ of CO ₂ concentration	µmol∙mol ⁻¹
C750	750 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ of CO ₂ concentration	µmol∙mol ⁻¹
CCP _{aci}	CO_2 compensation point from A/C_i curve	µmol∙mol ⁻¹
$C_i *$	Intercellular CO ₂ compensation point	µmol∙mol ⁻¹
C _{i-t}	C_i at the transition point between RuBP carboxylation to regeneration limitation	µmol∙mol ⁻¹
$C_{\rm i}/C_{\rm a}$	Intercellular (C_i) to ambient (C_a) CO ₂ concentration ratio	
ECT	Treatment of 750 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ CO ₂ and elevated temperature (ambient + 4 $^{\circ}$ C)	
ECT-C400	ECT treated seedlings' gas exchange was measured at 400 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ CO ₂	
ECT-C750	ECT treated seedlings' gas exchange was measured at 750 μ mol·mol ⁻¹ CO ₂	
ΦPHII	Photochemical efficiency of photosystem II	
gs	Stomatal conductance	$mmol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
g _m	Mesophyll conductance	$mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
iWUE	Instantaneous photosynthetic water use efficiency	$mmol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
Jc	Electron transport to carboxylation	$\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
Jo	Electron transport to oxygenation	$\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
Jmax	Maximum photosynthetic electron transport rate	$\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
LMR	Leaf mass ratio	-
N _{area}	Leaf N content based on leaf-area	g⋅m ⁻²
N _{mass}	Leaf N concentration-based mass	mg·g ^{−1}
R _d	Daytime respiration	$\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} s^{-1}$
SLA	Specific leaf area	$g \cdot m^{-2}$
SMR	Stem mass ratio	
V _{cmax}	Maximum rate of RuBP carboxylation	µmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹

WinFolia (Regent Instruments Inc., Québec, QC, Canada). All the plant organs were oven-dried at 80 °C for 48 h to obtain biomasses, root–shoot ratio, leaf mass ratio (LMR), stem mass ratio (SMR), root mass ratio (RMR), and specific leaf area (SLA). Leaf N concentration (all fully expanded leaves) was assayed by the Lakehead University Centre for Analytical Services using the dry combustion method with a CNS-2000 (LECO Corp., St. Joseph, MI, USA). The massbased leaf N concentration (N_{mass} , mg·g⁻¹) was converted to area-based leaf N concentration (N_{area} , g·m⁻²) using the SLA.

A/C_i curves and calculations of V_{cmax} and J_{max}

Three seedlings were randomly selected from each replicate–treatment combination after 2 months of treatment. The gas exchange was measured on the first fully expanded leaf from the top using a PP-Systems CIRAS-3 Portable Photosynthesis System equipped with a PLC3 Universal Leaf Cuvette with automatic climate control and a built-in CFM-3 Chlorophyll Fluorescence Module (PP Systems International, Inc., Amesbury, MA, USA). Photosynthetic response to CO₂

(*A*/*C*_i) curves were measured at 400, 300, 200, 150, 100, 50, 400, 500, 750, 900, 1100, and 1300 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ (*C*_a), 25 °C leaf temperature, 800 µmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ PAR and 50% RH. The *A*/*C*_i data were analyzed using the Plantecophys fitaci function of the R package to produce the maximum carboxylation rate of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) (*V*_{cmax}, µmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹), and the maximum electron transport rate of photosynthesis (*J*_{max}, µmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹) (Duursma 2015). The slope of initial light response curve was performed at 400 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ and 50, 100, 150, 200, 300 µmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ PAR to obtain the quantum yield (Φ PHII).

$G_{\rm m}$, $J_{\rm c}$, $J_{\rm o}$, $R_{\rm l}$, and $R_{\rm t}$ estimates

Laisk script measurements (Walker and Cousins 2013) were taken at 200, 150, 100, and 50 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ concentration and 300, 150, and 75 μ mol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ PAR to estimate the daytime respiration (R_d) and intercellular CO₂ compensation point (C_i *) (Farquhar et al. 1980). The variable *J* method was used to estimate the mesophyll conductance, g_m (Harley et al. 1992), where the electron transport (*J*) was calculated from chlorophyll fluorescence measurement according to Momayyezi's protocol and Γ * was assumed to be equal to C_i * (Momayyezi and Guy 2017). The chlorophyll fluorescence measurement was taken using the built-in CFM-3 model in the PP Systems CIRAS-3 system.

From the combination of chlorophyll fluorescence data (*J*), A_n and R_d estimated using the Laisk method, J_c (electron transport to carboxylation), J_o (electron transport to oxygenation), R_l (photorespiration rate), and R_t (leaf total respiration under light) were obtained as follows (Valentini et al. 1995; Tomeo and Rosenthal 2018):

(1) $J_c = [J + 8 (A_n + R_d)] / 3$

(2)
$$J_{\rm o} = [J - 4(A_{\rm n} + R_{\rm d})] 2/3$$

(3)
$$R_1 = [J - 4(A_n + R_d)]/12$$

Gas exchange measurements at 400 and 750 CO_2

To assess treatment effects on the actual photosynthetic performance, the gas exchange of trees in both CO_2 treatments were measured at both growth CO_2 concentrations, i.e., at 400 and 750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ C_a . The following parameters from these measurements were assessed: net photosynthetic rate (A_n), the ratio of intercellular to ambient CO_2 (C_i/C_a), stomatal conductance (g_s), transpiration rate (E), and instantaneous water use efficiency (iWUE). The responses to the measured C_a and interactions with treatment (ACT vs. ECT) were tested using a two-way ANOVA.

Statistical analyses

The effects of CO₂–temperature treatments were tested using the Student's *t* test. The data were examined for the normality of distribution (using probability plots for residuals) and the homogeneity of variance (using scatter plots). Regression analyses were conducted on the relationships between leaf area, A_{n-t} and relevant physiological variables. Principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to all the physiological and biomass parameters using the PCA function from the FactoMineR package. Pearson correlation analyses were performed to examine the relationships of CCP_{aci} and J_c/J_o to the photosynthetic and growth variables. Effects of measurement CO₂ (400 vs. 750 µmol·mol⁻¹) and CT treatments (ACT vs. ECT) were tested using twoway ANOVA. All the analyses were performed using the R Package 4.0.4.

Results

Biomass, growth, and photosynthesis

ECT significantly increased biomass, height, leaf area, and SMR (Table 2; Figs. 1A–1C, 1E), but decreased root–shoot ratio, RMR, and foliar N concentration (Table 2; Figs. 1D, 1F–1H). The ECT also significantly reduced most of the photosynthetic parameters (Tables 2 and 3) but increased C_{i*} and J_c/J_o (Table 3).

Variable	P value
Biomass	0.002
RMR	0.034
SMR	<0.001
LMR	0.308
Root–shoot ratio	0.04
Leaf area	0.015
Hight	<0.001
SLA	0.769
N _{area}	0.006
N _{mass}	0.002
J _{max} /N _{area}	0.012
R _d	<0.001
$C_i *$	0.033
V _{cmax}	<0.001
Jmax	<0.001
J _{max} /V _{cmax}	<0.001
C _{i-t}	0.187
A _{n-t}	<0.001
CCP _{aci}	<0.001
ACE	<0.001
R_1	<0.001
ΦPHII	<0.001
Jc	<0.001
Jo	<0.001
Jc/Jo	0.004
g _m	<0.001

Note: Significant effects ($P \le 0.05$) are in bold. RMR, root mass ratio; SMR, stem mass ratio; LMR, leaf mass ratio; SLA, specific leaf area; N_{area} , leaf N content based on leaf area; N_{mass} , leaf N concentration based mess; $J_{\text{max}}/N_{\text{area}}$, maximum electron transport rate based leaf N; R_d, daytime respiration; C_i*, intercellular CO₂ compensation point; V_{cmax} , maximum rate of ribulose-1,5bisphosphate carboxylation; J_{max} , maximum of photo synthetic electron transport rate; J_{max}/V_{cmax} , the ratio of J_{max} to V_{cmax} ; C_{i-t} , intercellular CO₂ at the transition point between rubisco limitation and RuBP regeneration limitation based on A/C_i curve; A_{n-t} , net photosynthesis rate at C_{i-t} ; CCP_{aci}, CO₂ compensation point from A/C_i curve; ACE, apparent carboxylation efficiency; R1, photorespiration rate; ФРНИ, photochemical efficiency of photosystem II; Jc, electron transport to carboxylation; J_0 , electron transport to oxygenation; J_c/J_o , ratio of J_c to J_o ; g_m , mesophyll conductance.

The PCA results corroborated well with the Student's *t* test findings (Fig. 2). The seedlings exposed to ECT clustered in the left direction with growth parameters, CCP_{aci} , C_i *, and J_c/J_o , while the seedlings in ACE tended to cluster in the right direction with photosynthetic and leaf N concentration parameters (Fig. 2). The PCA results show that CCP_{aci} and J_c/J_o were negatively correlated with photosynthetic pa-



Fig. 1. Effects of CO₂–temperature treatment on total seedling biomass (A), height (B), total leaf area (C), root–shoot ratio (D), stem mass ratio (SMR) (E), root mass ratio (RMR) (F), leaf-area based N concentration (G), and leaf-mass based N concentration (H) in white birch seedlings. The seedlings were grown either under ACT (ambient 400 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ and ambient temperature) or ECT (750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ and elevated temperature (ambient + 4 °C)). Means (±1.96 × SE, n = 6) with different letters were significantly different from each other ($P \le 0.05$).



rameters (i.e., V_{cmax} , J_{max} , ACE, and Φ PHII), positively correlated with growth parameters, particularly height growth, but had no significant relationship with leaf area (Table 4). Total leaf area per tree was negatively correlated to N_{mass} , N_{area} , and RMR (Figs. 3A, 3B, and 3D), and positively re-

Table 3. Effects of CO₂–temperature treatment (mean \pm SE, n = 6) on photosynthetic variables of white birch.

Photosynthetic variable	ACT	ECT
$V_{\rm cmax} \ (\mu { m mol} \cdot { m m}^{-2} \cdot { m s}^{-1})$	75.8 ± 2	49 ± 2.2
$J_{\text{max}} (\mu \text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})$	262 ± 10.4	122.7 ± 6.3
J _{max} /V _{cmax}	3.5 ± 0.17	2.6 ± 0.05
$J_{\text{max}}/N_{\text{area}} \; (\mu \text{mol} \cdot \text{g}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})$	19.8 ± 1.8	12.7 ± 1.3
$R_d (\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1})$	1.53 ± 0.13	0.76 ± 0.06
$R_1 (\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1})$	3.2 ± 0.21	1.1 ± 0.11
$g_{\rm m} \ ({\rm mol} \cdot {\rm m}^{-2} \cdot {\rm s}^{-1})$	0.25 ± 0.008	0.12 ± 0.004
$C_i * (\mu mol \cdot mol^{-1})$	38.6 ± 2.65	$\textbf{45.9} \pm \textbf{1.02}$
ΦPHII	0.37 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.01
$J_{\rm c} \ (\mu { m mol} \cdot { m m}^{-2} \cdot { m s}^{-1})$	101.8 ± 3.5	59.6 ± 2.3
$J_0 \ (\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1})$	24.2 ± 2.5	$\textbf{6.6} \pm \textbf{1.1}$
Jc/Jo	4.4 ± 0.5	$\textbf{8.8} \pm \textbf{1.0}$

Note: The seedlings were grown either under ACT (ambient 400 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ and ambient temperature) or ECT (750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ and elevated temperature (ambient + 4 °C)). The treatment effects were all statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$). See Tables 1 and 2 for other explanations.

Fig. 2. PCA (using FactoMineR package in R) of growth and photosynthetic parameters with significant treatment effects (ACT vs. ECT). The polygons indicate treatment clustering. The biaxial diagrams were generated by the factoextra package in R. Abbreviations: C_i*, intercellular CO₂ compensation point; CCP_{aci}, C_i compensation point from A/C_i curve; J_c/J_0 , ratio of electron transport of carboxylation (J_c) to oxygenation (J_0) ; J_{max}/N_{area} , max electron transport rate per unit leaf N; $V_{\rm cmax}$, maximum rate of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylation; J_{max}, maximum of photosynthetic electron transport rate; A_{n-t}, net photosynthesis rate at the transition point between rubisco limitation and RuBP regeneration limitation based on A/C_i curve; Φ PHII, photochemical efficiency of photosystem II; gm, mesophyll conductance; Nmass, leaf N concentration based mass; R_d, daytime respiration; and N_{area}, leaf N per unit area in white birch seedlings. See Fig. 1 for other explanations.



lated to SMR (Fig. 3E). Interestingly, there was no significant correlation between leaf area and SLA and LMR (Figs. 3C and 3F).

Table 4. Pearson correlation coefficients between CCPaci and photosynthetic/growth variables and between and J_c/J_o and photosynthetic/growth variables in birch seedlings.

Variable	CCP _{aci}	Jc/Jo
V _{cmax}	-0.83**	-0.79**
J _{max}	-0.84**	-0.84**
ACE	-0.83**	-0.82**
ΦPHII	-0.86**	-0.76**
Biomass	0.75*	0.85**
Height	0.75*	0.64*
SMR	0.69*	0.7^{*}
Leaf area	0.6*	0.29

Note: CCP_{aci}, CO₂ compensation point from A/C_i curve; J_c/J_o , ratio of electron transport to carboxylation (J_c) and to oxygenation (J_o) ; V_{cmax} , maximum rate of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylation; J_{max} , maximum of photosynthetic electron transport rate; ACE, apparent carboxylation efficiency; Φ PHII, photochemical efficiency of photosystem II. *, $0.01 < P \le 0.05$; **, $P \le 0.01$.

Table 5. P values of two-way ANOVA for the effects of measurement C_a, CO₂-temperature treatment, and their interactions on A_n , g_s , E, C_i/C_a , and iWUE.

Variable	Ca	Treatment	$C_{\rm a} \times {\rm Treatment}$
An	<0.001	<0.001	0.034
gs	0.791	<0.001	0.478
$C_{\rm i}/C_{\rm a}$	0.04	0.558	0.949
iWUE	<0.001	<0.001	0.058

Note: Seedlings were grown under ACT or ECT and measured at 400 and 750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ CO₂ (C_a). Significant effects ($P \le 0.05$) are in bold. A_n , net photosynthesis rate; C_i/C_a , intercellular (C_i) to ambient (C_a) CO₂ concentration ratio; g_s , stomatal conductance; iWUE, instantaneous photosynthetic water use efficiency.

A/C_i curve transition point, CO₂ compensation point and respiration

ECT substantially lowered the A/C_i curves (Fig. 4), indicating photosynthetic downregulation. However, ECT did not significantly affect the C_i transition point (C_{i-t} , A_{n-t}) of photosynthetic limitation by carboxylation restriction and by RuBP regeneration restriction although it significantly reduced A_{n-t} (Figs. 4A and 4B). A_{n-t} was positively correlated with photosynthetic capacity variables, but negatively correlated with biomass, SMR, J_c/J_o , and CCP_{aci}. ECT increased CCP_{aci} but decreased ACE (Figs. 4A and 4B). It is interesting to note that ECT significantly increased the CO₂ compensation point directly derived from the A/C_i curve (CCP_{aci}) but had no significant effect on the CO₂ compensation point derived using the Laisk method (C_i *, in Table 2).

Interactions between measurement CO₂ concentration and CO₂-temperature treatment

The 400 μ mol·mol⁻¹ measurement CO₂ resulted in significant lower A_{n} , iWUE, and lower C_i/C_a (Figs. 5A, 5C, and 5D), but the effect on A_n was greater under ECT than under ACT (63.9% vs. 53%) (Table 5; Fig. 5A). ECT significantly reduced A_n measured at the same CO2 concentration (both 400 and 750 μ mol·mol⁻¹; Fig. 5A) as well as g_s and iWUE measured at the corresponding growth C_a (Figs. 5B and 5C).

Discussion

Photosynthetic acclimation and optimal carbon gain theory

Elevated CO₂ often leads to photosynthetic acclimation, which is manifested as declines in photosynthetic capacity, respiratory rate, stomatal conductance, and leaf nitrogen concentration (Kizildeniz et al. 2021; Yin et al. 2019). Acclimation is defined as the morphological and (or) physiological adjustments of a plant to compensate for alterations in performance caused by environmental changes (Bermudez et al. 2021). Both elevations in CO₂ and higher temperature can lead to acclimation (Murphy and Way 2021). It is generally believed that photosynthetic acclimation is mainly caused by elevated CO₂ and has no direct relationship with temperature and water conditions (Salazar-Parra et al. 2015). Elevated CO₂ increases the substrate for photosynthesis, alleviates the carboxylation limit of RuBP, leads to decreases in V_{cmax} and g_s (Dusenge et al. 2019), and reduces respiration (Birami et al. 2020). Although photosynthetic acclimation can vary between species, acclimation generally leads to the maximization carbon sequestration (Smith and Dukes 2017).

Increasing temperature can lead to thermal acclimation, such as accelerating processes related to leaf carbon flux, including photosynthesis and respiration, thus driving an increase in carbon sink intensity (Smith and Dukes 2017; Weigt et al. 2018). Warming stimulates the activation of photosynthetic enzymes such as rubisco and reduces the sensitivity of photorespiration to temperature (Cai et al. 2018). Due to the different effects of photosynthetic acclimation to CO₂ and thermal acclimation, it is difficult to predict plant responses under elevated CO₂ and warmer temperature in future environmental conditions (Bermudez et al. 2021). Some studies believe that combined effects of elevated CO₂ and warmer temperature are positive to plants by promoting plant growth and enhancing stress resistance (Apgaua et al. 2019). Other studies, however, find that the effects of the two factors offset each other and the combination has no net effects on plants (Dusenge et al. 2019). Our results show that white birch seedlings in the ECT treatment exhibited typical photosynthetic acclimation. The 4 °C increase in temperature did not change the pattern of photosynthetic acclimation, such as the reductions in photosynthetic capacity and respiration.

Electron flow partitioning and limitations of photosynthesis

Photosynthetic acclimation is a part of the process to optimize the operation of photosynthesis when the environmental conditions change (Yin et al. 2019). The causes of photosynthetic acclimation include the inhibition of nitrogen assimilation and photorespiration and the negative feedback of rubisco and electron transport constraints on photosynthesis (Dusenge et al. 2019). One theory is that the increase in growth resulting from increases in carbohydrate production and limited nutrient supply lead to the dilution of N in leaves, and consequently reduce the amount of



Fig. 3. Relationships between leaf area and leaf-mass based N concentration (A); leaf area-based N (B); SLA (C); RMR (D); SMR (E); and LMR (F) in birch seedlings. The seedings were grown either under ACT (triangles) or ECT (diamond). See Fig. 1 for other explanations.



Fig. 4. A/C_i curves of birch seedlings grown either under ACT (A) and ECT (B). Each point in the plots represents the average of six sample trees. The open circle at the crossing point in each plot denotes the transition point (C_{i-t} , A_{n-t}) from rubisco limitation to RuBP limitation. The analysis was conducted using the "findCiTransition" function in the R "plantecophys" package. ACE: apparent carboxylation efficiency derived from the initial slope of the A/C_i curve; CCP_{aci} : CO_2 compensation point derived from A/C_i curve, i.e., C_i when A_n was zero. Both ACE and CCP_{aci} were significantly different between ACT and ECT ($P \le 0.05$).





photosynthetic machinery (Byeon et al. 2021). It is believed that photosynthetic acclimation serves to optimize resource allocation and maximize growth under limited resources (Slot and Winter 2017; Smith et al. 2019). We found that ECT caused significant decreases in J_c and J_o , but a significant increase in J_c/J_o ratio, indicating that the proportion of electrons partitioned to carboxylation increased although the photosynthetic capacity per unit leaf decreased. Some studies have shown that J_c is the cause of the decline of photosynthesis under elevated CO₂ (Smith and Keenan 2020), suggesting that J_c may play a key role in the photosynthetic acclimation of white birch.

The elevated CO_2 and higher temperature shifted the limitation of photosynthesis from RuBP carboxylation limitation to RuBP regeneration limitation in white birch, which is consistent with the literature (Kumarathunge et al. 2019; Suzuki et al. 2021). However, at the point of co-limitation by carboxylation and RuBP regeneration, A_{n-t} , the photosynthetic rate at the transition point can comprehensively reflect the effects Fig. 5. Effects of CO₂-temperature combination treatment (ACT vs. ECT), measurement CO₂ concentration (C400: 400 μ mol·mol⁻¹ C_a vs. C750: 750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ C_a), and their interactions on A_n (A), g_s (B), iWUE (C), C_i/C_a (D). Means $(\pm 1.96 \times \text{SE}, n = 6)$ with different letters are significantly different from each other (P \leq 0.05). ACT-C400 and ACT-C750 represent the photosynthetic rates of seedlings grown under ACT but measured at 400 and 750 µmol·mol⁻¹ CO₂, respectively, while ECT-C400 and ECT-C750 were the photosynthetic rates of seedlings grown under ECT but measured at 400 and 750 μ mol·mol⁻¹ C_a , respectively. See Table 1 for other explanations.

1200

900.

600·

300.

1.2 D

ر» 0.9 د

0.6

0.3

 $gs (mmol m^{-2} s^{-1})$

ECT-C750

a

A

b

ACT-CA00

С

а

ACT-CT50 ECT_CAOO

 $A_n(\mu \mod m^{-2} s^{-1})$

30

20

10

7

5

3

В

ACT

ECT

а



Total versus per-unit leaf area based photosynthetic parameters

It is not uncommon that leaf-area based photosynthetic variables show opposite responses to elevated CO₂ than biomass and growth (Kanno et al. 2017). The opposite response trends are related to the assessment of responses at different levels, i.e., per unit leaf area versus the whole plant (Xu et al. 2021), and can be explained by the differences in total leaf area per tree. This study found that the ECT significantly reduced the values of some key leaf-area based parameters related to photosynthetic capacity (i.e., down regulation), such as V_{cmax} and J_{max} , but increased seedling biomass in white birch. However, the photosynthetic rate measured at the corresponding growth CO₂ concentration (A400 for ACT and E750 for ECT in Fig. 5A) was not significantly different between the two treatments. While the similar photosynthetic rates and differences in biomass appear to contradict each other, the difference can be explained by differences in the total leaf area per tree. These responses can be attributed the combined effect of higher temperature and elevated CO₂ in the ECT treatment (Dusenge et al. 2019). These results indicate that the photosynthetic machinery of white birch was downregulated in response to the ECT treatment, but the entire photosynthetic system acclimated to the treatment CO₂ and temperature such that the actual operational rate of photosynthesis remained about the same between the two treatments. Furthermore, our data show that the greater rates of growth and carbon sequestration in the ECT treatment were primarily driven by the greater amount of leaf area per tree in the trees grown under ECT. This conclusion is consistent with the findings of some other studies (Wang et al. 2020). Furthermore, the increased production of new leaves can serve as temporary sinks and reduce the feedback inhibition to photosynthesis by the accumulation of excess photosynthates under elevated CO₂ (Beechey-Gradwell et al. 2020; Smith and Keenan 2020). Some studies suggest that carbon sink intensity is mainly driven by elevated temperature, rather than the result of increased carbon assimilation under elevated CO₂ (Weigt et al. 2018).

CO₂ compensation point and respiration

CO₂ and temperature can cause metabolic reorganization in plants (Tausz-Posch et al. 2020). Elevated CO₂ can inhibit plant respiration, R_d or R_1 or both, indicating less energy consumption (Jauregui et al. 2015), but higher temperatures tend to increase respiration and decrease the temperature sensitivity of photorespiration (Cai et al. 2018). Interestingly, the ECT treatment in this study significantly increased the CO₂ compensation point (both C_i* and CCP_{aci}) and CCP_{aci} was closely correlated with biomass variables. The CO₂ compensation point reflects the photorespiratory loss of CO₂ and the kinetic properties of rubisco (Walker and Cousins 2013), and the CCPaci reflects the effects of the total respiration, including both R₁ and R_d which depends on reductants generated by photosynthetic electron transfer (Wujeska-Klause et al. 2019; Tcherkez and Atkin 2021). The results showed that ECT treatment significantly increased CCP_{aci} of white birch. We speculated that CCPaci might be related to the decrease of rubisco carboxylation ability because photorespiration did not decrease but decreased. Meanwhile, the negative correlation between CCP_{aci} and photosynthesis ability also supported this result. Warming usually causes an increase in



photorespiration (Dusenge et al. 2020), but we observed the opposite result, suggesting that the increase of CCP_{aci} in white birch photosynthetic acclimation may not be directly related to the increase in ambient temperature. The positive relationship between CCP_{aci} and biomass could be suggested that the CO_2 compensation point may reflect some comprehensive effect of photosynthetic acclimation and may also be affected by temperature increase. However, the potential mechanism needs to be further studied.

Conclusions

White birch exhibited typical photosynthetic acclimations to the elevation of CO₂ and warming at the leaf level, such as reductions in V_{cmax}, J_{max}, A_n, R_l, R_d, N_{mass}, g_s, and g_m. The increase in total leaf area, however, more than offset the negative effect of the leaf-level photosynthetic downregulation on the total carbon assimilation of the tree. Furthermore, the increase in electron partitioning to carboxylation, as indicated by an increase in J_c/J_o and decreases in respiration (both R_1 and J_0) may play a critical role in the acclimation of white birch to the elevation of CO₂ and warmer temperature. The 4 $^\circ$ C increase in temperature did not change the pattern of photosynthetic acclimation. However, warming may have played a key role in the decrease of J_{max}/V_{cmax} ratio in the seedlings subjected to ECT, which contributed to the photosynthetic downregulation. Overall, the responses of white birch to elevated CO₂ and higher temperature are consistent with the optimal carbon gain theory, and carbon gain drove the coordination between carboxylation, electron transfer, stomatal regulation, and respiration to maximize carbon assimilation. This study was conducted using pots and under controlled environment in the greenhouse. Pot limitations can lead to an underestimation of treatment effects because the limitation will be more severe to larger plants in the treatment that promotes photosynthesis and (or) growth. However, Binyam et al. (Binyam et al. 2021) find that pot limitation does not occur in white birch under a treatment similar to that of the current study.

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Data available upon request.

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Competing interests

The authors declare there are no competing interests.

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