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## Extraordinary drought of 2003 overrules ozone impact on adult beech trees (*Fagus sylvatica*)

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**Abstract** The extraordinary drought during the summer of 2003 in Central Europe allowed to examine responses of adult beech trees (*Fagus sylvatica*) to co-occurring stress by soil moisture deficit and elevated O<sub>3</sub> levels under forest conditions in southern Germany. The study comprised tree exposure to the ambient O<sub>3</sub> regime at the site and to a twice-ambient O<sub>3</sub> regime as released into the canopy through a free-air O<sub>3</sub> fumigation system. Annual courses of photosynthesis ( $A_{\max}$ ), stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ), electron transport rate (ETR) and chlorophyll levels were compared between 2003 and 2004, the latter year representing the humid long-term climate at the site. ETR,  $A_{\max}$  and  $g_s$  were

lowered during 2003 by drought rather than ozone, whereas chlorophyll levels did not differ between the years. Radial stem increment was reduced in 2003 by drought but fully recovered during the subsequent, humid year. Comparison of AOT40, an O<sub>3</sub> exposure-based risk index of O<sub>3</sub> stress, and cumulative ozone uptake (COU) yielded a linear relationship throughout humid growth conditions, but a changing slope during 2003. Our findings support the hypothesis that drought protects plants from O<sub>3</sub> injury by stomatal closure, which restricts O<sub>3</sub> influx into leaves and decouples COU from high external ozone levels. High AOT40 erroneously suggested high O<sub>3</sub> risk under drought. Enhanced ozone levels did not aggravate drought effects in leaves and stem.

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### Introduction

“Global Change” scenarios are basically driven by the anthropogenic release of CO<sub>2</sub> and other “climate-effective” gases into the atmosphere (IPCC 2001). Predictions include rise in temperature coupled with altered precipitation, which regionally increase the probability of drought (Scarascia-Mugnozza et al. 2001). Compared to the long-term record, the summer of 2003 showed extraordinarily high air temperature and low precipitation regimes in Central Europe (DWD 2003; Luterbacher et al. 2004; Schär and Jendritzky 2004; Ciais et al. 2005). As seasonal drought is typically associated with high insolation, as was the case in 2003, conditions are conducive to the formation of high tropospheric ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) levels (Stockwell et al. 1997; Fabian 2002). Hence, exposure-based indices of O<sub>3</sub> stress (e.g. the AOT40 concept of “Critical Levels for Ozone”, Fuhrer and Achermann 1994) indicate enhanced risks of O<sub>3</sub> injury to forest trees (Matyssek and Innes 1999). In view of current Global Change scenarios, O<sub>3</sub> exposure might become exacerbated during the upcoming

**Table 1** Weather conditions and ozone regimes at the site “Kranzberger Forst” near Freising/Germany, during the years 2002, 2003 and 2004

|  | 2002  | 2003  | 2004  |
|--|-------|-------|-------|
| Annual sum of global radiation above canopy ( $\text{GJ m}^{-2}$ )   | 4.1   | 4.6   | 4.4   |
| Mean annual air temperature at canopy height, 24 m above ground ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )                                       | 8.8   | 9.1   | 9.4   |
| Mean daily air temperature during growing season (May to October) at canopy height, 24 m above ground ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) | 14.1  | 16.2  | 14.9  |
| Annual sum of precipitation <sup>a</sup> (mm)  | 1015  | 557   | 786   |
| Precipitation during growing season (May to October) <sup>a</sup> (mm)   | 626   | 359   | 448   |
| SUM0 $1 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\mu\text{l O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ h}$ )  | 126.0 | 193.6 | 142.7 |
| SUM0 $2 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\mu\text{l O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ h}$ )  | 234.0 | 357.0 | 232.6 |
| AOT40 $1 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\mu\text{l O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ h}$ )   | 16.0  | 33.0  | 17.3  |
| AOT40 $2 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\mu\text{l O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ h}$ )   | 67.0  | 117.0 | 63.0  |
| COU $1 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\text{mmol m}^{-2}$ )   | 22.5  | 18.9  | 24.3  |
| COU $2 \times \text{O}_3$ ( $\text{mmol m}^{-2}$ )   | 28.2  | 32.2  | 28.0  |

Note. Precipitation was measured in a forest clearing at 1 km distance from the site. SUM0 is the “Sum of all  $\text{O}_3$  concentrations”, AOT40 is the “accumulated exposure over a threshold of 40  $\text{nl O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1}$ ”, COU is “cumulative ozone uptake”

<sup>a</sup>Data by courtesy of LWF, G. Gietl

decades (Fowler et al. 1999; Ashmore 2005). However, it is the actual dose of  $\text{O}_3$  uptake through leaf stomata rather than exposure that determines the  $\text{O}_3$  stress and drives the stress response in plants (Matyssek and Sandermann 2003; Wieser et al. 2003; Matyssek et al. 2004). Drought usually leads to a decrease in stomatal conductance (Schulze 1994) and limits the  $\text{O}_3$  flux into plants (Pääkkönen et al. 1998a,b). In fact, drought might “protect” against  $\text{O}_3$  stress, although findings conflict about interacting drought-ozone effects in trees (Dobson et al. 1990; Chappelka and Freer-Smith 1995; Maier-Maercker 1998; Nali et al. 2004). The uncertainty on such interactions is substantial, in particular in adult forest trees, because the large majority of studies have focused on  $\text{O}_3$  stress in juvenile woody plants under chamber conditions (Kolb and Matyssek 2001). As chronic  $\text{O}_3$  stress bears the risk of predisposing trees to other stresses like drought (or frosts or pests), severe episodes of such stressors can eventually cause break-down of trees and forests (cf. Miller and McBride 1999).

The present study was conducted on adult beech trees (*Fagus sylvatica*) growing at a forest site in Central Europe, where they are exposed to ambient or an experimentally enhanced  $\text{O}_3$  regime imposed by free-air canopy fumigation (Nunn et al. 2002; Werner and Fabian 2002). Trees were examined for their responsiveness to  $\text{O}_3$  across the tree-internal scaling levels of cells, leaves, branches and the whole tree (Nunn et al. 2005a,b). We assessed stomatal conductance, photosynthetic characteristics, chlorophyll levels and stem growth during the exceptional drought of 2003 and the humid year of 2004 which represented long-term climatic average conditions. Potential  $\text{O}_3$ -induced reduction in radial stem growth was regarded as an indication of economic damage (sensu CLR-TAP 2004). The following hypotheses were tested: (1) Cumulative ozone uptake (COU) rather than exposure-based  $\text{O}_3$  indices like AOT40 reflects risk of  $\text{O}_3$ -induced damage (e.g. in stem production). (2) The effect of drought on adult *F. sylvatica* trees is aggravated by enhanced ozone levels.

## Materials and methods

### Study site and experimental design

The study site is located within a mixed beech/spruce forest (“Kranzberger Forst”) in southern Germany near Munich ( $48^{\circ}25'08'' \text{ N}$ ,  $11^{\circ}39'41'' \text{ E}$ , elevation 485 m a.s.l.). The soil at the site is a luvisol derived from loess over tertiary sediments. Beech trees (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) used in this study were about 60 years old and up to 28 m high (Pretzsch et al. 1998). Scaffolding and a research crane provided access to the crowns of ten representative *F. sylvatica* trees (Reiter et al. 2005). A free-air ozone fumigation system (Nunn et al. 2002; Werner and Fabian 2002) was employed since the year 2000 to expose the joint canopies of five of the ten study trees to a twice-ambient ozone regime ( $2 \times \text{O}_3$ ). To prevent acute  $\text{O}_3$  injury, the  $\text{O}_3$  levels of this regime were restricted to a maximum of 150  $\text{nl O}_3 \text{ l}^{-1}$ . Five adjacent *F. sylvatica* trees under the unchanged ambient regime ( $1 \times \text{O}_3$ ) prevailing at the site served as control (Nunn et al. 2002). Long-term regional annual air temperature is  $7.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and annual precipitation amounts to 788 mm (monitored by DWD at climate station “Weihenstephan”, at 4 km distance from the research site; DWD Offenbach, Germany). The weather conditions at the research site of the years 2002 through 2004 which were covered in this study are given in Table 1. Ecophysiological assessments during the humid year 2004 served as the reference of those in the dry year 2003. Regarding weather conditions and  $\text{O}_3$  regimes, 2002 was included additionally for comparison.

### Assessment of micro-climate, ozone and radial stem growth

Global radiation above the canopy was measured with a pyranometer (type CM 11; Kipp & Zonen, Delft, The Netherlands), and air temperature along with air humidity

at 24 m height within the canopy with an aspiration psychrometer (model Assmann; Theiss, Göttingen, Germany). Rainfall was recorded by a rain gauge (model Pluvio; Ott Messtechnik, Kempten, Germany) in a forest clearing at 1 km distance from the site. O<sub>3</sub> levels were monitored throughout growing seasons by O<sub>3</sub> analysers (TML 8811; Teledyne Monitor Labs, Englewood, USA) within the canopy, both under the 1 × O<sub>3</sub> and 2 × O<sub>3</sub> regime. O<sub>3</sub> regimes were expressed as “Sum of all ozone concentrations” (SUM0) and “Accumulated exposure over a threshold of 40 nl O<sub>3</sub> l<sup>-1</sup>” (AOT40, Fuhrer and Achermann 1994), as currently adopted by UNECE. All O<sub>3</sub> indices have been calculated for the time period between leaf expansion in spring and senescence in autumn, which is the time span relevant for ozone uptake. Phenological data have been assessed separately in each O<sub>3</sub> regime. Cumulative ozone uptake (COU) during the growing season was calculated according to Emberson et al. (2000), accounting for drought effects according to Nunn et al. (2005a). COU is a function of maximum stomatal conductance for O<sub>3</sub> and external O<sub>3</sub> concentration (Eqs. (1) and (2)):

$$F_{O_3} = g_{O_3} [O_3] \quad (1)$$

$$COU = \sum_{SGS}^{EGS} F_{O_3} \quad (2)$$

with  $F_{O_3}$  being the stomatal O<sub>3</sub> flux,  $g_{O_3}$  the stomatal conductance for O<sub>3</sub>, and SGS and EGS the beginning and end of the growing season, respectively.  $g_{O_3}$  is a function of maximum and minimum stomatal conductance, light, phenology, temperature, VPD, soil moisture, day and night time (see Nunn et al. 2005a for further details about the employed model and its parameterisation).

Annual increment of radial stem growth was monitored in each study tree at breast height with permanent girth measurement tapes (model D1, UMS, München, Germany) across the years 2001 through 2004 (2001 as reference for the subsequent years).

#### Assessment of leaf gas exchange

Gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters were assessed using a Licor 6400 CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O diffusion porometer equipped with a “Leaf Chamber Fluorometer 6400-40” (Li-Cor, Lincoln, USA). Measurements were made at 40–60% relative air humidity, 360 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> of the ambient air and saturating light conditions (1500 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photosynthetic photon flux density, PPFD) within the chamber. PPFD of light-saturated photosynthesis ( $A_{max}$ ) had been previously determined by separate assessments (data not shown). Contrasting with 2004, the leaf temperature of 25°C could not always be maintained in 2003 because of high ambient air temperatures;

nevertheless, leaf temperature never exceeded 30°C in 2003 during measurements. Leaves acclimated to the chamber conditions for at least 2 min until gas exchange readings became stable. Measurements were recorded then every 10 s for at least 3 min. A saturating light flash (duration 0.8 s, PPFD > 7000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) concluded each measurement to determine the electron transport rate (ETR). ETR was calculated after Krall and Edwards (1992):

$$ETR = \Delta F / Fm' \times PPFD \times a \times f \quad (3)$$

with the absorptivity ( $a$ ) set to 0.84 and light distribution between Photosystem I and II ( $f$ ) to 0.5.

#### Assessment of water potential

Pre-dawn twig water potential was measured in June, August and October 2003 and in July 2004 with a Scholander pressure bomb (Model 3000, Soilmoisture Equipment Corporation, Santa Barbara, USA) on detached foliated twigs of 30 cm length, preventing water loss through enclosure in plastic bags prior to measurement.

#### Biochemical analysis

Leaf samples taken for biochemical analysis were frozen at once in liquid nitrogen and kept at -70°C until lyophilisation. Lyophilised leaves were ground in a dismembrator (Retsch, Haan, Germany), and stored in humidity-proof plastic vials at -25°C prior to HPLC analysis. Pigments were analysed in acetone extracts using the HPLC gradient method according to Pfeifhofer (1989) and Tausz et al. (2003). About 60 mg lyophilised plant powder and some calcium carbonate were extracted in 1 ml acetone in dark 1.5 ml reaction tubes. The extract was shaken with the Vortex-shaker (Heidolph, Reax 2000) for half a minute and centrifuged (Beckman, Avanti 30 Centrifuge, 14,000 rpm) for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was filled in calibrated tubes and kept closed in the dark at 4°C. The pellet was re-extracted in 1 ml acetone, shaken and centrifuged. The supernatants were merged and the resulting volumes of the acetone extract were noted. Aliquots of the extracts were centrifuged for 30 min at 4°C and subjected to the HPLC analysis consisting of SunFlow 100 pump with gradient former GF (SunChrom) and online degasser (Knauer), LKB2151 UV/VIS detector (440 nm), integrator PC software ChromStar, Midas Spark Holland autosampler cooled at 4°C, Chrom Spherisorb S5 ODS-2 250 mm × 4.6 mm column with Chrom Spherisorb S5 ODS-2 10 mm × 4.6 mm precolumn; gradient setting, solvent A: acetonitril:methanol:water = 100:10:5 (v/v/v); solvent B: acetone:ethylacetate = 2:1 (v/v); linear gradient from 90% (v) A to 20% (v) A in 18 min, 5 min at 20%, back to 90% A in 3 min; total run time of 30 min, at flow rate of 1 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Calibration was done with pure pigment standards.

## Sampling protocol

Leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence of sun-exposed *F. sylvatica* leaves were assessed four times in 2003 (June, July, September and October) and five times in 2004 (May, June, July, September and October). To ensure comparable light and temperature conditions, sampling of leaves took place around solar noon on sunny days of similar insolation.

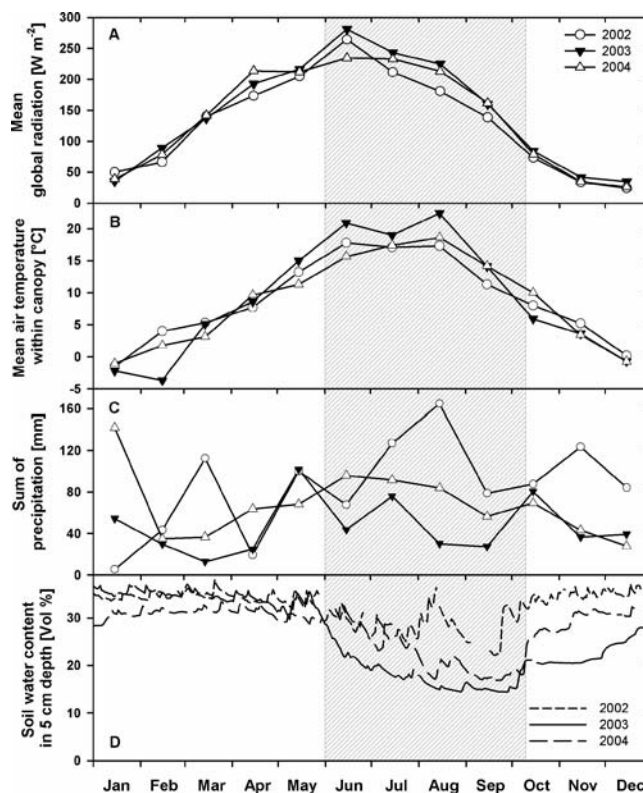
## Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed by means of the “general linear model” (GLM) of the SPSS 13 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). For each sampling date, univariate analysis was employed for comparison of responses to O<sub>3</sub> regimes. The overall effect of ozone, integrating all sampling dates, was analysed through the “repeated measurements” subcategory of GLM. To meet prerequisites for GLM, data had been tested for homogeneity using “Levene Test for Equality of Variances.” Given the fact that the study trees at “Kranzberger Forst” are of same age but not same size, and that size might influence water and carbon relations of trees (Ryan et al. 2000), stem diameter at breast height was used as covariate in all statistical tests.

Analysis of linear and hyperbolic regressions was performed using the SigmaPlot 9 software package (Systat Software, Erkrath, Germany) in combination with SPSS 13 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA) and Graphpad Prism 4 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, USA).

## Results

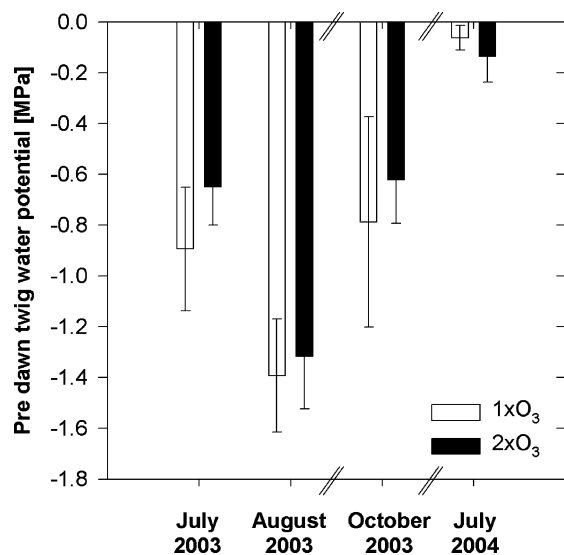
The years 2002 through 2004 slightly varied in the cumulative annual insolation and mean air temperature as recorded inside the canopy at the study site (Table 1), with the annual maxima within this 3-year period occurring 2003 in global radiation and 2004 in air temperature. The mean daily air temperature at the canopy position determining tree transpiration, i.e. the sun-exposed foliage, was conspicuously higher during the growing season of 2003 as compared to the respective time period in the previous or succeeding year. The minor annual variation was reflected in rather similar seasonal courses of global radiation (as affected by changing cloudiness) and mean monthly air temperature (Fig. 1A and B), although the latter reached maxima of above 20°C during the summer of 2003 (these levels not being reached during the respective periods in 2002 and 2004). Precipitation varied between years, both during the growing season and on an annual basis, as the cumulative rainfall in 2002 exceeded that in 2003 by a factor of almost two (Table 1, Fig. 1C), in addition to high precipitation in March and November of 2002, abundant rainfall occurred throughout the summer (maximum in August), whereas precipitation was remarkably low across the entire year of 2003 (in particular during summer). The year 2004 was intermediate in precipitation between 2002 and 2003, both



**Fig. 1** Monthly sum of global radiation (A), air temperature at canopy height, i.e. 24 m above ground (B), precipitation (C) and soil water content (D) during the years 2002, 2003 and 2004 at the research site “Kranzberger Forst” in southern Germany. Symbols given in (A) also apply for (B) and (C). Hatched area indicates drought period in 2003. Data in (C) and (D) by courtesy of LWF (G. Gietl and W. Grimmeisen)

during summer and on an annual basis (Table 1; Fig. 1C). Volumetric soil water content hardly fell below 30% in 2002, but decreased to about 15% in August of 2003 and stayed that low until early October of the same year (Fig. 1D). At 14% no water is left available to plant uptake in the given soil (Raspe et al. 2004). The soil water content did not fully recover during winter after the drought of 2003 so that a water deficit was occurring again during summer 2004 compared to 2002; nevertheless, effects on the trees were much less pronounced in 2004. As a consequence of the persisting soil drought in 2003, the predawn water potential ( $\Psi_{pre}$ ) of *F. sylvatica* branches dropped to minima of about  $-1.3$  to  $-1.4$  MPa in August, regardless of the O<sub>3</sub> regime (Fig. 2). Such levels are extraordinarily low for Central European forest conditions (cf. Larcher 2001). The daily minimum water potential ( $\Psi_{min}$ ), as assessed during early afternoon, never dropped below  $-2$  MPa (means  $\pm$  SD of  $\Psi_{min}$  during 2003 were  $-1.9 \pm 0.38$  MPa in  $1 \times O_3$  and  $-2.0 \pm 0.37$  MPa in  $2 \times O_3$ ) – these minimum levels are in consistency with the findings on deciduous forest trees of the temperate climate zone (cf. Larcher 2001). In contrast,  $\Psi_{pre}$  was high at ample rainfall (around  $-0.1$  MPa), as exemplified in July 2004 (Fig. 2).

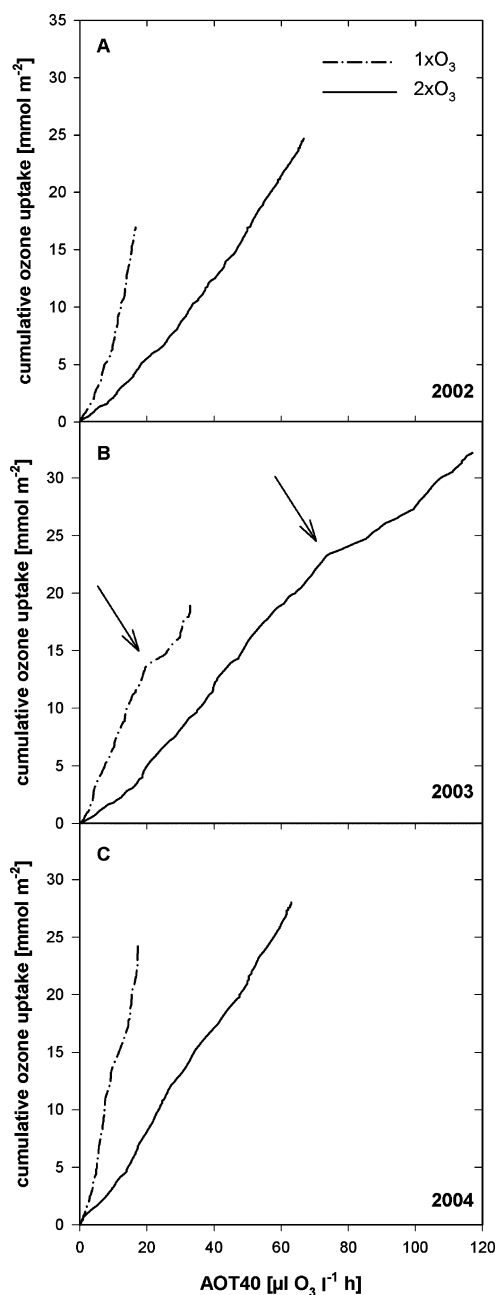
The sunny and dry weather conditions during the summer of 2003 favoured the formation of ozone so that



**Fig. 2** Pre-dawn twig water potential in July, August, October 2003 and July 2004. Columns represent mean values  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 5$  trees in each bar)

SUM0 of  $1 \times O_3$  during the growing season amounted to  $194 \mu l O_3 l^{-1} h$  (Table 1), exceeding the respective levels of both 2002 and 2004 by a factor of 1.5. Across the 3-year period, SUM0 of the  $2 \times O_3$  regime was not enhanced by a factor of 2 relative to  $1 \times O_3$  (i.e. about 1.6-fold in 2004 and 1.8-fold in 2003 and 2002), because the experimentally imposed  $O_3$  regime was restricted to maximum  $O_3$  levels of  $150 nl O_3 l^{-1}$  (see Materials and methods section). This relative increase of SUM0 at  $2 \times O_3$  was similar across the three study years (Table 1). AOT40 of  $2 \times O_3$  during the growing season 2003 did reach, however, about twice the levels of 2002 and 2004 (Table 1). During each of the three study years, AOT40 exceeded the “Critical Level of Ozone” of  $10 \mu l O_3 l^{-1} h$  which is proposed by UNECE (Fuhrer et al. 1997 – or  $5 \mu l O_3 l^{-1} h$  as suggested recently by Karlsson et al. 2004) even at  $1 \times O_3$ . Across the 3 years, AOT40 under  $2 \times O_3$  was between 3.5 and 4.2 times the levels that were reached annually at  $1 \times O_3$ . Remarkably, COU under  $1 \times O_3$  was lower in 2003 (by a factor of 0.8) than during the two more humid years, although annual SUM0 and AOT40 were highest in 2003 (Table 1). Regarding  $2 \times O_3$ , COU in 2003 only slightly exceeded the levels that amounted during each of the humid years (by a factor of 1.1).

In 2003, the relationship between COU and AOT40 stayed approximately linear until July 31 at  $1 \times O_3$  and August 2 at  $2 \times O_3$  (Fig. 3B, see arrows), when a breakpoint was reached as the soil water content approached its minimum (Fig. 1). The slope of the linear regressions ( $r^2 > 0.9$ ,  $p < 0.001$  each) before and after these dates differed significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) from each other under both  $O_3$  regimes. The slope declined, as COU per unit decreased under water limitation (Fig. 3B). The relationship between COU and AOT40 during the years 2002 and 2004 did not display such a breakpoint (Fig. 3A and C), as COU nearly linearly increased with AOT40 ( $r^2 > 0.99$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) in both

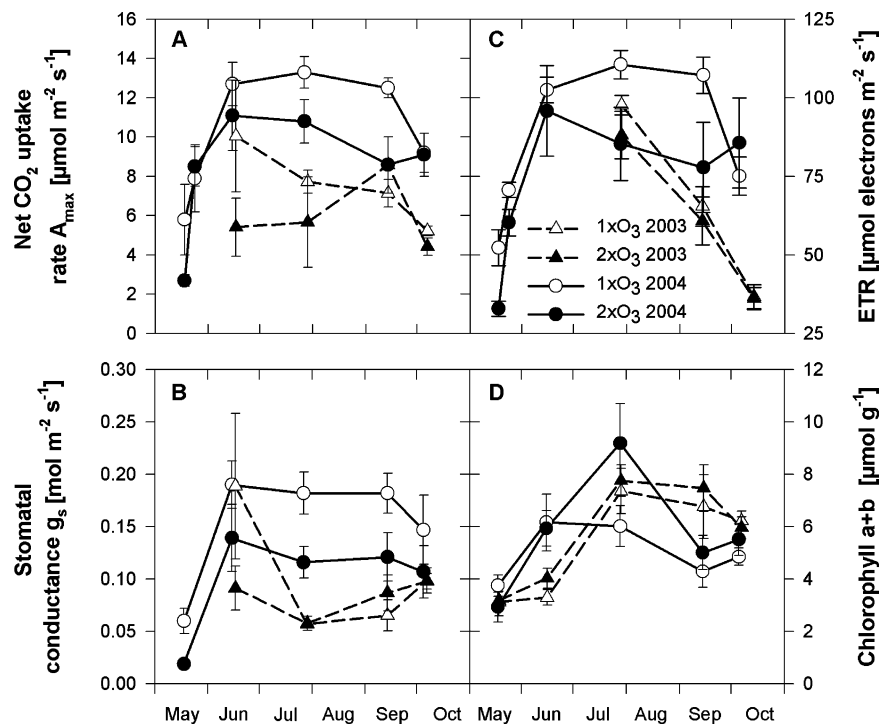


**Fig. 3** Relationship between AOT40 and cumulative ozone uptake during 2002 (A), 2003 (B) and 2004 (C). Arrows in (B) indicate July 31, 2003 in  $1 \times O_3$  and August 2, 2003 in  $2 \times O_3$ , when soil moisture became limiting. (B) Re-evaluated after Matyssek et al. (2006)

years and  $O_3$  regimes. All three study years differed significantly in these slopes under  $1 \times O_3$  and  $2 \times O_3$  ( $p < 0.001$ , in 2003 only data points used prior to the breakpoint).

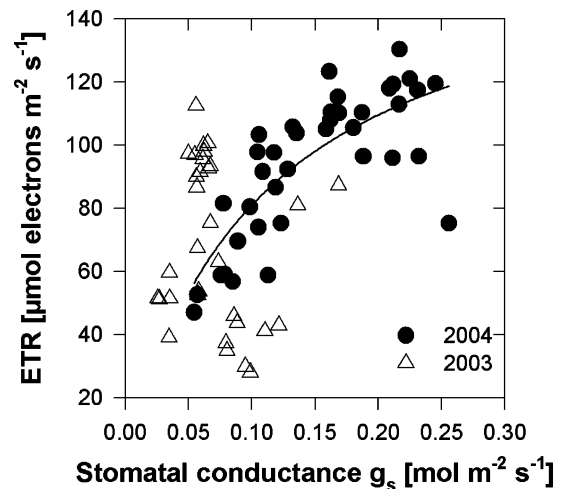
The cause of the change in slope between COU and AOT40 between dry and humid years was stomatal regulation, as  $g_s$  was strongly reduced during drought to less than one-third of the levels that were reached under the humid conditions of 2004 (Fig. 4B). During the period of lowest  $\Psi_{pre}$  (Fig. 2),  $g_s$  did not differ anymore between the two  $O_3$  regimes, although in June 2003,  $g_s$  was reduced under  $2 \times O_3$  already prior to the onset of drought (Fig. 4B).

**Fig. 4** Net CO<sub>2</sub> uptake rate ( $A_{\max}$ ) (A), stomatal conductance to water vapour ( $g_s$ ) (B), electron transport rate (ETR) (C) (all measured at saturating light conditions) and dry mass related chlorophyll levels (D) during 2003 and 2004 (means  $\pm$  one standard error of the mean of  $n = 3-5$  trees in each pair of values). Symbols given in (C) are valid also for (A), (B) and (D)



In addition,  $g_s$  under  $2 \times O_3$  appeared to be less sensitive to drought than under  $1 \times O_3$ . In contrast, the seasonal course of  $g_s$  was fairly constant under humid conditions, as exemplified during 2004, although levels of  $g_s$  were lower and less stable under the  $2 \times O_3$  than  $1 \times O_3$  regime (Fig. 4B).  $g_s$  was significantly reduced under  $2 \times O_3$  conditions in July 2004 ( $p = 0.047$ ) as compared to  $1 \times O_3$ . Analysis of the annual course (see Materials and methods section) showed that  $g_s$  was significantly reduced during 2004 in  $2 \times O_3$  ( $p = 0.039$ ). The course of photosynthetic performance resembled that of  $g_s$  (Fig. 4A) in each year, however,  $A_{\max}$  did not recover in October 2003.  $A_{\max}$  was reduced significantly under the  $2 \times O_3$  regime in September 2004 ( $p = 0.048$ ). The annual course of  $A_{\max}$  in 2003 was significantly different from that in 2004 in both  $O_3$  regimes ( $p < 0.001$  at  $1 \times O_3$  and  $p < 0.02$  at  $2 \times O_3$ ).

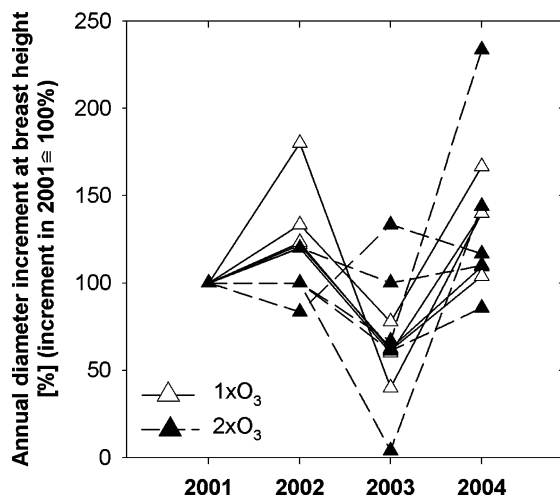
Beginning in July 2003, ETR declined gradually until October, irrespective of the  $O_3$  regime (Fig. 4C), as opposed to 2004, when under  $1 \times O_3$  ETR was significantly higher in May ( $p = 0.04$ ) and slightly enhanced in July and September as compared to  $2 \times O_3$ . Due to reduced ETR levels under  $2 \times O_3$ , differences between the 2 years under this  $O_3$  regime were smaller than under  $1 \times O_3$ , although ETR was significantly lower in October 2003 than in October 2004 ( $p = 0.04$ ). The relationship between ETR and stomatal conductance (Fig. 5) distinctly differed between 2003 and 2004, as correlation was apparent during the humid year ( $r^2 = 0.63$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), but not so under the drought of 2003 ( $r^2 < 0.01$ ). Correlation coefficients for hyperbolic rectangular regressions were significantly different between both years ( $p = 0.0016$ ). Even when the regression was applied only to the data range covered by both years ( $g_s < 0.15 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), the hyperbolic regres-



**Fig. 5** Relationship between electron transport rate (ETR) and stomatal conductance for water vapour ( $g_s$ ) during 2003 and 2004. Hyperbolic regression (of single rectangular type) at  $r^2 = 0.63$  only in 2004;  $r^2 < 0.01$  in 2003 (regression line not shown)

sion rendered a similar result in 2004 ( $r^2 = 0.60$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) so that still both years could not be described ( $p = 0.018$ ) by one regression. Levels of dry mass-related chlorophyll a and b (Fig. 4D) neither differed with respect to the annual water availability nor to the  $O_3$  regimes.

Radial stem growth at breast height (Fig. 6) was limited under the drought of 2003. Nine out of the ten examined trees displayed reduced annual increment as compared with that in 2001. Given the high variability between the individual *F. sylvatica* trees in this stem response, the mean radial stem increment did not significantly differ between the two  $O_3$  regimes.



**Fig. 6** Relative annual stem diameter increment at breast height of the ten adult *F. sylvatica* trees examined in this study during the years 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 (increment in 2001  $\hat{=}$  100%)

## Discussion

In general, drought is viewed to counteract adverse O<sub>3</sub> effects through, at least, partial closure of the stomata (Schulze 1994) which determine the pathway of O<sub>3</sub> uptake into plants (Matyssek and Sandermann 2003). Stomatal responses to moisture deficits can limit the O<sub>3</sub> uptake to the extent that the influx of O<sub>3</sub> may be less during sunny, dry days with high O<sub>3</sub> levels than under the lower O<sub>3</sub> regimes of overcast, humid days (Wieser and Havranek 1993). Moisture-related contrasts in O<sub>3</sub> influx can also be observed at the annual time scale, as shown by the reduced O<sub>3</sub> uptake of adult *F. sylvatica* under the high O<sub>3</sub> exposure during the sunny and dry growing season of 2003 relative to the high uptake under the humid summer conditions and lower O<sub>3</sub> levels of 2002 and 2004. Although sunny and dry weather favours O<sub>3</sub> formation (Stockwell et al. 1997; Fabian 2002), the higher external O<sub>3</sub> exposure, as expressed through SUM0 or AOT40, was not translated into increased uptake into the trees, which leads us to accept hypothesis (1) in 2003. In our study,  $g_s$  and O<sub>3</sub> uptake declined under both O<sub>3</sub> regimes at “Kranzberger Forst” as  $\Psi_{pre}$  of twigs decreased, along with soil moisture (Panek 2004), to levels that were exceptionally low for trees of the Central European climate (Larcher 2001). However, only severe drought – as encountered in the present field study – tends to protect from O<sub>3</sub> impact (Retzlaff et al. 2000). In our study, this was supported by the absence of major macroscopic leaf injury in adult *F. sylvatica* in 2003. Mild soil moisture deficit, on the contrary, can exacerbate O<sub>3</sub> injury (Grulke et al. 2003) and accelerate leaf loss (cf. Pääkkönen et al. 1998b).

O<sub>3</sub> impact may change sensitivity in stomatal regulation (Matyssek and Sandermann 2003), as indicated by sluggishness in stomatal movements or inefficient control of transpiration (Keller and Häsler 1984; Barnes et al. 1990a, b; Pearson and Mansfield 1993; Karlsson et al. 2004; Paoletti and Grulke 2005) so that trees may be predisposed to drought injury. Remarkably,  $g_s$  under  $2 \times O_3$  conditions al-

ready was lower before the onset of drought and seemed to be less sensitive to drought (cf. Paoletti and Grulke 2005). Such O<sub>3</sub>-induced changes may be mediated through altered “mechanics” in the stomatal apparatus upon reduced cell wall lignification (Maier-Maercker 1998; cf. Kivimäenpää et al. 2003). Another explanation is the disturbed osmotic control of the guard cells upon membrane impairment (Heath and Taylor 1997; cf. Nali et al. 2004), although stomatal responsiveness to ABA has not yet been clarified under O<sub>3</sub> stress (Torsethaugen et al. 1999). In adult *F. sylvatica*, the relative decrease in  $g_s$  in response to drought was smaller under  $2 \times O_3$  than  $1 \times O_3$ ; however, it is remarkable that during the remainder of the drought period  $g_s$  stayed at similarly low levels in both O<sub>3</sub> regimes. This may relate to  $\Psi_{min}$  which was maintained at around  $-2$  MPa regardless of the O<sub>3</sub> regime, although  $\Psi_{pre}$  had dropped to unusually low levels as a consequence of soil drought. It appears that stomatal regulation stayed intact under O<sub>3</sub> stress to the extent that the daily maximum in water tension, represented through  $\Psi_{min}$ , was stabilized, which may prevent catastrophic cavitation in the xylem vessels under persisting drought (cf. Tyree and Zimmermann 2002). O<sub>3</sub> stress per se did not significantly affect water potentials.

Stomatal closure during the drought of 2003 underlined the shortcoming of exposure-based indices like SUM0 and AOT40 in assessing the O<sub>3</sub> risk to trees (Panek 2004). Maximum O<sub>3</sub> uptake does not necessarily correlate with periods of peak external O<sub>3</sub> levels. SUM0 and AOT40 may adequately correlate with O<sub>3</sub> uptake only when soil moisture is not limiting, which can lead to erroneous conclusions about risks of O<sub>3</sub> injury in dry years (Panek et al. 2002). Until the end of July 2003, the relationship between cumulative ozone uptake and AOT40 was linear, although such correlations may be rather variable, and linearity cannot be generalized (Karlsson et al. 2004; Matyssek et al. 2004). However, the relationship changed its slope around the end of July 2003, when  $g_s$  decreased as a consequence of the continuing drought. This effect was more pronounced under the  $2 \times O_3$  than the  $1 \times O_3$  regime. Panek et al. (2002) suggested to weight O<sub>3</sub> levels by  $g_s$  or soil moisture. One approach, which was adopted in the present study, is to extend  $g_s$ -based models of O<sub>3</sub> uptake (Emberson et al. 2000) by adequate algorithms, such as the model extension by Nunn et al. (2005a). The extension given there significantly increased modelling precision of O<sub>3</sub> uptake.

However, stomatal exclusion of O<sub>3</sub> is accompanied by restricted CO<sub>2</sub> fixation (Panek and Goldstein 2001), and the latter effect may even be exacerbated through synergism between O<sub>3</sub> and drought (Grulke et al. 2002). In adult *F. sylvatica* of our study, drought-driven decline in  $A_{max}$  in parallel to decreasing  $g_s$  was observed under  $1 \times O_3$  during the year 2003, but not so under  $2 \times O_3$ , where  $A_{max}$  and  $g_s$  had been low since early summer. Nevertheless, it is reported that O<sub>3</sub> may even seasonally increase  $g_s$  and  $A_{max}$ . This may be a consequence of sink induction for carbon in relation to O<sub>3</sub> defence (Kolb and Matyssek 2001; cf. Körner 2003) or resource retranslocation from old injured into newly formed leaves (Beyers et al. 1992; Maurer et al. 1997).

ETR showed a distinct drought effect in 2003 (cf. Fig. 4C) in the *F. sylvatica* trees at “Kranzberger Forst”. Other studies reported only slight drought effects on ETR (Ogaya and Penuelas 2003, Flexas et al. 1999). Furthermore, ETR was only poorly related to  $g_s$  at “Kranzberger Forst” in the dry year 2003 ( $r^2 < 0.01$ ; Fig. 5). This relationship was well established under the humid conditions of 2004 ( $r^2 = 0.63$ ). The correlation was similar to that reported by Flexas et al. (2002) from *Vitis vinifera* which was grown both under irrigated and non-irrigated conditions in the Mediterranean region, characterized by regular summer drought. In addition, this kind of relationship between ETR and  $g_s$  has been reported by Medrano et al. (2002) for several plant species from different climatic zones. The absence of such a correlation in *F. sylvatica* during 2003 apparently underlines, in Central Europe, the anomaly of the severe drought in that year (Luterbacher et al. 2004). Nevertheless, high levels of ETR at low  $g_s$  in 2003 are consistent with the conceptual scheme by Medrano et al. (2002, Fig. 3 given there) to the extent that this scheme may be applicable to *F. sylvatica* at “Kranzberger Forst”. High ETR at low  $g_s$  during drought may indicate ongoing photorespiration as counteracting photoinhibition (Guan et al. 2004, Medrano et al. 2002). Despite the variation in ETR, chlorophyll levels in *F. sylvatica* were neither affected by drought nor ozone, suggesting – in accordance with findings by Herbinger et al. (2002) in *Triticum durum* and *T. aestivum* – intactness of the photosynthetic apparatus.

Given the trade-off between protection against  $O_3$  injury at high  $O_3$  exposure and reduced  $A_{max}$  through the drought-driven closure of stomata, limitations in biomass production, resource allocation and structural differentiation may be the “price” of the exclusion of ozone (Matyssek and Sandermann 2003). On mesic sites,  $O_3$  impact resulted, in *Pinus jeffreyi*, in thinner branches but earlier needle loss than on xeric sites (Grulke et al. 2003). In *F. sylvatica*, Stribley and Ashmore (2002) reported decrease in shoot growth to be mainly related to drought and concluded that, depending on the site, also  $O_3$  can contribute to the decline of *F. sylvatica*. Nutrition was affected in *Picea abies* through drought rather than  $O_3$  (Wallin et al. 2002; Kivimäenpää et al. 2003), and even though  $O_3$  limited stem growth, the pollutant was regarded less important than drought in this latter respect. Also in the adult *F. sylvatica* trees of “Kranzberger Forst”, drought rather than  $O_3$  limited radial stem growth in 2003. The absence of an  $O_3$  effect on stem growth under  $2 \times O_3$  relative to  $1 \times O_3$  was consistent with the observation during humid years. Hence, no  $O_3$ -induced damage on stem production was substantiated (Wipfler et al. 2005). Although Hypothesis 1 was corroborated in that COU was uncoupled from AOT40, the low  $O_3$  sensitivity of stem growth prevented, in the given case of beech at “Kranzberger Forst”, the damage to materialize. Apparently, stem growth of tall trees is highly buffered against  $O_3$  stress, which appears to be in contrast to juvenile trees (cf. Kolb and Matyssek 2001). This difference may be due to a high reserve storage capacity (backing processes of detoxification and repair) or stress compensation already within the crown of tall trees. The metabolic responsiveness

at the crown level leads to conclude that risks of chronic  $O_3$  stress still cannot be ruled out (Nunn et al. 2005a, b). Suggestions that chronic  $O_3$  stress may enhance the susceptibility of trees to drought (cf. Matyssek et al. 2006), resulting in reduced stem growth during subsequent years (Dittmar and Elling 1999; Dittmar et al. 2003) or even decline of trees and forests (Miller and McBride 1999), were not confirmed in our study. Hence, irrespective of the analysed tree parameter, hypotheses (2) was to be rejected, the more so as drought and ozone led to differential effects on  $g_s$ ,  $A_{max}$ , ETR and stem growth of the study trees.

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