

1 **Modeling impacts of climate change and grazing effects on plant
2 biomass and soil organic carbon in the Qinghai–Tibetan
3 grasslands**

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13 **Abstract:**

14 The Qinghai Province supports over 40% of the human population but occupies about 29% of
15 the land area, and thus it plays an important role in the entire Qinghai–Tibetan Plateau (QTP).
16 The dominant land cover is grassland, which has been severely degraded over the last decade
17 due to a combination of increased human activities and climate change. Numerous studies
18 indicate that the plateau is sensitive to recent global climate change, but the drivers and
19 consequences of grassland ecosystem change are controversial, especially the effects of climate
20 change and grazing patterns on the grassland biomass and soil organic carbon (SOC) storage in
21 this region. In this study, we used the DeNitritification-DeComposition (DNDC) model and two
22 climate change scenarios (representative concentration pathways: RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) to
23 understand how the grassland biomass and SOC pools might respond to different grazing
24 intensities under future climate change scenarios. More than 1400 grassland biomass sampling
25 points and 46 SOC points were collected, which were then used to validate the simulated results.
26 The results showed that compared with the past 30 years, the biomass and SOC exhibited a
27 significant decreasing trend under all grazing intensities in the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios,
28 and RCP8.5 had a more negative effect on the biomass compared with RCP4.5. Future climate
29 change could lead to greater temporal and spatial variations in the grassland biomass and SOC.

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32 Overall, climate change may be the major factor that leads to fluctuations in the inter-annual
33 grassland biomass on the Qinghai Province, where the grazing intensity has significantly
34 affected the grassland vegetation dynamics. Therefore, urgent ecological conservation of
35 vulnerable grassland ecosystems is required to effectively regulate grazing practices.

36 **Keywords:** Biogeochemical process; DNDC; Grazing intensity; Grassland management;
37 Degradation;

38 1 Introduction

39 Grassland is one of the most widespread terrestrial ecosystems and accounts for nearly 33% of
40 the land without ice cover (Ellis and Ramankutty, 2008), where it plays important roles in both
41 the global carbon cycle and terrestrial ecosystem processes (Li et al., 2013c). The Qinghai-
42 Tibetan Plateau (QTP) covers an area of approximately 130 million hectares (ha), 44% of
43 China's total grassland (Li et al., 2013a; Piao et al., 2012). This area plays a vital role for the
44 ecological services of China and Southeast Asian countries (Harris, 2010; Li et al., 2013b; Piao
45 et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2002; Zeng et al., 2015). Qinghai Province supports over 40% of the
46 population but it has about 29% of the total area, and thus it plays an important role in the whole
47 QTP (Li et al., 2013a; Piao et al., 2012). This area is recognized as one of the most ecologically
48 fragile and sensitive areas to global climate change and human disturbance (Harris, 2010; Li et
49 al., 2013b; Piao et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2002; Zeng et al., 2015). Moreover, this area is also
50 the largest animal husbandry production region in China, and it also contains the headwaters of
51 the two major rivers in China, i.e., the Yellow River and the Yangtze River, and thus it plays a
52 vital role in ecological conservation in China (Zeng et al., 2015).

53 In recent decades, due to climate change, increased human disturbances, the high altitude alpine
54 grassland ecosystems, which are the dominant grassland vegetation type, have been severely
55 degraded (Gao et al., 2010). The air temperature on the plateau has increased by 0.3°C per
56 decade, which is three times the global average (Li et al., 2008). Warming could significantly
57 increase the net primary productivity of alpine meadows (Chen et al., 2013; Du et al., 2004;
58 Fan et al., 2010). Other studies have found that warming also speeds up the decomposition rate
59 for litter and manure, and increases soil respiration (Luo et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2010), which

删除的内容: The Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (QTP), an area of approximately 130 million hectares (ha), amounts to 44% of China's grassland area. The Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (QTP), which about 130 million hectares (ha), it counted 44% of China's grassland area

65 could cause significant losses of soil organic carbon (SOC) and affect the alpine grassland
66 ecosystem carbon pool balance (Pei et al., 2009; Tan et al., 2010). Although the ecological
67 impact of warming on the QTP alpine grassland ecosystem has not been fully elucidated in
68 previous studies, there is no doubt that warming will greatly accelerate the key processes in the
69 alpine grassland ecosystem carbon cycle (Luo et al., 2010). There are reported that both
70 precipitation amount and the number of precipitation days have increased significantly in QTP
71 (Li et al., 2010). As precipitation is another crucial climate factor in controlling the carbon cycle
72 of grassland ecosystems, how the higher variability precipitation impacts the SOC and biomass
73 in QTP need further investigation (Lehnert et al., 2016; Maussion et al., 2014).

74 Grazing is the most important biotic factor among the ecological processes that affect rapid
75 changes in the vegetation and soil, and it is the main method for deriving ecosystem services
76 from the QTP grassland (Tannerzap and Coomes, 2012). Moreover, grazing is one of the major
77 human disturbances to the grassland in this area. In general, overgrazing is considered to be one
78 of the main causes of carbon and nitrogen losses from the soil, thereby contributing to the
79 unsustainable use of grassland (McIntire and Hik, 2005). Therefore, sustaining a reasonable
80 grazing intensity has an indispensable role in maintaining the turnover of soil nutrients and
81 plant community stability (Klein et al., 2007).

82 Previous studies have shown that different types of vegetation and soil nutrient pools exhibit
83 significantly different responses to variations in the grazing intensity (Lavado et al., 1996).
84 However, there is still a lack of robust studies to evaluate the combined effect of grazing and
85 climate change, as well as their impact on the QTP grassland ecosystem at a large scale. Due to
86 the unique geographic characteristics and important ecological functions of the QTP grassland
87 ecosystem, it is necessary to evaluate the impacts of human management and climate change to
88 ensure that it continues to provide these ecosystem services.

89 In this study, using a well-calibrated DeNitrification-DeComposition (DNDC) model based on
90 long-term vegetation observations, we evaluated the response of the grassland ecosystem in
91 Qinghai Province in terms of both climate change and human management by analyzing the
92 grazing intensity. We also analyzed the interactions between grassland vegetation and soil
93 carbon storage with grazing intensity and climate change disturbances at a large scale in long-
94 term impact assessments.

95 **2 Materials and methods**

96 **2.1 Study area**

97 Qinghai Province (89°35'–103°04' E, 31°39'–39°19' N) is located in the northeast of QTP in
98 China (Fig. 1). This region has a typical plateau climate, with a mean annual temperature of
99 8.6°C (from –6°C to 9°C across the study area) and a mean annual precipitation of 424.7 mm
100 (16.7–776.1 mm across the study area). In general, the climate is cold and dry. The altitude of
101 Qinghai province ranges between 1,650–6,860 meters above sea level (m a.s.l.) and 67% of the
102 land area is in the range of 3,000–5,000 masl. Grassland is the major land cover in the study
103 area where alpine meadow and alpine steppe are the dominant vegetation types, where they
104 account for 60.5% of the total grassland area.

105 Grazing is the primary human activity in the study area and livestock production is a key
106 industry in this region. Generally, natural grassland is the major food source for the livestock
107 in the QTP. Compared with 1949, the number of livestock has increased by almost three times
108 from 7.49×10^6 (Zhang, 2011) to the peak number 22.19×10^6 head in 2005 at the study area
109 (QPBS, 2015, 2005).

110 Since 2004, the Chinese government has implemented a series of ecological protection projects
111 and policies in Qinghai province, including reducing livestock and prohibiting grazing, building
112 fences to allow natural grassland recovery, as well as providing allowances and awards to local
113 herdsman families to promote degraded pasture recovery and to balance the livestock rate
114 according to the forage productivity (Zeng et al., 2015). The core objective of these projects
115 and policies is changing the grazing intensity and achieving a balance between the livestock
116 intensity and grassland regenerability in order to construct a sustainable grassland ecosystem.
117 Due to new policies for ecological protection, the livestock numbers have declined in recent
118 years, but they have been maintained at the 2015 level of 19.42×10^6 head (supplementary
119 Table S1) (QPBS, 2015).

120 **2.2 DNDC model**

121 The DNDC 9.5 biogeochemical model, which was downloaded from the official web
122 (<http://www.dndc.sr.unh.edu/>), was employed in this study (Li et al., 2006; Li et al., 1992). The
123 model has been used widely in more than 20 countries to obtain accurate calibration and
124 verification results in various ecosystems (Abdalla et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2015;
125 Kariyapperuma et al., 2011; Li et al., 1996; Li et al., 2017; Li et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2006; Xu
126 et al., 2003; Zhang and Niu, 2016; Zhao et al., 2016).

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127 The model has two components. The first component can simulate the soil environmental
128 conditions, where it includes soil climate, vegetation growth, and decomposition submodels.
129 The second component includes three submodels for simulating nitrification, denitrification,
130 and fermentation processes, which are used to simulate biogeochemical production,
131 consumption, and emissions of CH_4 , N_2O , NO , and NH_3 as well as nitrogen losses due to
132 leaching (Zhang et al., 2015).

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133 The DNDC model simulates vegetation growth by tracking photosynthesis, respiration, water
134 demand, N demand, C allocation, crop yield, and litter production. The model predicts the SOC
135 dynamics mainly by quantifying the SOC input from crop litter incorporation and manure
136 amendment, as well as the SOC output through decomposition. More detailed information
137 about the model was given by Li (1996).

138 **2.3 Regional database**

139 In order to characterize the spatial heterogeneity of natural grasslands in the study area, we
140 collected the following geospatial data as inputs for the DNDC biogeochemical model:
141 grassland type and spatial distribution (Fig. 1), soil properties, and climate data.

142 **Grassland Database**

143 The vegetation parameters in the model were obtained from a grassland field monitoring project
144 implemented during 2005–2014 (ERSMC-a, 2016; ERSMC-b, 2016). This annual monitoring
145 project covered the major types of grassland within the project area. On average, 168
146 monitoring sites were sampled each year. For each monitoring site, the average value based on

150 3 replicate sampling points was calculated to determine the aboveground biomass value for the
151 monitoring site. The aboveground biomass harvests used the quadrat method during the plant
152 growing season (July 10–August 20) in a 1 m × 1 m plot. A more detailed description of the
153 sampling method used to obtain the observation data can be found in reports by the Ecological
154 Environment Remote Sensing Monitoring Center of Qinghai Province (ERSMC-a, 2016;
155 ERSMC-b, 2016). The grassland simulation based on the grassland functional group type was
156 categorized according to the grassland type map for the study area (Fig. 1). The detailed
157 grassland parameters used in the model were shown in Supplementary Table S4.

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158 **Soil Database**

159 We used a 1:1,000,000 scale soil database developed by the Institute of Soil Science, Chinese
160 Academy of Sciences, which was compiled based on the second national soil survey conducted
161 in 1979–1994 for all the counties in China (Shi et al., 2004). The database had three attributes:
162 locations, soil attributes, and reference systems. It contained multi-layer soil properties (e.g.
163 organic matter, pH, and bulk density), soil texture (e.g. sand, silt and clay proportions), and
164 spatial information (Shi et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2007a; Yu et al., 2007b), which were used in the
165 model simulations.

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166 **Climate Database**

167 Daily climate data were obtained from the China Meteorological Network for the study period,
168 and there were 39 stations inside the study areas (<http://data.cma.cn/>). The daily precipitation
169 and maximum/minimum temperatures between 1985–2014 were interpolated at 1-km
170 resolution grid for our model. Regression kriging and the inverse distance method were
171 employed for air temperature and precipitation interpolation, respectively (Fortin and Dale,
172 2005; Hengl et al., 2007).

173 **Model implementation**

174 All datasets were processed with ArcGIS version 10.2 (ESRI, Redlands, CA) to the formation
175 a georeferenced DNDC regional simulation database. The data processing flowchart could be
176 found in the supplementary Fig. S1. The county boundary data were overlaid on grassland type
177 maps to form the model simulation unit. Then county-based grazing intensity, soil properties,

180 and climate information were assigned to the model simulation units. The DNDC was running
181 with regional simulation database based on individual model simulation units. The detailed
182 information of how to run the model could be found in Li (2012). The actual climate, soil,
183 grassland type and grazing intensity as the simulation baseline.

删除的内容: The county boundary data intersected with grassland type map to formation the model simulation unit, meanwhile, the county based grazing intensity, soil properties and climate information also assigned to the model simulation units

184 2.4 Simulation scenarios

185 Grazing simulation scenarios

186 The grazing period is all-year round and cattle (90% yaks), sheep, and goats are major livestock
187 types, while horses are a minor component in the study area. The grazing intensity data were
188 based on the annual national livestock statistical report provided by the National Bureau of
189 Statistics of China and the Bureau of Statistics for Qinghai Province. The detailed grazing data
190 are shown in Supplementary Table S3. In the DNDC model, grazing activity is defined by
191 specifying the grazing parameters, including the livestock type, grazing period, and grazing
192 intensity. The detailed parameters for simulating grass growth are shown in Supplementary
193 Table S4. The grazing intensity is defined according to Eq. 1 based on the grazing area in each
194 administrative region (Li et al., 2014):

$$GI = LP/GA, \quad (Eq.1)$$

195 where GI is the grazing intensity (head ha^{-1}), LP is the livestock unit (head), and GA is the
196 grazing area (ha).

197 In order to test the responses of the grassland biomass and soil SOC to various grazing
198 intensities, we tested the following treatments: baseline, grazing intensity based on the actual
199 grazing intensity in 2005; G_0 , grazing intensity of zero; G_{-50} , 50% of the baseline intensity; and
200 G_{+50} , 50% higher than the baseline.

删除的内容: the DNDC grazing model

201 Climate change scenarios

202 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Report employed new stable
203 concentration-based scenarios in representative concentration pathways (RCPs) to project
204 future climate change (IPCC, 2013). The development of the RCP scenarios used a parallel
205 method, which combined climate, air, and the carbon cycle with emissions and the socio-
206 economic situation to assess the impact of climate change on a study area, as well as adaptation,

213 vulnerability, and mitigation analysis (Moss et al., 2010). The RCPs were named according to
214 their 2100 radiative forcing level and reported by individual modeling teams, i.e., 2.6–8.5 W/m².
215 The RCPs comprise four scenarios, i.e., RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5 (Moss et al.,
216 2010). Each scenario provides a path affected by social and economic conditions and climate,
217 and each projection corresponds to the radiation force value predicted by 2100.

218 We considered RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 because these two scenarios have been used widely to
219 evaluate the potential impact of climate change on the environment (Di Vittorio et al., 2014; Li
220 et al., 2015; van Vuuren et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013). RCP4.5 represents a medium-low RCP
221 with stabilization of CO₂ emissions from 2150 onwards, and RCP8.5 represents a high RCP
222 with stabilizing CO₂ emissions post-2100 (Meinshausen et al., 2011). The projected climate
223 conditions in the present study under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 were derived from the average values
224 of 25 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) global climate models (Fu and
225 Feng, 2014).

226 Compared with 2014, the average temperature and precipitation increased by 0.72°C and
227 0.80°C, and by 11.81 mm and 12.50 mm under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 in 2044, respectively, in
228 the study area (Table 1). The changes in the spatial distribution of precipitation are shown in
229 Supplementary Fig. S2. The pattern of increased precipitation was similar using RCP4.5 and
230 RCP8.5 for the period of 2014–2044, where it increased in the whole area and it increased
231 gradually from the north to the south of the study area. However, RCP8.5 obtained a higher
232 increase than RCP4.5 and the southwest part of the research area is projected to have a higher
233 temperature increase than the other regions. Moreover, the annual average temperature had a
234 similar distribution under the two climate change scenarios, where the temperature increase
235 using RCP4.5 (Supplementary Fig. S2c) was lower than that with RCP8.5 (Supplementary Fig.
236 S2d).

237 Three different periods were considered in the grassland simulations. First, a pretreatment
238 (1961–1984) period was used to initialize the soil climate conditions and SOC composition.
239 The pretreatment period represented the baseline climate with no increases in CO₂ or climate
240 change. The second period represented realistic climate scenarios (1985–2014) based on the
241 most recent climate. The third period comprised future climate scenarios (2015–2044), which
242 represented two future climates (RCP4.5, RCP8.5) scenarios with changes in temperature and

243 precipitation. The future climate database between 2015 to 2044 was obtained through add the
244 projected future climate change to the daily temperature and precipitation in 2014.

245 **2.5 Model validation and sensitivity test**

246 The root mean squared error (RMSE) (Eq.2), coefficient of determination (R^2) (Eq.3) and model
247 efficiency (ME) (Eq.4) were employed for model validation. The RMSE estimates the scatter
248 between the simulated and measured data, where values close to zero indicate excellent
249 agreement and hence the good performance of the model (Araya et al., 2015). R^2 is used to test
250 the agreement between the modeled results and observations, where a value closer to 1 indicates
251 that the model provides a better explanation for the observed values (Willmott, 1982). The
252 positive ME value indicates that the model prediction is better than the mean of observations,
253 and the best model performance has ME value equal to 1 (Miehle, 2006). RMSE, R^2 and ME
254 were calculated as follows:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \quad (Eq. 2)$$

$$R^2 = \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \bar{O})(P_i - \bar{P})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \bar{O})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - \bar{P})^2}} \right]^2, \quad (Eq. 3)$$

$$ME = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \bar{O})^2} \quad (Eq. 4)$$

255 where P_i and O_i were modeled and observed values, and \bar{P} and \bar{O} are their averages. n is the
256 number of values.

257 The validation dataset included more than 1400 grassland biomass sampling points, which
258 covered the whole of the study area, and the field measurements were also fully representative
259 of the major grassland types in this area. In addition, 46 SOC observation points were sampled
260 between 2011–2012, which were randomly distributed among all of the simulation units
261 (county and grassland types). Maximum biomass in each quadrat was harvested and dried in an
262 oven at 70 °C for 72 h, weighed and ground for analysis. The soil of 0–30 cm depth was sampled
263 at 10-cm intervals with a soil drill (metal cylinder: diameter of 5 cm, length of 20 cm and the
264 total length of the sampler 1.3 m). 3 samples were collected in each replication plot. The ground
265 soil samples passed a 0.15-mm sieve and wet oxidation method was applied to determine SOC

删除的内容: . The grassland biomass was sampled in quadrat
(1 m × 1m) with 3 replicates between mid-July and mid-August

269 (Mebius, 1960). In general, every simulation unit had 1–2 validation points (ERSMC-a, 2016).
270 A series of sensitivity tests were conducted to investigate the responses of the DNDC to
271 variation in climate factors (air temperature, precipitation) and grazing intensity. DNDC was
272 run with a 55-year baseline scenario that was based on the actual climate, soil and grazing
273 conditions of year 2005 in the study area. The ranges of values for alternative scenarios were
274 ± 10 , ± 20 and $\pm 30\%$ for precipitation, ± 1 , ± 2 and ± 3 °C for air temperature and ± 20 , ± 40 , ± 60 ,
275 ± 80 and $\pm 100\%$ for grazing intensity, respectively.

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276 2.6 Statistical analysis

277 Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effects of climate and grazing
278 intensity on both the biomass and SOC according to the simulated results. Mean values for the
279 same treatments were compared using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test with one-
280 way ANOVA at $P = 0.05$. The statistical analyses, including the test for normality (Shapiro-
281 Wilk) and homogeneity of variance (Levene), were performed using Origin 2016 version
282 b9.3.1.273 (OriginLab Corporation, MA, USA), and the multiple regression analysis was
283 conducted with the Minitab version 17 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA).

284 3 Results

285 3.1 Model validation

286 The biomass simulation showed that the modeled total biomass was in good agreement with
287 the observations (Fig. 2). There was a significant linear relationship ($P < 0.001$) between the
288 measurements and the modeled above ground biomass ($R^2 = 0.71$, $ME = 0.75$, $RMSE = 93.11$ g
289 $C m^{-2}$; $P < 0.001$). The simulated SOC concentrations were in good agreement with the
290 measured data (Fig. 3). The calculated statistical indices indicated that the modeled SOC
291 concentrations were closely correlated with the measured data ($R^2 = 0.73$, $ME = 0.69$, $RMSE =$
292 21.51 g $C kg^{-1}$; $P < 0.001$).

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295 **3.2 Sensitivity analysis**

296 In the sensitivity analysis simulation, increases in precipitation resulted in elevated biomass and
297 SOC, however, the SOC was changed slightly compared to the biomass (Fig. 4A, B);
298 Temperature decrease induced the biomass decrease, and temperature increase could increase
299 the biomass. However, biomass change did not follow a simple linear relationship with change
300 in temperature. The 1°C temperature increase could bring 24% of biomass increase, meanwhile,
301 1°C temperature decrease could decrease 13% biomass (Fig. 4A). Biomass was not susceptible
302 to the changes in precipitation. The biomass increased 7% and decreased 6% with precipitation
303 increased and decreased 30%, respectively. SOC had the reverse trend with increased or
304 decreased temperature, but there was a more complex relationship with temperature change.
305 The SOC had less sensitivity to temperature change compared to biomass. With a 1 °C
306 temperature increase, the SOC increased slightly with 0.26%, but when temperature increased
307 over 2 °C, the SOC decreased 0.26–0.83% (Fig. 4B). The modeled biomass was sensitive to
308 grazing intensity and biomass had a reverse trend with increased or decreased grazing intensity
309 (Fig. 4A). When grazing intensity changed from -100 to 100%, SOC increased rate from -0.22
310 to 0.40% (Fig. 4B).

删除的内容: A series of sensitivity tests were conducted to investigate the responses of the DNDC to variation in climate factors (air temperature, precipitation) and grazing intensity. DNDC was run with a 55-year baseline scenario that was based on the actual climate, soil and grazing conditions of year 2005 in the study area. The ranges of values for alternative scenarios were ± 10 , ± 20 and $\pm 30\%$ for precipitation, ± 1 , ± 2 and ± 3 °C for air temperature and ± 20 , ± 40 , ± 60 , ± 80 and $\pm 100\%$ for grazing intensity, respectively.

311 **3.3 Impact of grazing on biomass and SOC**

312 The biomass and SOC were significantly affected by climate change and the grazing intensity.
313 However, there were no significant interaction effects between climate and grazing intensity on
314 biomass and SOC during 1985–2044 throughout the study area (Table 2).
315 Under the same climate scenario, the grazing intensity change could significantly influence the
316 biomass, which had a negative relationship with the grazing intensity. The biomass differed
317 significantly under the four grazing intensities in the three climate scenarios. Among the
318 grazing intensity treatments, the biomass followed the order of: G0 > G-50 > baseline > G+50
319 (Table 3). Compared with the treatment without grazing, the grazing scenarios induced similar
320 changes in the biomass among the different grazing intensity treatments.
321 Grazing could increase the SOC storage. The SOC levels under various grazing intensities

删除的内容: The sensitivity analysis demonstrated that the DNDC model was sensitive to precipitation and temperature change and was useful for studying the biomass and SOC under the grazing intensity change

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335 followed the order of: $G_0 < G_{-50} < \text{baseline} < G_{+50}$ (Table 3). G_0 had the lowest SOC whereas
336 G_{+50} had the highest SOC under all the climate scenarios. Under the same climate scenario, a
337 reduction in the grazing intensity from the baseline could significantly decrease the SOC
338 concentration, but there was no significant change in the SOC when the grazing intensity
339 increased by 50% compared with the baseline.

340 **3.4 Impact of climate change on biomass and SOC**

341 The biomass exhibited a significant decreasing trend in the future climate scenarios compared
342 with the past 30 years under all the grazing intensities (Fig. 5), although precipitation increased
343 under both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 (Table 1). Moreover, with the same grazing intensity, the
344 biomass was lower in RCP8.5 compared with RCP4.5. However, the biomass did not differ
345 significantly between RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 under the same grazing intensity (Table 3). This
346 suggests that RCP8.5 had a more negative effect on the biomass compared with RCP4.5 (Fig.
347 5).

348 The future climate could significantly decrease the SOC, and RCP8.5 had a more negative effect
349 than the RCP4.5 on the SOC. SOC exhibited a continuously decreasing trend according to the
350 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 projections in the research area, where the changes in the SOC were similar
351 under the different grazing treatments (Fig. 6). A similar trend also occurred between 1985–
352 2014. The SOC was lower under RCP8.5 compared with that under RCP4.5 at all of the grazing
353 intensities. However, there were no significant differences between RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 (Table
354 3).

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355 **3.5 The relationship between SOC and biomass change with 356 grazing and climate factors**

357 A multiple linear regression analysis was adopted to each simulation unit to analyze the
358 relationship between the annual changed biomass and SOC with corresponding temperature,
359 precipitation and grazing intensity. The regression analysis indicated precipitation, air
360 temperature and combined with grazing intensity, can explain 33.2% of changes in biomass

删除的内容: A multiple linear regression analysis was adopted to each simulation unit to analyze the relationship between the annual change of biomass and SOC with corresponding temperature, precipitation and grazing intensity

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369 under the realistic climate scenarios with a linear model. Meanwhile, precipitation, air
370 temperature, and grazing intensity can explain 52.3% of SOC variation (Table 4). Taking into
371 account the prediction sum of squares (PRESS) value, air temperature is the factor contributing
372 most of variations in biomass and SOC. It's suggested that precipitation and grazing intensity
373 have lower contributes to biomass and SOC change in study region during past thirty years
374 compared to temperature.

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biomass and SOC

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375 3.6 Patterns of regional change in the biomass and SOC

376 From a spatiotemporal distribution perspective, the distribution of grassland biomass in
377 Qinghai Province is rather distinct due to the different constraints imposed by water and the
378 cumulative temperature. The biomass increased in the central and southwest of the research
379 region but decreased in the eastern and northern regions under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5,
380 respectively. However, the grassland biomass tended to decrease in more regions rather than
381 exhibiting an increasing trend (Fig. 7A). In particular, the vegetation activities are mainly
382 controlled by temperature in the eastern region, which may lead to greater negative effects than
383 the positive effects of increased precipitation (Zhou et al., 2007); therefore, the average regional
384 biomass may exhibit a significant decreasing trend.

385 In general, the SOC decreased from the low-temperature region to the high-temperature region,
386 where it followed the temperature distribution pattern in Qinghai Province and decreased from
387 the south to the north (Fig. 7B). The cold weather conditions would limit decomposition process
388 and there would be greater carbon storage over the years with accumulation in this area.
389 Furthermore, on the regional scale, although the SOC exhibited a decreasing trend in the whole
390 study area, the rate of change differed with a significant spatial distribution pattern.

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391 4 Discussion

392 4.1 Effects of climate change on biomass and SOC

393 Climate change is the main driver of the inter-annual fluctuations in the grassland biomass, as

399 observed in previous studies by Fan et al. (2010) and Gao et al. (2016). The unique climate
400 conditions such as precipitation and temperature on the QTP have a significant impact on the
401 grassland biomass (Fan et al., 2010; Yan et al., 2015). According to this study, the biomass of
402 alpine grassland could increase significantly in the short term as the temperature increases (Fig.
403 4), as also suggested by Chen et al. (2013) and Gao et al. (2016). However, under long-term
404 constant warming and without considering other meteorological factors, the alpine grassland
405 biomass will probably decrease (Zhu et al., 2016). This may be due to the higher temperature
406 increasing evaporation in the study area, thereby overcoming the benefits of increased
407 precipitation (Xu et al., 2009). The shortage of water will ultimately limit the increase in the
408 grassland biomass with significant warming and drying.

409 The decline of the SOC in our study indicates that climate warming will have more negative
410 effects and eliminated the positive effect of precipitation increasing in the study area. Riedo et
411 al. (2000) indicated that carbon storage may be lost from grazed grassland as the temperature
412 and precipitation increase. Tan et al. (2010) suggested that after a 2°C increase in temperature
413 in the QTP, the grassland ecosystem's net primary productivity will increase by 9%, but the
414 SOC will decrease by 10%. Temperature and precipitation are the main factors that affect the
415 SOC pools (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000). Many studies have shown that sustained warming will
416 lead to increases in the SOC decomposition rate (Tan et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2012), especially
417 in the QTP region with high carbon storage at a low temperature in the high latitudes. Thus, the
418 SOC could be released by climate warming and become a more obvious carbon source
419 (Kirschbaum, 1995; Kvenvolden, 1993; Qin et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2008).
420 However, the effects of warming and precipitation on SOC storage remain a relatively complex
421 problem (Cao and Woodward, 1998; Schuur, 2003).

422 **4.2 Effects of grazing intensity on biomass and SOC**

423 The grazing intensity is most importance for the outcomes of grazing and it is the main external
424 factor that controls the grassland vegetation dynamics, as reported in the previous studies
425 (Guevara et al., 1996; McIntire and Hik, 2005; Pei et al., 2008; Veen et al., 2012; Zeng et al.,
426 2015). Indeed, an increase in the grazing intensity implies that more plants would be removed

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428 by animals, which could eventually lead to a decline in the aboveground biomass of the
429 grassland (Yan et al., 2013).

430 Small differences in the SOC concentrations were observed after the grazing intensity increased.
431 However, there was a positive correlation between the grazing intensity and SOC. There is a
432 lack of consistent conclusions regarding the impact of grazing on the SOC concentration
433 according to previous studies. Thus, some studies showed that the grazing intensity and SOC
434 had a negative correlation (Bagchi and Ritchie, 2010; Derner et al., 1997; Wu et al., 2009) or
435 no relationship (Holt, 1997; Milchunas and Lauenroth, 1993). By contrast, many other studies
436 showed that grazing can increase the SOC (Li et al., 2011; Schuman et al., 1999; Wienhold et
437 al., 2001). This is partly because moderate grazing can increase the grassland below-ground
438 biomass, which is beneficial for the accumulation of SOC (López-Mársico et al., 2015). Some
439 studies have shown that increasing the plant root/shoot ratio and allocating more carbon to the
440 root system could induce SOC increase (Derner et al., 1997). Nevertheless, the main reason for
441 the increase in the SOC in our study was the increasing number of grazing animals, and thus
442 the increased amount of manure returned after grazing on grassland (Hu et al., 2015).
443 Furthermore, the fertilizing effects of livestock excrement can increase the SOC (Conant et al.,
444 2001), especially in alpine grassland where the low temperature leads to the relatively slow
445 decomposition of litter (Davidson and Janssens, 2006). Moreover, increases in the effects of
446 hoof activity can accelerate the decomposition of litter and decaying roots, and improve the
447 contact with the soil, thereby accelerating the transfer of carbon to the soil to increase the SOC
448 concentration (Luo et al., 2010; Naeth et al., 1991).

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已上移 [1]: Patterns of regional change in the biomass
and SOC

From a spatiotemporal distribution perspective, the distribution of grassland biomass in Qinghai Province is rather distinct due to the different constraints imposed by water and the cumulative temperature. The biomass increased in the central and southwest of the research region but decreased in the eastern and northern regions under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, respectively. However, the grassland biomass tended to decrease in more regions rather than exhibiting an increasing trend (Fig. 7A). In particular, the vegetation activities are mainly controlled by temperature in the eastern region, which may lead to greater negative effects than the positive effects of increased precipitation (Zhou et al., 2007); therefore, the average regional biomass may exhibit a significant decreasing trend.

In general, the SOC decreased from the low-temperature region to the high-temperature region, where it followed the temperature distribution pattern in Qinghai Province and decreased from the south to the north (Fig. 7B). The cold weather conditions would limit decomposition process and there would be greater carbon storage over the years with accumulation in this area. Furthermore, on the regional scale, although the SOC exhibited a decreasing trend in the whole study area, the rate of change differed with a significant spatial distribution pattern.

449 4.3

450 451 452 4.4 Uncertainty analysis

453 Models are ideal tools for assessing the details of environment processes under various grazing
454 intensity. Furthermore, they can provide projections regarding the variations in grassland

485 biomass and SOC under alternative climate change scenarios. However, the uncertainty of the
486 data sources could be incorporated into the model outputs. The CMIP5 RCP scenarios were
487 used to provide the possible changes in climate in this study, but as a long-term climate
488 projection, the uncertainty of the projected climate will increase with time span increase (Moss
489 et al., 2010). The precipitation seasonal distribution pattern is critical to grassland growth (Shen
490 et al., 2011). In the present study, the precipitation distribution pattern of RCP scenarios was
491 derived from the year of 2014; this assumption may cause uncertainty for long-term study.
492 In the present study, we assumed that the grassland type was the same in the scenarios. As the
493 grassland community structure could be altered under both grazing and climate change
494 (Koerner and Collins, 2014). Therefore, the assumption of grassland community structure keeps
495 stable in the simulation could induce the uncertainty. Due to a lack of mechanisms regarding
496 the response of grassland soil to animal trampling in the DNDC model, we ignored the
497 trampling effect of the animals on the soil structure, which may have led to some errors in the
498 results.
499 The grazing rate can be another potential source of uncertainty. In most of the natural grassland
500 regions of the QTP, transhumance is usually practiced, which requires the transfer of livestock
501 from one pasture to another during different seasons, and staying in the same pasture for the
502 whole season. However, this grassland management practice was simplified in the present study
503 because we could not find specific statistical data to address this issue. Thus, we assumed that
504 livestock stayed in the same pasture for the whole year with 24 h d^{-1} of grazing and the stocking
505 rates were the same throughout the simulation unit and without yak dung remove (Zhang et al.,
506 2016). Furthermore, we assumed that all grasslands were useable. These assumptions could
507 have induced uncertainties in the simulation results.

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The grazing rate can be another potential source of

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508 5 Conclusions

509 In this study, we used the DNDC model to study the grassland biomass and SOC dynamics
510 under different climate change and grazing management scenarios. We found that the biomass
511 and SOC were significantly affected by climate change and grazing intensity. In the long term,
512 the total grassland biomass had a negative relationship and the SOC had a positive relationship

521 with the grazing intensity. The total biomass exhibited interannual fluctuations in the time series
522 and the SOC had a declining trend. All of the grazing scenarios obtained similar patterns of
523 change compared with the baseline scenario.

524 Future climate change could induce great uncertainty in the grassland dynamics. The total
525 grassland biomass and average SOC in the study area were reduced significantly under both the
526 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 future climate change scenarios. However, there were significant
527 differences in the spatial distribution of the changing trends in the biomass and SOC. In the
528 eastern and northern regions of the study area, the biomass decreased, whereas it exhibited an
529 increasing trend in the southwest part of the research area. On a regional scale, the change in
530 the SOC had a significant spatial distribution pattern where it decreased from the south to the
531 north.

532 The grassland biomass and SOC will decline under sustained warming according to future
533 climate change projections. Therefore, grassland management should be adapted to potential
534 climate change to ensure sustainable grassland development in the study area. In the future,
535 suitable grazing intensity for the sustainable development of grasslands should be studied.
536 Moreover, greater human activity and management practices should be coupled according to
537 the model to develop more intelligent grassland management strategies.

538

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Table 1. Projected climatic changes (precipitation and maximum, minimum, and mean air temperature) under the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios in 2044 compared with the corresponding values in the baseline data (2014).

Scenarios	Air temperature (°C)			Precipitation(mm)
	T _{max}	T _{min}	T _{mean}	
Baseline	3.63	-16.88	-3.56	279.24
RCP4.5	+0.99	+0.44	+0.72	+11.81
RCP8.5	+1.09	+0.51	+0.80	+12.50

Table 2. Summary of two-way analysis of variance for biomass and SOC relative to the climate, grazing intensity, and their interactions during 1985–2044. Degrees of freedom (d.f.), mean squares (M.S.), variance ratio (F-value), and level of significance (P-value) are shown.

Source of variation	d.f.	Biomass			SOC		
		M.S.	F-value	P-value	M.S.	F-value	P-value
Climate	2	16827.91	54.27	**	468.16	723.54	**
Grazing Intensity	3	22132.64	71.37	**	17.29	26.72	**
Climate*Grazing Intensity	6	2.63	0.01	n.s.	0.28	0.28	n.s.

** Indicate the population means of the treatment are significantly different at 0.05 level; n.s., the means no significant different.

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Table 3. The simulated SOC concentrations and total biomass under climate and grazing scenarios.

	Scenarios	Total biomass (g C m ⁻²)	SOC (0–20 cm) concentrations (g C kg ⁻¹)
Climate	Realistic (1985–2014)	204.01	66.18
	RCP4.5 (2015–2044)	191.17	63.44
	RCP8.5 (2015–2044)	183.62	63.37
	LSD _{0.05}	3.87	0.09
Grazing	Baseline	187.83	64.49
	G0	211.42	64.37
	G-50	201.41	64.64
	G+50	178.11	65.26
	LSD _{0.05}	4.47	0.10

LSD_{0.05}: Least significant difference at 0.05 level.

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Table 4. Multiple linear regression analysis of grassland biomass and SOC change with relative factors.

	Variables numbers	R-square	PRESS	Temperature	Precipitation	Grazing Intensity
Biomass	1	26.4	273067.7	X		
	1	6.4	370402.4			X
	1	0.4	349337.6		X	
	2	26.4	287817.3	X	X	
	2	26.4	301908.4	X		X

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	2	8.6	383224.5		X	X
	3	26.4	326183.5	X	X	X
SOC	1	47.6	179.2		X	
	1	2.3	310.9			X
	1	0.4	322.9	X		
	2	47.9	185.5		X	X
	2	47.7	189.5	X	X	
	2	4.7	328.8	X		X
	3	48.6	199.1	X	X	X

PRESS: The prediction sum of squares. The smaller the PRESS value, the better the model's predictive ability.

X: Indicates variable applied in the regression.

Table 3. Simulated total biomass (mean \pm SE) under the realistic, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios for the G₀, G₋₅₀, baseline, and G₊₅₀ treatments.

Management practice	Total biomass (g C m ⁻²)		
	Realistic (1985–2014)	RCP4.5 (2015–2044)	RCP8.5 (2015–2044)
G ₀	223.6 \pm 10.8 ^a A	207.0 \pm 10.3 ^a B	199.5 \pm 10.2 ^a B
G ₋₅₀	213.3 \pm 10.5 ^b A	197.3 \pm 10.1 ^b B	189.7 \pm 10.1 ^b B
Baseline	202.1 \pm 10.4 ^c A	186.5 \pm 10.0 ^c B	178.9 \pm 10.0 ^c B
G ₊₅₀	190.2 \pm 10.4 ^d A	173.9 \pm 10.0 ^d B	166.3 \pm 10.0 ^d B

SE: Standard error, which representing interannual variations of the mean values. Significant differences among management practices are indicated by letters. Values within a column followed by the same lowercase letters or within a row followed by the same uppercase letter are not different at P < 0.05.

Table 4. Simulated SOC (mean \pm SE) under the realistic, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5 scenarios for the G₀, G₋₅₀, baseline and G₊₅₀ treatments.

Management practice	Soil organic carbon (0–20 cm) concentrations (g C kg ⁻¹)		
	Realistic (1985–2014)	RCP4.5 (2015–2044)	RCP8.5 (2015–2044)
G ₀	65.84 \pm 2.30 ^a A	62.94 \pm 2.20 ^a B	62.87 \pm 2.20 ^a B
G ₋₅₀	66.04 \pm 2.30 ^a A	63.27 \pm 2.21 ^a B	63.20 \pm 2.20 ^b B
Baseline	66.32 \pm 2.31 ^b A	63.61 \pm 2.21 ^b B	63.53 \pm 2.21 ^b B
G ₊₅₀	66.59 \pm 2.31 ^b A	63.96 \pm 2.22 ^b B	63.88 \pm 2.21 ^b B

SE: Standard error which representing interannual variations of the mean values. Significant differences among management practices are indicated by letters. Values within a column followed by the same lowercase letters or within a row followed by the same uppercase letter are not different at P < 0.05.

	Scenarios	Total biomass (g C m ⁻²)		Soil organic carbon SOC (0–20 cm) concentrations (g C kg ⁻¹)
		Realistic (1985–2014)	RCP4.5 (2015–2044)	
Climate	Realistic (1985–2014)	204.01		66.18
	RCP4.5 (2015–2044)	191.17		63.44
	RCP8.5 (2015–2044)	183.62		63.37

	LSD _{0.05}	3.87	0.09
Grazing	Baseline	187.83	64.49
	G0	211.42	64.37
	G-50	201.41	64.64
	G+50	178.11	65.26
	LSD _{0.05}	4.47	0.10

LSD_{0.05}: Least significant differenceLeast sifnifantly significantly difference at 0.05 level.

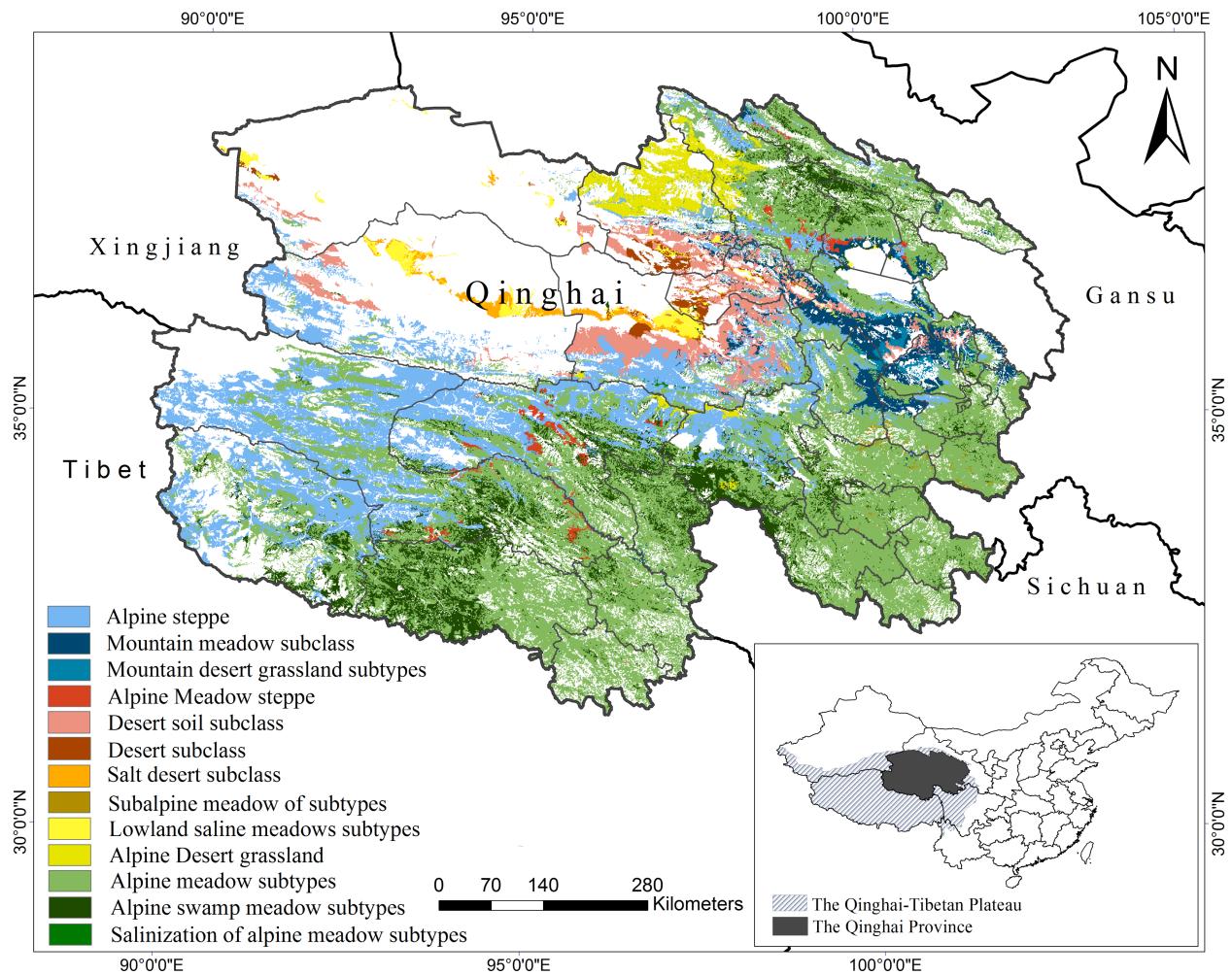


Fig. 1. Location of the study area and spatial distribution of the main grassland types. White areas are not covered by grassland.

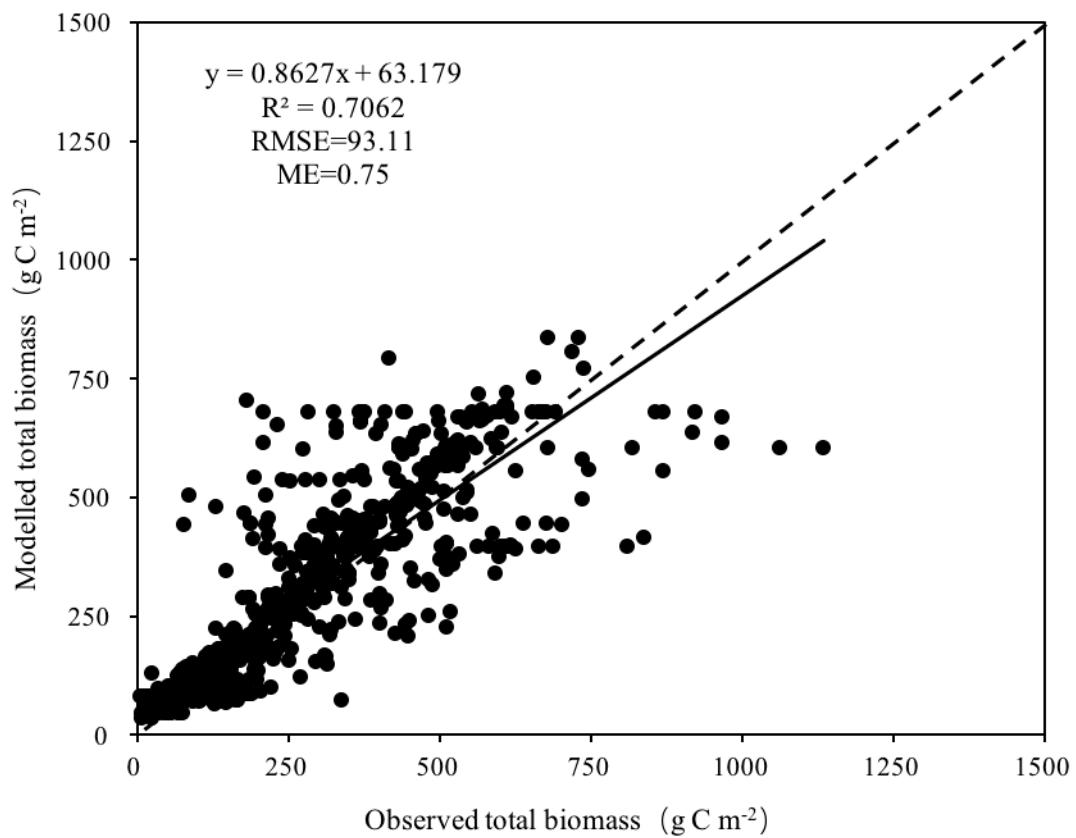


Fig. 2. Comparison of the modeled and observed total biomass values.

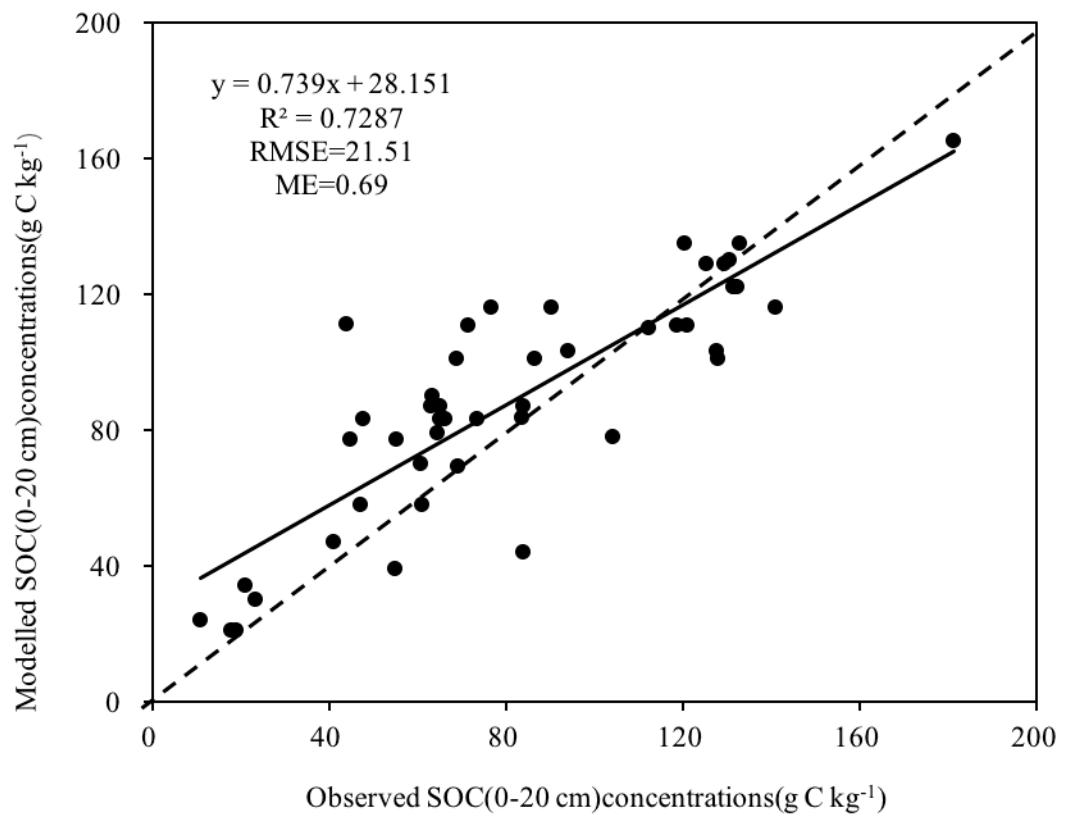


Fig. 3. Comparison of the modeled and observed SOC concentrations (0–20 cm).

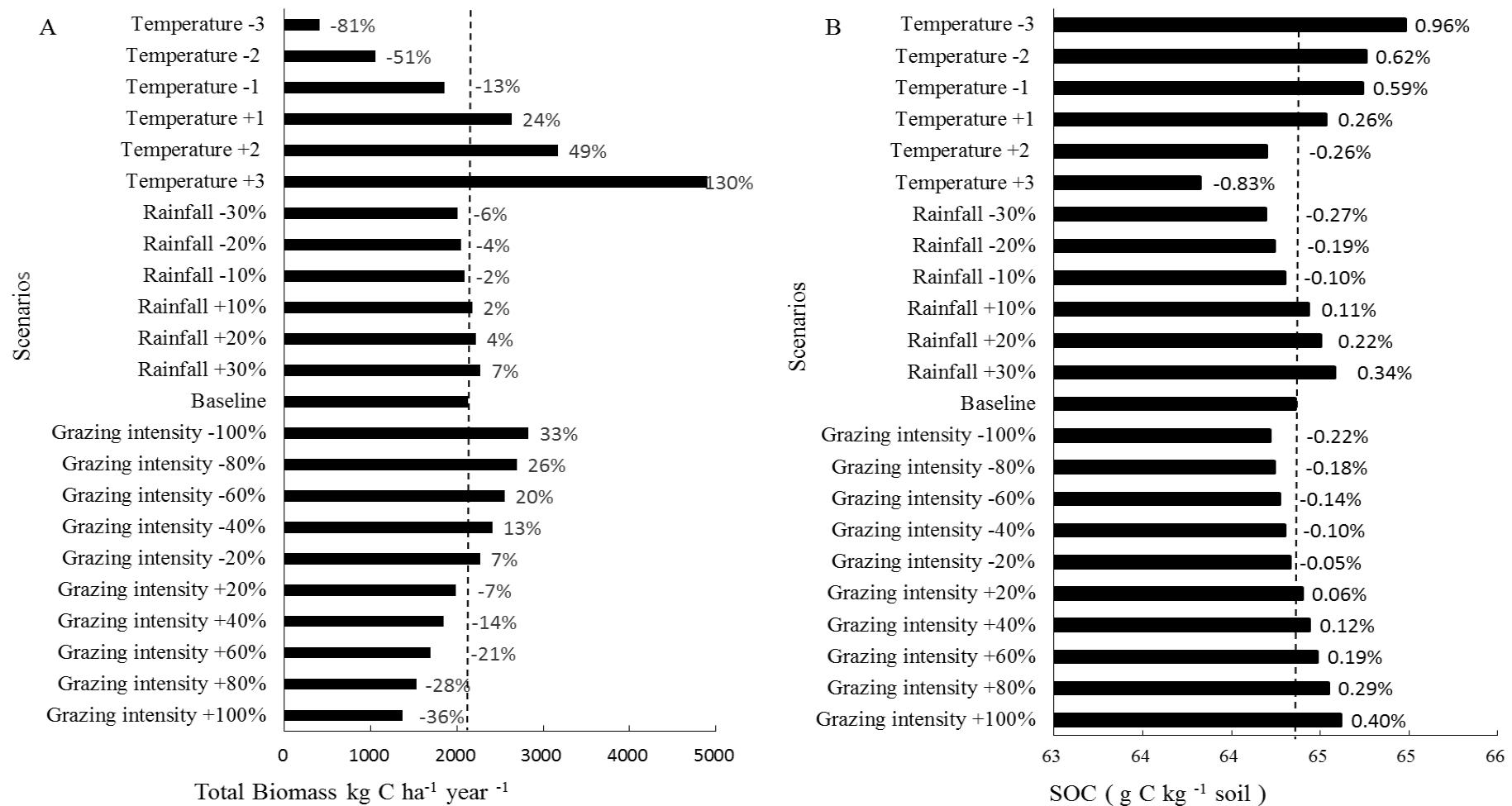


Fig. 4. Sensitivity analysis of model response to climate and grazing intensity change. The baseline biomass and SOC were the average value of a 55-year (1961-2014) simulation based on the actual climate and grazing conditions in the study area.

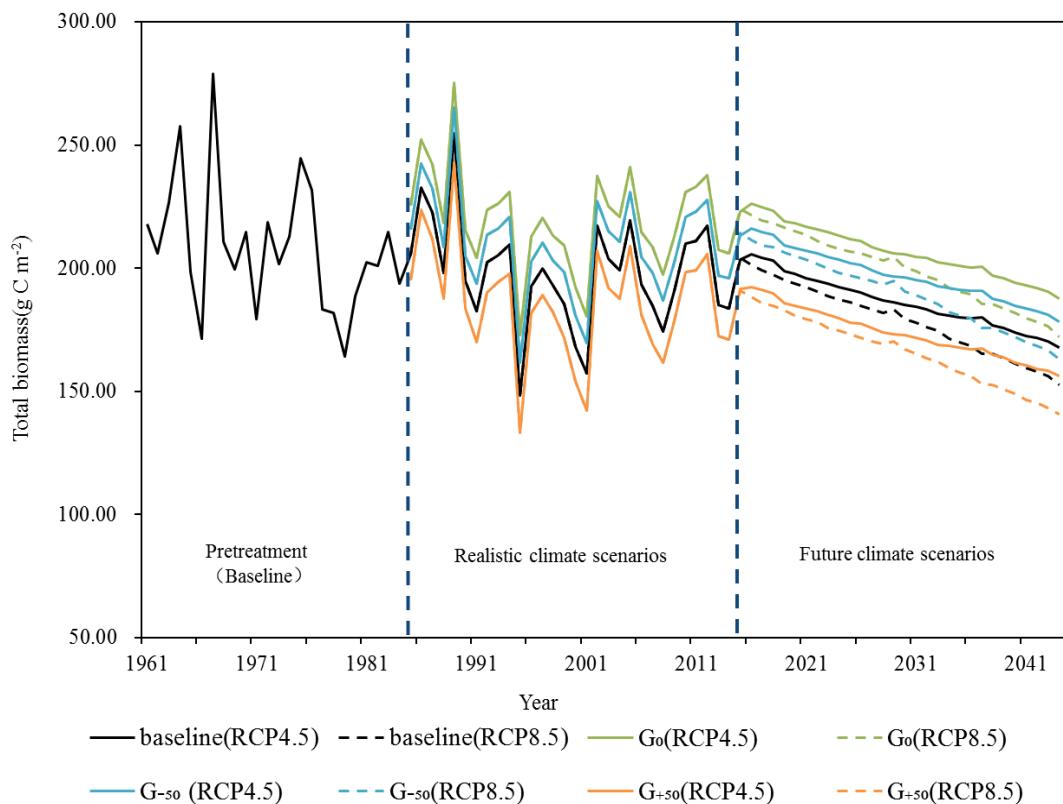


Fig. 5. Variations in the area-weighted mean biomass value under different scenarios. The stage on the left represents the preprocessing period from 1961 to 1984. The stage in the middle represents the realistic climate scenarios. The stage on the right represents future climate scenarios.

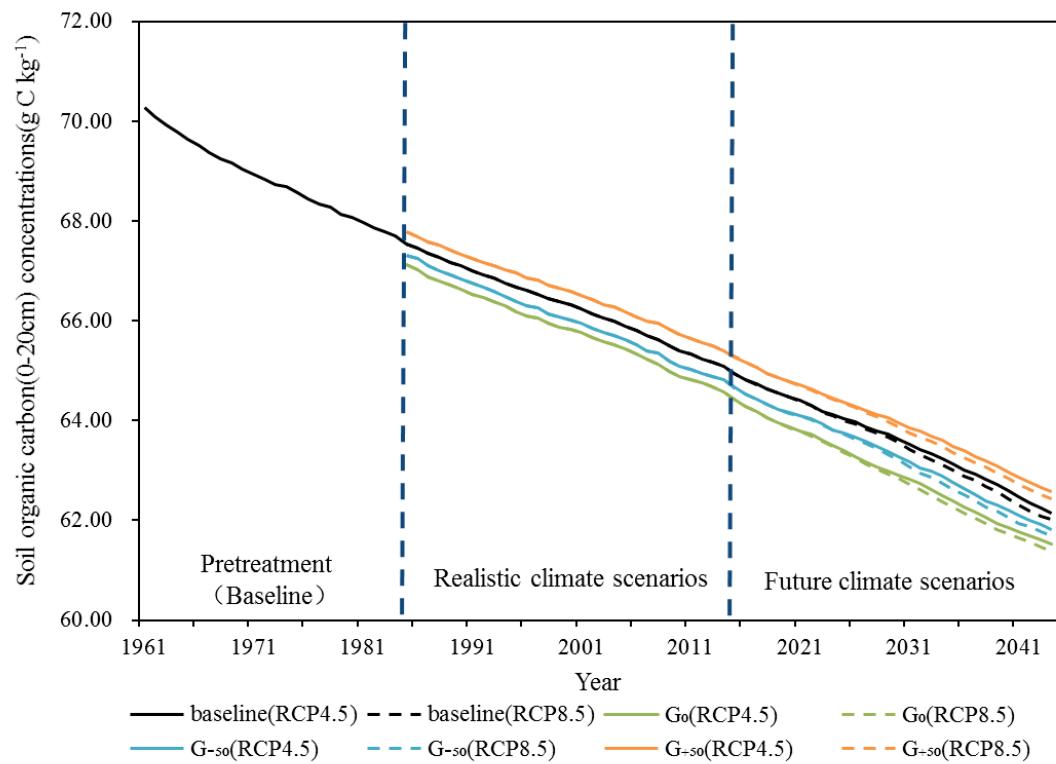


Fig. 6. Variations in the area-weighted mean SOC value under different scenarios. The stage on the left represents the preprocessing period from 1961 to 1984. The stage in the middle represents the realistic climate scenarios. The stage on the right represents future climate scenarios.

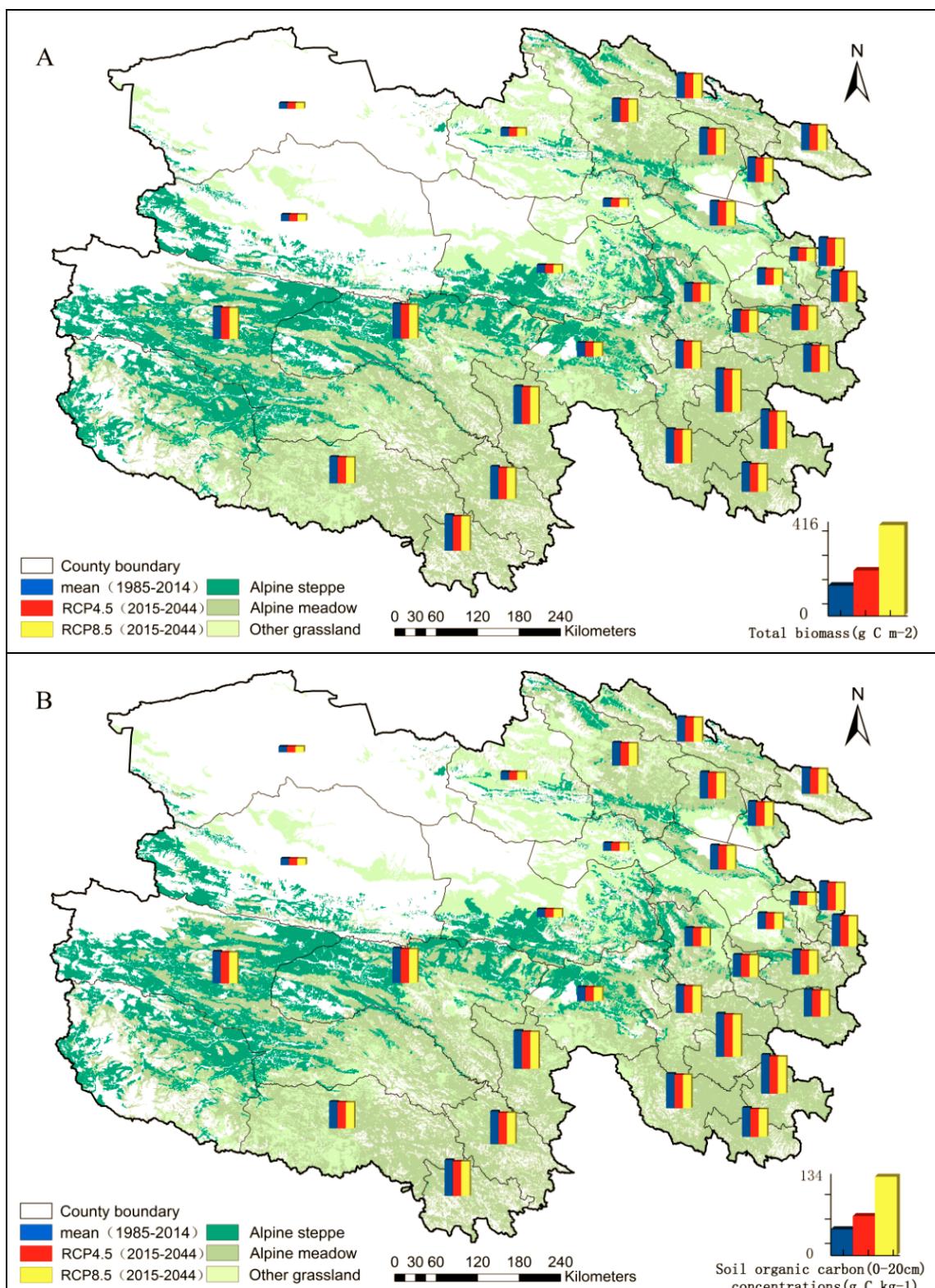


Fig. 7. Responses of the grassland biomass(A) and SOC(B) to climate change at a regional scale.

Table S1. Changes in livestock(million heads) in Qinghai province during the period from 1949 (data from Zhang (2011)) to 2015 (data from QPBS (2015)).

Livestock	1949	1978	1980	1985	1990	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Yaks	4.97	4.87	5.16	5.39	5.51	5.09	5.24	5.01	4.43	4.22	3.94	3.78	3.91	4.01	
Sheep and goats	16.45	16.13	13.28	16.08	16.48	16.35	16.77	16.66	15.70	16.01	16.39	16.40	16.42	16.76	
Other large Animals	0.71	0.67	0.74	0.74	0.72	0.66	0.63	0.58	0.62	0.60	0.57	0.53	0.51	0.54	
Total livestock	7.49	22.13	21.67	19.18	22.21	22.71	22.10	22.65	22.25	20.75	20.83	20.91	20.71	20.83	21.31
Livestock	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	
Yaks	4.11	4.06	4.04	4.06	4.50	4.47	4.45	4.45	4.36	4.42	4.74	4.52	4.44	4.80	
Sheep and goats	17.33	17.62	17.64	17.66	15.02	14.97	14.97	14.98	15.05	14.98	15.12	14.42	14.21	14.31	
Other large Animals	0.52	0.50	0.49	0.47	0.36	0.41	0.39	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.34	0.33	0.32	0.32	
Total livestock	21.95	22.18	22.17	22.19	19.88	19.85	19.81	19.78	19.77	19.76	20.21	19.27	18.97	19.42	

Table S2. Livestock grazing intensity in each county in the study area.

County	Grazing Intensity		County	Grazing Intensity	
	Yak/Cattle (heads ha ⁻¹)	Sheep and Goats (heads ha ⁻¹)		Yak/Cattle (heads ha ⁻¹)	Sheep and Goats (heads ha ⁻¹)
Tianjun	0.04	0.32	Banma	0.29	0.32
Dulan	0.02	0.16	Maqin	0.24	0.27
Wulan	0.04	0.40	Guinan	0.24	1.39
Delinha	0.01	0.11	Xinghai	0.18	1.03
Geermu	0.01	0.05	Guide	0.18	1.03
Xisanzhen	0.03	0.23	Tongde	0.36	2.10
Qumalai	0.04	0.09	Gonghe	0.16	0.94
Nangqian	0.18	0.38	Henan	0.38	0.92
Zhiduo	0.02	0.05	Zeku	0.40	0.98
Chengduo	0.13	0.29	Jianzha	0.61	1.48
Zaduo	0.04	0.10	Tongren	0.29	0.69
Yushu	0.15	0.32	Gangcha	0.25	1.28
Maduo	0.05	0.06	Haiyan	0.24	1.20
Jiuzhi	0.20	0.22	Qilian	0.19	0.95
Dari	0.16	0.18	Menyuan	0.32	1.63
Gande	0.31	0.34			

The number of horses has decreased each year and at the end of 2014, the number of horses only accounted for 1.7% of the total number of grazing livestock. Therefore, we combined the data for horses and cattle to calculate the grazing intensity. The baseline grazing intensity was based on the grazing data from 2005, which was the highest in recent decades, and the grassland monitoring project also started in that year.

Table S3. Livestock grazing parameters employed in this study.

Parameters	Yak/Cattle	Sheep	Horse
Daily C intake (kg C head⁻¹)	2.48 ^a	0.50	4.01
Milk C fraction [0-1]	0.01	0.00	0.01
Meat C fraction [0-1]	0.05	0.04	0.05
Urine C fraction [0-1]	0.02	0.06	0.02
Dung C fraction [0-1]	0.44	0.42	0.44
Enteric CH₄ C fraction [0-1]	0.02	0.03	0.02
Respiration C fraction [0-1]	0.46	0.45	0.46
Milk N fraction [0-1]	0.00	0.00	0.00
Meat N fraction [0-1]	0.30	0.30	0.30
Urine N fraction [0-1]	0.35	0.49	0.35
Dung N fraction [0-1]	0.35	0.21	0.35

^a Parameters derived from (Dong Quan min and quan, 2007; Xue Bai et al., 2004)

Table s4. Input values for the main grassland type parameters used in the DNDC model.

Parameters	Mountain meadow	Alpine steppe	Lowland saline	Alpine meadow	Alpine swamp	Alpine desert	Desert soil
	subclass		meadow subtype	subtype	meadow subtype		subclass
Maximum biomass production (kg C ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹) ^a	1157	798	879	2786	3586	1441	672
Grain fraction of biomass ^b	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Leaf and stem fraction of biomass ^b	0.40	0.40	0.42	0.60	0.40	0.11	0.28
Root fraction of biomass ^b	0.56	0.57	0.55	0.38	0.58	0.88	0.71
C/N ratio of grain ^c	34	31	31	34	33	26	25
C/N ratio of leaf and stem ^c	33	30	30	32	31	22	24
C/N ratio of root ^c	40	48	22	59	58	25	19
Water requirement ^c (kg water kg ⁻¹ dry matter)	200	200	200	200	200	200	200
Max height (m) ^a	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	1
TDD ^d	1000	1500	1000	1500	1500	1000	1000
N fixation index ^d	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5

^aParameters derived from field observations; ^b parameters derived from (ji et al., 1995); ^cparameters derived from(cai et al., 2007; li et al., 2016; lin et al., 2014);

^dparameters derived from the default values in the DNDC model.

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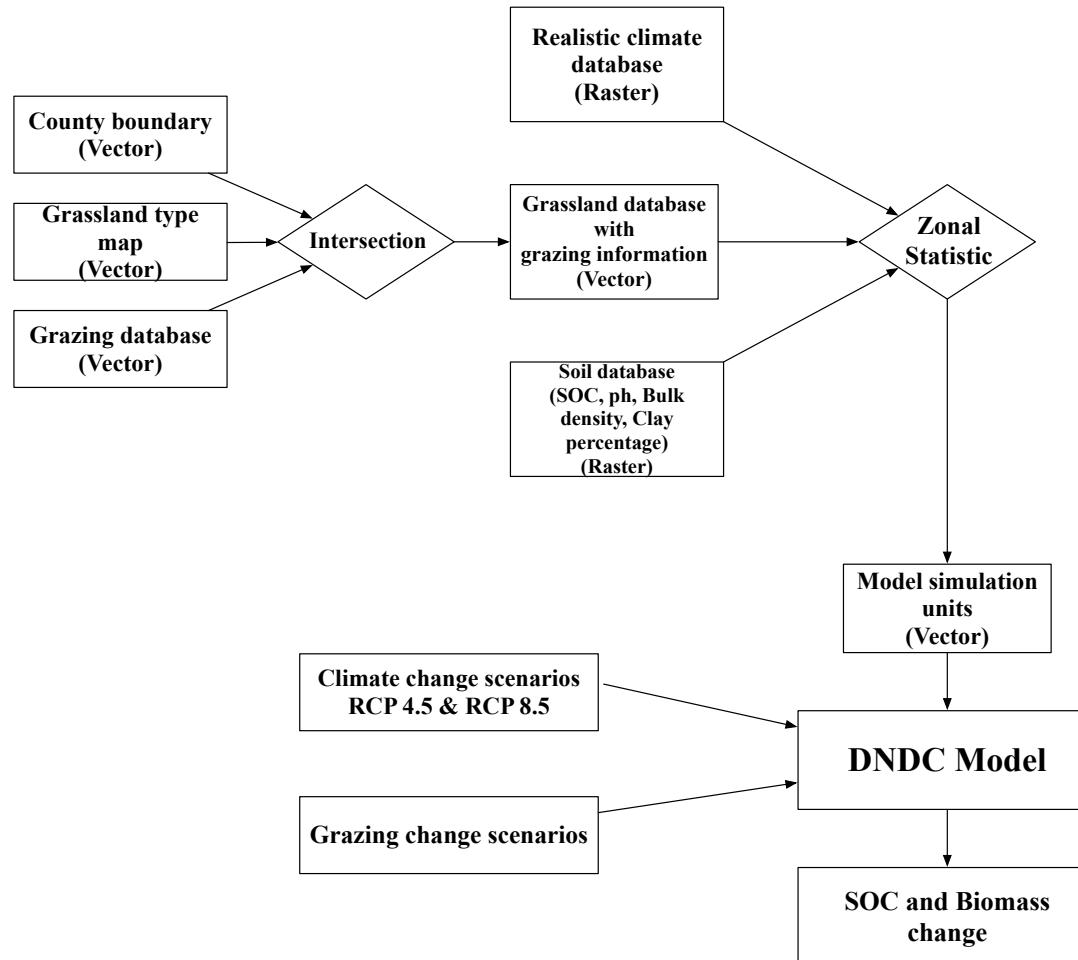


Fig. S1. The flowchart of model data preparation and simulation. The vector and raster inside the brackets indicate the input data format, and the intersection and zonal statistic inside the rhombus indicate the ArcGIS algorithm applied to process the data.

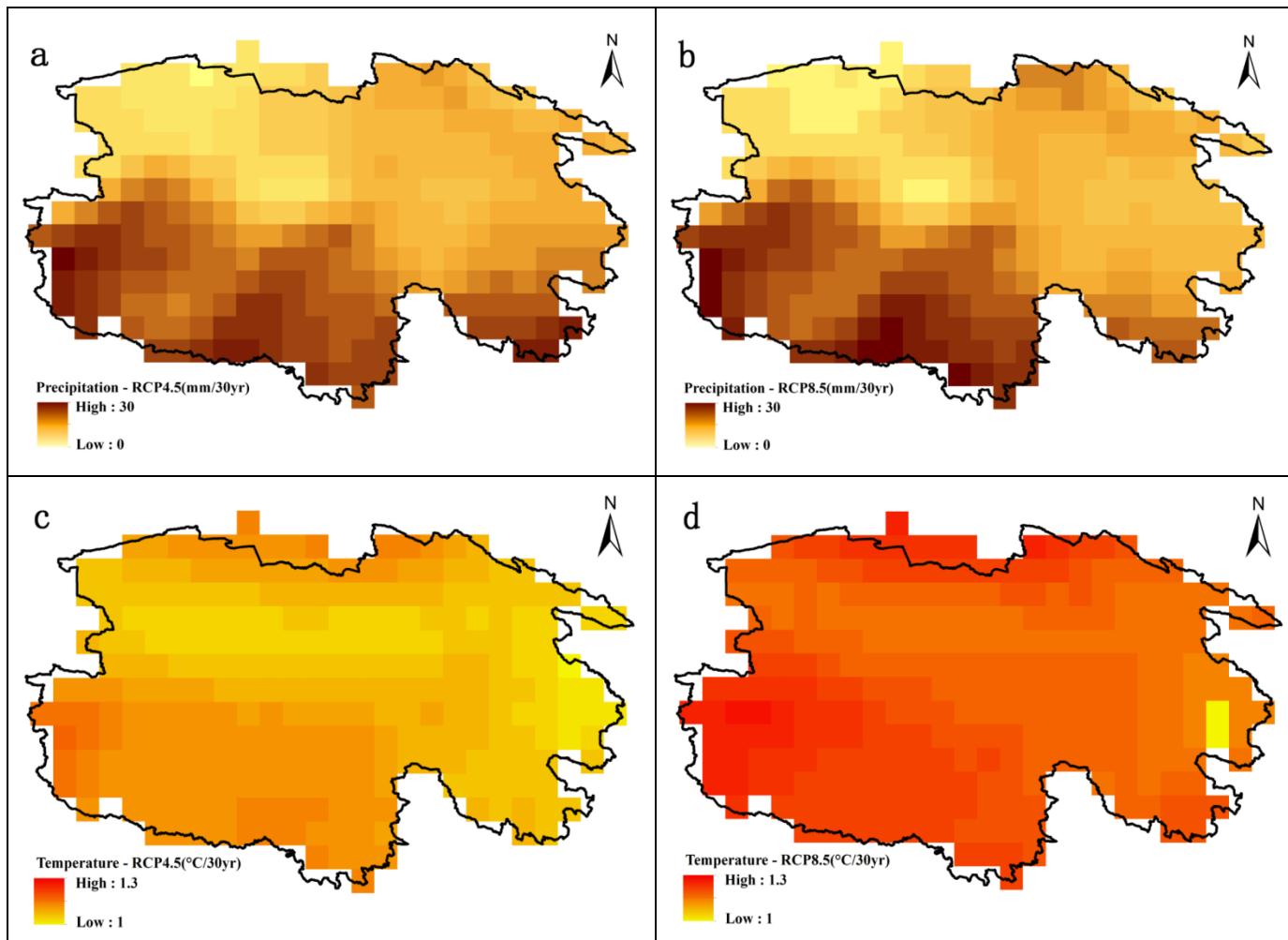


Fig. S2. Spatial distributions of precipitation and changes in temperature under the RCP4.5 (a, c) and RCP 8.5 (b, d) climate change scenarios up to 2044.