

Aphid individual performance may not predict population responses to elevated CO₂ or O₃

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Abstract

Changes in atmospheric composition affect plant quality and herbivore performance. We used the Aspen Free Air CO₂ Enrichment (FACE) facility to investigate the impacts of elevated carbon dioxide (CO₂) and ozone (O₃) on the performance of the aphid *Cepegillettea betulaefoliae* Granovsky feeding on paper birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh.). In Year 1, we simultaneously measured individual performance and population growth rates, and in Year 2 we surveyed natural aphid, predator and parasitoid populations throughout the growing season. Aphid growth and development (relative growth rate (RGR), development time, adult weight, embryo number and the birth weight of newborn nymphs) were unaffected by CO₂ and O₃. Aphid fecundity decreased on trees grown at elevated CO₂, O₃ and CO₂ + O₃. Neither nymphal performance nor adult size were reliable indicators of future fecundity at elevated CO₂ and/or O₃. Aphid populations protected from natural enemies were unaffected by elevated CO₂, but increased significantly at elevated O₃. Individual fecundity in elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres did not predict population growth rates, probably because of changes in the strength of intraspecific competition or the ability of the aphids to induce nutrient sinks. Natural aphid, predator and parasitoids populations (Year 2) showed few significant responses to CO₂ and O₃, although CO₂ and O₃ did affect the timing of aphid and natural enemy peak abundance. Elevated CO₂ and O₃ affected aphid and natural enemy populations independently: no CO₂ × O₃ interactions were observed. We conclude that: (1) aphid individual performance did not predict population responses to CO₂ and O₃ and (2) elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres are unlikely to affect *C. betulaefoliae* populations in the presence of natural enemy communities.

Keywords: carbon dioxide, forests, global change, natural enemies, ozone, pests

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Introduction

The increases in atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) and ozone (O₃) concentrations predicted to occur in the next 50–100 years (IPCC, 2001) are likely to affect the nutritional ecology of herbivorous insects (Brown, 1995; Bezemer & Jones, 1998). Since CO₂ and O₃ have strong and opposing effects on plant productivity (Makino & Mae, 1999; Krupa *et al.*, 2001) and may alter both the nutritional and defensive composition of plant tissues (reviewed in Kangasjärvi *et al.*, 1994; Lindroth, 1996), both gases may change the availability and quality of resources for herbivorous insects. Elevated

CO₂ atmospheres reduce plant quality for most insect herbivores (reviewed in Bezemer & Jones, 1998; Coviella & Trumble, 1999), while elevated O₃ has more complex effects (reviewed in Brown, 1995). The few studies that have investigated the interactive effects of CO₂ and O₃ found no evidence that CO₂ modifies the effects of O₃ on herbivore performance (Heagle, *et al.*, 1994; Herms *et al.*, 1995; Kopper *et al.*, 2001; Kopper & Lindroth, 2002), despite mounting evidence that CO₂ reduces the negative impacts of O₃ on plant productivity (Dickson *et al.*, 1998; Donnelly *et al.*, 2000).

Most investigations of herbivore responses to future global environmental change use short-term measures of growth and developmental rates or correlates of fecundity such as pupal or adult mass (Bezemer & Jones, 1998) and assume that small adults will produce

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fewer offspring than large adults. However, changes in plant quality may affect size \times fecundity relationships by altering the allocation of resources between somatic and reproductive tissues (reviewed in Leather, 1988; Awmack & Leather, 2002). In many insect orders, changes in plant quality may affect the relationship between female size and the number of offspring produced (e.g., Homoptera (Wojciechowicz-Zytka & van Emden, 1995), Orthoptera (Joern & Behmer, 1998), Lepidoptera (Parry *et al.*, 2001), Coleoptera (Berrigan, 1991) and Hymenoptera (Berrigan, 1991)). Because both CO₂ and O₃ affect plant quality, it may not be possible to make reliable predictions about the future fecundity of herbivorous insects without directly measuring the number of offspring produced. Similarly, recent studies (Bezemer *et al.*, 1999; Percy *et al.*, 2002) suggest that the performance of individual herbivores may not predict population responses to elevated CO₂ or O₃.

Aphids are a very useful model system for comparisons between individual and population responses to global change, since their biology is well understood (Dixon, 1998) and they develop rapidly and may have several generations in a single growing season. Several recent studies have investigated the independent effects of both CO₂ (Salt *et al.*, 1996; Docherty *et al.*, 1997; Bezemer *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Diaz *et al.*, 1998; Awmack & Harrington, 2000; Hughes & Bazzaz, 2001) and O₃ (Whittaker *et al.*, 1989; Salt & Whittaker, 1995) on aphid populations. We are not aware of any investigations linking the interacting effects of CO₂ and O₃ on the performance of individual herbivores to the performance of aphid populations.

Changes in the performance of individual insects may not predict population responses if other factors limiting population growth rates are also affected by changes in plant quality at elevated CO₂ and/or O₃. Changes in the strength of intraspecific competition may affect aphid population growth rates at elevated CO₂ (Bezemer *et al.*, 1999; Awmack & Harrington, 2000). Natural enemy performance may also decrease (Roth & Lindroth, 1995), increase (Stiling *et al.*, 1999) or may be unaffected (Bezemer *et al.*, 1998; Stacey & Fellowes, 2002). We are not aware of any studies investigating the impacts of O₃ on competition, but two studies (Gate *et al.*, 1995; Dahlsten *et al.*, 1997) found negative effects of O₃ on natural enemy performance, and Holton (2001) showed that parasitoid performance in CO₂ + O₃-enhanced atmospheres depended on host plant genotype.

Reliable predictions of the impacts of future global change on insect populations therefore require that we (1) understand changes in individual performance (2) can scale up individual performance to predict population responses, (3) understand the impacts of CO₂ and

O₃ on top-down regulation by natural enemies and (4) understand the consequences of interactions between the effects of CO₂ and O₃ on herbivore and natural enemy populations. No study has yet combined investigations of the impacts of CO₂ or O₃ on individual insects with studies of insect populations, and related the results to surveys of natural populations exposed to natural enemies. The development of Free Air CO₂ Enrichment (FACE) facilities (Hendrey *et al.*, 1993) has allowed natural invertebrate communities to be exposed to elevated CO₂ (and in some cases, O₃) atmospheres. However, although FACE facilities have been extensively used to investigate changes in plant communities (e.g. Garcia *et al.*, 1998; Norby & Cotrufo, 1998; Reich *et al.*, 2001), only one study has investigated the impacts on higher trophic levels (Hansen *et al.*, 2001). In this paper, we describe a set of experiments conducted at the Aspen FACE site in Wisconsin, USA (Dickson *et al.*, 2000) to investigate the independent and interacting effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on the performance of the aphid *Ceppegilletta betulaefoliae* Granovsky reared on paper birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh.). At the individual scale (Study 1), we investigated the effects of CO₂ and O₃ on aphid growth and developmental rates, adult weight, embryo number and the cumulative fecundity of adult aphids. We compared these data with a simultaneous investigation of the effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on aphid populations, using aphids protected from natural enemies with mesh sleeves (Study 2), and, the following year, with a survey of natural aphid, predator and parasitoid populations (Study 3).

Materials and methods

Site description

The Aspen FACE site, situated in Harshaw, Wisconsin (45.6° lat., 89.5° long., Dickson *et al.*, 2000) consists of twelve 30 m diameter FACE rings arranged in a fully replicated and blocked factorial design, with two levels of CO₂ and two levels of O₃. Three rings receive ambient air ('Control' i.e. ambient CO₂ and O₃), three rings receive elevated CO₂ ('CO₂' = 570 ppm CO₂, equivalent to ambient + 200 ppm), three rings receive an average of 50–60 ppb O₃ (approximately 1.5 times the background ambient levels of 30–40 ppb O₃) and the final three rings receive 570 ppm CO₂ and 50–60 ppb O₃. CO₂ and O₃ are released during daylight hours. O₃ is not released during fog or rain events, since natural O₃ production normally occurs as a result of photochemical reactions in the troposphere. O₃ fumigation follows a dynamic profile, established from a moderately polluted city (Leelenaw, Michigan, USA) and

varies according to the prevailing climatic conditions (Dickson *et al.*, 2000). Each FACE ring was planted with trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx.), sugar maple (*Acer saccharum* Marsh.) and paper birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh.) in 1997. CO₂ and O₃ exposure commenced in 1998. These experiments were carried out during the 1999 and 2000 growing seasons when the trees were between two and four metres tall. All the studies described below used the same seven trees in each FACE ring to estimate the variation in aphid performance within each ring, although 'ring' was used as the replicate in all statistical analyses.

Insect rearing

All three studies used aphids from trees in the FACE rings (i.e. aphids that had developed at ambient or elevated CO₂ and/or O₃). No aphids were moved between FACE rings. The first two studies used aphids from cultures (initiated using wingless fourth instar aphids that had developed in each FACE ring) maintained on a newly expanded birch shoot in each ring and protected from natural enemies with mesh sleeves (45 cm length × 45 cm width). Since the development of aphid embryos begins in the ovarioles of their grandmothers (Dixon, 1998), these two studies used the grand-daughters of these initial aphids, ensuring that the aphids used had spent their entire development in the appropriate CO₂ and/or O₃ treatment. The third study surveyed natural aphid infestations throughout the growing season and did not use aphids from cultures.

Study 1. Measurement of individual performance

In each ring, seven groups of five 24 h old 1st instar nymphs (84 in total, the progeny of wingless adult aphids from the cultures described above) were used to investigate the impacts of elevated CO₂ and/or O₃ on aphid performance. The average birth weight of each group of five aphids was measured to the nearest microgram using a Mettler Toledo MT5 microbalance (Mettler, Columbus, Ohio, USA). Each group of aphids was then confined to the underside of the youngest fully expanded leaf on the youngest south-facing branch of each of seven trees, mimicking the location of natural aphid populations (C. S. Awmack, unpublished results). Aphids were attached to the leaves using light foam-based clip cages (Awmack, 1997) modified from MacGillivray & Anderson (1957), which allowed maximum air circulation and caused minimal damage to the leaf surface (no marks were visible when the cage was removed from the leaf). These groups of aphids remained on the same branch throughout the experiment and were

moved to new leaves as they became available, as birch exhibits indeterminate growth and natural aphid populations move to new leaves throughout the growing season (C. S. Awmack, personal observation). The aphids were observed daily until the final adult moult, when they were re-weighed to calculate the relative growth rate (Radford, 1967) (an estimate of the aphids' ability to convert phloem sap to biomass) using the formula $RGR = [\ln(W2) - \ln(W1)] / D$, where $W1$ = birth weight, $W2$ = final weight (both in micrograms) and D = development time (the number of days from birth to the final adult moult).

One randomly selected adult from each clip cage was then dissected and the number of mature embryos (those with red eye pigments) was counted under a dissecting microscope at × 5 magnification to determine potential fecundity (Traicevski & Ward, 2002). A second randomly selected individual from each group was returned to each tree (again, to a new leaf on the same shoot) and was used to determine total fecundity (the total number of nymphs produced by the adult). All nymphs produced by this adult were counted and removed every 24 h to prevent any negative effects of crowding on fecundity. The clip cages were moved to the next new leaf on the branch every 4–5 days. The average birth weight of each nymph was calculated by removing and weighing all the nymphs produced during the second 24 h of reproduction.

Study 2: Aphid population responses to elevated CO₂ and O₃

The investigation of aphid population growth rates (Study 2) commenced two days after Study 1, and used the same seven trees in each FACE ring. Groups of five 24 h old aphids were added to the three youngest leaves and the terminal bud of the branch nearest the branch used in Study 1. Each shoot was thoroughly searched before the aphids were added, and all aphids, predators, parasitoids, eggs, etc. were removed. The aphid populations were protected from natural enemies using fine mesh sleeves (approximately 45 cm length × 45 cm width). After 28 days (approximately twice the development time of *C. betulaefoliae*, and coincident with the final measurements of individual aphid performance in Study 1), all aphids were removed from the sleeves and counted.

Study 3: Responses of aphid communities to elevated CO₂ and O₃

Study 3 consisted of a survey of the naturally occurring aphid populations, and investigated the effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on aphids exposed to the

predators and parasitoids inhabiting the FACE rings. A preliminary study (carried out in 1999) using trees that were not used for the measurement of individual performance showed that aphids and natural enemies were found only on the terminal shoots of the upper branches (C. S. Awmack, 1999 unpublished results). As only 7 birch trees in each FACE ring were available for entomological studies, surveys of natural populations were postponed until the following year (2000). This survey, conducted 13 times throughout the growing season, used one upper branch on each tree. The number of aphids and natural enemies (predominantly predators such as lacewings and ladybird beetles and parasitic Hymenoptera) on the terminal five short shoots on each branch were noted every 7–10 days from mid-June (when the first aphids were observed) until leaf fall at the end of September. The natural enemy data consisted of sightings of adult insects (particularly lacewings and ladybirds) and counts of egg masses produced by predators (particularly ladybirds, stinkbugs and lacewings). These egg masses were counted as '1' regardless of the number of eggs, because they represented a single visit by a predator. Parasitized aphid 'mummies' were included in the natural enemy counts and not the aphid counts. Eggs that had hatched and parasitized aphids from which the adult parasitoid had emerged were ignored on subsequent sampling dates.

Data analysis

As FACE studies generally have low numbers of true replicates (e.g. $N = 3$ for each fumigation treatment at Aspen FACE), some authors have argued that data should be presented as significant if $P < 0.1$ (Filion *et al.*, 2000) to avoid Type II errors. In this paper, we will use the traditional value of alpha ($P < 0.05$) to determine significance, but we present exact P values throughout the text, and describe P values between 0.05 and 0.1 as marginally significant.

All data were analysed using analyses of variance in Procedure 'Mixed' in SAS (Littell *et al.*, 1996). Because Aspen FACE incorporates a 2×2 factorial experiment (2 levels each of CO₂ and O₃), the statistical model used CO₂ and O₃ as fixed treatment effects, with the three blocks and tree(block) as random effects.

The effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on the performance of individual aphids were analyzed using separate ANOVAs for each fitness parameter. The effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on aphid populations protected from natural enemies (Study 2), and on the abundance of natural aphid populations (Study 3) were analysed after the data had been $\log_{10}(N + 1)$ transformed to normalize variance. Because natural enemy

abundance was generally low, all natural enemies were grouped into a single category ('Natural enemies') rather than being analysed separately as 'predators', 'parasitoids', etc. The data from Study 2 were analysed using the model described above, while the data from Study 3 used a repeated measures ANOVA, with time (year) as the repeated measures term. The latter model also used a spatial (power) term, which fits a time-series covariance structure in which the correlations decline as a function of time, and takes into account the fact that the time intervals between sampling dates are not necessarily equal. This term also corrects for any autocorrelation among sampling dates (Littell *et al.*, 1996).

Results

Study 1. Measurement of individual performance

Elevated CO₂ and O₃ did not significantly affect the growth and developmental rates of individual *C. betulaefoliae* (Table 1, Fig. 1). The RGR of aphids reared at elevated CO₂ and/or O₃ did not differ from the control aphids (Fig. 1a), while aphid development times showed a small (and only marginally significant) increase at elevated CO₂, but not at elevated O₃ (Fig. 1b). Elevated CO₂ and O₃ did not affect the reproductive fitness of individual aphids as neither adult weight nor potential fecundity (embryo number) were significantly affected (Fig. 1c and d). CO₂ and O₃ had no effect on the allocation of resources to the next-generation nymphs, since the birth weight of the nymphs produced by these adults (G2 weight) was unaffected (mean birth weight (μg), \pm SE): control (109 ± 17), CO₂ (95 ± 19), O₃ (119 ± 14) and CO₂ + O₃ (129 ± 23).

The fecundity (Fig. 2) of the individual aphids did not reflect either their adult weight or the number of embryos in their reproductive tract (Fig. 1c and d), since elevated CO₂ and O₃ had strong negative effects on the cumulative fecundity of *C. betulaefoliae*. The decrease in reproductive rates became more apparent towards the end of the adult's reproductive life, suggesting that females were unable to maintain embryo maturation throughout their lifetime. The fecundity of similarly sized aphids therefore differed according to the CO₂ or O₃ treatment that they experienced during their development.

Study 2: Aphid population responses to elevated CO₂ and O₃

Aphid populations protected from natural enemies using mesh sleeves did not show the same responses to CO₂ and O₃ as did individual aphids (Fig. 3).

Table 1 Results of analysis of variance (*F* and *P* values) of the impacts of elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres on performance of the aphid *Cepegilletta betulaefoliae*

Treatment	RGR		Adult weight		Development time		Embryo number		G2 weight	
	<i>F</i> _{1,4}	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i> _{1,4}	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i> _{1,6}	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i> _{1,4}	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i> _{1,4}	<i>P</i>
CO ₂	0.52	0.512	0.30	0.612	4.24	0.085	0.10	0.769	0.01	0.935
O ₃	0.39	0.624	0.03	0.877	0.10	0.760	0.37	0.576	1.40	0.301
CO ₂ × O ₃	0.67	0.462	0.10	0.773	0.04	0.851	0.01	0.939	0.41	0.556

See Materials and methods for a detailed description of the model used in the analysis and Fig. 1 for a graphical representation of the data.

MRGR, mean relative growth rate; RGR, relative growth rate; G2 weight, average birth weight of nymphs produced by the adults.

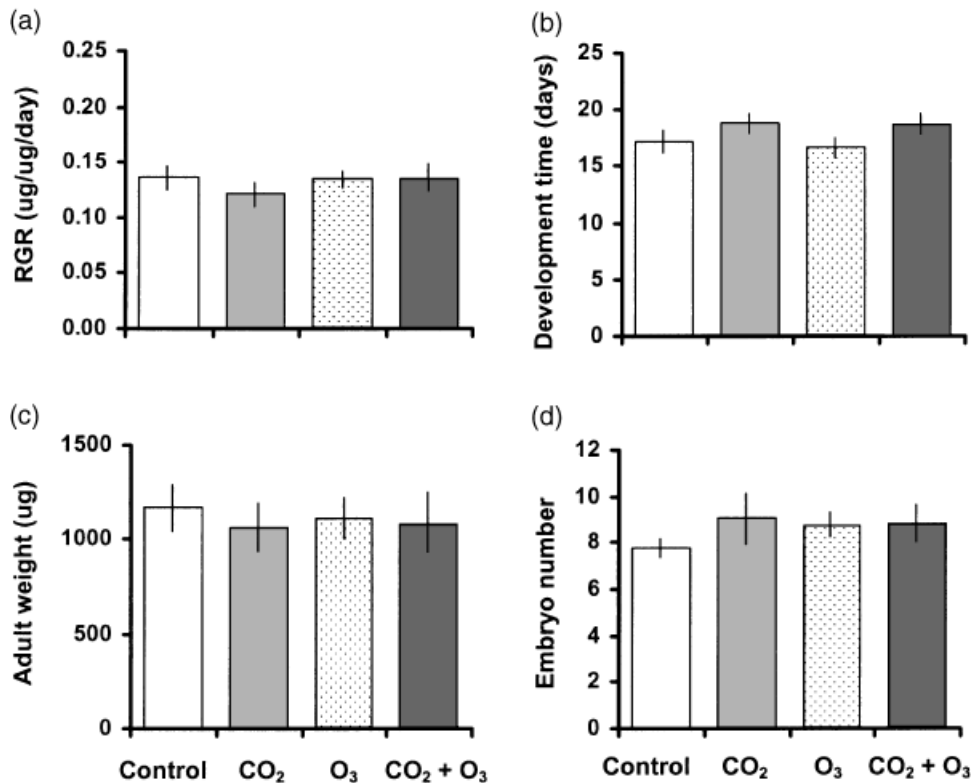


Fig. 1 Performance of individual *Cepegilletta betulaefoliae* reared on *Betula papyrifera* at the Aspen FACE site. Control = ambient CO₂, ambient O₃, CO₂ = elevated (570 ppm) CO₂, ambient O₃, O₃ = elevated (1.5 × ambient) O₃, ambient CO₂, CO₂ + O₃ = elevated CO₂, elevated O₃. (a) relative growth rate, (b) development time, (c) adult weight and (d) embryo number (potential fecundity). All data are shown ± 1 SEM and are the means of data from three replicate FACE rings.

Population responses did not reflect individual growth and developmental parameters (Fig. 1) or individual fecundity (Fig. 2). Aphid populations were marginally significantly smaller at elevated CO₂ ($F_{1,6} = 4.66$, $P = 0.074$), but increased at elevated O₃ ($F_{1,6} = 11.86$, $P = 0.014$). Elevated CO₂ did not modify the impacts of elevated O₃ on aphid populations (i.e. no significant CO₂ × O₃ interaction: $F_{1,6} = 0.81$, $P = 0.403$).

Study 3: Aphid community responses to elevated CO₂ and O₃

The effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on communities of aphids and their natural enemies were more complex when populations were followed throughout the growing season the following year (Fig. 4). Aphid and natural enemy abundance both varied throughout the

growing season (significant time (year) interaction: aphids, $F_{12,960} = 40.97$, $P < 0.0001$, natural enemies, $F_{12,960} = 3.50$, $P < 0.0001$). Aphid abundance was sig-

nificantly affected by elevated CO₂ on some sampling dates towards the end of the growing season (significant CO₂ × date interaction, $F_{12,960} = 1.88$, $P = 0.033$). Elevated O₃ alone did not modify aphid abundance (O₃ main effect: $F_{1,6} = 1.50$, $P = 0.267$) but on some sampling

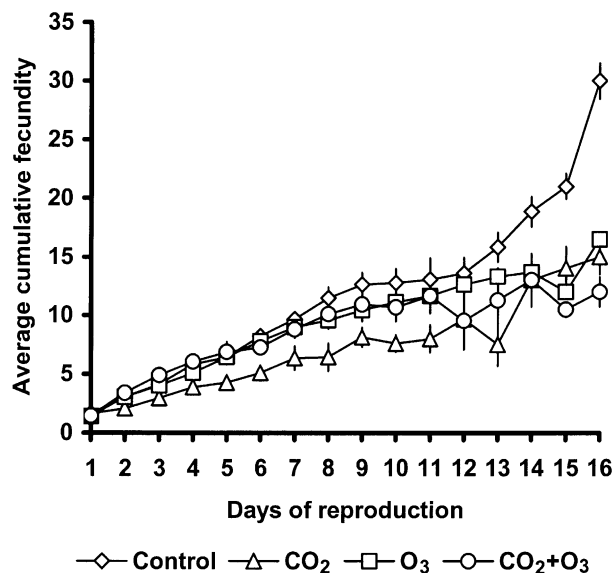


Fig. 2 Average cumulative fecundity of *Cepgilletta betulaefoliae* reared on *Betula papyrifera* at the Aspen FACE site. Control = ambient CO₂, ambient O₃, CO₂ = elevated (570 ppm) CO₂, ambient O₃, O₃ = elevated (1.5 × ambient) O₃, ambient CO₂, CO₂ + O₃ = elevated CO₂, elevated O₃. All data are shown ± 1 SEM and are the means of three replicate FACE rings. Average fecundity declined at elevated CO₂ on day 13 because a female with a particularly high reproductive rate died, reducing the average for the entire replicate.

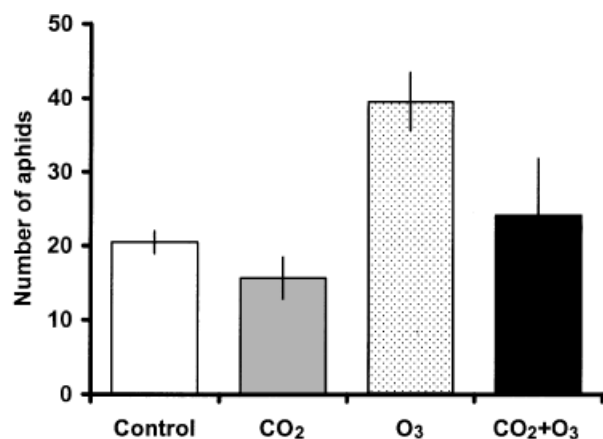
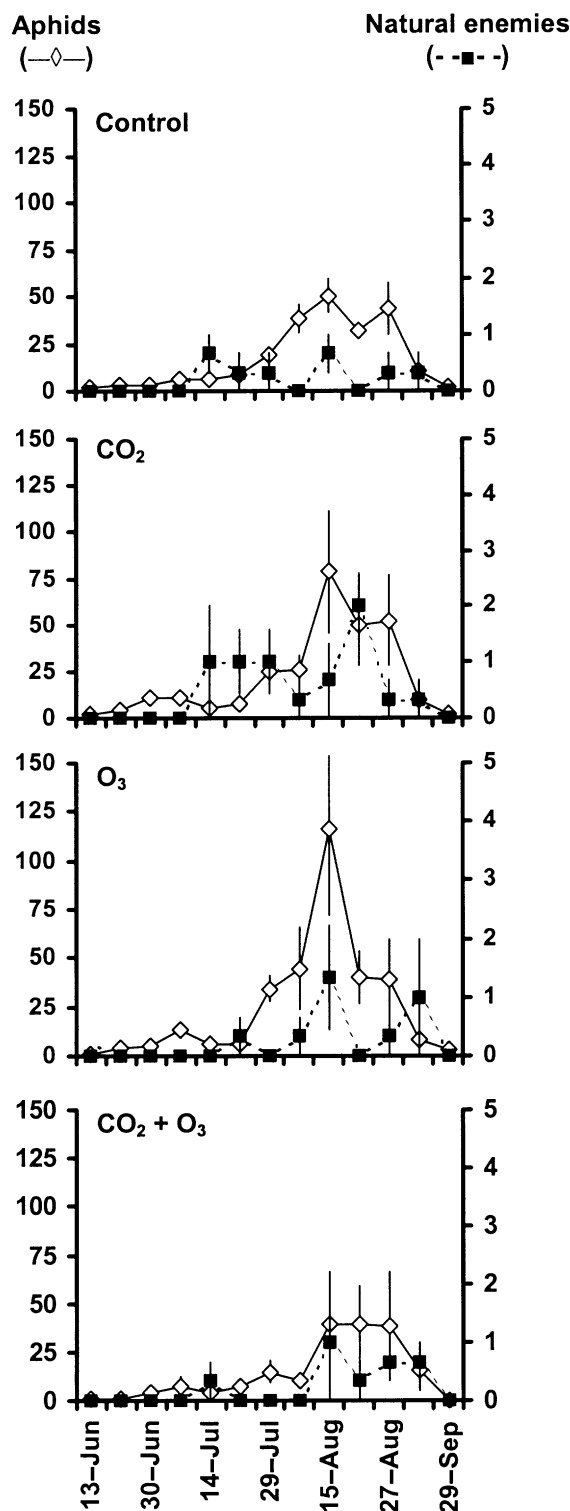


Fig. 3 Final populations of *Cepgilletta betulaefoliae* reared for 28 days on *Betula papyrifera* at the Aspen FACE site. All replicates initially contained five 1st instar aphids, protected from natural enemies with mesh bags. Control = ambient CO₂, ambient O₃, CO₂ = elevated (570 ppm) CO₂, ambient O₃, O₃ = elevated (1.5 × ambient) O₃, ambient CO₂, CO₂ + O₃ = elevated CO₂, elevated O₃. All data are shown ± 1 SEM and are the means of three replicate FACE rings.



dates, elevated O₃ modified the effects of elevated CO₂ on aphid abundance (significant CO₂ × O₃ × date interaction $F_{12,960} = 2.13$, $P = 0.013$). Natural enemy abundance increased under elevated CO₂, but only on one sampling date towards the end of the growing season ($F_{1,6} = 6.91$, $P = 0.039$). Natural enemy abundance was unaffected by elevated O₃ ($F_{1,6} = 1.51$, $P = 0.265$).

Discussion

These data represent the first investigation of the long-term effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres on natural insect herbivore populations. The aphids used in this study were exposed to the most 'realistic' simulation of future elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres currently possible. At the individual scale, elevated CO₂ and O₃ did not significantly affect growth rates, potential fecundity (embryo number) or offspring quality (Fig. 1, Table 1), but the cumulative fecundity of aphids was lower than that of aphids reared on the control trees (Fig. 2). The population-scale study (Study 2) showed that elevated CO₂ did not significantly affect aphid populations, while elevated O₃ had a strong positive effect. The surveys of aphid and natural enemy communities (Study 3) revealed complex time-dependent interactions with elevated CO₂ and no effects of elevated O₃. The data suggest firstly, that CO₂ and O₃ had few interacting effects on *C. betulaefoliae*, and secondly, that measures of individual fecundity did not predict population responses, and population responses did not predict community responses.

Previous studies show that the responses of other aphid species to elevated CO₂ or O₃ are also complex. Tree-feeding aphids show few significant responses to elevated CO₂ (Docherty *et al.*, 1997), while crop-feeding species may respond positively (Awmack *et al.*, 1997; Bezemer *et al.*, 1998; Hughes and Bazzaz 2001; Zhang *et al.*, 2001; Stacey & Fellowes, 2002), negatively (Newman *et al.*, 1999) or not at all (Hughes & Bazzaz, 2001), and the same species may show different responses on different host plant species (Awmack *et al.*, 1997; Bezemer *et al.*, 1999). Aphid responses to O₃ also depend on the aphid and host plant species (Brown,

1995; Holopainen *et al.*, 1995), plant phenology (Holopainen & Kössi, 1998), soil nutrient availability (Kainulainen *et al.*, 2000) and the duration of exposure (Brown *et al.*, 1992). *Cepigillettea betulaefoliae* performance on paper birch therefore does not confirm any general trends, since aphids, like many other species (Lawton, 2000), show idiosyncratic responses to elevated CO₂ and O₃.

The poor correlation between individual and population growth rates is intriguing. The growth, development, adult weight and potential fecundity of individual aphids was unaffected by elevated CO₂ or O₃ (Fig. 1). Size was not, therefore, a reliable predictor of future fecundity. As the newly moulted adults contained similar numbers of mature embryos (Fig. 1f), changes in resource allocation within the developing aphid (perhaps associated with nutrient stress (e.g. Brough & Dixon, 1990) do not explain these results. Aphids reared at elevated CO₂ and/or O₃ may either have been unable to maintain embryo maturation once their initial complement of mature embryos were born, or have resorbed the youngest undifferentiated embryos in response to low host plant quality (e.g. Ward & Dixon, 1982; Sequeira & Dixon, 1996). The decline in *C. betulaefoliae* reproductive output at elevated CO₂ and O₃ may therefore be related to either an inability to maintain embryo maturation or to the resorption of embryos to maintain adult survival. If these data reflect a more general trend (*i.e.* that adult weight and/or embryo number do not reflect future fecundity), studies that have used adult weight as a correlate of fecundity to predict the responses of other herbivore species to elevated CO₂ and O₃ atmospheres (reviewed in Brown, 1995; Bezemer & Jones, 1998) may be misleading.

Previous studies of the nutritional quality of the birch trees used in this study show that the trees grown at elevated CO₂, O₃ and CO₂ + O₃ had reduced tissue nitrogen concentrations compared with the control trees (Kopper *et al.*, 2001). In this study, individual fecundity was therefore correlated with tissue nitrogen concentrations, although aphid population responses to CO₂ and O₃ (Fig. 3) were not. The reduced nutritional quality of these trees therefore did not explain the difference between the individual- and population-scale responses of *C. betulaefoliae* to elevated CO₂ and O₃. Because all the aphids used had been reared in the appropriate environment for at least three generations prior to the study, maternal effects from ambient-CO₂ and -O₃ environments can probably be ruled out. Docherty *et al.* (1997) also found that aphid performance at elevated CO₂ did not correlate with leaf amino acid concentrations, although Kainulainen *et al.* (2000) found a positive correlation between aphid performance and amino acid availability at elevated O₃.

Fig. 4 Populations of aphids and natural enemies on *Betula papyrifera* at the Aspen FACE site ($N = 1$ tree per ring). The natural enemies were predominantly predators and parasitoids. Control = ambient CO₂, ambient O₃, CO₂ = elevated (570 ppm) CO₂, ambient O₃, O₃ = elevated (1.5 × ambient) O₃, ambient CO₂, CO₂ + O₃ = elevated CO₂, elevated O₃. All data are shown ± 1 SEM and are the means of three replicate FACE rings. Since natural enemy abundance was low, all data were pooled prior to analysis.

Some aphid species perform better when they are reared in large aggregations (Eichorn, 1968; Way & Cammell, 1970; Dixon & Wratten, 1971) since they can induce nutrient sinks more effectively than aphids reared individually. Studies investigating the induction of sinks in free-living aphids (e.g. Way & Cammell, 1970) suggest that the benefits of aggregation only occur during the early stages of aphid population growth: after this, intraspecific competition due to crowding may reduce population growth rates. We suggest that short-term changes in either the ability of the aphids to induce nutrient sinks or the strength of intraspecific competition explain the differences between individual and population performance in this study. The surveys of natural populations (Study 3) may not have detected these responses because of competition with other herbivores (which were excluded in Studies 1 & 2), changes in natural enemy performance (rather than abundance) or differences in weather conditions between the two sampling years.

The low natural enemy densities observed in this system (Fig. 4) suggest that the strength of top-down regulation during this study was weak, relative to the impacts of CO₂ and O₃ on plant quality. Since *C. betulaefoliae* does not have an alternative host in the vicinity of the FACE site and more than 99% of the aphids encountered in the population surveys were wingless (C. S. Awmack, personal observation), the aphid populations in this study are unlikely to have been affected by immigration or emigration. The natural enemies, however, are more mobile and exploit aphid populations on the other plant species in the FACE rings (C. S. Awmack, personal observation). In contrast to the data presented here, similar natural enemy populations on the aspen trees inter-planted with the birch trees used in this study exhibited strong positive responses to elevated CO₂ and negative responses to elevated O₃ (Percy *et al.*, 2002). The effects of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on the population dynamics of aphids and their natural enemies may therefore be influenced by both the aphid and plant species, even among species in the same ecosystem. Further studies are planned to investigate the abundance of insect herbivores and their natural enemies on a wider range of host plants within the FACE rings, and to investigate changes in the performance (rather than abundance) of the natural enemies in this system.

We conclude that the performance of *C. betulaefoliae* at elevated CO₂ and O₃ depended on whether the aphids were reared as individuals or in populations and hence that individual-based studies may not be reliable indicators of population responses to CO₂ or O₃. Scaling up data collected using individuals to predict the population responses of other herbivorous insects to

CO₂ and O₃ may be problematic, as growth and developmental rates did not predict fecundity, and fecundity did not predict population growth. We found little evidence that elevated CO₂ modifies the impacts of elevated O₃ on aphid performance, despite the evidence that elevated CO₂ atmospheres reduce the damaging effects of O₃ on tree productivity at this site (Dickson *et al.*, 1998). The responses of this aphid species to CO₂ and O₃ appear to be driven by changes in plant quality and the strength of intraspecific competition, and not by changes in the strength of top-down regulation, since natural enemy abundance showed few responses to CO₂ or O₃. Other herbivores, particularly those exploiting fast-growing host plants such as agricultural crops, may differ in their responses to CO₂ and O₃: a wider range of species needs to be investigated before generalizations can be made about the impacts of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on all aphid and natural enemy populations.

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