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LETTER

Elevated CO₂ does not stimulate carbon sink in a semi-arid grassland

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Abstract

Elevated CO₂ is widely accepted to enhance terrestrial carbon sink, especially in arid and semiarid regions. However, great uncertainties exist for the CO₂ fertilisation effects, particularly when its interactions with other global change factors are considered. A four-factor (CO₂, temperature, precipitation and nitrogen) experiment revealed that elevated CO₂ did not affect either gross ecosystem productivity or ecosystem respiration, and consequently resulted in no changes of net ecosystem productivity in a semi-arid grassland despite whether temperature, precipitation and nitrogen were elevated or not. The observations could be primarily attributable to the offset of ecosystem carbon uptake by enhanced soil carbon release under CO₂ enrichment. Our findings indicate that arid and semi-arid ecosystems may not be sensitive to CO₂ enrichment as previously expected and highlight the urgent need to incorporate this mechanism into most IPCC carboncycle models for convincing projection of terrestrial carbon sink and its feedback to climate change.

Keywords

Carbon cycle, climate warming, CO₂ enrichment, forb, grass, increased precipitation, modelling, multi-factor experiment, nitrogen addition, species composition.

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INTRODUCTION

Rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations can not only stimulate plant growth and productivity directly by enhancing mesophyll CO₂ diffusion and photosynthesis (Sun et al. 2014), but also indirectly by reducing leaf stomatal conductance and evapotranspiration (de Boer et al. 2011; Lammertsma et al. 2011), increasing water-use efficiency (Keenan et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2016) and ameliorating water limitation (Morgan et al. 2011; Farrior et al. 2015). As a consequence, increasing experimental evidence has unambiguously revealed that CO₂ enrichment can enhance ecosystem carbon (C) uptake and sequestration across various terrestrial biomes -CO₂ fertilisation effects (CFEs; DeLucia et al. 1999; Smith et al. 2000; Gill et al. 2002; Norby et al. 2005; Morgan et al. 2011; Evans et al. 2014; Farrior et al. 2015; Roy et al. 2016). Based on atmospheric and satellite observations, terrestrial Ccycle models, which are used in IPCC Reports to assess land C budget responses to global change (IPCC 2014), have further attributed increasing global greening and a significant fraction of land C storage to CFEs (Zhu et al. 2016a; Huntzinger et al. 2017). Moreover, the water-saving mechanisms associated with CO₂ enrichment suggest that CFEs are more prominent in arid and semi-arid ecosystems (Donohue et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2016), and contribute profoundly to land C sink and global C cycling (Ahlström et al. 2015).

As an important biome, grasslands occupy 87 and 54% of the arid and semi-arid regions, respectively (UN 2011). Quantifying the magnitude of grassland responses to rising atmospheric CO2 is crucial for accurately evaluating future global C budgets. However, large uncertainty of CFEs on grasslands remains due to the confounding impacts by other global change factors including climate warming, changing precipitation regimes and atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition (Zhu et al. 2016b; Carrillo et al. 2018). For example, the responses of terrestrial ecosystems to elevated CO2 (eCO2) are dampened by N scarcity (Hungate et al. 2003; van Groenigen et al. 2006; Reich et al. 2006; Reich & Hobbie 2013) and sustained for plants whose association with ectomycorrhizae provides better access to N (Terrer et al. 2016, 2018). Changes in climate conditions can also modulate the responses of plant productivity and C allocation to eCO₂. Several grassland FACE (free-air CO₂ enrichment) experiments have demonstrated that CFEs increase under summer-dominated rainfall (Hovenden et al. 2014), but decline in periods of extreme weather conditions (Mueller et al. 2016; Roy et al. 2016; Obermeier et al.

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2017, 2018). In addition, climate warming may enhance CFEs by increasing soil N availability (Hovenden *et al.* 2008, 2017; Dijkstra *et al.* 2010), and/or aggravating water limitation (Morgan *et al.* 2011).

Theoretical analyses further suggest that plant community composition may be a potential mediator of CFEs under multifactorial global change (Kardol et al. 2012; Langley & Hungate 2014), partly due to the diverse CO₂ responses of photosynthesis among plant species and related variations in interspecific competition (Poorter & Navas 2003). For example, growth stimulation of C₃ forbs under eCO₂ is higher than that of C₃/C₄ grasses in two FACE experiments (Lee et al. 2011; Newton et al. 2014), in contrast to other work (Fay et al. 2012; Andresen et al. 2017). In addition, a 20-year FACE experiment has revealed that eCO₂ can promote growth of C₃ grasses greater than C₄ grasses during the first 12 years of treatment, but the pattern reverses during the subsequent 8 years (Reich et al. 2018). Such differential responses are particularly important because species compositional shifts could dramatically affect community or ecosystem-level responses to eCO₂ (Langley & Megonigal 2010). Overall, a comprehensive assessment on CFEs should be made together with other global change factors (Reich et al. 2014; Zhu et al. 2016b) and take plant community composition into consideration (Kardol et al. 2012).

Here, we report the second four-factor (eCO₂, night-time warming, increased precipitation and N addition) experiment in the world, to the best of our knowledge, lasted for 6 years (2012–2017) in a semi-arid temperate steppe on the Mongolian Plateau. As the typical vegetation of the regional grassland biome across the Eurasian continent, this semi-arid temperate steppe is predominately controlled by water availability (Liu et al. 2009) and thus expected to respond strongly to eCO₂. Our previous studies at this experimental site have demonstrated that warming, increased precipitation and N addition consistently enhance gross ecosystem productivity (GEP) to a greater extent than ecosystem respiration (ER), leading to stimulations in net ecosystem productivity (NEP; Wan et al. 2009; Niu et al. 2010, 2011). Nevertheless, how CO₂ interacts with temperature, precipitation and N manipulations to affect ecosystem C exchange in this semi-arid grassland is still not clear. We hypothesised that (1) warming and N addition would amplify CFEs by increasing soil N availability and/or aggravating water limitation, and (2) on the contrary, increased precipitation would reduce CFEs by suppressing N availability (Hovenden et al. 2014) and/or ameliorating water limitation. Finally, although C-cycle models are critical in revealing grassland responses to eCO₂ at large spatiotemporal scales, considerable uncertainty still exists in model projections and needs to be reduced by parameterising with experimental data (Medlyn et al. 2015), especially under complex future climate change scenarios. Thus, we also compared our observations with model outputs to evaluate model performance.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study site

The experimental site is located in a semi-arid temperate steppe in Duolun County (42°02′ N, 116°16′ E, 1324 m a.s.l.),

Inner Mongolia, China. Long-term (1954–2016) mean annual temperature is 2.4 °C, and mean annual precipitation is 382 mm with 91% of annual rainfall occurring during the growing season from May to October (China Meteorological Data Sharing Service System). The sandy soil at this study site is classified as Haplic Calcisols (FAO classification). The study site was subjected to livestock grazing prior to 2001 and has been fenced since 2001 to exclude large herbivores with the national policy of ecological restoration in grasslands of China. Ambient N deposition in this area is approximately 20 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in 2005–2006 (Zhang *et al.* 2008).

Experimental design

The four-factor experiment was established in May 2011. Each factor had two levels: atmospheric CO₂ concentrations [ambient (aCO₂) and ambient plus 200 ppm (eCO₂)], temperature [ambient (aT) and elevated temperature (eT) by night-time (18:00-06:00, local time) warming], precipitation [ambient (aP) and 30% above the ambient precipitation (eP)], and N deposition [ambient (aN) and ambient plus 10 g N m⁻² year⁻¹ (eN)]. The experiment used a split-plot design, with CO₂, temperature and precipitation as main treatment factors and N as a subplot factor (Fig. S1). Twenty-four 4-m × 4-m plots were arranged into six rows and four columns, with a 4-m buffer zone between any two adjacent plots. The 24 plots were randomly assigned to the eight combinations of CO₂, temperature and precipitation, with each treatment having three replicates (blocks). Each of the 24 plots was divided into two subplots, one with N addition and one without. Therefore, this experiment included eight treatments with aN: aCO2aTaPaN, eCO2aTaPaN, aCO2eTaPaN, aCO2aTePaN, eCO2eTaPaN, eCO2aTePaN, aCO2eTePaN and eCO2eTePaN and eight treatments with eN: aCO2aTaPeN, eCO2aTaPeN, aCO2eTaPeN, aCO2aTe-PeN, eCO2eTaPeN, eCO2aTePeN, aCO2eTePeN and eCO2e-TePeN.

Experimental manipulations

Large octagonal open-top chambers (OTCs) were used to manipulate atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (for details see Appendix S1). In each eCO₂ plot, pure CO₂ was released into the OTC via plastic tubes (4 mm in diameter) to achieve a diurnal CO₂ enrichment of 200 ppm over ambient air from June to September of 2011-2017, controlled by LI-820 CO₂ Analyser (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) and an automatic control system (Luzhai Co., Beijing, China). The instruments were installed and tested in 2011. From 2012 to 2017, mean CO_2 concentrations were $406.7 \pm 3.6 \text{ ppm}$ 605.4 ± 8.1 ppm in the aCO₂ and eCO₂ plots, respectively (Fig. S2). The targeted eCO₂ concentration of 600 ppm equals the concentration likely to be reached mid-21st century (IPCC 2014) and is consistent with the treatments of most FACE experiments.

Evidence shows that the global surface temperature is increasing more quickly at night-time than daytime (Easterling *et al.* 1997), leading to a substantial stimulation of C sequestration in the same grassland (Wan *et al.* 2009). Thus, we

warmed plots at night-time using MSR-2420 infrared radiators (Kalglo Electronics Inc., Bethlehem, PA, USA) suspended 2.75 m above the ground, from mid-March to mid-November of 2011-2017. The night-time-warming treatment did increase night-time temperature (by 0.73 °C), but the increased soil temperatures persisted into the day, resulting in a daytime temperature increase of 0.52 °C (Appendix S1), consistent with current climate warming scenarios.

The interannual fluctuations of annual precipitation in local area varied from 35.2% below to 34.1% above the long-term average over the 1954-2010 period (Fig. S3a). Therefore, a 30% increase above ambient precipitation in this project represents a strong but not unrealistic increase in precipitation (Niu et al. 2011). After each precipitation event over the 4 months from June to September of 2011-2017, rainfall amount was obtained immediately from a rain gauge adjacent to the experiment (< 200 m). Collected rain water was applied with an automatic sprinkler system right after each natural rain event to avoid changing rainfall frequency. The aP and eP plots received ambient and ambient plus 30% precipitation, respectively (Fig. S3b).

Given the observations of a previous study conducted in this area that ecosystem responses to N addition reached a saturation point at a rate of approximately + 10.5 g N m⁻² year⁻¹ over ambient values (Bai et al. 2010), we set the level of N addition as 10 g N m⁻² year⁻¹. NH₄NO₃ was applied in all the eN subplots in mid-June (5 g N m⁻² year⁻¹) and mid-July (5 g N m $^{-2}$ year $^{-1}$) from 2011 to 2017.

Diurnal cycles of ecosystem CO2 and H2O fluxes

Diurnal cycles of ecosystem CO2 and H2O fluxes were measured with a 0.5-m-long \times 0.5-m-wide \times 0.5-m-high transparent chamber connected to a Li-6400 Photosynthesis System (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA; also see the detail information in Song et al. 2015). The chamber was sealed to the surface of an iron frame, which was inserted into the soil at 3-cm depth in each subplot. Steady-state conditions were achieved inside the chamber after 2 min and 9 consecutive logs of CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were subsequently recorded at 10-s intervals on each frame during a 90-s period. The decreases or increases in the rates of CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were used to calculate NEP and evapotranspiration (ET; LI-COR Inc. 2003). Following the measurements of NEP, the chamber was vented, covered with an opaque cloth, and put back on the same iron frame. The CO₂ exchange was measured again to calculate ER rate as light was eliminated (and hence photosynthesis). Gross ecosystem productivity was estimated as ER plus NEP. Positive and negative NEP values represent net C uptake and loss, respectively.

Given that soil C loss plays an important role in determining grassland C responses to eCO₂ (Hungate et al. 1997), we measured soil respiration (SR) using the same technique (Infra-Red Gas Analyser) with ER measurements. The difference between SR and ER is that ER also includes respiratory C emissions from aboveground plant parts. Thus, measuring both ER and SR allowed us to separate treatment impacts on soil fluxes from those on total ecosystem fluxes. One 5-cm-high PVC collar (10 cm in diameter) was permanently inserted 3 cm into the soil in each subplot. A CO2 and H2O flux chamber attached to a Li-8100 (LI-COR Inc.) was put on each collar for 1–2 min to measure SR and soil evaporation (E), and then moved to the next collar. The aboveground parts of living plants inside the collars were removed by hand at least 1 day before the measurements. All the ecosystem CO₂ and H₂O fluxes were measured at 4-h intervals (06:00, 10:00, 14:00, 18:00, 22:00 and 02:00, local time) twice per month on clear and sunny days from May to October in 2012-2017.

Canopy transpiration (Tc) was estimated as ET minus E. Canopy- and ecosystem-level water-use efficiency (WUE_C and WUE_E) were calculated following Niu et al. (2011) as:

$$WUE_{C} = \frac{GEP}{T_{a}}$$
 (1)

$$WUE_{C} = \frac{GEP}{T_{c}}$$

$$WUE_{E} = \frac{GEP}{ET}$$
(1)

NDVI measurements

The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) was used to estimate plant canopy development from 2014 to 2017. Spectral reflectance was measured under cloud-free conditions using an agricultural digital camera (Tetracam Inc., Chatsworth, CA, USA) to monitor NDVI throughout the growing season at 5-day intervals between 11:00 to 13:00 h. Each sample was the mean of four spectra captured with a fibre optic collector (25° field of view) at a height of 50 cm. NDVI was calculated as:

$$NDVI = \frac{Reflectance\ at\ 775\ nm - Reflectance\ at\ 675\ nm}{Reflectance\ at\ 775\ nm + Reflectance\ at\ 675\ nm} \quad (3)$$

Plant cover estimations

One 1-m × 1-m permanent quadrat was established at the centre of each subplot in June 2011. Plant cover during peak biomass (early August) was assessed in the permanent quadrats using a visual evaluation method once a year from 2012 to 2017. During the measurements, a 1-m \times 1-m frame with 100 equally distributed grids (10 cm × 10 cm) was placed above the canopy in each quadrat. The per cent cover of each species was visually estimated in all the grids and summed as species cover. Per cent cover across species was summed to obtain functional group and community cover. Plants were classified into two functional groups: grasses and forbs (Table S1). Over the 6-year period, cover of grasses and forbs accounted for 46 and 54% of community cover, respectively, in the control (aCO₂a-TaPaN) subplots, indicating grass-forb codominance of the temperate steppe.

Statistical analyses

This study focused on the eCO₂ effects under multi-factorial global change. First, four-way repeated-measures analyses of variance (RM-ANOVAS) with a split-plot design were performed to examine the main and interactive influences of CO₂, temperature, precipitation, and N on NEP, ER, GEP, ET, E, T_C, WUEC, WUEE, NDVI, forb cover, and the ratio of forb to community cover across all the 16 treatments. In the mixed effect models (PROC MIXED) used in RM-ANOVAS, between-

subject effects were assessed as CO₂, temperature, precipitation, N, and their interactions and within-subject effects were year and its interactions with CO₂, temperature, precipitation and N (for SAS code see Appendix S2). The N addition treatment was nested within the plot (OTC), and thus the construction of the plot error and the pooled residual error were used to test effects of CO₂, temperature, precipitation and their interactions as well as influences of N and its interactions with the other three factors, respectively (Hu 2010). The statistical power for the main effects of eCO₂ on NEP, ER, and GEP was 0.92, 0.63 and 0.07, respectively. Second, given the scarcity of four-factor experiments, reporting the eCO₂ effects under different combinations of global change factors is extremely important (Shaw et al. 2002). Three-way RM-ANOVAS with a split-plot design were used to examine eCO₂ impacts on these parameters across the eight treatments with aT, eT, aP and eP, respectively. In addition, three-way RM-anovas were performed for these parameters across the eight treatments with aN and eN, respectively. Finally, multiple comparisons using the LSD method were conducted to examine eCO₂ influences on these parameters under each of the eight treatment combinations of temperature, precipitation and N, including aT'aP'aN' (eCO2aTaPaN vs. aCO₂aTaPaN), eT'eP'eN' (eCO₂eTePeN vs. aCO₂eTePeN), eT'eP'aN' (eCO2eTePaN vs. aCO2eTePaN), eT'aP'eN' (eCO2e-TaPeN vs. aCO₂eTaPeN), eT'aP'aN' (eCO₂eTaPaN vs. aCO₂eTaPaN), aT'eP'aN' (eCO₂aTePaN vs. aCO₂aTePaN), aT'aP'eN' (eCO₂aTaPeN vs. aCO₂aTaPeN) and aT'eP'eN' (eCO₂aTePeN vs. aCO₂aTePeN).

Over the 6 years, eCO₂-induced absolute changes were calculated under different treatment combinations. For example, the main effects of eCO₂ were calculated as the difference between all the plots with eCO₂ and aCO₂. Similarly, the influences of eCO₂ under the aT treatment were examined as the difference between the plots with eCO₂ and aT and the plots with aCO₂ and aT. The significance levels of the eCO₂ effects were determined by RM-ANOVAS and multiple comparisons. In addition, to show potential interannual variations of the eCO₂ impacts, effects in each year were also calculated and provided in Fig. S4.

Simple linear regressions were conducted to examine the spatial relationship of NEP with forb cover and SR and the dependences of NEP changes on the changes in forb cover and SR induced by eCO₂ under different treatment combinations. Stepwise multiple linear regressions were used to investigate which variable has the greatest effect on NEP changes under eCO₂, with the changes in forb cover and SR as the independent variables. All statistical analyses described above were conducted using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

To address whether the OTCs changed microclimate and subsequently affected community structure and ecosystem C fluxes, we analysed microclimate changes induced by OTCs

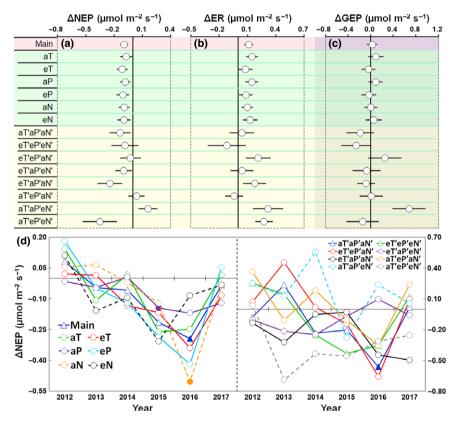


Figure 1 Means (\pm 1 SE) of eCO₂-induced absolute changes (Δ) in NEP (a), ER (b) and GEP (c) across the 6 years and NEP changes in each year (d) under different treatment combinations (TCs), including (1) averaged across all the 8 TCs (main effects, n = 144 [3(block) × 8(TC) × 6(year)] in panels a–c and n = 24 [3(block) × 8(TC)] in panel d), (2) averaged across the 4 TCs of aT vs. eT, aP vs. eP, and aN vs. eN (n = 72 [3(block) × 4(TC) × 6(year)] in panels a–c and n = 12 [3(block) × 4(TC)] in panel d), and (3) under each of the 8 TCs including aT'aP'aN', eT'eP'eN', eT'eP'eN', eT'aP'eN', eT'aP'eN', aT'eP'aN', aT'aP'eN' and aT'eP'eN' (n = 18 [3(block) × 6(year)] in panels a–c and n = 3 [block] in panel d). Dark shadows in panel c highlight GEP = NEP + ER. Filled symbols indicate significant changes at P < 0.05. See Table 1 for treatment abbreviations.

Table 1 Summary (*P*-values) of four-way, split-plot, RM-ANOVAS on the effects of eCO₂, eT, eP and eN on net ecosystem productivity (NEP), ecosystem respiration (ER), gross ecosystem productivity (GEP), canopy- and ecosystem-level water-use efficiency (WUE_C and WUE_E), the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and forb cover (FO)

Source of variation	NEP	ER	GEP	WUE_C	WUE_E	NDVI	FO
eCO ₂	0.095	0.385	0.865	0.901	0.876	0.783	0.010
eT	0.667	0.785	0.993	0.315	0.080	0.535	0.006
eP	0.189	0.022	< 0.001	0.451	0.173	0.145	0.192
eN	0.088	0.055	0.430	0.086	0.057	0.543	< 0.001
$eCO_2 \times eT$	0.706	0.682	0.596	0.825	0.349	0.265	0.419
$eCO_2 \times eP$	0.815	0.713	0.632	0.916	0.988	0.903	0.788
$eCO_2 \times eN$	0.993	0.849	0.824	0.774	0.614	0.903	0.129
$eT \times eP$	0.173	0.099	0.011	0.438	0.462	0.057	0.497
$eT \times eN$	0.191	0.223	0.755	0.034	0.060	0.692	0.143
$eP \times eN$	0.132	0.158	0.698	0.449	0.374	0.951	0.950
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eP$	0.201	1.000	0.434	0.219	0.123	0.605	0.078
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eN$	0.678	0.130	0.229	0.848	0.344	0.319	0.855
$eCO_2 \times eP \times eN$	0.051	0.819	0.129	0.507	0.767	0.430	0.995
$eT \times eP \times eN$	0.342	0.667	0.617	0.406	0.964	0.692	0.769
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eP \times eN$	0.282	0.729	0.611	0.288	0.286	0.020	0.027
year (yr)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
$eCO_2 \times yr$	0.012	0.340	0.719	0.603	0.706	0.283	0.069
$eT \times yr$	0.176	0.718	0.281	0.346	0.061	0.040	0.942
$eP \times yr$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.011	0.008	0.001	0.336
$eN \times yr$	0.685	0.053	0.139	0.115	0.299	0.012	0.399
$eCO_2 \times eT \times yr$	0.625	0.810	0.925	0.717	0.151	0.423	0.950
$eCO_2 \times eP \times yr$	0.141	0.851	0.648	0.797	0.993	0.001	0.160
$eCO_2 \times eN \times yr$	0.104	0.375	0.404	0.461	0.137	0.936	0.738
$eT \times eP \times yr$	0.629	0.097	0.894	0.193	0.326	0.806	0.259
$eT \times eN \times yr$	0.034	0.786	0.514	0.324	0.237	0.580	0.609
$eP \times eN \times yr$	0.475	0.601	0.331	0.139	0.344	0.907	0.675
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eP \times yr$	0.492	0.204	0.085	0.165	0.410	0.630	0.049
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eN \times yr$	0.604	0.794	0.725	0.533	0.031	0.173	0.559
$eCO_2 \times eP \times eN \times yr$	0.896	0.644	0.964	0.495	0.012	0.578	0.462
$eT \times eP \times eN \times yr$	0.776	0.459	0.646	0.023	< 0.001	0.236	0.390
$eCO_2 \times eT \times eP \times eN \times yr$	0.521	0.237	0.555	0.971	0.777	0.765	0.934

Note The bold numerals highlight the significance at P < 0.05. Key to abbreviations: aCO₂ and eCO₂: ambient and elevated CO₂, aT and eT: ambient and elevated temperature, aP and eP: ambient and increased precipitation, aN and eN: ambient and enriched N deposition.

alone, and tried to link them to OTC effects on community structure and C fluxes (Appendix S1). Compared with the unchambered control plots, the OTCs enhanced air temperature (+0.9°C) and humidity (+8.2%), and soil temperature (+1.4°C), but reduced air vapor pressure deficit (-0.15 kPa), leading to decreased community (-15%) and forb cover (-26%). However, the ratio of forb to community cover, GEP, ER, or NEP were not impacted by the OTCs. Nevertheless, given all the other OTCs with different treatments had similar impacts on the above parameters to those of the control treatment with OTCs in comparison with the unchambered control plots, the treatment effects were calculated as the differences between the plots with OTCs. Therefore, the confounding impacts of OTCs could not have influenced the results and conclusions of this work.

Model simulations

We conducted model simulations from the project 'Trends and drivers of the regional scale sources and sinks of carbon dioxide' (TRENDY, http://dgvm.ceh.ac.uk/node/9). A total of nine terrestrial C-cycle models (CLM4.5, ISAM, JULES3.2, LPJ, LPJ-GUESS, LPX-Bern, OCN, ORCHIDEE and

VISIT) from TRENDY version 2 were performed in this study. CLM4.5, LPJ-GUESS, LPX-Bern and OCN had considered the impacts of N limitation on the eCO₂ effect, but, the other five models did not couple the interactions between C and N cycling (Le Quéré 2016). We used model results under S1 scenario which was forced by time-varying atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, with climate and land use being constant (Piao *et al.* 2013). Simulated GEP, ER, and NEP at our experimental site were extracted from each model via its latitude and longitude (Duolun County, 42°02′ N, 116°16′ E). Finally, we calculated the eCO₂-induced changes in GEP, ER, and NEP in Duolun during past three decades as the difference in GEP, ER, and NEP between the time periods of 1983–1987 and 2008–2012. The significance between the changes were tested using *t*-tests.

RESULTS

Ecosystem CO₂ exchange responses to eCO₂

Averaged across all the 6 years and the eight treatment combinations (8 treatments with aCO_2 vs. 8 treatments with eCO_2), there was no impact of eCO_2 on NEP (4-way RM-

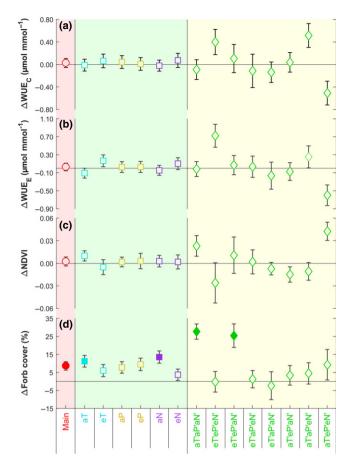


Figure 2 Means (\pm 1 SE) of eCO₂-induced absolute changes in WUE_C (a), WUE_E (b), NDVI (c) and forb cover (d) under different treatment combinations. Filled symbols indicate significant changes at P < 0.05. See Table 1 and Figure 1 for abbreviations.

ANOVAS; Fig. 1a, Table 1). However, the eCO₂ effects on NEP strongly changed with year (eCO₂ × year P < 0.05), ranging from an insignificant increase of 157% (+ 0.08 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) in 2012 to a significant decrease of 44% in 2016 (-0.29 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, P < 0.05; Fig. 1d). In addition, eCO₂ did not affect NEP either when averaged across all the four treatment combinations (aT vs. eT, aP vs. eP, and aN vs. eN; 3-way RM-ANOVAS; Tables S2–S4) or under any of the eight treatment combinations (multiple comparisons; Table S5). Moreover, eCO₂ had no effect on ER or GEP, the two components of NEP, under any treatment combination (Fig. 1b,c).

Effects of eCO2 on WUE, NDVI, and plant cover

Over the 6 years and averaged across all the eight treatment combinations, eCO_2 did not affect either WUE_C or WUE_E (Fig. 2a,b, Table 1). In addition, no eCO_2 effect on WUE_C or WUE_E was detected when averaged across all the four treatment combinations (Tables S2–S4). When analysed separately by each treatment combination, eCO_2 did not change WUE_C or WUE_E under any of the eight treatment combinations (Table S5). Similar to WUE, NDVI showed a neutral

response to eCO₂ under all treatment combinations across the last 4 years from 2014 to 2017 (Fig. 2c).

When averaged across all the eight treatment combinations, the main effects of eCO₂ substantially enhanced forb cover by 8.6% (P < 0.05; Fig. 2d, Table 1). In addition, eCO₂ also significantly stimulated forb cover by 6.0 and 13.5% when averaged across the four treatment combinations with aT and with aN, respectively (both P < 0.05; Tables S2–S4). Moreover, eCO₂ substantially increased forb cover by 27.7 and 25.4% under the treatment combinations of aT'aP'aN' and eT'eP'aN' (both P < 0.01; Table S5).

NEP responses to eCO_2 affected by community composition and SR

Across all the 48 subplots, NEP showed negatively linear dependences upon both forb cover (Fig. 3a, $R^2 = 0.128$, P = 0.013) and SR (Fig. 3d, $R^2 = 0.102$, P = 0.027). However, the eCO₂-induced changes in NEP had no relationship with the changes in forb cover under eCO₂ (Fig. 3b,c). By contrast, the NEP responses to eCO₂ linearly declined from positive to negative with increasing magnitudes of SR changes induced by eCO₂ when averaged across all the eight treatment combinations (Fig. 3e, $R^2 = 0.673$, P = 0.046) and across the four treatment combinations with eT ($R^2 = 0.730$, P = 0.030). Nevertheless, NEP changes under eCO₂ did not correlate with the stimulations of SR under any of the eight treatment combinations (Fig. 3f).

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions showed that, when averaged across all the eight treatment combinations and across the four treatment combinations with eT, eCO₂-induced changes in SR alone explained to 67.3 and 73.0% of the eCO₂-induced changes in NEP, respectively (both P < 0.05; Table S6). Under the treatment of eT'eP'eN' only, the changes in SR (partial $R^2 = 0.634$, P = 0.058) and forb cover (partial $R^2 = 0.298$, P = 0.036) together accounted for 93.2% of the changes in NEP under eCO₂ (P < 0.05).

DISCUSSION

Elevated CO₂ alone did not affect NEP in this semiarid temperate steppe, a result which is in contradiction to the widely accepted expectation of a strong CO2 fertilisation effect in the water-limited ecosystems as revealed in previous grassland experiments (Bachman et al. 2010; Pendall et al. 2013; Roy et al. 2016). In addition, the eCO₂ effect on NEP was not changed by any of the other three global change factors or their combinations, leading to no overall effect of eCO2 on NEP when averaged across all the eight treatment combinations. These observations are inconsistent with previous findings of nonlinear and non-additive influences of higher-order interaction among global change factors on ecosystem processes by theoretical analyses (Leuzinger et al. 2011) or in another four-factor experiment conducted in an annual grassland of North America (Shaw et al. 2002; Zhu et al. 2016b). The lack of interaction among the four global change factors on ecosystem CO₂ exchange does not support our hypotheses, even though negative impacts of warming and positive influences of increased precipitation on soil water availability as

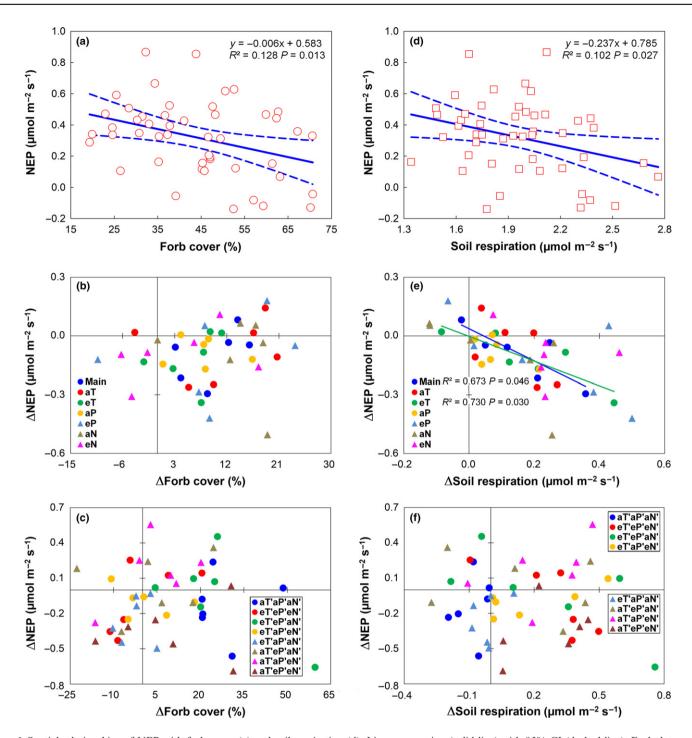


Figure 3 Spatial relationships of NEP with forb cover (a) and soil respiration (d). Linear regression (solid line) with 95% CI (dashed line). Each data point represents a 6-year mean value in each subplot. Dependences of eCO₂-induced absolute changes in NEP upon the changes in forb cover (b, c) and soil respiration (e, f) under different treatment combinations. Each data point represents eCO₂-induced absolute changes of NEP, forb cover, and soil respiration in each year. See Table 1 and Figure 1 for abbreviations.

well as marginally negative effects of increased precipitation on soil N availability were detected (Appendix S1). In addition, given that climate conditions can substantially regulate CO₂ fertilisation effects in grasslands (Roy *et al.* 2016; Obermeier *et al.* 2017, 2018), we analysed whether microclimate changes under the warming and increased precipitation treatments mediated NEP responses to eCO₂. Inconsistent with the widely accepted consensus of stronger CO₂ fertilisation effects

on plants at drier sites (Fatichi *et al.* 2016), NEP responses to eCO₂ declined with warming-induced decreases, but increased with precipitation-induced enhancements in soil moisture in the present study (Fig. S5a,b), providing further support for the predominant role of water availability in controlling semi-arid grassland C cycling (Liu *et al.* 2009), which might have potentially cancelled the positive effects of eCO₂ on ecosystem C sequestration by water-saving mechanisms. More

surprisingly, irrespective of the background N limitation in this semi-arid temperate steppe (Niu *et al.* 2010), eCO₂ did not stimulate C sequestration under the N addition treatment, contradicting our Hypothesis 1 and the conclusions from other grassland experiments (Reich *et al.* 2006; Reich & Hobbie 2013).

We were puzzled by these unexpected results, but at least two other lines of evidence support our results. First, WUE did not respond to eCO₂. Both theoretical analyses and observations suggest that increased WUE associated with rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration is one of the major mechanisms for the positive eCO₂ effect as eCO₂ promotes stomatal closure and reduces water use (Morgan et al. 2011; Fatichi et al. 2016). In this study, no positive influence of eCO2 on WUE was detected at either canopy or ecosystem levels primarily due to little changes in both GEP and water vapour exchange under eCO₂ (Fig. S6, Tables S2-S4, S6). Second, rising CO₂ concentration has contributed to a significant increase in global greenness, based on an indicator of vegetation greening - NDVI (Myneni et al. 1997; Zhu et al. 2016a). However, plot-level NDVI in this semi-arid temperate steppe did not change after 6 years of CO₂ enrichment, probably accounted for by the trade-offs in plant community given that eCO2-induced changes in NDVI increased with increasing forb dominance but declined with increasing grass dominance (Fig. S5c,d).

At least two possible mechanisms may help to explain the neutral responses of NEP to CO2 enrichment observed in this study. First, community shifts from codominance of grasses and forbs to forb dominance under eCO2 might contribute to the weak responses of NEP to CO₂ treatment. In this study, eCO₂ promoted forb cover and resulted in a competitive decrease in grass cover, as shown by a significant increase of the proportion of forbs in the whole community from 0.60 averaged across the eight aCO2 treatments to 0.67 averaged across the eight eCO_2 treatments (P < 0.05; Fig. S7, Table S6). The observations imply that eCO₂ stimulates growth of forbs more than that of grasses, which is consistent with the observations from two other grassland CO₂ experiments (Lee et al. 2011; Polley et al. 2012). However, further analyses on the effects of changing community composition on NEP showed that although NEP significantly decreased with increasing forb cover across all the subplots (Fig. 3a), eCO₂-stimulated forb cover was not responsible for the reduction in NEP under eCO2. Second, accelerated C release from soils in response to eCO2 might offset the enhancements in C uptake, ultimately leading to increased ecosystem C cycling and turnover rather than C sequestration, which was supported by the findings of several grassland experiments using different CO₂ fumigation techniques (FACE, OTC, and tunnel) and two meta-analyses (Hungate et al. 1997; Gill et al. 2002; Nie et al. 2013; van Groenigen et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2018). The significantly negative dependence of eCO2-induced changes in NEP upon the changes in soil respiration (Fig. 3e) provided strong support for the above arguments. Our findings of the primary controls of soil CO₂ emissions over CO₂ fertilisation effects on NEP are critical for model parameterisation to convincingly assess grassland C sequestration in a high-CO₂ world (Kardol et al. 2012; Langley & Hungate 2014).

The unexpected findings of the neutral C-flux responses to CO₂ enrichment from this experiment are not captured by most ecosystem models (Piao et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2016). We compared model outputs of GEP, ER and NEP due to eCO2 at our experimental site from nine terrestrial C-cycle models used in IPCC Reports with our experimental results to evaluate model performance. Six out of the nine models showed that eCO₂ significantly enhanced both ecosystem photosynthesis and respiration in the semi-arid grassland during 1983-2012, with a significant increment of 48.5 \pm 14.0 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ for $36.4 \pm 10.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ for ER $12.1 \pm 8.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ for NEP when averaged across all the nine models (all P < 0.01; Fig. S8). In combination with another study which has revealed negative CO2 responses of NEP in Mojave Desert (Jasoni et al. 2005), it seems that most C-cycle models generally overestimate CO₂ fertilisation effects in arid and semi-arid ecosystems (Donohue et al. 2013), even though N limitation is considered in the models (e.g., CLM4.5, LPJ-GUESS and LPX-Bern), suggesting that complex local climate conditions, for example temperature and precipitation, may limit the ability of ecosystem models to make an accurate projection of the eCO₂ effects (Obermeier et al. 2017).

CONCLUSIONS

Using a 6-year field data set of NEP in a water-limited temperate steppe on the Mongolian Plateau, we illustrated that NEP is insensitive to rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in a world with multi-factorial global change. Two lines of evidence, including the neutral responses of WUE and NDVI to eCO₂, supported our conclusion. The neutral effect of eCO₂ on NEP could be mainly attributed to increased soil CO₂ emissions under CO₂ enrichment, which offsetting eCO₂ enhancement on ecosystem C uptake. This surprising result challenges not only the common knowledge of positive CO₂ fertilisation effects on terrestrial C uptake, but also the consensus of stronger CO2 stimulation on ecosystem C sequestration in arid and semiarid regions (Donohue et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2016). Considering the significance of arid and semiarid ecosystems in land C sequestration and global C cycling (Ahlström et al. 2015), and the fact that most terrestrial C-cycle models used in IPCC Reports did not capture the neutral responses of C sequestration to eCO₂ in semi-arid regions, incorporating this mechanism into ecosystem models and parameterising these models using local climate variables should lead to more accurate estimation of terrestrial C budgets.

As a common facility in CO₂ manipulation experiments (Hungate *et al.* 1997; Langley & Megonigal 2010), OTCs used in the present study may create a high temperature and high humidity microenvironment compared with the ambient climate, likely modulating grassland responses to rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Obermeier *et al.* 2017). In addition, although our previous studies at this experimental site have demonstrated that mowing could not change N addition effects on grassland plant community and soil respiration (Yang *et al.* 2012; Du *et al.* 2018), this study conducted in a fenced grassland might fail to investigate possible roles of grazing and mowing, the two common grassland use practices, in regulating grassland responses to CO₂ enrichment,

especially under complex climate change scenarios. Thus, caution should be taken when extrapolating our findings to the regional scale or managed grasslands.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

SQW designed the experiment and built the facility; JS, YZL, MXZ, MMZ, GGM, ZXZ and JYR collected the experimental data; JS, SQW and SLP analysed the experimental data; and YWL and SLP conducted the model simulations. JS, SQW and SLP wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and DFH, MJH and PC contributed substantially to revisions.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article. Editor, Johannes Knops Manuscript received 11 June 2018 First decision made 17 July 2018 Second decision made 3 October 2018 Manuscript accepted 23 October 2018