

Pest and disease abundance and dynamics in wheat and oilseed rape as affected by elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations

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Abstract. Future atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are predicted to increase, and directly affect host plant phenology, which, in turn, is assumed to mediate the performance of herbivorous insects indirectly as well as the abundance and epidemiology of plant diseases. In a 4-year field experiment, spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L. cv. Triso) and spring oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L. cv. Campino) were grown using a mini-free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) system, which consisted of a control (CON), an ambient treatment (AMB) and FACE treatments. The CON and AMB treatments did not receive additional CO₂, whereas the FACE plots were moderately elevated by 150 µL L⁻¹ CO₂. The impact of elevated CO₂ was examined with regard to plant phenology, biomass, leaf nitrogen and carbon, abundance of insect pest species and their relative population growth by either direct counts or yellow sticky traps. Occurrence and damage of plants by pathogens on spring wheat and oilseed rape were directly assessed. Disease infestations on plants were not significantly different between ambient and elevated CO₂ in any of the years. Plant phenology, aboveground biomass, foliar nitrogen and carbon concentrations were also not significantly affected by CO₂ enrichment. In contrast, the abundance of some species of insects was significantly influenced by elevated CO₂, showing either an increase or a decrease in infestation intensity.

Additional keywords: *Brassica* spp., CO₂ enrichment, plant–insect interactions.

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Introduction

Atmospheric CO₂ concentration is predicted to reach 550 µL L⁻¹ at the middle of this century (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 2007). This increase has been shown to affect plant physiology, morphology, development, growth and reproduction (Bazzaz 1990; Poorter and Navas 2003; Högy *et al.* 2009). According to Franzaring *et al.* (2008) and Högy *et al.* (2010), spring oilseed rape (OSR, *Brassica napus* L. cv. Campino) grown under elevated CO₂ showed an increase in biomass, dry weight, stem and shoot length, and leaf area. Aboveground biomass increased by 11.8% in spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L. cv. Triso) under CO₂ enrichment, the latter resulting from a higher number of tillers per plant (Högy *et al.* 2009). An increase in atmospheric CO₂ levels alters the chemical composition of the plant tissue and phloem sap constituents, potentially causing a reduction in food quality for herbivores as determined by the contents of fibre, starch, water, sugars, allelochemicals and nitrogen in host plant leaves (Curtis *et al.* 1989; Johnson and Lincoln 1991; Brown 1995). Food consumption of leaf-chewing larvae increased by 20–80% under elevated CO₂, which was interpreted as a mechanism to compensate for a decreased N concentration (Bezemer and Jones 1998). Consequently, increased consumption resulted in boosted feeding damage by herbivores and detritus conversion

by detritivores (Lincoln *et al.* 1993; Hughes and Bazzaz 1997; Stadler 1999). According to Stiling *et al.* (2009), elevated CO₂ resulted in prolonged preimaginal development time, decreased adult weight (5%) and relative growth rate (8.3%) as well as increased mortality rate of leafminers on oak species (*Quercus myrtifolia* Willd., *Q. chapmanii* Sargent and *Q. geminata* Samll).

Phloem feeders, feeding on live cell contents, can be considered as true plant parasites reacting rapidly to changes in nutritive quality such as a reduction in biochemical compounds (e.g. proteins) or an increase in the carbohydrates in the phloem. Alterations in the concentrations or composition of N-containing substances in the phloem, such as amino acids, may affect phloem-feeding insects in their development, growth rate and population growth (Newman *et al.* 2003). According to Awmack *et al.* (1997), the performance of potato aphid (*Aulacorthum solani* Kalt.) was enhanced on broad bean (*Vicia faba* L.) and tansy (*Tanacetum vulgare* L.) by elevated CO₂. Moreover, the nature of the response was different on each plant species. Thus, on tansy, preimaginal development of aphids was 10% shorter but there was no difference in the rate of nymph reproduction, whereas on broad beans, the duration of preimaginal development was not affected by elevated CO₂ but the rate of nymph reproduction was increased by 16%. Chen and Parajulee (2005) observed some positive effects of elevated CO₂ on

Aphis gossypii Glover, i.e. an increase in fecundity, mean relative growth and consumption rate. Chen *et al.* (2004) reported that the offspring of the grain aphid (*Sitobion avenae* F.) was increased by 13% at 550 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ CO₂ and by 19% in the 750 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ CO₂ treatment. Elevated CO₂ affects the population dynamics of most insect species (Newman *et al.* 2003; Dermody *et al.* 2008). Also, Chen *et al.* (2004) reported a significant increase in the population size of *Sitobion avenae* F. of ~15% and 22% under 550 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ and 750 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ CO₂, respectively.

According to Dahlman *et al.* (1991), elevated CO₂ affected the host–pathogen interactions by changing the physiology of the host plants (ryegrass, *Lolium perenne* L.). In particular, the increase in foliar carbohydrate concentrations under elevated CO₂ promotes the development of biotrophic plant pathogens such as rust diseases (Drandarevski 1969). Moreover, the reduction of leucine-rich protein in the vegetative organs, which directly affects the defence reaction of plants against pathogens, as well as a reduction in salicylic acid and soluble phenolic substances due to elevated CO₂ increases pathogen aggressiveness, leading to greater pathogenic damage (Goicoechea *et al.* 2004).

The increase in the biomass and density of host plants associated with elevated CO₂ is assumed to modify the microclimate and development of plant diseases such as a powdery mildew (*Erysiphe graminis* DC) and brown rust (*Puccinia recondita* Roberge ex Desmaz) in wheat; and white stem disease (*Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (Lib.) de Bary), beet rhizomania (*Polymyxa betae* Keskin), black spot (*Alternaria brassicae* (Berk.) Sacc.), and stem or root rot (*Phoma lingam* (Tode ex Fr.) Desm.; teleomorph: *Leptosphaeria maculans* (Desm.) Ces. and de Not) in OSR (Drandarevski 1969; Manning and Tiedemann 1995; Patterson *et al.* 1999; Keller 2002). As information on the effects of elevated CO₂ concentrations on both the spread of fungal diseases and pests, representing the most important biotic stressor categories in crop production, is still fragmentary, more detailed studies are necessary.

Monitoring of pests and diseases under elevated CO₂ is a relatively modern approach. Only a few studies have been done utilising free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) facilities for the observation of diseases on spring wheat (pathogens *Fusarium pseudograminearum*, Melloy *et al.* 2010 and *Puccinia triticina* Erikss. and Henn; Chakraborty *et al.* 2011), on rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) (pathogen: *Rhizoctonia solani* Kunh; Kobayashi *et al.* 2006), on soybean (*Glycine max* L.) (pathogens: *Peronospora manshurica* L. and *Septoria* brown spot; Eastburn *et al.* 2010) and on red maple (*Acer rubrum* L.) (pathogen: *Phyllosticta minima*; McElrone *et al.* 2005). The consequences of CO₂ elevation on pest and disease abundance and the resulting pressure they may exert on spring wheat and OSR under FACE field conditions were the focus of this study. The objectives were to (i) assess and describe the effects of elevated CO₂ on the phenology, abundance and plant damage by parasitic organisms like powdery mildew (*Erysiphe graminis* f. sp. tritici), yellow rust (*Puccinia striiformis* Westend f. sp. tritici), brown rust (*Puccinia recondita* f. sp. tritici), septoria leaf blotch (*Mycosphaerella graminicola* (Fuckel) J. Schröt in Cohn (anamorph: *Septoria tritici* Roberge et Desmaz)) on spring wheat, and downy mildew (*Peronospora parasitica* (Pers. ex Fr.)) on

OSR; and (ii) monitor the abundance of insect pests and their population dynamics under elevated CO₂.

Materials and methods

CO₂ exposure

The experiments were performed over a 4-year period from 2006 to 2009 on the Research Station for Plant Breeding Heidfeldhof, situated in the south of Stuttgart, Germany (9°11'28"E, 48°42'51"N; 395 m above sea level). The mini-FACE system used consisted of 15 circular plots, 2 m in diameter, and three different CO₂ treatments. Elevated CO₂ (ELE) was supplied in five FACE plots (plus 150 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$). Five ambient plots (AMB) were supplied with the same technical infrastructure as the ELE plots but with no additional CO₂ fumigation. Additionally, five control plots (CON) with neither CO₂ fumigation nor racks were set up to identify effects caused by the technical equipment. In the high-CO₂ treatment, pure CO₂ (Westfalen Gas, Münster, Germany) was added continuously during the entire vegetation period. Variation coefficients between seasonal CO₂ concentrations determined in the five plots were small and amounted to 1.9–5.1% in the years 2006–09 (representing real differences in CO₂ concentrations between the plots from 10 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ to 31 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$). Nevertheless, the average seasonal CO₂ concentrations in the FACE treatments differed between years due to the different crop species and related canopy structures so that the set concentration value of 550 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ was not reached exactly at all times. Seasonal (from sowing to harvest) 24 h CO₂ concentrations were 529, 494, 558 and 613 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ in the years 2006–09, respectively. The overall 4-year mean CO₂ concentration of 549 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$, however, was comparable to the set concentration. A more detailed description of the operational principles and the performance of the FACE system are given in Erbs and Fangmeier (2006).

Cultivation and phenological development of plants

Spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L. cv. Triso; 200 plants m⁻² in 2006 and 360 plants m⁻² in 2008; 13 rows with 15-cm row spacing) and OSR (*Brassica napus* L. cv. Campino; 70 plants m⁻²; 13 rows with 15-cm row spacing in 2007 and 2009) were cultivated on clay-loam soil.

Phenological development of plants was determined using the Biologische Bundesanstalt and Chemische Industrie scale (BBCH scale; Tottman and Broad 1987; Weber and Bleiholder 1990). All development stages were based on observations on the main stem. Examination was carried out from leaf development (BBCH 10) until senescence (BBCH 90).

Plots with OSR were fertilised annually with 130 kg N ha⁻¹ (NH₄NO₃), 60 kg P ha⁻¹, 60 kg K ha⁻¹, 18 kg Mg ha⁻¹ and 4 kg S ha⁻¹ at leaf development stage (BBCH 14). Potassium (60 kg ha⁻¹) was applied at the stage of tiller formation (BBCH 25) and shortly before flowering (BBCH 57) (Högy *et al.* 2010). Plots with spring wheat were fertilised annually with 140 kg N ha⁻¹ (NH₄NO₃), 30 kg P ha⁻¹ and 60 kg K ha⁻¹ in total at tillering (BBCH 25), stem elongation (BBCH 36) and inflorescence emergence (BBCH 43). Additionally, 0.45 kg Mg ha⁻¹, 0.36 kg S ha⁻¹, 0.03 kg B ha⁻¹ and 0.03 kg Mn ha⁻¹ were applied at tillering (Högy *et al.* 2009, 2012).

Environmental conditions and soil characteristics

Meteorological data (air temperature, relative humidity, precipitation and global radiation) of the years 2006–09 was recorded by the Institute of Physics and Meteorology and Institute for Landscape and Plant Ecology (University of Hohenheim; Table 1). The mean air temperatures from April to August were 15.3°C (2006), 15.6°C (2007), 15.4°C (2008) and 16.0°C (2009). Soil moisture and temperature were measured at a 15 cm depth during the growing season using reflectometry (TDR, IMKO GmbH Karlsruhe, Germany) and thermocouples (UP, Deckenpfronn, Germany). The N and C contents in the soil were determined in the autumn before the experiment was performed, using an elemental analyser (Vario EL, Elementar Analysensysteme, Hanau, Germany). Average C contents were 1.6% with a C : N ratio of 8.8, which did not significantly change over time (Franzaring *et al.* 2010).

Biomass production and determination of nitrogen and carbon concentrations in leaves

In order to determine the foliage biomass at ambient and elevated CO₂, leaves of spring wheat and OSR were harvested at the central area (1 m²) of each plot at the flowering stage (BBCH 65–69), dried at 60°C (3 days) to constant weight in a drying oven

Table 1. Environmental conditions in the years 2006–09 (April–August)

Data were recorded by the Institute of Physics and Meteorology (†) and Institute for Landscape and Plant Ecology (‡) of the University of Hohenheim

Parameters	Month	Years			
		2006	2008	2007	2009
Temperature, °C†	April	8.7	8.2	13.6	12.1
	May	13.6	15.4	15.1	14.8
	June	17.3	17.4	14.7	16.0
	July	22.3	18.3	17.6	18.2
	August	15.3	17.7	17.0	19.0
Seasonal mean air temperatures, °C†	April–August	15.3	15.4	15.6	16.0
Relative humidity, %‡	April	71.6	75.5	55.1	67.0
	May	66.9	65.3	66.8	73.9
	June	66.6	74.4	62.8	72.7
	July	63.3	70.4	72.4	73.6
	August	78.0	74.7	75.3	72.2
Global radiation, W m ⁻² ‡	April	155.2	153.9	269.8	190.5
	May	208.5	250.9	218.6	233.7
	June	278.8	241.6	236.8	248.0
	July	282.4	237.0	229.1	233.2
	August	167.4	199.9	191.7	230.1
Sum of precipitation, mm‡	April	57.2	52.5	50.2	35.3
	May	101.0	102.8	162.8	128.4
	June	31.0	126.2	167.2	93.3
	July	99.8	69.0	81.14	126.0
Water content across all plots, % vol‡	April	29.6	26.1	27.0	13.5
	May	30.2	21.0	29.0	21.0
	June	24.0	20.1	24.1	11.7
	July	16.0	10.7	16.6	18.5

and weighed on a balance (A 120 S, Triad Scientific, Manasquan, NJ, USA). According to ISO 10694 (International Standards Organisation 1995), the concentrations of foliage C and N were analysed using an isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany) in 2006 and 2007 and a Vario EL, elemental analyser (Elementar Analysensysteme) in 2008 and 2009 (Högy *et al.* 2010). The concentrations of foliage C and N were measured at the flowering stage (BBCH65–69) because consumption of plant tissues at this stage is usually higher than in other stages.

Monitoring of pests and diseases

Insect pest and disease abundance was monitored on spring wheat and OSR, at weekly intervals from leaf emergence until plant maturity. As the focus of this study was on the insect pests and diseases associated with aboveground plant biomass, root feeding organisms, soilborne diseases and root diseases were not considered. Pest abundance was assessed directly by counting numbers per plant (M₁) and indirectly by counting the total number of individuals on yellow sticky traps (Bayer Crop Science GmbH, Monheim am Rhein, Germany, 7.3 × 19.8 cm; M₂). For the M₁ method and determination of the abundance of plant diseases, 10 plants were marked in the central area (1 m²) of each plot. For the M₂ method, one yellow trap was used per plot, hung 10 cm above the canopies in the middle of each plot and replaced weekly. In 2006, method M₂ was not used. Commencing in 2007, both M₁ and M₂ methods were applied. This alteration in observation methods took place as the sticky traps enabled a wider variety of crawling and flying pest species to be caught. Taxonomical identification of insect species was made by morphological characteristics (Garbe *et al.* 1999; Dunford and Long 2002), using a stereomicroscope (Stemi DV4, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany) with high resolution (32× detail magnification, 8×–32×–18 eyepiece micrometer).

Visual monitoring of the whole plant from the upper to the lower leaves was made to assess plant pathogen incidence and disease levels. Preference was given to obligate biotrophic pathogens, which deprive the live plant cells of nutrients and may be easily detected on the surface of green leaves. For the determination of plant pathogens, leaves of wheat and OSR (2 cm²) were cut from the main stem and microscopically observed for the presence of spores. Visual monitoring of plant diseases was done weekly during the whole vegetation period. The calculated damage of leaf surface is given as a percentage.

In order to determine plant damage, the disease frequency of infestation (FI) and the disease severity of infestation (SI) were examined. According to Verreet (1985), plants were rated for FI on a four-point scale (0 = no disease; 1 = 1–30%; 2 = 30–60%; 3 = 60–90%; 4 >90%) and for SI on a seven-point scale (1 = 0–0.9%; 2 = 0.91–1.9%; 3 = 1.91–2.9%; 4 = 2.91–3.9%; 5 = 3.91–4.9%; 6 = 4.91–5.9%; 7 = 5.91–6.9%).

Statistical analyses

Data from AMB and ELE treatments with five replicates were subjected to statistical analyses for plant parameters (development, biomass, nitrogen and carbon concentrations), frequency and intensity of disease infestation on plants and the

abundance of different pest species using PASW Statistics ver. 18 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Because the data were normally distributed no transformation was applied. The data from the CON treatment were excluded as their differences compared with the AMB treatment were not statistically significant. Effects of CO₂ treatments were identified by ANOVA. The relationships between the concentrations of foliage C and N, and the abundance of insects were calculated by using linear regression analysis.

Results

Effects of elevated CO₂ on plant phenology, leaf biomass, and carbon and nitrogen concentrations

The phenology of spring wheat and OSR was examined from leaf development (BBCH 10) until ripening (BBCH 80). In spring wheat, the phenological development under elevated

CO₂ was retarded (BBCH 10, 40), delayed (BBCH 20) and postponed by 7 days (BBCH 30) in 2006, and delayed (BBCH 40) and retarded (BBCH 80) in 2008 (Table 2). In OSR, phenological development was retarded (BBCH 20, 30) and delayed (BBCH 60, 80) under elevated CO₂ in 2007 and delayed (BBCH 20) in 2009. The effects of elevated CO₂ on crop phenology were generally small and not statistically significant. Leaf biomass and foliar C and N concentrations were not significantly affected by elevated CO₂ concentration (Table 3).

Pests on spring wheat

In 2006, only the abundance of bird cherry-oat aphids (*Rhopalosiphum padi* L. (Homoptera: Aphididae)) was monitored on spring wheat using method M₁; however, no CO₂ effects were found (data not shown). In 2008, the

Table 2. Duration of phenological phases after sowing of spring wheat in 2006–08 and oilseed rape in 2007–09

All development stages are based on observations on the main stem. Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie (BBCH) codes used to quantify the growth stages in cereals are as follows: BBCH 10, leaf development; BBCH 20, tillering; BBCH 30, stem elongation; BBCH 40, booting; BBCH 50, inflorescence emergence or heading; BBCH 60, flowering; BBCH 70, dough development; BBCH 80, ripening. For oilseed rape the codes are: BBCH 10, leaf development; BBCH 20, formation of side shoots; BBCH 30, stem elongation; BBCH 50, inflorescence emergence; BBCH 60, flowering; BBCH 70, development of fruit; BBCH 80, ripening. AMB, ambient CO₂ concentration; ELE, elevated CO₂ concentration

Crop	Year	Growth stage	BBCH code	Duration of phenological phase (days)	
				AMB	ELE
Spring wheat	2006	Leaf development	10	49	25
		Tillering	20	77	70
		Stem elongation	30	28	14
		Booting	40	7	1
		Inflorescence emergence	50	1	1
		Flowering	60	1	7
		Dough development fruit	70	14	14
		Ripening	80	1	1
Spring wheat	2008	Leaf development	10	21	21
		Tillering	20	28	28
		Stem elongation	30	28	28
		Booting	40	7	14
		Inflorescence emergence	50	7	7
		Flowering	60	1	1
		Dough development fruit	70	14	14
		Ripening	80	21	14
Oilseed rape	2007	Leaf development	10	24	24
		Formation of side shoots	20	13	6
		Stem elongation	30	6	1
		Inflorescence emergence	50	6	6
		Flowering	60	6	14
		Development of fruit	70	27	27
		Ripening	80	28	35
Oilseed rape	2009	Leaf development	10	36	36
		Formation of side shoots	20	42	50
		Stem elongation	30	22	22
		Inflorescence emergence	50	15	15
		Flowering	60	20	20
		Development of fruit	70	7	7
		Ripening	80	35	35

Table 3. Biomass (g DW per plant), carbon and nitrogen concentration (% DW) in leaves of spring wheat (2006–08) and oilseed rape (2007–09) at Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie (BBCH) 65–69 at ambient (AMB) and elevated (ELE) CO₂ concentrations
n.s., not significant ($P > 0.05$)

Years	BBCH code	Crop traits	CO ₂ treatment ^A		P-values (ANOVA)
			AMB	ELE	
2006	BBCH 69	Leaf biomass	0.29 ± 0.04	0.29 ± 0.01	n.s.
		Leaf nitrogen	3.00 ± 0.47	2.95 ± 0.28	n.s.
		Leaf carbon	43.22 ± 0.30	43.56 ± 0.23	n.s.
2007	BBCH 65–69	Leaf biomass	1.00 ± 0.39	1.65 ± 0.68	n.s.
		Leaf nitrogen	2.88 ± 0.35	2.76 ± 0.46	n.s.
		Leaf carbon	39.7 ± 1.06	40.13 ± 1.81	n.s.
2008	BBCH 65–69	Leaf biomass	0.68 ± 0.19	0.58 ± 0.13	n.s.
		Leaf nitrogen	3.20 ± 0.15	3.03 ± 0.27	n.s.
		Leaf carbon	42.13 ± 0.22	42.08 ± 0.42	n.s.
2009	BBCH 69	Leaf biomass	2.19 ± 0.77	2.60 ± 0.46	n.s.
		Leaf nitrogen	3.05 ± 0.34	2.47 ± 0.28	n.s.
		Leaf carbon	39.42 ± 0.43	39.18 ± 0.50	n.s.

^AValues represent means and s.e. across replicates, the level of statistical significance according to one-way ANOVA; $n = 5$.

abundance of thrips species (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), cereal leaf beetles (*Chaetocnema aridula* (Gyll.), *Oulema melanopus* (L.) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)), click beetle (*Agriotes sputator* L. (Coleoptera: Elateridae)), cereal ground beetle (*Zabrus tenebrioides* Goeze (Coleoptera: Carabidae)), shield bug (*Aelia acuminata* L. (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae)) and *R. padi* were observed using method M₁. Under elevated CO₂, the abundance of *O. melanopus* and thrips species was significantly increased at BBCH 59 and BBCH 71, respectively (Table 4). The abundance of *C. aridula*, *A. sputator*, *A. acuminata*, *R. padi* and *Z. tenebrioides* was not significantly affected by elevated CO₂.

On spring wheat, using the M₂ method, orange wheat blossom midge (*Sitodiplosis mosellana* Géhin (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae)), saddle gall midge (*Haplodiplosis marginata* (von Roser) (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae)), barley leaf beetle (*Phyllotreta vittula* (Redt.) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)), green cicada (*Cicadella viridis* (L.) Müller (Hemiptera: Cicadellidae)) and wheat bulb fly (*Delia coarctata* (Fallén) (Diptera: Anthomyiidae)) were observed. Significant reductions in population density under elevated CO₂ were observed for *D. coarctata* at BBCH 22 and BBCH 23, for *C. aridula* at BBCH 31 and *H. marginata* at BBCH 83, and the abundance of *P. vittula* was significantly increased at BBCH 41 (Table 5).

Pests on oilseed rape

In 2007 and 2009, thrips species (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), turnip sawfly (*Athalia rosae* (L.) (Hymenoptera: Tenthredinidae)), green cicada (*Cicadella viridis* (L.) Müller (Hemiptera: Cicadellidae)), pollen beetle (*Meligethes aeneus* F. (Coleoptera: Nutidulidae)), spring cabbage fly (*Delia radicum* L. (Diptera: Anthomyiidae)), cabbage whitefly (*Aleyrodes proletella* L. (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae)), green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae* (Sulz.) (Hemiptera: Aphididae)) and brassica pod midge (*Dasyneura brassicae* Winnertz (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae)) were observed in OSR.

In 2007, a significant increase in the abundance of thrips species (BBCH 71, M₂) was observed under elevated CO₂, whereas the abundance of *M. aeneus* (BBCH 77, M₁) and cicadas (BBCH 81, M₂) decreased (Table 5).

In 2009, a significant decrease in the abundance of *M. aeneus* were again observed under elevated CO₂ at BBCH 55 and BBCH 67 using method M₁ and at BBCH 80 using M₂ (Table 6). The results of method M₂ show that elevated CO₂ resulted in a significant increase in the abundance of thrips species (*A. rosae*, *D. radicum*, *M. aeneus* and *A. proletella*). Significant increases due to elevated CO₂ were observed in the abundance of *A. rosae* and thrips species at BBCH 55, *A. proletella* at BBCH 67 and *D. radicum* during the whole cultivation period, with maximum numbers of insects being 5.6 ± 0.5 (AMB) and 10.4 ± 1.1 (ELE) at BBCH 67. Elevated CO₂ significantly decreased the infestation by *D. brassicae* during the whole cultivation period, with maximum numbers of insects reaching 11.2 ± 1.3 at ambient CO₂ and 3.2 ± 0.8 at elevated CO₂ (BBCH 80).

Linear regression analysis between the concentrations of foliar C and N, and the abundance of insects

No significant relationships were found between the abundance of insects and the concentration of foliar C of spring wheat (2006–008) and OSR (2007–09) in either of the CO₂ treatments (data not shown). However, relationships were observed between the concentrations of N and the abundance of *A. proletella* (M₂), *M. aeneus* (M₁) and *D. radicum* (M₂) in OSR in 2009 (74 days after sowing, DAS) under elevated CO₂ (Table 7).

Pathogens

Under elevated CO₂, the leaves of spring wheat were only slightly damaged by powdery mildew (*E. graminis*), yellow rust (*P. striiformis*) and brown rust (*P. recondita*) in 2006, and by septoria leaf blotch (*S. tritici*), *E. graminis* and *P. recondita* in

Table 4. Abundance of insect species per plant (method M₁) and per trap (method M₂) in spring wheat during the whole vegetation period under ambient (AMB) and elevated (ELE) CO₂ treatments in 2008

Method M₁ uses direct counts on plants; method M₂ captures insects on adhesive traps. Results of the statistical analysis (ANOVA) are presented as *P*-values (n.s., not significant; $P \leq 0.05$, significant); $n = 5$. BBCH, Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie

Species of insect	Days after sowing	Growth stages BBCH code	AMB Average numbers of individuals with s.e.	ELE	CO ₂ effect <i>P</i> -values (ANOVA)
Method M ₁					
<i>Oulema melanopus</i>	52	31	0.2±0.1	0.2±0.0	n.s.
	59	41	0.3±0.1	0.4±0.2	n.s.
	66	53	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.1	n.s.
	73	59	0.1±0.1	0.4±0.2	0.05
<i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i>	59	41	0.3±0.1	0.8±0.9	n.s.
	66	53	1.3±0.5	1.1±0.3	n.s.
	73	59	0.4±0.3	0.6±0.4	n.s.
	80	71	0.4±0.1	0.6±0.6	n.s.
	87	83	0.2±0.1	0.7±0.8	n.s.
Thrips species	80	71	1.0±0.1	1.6±0.2	0.05
	87	83	1.5±0.1	2.0±0.6	n.s.
	94	83	2.7±1.9	4.4±0.6	n.s.
	101	84	0.7±0.8	0.2±0.2	n.s.
<i>Zabrus tenebrioides</i>	73	59	0.2±0.2	0.2±0.2	n.s.
<i>Chaetocnema aridula</i>	79	71	0.1±0.1	0.0±0.0	n.s.
<i>Agriotes sputator</i>	87	83	0.0±0.1	0.2±0.1	n.s.
	87	83	0.1±0.1	0.1±0.1	n.s.
Method M ₂					
<i>Delia coaricata</i>	36	22	36.4±4.3	2.8±0.8	0.05
	44	23	12.8±1.3	4.6±0.5	0.05
	51	31	7.8±3.5	5.2±4.5	n.s.
	58	41	6.6±3.5	5.6±2.8	n.s.
	65	53	14.4±4.1	9.6±5.5	n.s.
<i>C. aridula</i>	51	31	7.6±0.8	1.4±0.5	0.01
	58	41	9.0±6.6	4.2±1.7	n.s.
	65	53	12.0±7.3	7.4±5.3	n.s.
	72	59	35.6±7.5	27.6±23.9	n.s.
<i>Phyllotreta vittula</i>	58	41	1.4±0.5	4.6±1.1	0.05
	65	53	8.0±4.5	8.8±6.9	n.s.
	72	59	9.6±4.3	7.6±5.5	n.s.
	79	71	20.0±10.5	17.6±6.3	n.s.
	86	83	6.0±3.3	3.8±3.7	n.s.
<i>Haplodiplosis marginata</i>	93	83	3.2±0.4	1.2±0.4	0.05
<i>Sitodiplosis mosellana</i>	93	83	2.4±0.5	0.4±0.5	n.s.
	100	84	0.6±0.5	0.4±0.5	n.s.

Table 5. Average numbers of *Meligethes aeneus* in oilseed rape using method M₁ and *Cicadella viridis* and thrips species using M₂ under ambient (AMB) and elevated (ELE) CO₂ treatments in 2007

The Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie (BBCH) code represents the growth stages of oilseed rape. Results of statistical analysis (ANOVA) are presented as *P*-values ($P \leq 0.05$ = significant); $n = 5$. For an explanation of M₁ and M₂, refer to Table 4

Species of insect	Method	Days after sowing	BBCH code	AMB Average numbers of pests with s.e.	ELE	CO ₂ effect <i>P</i> -values (ANOVA)
<i>M. aeneus</i>	M ₁	78	77	0.6±0.1	0.3±0.1	0.01
Thrips species	M ₂	63	71	133.6±10.1	190.6±27.6	0.01
<i>C. viridis</i>	M ₂	91	81	2.0±0.7	0.4±0.1	0.05

Table 6. Occurrence of individuals of insect species per plant (method M₁) and per trap (method M₂) in oilseed rape during the whole vegetation period under ambient (AMB) and elevated (ELE) CO₂ treatments in 2009

For an explanation of M₁ and M₂, refer to Table 4. Results of the statistical analysis (ANOVA) are presented as *P*-values (n.s., not significant; *P* ≤ 0.05, significant); *n* = 5. BBCH, Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie

Species of insect	Days after sowing	Growth stages BBCH code	AMB Average numbers of individuals with s.e.	ELE	CO ₂ effect <i>P</i> -values (ANOVA)
Method M₁					
<i>Meligethes aeneus</i>	46	50	0.6 ± 1.2	1.0 ± 1.2	n.s.
	52	55	3.6 ± 0.7	1.8 ± 0.5	0.01
	60	62	4.3 ± 3.3	3.7 ± 3.4	n.s.
	66	66	4.1 ± 3.4	3.2 ± 3.2	n.s.
	74	67	10.1 ± 1.9	7.5 ± 1.3	0.05
	80	71	2.5 ± 1.2	4.3 ± 3.0	n.s.
	88	77	1.2 ± 1.1	2.2 ± 1.6	n.s.
Method M₂					
<i>Athalia rosae</i>	52	55	2.2 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.7	0.05
	60	62	2.2 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 1.3	0.05
	67	66	4.6 ± 0.5	6.0 ± 1.4	n.s.
<i>Delia radicum</i>	52	55	3.4 ± 0.5	7.8 ± 1.7	0.001
	60	62	4.2 ± 0.4	8.6 ± 1.1	0.001
	67	66	4.8 ± 0.8	9.8 ± 0.8	0.01
	74	67	5.6 ± 0.5	10.4 ± 1.1	0.01
	95	80	3.2 ± 0.4	6.2 ± 0.8	0.05
	102	81	2.2 ± 1.7	3.8 ± 1.3	n.s.
<i>Dasyneura brassicae</i>	52	55	1.8 ± 0.8	0.2 ± 0.4	0.01
	60	62	1.6 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.4	0.05
	67	66	1.0 ± 0.7	1.6 ± 1.1	n.s.
	74	67	0.4 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.4	0.05
	95	80	5.2 ± 0.8	1.4 ± 0.8	0.01
	108	81	11.2 ± 1.3	3.2 ± 0.8	0.05
Thrips species	52	55	41.4 ± 1.7	69.2 ± 1.3	0.001
	60	62	71.2 ± 28.2	89.4 ± 20.1	n.s.
	67	66	15.6 ± 4.2	18.8 ± 11.2	n.s.
	74	67	30.6 ± 10.9	20.4 ± 8.7	n.s.
	95	80	48.2 ± 29.5	30.4 ± 16.6	n.s.
<i>Aleyrodes proletella</i>	74	67	1.2 ± 0.4	4.6 ± 0.5	0.001
	95	80	2.4 ± 2.0	1.0 ± 1.4	n.s.
<i>M. aeneus</i>	74	67	16.4 ± 8.1	17.0 ± 6.0	n.s.
	95	80	47.4 ± 27.7	18.4 ± 5.7	n.s.
	102	80	7.0 ± 1.2	3.1 ± 0.7	0.05

2008. The FI and SI of these diseases were not significantly affected under CO₂ enrichment (Table 8).

In 2007, no disease symptoms were observed in OSR in any of the treatments. Although, in 2009, downy mildew (*P. parasitica*) appeared on OSR from 89 DAS until 94 DAS at the ripening stage (BBCH 80), the SI and FI of this disease were not significantly affected by elevated CO₂ (Table 8).

Discussion

In our study, the phenological development and aboveground biomass of spring wheat and OSR were not significantly affected under CO₂ enrichment, which was not expected, as crops are often advanced in their life cycle. In contrast, Atwell *et al.* (1999) showed that CO₂ enrichment (700 μL L⁻¹) enhanced the

development of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and rice (*Oryza sativa* L.), significantly accelerating the visual appearance of successive leaves and shortening the flowering time. A slight enhancement of phenological development under elevated CO₂ (494 μmol mol⁻¹) was also observed in OSR (Franzaring *et al.* 2008) and maize (*Zea mays* L.) (Leakey 2009). According to Garbutt *et al.* (1990), *Amaranthus retroflexus* L. flowered significantly earlier under elevated CO₂ (700 μL L⁻¹ vs 350), whereas *Setaria faberi* Herrm flourished significantly later. A positive relationship was found between the appearance of wheat leaves and the concentration of elevated CO₂ (700 μL L⁻¹) in the study of McMaster *et al.* (1999), where accelerated leaf and tiller appearance rates resulted in faster canopy development and higher plant biomass (shoot, root and spike production). Significant increases in aboveground biomass due to elevated

Table 7. Linear regression analysis between abundance of insects and concentrations of nitrogen in leaves of spring wheat (2006–08) and oilseed rape (2007–09)

For an explanation of M₁ and M₂, refer to Table 4. DAS, days after sowing; BBCH, Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie; r², regression coefficient; P, level of probability for linearity. Significant regressions (P ≤ 0.05) with r² > 0.30 are shown in bold

Insect and crop	DAS	BBCH code*	N concentration r ²	P
2006				
Spring wheat				
<i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (M ₁)	62	32	0.327	0.084
2007				
Oilseed rape				
<i>Meligethes aeneus</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.044	0.560
<i>Athalia rosae</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.101	0.371
<i>Aleyrodes proletella</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.367	0.064
Thrips species (M ₂)	63	71	0.038	0.591
<i>M. aeneus</i> (M ₁)	63	71	0.079	0.432
<i>Cicadella viridis</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.006	0.825
<i>Dasyneura brassicae</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.059	0.500
<i>Delia radicum</i> (M ₂)	63	71	0.069	0.463
2008				
Spring wheat				
<i>Oulema melanopus</i> (M ₁)	70	71	0.084	0.416
<i>R. padi</i> (M ₁)	70	71	0.153	0.264
<i>Zabrus tenebrioides</i> (M ₁)	70	71	0.190	0.208
Thrips species (M ₁)	70	71	0.380	0.058
<i>Delia coarctata</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.241	0.015
<i>Chaetocnema aridula</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.000	0.989
<i>Sitodiplosis mosellana</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.092	0.394
Thrips species (M ₂)	70	71	0.205	0.189
<i>C. viridis</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.152	0.265
<i>Cephus pigmaeus</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.028	0.643
<i>Phyllotreta vittula</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.011	0.772
<i>Agriotes sputator</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.168	0.239
<i>Haplodiplosis marginata</i> (M ₂)	70	71	0.001	0.948
2009				
Oilseed rape				
<i>M. aeneus</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.000	0.963
<i>A. rosae</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.143	0.281
<i>A. proletella</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.441	0.036
Thrips species (M ₂)	74	67	0.136	0.294
<i>M. aeneus</i> (M ₁)	74	67	0.518	0.019
<i>C. viridis</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.058	0.501
<i>D. brassicae</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.000	0.996
<i>D. radicum</i> (M ₂)	74	67	0.429	0.040

CO₂ were observed on wheat (19%, Dijkstra *et al.* 1999), broad beans (14%, Awmack and Harrington 2000) and silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth), black alder (*Alnus glutinosa* L.) and common beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) (17%, Hoosbeek *et al.* 2011), but the aboveground stem biomass of potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L. cv. Bintje) was negatively influenced by CO₂ enrichment (680 µL L⁻¹) at canopy maturity (Högy and Fangmeier 2009). Furthermore, the concentrations of foliar C and N were not significantly changed under elevated CO₂ in our study. In part, the lack of significant responses in the present study may be explained by differences in annual climatic

conditions. Plants were supplied with sufficient water and all essential nutrients, which may explain why no effects of the CO₂ fertilisation were found on foliar C and N. In contrast, Cotrufo *et al.* (1998) reviewed that elevated CO₂ significantly altered C and N metabolism, resulting in increased concentration of C and reduced concentration of N in the leaves of C₃ plants.

Changes in plant metabolism under elevated CO₂ may have an impact on pathogen–host relationships. According to Chakraborty and Datta (2003), elevated CO₂ significantly increased the concentration of foliar carbohydrates of *Stylosanthes scabra* Vogel, which, in turn, increased the fecundity of the fungal anthracnose pathogen (*Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* (Penz.) Penz. and Sacc). Those authors suggested that the results could also differ under different climatic conditions. In our study, however, differences in the disease infestation levels on wheat in 2006 and 2008 were not statistically significant for all treatments. The reason for delayed development and spread of powdery mildew infection, and probably also for the absence of CO₂ effects in 2006, may be due to a mild, rainy spring and a hot, dry and sunny summer (Stadtklima Stuttgart 2006). However, the incidence level of various fungal pathogens was higher in 2006 than 2008. In 2008, the development of powdery mildew was accelerated by 10 days in comparison to 2006. In contrast to our results, Hibberd *et al.* (1996) observed that elevated CO₂ (700 µL L⁻¹) significantly inhibited the infestation of powdery mildew on barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.). In 2007, OSR was not infested by any pathogens during the whole vegetation period; in 2009, the development of downy mildew was especially observed on plants under elevated CO₂. Eastburn *et al.* (2010) reported the opposite effect, namely a significant reduction of disease severity by 39–66% on soybean plants. These contrasting results can be explained by differences in crop species and the crop-specific microclimate. Furthermore, higher precipitation was observed during the growing season in present study, whereas Eastburn *et al.* (2010) associated the reduction in the severity of the disease with drought conditions.

Published literature concerning the effects of CO₂ on plant–pathogen interactions reveals contrasting results. Different pathogens may respond differently under the same climatic conditions, whereas the same pathogen may respond differently to different agronomical growing conditions. Some pathogens, like powdery mildew, are more likely to infest host plants with lower moisture, whereas other diseases tend to thrive in conditions where moisture is increased and temperatures are lower. It was not clear in our study which combination of environmental factors ultimately favoured the pathogens. Therefore, the physiology of host plants and pathogens under both FACE and controlled chamber environments should be observed more detail in future studies in order to better determine the nature of plant–pathogen interactions and CO₂-induced impacts on it.

In the present study, the monitoring of the recorded pests was conducted using two different methods, which helped was to observe both crawling and flying insects. M₂ was more effective than M₁, as it resulted in a wider variety of pest species. Due to the exclusivity of the individual methods of assessment and the incompatibility of the data obtained, with M₂ being suited to monitoring flying insects and M₁ being better suited to crawling

Table 8. Frequency of infestation (FI) and severity of infestation (SI) due to plant pathogens on spring wheat (2006–08) and oilseed rape (2009) in ambient (AMB) and high CO₂ (ELE) treatments

Parameters	Days after sowing	Plant disease									
		<i>Erysiphe graminis</i>		<i>Puccinia striiformis</i>		<i>Puccinia recondita</i>		<i>Septoria tritici</i>		<i>Peronospora parasitica</i>	
		AMB	ELE	AMB	ELE	AMB	ELE	AMB	ELE	AMB	ELE
2006											
Spring wheat											
FI (%)	69	0	1	0	2	0	2	–	–	–	–
	76	0	1	2	6	9	7	–	–	–	–
	83	4	5	8	13	8	7	–	–	–	–
	90	17	15	33	25	62	56	–	–	–	–
	97	3	0	96	93	100	98	–	–	–	–
SI (%)	69	0	0	0	0	0.01	0.02	–	–	–	–
	76	0	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.11	0.09	–	–	–	–
	83	0.05	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.12	0.09	–	–	–	–
	90	0.21	0.31	0.46	0.32	0.99	0.94	–	–	–	–
	97	0.04	0	2.42	2.59	4.05	3.95	–	–	–	–
2008											
Spring wheat											
FI (%)	72	14	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	79	0	6	–	–	6	2	14	12	–	–
	87	0	12	–	–	10	4	16	12	–	–
	93	–	–	–	–	18	10	36	46	–	–
	103	–	–	–	–	12	2	32	26	–	–
SI (%)	72	0.17	0.02	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	79	0	0.07	–	–	0.17	0.17	0.05	0	–	–
	87	0	0.15	–	–	0.2	0.2	1.12	0.02	–	–
	93	–	–	–	–	0.65	0.67	0.25	0.15	–	–
	103	–	–	–	–	0.65	0.32	0.15	0.02	–	–
2009											
Oilseed rape											
FI (%)	89	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	2
	94	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0	6
SI (%)	89	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.01	0.02
	94	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0	0.07

insects, no direct comparison could be made between the two datasets.

Insect species on both crops responded differently to elevated CO₂. Species prevalent on spring wheat in 2008 were beetles, such as *C. aridula*, *O. melanopus*, *A. sputator*, *Z. tenebrioides* and *P. vittula*. These are chewing insects, damaging the plants by causing skeletonisation and mining of leaves, causing an unsightly appearance and a stressed plant, leaving it susceptible to other insects and diseases. In 2007 and 2009, dominant species on the OSR were Diptera like *A. rosae*, *D. brassica* and *D. radicum*, and Hemiptera *A. prolella*.

The Hymenoptera *A. rosae*, the larvae of which skeletonise leaves with their chewing mouthparts, and the *Delia* species as miners are considered serious specialists on cruciferous plants. *Aleyrodes prolella*, a specialist feeding on the phloem of cruciferous plants only, may reach high population densities, dependent on the nutritional quality of the phloem.

In our study, the abundance of some insects was significantly decreased on spring wheat and OSR due to elevated CO₂. The studies of Butler (1985) on the flea beetle (*Chaetocnema ectype* Stephens (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)) feeding on *Gossypium*

hirsutum L. and of Brooks and Whittaker (1998) on the green dock beetle (*Gastrophysa viridula* De Geer (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)) feeding on *Rumex obtusifolius* L. showed significant reductions in populations under elevated CO₂. Vu *et al.* (1989) and Stiling and Cornelissen (2007) showed that myrtle oak (*Quercus myrtifolia* Willd), sand live oak (*Q. geminata* Small), Chapman oak (*Q. chapmanii* Sargent) and Elliott's milk pea (*Galactia elliotii* Nuthall) grown under elevated CO₂ contained higher levels of carbohydrates and decreased amounts of N, reducing the nutritive value for several herbivorous insects. However, the reduction in insect abundance in our study was not significantly correlated with the concentration of foliar C and N under elevated CO₂.

In contrast in some instances, our study revealed significant increases in the abundance of insects on spring wheat and OSR under elevated CO₂. Moreover, the abundance of *A. prolella* and *D. radicum* in 2009 were significantly increased due to elevated CO₂ and related to the concentration of leaf N. According to Long *et al.* (2006), increases in atmospheric CO₂ by the middle of this century are predicted to increase the susceptibility of crops to invasive coleopterans. In agreement,

Hamilton *et al.* (2005) reported increases in the populations of the Japanese beetle, *Popillia japonica* Newman (Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae), on soybean under elevated CO₂.

The chemical composition of plant materials greatly influences the host plant specialisation characteristics of insects, but in our study, it was not clear whether the decreases or increases in the abundance of insects were affected by changes in the nutritional suitability or quality of the host plant. It is possible due to the limited effects of CO₂ concentrations on the C and N content in the leaves, few differences were observed in the abundance of some insects. However, relationships can be seen in the abundances of *D. coarctata* (70 DAS, M₂), *A. proletella* (74 DAS, M₂), *M. aeneus* (74 DAS, M₁) and *D. radicum* (74 DAS, M₂), which were significantly related to the N concentration. It was also suggested that the increases and decreases in the population of insects were a result of microclimatic factors, which, in turn, can be affected by CO₂ enrichment (Franzaring *et al.* 2010). Changes in the canopy climate may affect the development and geographical distribution of insects by overwintering, species-specific reactions, crop–pest synchronisation of phenology and the risk of invasion by migrant pests (Memmott *et al.* 2007). The major variable factors of microclimate are temperature and relative humidity, which influence insect activity. Temperature positively influences the oviposition of some insects (tephritid fly, *Sphenella marginata* (Diptera: Tephritidae)), whereas relative humidity has a negative impact on it (Raghu *et al.* 2004). Nevertheless, the combined effects of CO₂ enrichment and climatic conditions (humidity and temperature) could influence plant–insect interactions. In our study, higher precipitation and soil water content in May and June 2007 in comparison to 2009 resulted in the greater infestation of thrips species (63 DAS, M₂) on OSR, demonstrating that climatic conditions and their interactive effects with CO₂ enrichment deserve further attention. In addition, each individual species of insect may respond differently under different conditions (i.e. the responses are species-specific).

This study showed that elevated CO₂ concentration may have an impact on plants and insect; however, the connection of climate change to other climate factors should not be neglected in the future.

Conclusions

Our study showed that the effects of elevated CO₂ on plant–disease–insect interactions can be studied under field conditions using Mini-FACE technology using several replicated plots. Plant characteristics (phenological development, aboveground biomass, foliar C and N) and the damage on OSR and spring wheat induced by pathogens were not significantly changed under CO₂ enrichment. In contrast, insect species on both crop species responded to elevated CO₂, a significant reduction (*Delia coarctata*, *Chaetocnema aridula*, *Haplodiplosis marginata*, *Meligethes aeneus*, *Dasyneura brassicae*) as well as a significant increase (*Phyllotreta vittula*, *Athalia rosae*, *Aleyrodes proletella*, *Delia radicum*, thrips species) in their abundance. The strong differences in responses in different years are explained by changes in CO₂ concentration, and microclimatic effects (temperature, humidity,

drought) may have been involved as well. Some species of insects were favoured by the elevated CO₂ concentrations and high humidity, whereas other insects were positively affected by drier conditions. Moreover, different species may respond differently under the same environmental conditions, indicating that the responses to climatic change and CO₂ fertilisation will be species-specific. It is therefore highly advisable to perform further experimentation on this topic in order to elucidate the differences in the effects in among and on different plant species, pathogens and insects under elevated CO₂ by setting up a long-term monitoring and modelling of insect behaviour and their population levels.

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