



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, especially
13 in arid ecosystems, such as desert steppes. However, little is known about the
14 responses of soil respiration (R_s) to different warming magnitudes and watering
15 pulses *in situ* in desert steppes. To examine their effects on R_s , we conducted long-
16 term moderate warming, short-term acute warming and watering field experiments
17 in a desert grassland of Northern China. While experimental warming significantly
18 reduced R_s by 32.5% and 40.8% under long-term and moderate and short-term and
19 acute warming regimes, respectively, watering pulses stimulated it substantially.
20 Warming did not change the exponential relationship between R_s and soil
21 temperature, whereas the relationship of R_s with soil water content (SWC) was well
22 fitted to the Gompertz function. The soil features were not significantly affected
23 by either long-term or short-term warming regimes, respectively; however, soil
24 organic carbon content tended to decrease with long-term climatic warming. This
25 indicates that soil carbon release responses strongly depend on the duration and
26 magnitude of climatic warming, which may be driven by SWC and soil
27 temperature. The results of this study highlight the great dependence of soil carbon
28 emission on warming regimes of different durations and the important role of
29 precipitation pulse during growing season in assessing the terrestrial ecosystem
30 carbon balance and cycle.

31
32 **Key words:** Long-term warming; Precipitation pulse; Soil carbon release;
33 Response sensitivity; Belowground feature; Desert grassland.

34
35 **1 Introduction**

36 The global carbon (C) cycle is a critical component in the earth's biogeochemical
37 processes and plays a major role in global warming, which is mainly exacerbated
38 by the elevated carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration in the atmosphere (e.g.,
39 Falkowski et al. 2000; Carey et al. 2016; Ballantyne et al. 2017; Meyer et al. 2018).
40 Soil respiration (R_s), mainly including the respiration of live roots and
41 microorganisms, is a key component of the ecosystem C cycle as it releases *c.* 80



42 Pg of C from the pedosphere to the atmosphere annually (Boone et al., 1998; Karhu
43 et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2014; Schlesinger, 1977). The effects of
44 biotic and abiotic factors on R_s processes and the eco-physiological mechanism are
45 still poorly understood, particularly in arid and semiarid areas, where water and
46 nutrients are both severely limited (e.g., Dacal et al., 2019; Fa et al., 2018;
47 Reynolds et al., 2015; Ru et al., 2018).

48 The desert steppe is *c.* 8.8 million hm^2 , accounting for 22.6% of all grasslands
49 in China, and is located in both arid and semiarid areas. More than 50% of the total
50 area of the steppe is facing severe degradation in terms of the decline of community
51 productivity and soil nutrient depletion, primarily due to improper land use, such
52 as over-grazing and adverse climatic changes, including heat waves and drought
53 stresses (Bao et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2007). Global surface temperature—mainly
54 caused by the anthropogenic CO_2 increase—is expected to increase from 2.6 to 4.8°C
55 by the end of this century (IPCC 2014). Moreover, the desert steppe ecosystem
56 with less vegetation cover is most vulnerable to its harsh environmental conditions,
57 such as scarce precipitation and barren soil nutrition, further leading to high
58 sensitivity to climate change (Hou et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2018; Maestre et al.,
59 2012; Yu et al., 2018).

60 Numerous studies have shown that soil temperature and moisture are the two
61 crucial factors that mainly control R_s . Soil temperature, however, is the primary
62 factor driving temporal R_s variations (e.g., Carey et al., 2016; Gaumont-Guay et al.,
63 2006; Li et al., 2008; Wan et al. 2005). Generally, R_s is significantly and positively
64 correlated with soil temperature when soil moisture is ample (Curiel et al., 2003;
65 Jia et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2011; Reynolds et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2013). In general,
66 the seasonal variations of R_s coincide with the seasonal patterns of soil temperature
67 (Keith et al., 1997; Lin et al., 2011; Wan et al., 2007). For instance, Lin et al. (2011)
68 reported that 63 to 83% of seasonal variations of R_s are dominantly controlled by
69 soil temperature. Diurnal R_s variations are highly associated with variations in soil
70 temperature (Drewitt et al., 2002; Jia et al., 2006; Song et al., 2015). Soil
71 respiration, according to previous studies, is expected to increase with soil water
72 content (SWC) (e.g., Chen et al., 2008; Song et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2007; Yan et
73 al., 2013). However, when the SWC exceeds the optimal point to reach saturated
74 levels, R_s decreases (Huxman et al., 2004; Kwon et al., 2019; Moyano et al., 2012;
75 Moyano et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). In a study conducted in a tall grass prairie,
76 water addition dramatically increased soil CO_2 efflux (Liu et al., 2002). Liu et al.
77 (2009) showed a significant R_s increase after a precipitation pulse in a typical
78 temperate steppe. Therefore, in arid and semiarid regions, where soil water is
79 limited, the SWC may control R_s , and regulate the warming effect (Chen et al.,
80 2008; Curiel et al., 2003; Shen et al., 2015). Furthermore, the effect of watering
81 pulses depends on the pulse size, antecedent soil moisture conditions, soil texture
82 and plant cover (Cable et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2015).



83 Nevertheless, relative to drought stress, the watering pulse effect on R_s in the desert
84 grassland remains undefined (Hoover et al., 2016).

85 A previous study reported the effects of relatively short-term (two-year)
86 warming (2°C) on soil respiration (Liu et al., 2016). However, there is limited
87 information about the long-term (four-year) warming effects on R_s and the
88 underlying mechanism. Moreover, the dominant role of water status in R_s
89 responses to climatic change, such as watering pulse treatments, was also uncertain.
90 Thus, in the present study, we used a randomized block design with three
91 treatments: control (no warming, no watering), long-term and moderate warming
92 (four years extending from 2011 to 2014, about 3°C), and short-term and acute
93 warming (one year in 2014, about 4°C). Moreover, a watering pulse treatment (a
94 full irrigation to reach field capacity) was also established. We present the
95 following hypotheses: (1) both long-term moderate and short-term acute warming
96 regimes could reduce soil CO₂ efflux in the desert grassland, whereas watering
97 pulses may stimulate it; and (2) The changes in R_s might be driven together by a
98 combination of soil temperature, soil moisture, and soil features.

99

100 **2 Methods and Materials**

101 **2.1 Experimental site**

102 The experiment was conducted in a desert steppe about 13.5 km from Bailingmiao
103 in Damao County (110°19'53.3"E, 41°38'38.3"N; 1409 m above sea level),
104 situated in Nei Mongol, Northern China. This area is characterized by a typical
105 continental climate. The mean annual temperature of this area was 4.3°C with a
106 minimum of -39.4°C and a maximum of 38.1°C from 1955 to 2014. The mean
107 annual precipitation is 256.4 mm and approximately 70% of the annual
108 precipitation is distributed in the growth season period occurring from June to
109 August (Supplementary Figure S1). According to Chinese classification, the soil
110 type is called "chestnut" (Calcic Kastanozems in the FAO soil classification) with
111 a bulk density of 1.23 g·cm⁻³ and a pH of 7.4. The area has not been grazed since
112 1980; the dominant species is *Stipa tianschanica* var. *klemenzi*, accompanied by
113 *Cleistogenes squarrosa*, *Neopallasia pectinata*, *Erodium stephanianum* and
114 *Artemisia capillaris* (e.g., Hou et al., 2013).

115

116 **2.2 Experimental design**

117 The warming experiment used a randomized block design that included three
118 treatments: control (no warming, no watering), long-term and moderate warming,
119 and short-term and acute warming. The long-term and moderate warming plots
120 were exposed to long-term warming from early June to late August (the growing
121 season) for four years (2011–2014), while short-term and acute warming were
122 manipulated only during the growing season (June to August) in 2014. Watering
123 pulse treatments were conducted in August in 2014 and 2017. The control plots



124 received no additional treatments of either temperature or water (they were
125 recognized as warming or watering control treatments). All of the warmed plots
126 were heated 24 h/day by 1.0 m long infrared (IR) lamps (GHT220-800; Sanyuan
127 Huahui Electric Light Source Co. Ltd., Beijing, China) at 800 W during growing
128 seasons in the experimental years (2011–2014). The IR lamp heights above the
129 ground were 1.5 m and 1.0 m in moderately and acutely warmed plots, respectively.
130 The watering pulse plots were fully irrigated to field capacity to simulate a
131 watering pulse on August 19, 2014, and August 14, 2017. For the field warming
132 facility, to simulate the shading effects, the control plots were designed to install a
133 “dummy” heater similar to those used for the warmed plots. There were a total of
134 15 experimental plots (2 m × 2 m) arranged in a 3 × 5 matrix with each treatment
135 randomly replicated once in each block across three experimental blocks; a 1 m
136 buffer for each adjacent plot was made.

137

138 **2.3 Soil temperature and moisture**

139 At the center of each plot, a thermocouple (HOBO S-TMB-M006; Onset Computer
140 Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) was installed at a depth of 5 cm to measure the
141 soil temperature, and a humidity transducer (HOBO S-SMA-M005; Onset
142 Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) was installed at a depth of 0 to 20 cm
143 to monitor the soil moisture. Continuous half-hour measurements were recorded
144 by an automatic data logger (HOBO H21-002; Onset Computer Corporation,
145 Bourne, MA, USA).

146

147 **2.4 Soil respiration**

148 The soil respiration was measured with a Li-8100 soil CO₂ Flux System (LI-COR
149 Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with the R_s chamber mounted on polyvinyl chloride (PVC)
150 collars. Fifteen PVC collars (10 cm inside diameter, 5 cm in height) were inserted
151 into the soil 2 to 3 cm below the surface. They were randomly placed into the soil
152 in each plot after clipping all plants growing in the collar placement areas. The
153 collars were initially placed a day before measurements were begun to minimize
154 the influence of soil surface disturbance and root injury on R_s (Bao et al., 2010;
155 Wan et al., 2005). Respirations for the control and all of the warmed plots were
156 measured from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. on July 7 and 8 and August 18, 19, 20 and
157 21, 2014. The R_s for watering pulse treatment was measured after the water
158 additions on August 19, 2014, and August 14, 15, 16 and 17, 2017. To stabilize the
159 measurement, R_s was measured only on the selected typical days (i.e., mildly windy,
160 sunny days). The R_s in all plots was measured once every 2 h on that day and each
161 measurement cycle was finished within 30 min to minimize the effects of
162 environmental variables, such as temperature and light. Thus, a total of six
163 measurement cycles was completed each day. The SWC (0–20 cm soil depth) in
164 watering plots was measured using the Field Scout TDR 300 Soil Moisture Meter



165 (Spectrum Technologies, Inc., Aurora, IL, USA).

166

167 **2.5 Belowground biomass and related soil characteristics**

168 Soil samples of 0 to 10 cm in depth were taken from each collar after the R_s
169 measurements and then passed through a 1 mm sieve to separate the roots. The
170 roots were washed and oven-dried at 70°C for 48 h to a constant weight and then
171 weighed. Subsamples of each soil sample were separated to determine the
172 gravimetric water content and soil chemical properties. Briefly, to determine the
173 soil organic C (SOC) content, we mixed a 0.5 g soil sample, 5 ml of concentrated
174 sulfuric acid (18.4 mol L⁻¹), and 5.0 ml of aqueous potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇)
175 (0.8 mol L⁻¹) in a 100 ml test tube, then heated them in a paraffin oil pan at 190°C,
176 keeping them boiling for 5 minutes. After cooling, the 3 drops of phenanthroline
177 indicator were added and then the sample was titrated with ferrous ammonium
178 sulphate (0.2 mol L⁻¹) until the color of the solution changed from brown to purple
179 to dark green (Nelson and Sommers, 1982; Chen et al. 2008; Edwards et al. 2013).
180 The soil ammonium-nitrogen (N) (NH₄⁺-N) concentration and the nitrate-N (NO₃⁻
181 -N) concentration were extracted with a potassium chloride (KCl) solution and
182 measured using a flow injection analyzer (SEAL Auto Analyzer 3; SEAL
183 Analytical, Inc., Mequon, WI, USA) (Liu et al. 2014). Soil samples (0–10 cm in
184 depth) from each collar were oven-dried at 105°C for at least 48 h and weighed to
185 determine the SWC. The soil microbial biomass C (MBC) and microbial biomass
186 N (MBN) were measured using the chloroform-fumigation extraction method and
187 calculated by subtracting extractable C and N contents in the unfumigated samples
188 from those in the fumigated samples (Liu et al., 2014; Rinnan et al., 2009). All
189 extracts were stored at 4°C until further testing commenced.

190

191 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

192 All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 (IBM,
193 Armonk, NY, USA). All the data were normal as tested by the Shapiro-Wilk
194 method. A one-way analysis of variation (ANOVA) with LSD multiple range tests
195 were conducted to test the statistical significance of the differences in the mean
196 values of the soil temperature, soil moisture, R_s , belowground biomass, SOC,
197 NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations, and MBC and MBN concentrations at depths
198 of 0 to 10 cm among the different treatments. A linear regression analysis was also
199 used to test the relationship between the SWC and R_s . The relationship between R_s
200 and the soil temperature in each treatment was tested with an exponential function.

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

203

$$204 R_s = ae^{bT_s} \quad (1)$$

$$205 Q_{10} = e^{10b} \quad (2)$$



206

207 Here, T_s is the soil temperature, a refers to the intercept of R_s when the soil
208 temperature is 0°C , and b is the temperature coefficient reflecting the temperature
209 sensitivity of R_s and is used to calculate Q_{10} (Lloyd and Taylor, 1994; Luo et al.,
210 2001; Shen et al., 2015).

211 The relationship between R_s and the SWC was further conducted to fit the
212 Gompertz function, which could express that the initial increase is rapid followed
213 by a leveling off:

214

$$215 \quad R_s = a * e^{-b * (\exp(-k * \text{SWC}))} \quad (3)$$

216

217 Here, a is an asymptote; the SWC halfway point of $a/2$ equals $-\ln(\ln(2)/b)/c$. The
218 turning point of the maximum rate of R_s increase equals ak/e when the SWC equals
219 $\ln(b)/k$. Thus, the thresholds of the changes in R_s with increasing SWC can be
220 obtained from the Gompertz function (Gompertz, 1825; Yin et al., 2003).

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

223

$$224 \quad R_s = (R_{\text{ref}} * Q_{10}^{(T_s-10)/10}) * \beta^{(\text{SWC}_{\text{OPT}} - \text{SWC})^2} \quad (4)$$

225

226

227 where T_s is the soil temperature, R_{ref} is R_s at 10°C and Q_{10} is a unitless expression
228 in R_s for each increase in 10°C . SWC is water content in 0 to 20 cm soil depth,
229 SWC_{OPT} is the optimal water content and β is a parameter modifying the shape of
230 the quadratic fit.

231 Following the key factors selected by the stepwise regression method, a path
232 analysis was used to examine the primary components directly and indirectly
233 affecting R_s by integrating both the stepwise linear regression module and Pearson
234 correlation analyses (Gefen et al., 2000). The statistical significances were set at P
235 < 0.05 for all tests, unless otherwise indicated.

236

237 **3 Results**

238 **3.1 Warming effects on soil features**

239 The soil temperatures at a soil depth of 5 cm in the warmed plots were much higher
240 than those in the control plots (Figure 1). During growing season, the mean soil
241 temperatures in the control, the moderately and acutely warmed plots were 21.9°C
242 (with the range of 14.0°C – 31.0°C), 24.5°C (with the range of 15.1°C – 35.3°C), and
243 25.0°C (with the range of 14.6°C – 37.9°C), respectively. The moderately and
244 acutely warmed plots were respectively increased by 2.6°C ($P < 0.001$) and 3.1°C
245 ($P < 0.001$) compared to those in the control plots. The SWC in the moderately and



246 acutely warmed plots (0–20 cm soil profile, v/v) were significantly reduced ($P <$
247 0.001) compared to those in the control plots (Figure 1), indicating that warming
248 led to marked declines in the SWC, consequently enhancing drought stress. On
249 August 18, 19, 20 and 21, which were the dates that we measured R_s , the daily soil
250 temperatures in the moderately and acutely warmed plots were around 3°C and
251 4°C higher than those in the control plots, respectively. All belowground variables
252 (belowground biomass, soil N and microbial characteristics) were not significantly
253 altered by warming regimes at the site of this experiment (Supplementary Table
254 S1; $P > 0.05$). However, the organic soil carbon content tended to decrease with
255 long-term climatic warming.

256

257 **3.2 Watering pulse effects on R_s**

258 The relationships between R_s and the SWC were well fitted to both the linear (R^2
259 = 0.83; $P < 0.01$) and quadratic functional models ($R^2 = 0.88$; $P < 0.01$, Figure 2A).
260 Moreover, the Gompertz function was well fitted to their relationship ($R^2 = 0.87$;
261 RMSE = 4.88) (Figure 2B). From the Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote
262 value, as an estimated maximum, was $3.76 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ when the optimal SWC
263 was 22.85%. In the watering plots, an exponential function was well fitted to the
264 relationship between soil respiration and the soil temperatures ($R^2 = 0.31$; $P < 0.01$),
265 with a temperature sensitivity (Q_{10}) of 1.69. However, the exponential function was
266 not well fitted in the control plots (Figure 3A).

267

268 **3.3 Effects of warming regimes on R_s**

269 Soil respiration was not significantly different among the warming treatments in
270 July (Figure 4). During August, however, the average R_s values were 1.57, 1.06,
271 and $0.93 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in the control, moderately warmed and acutely warmed
272 plots, respectively, indicating that warming regimes resulted in marked declines
273 (Figure 4). Changes in R_s differed significantly between the control and both
274 warmed plots ($P < 0.01$), while the R_s in the two warmed plots did not significantly
275 differ ($P = 0.45$). The relationships between the R_s and soil temperature of each
276 treatment were well fitted by the exponential equations ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 3B). The
277 Q_{10} values were 1.88, 2.12 and 1.58 in the temperature controlled, moderate and
278 acute warming treatments, respectively (Figure 3B).

279

280 **3.4 Interactive effects on R_s from soil temperature and soil water content**

281 Across all watering and warming treatments, generally, a high temperature led to
282 an increase in R_s under ample soil moisture, whereas R_s was limited under a soil
283 water deficit. A non-linear regression mode was well fitted to the relationship of R_s
284 with both soil temperature and soil moisture in the control plots ($R^2 = 0.404$, RMSE
285 = 0.596). Based on the functional curve, the key parameters were obtained: R_{ref} , a
286 R_s at 10°C, was $0.73 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; Q_{10} , a unitless expression in R_s for each



287 increase in 10°C, was 1.80; and β , a parameter modifying the shape of the quadratic
288 fit, was 0.001 (Figure 5).

289

290 **3.5 Effects of multiple factors on R_s : a path analysis**

291 Based on a stepwise regression analysis of the relationships between the R_s and
292 multiple factors, four key factors were screened: soil temperature, soil moisture,
293 belowground biomass and SOC. Their effects on R_s were further determined by a
294 path analysis. The results showed that soil moisture and soil temperature were two
295 major direct factors controlling R_s (the two direct path coefficients were 0.72 and
296 0.55, respectively). SOC had the highest indirect effect on R_s (the indirect path
297 coefficient was 0.57). Soil moisture highly correlated with R_s ($R = 0.78$, $P < 0.01$;
298 Supplementary Table S2, Figure 6), indicating again that the soil water status may
299 impose the greatest effect on the carbon release from soil in the desert grassland.

300

301 **4. Discussion**

302 **4.1 Warming effects on R_s**

303 Previous studies have shown positive R_s responses to increased soil temperatures
304 below a critical high temperature (e.g., Carey et al., 2016; Drewitt et al., 2002;
305 Gaumont-Guay et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 2018). However, in the current study site,
306 the climatic warming finally reduced the R_s by 32.5% and 40.8% under long-term
307 versus short-term climatic warming conditions in the desert dryland, respectively,
308 which chiefly confirmed our first hypothesis. In a semiarid grassland on the Loess
309 Plateau of China, the total R_s was also constrained substantially by a field
310 manipulative experiment (Fang et al., 2018). This result may have been caused by
311 the following factors. First, high temperatures may cause thermal stress on
312 microbes and subsequently reduce microbial respiration (Chang et al., 2012; Dacal
313 et al., 2019). For instance, in an alpine steppe on the Tibetan Plateau, microbial
314 respiration was significantly reduced when the temperature rose to 30°C (Chang et
315 al., 2012). Second, in the desert grassland, where water is often limited, the SWC
316 becomes the primary factor affecting R_s (Supplementary Table S2; Figure 6), while
317 warming can cause greater evapotranspiration, consequently lessening soil
318 moisture (Figure 1), and finally reducing R_s (Munson et al., 2009; Wan et al., 2007;
319 Yan et al., 2013). Third, R_s may acclimatize to warming at high temperatures;
320 however, root activities and plant growth can decrease with increasing
321 temperatures above an optimum level, which indirectly reduces R_s (Carey et al.,
322 2017; Liu et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2001; Wan et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the drastic
323 declines in R_s under both long-term and short-term climatic warming regimes in
324 the desert dryland ecosystem may be driven by multiple factors, including the
325 ecosystem type, time and soil features (Liu et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2007; Meyer et
326 al., 2018; Thakur et al., 2019).

327



328 **4.2 Interactive effect of soil water status and temperature**

329 As stated above, in an arid ecosystem, soil water deficit is a primary factor
330 inhibiting soil carbon release (Supplementary Table S2; Figure 6; Liu et al., 2016;
331 Munson et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2013). Thus, R_s increases with increasing soil
332 moisture. However, it could be leveled off or decreased when soil moisture exceeds
333 an optimal level for the soil carbon release (Huxman et al., 2004; Moyano et al.,
334 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Thus, the relationship between R_s and SWC may be well
335 fitted to the Gompertz function (Gompertz, 1825; Yin et al., 2003) or the parabolic
336 curve model, which can be confirmed by the present results in the native arid desert
337 ecosystem (Figure 2). As indicated by Tucker and Reed (2016), soil water deficit
338 can shrink the R_s itself and its response to temperature, suggesting the changes in
339 R_s may be determined simultaneously by both soil temperature and water status
340 (Janssens et al., 2001; Yan et al., 2013; Sierra et al., 2015). Moreover, in the present
341 experiment, the interactive effects of both factors were tested based on the
342 relationship of R_s with both soil temperature and soil moisture in a non-linear
343 regression model (Savage et al., 2009). The model utilized was well fitted but
344 marginally so ($R^2 = 0.404$, RMSE = 0.596; Figure 5), indicating that both the soil
345 temperature and soil water content coordinated the changes in R_s . However, this
346 interaction may also be affected simultaneously by other abiotic and biotic factors,
347 such as soil nutrition availability and soil microbe activity (e.g., Camenzind et al.,
348 2018; Karhu et al., 2014; Thakur et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2014).

349

350 **4.3 Key factors and the influence path**

351 As noted above, R_s is affected by several abiotic and biotic factors. The current
352 results showed that soil moisture and soil temperature were two major direct
353 factors, and SOC only was an indirect factor controlling R_s (Supplementary Table
354 S2, Figure 6). Importantly, soil moisture, with both the highest direct path
355 coefficients (0.7) and correlation coefficient (0.8) for R_s , may become the most
356 important factor affecting R_s in this desert steppe. These findings agree with the
357 previous results: The soil water status had a significantly positive effect on R_s (e.g.,
358 Chen et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2016). Furthermore, the soil moisture
359 condition may mediate the relationship between soil temperature and R_s and
360 become the main key factor controlling R_s , especially in arid ecosystems, such as
361 desert steppes, where the available soil water is limited (Curiel et al., 2003; Fa et
362 al., 2018; Jassal et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2015). Thus, under both the long-term and
363 short-term climatic warming regimes, the changes in R_s might be driven by both
364 soil temperature and soil moisture as two key factors, and SOC as an indirect factor
365 and soil feature, thus mostly confirming our second hypothesis. This finding may
366 provide new insight into how to control soil carbon release in arid ecosystems.

367

368 **4.4 Warming effects on the variables belowground**



369 Elevated temperature has been shown to increase or decrease root productivity and
370 biomass, depending on experimental sites and vegetation types (Bai et al., 2010;
371 Fan et al., 2009; Litton and Giardina, 2008; Wan et al., 2004). The decreased
372 availability of soil nutrients apparently limits root growth, finally inducing root
373 mortality and weakening responses to the elevated temperature (Eissenstat et al.,
374 2000; Johnson et al., 2006; Wan et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2014). In our experiment,
375 no significantly different changes occurred in either soil $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ or $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
376 concentrations among the three treatments (Supplementary Table S1), and these
377 might be linked to the non-significant response of belowground biomass to
378 increasing temperature. Microbial biomass and its activities in soil depend on the
379 root biomass, SWC and soil N conditions (Liu et al., 2014; Rinnan et al., 2007;
380 Zhang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). Warming regimes had no significant effects
381 on either MBC or MBN in the current study (Supplementary Table S1), which
382 might be due to the lack of any difference in the changes in basic soil nutrition
383 status, such as the N conditions, among the three warming treatments. This result
384 is consistent with that of Zhang et al. (2005) and Liu et al. (2015). Moreover, in
385 the present study, SOC concentrations were not significantly affected by climatic
386 warming (Supplementary Table S1), which is inconsistent with the findings of
387 previous studies (Jobbágy and Jackson, 2000; Prietzel et al., 2016). However, there
388 was a decreasing trend evident with long-term warming. Crowther et al. (2016)
389 reported a loss of approximately 30 ± 30 Pg of C in the upper soil horizons at 1°C
390 warming in global soil C stocks and projected a loss of 203 ± 161 Pg of C under
391 1°C of warming over 35 years. The C losses from soil moving into the atmosphere
392 may result in positive feedback regarding global warming (Bradford et al., 2016;
393 Dacal et al., 2019; Jenkinson et al., 1991; Liu et al., 2016). However, SOC exerted
394 an indirect effect via a path analysis (Figure 6). For this difference, therefore, more
395 evidence needs to be provided to address the issue.

396 In conclusion, we determined the responses of R_s to field experimental long-
397 term versus short-term climatic warming and watering pulses in a desert steppe
398 ecosystem. We found the following: i) both long- and short-term warming
399 significantly reduced R_s during the peak growth season; ii) soil moisture was the
400 main factor controlling R_s in desert grassland; iii) R_s was significantly and
401 exponentially increased with soil temperature, with an interactive effect with soil
402 moisture; and iv) belowground biomass, soil nutrition variables and soil microbial
403 characteristics showed no significant changes after either long-term or short-term
404 climatic warming, although SOC might be expected to decrease with long-term
405 climatic warming. These findings may be critical to predict soil CO_2 fluxes
406 and optimize C management work in arid and semiarid regions under the changing
407 climate. However, the patterns of the changes in soil C fluxes and the underlying
408 mechanism in response to climatic change are markedly complicated at various
409 spatial-temporal scales during growing season—from site and regional to global



410 scales, and from daily, seasonal and yearly to decade scales—and still need to be
411 investigated further (e.g., Ballantyne et al., 2017; Dacal et al., 2019; ; Meyer et al.,
412 2018; Romero-Olivares et al., 2017).

413

414 **Data availability.** Currently, data can only be accessed in the form of Excel
415 spreadsheets via the corresponding author.

416

417 **Supplement.** The supplement related to this article is available online at:

418

419 **Author contributions.** ZX and GZ conceived and designed this study. HY, ZX and
420 YS conducted this experiment and analysed the data. All authors wrote and
421 proofread this manuscript.

422

423 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

424

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714 **Figure legends**

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

720 Figure 2. Relationship between R_s and soil water content based on a linear (black
721 line) and a quadratic (dotted line) functional model (A), and Gompertz functional
722 model (B). Close and open circles denote the data in 2014 and 2017, respectively.
723 The close red circles indicate data used for the initial R_s response to SWC. The one
724 open triangle may be an outlier point due to some errors such as soil animal
725 appearance, but it does not notably affect the functional fitting when removing it
726 (ref. Figure S2). Based on Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote value, as
727 an estimated maximum, is $3.76 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ when the optimal SWC is 22.85%
728 [The red line denotes the initial R_s response to SWC; the blue line denotes R_s =
729 constant value of the maximum estimated by the asymptote value; and the
730 intersection of the two lines represents a point (the blue arrow) at which R_s initially
731 levelled off]. Note, we measured the R_s during 9:00-10:00 in these cloudless days
732 with calm/gentle wind in order to maintain other environmental factors such as soil
733 temperature and radiation to relatively stable and constant (n = 92).

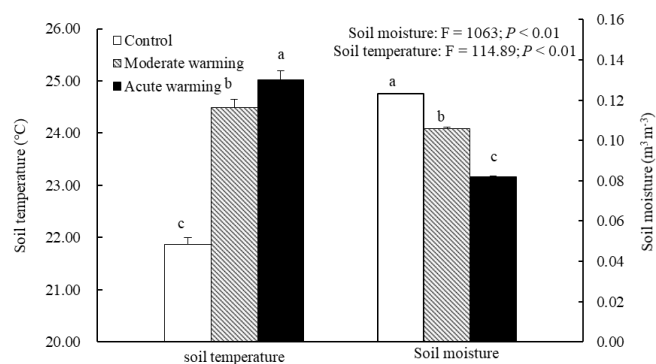
734 Figure 3. The relationships between soil respiration and soil temperature under
735 both watering (n = 23-25, A), and warming treatments (n=28-33, B) (Mean \pm SE).

736 Figure 4. Effects of warming regimes on soil respiration in 2014 (mean \pm SE), the
737 mean values with the same lowercase letters on the SE bars are not different at P
738 < 0.05 according to LSD multiple range tests (P values and F ratios are shown
739 inside).

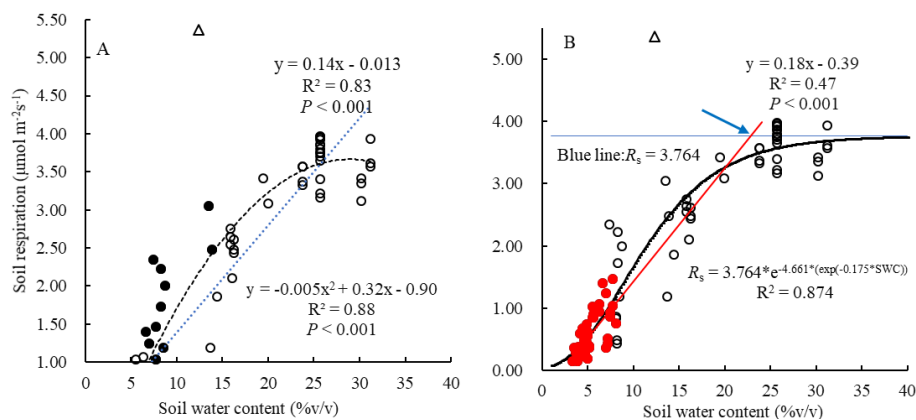
740 Figure 5. An interactive relationship of soil respiration with both soil temperature
741 (T_s) and soil water content (SWC) based on a nonlinear mixed model ($R_s =$
742 $(0.733*1.796^{(T_s-10)/10})*\beta^{(0.229-SWC)^2}$). The data were used in control plots in the
743 warming experiment. The optimal SWC of 0.229 was estimated by the Gompertz
744 functional curve (see Figure 2B).

745 Figure 6. A diagram of the effects of key environmental factors on soil respiration
746 and their relationships. Blue double-headed arrows represent the relationships
747 between the key environmental factors, data on the arrows are correlation
748 coefficients. Black arrows represent the relationships between soil respiration and
749 the key environmental factors, data on the arrows are correlation coefficients (bold)
750 and direct path coefficients (italic), respectively. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$, n = 12.
751 For other details, see Supplementary Table S2.

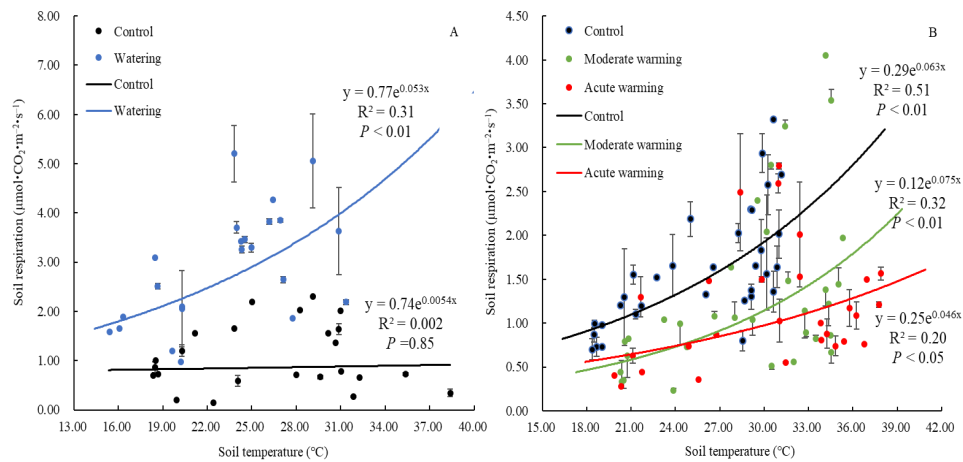
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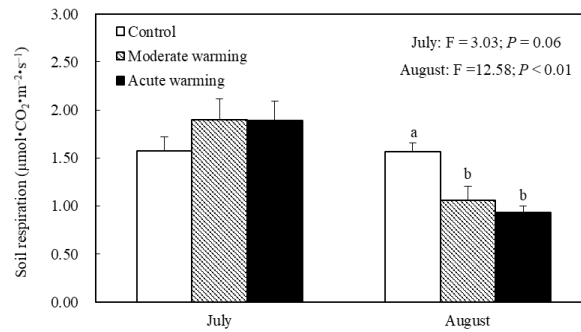
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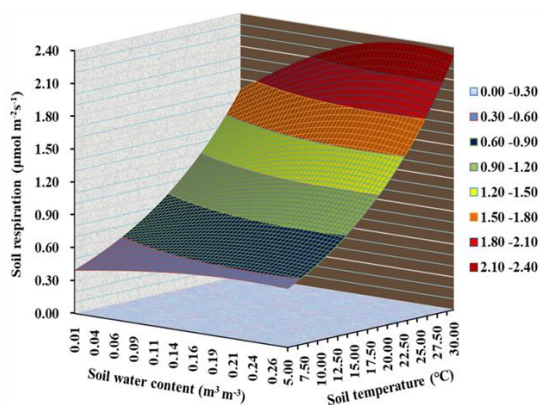
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 774 when removing it (ref. Figure S2). Based on Gompertz functional curve, the R_s asymptote
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 781 ($n = 92$).



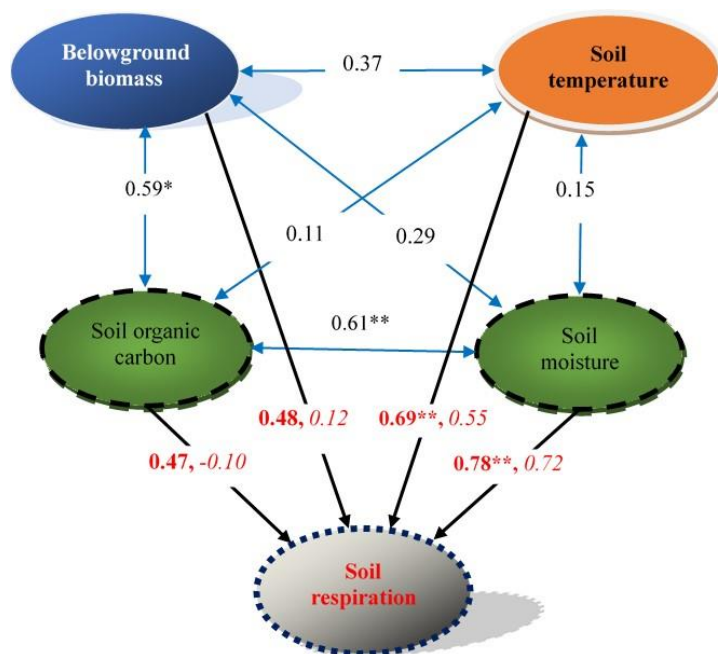
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