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- 3 compensation point in a poplar clone
- 4 Wen Xu^{1,2}, Bo Shang^{1,2}, Yansen Xu^{1,2}, Xiangyang Yuan^{1,2}, Anthony J. Dore³, Yuanhong
- 5 Zhao⁴, Raia-Silvia Massad⁵, Zhaozhong Feng^{1,2*}
- 6
- 7 ¹State Key Laboratory of Urban and Regional Ecology, Research Center for Eco-
- 8 Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shuangqing Road 18, Haidian
- 9 District, Beijing 100085, China.
- ²College of Resources and Environment, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences,
- 11 Beijing 100049, China.
- ³Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Edinburgh, Bush Estate, Penicuik, Midlothian
 EH26 0QB, UK.
- ⁴Laboratory for Climate and Ocean-Atmosphere Sciences, Department of Atmospheric
- and Oceanic Sciences, School of Physics, Peking University, Beijing100871, China.
- ⁵ UMR ECOSYS, INRA, Agroparistech, Université Paris-Saclay Thiverval-Grignon
- 17 France.
- 18 ^{*}Corresponding author.
- 19 E-mail address: fzz@rcees.ac.cn (Z. Feng).

20 Abstract: The stomatal compensation point of ammonia (χ_s) is a key factor controlling 21 plant-atmosphere NH₃ exchange, which is dependent on the nitrogen (N) supply and 22 varies among plant species. However, knowledge gaps remain concerning the effects of elevated atmospheric N deposition and ozone (O₃) on χ_s for forest species, resulting 23 24 in large uncertainties in the parameterizations of NH₃ incorporated into atmospheric 25 chemistry and transport models (CTMs). Here, we present leaf-scale measurements of χ_s for hybrid poplar clone '546' (Populusdeltoides cv. 55/56 x P. deltoides cv. Imperial) 26 growing in two N treatments (N0, no N added; N50, 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ urea fertilizer 27 added) and two O₃ treatments (CF, charcoal-filtered air; E-O₃, non-filtered air plus 40 28 29 ppb) for 105 days. Our results showed that χ_s was significantly reduced by E-O₃ (41%) and elevated N (19%). The interaction of N and O3 were significant, and N can mitigate 30 the negative effects of O_3 on χ_s . Elevated O_3 significantly reduced the light-saturated 31 32 photosynthetic rate (Asat) and chlorophyll (Chl) content and significantly increased intercellular CO₂ concentrations (Ci), but had no significant effect on stomatal 33 conductance (gs). By contrast, elevated N did not significantly affect all measured 34 photosynthetic parameters. Overall, χ_s was significantly and positively correlated with 35 A_{sat} , g_{s} and Chl, whereas a significant and negative relationship was observed between 36 χ_s and Ci. Our results suggest that O₃-induced changes in A_{sat} , Ci and Chl may affect χ_s . 37 Our findings provide a scientific basis for optimizing parameterizations of χ_s in 38 atmospheric chemistry and transport models to respond to environmental change 39 factors (i.e., elevated N deposition and/or O₃) in the future. 40

41 Keywords: Ammonia; Ozone; Apoplast; Compensation point; Forest species

42 **Capsule:** Both elevated O_3 and fertilization can significantly reduced NH₃ stomatal 43 compensation point (χ_s) of poplar clone '546', and fertilization can mitigate the negative 44 effects of O_3 on χ_s .

45

46 **1. Introduction**

Atmospheric ammonia (NH₃) is the primary alkaline trace gas in the atmosphere
and plays a vital role in many biogeochemical and atmospheric processes (Behera et al.,
2013). It neutralizes atmospheric acids to yield ammonium (NH₄⁺) aerosols,

which results in increased mass loadings of fine atmospheric particulate matter (PM_{2.5}, aerodynamic diameter ≤ 2.5) (Xu et al., 2016, 2017), thereby reducing visibility and adversely impacting ecosystem and human health (Gu et al., 2014). By contrast, atmospheric deposition of reduced N (NH₃ and NH₄⁺) can cause soil acidification (Du et al., 2015), eutrophication (Pareman et al., 2016) and loss of biodiversity (Erisman et al., 2007) in sensitive ecosystems.

Plants can be either a source or a sink of atmospheric NH₃, depending on the 56 57 difference between atmospheric NH3 concentration and the so-called canopy NH3 compensation point (Massad et al., 2010). As a major component of canopy NH₃ 58 compensation point, ammonia stomatal compensation point (χ_s) is defined as the 59 atmospheric NH3 concentration for which there is no exchange between the leaf and the 60 atmosphere under dry conditions (Flechard et al, 2013). Theoretically, χ_s is also the 61 62 gaseous NH₃ concentration in the leaf sub-stomatal cavity that is in equilibrium with ammonium concentration in the apoplast (Husted and Schjoeering, 1995). It plays a 63 vital role in controlling the magnitude and the direction of NH₃ exchange between the 64 canopy and the atmosphere (Sutton et al., 1995). Specifically, if atmospheric NH₃ 65 concentrations exceed χ_s then NH₃ deposition from the atmosphere to vegetation will 66 67 occur, while with atmospheric NH₃ concentrations below χ_s , there will be a net emission 68 of NH₃ by plants. χ_s depends directly on the plant nitrogen (N) status, developmental stage, and environmental conditions (e.g., N fertilization), with larger values generally 69 observed under conditions of high N supply to the soil-plant system and at senescence 70 71 (Massad et al., 2009; Schjoerring et al., 1998).

72 χ_s can be derived from simultaneous measurement of vertical fluxes and 73 concentrations of NH₃ by using micrometeorological flux techniques over large fields 74 (Hansen et al., 2017; Nemitz et al., 2001; Personne et al., 2015), or in chambers by 75 finding the concentration at which the total flux is zero (Hill et al., 2001; Massad et al., 76 2009; Wang et al., 2011). In addition, the bioassay approach has also been developed for assessing χ_s and it is based on the determination of the leaf apoplastic $\rm NH4^+$ 77 concentration and pH by mean of apoplast extraction (Husted and Schjørring, 1995). 78 79 These two methods are complementary. Apoplast extraction is more appropriate for leaf and cell scale processes whereas chamber/micrometeorological measurements tend to
be more appropriate for flux measurements at an entire plant/canopy scale (Massad et
al., 2009; Sutton et al., 2009).

Forests represent a major uncertainty in quantification of regional NH₃ fluxes and 83 parameterization of bi-directional NH₃ exchange in atmospheric chemistry and 84 transport models (CTMs) such as AURAMS (A Unified Regional Air-quality 85 Modelling System, Zhang et al., 2010) and CMAQ (Community Multiscale Air-Quality 86 Modeling System, Fu et al., 2015). This is not only due to the large land area of forests 87 but also because of the wide range of forest types and management practices. In 88 conditions of bi-directional NH3 exchange, forests are of particular interest. For 89 example, temperate deciduous forests are potentially a natural source of NH₃ (Hansen 90 et al., 2013, 2017; Neirynck and Ceulemans, 2008), leading to impact of forests on the 91 atmospheric NH₃ level. In contrast, tropical humid forest and temperate coniferous 92 forest can acts as net NH₃ sinks (Bertolini et al., 2016; Duyzer et al., 2005), resulting in 93 the impact of atmospheric NH₃ on the ecological functioning of forests. 94

 χ_s is one of the key parameters for parameterizations of NH₃ incorporated into 95 CTMs (Massad et al., 2010). Based on published data on χ_s in relation to different plant 96 species, growth stages, N supply etc., Massad et al. (2010) derived a new operational 97 parameterization for integrating bi-directional NH₃ exchange into CTMs, However, 98 99 uncertainties still exist for its parameterization, partially due to the following two drawbacks: 1) measurement of χ_s for different ecosystems, specific to forests, is very 100 101 sparse and is only considered for a single growth stage of plants; 2) the relationships 102 established between N fertilizer application and γ_s remain uncertain due to a lack of co-103 measurement of χ_s with different organic fertilizer (manure, slurry and urea) application rates. In addition, the actual parameterization of NH₃ exchange models requires large 104 databases accounting for the variability of χ_s . To our knowledge, there is only one 105 106 process-based model developed by Riedo et al. (2002) for grasslands which accounts for the plants N nutrition and growth stage in calculating χ_s . However, as χ_s is not only 107 driven by N input to the ecosystem and plant growth stage, it may be a strongly 108 regulated process that depends on environmental changes such as elevated ground-level 109

110 O₃.

Ground-level O₃ can be considered as the most phytotoxic air pollutant due to 111 visible injury to a variety of plants and the rising concentrations in different regions of 112 the world (Cooper et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2014). It affects photosynthetic parameters 113 (e.g., stomatal conductance (g_s) , light-saturated CO₂ assimilation rate (A_{sat}) , 114 intercellular CO₂ concentration (Ci) and chlorophyll (Chl) content) of forest species to 115 a varying extent (Li et al., 2017). In contrast, atmospheric N deposition represents an 116 important nutrient from the environment for plants (Liu et al., 2010). In N-limited 117 ecosystems (e.g., forest) N deposition might enhance photosynthetic activity (i.e. 118 photosynthetic enzyme activity) and net primary productivity (N fertilization effect) 119 (Liu et al., 2011). In the context of an N-saturation ecosystem, however, N deposition 120 may render plants more susceptible to pollutants and natural environmental stressors 121 122 (Cardoso-Vilhena and Barnes, 2001). Ozone and N induced changes in the growth and metabolism of plants may affect the χ_s of plants due to a clear link between χ_s and 123 photosynthetic parameters. For example, Mattssone and Schjoerring (1996) showed 124 that leaf NH₃ emission from Hordeum vulgare L. cv. Golf plants showed a consistent 125 diurnal pattern with photosynthesis but the opposite trend with g_s . Furthermore, 126 Schjoerring et al. (1998) found that NH₃ emission from leaves of *Brassica napus L*. 127 128 plants increased with Chl degradation. Such results demonstrate that there are corresponding influences of those parameters on χ_s , which positively impacts leaf NH₃ 129 emission (Massad et al., 2010). In this context, understanding the effects of elevated O₃ 130 and N as well as their influence on the plant physiological parameters controlling γ_s is 131 important for prediction of χ_s . Unfortunately, the relevant information for different 132 133 forest species is still unknown, significantly restricting the optimization of the γ_s parameter in CTM models. 134

Poplars are widespread deciduous plants in temperate and boreal forests. In China, poplar is a native species, with a cultivated area of more than 10 million ha (Yuan et al., 2016). We designed an experiment to investigate for the first time the individual effects of elevated N deposition (with controlled application of urea) and O₃ and their interactions on χ_s of hybrid poplar clone '546' (*Populusdeltoides cv. 55/56 x P. deltoides* 140 *cv. Imperial*). In addition, we estimated the relationships between photosynthetic 141 parameters (g_s , A_{sat} , Ci and Chl) and χ_s , and discuss how N and O₃, as well as their-142 driven modifications in the aforementioned photosynthetic parameters, respectively 143 affect χ_s .

144 **2. Materials and methods**

145 *2.1. Experimental site and plant materials*

The study was conducted in Yanqing Field and Experimental Basin, Tangjiapu village, Yanqing District (40°29'N, 115°59'E, 500 m.a.s.l.), about 74 km northwest of Beijing city centre. When the winds come from the north or northwest, this basin is located upwind of the Beijing urban area. The site is characterized by a continental monsoon climate, with mean annual temperature of 9 °C and mean annual precipitation of 400-500 mm.

Rooted cuttings of hybrid poplar clone '546' (Populusdeltoides cv. 55/56 x P. 152 deltoides cv. Imperial) were planted on 7 May 2017 and cultivated in individual 20 L 153 154 circular plastic pots when they were about 31 days old. The plots were filled with local light loamy farmland soil, which was excavated at 0-10 cm depth, sieved out by a 0.3 155 mm pore mesh and then thoroughly mixed for homogeneity. Plants with similar height 156 (ca. 27.2 cm) and basal stem diameter (ca. 4.5 mm)were selected and pre-adapted to 157 open-top chambers (OTCs, octagonal base, 12.5 m² of growth space and 3.0 m height, 158 covered with toughened glass) for 10 days before O₃ fumigation. All seedlings were 159 manually irrigated at 1-2 day intervals in order to keep moisture at a similar level to 160 161 that in farm fields.

162 2.2. O₃ and N treatments

The experiment was conducted in six OTCs with two O₃ treatments: charcoalfiltered ambient air (CF), and elevated O₃ (E-O₃, non-filtered air with targeted O₃ addition of 40 ppb during fumigation). Each treatment had three OTC replicates, and six potted plants were randomly distributed in each OTC. The O₃ fumigation was performed from 10 June to 22 September 2017. The daily fumigation time was 10 h (from 08:00 till 18:00), except on rainy days. During the fumigation period, the

averaged O₃ concentrations in CF and E-O₃ were 24.0 and 80.6 ppb, respectively, and 169 AOT40 (accumulated hourly O₃ concentration above a threshold of 40 ppb) was 2.4 170 and 41.6 ppm h, respectively. Ozone was generated from pure oxygen using an 171 electrical discharge O₃ generator (HY003, Chuangcheng Co., Jinan, China) and mixed 172 with ambient air using a fan. Ozone concentrations inside the OTCs were continuously 173 monitored at approximately 10 cm above the plant canopy using two ultraviolet (UV) 174 absorption O3 analyzers (Model 49i-Thermo, Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA, 175 one for three OTCs). The analyzers were calibrated with a 49iPS calibrator (Thermo 176 Scientific) before the experiment and once a month during the experiment. 177

In addition to the O₃ treatments, two N treatments were applied with three 178 replicates: control (N0, no N added), and moderate N, (N50, 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). For N50, 179 N additions were applied five times (13 June, 29 June, 16 July, 1 August, 17 August) to 180 the soil with dilute urea solutions by using a 50 mL plastic bottle and the control pots 181 received equal amounts of pure water. In total, N50 received 0.245 g N per pot (i.e. 182 0.526 g urea per pot) throughout the experiment. This application rate (0.245 g N per 183 pot) can be projected to a dose of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ based on the area (0.049 m²) of each pot. 184 The concentrations of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N in the soil of N0 treatment were 6.5 ± 2.2 185 and $4.6 \pm 1.4 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1}$ wet soil, respectively (unpublished data). 186

187 2.3. Measurements of physiological parameters

Measurements of gas exchange, leaf temperature and chlorophyll content were 188 performed during two periods, i.e., at the end of July and August, 2017 (on 30 and 31 189 July, and on 29 and 31 August, respectively). For all plants, middle leaves were selected 190 as targeted leaves, which were 11th to 13th fully expanded leaves from the apex and 191 192 comprised the main part of the leaves on each plant. A portable photosynthetic system fitting with a 6400-40 leaf chamber fluorometer (LI-6400-40, LI-COR Co., USA) was 193 used to measure gas exchange and leaf temperature from one middle leaf between 9:00 194 and 11:00 h. For the measurements, the photosynthetic photon flux density was set at 195 1200 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹, the CO₂ concentration of air entering the leaf at 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ and 196 the relative humidity at 50-60%. The measured parameters were A_{sat} , g_{s} , and C_{i} . It 197

should be noted that the 2-h measurement duration has only a small influence on g_s , since the influencing factors on g_s (e.g., leaf temperature, vapor pressure deficit, ambient CO₂ concentration, Hu et al., 2015) have a small fluctuation during the corresponding time period (data not shown), and the photosynthetic photon flux density leaf was fixed. During the entire experimental period, a total of 72 leaf samples were measured.

Immediately after measurements of gas exchange and leaf temperature, two leaf discs were sampled from the targeted leaf and then extracted with 2 mL 95% ethanol solution in the dark for at least 72 h at 4 °C. The Chl content in the extract was determined using the specific absorption coefficients (Lichtenthaler, 1987).

208 2.4. Determination of apoplastic NH_4^+ and H^+ concentration

A slightly modified version of the vacuum infiltration technique developed by 209 Husted and Schjoerring (1995) was employed to determine apoplastic NH4⁺ and H⁺ 210 concentrations. Immediately after measurements of physiological parameters, the 211 212 targeted leaf was cut and washed with high-purity water (18.2 Ω), in order to avoid any contamination from air pollutants (e.g., particulate NH4⁺). The leaf was then blotted dry 213 214 with clean absorbent paper towel and the central petiole was removed. The leaves were separated into three replicates and then weighted, infiltrated with 280 mM sorbitol 215 solution using a 60 mL plastic syringe with a series of vacuum/pressure for 5 min. The 216 vacuum/pressure process was automatically applied with an intercellular fluid extractor 217 (NS-AFE-1, Pulanta Co. Suzhou, China). The infiltrated leaves were quickly rinsed 218 with high-purity water, blotted dry and re-weighted. The leaves were then rolled, 219 inserted into tubes and centrifuged at 9000 r min⁻¹ for 10 min at 4°C to collect the 220 apoplastic solution. Cytoplasmic contamination of the apoplast during the extraction 221 procedure was checked by performing the extraction using a buffered solution (0.1 M 222 Ntris[hydroxymethyl]methyl-2-aminoethanesulphonic acid, 2 mM dithiothreitol and 223 0.2 mM EDTA), and comparing the activity of Malate Dehydrogenase (MDH) in the 224 apoplastic extracts to its activity in bulk tissue extracts as described by Husted and 225 Schjørring (1995). The contamination was less than $1.2 \pm 1.1\%$ of MDH activity in 226

apoplast extract relative to bulk tissue extract. The extracted solution was then frozen
and stored at -20 °C prior to chemical analysis.

The NH₄⁺ concentrations in the apoplastic extracts were measured with an AA3 229 continuous-flow analyzer (BranCLuebbe GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany). The 230 detection limit of NH4⁺ was 0.01 mg N L⁻¹. The pH of the extracted solution was 231 measured with an InLab micro electrode (Mettler Toledo, Udorf, Switzerland). The 232 dilution of the apoplastic solution was determined spectrophotometrically at 233 wavelength 492 nm for the sorbitol, which allowed the calculation of a dilution factor 234 (Hove et al., 2002). The concentration of apoplastic NH4⁺ and H⁺ was corrected for 235 dilution during the extraction procedure by multiplication with the dilution factor (F_{dil}). 236 The aqueous volume of the apoplast (V_{apo} , mL g⁻¹ leaf fresh weight (LFW)) was 237 estimated using the equation (Hove et al., 2002): 238

239
$$V_{\text{apo}} = \frac{V_i(F_{d,\text{sorb}}-1)}{\text{LFW}}$$
(1)

where V_i is the infiltration volume which was calculated by assuming a leaf density of 1 g cm⁻³ the difference in weight before and after infiltration, $F_{d,sorb}$ is the dilution factor of sorbitol.

243
$$F_{\rm dil} = \frac{V_{\rm apo} + V_{\rm air}}{V_{\rm apo}}$$
(2)

where V_{air} is the air volume inside the leaf (cm³ g⁻¹ LFW) which was measured by infiltrating leaves with low-viscosity silicone oil (10 mPa s). Based on the increase in weight and oil density (0.93 g cm⁻³), the V_{air} was estimated to be approximately 0.16 mL g⁻¹ throughout the experiment.

248 2.5. Determination of the leaf tissue NH_4^+ concentration

The leaf segments were cut into small pieces, frozen in a ceramic mortar with liquid N (-210 °C), and quickly ground into a homogenous powder using a ceramic pestle. The weighed samples (approximately 1.0 g per sample) were put into a 5 mL centrifuge tube with 4 mL of high-purity water, followed by centrifugation at 2000 g (4°C) for 10 min (Loubet et al., 2002). The supernatant was then decanted and filtered through a syringe filter (0.45 µm, Tengda Inc., Tianjin, China) to remove large plant tissues. The filtered solution was frozen and stored at -20 °C until analysis for NH4⁺
using an AA3 continuous-flow analyzer as mentioned before.

257 2.6. Calculation of NH₃ stomatal compensation point

The stomatal compensation points were derived using the apoplast pH and NH₄⁺ concentrations (Loubet et al., 2002) according to the equation:

260
$$\chi_{\rm s} = M_{\rm NH3} \times K_{\rm H} \times K_{\rm D} \times \frac{[{\rm NH}_4^+]}{[{\rm H}^+]} \times 10^9$$
 (3)

where χ_s is the stomatal compensation point in µg NH₃ m⁻³, M_{NH3} is the molecular mass of NH₃ in g mol⁻¹, The ratio of apoplast NH₄⁺ to apoplast H⁺ concentration, called the emission potential (expressed as Γ_s), is temperature independent and dimensionless (Massad et al., 2010). K_H is the Henry constant and K_D is the dissociation constant. The product K_HK_D depends on temperature and was calculated following the method of (Hill et al., 2001):

267
$$K_{\rm H}K_{\rm D} = \frac{161512}{T_{\rm leaf}} \times 10^{\frac{-4507.11}{T_{\rm leaf}}}$$
 (4)

268 where T_{leaf} is leaf temperature in Kelvin.

269 2.7. Statistical analysis

Data of each investigated variable from three plants per OTC were averaged and 270 then used as the statistical unit (N=3). Prior to analysis, all data were tested for 271 normality using the Shapiro-Wilk's W-test and for homogeneity of variance using 272 Levene's-test to determine whether data should be transformed to satisfy statistical 273 assumptions. A split-plot design was used, with O₃ as the main plot, N level as sub-plot 274 and measurement dates as repeat-measurement. A repeated measure 275 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a mixed linear model was then conducted to examine the 276 effects of O₃, N, measurement dates and their interactions on physiological parameters 277 and γ_s as well as other parameters. Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test 278 was applied to examine the significant differences. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) 279 was performed to test the significance of difference in the slopes of the linear 280 relationship between χ_s and physiological parameters. All statistical analyses were 281 performed in R version 3.3.3 (http://www.r-project.org/), with significant level set at 282

283 P < 0.05. All the data were shown as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of three OTC 284 replicates.

285 3. Results

For all investigated variables, similar and non-significant responses to E-O₃ and
N50 were found between the two measurement dates, i.e., July and August (Figs. 1 and
288 2). Based on integrated analysis of all data from all N and O₃ treatments and the two
measurement dates, the main results are presented below.

3.1. Photosynthetic parameters

For all investigated variables (A_{sat}, g_s, Ci and Chl), the interactions of O₃ and N 291 were not significant, but the individual effects of them were significant for most 292 variables (Table 1). Relative to CF, E-O₃ significantly reduced A_{sat} by 55%, whereas 293 A_{sat} has a small non-significant increase (6%) in NF50 relative to N0 (Fig. 1a, Table 1). 294 A_{sat} significantly decreased (by 24%) in August relative to that in July, when averaged 295 across all treatments. The effects of N and O₃ on g_s were both not significant, whereas 296 measurement date significantly affected g_s (Fig. 1b, Table 1). Similar to A_{sat} , g_s 297 significantly decreased by 30% in August compared with that in July. 298

Ozone significantly influenced *C*i and Chl, whereas N had no significant effects on them (**Fig. 1c d, Table 1**). *C*i was significantly increased by E-O₃ (+7%) compared with CF, and also was significantly higher (6%) in August than in July. Conversely, Chl was significantly reduced by E-O₃ (-30%), and significantly decreased (by 57%) in August.

304 3.2. Leaf apoplastic NH_4^+ and pH, and leaf tissue NH_4^+

Fig. 2a-c shows the responses of leaf apoplastic NH_4^+ concentration and pH, and leaf tissue NH_4^+ concentration to E-O₃ and N50. The interactions between O₃ and N and/or measurement dates were not significant for all those three variables (**Table 1**). However, individual effects of them on apoplastic NH_4^+ concentrations and pH all reached statistically significant levels. Similarly, leaf tissue NH_4^+ concentration was significantly influenced by both O₃ and measurement dates, but not by N.

311 Averaged apoplastic NH_4^+ concentration was significantly reduced (by 15%) in E-

O₃ plants compared with CF plants (**Fig. 2a, Table 1**). By contrast, the mean concentration was significantly increased (by 27%) in N50 plants compared with that in N0 plants. A significant increase (14%) of the mean occurred in August relative to July. As for apoplastic pH, two small but significant reductions (both 4%) of the mean were found in E-O₃ and N50 plants compared with those in CF and N50 plants, respectively (**Fig. 2c, Table 1**). Also, the mean pH was significantly lower (15%) in plants grown in August than in July.

In contrast to apoplastic NH4⁺, the mean tissue NH4⁺ concentration significantly increased (by 15%) in E-O₃ plants relative to that in CF plants, whereas a small and non-significant difference in the mean was found between N0 and N50 plants (**Fig. 2b**, **Table 1**). The mean concentrations decreased significantly (on average by 6%) in August relative to July.

324 3.3. Emission potential (Γ_s) and stomatal compensation point (χ_s)

As presented in **Table 1**, both O₃ and measurement dates significantly affected Γ_s , whereas N had no significant effect on it. Also, no significant interactions between O₃, N and/or measurement dates were observed. E-O₃ treatment relative to CF significantly reduced Γ_s by 39% (**Fig. 2d**). Γ_s was significantly reduced (by 85%) in August compared with that in July.

330 χ_s was significantly lower in E-O₃ than in CF (0.29 ± 0.29 and 0.48 ± 0.45 µg NH₃ 331 m⁻³), and also in N50 than N0 (0.34 ± 0.36 and 0.42 ± 0.41µg NH₃ m⁻³) (Fig. 3, Table 332 1). A significant interaction of O₃ and N was found (Table 1). χ_s was significantly lower 333 in August than in July (0.07 ± 0.05 and 0.70 ± 0.29 µg NH₃ m⁻³) (Fig. 3, Table 1).

334 3.4. Correlations between stomatal compensation point (χ_s) and photosynthetic 335 parameters

 χ_s was positively and significantly correlated with A_{sat} and g_s (Fig. 4a, b), whereas a negative and significant correlation between χ_s and Ci was observed (Fig. 4c). The correlation between χ_s and Chl was positive and significant in July, but was not significant in August (Fig. 4d).

- 340 4. Discussion
- 341 *4.1. Effect of N application*

The application rate of urea fertilizer in the present experiment (50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) 342 is approximately 2.3 and 3 times higher than the averages of N deposition over China 343 (16 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 2008-2012 period, Zhao et al., 2017) and in China's forests (22 kg 344 N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 1995-2010 period, Du et al., 2014), respectively. It is also approximately 345 1.7-5.0 times greater than reported values during recent years in the N deposition 346 hotspots of western Europe (20.0 to 28.1 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Vet et al., 2014), and North 347 America (10.0 to 20.0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Li et al., 2016). According to Liu et al. (2013), N 348 deposition increased by approximately 8 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ between the 1980s and the 2000s 349 in China. Also, total N deposition is expected to have a 5-10% increase in the year 2050 350 relative to 2005 (Kanakidou et al., 2016). In view of the above, the level of N addition 351 in this study is sufficient to assess the ecological effects of enhanced N deposition 352 expected in the future. However, it should be pointed out that application of N to the 353 soil is not able to fairly reflect the process of N deposition in the real-world, in which 354 natural deposited N would at least partially be captured by the canopy. As reported by 355 Du et al. (2014), for example, canopy captured dry deposition of total inorganic N in 356 China's forest was estimated at 6.9 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. 357

Apoplastic NH_4^+ concentration is one of the key factors in controlling χ_s , which is 358 associated with the status of leaf N and external N supply (e.g., N fertilization and 359 atmospheric deposition) (Herrmann et al., 2009; Massad et al., 2008). The apoplastic 360 NH4⁺ concentrations measured for the N0 and N50 treatments (but without E-O₃) were 361 0.10 ± 0.01 and 0.13 ± 0.01 mM, respectively (Fig. 2a). To our knowledge published 362 data on apoplastic NH4⁺ concentrations in leaves of poplar clone 546 is unavailable, 363 making a direct comparison with other studies impossible. However, our measured 364 365 value for N0 treatments were close to that reported for Fagus sylvatica growing in July and August (0.11 mM, Wang et al., 2011). Compared with agricultural crops, our 366 measured value for N0 treatments was higher than that reported for barley (0.04 mM, 367 Mattsson et al., 1998), and was close to the value of 0.10 measured for oilseed rape 368 (Massad et al., 2009) both growing on N0. The value for plants grown on N50 was 369 similar to that measured for oilseed rape (0.18 mM with 6 mM NO₃-, Schjoerring et al., 370 2002), and was lower than the value of 1.9 mM observed for barley grown on 5 mM 371

NH4⁺ (Mattsson et al., 1998). As expected, enhanced N input (N50) significantly increased the apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration (**Fig. 2, Table 1**), probably due to increased soil N availability. This result is similar to the findings of Massad et al. (2009) that the NH4⁺ concentrations in leaf apoplast of oilseed rape increased significantly with rising N treatments (aside from NO_3^- supply).

Besides apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration, the pH of the apoplast may be the most 377 important factor determining γ_s . There is evidence that NH₄⁺-fed plants have reduced 378 apoplastic pH compared to NO₃⁻fed plants, e.g., sunflower (Hoffmann et al., 1992), 379 soybean (Kosegarten and Englisch, 1994) and barley (Mattsson et al., 1998), probably 380 due to a root rather than shoot assimilation of N (Pearson et al., 1998). Application of 381 urea fertilizer in the present experiment probably enhanced soil NH4⁺ level via urea 382 hydrolysis, which further significantly increased apoplastic NH₄⁺ concentrations (Fig. 383 **2a**) via root assimilation and the subsequent transport of NH_4^+ to the foliar apoplast in 384 the xylem (Mattson et al., 1998). This behaviour, along with NH4⁺ uptake-induced 385 acidification may offer an explanation for lower apoplastic pH (ranging from 4.6 to 6.0, 386 387 Fig. 2c) of poplar 546 compared with those reported for most plant species (between 5.0 and 6.5, Grignon and Sentenac, 1991). However, it is still a little controversial how 388 the type on mineral N supply (NO₃⁻ versus NH₄⁺) affects apoplastic pH in leaves. 389 Nitrate type mineral N (NO₃⁻) has been shown to an alkalization while NH⁺⁴ induced 390 an acidification (Hoffmann et al., 1992; Mengel et al., 1994). Sattelmacher. (2001) 391 suggested that nitrate effectively leads to higher pH levels but only depending on its 392 concentration in the xylem sap. However, NH4⁺ nutrition didn't show any effect on leaf 393 apoplast pH at low concentrations. Finnemann and Schjoerring (1999) questioned this 394 result and show a relation between root N supply type and NH₄⁺ concentrations in the 395 xylem sap and in the leaf apoplast. They explain this result by high levels of 396 photorespiration (Kronzucker et al., 1998; Nielsen and Schjoerring, 1998). However 397 there is a clear effect on apoplastic pH due to foliar application of NH₄⁺ which leads to 398 lowed pH values (Peuke et al., 1998). On the other hand, fumigation with 399 NH₃ decreases H⁺ activity (Hanstein et al., 1999). 400

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Enhanced N input significantly increased both apoplastic NH_4^+ and H^+

concentration with a similar significant level (Figs. 2a,c and Table 1). Conversely, γ_s 402 was significantly reduced (by 19%) by N50 (Fig. 3). These results, together with the 403 relatively low calculated χ_s throughout, especially in August (Fig. 3), suggest that χ_s 404 appears to be pH-driven in this study. The apoplastic pH of Phaseolus vulgaris has been 405 found to become alkalinized during photosynthesis (Raven and Farquhar, 1989). 406 Similarly, we found that the N load marginally significantly (P=0.057) increased A_{sat} of 407 poplar 546 (Fig. 1a, Table 1), which significantly positively correlated with apoplastic 408 pH (Fig. 5a) but had no significant relationship with apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration 409 $(R^2=0.09, P=0.141)$. These results provide an explanation for a significant and positive 410 relationship observed between A_{sat} and χ_s (Fig. 4a). Although such an increase in 411 apoplastic pH occurred due to non-significant increased Asat by N load, it is insufficient 412 to offset NH₄⁺ uptake-induced apoplast acidification, leading to relatively low χ_s . 413

414 *4.2.* Effect of O₃ application

According to monitoring results for the 2014-2016 period in 187 Chinese cities, 415 the mean daily 8-h O₃ concentrations peak in summer reached up to 114.30 ± 23.78 ppb 416 417 (Li et al., 2017). Obviously, the O₃ level in E-O₃ was within the range of current O₃ levels in China and was also in the range of future expected concentrations in warm and 418 sunny areas of the world at the end of this century (The Royal Society 2008; IPCC 419 2013). The dose of O_3 (41.6 ppm h in AOT40) in E-O₃ by far exceeded the O_3 exposure 420 limit of 5 ppm h accumulated over the growing season for forest protection (CLRTAP, 421 2015) and 12 ppm h for poplar protection (Hu et al., 2015). As anticipated, O₃-induced 422 423 injuries to poplar 546 were detected in E-O₃ despite N fertilization (e.g., reduction of A_{sat} and Chl, Fig. 1a, d), thus confirming that poplar 546 is a very sensitive species to 424 425 O₃ (Shang et al., 2017).

E-O₃ significantly increased *C*i and decreased A_{sat} and Chl, respectively, but did not significantly affect g_s (Figs. 1 and Table 1). These results are consistent with the findings of Shang et al. (2017) for polar clone 546. Similarly, a previous study showed that O₃ can substantially reduce A_{sat} in most plants, and also detected an uncoupled relationships between A_{sat} and g_s (Zhang et al., 2012). This can be explained by the fact that the O₃-induced reduction in A_{sat} is largely ascribed to non-stomatal factors, i.e. impaired physiological activity of mesophyll cells (Akhtar et al., 2010; Feng et al., 2016). Although each investigated photosynthetic parameter was significantly influenced by O₃, interactions of O₃ and N were not significant (**Table 1**). This is similar to the findings of Harmens et al. (2017) that no any interactions between O₃ and N regarding photosynthetic parameters, chlorophyll content, g_s , N content in senesced leaves and leaf number for *Betula pendula* saplings.

438 We found that E-O₃ significantly reduced the calculated χ_s (Fig. 3). This is most likely related to a decline in apoplastic pH resulting from O₃-induced changes in 439 photosynthetic parameters, i.e., decreased A_{sat} and Chl, and increased Ci (Fig. 1a,c,d, 440 **Table 1**). This is because in addition to A_{sat} , both Chl and Ci correlated significantly 441 with χ_s and apoplastic pH (Figs. 4c,d and 5b,c). In addition, there was a large positive 442 response of ammonia emission (from young barely) to photosynthesis (Mattsson and 443 444 Schjoerring, 1996), mainly due to the fact that NH₃ assimilation by plants requires carbon skeletons generated from photosynthesized carbohydrates for the synthesis of 445 amino acids (Huppe and Turpin, 1994). In this regard, a significant reduction in A_{sat} can 446 also give rise to declines in apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration. Similar to N, ozone has a 447 greater impact on apoplastic pH than on apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration, as 448 demonstrated by the significant reduction of Γ_s by O₃ (Fig. 2d, Table 1); this therefore 449 450 led to a significant reduction in χ_s (Fig. 3, Table 1).

451 4.3. Combined effects of N and O₃ application

The present results showed that N and O₃ interacted significantly in χ_s (**Table 1**). Further analysis showed that χ_s in N0*E-O₃ (0.28 ± 0.30 µg NH₃ m⁻³) was 50% lower than that in N0*CF (0.56 ± 0.49 µg NH₃ m⁻³), suggesting a negative effect of E-O₃ on χ_s . This, together with a 28% decrease in χ_s when comparing χ_s in N50*E-O₃ (0.29 ± 0.31 µg NH₃ m⁻³) with that in N50*CF (0.40 ± 0.44 µg NH₃ m⁻³), also indicate that N application can mitigate the negative effects of O₃ on χ_s .

Our selected poplar 546 belongs to deciduous broadleaf species. To make a preliminary assessment of whether Chinese deciduous broadleaf forests (**Fig. 6a**) act as a source or a sink for atmospheric NH₃, we compared the calculated χ_s with mean atmospheric NH₃ concentration in July (**Fig. 6b**) and August (**Fig. 6c**) during 2008-

2012 period. The concentrations were modeled using the GEOS-Chem model and fitted 462 with the surface NH₃ measurements, see details in Zhao et al. (2017)). The results of 463 the comparison show that the modeled NH₃ concentrations over approximately 91% 464 and 100% of total land area exceeded the calculated χ_s for elevated N and O₃ treatment 465 in July (average 0.54 µg NH₃ m⁻³) and August (average 0.03 µg NH₃ m⁻³), respectively. 466 It should be noted that such percentages are considered to be approximate estimates, as 467 χ_s may vary among different forest species, and the current atmospheric NH₃ 468 concentration cannot represent future NH3 levels. Nevertheless, we may conclude that 469 under the current ambient NH₃ concentrations in China the canopy of deciduous 470 broadleaf forests is unlikely to be a major source of NH₃ emission during summertime. 471

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473 *4.4.Dependence on measurement date*

 χ_s can be influenced by plant developmental stage since leaf apoplastic NH4⁺ 474 concentration and pH varies among leaves of different ages (Hill et al., 2002). Mattsson 475 and Schjoerring (2003) reported that, for ryegrass (Lolium perenne), both apoplastic 476 and tissue NH4⁺ concentrations were 2-3 times higher in senescing or injured leaves 477 (with visual symptoms of senescence) compared with green leaves. The present study 478 shows that leaf apoplastic NH4⁺ concentrations significantly increased in August 479 compared with those in July, whereas a significant reduction was found for leaf tissue 480 NH4⁺ concentration (Fig. 2a, b). In addition, a negative relationship was observed 481 between NH₄⁺ concentrations in apoplast and in tissue (Fig. 5d). These results together 482 indicated that NH4⁺ is actively transported from the leaf tissue to the apoplast. This 483 explanation is supported by evidences from earlier studies showing that apoplastic fluid 484 in leaves constitutes a highly dynamic NH4⁺ pool, to which NH4⁺ is constantly supplied 485 via NH3 efflux from the mesophyll cells (Nielsen and Schjoerring, 1998; Schjoerring et 486 al. 2000). 487

Regarding apoplastic pH, the values measured in August were significantly reduced compared to July, and almost all were <5 (**Fig. 2c, Table 1**), for which an explanation is the combined effect of NH_4^+ uptake-induced acidification (see Sect. 4.1) and O₃-accelerated leaf senescence (Gao et al., 2017). As reported by Mattsson and 492 Schjoerring (2003), leaf aging from green leaves to yellow tips resulted in a pronounced 493 decrease of pH by more than 1 unit. Thus, a significantly lower A_{sat} in August resulting 494 from accelerated leaf senescence (**Fig. 1a, Table 1**) also contributed to lower apoplastic 495 pH due to the existence of apoplast alkalinizion during photosynthesis as mentioned 496 earlier.

 χ_s was significantly reduced in August compared with July (Fig. 3). This is likely 497 due to the greater impact of measurement date on apoplastic pH than on apoplastic 498 499 NH4⁺ concentration as indicated by their respective significant level (Table 1). The change in stomatal opening is an important control mechanism for the regulation of 500 influxes and outfluxes of NH3 into or out of the leaves because the conductance for 501 diffusion of NH₃ is affected (Schjoerring et al., 1998). We found that g_s significantly 502 decreased in August (Fig. 1b, Table 1). Also, a positive and significant relationship was 503 observed between g_s and χ_s (Fig. 4b); this is mainly caused by measurement date as 504 both E-O3 and N did not significantly affect gs. These results together suggested that a 505 significant reduction of g_s also contributed to a reduction in γ_s . 506

507 *4.5. Uncertainty and recommendations*

In the present study, χ_s is calculated based on direct measurements of leaf 508 apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration and pH by means of extraction of the apoplastic fluid 509 with successive vacuum infiltration/centrifugation technique (Husted and Schjørring., 510 1995). Although this technique has been successfully applied to several plant species in 511 the field (Herrmann et al., 2009; Mattsson et al., 2009), it is subject to uncertainties 512 regarding potential regulation of apoplastic NH4⁺ concentration and pH by the plant 513 during the infiltration and buffering effects (Massad et al., 2009). For example, Nielsen 514 and Schjørring (1998) showed that apoplastic NH₄⁺ concentration in *Brassica napus* L. 515 appeared to be regulated during infiltration. However, Hill et al. (2001) did not detect 516 such a homeostasis for apoplastic NH₄⁺ concentration in *Luzula sylvatica* (Huds.) Gaud. 517 Following the method of van Hove et al. (2002), F_{dil} , calculated based on determination 518 of V_{air} and V_{apo} (Equ. 2), was applied to correct apoplastic concentrations. V_{apo} values 519 obtained in the present work varied from 0.06 to 0.23. These values fit well into the 520 range found by other researchers for different plant species (Van Han et al., 2001, 2002). 521

522 The measured V_{air} (0.16 ml g⁻¹ LFW) was also comparable to values (0.21 mL g⁻¹ LFW) 523 reported for *Lolium perenne L*. (Van Han et al., 2002). These results indicate that the 524 value for F_{dil} determined in the present study was acceptable. However, due to a lack of 525 information regarding infiltration of poplar 546, use of F_{dil} might also result in some 526 uncertainties in apoplastic NH₄⁺ concentrations and pH, and probably in χ_s if there is a 527 potential difference in the buffering capacity between them.

The vacuum infiltration/centrifugation method is also subject to some uncertainty due to the strong possibility of cytoplasmic contamination of the apoplast during the extraction procedure (Lohaus et al., 2001). We estimated the error in this method by assaying the contamination of the apoplast by MDH activity. The cytoplasmic contamination in the present work was about 1.2%.

 χ_{s} obtained in the current study was calculated at the leaf scale and only for the 533 middle leaf position. However, γ_s may differ significantly depending on leaf position 534 (e.g., upper, middle and lower) due to difference in the N status of the leaves. Thus, the 535 resulting effects of enhanced N and O₃ on χ_s are not enough to represent the 536 537 characteristics of the entire-plant. Furthermore, the present experiment was designed based on OTC chambers. However, OTCs have effects of their own, such as differences 538 in microclimate (e.g., air temperature and humidity), fixed gas flow and limited space, 539 which could over-estimate or under-estimate the effects of O₃ on plants (Feng et al., 540 2010). Note that χ_s is shown to be influenced by air temperature, partly by affecting the 541 amount of NH3 dissolved in the apoplast, and partly by affecting the leaf tissue NH4⁺ 542 543 generation (or assimilation)-associated physiological processes (Schjoerring et al. 1998). To more accurately assess the effects of N, O₃ and/or plant growth stage on χ_s , 544 545 at least the two following developments are recommended in future work: 1) to employ open-air fumigations (O₃-FACE systems, Paoletti et al., 2016), and 2) to investigate 546 vertical profile of χ_s at plant scale 547

548 4.6. Conclusions and Implications

In summary, the current study is the first time to investigate the combined effects of O₃ exposure and use of urea as N load on χ_s of forest species (i.e., poplar clone 546).

551 Our results demonstrated that elevated O₃ significant reduced χ_s , in tandem with A_{sat} ,

552 Ci and Chl. Also, urea addition significantly reduced χ_s , and can mitigate the negative effects of O₃ on χ_s (Fig. 3, Table 1). Our findings filled knowledge gaps in the influence 553 of O₃ on χ_s , and provided valuable and additional information on effect of N addition 554 on χ_s , which is commonly expected to increase considerably with input of the different 555 types of inorganic N fertilizer applied (Massad et al., 2010). In addition, we 556 demonstrated a significant reduction of χ_s in the context of O₃-accelerated senescence, 557 in contrast to the common view that χ_s is affected by the plant's development stage 558 and may peak at senescence (Hill et al., 2002; Mattsson and Schjoerring, 2003). 559 Based on these findings, we propose that current parameterizations of χ_s in chemical 560 transport models should be optimized to partially respond to changes in environmental 561 562 conditions (e.g., elevated N and/or O₃). In addition, A_{sat}, g_s and Chl significantly and positively corrected with χ_s , whereas a significant and negative relationship was 563 564 observed between Ci and χ_s (Fig. 5). Understanding these physiological controls of χ_s is essential for modeling its dynamic behaviour. 565

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837	Figure captions				
838	Figure 1. Effects of ozone (CF, charcoal-filtered ambient air, and E-O ₃ , elevated O ₃)				
839	and Nitrogen (N0, no N added, and N50, 50 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) on light-saturated				
840	photosynthesis (A_{sat}), stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO ₂ concentration (Ci)				
841	and chlorophyll (Chl) contentof hybrid poplar clone '546' (Populusdeltoides cv. 55/56				
842	x P. deltoides cv. Imperial). Data shown are the mean \pm standard deviation of three-				
843	OTC measurements. The letters on top of the bars are based on the Tukey test across				
844	the two measurements, with different letters indicating significantly different from each				
845	other at <i>P</i> <0.05.				
846	Figure 2. Effects of ozone (CF, charcoal-filtered ambient air, and E-O ₃ , elevated O ₃)				
847	and Nitrogen (N0, no N added, and N50, 50 kg N ha $^{-1}$ yr $^{-1})$ on apoplastic $\rm NH_{4}^{+}$				
848	concentration, tissue $\rm NH_4^+$ concentration, apoplastic pH and emission potential ($\Gamma_s)$ of				
849	hybrid poplar clone '546' (Populus deltoides cv. 55/56 x P. deltoides cv. Imperial). Data				
850	shown are the mean \pm standard deviation of three-OTC measurements. The letters on				

top of the bars are based on the Tukey test across the two measurements, with different

- letters indicating significantly different from each other at P < 0.05.
- Figure 3. Effects of ozone (CF, charcoal-filtered ambient air, and E-O₃, elevated O₃)
- and Nitrogen (N0, no N added, and N50, 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) on the stomatal compensation point (χ_s)
- Figure 4. Correlation between the stomatal compensation point (γ_s) and light-saturated 856 photosynthesis (A_{sat}), stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO₂ concentration (Ci) 857 and chlorophyll (Chl) content across all ozone and nitrogen treatments. Green and red 858 dots represent charcoal-filtered ambient air (CF)*N0 (no N added), CF*N50 (50 kg N 859 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), elevated O₃ (E-O₃)*N0 and E-O₃*N50 treatment in July and August, 860 respectively. While ANCOVA did not show significant differences in the slope of the 861 regression lines for the relationships between the two measurement dates (i.e., July and 862 August), one single line is shown; otherwise, two lines are shown. 863
- Figure 5. Correlations between apoplastic pH and light-saturated photosynthesis (Asat), 864 chlorophyll (Chl) content, and intercellular CO₂ concentration (Ci), and correlation 865 between apoplastic NH₄⁺ concentration and leaf tissue NH₄⁺ concentration across all 866 867 ozone and nitrogen treatments. Green and red dots represent charcoal-filtered ambient air (CF)*N0 (no N added), CF*N50 (50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), elevated O₃ (E-O₃)*N0 and E-868 O3*N50 treatment in July and August, respectively. While ANCOVA did not show 869 significant differences in the slope of the regression lines for the relationships between 870 the two measurement dates (i.e., July and August), one single line is shown; otherwise, 871 two lines are shown. 872
- Figure 6. Actual forest distribution in China (a) (adopting from Li et al. (2017)) and
 atmospheric NH₃ concentration over deciduous broadleaf forests in July (b) and August
 (c) modeled using the GEOS-Chem model.
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- 897 Figure 1



899 Figure 2







907 Figure 4







913 Figure 6



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Table 1. ANOVA results (*P* values) for the individual effects of interactions of O₃ (CF and E-O₃), N (N0 and N50), and sampling data (July and August) on light-saturated rate of CO₂ assimilation (A_{sat}), stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO₂ concentration (Ci), chlorophyll content (Chl), apoplastic pH, apoplastic NH₄⁺, leaf tissue NH₄⁺, potential emission (r_s), and stomatal compensation point (χ_s).

	O 3	Ν	Date (D) O3*N	O3*D	N*D	O3*N*D
$A_{ m sat}$	<0.001	0.057	0.001	0.977	0.553	0.042	0.063
$g_{ m s}$	0.610	0.579	0.003	0.285	0.048	0.843	0.564
Ci	0.007	0.257	<0.001	0.192	0.002	0.404	0.295
Chl	0.006	0.612	0.001	0.727	0.527	0.375	0.658
Apoplast pH	0.015	0.018	<0.001	0.118	0.240	0.657	0.391
Apoplast NH4 ⁺	0.039	0.017	0.004	0.996	0.431	0.172	0.698
Leaf tissue NH4 ⁺	0.041	0.965	0.003	0.265	0.219	0.097	0.210
Γs	0.026	0.067	<0.001	0.062	0.318	0.777	0.369
χs	0.019	0.034	<0.001	0.032	0.203	0.322	0.337

920 CF: charcoal-filtered ambient air; E-O₃: elevated O₃; N0: no N added; N50: 50 kg N

921 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; Statistically significant effects (P < 0.05) are marked in bold.