

1 Strong stoichiometric resilience after litter manipulation experiments;
2 a case study in a Chinese grassland
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22 **Abstract**

23 Global climate change has generally modified net primary production (NPP) which leads to
24 increasing litter inputs in some ecosystems. Therefore, assessing the impacts of increasing
25 litter inputs on soil nutrients, plant growth and ecological carbon (C):nitrogen
26 (N):phosphorus (P) stoichiometry is critical for an understanding of C, N and P cycling and
27 their feedback processes to climate change. In this study, we added plant above ground litter,
28 harvested near the experimental plots, to the 10-20 cm subsoil layer of a steppe community at
29 rates equivalent to annual litter input of 0, 15, 30, 60 and 120%, respectively, covering the
30 entire range of the expected NPP increases in this region due to climate change (10-60%).
31 We measured the resulting C, N and P content of different pools (above and below ground
32 plant biomass, litter, microbial biomass). Small litter additions, which are more plausible
33 compared to the expected increase predicted by Earth system models, had no effect on the
34 variables examined. Nevertheless, high litter addition (120% of the annual litter inputs)
35 significantly increased soil inorganic N and available P, aboveground biomass, belowground
36 biomass and litter. Our results suggest that while very high litter addition can strongly affect
37 C:N:P stoichiometry, the grassland studied here is resilient to more plausible inputs in terms
38 of stoichiometric functioning.

39

40 Keywords: litter addition; C, N and P pools; C:N:P stoichiometry; soil microorganisms;
41 temperate grassland

42

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Ecological stoichiometry is the study of the balance of multiple chemical elements in
44 ecological interactions (Elser et al., 2000, 2010; Elser and Hamilton, 2007). Carbon (C),
45 nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are key elements in terrestrial ecosystems (Daufresne and
46 Loreau, 2001; Elser et al., 2010; Hessen et al., 2013), and the C:N:P stoichiometry reflects
47 complex interactions between evolutionary processes coupled to phenotypic plasticity
48 (Sardans et al., 2012). These complex interactions are, at least partially, controlled by
49 patterns of element supply from the environment (Hessen et al., 2004). Ecological
50 stoichiometry provides a valuable approach in assessing possible changes in C, N and P
51 cycling (Hessen et al., 2013). Over the past three decades ecological stoichiometry has
52 expanded greatly (Hessen et al., 2013), and many studies have concentrated on understanding
53 the variation in plant C, N and P concentrations among and within species (Schmidt et al.,
54 1997; Aerts and Chapin, 2000; Güsewell and Koerselman, 2002; Augustine et al., 2003;
55 Güsewell 2004; Frank, 2008). However, relationships among soil nutrient availability, plant
56 growth and ecological C:N:P stoichiometry of plants, litter, soil and soil microbes under
57 global climate change in terrestrial ecosystems remain poorly understood.

58 Litter is an important nutrient pool and litter decomposition rates strongly affect nutrient
59 availability in terrestrial ecosystems with significant feedback on plant growth and on climate
60 (Subke et al., 2004; Ryan and Law, 2005; Sayer, 2006; Cornelissen et al., 2007;
61 Villalobos-Vega et al., 2011). The increase of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂)
62 concentration within the next 100 years (Meinshausen et al., 2011) due to continued

63 anthropogenic carbon emissions is generally predicted to increase net primary production
64 (NPP) (Todd-Brown et al., 2014). Nevertheless such effects do not scale linearly with
65 increases in atmospheric CO₂ because productivity is also strongly controlled by climate.
66 Regions with drying climates are likely to present reduced net primary production in the next
67 decades (IPCC, 2013). Although uncertainties exists in the magnitude of the changes (e.g.
68 Campbell et al., 1991; Arnone and Körner, 1995; Gill et al., 2002), increases in net primary
69 production are probably predominant and will simultaneously increase litter inputs to soils.
70 Modification of atmospheric CO₂, of climate and of nutrient cycling may also modify the
71 chemical composition of the litter (Cotrufo et al., 1999). Elevated CO₂ generally increases the
72 lignin content and reduces the N concentration of plant tissues, although Norby et al., (2001)
73 showed that this response depends on the experimental system used (open top chamber, free
74 air CO₂ enrichment, etc.).

75 In past decades, the effects of litter addition on plant growth, soil C content and cycling,
76 microbial biomass and priming of decomposition rates have been reported and confirmed (eg.
77 Sulzman et al., 2005; Guenet et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2010; Chemidlin Prévost-Bouré et al.,
78 2010; Sayer et al., 2011; Villalobos-Vega et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2012, Xiao et al., 2014).
79 However, the impacts of litter addition on soil nutrients, plant growth and ecological C:N:P
80 stoichiometry of plants, litter, soil and soil microbes remain highly uncertain. Moreover,
81 climate change and increased atmospheric CO₂ would not only affect NPP but also
82 environmental conditions for decomposers in soils (soil moisture, temperature), inducing
83 modification of microbial community structure and activity (Singh et al., 2010). Associated

84 to litter additions, these effects would disturb the C cycle in soil, affecting the net ecosystem
85 exchange particularly in grasslands where the vast majority of the C stock is stored
86 belowground, due to their high root:shoot biomass and productivity ratios (Mokany et al.,
87 2006).

88 Grassland is one of the most important global terrestrial ecosystems, covering about 25%
89 of the global terrestrial area and 40% of the land area in China (Kang et al., 2006). The
90 semi-arid and temperate grasslands of northern China account for about 78% of the national
91 grassland area, where the native vegetation is predominantly characterized by the abundance
92 of grass species such as *Stipa* spp. and *Leymus chinensis* (Trin) Tzvel., with *Stipa krylovii*
93 Roshev. being well-represented as one of the major steppe community types (Zhao et al.,
94 2003). Plant recruitment, growth and nutrient cycling of the region often are limited by soil
95 water, nitrogen and phosphorus, and the regional soil fertility and productivity are maintained
96 by recycling of nutrients through plant litter decomposition as an essential mechanism (Liu et
97 al., 2006) with little natural nitrogen deposition. A better understanding of the effects of litter
98 addition on plant growth and ecological C:N:P stoichiometry of plants, litter, soil and soil
99 microbes could help to reduce uncertainties in our predictions of C, N and P balance as well
100 as cycling, and structure and function in grassland ecosystems under global climate change.
101 We conducted a field experiment in which we artificially added litter inputs to subsoils (i.e.
102 10-20 cm) under a *S. krylovii* steppe community in a temperate grassland of northern China
103 to assess the effects on soil inorganic N and available P, plant growth, litter, C, N and P pools
104 and the C:N:P stoichiometry of plant, litter, soil and soil microbes. The litter added was

105 obtained under current atmospheric CO₂ concentration and therefore, the impact of elevated
106 CO₂ on the litter stoichiometry (Cotrufo et al., 1999) was not represented in our case. The
107 primary objectives of our study were to determine whether the studied grassland was resilient
108 to litter addition or if litter additions would increase soil inorganic N and available P and
109 thereby affect plant growth, litter, and the C, N, P pools and the C:N:P stoichiometry of
110 plants, litter, soil and soil microbes. Here, we define the term resilience as the absence of a
111 significant effect of litter additions on the measured variables (plant biomass, C:N:P ratio,
112 etc.).

113 In a previous study (Xiao et al 2014), we observed that litter additions in the temperate
114 grassland of northern China accelerate decomposition of soil organic matter through a
115 priming effect. Priming is defined here as a modification of the soil organic matter
116 decomposition rate induced by an input of litter and mediated by the altered activity of the
117 microbial community (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2008). The main objective of this
118 study was to analyze how additional litter inputs and associated priming of soil organic
119 matter decomposition alter nutrient availability and thereby plant stoichiometry and
120 productivity. .

121

122 **2. Materials and Methods**

123 **2.1 Study site**

124 This study was conducted at a field site of the Duolun Restoration Ecology Experimentation
125 and Demonstration Station of the Institute of Botany, the Chinese Academy of Sciences,

126 located in south-eastern Inner Mongolia, northern China (Latitude 42°02'N, longitude
127 116°16'E, elevation 1350 m a.s.l.). The climate is temperate and semiarid with a dry spring
128 and a wet summer. The long-term mean annual temperature at the site is 2.1°C, with monthly
129 mean temperatures ranging from -17.5°C in January to 18.9°C in July. Mean annual
130 precipitation is about 380mm, with 90% of the precipitation falling in the growing season
131 between May and October.

132 Total precipitation was 196, 369, and 187 mm in 2009, 2010 and 2011, respectively, and
133 the precipitation between May 1st and September 30th was 164, 314, and 159 mm in 2009,
134 2010 and 2011, respectively. Mean annual air temperature was 2.96, 2.43 and 2.11°C in 2009,
135 2010 and 2011, respectively (Fig. 1).

136 Soil type was classified as chestnut soil (Chinese classification) or Calcic Luvisols
137 according to the FAO Classification (FAO, 1974). The soil characteristics were measured
138 in the 0-30cm layer. Soils are composed of 63% sand, 20% silt, and 17% clay (Niu et al.,
139 2010), with concentrations of soil organic C, N and P of 1.55%, 0.17% and 0.03%,
140 respectively. The C:N:P ratio of soil is about 51.7:5.7:1. Compared to the global database of
141 Xu et al., (2013), the soil of the study site is a nutrient rich soil. Mean bulk density is 1.31g
142 cm⁻³, and the soil pH is 7.7. The native vegetation is represented by typical steppe
143 communities, where *Stipakrylovii* Roshev., a perennial bunchgrass, dominates. Other
144 common species include *Leymus chinensis* (Trin) Tzvel, *Cleistogenes squarrosa* (Trin.) Keng,
145 *Agropyroncristatum* (L.) Gaertner, *Artemisia frigid* Willd., *Potentillaacaulis* L., and
146 *Carexduriuscula* CA Mey. Total vegetation cover was relatively sparse, ranging from 85 to

147 90%. Annual plant biomass production at the site was *c.*1000g (dry mass) m⁻² year⁻¹ (Li et al.,
148 2004).

149

150 **2.2 Experimental design**

151 On October 1st 2008, at the end of the growing season, we established twenty-five 2m ×1m
152 treatment plots. Treatments involved the addition of fresh organic matter to the soil in the
153 10-20 cm soil layer. The applied fresh organic matter consisted of senescent above-ground
154 tissues from an abundance-weighted mix of plant species occurring at the site. For this
155 purpose, senescent plant biomass was harvested from an adjacent field, air-dried, fragmented,
156 and passed through a sieve with a 2-mm mesh size. We used fragmented and sieved litter
157 mainly to standardize the litter area available to microbes. The additions were equivalent to 0
158 (control treatment), 150, 300, 600 and 1200 g (dry mass) m⁻², with all arranged as a complete
159 randomized-block design including five replications corresponding to litter input increases of
160 0, 15, 30, 60 and 120% respectively. It must be noted that net primary production is assumed
161 to increase between 10 and 60% at the end of the 21st century (Arora and Boer, 2014;
162 Todd-Brown et al., 2014), which means that the first three addition amounts are in the range
163 of the expected increase. The plant litter used had a C concentration of 400.8 mg g⁻¹ (standard
164 error (SE) =1.3 mg g⁻¹, n=5), an N concentration of 9.72 mg g⁻¹ (SE =0.04 mg g⁻¹, n=5), and a
165 P concentration of 0.768 mg g⁻¹ (SE =0.01 mg g⁻¹, n=5), corresponding to a C:N:P ratio of
166 521.9:12.6:1. Lignin concentration in litter was 190.9 mg g⁻¹ (SE =0.9 mg g⁻¹, n=5).

167 Adding litter to the uppermost soil layers is impossible without drastically disturbing the

168 soils. To minimize disturbance, we carefully removed the top 10-cm soil blocks, containing
169 60% of the root system (Zhou et al., 2007), with a sharp spade, keeping the soil blocks and
170 vegetation as intact as possible. The soil underneath was loosened to a depth of 20 cm, and a
171 predetermined quantity of plant litter was mixed homogeneously with the soil in the 10-20
172 cm layer. The surface soil blocks were then placed back into their original positions.
173 Remaining fissures between the soil blocks were carefully filled with soil from the 0-10 cm
174 soil layer and gently compacted by hand. To create consistent soil disturbance across
175 treatments, the plots with zero litter addition were processed in the same manner as the plots
176 that received plant litter. We did not add the litter at the soil surface, but inserted it in the soil
177 to reduce export due to wind or rain and thereby better control the amount of litter added.

178

179 **2.3 Field sampling and measurements**

180 Field sampling of above-ground biomass, root biomass, litter and soils was conducted from
181 August 1st to 3rd in 2009, 2010 and 2011. We choose this period because August is the peak
182 of the growing season.

183 Above-ground biomass and litter were simultaneously sampled in each plot using a 1 m ×
184 0.3 m quadrat. Live and dead above-ground biomass were measured by clip-harvesting and
185 dead parts were combined with the litter. Below-ground biomass in the 0-20 cm soil layer
186 was determined by soil coring to a depth of 20 cm using a cylindrical root sampler (8-cm
187 inner diameter). Roots were manually removed from the soil samples. All samples of
188 above-ground biomass, below-ground biomass and litter were oven-dried at 65°C to constant

189 mass.

190 Soils were sampled in three different points of each plot within the 0-20cm soil layer with a
191 soil sampler of 3 cm inner diameter. The samples were pooled and mixed to produce one
192 composite sample. The fresh samples were sieved using a 2 mm sieve and visible plant
193 tissues were removed. Then the samples were divided into two groups. The first group was
194 immediately transported to the laboratory with a portable ice box and stored at 4 °C before
195 microbial biomass analysis and the second group was dried by air in the shade. Additionally,
196 soil bulk densities of the 0-20 cm soil layers of each plot were determined concurrently with
197 soil sampling by a special coring device (volume = 100.0 ml).

198 In the lab, chemical analysis was performed on samples of above-ground biomass,
199 below-ground biomass, litter and soil in the 0-20 cm soil layer for organic C and total N
200 using an automatic elemental analyzer Vario EL III (Elementar Analysen systeme Comp.,
201 Hanau, Germany). Total P was determined by the H₂SO₄-HClO₄ fusion method (Sparks *et al.*,
202 1996). Soil microbial C and N biomass was measured by the fumigation-extraction method
203 (Vance *et al.*, 1987). Briefly, the fresh soil samples were adjusted to approximate 60 % of
204 water holding capacity and then incubated for one week in the dark at 25 °C to reactivate soil
205 microbes following the original procedure published by Vance *et al.* (1987). Next 20 g (dry
206 weight equivalent) of fumigated with CH₃Cl for 24 hours and non-fumigated soil samples
207 were both extracted with 0.5 M K₂SO₄. The extracts were filtered through 0.45-µm filters and
208 the extractable C and N was analysed by dichromate and Kjeldahl digestion as described by
209 Lovell *et al.* (1995). Soil microbial C and N biomass was calculated as the difference in

210 extractable C and N contents between the fumigated and the unfumigated samples using
211 conversion factors (k_{ec} and k_{en}) of 0.38 and 0.45 (Lovell et al., 1995), respectively. Mass
212 ratios of C:N, C:P and N:P in plant, litter and soil samples and of C:N in soil microbial
213 biomass were calculated and used to facilitate comparisons with previous studies (He et al.,
214 2008). Additionally, 10 g dry soil samples in the 0-20 cm layer were extracted with 50 ml of
215 2 M KCl. Inorganic N (NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N) of the filtered extracts of soils in the 0-20 cm
216 soil layer were determined using a flow injection autoanalyzer (FIAstar 5000 Analyzer, Foss
217 Tecator, Denmark). Available soil P in soils in the 0-20 cm soil layers was measured using
218 the Olsen method (Olsen et al., 1954).

219

220 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

221 Data management and statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS software package
222 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Two-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to detect
223 the effects of litter addition and year (sampling time) on soil inorganic N and available P,
224 aboveground and belowground biomass, total biomass, litter, the C, N, P pools and C:N:P
225 stoichiometry of plant, litter and soil, and C and N pools and C:N of soil microbial biomass.
226 Multiple comparisons were also performed to permit separation of effect means using the
227 Duncan test at a significance level of $P < 0.05$.

228

229 **3. Results**

230 **3.1 Soil inorganic N and available P**

231 Litter addition significantly enhanced soil inorganic N and available P in 2009, 2010 and
232 2011 ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2), and there were significant differences in soil inorganic N and
233 available P among different years ($P < 0.01$; Fig. 2). Nevertheless, these effects were mainly
234 due to the highest input treatments. Indeed, for the years 2009 and 2011, only the highest
235 litter inputs, corresponding to 1200 g DM m^{-2} , induced significant highest inorganic N and
236 available P contents in soils. For the year 2010, the two highest litter inputs treatments
237 induced significant increases of the inorganic N and available P contents in soils. There were
238 no significant interactions between litter addition and year for soil inorganic N and available
239 P ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 2) indicating that the effect of treatment was conservative over the year.

240

241 **3.2 Plant biomass, carbon allocation and litter production**

242 Significant effects of litter addition were observed for above-ground biomass and litter in
243 2009, 2010 and 2011 as well as for below-ground biomass and total biomass in 2010 and
244 2011 ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 3). In our study site, the belowground biomass was 6 times higher than
245 the aboveground biomass. The ratio of belowground biomass to aboveground biomass in
246 2010 was significantly affected by litter inputs ($P < 0.05$; Fig. S1). However, it must be noted
247 that the Duncan post hoc test showed that the effects described above are mainly due the
248 highest input treatments, which is generally the sole treatment significantly different from the
249 control when significant effects were detected by the two-ways ANCOVA. The highest litter
250 addition increased biomass in all the compartments except for the belowground biomass and
251 the total biomass in 2009. Furthermore, the highest litter addition treatment decreased the

252 ratio of belowground biomass to aboveground biomass in 2010, while others treatments
253 produced no effect. There were no significant interactions between litter addition and year on
254 aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, total biomass, litter and ratio of belowground
255 biomass to aboveground biomass ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 3 and 4). Therefore, for all these variables
256 the treatment was conservative over the years.

257

258 **3.3 C, N and P pools in plants, litter, soil and soil microbial biomass**

259 Litter addition did not affect significantly the C, N and P pools of aboveground biomass and
260 litter as well as soil C pools in 2009, 2010 and 2011 for all but the highest treatment. The C,
261 N and P pools of belowground biomass in 2010 and 2011, and the C and N pools of soil
262 microbial biomass were also not affected by litter addition except for the highest treatment (P
263 < 0.05 ; Fig. 4). There were no significant differences in the C, N and P pools of aboveground
264 biomass, the N and P pools of litter, the C pool of soil and the C and N pools of soil microbial
265 biomass among different years for all treatment but the highest treatment ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 4).
266 There were no significant interactions between litter addition and year, indicating a
267 conservative treatment effect over the year on the C, N and P pools of aboveground biomass,
268 belowground biomass, litter, soil and the C and N pools of soil microbial biomass ($P > 0.05$;
269 Fig. 4). Even though C, N and P contents were significantly different for the highest
270 treatment, for almost all the pools, they tended to increase when litter was added.

271

272 **3.4 C, N and P stoichiometry in plant, litter, soil and soil microbe**

273 Litter addition did not significantly modified C:N and C:P ratios of aboveground biomass and
274 litter in 2010 and 2011 and the C:N ratio of soil microbial biomass in 2009, 2010 and 2011
275 for all but the highest treatment where a decrease was observed. The highest treatment
276 significantly increased soil C:N and C:P ratios in 2009, 2010 and 2011 ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 5). But
277 no effect was detected for the other treatments. Litter addition did not affect N:P of
278 aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, litter and soil ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 5). There was
279 significant difference in the C:N of aboveground biomass and soil microbial biomass among
280 different years ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 5). There were no significant interactions between litter
281 addition and year in effects on the C:N:P stoichiometry of aboveground biomass,
282 belowground biomass, litter, soil and soil microbial biomass ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 5) indicating that
283 the effect of treatment was conservative over the year.

284

285 **4. Discussion**

286 **4.1 Effect on litter additions on plant growth**

287 Plant growth is limited by the rate of resource supply, for example nutrients and water
288 (Enquist et al., 2003). Furthermore, soil N and P are the main nutrient sources for plant
289 growth (Elser et al., 2007; Vitousek et al., 2010; Alvarez-Clare et al., 2013; Fageria et al.,
290 2013). The NPP in our study sites is expected to increase between 10 and 60% due to climate
291 change and atmospheric CO₂ increase (Arora and Boer, 2014; Todd-Brown et al., 2014).
292 Moreover, temperature is also expected to increase in China during the next decades (Piao et
293 al., 2010), likely accelerating litter and soil organic matter decomposition and nutrient release.

294 Future predictions about the evolution of precipitation are still highly uncertain (Piao et al.,
295 2010). The litter amendments we applied are substantial supply of nutrients, suggested to
296 release nutrients during decomposition. Results show that availability of N and P were
297 significantly modified only for the two highest inputs treatment. Additionally, high litter
298 addition also greatly increased soil microbial biomass C and N, indicating that soil microbial
299 biomass does plays an active role in nutrient transformation, conservation, and availability to
300 plants (Wardle, 1992; Zaman et al., 1999; Tu et al., 2003). Notably, for more moderate litter
301 additions, the observed effect on plant biomass was limited, suggesting that the plant did not
302 benefit from these inputs. Litter addition significantly increased aboveground biomass in
303 2009, 2010 and 2011, and belowground biomass and total biomass in 2010 and 2011 only for
304 the highest input level.

305 One plausible explanation for the lack of effect on plant biomass in spite of the important
306 amount of organic nutrients added might be the imbalance between the C:N:P ratio of the
307 litter added and the C:N:P ratio of the soil, the plants and the microbial community. For
308 instance, the C:N and C:P ratios of the added litter were 41.3 and 521.9, respectively.
309 Compared to the C:N ratio of microbial biomass around 12 and the C:N and C:P ratio of soil
310 around 9 and 55, respectively, added litter decomposition might immobilize available mineral
311 nutrients. As a consequence, the competition between plants and microorganisms for mineral
312 N and available P would increase. Furthermore, a priming effect was observed during this
313 experiment (Xiao et al., 2014) but the nutrients release associated might be not sufficient to
314 increase the plant growth. Since plant biomass only responded to the highest litter treatments,

315 it suggests that, in our case, microorganisms might be more efficient than plants in using
316 nutrient resources and plant growth might be still nutrient limited. Nevertheless, soil
317 microorganisms benefited only slightly from the litter inputs as suggested by the small
318 observed increase in microbial biomass (Fig. 4m, 4n). Therefore, carbon use efficiency
319 probably decreased when litter was added, increasing heterotrophic respiration. Such
320 modification of the carbon use efficiency might be due to physiological modifications at the
321 individual level, to a modification of the microbial community structure or to both
322 mechanisms combined. With our data, we can't estimate the carbon use efficiency at the
323 individual level but based on the same experiment, Xiao et al., (2014) showed that the
324 microbial community structure was different between treatments. It must be noted that the
325 litter used here was harvested under natural conditions. Thus, the modifications of the litter
326 chemical composition expected under climate change are not taken into account here. Litter
327 C:N ratio may increase in the future (Norby et al., 2001) inducing a higher microbial N
328 demand. Microorganisms may still decrease their carbon use efficiency as assumed here or
329 may increase the N uptake. Since the microbial N uptake in our experiment only increased
330 for very high and unrealistic litter inputs, we assume that, at our site, microorganisms will
331 likely modify their carbon use efficiency in response to the modification of litter C:N ratio
332 instead of competing with plants for N. Furthermore, when litter additions significantly
333 affected plant biomass, aboveground biomass and belowground biomass were higher in 2010
334 than in 2009 and 2011. The years 2009 and 2011 were dry compared to the year 2010. Thus,
335 a water stress may have limited the plant growth in 2009 and 2011. Moreover, soil moisture

336 was likely higher in 2010. Such more favourable soil moisture conditions may have caused
337 the higher soil nutrient availability via accelerated litter decomposition.

338

339 **4.2 Biomass allocation**

340 Biomass allocation is often affected by factors such as soil nutrient conditions and plant
341 habitat (Vogt et al., 1983; Schmid, 2002; Mokany et al., 2006). In our study, high litter
342 addition decreased the ratio of belowground biomass to aboveground biomass, and the
343 decrease reached a significant level in 2010. The reason for this decrease may be that litter
344 addition greatly increased soil organic N and available P and soil microbial biomass C and N,
345 allowing the plant to invest more photosynthates in aboveground biomass in 2010 as already
346 observed (Vogt et al., 1983; Schmid, 2002). Sims et al. (2012) found that adding nitrogen
347 increased plant growth and allocated more biomass toward shoots than roots. The plastic
348 response of increased allocation to shoots corresponds to theoretical predictions (Tilman,
349 1988). Such an increase in photosynthates concentration is also explained by the increase in C :
350 N and C : P ratio in aboveground biomass and litter upon high litter addition, but not for
351 belowground biomass.

352

353 **4.3 Effect of litter addition on plant N:P ratio**

354 Plant N and P are essential nutrients for primary producers and decomposers in terrestrial
355 ecosystems, and N:P ratios of plant biomass or litter have been widely used as indicators of
356 nutrient limitation for primary production (Koerselman and Meuleman, 1996; Tessier and

357 Raynal, 2003; Güsewell, 2004; Güsewell and Verhoeven, 2006). In our study, litter addition
358 did not affect the N:P of aboveground biomass, belowground biomass and litter. Our results
359 showed that the N:P of aboveground biomass (ranging from 13.3 to 13.9 under different litter
360 additions) is higher than that of belowground biomass (ranging from 11.6 to 12 under
361 different litter additions). Similar results were observed in the study of Xu et al., (2010). The
362 N:P of aboveground biomass and belowground biomass is lower than 14 on a community
363 level, suggesting that our *S. krylovii* steppe community was N limited (Koerselman and
364 Meuleman, 1996). Additionally, the N:P of litter ranged from 12.1 to 12.5 after different litter
365 treatments and were much lower than 25 (the threshold between N and P limitation for
366 graminoid leaf litter; Güsewell and Verhoeven 2006), also indicating that our *S. krylovii*
367 steppe community is subject to N limitation. This result is consistent with the conclusion of
368 Bai et al. (2012) who found that meadow steppe, typical steppe and desert steppe
369 communities of temperate grasslands in northern China are N-limited systems.

370

371 **5. Conclusion**

372 In our study, litter addition significantly affected the stoichiometry of the systems only when
373 it was quite high (twice the natural inputs). Previous modeling exercises have not predicted
374 an increase of primary production sufficient to double litter inputs (Arora and Boer 2014;
375 Todd-Brown et al., 2014). This suggests that, the grassland studied here is quite resilient in
376 terms of stoichiometry. This resilience is the result of complex interactions between C and
377 nutrients cycles as well as between plants and microbial biomass.

378 In conclusion, our results showed that very high litter addition increased soil inorganic N
379 and plant available P, the C and N pools of soil microbial biomass, aboveground and
380 belowground plant biomass. On the other hand, plausible additions according to the models
381 predictions had no effect. This suggests that the expected increase of NPP may not have
382 important consequences on the stoichiometric functioning for some particular ecosystems,
383 such as grasslands in northern China. Nevertheless, it must be noted that climate change will
384 also affect temperature and soil moisture, which will largely affect the response of
385 ecosystems to modifications of NPP due to the atmospheric CO₂ increase.

386

387 **Acknowledgments**

388 This study was financially supported by “Strategic Priority Research Program — Climate
389 Change: Carbon Budget and Related Issues” of the Chinese Academy of Sciences
390 (XDA05050407), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31370462), and
391 State Key Laboratory of Vegetation and Environmental Change, Institute of Botany, the
392 Chinese Academy of Sciences. We thank Prof. Li LH for providing weather data, and Dr. Pei
393 ZQ, Dr Xia JY and Dr. Zhang JL for help with field sampling. We gratefully acknowledge
394 the Duolun Restoration Ecology Experimentation and Demonstration Station for help with
395 logistics and access permission to the study site. IAJ and BG acknowledge support from the
396 Flemish National Science Foundation, from the European Community’s Seventh Framework
397 Programme (FP7/2007-2013) under grant agreement nr. 226701 (CARBO-Extreme), from
398 the Cost Action Terrabites (ES-0805) and the European Research Council Synergy grant

399 ERC-2013-SyG-610028 IMBALANCE-P. The authors acknowledge Matthew Macgrath for

400 his valuable comments on the manuscript.

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609 **Figure captions**

610

611 Fig. 1 Seasonal variations of weekly mean air temperature and weekly precipitation during
612 the experimental period from 1 October 2008 to 31 September 2011.

613

614 Fig. 2 Soil inorganic N (a) and available P (b) in 2009, 2010 and 2011 under different
615 amounts of litter addition. Vertical bars indicate one standard error about the mean (n=5).
616 The soil inorganic N and the available P contents were different each year ($p < 0.01$) but no
617 interaction occurred between litter addition and year. Treatments with different letters are
618 significantly different ($P < 0.05$) according to the Duncan test, small letters, capital letters
619 and Greek letters correspond to the year 2009, 2010 and 2011, respectively. 'ns' implies that
620 no significant differences were detected.

621

622 Fig. 3 Aboveground biomass (a), belowground biomass (b), total biomass (c) and litter (d) in
623 2009, 2010 and 2011 under different amounts of litter addition in a steppe community of
624 northern China. Vertical bars indicate one standard error about the mean (n=5). A significant
625 year effect ($p < 0.05$) was detected by ANCOVA except for the below ground biomass.
626 Interactions between litter addition and year were not significant. See Fig. 2 legend for letter
627 signification.

628

629 Fig 4. The C, N, and P pools of plant, litter and soil and the C and N pools of soil microbial

630 biomass in 2009, 2010 and 2011 under different amounts of litter addition in a steppe
631 community of northern China. Vertical bars indicate one standard error about the mean (n=5).
632 A significant year effect ($p<0.05$) on the C, N and P content was detected by ANCOVA
633 except for the below ground biomass, the soil. No year effect for litter and soil microbial
634 biomass C content was detected. Interactions between litter addition and year were not
635 significant. See Fig. 2 legend for letter signification. Letters are only given where statistically
636 significant differences are observed.

637

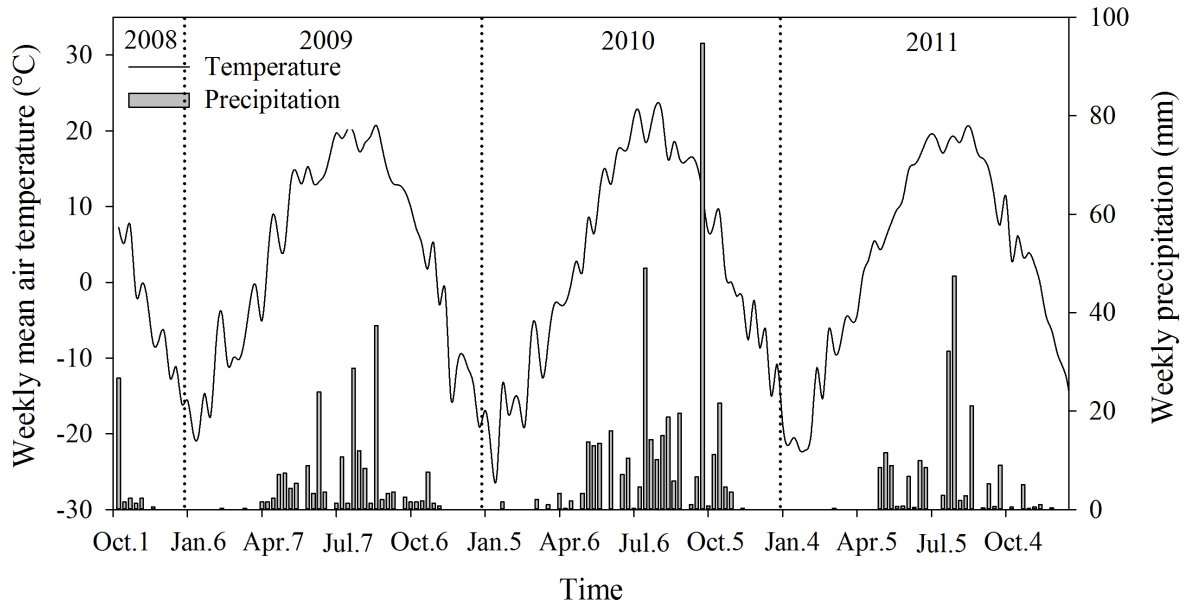
638 Fig. 5 The C:N, C:P and N:P ratio of plant, litter and soil and C:N ratio of soil microbial
639 biomass in 2009, 2010 and 2011 under different amounts of litter addition in a steppe
640 community of northern China. Vertical bars indicate one standard error about the mean (n=5).
641 A significant year effect ($p<0.05$) on the C:N ratio of above ground biomass and soil
642 microbial biomass was detected by ANCOVA. Interactions between litter addition and year
643 were not significant. See Fig. 2 legend for letter signification. Letters are only given where
644 statistically significant differences are observed.

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647 Figure 1

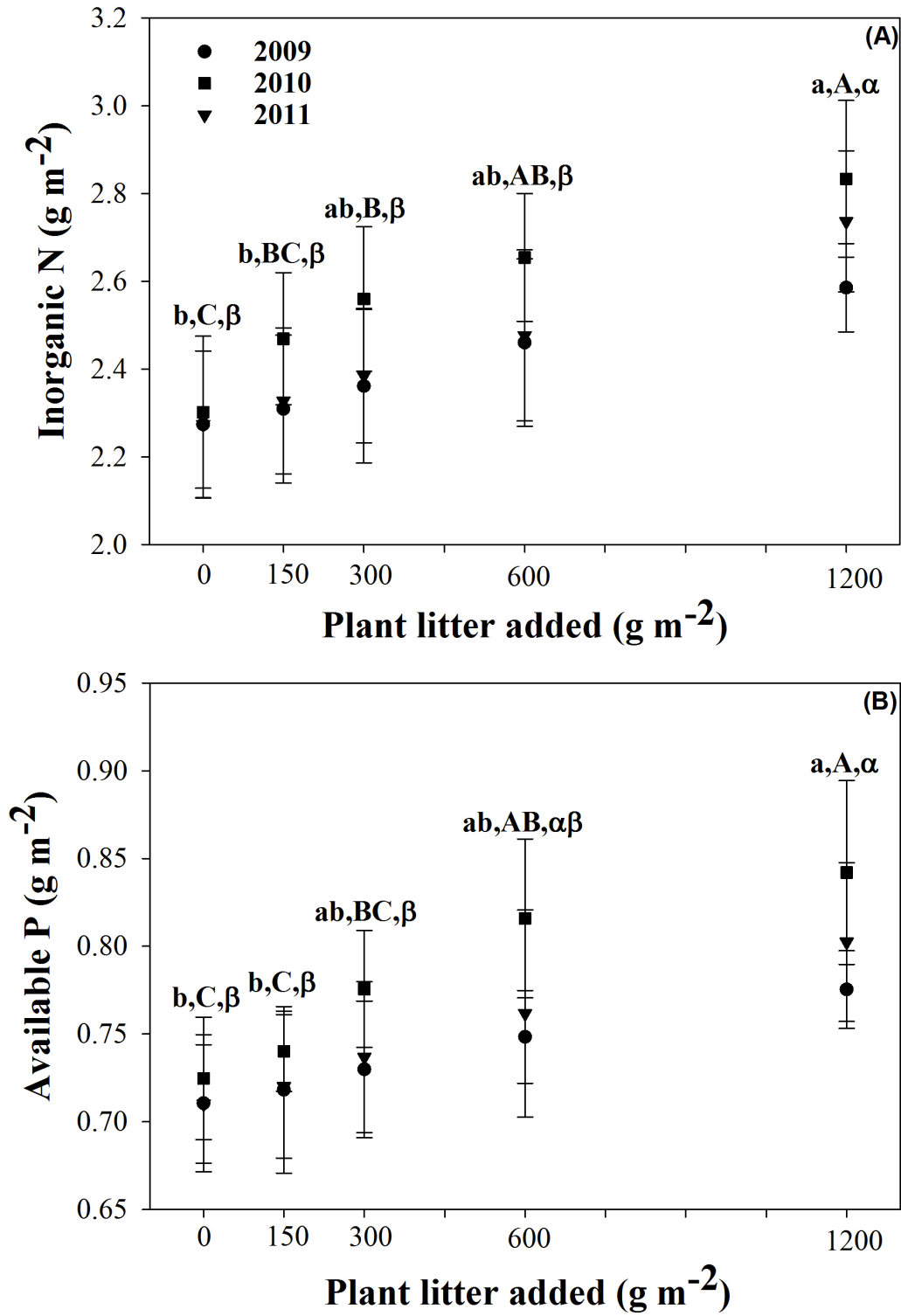


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650 Figure 2

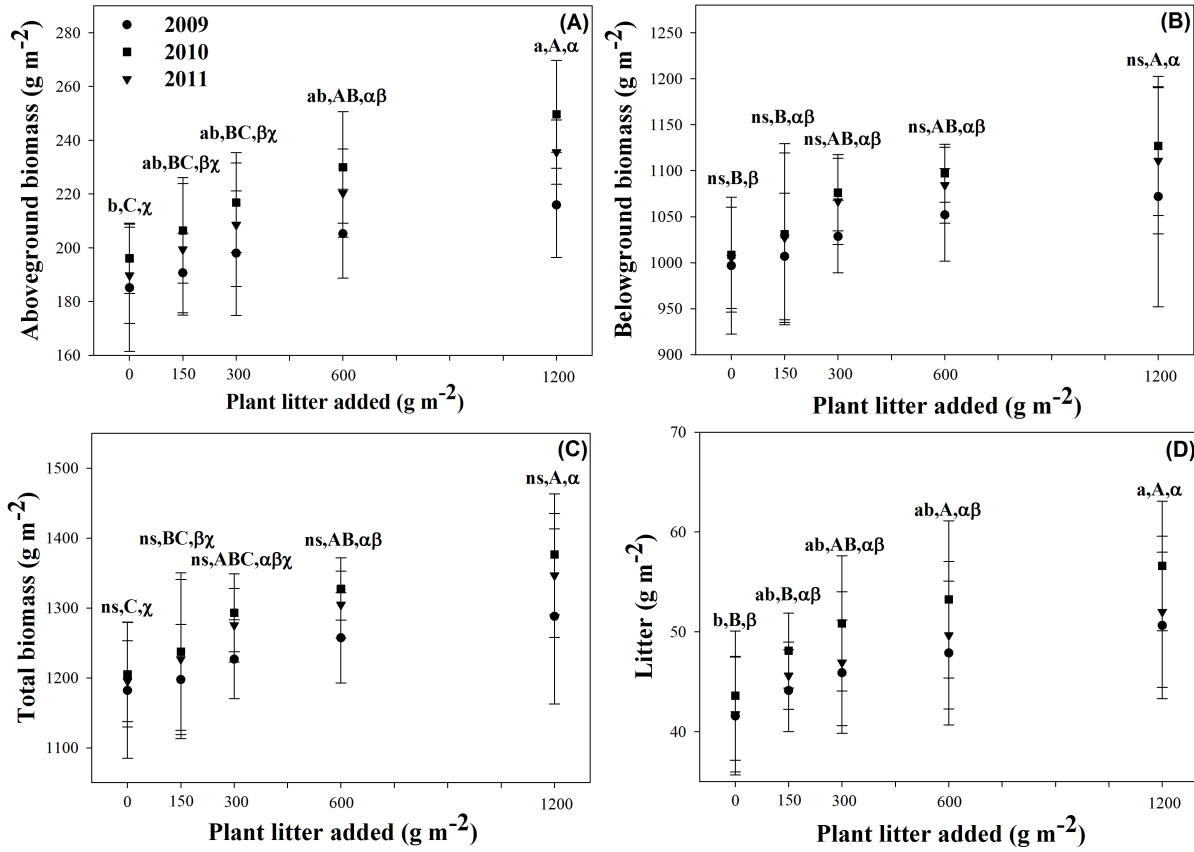


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653 Figure 3

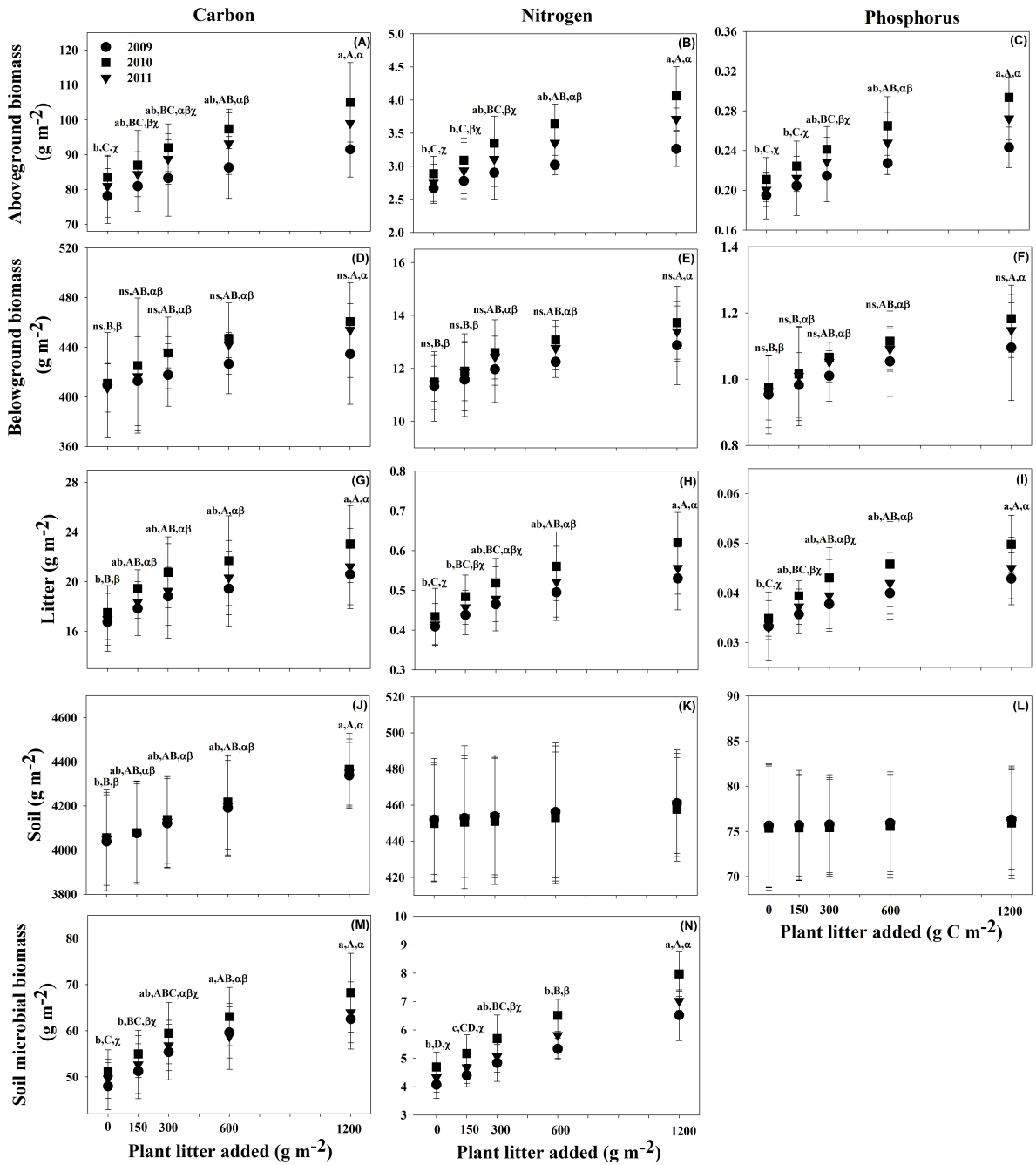


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656 Figure 4



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