

1 **Temperature exerted no influence on the soil organic matter**  
2  **$\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of surface soil along the isopleth of 400 mm mean**  
3 **annual precipitation in China**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Soil organic carbon is the largest pool of terrestrial ecosystem and its carbon isotope  
25 composition is affected by many factors. However, the influence of environmental  
26 factors, especially temperature, on soil organic carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ ) is poorly  
27 constrained. This impedes interpretations and application of variability of organic  
28 carbon isotope in reconstructions of paleoclimate and paleoecology and global carbon  
29 cycling. With a considerable temperature gradient along the 400 mm isohyet (isopleth  
30 of mean annual precipitation – MAP) in China, this isohyet provides ideal  
31 experimental sites for studying the influence of temperature on soil organic carbon  
32 isotope. In this study, the effect of temperature on surface soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was assessed by a  
33 comprehensive investigation from 27 sites across a temperature gradient along the  
34 isohyet. This work demonstrates that temperature did not play a role in soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , and  
35 this suggests that organic carbon isotopes in sediments cannot be used for the  
36 paleotemperature reconstruction, and that the effect of temperature on organic carbon  
37 isotopes can be neglected in the reconstruction of paleoclimate and paleovegetation.  
38 Multiple regressions with MAT (mean annual temperature), MAP, altitude, latitude  
39 and longitude as independent variables, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  as the dependent variable, show  
40 that the five environmental factors in total account for only 9% soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  variance.  
41 However, one-way ANOVA analyses suggest that soil and vegetation types are  
42 significant influential factors on soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Multiple regressions in which the above  
43 five environmental factors were taken as quantitative variables, vegetation type,  
44 Chinese nomenclature soil type and WRB soil type were introduced as dummy  
45 variables separately, show that 36.2%, 37.4% and 29.7% of the variability in soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
46 are explained, respectively. Compared to the multiple regressions in which only  
47 quantitative environmental variables were introduced, the multiple regressions in  
48 which soil and vegetation were also introduced explain more variance, suggesting that  
49 soil type and vegetation type exerted significant influences on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ .

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## 52 **1. Introduction**

53 Global climate change has recently received a great deal of attention and effective  
54 predictions of future climate change depend on the relevant information from climate  
55 in the geological past. Over recent decades, stable carbon isotopes in sediments such  
56 as loess, paleosol, lacustrine and marine sediments have been widely used to  
57 reconstruct paleo-vegetation and paleo-environments, and provided important insights  
58 into patterns of past climate and environment changes. For examples, many  
59 researchers have used organic carbon isotopes of loess to reconstruct paleo-vegetation  
60 and paleo-precipitation. Vidic and Montañez (2004) conducted a reconstruction of  
61 paleovegetation at the central Chinese Loess Plateau during the Last Glaciation (LG)  
62 and Holocene by using the organic carbon isotopes in loess from Jiaodao, Shanxi  
63 Province. Hatté and Guiot (2005) carried out a palaeo-precipitation reconstruction by  
64 inverse modeling using the organic carbon isotopic signal of the Nußloch loess  
65 sequence (Rhine Valley, Germany). Rao et al. (2013) reconstructed high-resolution  
66 summer precipitation variations in the western Chinese Loess Plateau during the Last  
67 Glaciation using a well-dated organic carbon isotopic data set. Yang et al. (2015)  
68 derived a minimum 300 km northwestward migration of the monsoon rain belt from  
69 the Last Glacial Maximum to the Mid-Holocene using the organic carbon isotopes  
70 from 21 loess sections across the Loess Plateau. However, to our knowledge, no  
71 researchers have conducted paleo-temperature reconstructions using organic carbon  
72 isotope records of loess and paleosol, because it has been argued that temperature  
73 exerts slight, or even no influence on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ . While this may be likely, it needs to be

74 demonstrated because only few studies have addressed the influence of temperature  
75 on organic carbon isotopes of modern surface soil. Lee et al. (2005) and Feng et al.  
76 (2008) both reported no relationship between temperature and surface soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in  
77 central-east Asia. However, Lu et al. (2004) discovered a nonlinear relationship  
78 between mean annual temperature (MAT) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  from the Qinghai-Tibetan  
79 Plateau; Sage et al. (1999) compiled the data from Bird and Pousai (1997) and also  
80 found a nonlinear trend for the variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  along a temperature gradient in  
81 Australian grasslands and savannas.

82 Plant residues are the most important source of soil organic matter.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  is  
83 generally close to plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  despite isotopic fractionation during decomposition of  
84 organic matter (Nadelhoffer and Fry, 1988; Balesdent et al., 1993; Ågren et al., 1996;  
85 Fernandez et al., 2003; Wynn, 2007). Thus, the influential factors of plants  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  might  
86 also influence  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ .  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in plants, especially  $\text{C}_3$  plants, is tightly associated with  
87 precipitation, so precipitation may have an influence on soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Diefendorf et al.,  
88 2010; Kohn, 2010). In addition to the effect of precipitation, many other factors, such  
89 as temperature, air pressure, atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, altitude, latitude and  
90 longitude may also exert influences on variance in plants  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Körner et al., 1991;  
91 Hultine and Marshall, 2000; Zhu et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2015). Although patterns of  
92 variation in plants  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  with temperature are unresolved so far (e.g. Schleser et al.,  
93 1999; McCarroll and Loader, 2004; Treydte et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2013), it has  
94 been widely accepted that temperature has slight effect on plants  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . So, if the  $^{13}\text{C}$   
95 enrichment during SOM decomposition is a constant value, we expect a slight or no

96 influence of temperature on soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . However, the fact is that this  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment is  
97 affected by environmental and biotic factors (Wang et al., 2015). Thus, it is difficult to  
98 expect whether or how temperature affects soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and it needs specific  
99 investigations focusing on this issue. Although the relationship between temperature  
100 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  has been investigated in these previous studies mentioned above, these  
101 studies were unable to effectively separate the influence of temperature from the  
102 effect of precipitation. Thus, further investigations are necessary. The present study  
103 includes an intensive investigation of the variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  with temperature across  
104 a temperature gradient along the 400 mm isohyet (isopleth of mean annual  
105 precipitation - MAP) in China. We sampled surface soil along the specific isohyet to  
106 minimize the effect of precipitation changes on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ .

107 In addition, there are no meteorological stations near most of the sampling sites in  
108 the previous studies mentioned above; thus, they had to interpolate meteorological  
109 data, which could be unrealistic in regions with strong topographical variability. This  
110 interpolation could produce errors in the relationships between temperature and  
111  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  established in these studies. In the present investigation, we collected samples  
112 only at those sites with meteorological stations; thus, the climatic data that we  
113 obtained from these stations are probably more reliable compared with the  
114 pseudo-data derived by interpolation.

115

## 116 **2. Materials and methods**

### 117 2.1. Study site

118 In this study, we set up a transect along the 400 mm isohyet from LangKaZi (site 1,  
119 29°3.309'N, 90°23.469'E) on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau in southwest China, to  
120 BeiJiCun (Site27, 53°17.458'N, 122°8.752'E), in Heilongjiang Province in northeast  
121 China (Fig.1, Table 1). The straight-line distance between the above two sites is about  
122 6000 km. Twenty-seven (27) sampling sites were set along the transect. Among these  
123 sampling sites, 10 sites are located on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau and the others are  
124 in north China. BeiJiCun and KuDuEr have the lowest MAT of -5.5°C while ShenMu  
125 has the highest MAT of +8.9°C. The average MAP of these sites is 402 mm. In north  
126 China, rainfall from June to September accounts for approximately 80% of the total  
127 annual precipitation, and the dominant control over the amount of precipitation is the  
128 strength of the East-Asian monsoon system. In the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, however,  
129 precipitation is associated with both the Southwest monsoon and the Qinghai-Tibetan  
130 Plateau monsoon, and approximately 80% - 90% rainfall occurs in the summer season  
131 (from May to October).

132

133 Fig.1

134 Table 1

## 135 2.2 Soil sampling

136 Soil samples were collected in summer of 2013 between July 12<sup>th</sup> and August 30<sup>th</sup>. In  
137 order to avoid disturbance of human activities, sample sites were chosen 5-7  
138 kilometers far from the towns where the meteorological stations are located. We set  
139 three quadrates (0.5 m×0.5 m) within 200 m<sup>2</sup> to collect surface mineral soil (0-5 cm)

140 using a ring knife. The O-horizon, including litters, moders and mors were removed  
141 before collecting mineral soil. About 10 g air dried soil was sieved at 2 mm. Plant  
142 fragments and the soil fraction coarser than 2 mm were removed. The rest of the soil  
143 samples were immersed using excessive HCl (1 mol/L) for 24 h. In order to ensure  
144 that all carbonate was cleared, we conducted artificial stirring 4 times during the  
145 immersion. Then, the sample was washed to neutrality using distilled water. Finally it  
146 was oven-dried at 50°C and grinded. Carbon isotope ratios were determined on a  
147 Delta<sup>Plus</sup> XP mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) coupled with  
148 an elemental analyzer (FlashEA 1112; CE Instruments, Wigan, UK) in continuous  
149 flow mode. The elemental analyzer combustion temperature was 1020°C.

150 The carbon isotopic ratios are reported in delta notation relative to the V-PDB  
151 standard using the equation:

$$152 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C} = (\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/\text{R}_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

153 where  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is the carbon isotope ratio of the sample (‰);  $\text{R}_{\text{sample}}$  and  $\text{R}_{\text{standard}}$  are the  
154  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratios of the sample and the standard, respectively. For this measurement, we  
155 obtained a standard deviation of less than 0.15‰ among replicate measurements of  
156 the same soil sample.

157

### 158 **3. Results**

159 Except for one  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  value (-18.8‰), all other data ranged from -20.4‰ to -27.1‰  
160 with a mean value of -23.3‰ (n =80, s.d.=1.45). Multiple regression with MAT,  
161 MAP, altitude, latitude and longitude as independent variables, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  as the

162 dependent variable, shows that only 9% of the variability in soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  can be explained  
163 as a linear combination of all five environmental factors ( $p = 0.205$ ) (Table 2).  
164 Considering the possibility of correlations among the five explanatory variables,  
165 stepwise regression was used to eliminate the potential influence of collinearity  
166 among them. Variables were incorporated into the model with  $P$ -value  $< 0.05$  and  
167 excluded with  $P$ -value  $> 0.1$ . Stepwise regression of soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the model consisting  
168 only of latitude ( $R^2 = 0.077$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ). In order to constrain the relationship between  
169 soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and each environmental factor better, bivariate correlation analyses of soil  
170  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  against some environmental factors were conducted. The bivariate correlation  
171 analyses show that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  is not related to MAT ( $p = 0.114$ ) or SMT ( $p = 0.697$ )  
172 along the isohyet (Fig. 2a, b). In addition, in order to determine further the response of  
173  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  to temperature, we considered three subsets of our soil samples defined  
174 according to the climate, topography or vegetation type the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau  
175 (mainly alpine meadow, including 10 sites), steppe or grassland (11 sites) and  
176 coniferous forest (6 sites) (Table 1). Bivariate correlation analyses within these  
177 subsets also show no relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  and MAT for all categories. The  
178 correlation analysis of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  vs. altitude is shown in Fig.3, which displays no  
179 relationship ( $p = 0.132$ ). Although longitude is not found to exert influence on  
180  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  in the above stepwise regression, bivariate correlation analyses show that  
181 latitude and longitude both are negatively related to  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  ( $p = 0.012$  and  $0.034$ ,  
182 respectively) (Fig. 4a,b).

183 In addition to the effects of quantifiable environmental factors, qualitative factors



184 such as soil type and vegetation type may have influence on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ . Varied concepts  
185 have been introduced in soil taxonomy, leaving varied soil nomenclatures in use. In  
186 this study we adopted Chinese soil nomenclature and the World Reference Base  
187 (WRB) to describe the observed soils. The soil was divided into 8 types and 6 types  
188 based on the Chinese Soil Taxonomy and WRB, respectively (Table 1). One-way  
189 ANOVA analyses suggest that soil type and vegetation type both played a significant  
190 role in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  ( $p = 0.002$  for soil types based on the Chinese Soil Taxonomy,  $p =$   
191  $0.003$  for soil type based on WRB and  $p = 0.001$  for vegetation types) (Fig. 5).

192 In order to constrain further the effects of soil type and vegetation type on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ ,  
193 multiple regressions with soil type and vegetation type as dummy variables were  
194 conducted. Considering the tight relationship between soil type and vegetation type,  
195 especially in Chinese soil taxonomy, the soil variables and the vegetation variables  
196 were separately introduced into the statistical analyses. Multiple regression, in which  
197 the above five explanatory environmental factors were taken as quantitative variables  
198 and the 8 soil types of the Chinese nomenclature as values of a dummy variable,  
199 shows that environmental factors and soil types in total account for 37.4% soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
200 variance ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Table 2). 29.7% ( $p = 0.003$ ) of the variability is explained using  
201 the 6 soil types based on WRB rather than the Chinese nomenclature (Table 2).  
202 Similarly, multiple regression with vegetation types as dummy variables shows that  
203 the five environmental factors and vegetation types in total can explain 36.2% of the  
204 variability in soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $p = 0.001$ ) (Table 2). Compared to the multiple regressions in  
205 which only quantitative environmental variables were introduced, the multiple

206 regressions in which soil and vegetation were also introduced explain more variance,  
207 suggesting that soil type and vegetation type really played a significant role in  
208  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  variability.

209 Table 2

210 Fig.2a, b

211 Fig.3

212 Fig.4a, b

213 Fig.5

214

## 215 **4. Discussion**

216 Soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  depends on plants  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and carbon isotopic fractionation during organic  
217 matter decomposition.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  $\text{C}_3$  plants vary between -22‰ and -34‰ with a  
218 mean of -27‰, and  $\text{C}_4$  plants range from -9‰ to -19‰ with a mean of -13‰  
219 (Dienes,1980). Carbon isotope fractionation occurs in the process of plant litter  
220 decomposition into soil organic matter in most environments, especially in non-arid  
221 environments, causing  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment in soil organic matter compared with the plant  
222 sources (Nadelhoffer, 1988; Balesdent et al., 1993; Ågren et al., 1996; Fernandez et al.,  
223 2003; Wynn et al., 2005; Wynn, 2007). An intensive investigation of isotope  
224 fractionation during organic matter decomposition, which was conducted in Mount  
225 Gongga, an area in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau dominated by  $\text{C}_3$  vegetation with  
226 herbs, shrubs and trees, showed that the mean  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment in surface soil (0-5 cm  
227 depth) relative to the vegetation was 2.87‰ (Chen et al., 2009). Another

228 investigation of 13 soil profiles from the Tibetan Plateau and north China showed the  
229  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  difference between surface soil (0-5 cm depth) and the original biomass varied  
230 from 0.6 to 3.5‰ with a mean of 1.8‰ (Wang et al., 2008). Thus, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  data set  
231 of this study ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  ranges from -20.4‰ to -27.1‰) indicates that the modern  
232 terrestrial ecosystem along the isohyet is greatly dominated by  $\text{C}_3$  plants. This result is  
233 consistent with the observations of vegetation along the isohyet done in our previous  
234 study (Wang et al., 2013) and in the present study. We are surprised at such high soil  
235  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values occurring at RiKaZe (site 2) (Fig.3 and Table 1) because only four  $\text{C}_3$   
236 plants grow there while no  $\text{C}_4$  species. The abnormal observation suggests that a very  
237 high carbon isotope fractionation with SOM degradation have taken place in the local  
238 ecosystem. Previous studies have also observed similar phenomenon although the  
239 mechanism accounted for the unusually high isotopic fractionation remains unclear.  
240 For example, Wynn (2007) has reported that the fractionation leaved soil organic  
241 carbon  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment up to  $\sim 6\%$  with respect to the original biomass.

242 The MAT, MAP, altitude, latitude and longitude combined are responsible for only  
243 9% variability in soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the multiple regression model, suggesting that the  
244 contribution of the five environmental factors to the soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  variance is very small.  
245 Our previous study conducted along the isohyet resulted in a strong positive  
246 relationship between  $\text{C}_3$  plant's  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and MAT with a coefficient of  $0.104\text{‰}/^\circ\text{C}$   
247 (Wang et al., 2013). The difference between maximum and minimum temperature  
248 along the isohyet is  $15^\circ\text{C}$ , so the greatest possible effect of temperature on plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
249 along the temperature gradient is 1.56‰, which is not very great. Since the main

250 source of soil organic matter along the isohyet is C<sub>3</sub> plants, the induced variance in  
251 soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  also cannot be very high. On the other hand, although  
252 the  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enrichment with SOM degradation follows a Rayleigh distillation process  
253 (Wynn, 2007), our recent study shows that temperature does not influence carbon  
254 isotopic fractionation during decomposition (Wang et al., 2015), which is also a  
255 reason for the lack of a relationship between soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and temperature. Feng et al.  
256 (2008) and Lee et al. (2005) respectively, reported no relationships between soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
257 and MAT and SMT, which is consistent with our result. Their field campaigns were  
258 conducted in central Asia, which is also dominated by C<sub>3</sub> plants, similar to the area  
259 along the 400 mm isohyet. This is the reason why the same pattern exists in central  
260 Asia and the area along the 400 mm isohyet.

261 The observations in Bird and Pousai (1997) and Sage et al.(1999) appear to be  
262 inconsistent with our findings; they found a nonlinear relationship between soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
263 and MAT in Australian grasslands. However, if consider only soil with pure C<sub>3</sub> plants  
264 (MAT is below 16°C), soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and temperature are not related in Australian  
265 grasslands, which is in agreement with our result. Below 15°C, C<sub>4</sub> contribution to  
266 productivity in Australian grasslands is negligible, whereas above 23 °C , C<sub>3</sub>  
267 contribution is negligible. Between 14°C and 23°C, soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is positively correlated  
268 with MAT, indicating C<sub>4</sub> representation increasing with MAT (Sage et al., 1999). Lu  
269 et al. (2004) also reported a nonlinear relationship between soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and MAT.  
270 Similarly, if the soil data with C<sub>4</sub> plants are excluded from the nonlinear correlation,  
271 soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is also not related to MAT in Lu et al. (2004) (see Fig.5b in Lu et al., 2004).

272 Thus, this present study and the previous observations are consistent in showing that  
273 in a terrestrial ecosystem in which the vegetation is dominated by C<sub>3</sub> plants,  
274 temperature does not influence soil δ<sup>13</sup>C variance.

275 All the soil samples were taken along the 400 mm isohyet, thus, this study shows  
276 that the contribution of precipitation to the variability in soil δ<sup>13</sup>C is neglected.  
277 Although stepwise regression and correlation analysis both show a significant  
278 influence of latitude on soil δ<sup>13</sup>C, the five environmental variables including latitude  
279 were responsible for only 9% variability in soil δ<sup>13</sup>C in a multiple regression model  
280 (Table 2), suggesting that the contribution of latitude to soil δ<sup>13</sup>C was also slight. This  
281 study shows a negative correlation between latitude and δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>SOM</sub> (p=0.012). Bird and  
282 Pausai (1997) and Tieszen et al. (1979) reported a similar pattern. Latitude is a  
283 comprehensive environmental factor and change in latitude can bring about changes  
284 in other environmental factors, such as temperature, irradiation, cloud amount and  
285 moisture, but temperature or irradiation should be most strongly related to latitude and  
286 obviously change with latitude. The observed significant relationship between latitude  
287 and soil δ<sup>13</sup>C (Fig.4a) suggests that environmental factors other than temperature  
288 might contribute more or less to the variance in soil δ<sup>13</sup>C.

289 Vegetation type control of the soil δ<sup>13</sup>C mainly reflects the effect of life-form on  
290 plant δ<sup>13</sup>C and the effect of substrate quality on isotope fractionation during organic  
291 matter decomposition. Communities in which life-form of the dominant plants is  
292 similar are generally treated as the same vegetation type. Plant δ<sup>13</sup>C is tightly related  
293 to life-form (Diefendorf et al., 2010; Ehleringer and Cooper, 1988) and this causes

294  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  differences among varying vegetation types, consequently resulting in the  
295 observed effect of vegetation type on the soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ .

296 Substrate quality partly quantifies how easily organic carbon is used by soil  
297 microbes (Poage and Feng, 2004). It can be related to plant type and is often defined  
298 using a C/N ratio, lignin content, cellulose content, and/or lignin content/N ratio  
299 (Melillo et al., 1989; Gartner et al., 2000). Our study in Mount Gongga, China, showed  
300 that litter quality played a significant role in isotope fractionation during organic  
301 matter decomposition, and the carbon isotope fractionation factor  $\alpha$ , increased with  
302 litter quality (Wang et al., 2015). Thus, the isotope fractionation factor should be  
303 different among varying sites because litter quality is dependent on vegetation and  
304 this makes soil change its  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  with vegetation type.

305 Control of soil type on soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  could be associated with the effect of soil type on  
306 isotope fractionation during organic matter decomposition, and involves at least two  
307 mechanisms (Wang et al. (2008) has discussed the mechanisms in detail). (1)  
308 Properties and compositions of microbial decomposer communities are dependent of  
309 soil type (Gelsomino et al., 1999). Different microbes could have different metabolic  
310 pathways even when they decompose the same organic compound (Macko and Estep,  
311 1984), and the extent of isotope fractionation during decomposition may be tightly  
312 related to the metabolic pathways of microbes (Macko and Estep, 1984). (2) Physical  
313 and chemical properties such as pH, particle size fraction, water-holding capacity  
314 display considerable differences among soil types and this causes organic compounds  
315 to be decayed at different rates in different soil environments. The magnitude of

316 isotope fractionation during decomposition is linked to degree of organic matter  
317 decomposition (Feng, 2002), thus, soil type plays a significant role in fractionation.

318

## 319 **5. Conclusions**

320 The present study measured organic carbon isotopes in surface soil along a 400 mm  
321 isohyet of mean annual precipitation in China, and observed that soil type and  
322 vegetation type both had significant influence on soil organic carbon isotopes.  
323 However, temperature was found to have no observable impact on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$ ,  
324 suggesting that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signals in sediments cannot be used for the reconstruction of  
325 temperature and that the effect of temperature on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOM}}$  could be neglected in the  
326 reconstruction of paleo climate and paleo vegetation using carbon isotopes of soil  
327 organic matter.

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329

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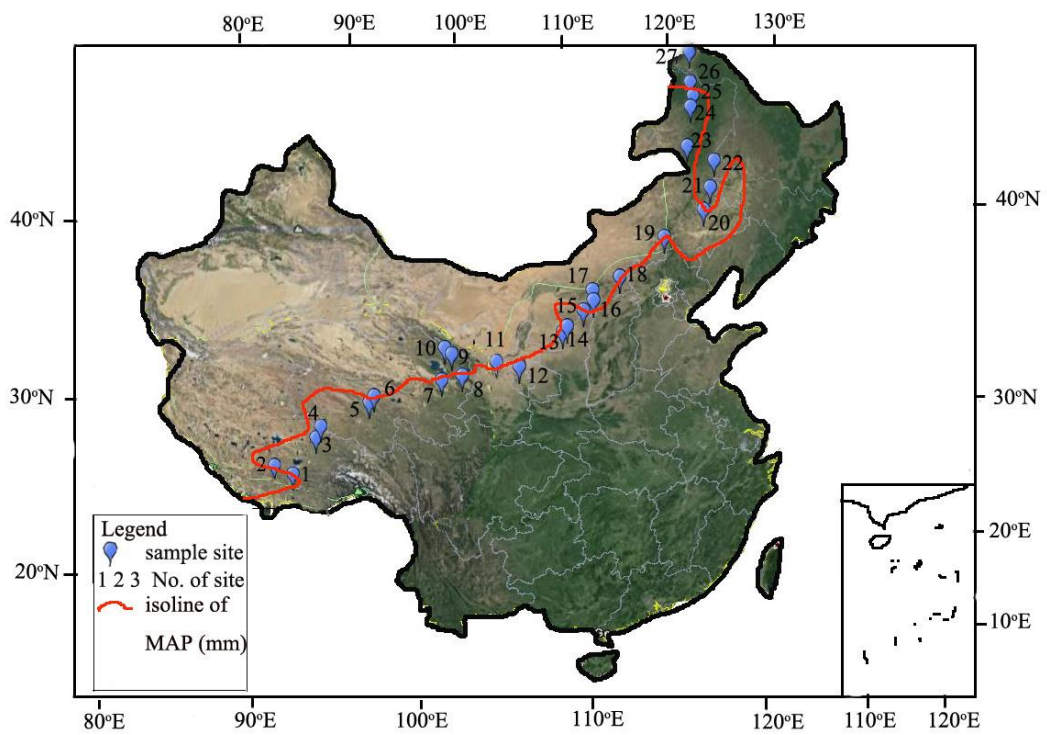
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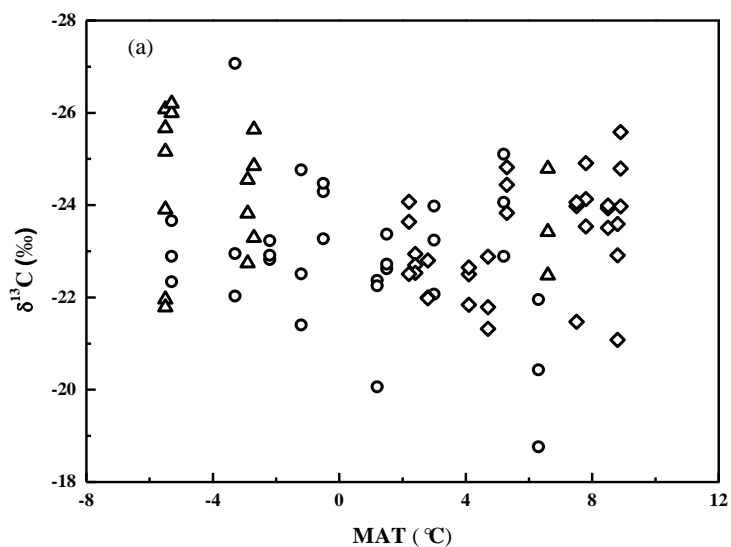


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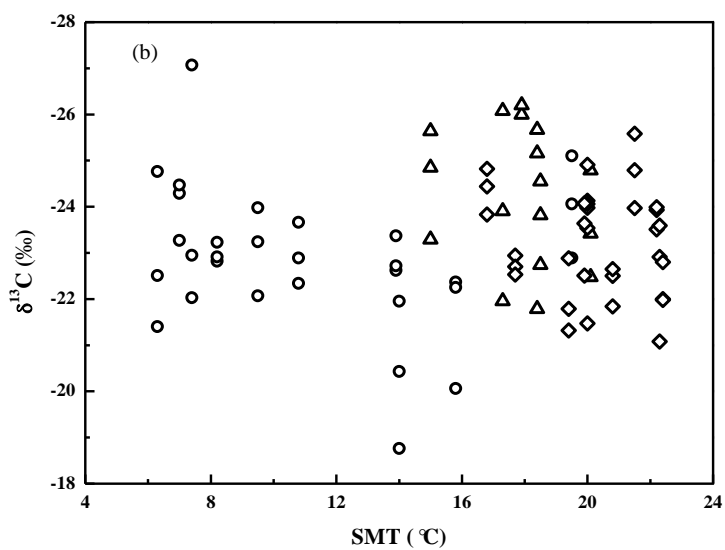
Fig.1. Sketch of sampled region. Sample sites are indicated with numbers. 1, LangKaZi; 2,RiKaZe;

485 3,NaQu; 4,NieRong; 5,ZhiDuo; 6,QuMaLai; 7,TongDe; 8,TongRen; 9,HuangYuan; 10,HaiYan;  
486 11,YuZhong; 12,XiJi; 13,JingBian; 14,HengShan; 15,ShenMu; 16,HeQu; 17,ZhunGeErQi;  
487 18,FengZhen; 19,DuoLun; 20,LinXi; 21,ZhaLuTeQi; 22,WuLanHaoTe; 23,AErShan; 24,YaKeShi;  
488 25,KuDuer; 26,GenHe; 27,BeiJiCun. Detailed information of sites is shown in Table 1.

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505 Fig.2shows the variance in surface soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ with MAT(a) and SMT (b) along the 400 mm isoline  
506 in China.Circle represents alpine and subalpine; diamond indicates temperate steppe and  
507 grassland;,triangle is coniferous forest.

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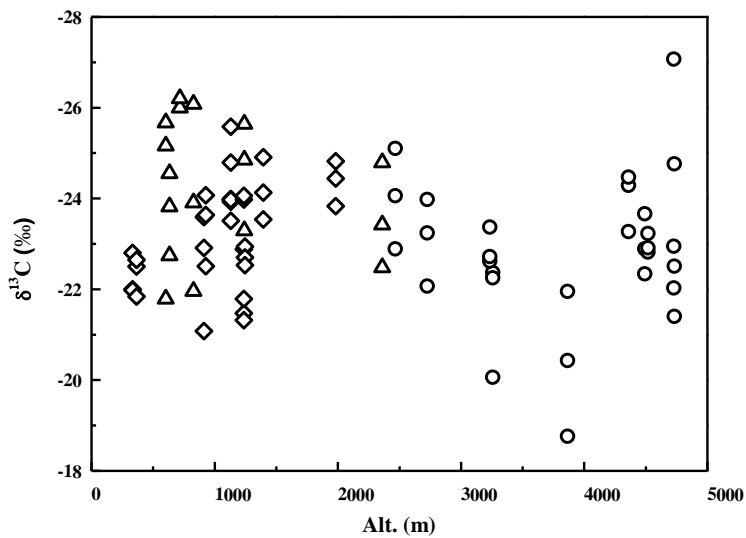
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527 Fig.3shows the variance insurface soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  withaltitude.

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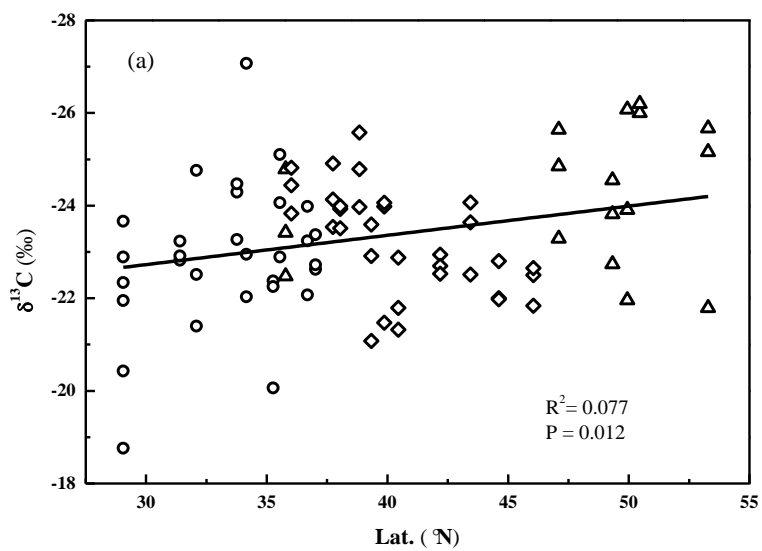
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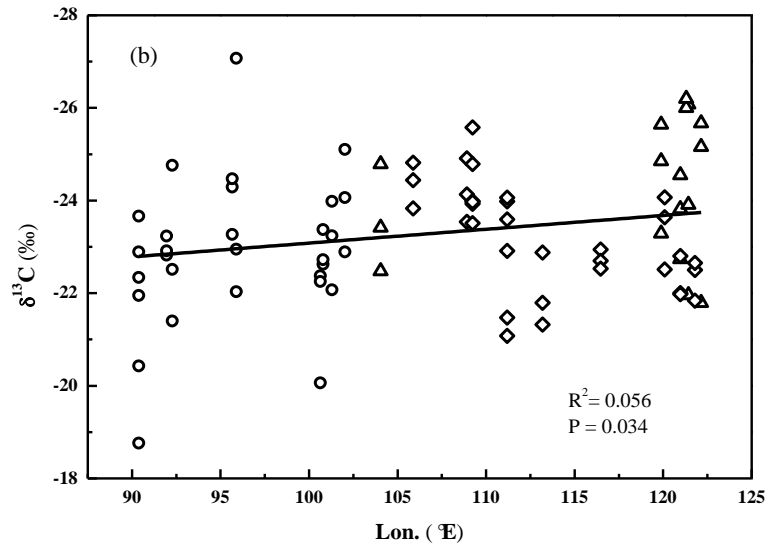
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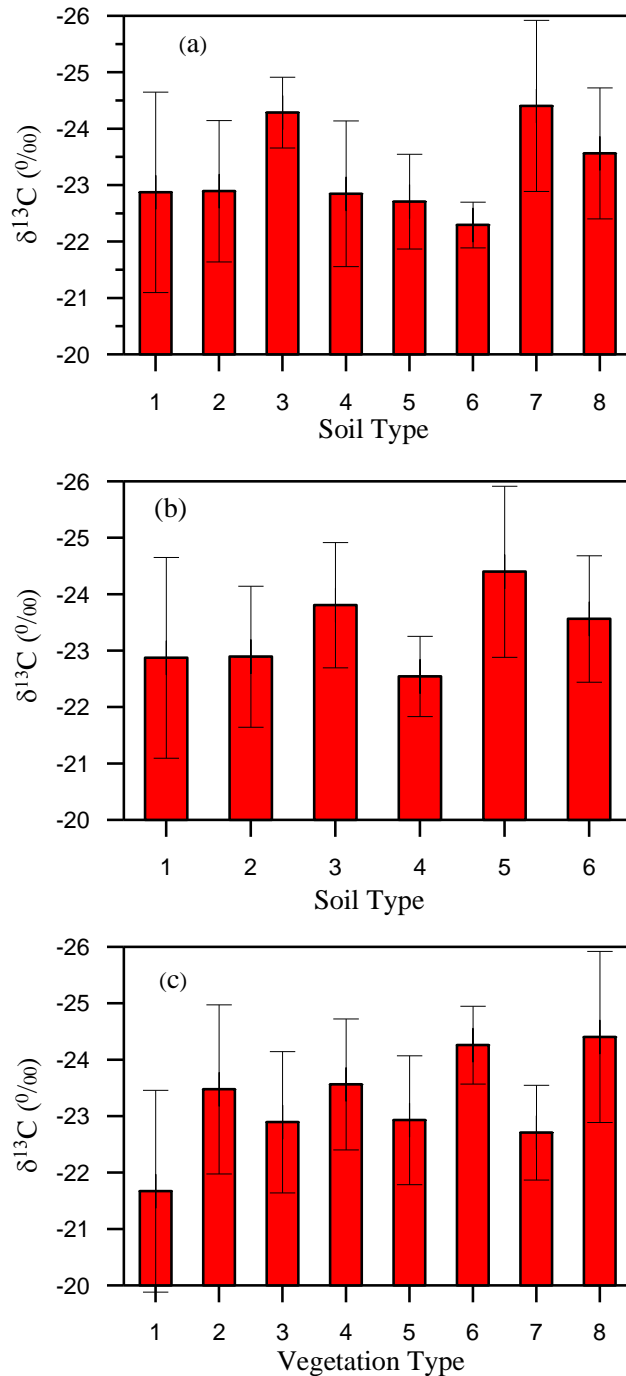
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Fig.4 shows the relationships between the soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and latitude (a) and longitude (b).



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560 Fig.5 shows the effects of soil types and vegetation types on the soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . (a.) soil types based on  
 561 Chinese soil taxonomy. 1. Matti-GelicCambosols; 2. Hapli- CryicAridosolsl;  
 562 3.Calci-OrthicAridosols; 4.MottlicCalci-OrthicAridosols; 5.TypicCalci-UsticIsohumosols;  
 563 6.Pachi-UsticIsohumosols; 7.Umbri-GelicCambosols; 8.Hapli-UsticArgosols.(b.)soil types based  
 564 on WRB. 1.Cambisols; 2. Leptosols; 3.Calcisols; 4.Chernozems; 5.Umbrisols; 6.Luvisols.(c.)  
 565 vegetation type. 1. Alpine grassland; 2. Alpine meadow; 3.Subalpine grassland; 4.Temperate  
 566 coniferous and broad-leaved mixed forests; 5.Temperate meadow steppe; 6.Semi-desert grasslands;  
 567 7.Temperate typical steppe; 8.Frigid temperate coniferous forest. The bar in Fig.5 indicates  $\pm 1\text{SD}$ .  
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Table 1 Information of the sampling sites

No.	Site name	MAT/°C	SMT/°C	MAP/mm	Alt./m	Lat./N °	Lon./E °	Mean	Vegetation type	Dominate species	Soil types
								δ <sup>13</sup> C (‰)			
1	LangKaZi	-5.3	10.8	376	4492	29.06	90.39	-23.0	Alpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Festuca</i> and <i>Carex</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
2	RiKaZe	6.3	14	420	3865	29.33	88.98	-20.4	Alpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Festuca</i> and <i>Carex</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
3	NaQu	-2.2	8.2	406	4519	31.41	91.96	-23.0	Alpine meadow	<i>Kobresia</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
4	NieRong	-1.2	6.3	400	4731	32.09	92.27	-22.9	Alpine meadow	<i>Kobresia</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
5	ZhiDuo	-0.5	7	394	4360	33.77	95.66	-24.0	Alpine meadow	<i>Kobresia</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
6	QuMaLai	-3.3	7.4	391.7	4727	34.16	95.9	-24.0	Alpine meadow	<i>Kobresia</i>	Matti-GelicCambosols (Cambisols)
7	TongDe	1.2	15.8	371	3258	35.27	100.64	-21.6	Subalpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Hippolytia</i>	Hapli- CryicAridosolsl (Leptosols)
8	TongRen	5.2	19.5	425.7	2467	35.55	102.03	-24.0	Subalpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Hippolytia</i>	Hapli- CryicAridosolsl (Leptosols)
9	HuangYuan	3	13.9	408.9	2725	37.02	100.8	-22.9	Subalpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Hippolytia</i>	Hapli- CryicAridosolsl (Leptosols)
10	HaiYan	1.5	9.5	400	3233	36.69	101.3	-23.1	Subalpine grassland	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Hippolytia</i>	Hapli- CryicAridosolsl (Leptosols)
									Temperate coniferous and broad-leaved mixed forests		
11	YuZhong	6.6	20.1	403	2361	35.78	104.05	-23.6		<i>Pinustabulaeformis</i>	Hapli-UsticArgosols (Luvisols)
12	XiJi	5.3	16.8	400	1982	36.02	105.88	-24.4	Temperate meadow steppe	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Hippolytia</i>	Calci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
13	JingBian	7.8	20	395.4	1394	37.74	108.91	-24.2	Semi-desert grasslands	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Hippolytia</i> and <i>Ajania</i>	Calci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
14	HengShan	8.5	22.2	397	1131	38.04	109.24	-23.8	Semi-desert grasslands	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Hippolytia</i> and <i>Ajania</i>	Calci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
15	ShenMu	8.9	21.5	393	1131	38.84	110.44	-24.8	Semi-desert grasslands	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Hippolytia</i> and <i>Ajania</i>	Calci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
16	HeQu	8.8	22.3	426	912	39.33	111.19	-22.5	Temperate meadow steppe	<i>Bothriochloa</i> and <i>Pennisetum</i>	MottlicCalci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
17	ZhunGeErQi	7.5	20	400	1236	39.87	111.18	-23.2	Temperate meadow steppe	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Aneuralepidium</i>	MottlicCalci-OrthicAridosols(Calcisols)
18	FengZhen	4.7	19.4	413	1236	40.45	113.19	-22.0	Temperate typical steppe	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Aneuralepidium</i>	TypicCalci-UsticIsohumosols (Chernozems)
19	DuoLun	2.4	17.7	407	1245	42.18	116.47	-22.7	Temperate typical steppe	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Aneuralepidium</i>	TypicCalci-UsticIsohumosols (Chernozems)
20	LinXi	2.2	19.9	370	928	43.44	110.08	-23.4	Temperate typical steppe	<i>Stipa</i> and <i>Aneuralepidium</i>	TypicCalci-UsticIsohumosols (Chernozems)
21	ZhaLuTeQi	2.8	22.4	387	332	44.61	120.97	-22.3	Temperate meadow steppe	<i>Stipa</i> 、 <i>Aneuralepidium</i> and	Pachi-UsticIsohumosols (Chernozems)

										<i>Filifolium</i>	
										<i>Stipa</i> , <i>Aneuralepidium</i> and	
22	WuLanHaoTe	4.1	20.8	416	366	46.05	121.79	-22.3	Temperate meadow steppe	<i>Filifolium</i>	Pachi-UsticIsohumosols (Chernozems)
									Frigid temperate coniferous	<i>Larixgmelinii</i>	
23	AErShan	-2.7	15	391	1240	47.1	119.89	-24.6	forest	and <i>Betulaplatyphylla Suk</i>	Umbri-GelicCambosols (Umbrisols)
									Frigid temperate coniferous		
24	YaKeShi	-2.9	18.5	379	634	49.33	120.97	-23.7	forest	<i>Larixgmelinii</i>	Umbri-GelicCambosols (Umbrisols)
									Frigid temperate coniferous	<i>Larixgmelinii</i>	
25	KuDuer	-5.5	17.3	402	829	49.94	121.43	-24.0	forest	and <i>Betulaplatyphylla Suk</i>	Umbri-GelicCambosols (Umbrisols)
									Frigid temperate coniferous		
26	GenHe	-5.3	17.9	424	718	50.46	121.31	-26.1	forest	<i>Betulaplatyphylla Suk</i>	Umbri-GelicCambosols (Umbrisols)
									Frigid temperate coniferous	<i>Larixgmelinii</i> and	
27	BeiJicun	-5.5	18.4	450.8	603	53.29	122.15	-24.2	forest	<i>Pinussylvestrisvar</i>	Umbri-GelicCambosols (Umbrisols)

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571 Note: MAT, SMT, MAP, Alt, Lat and Lon are the abbreviations of mean annual temperature, summer mean temperature, mean annual precipitation, altitude, latitude,  
572 longitude, respectively. Longitude, latitude and altitude of each site were from the portable GPS; MAT and MAP represent the average values of more than 30 years,  
573 SMT presents the average value of June, July and August for more than 30 years. All climatic data were from the local meteorological stations and the China  
574 Meteorological Data Sharing Service System (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn/shishi/climate.jsp>); The soil types are based on Chinese soil taxonomy and WRB (in the  
575 brackets).

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Table 2 shows the results from multiple regressions.

Model	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	F	p-value
1	0.091	0.030	1.484	0.205
2	0.374	0.273	3.690	<0.001
3	0.297	0.195	2.911	0.004
4	0.362	0.247	3.164	0.001

Note: Model-1 is the multiple regression of soil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  against MAT, MAP, altitude, latitude and longitude; For Model-2, Model-3 and Model-4, in addition to taking these five environmental factors as independent variables, the soil types based on Chinese nomenclature and WRB, and the vegetation types as dummy variables were separately introduced in the multiple regressions.