1	Different nitrogen saturation thresholds for above-, below-, and total net primary
2	productivity in a temperate steppe
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24

# 25 Abstract

26 Identifying the thresholds for the positive responses of total net primary productivity (NPP) to nitrogen (N) enrichment is an essential prerequisite for predicting the benefits 27 of N deposition on ecosystem carbon sequestration. However, the responses of below-28 29 ground NPP (BNPP) to N enrichment are unknown in many ecosystems, which limits our ability to understand the carbon cycling under the scenario of increasing N 30 availability. We examined the changes in above-ground NPP (ANPP), BNPP, and NPP 31 32 of a temperate meadow steppe across a wide-ranging N addition gradient (0, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 50 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) during five years. Both ANPP and NPP increased nonlinearly 33 with N addition rates. The N saturation threshold for ANPP (T<sub>A</sub>) and NPP (T<sub>N</sub>) was at 34 the rate of 13.11 and 6.70 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. BNPP decreased with increasing 35 N addition when N addition rates > 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, resulting in much lower T<sub>N</sub> than T<sub>A</sub>. 36 Soil N enrichment played a key role in driving the negative impacts of high N addition 37 38 rates on BNPP, and consequently on the earlier occurrence of N saturation threshold for NPP. Our results highlight the negative effects of soil N enrichment on NPP in 39 natural grasslands super-saturated with N. Furthermore, by considering ANPP and 40 BNPP simultaneously, our results indicate that previous findings from aboveground 41 might have over-estimated the positive effects of N deposition on primary productivity. 42

43 Keywords: nitrogen deposition, semi-arid grassland, N saturation threshold,

44 production, ammonium toxicity, soil N concentration

45

# 46 Introduction

Nitrogen (N) is the primary limiting nutrient for primary productivity in most terrestrial 47 ecosystems (Elser et al., 2007; Vitousek and Howarth, 1991). Accelerating human 48 activities have led to increasing atmospheric N deposition worldwide (Galloway et al., 49 2008), and the N deposition rate in China during 2011-2015 is estimated as  $20.4 \pm 2.6$ 50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> (Yu et al., 2019). Critical thresholds occur when the responses of 51 52 ecological processes to increasing N inputs are non-linear (Groffman et al., 2006; Toms & Lesperance, 2003), as have been found for soil N mineralization, soil respiration, 53 aboveground production, and ecosystem C sequestration (Aber et al., 1998; Aber et al., 54 55 1989; Wang et al., 2020). A better understanding of the N saturation threshold for fundamental ecosystem functions is crucial for accurately predicting the ecological 56 consequences of N enrichment, and setting conservation goals and policies (Rockström 57 et al., 2009). 58

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Net primary productivity (NPP) is the primary driver of global C cycling, including photosynthetic and structural pools above- and below-ground. A better understanding of NPP is crucial for detecting biosphere-atmosphere interactions and predicting the responses of ecosystem function to global changes. Nitrogen enrichment generally increases above-ground NPP (ANPP) in many ecosystems (LeBauer & Treseder, 2008; Xia & Wan, 2008). Nevertheless, there is always a threshold for the positive effects of

66	N (Bai et al. 2010; Bowman et al. 2006), due to the limitation of the maximum
67	photosynthetic rate or the presence of other limiting factors (Elser et al., 2007; Hautier
68	et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2020). Across global grasslands, the mean N saturation
69	threshold of ANPP is estimated as 15 g N m <sup>-2</sup> year <sup>-1</sup> (Peng et al., 2020). However, our
70	understanding of the responses of below-ground NPP (BNPP) to N enrichment is more
71	limited. BNPP plays a key role in numerous ecosystem processes. For instance, roots
72	account for more than 60% of plant-origin organic C input into the soil (Peek, 2007;
73	Wang et al., 2019). To date, positive (Yuan & Chen, 2012; Zhang et al., 2015), negative
74	(Bai et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019), and neutral responses (Gao et al., 2011) of BNPP
75	to N enrichment have been reported. The variation in results is due to the differences in
76	N addition rates, soil nutrient availability (Li et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2019), and plant
77	species composition (Bai et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2011). It remains unknown whether
78	the threshold of BNPP responses to N enrichment parallels that of ANPP and whether
79	divergent or convergent responses between BNPP and ANPP have consequence on the
80	changes of NPP. Although the responses of NPP to N enrichment have been reported in
81	previous studies (Wang et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2016), understanding about the N
82	saturation threshold for BNPP and NPP is scarce.

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Here we propose and test a conceptual framework for understanding the responses of semi-arid grassland NPP and its above- and below-ground components to increasing N addition rates (Fig. 1). Our framework depicts the hierarchical mechanisms underlying the responses of grassland ANPP, BNPP, and NPP (Fig. 1a), based on evidence from

88	temperate semi-arid grasslands. Grassland productivity is generally supposed to be
89	limited by N availability (Vitousek & Howarth, 1991), and thus increasing N addition
90	with lower rates would stimulate both ANPP and BNPP (stage I) (Xia & Wan, 2008;
91	Zhang et al., 2015). At stage II, further increasing N addition rates would lead to plant
92	growth being limited by aboveground factors (light availability) instead of
93	belowground factors (N availability) and plants would consequently allocate more
94	biomass above-ground parts (Bloom et al., 1985). Moreover, increases in soil aluminum
95	and soil $NH_4^+$ -N following acidification related to N addition could depress root growth
96	(Horswill et al., 2008; Li et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2016b), leading to a reduction in BNPP
97	(Aber et al., 1998). The divergent responses of ANPP and BNPP to N addition at this
98	stage may lead to the earlier occurrence of an N saturation threshold for NPP than ANPP
99	(Fig. 1b). At stage III, ANPP becomes saturated with N due to the limitations from other
100	factors beyond N, including light availability (Ma et al., 2020; Niu et al., 2010), water
101	availability (Cleland & Harpole, 2010), and soil acidification (Stevens et al., 2015). The
102	magnitude of ecosystem response to increasing N availability would be site- and time-
103	specific (Swindon et al., 2019), as constrained by other resources. For example, a recent
104	study spanning nine NutNet sites showed that the responses of root biomass to N
105	addition depend on background N conditions, with root biomass being increased at sites
106	with low N deposition but decreased at sites with high N deposition (Keller et al., 2023).
107	Uncovering the mechanisms underlying the non-linear responses of NPP and its above-
108	and below-ground components to increasing N addition, which would help improve our
109	mechanistic and quantitative understanding such context-dependent responses of

110 productivity to N enrichment.

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112	Using data from a 5-year field experiment in a temperate meadow steppe in Northeast
113	China, we examined the changes in ANPP, BNPP, and NPP across six N addition rates
114	$(0, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ and identified their N saturation thresholds. We tested
115	the hypothesis that the N saturation threshold of NPP would be lower than that of ANPP
116	in the temperate steppe.

117

## 118 Materials and methods

119 *Study site* 

The study site is located in a temperate meadow steppe, near the Erguna Forest-Steppe 120 Ecotone Research Station (50°10′46.1″N, 119°22′56.4″E). The field has been fenced 121 since 2013 to exclude livestock grazing. The long-term mean annual temperature is -122 123 2.45°C (1957-2016). Mean annual precipitation is 363 mm, with ~75% occurring from May to August. Our experiment was carried out during 2016-2020, and there were 124 precipitation variability during May to mid-August in each growing season of those 125 five years (Fig. S1). The soil is classified as Loamic Haplic Chernozems by the FAO 126 and as Chernozem in Chinese Soil Classification System. The plant community was 127 dominated by two perennial grasses, Levmus chinensis and Stipa baicalensis, which 128 together accounted for >60% of the total above ground biomass. 129

The N addition experiment was set up in 2014, following a randomized block design. 132 There were six rates of N addition (0, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 50 g N  $m^{-2}$  yr<sup>-1</sup>), crossed with 133 two types of N compounds (NH4NO3 and CO(NH2)2) that are widely used in global N 134 addition experiments. There were a total of 12 treatments, which were replicated eight 135 times in eight blocks. The area of each plot was  $10 \text{ m} \times 10 \text{ m}$ . Nitrogen fertilizers were 136 mixed with sand (because of the low amount of fertilizer at low addition rates) and 137 broadcast to each plot uniformly by hand in late May since 2014. Sand was sieved 138 through a sieve with 2 mm mesh, washed in water, and then oven-dried at 250°C for 1 139 hour. To avoid potentially confounding effects, all plots received the same amount of 140 sand (0.5 kg per plot). 141

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#### 143 *Field sampling and measurement*

Peak aboveground green biomass at mid-August of each year was used to represent ANPP (Bai et al., 2004). Aboveground biomass was sampled annually from 2016 to 2020 using a 1 × 1 m quadrat, which was randomly placed in each plot without spatial overlap of quadrats among years and at least 50 cm inside the border of each plot to avoid edge effects. All living vascular plants were clipped and sorted to species. Litter in each quadrat was collected after the sampling of aboveground biomass. Plant samples were oven-dried at 65 °C for 48 h and then weighed.

The root ingrowth-core method was used to estimate BNPP (Steingrobe et al., 2001). 152 Three soil cores (7 cm in diameter and 50 cm in depth) were vertically drilled into the 153 154 soil in each plot in June of 2016, 1 m distance between cores. The collected soil was sieved (mesh size 2 mm) to remove roots. Then, polyester mesh bags (mesh size 1 mm) 155 with root-free sieved soil were inserted into the holes. In mid-September of each year 156 from 2016 to 2020, the mesh bags were carefully pulled out of the holes and the soil 157 was sieved (mesh size 2 mm) to collect roots. After being washed, all root samples were 158 dried at 75°C for 48 h and then weighed. BNPP was calculated based on the average 159 160 root biomass of three ingrowth cores in each plot. NPP was calculated as the sum of ANPP and BNPP in each plot. 161

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After aboveground biomass and litter sampling at mid-August of each year, three soil 163 cores (0-5 cm depth and 50 cm apart) in each quadrat were collected using a 7 cm 164 diameter soil auger and mixed into one composite sample. Soil samples were sieved 165 through a 2-mm sieve to remove visible roots, plant residues, and stones, and taken to 166 the laboratory for analysis of soil water content (%), soil ammonium ( $NH_4^+$ -N; mg kg<sup>-</sup> 167 <sup>1</sup>) and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N; mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) concentrations. Soil water content was determined 168 using the gravimetric method, with soil samples being weighed before and after being 169 oven-dried at 105°C for 48 h. To measure soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration, 10 g 170 171 soil sample was extracted with 50 mL of 2 M KCl solution and then analyzed with a FLAstar 5000 Analyzer (Foss Tecator, Hillerød, Denmark). The soil NH4<sup>+</sup>-N and NO3<sup>-</sup> 172

-N concentration were expressed as mg kg<sup>-1</sup> dry soil. Soil inorganic N concentration is the sum of soil  $NH_4^+$ -N and  $NO_3^-$ -N concentration. Subsamples of soils were air-dried and used to analyze soil pH, which was measured in a water suspension (soil: water = 1:5) using a pH meter (Thermo Fisher Scientific, America).

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# 178 Statistical analysis

179 A mixed model ANOVA was performed to examine the effects of N addition rate, N addition type and their interaction on ANPP, BNPP, NPP, species richness, litter 180 biomass, soil pH, and soil inorganic N concentration. Nitrogen addition rate and type 181 were set as the fixed factors, and block as a random factor (Table S1). As there was no 182 interaction between N addition rate and type in affecting productivity and diversity (all 183 P > 0.05; Table S1), data of the two N compound types were combined for further 184 analyses. We further examined the direct and indirect pathways through which N 185 addition and precipitation during May to mid-August in each year from 2017 to 2020 186 affected ANPP, BNPP, and NPP by structural equation modeling (SEM). We 187 constructed hypothetical causal models including all possible pathways (Fig. S5) and 188 then sequentially removed the non-significant pathways to obtain the best model. The 189 SEM was fitted with linear mixed-effects models (with block as the random effect) 190 using the R package *piecewiseSEM* and *nlme* (Lefcheck, 2016). We used the Fisher's 191 192 C-test (when 0.05 < P < 1.00) to confirm the goodness of the modelling results. Species richness, soil pH and soil inorganic N concentration were log-transformed for SEM to 193

194 meet the assumption of normal distribution.

Quadratic-plus-plateau model was used to identify the threshold for the responses of
ANPP, BNPP, and total NPP to increasing N addition rates (Peng et al., 2020). The
quadratic-plus-plateau model is defined as:

198 
$$y = ax^2 + bx + c, \text{ if } x \leq C \tag{1}$$

199 
$$y = M, \text{ if } x > C$$
 (2)

where *y* is the ANPP (BNPP or NPP) (g m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and *x* is the rate of N addition (g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>); a, b and c are the coefficients of the quadratic model (Equation 1), and M is a constant fitting the plateaued phase (Equation 2). The constant *C* represents the N saturation threshold and the constant M represents the maximum value of ANPP (BNPP or NPP). The model fitting was performed using "easynls" package (Arnhold, 2017). All analyses were conducted using R version 4.1.2 (R Development Core Team, 2021).

207 **Results** 

#### 208 Responses of soil and plant community characteristics

Averaged across the four years from 2017 to 2020, there was no difference for inorganic N concentrations and soil pH across the three treatments with lower N addition rates ( $^{211}$  ~ 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. 2a,b). Under the treatments with higher N addition rates ( $^{10}$  ~ 50 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), soil inorganic N concentrations increased and soil pH decreased with increasing addition rates (Fig. 2a,b). Averaged across the five years from 2016 to 2020, plant species richness decreased with increasing N addition rates, with a reduction of 215 16.5%, 33.1%, 44.0%, and 56.6% under N5, N10, N20, and N50, respectively (Fig. 2c).

Litter biomass increased with increasing N addition rates, with a 50% enhancement under N5 and >150% enhancement under treatments with higher N addition rates (Fig. 2d). The responses of soil inorganic N concentrations and plant community characteristics to N enrichment varied significantly among different years (all P < 0.001; Fig. S2).

221

### 222 Nitrogen saturation thresholds for ANPP, BNPP, and NPP

223 Although NPP varied significantly among different years, it generally had lower saturation threshold than ANPP across the N addition gradient in each year (Fig. S3) 224 and under each of the two N compounds (Fig. S4). Averaged across the five years, NPP 225 and its above- and below-ground components all showed non-linear responses to 226 increasing N addition rates (Fig. 3). With the increases of N addition rates, ANPP 227 increased quickly, with a saturation threshold ( $T_A$ ) at 13.11 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. BNPP tended 228 to increase with N addition, peaked at the rate of 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, and then decreased 229 under higher N addition rates (Fig. 3). NPP increased with increasing N addition rates, 230 and remained stable when the rates were > 6.70 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, with a lower saturation 231 threshold than ANPP (Fig. 3). Specifically, ANPP and BNPP were weakly and 232 positively correlated across plots with N addition rates  $\leq 5$  g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4a), but 233 were not correlated in plots with > 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4b). 234

237 addition rates

Given that the N saturation threshold for BNPP was 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and that the responses 238 of soil and plant community characteristics to N addition differed between low and high 239 addition rates (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3), we constructed SEM for the low (N0-N5) and high 240 (N10-N50) N addition rates, separately. Growing season precipitation had direct and 241 242 positive effects on both ANPP and BNPP, with stronger impacts under high N addition rates (Fig. 5a, b). Under low N addition rates ranging from 0 to 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, there 243 was direct and positive effect of N enrichment on ANPP, but a significantly negative 244 effect on both ANPP and BNPP (Fig. 5a), probably due to the higher inorganic N 245 accumulation but lower productivity in the years with lower growing season 246 precipitation (Fig. S1, S2, and S3). Under high N addition rates from 10 to 50 g N m<sup>-2</sup> 247 yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 5b), the direct and positive effect of N enrichment on ANPP was significant, 248 which would be cancelled out by its indirect and negative effect through soil inorganic 249 250 N accumulation and biodiversity loss. There was a negative effect of ANPP on BNPP under high N addition rates (Fig. 5b). 251

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ANPP played a more important role than BNPP in driving the variations of NPP at low N addition rates (standardized path coefficient: 0.68 vs 0.64;  $0 \sim 5$  g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and high N addition rates (0.79 vs 0.66;  $10 \sim 50$  g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), with the difference being much larger under high N addition rates (Fig. 5).

257

### 258 Discussion

Consistent with results from other grasslands (Bowman et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2016a) 259 as well as from a global meta-analysis (Peng et al., 2020), the responses of ANPP to N 260 addition changed from a linear response to a saturation response with increasing N 261 addition rates in this temperate meadow steppe. Averaged across the five years, the N 262 saturation threshold of ANPP was 13.11 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in our ecosystem, which is higher 263 than that in an alpine meadow (4 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Ma et al., 2020), but quite similar with 264 that in a typical steppe (10.5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) of Inner Mongolia (Bai et al., 2010). Globally, 265 the N saturation threshold for ANPP would vary across different grasslands due to the 266 variations of climate and soil C:N ratio (Peng et al., 2020). 267

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ANPP increased with increasing N inputs when the rates were below the saturation threshold, indicating that N is the limiting nutrient for ANPP in this steppe. The continuous increase of ANPP may attribute to that N enrichment stimulates photosynthesis and increases leaf area (Niu et al., 2010; Ren et al., 2011). However, the SEM results showed negative effect of N addition on ANPP under N0-N5 by increasing soil inorganic N concentration across the five years when precipitation was included in

the model, which probably because the higher inorganic N accumulation but lower 275 productivity in the years with lower precipitation (Fig. S1, S2, and S3). Furthermore, 276 277 we measured soil inorganic N concentrations only once each year, which is an instantaneous varaible closely related to soil moisture and temperature. In N super-278 279 saturated grasslands (those receiving more N than the saturation threshold) the positive impacts of increasing N addition rates on ANPP are cancelled out by the negative roles 280 of N-induced changes in other factors, such as soil inorganic N accumulation and the 281 decline of species richness as shown by the SEM results (Fig. 5b). Many biodiversity 282 experiments reported negative impacts of species richness losses on productivity (see 283 Tilman et al., 2014). Stronger light competition (Borer et al., 2014; Hautier et al., 2009), 284 soil acidification, and ammonium toxicity (Stevens et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2014) are 285 286 accounting for the N-induced losses of plant diversity. Isbell et al. (2013) found that the positive impacts of N addition on ANPP diminished over time due to the losses of 287 initially dominant plant species. However, a recent work based on 47 grasslands 288 demonstrated the positive impacts of N on aboveground biomass strengthen over time 289 despite increasing species diversity losses (Seabloom et al., 2021). Thus, there is no 290 consensus on how changes in biodiversity will influence N effects productivity, and 291 these seemingly conflicting results might be reconciled by considering how diversity 292 and productivity covary across time and space (Isbell et al., 2013). 293

In addition, the SEM results showed that N addition had a positive direct but a negative 295 indirect effect on ANPP under N10-N50, in that the increases of soil inorganic N 296 concentration significantly reduced ANPP (Fig. 5). Soil NH4<sup>+</sup>-N accumulation could 297 be toxic to sensitive plant species (Zhang et al., 2014), cause leaf and roots damage (Li 298 et al., 2014), reducing primary productivity (Li et al., 2011; Roosta et al., 2009). For 299 example, De Graaf (1998) found that ammonium concentrations above 100 µM could 300 increase plant mortality and reduce biomass. Together, those results indicate that 301 species richness loss and soil inorganic N accumulation are the driver for the 302 303 diminishing positive impacts of N addition on ANPP in N saturated temperate steppe.

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This study extends our knowledge on the responses of BNPP to N enrichment and inter-305 annual variations of precipitation, which is less understood than ANPP. First, the 306 responses of BNPP to N addition are highly dependent on the addition rate. Across the 307 308 wide-ranging N addition gradient and across the five years, BNPP peaked at the addition rate of 5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and then decreased with increasing N rates. Second, we 309 310 identified the key role of soil inorganic N accumulation in regulating BNPP response to N addition under both low and high N addition rates (Fig. 5). N addition would 311 indirectly reduce BNPP through soil ammonium toxicity in N-saturated and -312 supersaturated plots. While field evidence for the negative impacts of ammonium 313 toxicity on plant community BNPP are rather scarce, the molecular and genetic 314 mechanisms underlying its toxicity on model plant are well established (Li et al., 2014). 315

Third, growing season precipitation had direct and positive effect on BNPP in the temperate steppe, providing new evidence for the water-limitation of primary productivity in temperate steppe from belowground perspective. While previous studies have highlighted the importance of precipitation in driving the spatial and temporal variations of ANPP in temperate steppe (Bai et al., 2008; Lü et al., 2018), our results highlight its role in stimulating BNPP.

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323 BNPP played an important role in driving the earlier occurrence of N saturation threshold for NPP than ANPP (6.70 vs. 13.11 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). The responses of ANPP, 324 BNPP, and NPP to increasing N addition as found here are generally consistent with 325 the framework proposed in this study (Fig. 1). At the initial stage of N addition, ANPP 326 increased quickly due to the alleviation of N limitation, and thus more roots were 327 required to capture nutrients and water from the soil (Chapin III, 1980). However, the 328 relationship between ANPP and BNPP was rather weak (R<sup>2</sup>=0.06, Fig. 4a). The 329 concomitant increases of ANPP and BNPP led to positive responses of NPP to 330 331 increasing N addition rates at this stage. With continuous N addition, NPP leveled off at the specific N addition rate (e.g.  $\geq 6.70$  g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), largely due to the trade-off 332 between increases of ANPP and decreases of BNPP. According to the optimal 333 partitioning theory, plants would allocate more biomass to aboveground in response to 334 N supply in order to efficiently capture light (Olff, 1992) and consequently relatively 335 less biomass to belowground. Evidence from other grasslands demonstrated the 336

337	reduction of BNPP with increasing N addition rates (Gao et al., 2011; Poorter & Nagel,
338	2000; Wang et al., 2019). These responses indicated that the grassland changed from
339	N-limited to N-saturated, the relationship of ANPP and BNPP is decoupling. At the N
340	supersaturated communities, where N addition rate is higher than the N saturation
341	threshold of ANPP, the enrichment of soil $NH_4^+$ -N depressed the activity and biomass
342	of roots (Li et al., 2014), which caused a decline in BNPP. Overall, ANPP and BNPP
343	were weakly and positively correlated under low N addition rates but not correlated in
344	N-saturated communities. Similarly, Keller et al. (2023) reported no correlation for the
345	responses of above ground and root production to N addition with a rate of 10 g N $\mathrm{m}^{\text{-2}}$
346	yr <sup>-1</sup> across nine North American grasslands. A recent study in Chihuahuan Desert
347	shrubland also found that the relationship between ANPP and BNPP was weak and that
348	BNPP was unaffected by chronic N enrichment (Brown & Collins, 2023), indicating
349	that BNPP would be controlled by a different set of drivers than ANPP. Globally, ANPP
350	instead of BNPP is sensitive to climate variations (Sun et al. 2021), resulting in different
351	response patterns between ANPP and BNPP along climatic gradients. Our results
352	present further evidence for the differences of their responses along a gradient of soil
353	nutrient availability. The decoupling of ANPP and BNPP has great implications for
354	biogeochemical modeling works, because it would be more difficult to accurately
355	project the changes and contribution of BNPP based on the easily available ANPP data.
356	In addition, our results highlight the importance of viewing ecosystem productivity
357	from a whole-system perspective, and we can not simply predict the responses of total

NPP to N deposition based on above-ground results, which are more often examined inprevious studies.

360

Precipitation is one of key driving factors for plant growth in semi-arid ecosystems 361 (Hooper and Johnson, 1999; Wilcox et al., 2017), as it can stimulate plant growth 362 directly by providing water and indirectly by changing soil nutrient availability 363 (Huxman et al., 2004). In this study, we found that growing season precipitation had 364 365 direct and positive impacts on ANPP and BNPP (Fig. 5), especially at high N addition 366 rates. Moreover, higher growing season precipitation could release water limitation directly, and had indirect and positive effect on ANPP by alleviating the negative effect 367 of soil inorganic N accumulation in N-enriched grasslands. Given that the increased 368 ANPP in wet years would reduce temporal stability of ANPP in N-enriched grasslands 369 (Wang et al., 2017), our results also support the conclusion that precipitation 370 371 fluctuations drive ANPP and its temporal stability in N-enriched ecosystems. Both the direct and indirect impacts of precipitation on primary productivity are deserved more 372 373 attention under the scenarios of increasing N deposition and altering precipitation regime. 374

375

376 Conclusion

377 This study provides a whole-system perspective on the N saturation threshold of 378 primary productivity in a temperate steppe. We found that ecosystem total primary

productivity and its above- and below-ground components showed non-linear 379 responses to increasing N addition rates. The N saturation threshold of NPP occurs 380 381 earlier than that of ANPP, due to the decline of BNPP in N-saturated communities. As atmospheric N deposition is projected to continue increasing in developing countries, 382 383 our results suggest that models may overestimate ecosystem total primary productivity based only on ANPP. Our results also shed light on the controllers of NPP responses 384 under different N conditions by uncovering the role of soil inorganic N accumulation 385 in non-N-saturated communities and the role of soil inorganic N accumulation and 386 387 biodiversity loss in N-saturated communities. Given the importance of primary productivity in driving soil carbon storage in global ecosystems (Plaza et al., 2022), our 388 findings provide empirical footing for improving the biogeochemical models 389 390 forecasting ecosystem carbon sequestration ability under N deposition.

391

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### 399 Data availability statement

- The data that support the findings of this study will be openly available in a publicrepository after the acceptance of this manuscript.
- 402 Authors' contributions
- 403 XTL and XGH designed the experiment. XTL conceived the research idea. GJY and
- 404 ZJZ collected the data. GJY analyzed the data and wrote the first draft, XTL and CS
- 405 revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the development of the manuscript.

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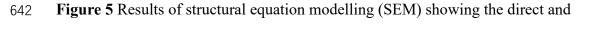
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625	Figure 1 (a) Potential driving factors for the responses of above-ground (ANPP),
626	below-ground (BNPP), and total net primary productivity (NPP) to increasing N
627	addition rates under different stages (I, II, and III); (b) Schematic illustration of the
628	occurrence of N saturation threshold of ANPP ( $T_A$ ), BNPP ( $T_B$ ), and NPP ( $T_N$ ).
629	Figure 2 Effects of different N addition rates on the concentration of soil inorganic
630	(a), soil pH (b), species richness (c), and litter biomass (d) in a temperate meadow
631	steppe. The soil data shown are averaged across four years (2017-2020) and plant data
632	shown are averaged across five years (2016-2020) as 16 replications $\pm$ SE. Different
633	letters indicate significant difference at $P < 0.05$ .
634	Figure 3 Changes of aboveground net primary productivity (ANPP), belowground net
635	primary productivity (BNPP), and net primary productivity (NPP) across a gradient of
636	N addition rate in a temperate meadow steppe. The data shown are the five year (2016-
637	2020) means with 16 replications $\pm$ SE.
638	

Figure 4 Relationships between above-ground and below-ground net primary
productivity under N0 to N5 treatment (a) and N10 to N50 treatment (b) from 2016 to
2020 in a temperate meadow steppe.



- 643 indirect effects of N enrichment and growing season precipitation (May to mid-
- 644 August) on aboveground net primary productivity (ANPP), belowground net primary
- 645 productivity (BNPP), and net primary productivity (NPP) from 2017 to 2020 under
- N0 to N5 treatment (a) and N10 to N50 treatment (b). Solid blue and red arrows
- 647 represent significant positive and negative correlation, respectively (asterisks denote

648 significant levels: \*,  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$ ; and \*\*\*,  $P \le 0.001$ , respectively), dashed

arrow represents marginal significant correlation (0.05 < P < 0.1). Arrow width is

- 650 proportional to the strength of the correlation. The numbers represent standardized
- path coefficients. Percentages next to endogenous variables indicate the variance
- 652 explained by the model  $(\mathbb{R}^2)$ .