1 Responses of two nonlinear microbial models to warming or increased

- 2 carbon input
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23	Abstract A number of nonlinear microbial models of soil carbon decomposition have been
24	developed. Some of them have been applied globally but have yet to be shown to
25	realistically represent soil carbon dynamics in the field. Therefore aA thorough analysis of
26	their key differences will be very useful<u>is needed to inform</u> for the future<u>future model</u>
27	developments development of these models. Here we compare two nonlinear microbial
28	models of soil carbon decomposition: one is based on reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics
29	(model A) and the other on regular Michaelis-Menten kinetics (model B). Using $_{f a}$
30	combination of analytic approximations orand numerical solutionss and numerical
31	simulations to both models, we find that the oscillatory responses of carbon pools model A
32	to a small perturbation in the <u>ir</u> initial pool sizes as simulated by model A dampen faster in
33	model A than in than those by have a higher frequency and damps faster than model B. In
34	response to soil <u>Soil</u> warming, the simulated soil carbon always decreases carbon storage in
35	model A الله but <u>in model B it</u> likely predominantly decreases <u>carbon storage</u> in cool regions
36	and increases <u>itcarbon storage</u> in warm regions in model B. In response to an increased
37	carbon input as in priming experiments, For both models, the Maximum CO2 efflux from soil
38	carbon decomposition will reach itsreaches a -maximum value some time after the
39	increased carbon input (as in priming experiments). This , and the maximum CO ₂ efflux
40	(F_{max}) after an increased carbon addition decreases with an increase in soil temperature in
41	both models. However $-$ and the sensitivity of F_{max} to the <u>increased</u> amount of carbon input
42	increases with soil temperature in model A; but decreases monotonically with an increase in
43	soil temperature in model B. These differences in the responses to soil warming and carbon
44	
	input between the two nonlinear models can be used to differentiate which model is more
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45 46 47	input between the two nonlinear models can be used to differentiate which model is more realistic with when compared to results from field or laboratory experiments. This These insights will will lead contribute to an improved a better understanding of the significance of soil microbial processes in the responses of soil carbon responses to future climate change.

50 Key words: soil carbon model, carbon input, warming, nonlinear model, priming

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52 1. Introduction

53 The dPynamics of soil carbon in most global biogeochemical models are represented modelled using first-order kinetics, which assumes that the decay rate of soil carbon is 54 55 proportional to the size of soil carbon pool. This approach has been recently questioned on theoretical grounds (Schimel and Weintraub, 2003; Fontaine and Barot, 2005), and in-is 56 contradicted by the observed responses of soil carbon decay to the addition of fresh organic 57 litter (Fontaine et al., 2004; Sayer et al., 2011) or soil warming (Luo et al., 2001; Mellilo et 58 59 al., 2002; Bradford et al., 2008). As a result, a number of nonlinear soil microbial models 60 have been developed (Allison et al., 2010; Manzoni and Porporato, 2007; Wutzler and Reichstein, 2008), and a few of them have also been applied at global scales (Wieder et al., 61 2013; Sulman et al. 2014). Predictions of future soil carbon change by these nonlinear 62 models can differ significantly from conventional linear models (Fontaine et al., 2007, 63 Wieder et al., 2013). For example, conventional linear soil carbon models predict that soil 64 carbon will decrease with global warmingincreased temperature, all else being equal 65 (Jenkinson et al., 1991), whereas the nonlinear models predict that the soil carbon can 66 decrease or increase, depending on the temperature sensitivity of microbial growth 67 efficiency and turnover rates (Frey et al., 2013; Hagerty et al., 2014; Li et al., 2014). 68 69 However the nonlinear models have yet to be validated against field measurements as 70 extensively as the conventional linear soil carbon models (Wieder et al., 2015). They also,-71 and have have some undesirable features, such as particularly the presence of strong oscillations or bifurcations (Manzoni and Porporato, 2007; Wang et al., 2014) in their 72 dynamics that are not observed in the real world systems. Therefore it is important for us to 73 improve our understanding of the behaviour of these nonlinear models before they are 74 75 used in earth system models for informing climate decisions.

Nonlinear microbial models can explain why <u>the</u> decomposition rate of recalcitrant organic
soil carbon varies after the addition of easily decomposable organic carbon to soil, <u>or</u>;
<u>known as the</u> priming effect (Kuzyakov, Friedel and Stahr, 2000). This response has been
observed in the field (Fontaine et al., 2004, Sayer et al., 2011), but cannot predicted by
conventional linear soil carbon models without modification (Fujita, Witte and Bodegom,
2014). Theoretically, decomposition of soil organic carbon is catalysed by extracellular
enzymes that are produced by soil microbes₇. The <u>and the</u> production rate of extracellular

83	enzymes depends on the biomass and composition of the soil microbial population and their
84	local environment. Therefore the decomposition rate of soil organic carbon should depend
85	on both microbial biomass and substrate concentration (Schimel and Weintraub, 2003),
86	rather than on substrate concentration only, as assumed in conventional linear models.
87	This sensitivity of decomposition of soil carbon decomposition to the input of -additional
88	carbon has important implications for the sink capacity of the storage of carbon by the land
89	biosphere <u>in response to climate change</u> in global carbon cycle and carbon-climate
90	feedback studies, because soil <u>Soil</u> is the largest <u>land</u> carbon pool in land biosphere with the
91	longest residence time, and <u>therefore</u> the <u>direction and</u> magnitude of positive carbon-

92 climate<u>the global carbon-climate</u> feedback strongly <u>dependdepends</u> on the responses of soil
 93 carbon to future warming and changing carbon input (Jones and Fallow, 2009; Hargety et

94 al., 2014).

A number of nonlinear models have been developed that explicitly account for the dynamics 95 96 of the soil microbial community (Parnas, 1978; Smith, 1979; Schimel and Weintraub, 2003; Wutzler and Reichstein, 2008; Allison et al., 2010; Grant, 2014; Riley et al., 2014; Tang and 97 98 Riley 2014). Parnas (1979) explored the mechanism of priming effect-using a nonlinear soil 99 microbial model including that included both soil carbon and nitrogen dynamics. Smith (1979) developed a nonlinear model of soil carbon decomposition including that included 100 101 the interactions among carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium. Smith's model 102 represented multiple forms of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus and their transformation 103 via abiotic (such as adsorption and desorption) and biological processes by different groups 104 of soil microbes. The soil models developed by both Parnas (1978) and Smith (1979) were 105 based on regular Michaelis-Menten kinetics, or, in which the rate of carbon decomposition 106 depends linearly on the concentration of soil enzymes and but nonlinearly on substrate 107 concentration (Roberts 1977). This was challenged by Schimel and Weintraub (2003) who 108 emphasized the importance of exoenzyme limitation on soil carbon decomposition. Schimel 109 and Weintraub (2003) used a reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics formulation to show that 110 the response of soil carbon decomposition to carbon substrate concentration can be nonlinear regardless of carbon supply. The reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics for soil carbon 111 112 decomposition assumes that the rate of carbon decomposition depends nonlinearly on 113 enzyme concentration, and but linearly on substrate concentration.

115	Using numerical simulations, various The studies used those nonlinear soil carbon models
116	described above to have subsequently been used in a variety of studies: to explore different
117	the fundamental mechanisms controlling soil carbon decomposition (Schimel and
118	Weintraub 2003 for example), or <u>to investigate the</u> s ensitivity of soil carbon and other
119	biogeochemical processes to warming (Grant, 2014; Tang and Riley, 2014), or to investigate
120	the response of soil carbon to a small perturbation, such as priming (Wutzler and
121	Reichsentein, 2013), and to predict soil carbon responses) and to global change (Wieder et
122	al., 2013; Sulman et al., 2014). Only few<u>Some</u> studies <u>have</u> explored the mathematical
123	properties of these nonlinear systems <u>models</u> analytically in detail , such as dynamic
124	bifurcations, oscillation (Manzoni et al. 2004; Manzoni and Porporato, 2007; Raupach, 2007;
125	Wang et al., 2014 are examples for example). While However to date these have been
126	predominantly restricted to obtaining insights for individual models and with a specific
127	parameterizationnumerical analyses have provided insights for particular models, results
128	are likely specific to the models and the parameter values they used.
120	Both the regular and reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics have been used to simulate soil
129	both the regular and reverse withdelis-wenter kinetics have been used to simulate som
121	carbon decompositions, and both kinetics can be considered as two special cases of the
122	whereas the more general kinetics, such as the equilibrium chemistry approximations,
122	Therefore these two special cases are used here
133	mercrore these two spectar cases are ased here.
134	In T this study we will use analytic tools mathematical analysis to understand to improve our
135	understanding of the mathematical key properties of nonlinear microbial models. For
136	simplicity and analytic convenience, we choose two simple types of nonlinear microbial
137	models: one with regular Michaelis-Menten kinetics and other with the reverse Michaelis-
138	Menten kinetics. These models can be considered as two special cases of the more general
139	kinetics discussed by Tang (2015). These formulations arend amenable to analytic
140	approximations, whereas the formulations with more general kinetics, such as the
141	equilibrium chemistry approximations, are not. We We only use represent three soil carbon
142	pools for with each type model and ignore the abiotic processes for simplicity, despite these
143	<u>being potentially that can be quite im im</u> portant under certain conditions (see Tang and
•	

Riley, 2014 for an example). We will-address the following questions: (1) how do the
responses of these two models to soil warming differ and why? (2) <u>c</u>Can both models
simulate the response of soil carbon decomposition to increased carbon input as in a litter
manipulation or laboratory priming experiment and what determines the magnitude of the
response in each model?

149

150 2 Methods

151 2.1 Model description

Here we analyze twoWe consider two nonlinear soil microbial models: one model, model A,
 which uses reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics and the other, model B, which uses regular
 Michaelis-Menten kinetics (specified below). Both models have three carbon pools: litter
 carbon, microbial biomass and soil carbon.

Model A is based on a-<u>the</u> nonlinear microbial model of soil carbon as described Wutzler
 and Reichstein (2013<u>;)</u> (their model A1). The original model as described by Wutzler and
 Reichstein (2013<u>Their original model</u>) has four pools. Their dynamics is described as
 follows:, modelled by

160
$$\frac{dC_l}{dt} = (1-a)F_{npp} - \mu_l C_l \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b},$$
 (1)

161
$$\frac{dC_s}{dt} = aF_{npp} + \mu_b C_b - \mu_s C_s \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b}$$
, (2)

162
$$\frac{dC_b}{dt} = \varepsilon \mu_m C_b \frac{C_m}{C_m + K_m} - \mu_b C_b, \quad \text{and} \quad (3)$$

163
$$\frac{dC_m}{dt} = \left(\mu_t C_t + \mu_s C_s\right) \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b} - \mu_m C_b \frac{C_m}{C_m + K_m},$$
(4)

where *t* is time in years, *C*_l, *C*_s, *C*_b and *C*_m represent the pool sizes of litter carbon, soil carbon, microbial biomass carbon and assimilable soil carbon in g C m⁻², respectively; *F*_{npp} is carbon input in g C m⁻² year⁻¹, with a-the fraction of *a* going to the soil carbon pool, and (1-a) to <u>the</u> litter carbon pool. $\mu_{\rm h}$, $\mu_{\rm s}$, $\mu_{\rm b}$ and $\mu_{\rm m}$ are <u>turnover rates rate constants</u> of litter carbon, soil carbon, microbial biomass and assimilable carbon <u>in-per</u> year⁻¹, respectively <u>(see Schimel</u> and Weinstraub 2003); ε is microbial growth efficiency, $K_{\rm b}$ and $K_{\rm m}$ are two empirical constants in g C m⁻¹⁻² for the dependence of <u>the</u> consumption of litter carbon or assimilable carbon by soil microbes-on soil microbial biomass and assimilable carbon. Because we<u>ln this study we</u> are interested in the responses at time scales greater than 1 year. We therefore, we assume that $C_{\rm m}$ is at steady state (d $C_{\rm m}$ /dt=0) all the time-because of

its relatively fast turnover (less than < a few days). Therefore the dynamics of microbial

175 biomass, C_b, can be simplified to

176
$$\frac{dC_b}{dt} = \varepsilon \left(\mu_l C_l + \mu_s C_s \right) \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b} - \mu_b C_b \quad .$$
 (5)

- Model A as used in this paper consists of eqns (1), (2) and (5) unless otherwise specified. The
 <u>This type of formulation</u>type of kinetics was also used in the studies by by Schimel and
 Weintraub, (2003) and -Drake et al., (2013); Sulman et al., (2014).
- Model B, The other nonlinear soil microbial carbon model used _was based on the model
 used by Allison et al, (2010) and Wieder et al., (2013) with one additional assumption that
 both enzyme and dissolved organic carbon pools are at steady states. The equations for
 model B are, is given by

184
$$\frac{dC_l}{dt} = (1-a)F_{npp} - C_b \frac{V_l C_l}{C_l + K_l},$$
 (6)

185
$$\frac{dC_s}{dt} = aF_{npp} + \mu_b C_b - C_b \frac{V_s C_s}{C_s + K_s}$$
, and (7)

186
$$\frac{dC_b}{dt} = \varepsilon C_b \left(\frac{V_l C_l}{C_l + K_l} + \frac{V_s C_s}{C_s + K_s} \right) - \mu_b C_b,$$
(8)

187where K_1 and K_s are Michaelis-Menten constants in g C m⁻², and V_1 or and V_s are maximum188rates of substrate carbon (litter or soil) assimilation rate per unit microbial biomass per year.189This type of kinetics was used by Riley et al. (2014), Wieder et al. (2014) and Wang et al.190(2014).

191	These two models make different assumptions about the rate-limiting step in carbon
192	decomposition. Both models assume that microbes have similar access to litter and soil
193	carbon. In model A, Ecarbon decomposition is assumed to non-linearly depend on-be
194	limited by the number of binding sites or the amount of substrate non-linearly and linearly
195	depend on the enzymes activities or microbial biomass linearly in model A (Schimel and
196	Weintraub, 2003). In model B, carbon decomposition is assumed to nonlinearly depend on)
197	and onby the enzymes activities or microbial biomass and non-linearly and depend on the
198	number of binding sites or the amount of substrate linearly in model B-(Allison et al., 2010).
199	As a result, their dynamics and responses to a step change in the external environment can
200	be quite different.

As a result, their dynamics and responses to a step change in external environmental can be
 quite different.

When carbon input, F_{npp} is equal to zero, the steady state solution is zero for litter and soil carbon pools for both models (a trivial solution). When $F_{npp} > 0$, the steady state solutions to Model A are:

206
$$C_l^* = \frac{(1 - \epsilon \epsilon a)F_{npp}}{\mu_l} + \frac{(\epsilon^{-1} - 1)(1 - \epsilon \epsilon a)\mu_b K_b}{\mu_l},$$
 (9)

207
$$C_b^* = \frac{F_{npp}}{(\varepsilon^{-1} - 1)\mu_b}$$
, and (10)

208
$$C_s^* = \left(a + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{-1} - 1}\right)^{\frac{F_{npp}}{\mu_s}} + \left(1 + a(\varepsilon^{-1} - 1)\right)^{\frac{\mu_b K_b}{\mu_s}}.$$
 (11)

209 The steady state solutions to model B are:

210
$$C_l^* = \frac{K_l}{\frac{\varepsilon V_l}{(1-\varepsilon)(1-\alpha)\mu_b} - 1}$$
, (12)

211
$$C_b^* = \frac{F_{npp}}{\mu_b(\varepsilon^{-1} - I)}$$
, and (13)

212
$$C_{s}^{*} = \frac{K_{s}}{\frac{V_{s}}{\mu_{b}}\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon + a(1-\varepsilon)} - 1}$$
(14)

213 CO_2 efflux from the decomposition of soil organic carbon (F_s), are is calculated as:

214
$$F_s = (1 - \varepsilon)\mu_s C_s \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b}$$
 for model A and (15)
215 $F_s = (1 - \varepsilon)C_b \frac{V_s C_s}{C_s + K_s}$ for model B . (16)

216 2.2 Parameter values

Except parameter *a*, we <u>We</u> allow all other model parameters to vary with soil temperature (T_s) with the exception of parameter *a*. Based on the work of Allison et al., (2010) and Hagerty et al., (2014), we used the following equations to describe<u>model</u> the temperature dependence of those model-parameters. They are: <u>as</u>

221
$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon_R - x(T_s - T_R)$$
, and (17)
222 $\mu_b = \mu_{bR} exp(b(T_s - T_R))$ (18)

for both models, w-Where T_R is reference soil temperature in °C (=15°C), ε_R and μ_{bR} are the values of ε and μ_b at $T_s=T_R$, respectively, and x and b are two empirical constants (see Table 1 for their default values).

226 <u>Previously t</u> There has been a debate about the temperature sensitivities of ε and μ_b (see 227 Frey et al., 2013; Hargety et al., 2014). The microbial models as developed by Allison et al. 228 (2010), and used by Wieder et al. (2013) and Wang et al. (20152014) assumed that ε was temperature-sensitive and μ_b was temperature-insensitive (or *b*=0). This assumption was 229 230 recently challenged by Hargety et al. (2014) who found that $\mu_{\rm b}$ was temperature sensitive 231 and ε was temperature insensitive not, based on a laboratory soil warming experiment in the 232 laboratory. Here we will explore the consequence of different assumptions about the 233 temperature sensitivities of ε and μ_b on the <u>simulated</u> response of soil carbon to warming 234 by the two models (see Section 3.2).

We also assume that three additional model parameters in model A, K_b , μ_l and μ_s depends on soil temperature exponentially. They are:, with

237
$$K_b = K_{bR} exp(\alpha_k(T_s - T_R)),$$

(19)

238
$$\mu_l = \mu_{lR} exp(\alpha_l (T_s - T_R)) , \qquad (20)$$

239 and
$$\mu_s = \mu_{sR} exp(\alpha_s(T_s - T_R))$$
 (21)

240 where K_{bR} , μ_{lR} and μ_{sR} are the values of K_b , μ_l and μ_s when soil temperature (T_s) is equal to 241 the reference temperature, T_R (=15 °C in this study), and α_k , α_l and α_s are three empirical 242 constants with their default values listed in Table 1.

For model B, we assumed that K_1 , K_s , V_1 and V_s increase with soil temperature exponentially. That is:

245	$K_l = K_{lR} exp(\beta_{kl}(T_s - T_R)),$	(22)
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246
$$K_s = K_{sR} exp(\beta_{ks}(T_s - T_R)),$$
 (23)

247 and

248
$$V_l = V_{lR} exp(\beta_{vl}(T_s - T_R)),$$
 (24)

249
$$V_s = V_{sR} exp(\beta_{vs}(T_s - T_R))$$
(25)

where K_{IR} , K_{SR} , V_{IR} and V_{SR} are the values of K_{I} , K_{S} , V_{I} , and V_{S} at reference the reference soil

temperature (T_R), respectively; and β_{kl} , β_{ks} , β_{vl} and β_{vs} are four empirical constants for model B (see Table 1).

- As found by Wang et al., (2014), the microbial biomass as simulated by model B using the parameter values of Wieder et al., (2013) was quite low (<1% of total soil carbon). W₇ we therefore reduced the turnover rate of microbial biomass to 1.1 year⁻¹ in this study by assuming that 2% of total soil organic carbon is microbial biomass carbon at a soil
- 257 temperature of 15 °C. <u>Some p</u>Parameter values in model A at the reference temperature
- were obtained by calibrating the equilibrium <u>litter and soil</u> carbon pool sizes against those from model B for a soil temperature of 15 °C and carbon input of 400 g C m⁻² year⁻¹, as used
- 260 in Wang et al., (2014).

261 2.3 Analytic solutions and numerical simulations

262 In this study, wWe derived and used analytic solutions whenever possible for comparing

263 <u>two nonlinearour modelsanalyzing the mathematical properties of the two models in terms</u>

264	of the responses of carbon pools to a small perturbation, soil warming or an increased
265	carbon input. Specifically, we mathematically analyzed the temperature dependence of
266	steady state soil carbon pool size, and we derived an analytic approximation of -(eqn 11) to
267	solve for the soil temperature at which equilibrium soil carbon is at a minimum (e.g. eqn B4
268	for model B), and we derived derived an approximate solutions to for the maximum CO_2 loss
269	from soil carbon decomposition after the increased carbon input for each model $\frac{F_{max}}{eg.}$
270	Eqn C12 for model A and C15 for model B). When an analytic solution is was not possible or
271	too cumbersome, we used numerical simulations to show the differences between the two
272	models in their responses of carbon pools to a small perturbation in litter or microbial
273	carbon pool sizes, and the responses of CO_2 efflux from soil carbon decomposition to litter
274	addition at a tropical forest site <u>(Sayer et al. 2011)</u> , or the responses of F _{max} to different
275	combinations of soil temperature and carbon input rate.
1	

276 **3. Results**

277	Before comparing the responses of our these two models to soil warming and increased				
278	carbon input, we willfirst analyse To understand how the responses of the two models to a				
279	step change in soil temperature or carbon input differ, we analysed some key properties of				
280	the <u>ir</u> responses of the two models to a small perturbation, i.e. whether both models				
281	oscillate in response to a small change in $\underline{\text{their initial}}$ pool sizes and what determines the				
282	period and amplitude of the oscillation. As a step-change in soil temperature or carbon input				
283	can be considered to be a as-perturbation, identifying difference in those key properties will				
284	help us understand the differences in the responses of the two models to soil warming and				
285	increased carbon input.				
286	The rResponse of model B to perturbation has <u>already</u> been analysed by Wang et al., (2014),				

- and will not be elaborated here, only but the results from that analysis will be used to
- <u>compare</u> the period and amplitude <u>of the response to perturbation to that of are compared</u>
 with those of model A.

290 **3.1 Comparison of <u>the</u> perturbation responses of <u>two-both</u> models**

Perturbation analysis is a standard mathematical technique for analysing the behaviour of a
 dynamic system near their its equilibrium states (see Drazin 1992 for further details). There

293 are two kinds of perturbation responses: stable or unstable. The system states, or carbon 294 pool sizes in our case this study will always approach their equilibrium states for a stable 295 response, or otherwise for an unstable response. For both stable and unstable responses, 296 the transient change of a carbon pool size over time can be oscillatory or monotonic. As shown in Appendix A, the response of a carbon pool to a small perturbation always is stable 297 always, and for model A, and the response over time will be oscillatory only if 298 $F_{npp} < 4 \frac{(1-\varepsilon)^2}{\varepsilon} \frac{\mu_l {\mu_b}^2 K_b}{(\mu_b - \mu_l)^2}, \text{ or monotonic otherwise. This region of oscillation in the two-$ 299 300 dimensional space of carbon input and soil temperature is shown in black in Figure 1. 301 Therefore the The response of model A to a small perturbation is oscillatory under most conditions-(soil temperature within 10°C and 30.°C) experienced by terrestrial ecosystems; 302

- 303 as-the conditions with low soil temperature and high carbon input are uncommon in
 304 terrestrial biosphereecosystems.
- 305 Results The results of a singular perturbation analysis are strictly are applicable only when the perturbation is small-. However our simulations show that the predictions from the 306 307 perturbation analysis approximate well the responses of our two models to in general, but 308 are good approximations for any realistic perturbation for our two models in this study (see 309 Appendix A of this paper, and Appendix B in Wang et al., (2014)). Therefore we can predict 310 how soil carbon or other carbon pools change over time in response to a change in carbon 311 inputs or soil warming (i.e. a perturbation of the external environment) and explain why the responses of the carbon pools are different between the two models. 312
- 313 To illustrate how the responses of carbon pools to a small perturbation differ between the 314 two models, we numerically simulated the recovery of all three carbon pools in each model after a 10% reduction at time t=0 in both litter and microbial carbon from their respective 315 316 steady state values, while no perturbation was applied to soil carbon at t=0 (see Figure 2). 317 The amplitude of the initial oscillation is about 70 g C m^{-2} for the litter pool (see Figure 2B) 318 and 7 g C m⁻² for the microbial carbon pool (see Figure 2D) in model B, as compared to about 25 g C m⁻² (see Figure 2A) for the litter pool and 4 g C m⁻² for the microbial pool (see 319 320 Figure 2C) in model A. After 20 years, bBoth the litter and microbial carbon pools are very 321 close to their respective steady state values in model A, but continue to oscillate in model B 322 after 20 years.

The oscillatory response can be mathematically characterized by <u>its</u> half-life ($t_{0.5}$) and period (p). For a stable oscillatory response, the amplitude of <u>the</u> oscillation decays exponentially. The time for the amplitude to reach 50% of its initial value <u>at t=0</u> is defined as <u>the</u> half-life time ($t_{0.5}$). The smaller $t_{0.5}$ is the faster the oscillation <u>dampdampens</u>. As explained in the Appendix A, values of $t_{0.5}$ and p <u>of for</u> model A are much smaller than model B for any given soil temperature and perturbation. <u>This explains</u>, that is why the oscillatory responses of model A damp<u>ens</u> much faster than model B.

There are significant differences in the response of soil carbon between the two models. While there is no response of soil carbon to a small perturbation in initial sizes of litter carbon and microbial biomass in model B, soil carbon in model A decreases initially to a minimum value at 5 years after the perturbation, then gradually increases to its steady state value. These differences in the response of soil carbon between the two models can be

explained by the differences in the structure of eigenvectors for litter carbon and microbial

biomass between the two models (see Appendix A for further details).

337 3.2 Minimum soil carbon temperature Response of soil carbon to warming

Here we explore how soil carbon responds to <u>an instanta</u> step increase in soil temperature,
as- in many soil warming experiments (Luo et al., 2001; Mellilo et al., 2002), and we ignore
the response of carbon input to warming.

341 As explained in Appendix A, the response of soil carbon to warming is always is stable in

both models, and is likely to be weakly oscillatory in model A and monotonic in model B.

343 and the <u>The</u> transient change in soil carbon <u>after warming</u> can be predicted using the

344 generalised solution to for soil carbon for each model (see Eqn B1 of Wang et al.

345 (2014) Appendix A). Therefore the directional change of soil carbon in response to warming,

i.e. increasing or decreasing only only depends on the sensitivity of the equilibrium soil

347 carbon pool to soil temperature in both models.

348 As shown in Appendix B, the equilibrium pool size of soil carbon of model A always

349 decreases with soil warming if carbon input does not increase with warming. For model B,

350 the equilibrium pool size of soil carbon can increase or decrease in response to warming,

depending on soil temperature and model parameter values. In Appendix B, we showed that

352	a solitemperature (T_x) may exist at which the equilibrium solicarbon is <u>at a minimum for</u>		
353	model B. Identifying T_x is important for predicting the directional change of soil carbon by		
354	model B in a warmer world, because soil carbon will decrease if the warmed soil		
355	temperature is below T_x , and <u>will</u> increase otherwise.		
356	The <u>value minimum soil carbon temperature, of</u> <i>T_{x7}-for model B</i> depends on three model		
357	parameters: the fraction of carbon input directly into the soil pool (a), microbial biomass		
358	turnover rate ($\mu_{ m b}$ or its temperature sensitivity b) and microbial growth efficiency ($arepsilon$ or its		
359	temperature sensitivity x). Figure 3a shows that $T_x for model B$ decreases with an increase in		
360	a or x. Over the ranges of values of x and a, Tx can vary across the range of air temperature	 Formatted: Font: Italic	
361	experienced by most terrestrial ecosystems. For example, T_x is >40 °C, wWhen x<0.005 °C ⁻¹	Formatted: Font: Italic	
362	and $q < 0.5$ $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} > 40^{-9}$ C therefore $-\frac{1}{2}$ or the simulated equilibrium -soil carbon in by predicted by	Formatted: Font: Italic Formatted: Subscript	
363	model B will decreases with warming when the warmed soil temperature is below 40 °C W-		
364	when $a > 0.4$ and $x > 0.02$ °C ⁻¹ . T_x is <0 °C (the black region on the top left corner of Figure 3a).		
365	therefore the simulated equilibriumer soil carbon by model B will increases with warming		
366	if the warmed soil temperature is above 0° C		
500			
367	Figure 3b shows that $T_x \text{ for model B}$ decreases with an increase in b or x. When the turnover		
368	rate of microbial biomass is not sensitive to soil temperature (b =0) and x=0.016 °C ⁻¹ as the		
369	default value s used for model B, T _x is about 35°C. When <u>For</u> b =0.063 <u>,</u> as estimated <u>by</u>		
370	Hagerty et al., (2014), <i>T</i> _x does not exist<u>< 0 °</u>C, therefore irrespective of the value of x,	 Formatted: Superscript	
371	therefore the equilibrium soil carbon pool size as simulated by model B always increases		
372	with soil warming for most terrestrial ecosystems, irrespective of the value of <u>x</u> .	 Formatted: Font: Italic	
272	Therefore the simulated responses of the equilibrium call eacher need to warming by the		
3/3	Therefore the <u>simulated responses of the equilibrium</u> son carbon poor <u>to warming by the</u>		
374	two models can be quite different: the equilibrium soil carbon pool size always decreases		
375	with soil warming in model A, but can increase or decrease in model B, depending on its-the		
376	temperature sensitivities of microbial growth efficiency and microbial turnover rate and the		
377	fraction of carbon input entering soil carbon pool directly.		
378	3.3 The reResponse of soil carbon to an increased litter input		
379	Here weWe compare the simulated responses of soil carbon to litter addition by the two		
380	models with field measurements from an experiment as described by Sayer et al., (2011).		
I			

0.00

381	The experiment used three treatments: litter removal with aboveground litter being		
382	removed regularly (L ⁻); increased litter input (L ⁺) with the addeditional litter from the litter		
383	removal treatment <u>;</u> - litter remove <u>removal (L⁻),</u> with aboveground litter being removed		
384	regularly;, and a control (C). Measurements of CO ₂ efflux from soil were made, and the		
385	contribution of root-rhizosphere respiration to soil respiration was estimated using <u>a</u> δ^{13} C		
386	technique. Sayer et al. (2011) found that the CO_2 efflux from the decomposition of soil		
387	organic carbon in the L ⁺ treatment was 46% higher than in the control. <u>+t</u> herefore <u>.</u>		
388	increased litter addition accelerated the decomposition of soil organic carbon. Here we		
389	assess whether the observed response of soil carbon decomposition to increased litter input		
390	can be reproduced by <u>running</u> both models <u>for L⁺ and C treatments</u>		Formatted: Superscript
201			
391	Inputs to each model, including the monthly data of soil temperature and, soil moisture,		
392	litter input from 2002 to 2008 for two treatments (C and L') at the site, were compiled from		
393	Sayer, Power and Tanner, (2007), and Sayer and Tanner (2010a, 2010b). Here Figure 4 for		
394	monthly litter input as an example). We also assumed that the contribution of fine-root		
395	respiration to total soil respiration (root respiration plus heterotrophic respiration) was 35%		
396	for the control treatment and 21% for the litter addition treatment, based on the estimates		
397	by Sayer et al., (2011).		
398	The initial sizes of all pools were obtained by running each model by with the reusing the		
399	monthly input <u>s for the for the</u> first two years <u>repeated</u> until all pools reached steady state		
400	(i.e. the change is-in pool size between two successive cycles is less than 0.01%).		
401	Using the initial pool sizes for each model and the monthly input from 2002 to 2008, we		
402	numerically integrated both models and calculated the average contributions to total soil		
403	CO_2 efflux from the decomposition of litter and soil organic carbon for the last 2 years		
404	(2007-8), and compared the simulated results with the estimates from field measurements		
405	by Sayer et al., (2011).		
406	By tuning values of two model parameters (μ_{pR} and K_{pR}) (see Table 1), we obtained an The		Formatted: Subscript
407	simulated initial microbial biomass carbon by both models is 240 g C m ⁻² , for both models,		Formatted: Font: Italic Formatted: Subscript
408	which is very close to the measured microbial biomass carbon of 219 g C m ⁻² by Sayer et al.,	l	
409	(2007). The simulated initial soil carbon is 6715 g C m $^{\text{-}2}$ for model A and 6945 g C m $^{\text{-}2}$ for		
410	model B, which is higher than the estimated soil carbon of 5110 gC m $^{-2}$ in the top 25 cm		

411 (Cavelier et al., 1992) and lower than the estimated soil carbon of 9272 g C m⁻² in the top 50
412 cm soil (Grimm, 2007).

- 413 The estimated total soil CO₂ efflux from the control treatment by Sayer et al., (2011) was
- 414 1008 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ from 2007 to 2008, which was closely simulated by both models (1004 g
- 415 C m⁻² year⁻¹ by model A and 1008 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ by model B). However both models
- 416 overestimated the total soil CO₂ efflux from the litter addition treatment. The estimated
- $\,$ 417 $\,$ $\,$ efflux by Sayer et al., (2011) was 1380 g C m^{-2} year^{-1}, as compared with the simulated flux of
- 418 1425 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ by model A and 1502 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ by model B (see Figure 5).
- 419 The additional CO₂ efflux from the decomposition of soil carbon in the litter addition
- 420 treatment was estimated to be 180±50 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ by Sayer et al., (2011), which was quite
- 421 well simulated by model B (105 g C m⁻² year⁻¹) (see Figure 5B), but was underestimated by
- 422 model A (29 g C m^{-2} year⁻¹) (see Figure 5A).
- 423 The difference in the simulated response of soil organic carbon decomposition to the 424 increased litter input by the two models can be explained by differences in their substrateMichaelis Menten kinetics. The rate of carbon loss from the decomposition of soil 425 426 carbon depends on both soil carbon and microbial biomass in both models. Because soil 427 carbon is unlikely to change significantly within a few years, the rate of CO_2 emission from soil carbon decomposition will largely depend on microbial biomass, and that dependence is 428 nonlinear following the reverse Michaelis-Menten equation in model A (see eqn 2), and but 429 is linear in model B (see eqn 7). Therefore the simulated response of soil organic carbon 430 431 decomposition to increased litter input by model B is more sensitive to microbial biomass_{τ} 432 and is higher than that by than model A.
- 433 3.4 Response to priming: maximum CO₂ efflux from soil carbon decomposition
- Results from the above comparison of the responses of two models to the increased litter
 input are likely dependent on soil temperature, carbon input, and model parameter values.
 To understand the differences of the responses of <u>our</u> two models to litter addition <u>at</u>
 <u>different rates across a range of carbon inputs</u> and soil temperatures <u>forat</u> any parameter
 values, we use the analytic approximations to maximum CO₂ efflux from the priming
 treatment for each model to identify key differences in their response to priming.

440 Priming is defined as the change of organic carbon decomposition rate after the addition of 441 an easily decomposable organic substance to soil (Kuzyakove, Friedel and Stahr, 2000). In 442 lab priming experiments, a given amount of isotopically labelled C substrate is added to the 443 primed treatment only at the beginning of the experiment $(t=0)_7$ and no substrate is added to the control. CO₂ effluxes from soil carbon decomposition are estimated from 444 445 measurements for the following weeks or longer (Cheng et al., 2014). The effect of priming, p, is calculated as $(R_p-R_c)/R_c$, where R_c and R_p are the CO₂ efflux from the decomposition of 446 soil organic carbon in the control and primed treatments, respectively. Maximum values of 447 448 p are usually reported in most priming studies (see Cheng et al., 2014). 449 However analytic approximations to p for both models are quite cumbersome for analysing 450 their differences in the responses to priming. Another way to quantify the priming effect is by measuring the maximum CO_2 efflux from soil organic carbon decomposition after carbon 451 452 addition at time t=0 from the primed treatment (Jenkinson et al., 1985; Kuzyakova, Friedelb 453 and Stahr, 2000). This quantity can be easily measured in the laboratory or field.

In both models, the equilibrium soil microbial biomass is proportional to carbon input (see eqns 11 and 13). In the primed treatment, the amount of carbon added at t=0 usually is well above the rate of the carbon input under natural conditions, and no further carbon is added. at t>0. Therefore the microbial biomass will increase until reaching a maximum value, then decreases with time after t=0.

As shown in Appendix C, the maximum CO_2 efflux from soil carbon decomposition in the primed treatment, F_{max} , is a function of depends on the maximum microbial biomass after t=0 and, microbial growth efficiency for both models, and also on and soil carbon turnover rate for model A (see eqn C11-C12 for F_A), and and on the maximum microbial biomass, microbial growth efficiency and microbial turnover rate after t=0 for model B (see eqn C14 C15 for F_B).

Figure 6 shows that F_{max} (or F_A for model A, F_B for model B) increases with carbon input, and decreases with an increase in soil temperature for both models.

However, the sensitivity of F_{max} to carbon input at different soil temperatures is different between the two models. For model A, the sensitivity of F_{max} to carbon input is greatest around a soil temperature of 25 °C, and is quite small at a soil temperature < 5 °C. For model B, the sensitivity of F_{max} to carbon input decreases with an increase in soil temperature (see Figure 6).

472The sensitivity of F_{max} to soil temperatures in both models can be explained by the analytic473approximations (eqn C11-C12 for model A and C14-C15 for model B). Maximum CO2 efflux is474proportional to soil carbon in model A, and to the maximum microbial biomass in model B.475B, both soil carbon and maximum microbial biomass in both models decrease with an476increase in soil temperature for the parameter values we used (see Figure 6c), therefore

477 F_{max} also decreases with an increase in soil temperature.

478 Differences in the sensitivity of F_{max} to carbon input at different soil temperatures in the two 479 models can also be explained by their respective analytic approximations, particularly the dependence of maximum microbial biomass on both carbon input and initial microbial 480 481 biomass in model A (see eqn C11) and on equilibrium litter carbon pool size in model B (see 482 eqn C14-), because Fmax depends on the maximum microbial biomass in both models. In model A, FA nonlinearly varies with maximum microbial biomass (see Eqn C11C12), which 483 484 increases linearly with is proportional to carbon addition at t=0 (ΔC_i) and varies nonlinearly with the initial pool size of microbial biomass (C_b^*) (see Eqn <u>C10C11</u>). <u>Because C_b^* increases with</u> 485 486 <u>a decrease in soil temperature or an increase in $\Delta C_{\rm L}$ (see Figure 6c), $F_{\rm A}$ increases with an increase in</u> 487 $\Delta C_{\rm I}$ (either directly Eqn C11 or via the effect on $C_b^{\rm b}$), and with a decrease in soil temperature (via the 488 temperature dependence of C_h^*). Therefore the sensitivity of F_A to $\mathcal{A}C_i$ varies with $\mathcal{A}C_i$ itself and 489 C_{h}^{*} -nonlinearly, or the sensitivity is larger at a smaller value of C_{h}^{*} -For a given F_{npp} , 490 $\frac{C_{\mu}}{C_{\mu}}$ decreases with an increase in soil temperature. At high soil temperature, $\frac{C_{\mu}}{C_{\mu}}$ is low (see 491 Figure 6c), therefore sensitivity to maximum microbial biomass and carbon input is high (see 492 Figure 6a). 493 In model B, the sensitivity of $F_{\rm B}$ to carbon input is determined by the maximum microbial

biomass $(C_{bmax,B})$, which that varies with equilibrium litter pool size (C_l^*) following the regular Michaelis-Menten equation $(C_{bmax,B} \propto M_l$ in eqn C13C14) for a given amount of carbon input (ΔC_l). The equilibrium litter carbon pool size increases with soil temperature, and is independent of carbon input based on eqn (12) (see Figure 6d). When soil temperature is low, C_l^* is low, therefore sensitivity of F_B to carbon input is high. When, or Formatted: Font: Italic Formatted: Subscript

499 when soil temperature is high, C_l^* is high and, the sensitivity of F_B in model B to carbon input 500 is low because of saturating response in the regular Michaelis-Menten equation.

501 4. Discussion

Here we analysed the responses of different carbon pools to perturbation, soil warming and
increased carbon input in two nonlinear microbial soil carbon models. Table 2 listed
theirlists the key differences of those responses.

505 Some of those the differences between the two models also depend on the chosen 506 parameter values in for each model. For example, there has been a debate about the 507 temperature sensitivities of microbial biomass turnover rate and microbial growth efficiency 508 (Frey et al., 2013; Hargety et al., 2014), and the simulated sensitivity of soil carbon to 509 warming (Hagerty et al. 2014). Regardless of the temperature sensitivity of microbial growth 510 efficiency, model A always simulates a decrease in the equilibrium soil carbon under 511 warming, whereas model B can simulate an increase or a decrease in the equilibrium soil 512 carbon under warming, depending on the temperature sensitivities of microbial growth 513 efficiency and turnover rate. If microbial growth efficiency is microbial turnover rate is not 514 sensitive to soil temperature and microbial turnover rate is notmicrobial growth efficiency 515 is, as found by Frey et al (2013), the simulated responses of equilibrium soil carbon to 516 warming by the two nonlinear models are guite similar in the direction of response over 517 temperate and boreal regions, but different in the tropical regions. This is because the 518 minimum soil carbon temperature, T_x for model B is about 25 °C for x= 0.015 K⁻¹ and a=0.05, 519 the values that used by Allison et al., (2010) and German et al., (2012) (see Figure 3a), then. 520 In that case the equilibrium soil carbon, as simulated by model B, will decrease over most 521 temperate and boreal regions, for which the where-mean soil temperature within the 522 rooting zone is below 25 °C for most time of the growing season, and will increase in tropical 523 regions, for which where the mean soil temperature of in the top 100 cm of soil is close to 524 25 °C for most time of the year with soil warming. Therefore the simulated responses of 525 equilibrium soil carbon to warming by the two nonlinear models are quite similar in the 526 direction of response over temperate and boreal regions, but different in the tropical 527 regions. However if microbial turnover rate is sensitive to soil temperature and microbial 528 growth efficiency is not, as found by Hargety et al., (2014), then T_x is < 0°C at α_s >0.055 (°C)⁻

¹, for model B, causing, therefore equilibrium soil carbon will to increase in model B with
 warming, but decrease in model A with warming. Therefore, the predicted
 responses of soil carbon to warming by the two nonlinear models differ significantly across
 all major global biomes where mean rooting zone soil temperature over the growing season
 is above 0 °C.

534 Some of the key differences in the responses of the two nonlinear models can be used to 535 differentiate which model is more applicable to the real world-using field measurements. For example, the oscillatory response of model A generally is quite small (<1%), which is 536 537 quite consistent with the results from litter removal experiments (Sayer, Powers and 538 Tanner, (2007) for example). The relatively large and more persistent oscillation in model B has not been observed in the field, and the insensitivity of soil carbon to a perturbation in 539 the litter or soil microbial carbon pool in model B also needs to be assessed against long 540 541 term field experiments such as the DIRT experiment (Nadelhoffer et al., 2004). Model B at in 542 its present form may not be applicable to under field conditions. It has been argued that the influences of microbial community structure and their activities on mineral soil carbon 543 544 decomposition at field scale may be much smaller than at the rhizosphere scale (Schimel 545 and Schaeffer, 2012), because substrate concentration rather microbial activity is the rate-546 limiting step for the decomposition of soil organic matter in mineral soils. A recent study by 547 Sulman et al., (2014) clearly showed the importance of physical protection of microbial by-548 products in forming stable soil organic matter, and its implications on-for the response of 549 global soil carbon to carbon inputs. This mechanism has been recently incorporated into a nonlinear soil microbial carbon model (Wieder et al., 2014). Whether the large oscillatory 550 551 responses of model B will be significantly dampdampened with by the addition of the such 552 physical protection mechanism is yet to be studied.

The two models also have quite different sensitivity sensitivities to soil warming (see Table
2), particularly in the warm regions. Results from a decade-long soil warming experiment
showed that warming did not reduce soil carbon, because plant carbon production
increased as a result of the increased availability of soil mineral nitrogen in that a nitrogenlimiting limited forest (Melillo et al., 2002). However this is quite a different mechanism as
because represented in model B in our study that does not include a nitrogen cycle and nor
the response of carbon input to warming in our study.

560 Overall both models can simulate the priming response to a change in carbon inputs. 561 although model A simulates a lower response than model B and has different the sensitivities to carbon input at different soil temperature are different between the two 562 modelsfrom model B, particularly under cool climate conditions (see Table 2). So far, results 563 from litter manipulation experiments in the field have not been analysed for their sensitivity 564 565 to soil temperature. The differences in the responses of soil carbon decomposition to an increased carbon input we identified between the two models can also be used to assess 566 which model is more applicable in the field using experiments with different carbon input 567 under cool (mean annual air temperature <10 °C) and warm (mean annual temperature >20 568 569 °C) conditions. If the sensitivity of soil carbon decomposition to an increased carbon input 570 under cool conditions is greater than that under warm conditions, then model B is more appropriate than model A. This has yet to be tested. 571 572 Our analysis here does not include some other key processes, such as the transformations of 573 different forms of organic carbon substrates by different microbial communities as included 574 in some models (see Grant 2014; Riley et al. 2014 for example). T, therefore the conclusions 575 from this study about the two nonlinear models should be interpreted with some caution. 576 As shown by Tang and Riley (2014), interactions among soil mineral sorption, carbon 577 substrate and microbial processes can generate transient changes in the apparent sensitivity 578 of soil carbon decomposition to soil temperature, therefore the static dependence of 579 microbial processes on soil temperature as used in our study may not be applicable, and minimum soil carbon temperature as predicted may differ significantly from field 580 581 observations. Our simplification of different soil the soil microbial community and variable 582 quality of soil carbon as observed soil carbon fractions in the field is necessary for analytic 583 tractability, but may also limit the applicability of our results to field experiments. For 584 example, Allison (2012) showed that the apparent kinetics of soil carbon decomposition can 585 vary with the spatial scale: the regular Michaelis-Menten kinetics at microsites coupled with 586 an explicit representation of different strategies for facilitations and competitions among 587 different microbial taxam can generated litter carbon decomposition kinetics with a kinetics similar to the reverse Michaelis-Menten equation. Therefore the identified differences 588 589 between the two models should vary with the spatial scale.

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590	The regular and reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics can be considered as two special cases of			
591	a more general kinetics, as discussed by Tang (2015). Both models use different mass			
592	balance constraints (see Tang 2015), which are unlikely to hold across a wide range of			
593	conditions. In real world, the kinetics and parameter values of carbon decomposition likely			
594	depend on a number of other factors, such as soil physical properties, substrate quality and			
595	soil nutrient availability (Manzoni and Porporato, 2009). Future studies of soil carbon			
596	decomposition kinetics need to include those factors and the role of root growth dynamics			
597	and photosynthetic activities in rhizosphere priming (see Kuzyakov 2002).			
598	Finally both models have a number of parameters, and their values are largely based on			
599	laboratory studies (Allison et al., 2010). The values of those parameters may be quite			
600	different under field conditions. Evaluation of their applicability under a wide range of field			
601	conditions will require an integrated approach, such as applications of model-data fusion			

603 understanding of the significance of microbial activity on soil carbon decomposition and a

using a range of field experiments (Wieder et al., 2015). This will eventually lead a better

604 more accurate prediction<u>s</u> of carbon-climate interaction<u>s</u>-under future climate conditions.

605 **5. Conclusions**

602

This study analyzed analyzed the mathematical properties of two nonlinear microbial soil carbon models and their responses to soil warming and carbon input. We found that the model using the reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics (model A) has short and more frequent oscillations than the model using regular Michaelis-Menten kinetics (model B) in response to a small perturbation.

The responses of soil carbon to warming can be quite different between the two models.

Under global warming, model A always simulates a decrease in soil carbon, but model B will
likely simulate a decrease in soil carbon in temperate and boreal regions, and an increase in
soil carbon in tropical regions, depending on the sensitivities of microbial growth efficiency
and microbial biomass turnover rate in model B.

- 616 The response to carbon input varies <u>with</u> soil temperature in both models. The simulated
- 617 maximum response to priming by model A generally is smaller than that by model B₃₇
- 618 because of the faster decline in microbial biomass and rate of SOC decomposition of the

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619	control treatments as simulated by model B. The maximum rate of CO2 efflux from SOC
620	decomposition (F_{max}) to carbon input in the primed treatment decreases with an increase in
621	soil temperature in both models, and the sensitivity of F_{max} to the amount of carbon input
622	increases with soil temperature in model A; but decreases monotonically with an increase in
623	soil temperature in model B. depends on initial microbial biomass at steady state in model
624	A, and on the initial litter carbon pool size at steady state in model B, and both
625	dependencies are nonlinear with a saturation response at large microbial biomass or litter
626	carbon pool sizes. Steady state microbial biomass decreases with an increase in soil
627	temperature in both models, and steady state litter carbon increases with an increase in soil
628	temperature, therefore the sensitivity of F _{max} to carbon input increases with an increase in
629	soil temperature until soil temperature is lower than 2x.ºC in model A, and decreases with
630	an increase in soil temperature in model B.

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- 631 Based on those differences between the two models, we can design laboratory or field
- 632 experiments to assess which model is more applicable in <u>the</u> real world <u>and</u>, therefore,
- advance our understanding of the importance of microbial processes at regional to globalscales.

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775	

776 Appendix A: Stability analysis of model A

The Jacobian at the equilibrium pool sizes, **J**, is given by

778
$$J = \begin{pmatrix} -a_1 & -a_3 & 0\\ \epsilon a_1 & \epsilon (a_3 + a_4) - \mu_b & \epsilon a_2\\ 0 & \mu_b - a_4 & -a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (A1)

779 where $a_1 = \mu_l g$, $a_2 = \mu_s g$, $a_3 = \mu_l C_l^* \frac{\partial g}{\partial C_b}|_{C_b = C_b^*}$, $a_4 = \mu_s C_s^* \frac{\partial g}{\partial C_b}|_{C_b = C_b^*}$

780 $g = \frac{C_b^*}{C_b^* + K_b}$, $\frac{\partial g}{\partial C_b}|_{C_b = C_b^*} = \frac{K_b}{(C_b^* + K_b)^2}$, and C_l^* , C_b^* and C_s^* are the equilibrium pool sizes of litter

781 carbon, microbial biomass and soil carbon in g C m^{-2} , respectively.

782 T<u>he t</u>hree eigenvalues of **J** are given by

783
$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-c_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l) + \sqrt{c_b^* F_\Delta}}{2(c_b^* + K_b)} \\ \frac{-c_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l) - \sqrt{c_b^* F_\Delta}}{2(c_b^* + K_b)} \\ -\mu_s g \end{pmatrix}$$
(A2)

784 where $F_{\Delta} = C_b^* (\mu_b - \mu_l)^2 - 4\mu_b \mu_l K_b (1 - \varepsilon)$.

These three eigenvalues correspond to three carbon pools (λ_1 for litter carbon, λ_2 for

microbial biomass and λ_3 for soil carbon). If the eigenvalue of a carbon pool is complex, then

787 the response of that pool to a small perturbation is oscillatory, or monotonic otherwise. If

788 the real part of the eigenvalue is negative, then the response is stable.

Therefore, the responses of all three carbon pools to a small perturbation are monotonic if $F_{\Delta} > 0$, or $F_{npp} > 4 \frac{(1-\varepsilon)^2}{\varepsilon} \frac{\mu_l \mu_b^2}{(\mu_b - \mu_l)^2} K_b$, or oscillatory otherwise (or $F_{\Delta} < 0$). The responses of all carbon pools are always are stable because $\frac{-C_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l)}{2(C_b^* + K_b)} < 0$.

792 The corresponding eigenvectors of J are given by

793
$$(v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3) \approx \begin{pmatrix} A + B\sqrt{C_b^* F_\Delta} & A - B\sqrt{C_b^* F_\Delta} & 0\\ \frac{-C_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l - 2\mu_s) + \sqrt{C_b^* F_\Delta}}{2\mu_b C_b^*} & \frac{-C_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l - 2\mu_s) - \sqrt{C_b^* F_\Delta}}{2\mu_b C_b^*} & 0\\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (A3)

794 where
$$A = -\frac{(\mu_b - \mu_l)(\mu_l - \mu_s)}{2\varepsilon\mu_b\mu_l} - (\varepsilon^{-1} - 1)\frac{K_b}{C_b^*}$$

795
$$B = \frac{\mu_l - \mu_s}{2\varepsilon \mu_b \mu_l C_b^*}.$$

When the responses of carbon pools to a small perturbation are oscillatory and stable, the amplitude of oscillation decreases exponentially after t=0. The oscillatory response can be characterized by its half-life ($t_{0.5}$) and period (p) (both in years) calculated from their eigenvalues-of J. The amplitude of a stable oscillation decreases exponentially over time, and time when the amplitude is half as much as the amplitude at t=0 is defined as $t_{0.5}$. $t_{0.5}$ and p are calculated as

802
$$t_{0.5} = -\frac{\ln(2)}{\frac{-C_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l)}{2(c_b^* + K_b)}} = \frac{2\ln(2)(c_b^* + K_b)}{C_b^*(\mu_b + \mu_l)}$$
 (A4)

803
$$p = \frac{2\pi}{\frac{\sqrt{-c_b^* F_\Delta}}{2(c_b^* + K_b)}} = \frac{2\pi(c_b^* + K_b)}{\sqrt{-c_b^* F_\Delta}}$$
 (A5)

for model A. Wang et al. (2014) gave the formulae for $t_{0.5}$ and p for model B (their eqns 24 and 25).

As shown in Figure A1, the half-life is longest for both models when soil temperature is high and carbon input is low, conditions often experienced in arid ecosystems, implying a strong oscillation at these conditions. At a given soil temperature and carbon input, the half-life for model A is about half as much as that for model B (see Figures A1A and A1B). When carbon input is > 1000 g C m⁻² year⁻¹, as in tropical rainforests, the half-life is less than 1 year for model A at a soil temperature between 20 °C and 30 °C, and for model B at a soil temperature between 0°C and 20 °C only.

- 813 Over the range of realistic carbon input<u>s</u> and soil temperature<u>s</u>, the values of both $t_{0.5}$ and p814 of model A are less than half as much as those of model B (See Figure A1). Therefore the 815 responses of carbon pool sizes to a small perturbation in model A oscillate faster and those 816 oscillations also <u>dampdampen</u> faster than model B.
- 817 As shown by Wang et al., (2014) (their Appendix B, eqn B1, there *q*_i is eigenvalue and *y*_i is
- 818 <u>eigenvector</u>), the evolution of each carbon pool after a small perturbation can be

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819	mathematically represented using the eigenvalues, eigenvectors and initial pool sizes (eqn
820	B1 in Appendix B of Wang et al. (2014)). The third elements of the eigenvectors
821	corresponding to litter carbon (v_1 in eqn A3) and microbial biomass (v_2 in eqn A3) represent
822	the influences of those two carbon pools at any timeton soil carbon. Because those
823	elements are nonzeroequal to 1 (see the matrix in Eqn A3), therefore the oscillation of litter
824	carbon and microbial biomass will also cause the response of soil carbon to be oscillatory,
825	although the oscillation is small and dampdampens very quickly. In model B, the third
826	elements of the eigenvectors corresponding to litter carbon and microbial biomass zero (see
827	the bottom row of the matrix in A4 of Wang et al. (2014)), therefore oscillatory responses of
828	litter carbon and microbial biomass have no effect on the response of soil carbon, and the
829	eigenvalue of the soil carbon in model B is negative real, therefore the response of soil
830	carbon to a small perturbation always is monotonic and stable in model B (see Appendix A
831	in Wang et al. 2014).

833 Appendix B: Soil temperature at which equilibrium soil carbon pool is minimum (T_x)

834 The steady state soil carbon pool size of model A is

835
$$C_s^* = \left(a + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{-1} - 1}\right) \frac{F_{npp}}{\mu_s} + \left(1 + a(\varepsilon^{-1} - 1)\right) \frac{\mu_b K_b}{\mu_s}$$
 (B1)

The first term on the right-hand side of eqn (B1) always decreases with an increase in T_{s} , and the second term has two parts: $(1 + a(\varepsilon^{-1} - 1))$ and $\frac{\mu_b K_b}{\mu_s}$. Because Both K_b and μ_s increase with T_s exponentially, and the sensitivity μ_s to T_s is much greater than K_b , therefore $\frac{K_b}{\mu_s}$ always decreases with an increase in T_s , and that decrease is much greater than the increase in $(1 + a(\varepsilon^{-1} - 1))$ with T_{sT} . As a result, therefore the second term also decreases with an increase in soil temperature, independent of temperature sensitivity of μ_b . In summary for model A, $\frac{dC_s^*}{dT_s} < 0$.

843 The steady state pool of soil carbon in model B is

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844
$$C_s^* = \frac{K_s}{\frac{V_s}{\mu_b} \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon + a(1 - \varepsilon)} - 1}$$
(B2)

845 Assuming that $\frac{V_s}{\mu_b} \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon + a(1-\varepsilon)} > 1$, we can therefore approximate C_s^* as

846
$$C_{s}^{*} \approx \frac{K_{s}}{\frac{V_{s}}{\mu_{b}} \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon + a(1-\varepsilon)}} = \frac{K_{sR}\mu_{bR}}{V_{sR}} \exp\left[\left(\beta_{k} + b - \beta_{v}\right)\left(T_{s} - T_{R}\right)\right] \left[1 + a\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{0} - x(T_{s} - T_{R})} - 1\right)\right]$$
(B3)

847 It can be easily shown that T_x can only exist only when $\beta_k + b - \beta_v \le 0$ and 0 < a < 1

848 And

849
$$T_x = T_R + \frac{\varepsilon_0 - z}{x}$$
(B4)

850
$$z = -0.5 \frac{a}{1-a} + 0.5 \sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{1-a}\right)^2 - 4\left(\frac{a}{1-a}\right)\frac{x}{\beta_k + b - \beta_\nu}}$$
 (B5)

851 When a=0, T_x does not exist and

852
$$\frac{dC_s^*}{dT_s} < 0; \text{ when } \beta_k + b - \beta_v \le 0;$$
(B6)

853
$$\frac{dc_s^*}{dT_s} > 0; \text{ when } \beta_k + b - \beta_\nu > 0$$
(B7)

854 for model B.

855

Appendix C. Derivation of <u>an</u> analytic approximation for <u>the</u> timing and magnitude of <u>the</u> maxim<u>um</u> microbial biomass after priming

858 Both models can be used to simulate the response of soil carbon to priming by specifying 859 different initial pool sizes for the primed and control treatments. The initial values are

860
$$C_l(t=0) = C_l^* + \Delta C_l; C_b(t=0) = C_b^* \text{ and } C_s(t=0) = C_s^* \text{ for } \underline{\text{the priming treatment}};$$

861
$$C_l(t=0) = C_l^*$$
; $C_b(t=0) = C_b^*$ and $C_s(t=0) = C_s^*$ for the control.

Here we assume that all pools are at equilibrium just before the priming treatment at t=0. C_l^*, C_b^* and C_s^* are equilibrium pool sizes, and ΔC_l is the amount of litter carbon added at time t=0. No carbon is added to both treatments after t=0.

The CO₂ efflux from soil carbon decomposition is calculated using eqn (15) for model A and 865 eqn (16) for model B. Therefore we need to solve the three equations for C_b and C_s for t>0. 866 Observations show that maximum priming response occurs soon after priming treatment 867 (Kuzyakova, Friedelb and Stahr, 2000), therefore maximum priming response can be 868 considered as a short-time scale phenomenon. At short-time scale, C_s can be considered as 869 being constant, and the maximum CO₂ efflux from the priming treatment will occur when 870 871 the microbial biomass reaches <u>a</u> maximum after t=0. Therefore we will use a second-order Taylor expansion to obtain the approximate solutions to the timing and magnitude of 872 873 maximum CO_2 efflux from the soil carbon decomposition in the priming treatment for each 874 model.

875 For model A, eqn(1) and (2) for both treatments after t>0 becomes

876
$$\frac{dC_l}{dt} = -\mu_l C_l \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b}$$
(C1)

877
$$\frac{dC_s}{dt} = \mu_b C_b - \mu_s C_s \frac{C_b}{C_b + K_b}$$

As the litter pool size at time t=0 is above its equilibrium value, therefore the microbial
biomass will likely increase after t=0 and then reaches its maximum value, and then decline.
Eqns (C1), (2) and (3) can be simplified using variable substitution.

881 Let

885

882
$$\tilde{C}_b = \frac{C_b}{K_b}, \tilde{C}_l = \frac{C_l}{K_b} \frac{\mu_l}{\mu_b}, \tilde{C}_s = \frac{C_s}{K_b} \frac{\mu_s}{\mu_b}, \Delta \tilde{C}_l = \frac{\Delta C_l}{K_b} \frac{\mu_l}{\mu_b}, \tau = t\mu_b, a_1 = \frac{\mu_l}{\mu_b}, a_2 = \frac{\mu_s}{\mu_b}, a_3 = \frac{F_{NPP}\mu_l}{K_b\mu_b^2}$$

883 Then those three equations can be written as

884
$$\frac{d\tilde{c}_l}{d\tau} = -a_1 \tilde{C}_l \frac{\tilde{c}_b}{\tilde{c}_b + 1}$$
(C2)

$$\frac{d\tilde{c}_s}{d\tau} = a_2(\tilde{C}_b - \tilde{C}_s \frac{\tilde{c}_b}{\tilde{c}_b + 1})$$

(C3)

886
$$\frac{4c_{h}}{a\tau} = \varepsilon(c_{1}^{2} + c_{h}^{2})\frac{c_{h}}{c_{h}\tau} - C_{h}$$
(C4)
887 with the initial pool sizes of
888 $C_{h}(0) = \frac{a_{h}}{a_{h}} \frac{1}{t_{h}} C_{h}(0) = \frac{a_{h}}{a_{h}} \left(\frac{t_{h}}{t_{h}} + a\right) + 1 + a\frac{1-\varepsilon}{s}$ for both treatments, and $C_{1}(0) = (1 - a)\frac{a_{h}}{a_{h}} + \frac{1-\varepsilon}{s}$) for the
898 $C_{h}(0) = \frac{a_{h}}{a_{h}} \frac{1-\varepsilon}{t_{h}} + \Delta C_{h}$ for the primed treatment; and $C_{h}(0) = (1 - a)\frac{a_{h}}{a_{h}} + \frac{1-\varepsilon}{s}$) for the
899 control treatment.
891 At relatively short-time scales, $a_{s}<4$, $t_{hherefore}C_{h}(t) - C_{h}(t = 0)$. Microbial biomass
892 carbon after $t=0$ can be approximated using the second-order Taylor expansion
803 $(Abrancovit and Steam 1972)$. The term
894 $C_{h}(t) = 0 + C_{h}^{2}(0) + tC_{h}^{2}(0)$ (C5)
895 Differentiating both sides of eqn (C5) with respect to t , we have
896 $C_{h}^{2}(t) = 0 + C_{h}^{2}(0) + tC_{h}^{2}(0) = 0$ (C6)
897 Assuming that $t=t_{max,h}C_{h}^{2}$ is maximum all $t=t_{max,h}}$ then $C_{h}^{2}(t_{max,h}) = 0$. Eqn (C5C6) becomes
898 $C_{h}^{2}(t_{max,h}) = C_{h}^{2}(0) t_{max,h}C_{h}^{2}(0) = 0$ (C4C7)
899 Both $C_{h}^{2}(0)$ and $C_{h}^{2}(0)$ can be obtained differentiating eqn (C4) at $t=0$. We have
800 $C_{h}^{2}(0) = e^{-\frac{C_{h}}{1+C_{h}(0)}} \Delta C_{h}^{2}((1 - a)\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}} + (1 + a_{h})\frac{c_{h}}{1+C_{h}(0)}) \frac{1}{(1+C_{h}(0)^{2}}}$ (C4C3)
901 $C_{h}^{2}(0) = e^{-\frac{C_{h}}{1+C_{h}(0)}} \Delta C_{h}^{2}((1 - a)\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}} + (1 + a_{h})\frac{c_{h}}{1+C_{h}(0)} \frac{1}{(1+C_{h}(0)^{2}}}$ (C9C10)
902 Substituting eqns (G2C3) and (G2C3) into (G2C3), we have the maximum microbial biomass at $t_{max,h}$ or
903 $t_{max,h} = -\frac{1}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{C_{h}}(\frac{0}{m}) = \frac{1}{(2-a_{h}^{2}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}} + (a_{h}a_{h})\frac{c_{h}}{c_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{c_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_{h}}\frac{c_{h}}{a_$

907 The maximum rate of CO₂ release from decomposition of soil organic carbon, F_{co2} at $t=t_{max,A}$ 908 is given by

909
$$F_A = (1 - \varepsilon)\mu_S C_s \frac{C_{bmax,A}}{C_{bmax,A} + K_b}.$$
 (C11C12)

Similarly we derived the approximations for the timing $(t_{max,B})$ and magnitude of maximum microbial biomass $(C_{bmax,B})$ in the primed treatment at t>0. They are as

912
$$t_{max,B} = \frac{1}{\frac{\varepsilon K_l C_b^*}{(\varepsilon M_l - (1-a)(1-\varepsilon)\mu_b)(C_l^* + \Delta C_l)(V_l)^2} - (\varepsilon M_l - (1-a)(1-\varepsilon)\mu_b)}$$
(C12C13)

913
$$C_{bmax,B} = C_b^* \left(1 + 0.5 t_{max,B} (\varepsilon M_l - (1 - a)(1 - \varepsilon)\mu_b) \right)$$
 (C13C14)

914 where

915
$$M_l = \frac{V_l(C_l^* + \Delta C_l)}{C_l^* + \Delta C_l + K_l}$$

916 The rate of CO₂ release from decomposition of soil carbon, F_{B} , for model B at time $t=t_{max,B}$ is 917 given by

918
$$F_B = (1 - \varepsilon) C_{bmax,B} \frac{V_s C_s}{C_s + K_s} \approx (1 - \varepsilon) \mu_b C_{bmax,B}.$$
 (C14C15)

Comparison with numerical simulations show that the relative error of eqn (C11C12) is <3%
across soil temperature and carbon input within their realistic ranges. However errors in
eqn (C14C15) for model 2 can be quite large, particularly at high carbon input. Eqn (C14C15)
is only reasonably accurate (relatively error <10%) at low carbon input <700 g C m⁻².

923 Table 1.Default values of model parameters and their temperature sensitivities (°C⁻¹). Four

924 parameters were tuned: 1: tuned using the microbial biomass data measured from a tropical

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925 <u>forest site (see Sayer et al. 2011); ²: tuned against the soil carbon pool size simulated by</u>

926

model B by Wang et al. (2014).

Default value	Source	Temperature sensitivity	Source	-
<i>E</i> _R =0.39	Allison et al. (2010)	<i>x</i> =0.016	Allison et al. (2010)	-
$\mu_{ m bR}$ =1.1 year-1	This study	<i>b</i> =0.063	Hagerty et al. (2014)	Formatted: Superscript
$\mu_{ m IR}$ =0.84 year-1	This study ²	a⊧=0.063	Hagerty et al. (2014)	Formatted: Superscript
$\mu_{\rm sR}$ =0.028 year ⁻¹	This study ²	<i>α</i> _s =0.063	Hagerty et al. (2014)	Formatted: Superscript
K _{bR} =100 g C m ⁻²	This study	<i>a</i> _k =0.007	Allison et al. (2010)	Formatted: Superscript
<i>K</i> _{IR} =67275 g C m ⁻²	Wang et al. (2014)	$\beta_{\rm kl}$ =0.007	Allison et al. (2010)	-
<i>K</i> _{sR} =363871 g C m ⁻²	Wang et al. (2014)	β _{kss} =0.007	Allison et al. (2010)	-
V _{IR} =172 year ⁻¹	Wang et al. (2014)	β _{vl} =0.063	Allison et al. (2010)	-
V _{sR} =32 year ⁻¹	Wang et al. (2014)	β _{vs} =0.063	Allison et al. (2010)	-

927

928 Table 2. Key differences between the two nonlinear soil microbial models

Response to	Model A	Model B
Pool size	More frequent and faster	Less frequent and slower
perturbation	dampdampened oscillations in	damp<u>dampen</u>ed oscillation <u>s</u> in
	litter and microbial carbon pools	litter and microbial carbon pools
	Soil carbon pool may oscillate	Soil carbon pool does not oscillate
Warming	Soil carbon pool always decreases	Soil carbon may increase or
		decrease
Carbon input	Sensitivity of maximum CO ₂ efflux	Sensitivity of maximum CO ₂ efflux
	increases with soil temperature	decreases with soil temperature







941

942 Figure 2. Dynamics of litter carbon (A,B), microbial carbon (C,D) or soil carbon (E,F) for model A (A,C

and E) or model B (B,D and F) after a 10% reduction of initial pool size in litter and microbial carbon.
The unit is g C m⁻² for carbon pool on y-axis and year for time. All initial pools are steady state values

945 for a carbon input of 200 g C m⁻² year⁻¹ at a soil temperature is 25 °C.







Figure 4. Mean monthly total (above and belowground) litter carbon input to the control or litteraddition treatment.



960 Figure 5. Simulated response of soil CO_2 efflux in control and litter addition (L+) experiments as

961 described by Sayer et al. (2014) using model A (A) or B (B). The dark grey bar and black bars

represent CO₂ effluxes from litter and soil organic carbon decomposition, respectively. The light grey
 bar for the litter addition treatment represents the additional CO₂ efflux from soil organic carbon

964 decomposition due to additional litter input.





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Figure 6. Dependence of maximum rate of CO2 efflux from the decomposition of soil carbon in the primed treatment (F_{max}) as a function of soil temperature and carbon addition at time t=0 for Model A (a) or B (b). At each soil temperature, the carbon input was varied from 100 g C m⁻² to 1000 g C m⁻ ?, and F_{max} increases with an increase in carbon input as shown by the arrow in each plot. (c) variation of equilibrium soil microbial biomass with soil temperature and carbon input at 200 (solid black), 600 (long shaded) and 1000 (short-dashed) g C m⁻² year⁻¹ for <u>both modelsModel A</u>; and (d) variation of equilibrium litter carbon with soil temperature in <u>M</u>model B.



