

1 **Title:** **Positive feedback of elevated CO₂ on soil respiration in late autumn and**
2 **winter**

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14 Keywords: FACE, grassland, carbon cycle, seasonality, Li-8100, winter climate change,
15 winter dormancy, feedback effect, soil respiration, soil CO₂ efflux

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17 Words: 6707 (main text)

18 Figures: 6

19 Tables: 2

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23 **Abstract**

24 Soil respiration of terrestrial ecosystems, a major component in the global carbon cycle is
25 affected by elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. However, seasonal differences of
26 feedback effects of elevated CO₂ have rarely been studied. At the Giessen Free-Air CO₂
27 Enrichment (GiFACE) site, the effects of +20 % above ambient CO₂ concentration
28 (corresponds to conditions reached 2035 – 2045) have been investigated since 1998 in a
29 temperate grassland ecosystem. We defined five distinct annual seasons, with respect to
30 management practices and phenological cycles. For a period of three years (2008-2010),
31 weekly measurements of soil respiration were carried out with a survey chamber on
32 vegetation-free subplots. The results revealed a pronounced and repeated increase of soil
33 respiration during late autumn and winter dormancy. Increased CO₂ losses during the autumn
34 season (September-October) were 15.7 % higher and during the winter season (November –
35 March) were 17.4 % higher compared to respiration from control plots.
36 However, during spring time and summer, which are characterized by strong above- and
37 below-ground plant growth, no significant change in soil respiration was observed at the
38 FACE site under elevated CO₂. This suggests (i) that soil respiration measurements, carried
39 out only during the growing season under elevated CO₂ may underestimate the true soil-
40 respiratory CO₂ loss (i.e. overestimate the C sequestered) and (ii) that additional C assimilated
41 by plants during the growing season and transferred below-ground will quickly be lost via
42 enhanced heterotrophic respiration outside the main growing season.

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45 **1 Introduction**

46 The atmospheric concentration of CO₂ has increased from pre-industrial values of 275 - 285
47 ppm (Raynaud and Barnola, 1985) to 400 ppm in 2013 (Monastersky, 2013). Projections of
48 future atmospheric CO₂ concentration in the year 2100 range between 490 and 1370 ppm
49 depending on representative concentration pathways (Moss et al., 2010). As the major
50 radiative forcing component (IPCC, 2013), atmospheric CO₂ is positively correlated with air
51 temperature and is therefore an important component for global warming. Additionally,
52 indirect effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ (eCO₂), which are altering carbon (C) fluxes in
53 ecosystems, may impose a feedback to climate change. About half of photosynthetically
54 assimilated C returns immediately to the atmosphere as plant-respired CO₂ (autotrophic
55 respiration) (Chapin et al., 2002). Portions of the net carbon gain (net primary production) are
56 transferred to the soil via root exudates, fine root growth and -turnover or other litter,
57 providing the substrate for soil organic carbon (SOC) buildup (Kirschbaum, 2000).

58 Soil functions as an important C reservoir within the global carbon cycle and stores about
59 1500 Gt of C (Amundson, 2001; Lal, 2004; Batjes, 1996), which is about twice the amount of
60 C in the atmosphere (Schils et al., 2008).

61 Soil respiration, the sum of autotrophic root respiration and heterotrophic respiration from
62 microorganisms and soil meso- and macrofauna, accounts for two thirds of the total C loss from
63 terrestrial ecosystems (Luo, 2006). Enhanced net C losses under eCO₂ cause a positive feedback.

64 Many past studies focused on soil-atmosphere CO₂ exchange during the growing season.
65 However, soil respiration during vegetation dormancy may represent a significant component
66 of the annual C budget and contributes to the observed winter CO₂ maximum in the
67 atmosphere (Raich and Potter, 1995). Accordingly, analysis of CO₂ data from an air sampling
68 network identified seasonal oscillation with highest concentrations occurring each winter
69 when respiration exceeds photosynthesis (Keeling et al., 1996). This emphasizes the necessity

70 to study seasonal dynamics of soil respiration under future CO₂ conditions to gain a better
71 understanding of how soil respiration responds to changing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations.
72 A meta-analysis of Zak et al. (2000) revealed a 51 % increase of soil respiration as a mean
73 response in a grassland ecosystem under elevated CO₂, Janssens & Ceulemans (2000) provided
74 evidence for consistent stimulation of soil respiration under a variety of tree species. However, the
75 majority of studies, to date, are based on short-term exposure (less than five years) with *e*CO₂,
76 often using open-top chamber experiments (Zak et al., 2000). Results from these experiments
77 should be analyzed with appropriate caution because of the known “chamber effect” on the
78 microclimate (Leadley and Drake, 1993) and their relevance to natural ecosystems in which
79 longer-term biogeochemical feedbacks operate (Rastetter et al., 1991). Since soil respiration is a
80 product of several rhizospheric processes i.e. root exudation, root respiration, and root turnover, as
81 well as decomposition of litter and bulk soil organic matter from various pools with different
82 characteristic turnover times, short- and long-term responses to *e*CO₂ may be quite different (Luo
83 et al., 2001).

84 The most suitable approach for conducting ecosystem CO₂ experiments under natural conditions
85 are FACE experiments, where intact ecosystems are exposed in-situ to a higher atmospheric CO₂
86 concentration. However, it has been reported that the sudden increase in atmospheric CO₂ (CO₂
87 step increase) at the beginning of a CO₂-enrichment, may cause certain short-term responses of
88 the ecosystem that differ from long-term responses (Luo, 2001; Newton et al., 2001). Accordingly,
89 Kammann et al. (2005) showed that yield responses to *e*CO₂, in the Giessen Free-Air CO₂
90 Enrichment (GiFACE), were different in the initial compared to the subsequent years. Moreover,
91 plants may undergo micro-evolutionary changes in response to *e*CO₂ (Ward and Kelly, 2004),
92 which may also be reflected in belowground processes (Klironomos et al., 2005).
93 Consequently, to avoid misinterpretations due to insufficient experimental durations, results
94 from long-term exposure studies are required. In the GiFACE this was after approximately 5-

6 years (Kammann et al., 2005). In the following we use the expression “short-term” for CO₂ enrichment durations <5 years and “long-term” for durations >5 years.

Based on a literature overview, we found 13 other FACE studies, from a wide variety of ecosystems, where in-situ soil respiration under *e*CO₂ has been investigated. All of these FACE studies operated at higher CO₂ enrichment concentrations than the GiFACE experiment (with +20 % CO₂ above ambient), i.e. they imposed larger initial step increases (Klironomos et al., 2005). Klironomos et al.(2005) have demonstrated that ecosystem responses to *e*CO₂ may differ between using a sudden step increase and a gradual rise in the CO₂ concentration. However, in any CO₂ enrichment study a step increase – also if lower than usual – cannot be avoided. Thus, experimental FACE results are more indicative for future predictions. However; experimental studies with duration of > 10 years are scarce (Carol Adair et al., 2011;Jackson et al., 2009). To our knowledge, 10 of the 16 investigations on soil respiration across these 13 FACE studies were carried out within the first five years of exposure, thus reporting short-term responses (Craine et al., 2001;King et al., 2001;Allen et al., 2000;Andrews and Schlesinger, 2001;Selsted et al., 2012;Masyagina and Koike, 2012;Soe et al., 2004;Lagomarsino et al., 2013;Liu et al., 2006;Nakayama et al., 1994). All short-term study results pointed towards a consistent stimulatory effect of *e*CO₂ on soil respiration. The average increase ranged from 12 % under a sweetgum plantation (King et al., 2004) to 70 % under a mixed plantation of *Populus* species (Lagomarsino et al., 2013). In two of the short-term studies, significant effects were only observed on days with high photosynthetic activity (Masyagina and Koike, 2012;Soe et al., 2004); measurements during dormancy were not carried out.

Three of the short-term studies conducted measurements during winter dormancy with contrasting results (Allen et al., 2000;Andrews and Schlesinger, 2001;Selsted et al., 2012;Lagomarsino et al., 2013). In a temperate heathland (CLIMAITE study), soil respiration was significantly increased under *e*CO₂ during three consecutive winter seasons (Selsted et al., 2012). Allen et al. (2000) detected a significant effect of *e*CO₂ on soil respiration during December 1997 in the Duke Forest

FACE study but not during the previous growing season beneath the loblolly pine forest. Andrews and Schlesinger (2001) reported from the same site greater increases of soil respiration during fumigation periods (26-59 %) than during non-fumigated periods (8-15 %). Fumigation was stopped when ambient air temperature dropped below 5 °C for more than one hour. In line with these results, much larger percentage enhancements of the soil CO₂ efflux were observed during the growing season (up to 111 %) than during dormant season (40 %) from a mixed plantation of *Populus* species exposed to eCO₂ (EuroFACE) (Lagomarsino et al., 2013). CO₂ enrichment was provided from bud burst to leaf fall at this site.

Out of six long-term studies on soil respiration (Carol Adair et al., 2011; Pregitzer et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2009; Pendall et al., 2001; Bader and Körner, 2010; Dawes et al., 2013), only one study reported measurements throughout the dormant season, showing that after 10 years of eCO₂ during the growing season at a loblolly pine forest (Duke FACE) soil respiration was consistently higher in midsummer to early fall and diminished or disappeared in winter (Jackson et al., 2009). This was explained by a reduction in assimilation and hence available root exudate during dormancy. If the fumigation may continue during the dormant season in an ecosystem with a green canopy e.g. in a permanent grassland, the stimulation may theoretically continue on a higher level.

Reports from other long-term FACE studies in temperate ecosystems (disregarding the dormant season) were consistent by reporting an increase in soil respiration under eCO₂, with the exception of the Swiss Canopy Crane experiment in an old-growth, mixed deciduous forest. Bader & Körner (2010) reported that soil respiration from the site was only stimulated when volumetric water content was ≤ 40 % at soil temperatures above 15 °C.

In summary, only fragmented information is available on how soil respiration responds to eCO₂ during vegetation as well as dormant periods after long-term eCO₂. To our knowledge, no long-term FACE study in a grassland ecosystem exists which has investigated soil CO₂ fluxes across

146 several years. Consequently, it is difficult to generalize temporal patterns of soil respiration under
147 $e\text{CO}_2$, and thus the soil respiratory response to $e\text{CO}_2$ at all.

148 Based on the available studies and earlier observations at our site, where whole-ecosystem
149 respiration including the green canopy was increased under $e\text{CO}_2$, mainly during non-growing
150 season (Lenhart, 2008), we hypothesized that (i) long-term (>10 years) moderate CO_2
151 enrichment will cause increased soil respiration, (ii) soil respiration will be more enhanced in
152 the growing season than during vegetation dormancy (*winter*) and (iii) soil respiration will
153 still be significantly enhanced in *winter* under $e\text{CO}_2$ in the GiFACE where the CO_2
154 enrichment is continuing during *winter*.

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170 2 Materials and methods

171 2.1 Study site and design

172 The Giessen Free Air Carbon Enrichment (GiFACE) experiment is located on permanent
173 semi-natural grassland. It is situated near Giessen, Germany (50°32'N and 8°41.3'E) at an
174 elevation of 172 m above sea level.

175 The set-up and performance of the GiFACE system has been described in detail by Jäger *et al.*
176 (2003). In brief, from May 1998 until present, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were enriched
177 by 20 % above ambient, all-year-round during daylight hours. At present the GiFACE
178 experiment is still ongoing.

179 The CO₂ enrichment was applied in three rings, each eight meter in diameter (E plots). Three
180 equally sized control plots were maintained at ambient atmospheric CO₂ levels (A plots). The
181 experimental design was a randomized block design. A block consisted of two plots to which
182 ambient and *e*CO₂ treatments were randomly assigned. A characteristic attribute of the study
183 site is a soil moisture gradient, resulting from a gradual terrain slope (2-3°) and varying depths
184 of a subsoil clay layer. Within each of the three blocks, soil moisture conditions were
185 relatively homogeneous (Jäger *et al.*, 2003).

186 The vegetation is an *Arrhenatheretum elatioris* Br.Bl. *Filipendula ulmaria* subcommunity,
187 dominated by *Arrhenatherum elatium*, *Galium mollugo* and *Geranium pratense*. At least 12
188 grass species, 15 non-leguminous herbs and 2 legumes are present within a single ring. For at
189 least 100 years, the grassland has not been ploughed. Since several decades, it was managed
190 as a hay meadow with two cuts per year, and fertilized in mid-April with granular mineral

calcium-ammonium-nitrate fertilizer at the rate of 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Before 1996, fertilizer was applied at a rate of 50–100 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Kammann et al., 2008). The soil of the study site is classified as a Fluvisol (FAO classification) with a texture of sandy clay loam over a clay layer (Jäger et al., 2003). Observations in this study were carried out from January 2008 - December 2010 (i.e. more than 9 years after the onset of CO₂ enrichment). During the observation period the mean annual temperature was 9.2 °C and mean annual precipitation was 562 mm which was identical to the average rainfall since the beginning of recording in 1995. Rainfall was recorded at the site in 30-min intervals with 20 randomly distributed “Hellmann” samplers. Air temperature was recorded continuously at two locations at the site in 2 m height and averaged 9.5 °C since 1995.

2.2 Measurement of soil CO₂ fluxes at the field site

In each of the six FACE plots, soil respiration rates were measured using an automated closed dynamic chamber system with an infrared gas analyzer (LI-COR 8100, LI-COR, Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) with a patented vent for pressure equilibration between the closed chamber and the atmosphere (McDermitt et al., 2005). Carbon dioxide fluxes were reported in μmol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹. The measurements were performed at four permanently installed PVC soil collars per FACE ring, to cover the spatial heterogeneity within each ring. The soil collars had a diameter of 20.3 cm (8 inch) and were about 11 cm high. A beveled edge at one end facilitated the insertion into the soil, which took place on 9th May 2006 and the vegetation cover, including surficial rhizomes, was removed manually. Subsequently, the surface was held vegetation-free by removing germinated seedlings weekly. Due to uneven soil conditions, soil collars varied +/- 1 cm in their insertion depth. Generally, the insertion was chosen to be as shallow as possible, minimizing the trenching effect (Heinemeyer et al., 2011)

215 while maintaining an airtight connection between soil and chamber. A foam gasket and rubber
216 seal between the bottom of the chamber and the top of the soil collar minimized leaks between
217 the collar and the chamber. Before each measurement, the distance between the soil surface
218 and the top of each soil collar (i.e. chamber offset) was measured and entered into the LICOR-
219 software to enable correct flux calculations (= total chamber volume). After installation in
220 May 2006, soil CO₂ efflux measurements were carried out over a period of one month to
221 record the insertion and disturbance effects (Fig. S1). The investigation period spanned over
222 three years (January 2008 until December 2010), after the collars were well established and
223 held vegetation free for 1.5 years, allowing a die-back and decomposition of trenched roots,
224 and in-growth of new roots from the outside vegetation. This ensured that soil respiration
225 measurements in a dense, closed grassland canopy were taken as unbiased as possible.
226 Measurements of soil respiration were made weekly in the evening, except from May to July
227 and from October to December 2010, where measurements were carried out every second
228 week.

229 During the measurement, a pump provided circulating air flow from the closed chamber on its
230 collar to the infrared gas analyzer for thorough mixing of the systems' inner volume. Chamber
231 closure time was between 1 and 3 min., depending on the season (i.e. the strength of the CO₂
232 efflux and thus the detection limit). CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were measured
233 simultaneously. The software calculated soil respiration rates by using the changes in CO₂
234 concentration over a period of time, taking the dilution of water vapor into account. Rates
235 were calculated either by linear regression (lin_flux) or as the efflux rate at time t_0 at chamber
236 closure using an exponential CO₂ efflux function (exp_flux) (LI-COR, 2007). The latter takes
237 the diminishing CO₂ concentration gradient between the soil and the chamber headspace into
238 account (Hutchinson and Mosier, 1981) and is implemented by LI-COR in the LI-8100 to
239 avoid underestimations of the CO₂ efflux. We used the following algorithm to choose between

these two types of flux calculation for the subsequent processing of all obtained flux data. The use of the exp_flux calculation was only allowed when (1) the R^2 of the exp_flux calculation was better than that of the lin_flux calculation, and (2) when the number of iterations necessary for the exp_flux calculation was lower than 5. By applying these comparatively strict criteria (stricter than those that are inbuilt by the manufacturer) we minimized miscalculations caused either by large initial CO₂ concentration fluctuations at chamber closure (when the exp_flux calculation is used) or underestimations of the true soil CO₂ efflux (when only the lin_flux calculation is used). The algorithm was applied to each measurement with the same settings. In general, CO₂ flux rates with an R^2 below 0.90 were excluded. This was the case in 0.6 % of all measurements taken in this study throughout the three year investigation period.

Soil moisture was measured in each FACE plot as the volumetric water content (VWC) with time-domain-reflectometric (TDR) probes (Imko, Ettlingen, Germany, type P2G). The probes were permanently installed (in March 1998) within the top 15 cm. The probes were monitored manually once a day, except on weekends or holidays. Soil temperature was logged in every plot at 10 cm depth as 30-min means (Imko, Ettlingen, Germany, Pt-100 sensors).

2.3 Data analyses

In order to describe changes in soil respiration during different seasons and to test for differences in soil respiration between ambient and elevated CO₂, we performed a linear mixed-effect model analysis with SPSS version 18. We used all observational data of three years for the linear mixed-effect model analysis. CO₂ treatment was considered as a fixed effect in the model. Coding variables were introduced to indicate the hierarchical order of the data. The six mean fluxes taken in one measurement cycle received the same numerical code; this variable (“measurement cycle”) was considered as a random effect in the linear mixed

effect model. A further variable (“ringreplicate”) was introduced to define the ring where the measurement was taken (1-6). “Ringreplicate” was selected as a repeated measure in the SPSS software using linear mixed effect model analysis. Maximum likelihood was used as the estimation method for the parameters in the model. The total observational data set was split by season to analyze seasonal CO₂-response patterns. Therefore, we distinguished the following five seasons (1 – 5), depending on major dates of phenology and management practices at the grassland study site (Fig. 1): **1** = *winter* (November – March); **2** = *start of vegetation period* up to the date of spring fertilizer application (March – middle of April); **3** = *spring* until first biomass harvest (middle of April – end of May); **4** = regrowth and *summer* growing season (end of May – beginning of September); **5** = regrowth and *autumn* growing season (beginning of September – end of October).

The start of the vegetation period for the grassland ecosystem was identified according to the calculations defined by Wasshausen (1987). The date of leaf discoloration of *Quercus robur* in the nearby phenological garden was used to identify the beginning of winter dormancy. All other dates were chosen according to the management practices at the study site (Fig. 1); the exact dates varied by a few days between the years.

2.4 Soil respiration model

In order to describe the dependence of soil respiration on temperature, a function was fitted according to Lloyd & Taylor (1994) (Eq. 1) to 20 % of the data that were randomly selected. We defined values for coefficients E0 (= 62.16), T0 (= 262.47) and R10 (= 2.85) for the first run of the model. Subsequently, E0, T0 and R10 were fitted for each treatment (ambient and eCO₂) by using the dynamic fit function in the SigmaPlot 11.0 software package (Systat Software, San Jose, CA, 2008). Mean soil temperature values were converted from °C to K.

$$f = R10e^{E0\left(\frac{1}{(283.15-T0)} - \frac{1}{(x-T0)}\right)} \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

288 with $E0$ = activation-energy-type empirical coefficient
289 $T0$ = lower temperature limit for soil respiration in K
290 $R10$ = respiration rate at 10 °C

291 Consequently, the quality of the soil respiration model was evaluated by plotting modelled
292 against observed respiration values to test if the linear trend line meets the requested slope of
293 1 We plotted the temperature relationship of soil respiration of the complete dataset,
294 visualizing the different seasons to show seasonal differences (Fig. 5b) of the relationship.
295 However, we did not include seasonal analyses due to the fact that in some seasons there were
296 not enough data points and statistical power was not sufficient ($R^2=0.2$) to justify this kind of
297 analysis.

298 2.5 Gap filling of soil respiration data

299 To obtain annual sums of soil respiration, a gap filling procedure was applied. Therefore
300 modelled soil respiration rates were calculated, based on the almost continuous data set of soil
301 temperature in 10 cm depth measured at 2-3 positions per ring. We received modelled fluxes
302 for every 15 minutes over the three year period for all gaps where no observational data were
303 available. Estimates of annual sums were then calculated with the observational data and the
304 modelled data. Differences in annual soil respiration between the CO_2 treatments were tested
305 by using a paired t-test. Further, the absolute difference and relative change of monthly mean
306 soil respiration rates under eCO_2 were calculated in comparison to soil respiration under
307 ambient CO_2 , based on observational and modelled data. For calculating the relative change
308 ambient soil respiration was set to 0 %.

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311 3 Results

312 3.1 Annual variability of soil respiration

313 From 2008 to 2010, soil respiration rates at the GiFACE experiment showed distinct annual
314 dynamics, following the seasonal temperature cycle with lowest soil respiration effluxes
315 during winter months and highest effluxes during mid-summer (Fig. 2c and 2f). Thus, soil
316 respiration rates responded to abiotic factors in particular temperature and moisture. This is
317 exemplified by the high CO₂ efflux rates in June 2009 which occurred shortly after a period of
318 high precipitation while soil temperatures were > 20 °C (Fig. 2f).

319 The relative and absolute change of soil respiration under *e*CO₂ (Fig 2d and 2e) followed a
320 seasonal pattern with greatest increases under *e*CO₂ during *autumn* and *winter*. During
321 midsummer, when the largest absolute soil respiration rates occurred, the relative increase due
322 to the CO₂ enrichment was lowest or non-existent. A linear mixed effect model analysis
323 confirmed that soil respiration rates under *e*CO₂ were significantly higher compared to rates
324 under ambient CO₂ during *autumn* (15.7 %) and *winter* (17.4 %) (Fig. 3). During all other
325 seasons (*beginning of vegetation period* (season 2), *spring* (season 3) and *summer* (season 4)),
326 covering most of the vegetation period, a trend towards higher soil respiration, but no
327 significant CO₂ effect was observed with *e*CO₂ (Fig. 3).

328 3.2 Model performance and parameter estimation

329 By comparing modelled soil respiration with observed soil respiration for all observation
330 dates from 2008 – 2010 a significant linear relationship was observed with a slope of 1.03
331 (Fig. 4).

Based on the temperature-respiration function by Taylor & Lloyd (1994), soil respiration was significantly correlated to soil temperature under ambient as well as $e\text{CO}_2$ ($p = <0.0001$). From 2008 to 2010, 75 % of the variability of soil respiration rates was explained by soil temperature under ambient CO_2 and 82 % under $e\text{CO}_2$ (Table 1). Soil respiration rates did not differ in their relationship to soil temperature between the treatments (Fig. 5a). In Fig. 5b we plotted the temperature relationship of soil respiration, visualizing the different seasons, which indicated that soil CO_2 efflux data from *autumn* imposed a different relationship to soil temperature compared to data from other seasons. During *autumn*, soil temperatures were within the same range as during *spring* and *summer*, but soil respiration was on average lower (Fig. 2).

3.3 Annual sums of soil respiration

Comparing annual sums of soil respiration, no mean treatment effect of elevated CO_2 (over all seasons) was observed in any of the observation years (Table 2, Fig. 6). Mean annual estimates of soil respiration under ambient CO_2 ranged from 1282.48 to 1344.00 $\text{g C} [\text{CO}_2] \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and under $e\text{CO}_2$ from 1300.15 to 1351.56 $\text{g C} [\text{CO}_2] \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

4 Discussion

4.1 Annual sums of soil respiration

In contrast to our initial hypotheses, annual estimates of soil respiration were not different between the CO₂ treatments (Table 2, Fig. 6). Mean annual sums of soil respiration were $1316.76 \pm 18.10 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under ambient CO₂ and $1330.58 \pm 15.57 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under elevated CO₂. Raich and Schlesinger (1992) estimated much lower rates of annual soil respiration, reporting 400 to 500 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for temperate grasslands. Annual soil respiration sums from a sandstone and serpentine grassland were 485 and 346 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Luo et al., 1996). These soil respiration rates were lower than those from the wet grassland site investigated here due to the larger net primary productivity of the wet temperate grassland with a year-round more or less moist climate, compared e.g. to a seasonally dry Mediterranean-type grassland. A lower net ecosystem productivity (NEP) will automatically result in lower overall soil respiratory C losses. Methodological differences may have been to a lesser extent been responsible, because the studies of Luo et al. (1996) and Raich and Schlesinger (1992) may have overestimated rather than underestimated the annual soil respiration. Their measurements did not exceed 2 years in duration and soil respiration was less frequently measured for a portion of the year. Other recent studies reported higher rates of annual soil respiration which are closer to our estimates; however climatic factors are different from our site: In a tallgrass prairie of Oklahoma annual soil respiration rates were 1131 and 877 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in 2002 and 2003 respectively (Zhou et al., 2006). In a Texas grassland annual soil respiration rates increased with annual precipitation and were 1600, 1300, 1200, 1000, 2100 and 1500 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in 1993 through 1998 respectively (Mielnick and Dugas, 2000). *At the Texas grassland site measurements were conducted year-round with a high time resolution. Consequently annual rates could be estimated by more measured (than gap-filled)*

377 data compared to other studies. However the most important factors were likely the annual
378 precipitation, its distribution over the year, and the annual mean temperature: High annual
379 rainfall, a long growing season and large soil organic C contents explained the higher soil
380 respiration rates (as a consequence of a higher NEP) at the Texas study site. Mean annual
381 precipitation at the GiFACE study site (562 mm) was close to the mean precipitation reached
382 in 1995 at the Texas grassland with 657 mm, when annual soil respiration averaged 1200 g C
383 $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$ at the Texas grassland.

384 4.2 Seasonality of soil respiration

385 Also, contrary to our initial hypotheses is the observation that soil respiration was not
386 significantly affected during the growing season (*start of vegetation period, spring and*
387 *summer*) by the moderate long-term CO₂ enrichment. This indicates that any increase in the
388 ecosystem respiration (Lenhart, 2008) during this season will not have been due to enhanced
389 soil (root-derived) respiration but rather to increases in the respiration of the green canopy.

390 The majority of long-term FACE studies reported significantly increased soil respiration
391 under *e*CO₂ during the growing season (Pregitzer et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2009; Pendall et
392 al., 2001; Dawes et al., 2013; Carol Adair et al., 2011), whereas Bader & Körner (2010)
393 reported that seven years of *e*CO₂ failed to stimulate cumulative soil respiration significantly
394 during the growing season. Among the mentioned long-term FACE experiments, the GiFACE
395 operates at the lowest CO₂ enrichment step increase (20 % above ambient CO₂), which may
396 have contributed to this result.

397 However, in line with our hypotheses, the results revealed that 10 years of moderate CO₂
398 enrichment increased soil respiration during *winter* and *autumn* (Fig. 3). These seasonal
399 stimulations of soil respiration under *e*CO₂ were not observed by comparing the annual sums

400 of soil respiration (Fig.6). This may be because soil respiration fluxes were lower in *winter*
401 and *autumn* compared to fluxes from the other seasons where no differences in soil respiration
402 between the CO₂ treatments were observed. However, within the *winter* and *autumn* season
403 differences in soil respiration may play an important role concerning the global C balance.
404 Increased rates of winter soil respiration under *e*CO₂ may increase the observed winter CO₂
405 maximum in the atmosphere (Raich and Potter, 1995; Keeling et al., 1996) when respiration
406 exceeds photosynthesis. Another reason why annual sums of soil respiration were not
407 different between the CO₂ treatments may be that our model underestimated high soil
408 respiration fluxes ($>10 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). However these fluxes occurred only in 1.72 % of all
409 observations. Our model did not take soil moisture into account. The high variability of
410 observed soil respiration during summer may be partly due to differing soil moisture
411 conditions, which were not significantly different between ambient and *e*CO₂ plots
412 (Kammann et al., 2005; 2008).

413 In most FACE studies which reported the effect of *e*CO₂ on soil respiration, the winter was
414 excluded since fumigation during this period was mostly switched off (often in response to
415 sub-zero freezing temperatures or deciduous forest ecosystems). This was the case in the
416 Swiss FACE study, where seeded grassland was exposed to 600 ppm CO₂ (de Graaff et al.,
417 2004), the BioCON FACE, also a grassland study (Craine et al., 2001; Carol Adair et al.,
418 2011), the Aspen FACE, an aspen forest enriched with *e*CO₂ (Pregitzer et al., 2008; King et
419 al., 2001), a Japanese model forest ecosystem exposed to 550 ppm CO₂ (Masyagina and
420 Koike, 2012) and in a 9-year FACE study of an alpine treeline ecosystem (Dawes et al.,
421 2013). In the Swiss Canopy Crane study soil respiration was measured during the beginning
422 of the dormant season but not over the complete dormant season while fumigation was
423 switched off (Bader and Körner, 2010). In the Maricopa FACE, where a wheat field was

424 exposed to $e\text{CO}_2$, no winter measurements were carried out because this season was a fallow
425 season (Pendall et al., 2001). Outside the cultivation period no soil respiration measurements
426 were made on a cotton plantation exposed to $e\text{CO}_2$ (Nakayama et al., 1994).

427 Increased winter soil CO_2 fluxes are in line with results from Selsted et al.(2012), who
428 reported stimulated rates during three consecutive winter periods in a Danish N-limited
429 *Calluna-Deschampsia*-heathland exposed to FACE at 510 ppm (CLIMAITE study).
430 Fumigation was carried out all year-round except during periods with full snow cover.
431 Contrary to our results, in the CLIMAITE study, the stimulatory effect of $e\text{CO}_2$ on soil
432 respiration persisted throughout most of the year, i.e. also in summer and not only during
433 winter. However, in the CLIMAITE study, monthly soil respiration measurements were
434 carried out within the first three years after the experimental start and may therefore reflect
435 short-term responses, driven by the initial CO_2 step increase (Klironomos et al., 2005). Thus
436 the results are not completely comparable to this study where measurements were carried out
437 in the 11th – 13th year of CO_2 enrichment.

438 To our knowledge, the Duke Forest FACE is the only other FACE experiment where soil
439 respiration was measured in an evergreen ecosystem year-round for several years and after
440 long-term fumigation with $e\text{CO}_2$ (+200 ppm). On average, soil respiration was significantly
441 higher by 23 % under $e\text{CO}_2$. Jackson et al. (2009) summarized, after 10 years of CO_2
442 enrichment, that the greatest stimulation of soil respiration under $e\text{CO}_2$ occurred from
443 midsummer to early fall, in contrast to our observations, during winter the CO_2 response of
444 soil respiration was weakest. However, fumigation was stopped at the Duke Forest FACE
445 when ambient air temperature dropped below 5°C for more than one hour.

446 After short-term enrichment with $e\text{CO}_2$ (550 ppm) on a mixed plantation of *Populus* species
447 (EuroFACE; in the 4th and 5th year of enrichment), Lagomarsino et al. (2013) recorded much
448 larger stimulation of soil respiration during the vegetation (up to 111 % enhancement) than
449 dormant season (40 % enhancement), when fumigation was stopped, which is also contrary to
450 our results. However, experimental setup and climate differed from our site. While minimum
451 soil temperatures reached -1.7 °C in the GiFACE experiment during winter (Fig. 2b),
452 comparably warm and mild winters without sub-zero temperatures were typical at the
453 EUROFACE site located in Italy. Moreover, the *Populus* plantation was a fertilized agro-
454 ecosystem, where coppicing was carried out every three years, while the GiFACE was an old
455 established, species-rich ecosystem where N-supply was limited.

456 In line with results from the EuroFACE but in contrast to our findings, Volk & Niklaus (2002)
457 did not observe any wintertime increase in the ecosystem CO_2 efflux from a calcareous
458 grassland in response to three years of CO_2 enrichment (600 ppm) with a screen-aided CO_2
459 enrichment facility.

460 Investigations from the GiFACE experiment showed that N_2O emissions also exhibited a
461 “seasonality response”, with the greatest stimulation of N_2O emission under $e\text{CO}_2$ being
462 observed in late-summer and autumn (Kammann et al., 2008). These findings support the
463 hypothesis that the driving mechanism of the $e\text{CO}_2$ seasonality responses of enhanced
464 microbial activity may have been related to the mineralization of previously accumulated
465 organic matter, fuelling denitrification (Kammann et al., 2008).

466

467 4.3 Root derived soil respiration

468 Increased root biomass was frequently recorded under $e\text{CO}_2$ (Rogers et al., 1994; Jastrow et
469 al., 2000; Lukac et al., 2009), potentially affecting soil respiration rates (Zak et al., 2000).
470 However, at the GiFACE, root biomass, picked with forceps (for set time intervals per
471 sample, $n=3$ per FACE ring), was only different in December 2005 between the CO_2
472 treatments but not at other dates during 2004 – 2007 (Lenhart, 2008) or in November 2011
473 (unpublished results). Lenhart (2008) observed in the GiFACE $e\text{CO}_2$ plots, using Keeling
474 plots and two-component mixing models that the fraction of root-derived CO_2 (root- and root-
475 exudate respiration and fine root decay), as part of the total soil CO_2 efflux was lower in
476 winter than during the growing season. Accordingly, during *winter*, the soil CO_2 efflux
477 originated mainly from microbial soil respiration.

478 Higher fine root turnover under $e\text{CO}_2$, resulting in higher C input via root necromass could
479 explain increased *autumn* soil respiration but unlikely the *winter* increase in soil CO_2 efflux at
480 the GiFACE since root necromass was not changed under $e\text{CO}_2$ in November 2011
481 (unpublished results). Alternatively, differences in the root necromass could already have
482 been decomposed at this time of sampling or may be observed later in the year, so that
483 “enhanced fine root decomposition” as cause of the *autumn* and *winter* soil respiration
484 increase under $e\text{CO}_2$ cannot be ruled out.

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489 4.4 Temperature dependence of soil respiration

We observed that the temperature dependence of soil respiration was different in *autumn* compared to other seasons, whereas $e\text{CO}_2$ did not change the relationship of soil respiration to temperature. During *autumn*, soil temperatures were at the same range as during *spring* and *summer*, but soil respiration was on average lower (Fig.5a). This pattern could reflect the higher proportion of root respiration (due to active root growth and assimilate allocation to exudates) during *spring* and *summer*, as observed by Lenhart (Lenhart, 2008). Boone et al. (1998) found a greater temperature sensitivity of root respiration than microbial respiration, whereas, Bååth et al. (2003) contradicted this finding in a microcosm experiment where different fractions of soil respiration had the same Q_{10} relationship. They suggested that the intensity of light, and thus the intensity of photosynthetic carbon gain and its availability for root-derived soil-respired C, may co-vary with temperature in field studies, probably explaining different temperature dependencies of soil respiration between seasons. In summary, the lack of a difference between ambient and $e\text{CO}_2$ soil respiration temperature functions suggests that there is no need to account for a special “ $e\text{CO}_2$ temperature sensitivity effect” in larger scale models of temperate-grassland CO_2 exchange under future CO_2 -enriched atmospheres.

4.5 N availability

Since soil microorganisms require C as well as N for maintenance and growth (De Graaff et al., 2006; Zak et al., 1993), N availability plays an important role in determining soil CO_2 efflux. Moreover, the build-up of stable humus compounds (C:N ratio of 10-11), as a potential negative (dampening) feedback of rising CO_2 atmospheres, requires sufficient quantities of N. Root respiration rates were observed to correlate with tissue nitrogen concentration (Burton et al., 1996, 1998), whereas nitrogen affected microbial respiration in a complex pattern (Magill and Aber, 1998; Saiya-Cork et al., 2002; Ågren et al., 2001). In the Giessen-FACE, $e\text{CO}_2$

caused reduced tissue N concentrations and higher C:N-ratios of aboveground plant biomass (Kammann et al., 2008). In line with these findings is the observation of Lenhart (2008), who found a lower fraction of root derived CO₂ on soil respiration with increasing atmospheric CO₂. Furthermore, *e*CO₂ induced a shift of available NO₃⁻ towards NH₄⁺ at the study site (Müller et al., 2009), a typical feature of N-limited ecosystems to retain mineral N (Rütting et al., 2008; Huygens et al., 2008). Through freezing effects in winter, mineral N, which was immobilized into the microbial biomass shortly after fertilizer application in spring, became partly available again (Müller et al., 2003). It is possible that N, as a limiting factor in the temperate grassland, may partly be responsible for the increase in soil C loss during the *autumn* and *winter* season under *e*CO₂.

4.6 Microbial community

Multiple observations from the GiFACE indicated that increases in winter soil respiration under *e*CO₂ were largely associated with microbial respiration (including rhizosphere microbiota). Recent studies from other FACE sites detected differences between microbial communities at *e*CO₂ compared to ambient CO₂ (Drigo et al., 2008; Drigo et al., 2009). At the GiFACE, stimulated rhizosphere-C utilization by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi were found under *e*CO₂ by a ¹³C-PLFA study (Denef et al., 2007), which may have contributed to altered soil respiration. Recent measurements in 2013 did not indicate any differences in the abundance of bacteria and archaea between the ambient and *e*CO₂ plots (K. Brenzinger, personal communication) so that this can be ruled out as a cause for differed soil respiration between the CO₂ treatments if this observation persists throughout *autumn* and *winter*.

4.7 Soil moisture

536 Several studies showed that $e\text{CO}_2$ can affect soil moisture (Niklaus et al., 1998;Field et al.,
537 1995;Hungate et al., 1997), which in turn regulates soil respiration. However, large effects are
538 only expected and were detected at the dry end of the spectrum(Moyano et al., 2012;Guntinas
539 et al., 2013;Rodrigo et al., 1997).During the investigation period, the volumetric water content
540 ranged from 20 to 80 vol.% at the GiFACE site, with an average of 44% during 2008-2010,
541 and 39% over the vegetation periods of these years. Thus, based on previous studies, the soil
542 moisture effect is likely not to be large (i.e. soil moisture was not the limiting factor).
543 Therefore, we focused in our study on the soil temperature effect. Moreover, no significant
544 effect of $e\text{CO}_2$ on the soil water content was observed either during the first 5 years of
545 enrichment (Kammann et al., 2005) or after 13 years of enrichment (Meine,
546 2013).Consequently, a CO_2 -induced soil moisture effect is unlikely governing increased soil
547 respiration rates; but still, enhanced anaerobicity due to enhanced microbial activity, as
548 experimentally produced e.g. by Sehy et al.(2004), cannot completely be ruled out. However
549 any hypothetical aerobicity change, if present at all in the GiFACE, was not large enough to
550 affect the performance and composition of the methanogenic community in the 11th year of
551 CO_2 enrichment (Angel et al., 2012), which is a sensitive indicator for aerobicity changes.

552 However, it can be assumed that annual dynamics of soil moisture with wettest conditions in
553 winter, i.e. close to saturation, and driest conditions in summer (Fig. 2a) contributed to the
554 seasonal dynamics of soil respiration under $e\text{CO}_2$ due to diffusion limitations. Analysis of
555 stable isotopes revealed a distinctive $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ gradient in soil during winter with decreasing
556 signatures with depth but a homogenous $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ profile during vegetation period at our study
557 site (Lenhart, 2008). The absence of a $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ gradient during summer was likely due to
558 improved diffusive mixing of soil air in the profile during aerobic soil conditions. Based on
559 previous studies on this grassland (e.g. Müller et al., (2004) it was shown that during summer,

when soil moisture content was relatively low ($0.3 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) in the main rooting zone (top 10 cm) of the GiFACE site, the site of production for gaseous emissions (e.g. N_2O) occurred at deeper soil layers (20-50 cm depth) where the soil moisture content was still high ($0.6 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$). The production of N_2O at deep soil layers seemed to coincide with the production of CO_2 during summer, which was also characterized by a homogenous $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ profile during vegetation period at our study site (Lenhart, 2008). However, a detailed investigation on layer-specific CO_2 production was beyond the scope of this study.. Accordingly, CO_2 diffusion was slowed down at times of high soil moisture, coinciding with limited oxygen supply (Skopp et al., 1990). At these times, soil respiration was likely originating to a major part from the topsoil. However, increased *autumn* soil respiration under $e\text{CO}_2$ cannot be attributed to this phenomenon since soil water content is relatively low at this season (Fig. 2a). We suggest that increased substrate supply under $e\text{CO}_2$ from end-of-season dieback of roots and the root-associated microbiome may explain stimulated soil respiration rates in *autumn*.

4.8 Freeze/thaw cycles

Freeze/thaw cycles are known to mobilize previously inaccessible C- and N-substrates (Goodroad and Keeney, 1984;Kammann et al., 1998;Röver et al., 1998;Müller et al., 2002;Edwards and Cresser, 1992), providing substrates for heterotrophic activity. Frost events occurred during the study at the GiFACE from end of December 2008 to February 2009 (Fig. 2c). The relative change of soil respiration under $e\text{CO}_2$ was 17 %,12 % and 5 % from January to March 2009 respectively (Fig. 2d), showing a more pronounced stimulation in these seasons than during the growing season, apart from October 2010 (12 % increase under $e\text{CO}_2$).

583 4.9 Plant community

584 Another aspect which may have contributed to altered soil respiration rates under $e\text{CO}_2$ is a
585 shift in the plant community composition. Grütters et al. (2006) observed that summer-greens
586 decreased, whereas evergreens increased under $e\text{CO}_2$ in the GiFACE experiment. Since soil
587 respiration is controlled by substrate supply via rhizodeposition (Verburg et al., 2004; Wan
588 and Luo, 2003; Craine et al., 1999), higher photosynthetic activity in $e\text{CO}_2$ plots during mild
589 *winter* may have contributed to the observed increase in soil respiration. In addition, since the
590 vegetative aboveground growth is dormant and does not provide an assimilate sink, the
591 relative proportion of assimilate partitioned below-ground towards the root-associated micro-
592 biota may increase, contributing to the relative increase under $e\text{CO}_2$ during *winter*. The higher
593 abundance of evergreens at $e\text{CO}_2$ also underlines the importance of a year-round CO_2
594 enrichment strategy in such ecosystems with the respective climatic conditions. To date,
595 increased winter soil respiration at $e\text{CO}_2$ was only found in FACE experiments with year-
596 round fumigation and a photosynthesizing at least partly green canopy, i.e. in the CLIMAITE
597 study (Selsted et al., 2012) and in this study.

598

599 5 Conclusions

600 In conclusion, our results demonstrated the importance of winter soil respiration
601 measurements, by showing that soil respiration was increased during *autumn* and *winter* after
602 moderate long-term $e\text{CO}_2$. Measurements and year-round CO_2 enrichment should not be
603 neglected, at least in winter-green temperate ecosystems. Studies in such ecosystems
604 excluding measurements during the dormant season may thus underestimate the effect of
605 $e\text{CO}_2$ on annual soil-respiratory CO_2 losses (i.e. leading to an overestimation of C

sequestered). Consequently, winter soil CO₂ fluxes may play a crucial role in determining the carbon balance and dynamics of temperate grassland ecosystems. Our results indicate that temperate European grasslands which are characterized by a greenhouse gas balance near zero (Soussana et al., 2007) may gradually turn into greenhouse gas sources with rising atmospheric CO₂ due to enhanced CO₂ losses during *autumn* and *winter*, in particular if N₂O emissions are significantly increased as observed in the GiFACE (Kammann et al., 2008;Regan et al., 2011).

To generalize and explain the variation in the temporal dynamics of soil respiration under *e*CO₂ more studies of winter C dynamics under long-term *e*CO₂ are required. For such future studies it is advisable to include frequent samplings of root biomass, including the fine root fraction and necromass, in particular during the *autumn/winter* period under *e*CO₂. Another beneficial research strategy may be combined (pulse) labelling of ¹⁵N and ¹³C to elucidate gross C and N turnover processes after long-term (>10 years) of CO₂ enrichment to study the C-N gross dynamics and associated carbonaceous gas losses.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to both, the Hessian Agency for the Environment and Geology (HLUG) for long-term financial support, and to the Hessian Ministry for Science and Arts for financial funding within the LOEWE research project FACE₂FACE. The technical assistance of Jochen Senkbeil, Jürgen Franz, Till Strobusch and Birte Lenz at the Giessen FACE site is gratefully

acknowledged, as well as the assistance of Matthias Daum, Christian Eckhard, Christoph von Bredow and Yvette Kühnel. CK and CM gratefully acknowledge the long-term engagement of Prof. H.-J. Jäger († 18.8.2013) who initiated and norished the Giessen FACE study over more than a decade.

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934 **Tables**

935 **Table 1**

936 Results of fitting the temperature-dependence model after Lloyd and Taylor (Lloyd and

937 Taylor, 1994) to 20% of our observation data under ambient and elevated CO₂.

CO ₂ treatment	R	Rsqr	Adj Rsqr	Standard Error of Estimate
Ambient CO ₂	0.87	0.75	0.75	1.35
Elevated CO ₂	0.91	0.82	0.82	1.19

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Table 2
Annual sums of soil respiration under ambient and eCO₂ from 2008 – 2010. Data are presented as averages (n=3) ± standard error (SE).

Year	CO ₂ treatment	Mean annual sum of soil respiration (g CO ₂ m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Mean annual sum of soil respiration (g C[CO ₂] m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Relative change to control (%)	P value
2008	Ambient CO ₂	4853.93 ± 33.84	1323.80 ± 9.23	1.22	0.17
	Elevated CO ₂	4913.38 ± 14.20	1340.01 ± 3.87		
2009	Ambient CO ₂	4928.00 ± 48.34	1344.00 ± 13.18	0.56	0.64
	Elevated CO ₂	4955.74 ± 39.08	1351.56 ± 10.66		
2010	Ambient CO ₂	4702.44 ± 36.69	1282.48 ± 10.01	1.38	0.23
	Elevated CO ₂	4767.22 ± 11.47	1300.15 ± 3.13		

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976 **Figure legends**

977 **Fig. 1** Seasonal patterns and the five defined seasons at the GiFACE grassland study site.

978 **Fig. 2** Volumetric water content under ambient and elevated CO₂ (a), daily sums of
979 precipitation at the GiFACE (b), mean soil temperature during soil respiration measurements
980 and minimum daily soil temperature at 10 cm depth (c), the relative mean monthly change of
981 soil respiration under elevated CO₂ based on observed and modelled data (d), the absolute
982 mean monthly difference in soil respiration under elevated CO₂ based on observed and
983 modelled data (e) and soil respiration under ambient and elevated CO₂ per measurement from
984 2008 to 2010 based on observed and modelled data (f). Data are presented as averages (n=3) ±
985 1 SE.

986 **Fig. 3** Mean soil respiration rates during the five defined seasons under ambient and elevated
987 CO₂ averaged over three years from 2008 – 2010 (a); (1) = *winter dormancy*; (2) = *start of*
988 *vegetation period*; (3) = *spring*; (4) = *summer*; (5) = *autumn* (for details see methods).

989 **Fig. 4** Observed versus modelled soil respiration rates under ambient and elevated CO₂.

990 **Fig. 5** Relationship between soil respiration rate and soil temperature under ambient and
991 elevated CO₂ (a) and temperature dependence of soil respiration under ambient and elevated
992 CO₂ during different seasons (b). Equation of dynamic fit (Lloyd and Taylor, 1994): $f =$
993 $R10e^{E0\left(\frac{1}{(283.15-T0)} - \frac{1}{(x-T0)}\right)}$

994 **Fig. 6** Annual sums of soil respiration under ambient and elevated CO₂ for 2008 – 2010 based
995 on observed and modelled data. Error bars represent ± 1 SE of the mean.

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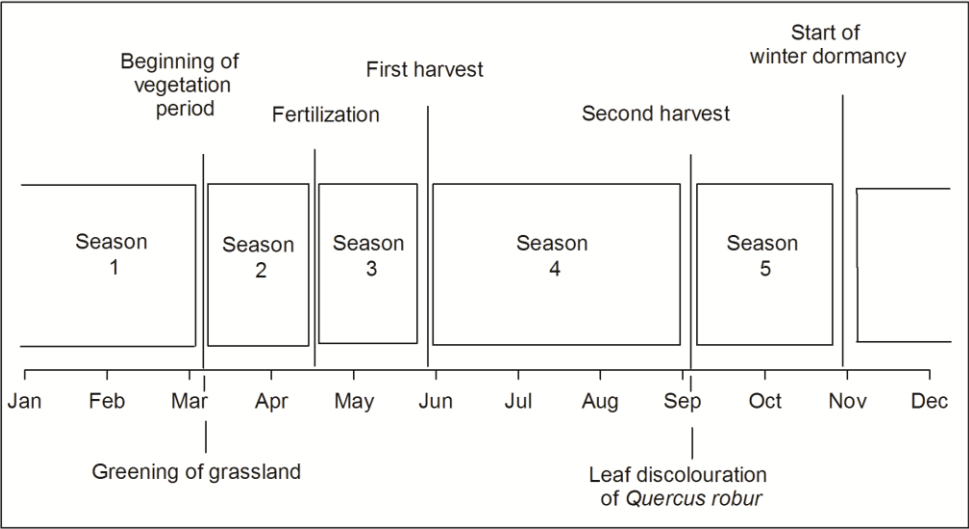
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1007 **Figures**

1008 Fig. 1



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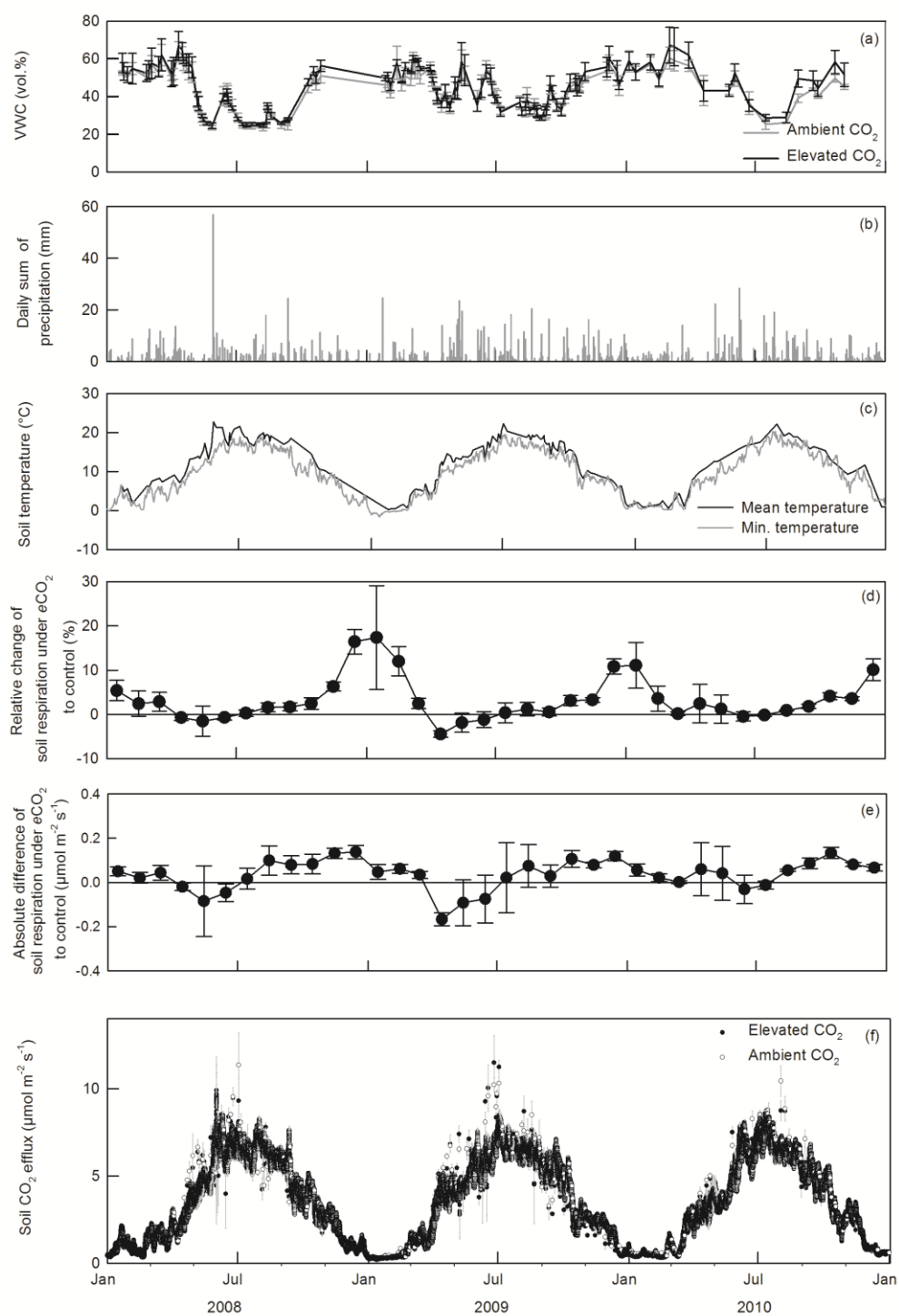
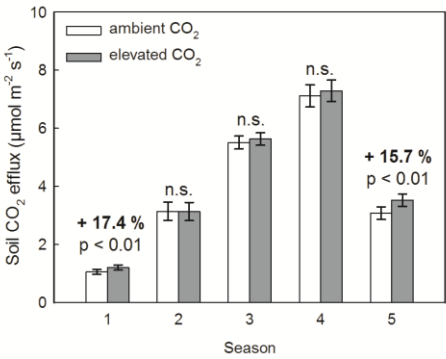
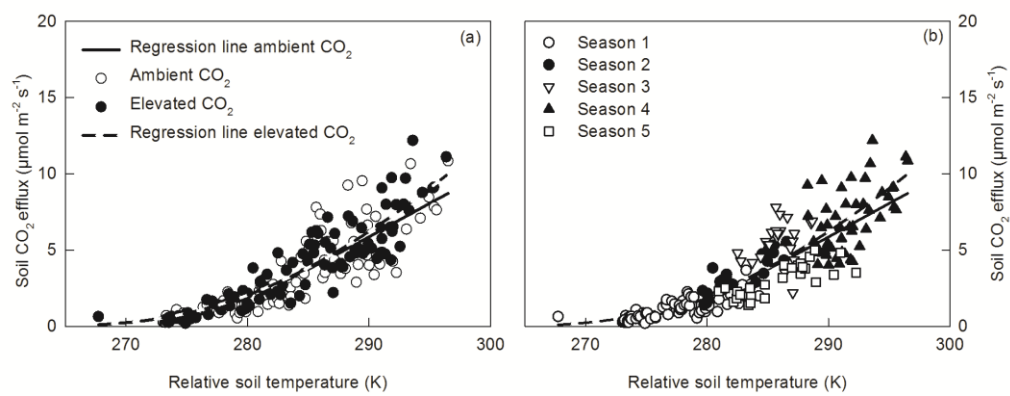


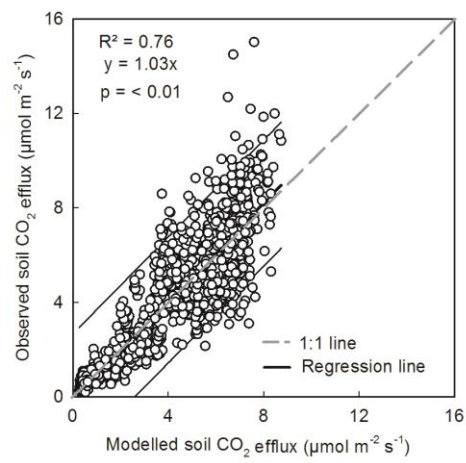
Fig. 3



1041 Fig. 4



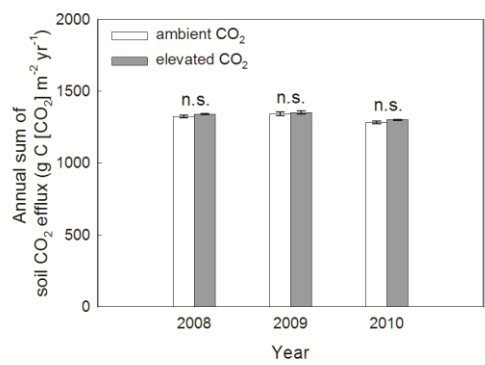
1057 Fig. 5



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1074 Fig. 6

Kommentar [B1]: Legend was added to Fig. 6



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Supporting Information

Fig. S1

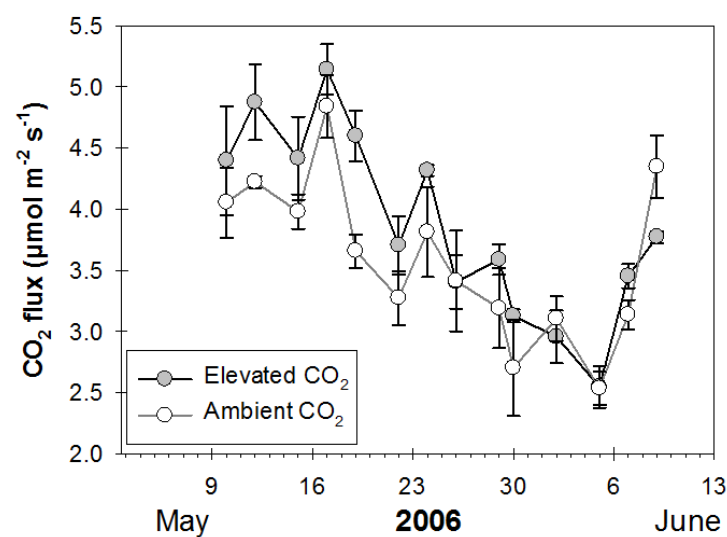


Fig S1: Mean CO₂ efflux \pm standard error (n=3) after installation of the frames and removal of the aboveground biomass on 9th May 2006.

On 11 out of 14 measurement occasions all three E-plot fluxes were higher than those of their corresponding A-plot partner. A mixed Model analysis (SPSS version 18) with the factors CO₂-treatment and time revealed that the soil CO₂ efflux was significantly increased by CO₂ enrichment.

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1112 **Table S1**
1113 Parameter estimates of the temperature-dependence model after Lloyd and Taylor (Lloyd and
1114 Taylor, 1994)

CO ₂ treatment	Model parameter	Coefficient	P value
Ambient CO ₂	E0	61.92 ± 33.59	0.07
	R10	3.00 ± 0.19	< 0.001
	T0	261.18 ± 6.53	< 0.001
Elevated CO ₂	E0	143.68 ± 103.57	0.17
	R10	3.11 ± 0.17	< 0.001
	T0	248.72 ± 13.35	< 0.001

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