

1 **Biophysical effects on the interannual variation in carbon**  
2 **dioxide exchange of an alpine meadow on the Tibetan Plateau**

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11  
12 **Abstract.** Eddy covariance measurements from 2012 to 2015 were used to investigate  
13 the interannual variation in carbon dioxide exchange and its control over an alpine  
14 meadow on the southeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau. The annual net ecosystem  
15 exchange (NEE) in the four years from 2012 to 2015 was -114.2, -158.5, -159.9 and  
16 -212.6 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, and generally decreased with the mean annual air  
17 temperature (MAT). An exception occurred in 2014, which had the highest MAT. This  
18 was attributed to higher ecosystem respiration (RE) and similar gross primary  
19 production (GPP) in 2014 because the GPP increased with the MAT, but became  
20 saturated due to the limit in photosynthetic capacity. In the spring (March to May) of  
21 2012, a low air temperature (T<sub>a</sub>) and drought events delayed grass germination and  
22 reduced GPP. In the late wet season (September to October) of 2012 and 2013, the  
23 low T<sub>a</sub> in September and its negative effects on vegetation growth caused earlier grass  
24 senescence and significantly lower GPP. This indicates that the seasonal pattern of T<sub>a</sub>  
25 has a substantial effect on the annual total GPP, which is consistent with results  
26 obtained using the homogeneity-of-slopes (HOS) model. The model results showed  
27 that the climatic seasonal variation explained 48.6% of the GPP variability, while the  
28 percentages explained by climatic interannual variation and the ecosystem functional  
29 change were 9.7 and 10.6%, respectively.

30  
31 **Keywords:** Carbon dioxide exchange; interannual variation; alpine meadow; Tibetan  
32 Plateau

33

## 34 **1 Introduction**

35 In the last decade, the carbon dioxide exchange in grassland ecosystems has  
36 attracted much attention (Aires et al., 2008; Baldocchi, 2008; Hunt et al., 2004;  
37 Suyker et al., 2003) because grasslands cover 32% of the global land surface and  
38 make a substantial contribution to the carbon cycle on a global scale (Parton et al.,  
39 1995). The annual net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of grasslands has a large range  
40 from -650 to 160 g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> due to climate variability and land use changes  
41 (Gilmanov et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2016a). The climatic factors controlling CO<sub>2</sub>  
42 exchange also vary under different climate conditions (Du and Liu, 2013; Fu et al.,  
43 2009; Xu and Baldocchi, 2004). Most previous studies have focused on low-lying  
44 grasslands (Gilmanov et al., 2010).

45 Alpine meadows in China are the primary grassland type of the nation and are  
46 mainly distributed in the Qinghai-Tibetan plateau (DAHV and CISNR, 1996; Liu et  
47 al., 2008). The warming trend in high-altitude areas, such as the Tibetan Plateau and  
48 its southeast margin, has been observed to be more pronounced (Fan et al., 2011; Liu  
49 and Chen, 2000). Several studies of CO<sub>2</sub> exchange on the Qinghai-Tibetan plateau  
50 have been performed, where the mean annual air temperature (T<sub>a</sub>) is approximately  
51 0°C (Gu et al., 2003; Kato et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2006). The daily  
52 CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes of the alpine meadow-steppe in Damxung, Tibet were shown to be jointly  
53 affected by T<sub>a</sub> and soil moisture (Fu et al., 2009), while the daily CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes of an  
54 alpine shrubland at Haibei, Qinghai were found to be sensitive to T<sub>a</sub> (Zhao et al.,  
55 2006). On an annual scale, the measurements at the Haibei alpine meadow revealed  
56 that the annual CO<sub>2</sub> uptake was increased by the earlier onset of the growing season,  
57 which was caused by higher T<sub>a</sub> (Kato et al., 2006). The Lijiang alpine meadow is  
58 located in a much warmer area (the mean annual T<sub>a</sub> is 12.7°C). A spring drought event  
59 and relatively low soil moisture was shown to significantly delay the start time of  
60 grass germination and reduce the annual CO<sub>2</sub> uptake (Wang et al., 2016b). How the  
61 annual CO<sub>2</sub> exchange responds to the mean annual T<sub>a</sub> is not clear for alpine meadow  
62 ecosystems.

63 Previous studies have attributed year-to-year changes in CO<sub>2</sub> exchange to climatic  
64 variability (Hui et al., 2003; Xu and Baldocchi, 2004). Fluxes may directly respond to  
65 climatic drivers or be indirectly affected by functional changes or changes in the  
66 flux-climate relationships (Polley et al., 2008). Statistical models have been used to  
67 partition the interannual variation (IAV) of the CO<sub>2</sub> exchange (Hui et al., 2003;

68 Richardson et al., 2007; Teklemariam et al., 2010). For example, Shao et al. (2014)  
69 found that 77% of the observed variation in NEE was explained by functional changes  
70 in the moist grassland in USA, while variations in climatic variables could better  
71 explain the IAV of NEE of a meadow in Denmark and (Jensen et al., 2017) and  
72 mixed-grass prairies in the semiarid area of USA (Polley et al., 2008). The relative  
73 importance of the direct and indirect effects of the climatic variables on the  
74 interannual variations in CO<sub>2</sub> exchange for alpine meadows in China has not been  
75 quantified.

76 The CO<sub>2</sub> exchange between the atmosphere and the Lijiang alpine meadow was  
77 measured using an eddy covariance technique from 2012 to 2015. The objectives of  
78 this study were to: (1) examine the seasonal and interannual variation in NEE, gross  
79 primary production (GPP), ecosystem respiration (RE), and the parameters of  
80 ecosystem photosynthesis and RE; (2) investigate the main environmental controls of  
81 the total GPP, RE and NEE on seasonal and annual scales; and (3) partition the  
82 interannual variation in GPP, RE, and NEE into climatic variability and vegetation  
83 growth.

84

## 85 **2 Observation site and methods**

### 86 **2.1 Observation site**

87 The observation site (27°10'N, 100°14'E, 3,560 m a.s.l.) is located at Maoniuping  
88 in the Yulong Snow Mountains, to the north of Lijiang City on the southeast margin of  
89 the Tibetan Plateau, China. The study area has a plateau monsoon climate, which is  
90 influenced by the southwest and southeast monsoons. There are distinct wet and dry  
91 seasons with a wet season from June to October. The 30-year mean annual total  
92 precipitation (1981-2010) at Lijiang City (2,400 m a.s.l.) is 980.3 mm, and 85% of the  
93 precipitation is concentrated in the wet season. The 30-year mean annual air  
94 temperature (MAT) is 12.6°C (data from the Lijiang Meteorology Bureau). The  
95 dominant species in this alpine meadow are *Kobresia Willd* grass, with a maximum  
96 height of 20 cm, and *Berberis Linn* shrub, with a maximum height of more than 60 cm.  
97 The surface is covered by green vegetation, litter and bare soil. The soil type is a loam,  
98 with a dark brown color, which has a lower reflectance than the grass canopy (Guo et  
99 al., 2009).

100

### 101 **2.2 Field measurements and normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI)**

102 The eddy covariance (EC) system was used to measure 3-D wind speed and the  
103 H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at a height of 2.5 m, with a 10 Hz frequency. The system  
104 consisted of a three-dimensional sonic anemometer (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific,  
105 Logan, UT, USA) and an open-path CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O infrared gas analyzer (LI-7500A,  
106 LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). The low response measurements (1/3 Hz frequency)  
107 made in this study were T<sub>a</sub> and relative humidity at a height of 2.5 m close to the EC  
108 system (HMP45C, Campbell Scientific). Net radiation (including shortwave and  
109 longwave radiation, CNR4, Kipp&Zonen, Delft, Netherlands) and photosynthetically  
110 active radiation (PAR) (LI190SB, LI-COR) were measured at 1.5 m. Soil temperature  
111 (109-L, Campbell Scientific) and soil water content (SWC) (CS616, Campbell  
112 Scientific) were measured at a depth of 5 cm below the ground. The precipitation  
113 (including solid precipitation in the winter) was measured using a weighing bucket  
114 precipitation gauge (T-200B, Geonor, Eiksmarka, Norway). All measurements were  
115 controlled by a data logger (CR3000, Campbell Scientific), and the data were stored  
116 on a 2-GB CF card.

117 Four points around the flux tower were selected to investigate the variations in  
118 vegetation growth. The 250×250 m<sup>2</sup> gridded NDVI data at 16-day intervals (product  
119 name: MOD13Q1) for the four points were obtained from the Moderate Resolution  
120 Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS) on the EOS-1Terra satellite and were averaged to  
121 represent the meadow at this observation site. Observations affected by clouds were  
122 removed during this process, and the gaps were filled linearly.

123

### 124 **2.3 Flux calculation and quality control**

125 EddyPro software (version 5.1, LI-COR) was used to calculate the half-hourly CO<sub>2</sub>  
126 flux based on the 10 Hz raw data. After a spike detection (Vickers and Mahrt, 1997),  
127 the sector-wise planar fit method was used to transform the coordinate system due to a  
128 terrain slope of approximately 10° (Wilczak et al., 2001). The CO<sub>2</sub> flux was also  
129 subjected to a spectral loss correction (Moore 1996,) and density correction (WPL  
130 correction) (Webb et al., 1980).

131 Stationary and integral turbulence characteristics tests were used for flux quality  
132 control (Foken and Wichura, 1996). When u\* was less than 0.1 m s<sup>-1</sup>, the CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
133 was dependent on u\* and was discarded. Because there was a coniferous forest  
134 approximately 350 m to the north of the site, an analytical footprint model was used to  
135 determine whether the half-hourly CO<sub>2</sub> flux was influenced by the forest and needed

136 to be removed (Kormann and Meixner, 2001).

137 After quality control, approximately 70% of the CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes were subjected to  
138 further analysis. Linear interpolation was used to fill flux gaps of less than two hours.  
139 To fill gaps of longer than two hours, marginal distribution sampling, an improved  
140 'look up table' method, was used (Falge et al., 2001; Lloyd and Taylor, 1994).

141

142 **2.4 Data analysis** Using the homogeneity-of-slopes (HOS) model (Hui et al.,  
143 2003), the control of the CO<sub>2</sub> exchanges (NEE, GPP and RE) was statistically  
144 partitioned into four components: the interannual variation of environmental variables  
145 (SS<sub>i</sub>), the seasonal variation of environmental variables (SS<sub>s</sub>), variations of biological  
146 variables (SS<sub>f</sub>, NDVI in this study), and random error (SS<sub>e</sub>, resulting from  
147 measurement and analysis random error). To identify the significant control variables,  
148 a multiple stepwise regression analysis of the CO<sub>2</sub> exchanges with environmental  
149 variables was conducted using SPSS 12.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL,  
150 USA). The environmental variables that were significantly correlated with fluxes were  
151 submitted for further HOS analysis, while the others were excluded from the analysis.  
152 To minimize errors, the daily NEE, GPP, and RE was excluded from regressions if  
153 more than 50% of the data points in the daytime ( $R_n > 5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ) were missing. More  
154 details of the HOS model are provided in Hui et al. (2003).

155 The relationship between daytime NEE (NEE<sub>daytime</sub>) and PAR was described by the  
156 Michaelis-Menten model (Falge et al., 2001):

$$157 \quad NEE_{daytime} = \frac{\alpha NEE_{sat} PAR}{\alpha PAR + NEE_{sat}} + RE_{bulk} \quad (1)$$

158 where NEE<sub>sat</sub> is the NEE at the saturated light level,  $\alpha$  is the apparent quantum yield  
159 ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ photons}$ ), and RE<sub>bulk</sub> is the bulk estimated RE.

160 The Van't Hoff equation was used to evaluate the relationship between the  
161 nighttime NEE (NEE<sub>nighttime</sub>,  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and soil temperature at a depth of 5  
162 cm ( $T_s$ , °C) (Aires et al., 2008):

$$163 \quad NEE_{nighttime} = a \exp(bT_s) \quad (2)$$

164 where a and b are the regression parameters. The temperature sensitivity coefficient  
165 ( $Q_{10}$ ) of RE was determined using the following equation.

$$166 \quad Q_{10} = \exp(10b) \quad (3)$$

167 The partitioning of NEE into GPP and RE was based on the assumption that the

168 sensitivity of RE to soil temperature was the same during the day and at night (Falge  
169 et al., 2001). The regression parameters derived from the nighttime data were  
170 extrapolated to the daytime to calculate the daytime RE and the daily RE. The daily  
171 GPP was calculated as follows:

$$172 \quad GPP = RE - NEE \quad (4)$$

173

### 174 **3 Results**

#### 175 **3.1 Weather conditions and NDVI**

176 The daily integrated solar radiation ( $S_{in}$ ) varied from 1.15 to 32.40 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>  
177 (Figure 1a). The mean  $S_{in}$  in spring (March to May) was 17.0 to 19.93 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and  
178 was clearly larger than in other seasons. In the wet season, the mean  $S_{in}$  was 9.99 to  
179 11.05 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

180 The MAT was 5.92 to 6.32 °C (Table 1). The daily mean  $T_a$  ranged from 0.41 to  
181 14.96 °C in the wet season and decreased to a minimum value of -9.06 °C in the winter.  
182 In contrast, the soil temperature never decreased below 0 °C, and the maximum value  
183 was 16.48 °C (Figure 1b). The vapor pressure deficit (VPD) reached its maximum  
184 value of 1.07 kPa before the wet season (Figure 1c). The VPD decreased to near 0 kPa,  
185 and the mean VPD for the wet season was 0.125 to 0.166 kPa.

186 The annual precipitation from 2012 to 2015 ranged from 1066.1 to 1257.4 mm. The  
187 precipitation during the wet season ranged from 906.1 to 1092.6 mm, accounting for  
188 85 to 91% of the annual total precipitation (Table 1). The mean annual SWC had a  
189 small interannual variability, from 0.227 to 0.233 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>. In the wet season, the SWC  
190 reached a maximum value of approximately 0.35 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>, and the minimum SWC was  
191 0.15 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> (Figure 1d).

192 The NDVI of this alpine meadow displayed a clear seasonal and interannual  
193 variation (Figure 1e). The NDVI exceeded 0.4 at the end of April or in late May,  
194 depending on the amount and distribution of precipitation in the spring (March to  
195 May). The maximum NDVI for each year ranged from 0.60 (2012) to 0.72 (2013). In  
196 all four years, the NDVI decreased below 0.4 at the end of October.

197

#### 198 **3.2 Seasonal and interannual variations in $NEE_{sat}$ , $\alpha$ and $Q_{10}$**

199 The daytime NEE and PAR were averaged, with PAR bins of 100  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  to  
200 avoid random errors. For each month in the wet season, the daytime NEE decreased

201 with PAR until a critical PAR was reached. Above the critical PAR, the daytime NEE  
202 increased and the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake was depressed (Figure 2a). To derive NEE<sub>sat</sub> and  $\alpha$ , the  
203 NEE and PAR data were used only when PAR was below the critical value. NEE<sub>sat</sub>  
204 showed a clear seasonal variation (Table 2). The mean NEE<sub>sat</sub> values for each month  
205 showed that NEE<sub>sat</sub> began to increase in June (-11.59  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and reached a  
206 maximum in August (-20.14  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). The highest NEE<sub>sat</sub> during the whole  
207 observation period occurred in August of 2014 (-23.75  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). NEE<sub>sat</sub> then  
208 declined with grass senescence in September and October. The NEE<sub>sat</sub> in October  
209 (-9.36  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) was less than half that in August. The interannual variations in  
210 NEE<sub>sat</sub> were also large. For example, NEE<sub>sat</sub> in September 2015 (-21.44  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )  
211 was almost twice that in September 2013 (-11.43  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; Table 2). On a monthly  
212 scale, 81% of the variation in NEE<sub>sat</sub> could be explained by the mean NDVI (Figure  
213 2b). Over this meadow, NEE<sub>sat</sub> did not significantly correlate with SWC because the  
214 soil water conditions were always good in the wet season.

215 At monthly intervals, there were large random errors in the regression between RE  
216 and T<sub>soil</sub>. For example, the R<sup>2</sup> for each month of the wet season in 2012 ranged from  
217 0.04 to 0.12. Thus, in 2012, the data in the wet and dry season were combined to fit  
218 the regression (Figure 3a). The Q<sub>10</sub> in the wet seasons was similar, approximately 3.45  
219 (Table 3), which was in the normal range of previous studies (1.2 to 3.7; Falge et al.,  
220 2001). These values were clearly higher than those for temperate grasslands (1.99 to  
221 3.07; Wang et al., 2016a), Mediterranean grasslands (1.22 to 2.36; Airstet et al., 2008)  
222 and the Haibei alpine meadow (1.50 to 2.27; Kato et al., 2004). Q<sub>10</sub> was lower in the  
223 dry season than in the wet season.

224

### 225 **3.3 Seasonal and interannual variation in NEE, GPP, and RE**

226 The ecosystem started to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> (negative value of NEE) on DOY 165 in 2012,  
227 DOY 137 in 2013, DOY 116 in 2014, and DOY 104 in 2015, and then NEE decreased  
228 (Figure 4). The minimum daily NEE for each year occurred in July or August (-3.52 g  
229 C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> on DOY 196 in 2012, -3.35 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> on DOY 218 in 2013, -3.43 g C m<sup>-2</sup>  
230 d<sup>-1</sup> on DOY 243 in 2014, and -4.16 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> on DOY 210 in 2015). NEE increased  
231 significantly in September and became positive on DOY 293 in 2012, DOY 305 in  
232 2013, DOY 295 in 2014 and DOY 297 in 2015. The maximum difference in the start  
233 time of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake was 61 days while the difference in the end time was 12 days. The  
234 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake period was much shorter in 2012 (129 days) than in 2013 (169 days),

235 2014 (180days) and 2015 (194 days).

236 The daily GPP increase started earlier than CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. The seasonal pattern of  
237 daily GPP was similar to that of NEE, although the amplitude of GPP variations was  
238 larger than that of NEE variations. The maximum daily GPP for each year was 6.02,  
239 5.47, 6.23 and 5.95 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for the four years from 2012 to 2015, respectively.  
240 Compared with the NEE and GPP, the seasonal variation in RE was smaller during the  
241 wet season. In particular, RE varied only slightly from June to August.

242 The annual GPP in 2014 and 2015 was clearly higher than in 2012 and 2013, as  
243 indicated by the larger NDVI (Figure 5; Table 1, 4). In contrast, the RE in 2014 was  
244 the highest of all four years because, although the Q<sub>10</sub> value was similar to the other  
245 years, it had the highest T<sub>a</sub> (Table 1). Therefore, the annual NEE in 2014 was similar  
246 to that in 2013, but lower than that in 2015, although the GPP was similar in 2014 and  
247 2015. The spring drought resulted in a significantly lower NDVI in 2012 than in the  
248 other years; consequently, the annual GPP in 2012 was the lowest of all four years.  
249 The annual NEE for the four years followed the order of 2015<2014<2013<2012  
250 (Table 4), which is consistent with the length of the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake period.

251

## 252 **4 Discussion**

### 253 **4.1 Partitioning the interannual variation in CO<sub>2</sub> exchange**

254 The HOS model was used to partition the interannual variation (IAV) in CO<sub>2</sub>  
255 exchange into climatic variability and ecosystem functional change, which was  
256 reflected by the variability of the flux-climate relationship among years (Hui et al.,  
257 2003). During the wet season, the daily NEE, GPP and RE were mainly related to T<sub>a</sub>  
258 (Figure 6). The effect of PAR on NEE and GPP was very weak, with R values of -0.05  
259 and 0.08, respectively.

260 A separate-slopes model was constructed for each year, and the multiple regression  
261 model was based on data from the observational period. Compared with the multiple  
262 regression model, the separate-slopes model substantially improved the NEE  
263 estimation, with R<sup>2</sup> increasing from 0.69 in the multiple regression model to 0.79 in  
264 the separate-slopes model. This means that the separate-slopes model accounted for  
265 10.3% more variation in the observed NEE than the multiple regression model, which  
266 was attributed to the functional change (SS<sub>f</sub>). The other 89.7% of the variation in the  
267 observed NEE was partitioned to interannual climatic variability (SS<sub>i</sub>, 7.7%), seasonal  
268 climatic variation (SS<sub>s</sub>, 37.7%), and random error (SS<sub>e</sub>, 44.3%) (Table 5). Therefore,



269 most of the IAV in NEE, GPP and RE was attributable to the variation in climatic  
270 variables, in particular, climatic seasonal variation. This is in line with the findings  
271 reported for a *Skjern* meadow in Denmark and a temperate ombrotrophic bog in  
272 Canada (Jensen et al., 2017; Teklemariam et al., 2010). In contrast, Braswell et al.  
273 (1997) and Shao et al. (2014) found that functional change, rather than the direct  
274 effects of IAV in climate, accounted for more IAV in fluxes. Moreover, the  
275 contributions of different drivers to the IAV in GPP was similar to that of NEE, while  
276 the functional change in RE was twice that of NEE and GPP. The  $R^2$  values for NEE,  
277 GPP and RE in the multiple regression model were 0.44, 0.53 and 0.59, respectively.  
278 It was considered reasonable that the largest random error was recorded for NEE.

279

#### 280 **4.2 Control of the interannual variation in the CO<sub>2</sub> exchange**

281 To examine the interannual variation in CO<sub>2</sub> exchange, the cumulative NEE, GPP,  
282 and RE in 2013, 2014 and 2015 was compared with the corresponding values in 2012  
283 (Figure 7). The cumulative NEE<sub>diff</sub> (the difference in NEE) values for 2014-2012 and  
284 2015-2012 increased rapidly in spring and autumn. In summer, the differences among  
285 2012, 2014, and 2015 varied slightly. The cumulative NEE<sub>diff</sub> for 2013-2012 increased  
286 from April until early August. These patterns were similar to those for GPP<sub>diff</sub>.  
287 However, the annual cumulative GPP<sub>diff</sub> (24.3 to 147.2 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) was relatively  
288 larger than the annual cumulative NEE<sub>diff</sub> (-44.2 to -98.3 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). The cumulative  
289 RE<sub>diff</sub> decreased from DOY 1 and then increased in spring. The cumulative RE<sub>diff</sub> for  
290 2013-2012 and 2015-2012 reached its maximum at the end of June, while the  
291 cumulative RE<sub>diff</sub> for 2014-2012 increased throughout the entire year, and was the  
292 largest of all the periods considered.

293 The daily CO<sub>2</sub> uptake over this meadow ecosystem has previously been shown to  
294 increase with T<sub>a</sub> (Wang et al., 2016). Especially in the spring (March to May), the  
295 temperature affected the vegetation growth and GPP. From March to May, the  
296 cumulative T<sub>a</sub> was 592.3, 577.1, 633.1, and 647.6°C in the four years from 2012 to  
297 2015, respectively. Consequently, the cumulative GPP in the spring increased in the  
298 order of 2015>2014>2013. The exception was that the spring of 2012 had a higher T<sub>a</sub>,  
299 but a lower GPP than the spring of 2013. Compared with the GPP in 2013, the GPP in  
300 2012 increased more significantly due to the higher T<sub>a</sub> from March to April. However,  
301 the drought in May 2012 delayed vegetation growth and reduced GPP. The difference  
302 in GPP<sub>cum</sub> for 2013-2012, 2014-2012 and 2015-2012 at the end of May was 20.0, 63.1

303 and  $83.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2}$ , representing 82.6, 42.9, and 59.7% of the difference for the entire  
304 year, respectively.

305 From July to October, the NEE, GPP, and RE were all strongly correlated with  $T_a$   
306 on a monthly scale ( $R^2=0.84, 0.86$  and  $0.73$ , respectively) (Figures 9a, b, c). The slope  
307 of the relationship between GPP and  $T_a$  was much larger than for that between RE and  
308  $T_a$ , indicating that when  $T_a$  increased, the alpine meadow ecosystem absorbed more  
309  $\text{CO}_2$ . The monthly GPP in July and August varied slightly among the four years, while  
310 the interannual variability of the GPP in September was the largest because the  
311 monthly mean  $T_a$  in September for 2012 ( $8.6^\circ\text{C}$ ) and 2013( $8.8^\circ\text{C}$ ) was significantly  
312 lower than those for 2014( $9.7^\circ\text{C}$ ) and 2015( $10.0^\circ\text{C}$ ). Consequently, the difference in  
313  $\text{GPP}_{\text{cum}}$  for 2014-2012 and 2015-2012 from September to October was  $55.2$  and  $48.2$   
314  $\text{g C m}^{-2}$ , representing 37.5 and 34.6% of the difference for the entire year.

315 On the annual scale, the annual total NEE decreased with the MAT in 2012, 2013,  
316 and 2015 and then increased when the MAT was highest in 2014. The reason for this  
317 was that the annual total RE increased linearly with the MAT ( $R^2=0.97$ ), while the  
318 relationship between the GPP and MAT was non-linear (Figure 9d). The GPP became  
319 saturated as the MAT increased. In contrast, the annual NEE increased with the MAT  
320 in the Haibei alpine meadow, which is in line with previous studies showing that the  
321 annual NEE is comprehensively controlled by the temperature environment (Kato et  
322 al., 2006).

323

### 324 **4.3 Comparison of annual $\text{CO}_2$ exchange with other sites**

325 The annual GPP at the study site was much larger than that reported in semiarid  
326 grasslands in Tibet and Canada (Flanagan et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2006), but much  
327 lower than that reported in moist grasslands in low-lying areas in Europe (Table 7). In  
328 China, the annual GPP for semiarid grasslands and the Haibei alpine meadow  
329 increased tightly with the annual precipitation ( $R^2=0.94$ ) (Figure 10). With similar  
330 annual precipitation, the annual GPP of the Damxung site was much lower than the  
331 Haibei site possibly because of higher elevation. When the annual precipitation  
332 increase further to over  $1000 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$ , the annual GPP stayed steadily (Figure 10).  
333 The annual GPP for the grassland ecosystems in China was always below  $700 \text{ g C m}^{-2}$   
334  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ .

335 In addition to temperature effects, the daily RE was also correlated with the daily  
336 GPP ( $\text{RE}=0.44\text{GPP}+0.63$ ,  $R^2=0.82$ ) during the wet season from 2012 to 2015. Due to

337 the high elevation and low soil temperature in the summer, the percentage of RE to  
338 GPP for this meadow site was lower than for Mediterranean grasslands  
339 ( $RE=0.53GPP+0.72$ ,  $R^2=0.85$ , Aires et al., (2008);  $RE=0.47GPP+1.33$ ,  $R^2=0.85$ , Xu  
340 and Baldocchi, (2004)). The low level of RE resulted in a similar or even lower  
341 annual NEE (mean value:  $-161 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) at Lijiang than in moist grasslands with a  
342 low elevation (Table 7). For example, the mean annual NEE for a meadow in  
343 Denmark (annual precipitation: 809 mm) was  $-156 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , while the mean  
344 annual NEE for a C3/C4 grassland in Japan (annual precipitation: 1156 mm) was  $-17$   
345  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The ratio of RE to GPP ranged from 0.69 to 0.79 over the Lijiang alpine  
346 meadow, which was lower than the Haibei alpine meadow (Table 7). This is the  
347 reason why the annual NEE of the Lijiang site was on average 25% lower than at the  
348 Haibei site. In general, low RE/GPP ratios occurred in high-altitude and moist areas.  
349 The alpine meadow ecosystem (Lijiang and Haibei) had a lower RE/GPP ratio than  
350 most low-lying grasslands. Compared with semiarid grasslands (RE/GPP:  
351 approximately 1.0), the RE/GPP ratios reported in moist grasslands are much lower, e.  
352 g. a sown grassland in The Netherlands (0.60) and a natural grassland in Italy (0.59)  
353 (Gilmanov et al., 2007).

354

## 355 **5 Conclusions**

356 The four-year EC data from 2012 to 2015 were used to investigate the interannual  
357 variation in the NEE, GPP, and RE. The key parameters for ecosystem photosynthesis  
358 and respiration were determined for the different seasons of each year. The vegetation  
359 growth (NDVI) controlled  $NEE_{\text{sat}}$  on a monthly scale, and the interannual variation in  
360  $Q_{10}$  for the wet and dry seasons was small. The seasonal variation in  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange  
361 was affected by the seasonal pattern of  $T_a$  and the soil moisture in the spring. In the  
362 spring, low  $T_a$  and drought events delayed the start time of  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake. In the late wet  
363 season, the higher  $T_a$  in 2014 and 2015 resulted in later grass senescence and  $\text{CO}_2$   
364 release. The annual NEE decreased with the length of the  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake period, but its  
365 relationship with the NDVI was not significant. For this alpine meadow, the HOS  
366 model suggests that most of the IAV in NEE, GPP and RE was attributed to the  
367 seasonal variation in climatic variables. On an annual scale, the annual RE increased  
368 linearly with the MAT, while the annual GPP became saturated when the MAT  
369 increased from  $6.16^\circ\text{C}$  to  $6.32^\circ\text{C}$ . Thus, the annual NEE decreased and then increased  
370 with the MAT. The low RE/GPP ratio at the study site was responsible for the lower

371 annual NEE compared with some other grassland ecosystems with a larger GPP.

372

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377 their help in the maintenance of the measurements.

378

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490

491 Table 1 The average value of daily solar radiation ( $S_{in}$ ,  $MJ\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ ), the mean annual air  
 492 temperature ( $T_a$ ,  $^{\circ}C$ ), the mean annual vapor pressure deficit (VPD, kPa), the mean annual soil  
 493 water content (SWC,  $m^3\ m^{-3}$ ), the total amounts of precipitation (PPT, mm) for the whole year and  
 494 the wet season, and the maximum value of NDVI for each year from 2011 to 2015

variables	2012	2013	2014	2015
$S_{in}$	14.23	14.40	14.44	14.59
$T_a$	5.93	5.92	6.32	6.16
VPD	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.30
SWC	0.232	0.227	0.232	0.233
PPT (whole year)	1190.4	1066.1	1204.8	1257.4
PPT (wet season)	1086.5	906.1	1092.6	1067.1
$NDVI_{max}$	0.60	0.68	0.72	0.72

495

496



497 Table 2 The ecosystem photosynthesis parameters using equation (1) ( $NEE_{sat}$ :  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\alpha$ :  
 498  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $R^2$ ) and NDVI for each month during the wet seasons from 2012 to 2015. The  
 499 regression was based on the average values of  $NEE_{daytime}$  and PAR with PAR bins of  $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$   
 500  $\text{s}^{-1}$ .  $NEE_{sat}^{(a)}$  represents the mean value and the standard deviation,  $NEE_{sat}^{(b)}$  and  $NEE_{sat}^{(c)}$   
 501 represent the maximum and minimum values of  $NEE_{sat}$  for each month.

Month	$NEE_{sat}^a$	$NEE_{sat}^b$	$NEE_{sat}^c$	$\alpha$	$RE_{bulk}$
June	-11.59±2.45	-9.69	-15.08	-0.037±0.009	3.59±0.52
July	-19.67±1.54	-17.46	-21	-0.050±0.009	3.75±0.83
August	-20.14±3.52	-15.43	-23.75	-0.055±0.016	4.15±0.74
September	-16.44±4.56	-11.43	-21.44	-0.051±0.017	3.70±1.04
October	-9.36±1.62	-7.08	-10.9	-0.031±0.005	2.45±0.37

502

503

504 Table 3 The ecosystem respiration parameters using equation (2, 3) (a:  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , b,  $Q_{10}$ ,  $R^2$ ) for  
 505 the wet and dry seasons from 2012 to 2015. The regression was based on the average values of RE  
 506 and  $T_{\text{soil}}$  with  $T_{\text{soil}}$  bins of  $1^\circ\text{C}$

Season	year	a	b	$Q_{10}$	$R^2$
Wet season	2012	0.437	0.125	3.48	0.98
	2013	0.374	0.124	3.46	0.94
	2014	0.442	0.126	3.51	0.98
	2015	0.433	0.123	3.43	0.98
Dry season	2012	0.338	0.081	2.25	0.78
	2013	0.202	0.096	2.60	0.74
	2014	0.283	0.115	3.15	0.99
	2015	0.313	0.104	2.82	0.70

507

508

509 Table 4 The annual total NEE, GPP and RE ( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) for each year from 2012 to 2015

	2012	2013	2014	2015
NEE	-114.2	-158.5	-159.9	-212.6
GPP	522.3	546.5	669.4	661.8
RE	412.1	393.6	515.2	456.7

510

511

512 Table 5 The percentage of the contributions of the seasonal climatic variation ( $SS_s$ ), interannual  
513 climatic variability ( $SS_i$ ), the ecosystem functional change ( $SS_f$ ), and random error ( $SS_e$ ) to the  
514 interannual variations in NEE, GPP and RE

	$SS_s$	$SS_i$	$SS_f$	$SS_e$
NEE	37.7%	7.7%	10.3%	44.3%
GPP	48.6%	9.7%	10.7%	31.0%
RE	48.6%	15.6%	21.2%	14.6%

515

516

517 Table 6 The  $GPP_{diff}$  for 2013-2012, 2014-2012 and 2015-2012 during the periods from March to  
 518 May, June, from June to July, from August to September

Periods	$GPP_{diff}$		
	2013-2012	2014-2012	2015-2012
March to May	20.0	63.1 (43%)	83.3 (60%)
June	28.7	13.4 (9%)	23.7 (17%)
July to August	-8.7	14.2 (10%)	-18.5 (-13%)
September to October	-12.0	55.2 (38%)	48.2 (35%)
Entire year	24.2	147.1	139.5

519

520

Table 7 Comparison of mean annual temperature (MAT, °C), mean annual precipitation (MAP, mm yr<sup>-1</sup>), NEE (g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), GPP, RE and RE/GPP between this study and previous grassland studies

References/ Location	Ecosystem Description	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude	MAT	MAP	NEE	GPP	RE	RE/GPP
This study/ Lijiang, China	Alpine meadow/shrub	27°10'N	100°14'E	3560	6.1	1180	-161 (-213 to -114)	600 (522 to 669)	444 (394 to 515)	0.74 (0.69 to 0.79)
Yu et al., (2006)/ Damxung, China	Alpine meadow	30°51'N	90°05'E	4250	2.1	520	28 (16 and 39)	167 (144 and 190)	195 (183 and 206)	1.16 (1.08 and 1.27)
Kato et al., (2006)/ Haibei, China	Alpine shrub	37°37'N	101°18'E	3250	-1.0	566	-121 (-193 to -79)	634 (575 to 681)	514 (489 to 556)	0.81 (0.72 to 0.86)
Shimoda et al., (2005)/ Japan	C3/C4 grassland	36°06'N	140°06'E	27	13.9	1156	-17 (-78 to 17)	2365 (2285 to 2426)	2348 (2303 to 2392)	0.99 (0.97 to 1.01)
Aires et al., (2008)/ Portugal	Mediterranean grassland	38°28'N	8°01'E	140	15.5	669	-71 (-190 and 49)	893 (524 and 1261)	822 (573 and 1071)	0.92 (0.85 and 1.09)
Jensen et al., (2017)/ Denmark	Meadow	55°55'N	8°24'E	0	8.7	809	-156 (-356 to -18)	1349 (1147 to 1570)	1193 (1069 to 1406)	0.88 (0.75 to 0.98)
Gilmanov et al., (2007)/ Europe	Multiple (19 sites)	-	-	-0.7 to 1770	3.9 to 14.6	387 to 1816	-150 (-653 to 171)	1261 (467 to 1874)	1111 (493 to 1622)	0.90 (0.59 to 1.14)
Xu and Baldocchi, (2004)/ USA	Mediterranean grassland	38°24'N	120°57'E	129	16.3	559	-52 (-132 and 29)	798 (729 and 867)	747 (735 and 758)	0.94 (0.85 and 1.04)
Flanagan et al., (2002)/ Canada	Temperate grassland	49°26'N	112°34'E	951	-	378	-2 (-21 and 18)	280 (272 and 287)	278 (267 and 290)	1.0 (0.93 and 1.07)

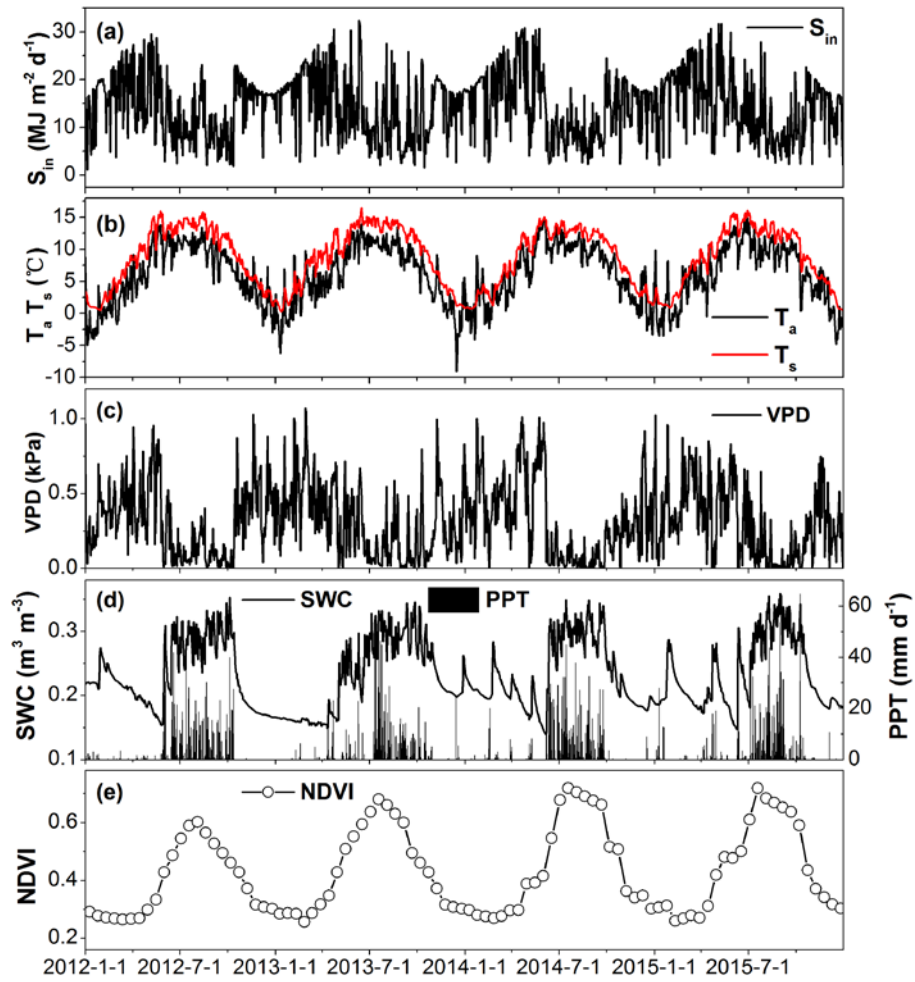


Figure 1 (a) daily sum of solar radiation ( $S_{in}$ ), daily mean (b) air temperature ( $T_a$ ), soil temperature ( $T_s$ ), (c) vapor pressure deficit (VPD, 5 cm) and (d) soil water content (SWC, 5 cm), daily total precipitation (PPT), (e) 16-day average normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) from 2012 to 2015.

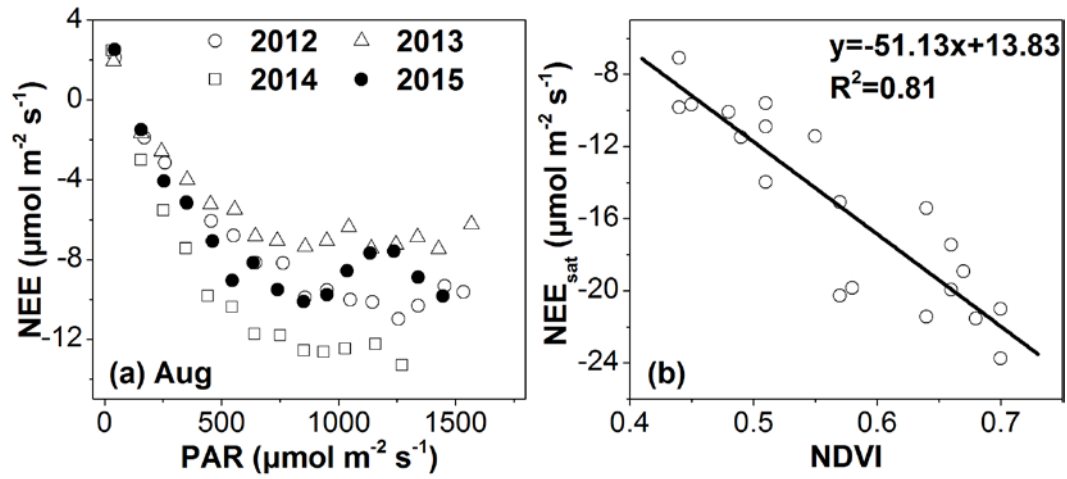


Figure 2 The relationship between daytime NEE and PAR (a) for August from 2012 to 2015. The NEE and PAR data were averaged with PAR bins of  $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . (b) the relationship between  $\text{NEE}_{\text{sat}}$  and NDVI on a monthly scale.



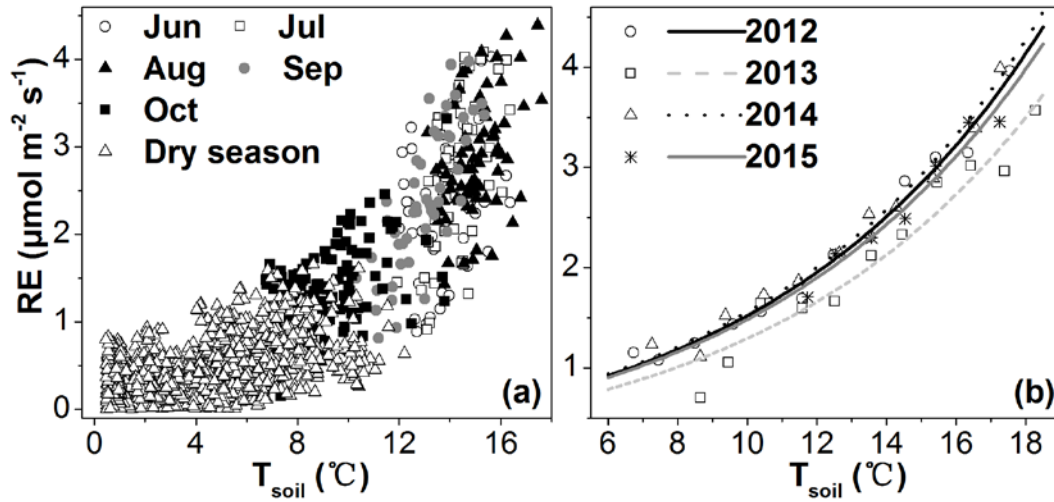


Figure 3 (a) relationship between RE and  $T_{\text{soil}}$  in 2012; (b) relationship between RE and  $T_{\text{soil}}$  for the wet season from 2012 to 2015; RE and  $T_{\text{soil}}$  were averaged with  $T_{\text{soil}}$  bins of 1  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

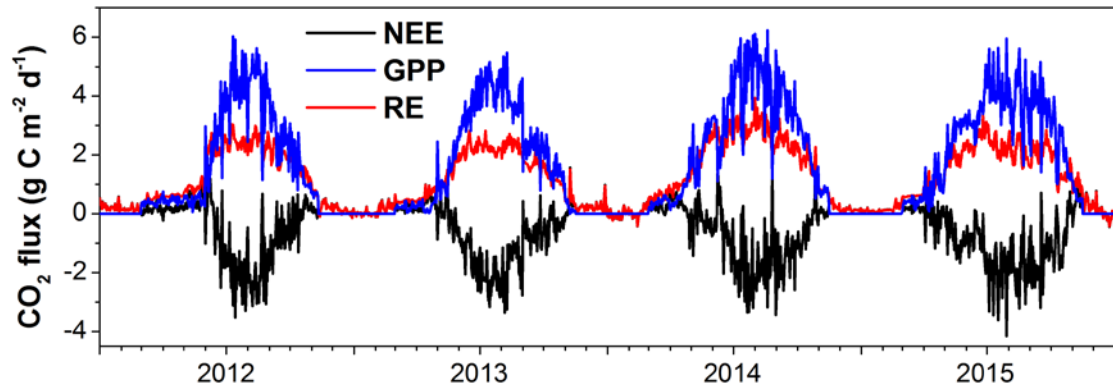


Figure 4 The daily mean NEE, GPP and RE from 2012 to 2015

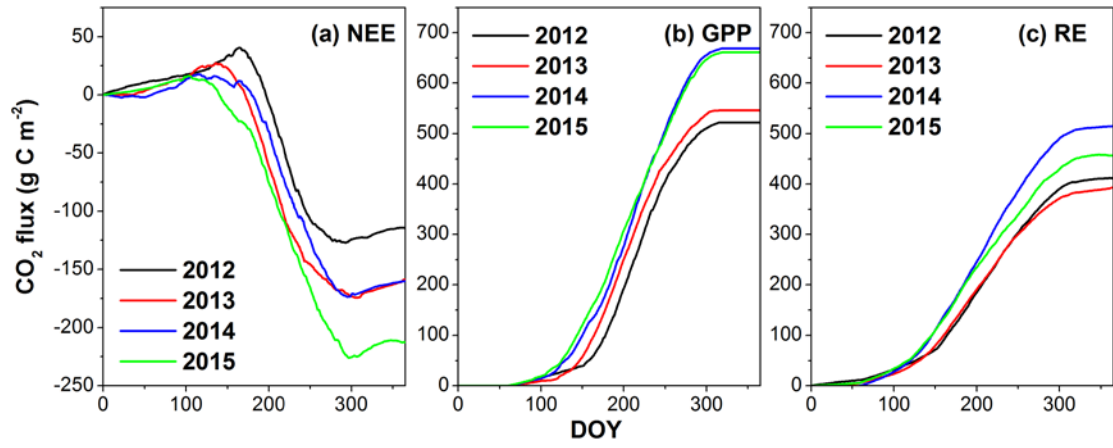


Figure 5 The cumulative NEE, GPP and RE from 2012 to 2015

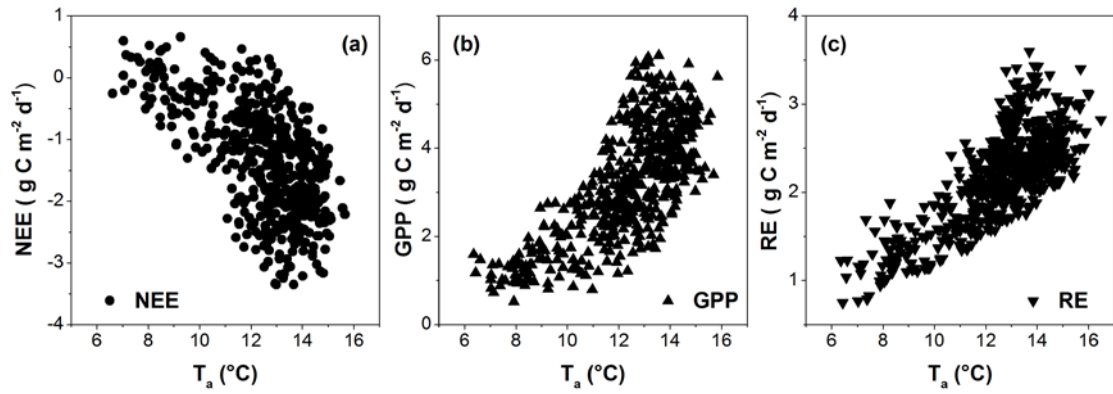


Figure 6 Relationships between (a) NEE and  $T_a$ , (b) GPP and  $T_a$ , and (c) RE and  $T_a$  for the wet seasons from 2012 to 2015

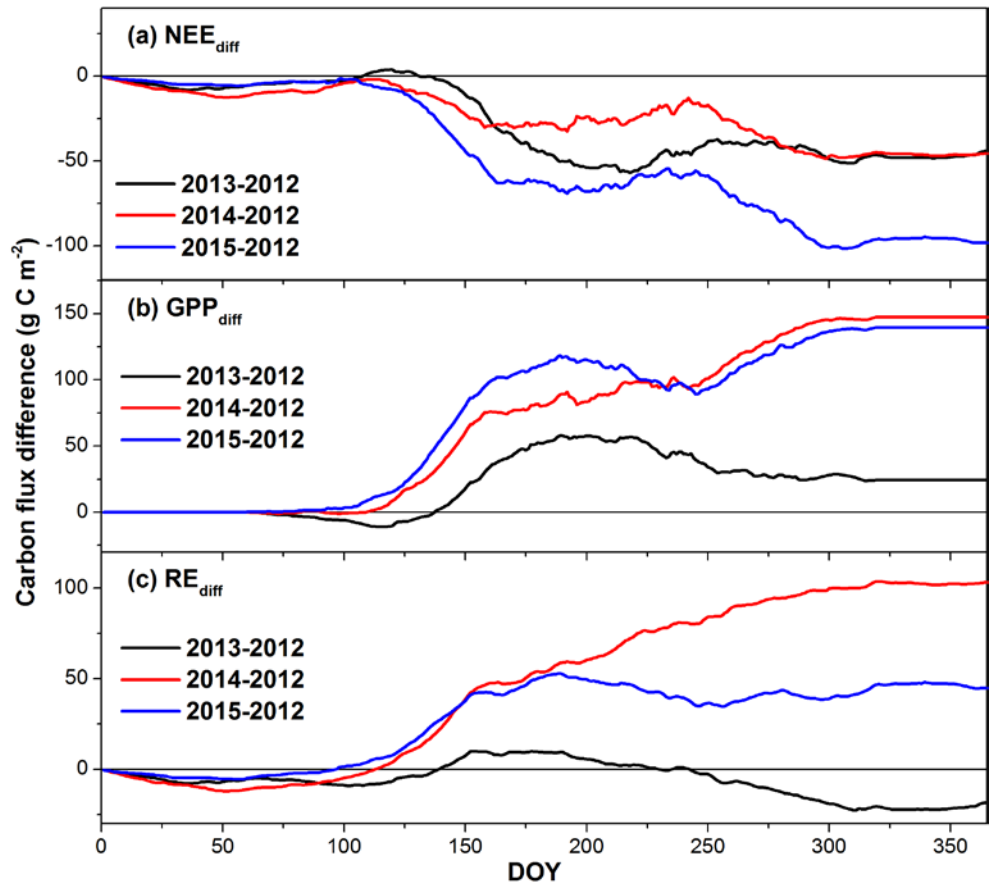


Figure 7 Seasonal variations in the differences of (a) NEE, (b) GPP and (c) RE from 2013 to 2012, from 2014 to 2012 and from 2015 to 2012

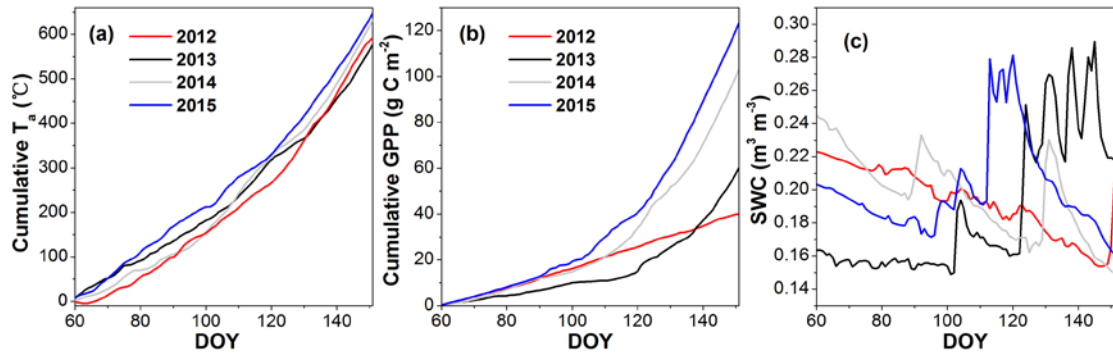


Figure 8 Cumulative (a)  $T_a$  and (b) GPP, and (c) the daily mean SWC from March to May (DOY60 to 151) for 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015

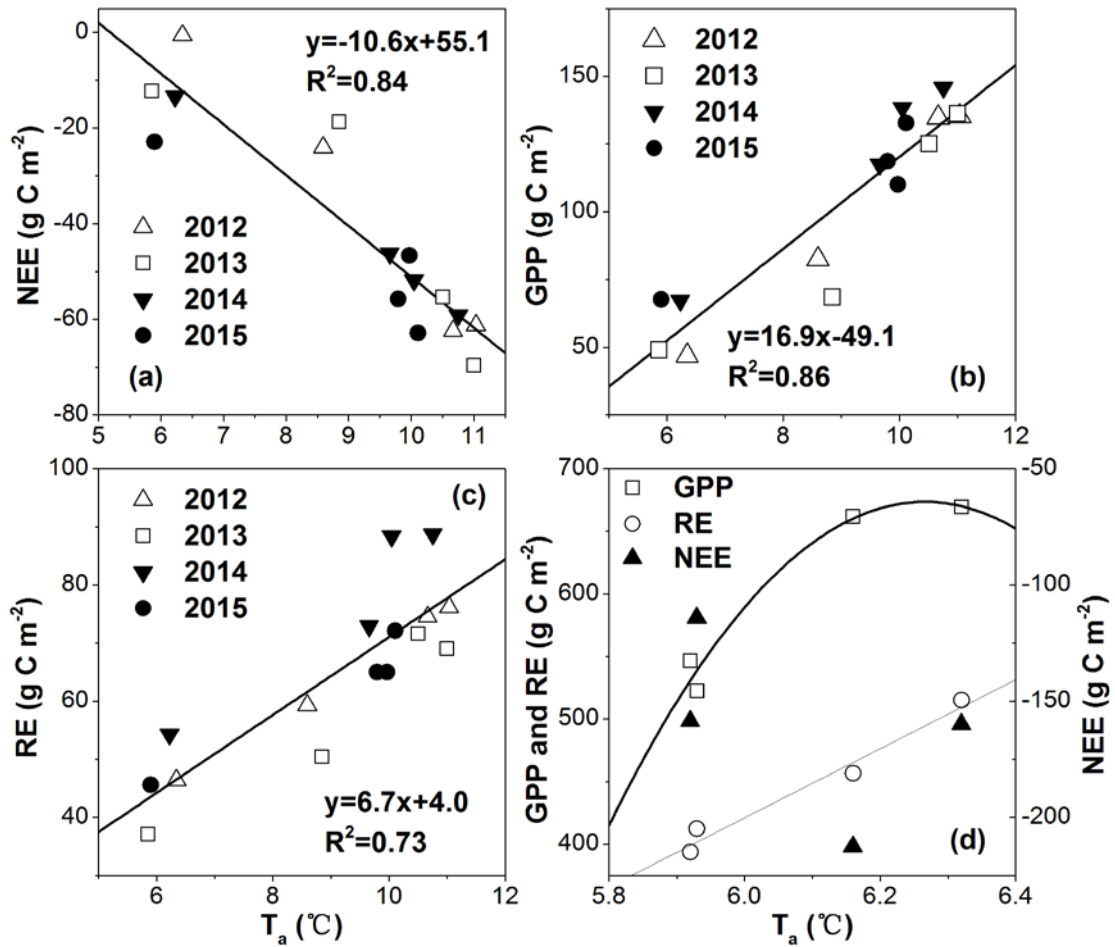


Figure 9 Relationships between (a) NEE and T<sub>a</sub>; (b) GPP and T<sub>a</sub>; (c) RE and T<sub>s</sub> from July to October at a monthly scale, and (d) relationship between the annual total CO<sub>2</sub> exchange fluxes and the mean annual T<sub>a</sub>, which were  $GPP = -1191T_a^2 + 14930T_a - 46102$ ,  $R^2 = 0.97$ , and  $RE = 276T_a - 1235$ ,  $R^2 = 0.97$

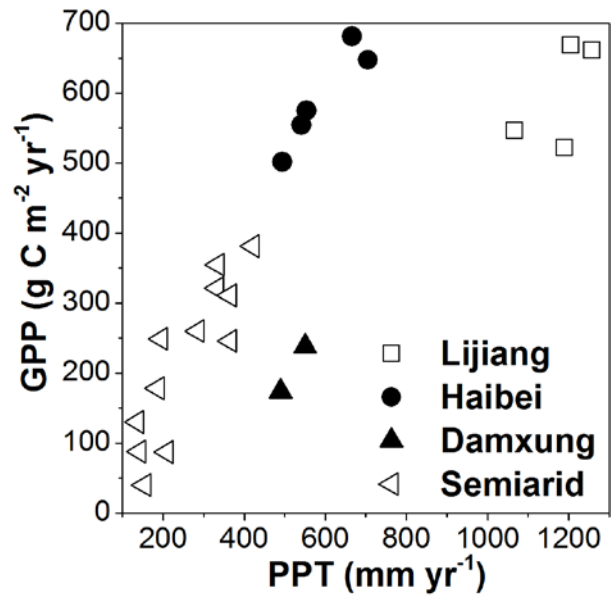


Figure 10 Relationships between the annual GPP and precipitation (PPT) for this Lijiang site, the Haibei site (Kato et al., 2006; Fu et al., 2009), the Damxung site (Fu et al., 2009), and the semiarid grassland sites (Fu et al., 2009; Du and Liu, 2013; Yang and Zhou, 2013)