

1 **Soil carbon release responses to long-term versus short-term climatic**
2 **warming in an arid ecosystem**

3
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11
12 **Abstract.** Climate change severely impacts grassland carbon cycling **by altering**
13 **rates of** litter decomposition and soil respiration (R_s), especially in arid areas
14 steppes. However, little is known about the R_s responses to different warming
15 magnitudes and watering pulses *in situ* in desert steppes. To examine their effects
16 on R_s , we conducted long-term moderate warming (four-year, $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$), and short-
17 term acute warming (one-year, $\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$), and watering field experiments in a desert
18 grassland of Northern China. While experimental warming significantly reduced
19 average R_s by 32.5% and 40.8% under long-term moderate and short-term acute
20 warming regimes, respectively, watering pulses (fully irrigated the soil to field
21 capacity) stimulated it substantially. This indicates that climatic warming
22 constrains soil carbon release, which is controlled mainly by decreased soil
23 moisture, consequently influencing soil carbon dynamics. Warming did not change
24 the exponential relationship between R_s and soil temperature, whereas the
25 relationship between R_s and soil moisture was better fitted to a sigmoid function.
26 The belowground biomass, soil nutrition, and microbial biomass were not
27 significantly affected by either long-term or short-term warming regimes,
28 respectively. The results of this study highlight the great dependence of soil carbon
29 emission on warming regimes of different durations and the important role of
30 precipitation **pulses during the** growing season in assessing the terrestrial
31 ecosystem carbon balance and cycle.

32
33 **Key words:** Long-term warming; Precipitation pulse; Soil carbon release;
34 Response sensitivity; Belowground characteristics; Desert grassland.

35
36 **1 Introduction**

37 The global carbon (C) cycle is a critical component **of the earth's** biogeochemical
38 processes and plays a major role in global warming, which is mainly exacerbated
39 by the elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) concentration in the atmosphere (e.g.,
40 Falkowski et al., 2000; Carey et al., 2016; Ballantyne et al. 2017; Meyer et al.,
41 2018). Soil respiration (R_s), mainly including the respiration of live roots and

42 microorganisms, is a key component of the ecosystem C cycle as it releases *c.* 80
43 Pg of C from the pedosphere to the atmosphere annually (Boone et al., 1998; Karhu
44 et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2014; Schlesinger, 1977). The effects of
45 both soil moisture and temperature on R_s processes and the eco-physiological
46 mechanism are reported extensively; however, it is not well known how soil
47 moisture modulates the response of R_s to changes in the duration and intensity of
48 warming, particularly in arid and semiarid areas, where water and nutrients are
49 both severely limited (e.g., Dacal et al., 2019; Fa et al., 2018; Reynolds et al., 2015;
50 Ru et al., 2018).

51 The desert steppe of China is *c.* 88 million hm^2 , accounting for 22.6% of all
52 grasslands in China, and is located in both arid and semiarid areas. More than 50%
53 of the total area of the steppe is facing severe degradation in terms of the decline
54 of community productivity and soil nutrient depletion, primarily due to improper
55 land use, such as over-grazing and adverse climatic changes, including heat waves
56 and drought stresses (Bao et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2007). Global surface
57 temperature—mainly caused by the anthropogenic CO_2 increase—is expected to
58 increase from 2.6 to 4.8°C by the end of this century, accelerating land degradation
59 (IPCC 2014; 2019). Moreover, the desert steppe ecosystem with low vegetation
60 productivity is vulnerable to its harsh environmental conditions, such as scarce
61 precipitation and barren soil nutrition. For instance, water deficit and heat waves
62 during the growing season can markedly decrease plant cover and productivity in
63 this arid ecosystem (Hou et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2018; Maestre et al., 2012; Yu et
64 al., 2018).

65 Numerous studies have shown that soil temperature and moisture are the two
66 crucial factors that mainly control R_s ; however, it is not well known how soil
67 moisture status mediates the response of R_s to the changes in the duration and
68 intensity of climatic warming. Soil temperature is the primary factor driving
69 temporal R_s variations (e.g., Carey et al., 2016; Gaumont-Guay et al., 2006; Li et
70 al., 2008; Wan et al. 2005). Generally, R_s is significantly and positively correlated
71 with soil temperature when soil moisture is ample (Curiel et al., 2003; Jia et al.,
72 2006; Lin et al., 2011; Reynolds et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2013). In general, the
73 seasonal variations of R_s coincide with the seasonal patterns of soil temperature
74 (Keith et al., 1997; Lin et al., 2011; Wan et al., 2007). For instance, Lin et al. (2011)
75 reported that 63 to 83% of seasonal variations of R_s are dominantly controlled by
76 soil temperature. Diurnal R_s variations are highly associated with variations in soil
77 temperature (Drewitt et al., 2002; Jia et al., 2006; Song et al., 2015). Soil
78 respiration, according to previous studies, is expected to increase with soil water
79 content (SWC) (e.g., Chen et al., 2008; Song et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2007; Yan et
80 al., 2013). However, when the SWC exceeds the optimal point to reach saturated
81 levels, R_s decreases (Huxman et al., 2004; Kwon et al., 2019; Moyano et al., 2012;
82 Moyano et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2018). In a study conducted in

83 a tall grass prairie, water addition dramatically increased soil CO₂ efflux (Liu et al.,
84 2002). Liu et al. (2009) showed a significant R_s increase after a precipitation pulse
85 in a typical temperate steppe. Therefore, in arid and semiarid regions, where soil
86 water is limited, the SWC may control R_s , and regulate the warming effect (Chen
87 et al., 2008; Curiel et al., 2003; Shen et al., 2015). Furthermore, the effect of
88 watering pulses depends on the pulse size, antecedent soil moisture conditions, soil
89 texture and plant cover (Cable et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2015;
90 Hoover et al., 2016). For instance, the results by Huxman et al. (2004) showed that
91 different precipitation pulses have different effects on carbon fluxes in these arid
92 and semiarid regions; and Sponseller (2007) indicated that CO₂ efflux increases
93 with storm size in a Sonoran Desert ecosystem.

94 A previous study has indicated that the short-term (two-year) warming (2°C)
95 did not affect significantly respiration rate during the growing season (Liu et al.,
96 2016). However, there is limited information about the long-term (four-year)
97 warming effects on R_s and the underlying mechanism. In this current study, we
98 expect that the long-term (four-year) warming may have more profound effects R_s
99 relative to previous two-year short term; and the underlying mechanism under
100 longer term warming condition, and the role of soil water status to R_s responses to
101 climatic warming are also required to be explored further. Thus, in the present study,
102 we used a randomized block design with three treatments: control (no warming, no
103 watering), long-term moderate warming (four years extending from 2011 to 2014),
104 and short-term acute warming (one year in 2014). Moreover, a watering pulse
105 treatment (a full irrigation to reach field capacity) was also established. We present
106 the following hypotheses: (i) both long- and short-term climatic warming can
107 reduce soil CO₂ efflux, in which decreased soil moisture plays a key role in
108 reducing R_s in the arid ecosystem; and (ii) the dynamics of R_s in the water-limited
109 ecosystem can be driven mainly by the combination of soil temperature and soil
110 moisture, and soil moisture can modulate the response of R_s to warming.

111

112 **2 Methods and materials**

113 **2.1 Experimental site**

114 The experiment was conducted in a desert steppe about 13.5 km from Bailingmiao
115 in Damao County (110°19'53.3"E, 41°38'38.3"N; 1409 m above sea level),
116 situated in Nei Mongol, Northern China. This area is characterized by a typical
117 continental climate. The mean annual temperature of this area was 4.3°C with a
118 minimum of -39.4°C and a maximum of 38.1°C from 1955 to 2014. The mean
119 annual precipitation is 256.4 mm and approximately 70% of the annual
120 precipitation is distributed in the growth season period occurring from June to
121 August (Supplementary Figure S1). According to Chinese classification, the soil
122 type is called "chestnut" (Calcic Kastanozems in the FAO soil classification) with
123 a bulk density of 1.23 g·cm⁻³ and a pH of 7.4. The area has not been grazed since

124 1980; the dominant species is *Stipa tianschanica* var. *klemenzi*, accompanied by
125 *Cleistogenes squarrosa*, *Neopallasia pectinata*, *Erodium stephanianum* and
126 *Artemisia capillaris* (e.g., Hou et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2018).

127

128 **2.2 Experimental design**

129 The warming experiment used a randomized block **design**. The long-term moderate
130 warming plots were exposed to long-term warming from early June to late August
131 (the growing season) for four years (2011–2014), while short-term acute warming
132 was manipulated only during the growing season (June to August) in 2014. The
133 targeted increases in temperatures relative to ambient temperature (control) are
134 around 3°C and 4°C under the long-term moderate warming (four-year), and short-
135 term acute warming **regimes (one-year)**, respectively. Watering pulse treatments
136 were conducted in August in 2014 and 2017. The control plots received no
137 additional treatments of either temperature or water (they were recognized as
138 warming or watering control treatments). All of the warmed plots were heated 24
139 h/day by infrared (IR) lamps (1.0 m long) (GHT220-800; Sanyuan Huahui Electric
140 Light Source Co. Ltd., Beijing, China) at 800 W during growing seasons in the
141 experimental years (2011–2014). The IR lamp heights above the ground were 1.5
142 m and 1.0 m in moderately and acutely warmed plots, respectively. This facility
143 can effectively mimic different climatic warming regimes in field *in situ*, as
144 previously reported (e.g., Hou et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018). The
145 watering pulse plots were fully irrigated to field capacity to simulate a watering
146 pulse on August 19, 2014, and August 14, 2017. For the field warming facility, to
147 simulate the shading effects, the control plots **were installed with a “dummy”**
148 **heater** similar to those used for the warmed plots. There were a total of 15
149 experimental plots (2 m × 2 m) arranged in a 3 × 5 matrix with each treatment
150 randomly replicated once in each block across three experimental blocks; a 1 m
151 buffer for each adjacent plot was made.

152

153 **2.3 Soil temperature and moisture**

154 At the center of each plot, a thermocouple (HOBO S-TMB-M006; Onset Computer
155 Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) was installed at a depth of 5 cm to measure the
156 soil temperature, and a humidity transducer (HOBO S-SMA-M005; Onset
157 Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) was installed at a depth of 0 to 20 cm
158 to monitor the soil moisture (v/v). Continuous half-hour measurements were
159 recorded by an automatic data logger (HOBO H21-002; Onset Computer
160 Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA).

161

162 **2.4 Soil respiration**

163 The soil respiration was measured with a Li-8100 soil CO₂ Flux System (LI-COR
164 Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with the R_s chamber mounted on polyvinyl chloride (PVC)

165 collars. Fifteen PVC collars (10 cm inside diameter, 5 cm in height) were inserted
166 into the soil 2 to 3 cm below the surface. They were randomly placed into the soil
167 in each plot after clipping all plants growing in the collar placement areas. The
168 collars were initially placed a day before measurements were begun to minimize
169 the influence of soil surface disturbance and root injury on R_s (Bao et al., 2010;
170 Wan et al., 2005). Respirations for the control and all of the warmed plots were
171 measured from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. on July 7 and 8 and August 18, 19, 20 and
172 21, 2014. The R_s for watering pulse treatment was measured after the water
173 additions on August 19, 2014, and August 14, 15, 16 and 17, 2017. To stabilize the
174 measurement, R_s was measured only on the selected typical days (i.e., mildly windy,
175 sunny days). The R_s in all plots was measured once every 2 h on that day and each
176 measurement cycle was finished within 30 min to minimize the effects of
177 environmental variables, such as temperature and light. Thus, a total of six
178 measurement cycles was completed each day. The soil water content (SWC, (0–20
179 cm soil depth) in watering plots was measured using the Field Scout TDR 300 Soil
180 Moisture Meter (Spectrum Technologies, Inc., Aurora, IL, USA).

181

182 **2.5 Belowground biomass and related soil characteristics**

183 Soil samples of 0 to 10 cm in depth were taken from each collar after the R_s
184 measurements and then passed through a 1 mm sieve to separate the roots. The
185 roots were washed and oven-dried at 70°C for 48 h to a constant weight and then
186 weighed. Subsamples of each soil sample were separated to determine the
187 gravimetric water content and soil chemical properties. Briefly, to determine the
188 soil organic C (SOC) content, we mixed a 0.5 g soil sample, 5 ml of concentrated
189 sulfuric acid (18.4 mol L⁻¹), and 5.0 ml of aqueous potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇)
190 (0.8 mol L⁻¹) in a 100 ml test tube, then heated them in a paraffin oil pan at 190°C,
191 keeping them boiling for 5 minutes. After cooling, the 3 drops of phenanthroline
192 indicator were added and then the sample was titrated with ferrous ammonium
193 sulphate (0.2 mol L⁻¹) until the color of the solution changed from brown to purple
194 to dark green (Nelson and Sommers, 1982; Chen et al., 2008; Edwards et al., 2013).
195 The soil ammonium-nitrogen (N) (NH₄⁺-N) concentration and the nitrate-N (NO₃⁻
196 -N) concentration were extracted with a potassium chloride (KCl) solution and
197 measured using a flow injection analyzer (SEAL Auto Analyzer 3; SEAL
198 Analytical, Inc., Mequon, WI, USA) (Liu et al. 2014). Soil samples (0–10 cm in
199 depth) from each collar were oven-dried at 105°C for at least 48 h and weighed to
200 determine the SWC. The soil microbial biomass C (MBC) and microbial biomass
201 N (MBN) were measured using the chloroform-fumigation extraction method and
202 calculated by subtracting extractable C and N contents in the unfumigated samples
203 from those in the fumigated samples (Liu et al., 2014; Rinnan et al., 2009). All
204 extracts were stored at 4°C until further testing commenced.

205

206 2.6 Statistical analysis

207 All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 (IBM,
208 Armonk, NY, USA). All the data were normal as tested by the Shapiro-Wilk
209 method. A one-way analysis of variation (ANOVA) with LSD multiple range tests
210 was conducted to test the statistical significance of the differences in the mean
211 values of the soil temperature, soil moisture, R_s , belowground biomass, SOC,
212 NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N concentrations, and MBC and MBN concentrations at depths
213 of 0 to 10 cm among the different treatments. A linear regression analysis was also
214 used to test the relationship between the SWC and R_s . The relationship between R_s
215 and the soil temperature in each treatment was tested with an exponential function.

216 We used Q_{10} to express the temperature sensitivity of R_s and calculated it
217 according to the following equations:

218

$$219 R_s = ae^{bT_s} \quad (1)$$

$$220 Q_{10} = e^{10b} \quad (2)$$

221

222 Here, T_s is the soil temperature, a refers to the intercept of R_s when the soil
223 temperature is 0°C , and b is the temperature coefficient reflecting the temperature
224 sensitivity of R_s and is used to calculate Q_{10} (Lloyd and Taylor, 1994; Luo et al.,
225 2001; Shen et al., 2015).

226 The relationship between R_s and the SWC was further conducted to fit the
227 Gompertz function, a sigmoid function (Gompertz, 1825; Yin et al., 2003), which
228 could express that the linear increase is rapid followed by a leveling off:

229

$$230 R_s = a * e^{-b * (\exp(-k * \text{SWC}))} \quad (3)$$

231

232 Here, a is an asymptote; the SWC halfway point of $a/2$ equals $-\ln(\ln(2)/b)/c$. The
233 turning point of the maximum rate of R_s increase equals ak/e when the SWC equals
234 $\ln(b)/k$. Thus, from the sigmoid function curve, the thresholds of the changes in R_s
235 with increasing SWC can be obtained from the Gompertz function (Gompertz,
236 1825; Yin et al., 2003).

237 A non-linear regression model was used to fit the relationship of R_s with both
238 soil temperature and soil moisture (Savage et al., 2009):

239

$$240 R_s = (R_{\text{ref}} * Q_{10}^{(T_s-10)/10}) * \beta^{(\text{SWC}_{\text{OPT}} - \text{SWC})^2} \quad (4)$$

241

242

243 where T_s is the soil temperature at a soil depth of 5 cm, R_{ref} is R_s at 10°C and Q_{10}
244 is a unitless expression in R_s for each increase in 10°C . SWC is water content in 0
245 to 20 cm soil depth, SWC_{OPT} is the optimal water content and β is a parameter

246 modifying the shape of the quadratic fit.

247 Following the key factors selected by the stepwise regression method, a path
248 analysis was used to examine the primary components directly and indirectly
249 affecting R_s by integrating both the stepwise linear regression module and Pearson
250 correlation analyses (Gefen et al., 2000). The statistical significances were set at P
251 < 0.05 for all tests, unless otherwise indicated.

252

253 **3 Results**

254 **3.1 Warming effects on belowground characteristics**

255 The soil temperatures at a soil depth of 5 cm in the warmed plots were much higher
256 than those in the control plots (Figure 1). During growing season, the mean soil
257 temperatures in the control, the moderately and acutely warmed plots were 21.9°C
258 (± 0.13 SE), 24.5°C (± 0.15), and 25.0°C (± 0.18), respectively. The moderately and
259 acutely warmed plots were respectively increased by 2.6°C ($P < 0.001$) and 3.1°C
260 ($P < 0.001$) compared to those in the control plots. The SWC in the moderately and
261 acutely warmed plots (0–20 cm soil profile, defined as ratios of water volume and
262 soil volume) were significantly reduced ($P < 0.001$) compared to those in the
263 control plots (Figure 1), indicating that warming led to marked declines in the SWC,
264 consequently enhancing drought stress. On August 18, 19, 20 and 21, which were
265 the dates that we measured R_s , the daily soil temperatures in the moderately and
266 acutely warmed plots were around 3°C and 4°C higher than those in the control
267 plots, respectively. All belowground variables (belowground biomass, soil N and
268 microbial characteristics) were not significantly altered by warming regimes at the
269 site of this experiment (Supplementary Table S1; $P > 0.05$). However, the organic
270 soil carbon content tended to decrease with long-term climatic warming.

271

272 **3.2 Watering pulse effects on R_s**

273 **Soil respiration significantly** increased with SWC both linearly ($R^2 = 0.83$; $P <$
274 0.01) and quadratically ($R^2 = 0.88$; $P < 0.01$, Figure 2A). Moreover, the Gompertz
275 function was well fitted to their relationship ($R^2 = 0.87$; RMSE = 4.88) (Figure 2B).
276 From the Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote value, as an estimated
277 maximum, was 3.76 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ when the optimal SWC was 22.85%. In the
278 watering plots, an exponential function was well fitted to the relationship between
279 soil respiration and the soil temperatures ($R^2 = 0.31$; $P < 0.01$), with a temperature
280 sensitivity (Q_{10}) of 1.69. However, the exponential function was not well fitted in
281 the control plots (Figure 3A).

282

283 **3.3 Effects of warming regimes on R_s**

284 Warming regimes resulted in marked declines in R_s . Whereas no difference in R_s
285 was observed in July, during August average R_s values were 1.57, 1.06, and 0.93
286 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in the control, moderately warmed and acutely warmed plots,

287 respectively, indicating that warming regimes resulted in marked declines (Figure
288 4). Changes in R_s differed significantly between the control and both warmed plots
289 ($P < 0.01$), while the R_s in the two warmed plots did not significantly differ from
290 each other ($P = 0.45$). The relationships between the R_s and soil temperature of
291 each treatment were well fitted by the exponential equations ($P < 0.05$) (Figure
292 3B). The Q_{10} values were 1.88, 2.12 and 1.58 in the temperature controlled,
293 moderate and acute warming treatments, respectively (Figure 3B). It indicated that
294 R_s increases exponentially with temperature in watered plots but was lower and
295 insensitive to temperature in the control plots (Figure 3A); and that long-term
296 warming rather than temporary high temperature reduced R_s , despite having a
297 positive relationship with soil temperature (Figure 3B, 4).

298

299 **3.4 Interactive effects on R_s from soil temperature and soil water content**

300 Across all watering and warming treatments, generally, a high temperature led to
301 an increase in R_s under ample soil moisture, whereas R_s was limited under a soil
302 water deficit. As shown in Figure 5, A non-linear regression model (equation 4)
303 was well fitted to the relationship of R_s with both soil temperature and soil moisture
304 in the control plots ($R^2 = 0.40$, RMSE = 0.60). Based on the function $R_s =$
305 $(0.733 * 1.796^{(T_s-10)/10}) * \beta^{(0.229-SWC)^2}$, the key parameters were obtained: R_{ref} , a R_s at
306 10°C , was $0.73 \mu \cdot \text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; Q_{10} , a unitless expression in R_s for each increase in
307 10°C , was 1.80; and β , a parameter modifying the shape of the quadratic fit, was
308 0.001 (Figure 5).

309

310 **3.5 Effects of multiple factors on R_s : a path analysis**

311 Based on a stepwise regression analysis of the relationships between the R_s and
312 multiple factors, four key factors were screened: soil temperature, soil moisture,
313 belowground biomass and SOC. Their effects on R_s were further determined by a
314 path analysis. The results showed that soil moisture and soil temperature were two
315 major direct factors controlling R_s (the two direct path coefficients were 0.72 and
316 0.55, respectively). SOC had the highest indirect effect on R_s (the indirect path
317 coefficient was 0.57). Soil moisture highly correlated with R_s ($R = 0.78$, $P < 0.01$;
318 Supplementary Table S2, Figure 6), indicating again that the soil water status may
319 impose the greatest effect on the carbon release from soil in the desert grassland.

320

321 **4. Discussion**

322 **4.1 Warming effects on R_s**

323 Previous studies have shown positive R_s responses to increased soil temperatures
324 below a critical high temperature (e.g., Carey et al., 2016; Drewitt et al., 2002;
325 Gaumont-Guay et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 2018). However, in the current study site,
326 the climatic warming finally reduced the average R_s by 32.5% and 40.8% under
327 long-term versus short-term climatic warming conditions in the desert dryland,

328 respectively, which chiefly confirmed our first hypothesis. In a semiarid grassland
329 on the Loess Plateau of China, the total R_s was also constrained substantially by a
330 field manipulative experiment (Fang et al., 2018). This result may have been
331 caused by the following factors. First, high temperatures may cause thermal stress
332 on microbes and subsequently reduce microbial respiration (i.e., heterotrophic, R_h ,
333 Chang et al., 2012; Dacal et al., 2019). For instance, in an alpine steppe on the
334 Tibetan Plateau, microbial respiration was significantly reduced when the
335 temperature rose to 30°C (Chang et al., 2012). Second, in the desert grassland,
336 where water is often limited, the SWC becomes the primary factor affecting R_s
337 (Supplementary Table S2; Figure 6), while warming can cause greater
338 evapotranspiration, consequently lessening soil moisture (Figure 1), and finally
339 reducing R_s (Munson et al., 2009; Wan et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2013). The decreases
340 in average R_s with warming implicate **that the positive feedback loop could be**
341 **weakened with length or intensity of warming.**

342 **Total respiration (R_s)** [the sum of root (autotrophic, R_a) and R_h respiration—the
343 former accounting for *c.* 22 % of the total R_s in the ecosystem, Liu et al., 2016]
344 may acclimatize to warming within an appropriate range of temperature change at
345 an ample soil moisture; however, it decreases with increasing temperatures above
346 an optimum level. The mechanisms may include: within an appropriate range of
347 temperature change at an ample soil moisture, climatic warming can enhance both
348 plant root (Luo et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2016) and microbial activities (Tucker et al.,
349 2014), leading to increases in both R_a and R_h , **and** consequently the R_s (Luo et al.,
350 2001; Tucker et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2019). However, when warming continues or
351 with increasing temperatures above an optimum level, the root growth can be
352 constrained, directly reducing R_a (Carey et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2016; Luo et al.,
353 2001; Wan et al., 2007); and the limitation to microbial activities may also occur
354 (Tucker et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2018), decreasing the R_h (Bérard et al., 2011; Tucker
355 et al., 2013; Bérard et al., 2015; Romero-Olivares et al., 2017). In addition,
356 decreases in soil enzyme pools and its activity under warming may also contribute
357 to a reduction in R_h (e.g., Alvarez et al., 2018). Further, R_s decreases with warming
358 under water deficit (Moyano et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; and see below).
359 Together, the declines in both root and microbial respirations finally reduce the R_s .
360 Nevertheless, the drastic declines in R_s under both long-term and short-term
361 climatic warming regimes in the desert dryland ecosystem may be driven by
362 multiple factors, including the ecosystem type, time and soil features (Liu et al.,
363 2016; Wan et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2018; Thakur et al., 2019). It implies that the
364 effects of multiple factors should be considered in assessing the carbon balance
365 between ecosystem and atmosphere.

366

367 **4.2 Interactive effect of soil water status and temperature**

368 As stated above, in an arid ecosystem, soil water deficit is a primary factor
369 inhibiting soil carbon release (Supplementary Table S2; Figure 6; Liu et al., 2016;
370 Munson et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2013). Thus, R_s linearly increases with increasing
371 soil moisture. However, it could be leveled off or decreased when soil moisture
372 exceeds an optimal level for the soil carbon release (Huxman et al., 2004; Moyano
373 et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Thus, the relationship between R_s and SWC may
374 be well fitted to the Gompertz functional curve model, a sigmoid function
375 (Gompertz, 1825; Yin et al., 2003), which can be confirmed by the present results
376 in the native arid desert ecosystem (Figure 2). The mechanisms mainly are: an
377 increase in SWC **may rapidly increase** microbial activities (Cable et al., 2008;
378 Meisner et al., 2015; Wu & Lee, 2011), and enhance root growth (Xu et al., 2014),
379 leading to a linear increase in R_s . However, when soil moisture reaches an ample
380 level, microbial activities may also reach a maximum where the limiting effects of
381 substrate occur (Skopp et al., 1990), finally maintaining a stable change in R_h .
382 Similar response to watering appears for root growth (Xu et al., 2014), and also
383 similarly leading to a stable change in R_a . Thus, R_s can be leveled off at **an increased**
384 and stable level. Moreover, the decrease in R_s at a saturated SWC level may be
385 ascribed to inhibitions of both root systems and microbial activities under the
386 anaerobic environment (Drew 1997; Huxman et al., 2004; Kwon et al., 2019;
387 Sánchez-Rodríguez et al. 2019; Yan et al., 2018). The model concerning the
388 relationship R_s with a broad range of SWC is helpful to assess and predict the
389 dynamics in soil carbon release in natural arid ecosystems.

390 As indicated by Tucker and Reed (2016), soil water deficit can shrink the R_s
391 itself and its response to temperature, suggesting the changes in R_s may be
392 determined simultaneously by both soil temperature and water status (Janssens et
393 al., 2001; Yan et al., 2013; Sierra et al., 2015). Moreover, in the present experiment,
394 the interactive effects of both factors were tested based on the relationship of R_s
395 with both soil temperature and soil moisture in a non-linear regression model
396 (Savage et al., 2009). The model utilized was well fitted but marginally so ($R^2 =$
397 0.40 , $RMSE = 0.596$; Figure 5), indicating that both the soil temperature and soil
398 water content coordinated the changes in R_s . However, this interaction may also be
399 affected simultaneously by other abiotic and biotic factors, such as soil nutrition
400 availability and soil microbe activity (e.g., Camenzind et al., 2018; Karhu et al.,
401 2014; Thakur et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2014).

402

403 **4.3 Key factors and the influence path**

404 As noted above, R_s is affected by several abiotic and biotic factors. The current
405 results showed that soil moisture and soil temperature were two major direct
406 factors, and SOC only was an indirect factor controlling R_s (Supplementary Table
407 S2, Figure 6). Importantly, soil moisture, with both the highest direct path
408 coefficients (0.7) and correlation coefficient (0.8) for R_s , may become the most

409 important factor affecting R_s in this desert steppe. These findings agree with the
410 previous results: improved soil water status had a significantly positive effect on
411 R_s (e.g., Chen et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2016). Furthermore, the soil
412 moisture condition can mediate the relationship between soil temperature and R_s ,
413 thus affecting its temperature sensitivity; SWC becomes the main factor
414 controlling R_s , especially in arid ecosystems, such as desert steppes, where the
415 available soil water is limited (Conant et al., 2000; Curiel et al., 2003; Fa et al.,
416 2018; Jassal et al., 2008; Roby et al., 2019). Thus, under both the long-term and
417 short-term climatic warming regimes, soil moisture could modulate the response
418 of R_s to warming. The changes in R_s might be driven by both soil temperature and
419 soil moisture as two key factors, and SOC as an indirect factor, thus mostly
420 confirming our second hypothesis. The findings again implicate that multiple
421 factors together coordinate R_s , and provide new insight into how to control soil
422 carbon release in arid ecosystems. The models on the R_s changes should consider
423 multiple-factor effects of soil carbon dynamics when assessing and predicting
424 carbon cycle, and its climate feedback.

425

426 **4.4 Warming effects on the variables belowground**

427 Elevated temperature has been shown to increase or decrease root productivity and
428 biomass, depending on experimental sites and vegetation types (Bai et al., 2010;
429 Fan et al., 2009; Litton and Giardina, 2008; Wan et al., 2004). The decreased
430 availability of soil nutrients apparently limits root growth, finally inducing root
431 mortality and weakening responses to the elevated temperature (Eissenstat et al.,
432 2000; Johnson et al., 2006; Wan et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2014). In our experiment,
433 no significantly different changes occurred in either soil $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ or $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
434 concentrations among the three treatments (Supplementary Table S1), and these
435 might be linked to the non-significant response of belowground biomass to
436 increasing temperature. Microbial biomass and its activities in soil depend on the
437 root biomass, SWC and soil N conditions (Liu et al., 2014; Rinnan et al., 2007;
438 Zhang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). Warming regimes had no significant effects
439 on either MBC or MBN in the current study (Supplementary Table S1), which
440 might be due to the lack of any difference in the changes in basic soil nutrition
441 status, such as the N conditions, among the three warming treatments. This result
442 is consistent with that of Zhang et al. (2005) and Liu et al. (2015). Moreover, in
443 the present study, SOC concentrations were not significantly affected by climatic
444 warming (Supplementary Table S1), which is inconsistent with the findings of
445 previous studies (Jobbágy and Jackson, 2000; Prietzel et al., 2016). However, there
446 might be a decreasing trend evident with long-term warming. For instance,
447 Crowther et al. (2016) reported a loss of approximately 30 ± 30 Pg of C in the
448 upper soil horizons at 1°C warming in global soil C stocks and projected a loss of
449 203 ± 161 Pg of C under 1°C of warming over 35 years. The C losses from soil

450 moving into the atmosphere may result in positive feedback regarding global
451 warming (Bradford et al., 2016; Dacal et al., 2019; Jenkinson et al., 1991; Liu et
452 al., 2016). However, SOC exerted an indirect effect via a path analysis (Figure 6).
453 For this difference, therefore, more evidence needs to be provided to address the
454 issue (Xu et al., 2019).

455 In conclusion, we determined the responses of R_s to field experimental long-
456 term versus short-term climatic warming and watering pulses in a desert steppe
457 ecosystem. We found the following: i) both long- and short-term warming
458 significantly reduced R_s during the peak growth season; ii) soil moisture was the
459 main factor controlling R_s in desert grassland; iii) R_s was significantly and
460 exponentially increased with soil temperature, meanwhile soil moisture condition
461 can mediate the relationship between soil temperature and R_s , thus affecting its
462 temperature sensitivity; and iv) belowground biomass, soil nutrition variables and
463 soil microbial characteristics showed no significant changes after either long-term
464 or short-term climatic warming. These findings may be useful to assess and predict
465 dynamics of soil CO₂ fluxes, particularly the feedback of warming to climatic
466 change, and finally optimize C management work in arid and semiarid regions
467 under the changing climate. However, the patterns of the changes in soil C fluxes
468 and the underlying mechanism in response to climatic change are markedly
469 complicated at various spatial-temporal scales during growing season—from site
470 and regional to global scales, and from daily, seasonal and yearly to decade scales—
471 —and still need to be investigated further (e.g., Ballantyne et al., 2017; Dacal et al.,
472 2019; Meyer et al., 2018; Romero-Olivares et al., 2017).

473
474 **Data availability.** The final derived data presented in this study are available at
475 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3546062> (Yu et al., 2019).

476
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478
479 **Author contributions.** ZX and GZ conceived and designed this study. HY, ZX and
480 YS conducted this experiment and analysed the data. All authors wrote and
481 proofread this manuscript.

482
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835 **Figure legends**

836 Figure 1. Effects of warming on the soil temperature and soil moisture during the
837 growth peak in 2014 (Mean \pm SE). Mean daily values were presented (n = 120).
838 The mean values with the same lowercase letters on the SE bars are not different
839 at $P < 0.05$ according to LSD multiple range tests (P values and F ratios are shown
840 inside).

841 Figure 2. Relationship between R_s and soil water content based on a linear (blue
842 line) and a quadratic (black line) functional model (A), and Gompertz functional
843 model (B). Close and open circles denote the data in 2014 and 2017, respectively.
844 The close red circles indicate data used for the linear R_s response to SWC at low
845 levels. The one open triangle may be an outlier point due to some errors, but it does
846 not notably affect the functional fitting when removing it (ref. Figure S2). Based
847 on Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote value, as an estimated maximum,
848 is $3.76 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ when the optimal SWC is 22.85% [The red line denotes the
849 initial R_s response to SWC; the blue line denotes $R_s = \text{constant}$ value of the
850 maximum estimated by the asymptote value; and the intersection of the two lines
851 represents a point (the blue arrow) at which R_s levelled off]. Note, we measured
852 the R_s during 9:00-10:00 in these cloudless days with calm/gentle wind in order to
853 maintain other environmental factors such as soil temperature and radiation to
854 relatively stable and constant. The data were collected in the plots of watering
855 treatments (n = 92)..

856 Figure 3. The relationships between soil respiration and soil temperature under
857 both watering (n = 23-25, A), and warming treatments (n=28-33, B) (Mean \pm SE).

858 Figure 4. Effects of warming regimes on average soil respiration in 2014 (mean \pm
859 SE), the mean values with the same lowercase letters on the SE bars are not
860 different at $P < 0.05$ according to LSD multiple range tests (P values and F ratios
861 are shown inside).

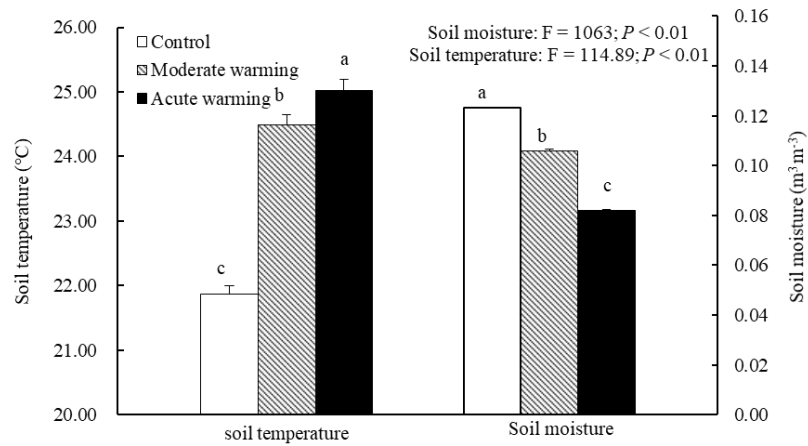
862 Figure 5. An interactive relationship of soil respiration with both soil temperature
863 (T_s) and soil water content (SWC) based on a nonlinear mixed model ($R_s =$
864 $(0.733*1.796^{(T_s-10)/10})*\beta^{(0.229-SWC)^2}$). The data were used in control plots in the
865 warming experiment. The optimal SWC of 0.229 was estimated by the Gompertz
866 functional curve (see Figure 2B).

867 Figure 6. A diagram of the effects of key environmental factors on soil respiration
868 and their relationships. Blue double-headed arrows represent the relationships
869 between the key environmental factors, data on the arrows are correlation
870 coefficients. Black arrows represent the relationships between soil respiration and
871 the key environmental factors, data on the arrows are correlation coefficients (bold)
872 and direct path coefficients (italic), respectively. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$, n = 12.
873 For other details, see Supplementary Table S2.

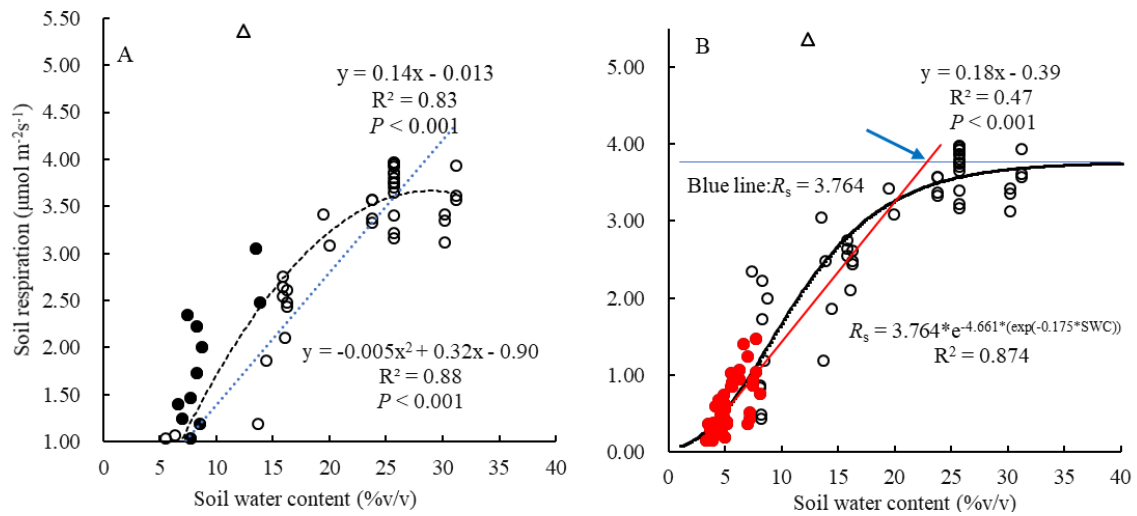
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875 Supplementary Figure S1. Long-term air temperature (A) and total annual

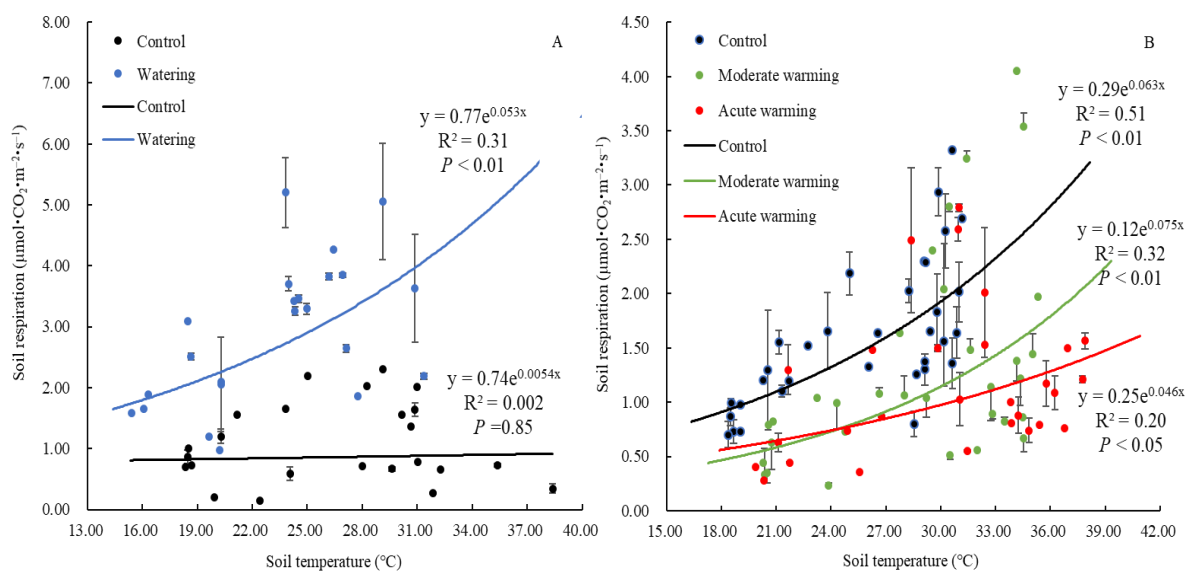
876 precipitation (B) records from 1955 to 2014 in the experiment site in the desert
877 steppe ecosystem, Damao Banner, Nei Mongol, China.
878 Supplementary Figure S2. Relationship between R_s and soil water content based
879 on a linear (black line) and a quadratic (dotted line) functional model (A), and
880 Gompertz functional model (B). Close and open circles denote the data in 2014
881 and 2017, respectively. The close red circles indicate data used for the initial R_s
882 response to SWC. The functional fitting does not substantially affect despite a
883 slight improvement with greater R^2 values when the outlier point was removed (ref.
884 Figure 2). Note, we measured the R_s during 9:00-10:00 in the cloudless days with
885 calm/gentle wind in order to maintain other environmental factors such as soil
886 temperature and radiation to relatively stable and constant ($n = 91$).



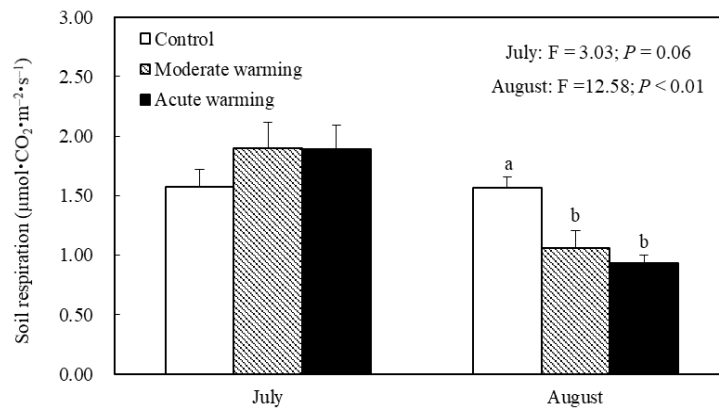
887 **Figure 1.** Effects of warming on the soil temperature and soil moisture during the growth
 888 peak in 2014 (Mean \pm SE). Mean daily values were presented ($n = 120$). The mean values with
 889 the same lowercase letters on the SE bars are not different at $P < 0.05$ according to LSD
 890 multiple range tests (P values and F ratios are shown inside).



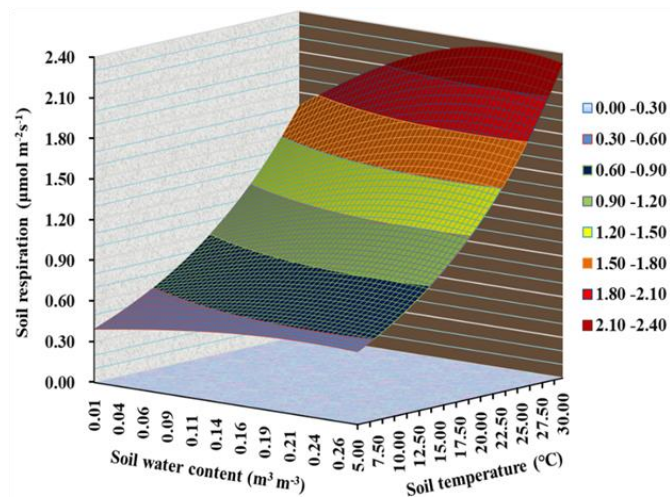
891 **Figure 2.** Relationship between R_s and soil water content based on a linear (blue line) and a
 892 quadratic (black line) functional model (A), and Gompertz functional model (B). Close and
 893 open circles denote the data in 2014 and 2017, respectively. The close red circles indicate data
 894 used for the linear R_s response to SWC at low levels. The one open triangle may be an outlier
 895 point due to some errors, but it does not notably affect the functional fitting when removing it
 896 (ref. Figure S2). Based on Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote value, as an estimated
 897 maximum, is $3.76 \mu\cdot\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ when the optimal SWC is 22.85% [The red line denotes the
 898 initial R_s response to SWC; the blue line denotes $R_s = \text{constant}$ value of the maximum estimated
 899 by the asymptote value; and the intersection of the two lines represents a point (the blue arrow)
 900 at which R_s levelled off]. Note, we measured the R_s during 9:00-10:00 in these cloudless days
 901 with calm/gentle wind in order to maintain other environmental factors such as soil
 902 temperature and radiation to relatively stable and constant. The data were collected in the plots
 903 of watering treatments ($n = 92$).



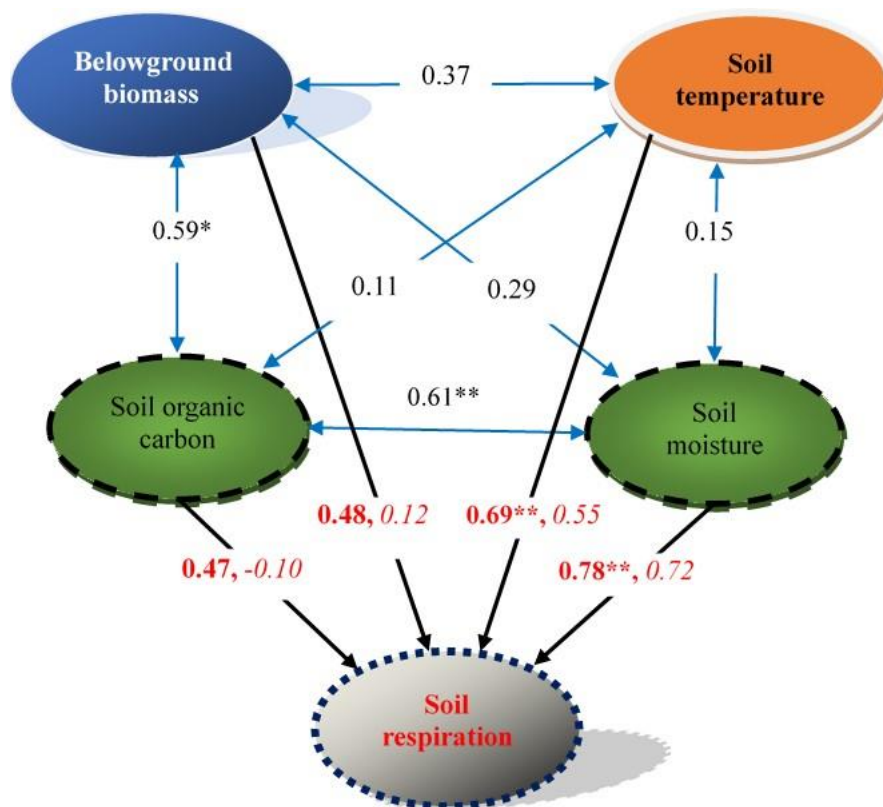
904 **Figure 3.** The relationships between soil respiration and soil temperature under both watering
 905 (n = 23-25, A), and warming treatments (n=28-33, B) (Mean ± SE).
 906



907 **Figure 4.** Effects of warming regimes on average soil respiration in 2014 (mean \pm SE), the
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 909 according to LSD multiple range tests (P values and F ratios are shown inside).



910 **Figure 5.** An interactive relationship of soil respiration with both soil temperature (Ts) and soil
 911 water content (SWC) based on a nonlinear mixed model ($R_s = (0.733 * 1.796^{(T_s-10)/10}) * \beta^{(0.229-SWC)^2}$,
 912 B). The data were used in control plots in the warming experiment. The optimal SWC of 0.229
 913 was estimated by the Gompertz functional curve (see Figure 2B).
 914



915 **Figure 6.** A diagram of the effects of key environmental factors on soil respiration and their
 916 relationships. Blue double-headed arrows represent the relationships between the key
 917 environmental factors, data on the arrows are correlation coefficients. Black arrows represent
 918 the relationships between soil respiration and the key environmental factors, data on the arrows
 919 are correlation coefficients (bold) and direct path coefficients (italic), respectively. *, $P < 0.05$;
 920 **, $P < 0.01$, $n = 12$. For other details, see Supplementary Table S2.
 921