

Elevated CO₂ changes the interactions between nematode and tomato genotypes differing in the JA pathway

YUCHENG SUN, HAIFENG CAO, JIN YIN, LE KANG & FENG GE

State Key Laboratory of Integrated Management of Pest and Rodents, Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

ABSTRACT

Interactions between the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* and three isogenic tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) genotypes were examined when plants were grown under ambient (370 ppm) and elevated (750 ppm) CO₂. We tested the hypothesis that, defence-recessive genotypes tend to allocate 'extra' carbon (relative to nitrogen) to growth under elevated CO₂, whereas defence-dominated genotypes allocate extra carbon to defence, and thereby increases the defence against nematodes. For all three genotypes, elevated CO₂ increased height, biomass, and root and leaf total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC):N ratio, and decreased amino acids and proteins in leaves. The activity of anti-oxidant enzymes (superoxide dismutase and catalase) was enhanced by nematode infection in defence-recessive genotypes. Furthermore, elevated CO₂ and nematode infection did not qualitatively change the volatile organic compounds (VOC) emitted from plants. Elevated CO₂ increased the VOC emission rate only for defence-dominated genotypes that were not infected with nematodes. Elevated CO₂ increased the number of nematode-induced galls on defence-dominated genotypes but not on wild-types or defence-recessive genotypes roots. Our results suggest that CO₂ enrichment may not only increase plant C:N ratio but can disrupt the allocation of plant resources between growth and defence in some genetically modified plants and thereby reduce their resistance to nematodes.

Key-words: elevated CO₂; jasmonic acid; *Meloidogyne incognita*; tomato mutants; volatile organic compounds.

INTRODUCTION

Atmospheric CO₂ levels are increasing rapidly and is expected to double in the next century (IPCC 2007). The global increase of atmospheric CO₂ directly affects the physiology of plants and generally accelerates the photosynthetic rate and increases plant growth, yield and carbon:nitrogen (C:N) ratio (Agrell, McDonald & Lindroth 2000; Jablonski, Wang & Curtis 2002). Elevated CO₂ has caused plants to re-allocate carbon and nitrogen resources

among tissues, and to alter the synthesis of nutrition and secondary metabolites in plant tissue and chemical components in root exudates (Hartley *et al.* 2000; Allard *et al.* 2006; Phillips, Fox & Six 2006). These changes may cascade to influence the interactions between nematodes and their host plants (Yeates & Newton 2009).

The response of plants to elevated CO₂ varies among species (Bezemer & Jones 1998) and genotypes (Goverde *et al.* 1999; Lindroth, Roth & Nordheim 2001), but few studies can explain why plant genotypes that have very high similarities in their genetic background still responded differently to elevated CO₂. Li *et al.* (2008) identified and compared transcriptional changes of two ecotypes of *Arabidopsis thaliana* in response to elevated CO₂, which indicated that the imbalance in the C:N plant metabolism is one main driver for changes in gene expression and metabolism, causing the genotype-specific response to elevated CO₂. Thus, plant genotypes may not only have different carbon assimilation but also have different partitioning patterns between growth and defence in responding to elevated CO₂ (Cseke *et al.* 2009).

Most studies addressing how plant-herbivore interactions are affected by elevated CO₂ have focused on above-ground herbivory (Bezemer & Jones 1998; Chen *et al.* 2005b; Wu, Chen & Ge 2006). Few studies, however, have considered how CO₂ affects plant resistance against root-feeding nematodes. Yeates & Newton (2009) found that elevated CO₂ increased population abundance of root-feeding nematodes, microbial-feeding nematodes and predacious nematodes in soil, suggesting that elevated CO₂ might modify the interaction between nematodes and their host plants. Furthermore, as predicted from the Carbon Nutrient Balance (CNB) hypothesis (Hamilton *et al.* 2001), elevated CO₂ results in accumulation of excess carbon in plant tissues, which is probably allocated to more carbon-based secondary metabolites such as terpenes, sesquiterpenes and phenolics. On the other hand, elevated CO₂ increases the plant photosynthetic capacity and root growth, as well as changes the nutrient level of plant tissue. Thus, the performance of root-feeding nematodes would logically be changed under elevated CO₂.

The root-knot nematode, *Meloidogyne incognita*, is a soil-dwelling, microscopic nematode that parasitizes roots and feeds exclusively on the cytoplasm of living plant cells. (Davis, Hussey & Baum 2004). Plant reaction to *M.*

Correspondence: F. Ge. Fax: +86 010 6480 7099; e-mail: gef@ioz.ac.cn

incognita includes the presence of galls on infested plants, which may also have secondary infections by other organisms (Jasmer, Govere & Smant 2003). This nematode and related species cause substantial losses to many crops, including tomatoes (*Lycopersicon esculentum*), throughout the world (Barker & Koenning 1998). Recent studies suggest that the activation of the jasmonic acid (JA) pathway is an important component of plant resistance to nematodes (Bhattarai *et al.* 2008). Cooper, Jia & Goggin (2005) demonstrated that artificial induction of JA-pathway defences reduced reproduction of the root-knot nematode on tomato plants. Moreover, the activation of the JA-pathway is considered central for defence against a broad spectrum of herbivores, including leaf chewers and cell-content feeders (i.e. aphids, nematodes, mites and thrips) (Li *et al.* 2002; Thaler *et al.* 2002; Cooper & Goggin 2005). The signalling compounds associated with this pathway trigger the expression of defensive proteins, up-regulation of secondary metabolites and induction of plant volatile organic compounds (VOC) (Howe & Ryan 1999; Howe & Jander 2007). Thus, the JA-pathway is known to be very important in herbivore–plant interactions, but apparently, not much is known about the effects of elevated CO₂ on JA-mediated interactions, especially below-ground interactions.

The current study examined how three isogenic tomato genotypes that differ in the JA pathway responded to elevated CO₂, both alone and combined with *M. incognita* infection. We test the hypothesis that depending on plant genotype, elevated CO₂ results in accumulation of excess carbon in plant tissues and thereby alters plant carbon-based defences against nematodes. Owing to a very different partitioning patterns among these three tomato genotypes, defence-dominated genotypes may tend to allocate 'extra' carbon (relative to nitrogen) to defence under elevated CO₂, whereas defence-recessive genotypes tend to allocate it to growth. Thus, the specific objectives in this study were: (1) to determine whether elevated CO₂ changes the growth, nutrition, the activities of anti-oxidant enzymes and carbon-based secondary metabolites of the isogenic tomato genotypes; (2) to determine whether elevated CO₂ influence the response of tomato genotypes to nematode infection in terms of these variables; and (3) to determine whether elevated CO₂ alters the resistance of genotypes differing in the JA pathway against *M. incognita*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Open-top chambers

The experiment was carried out in eight octagonal, open-top chambers (OTCs) (1.6 m wide, 4.2 m diameter and 2.4 m high) at the Observation Station on Global Change Biology of the Institute of Zoology, CAS in Xiaotangshan County, Beijing, China (40°11'N, 116°24'E). The current ambient level of CO₂ (375 ppm) and double the current ambient level (750 ppm, the predicted level in about 100

years) (IPCC 2007) were applied continuously in the OTCs. Four blocks were used for CO₂ treatment. Each block was split into paired OTCs, one with elevated and one with ambient CO₂.

During the 2 months of the experiment (9 August to 9 October 2007), 750 ppm CO₂ concentrations were monitored and controlled by an infrared CO₂ transmitter (Ventostat 8102, Telaire Company, Goleta, CA, USA) and were maintained throughout the experiment. CO₂ concentrations were measured hourly; the measured CO₂ concentrations (mean ± SD per day) were 383 ± 26 ppm in ambient CO₂ chambers versus 769 ± 23 ppm in elevated CO₂ chambers). Details of the automatic control system for CO₂ levels and OTCs were provided in Chen, Ge & Su (2005a) and Chen *et al.* (2005b). The tops of the OTCs were covered with nylon netting to exclude insects. Air temperature was measured three times a day throughout the experiment and did not differ significantly between the two sets of OTCs (24.8 ± 3.40 °C in ambient CO₂ chambers versus 25.5 ± 4.55 °C in elevated CO₂ chambers).

Host plants and nematodes

Wild-type (Wt) tomato plants (*L. esculentum* cv. Castlemart), the jasmonate-deficient *spr2* mutants (*spr2*), and the *35S:Prosystemin* transgenic tomato plants (*35S*) were kindly provided by Professor C. Li of the Institute of Genetics and Developmental Biology, the Chinese Academy of Sciences. The JA-biosynthesis mutant, *suppressor of prosystemin-mediated responses2* (*spr2*), reduces chloroplast ω3 fatty acid desaturase, which impairs the synthesis of JA (Li *et al.* 2003). In contrast, *35S:prosystemin* (*35S*) transgenic plants over-express prosystemin (Howe & Ryan 1999), which constitutively activates system defence in unwounded plants and results in stronger and quicker induced resistance (Li *et al.* 2002). Tomato (*L. esculentum*) cv. Castlemart was the wild type (Wt) parent for the *spr2* mutant and the *35S* transgenic plant. After growing in sterilized soil for 2 weeks, tomato seedlings were individually transplanted into small plastic pots (15 cm diameter and 13 cm height) containing sterilized loamy field soil and placed in OTCs on 9 August 2007. Each OTC contained 90 plants (30 of each tomato genotype × three genotypes).

The root-knot nematode, *M. incognita*, was cultured in Wt plants grown under ambient CO₂. To prepare nematode inoculum, nematode eggs were extracted from infected tomato roots by blending them in water containing 1.0% bleach (CaCl₂·Ca(OCl)₂·2H₂O) with an electric blender. Eggs and root debris were collected on a 25-μm-pore sieve. The second-stage juveniles (J2) were hatched from the eggs (Hussey & Barker 1973) and used as inoculum (see next paragraph).

On the same day (9 August) that seedlings were transplanted into pots and placed in the OTCs, 15 plants of each genotype in each OTC were randomly selected and inoculated with freshly hatched *M. incognita* J2 and any associated microorganisms, and another 15 plants of each tomato genotype in each OTC were treated with sterilized water as

the control. Thus, the experiment had two levels of CO₂, three tomato genotypes, and two levels of nematodes. All the nematode-treated pots received \approx 1000 J2 in 5 mL of water applied with a pipette over the surface of the soil around the primary roots.

Plants were maintained in the OTCs for 2 months. Pot placement was re-randomized within each OTC once every week. No chemical fertilizers and insecticides were used. Water was added to each pot once every 2 days.

Assessment of disease symptoms caused by the nematode

When J2 of *M. incognita* infect roots, they induce galls, and galls were quantified to estimate root infection in the present study. On 9 October (2 months after inoculation), roots of nematode-inoculated plant from three randomly selected plants of each of three tomato genotypes per OTC (= 9 plants per OTC and 72 plants in total) were carefully removed from soil and washed. A stereomicroscope was used to determine the numbers of galls produced on the entire root system of each plant.

Collection and quantification of plant volatiles

On 9 October, volatiles were collected from one randomly selected plant from each tomato genotype and nematode treatment per OTC (= 6 plants per OTC and 48 plants in total). The method used to collect headspace volatiles was similar to that described by Turlings *et al.* (1998) and Wei, Zhu & Kang (2006). The shoots and leaves of each plant, except for the stem extending 4–5 cm from the soil surface, were sealed in a plastic bag (40 cm wide and 46 cm long). Purified air was pumped (Beijing Institute of Labour Instruments, Beijing, China) into the bag through a freshly activated charcoal trap (Beijing Chemical Company, Beijing, China) and then withdrawn through a glass cartridge (3.0 mm internal diameter and 12.6 cm long) packed with 100 mg of the adsorbent Porapak Q (80–100 mesh, Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA); the flow rate was 0.25 L/min. Volatile compounds were rinsed from the Porapak Q with 600 μ L *n*-hexane (HPLC grade, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) containing internal standards (200 ng ethyl heptanoate) for quantification. The aeration extracts were stored at -20 °C until chemical analyses. After headspace volatiles were collected, the fresh weights of the plant leaves were immediately measured.

Volatiles were quantified and identified using a gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) system (Hewlett Packard 6890N GC model coupled with 5973 MSD) equipped with a HP-5MS column (30 m long, 0.25-mm-inner diameter, and 0.25- μ m-film thickness; Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA). The initial oven temperature was kept at 50 °C for 1 min, and then increased to 250 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min. Volatile compounds were identified by comparing their retention times and spectra with those of compounds in the NIST02 library (Scientific

Instrument Services, Inc., Ringoes, NJ, USA) and those of pure standards.

Assessment of plant traits and foliar chemical components

Four plants from each tomato genotype and nematode treatment per OTC (= 24 plants per OTC and 192 plants in total) were randomly selected on 8 October. After plant height (from base to terminal) was measured, the leaves and roots from each plant were collected and stored at -20 °C until subjected to chemical analysis, except that a sample of fresh leaves (600 mg) from each plant was removed and used to measure enzyme activity, as described later in this subsection. The soil from each pot was air-dried in a ventilation room and cleaned of roots and organic debris before being prepared for chemical analysis. Four additional plants per genotype and nematode treatment per OTC (192 plants in total) were removed from the soil and dried at 80 °C for 72 h to measure the biomass per plant.

Total non-structural carbohydrates (TNCs), mainly starch and sugar, in leaves and roots were assayed by acid hydrolysis following the method of Tissue & Wright (1995). The organic carbon in soil was measured following the Mebius method with minor modification (Nelson & Sommers 1982). Soil samples (0.5 g) were digested with 5 mL of 1 mol/L K₂Cr₂O₇ and 10 mL of concentrated H₂SO₄ (\approx 98%) at 150 °C for 30 min, followed by titration of the digests with standardized FeSO₄. Nitrogen content in leaves, roots, and soil were assayed using Kjeltac nitrogen analysis (Foss automated Kjeltac™ instruments, Model 2100).

Fresh tomato leaves (600 mg from each of 192 plants; see the first paragraph of this subsection) were homogenized for 1.5 min at 4 °C in 1:10 (fresh weight/buffer volume ratio) 100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, containing 100 mM KCl and 1 mM EDTA. Homogenates were centrifuged at 10 000 *g* for 10 min, and the supernatants were subjected to chemical component analysis. Protein concentration was determined by the Bradford (1976) assay. Total amino acids (TAA) were analysed with a reagent kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, Jiangsu Province, China) (Wu *et al.* 2007). The activities of the anti-oxidant enzymes, superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT), were also measured with a reagent kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute) (Wu *et al.* 2007). As indicated by kit protocol, SOD activity was assayed spectrophotometrically at 550 nm by use of the xanthine and xanthine oxidase system. One unit (*U*) of SOD activity was defined as the amount of SOD required for 50% inhibition of the xanthine and xanthine oxidase system reaction per minute and per milligram of total protein in the homogenate. CAT activity was based on the decomposition rate of H₂O₂ by the enzyme, which can be measured as absorbance decrease per minute at 405 nm. Enzyme activity values were also expressed in CAT units, where one unit is the amount of enzyme needed to hydrolyse 1 μ mol H₂O₂ per minute and per milligram of total proteins present in the homogenate.

Statistical analyses

A split-split plot design was used to analyse the univariate responses of the measured variables (i.e. plant height, biomass, VOC, foliar chemical components, C : N ratio) (ANOVA, SAS Institute, 1996). In the following ANOVA model, CO₂ and block (a pair of ambient and elevated OTCs) were the main effects, tomato genotype was the subplot effect, and nematode level was the sub-subplot effect:

$$X_{ijklm} = \mu + C_i + B(C)_{j(i)} + G_k + CG_{ik} + GB(C)_{kj(i)} + N_l + CN_{il} + NB(C)_{lj(i)} + GNB(C)_{klj(i)} + e_{m(ijkl)}$$

where C is the CO₂ treatment ($i = 2$), B is the block ($j = 4$), G is the tomato genotypes ($k = 3$), and N is the nematode treatment ($l = 2$). X_{ijklm} represents the error because of the smaller scale differences between samples and variability within blocks (ANOVA, SAS institute, 1996). Effects were considered significant if $P < 0.05$. The effect of block and the interactive effects of block and other factors were not significant ($P > 0.45$), and the effect of block and its interaction with other factors are not presented in order to facilitate data presentation in tables and in text. Least significant difference (LSD) tests were used to separate the levels within the same variable. To quantify the nematode reproduction on different tomato genotypes under two CO₂ levels, split-plot was also applied, with CO₂ and block as the main effects and tomato genotype as the subplot effect.

Proportional data were transformed using the arcsine square root to satisfy assumptions of normality. Data from plant height were square root-ln(X) transformed, and VOC and numbers of galls per gram of root were ln(X + 10) transformed if necessary.

RESULTS

Plant height, biomass, and C : N ratio

CO₂ level, genotype and their interaction had significant effects on plant height (Table A1). All factors, with the exception of the interaction between CO₂ level and genotype, as well as the interaction among CO₂ level, genotype and nematode, significantly affected plant biomass. Furthermore, all factors and their interactions had significant effects on the foliar TNC : N ratio, and with exception of CO₂ level, nematode, and interactions among the three factors, all factors and their interactions were significant for root TNC : N ratio. In contrast, only genotype and the interaction between genotype and nematode affected the soil C : N ratio (Table A1).

Elevated CO₂ increased the height, biomass and the foliar TNC : N ratio of all the genotypes (Fig. 1). Regardless of CO₂ level, uninfected 35S had highest foliar TNC : N ratio among genotypes. Nematode infection reduced the biomass of *spr2* plant under ambient CO₂ and the biomass of all the genotypes under elevated CO₂, but was not significant for plant height under both CO₂ levels (Fig. 1).

SOD, CAT, amino acids and protein

CO₂ level, genotype, nematode infection and their interactions (except for CO₂ × nematode) significantly affected the activity of SOD in tomato leaves (Table A1). Genotype, nematode infection, and their interaction had significant effects on CAT activity in tomato leaves. Furthermore, all factors and their interactions significantly influenced total amino acid and protein contents of leaves (Table A1).

Regardless of CO₂ level, uninfected 35S had highest enzyme activities of SOD and CAT among the three genotypes (Fig. 2). Furthermore, elevated CO₂ decreased the foliar total amino acid ($F_{1,36} = 325.6$, $P < 0.001$) and protein ($F_{1,36} = 27.4$, $P < 0.001$) contents of uninfected tomato genotypes. Moreover, among the uninfected three tomato genotypes, *spr2* leaves had the highest amino acid and protein contents under both ambient and elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2).

Elevated CO₂ decreased amino acid content of all the genotypes infected by nematodes. In the leaves of jasmonate-deficient *spr2* mutants grown under ambient CO₂, SOD activity was higher in nematode-infected than in uninfected plants ($F_{3,12} = 15.0$, $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 2a), which was opposite the trend found with elevated CO₂. In contrast, nematode infection was associated with higher SOD activity under elevated CO₂ rather than ambient CO₂ in the leaves of Wt plants ($F_{3,12} = 32.6$, $P < 0.001$) and 35S transgenic plants ($F_{3,12} = 13.1$, $P < 0.001$). Under both CO₂ levels, CAT activity was higher in the leaves of *spr2* and 35S plants infected with nematodes than in those not infected with nematodes (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, among the three tomato genotypes, 35S plants had the highest SOD and CAT activities regardless of treatment.

Nematode infection caused higher amino acid content in *spr2* and 35S leaves, and lower amino acid content in Wt leaves, under both ambient and elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2c). For the three tomato genotypes, foliar protein content decreased in response to nematode infection under ambient CO₂ but increased in response to nematode infection under elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2d).

Volatile emission rate

CO₂ level, tomato genotype and nematode infection had significant effects on the total amount of VOC. Interactive effects between tomato genotype and nematode and among CO₂ level, tomato genotype, and nematode were also significant for total amount of plant VOC (Table A2).

In the absence of nematodes, elevated CO₂ increased the total amount of VOC released by only 35S plants ($F_{3,12} = 11.9$, $P = 0.001$). The jasmonate-deficient *spr2* plants released less VOC than 35S plants under both ambient and elevated CO₂ (Fig. 3). Elevated CO₂ reduced emission of β-myrcene in uninfected *spr2* plants and increased emission of β-phellandrene in uninfected 35S plants (Table A3). *spr2* plants emitted less of each volatile terpene than 35S plants under elevated CO₂.

VOC were increased in response to nematode infection under ambient CO₂ treatments in all three tomato

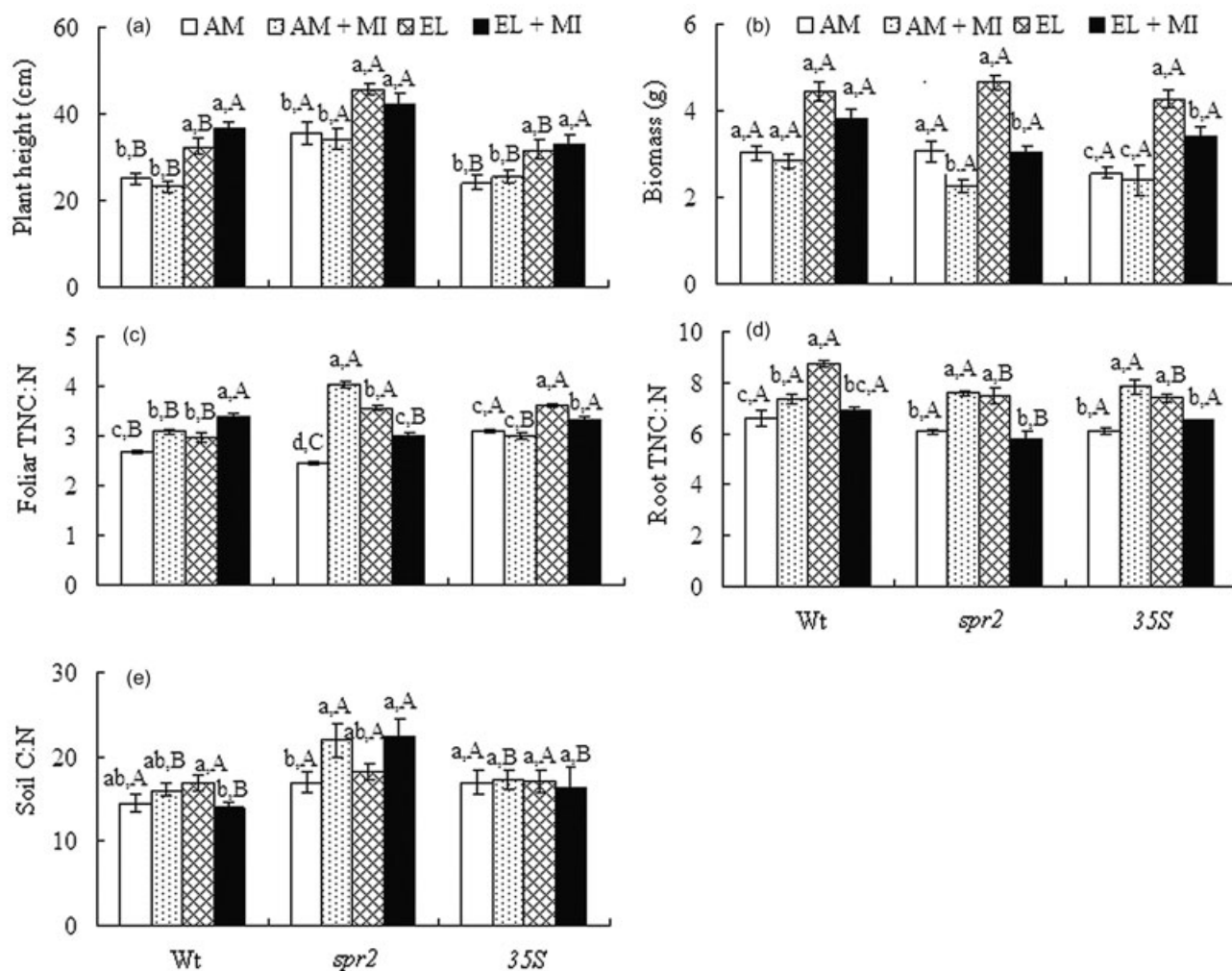


Figure 1. Growth traits and C : N ratio of tomato genotypes grown under ambient (AM) and elevated CO₂ (EL) without and with *M. incognita* (MI). Each value represents the average (\pm SE) of four replicates. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences among combinations of nematode and CO₂ level within the same tomato genotype (LSD test: d.f. = 3.12; $P < 0.05$). Different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among tomato genotypes within the same CO₂ and nematode treatment (LSD test: d.f. = 2.9; $P < 0.05$). TNC : N ratio in foliage and root represents the total non-structural carbohydrates: total nitrogen ratio.

genotypes, while VOC were not changed in 35S plants grown under elevated CO₂ and with nematode infection (Fig. 3). With the exception of tomato genotypes grown under elevated CO₂ and with nematode infection ($F_{2,9} = 4.12$, $P = 0.122$), the jasmonate-deficient *spr2* plants released less VOC than 35S plants in all treatments (Fig. 3). Under ambient CO₂, nematode infection increased emission of β -myrcene in *spr2* and 35S plants and camphene in 35S plants. Furthermore, under elevated CO₂, nematode infection increased emission of α -phellandrene and β -phellandrene in Wt plants, and camphene and β -phellandrene in *spr2* plants (Table A3).

Galls resulting from nematode infection

Tomato genotype affected the number of nematode-induced galls per gram of dry root ($F_{2,48} = 23.38$, $P < 0.001$). Elevated CO₂ and the interaction with tomato genotype,

however, were not significant for the number of galls on plant root (Fig. 4). Furthermore, the number of galls on 35S root was greater under elevated CO₂ than under ambient CO₂ ($F_{1,22} = 6.23$, $P = 0.021$). Regardless of CO₂ level, there were fewer galls on 35S plants than on Wt or *spr2* plants. Under elevated CO₂, galls were more abundant on *spr2* roots than on the roots of the other two genotypes ($F_{2,33} = 16.1$, $P < 0.001$). Whether data were analysed as numbers of galls per gram of root (Fig. 4) or as numbers of galls per root system, the patterns and statistical analysis were the same (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

Under our experimental conditions, elevated CO₂ increases the C : N ratio in plant tissue (both leaf and root) and increases plant height and biomass in all treatment. It is suggested that regardless of nematode infection, three

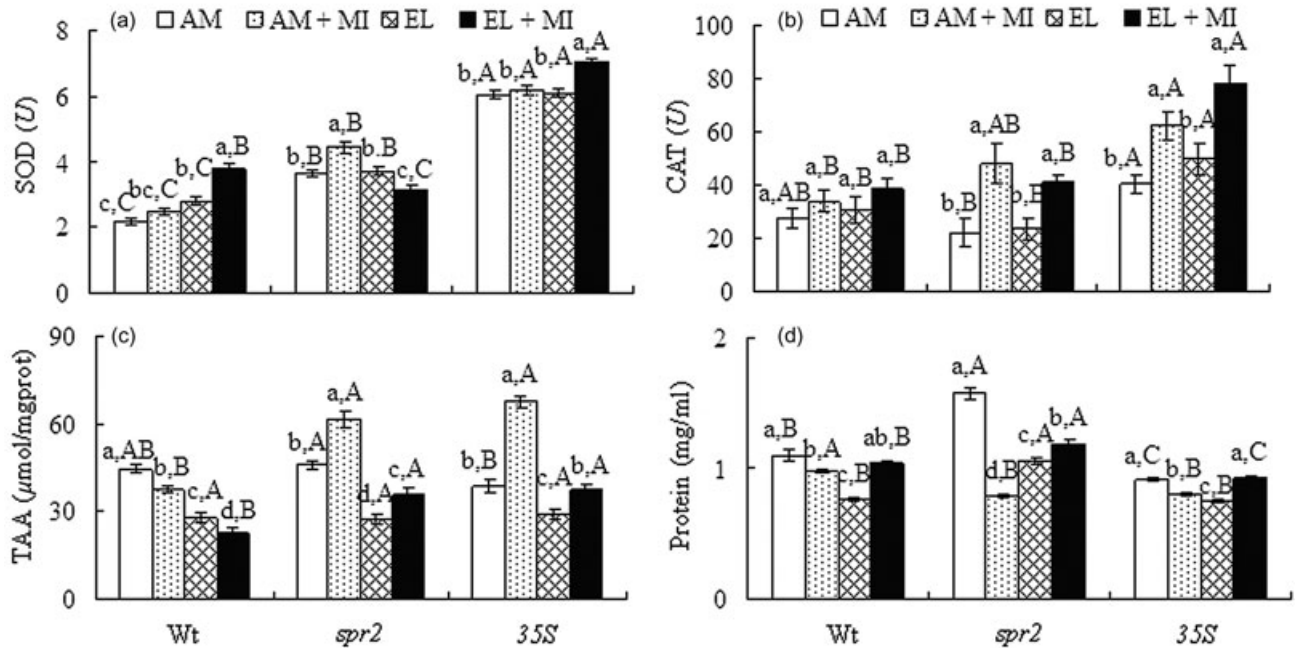


Figure 2. Foliar chemical components of tomato genotypes grown under ambient (AM) and elevated CO₂ (EL) without and with *M. incognita* (MI). Each value represents the average (\pm SE) of four replicates. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences among combinations of nematode and CO₂ level within the same tomato genotype (LSD test: d.f. = 3.12; $P < 0.05$). Different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among tomato genotypes within the same CO₂ and nematode treatment (LSD test: d.f. = 2.9; $P < 0.05$).

genotypes of tomato allocated more carbon to growth under elevated CO₂. Furthermore, the defence-dominated genotypes reduced their defence (in terms of gall numbers) against nematodes under elevated CO₂, whereas two of other genotypes were not changed. But our plants were vigorous and better able to support nematodes as shown in

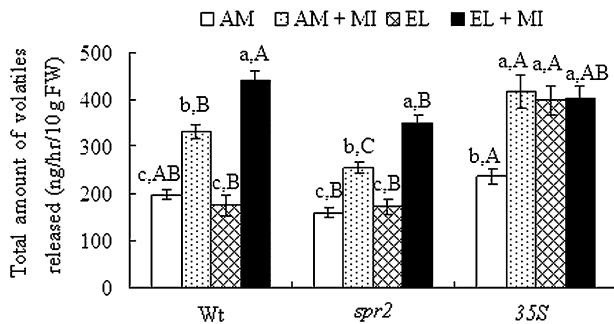


Figure 3. Emission rate of total volatile organic compounds (VOC) from tomato genotypes grown under ambient (AM) and elevated CO₂ (EL) without and with *M. incognita* (MI). Each value represents the average (\pm SE) of four replicates. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences among combinations of nematode and CO₂ level within the same tomato genotype (LSD test: d.f. = 3.12; $P < 0.05$); Different uppercase letters indicate significantly different among tomato genotypes within the same CO₂ and nematode treatment (LSD test: d.f. = 2.9; $P < 0.05$). Emission rate represents ng of compound released by 10g (fresh weight) of leaves per hour.

plant sized; the plants were not impacted by a stress in addition to *Meloidogyne* and it is when two stresses occur that 'nematode damage' is likely to be shown. Our results debate the hypothesis that defence-dominated genotypes tend to increase the defence against nematodes under elevated CO₂. To the best of our knowledge, our report is the first to consider how isogenic genotypes respond to nematode infection under elevated CO₂. This study demonstrates that elevated CO₂ not only increases the plant C : N ratio but also alters partitioning patterns of plant resources

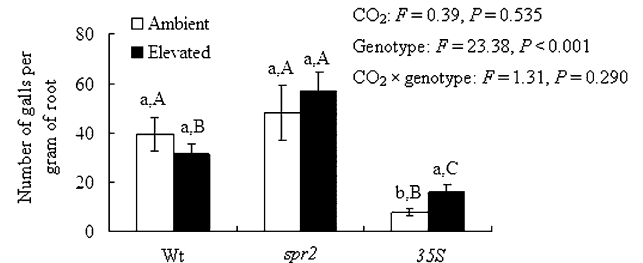


Figure 4. Number of galls per gram of dry root infected by *M. incognita* on tomato genotypes grown under ambient (370 ppm) and elevated CO₂ (750 ppm). Each value represents the average (\pm SE) of 12 replicates. P - and F -value of ANOVA are shown. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences between CO₂ levels within the same tomato genotype (LSD test: d.f. = 1.6, $P < 0.05$); different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among tomato genotypes within CO₂ levels (LSD test: d.f. = 3.12, $P < 0.05$).

between growth and defence, and elevated CO₂ may reduce the resistance or increase the tolerance of plants to the parasitic nematode *M. incognita* when that resistance is based on the JA pathway.

JA-induced defence plays an important role in protecting plant roots from pests and pathogens (Bhattarai *et al.* 2008), and the systemic defence signals associated with the JA pathway are rapidly transported between above-ground and below-ground plant parts (Ryan 2000; Van Dam *et al.* 2003). For example, root application of methyl jasmonate induced nematode resistance in spinach (Soriano *et al.* 2004), and foliar application of JA also induced systemic defence and suppressed the reproduction of the nematode *Meloidogyne javanica* on tomatoes (Cooper *et al.* 2005). In this study, 35S plants had the most resistance to *M. incognita*, probably because 35S transgenic plants over-express prosystemin, which can constitutively activate the JA pathway in unwounded plants and result in stronger and quicker induced resistance; among the three genotypes, 35S leaves have been found to contain the highest JA levels (≈ 1.2 nmol/g in fresh weight) (Bergey, Howe & Ryan 1996). We note that the jasmonate-deficient mutant *spr2* was not significantly more susceptible than the Wt under ambient CO₂. It follows that, although enhanced systemic defence in 35S can increase the resistance to nematodes, the JA-pathway is not the only defence mechanism involved in plant resistance to nematodes.

To date, researchers have proposed several mechanisms of plant resistance to nematode infection, including the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the hypersensitive reaction (Melillo *et al.* 2006). Thus, the activities of anti-oxidant enzymes could play an important role in resistance of the three tomato genotypes to nematode infection. Our data show that, regardless of CO₂, the regulation pattern of anti-oxidant enzymes SOD and CAT vary among tomato genotypes response to nematode infection. Although we do not know the mechanisms by which nematodes activate the anti-oxidant enzymes among isogenic tomatoes differing in JA pathway, the variety-specific regulation pattern of anti-oxidant enzymes may be involved in the process that elevated CO₂ changes plant resistance against nematode infection.

Elevated CO₂ is expected to increase the emission of VOC from plants because excess carbon is likely to be allocated to volatile secondary metabolites and/or to the larger and heavier leaves (Constable *et al.* 1999; Vuorinen *et al.* 2004). However, changes in VOC emissions in response to elevated CO₂ are highly variety-specific or genotype-specific (Loreto *et al.* 2001; Staudt *et al.* 2001). In our study, elevated CO₂ increased VOC emissions only for 35S plants, in which elevated CO₂ enhanced the synthesis of terpenes and sesquiterpenes. Furthermore, several studies have measured VOC emission from tomatoes under current ambient CO₂ levels. Sánchez-Hernández, López & Délano-Frier (2006) reported that *spr2* plants produced lower levels of VOC than Wt and 35S plants in response to herbivory by tobacco hornworm (Lepidoptera) and mechanical damage. However, minor quantitative and qualitative differences in

volatile emissions were detected between intact *def-1* mutants (*defenseless-1*, deficient in JA accumulation) and Wt tomatoes, and no induced emission of volatiles was detected in spider mite-infested *def-1* tomatoes (Thaler *et al.* 2002; Ament *et al.* 2004). In our study, nematode infection increased VOC emissions from the three tomato genotypes under ambient CO₂ levels, whereas nematode infection only increased the VOC emissions of Wt and *spr2* plants under elevated CO₂ levels.

Although small pots could reduce or eliminate plant responses to elevated CO₂, some research indicates that CO₂-induced growth enhancement is not necessarily reduced in small pots (McConnaughay, Berntson & Bazzaz 1993). Kerstiens & Hawes (1994) even concluded that there is no evidence that inadequate pot size had a negative impact on the response of plant to elevated CO₂. In this study, elevated CO₂ enhanced plant growth, and the larger plants presumably absorbed more nitrogen from soil. However, soil C : N ratio did not differ among the three tomato genotypes or between ambient and elevated CO₂. Thus, elevated CO₂ provided excess carbon while nitrogen was not changed, so that the larger plants contained less nitrogen per unit of tissue, which was in accordance with the CNB hypothesis (Hamilton *et al.* 2001).

Genetic tradeoffs between growth and defence is manifested in variety-specific responses to (a)biotic environments (Herms & Mattson 1992). In our study, a higher level of basal defence was maintained in 35S plants, while higher nutrients (proteins and amino acids) were found in *spr2* plants, which indicated *spr2* plants allocate more carbon and nitrogen resources to nutrient synthesis. Artificial genetic modification of 35S plants apparently increased the physiological cost of defence. Although the biomass of *spr2* plants was 20% greater than that of 35S plants under ambient CO₂, the difference was not statistically significant. Because of different metabolic/physiological processes in three tomato genotypes which may limit the response of plant genotypes to elevated CO₂, the partitioning patterns of these genetically modified plants may be changed under elevated CO₂ (Cseke *et al.* 2009). We suggest that elevated CO₂ increases the growth of defence-dominative genotypes whereas decreases their defence against nematodes. In contrast, elevated CO₂ only enhances the growth of defence-recessive genotypes and wild-types, and is not significant for their defence against nematodes. Thus, elevated CO₂ not only increased the carbon resource and C : N ratio in plant tissue, but it also disrupted the allocation of carbon resources between growth and defence in different tomato genotypes.

Overall, in studying how the interactions of isogenic tomatoes and nematode are affected by elevated CO₂, we detected genotype-specific responses in VOC emission, nutrition content, and anti-oxidant defence. These results argue against our previous hypothesis and suggest that elevated CO₂ reduces the defence of defence-dominated genotypes against nematodes but has no effect on two of other genotypes. Plant defence pathways interact synergistically to the challenge of infection, and cross-talk between different defences pathways has been demonstrated

(Bostock 1999). In this respect, further work on the effects of elevated CO₂ on resistance to infection should consider multiple signalling pathways.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Professor Chuanyou Li (Institute of Genetics and Developmental Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences) for providing the tomato seeds and Xiaowei Qin for technical assistance of GC-MS analysis, and also thank Professor Bruce Jaffee from University of California at Davis for reviewing the manuscript draft. This project was supported by 'National Basic Research Program of China' (973 Program) (No. 2006CB102002), the Innovation Program of Chinese Academy of Science (KSCX2-YW-N-006) and National Nature Science Fund of China (Nos. 30970510, 30621003).

REFERENCES

- Agrell J., McDonald E.P. & Lindroth R.L. (2000) Effects of CO₂ and light on tree-insect interactions. *Oikos* **88**, 259–272.
- Allard V., Robin C., Newton P.C.D., Lieffering M. & Soussana J.F. (2006) Short-term and long-term effects of elevated CO₂ on *Lolium perenne* root exudation and its consequences on soil organic matter turnover and plant N yield. *Soil Biology Biochemistry* **38**, 1178–1187.
- Ament K., Kant M.R., Sabelis M.W., Harring A. & Schuurink R.C. (2004) Jasmonic acid is a key regulator of spider mite-induced volatile terpenoid and methyl salicylate. *Plant Physiology* **135**, 2025–2037.
- Barker K.R. & Koenning S.R. (1998) Development of sustainable systems for nematode management. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* **36**, 165–205.
- Bergey D.R., Howe G.A. & Ryan C.A. (1996) Polypeptide signaling for plant defensive genes exhibits analogies to defense signaling in animals. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **93**, 12053–12058.
- Bezemer T.M. & Jones T.H. (1998) Plant-insect herbivore interactions in elevated atmospheric CO₂: Quantitative analyses and guild effects. *Oikos* **82**, 212–222.
- Bhattacharai K.K., Xie Q.G., Mantelin S., Bishnoi U., Girke T., Navarre D.A. & Kaloshian I. (2008) Tomato susceptibility to root-knot nematodes requires an intact jasmonic acid signaling pathway. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions* **21**, 1205–1214.
- Bostock R.M. (1999) Signal conflicts and synergies in induced resistance to multiple attackers. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology* **55**, 99–109.
- Bradford M.M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye-binding. *Analytical Biochemistry* **72**, 248–254.
- Chen F.J., Ge F. & Su J.W. (2005a) An improved top-open chamber for research on the effects of elevated CO₂ on agricultural pests in field-improved open-top chamber. *Chinese Journal of Ecology* **24**, 585–590.
- Chen F.J., Wu G., Ge F., Parajulee M.N. & Shrestha R.B. (2005b) Effects of elevated CO₂ and transgenic Bt cotton on plant chemistry, performance, and feeding of an insect herbivore, the cotton bollworm. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* **115**, 341–350.
- Constable J.V.H., Litvak M.E., Greenberg J.P. & Monson R.K. (1999) Monoterpene emission from coniferous trees in response to elevated CO₂ concentration and climate warming. *Global Change Biology* **5**, 255–267.
- Cooper W.R. & Goggin F.L. (2005) Effects of jasmonate-induced defenses in tomato on the potato aphid, *Macrosiphum euphorbiae*. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* **115**, 107–115.
- Cooper W.R., Jia L. & Goggin L. (2005) Effects of jasmonate-induced defenses on root-knot nematode infection of resistant and susceptible tomato cultivars. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* **31**, 1953–1967.
- Cseke L.J., Tsai C., Rogers A., Nelsen M.P., White H.L., Karnosky D.F. & Podila G.K. (2009) Transcriptomic comparison in the leaves of two aspen genotypes having similar carbon assimilation rates but different partitioning patterns under elevated CO₂. *New Phytologist* **182**, 891–911.
- Davis E.L., Hussey R.S. & Baum T.J. (2004) Getting to the roots of parasitism by nematodes. *Trends in Parasitology* **20**, 134–141.
- Goulden C.H. (1956) *Methods of Statistical Analysis*, pp. 50–55. Wiley, New York, USA.
- Goverde M., Bazin A., Shykoff J.A. & Erhardt A. (1999) Influence of leaf chemistry of *Lotus corniculatus* (Fabaceae) on larval development of *Polyommatus icarus* (Lepidoptera: Lycaenidae): Effects of elevated CO₂ and plant genotype. *Functional Ecology* **13**, 801–810.
- Hamilton J.G., Zangerl A.R., Delucia E.H. & Berenbaum M.R. (2001) The carbon-nutrient balance hypothesis: Its rise and fall. *Ecology Letters* **4**, 86–95.
- Hartley S.E., Jones C.G., Couper G.C. & Jones T.H. (2000) Biosynthesis of plant phenolic compounds in elevated atmospheric CO₂. *Global Change Biology* **6**, 497–506.
- Hermes D.A. & Mattson W.J. (1992) The dilemma of plants: To grow or defend. *The Quarterly Review of Biology* **67**, 283–335.
- Howe G.A. & Jander G. (2007) Plant immunity to insect herbivores. *Annual Review of Plant Biology* **17**, 41–66.
- Howe G.A. & Ryan C.A. (1999) Suppressors of systemin signaling identify genes in the tomato wound response pathway. *Genetics* **153**, 1411–1421.
- Hussey R.S. & Barker K.R. (1973) A comparison of methods of collecting inocula of *Melodogyne* spp., including a new technique. *Plant Disease Reporter* **57**, 1025–1028.
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (2007) *Climate Change 2007; the physical science basis. Summary for policy makers. Report of Working Group I of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. [WWW document]. URL <http://www.ipcc.ch/pub/spm18-02.pdf>
- Jablonski L.M., Wang X. & Curtis P.S. (2002) Plant reproduction under elevated CO₂ conditions: A meta-analysis of reports on 79 crop and wild species. *New Phytologist* **156**, 9–26.
- Jasmer D.P., Goverse A. & Smant G. (2003) Parasitic nematode interactions with Mammals and plants. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* **41**, 245–270.
- Kerstiens G. & Hawes C.V. (1994) Response of growth and carbon allocation to elevated CO₂ in young cherry (*Prunus avium* L.) saplings in relation to root environment. *New Phytologist* **128**, 607–614.
- Li C., Williams M.M., Loh Y.T., Lee G.I. & Howe G.A. (2002) Resistance of cultivated tomato to cell content-feeding herbivores is regulated by the octadecanoid-signaling pathway. *Plant Physiology* **130**, 494–503.
- Li C., Liu G., Xu C., Lee G., Bauer P., Ganai M., Ling H. & Howe G.A. (2003) The tomato suppressor of prosystemin-mediated responses2 gene encodes a fatty acid desaturase required for the biosynthesis of jasmonic acid and the production of a systemic wound signal for defense gene expression. *Plant Cell* **15**, 1646–1661.
- Li P., Ainsworth E.A., Leakey A.B., Ulanov A., Lozovaya V., Ort D.R. & Bohnert H.J. (2008) *Arabidopsis* transcript and

- metabolite profiles: Ecotype-specific responses to open-air elevated CO₂. *Plant, Cell and Environment* **31**, 1673–1687.
- Lindroth R.L., Roth S. & Nordheim E.V. (2001) Genotypic variation in response of quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) to atmospheric CO₂ enrichment. *Oecologia* **126**, 371–376.
- Loreto F., Fischbach R.J., Schnitzler J.P., Ciccioli P., Brancaleoni E., Calfapietra C. & Seufert G. (2001) Monoterpene emission and monoterpene synthase activities in the Mediterranean evergreen oak *Quercus ilex* L. grown at elevated CO₂ concentrations. *Global Change Biology* **7**, 709–717.
- McConaughay K.D.M., Berntson G.M. & Bazzaz F.A. (1993) Limitations to CO₂-induced growth enhancement in pot. *Oecologia* **94**, 550–557.
- Melillo M.T., Leonetti P., Bongiovanni M., Castagnone-Sereno P. & Bleve-Zacheo T. (2006) Modulation of reactive oxygen species activities and H₂O₂ accumulation during compatible and incompatible tomato-root-knot nematode interactions. *New Phytologist* **170**, 501–512.
- Nelson D.W. & Sommers L.E. (1982) Total carbon, organic carbon, and organic matter. In *Methods of Soil Analysis* (eds A.L. Page, R.H. Miller & D.R. Keeney), pp. 101–129. American Society of Agronomy and Soil Science Society of American, Madison, WI, USA.
- Phillips D.A., Fox T.C. & Six J. (2006) Root exudation (net flux of amino acids) may increase rhizodeposition under elevated CO₂. *Global Change Biology* **12**, 561–567.
- Ryan C.A. (2000) The systemin signaling pathway: Differential activation of plant defensive genes. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* **1477**, 112–121.
- Sánchez-Hernández C., López M.G. & Délano-Frier J.P. (2006) Reduced levels of volatile emissions in jasmonate-deficient *spr2* tomato mutants favour oviposition by insect herbivores. *Plant, Cell and Environment* **29**, 546–557.
- Soriano I.R., Riley I.T., Potter M.J. & Bowers W.S. (2004) Phytoecdysteroids: A novel defense against plant-parasitic nematodes. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* **30**, 1885–1899.
- Staudt M., Joffre R., Rambal S. & Kesselmeier J. (2001) Effect of elevated CO₂ on monoterpene emission of young *Quercus ilex* trees and its relation to structural and ecophysiological parameters. *Tree Physiology* **21**, 437–445.
- Thaler J.S., Farag M.A., Paré P.W. & Dicke M. (2002) Jasmonate deficient plants have reduced direct and indirect defenses against herbivores. *Ecology Letters* **5**, 764–774.
- Tingey D.T., Mckane R.B., Olszyk D.M., Johnson M.G., Rygielwicz P.T. & Lee E.H. (2003) Elevated CO₂ and temperature alter nitrogen allocation in Douglas-fir. *Global Change Biology* **9**, 1038–1050.
- Tissue D.T. & Wright S.J. (1995) Effects of seasonal water availability on phenology and the annual shoot carbohydrate cycle of tropical forest shrubs. *Functional Ecology* **9**, 518–527.
- Turlings T.C.J., Bernasconi M., Bertossa R., Bigler F., Caloz G. & Dorn S. (1998) The induction of volatile emissions in maize by three herbivore species with different feeding habits: Possible consequences for their natural enemies. *Biological Control* **11**, 122–129.
- Van Dam N.M., Harvey J.A., Wackers F.L., Bezemer T.M., Van der Putten W.H. & Vet L.E.M. (2003) Interactions between above-ground and belowground induced responses against phytophages. *Basic and Applied Ecology* **4**, 63–77.
- Vuorinen T., Reddy G.V.P., Nerga A.M. & Holopainen J.K. (2004) Monoterpene and herbivore-induced emissions from cabbage plants grown at elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration. *Atmospheric Environment* **38**, 675–682.
- Wei J.N., Zhu J. & Kang L. (2006) Volatiles released from bean plants in response to agromyzid flies. *Planta* **224**, 279–287.
- Wu G., Chen F.J. & Ge F. (2006) Response of multiple generations of cotton bollworm *Helicoverpa armigera* Hübner, feeding on spring wheat, to elevated CO₂. *Journal of Applied Entomology* **130**, 2–9.
- Wu G., Chen F.J., Ge F. & Sun Y.C. (2007) Transgenic *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) allomone response to cotton aphid, *Aphis gossypii*, in a closed-dynamics CO₂ chamber (CDCC). *Journal of Plant Research* **120**, 679–685.
- Yeates G.W. & Newton P.C.D. (2009) Long-term changes in topsoil nematode populations in grazed pasture under elevated carbon dioxide. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* **45**, 799–808.

Received 13 September 2009; received in revised form 8 November 2009; accepted for publication 28 November 2009

APPENDIX

Table A1. *P*-values from ANOVAS for the effect of CO₂ level, tomato genotype, nematode infection on growth traits, C : N ratio, and foliar chemical components of three tomato genotypes

Dependent variable	Main effects and interactions						
	CO ₂ ^a	Genotype ^b	Nematode ^c	CO ₂ × Genotype	CO ₂ × Nematode	Genotype × Nematode	CO ₂ × Genotype × Nematode
Height	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.978	0.047*	0.896	0.548	0.764
Biomass	<0.001***	0.038*	<0.001***	0.679	0.012*	0.008**	0.756
Foliar TNC : N ^d	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***
Root TNC : N ^d	0.073	<0.001***	0.576	0.002**	<0.001***	0.006**	0.508
Soil C : N	0.802	<0.001***	0.137	0.838	0.19	0.022*	0.551
SOD ^e	0.001**	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.907	0.03*	<0.001***
CAT ^f	0.126	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.098	0.984	0.035*	0.564
TAA ^g	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.045*	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.001***
Protein content	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.003**	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***

P*<0.05, *P*<0.01, ****P*<0.001.^aAmbient CO₂ versus elevated CO₂.^bThree genotypes of tomato (*spr2*, *Wt*, and *35S:prosys*).^cInoculated or not inoculated with the root-knot nematode *M. incognita*.^dTNC : N ratio in foliage and root represents the total non-structural carbohydrates: total nitrogen ratio.^esuperoxide dismutase.^fcatalase.^gtotal amino acids.**Table A2.** *P*-values from ANOVAS for the effect of CO₂ level, tomato genotype, and nematode infection on plant volatiles

Volatiles	CO ₂ ^a	Genotype ^b	Nematode ^c	CO ₂ × Genotype	CO ₂ × Nematode	Genotype × Nematode	CO ₂ × Genotype × Nematode
α-pinene	0.101	0.025*	0.004**	0.595	0.809	0.424	0.704
<i>p</i> -cymene	0.194	0.013*	0.011*	0.499	0.718	0.769	0.375
carveol	0.557	0.165	0.004**	0.319	0.909	0.886	0.642
β-pinene	0.974	0.348	0.102	0.912	0.827	0.328	0.346
β-myrcene	0.856	0.416	0.068	0.084	0.557	0.863	0.434
camphene	0.081	0.01*	<0.001***	0.949	0.838	0.115	0.072
α-phellandrene	0.218	0.114	0.008**	0.248	0.356	0.002**	0.049*
β-phellandrene	0.017*	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.569	0.922	0.149	0.006**
Total release	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.354	0.639	0.001**	<0.001***

P*<0.05, *P*<0.01, ****P*<0.001.^aAmbient CO₂ versus elevated CO₂.^bThree genotypes of tomato (*spr2*, *Wt*, and *35S:prosys*).^cInoculated or not inoculated with the root-knot nematode *M. incognita*.

Table A3. Emission rate^a of volatile organic compounds (VOC) from tomato genotypes grown under ambient (370 ppm) and elevated CO₂ (750 ppm) without and with *M. incognita*

Genotype	Volatiles	370 ppm		750 ppm		
		– <i>M. incognita</i>	+ <i>M. incognita</i>	– <i>M. incognita</i>	+ <i>M. incognita</i>	
Wt	α-pinene	14.0 ± 3.90a,A	26.9 ± 5.76a,A	14.4 ± 4.14a,B	35.9 ± 11.8a,A	
	<i>p</i> -cymene	7.45 ± 2.15a,AB	12.7 ± 1.68a,A	7.78 ± 1.6a,B	21.9 ± 9.76a,A	
	carveol	0.92 ± 0.18a,A	1.57 ± 0.17a,A	1.04 ± 0.16a,AB	1.81 ± 0.63a,A	
	β-pinene	3.14 ± 0.38a,A	2.77 ± 0.51a,A	2.98 ± 0.69a,AB	3.08 ± 0.79a,A	
	β-myrcene	2.90 ± 0.85a,A	3.09 ± 0.86a,A	2.85 ± 0.80a,A	4.40 ± 1.24a,A	
	camphene	45.3 ± 9.99a,A	88.0 ± 6.89a,A	41.2 ± 17.6a,B	113.7 ± 21.0a,A	
	α-phellandrene	4.18 ± 1.17b,A	6.90 ± 1.21ab,A	2.83 ± 0.66b,B	16.0 ± 3.24a,A	
	β-phellandrene	103.6 ± 21.2b,A	179.6 ± 16.6ab,AB	86.4 ± 11.0b,B	223.3 ± 23.6a,A	
	<i>spr2</i>	α-pinene	13.6 ± 3.65a,A	25.7 ± 10.3a,A	14.6 ± 3.52a,B	30.8 ± 6.87a,A
		<i>p</i> -cymene	5.94 ± 0.65a,B	17.2 ± 7.72a,A	8.62 ± 2.71a,B	12.7 ± 1.67a,A
carveol		1.24 ± 0.10a,A	1.51 ± 0.29a,A	0.76 ± 0.060a,B	1.45 ± 0.27a,A	
β-pinene		2.67 ± 0.15a,A	3.07 ± 0.32a,A	1.98 ± 0.17a,B	3.29 ± 0.73a,A	
β-myrcene		4.16 ± 0.86a,A	4.00 ± 0.49a,A	1.51 ± 0.21b,B	3.06 ± 0.76ab,A	
camphene		38.3 ± 6.51b,A	52.0 ± 11.0b,A	41.5 ± 6.50b,B	82.9 ± 8.69a,A	
α-phellandrene		4.17 ± 0.64ab,A	6.61 ± 1.60a,A	3.39 ± 0.35b,B	5.24 ± 0.63ab,B	
β-phellandrene		65.5 ± 4.20c,A	122.7 ± 21.6b,B	86.4 ± 11.2 bc,B	192.0 ± 13.5a,A	
35S		α-pinene	23.5 ± 3.93a,A	32.0 ± 7.92a,A	39.3 ± 6.83a,A	40.9 ± 7.69a,A
		<i>p</i> -cymene	12.9 ± 2.18a,A	21.7 ± 7.34a,A	23.9 ± 5.28a,A	24.9 ± 3.91a,A
	carveol	1.05 ± 0.10b,A	1.85 ± 0.49ab,A	1.68 ± 0.29ab,A	2.06 ± 0.16a,A	
	β-pinene	0.98 ± 0.38a,B	3.33 ± 0.45a,A	2.14 ± 1.40a,A	2.56 ± 0.22a,A	
	β-myrcene	2.53 ± 0.30a,A	4.50 ± 1.50a,A	4.04 ± 0.88a,A	4.76 ± 0.67a,A	
	camphene	55.9 ± 9.78b,A	99.2 ± 19.8a,A	93.7 ± 14.0ab,A	89.2 ± 7.38ab,A	
	α-phellandrene	6.05 ± 1.54a,A	7.53 ± 4.32a,A	9.29 ± 1.51a,A	7.40 ± 0.65a,B	
	β-phellandrene	117.1 ± 19.2b,A	225.0 ± 22.4a,A	206.6 ± 35.4a,A	198.2 ± 15.7a,A	

^aEmission rate = ng of compound released by 10 g (fresh weight) of leaves per hour.

Each value represents the average (±SE) of 4 replicates. Different lowercase letters within a row indicate significant differences (LSD test: d.f. = 3.12; *P* < 0.05); Different uppercase letters indicate significantly different among tomato genotypes within the same CO₂ and nematode treatment (LSD test: d.f. = 2.9; *P* < 0.05).