

LETTERS

Ecosystem response to elevated CO₂ levels limited by nitrogen-induced plant species shift

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Terrestrial ecosystems gain carbon through photosynthesis and lose it mostly in the form of carbon dioxide (CO₂). The extent to which the biosphere can act as a buffer against rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration in global climate change projections remains uncertain at the present stage^{1–4}. Biogeochemical theory predicts that soil nitrogen (N) scarcity may limit natural ecosystem response to elevated CO₂ concentration, diminishing the CO₂-fertilization effect on terrestrial plant productivity in unmanaged ecosystems^{3–7}. Recent models have incorporated such carbon–nitrogen interactions and suggest that anthropogenic N sources could help sustain the future CO₂-fertilization effect^{8,9}. However, conclusive demonstration that added N enhances plant productivity in response to CO₂-fertilization in natural ecosystems remains elusive. Here we manipulated atmospheric CO₂ concentration and soil N availability in a herbaceous brackish wetland where plant community composition is dominated by a C₃ sedge and C₄ grasses, and is capable of responding rapidly to environmental change¹⁰. We found that N addition enhanced the CO₂-stimulation of plant productivity in the first year of a multi-year experiment, indicating N-limitation of the CO₂ response. But we also found that N addition strongly promotes the encroachment of C₄ plant species that respond less strongly to elevated CO₂ concentrations. Overall, we found that the observed shift in the plant community composition ultimately suppresses the CO₂-stimulation of plant productivity by the third and fourth years. Although extensive research has shown that global change factors such as elevated CO₂ concentrations and N pollution affect plant species differently^{11–13}, and that they may drive plant community changes^{14–17}, we demonstrate that plant community shifts can act as a feedback effect that alters the whole ecosystem response to elevated CO₂ concentrations. Moreover, we suggest that trade-offs between the abilities of plant taxa to respond positively to different perturbations may constrain natural ecosystem response to global change.

The progressive nitrogen limitation (PNL) hypothesis⁷ suggests that N additions should enhance CO₂ effects on plant productivity. However, only a limited number of studies have provided direct experimental evidence that N addition actually sustains or enhances the CO₂ response of productivity^{3,7}. In a pine forest, N addition amplified the CO₂ effect on woody tissue increment⁵. A CO₂ × N experiment in a grassland reported that a positive CO₂ × N interaction emerged after three years, indicating that N addition amplified the effect of elevated CO₂ on productivity⁶. In managed ryegrass swards, N addition yielded larger CO₂ responses, an effect that strengthened over time on a relative basis, but diminished in terms of absolute magnitude¹⁸.

As originally articulated, the PNL hypothesis does not explicitly consider the effects that elevated CO₂ and added N can have on the ecosystem-level response through changes in species composition. The role of changing species composition in regulating PNL is not

clear. For instance, a plant community response to a step change in CO₂ and N addition in forest FACE (free-air CO₂ enrichment) studies could take decades. The Cedar Creek FACE study occurs in an herbaceous community in which plant composition is dynamic, but the number of possible plant species is restricted in order to maintain experimental diversity treatments⁶. On the other hand, an annual grassland of unmanipulated composition elicited no effect of N on CO₂ response¹⁹.

We hypothesized that differences in individual species responses to elevated CO₂ and N could feed back to regulate the whole ecosystem response to these global change factors. To test this, we manipulated atmospheric CO₂ concentration and soil N availability factorially (four treatment groups, $n = 5$) in a herbaceous brackish wetland¹⁰ where plant community composition is capable of responding rapidly to environmental change. As in many temperate ecosystems, plant productivity is typically N-limited in brackish tidal wetlands. Yet, unlike in other unmanaged, herbaceous ecosystems, the plant community structure is naturally simple (species richness across our study plots = 3), allowing for both realistic ecological phenomena and tractable analysis of species interactions.

We found a significant CO₂ × N × year interaction on total aboveground biomass (Table 1), indicating that the manner in which N addition modified the CO₂ stimulation of biomass changed through time. As predicted by the PNL hypothesis, N addition tended to enhance the aboveground biomass CO₂ response in the first year of the study (2006), suggesting N limitation of the CO₂ response (Fig. 1a). However, the magnitude of the response changed in the second year (2007) and reversed in the third and fourth years of treatment (2008 and 2009; Fig. 1a). At the same time, N fertilization increasingly stimulated C₄ grass (*Spartina patens* and *Distichlis spicata*) biomass from 2006 through to 2009 in the ambient CO₂ treatment (Supplementary Fig. 1). Even though the combination of elevated CO₂ and N continued to stimulate the dominant C₃ sedge, *Schoenoplectus americanus*, the magnitude of the CO₂-stimulation declined (Fig. 1c), while added N continued to strongly stimulate C₄ grass biomass throughout the study (Supplementary Fig. 1). Taken together, these results point to a novel finding that N-driven changes in species composition—expansion of C₄ grasses in this case—limited the whole ecosystem response to elevated CO₂.

The PNL hypothesis predicts that N addition will enhance the magnitude of the CO₂ effect on productivity by relieving the N limitation that develops over time in a plant community that initially responds positively to elevated CO₂. However, changes in the availability of resources such as soil N can also modify plant community composition, which also has considerable consequences for ecosystem productivity^{20,21}. As predicted by the PNL hypothesis, elevated CO₂ decreased porewater ammonium concentration (that is, [NH₄]) by 20% with no added N and by 30% with N addition in the first year (Fig. 2), presumably by increasing C₃ plant uptake, and perhaps microbial

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Table 1 | Treatment effects on plant growth and soil N availability

Effect	C ₃ biomass	C ₄ biomass	Root production	Total aboveground biomass	Pore water [NH ₄]
CO ₂	<0.001	0.004	0.013	0.754	0.014
N	0.778	<0.001	0.004	<0.001	<0.001
CO ₂ × N	0.036	0.095	0.759	0.957	0.355
Year	0.395	0.053	0.898	0.072	<0.011
CO ₂ × year	0.349	0.138	0.325	0.073	0.612
N × year	0.005	0.047	0.214	0.965	0.004
CO ₂ × N × year	0.697	0.007	0.709	0.009	0.564
Pretreatment	0.933	0.029	0.026	0.899	<0.001
Pretreatment × year	0.873	0.075	0.998	0.060	0.001

Results from a repeated-measures multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA: two-tailed, $n = 5$). P -values less than or equal to 0.05 are bold. Pretreatment refers to the covariate data from 2005 used in analyses.

immobilization, of N. This response may explain why elevated CO₂ alone reduced C₄ biomass (CO₂ effect, $P = 0.004$, Table 1). However, N fertilization favoured the expansion of C₄ grasses, as has been shown in many other wetland ecosystems^{22,23}. The negative effect of N addition on *S. americanus* strengthened over time (N × year, $P = 0.005$). In a N-limited ecosystem, it is unlikely that N addition would negatively affect *S. americanus* in isolation; nor is it likely that elevated CO₂ would negatively affect the production of C₄ grasses in isolation. Instead, these relationships suggest that there was a negative interaction between the C₄ and C₃ plants. Had we maintained C₃ purity by removing C₄ species, the ecosystem might have continued to exhibit the strong positive effect of N on biomass CO₂ response observed in the first year. We propose that N addition stimulated C₄ biomass, increasing competition with the C₃ species for other resources such as light. The result was reduced growth of *S. americanus*, which ultimately limited the response of the whole ecosystem to elevated CO₂.

The implications of our results for other ecosystems are predicated on ecological theory. Strategies for acquiring resources require physiological and evolutionary trade-offs such that optimization for capture of one resource may preclude optimal capture of another^{24,25}. For instance, plants that maintain a higher root-to-shoot mass ratio typically compete more effectively for limiting soil resources, whereas plants that allocate relatively more mass aboveground optimize light capture^{25,26}. At our wetland site, fine root production was on average twice as high in stands of *S. americanus* than in stands of the C₄ grass *S. patens* over the past 20 years¹⁶. Allocation to nutrient-acquiring roots instead of light-acquiring shoots represents a trade-off that should confer an advantage to *S. americanus* in N acquisition under conditions of low N availability. This view is consistent with the

observation that porewater nitrogen concentration (that is, [N]) was over eight times higher in pure *S. patens* stands than in *S. americanus* stands in a previous study at the site²⁷. Greater allocation to roots affords *S. americanus* enhanced ability to acquire N when porewater [N] is low. But, when N is made abundant by N addition, *S. americanus* appears to be unable to respond as strongly as the grasses.

The properties that underlie trade-offs in resource acquisition may also engender trade-offs in plant response to resources altered by global change. If strong N-responders are not also strong CO₂-responders, and increased growth of some species negatively affects other species, then the combination of elevated CO₂ and elevated N is likely to diminish the magnitude of ecosystem response to elevated CO₂, as in our study. However, if N addition favoured the expansion of a plant species that responds more strongly to CO₂ than the average species in the ecosystem, then the resultant community shift could have the opposite effect, amplifying the whole ecosystem CO₂ response. Our results provide a stark example wherein the species that responded most strongly to N-addition were C₄ grasses, which respond weakly to CO₂. Similar effects may occur in ecosystems composed entirely of C₃ species, provided that functional groups, species or genotypes respond differently to elevated CO₂ and N.

Findings from past studies support the notion of trade-offs among plant responses to different global change factors. Meta-analytic studies suggest that grasses (either including or excluding C₄ grasses) tend to respond strongly to N but poorly to CO₂; legumes respond strongly to CO₂ but poorly to N; and trees respond intermediately to both^{11–13}. Similarly, limited data from individual ecosystems suggest that plant functional group CO₂ responses relate negatively to N responses. In a species-rich prairie community, relative abundance of C₃ grasses declined in response to elevated CO₂ but increased strongly with added N, while N-fixers exhibited the opposite pattern,

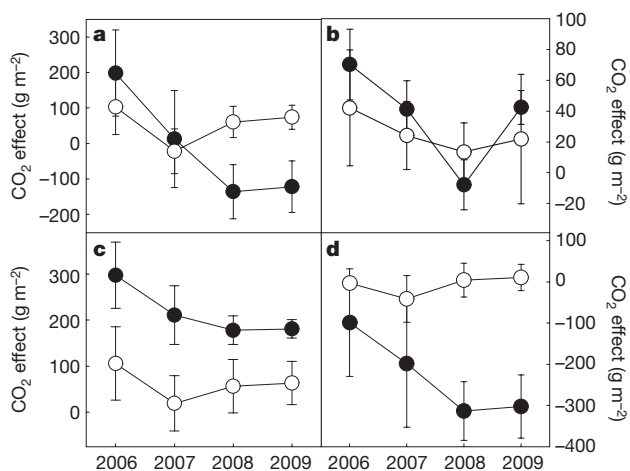


Figure 1 | The magnitude of the CO₂ effect. The effect of CO₂ on total aboveground biomass (a), fine root productivity (b), C₃ biomass (c) and C₄ biomass (d) from 2006 to 2009 was calculated as elevated CO₂ mass minus ambient CO₂ mass, with added N (filled symbols) and without added N (open symbols). Error bars represent combined standard error of the mean calculated as $\sqrt{(s.e.m._{ambient})^2 + (s.e.m._{elevated})^2}$.

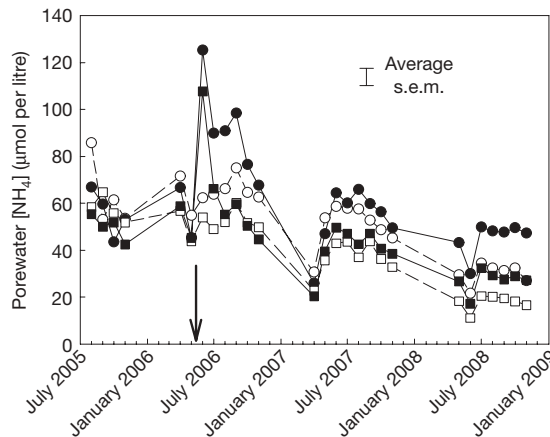


Figure 2 | Porewater ammonium concentrations over four growing seasons averaged over three depths. After treatments were initiated in May 2006 (arrow), the N-fertilized treatments (closed symbols) are higher than the unfertilized (open symbols), and ambient CO₂ plots (circles) are higher than elevated CO₂ plots (boxes).

and forbs responded intermediately to both perturbations¹⁵. In a serpentine grassland, grasses responded strongly to N but negatively to CO₂, while forbs were negatively affected by N, and showed no clear response to CO₂ (ref. 17). In the present study, trade-offs between elevated CO₂ response and elevated N response are related, at least partly, to the distribution of C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways among species. As such, our results are most directly relevant to ecosystems with a mixture of C₃-dominated and C₄-dominated plant communities, including tidal marshes and grasslands. Further testing is needed to establish whether evolutionary trade-offs between the optimal acquisition of different resources can be generalized across functional groups, species or genotypes to predict long-term ecosystem responses to multiple interacting global change factors.

The PNL hypothesis predicts that N should become less available in ecosystems exposed to elevated CO₂ as biomass and litter accumulates. Yet elevated CO₂ studies have reported no consistent CO₂ effects on estimates of soil N availability^{3,28} either owing to great error in estimates³, or because CO₂-stimulated plant activity could liberate additional soil N to compensate²⁹. In the present study, constantly saturated soils afforded a direct assessment of N availability without the fluctuating and heterogeneous soil moisture effects that can introduce considerable variability into nutrient availability estimates in upland ecosystems. Two observations from the porewater nutrient data bear on the theory of PNL. First, we observed a rapid drawdown of soil porewater [NH₄] with initiation of CO₂ treatment in May 2006 (Table 1, Fig. 2). This rapid response indicates that N limitation, triggered by elevated CO₂, was not driven initially by slow-acting feedbacks that are commonly purported to drive PNL^{3,7}. Second, N-addition enhanced N availability in the elevated CO₂ + N treatment (Fig. 2) and, yet did not sustain the initial CO₂-stimulation of biomass (Fig. 1a). Our results demonstrate that enhancing N availability does not necessarily enhance CO₂ effects in a mixed-species ecosystem, even though it may do so for an individual species in isolation.

We observed a decrease in soil N availability under elevated CO₂, and an initial positive CO₂ × N interaction, both consistent with N limitation of CO₂ response. However, continued soil N addition ultimately diminished the CO₂ effect by favouring a community shift towards species that do not respond strongly to elevated CO₂ (Fig. 3). These treatment responses may change beyond the four growing seasons as the current plant community continues to reorder, or as the present species are replaced by others³⁰. For example, the ecosystem response to elevated CO₂ and N reported here could change

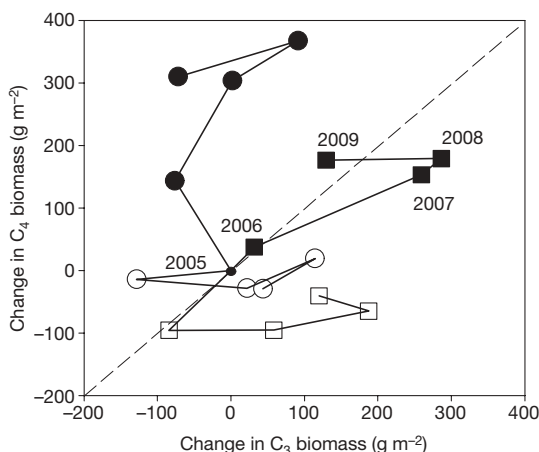


Figure 3 | The trajectories of plant biomass according to contributions from C₃ and C₄ plants in each treatment group. Open circles, ambient CO₂; open boxes, elevated CO₂; closed circles, ambient CO₂ + N; closed boxes, elevated CO₂ + N. Values represent the annual treatment means of biomass measured in July of each study year relative to mean biomass in July 2005, the year before treatments were initiated. All lines begin at the origin, which represents mean biomass for each treatment group in July 2005.

dramatically with the encroachment of non-native genotypes of the C₃ species, *Phragmites australis*, a widespread invasive plant in North American tidal wetlands.

The relatively rapid responses of this dynamic plant community may foreshadow changes in more slowly responding ecosystems as atmospheric CO₂ and N pollution accumulate in the long-term future. Increasing anthropogenic N may ultimately cause shifts in plant communities that alter the CO₂ fertilization effect on global productivity. Even where PNL acts on plants in the short term, longer-term community dynamics may obviate the stoichiometric N limitation of the ecosystem CO₂ response. If so, models that incorporate a positive effect of anthropogenic N on the elevated CO₂ response may overestimate future carbon uptake in terrestrial wildlands.

METHODS SUMMARY

The experiment was carried out in a brackish marsh on the Rhode River, a sub-estuary of Chesapeake Bay (see Supplementary Methods). The site was dominated by a C₃ sedge, *Scheuchzeria palustris*, and two C₄ grasses, *Spartina patens* and *Distichlis spicata*. Twenty 3.3-m² plots of intact marsh were enclosed in octagonal, open-top chambers (2 m in height). Plots were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups ($n = 5$): ambient CO₂, ambient CO₂ + N, elevated CO₂ and elevated CO₂ + N. Pure CO₂ was injected into the blower stream of the elevated chambers to achieve a target concentration of 720 p.p.m. On five occasions, approximately monthly during each growing season, half of the plots were fertilized with NH₄Cl at a rate of 5 g N m⁻² (an annual rate of 25 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹) to simulate tidal N loading in a marsh that would be heavily polluted compared to the study site.

In July 2005, and every July and October thereafter, aboveground biomass was estimated using allometry and stem density counts for *S. americanus* and biomass clipping for *S. patens* and *D. spicata*. Total root productivity was estimated each year using three root ingrowth cores in each plot. Nine porewater wells were placed in each plot, three at each of three depths: 15, 30 and 75 cm. Porewater was sampled approximately monthly throughout the growing season and analysed for ammonium concentration. In these anaerobic soils, porewater nitrate is typically below detection limits and does not contribute substantially to total mineral [N].

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