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Improving the predictive power and interdisciplinarity of climate change experiments

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56 Preface (100 words)

While the general *direction* of ecosystems' responses to a variety of climate change scenarios has been well investigated, insights in the potential *amplitude* and *dynamics* of this response are scarce and the societal impacts often remain unquantified. Drawing on the expertise of researchers from a variety of disciplines, this paper outlines how methodological and technological advancements can help design climate experiments that better capture the dynamics and amplitude of ecosystem responses provoked by climate change and translate these responses into societal impacts.

63

64 1. Introduction

Climate change is expected to impact ecosystem communities and ecosystem functioning¹. Crop yields², carbon (C) sequestration in soil³, and pollination rate⁴ are generally predicted to decrease, while land evapotranspiration⁵ and tree mortality, especially in the Boreal region, are expected to increase⁶. At the same time, the redistribution of species will increase opportunities for pest and pathogen emergence¹.

70 These functions are crucial for human well-being through their contribution to ecosystem services, 71 and so impacting them will have important consequences for society⁷. However, refining the societal 72 cost estimations remains a challenge, partly because large knowledge gaps regarding the amplitude 73 and dynamics of these responses that make it difficult to plan for climate adaptation. Specifically 74 designed climate change experiments are necessary to address these issues. The goal of this 75 perspective paper is fourfold. First, while acknowledging the great advances achieved by climate 76 change-ecosystem responses experiments so far, we also identify the challenges that many of them 77 currently face: high complexity of climate change in terms of environmental variables, constraints in 78 the number and amplitude of climate treatment levels, and the limited scope with regard to 79 responses and interactions covered (Section 2). Second, to overcome these challenges we propose 80 an experimental design that can leverage the increased computational and technological capabilities 81 to more accurately capture the complexity of climate change in experiments; increase the number 82 and range of climate treatment levels, and employ an interdisciplinary approach to broaden the 83 range of responses and interactions covered (Section 3). Third, we outline an experiment that applies 84 these design recommendations to demonstrate how it can enhance our capacity to understand and 85 predict ecosystem responses to climate change. We describe the technical infrastructure used in this 86 experiment, the climate manipulations, and the analysis pathway all the way to the valuation of the 87 changes in ecosystem services (Section 4). Fourth, we place this design within the larger context of 88 climate change experiments and pinpoint its complementarity to other designs (Section 5).

89

90 2. Challenges of climate change experiments

91 *The complexity of climate change*

92 The first challenge for research on climate change-ecosystem responses lies in the complex manner 93 in which global climate change will affect local weather. To mimic a future climate, factors such as air 94 temperature, atmospheric CO_2 , and precipitation need to be manipulated in combination, which can be both conceptually and technologically challenging⁸. Therefore, a significant proportion of climate 95 96 change experiments have focused on measuring the effects of specific combinations of climate 97 factors (such as warming plus drought), manipulated using technology that was available or affordable at that time (such as passive night-time warming and rain exclusion curtains)⁹. Although 98 99 these experiments have led to many invaluable outcomes, such approaches cannot fully cover the 100 complexity of climate projections or the covariance of meteorological variables. As such, they may, 101 for example, under- or overestimate the effects on ecosystem functioning of changes in the frequencies of frosts and heat waves, drought-heat-wave reinforcements¹⁰, interactions between soil 102 moisture conditions and subsequent precipitation occurrence¹¹, increased frequencies of mild 103 104 droughts (including in spring and autumn), and increased frequency of heavy precipitation events¹².

105 These climate alterations can have a strong influence on ecosystem functioning: for example, 106 decreased frost frequency may have a significant impact on plant mortality¹³ and more frequent mild droughts can trigger plant acclimation and hence resistance to drought stress¹⁴. Therefore, many 107 108 climate change experiments did not simulate (i) an extreme event instead of a change in the mean 109 for a given single factor, (ii) regimes of events instead of a single event for a given single factor, and (iii) complex coupling between multiple factors. This lack of refinement in climate manipulations 110 111 likely compromised the reliability of the estimation of ecosystem responses. Some steps have already 112 been taken to address this, by applying treatments of precipitation regime or heatwaves as observed in the field^{15,16} and by using translocation experiments, where macrocosms are displaced across 113 geographic gradients in order to expose them to other climates that match possible future conditions 114 at the location of origin (space for time approach)¹⁷. However, such an issue cannot be solved by 115 116 modelling alone, because it requires testing too many possible interactions between factors, as well 117 as changing regimes of single factors.

118

119 *Climate treatment levels: number and range*

120 Because of the cost of specialized infrastructure, scientists are often limited in the number of 121 experimental units they can set up within a given experiment. Hence, climate factors are often 122 applied at only two levels: ambient and future projections⁹. This provides useful estimations on the 123 direction of ecosystem responses but does not provide insights into the shape of the responses to 124 these factors or how far away current conditions are from potential tipping points to alternative stable states¹⁸. Moreover, ecosystem responses to multifactor global change drivers are regulated by 125 complex, nonlinear processes¹⁹, which makes modeling difficult with experimental data that comes 126 127 only from the two-level manipulation of environmental factors²⁰.

Also stemming from high equipment costs is the narrow range of climate treatments. Most experiments have kept this range within conservative boundaries²¹, presumably because more drastic (though realistic) climate treatments may have a catastrophic impact on a studied ecosystem, potentially leading to the loss of expensively equipped replicates. The truncation of more extreme
climate conditions has, in turn, led to a lack of evidence regarding their effects on ecosystem
functioning.

- 134 Finally, low temporal resolution is also an issue. Because it requires an extensive and high frequency 135 monitoring of ecosystem functions, a substantial proportion of climate change experiments have only measured the ecosystem dynamics or trajectories annually or seasonally. Such experiments may 136 fail to detect short-term dynamics of ecosystem responses²² or trajectories leading to a transition to 137 an alternative stable state^{23,24}. However, trends related to ecosystem dynamics often appear on 138 decadal time scales, because of the time needed to alter biogeochemical cycles and the properties of 139 140 soil organic matter. Therefore the duration of the monitoring should be prioritized over its frequency 141 if the setup does not allow a good coverage of both.
- 142

143 Integration among disciplines

144 The very nature of climate change and its impacts is discipline-spanning and therefore requires an integrated approach²⁵. Althought the number of interdisciplinary studies related to climate change is 145 increasing steadily²⁶, there are still many challenges related to interdisciplinary research. These 146 include establishing common terminology, concepts and metrics^{25,27,28}, a consistently lower funding 147 148 success for interdisciplinary research projects²⁹, and a general lack of interdisciplinary research positions²⁵. The barriers depend largely on the purpose, forms and extent of knowledge integration, 149 and their combination³⁰. Although climate change research developed from multidisciplinarity to 150 interdisciplinarity, and further to transdisciplinarity³¹, most collaborative work in environmental 151 152 research is small-scale rather than large-scale interdisciplinary work³⁰. Small-scale integration refers to collaborations between similar partners (for example, different natural science disciplines), while 153 large-scale integration crosses broader boundaries (such as between natural and social science)³⁰. 154 Currently, ecosystem services studies are mostly limited to either the natural science aspects or the 155 socio-economic science aspects and rarely cover the entire ecosystem services cascade³². This lack of 156

- 157 large-scale knowledge integration results in errors along this cascade; both when moving from
 158 biodiversity and ecosystem functions to ecosystem services, and when moving from ecosystem
 159 services to societal values.
- 160

161 **3. Recommendations**

162 Using climate model outputs and technology to refine climate change treatments

163 A first option to prescribe a projected change in weather dynamics is to alter specific characteristics 164 (such as drought duration, heat wave intensity) in isolation using high-frequency data of ambient 165 weather conditions so that they match future projections. The advantage of this method is that 166 atmospheric conditions can be modified with high-quality field data instead of relying upon less 167 precise regional climate model outputs with lower spatial and temporal resolution. Moreover, if used 168 to manipulate one climate factor at a time, such an approach facilitates a mechanistic understanding 169 of ecosystem responses that can be further extrapolated through modeling. This design may 170 combine two or more factors to provide information about interactions between climate 171 parameters.

172 Incorporating the complexity of projected changes can also be achieved by using outputs of state-of-173 the-art climate models. Due to model biases, the appropriate model must be selected very carefully. 174 Global climate models (GCMs) are useful tools for assessing climate variability and change on global 175 to continental scales, typically with a spatial resolution of 100–250 km. To estimate climate variability 176 at more local scales, GCMs are dynamically downscaled using regional climate models (RCMs), which 177 resolve the climate at higher resolutions (typically 10–50 km). The GCM/RCM combinations can then 178 be chosen based on (i) how well models perform against local climate and weather characteristics in 179 the studied ecosystem and (ii) how representative future projections are to the multi-model mean. In 180 this case, one can simulate an ecosystem response to a given climate setup with higher accuracy. 181 However, unlike with a full factorial experiment, it is not possible to attribute an ecosystem response 182 to a given climate factor. Nevertheless, the model-output approach does facilitate the application of increasingly high warming levels by using a global mean temperature gradient (see Section 4). It also
 addresses the issues of covarying variables, and it can be directly linked with a scenario from the
 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change which would represent a major step towards bridging
 the gap between climate and ecosystem science.

187

188 However, to implement these options it is necessary to control climate conditions and atmospheric 189 composition with high frequency and high accuracy. This can be achieved only with dedicated and 190 advanced equipment. Ecotron infrastructures, which consist of a set of replicated experimental units 191 where environmental conditions are tightly controlled and where multiple ecosystem processes are automatically monitored, are well-suited to fulfill these needs³³. Such infrastructures have been 192 historically limited to a handful across the world⁹, but are becoming increasingly widespread³⁴⁻³⁶. 193 194 They also offer the opportunity to monitor ecosystem responses at sub-hourly frequencies, making it 195 possible to simultaneously discriminate between short- and long-term ecosystem responses.

196

197 Increasing the number and range of climate treatment levels

A gradient design, in which one or several climate factors are applied at increasingly high levels, can 198 199 substantially increase the resolution of a climate change experiment. This is better suited to 200 quantitatively describing the relationship between a response variable and a continuous climate 201 factor than the more traditional approach of testing ambient versus a single future projection, and allows the collection of quantitative data for ecological models³⁷. It also makes it possible to detect 202 203 nonlinearity, thresholds, and tipping points, and to interpolate and extrapolate ecosystem 204 responses¹⁸. While such gradient designs should ideally be replicated, unreplicated regression 205 designs can be a statistically powerful way of detecting response patterns to continuous and 206 interacting environmental drivers, provided that the number of levels in the gradient is large enough³⁷. 207

To ensure appraisal of the largest possible range of ecosystem responses, the gradient should be as long as possible, even extending beyond the most extreme conditions. Broader treatment modalities can also inform how far a specific ecosystem response is situated relative to its upper or lower tolerance limit. In addition, the levels of the gradient may be spread in a non-linear manner to achieve the highest resolution in the range where the strongest ecosystem responses are expected.

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233

214 *Employing an interdisciplinary approach to better capture responses and interactions*

We argue that an overarching objective of climate change experiments is to contribute to the understanding of the impacts that climate change has on nature and society as well as to enlarge our potential for climate adaptation. However, as outlined in Section 2, the lack of large-scale knowledge integration can result in errors along the ecosystem services cascade; first in the step from biodiversity and ecosystem functions to ecosystem services and second from ecosystem services to

- 220 societal values.
- 221 Regarding the first step, thorough quantification of ecosystem services should be based on specific

222 data regarding how the ecosystem is functioning. Many ecosystem service studies use land use as an

indicator of ecosystem service delivery³², but often land use classification cannot capture differences

224 between abiotic conditions and ecological processes that explain differences in service delivery³⁸.

²²⁵ Therefore, using land use as a simple indicator will result in inappropriate management decisions³⁸.

Regarding the second step, economists need to be involved early in the process. Although there are
 many ways in which ecosystem function changes can affect the provision of ecosystem services to

228 society³⁹. However, budget constraints necessitate the selection of those ecosystem functions and

- 229 services that are considered most important to society. A common selection approach is to consider
- 230 the potential impact of ecosystem changes in terms of human welfare endpoints, often by means of
- 231 monetary valuation. Ecologists and economists must interact across disciplinary boundaries if

232 ecological experiments are intended to predict these endpoints within an ecosystem services

context⁴⁰. Hence, economists need to be involved during the design of ecological experiments in

234 order to ensure that those ecosystem service changes that are most relevant for human welfare are

235 measured and predicted.

236 We suggest that, the desired large-scale integration can be achieved in several steps, organized in a 237 top-down approach. The first step is to identify the key ecosystem services to value based on welfare endpoints⁴¹. For most terrestrial ecosystems, this would imply assessing services from the following 238 239 list: food and raw material production and quality, water supply and quality, C sequestration, 240 depollution, erosion prevention, soil fertility, pest and pathogen control, pollination, maintenance of 241 biodiversity and recreation. The second step consists of identifying the set of variables that best 242 describes the ecosystem functions, processes and structures associated with these services. Based on the literature⁴², we suggest the following measures (see also Table 1): (i) vegetation variables (plant 243 244 community structure, above/belowground biomass, litter quality), (ii) atmospheric parameters (net 245 ecosystem exchange, greenhouse gas emissions), (iii) soil abiotic (pH, texture, electrical conductivity, 246 macro-, micronutrient and pollutant content) and biotic (fauna and microbial community structure, 247 respiration, and biomass) variables, and (iv) all parameters that describe movements of water in the 248 soil-plant-atmosphere continuum (precipitation, leaching, air relative humidity, evapotranspiration, 249 water potential). Air and soil temperatures should also be monitored, since they determine 250 biogeochemical reaction rates. Finally, ecosystem processes, structures and functions need to be 251 translated into services, and ultimately into societal value by expressing them in monetary and non-252 monetary terms. Measuring all of these variables, integrating them in an ecosystem service 253 framework, and estimating the societal value of these services would require expertise from plant 254 ecologists and ecophysiologists, hydrologists, soil biogeochemists, animal ecologists, microbiologists, pedologists, climatologists, as well as modelers and environmental economists⁴³. 255

256

4. An initial application of the recommendations: The UHasselt Ecotron experiment

258 Here we describe our proposed interdisciplinary approach in the context of a climate change

259 manipulation using the UHasselt Ecotron experiment.

260

261 Ecotron infrastructure

262 The UHasselt Ecotron facility consists of tightly controlled climate change manipulations of 12 263 macrocosms (soil-canopy columns of 2 m in diameter and 1.5 m depth), extracted without significant 264 disruption of the soil structure from a dry heathland plot in the 'Hoge Kempen' National Park (50° 59' 265 02.1" N, 5° 37' 40.0" E) in November 2016. The plot was managed for restoration six years before the 266 sampling. The design of this infrastructure benefited from exchanges through the AnaEE (Analysis 267 and Experimentation on Ecosystems)/ESFRI (European Strategy Forum on Research Infrastructure) project. Some of the infrastructure's features were inspired by the Macrocosms platform of the CNRS 268 269 Montpellier Ecotron¹⁶. Each UHasselt Ecotron unit consists of three compartments: the dome, the 270 lysimeter, and the chamber. The dome consists of a shell-shaped dome made of highly PAR 271 (photosynthetically active radiation) transparent material, where wind and precipitation are 272 generated and measured and where the concentration of greenhouse gases (CO_2 , N_2O , CH_4), PPFD 273 (photosynthetic photon flux density) and difference between incoming and outgoing short- and long-274 wave radiation are measured. The lysimeter (equipment for measuring hydrological variations 275 undergone by a body of soil under controlled conditions) contains the soil-canopy column, where 276 soil-related parameters are controlled (including the vertical gradient of soil temperature and water 277 tension) and measured, and is weighed every minute. Suction cups and soil sensors are installed 278 following a triplicated 5 depth design (Fig. S1). The chamber is a gastight room that encloses the 279 lysimeter, where air pressure, air temperature, relative humidity, and CO₂ concentration are 280 controlled and key variables measured in each unit (Fig. S1). The UHasselt Ecotron is linked with a 281 nearby Integrated Carbon Observation System (ICOS) ecosystem tower (https://www.icos-282 ri.eu/home), which provides real-time data on local weather and soil conditions, with a frequency of 283 at least 30 minutes.

284

285 Climate manipulations

286 A double-gradient approach is adopted: one approach (six units) measures the effect of an altered 287 single factor (here, precipitation regime), while maintaining the natural variation of other abiotic 288 factors, and the other approach (six units) manipulates climate by jointly simulating all covarying 289 parameters, representing increasingly intense climate change. The two approaches are described 290 below. Because they sit isolated in an enclosed facility, it is possible that small initial differences in 291 the soil-canopy core in a given unit will increase with time to the point where it becomes statistically 292 different from the others. Therefore, the units were first distributed within the two gradients using a 293 cluster analysis to minimize the noise in ecosystem responses measured during a test period (see Fig. 294 S2) due to small-scale soil heterogeneity. This clustering was used to distribute the units according to 295 the pattern shown in Fig. 1.



Figure 1. Overview of the two climate change gradient designs in the UHasselt Ecotron experiment.
The units have been redistributed to maximize statistical similarity within a gradient prior to the

treatment. Global mean temperature anomalies are computed with respect to the reference period
1951-1955.

301

302 Climate change projections for the NW Europe region predict higher probability of both heavier 303 precipitation and longer droughts, without a significant change in yearly precipitation⁴⁴. The 304 precipitation regime gradient uses real-time input from the ecosystem tower nearby, and only alters 305 precipitation events: across the gradient, increasingly long periods (2, 6, 11, 23, 45 and 90 days), based on local climate records from Maastricht, NL⁴⁵) in which precipitation is withheld (dry period) 306 307 are followed by increasingly long periods in which precipitation is increased (wet period), with the 308 duration of the two periods kept equal within a unit (Fig. 1). Precipitation events during the wet 309 period are increased twofold and are adjusted at the end of the period to avoid altering the yearly 310 precipitation amount.

311 To drive the second gradient of the UHasselt Ecotron experiment, we use the climate variables 312 produced by an RCM following Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5, a high-emission scenario⁴⁶. The gradient itself is determined based on global mean temperature anomalies. In the six 313 314 units, climates corresponding to a +0 ° to +4 °C warmer world (projected for periods ranging from 315 1951–1955 to 2080–2089) are simulated (Fig. 1, Fig. S3), by extracting local climate conditions from the RCM for periods consistent with these warming levels (Fig. S3)⁴⁷. This set-up also facilitates 316 317 comparison of the 'present-day' climate as simulated by the RCM (the +1 °C unit), to the unit driven by ICOS field observations. Moreover, the climate simulated in the $+1.5^{\circ}$ C unit is reasonably 318 319 consistent with the lower end of the long-term temperature goals set by the Paris Agreement⁴⁸.



333

Figure 2. Impact pathway showing the reasoning behind the integration of scientific disciplines in the UHasselt Ecotron experiment. The research hypotheses are given in italics and described in more detail in Fig. S4.

337

338 Integrating scientific disciplines for an interdisciplinary ecosystem service approach

339 As outlined in Section 3, climate change experiments require large-scale knowledge integration to

340 enable more useful estimates of climate change effects on ecosystem functioning and on society. The

341 UHasselt Ecotron facility makes it possible to extend the degree of interdisciplinarity by investigating

342 the entire cascade from climate changes to ecosystem functions, ecosystem services, and, finally,

343 societal values. As such, the ecotron facility contributes to the development towards large-scale

344 knowledge integration on climate change. Consequently, the UHasselt Ecotron experiment brings

345 together several disciplines in an interdisciplinary framework (Fig 2). With input from other involved

346 disciplines, climatologists design the protocols for climate manipulations and plant ecologists 347 monitor plant communities in each ecotron unit. Numerical models for water movement within one 348 unit are developed by mathematicians and hydrologists. Ecotron output on C cycling is fed into a soil C model⁴⁹, both for calibration and prediction purposes. Community modelers improve the power of 349 350 this model by accounting for the soil community structure and species interactions (food web). The 351 specific role of soil organisms in soil biogeochemistry is investigated by microbial and soil fauna 352 ecologists. This is inferred from variation in responses of different functional groups such as nitrogen 353 fixers, mycorrhizal fungi and different feeding guilds of soil fauna, combined with additional separate 354 experiments, both in the field and *in vitro*. The outputs of the measurements above (see Table 1) 355 allow experts in ecosystem ecology to quantify ecosystem services. Environmental economists 356 express the change in ecosystem services provided using best-practice monetization approaches⁵⁰. 357 For example, water quality regulation is assessed as the prevented cost of intensified water 358 treatment or use of other water resources. Measurements of vegetation, soil abiotic parameters and 359 the water balance make it possible to quantify this benefit. Carbon sequestration is assessed as the 360 prevented cost from increased global temperature, which can be quantified based on vegetation, air 361 parameters and soil abiotic parameters measurements. Maintenance of biodiversity and recreation 362 can be assessed based on measurements of vegetation. 363 We note that (monetary) estimates from an individual study can often not be applied directly for generating policy-recommendations⁵¹, especially for complex and spatially heterogeneous problems 364 such as climate change impacts on ecosystems. However, meta-analyses need to rely on data 365 366 generated by primary studies that estimate the societal cost (or benefit) of changes in specific

- 367 services provided by a specific ecosystem at specific location(s). In this regard, the UHasselt Ecotron
- 368 experiment can also provide valuable input data for dedicated policy-guiding analyses⁵².
- 369

- 370 Table 1. Measured variables in the UHasselt Ecotron experiment and links with ecosystem functions,
- 371 services, and values. Left-hand side of the table: ecosystem services. Right-hand side: variables
- 372 measured in the ecotron experiment. Lower part of the table: illustration of how the societal value of
- 373 *four of the ecosystems services will be assessed.*

Image: state stat	MEASURED VARIABLES		
0 0	asurement		
o o o o o o o o o o shoot & root biomass 6 months I <t< td=""><td></td></t<>			
o o Air parameters Net ecosystem exchange (NEE) 30 min o o Temperature 2 min o o O Texture 1 year o o O O O Image: Composition of the			
o o Air parameters Temperature 2 min GHG emissions (CH4, N2O) 2 min o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o			
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o o o o o o o o o Biochemical composition 1 year Electrical conductivity 30 min Soil pore water chemistry 2 weeks			
o o o Electrical conductivity 30 min Soil pore water chemistry 2 weeks			
o Soil pore water chemistry 2 weeks			
o Available pollutant concentration 1 year			
o o Fauna community structure 6 months			
o o Soil biotic parameters Microbial community structure 6 months			
o Mineralization rate 1 year			
o o o Precipitation 30 min			
o o o o Leaching 30 min			
o Water balance Relative humidity 30 min			
o o Evapotranspiration 30 min			
o Soil water potential 30 min			
ECONOMIC VALUATION			
Prevented cost of intensified water treatment or use of other water resources			
Prevented damage cost from increased global temperature			
Non-use value of continued existence of biodiversity			
Use value of recreational enjoyment			

374

376 A comprehensive understanding of ecosystem responses to climate change can only be achieved

- 377 through the use of a broad range of different, complementary experimental designs, all of which can
- 378 be integrated through modeling. The experimental design suggested here exhibits a unique set of
- 379 advantages and drawbacks, which makes it suited to tackle specific needs within the climate change
- 380 experiments landscape.
- 381 **Strengths and limitations of the design**
- 382 The strengths of the suggested design comprises (1) high-performance microclimate conditioning,
- 383 both above- and belowground, which makes it possible to approximate field conditions while
- 384 maintaining control, (2) high-frequency automated measurements of ecosystem functions and thus

³⁷⁵ **5. The place of the suggested design within the landscape of climate change experiments**

385 of treatment impact thereon, and (3) a large-scale interdisciplinary approach. The first two strengths

386 are inherent to the ecotron research infrastructure, while the large-scale integration can

387 theoretically be implemented in any climate change experiment. However, we consider ecotron

388 infrastructures to be particularly suitable for such an interdisciplinary approach, because of the high-

- 389 end climate control and the broad range of functions monitored at a high frequency.
- 390 With respect to (1), studies focusing on ecosystem functions, processes and structures that are highly
- 391 sensitive to soil temperature and soil water potential would benefit most from being conducted in
- 392 ecotrons (for example, soil CO₂ exchange and C sequestration, growth and activity of soil microbes
- 393 and soil fauna), as the lysimeter component can generate very precise lower boundary conditions
- 394 and thus realistic vertical soil profiles of temperature and soil water status. With respect to (2),
- 395 studies in which the high-resolution temporal pattern of ecosystem functions and their coupling is
- 396 important would also benefit from ecotron infrastructures, as it is difficult to measure these
- 397 parameters manually across long time scales. For example, simultaneous automated measurement
- 398 of the carbon, water and mineral nutrient cycles makes it possible to disentangle their interactions in
- 399 a range of climate conditions, and to feed control mechanisms into models.
- 400 A first set of constraints in the usefulness of the experimental design described in this paper stems
- 401 from the scale limitation of the experimental units. Ecotrons can accommodate plants only of small
- 402 stature (less than two meters in height), which excludes forests and tall crops. For the same reason,
- 403 the impact of megafauna such as grazers or top predators cannot be tested. Results obtained in
- 404 macrocosms only integrate small-scale (less than one meter) variability, which leads to a lack of
- 405 accuracy when scaling up to ecosystem.
- 406 Second, it may be difficult to financially support this type of experiment on the time scale of 407 ecosystem responses (10 years or more)⁵³. Ecosystem shifts to alternative stable states may remain 408 undetected if the funding period is shorter than the period required for the ecosystem to shift. A 409 partial solution for this would be to adopt a gradient design with increasingly late endpoints of

410 projected climate change; this would allow for some extrapolation of ecosystem response in time

411 (trajectories), which is possibly enough to estimate ranges of this response in the longer term.

412 Third, macrocosms in ecotron facilities are isolated from their ecosystem of origin. Hence genetic

- 413 input from propagules or pollination probably differ significantly from the field, which can be an
- 414 issue, especially in long-term experiments. This could be mitigated in two ways. The first is by
- 415 minimizing sampling disturbance, by sampling for soil microbes and soil fauna not more than twice a
- 416 year, using 10 cm diameter soil cores, this would account for only 1.5% of total soil surface annually.
- 417 The second way is by replacing soil sampling cores in the lysimeter by cores taken from the same
- 418 ecosystem. This would also avoid holes at the soil surface that may alter water flow through the soil
- 419 column. Furthermore, field traps to collect airborne propagules can be collected yearly and their
- 420 content spread on the enclosed surface of the soil-canopy columns. These solutions would at least
- 421 ensure fresh genetic input into the system, even though this input may be different in the field in
- 422 future conditions.
- 423 Finally, radiation in ecotron enclosures sometimes differ than in the field. Artificial LED-lightning
- 424 allows to control radiation precisely but is yet not able to reach the same radiation level as in the
- 425 field, while ambient lightning can disrupt its synchronization with temperature or precipitation. This
- 426 may be an issue while simulating heatwaves and droughts, which have more sunshine hours than
- 427 wet periods ⁵⁴.
- 428
- 429 *Complementarity with other climate change experiments*

The weaknesses of the proposed design (small spatial scale, potentially insufficient time-scale, lack of interaction with the surrounding environment) can be mitigated further through the use of complementary experiments, which might even be partially integrated into the overarching approach. For example, owing to small spatial scale, the results might have limited validity as a predictor of ecosystem responses at other sites and in other habitats. Running experiments in parallel across multiple climates and locations with the same methodology, also known as 436 "coordinated distributed experiments" (CDEs), would be better suited for this purpose as it allows extrapolation and generalization of results while correcting for effect size⁵⁵. For example, such a 437 design makes it possible to study plant response to nutrient addition and herbivore exclusion⁵⁶; and 438 439 ecological responses to global change factors across 20 eco-climate domains using a set of observatory sites⁵⁷. In fact, a coordinated distributed experiment using the design presented in 440 441 Section 4, and testing the same climate gradient in different ecosystems across several ecotron 442 facilities would combine the high generalization potential of CDEs with the precision of ecotrons. 443 A second area for potential complementarity and integration is translocation experiments. These 444 experiments are well suited for long-term observations due to their relatively low funding requirements and relative ease of implementation, and the soil macrocosms used in these 445 experiments are still connected to their surrounding environment¹⁷. However, the functioning of the 446 447 ecosystem is monitored less comprehensively and frequently within these types of experiments and 448 the influence of different climate factors on ecosystem functioning cannot be disentangled. 449 Consequently, running an ecotron and a translocation experiment in parallel on the same ecosystem 450 with similar climate treatments would make it possible to estimate the effect size of the connection 451 with the surrounding environment on ecosystem response to climate change. This information can 452 then, in turn, be used to correct the outputs of future ecotron experiments by accounting for the 453 isolation factor. 454

455 Usefulness of the suggested design for modeling ecosystem response to climate change

456 While ecosystem models can be evaluated and calibrated using a range of data sources, including 457 sites in different climate zones and long-term experiments without climate manipulation⁵⁸, data from 458 well-controlled, replicated and highly instrumented facilities such as those described here are 459 invaluable for testing the process understanding encapsulated in the models, and for testing model 460 behavior against detailed, multi-parameter observations³⁶. Models that are tested and, where 461 necessary, calibrated against such data can then be evaluated against data from other sites. If the

462 outputs do not prove to be generalizable, the information derived from testing the model could be

463 used to refine the experimental design and explain variation in the measured values. If the outputs

- 464 prove generalizable, the models can be used across larger temporal and spatial scales to project
- 465 potential impacts of future climate change^{59,60}.
- 466
- 467 6. Conclusion

468 The effects of climate change on ecosystem functioning have far-reaching consequences for society. 469 Here we present a type of experiment that is designed to estimate the amplitude and dynamics of 470 ecosystem responses to climate change, and the consequences for ecosystem services. We have 471 outlined that climate change experiments are facing three types of challenges: limitations in 472 addressing the complexity of climate change in terms of control of environmental variables, 473 constraints in the number and range of climate level treatments, and restrictions in scope. We have 474 suggested ways to address these challenges: improving computational and technological capabilities, 475 increasing the number and range of climate treatment levels, and employing an interdisciplinary 476 approach. We illustrated these suggestions through a case study where they have been implemented, and outlined the place of this design in the broader landscape of climate change 477 478 experiments.

We foresee that the holistic approach outlined in this perspective could yield more reliable, quantitative predictions of terrestrial ecosystem response to climate change, and could improve knowledge on the value of ecosystem services and their links with ecosystem processes. We expect these results to be of interest for society beyond just scientists: they provide nature managers with predictions on ecosystem responses to help them decide on ecosystem management practices in the mid- and long-term, and that they will explain to policymakers and the wider public the societal impact of ecosystem changes induced by climate change at a more detailed, ecosystem-specific level.

486

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495

496 Authors' contributions

497 FR and RM took the lead in writing the manuscript and received input from all co-authors. The initial 498 conceptualization of this manuscript was discussed during a consortium meeting. All authors 499 proofread and provided their input to different draft versions and gave their final approval for 500 submission.

501

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