Reviewer 1 Response

We are pleased to report that we have included our R script for the analyses in this paper as part of the supplemental information. We have also made sharing R script sharing a policy for papers produced in my lab going forward. The data in this manuscript are now available on ESS DIVE (doi:10.15485/1596312).

We edited our second paragraph slightly. We still wanted to introduce apparent after respiration quotients are defined in their "ideal" form so as not to confuse the reader.

Specific changes:

- 1: Soil respiration was redefined.
- 2: Cited Subke et al. 2006
- 3: Removed definition of OR and cleared up ARQ/RQ confusion.
- 4: Based on its elemental structure
- 5: Fixed
- 6: Added "same"
- 7: Started new paragraph.

8: I am not a fan of MASS: stepAIC() as I find it is too conservative in regards to the predictor variables it leaves in a model. I prefer to remove variables when their removal does not change the AIC or significantly change the results of the LRT based on Occam's razor. Anyways, the R code is now available so it can be replicated.

9: Started new paragraph.

10: We recalculated using this command, R squared were either the same or within 0.02. Great tip, thank you!

- 11: The R code is now SI. The data have been submitted to ESS DIVE.
- 12: Changed.
- 13: Defined the circles in the caption.
- 14: Thanks
- 15: Added.

16: ?

17: Yes, SOC. Good catch.

18: Since those conditions were met in our soils, we do not think discussing it further is relevant to this manuscript. There is a good discussion of it in the Angert paper we cited.

19. Thanks

Reviewer 2 Response

We added the height of ambient air sampling (0.5 to 1 m aboveground).

We added a citation for the atmospheric concentration of oxygen.

We changed enriched and depleted to higher/greater and lower when referring to delta values.

We rewrote that results paragraph with better parallel construction of the sentences. Since these were mixed model multiple regressions, we do not have traditional ANOVA tables to report.

We fixed the table number.

The suggestion that we investigate the effect of the warming on temperature sensitivity was a great one. We re-ran our linear models of ARQ and 13CO2 vs climate (soil T or VWC) with a climate by warming treatment interaction, which improved the model in all cases except for one (13CO2 vs VWC). The reviewer was correct in stating that this was a missed opportunity. These new analyses make a much stronger case for the experimental warming treatment affecting the substrates being used to fuel soil respiration. We have thus expanded our discussion section to include more about how warming and soil moisture can affect root respiration and substrate utilization.

We added the sample size (n=4) for the incubations. We did not have 13C values as we had issues with our Picarro at that time.

We reworded line 242.

We added your comment about advection possibly leading to erroneous diffusive fractionation corrections to the manuscript.

The data (doi:10.15485/1596312) are available on ESS DIVE now.

We added a range of RQ values for the molecules in table 1.

We have added sample sized to all the captions of all tables and figures.

In figure 1, we chose to keep the lines connecting the ARQ points as the point of figure 1 is to show how the ARQ and 13C patterns are similar. We added the fit statistics to the caption.

In figure 2, we changed the x-axis so they are the same for both panels, and, as requested, we include all the data points for the ARQ data as well.

Using Respiration Quotients to Track Changing Sources of Soil Respiration Seasonally and with Experimental Warming

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11 Abstract. Developing a more mechanistic understanding of soil respiration is hampered by the difficulty in

12 determining the contribution of different organic substrates to respiration and in disentangling autotrophic versus

13 heterotrophic and aerobic versus anaerobic processes. Here, we use a relatively novel tool for better understanding

soil respiration: the apparent respiration quotient (ARQ). ARQ is the amount of CO₂ produced in the soil divided by

- 15 the amount of O₂ consumed and it changes according to which organic substrates are being consumed and whether
- 16 oxygen is being used as an electron acceptor. We investigated how the ARQ of soil gas varied seasonally, by soil
- depth, and by *in situ* experimental warming (+4°C) in a coniferous forest whole-soil-profile warming experiment over
- 18 two years. We then compared the patterns in ARQ to those of soil δ^{13} CO₂. Our measurements showed strong seasonal
- 19 variations in ARQ from \approx 0.9 during the late spring and summer to \approx 0.7 during the winter. This pattern likely reflected
- 20 a shift from respiration being fueled by oxidized substrates like sugars and organic acids derived from root and root
- 21 respiration during the growing season to more reduced substrates such as lipids and proteins derived from microbial

22 necromass during the winter. This interpretation was supported by $\delta^{13}CO_2$ values, which were <u>relatively lower</u>, like

- 23 lipids, in the winter and relatively higher, like sugars, in the summer. Furthermore, experimental warming significantly
- 24 changed how both ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ responded to soil temperature. Wintertime ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ values were higher
- 25 in heated than in control plots, probably due to the warming-driven increase in microbial activity that may have utilized
- 26 oxidized carbon substrates, while growing season values were lower in heated plots, Experimental warming and
- 27 phenology change the sources of soil respiration throughout the soil profile. The sensitivity of ARQ to these changes
- 28 demonstrates its potential as a tool for disentangling the biological sources contributing to soil respiration.

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41 1 Introduction

42 Despite making extensive measurements of soil respiration (Bond-Lamberty and Thomson, 2010), scientists lack methods to 43 disentangle the processes underlying, and substrates contributing to, soil respiration, which hampers predictions of terrestrial 44 carbon cycle responses to global change (Phillips et al., 2017). Mechanistic uncertainty surrounding soil respiration is partly responsible for the 1000 Pg spread in model predictions of end-of-century terrestrial carbon-climate feedbacks [Friedlingstein 45 46 et al., 2013). Soil respiration is the flux of CO_2 from the soil surface to the atmosphere, which is dominated by autotrophic 47 respiration from plant roots and heterotrophic respiration from soil microbes. Heterotrophic respiration, which has increased 48 globally over the past three decades (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2018), is itself the sum of various processes using different sources of energy. For example, microbes consume different organic substrates depending on what molecules are accessible and 49 whether the microbes are living in the rhizosphere or bulk soil, and microbes utilize different terminal electron acceptors 50 depending on O2 availability in the microsites in which they reside (Keiluweit et al., 2016; Liptzin et al., 2011). The electron 51 52 donors (the organic substrates) and the electron acceptors used by soil microbes during respiration cannot be resolved by measuring the CO₂ flux alone. Previous studies have used measurements of δ^{13} C to partition respiration into autotrophic and 53 54 heterotrophic components (e.g., Dorrepaal et al., 2009), radiocarbon to partition respiration sources by age (e.g., Trumbore, 2000), or both isotopes in combination to more finely separate respiration among sources (e.g., Hicks Pries et al., 2013; 55 56 Hopkins et al., 2012). However, isotopes are not the only way to disentangle soil respiration's various components (Subke et 57 al., 2006). 58 59 Our ability to understand soil respiration is limited by measuring only one half of the respiration equation, the CO₂ produced. 60 Simultaneously measuring the O₂ consumed can provide a more mechanistic understanding of the processes and substrates contributing to soil respiration (Phillips et al., 2017). The paired measurements of CO2 and O2 can be used to calculate a 61 respiration quotient (RQ; Angert and Sherer, 2011). All organic matter has an oxidative ratio (J/RQ), which can be calculated 62 63 based on an elemental analysis of its C, H, O, and N (Masiello et al., 2008). The oxidation state of carbon in carbohydrates is 64 0 with a corresponding RQ of 1 based on its elemental structure. More reduced energy sources such as lipids have lower RQ values (≈0.73) and the RQ of proteins range from 0.67 to 1; more oxidized sources such as organic acids have RQ ranges from 65 66 1 to 4 (Masiello et al., 2008; Table 1). The RQ of aerobic respiration therefore changes based on what substrates are being consumed (Dilly, 2001; Theenhaus et al., 1997). Anaerobic respiration increases RQ to values greater than one, as electron 67 acceptors like Fe(III) and NO3⁻ replace O2. Thus, RQ can help differentiate between the electron donors (organic substrates) 68 and terminal electron acceptors used during soil respiration. We will refer to the 'apparent' respiration quotient (ARQ) because 69 70 not all ecosystem CO2 or O2 fluxes are due to respiratory processes (Angert and Sherer, 2011). For example, fluctuating redox 71 conditions can lead to consumption of O₂ during metal oxidation and drive ARQ below the value of the most reduced organic

72 matter (Angert et al., 2015).

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Deleted: Soil respiration is the sum of autotrophic respiration by plant roots and heterotrophic respiration by soil microbes.

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79	Thus far, CO2:O2 ratios have been primarily used to understand large scale earth system processes and only few studies have	
80	examined processes within ecosystems. This ratio in atmospheric samples has been used to estimate a) the magnitude of the	
81	terrestrial carbon sink, because carbon uptake by terrestrial ecosystems is balanced by O2 production whereas ocean CO2	
82	uptake is decoupled from O2, (Keeling, 1988; Keeling et al., 1996; Randerson et al., 2006; Worrall et al., 2013) and b)	
83	anthropogenic impacts on the carbon cycle, based on the principle that burning of reduced fossil fuels results in a different	
84	oxidative ratio than does photosynthesis and subsequent respiration of carbohydrates (Keeling, 1988). The CO2:O2 ratio of	
85	ecosystem-atmosphere exchanges is an essential quantity in these carbon cycle calculations. CO2:O2 ratios have been estimated	
86	from measurements of net ecosystem exchange of CO2 and O2 (e.g., Seibt et al., 2004) and from elemental analysis of biomass	
87	(Hockaday William C. et al., 2015; e.g., Masiello et al., 2008), both of which are assumed to be similar over multiyear	
88	timescales. In early carbon sink calculations, the oxidative ratio of ecosystem fluxes was assumed to be 1.1 (ARQ=0.9) based	
89	on a single study of temperate soils (Severinghaus, 1995). However, the few subsequent studies examining the CO2:O2 ratio	
90	of soil respiration fluxes have shown soil fluxes can deviate widely from that value.	
91		
92	Soil ARQ from incubations shift as a result of temperature changes, substrate additions, and soil management. For example,	
02	the APO of most sails downcoold from about 1.1 to show 0.6 when towncomputings increased from 0.520% of the burget to show $\sin \alpha$	

93 the ARQ of peat soils decreased from about 1.1 to about 0.6 when temperatures increased from 0 to 20°C, attributed to changing

94 substrate use (Chapman and Thurlow, 1998). Glucose additions to German forest soils increased soil ARQ to 0.95-1.0 from a

95 basal value around 0.7 (Dilly, 2001; Theenhaus et al., 1997). Soils under organic agriculture were found to have a greater ARQ 96 (1.19) than <u>the same</u> soils under conventional agriculture (0.72; Theenhaus et al., 1997). Soil ARQ in mesocosms containing 97 pine seedlings changed seasonally and when the pine seedlings were cut, indicating the ratio is responsive to changes in

vegetation (Andersen and Scagel, 1997; Scagel and Andersen, 1997).

Lastly, in one of the only studies using *in situ* measurements, soil ARQ taken from gas wells across multiple forested ecosystems ranged widely from 0.14 to 1.23 indicating the influence of abiotic processes that consume O₂ (Angert et al. 2015). The wide range in soil ARQ values associated with different biochemical conditions indicates the ratio has the potential to provide insight into the substrates contributing to respiration as well as into abiotic O₂ consumption. Finer scale research is needed, however, to explore ARQ values in the same soils under different conditions to learn what these values indicate about the processes and substrates contributing to soil respired CO₂.

106

78

Here we investigated how the ARQ of soil gas *in situ* varied seasonally, by soil depth, and by experimental warming in a whole-soil-profile warming experiment in a well-drained, oxygenated coniferous forest soil <u>(Hicks Pries et al., 2017)</u>. We characterized soil ARQ at 30 and 90 cm depths in the winter and growing season over two years and compared the patterns in

110 ARQ to monthly patterns in soil profile δ^{13} CO₂. We hypothesized that ARQ values would change seasonally and with warming

111 reflecting the values of the organic carbon substrates being consumed by microbes. Like ARQ, the δ^{13} C of soil CO₂ is

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112 influenced by the use of different organic substrates since more reduced substrates tend to have lower δ^{13} C values (Bowling et

113 al., 2008). By comparing ARQ values to other indicators of respiration sources, such as δ^{13} C, augmented by what we 114 understand about plant allocation of carbon substrates belowground, we aim to advance the utility of ARQ as a tracer of

115 respiration processes.

116 2 Methods

117 2.1 Warming Experiment

The whole soil profile warming experiment is located at the University of California Blodgett Forest Research Station, in the 118 119 Sierra Nevada foothills near Georgetown, CA at 1370 m above sea level. Mean annual precipitation is 1774 mm with most of 120 it occurring from November through April and mean annual temperature is about 12.5°C (Bird and Torn, 2006). The experiment is in a thinned 80-year-old stand of mixed conifers including ponderosa pine (Pinus ponderosa), sugar pine (Pinus 121 122 lambertiana), incense cedar (Calodefrus decurrens), white fir (Abies concolor), and douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii). The soils are Holland series: fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Ultic Haploxeralfs of granitic origin with thick, >5 cm O 123 horizons, minimal carbonates (Rasmussen et al., 2005), and a pH that ranges from 5.6 to 6.5 (Hicks Pries et al., 2018). The 124 125 warming treatment warmed the soil +4°C to 1 m depth while maintaining the natural temperature gradient with depth and temporal variations in soil temperature as described in Hicks Pries et al. (2017). Briefly, there were three pairs of control and 126 127 heated 3 m diameter circular plots heated by 22 vertical resistance heater cables in metal conduit (BriskHeat, Ohio, USA) that surrounded them. To compensate for surface heat loss, two concentric rings of heater cable at 1 and 2 m in diameter were 128 129 installed 5 cm below the soil surface in heated plots. Unheated cables were installed similarly in control plots. Heating throughout the plot volume was generally even, ranging from 3.5 to 4.5°C except at 5 cm depth where the heated plots were 130 on average only 2.4 ± 1.2°C warmer than the control due to a lack of aboveground heating. Soil moisture was slightly decreased 131 132 in the warmed plots by an average of 1.5-3.5% volumetric water content (Hicks Pries et al., 2017).

133 2.2 Sample Collection and Analysis

Dataloggers (CR1000, Campbell Scientific, Utah, USA) continuously recorded soil temperature and moisture at 30 min intervals. Temperature was monitored at 5, 15, 30, 50, 75, and 100 cm depths at a radial distance of 0.75 m from the center of each plot. Temperature probes consisted of thermistors (Omega 44005) epoxied to PVC rods, placed inside thin-walled steel conduit. To monitor soil moisture, we used an enviroSCAN (Sentek, Australia) probe fitted with capacitance sensors at 10, 30, 50, and 90 cm at a radial distance of 0.75 m from the center of each plot. We calibrated the soil moisture measurements by comparing the sensor values at each depth to the volumetric water content measured in nearby (within 0.5 m) soil cores that were sampled five times over two years.

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145 Each of the six plots has a set of gas wells at 15, 30, 50, 75, and 90 cm. The gas wells were 6.35 mm diameter stainless steel 146 tubes inserted into the soil at a 45° angle to the desired depth and topped with straight swage pipefittings (Swagelok Ohio, USA) with septa. For CO₂ and δ^{13} CO₂ measurements, samples were collected from the wells with a syringe on a nearly monthly 147 basis from March 2014 through June 2017 (32 months total) and always during morning hours. After clearing the headspace 148 149 in each well, a 25 ml gas sample was transferred to an evacuated 20 ml septum-topped glass vial. For analysis, 5 ml samples 150 were injected into the small sample isotope module of a cavity ring down spectrometer (CRDS, Picarro, Santa Clara, California) where they were diluted with ultra zero air (without CO2). A four-point calibration curve ranging from 2,000 to 151 20,000 ppm ($\delta^{13}C=-26.7\%$) was used to calculate the CO₂ concentration from the CRDS data and to correct for mass 152 153 dependency of the $\delta^{13}C$ measurement.

154

In July 2015, February 2016, April 2016, August 2016, March 2017, and June 2017, we collected additional samples from the 30 (except July 2015) and 90 cm gas wells into 13 ml flasks equipped with O-ring valves (LouwersHanique, Hapert, Netherlands) to simultaneously measure CO₂ and O₂ concentrations in order to calculate ARQ. The flasks were analyzed in the laboratory at the Hebrew University by a closed system (The Hampadah; Hilman and Angert, 2016). This fully automated system uses an infra-red gas analyzer (IRGA) for CO₂ measurement (LI 840A LI-COR; Lincoln, NE, USA) and a fuel-cell based analyzer (FC-10; Sable Systems International, Las Vegas, NV, USA) for measuring O₂. The flasks were analyzed within 2-3 weeks of collection.

162

In June 2017, we also ran a set of short (3 hour) incubations of root-free soil and of excised roots collected adjacent to the experimental plots. We collected four mineral soil cores with a 5 cm diameter hammer corer, separated the cores into 0-20 and 20-40 cm depths, and removed roots >1 mm diameter. Roots were collected from four 25 cm x 25 cm x 25 cm soil pits. We rinsed roots with water to remove soil and blotted them dry before placing them into mason jars. The root-free soil was also placed into mason jars, and both sets of mason jars were flushed with ambient, outside air. After a three-hour incubation of the root samples and a 21-hour incubation of the soil samples, the headspace was sampled for CO_2 and O_2 and analyzed as described above. Incubations were run at room temperature, which was similar to the field temperature at the time of collection.

170 2.3 Sample Calculations and Statistics

171 To calculate ARQ, we used the following equation from Angert et al. (2015):

172
$$ARQ = -0.76 \frac{\Delta CO_2}{\Delta O_2}$$

173 Where ARQ is the apparent respiratory quotient, ΔCO_2 (ppmv) is the difference between CO₂ concentrations in the soil pore

174 space gas and ambient (i.e., 0.5 to 1m aboveground) samples, ΔO_2 (ppmv) is the difference of the soil pore space O_2

175 concentration and ambient O₂ concentration, and 0.76 is the ratio of CO₂ to O₂ diffusivity in air (Massman, 1998). The negative

176 sign is for convenience so the ARQ value will typically be positive, because the difference in O2 concentration is always

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178	negative. For the jar incubations we used the same equation without the 0.76 factor. Ambient CO ₂ concentrations were		
179	measured in the field at the time of sampling with the CRDS, while the ambient O_2 concentration was assumed to be 20.95%		
180	(Rumble, 2019). To relate the δ^{13} C value of soil pore space CO ₂ to the δ^{13} C of CO ₂ production, we corrected the pore-space		Deleted: 1
181	$\delta^{13}C$ value for diffusion since ^{13}C diffuses slower in air than ^{12}C and thus the measured value does not accurately represent the		
182	value of production. For the correction, we used the following equation from Bowling et al. (2015):		Field Code Changed
183	$\delta_{production} = \frac{C_s(\delta_s - 4.4) - C_a(\delta_a - 4.4)}{1.0044(C_s - C_a)}$		
184	Where C_s is the soil pore space CO ₂ concentration (ppmv), δ_s (‰) is the isotopic composition of soil pore space CO ₂ and C_a		
185	and δ_8 are the CO2 concentration and isotopic composition of ambient air, respectively. The ambient CO2 concentrations and		
186	δ^{13} C values needed for these corrections were measured in the field at the time of sampling with the CRDS.		
187			
188	To investigate the effects of season, warming treatment, and soil depth on ARQ and δ^{13} C, we ran multiple regressions in R (R		Field Code Changed
189	Development Core Team, 2017). Because ARQ was not sampled from both depths on all dates, we ran separate regressions		
190	for each depth (30 and 90 cm) and then ran a regression that included a depth effect while dropping the first sampling date. In		
191	all regressions, treatment and sampling date (as a factor) were fixed effects. Following Zuur et al. (2009), we used a full model		Field Code Changed
192	with all fixed effects and their interactions to optimize the random effects and autocorrelation structure based on AIC. For both		
193	versions, we used the individual gas well as a random effect and a temporal autocorrelation did not improve the model, nor		
194	did an autocorrelation function graph indicate one was needed. We chose the significant fixed effects by performing a series		
195	of pairwise model comparisons using AIC and the F test, dropping the least significant variables each time until only variables		
196	that improved the model fit remained. The p-values reported are those from the t-tests of the summary.lme function of best fit		
197	model. We report conditional R ² values calculated using the rsquared command in the piecewiseSEM package.		
198			
199	To investigate seasonal patterns in $\delta^{13}CO_2$, we had more data in terms of both length of time and temporal density of sampling		
200	and were thus able to treat month as a continuous variable. We fit a sine function and tested models including the first and		
201	second harmonics of the month effect as well as linear fixed effects of depth, treatment, and a depth by treatment interaction.		
202	Graphical exploration indicated the sinusoidal pattern differed slightly by year, so we also added a year effect to the second		
203	harmonic of the month effect. As above, we used the full fixed effect model to test the best random and autocorrelation		
204	structure. Individual gas well depth was used as a random effect and a correlation structure did not improve the model.		
205			
206	To test relationships between ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$, and both ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ individually versus soil temperature and volumetric		
207	water content, we ran mixed-model regressions with individual gas well as a random effect. For the soil climate relationships,		
208	we used AIC and the F test to investigate whether the warming treatment and its interaction with soil temperature or VWC	/	wells, which limited our analyses to the 30 and 90 cm sensor depths
209	were significant fixed effects. ,We tested the need for autocorrelation structures based off of AIC and none improved the		only Deleted: For these regressions, we report pseudo R ² values
210	models. For all models, we graphically checked the residuals for violations of normality and heterogeneity of variance. For		calculated from a linear regression of the actual data versus the model predicted data.

 $218 \quad \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ analyses, we dropped the 15 cm depths due to their unusually low \\ \delta^{13}C \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ analyses, we dropped the 15 cm depths due to their unusually low } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{13}CO_2 \text{ value } (<-32\%) \text{ after correction (Eq. 1), which } \delta^{$

219 indicated potential intrusion of atmospheric air during sampling that led to an overcorrection. We used one-way ANOVA's to

220 compare the ARQ of soil and root incubations and the ARQ of two soil depths we incubated. All statistics were performed in

221 R v 3.4.1 and regressions were done using the lme function (R Development Core Team, 2017).

222 3 Results

223 Both ARO and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ had similar, strong seasonal patterns (Fig. 1a and 1b). ARO values were higher during the growing season $(0.89 \pm 0.01, n=42)$ and lower during the winter $(0.70 \pm 0.02, n=23)$. In ARQ regression analyses for both depths, there 224 was a significant effect of date (p<0.0001, n=59) with February 2016 and March 2017 differing significantly from July 2015 225 226 (90 cm only), April 2016, August 2016, and June 2017. Similarly, δ^{13} C was higher during the summer (June through October, 227 -27.97 ± 0.06 , n=311) and <u>lower</u> during the winter and spring (November through May, -29.01 ± 0.04 , n=447). While individual 228 dates were not compared statistically for \delta^{13}CO₂, the vast improvement in model fit using month as a sine function instead of 229 a linear function or factor (Δ AIC=114) is strong statistical evidence for a seasonal effect (Fig. 2b). ARQ and δ^{13} CO₂ were significantly related according to the mixed effect regression model (Fig. 1c, p<0.0001, n=64, R²=0.20). However, the patterns 230231 in ARQ and δ^{13} CO₂ did not match during April. 232 233 Both ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ differed by warming treatment (Fig. 2) and by depth (Table 2). For the ARQ of 30 cm depths, there 234 was a significant treatment-by-date interaction (p=0.051, n=30) whereby heated plots had greater ARQ values during the 235 winter months (February 2016 and March 2017; Fig. 2a). For the ARQ of 90 cm depths, the best fit model did not include a significant treatment effect or treatment-by-date interaction (Fig. 2a, n=35). For $\delta^{13}CO_2$ across all depths, treatment was a 236 237 significant effect (p=0.0065, n=758) with warmed soil on average having a slightly higher δ^{13} CO₂ (-28.33 ± 0.05) than the control soil (-28.83 \pm 0.06; Fig 2b). The treatment-by-depth interaction was not significant for $\delta^{13}CO_2$ and was not included in 238 239 the best fit model. Looking at depth only (Table 2), ARQ at 30 cm was marginally significantly greater than ARQ at 90 cm by 240 0.07 units (p=0.099, n=59), while δ^{13} CO₂ increased with depth from -28.98 at 30 cm to -28.34 at 90 cm (p=0.0089, n=758).

241
242 Both ARQ and δ¹³CO₂ showed strong relationships with soil climate that were significantly affected by the warming treatment
243 (Fig 3). We tested relationships with soil temperature and soil moisture individually because of the strong negative correlation
244 between temperature and moisture in this Mediterranean climate (pearson's r=-0.76 to -0.78). ARQ increased significantly
245 with increasing soil temperatures (p<0.0001, n=65, <u>R²=0.52</u>; Fig 3a) with values increasing faster in control plots than in
246 warmed plots (p=0.0051). ARQ decreased with increased soil moisture (p<0.0001, n=60 due to missing VWC values, <u>R²=0.24</u>;

Fig. 3b), and the decrease was faster in the control than in the warmed plots. δ^{13} CO₂ became higher with increasing soil temperatures (p<0.0001, n=375, R²=0.33; Fig. 3c) with values again increasing faster in the control than in the warmed plots Field Code Changed

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269 (p=0.02). δ¹³CO₂ decreased with increased soil moisture (p<0.0001, n=345 due to missing VWC values, R²=0.30; Fig. 3d),
 270 and treatment did not have a significant effect.

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Our incubations of roots (n=4) and of root-free soil (n=4 per depth increment) indicated that heterotrophic and autotrophic

273 respiration had significantly different ARQ values, at least during the summer when we performed the incubations. Roots had 274 a greater ARQ (0.87 ± 0.03) than did root-free soil (0.78 ± 0.02 ; one-way ANOVA, p=0.029). Furthermore, ARQ of the soil

275 incubations significantly declined with depth from 0.82 ± 0.01 at 0-20 cm to 0.74 ± 0.02 at 20-40 cm (one-way ANOVA,

276 p=0.0053).

277 4 Discussion

278 There are many factors that can affect ARQ; however, our evidence indicates the strong seasonal patterns in ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ were likely driven by changes in the amount of root-derived organic substrates providing energy for heterotrophic microbial 279 280 respiration and changes in the contributions of autotrophic root respiration. This interpretation is supported by previous soil ARQ studies, our incubations, and the scientific understanding of how plant carbon inputs change seasonally. The seasonal 281 282 range in ARQ from ≈ 0.9 during the growing season to ≈ 0.7 during the winter may reflect a shift in the molecules fueling 283 respiration from more oxidized substrates like sugars and organic acids derived from roots in the summer to more reduced 284 substrates in the winter such as lipids and proteins derived from microbial necromass. Previous incubations found that glucose 285 additions increased ARQ (Dilly, 2001; Theenhaus et al., 1997), Other studies attributed a decline in ARQ during the time 286 course of incubation to the depletion of labile carbon sources (Angert et al., 2015; Severinghaus, 1995). Our short-term incubations demonstrated that root respiration has a greater ARQ than microbial respiration from root-free soils. During the 287 288 growing season, root respiration and exudation increase, which should increase ARQ, as seen in our data. In Eastern U.S. deciduous forests, root exudation rates tend to be lower in the winter and spring than in the summer and fall (Abramoff and 289 290 Finzi, 2016; Phillips et al., 2008). Mass-specific fine root respiration rates were greater during the growing season (up to 8 291 nmol CO₂ g⁻¹ s⁻¹) than in the winter (<1 nmol CO₂ g⁻¹ s⁻¹) and total belowground carbon flux was greatest from May through 292 October (Abramoff and Finzi, 2016). Though these root studies were not from the western United States, eddy covariance data from a coniferous forest near our study site found that primary production was greatest during the summer months from June 293 294 through mid-September (Goldstein et al., 2000). 295 Beyond the results of our root and root-free soil incubations, there is additional evidence that root and rhizosphere respiration 296

297 should have a greater ARQ than microbial-derived respiration. For example, respiration of root tips is driven by sugar content 298 and has an RQ of 1.0 (Saglio and Pradet, 1980). Furthermore, recent metabolomic analysis of root exudates identified sugars,

299 carboxylic acids, amino acids, and phenolics as the main metabolites (Zhalnina et al., 2018), most of which are relatively

300 oxidized energy sources with <u>relatively high</u> respiratory quotients. Thus, we would expect greater ARQ values during the

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306	summer due to higher root activity. When trees are dormant, the lack of fresh inputs from roots may lead to more recycling of			
307	organic carbon within microbial biomass, wherein proteins and lipids are the first and third largest constituents by weight,			
308	making up to 55% and from 10-35% of a typical bacterial cell's dry mass, respectively (Kleber and Reardon, 2017; Neidhardt,		Field Code Changed	
309	1987). Lipids and proteins tend to be reduced and have the lowest RQ values of common organic substrates, likely explaining			
310	the lower wintertime ARQ values in our soils.			
311				
312	The seasonal pattern in $\delta^{13}CO_2$ reinforces our interpretation that changes in respiration carbon sources were driving changes			
313	in ARQ. Soil $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ was more enriched in the summer and became more depleted in the winter by up to 2‰. In a			
314	comprehensive review of carbon isotopes in terrestrial ecosystems, Bowling et al. (2008) showed that plant lipids tend to be		Field Code Changed	
315	more depleted in ${}^{13}C$ while sugars and organic acids tend to be more enriched in ${}^{13}C$ relative to bulk leaf $\delta^{13}C$. While these			
316	numbers are based on plant lipids, if we assume microbial lipids are similarly depleted relative to other organic compounds,			
317	an increase in microbial necromass as an organic matter source relative to root-derived sources during the winter would cause			
318	the observed fluctuation in δ^{13} CO ₂ . Furthermore, a chemical fractionation of soil organic matter found that the water-soluble			
319	fraction, which includes sugars, was 3-4‰ more enriched than the acid-insoluble pool (Biasi et al., 2005). While the		Field Code Changed	
320	interpretation of respiration $\delta^{13}C$ by itself in C_3 ecosystems can be difficult due to the small ‰ differences among carbon			
321	sources (e.g., Bowling et al., 2015), the simultaneous use of ARQ and ¹³ CO ₂ helps strengthen interpretations.		Field Code Changed	
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323	Seasonality encompasses changes to phenology and soil climate, among other factors. Both ARQ and $\delta^{13}C$ had significant			
324	positive relationships with soil temperature. In addition to the importance of plant phenology described above, temperature			
325	could have direct effects on respiration sources. Specifically, warmer temperatures can increase root exudation rates (Yin et		Field Code Changed	
326	al., 2013) and the relative contribution of autotrophic-derived, if not directly autotrophic, respiration to total soil respiration.			
327	In two subarctic ecosystems, warming increased the proportion of ecosystem respiration derived from autotrophs (which, using			
328	natural abundance radiocarbon as a tracer, included heterotrophic respiration of root exudates) relative to heterotrophs (Hicks		Field Code Changed	
329	Pries et al., 2015). However, temperatures can affect ARQ through more than just changing the contributions of autotrophic			
330	sources. Lower temperatures increase the thermodynamic favorability of the oxidation of reduced carbon in compounds like			
331	lipids (LaRowe and Van Cappellen, 2011), which could also explain the decrease in ARQ values at lower temperatures. For		Field Code Changed	
332	δ^{13} C, it is likely that phenological changes to organic carbon sources were more important than temperature per se. Several			
333	soil incubation studies show that increases in temperature cause respired $\delta^{13}CO_2$ to decrease by about 0.12–0.35% for each	(Deleted: become depleted	
334	1°C rise in temperature—the opposite of the relationship we found (Andrews et al., 2000; Biasi et al., 2005; Hicks Pries et al.,		Field Code Changed	
335	2013). In these incubations, which were devoid of new organic carbon inputs, unlike in situ conditions, the shift was attributed			
336	to changes to the microbial community that affected carbon source preferences (Andrews et al., 2000; Biasi et al., 2005).		Field Code Changed	
337	Furthermore, in a Mediterranean climate, phloem sap from trees has been shown to become more enriched in ¹³ _v C during the		Deleted: δ	
338	summer (Merchant et al., 2010), matching our pattern in soil δ ¹³ CO ₂ .		Field Code Changed	
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342 While ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ increased with soil temperature, experimental warming slowed that rate of increase so that both ARQ 343 and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ values were generally greater in the control than in the heated treatment at the warmest soil temperature. 344 Concurrently, during the colder months, experimental warming caused greater ARQ values (as at 30 cm depths in February 345 2016 and March 2017) and slightly higher δ^{13} CO₂ relative to the controls. The increase in ARQ and δ^{13} CO₂ with experimental 346 warming during the colder soil temperatures of winter indicates proportionately more respiration of relatively oxidized, labile 347 organic substrates in the heated treatment. Perhaps enhanced root growth and exudation in the heated treatment (Yin et al., 348 2013) could result in the increased availability of labile organic substrates, but this increase occurred in winter when trees were less active and was not seen during the growing season. The increase in ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ could also be the result of preferential 349 350 decomposition of more highly oxidized, labile substrates by a more active microbial population during the winter. 351 Experimental warming increased microbial activity at all soil depths; warming increased CO2 production by 34 to 37% overall 352 with about 40% of the warming response occurring below 15 cm in the soil profile (Hicks Pries et al., 2017). A warming-353 induced increase in the consumption of labile substrates could lead to exhaustion of the labile pool and eventually smaller 354 warming-induced SOC losses as seen at Harvard Forest (Melillo et al., 2002, 2017). In fact, the trend towards decreased ARO 355 and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ values during the warmer soil temperatures of the growing season could be due to a depletion of the labile SOC 356 pool during the winter. Another potential explanation for lower values during the growing season could be a reduction in the 357 proportion of soil respiration derived from roots. In one warming study, root respiration was less sensitivity to warming relative 358 to heterotrophic respiration (Hartley et al., 2007). The warming treatment dried the soil slightly at Blodgett (Hicks Pries et al., 359 2017), which could stress roots during California's essentially rainless growing season. Future measurements of CO2 360 production, ARQ, and δ^{13} CO₂ in trenched and untrenched plots could help distinguish these possibilities. 361

362 Soil temperature and soil moisture were so strongly negatively correlated due to our study site's Mediterranean climate that it is difficult to separate their effects. ARQ and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ were negatively correlated with volumetric water content, which was 363 greatest when soil temperatures were coldest. Volumetric water content has the potential to control ARQ in several ways. First, 364 increased soil moisture reduces O_2 availability, which could increase ARQ values >1 as CO_2 is produced without O_2 365 366 consumption. However, during our study the soil remained oxic (soil O2 averaged 20% and the minimum was 17.38%). The negative relationship between ARQ and soil moisture indicates that anaerobic respiration was not a driver, and we only 367 measured one ARQ value greater than one (1.03) during our study. However, diffusion rates are lower with higher soil 368 moisture, which could make detection of high ARQ values difficult if anoxic conditions occur within microaggregates. In 369 370 anoxic microaggregates, iron (II) is produced anaerobically, which is subsequently oxidized to iron (III) as the aggregate dries 371 and becomes aerobic, a process that consumes O2 without producing CO2, resulting in low ARQ values that can be detected as drying soils increase diffusion (Angert et al., 2015). In our soils, which tend to contain relatively high amounts of iron 372 oxides (Rasmussen et al., 2005), iron oxidation could explain the 15% of ARQ values that were less than the reduced organic 373 374 matter value of 0.7. Lastly, since CO₂ is more soluble in water than is O₂, more CO₂ relative to O₂ is expected to dissolve in 375 soil water, which would reduce ARQ values at higher moisture contents. However, different dissolution rates and iron

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oxidation do not fully explain our data as the wide variability in ARQ values (0.44 to 0.94) at high volumetric water contents
(0.27 to 0.31) can be best explained by time of year (Fig. A1), which again points to phenology as the main driver; the greater
ARQ values are from April and June while the lower values are from February and March. Furthermore, there was a stronger
relationship between observed and predicted ARQ in the temperature model than in the soil moisture model.

382 Experimental warming affected the relationship between ARQ and soil moisture. ARQ was greater in the heated treatment 383 when soil moisture was high (winter) and lower in the heated treatment when soil moisture was low (growing season). Soil 384 water sampled from lysimeters had a greater concentration of dissolved organic carbon in the warming treatment than in the

385 control (unpublished data), which could deliver oxidized substrates to microbes during the winter rainy season.

386

387 The reasons for $\delta^{13}CO_2$ decreasing with increasing volumetric water content are not clear. Based on kinetics, we would expect

that as more CO₂ dissolves in water, the soil air should become enriched in 13 CO₂ because dissolution discriminates against the heavy isotope and increasingly so at lower temperatures (Zhang et al., 1995), but our data were not consistent with this

390 explanation. Another possibility is that advective transport of atmospheric CO2 through the soil is more likely at lower soil

391 <u>moisture content. While intrusion of atmospheric CO₂ would increase the δ^{13} C of soil air, it reduces the effective diffusion</u> 392 fractionation to <4.4 ‰, leading to overcorrected, and thus unrealistically low δ^{13} C values, of which we did have several.

393 ,
 394 Depth was the only parameter by which ARQ and δ¹³CO₂ did not change in concert with one another. ARQ decreased with
 395 depth while δ¹³CO₂ <u>increased</u>. The decrease in ARQ with depth, which was more dramatic in the root-free soil incubations

than in soil air (difference of 0.08 versus 0.03), is likely due to decreased plant inputs with fewer fine roots and less root exudation at depth (Hicks Pries et al., 2018; Tückmantel et al., 2017). The enrichment of soil $\delta^{13}CO_2$ likely reflects the nearuniversal enrichment of soil organic carbon with depth due to catabolic carboxylation reactions (as microbial byproducts and necromass become a larger proportion of soil organic matter; Ehleringer et al., 2000; Torn et al., 2002) or the Suess effect (the

400 continuing depletion of atmospheric CO_2 over time due to the burning of fossil fuels). In our soils, there was about a 2%

401 enrichment in bulk soil organic δ^{13} C with depth (Hicks Pries et al., 2018).

402 5 Conclusion

Here we have shown, for the first time, both annual patterns in soil ARQ and how ARQ is affected by experimental warming. We inferred that seasonal patterns in ARQ were likely due to changes in the dominant substrates providing the energy for soil respiration with root-derived sugars and organic acids being the dominant substrates during the growing season and microbial necromass being the dominant substrate during the winter. These inferences of organic substrates were supported by soil δ¹³CO₂ measurements, which showed clear patterns despite our study system containing only C₃ plants. We caution that direct experimental evidence of how ARQ changes with sources is needed before our inferences of substrate use can be proven.

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442 However, our data indicate ARQ measurements can help to disentangle the biological sources contributing to soil respiration 443 and to understand how sources are shifting due to global change. This application of ARQ worked well in our soils, which were well-drained, oxygenated, and lacked carbonates. The interpretation of soil ARQ values becomes more complex if those 444 conditions are not met (Angert et al., 2015). The autotrophic and heterotrophic source separation in our incubations indicates 445 446 ARQ has the potential to be used to partition soil respiration in a similar manner to natural abundance $\delta^{13}C$ (e.g., Dorrepaal et 447 al., 2009; Hicks Pries et al., 2013). To enable further applications of ARQ, more characterization is needed of the controls of the ratio, including incubation studies of sterile and 'live' soils under aerobic and anaerobic conditions and co-located 448 measurements of ARQ fluxes and the oxidative ratio of organic matter sources as in Masiello et al. (2008). Such future 449 450 investigations will help determine whether ARQ deserves a prominent place alongside natural abundance isotopes in the ecosystem ecology and biogeochemistry toolkit. 451

452 Data Availability

453 Data (doi:10.15485/1596312) are publicly available on ESS-DIVE (http://ess-dive.lbl.gov/)

454 Author Contribution

455 CHP, AA, and MST conceived of the study. Field measurements were conducted by CHP and CC. Lab analyses were 456 conducted by CHP and BH. Statistical analyses were conducted by CHP. CHP wrote the manuscript with feedback from all 457 authors.

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Mole	cule F	RQ ^a δ ¹	¹³ C (relative to bulk leaf) ^b			
Organi	c acids 1.4 (0	<u>.97-4.2</u>)	+0.75		~~~(Deleted: 1
Sug	ars	1.0	+1.5-2		(Deleted: 4
Phen	olics 0.95_(<u>0.92-1.3)</u>	NA			
Prote	eins 0.77 (0).67-1.0 <u>1</u>)	+1			
Lig	nin 0.88 <u>(0</u>	<u>).88-0.94)</u>	-3			
Lip	ids 0.73 <u>(0</u>	<u></u>	-4			
 ^a Data from ^b Data from 	Masiello et al. 2008 Bowling et al. 2008					
 isotopic enri the range of soil CO₂ and 	chment of common more in the com	olecules/substrates fo	or respiration found in soils. The mapparent respiration quotient is b	sst common RQ value is listed followed by ssed on the simultaneous measurement of	(Formatted: Subscript
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Depth	δ ¹³ CO ₂	ARQ				
(cm)	(‰)					
30	$-29.0 \pm 0.09 (191)$	0.84 ± 0.02 (30)			
50	$\textbf{-28.6} \pm 0.08 \ (190)$					
70	$\textbf{-28.4}\pm0.07~(191)$					
	$29.2 \pm 0.09.(190)$	0.01 + 0.02 (25				

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 Table 2. The mean ± SE (number of samples) of corrected δ^{13} CO2 and ARQ of soil pore space by depth averaged over all timepoints.

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Figure 1. Mean (± SE) apparent respiration quotient (ARQ, n=12 except n=6 for 07/2015; a) and corrected δ^{13} CO₂ (n=24 per date; + b) in soil pore space air averaged across all depths and treatments by sampling month. The relationship between ARQ and δ^{13} CO₂ values over the months when they were sampled simultaneously (c). The line shows the fit of a linear regression (p<0.0001, n=64, R²=0.20)_v

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Figure 3. The relationships of apparent respiration quotient (ARQ) by soil temperature (a, $n=\underline{65}$) and soil moisture (b, $n=\underline{60}$) and $\delta^{13}CO_2$ by soil temperature ($n=\underline{565}$, c) and soil moisture ($n=\underline{535}$, d). Gray and black points represent data from control and heated gas wells, respectively. The lines show the fit of a mixed model regression between each variable where individual gas well was treated as a random effect. Separate grey (control) and black (heated) lines indicate there was a significant effect of warming treatment on the relationship between the response variable and soil temperature.

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Figure A1. The variability in the apparent respiration quotient's (ARQ) relationship with soil moisture at 0.25 to 0.30 VWC can be explained by time of year. The greater ARQ values (in the top circle) are from April and June while the lower values (in the bottom circle) are from February and March. Colors are by sampling date shown as year and month. 797 798

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