

This is a repository copy of *Grassland responses to elevated CO2 determined by plant-microbe competition for phosphorus*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/208169/

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Ben Keane, J. orcid.org/0000-0001-7614-8018, Hartley, I.P. orcid.org/0000-0002-9183-6617, Taylor, C.R. orcid.org/0000-0003-4399-7472 et al. (4 more authors) (2023) Grassland responses to elevated CO2 determined by plant—microbe competition for phosphorus. Nature Geoscience, 16 (8), pp. 704-709. ISSN 1752-0894

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-023-01225-z

© 2023 The Authors. Except as otherwise noted, this author-accepted version of a journal article published in nature geoscience is made available via the University of Sheffield Research Publications and Copyright Policy under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC-BY 4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) licence. This licence allows you to distribute, remix, tweak, and build upon the work, even commercially, as long as you credit the authors for the original work. More information and the full terms of the licence here: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



- 1 **Title:** Grassland responses to elevated CO₂ determined by microbial competition for phosphorus.
- 2 **Authors:** J. Ben Keane^{1,2}, Iain P. Hartley³, Christopher R. Taylor^{1,4}, Jonathan R. Leake¹, Marcel R.
- 3 Hoosbeek⁵, Franco Miglietta⁶, Gareth K. Phoenix¹.
- 4 **Affiliations:**
- 5 1 Plants Photosynthesis and Soil, School of Biosciences, University of Sheffield, Western Bank,
- 6 Sheffield, S10 2TN
- 7 2 Department of Environment and Geography, Wentworth Way, University of York,
- 8 Heslington, York, YO10 5NG, UK
- 9 **3** Geography, Faculty of Environment, Science and Economy, University of Exeter, Amory
- Building, Rennes Drive, Exeter, EX4 4RJ, UK
- 4 Soil and Ecosystem Ecology, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Manchester,
- 12 Manchester, UK

- 5 Soil Chemistry, Wageningen University, PO Box 47, 6700AA, Wageningen, The Netherlands
- 6 Istituto Di Biometeorologia Consiglio Nazionale Delle Ricerche, Sede centrale: via Giovanni
- Caproni 8, Firenze, 50145, Italia

Abstract

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

Rising atmospheric CO₂ has stimulated plant productivity, with terrestrial ecosystems currently absorbing nearly one-third of anthropogenic CO2 emissions. Increases in photosynthesis can subsequently lead to increased carbon (C) storage in plants and soil. However, there is growing evidence that nitrogen (N) availability constrains elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) responses, yet we know much less about the role of phosphorus (P) limitation on productivity under eCO₂. This is important because P-limited ecosystems are globally widespread, and the biogeochemical cycles of N and P differ fundamentally. We conducted a free-air-CO₂-enrichment (FACE) experiment for three years on two contrasting Plimited grasslands in the Peak District National Park of northern England under longterm nutrient manipulation. Here we show that competition between plants and microbes for P can determine plant productivity responses to eCO₂. In a limestone grassland, aboveground productivity increased (16%) and microbial biomass P remained unchanged, whereas in an acidic grassland, aboveground productivity and P uptake declined (11% and 20%, respectively), but P immobilisation into microbial biomass increased (36%). Our results demonstrate that strong competition with microbes can cause plant P uptake to decline under eCO₂, with implications for the future productivity of P-limited ecosystems in response to climate change.

Main Text

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

The ability of terrestrial ecosystems to sequester more C as CO₂ levels rise represents potentially the single most important biogeochemical feedback limiting climate change¹. This ability can be constrained substantially by nutrient availability¹⁻⁴, with Earth system models indicating that nitrogen (N) limitation reduces this capacity for greater C sequestration by as much as 58%⁵. However, between a third and a half of terrestrial ecosystems are limited by P, not N^{6,7}. Despite the spatial extent of P limitation, we know very little about how P limitation affects ecosystem responses to eCO₂, thus significantly limiting our ability to predict future rates of C uptake by the terrestrial biosphere^{8,9}. Crucially, understanding of eCO₂ responses in N-limited ecosystems does not transfer to P-limited ecosystems because the mechanisms differ so greatly. While C can be utilised by soil microbes to fix atmospheric N, there is no biological equivalent that may increase ecosystem P stock, which is reliant principally on weathering of mineral P. Thus, total ecosystem P stocks will only increase if weathering of P-containing minerals is enhanced. Where the primary minerals have already been weathered, and secondary mineral P is insoluble, competition between plants and microbes for P may control productivity responses. Similarly, in acidic soils inorganic P is likely bound to abundant iron (Fe) and aluminium (Al)¹⁰, to which plant and microbe access may be extremely limited and thus competition for organic P is more intense. Furthermore, unlike the N cycle, soil microbial biomass (MBP) is typically a larger store of P than above ground plant biomass (AGBP), especially during ecosystem retrogression¹¹, where ecosystems become increasingly P-limited during soil development as they age. Thus, changes in competition between plants and microbes could potentially control the response of P limited ecosystems to eCO₂, but this has not been investigated to date. Many of the strategies employed by plants to acquire P require C, either through mycorrhizal symbiosis, or the production of C-rich compounds such as organic acids to mobilise organic- and mineral-bound P, or root surface enzymes such as phytases and phosphatases to mineralise organic

62 P sources¹². Therefore, the expected increase in C entering ecosystems via photosynthesis under eCO₂ may then provide a mechanism by which P limited productivity is alleviated, consequently 63 increasing C sequestration. However, it has been shown that changes in C input can shift investment 64 by soil microbes away from C acquisition to N and P acquisition under eCO₂¹³, and the 65 consequences for competition between plants and microbes is unclear¹⁴. 66 Despite growing recognition of the global importance of P limitation, few studies have quantified 67 changes in P cycling under eCO₂. In an Australian Eucalypt forest¹⁵ of proven P-limitation, net 68 primary productivity did not increase in response to eCO₂, with forest maturity or P-limitation 69 proposed as potential explanations^{16,17}. Meta-analysis of eCO₂ productivity responses indicated that 70 P availability is likely an important constraint¹⁸, but without direct experimental evidence from 71 72 proven P-limited ecosystems, major uncertainty surrounds eCO₂ responses of P-limited ecosystems. This holds especially true for grasslands, which represent 20% of terrestrial net primary 73 productivity¹⁹ and are the most spatially extensive P-limited ecosystem in temperate regions⁷. 74 75 To address this, we established a Free Air Carbon dioxide Enrichment (FACE) experiment, where 76 intact soil-turf monoliths were exposed to either ambient CO₂ (ca. 410 ppm) or eCO₂ of 600 ppm. The monoliths used for the experiment were extracted from a long-term N and P manipulation study 77 established in 1995 on two adjacent naturally P-limited grasslands²⁰: a limestone grassland and an 78 acidic grassland, which represent different stages of ecosystem retrogression. The limestone soil sits 79 80 over a potential source of readily weatherable mineral P in calcium phosphates (Ca; Ca-P). This 81 contrasts with the acidic soil, where Ca is 95% less abundant, and inorganic P is likely bound to abundant Fe and Al, to which plant and microbe access may be extremely limited, and thus 82 competition for organic P is more intense¹⁰. In addition to control (no nutrient addition) plots, 83 nutrient inputs have been manipulated through long-term (ca. 25 years) additions of P (35 kg P ha⁻¹ 84 y⁻¹ (P)), and two levels of N addition (35 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (LN) and 140 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (HN)). Addition 85 of P alleviates the P-limitation of productivity and N additions simulate atmospheric N deposition: 86 in line with the latest understanding of N loading impacts²⁷, these are now also alleviating P-87

limitation, potentially by more weathering of Ca-P in the limestone soil, and possible stimulation of organic P mineralisation by microbial phosphatases^{13,21}. CO₂ fumigation began in 2018 with the FACE system supplying eCO₂ during the hours of daylight from April until November in each year for three years (2018-2020).

Aboveground biomass responses to eCO₂

There were contrasting responses to eCO₂ of aboveground primary productivity between the two ecosystems (grassland x CO₂ interaction; $F_{1.60}$ = 8.60, p< 0.01; Fig. 1). Cumulative above ground biomass production in the limestone grassland increasing 16% in response to eCO₂, (p= 0.03; Fig. 1) whilst in the acidic grassland it declined by 11% (p= 0.05, Fig. 1). These contrasting responses were consistent through years 2-3 (2019-2020) and multiple harvests within these years (Fig. 1; F₁, 449 = 14.67 p< 0.0001, and Extended Data Fig. 1). The increased productivity in the limestone grassland is broadly in line with previously reported eCO₂ responses^{22,23}, where swards increased by 7- 20% in the first 3-4 years of fumigation. The decline in productivity in the acidic grassland was unexpected but not unprecedented: of 139 studies in a meta-analysis, two grassland systems showed significant declines in productivity under eCO₂¹⁷. The mechanisms for driving these previously reported reductions are not understood, but our outdoor study of grasslands supplied with eCO₂ after several decades of different nitrogen and phosphorus addition treatments, provide this mechanistic understanding of the contrasting plant responses for the first time.

Nutrient treatment response of biomass

Aboveground biomass increased with both nitrogen and phosphorus additions in both ecosystems $(F_{1,60}=23.15, p < 0.0001, Extended Data Fig. 1)$. Total productivity was in the order 0N < LN < HN < P across both grasslands, though the acidic grassland was less sensitive to N addition (grassland x nutrient, $F_{3,60}=1.32$, p > 0.2). Productivity only increased under HN (by 29%) in the acidic grassland relative to controls (p < 0.005), whereas LN increased productivity in the limestone (by 39%; p < 0.007), but did not further increase under HN. In both grasslands, P addition gave the highest

shoot productivity, confirming this as the most limiting nutrient in these ecosystems. While Nloading may exacerbate P-demand, the increase in productivity arising from the N treatments is in line with current understanding that N addition can alleviate P-limitation in the long-term, by enhancing weathering of Ca-P, and mineralisation of organic P by microbial phosphatases^{13,21}. Reflecting this, across all the nutrient treatments, positive relationships were observed between available P and above ground biomass production in both grasslands (Fig. 2). Competition for P drives contrasting productivity responses Three growing seasons of eCO₂, caused no change in the limestone grassland MBP (p> 0.5), contrasting with the 36% increase in MBP in the acidic grassland across all nutrient treatments (p< 0.03, Extended Data Fig. 2). These responses were reflected in strong eCO₂ effects on the ratios of above ground plant biomass P (AGBP) to MBP in the two grasslands ($F_{1.185}$ = 6.78, p= 0.01). Whilst eCO₂ tended to increase AGBP:MBP in the limestone grassland this was not significant, in the acidic grassland it highly significantly decreased it (p< 0.003). These contrasts gave a significant interaction between CO_2 treatment and grassland type ($F_{1.185}$ = 8.94, p= 0.004, Fig. 3). The AGBP:MBP responses to eCO₂ were apparent from the end of the first year of enrichment and persisted throughout the experiment (Fig. 3). Increases in microbial P pools causing immobilisation, can reduce plant productivity²⁴. The decline in the AGBP:MBP under eCO₂ in the acidic grassland implies that competition between soil microbes and plants for P intensified, increased plant growth limitation by P, and reduced shoot productivity. It has long been thought that, in the short term at least, microbes are the better competitors²⁵ for limiting nutrients, and microbial N uptake can be an order of magnitude greater than by plants in grasslands²⁶. None-the-less, while competition for P can be intense²⁷, it is less well-understood²⁸ and our work suggests an important role for this in mediating eCO₂ productivity responses. The contrasting, lack of decline in AGBP:MBP under eCO₂ in the limestone grassland

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

shows no evidence of microbial-driven exacerbation of plant P-limitation and allowed the positive

138 plant productivity and shoot P content response to eCO₂ in this grassland (see NPP and AGBP. 139 Table 1). 140 There was no evidence of $CO_2 \times$ nutrient treatment interactions on plant productivity (Supp Fig 3; p<0.7). Thus, the contrasting responses of the two grasslands appear to be driven by 141 differences in microbial immobilisation even in plots receiving P additions. In the acidic 142 143 grassland, eCO₂ still reduced plant productivity in plots receiving P, probably because the increase in immobilisation was greatest in this treatment; with microbial biomass P 144 increased by a factor of 1.7 (Table 1). In this context, and in contrast to previous studies^{9,29}, 145 146 the ecosystems had undergone nutrient manipulation for > 25 years, thus the CO₂ effects on each grassland-nutrient combination represented responses of grasslands that have largely 147 stabilised to their new nutrient status rather than responding to a recent step-change in 148 nutrient loading. Competition between plants and microbes is not just controlled by the 149 150 microbes. Differences in plant species present between the two grasslands could also play a 151 role. For example, low-P specialist groups such as sedges are abundant in the limestone grassland¹⁰, which could explain some of the differences between grasslands. However, 152 153 plant community composition changed substantially with long-term nutrient manipulations, 154 including an increase in sedge abundance in the N treatments and a decline with P addition. Despite these changes, a consistent positive eCO₂ biomass response was seen across all 155 nutrient treatments. This suggests that it is the key differences in the soil biogeochemistry 156 and potential for P to be immobilised under eCO₂ that explains the overall differences 157 between the grasslands. 158 159 The key to the differences in the outcome of microbial-plant competition may lie in 160 differences in soil P chemistry between the two grasslands. In both cases, recently-fixed C that enters soil via roots and associated mycorrhizal fungi³⁰ includes enzymes and organic 161 acids, that liberate P needed to sustain a positive plant growth response³¹ to eCO₂. In terms 162 of differences in organic P cycling, the lower soil pH in the acidic grassland may have 163

resulted in reduced total microbial phosphatase activity; it has been shown that reductions in the abundance of alkaline phosphatases in low pH soils cannot necessarily be compensated by increased acid phosphatase activities³². This may in turn promote greater competition between plants and microbes for P³³. There are also important differences in mineral P pools. In the limestone grassland soil, abundant calcium phosphates (Ca-P) offer potential new P inputs, the weathering of which may be enhanced by eCO₂ increasing organic acid exudates³¹ and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal (AMF) activity³⁴. In contrast, in the acid grassland, Ca is 95% less abundant, and inorganic P predominantly bound to Fe and Al¹⁰, to which plant and microbial access may be extremely limited³⁵. Greater microbial biomass P will thus promote stronger competition for organic P, and may facilitate adsorption and occlusion of microbial biomass-derived P into the low-availability soil P pools. As well as lysing microbial cells, chloroform fumigation may liberate some organic P from soil pools. Therefore, the increase in 'chloroform-labile P' in the acidic grassland soils reflects greater amounts of P immobilised in live microbial biomass and potentially some P immobilised by microbes into organic matter pools. In the longer-term, the latter could become a substantial sink for P further reducing plant productivity under eCO₂. In summary, the limestone and acidic soils represent early and later stages of ecosystem retrogression respectively through loss of mineral P (especially Ca-P), acidification, and enrichment of highly recalcitrant Fe and Al secondary P minerals 11,35. Our findings are likely to be applicable to other P-limited ecosystems at these different stages of ecosystem retrogression. Furthermore, because the contrasting eCO₂ responses of the two grasslands are consistent across the different nutrient treatments, this suggests the mechanisms hold true irrespective of nutrient status, suggesting a very strong controlling role of soil microbes and chemistry.

P-limited ecosystem responses to eCO₂

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

Grasslands represent 20% of global terrestrial net primary productivity³⁶ and make major contributions to soil C stocks. They are also the most spatially extensive P-limited

ecosystem in temperate regions⁷. More broadly, greater than 40% of terrestrial ecosystems globally may be P-limited, highlighting the need to understand the impact of eCO₂ on the productivity of these ecosystems. Overall, the quantity, pathways, function and fate of C below ground controls the future C gain in plants and soils under eCO₂. We have shown that two P-limited grasslands show directly opposing above-ground biomass responses to eCO₂. and that these responses may be driven by competition for the limiting P-resource between plants and soil microbes. These contrasting responses appear to be controlled by differences in soil chemistry, giving new insight into how P-limited ecosystems of contrasting stages of pedogenesis may respond to eCO₂. Below-ground interactions between plants, microbes and soil strongly dictate the fate of the C and potential sequestration, therefore current climate models which do not consider plant-microbe competition for limiting resources may underor over-estimate terrestrial C sequestration dependent on the outcome of the competition³⁷. Multiple studies of long-term nutrient and CO₂ manipulations have been invaluable for our understanding of N-limited productivity responses to eCO₂³⁸, and we hope that more studies will now do the same regarding P limitation. It is essential that plant microbial competition, and their interactions with soil chemistry, are more clearly understood to better predict how ecosystems will respond to eCO₂ and climate change³⁹.

Acknowledgements

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

This work was funded by the Natural Environment Research Council, (Grant No.

NE/N0100086/1 to IPH, and NE/N010132/1 to GKP) as part of the Phosphorus Limitation And ecosystem responses to Carbon dioxide Enrichment (PLACE) project. We would like to thank Natural England for access to their Wardlow SSSI, Shaun Taylor (Natural England) for help with monolith extraction and transport, and the Peak Park authority for permission to establish the mini-FACE experiment within the Peak District National Park. We are grateful to Dr Gary McClean for work in establishing the experiment, and Cheryl Hook,

Irene Johnson and Esther Paton for P analyses.

216	This version of the article has been accepted for publication, after peer review (when
217	applicable) but is not the Version of Record and does not reflect post acceptance
218	improvements, or any corrections. The Version of Record is available online at:
219	$\underline{http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41561-023-01225-z} \ and \ \underline{https://rdcu.be/dgu66} \ . \ Use \ of \ this$
220	Accepted Version is subject to the publisher's Accepted Manuscript terms of use
221	https://www.springernature.com/gp/open-research/policies/accepted-manuscript-terms
222	Author Contributions Statement
223	
224	IPH, GKP, JBK and JRL designed the eCO ₂ experiment. GKP, IPH, FM, JBK and CRT
225	installed the FACE system and the mesocosms. JBK and CRT oversaw the operation and
226	maintenance of the experiment. Lab analyses were undertaken by JBK and CRT and JBK
227	performed the data analyses. JBK, GKP and IPH wrote the original draft of the manuscript
228	and all authors contributed to subsequent revisions.
229	
230	Competing Interests Statement
231	The authors declare no competing interests

233 Tables

Table 1 Summary of productivity and soil and microbial phosphorus pools. The mean

(n= 5, with standard errors in parentheses) annual net primary production (NPP),

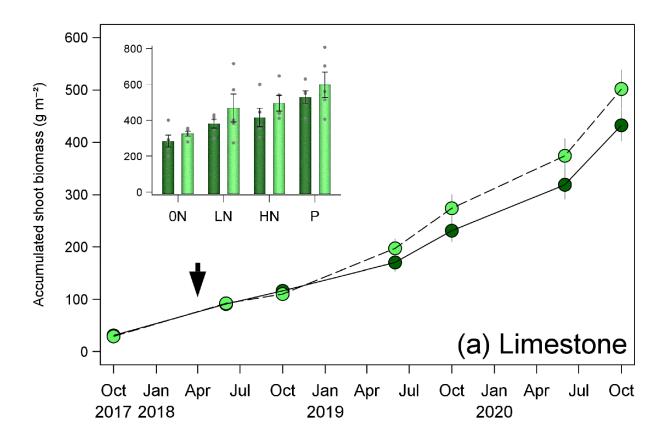
aboveground biomass phosphorus (AGBP) and microbial biomass phosphorus (MBP)

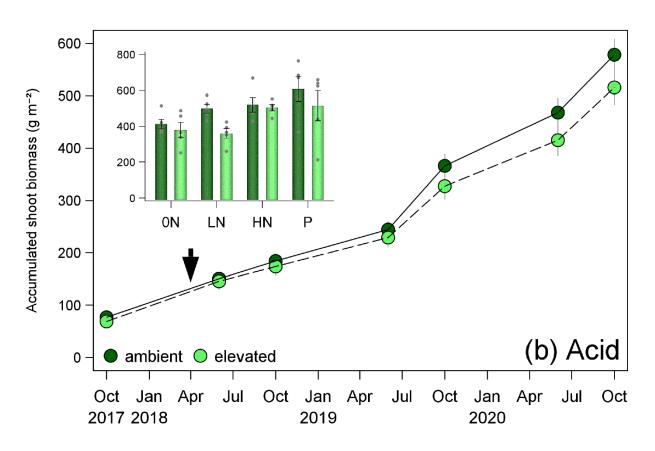
stocks from three years of CO₂ fumigation (a= ambient, e= elevated) from the acid and

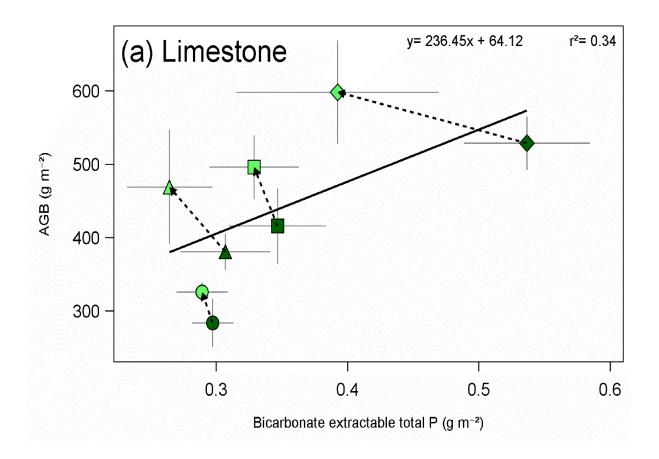
limestone grasslands, subjected to four nutrient amendment treatments (0N= control,

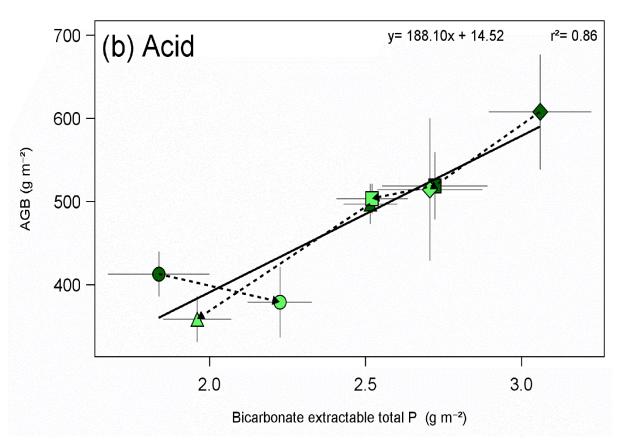
239 LN= 3.5 g N m⁻² y⁻¹, N m⁻² y⁻¹, HN= 14 g N m⁻² y⁻¹, P= 3.5 g P m⁻² y⁻¹)

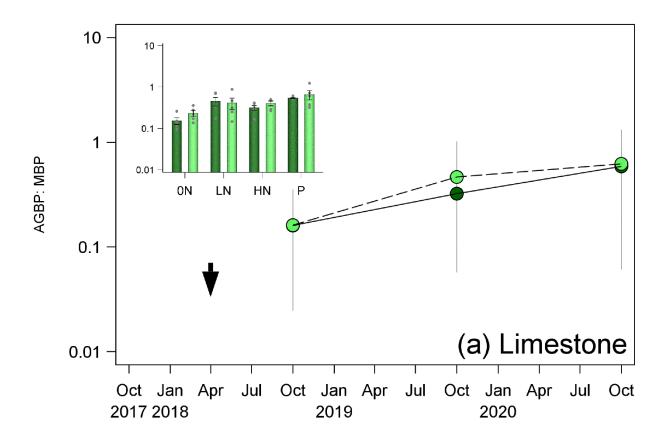
Grasslan d	Nutrie nt	CO	NPP (g m ⁻²)								AGB P (mg m ⁻²)								MBP (mg m ⁻²)							
			2018 201			19 2020		Mean		2018		2019		2020		M	ean	2018		2019		2020		Mean		
	0N	a	41.00	(7.98)	80.42	(11.49	162.3 7	(21.82	94.60	(13.76	39.21	(7.39)	74.59	(23.46)	243.2 2	(49.52)	119.0 1	(26.79	577.78	(51.62)	524.55	(61.93)	600.37	(37.57)	567.57	(50.37)
		e	41.44	(6.72)	104.1	(11.80	180.0 5	(7.00)	108.5 4	(8.51)	38.71	(5.24)	114.2 6	(17.75)	221.5 4	(9.41)	124.8	(10.80	494.60	(77.40)	440.00	(90.15)	468.03	(70.11)	467.54	(79.22)
	LN	a	73.26	(13.10	120.2	(10.76	187.3 8	(10.08	126.9 6	(11.31	66.94	(12.18	123.2 7	(13.90)	249.1 1	(21.74)	146.4 4	(15.94	366.02	(58.10)	245.94	(67.36)	434.02	(68.86)	348.66	(64.77)
Limeston		e	86.55	(21.86	154.4 3	(38.62	227.9 8	(29.17	156.3 2	(29.88	69.38	(17.45	128.0 8	(27.39)	268.2 0	(36.12)	155.2 2	(26.99	374.35	(52.80)	390.25	(104.79	410.56	(69.94)	391.72	(75.84)
e	HN	a	84.51	(20.81	126.9 2	(26.74	204.2 4	(18.58	138.5 6	(22.04	73.37	(18.18	102.5 2	(10.76)	252.2 1	(29.91)	142.7 0	(19.62	404.50	(59.69)	346.63	(53.36)	430.24	(34.83)	393.79	(49.29)
		e	81.47	(7.92)	171.5 3	(26.56	243.0 7	(10.36	165.3 6	(14.95	66.47	(5.64)	172.3 9	(29.79)	294.5 2	(15.66)	177.7 9	(17.03	392.39	(36.15)	319.62	(49.93)	467.89	(61.35)	393.30	(49.14)
	P	a	144.7 3	(6.36)	131.5 8	(20.68	252.2 4	(32.67	176.1 9	(19.91	343.0 3	(17.31	373.1 8	(89.99)	825.9 0	(103.02	514.0 4	(70.11	937.27	(71.73)	713.78	(65.88)	895.57	(114.38	848.87	(83.99)
		e	113.5 3	(7.85)	225.7 8	(33.61	258.9 6	(40.35	199.4 2	(27.27	207.5 7	(11.84	559.7 2	(87.36)	669.4 2	(122.43	478.9 1	(73.88	705.89	(93.14)	595.64	(41.28)	1060.0 8	(347.06	787.20	(160.49
	0N	a	90.20	(13.09	134.3 8	(15.51	188.3 6	(16.54	137.6 5	(15.05	85.12	(17.87	148.9 9	(22.42)	262.8 5	(35.59)	165.6 5	(25.29	435.19	(85.24)	485.16	(152.21	610.47	(79.42)	510.27	(105.62
		e	96.98	(12.64	107.5 1	(16.15	174.8 6	(20.73	126.4 5	(16.51	95.73	(15.72	103.5 0	(21.53)	223.9 9	(22.06)	141.0 8	(19.77	563.06	(125.73	435.28	(172.00	1155.2 0	(209.33	717.84	(169.02
	LN	a	121.8 4	(17.18	182.6 9	(8.30)	192.6 9	(21.90	165.7 4	(15.80	121.7 4	(17.14	187.3 9	(32.63)	268.9 1	(37.96)	192.6 8	(29.25	680.99	(135.02	413.75	(79.57)	563.57	(177.19	552.77	(130.59
Acid		e	69.94	(5.60)	134.2 0	(18.96	154.5 0	(5.72)	119.5 5	(10.09	52.89	(3.78)	130.5 7	(20.66)	175.6 4	(4.14)	119.7 0	(9.53)	584.39	(149.11	682.07	(398.24	614.30	(114.72	626.92	(220.69
Acid	HN	a	106.6 4	(19.77	200.0	(26.85	212.3	(16.58	173.0 1	(21.06	99.91	(19.31	157.9 8	(20.40)	244.3 0	(24.20)	167.4 0	(21.31	655.00	(154.56	357.14	(111.15	701.90	(108.13	571.35	(124.61
		e	107.6 9	(11.18	190.5 6	(12.13	205.3 4	(19.68	167.8 6	(14.33	97.55	(13.59	183.8 1	(14.81)	224.4 6	(23.64)	168.6 1	(17.35	753.36	(94.60)	701.90	(225.59	487.49	(192.65	647.58	(170.94
	P	a	142.6 8	(10.32	208.3	(38.07	256.7 0	(23.71	202.5 7	(24.03	421.3 8	(38.37	515.3 3	(173.14	767.5 9	(63.17)	568.1 0	(91.56	674.55	(89.92)	691.65	(273.81	733.60	(198.73	699.93	(187.49
	1	e	113.3 2	(32.51	181.2 7	(26.33	219.9 7	(34.94	171.5 2	(31.26	318.3 4	(66.20	434.0 7	(104.78	561.9 4	(89.93)	438.1	(86.97	1129.6 9	(256.07	1140.5 6	(138.16	1286.0 2	(147.50	1185.4 3	(180.58

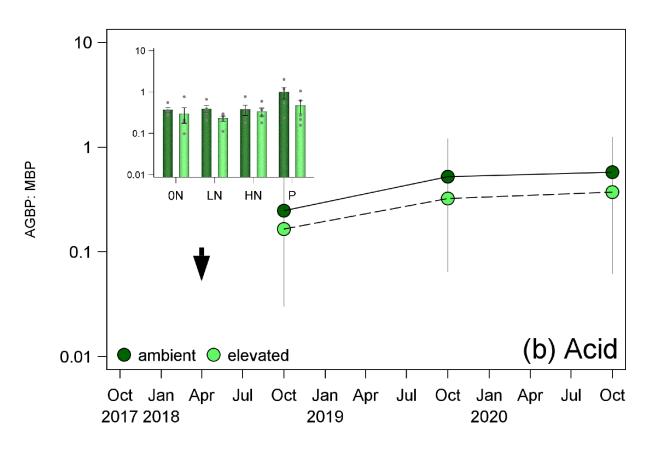












245 Figure Legends

270

Fig. 1 Contrasting aboveground shoot productivity responses to CO₂. Limestone (a) and 246 247 acidic (b) grasslands exposed to ambient (dark green circles and bars) or 600 ppm CO₂ (light green circles and bars), from April 2018 (denoted by vertical arrows). The main panels show 248 the cumulative productivity over the study period, averaging across nutrient treatments 249 250 (mean \pm 1 SE, n= 20). Inset bar charts show the final accumulated shoot biomass (mean \pm 1 SE, n=5) in relation to the four multi-decadal nutrient treatments (0N= control, LN= 3.5 g N 251 $m^{-2} y^{-1}$, HN= 14 g N $m^{-2} y^{-1}$, P= 3.5 g P $m^{-2} y^{-1}$). 252 Fig. 2: Relationship between bicarbonate-extractable total P (as determined by ICP-253 OES) and aboveground biomass. Please note this measure of available P differs from 254 255 Olsen P by including bicarbonate-extractable organic P in addition to inorganic P. Two grasslands, limestone (a) and acidic (b) were exposed to ambient CO₂ (dark green 256 symbols) or eCO2 (600 ppm, light green symbols) under four nutrient manipulations 257 (0N= control (circles), LN= 3.5 g N m-2 y-1 (triangles), HN= 14 g N m-2 y-1 (squares), 258 P= 3.5 g P m-2 y-1 (diamonds)). Dashed arrows show the directional change in soil P 259 availability and aboveground productivity under eCO2 within each grassland-nutrient 260 combination. The overall positive relationship between aboveground productivity and 261 soil available P for each grassland is described by a linear regression (solid black line) 262 263 and the formula is displayed in the top right of each panel. Data points are means for each nutrient-grassland-CO₂ combination (n= 5 ± 1 SE). 264 265 Fig. 3: Contrasting ratio (on a log scale) of aboveground plant biomass P (AGBP) to 266 soil microbial biomass P (MBP). A limestone (a) and acidic grassland (b) were exposed 267 268 to ambient (dark green circles and bars) or 600 ppm CO₂ (light green circles and bars), from April 2018. The main panels show time series measurements (mean \pm 1 SE, n= 269

20), inset bar charts giving overall means (± 1 SE, n=5) for each nutrient treatment

- 271 (0N= control, LN= 3.5 g N m^{-2} y^{-1} , HN= 14 g N m^{-2} y^{-1} , P= 3.5 g P m^{-2} y^{-1}). Vertical
- 272 arrows denote start of CO₂ fumigation.

274 **References**

Zhongming, Z., Linong, L., Wangqiang, Z. & Wei, L. AR6 Climate 275 1 Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. (2021). 276 2 277 Reich, P. B. et al. Nitrogen limitation constrains sustainability of 278 ecosystem response to CO₂. *Nature* **440**, 922-925 (2006). https://doi.org:10.1038/nature04486 279 280 3 Zavalloni, C. et al. Exposure to warming and CO₂ enrichment promotes 281 greater above-ground biomass, nitrogen, phosphorus and arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization in newly established grasslands. Plant and Soil 282 283 **359**, 121-136 (2012). https://doi.org:10.1007/s11104-012-1190-y Reich, P. B. & Hobbie, S. E. Decade-long soil nitrogen constraint on the 284 4 285 CO₂ fertilization of plant biomass. *Nature Climate Change* **3**, 278-282 286 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1038/nclimate1694 287 5 Zaehle, S., Jones, C. D., Houlton, B., Lamarque, J. F. & Robertson, E. Nitrogen Availability Reduces CMIP5 Projections of Twenty-First-288 289 Century Land Carbon Uptake. Journal of Climate 28, 2494-2511 (2015). https://doi.org:10.1175/jcli-d-13-00776.1 290 291 6 Goll, D. S. et al. Nutrient limitation reduces land carbon uptake in simulations with a model of combined carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus 292 293 cycling. Biogeosciences 9, 3547-3569 (2012). https://doi.org:10.5194/bg-9-3547-2012 294 7 295 Du, E. Z. et al. Global patterns of terrestrial nitrogen and phosphorus 296 limitation. *Nature Geoscience* **13**, 221-+ (2020). 297 https://doi.org:10.1038/s41561-019-0530-4 Zhang, Q., Wang, Y. P., Matear, R. J., Pitman, A. J. & Dai, Y. J. Nitrogen 298 8 299 and phosphorous limitations significantly reduce future allowable CO2

300 emissions. Geophysical Research Letters 41, 632-637 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1002/2013gl058352 301 Ellsworth, D. S. et al. Elevated CO2 does not increase eucalypt forest 302 9 303 productivity on a low phosphorus soil. Nature Climate Change 7, 279-+ (2017). https://doi.org:10.1038/nclimate3235 304 305 10 Horswill, P., O'Sullivan, O., Phoenix, G. K., Lee, J. A. & Leake, J. R. Base 306 cation depletion, eutrophication and acidification of species-rich grasslands in response to long-term simulated nitrogen deposition. 307 308 Environmental Pollution 155, 336-349 (2008). 309 https://doi.org:10.1016/j.envpol.2007.11.006 Turner, B. L. et al. Soil microbial biomass and the fate of phosphorus 310 11 311 during long-term ecosystem development. Plant and Soil 367, 225-234 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1007/s11104012-1493-z 312 313 12 Vance, C. P., Uhde-Stone, C. & Allan, D. L. Phosphorus acquisition and use: critical adaptations by plants for securing a non-renewable resource. 314 315 New Phytologist 157, 423-447 (2003). https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1469-316 8137.2003.00695.x 317 Keane, J. B. et al. Soil C, N and P cycling enzyme responses to nutrient 13 limitation under elevated CO₂. *Biogeochemistry* **151**, 221-235 (2020). 318 319 https://doi.org:10.1007/s10533-02000723-1 Terrer, C., Vicca, S., Hungate, B. A., Phillips, R. P. & Prentice, I. C. 320 14 Mycorrhizal association as a primary control of the CO₂ fertilization 321 322 effect. Science 353, 72-74 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.aaf4610 Drake, J. E. et al. Short-term carbon cycling responses of a mature 323 15 324 eucalypt woodland to gradual stepwise enrichment of atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Global Change Biology 22, 380-390 (2016). 325 326 https://doi.org:10.1111/gcb.13109

327 16 Jiang, M. K. et al. The fate of carbon in a mature forest under carbon dioxide enrichment. *Nature* **580**, 227-+ (2020). 328 https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-020-2128-9 329 330 17 Terrer, C. et al. Nitrogen and phosphorus constrain the CO₂ fertilization of global plant biomass. *Nature Climate Change* **9**, 684-+ (2019). 331 332 https://doi.org:10.1038/s41558-019-0545-2 333 18 Jiang, M. K. et al. Low phosphorus supply constrains plant responses to elevated CO₂: A meta-analysis. Global Change Biology **26**, 5856-5873 334 335 (2020). https://doi.org:10.1111/gcb.15277 336 19 Chapin, F. S., Matson, P. A., Mooney, H. A. & Vitousek, P. M. Principles of terrestrial ecosystem ecology. (2002). 337 Phoenix, G. K. et al. Effects of enhanced nitrogen deposition and 20 338 phosphorus limitation on nitrogen budgets of semi-natural grasslands. 339 340 *Global Change Biology* **9**, 1309-1321 (2003). https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1365-2486.2003.00660.x 341 342 21 Chen, J. et al. Long-term nitrogen loading alleviates phosphorus limitation 343 in terrestrial ecosystems. Global Change Biology 26, 5077-5086 (2020). https://doi.org:10.1111/gcb.15218 344 Hebeisen, T. et al. Growth response of Trifolium repens L and Lolium 345 22 346 perenne L as monocultures and bi-species mixture to free air CO₂ 347 enrichment and management. Global Change Biology 3, 149-160 (1997). https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1365-2486.1997.00073.x 348 Kammann, C., Grunhage, L., Gruters, U., Janze, S. & Jager, H. J. 349 23 350 Response of aboveground grassland biomass and soil moisture to 351 moderate long-term CO₂ enrichment. Basic and Applied Ecology 6, 351-365 (2005). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.baae.2005.01.011 352

and carbon dynamics in the Arctic, integration of soil microbial and plant 354 processes. Applied Soil Ecology 11, 135-146 (1999). 355 https://doi.org:10.1016/s0929-1393(98)00145-0 356 Hodge, A., Robinson, D. & Fitter, A. Are microorganisms more effective 357 25 358 than plants at competing for nitrogen? Trends in Plant Science 5, 304-308 359 (2000). https://doi.org:10.1016/s1360-1385(00)01656-3 Liu, Q. Y. et al. Nitrogen acquisition by plants and microorganisms in a 360 26 361 temperate grassland. Scientific Reports 6 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1038/srep22642 362 Bunemann, E. K. et al. Rapid microbial phosphorus immobilization 363 27 dominates gross phosphorus fluxes in a grassland soil with low inorganic 364 phosphorus availability. Soil Biology & Biochemistry 51, 84-95 (2012). 365 366 https://doi.org:10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.04.012 Dijkstra, F. A., He, M. Z., Johansen, M. P., Harrison, J. J. & Keitel, C. 367 28 368 Plant and microbial uptake of nitrogen and phosphorus affected by drought 369 using N-15 and P-32 tracers. Soil Biology & Biochemistry 82, 135-142 (2015). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.12.021 370 Reich, P. B. et al. Do species and functional groups differ in acquisition 371 29 372 and use of C, N and water under varying atmospheric CO₂ and N availability regimes? A field test with 16 grassland species. New 373 Phytologist 150, 435-448 (2001). 374 https://doi.org:10.1046/j.14698137.2001.00114.x 375 30 Denef, K. et al. Community shifts and carbon translocation within 376 377 metabolically-active rhizosphere microorganisms in grasslands under elevated CO₂. Biogeosciences 4, 769-779 (2007). 378 https://doi.org:10.5194/bg-4-769-2007 379

Jonasson, S., Michelsen, A. & Schmidt, I. K. Coupling of nutrient cycling

353

380 31 Jin, J., Tang, C. X. & Sale, P. The impact of elevated carbon dioxide on 381 the phosphorus nutrition of plants: a review. Annals of Botany 116, 987-999 (2015). https://doi.org:10.1093/aob/mcv088 382 Lidbury, I. et al. The 'known' genetic potential for microbial communities 383 32 to degrade organic phosphorus is reduced in low-pH soils. 384 Microbiologyopen 6, 5 (2017). https://doi.org:10.1002/mbo3.474 385 33 Lidbury, I. et al. Niche-adaptation in plant-associated Bacteroidetes 386 favours specialisation in organic phosphorus mineralisation. Isme Journal 387 **15**, 1040-1055 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41396-020-00829-2 388 Quirk, J., Andrews, M. Y., Leake, J. R., Banwart, S. A. & Beerling, D. J. 389 34 390 Ectomycorrhizal fungi and past high CO₂ atmospheres enhance mineral weathering through increased belowground carbon-energy fluxes. Biology 391 Letters 10 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1098/rsbl.2014.0375 392 393 35 Peltzer, D. A. et al. Understanding ecosystem retrogression. Ecological 394 Monographs 80, 509529 (2010). https://doi.org:10.1890/09-1552.1 395 36 Chapin, F. S., Matson, P. A. & Vitousek, P. M. in Principles of Terrestrial Ecosystem Ecology 259-296 (Springer, 2011). 396 Zhu, Q., Riley, W. J. & Tang, J. Y. A new theory of plant-microbe nutrient 397 37 398 competition resolves inconsistencies between observations and model 399 predictions. Ecological Applications 27, 875-886 (2017). https://doi.org:10.1002/eap.1490 400 Finzi, A. C. et al. Increases in nitrogen uptake rather than nitrogen-use 401 38 402 efficiency support higher rates of temperate forest productivity under elevated CO₂. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the 403 404 *United States of America* **104**, 14014-14019 (2007). https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.0706518104 405

406	39	Sulman, B. N., Phillips, R. P., Oishi, A. C., Shevliakova, E. & Pacala, S.
407		W. Microbe-driven turnover offsets mineral-mediated storage of soil
408		carbon under elevated CO ₂ . Nature Climate Change 4, 1099-1102 (2014).
409		https://doi.org:10.1038/nclimate2436
410		
411	Corre	esponding author: please direct correspondence to Ben Keane, ben.keane@york.ac.uk
412		

Methods

413

414 Nutrient manipulation Sets of 10 intact soil-turf monoliths of area 0.35 x 0.35 m, were taken from each treatment 415 plot of a long-term grassland nutrient manipulation experiment that was established in 1995 416 at Wardlow, Peak District National Park, UK²⁰. The limestone grassland (NVC 417 classification 418 Festuca-Avenula CG2d) occurs on a shallow ranker (~ 10 cm A horizon down to limestone 419 parent material) that is transitioning from a humic rendzina due to leaching 10. The acidic 420 421 grassland (Festuca-Agrostis-Galium U4e) is on a cryptic podzol, with an organic-rich A horizon ca. 10 cm deep above a loessic mineral horizon extending to at least 70 cm depth 422 (though rooting and biological activity is largely limited to the top 15 cm). On each 423 grassland, replicate 9 m² experimental plots have received either no treatment (natural P 424 limitation, application of distilled water only (0N)), monthly applications of P at 35 kg P ha 425 ¹ y⁻¹ (P), or N at 35 and 140 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (LN and HN, respectively)) and were continued 426 throughout the study. 427 The monoliths were taken during February and March 2017, being excavated to the bedrock 428 (~10 cm) in the limestone grassland and to below the main rooting depth in the acidic 429 430 grassland (~20 cm). They were transported in polypropylene boxes to the Bradfield Environment Laboratory research station, also in the Peak District National Park. Since 431 roots readily reach the underlying limestone in shallow rendzina soils, a base of limestone 432 chippings, sourced from a quarry on the same limestone as Wardlow (Bee Low limestone, 433 Dove Hole Quarry, Derbyshire UK), was applied to the bottom of the limestone mesocosms. 434 435 At the Bradfield research station, the mesocosms were set flush with the ground surface in holes dug out of the soil to ensure they were thermally buffered, and the surface of the turfs 436 matched the surrounding vegetation. The mesocosm sides were solid so there was no direct 437

contact with the surrounding soils, and the base freely drained through holes covered with a mesh voile (to stop particulate loss and root outgrowth, or ingrowth of roots from surrounding plants). The Bradfield research station (ca. 390 m asl) is less than 20 km from Wardlow (ca. 350 m asl) and has similar climate.

CO2 enrichment

Mesocosms were assigned to form groups of 8, comprising one of each of the four nutrient treatments from both grasslands, and these were placed within five miniFACE or five control rings of 1.6 m diameter that were supported ca. 20 cm above the ground surface. The mesocosms in control rings experienced ambient CO₂ concentrations, whilst the miniFACE system⁴⁰ Each ring consisted of PVC tubes with laser drilled micro-holes. The processors in the FACE ring control units received CO₂ information from sensors (GTM222, Vaisala, Finland) installed in the centre of each ring. Microprocessors, linked to automated pressure regulators, controlled the pressure inside the releasing pipes and therefore delivery of CO₂ to the rings. Fumigation started in 2018, with fossil fuel-derived CO₂ supplied by BOC Cryospeed (BOC Limited, Manchester, UK). During the hours of daylight, CO₂ enrichment was set to a target of 600 ppm, which continued from the beginning of April until the end of October for three year (2018-2020). The FACE system achieved a mean of 598 ± 0.07 ppm across all elevated plots over the experiment, with the 5% and 95% quantiles being 555 and 643 ppm respectively.

457 Biomass harvesting

Aboveground biomass was harvested twice each year, at the end of June and during September. Plant biomass was cut at 2.5 cm and 5 cm height in the limestone and acidic grasslands respectively and oven dried at 70 °C until constant weight. Dried plant material was first homogenised using a food processor then milled to a fine powder (IKA 10 Mill, IKA®-Werke GmbH & Co.KG, Staufen, Germany).

487

Soil was sampled once a year from each mesocosm contemporaneously with the September 464 aboveground biomass harvest. Triplicate 2 cm diameter soil cores were taken from random 465 466 locations within each mesocosm and in the acid grassland these were divided into the A and B horizons. Soil was passed first through a 10 mm sieve and then roots were removed by 467 468 hand. The remaining soil was then passed through a 2 mm sieve in preparation for chemical 469 analyses, with a subsample placed in the oven at 105 °C to determine soil moisture content. Determination of soil and plant biomass P content 470 Plant biomass underwent hydrogen peroxide acid digest modified from Grimshaw (1987)⁴¹ 471 and Leake (1988)⁴². Dried plant material (20–50 mg) was added to a glass digest tube and 1 472 cm³ of 100% H₂SO₄ was added. The tubes were gently shaken and left overnight in a fume 473 cupboard to 'pre-digest'. Custom-made glass 'cold fingers' were used to cover the tubes, 474 475 allowing acid condensate to safely reflux with the reagents. Two digest blanks per 30 samples were prepared for colorimetry, which consisted of 1 cm³ H₂SO₄ which underwent 476 477 the same subsequent procedure as the plant sample digests. Samples were heated in a 478 heating block (Grant heat block, BT5D model) to 350 °C. Before reaching the target temperature (and at approximately 250 °C) samples were briefly removed from the block 479 and swirled to mix the digestate. The tubes were allowed to reach 350 °C and remained at 480 temperature for 15 minutes. Tubes were removed from the blocks, swirled again and 481 allowed to partially cool. 482 483 Samples were clarified by addition of H₂O₂ while solutions were still hot, following a delay of 30 –60 seconds to prevent loss of sample by spitting. An initial volume of 800 µl H₂O₂ 484 485 was added to each tube and boiled off in the heating block until most visible evaporation had ceased. Samples were cooled again and another 200 µl of hydrogen peroxide was added 486

and boiled off. This latter addition was repeated once more to ensure all samples were clear

and no more plant sample remained adhered to the tubes. The digest solutions were diluted to 10 ml by adding 9 ml of ultra-high purity (UHP) water. Total P in the digest solutions was then determined using an adapted version of the molybdate blue reaction^{43,44}.

Determination of soil microbial biomass P

Soil microbial P (MBP) was determined using the chloroform-fumigation method of Brookes et al (1982)⁴⁵. Gravimetric water content of soil was determined from oven drying a 4 g fresh weight subsample for 48 hours at 105°C. Two further 4 g fresh weight aliquots were weighed into acid washed (HCl) 50 cm³ beakers: one for fumigation and one for non-fumigation. One aliquot was placed in a vacuum desiccator with a beaker containing boiling chips and 20 ml chloroform (CHCl₃). The desiccator was evacuated until chloroform boiled three times, venting between the first two times and left in darkness for 24 hours. After incubation, CHCl₃ was removed by drawing a vacuum and venting 5 times.

Both fumigated and unfumigated soils were extracted in 50 ml of 0.5 M sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃; pH 8.5). Extracts were shaken for 1 hour on a rotary shaker and filtered through pre-leached Whatman 44 filter paper. Extracts were stored at -18 °C until quantification of P was determined using Inductively Coupled Plasma - Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICPOES; Thermo Fisher iCAP PRO). Soil MBP was calculated by subtracting the concentration of P in the non-fumigated aliquot from the fumigated aliquot.

Statistical analyses

Linear mixed effects models were used to test for fixed effects of eCO₂, nutrient treatment, and grassland, with block as a random factor, on aboveground biomass, cumulative aboveground biomass, aboveground biomass P, soil microbial P and AGB:MBP ratio. A log transformation was performed on AGBP:MBP before analysis. Differences between groups were assessed using least square means. All figures and analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

514	Data ı	used to produce this paper are available via the EIDC data repository							
515	https:/	//doi.org/10.5285/35921c93-2d9e-4e35-8de5-adbfc37641b4							
516									
517	Methods References								
518	41	Miglietta, F. et al. Spatial and temporal performance of the MiniFACE							
519		(Free Air CO ₂ Enrichment) system on bog ecosystems in northern and							
520		central Europe. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 66, 107-127							
521		(2001). https://doi.org:10.1023/a:1026495830251							
522	42	Grimshaw, H. M. in Chemical analysis in environmental research (ed A.							
523		P. Rowland) 9295 (Abbots Ripton, 1987).							
524	43	Leake, J. R. The causes and effects of soil acidification by Calluna							
525		$vulgaris\ L\ (Hull)\ with\ special\ reference\ to\ the\ role\ of\ mycorrhizas,\ (1988).$							
526	44	Murphy, J. & Riley, J. P. A modified single solution method for the							
527		determination of phosphate in natural waters. Analytica chimica acta. 27,							
528		31-36 (1962). https://doi.org:10.1016/S0003-2670(00)88444-5							
529		info:doi/10.1016/S0003-2670(00)88444-5							
530	45	Brookes, P. C., Powlson, D. S. & Jenkinson, D. S. measurement of							
531		microbial biomass phosphorus in soil. Soil Biol Biochem 14, 319-329							
532		(1982). https://doi.org:10.1016/00380717(82)90001-3							
533									

Data availability