



1 **Variations of carbon flux at different time scales in a semi-fixed sandy**
2 **land ecosystem in Horqin Sandy Land, China**

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15 Abstract

16 Sandy land is an important part of terrestrial ecosystem, which has a substantial
 17 impact on maintaining global ecological health and security. However, there is still a
 18 scarcity representative studies of climate change's effect on the carbon fluxes (*NEE*:
 19 net ecosystem CO₂ exchange; *R_{eco}*: ecosystem respiration; *GPP*: gross primary
 20 productivity). Eddy covariance technique was used to determine carbon fluxes and
 21 climatic conditions in this ecosystem from 2017 to 2021. At an annual scale, the semi-
 22 fixed sandy land was found to be a net carbon release, the value of annual average *NEE*
 23 was $6.81 \pm 36.35 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. It functioned as a carbon source in dry years (2017 and
 24 2020), but was a carbon sink in wet years (2019 and 2021) and a normal year (2018).
 25 At seasonal scale, according to the Random Forest, deep soil water content (*SWC*₈₀)
 26 and photosynthetic photon flux density had a great impact on *NEE* and *GPP*, whereas
 27 shallow and deep soil water (*SWC*₁₀ and *SWC*₈₀) dominated *R_{eco}*. At a monthly scale,
 28 the multiple stepwise regression showed that soil temperature, precipitation (*PPT*) and
 29 *SWC* were the dominant environmental factors. At an annual scale, correlation analysis
 30 showed that total annual *PPT* was negatively correlated with *NEE*. Our results illustrate
 31 the importance of climate variations for the *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* at different time scales
 32 in arid and semi-arid areas. They also highlight the importance of water availability (the
 33 pattern and intensity of *PPT* and *SWC* at different depths) on regional and global carbon
 34 cycles.

35 **Keywords:** Precipitation; Net ecosystem CO₂ exchange; Carbon flux; Climate change;
 36 Semi-fixed sandy land

37 1. Introduction

38 Human activities have led to unprecedented and devastating global climate change,
 39 including altered precipitation patterns, increased temperature and CO₂ concentration
 40 (IPCC, 2007; Yu et al., 2013). CO₂ plays a major role in Earth's mass and energy
 41 budgets, so quantifying ecosystem carbon cycles and carbon budgets is essential for
 42 planning a sustainable future (McGuire et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2020). The balance
 43 between photosynthesis (gross primary productivity (*GPP*)) and respiration (ecosystem



44 respiration (R_{eco}) determines the net ecosystem CO_2 exchange (NEE) in terrestrial
 45 ecosystems (Schmitt et al., 2010; Lasslop et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2019). As a result,
 46 comprehending the dynamics processes and underlying mechanisms of NEE is a crucial
 47 issue in global change research (Yu et al., 2013). In particular, the division of NEE into
 48 GPP and R_{eco} , which depict the fundamental mechanisms, is conducive to supply a
 49 process-level, mechanistic comprehension of the regional carbon balance (Reichstein
 50 et al., 2005; Jassal et al., 2007; Lasslop et al., 2010; Cao et al., 2021).

51 About 30% of the earth's surface is covered by arid and semiarid areas (Kefi et al.,
 52 2008; Poulter et al., 2014). Ecosystems in these areas are at risk of soil erosion and
 53 degradation, which is resulting from a combination of climate change, such as
 54 increasing intensity and frequency of extreme climate events (eg., drought and extreme
 55 precipitation) (Knapp et al., 2015), and unreasonable human activities, including
 56 overgrazing, firewood harvesting, and excessive deforestation (Domingo et al., 2011;
 57 Wang et al., 2021). Despite the fact that many research on carbon fluxes through
 58 ecosystems in semi-arid areas have been conducted to date (Du and Liu, 2013; Hao et
 59 al., 2017; Niu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020), we still don't fully understand how these
 60 ecosystems function as CO_2 sources or sinks (Huxman et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2007;
 61 Zhou et al., 2020; Niu et al., 2021). Therefore, further investigation is required to study
 62 the carbon budget and its controlling mechanisms for a wider range of ecosystems,
 63 particularly in drylands, to more accurately evaluate global carbon budgets.

64 The original landscape of China's Horqin Sandy Land was a sparse shrubland and
 65 grassland with hydrothermal conditions that are adequate to support shrubs, an
 66 abundant plant community with a diverse composition, a stable ecosystem structure,
 67 and high productivity. However, due to the disturbance caused by extensive human
 68 activities and the cultivation of a large area of land, nearly 80% of the region has
 69 experienced aeolian desertification (Liu et al., 1996; Zhao et al., 2007; Li et al., 2019;
 70 Niu et al., 2020). The region's eco-environment is extremely fragile and vulnerable to
 71 damage (Meng et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2020). Grassland, cropland, and ecosystems with
 72 semi-fixed sands are the main land uses in this study area (Duan et al., 2019; Zhu et al.,
 73 2020). Previous researches in this area have shown that the recovering sandy grassland



ecosystem was a carbon release, whereas the sandy maize cropland ecosystem was a carbon sink on an annual scale, and that the amount of carbon sequestration in both ecosystems increased with increasing precipitation (Niu et al., 2020, 2021). To the best of our knowledge, the carbon fluxes of this semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem in this region have received little attention (e.g., Hu et al., 2015), so more studies are needed to understand the characteristics of carbon flux at the ecosystem scale, especially for semi-fixed sandy land protected by grazing exclusion using fences to allow natural recovery. Long-term continuous monitoring of the carbon flux characteristics and the influencing factors in the semi-fixed sandy land will complement and improve our understanding of the present carbon budgets of the world's dryland ecosystems.

Studies have found that numerous meteorological factors can play a vital importance in regulating carbon flux (NEE , GPP and R_{eco}) (Hu et al., 2010; Papale et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018a; Watham et al., 2021). For example, previous studies have shown that photosynthetic photon flux density ($PPFD$), air and soil temperatures, precipitation (PPT), soil water content (SWC), and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) most strongly controlled the dynamics of ecosystem carbon fluxes (Jia et al., 2014, 2016; Liu et al., 2019). However, the availability of water is generally the main constraining factor that affects the carbon flux characteristics of the system in water-limited ecosystems (Fu et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020; Niu et al., 2020, 2021), so water-related parameters like PPT , SWC , and VPD have a significant impact on the variations in carbon fluxes at different temporal scales (Noormets et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2012; Jia et al., 2014; Niu et al., 2020). Both GPP and R_{eco} may be limited by low water availability (Yuan et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2018). The depression of GPP results from limitations on plant physiological processes and alterations of plant phenology (Meir and Woodward, 2010; Zhou et al., 2013), whereas the depression of R_{eco} results from decreased root respiration (Linn and Doran, 1984; Bouma et al., 1997; Lee et al., 2003), decreased soil microorganism activity (Skopp et al., 1990; Drenovsky et al., 2004), and decreased decomposition of organic matter (Liu et al., 2009; Moyano et al., 2012; Cuevas et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Therefore, quantifying how precipitation affects soil water regimes, and how these



changes influence NEE , GPP and R_{eco} , is critical to evaluate the vulnerability of sandy land ecosystems to climate change, which will be important information to support development of strategies to preserve or restore these sandy lands (Zhang et al., 2019; Niu et al., 2020).

In this paper, we concentrated on carbon fluxes (NEE , R_{eco} , and GPP) from 2017 to 2021 in a semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem in Inner Mongolia, China. Our main goals were to (1) quantify the inter-annual, seasonal, and monthly changes of carbon fluxes (NEE , R_{eco} , and GPP); (2) identify the environmental variables that control these variations at the different time scales; and (3) given that PPT and SWC are dominant factors that influence carbon fluxes in sandy maize cropland and sandy grassland ecosystems in this region (Niu et al., 2020, 2021), identify the impact of PPT and SWC on carbon fluxes in the semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem. Our research hypothesis was that changes in climate factors at different temporal scales, and particularly changes in PPT and SWC , would affect NEE , GPP , and R_{eco} through both direct and indirect mechanisms.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Site description

The research was conducted at the Horqin Sandy Land in Naiman Banner, Tongliao City, Inner Mongolia, China ($42^{\circ} 55'N$, $120^{\circ} 42' E$, 377 m a.s.l.) (Fig. 1)). The study site became severely desertified due to over reclamation and overgrazing. A series of grazing exclosures were erected in 2005 to restore the function of degraded ecosystem.

The climate features of the site are temperate continental semiarid monsoon climate, with average annual temperature was $6.8^{\circ}C$, varying from $-9.6^{\circ}C$ in January and $24.6^{\circ}C$ in July. The mean annual precipitation was 360 mm, a large portion of annual precipitation (70 %) occurs from May to September (Niu et al., 2020, 2021). The soil in this site are chestnut soil and Aeolian sandy soil (Zhao et al., 2007; Niu et al., 2020). Soil texture of topsoil (0-20 cm) is comprised by 92% coarse sand, 2% fine sand, and 6% clay, respectively. Other soil properties such as pH, soil organic carbon, bulk density, total nitrogen contents, and field capacity were 7.42, $2.47 g kg^{-1}$, $1.66 g cm^{-3}$, $0.16 g kg^{-1}$, and 24.5%, respectively. Vegetation basal cover ranges from 30% to 60%,



dominated by *Caragana microphylla* in the shrub layer, and the herbaceous species included *Setaria viridis*, *Pennisetum centasiaticum*, *Chloris virgata*, and *Artemisia scoparia*.

2.2 Carbon fluxes and micrometeorological measurements

The eddy covariance (EC) method was utilized to determine CO₂ flux at half-hourly intervals from 2017 to 2021. *PPFD*, air temperature (*T_a*), precipitation (*PPT*), soil heat flux at two depths (5 and 10 cm), soil water content (*SWC*) and the soil temperature (*T_s*) at four depths (10, 30, 50, and 80 cm) were also measured. A complete description of the equipment used and protocols for eddy covariance data processing (including raw 10 Hz data, 30-min data quality and gap filling methods) are described in Niu et al. (2020; 2021). The degree of energy closure was used to assess the data quality of an EC system (Wilson et al. 2002). The energy closures ranged from 0.48 to 0.67 throughout our study (Fig. S1), indicating that the data observed at our study site met the observation requirements (Wilson et al. 2002; Niu et al., 2021).

2.3 Random Forest and statistical analyses

The Random Forest analysis was used to identify the main influencing factors of seasonal *NEE*, *R_{eco}* and *GPP* among the meteorological factors (*PPT*, *PPFD*, *T_a*, *VPD*, the *T_s* and *SWC* at four depths) (Pham and Brabyn, 2017). Because the root system of the natural *Caragana microphylla* shrubs is mainly found above a depth of 80 cm (A et al., 2003), we measured the *SWC* and *T_s* at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80 cm. More detailed procedures for Random Forest can found in Zhou et al. (2020) and Niu et al. (2021).

We also used multiple stepwise regression analysis to identify the key environment factors (*PPT*, *PPFD*, *T_a*, *VPD*, and the *T_s* and *SWC* at depths of 10, 30, 50 and 80 cm) linked to monthly scale *NEE*, *R_{eco}* and *GPP*. The higher *F*-values represent a better fit. For the data at an inter-annual scale, the relationship between the climatic factors and the carbon fluxes was determined using correlation analysis (Pearson's *r*). We used SPSS (22.0 version Inc. Chicago, IL) software to perform all descriptive statistics and statistical analyses (including multiple stepwise regression analysis, single-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA), and correlation analysis). We used least-significant-



different (LSD) test to determine pairs of values that differed significantly. We used version 8.0 of the Origin software (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA) for graphing our results.

3. Results

3.1 Meteorological conditions

Environmental factors showed apparent seasonal variations (Fig. 2). Temperature (T_a and T_s) and *PPFD* both followed unimodal type distribution. During the observation period, the mean annual *PPFD* was $22.14 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 1), with daily values ranging from $1.89 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 13 February 2020 to $48.44 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 15 June 2020. The *PPFD* was significantly lower in 2020 ($1544 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) than in the other years, and there was no difference among the other years. The mean annual T_a was 8.2°C (Table 1), with daily values ranging from -23.61°C on 7 January 2021 to 32.16°C on 3 August 2021. The mean annual T_{s10} , T_{s30} , T_{s50} , and T_{s80} were 9.94 , 10.26 , 10.63 , and 10.97°C , respectively, with daily values of T_{s10} ranging from -18.74°C on 27 January 2018 to 36.04°C on 26 July 2020, daily values of T_{s30} ranging from -13.92°C on 27 January 2018 to 36.67°C on 25 July 2020, daily values of T_{s50} ranging from -9.89°C on 28 January 2018 to 27.61°C on 16 July 2017, and daily values of T_{s80} ranging from -7.97°C on 25 January 2017 to 25.72°C on 6 August 2018. The mean annual T_a did not differ appreciably across years, but the mean annual T_s did not differ significantly among the years at any depth ($P > 0.05$).

The annual cumulative *PPT* varied greatly during the observation period from 2017 to 2021, and differed significantly between many pairs of years (Fig. 2f and Table 1): it averaged 313 mm in 2017, 351 mm in 2018, 382 mm in 2019, 312 mm in 2020, and 430 mm in 2021. As a result, the *PPT* in 2017 and 2020 were less than in a typical year (long-term average of 360 mm for 1960-2014; Niu et al., 2020), whereas 2018 was near to a normal year. *SWC* followed the same general trend as *PPT* (Fig. 2e).

VPD is also related to *PPT*, but it has the opposite pattern as *SWC*. *VPD* showed a unimodal type (Fig. 2a). However, the mean value did not differ significantly among the years, except for a significantly higher value in the dry year 2017 (Table 1).



193 3.2 Variations in carbon fluxes

194 *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* showed obvious seasonal changes throughout the growing
 195 season (from May to September), whereas *NEE* was generally stable across years
 196 outside the growing season (Fig. 3). Daily *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* showed resemble
 197 seasonal dynamics during the whole study period, and only a few days during the
 198 growing season showed net carbon emission; the rest showed carbon absorption.
 199 However, the size of *NEE*, *R_{eco}* and *GPP* varied throughout research years.

200 At a monthly scale (Fig. 4a-e), *R_{eco}* and *GPP* generally showed unimodal trends and
 201 peaked in July. An exception was the June peak in 2020, a year when *PPFD* was
 202 significantly lower than in all other years; Table 1), with lower *R_{eco}* and *GPP* all year
 203 compared with the other years (Fig. 4d). Due to the influence of *PPT* and *SWC* on these
 204 fluxes, *NEE* in the wet years showed carbon absorption throughout the growing season
 205 (from May to August in 2019 and 2021; Fig. 4c, e; Table 1), whereas in the dry and not
 206 significantly different from the long-term average close to a normal year, *NEE* showed
 207 carbon absorption in about 3 months and carbon emission in the other months (2017,
 208 2018 and 2020; Fig. 4a, b, d; Table 1).

209 At an annual scale (Fig. 4f), this study shows that the mean *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* were
 210 6.81 ± 36.35 , 664.78 ± 31.49 , and 658.79 ± 46.11 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. In the wet
 211 years (2019 and 2021), the semi-fixed sandy land showed carbon sequestration, the
 212 cumulative annual *NEE* were -14.14 and -126.14 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. In contrast,
 213 in the dry years (2017 and 2020) and the normal year (2018), the system showed carbon
 214 emissions, the cumulative annual *NEE* were 48.50, 51.17, and 74.66 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹,
 215 respectively.

216 3.3 Relationships between meteorological factors and *NEE*, *R_{eco}* and *GPP*

217 The environment factors and *NEE* were largely stable during dormant season in all
 218 years, so in the rest of this paper, we will concentrate on the relationships between the
 219 carbon fluxes and the meteorological factors during the growing season. Figure 5
 220 illustrates the variable importance values from the Random Forest analysis, which
 221 represent the contributions of the variables to *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP*. The goodness of fit
 222 measure of the random forest analysis is shown in Fig. S2. For *NEE*, the most critical



variable was *PPFD*, with an importance of 68.6%, followed by the factors associated with moisture (44.4% for *SWC*₈₀, 39.3% for *PPT*, 36.7% for *SWC*₃₀, 34.8% for *SWC*₅₀, *VPD* for 34.0%, and 27.1% for *SWC*₁₀), which were all significant at $P < 0.01$. For *R*_{eco}, the soil shallow *SWC* (*SWC*₁₀) and deep *SWC* (*SWC*₈₀) were the most important variables, with importance values of 73.4% and 65.1%, respectively, followed by temperature (61.2% for *T*_a and 46.9% for *T*_{s50}), *SWC*₃₀ (41.0%), and *PPFD* (27.63%), which were all significant at $P < 0.01$ (except for *SWC*₃₀, which was significant at $P < 0.05$). For *GPP*, *PPFD* was the most important factor, with an importance of 67.48%, followed by the factors associated with moisture (55.3% for *SWC*₈₀, 50.7% for *SWC*₅₀, and 44.6% for *SWC*₃₀, and 48.3% for *SWC*₁₀). These were followed by two temperature variables (*T*_{s50} and *T*_a and 44.0% and 36.7%), which were significant at $P < 0.01$. In general, *PPFD*, deep soil moisture (*SWC*₈₀) and shallow soil moisture (*SWC*₃₀ and *SWC*₁₀) were the main environmental factors that affected all three carbon fluxes at a seasonal scale, and they showed a strong and negative relationship with *NEE* and a significant positive relationship with *R*_{eco} and *GPP* (Fig. 6); that is, the ecosystem's carbon sequestration potential rose as *PPFD* and *SWC* increased.

We used the multiple regression analysis to reveal the relationships between the *NEE*, *R*_{eco}, and *GPP* and environmental parameters to determine the main influencing factors that resulted in the monthly variation in carbon fluxes. The results are summarized in Table 2. We found that 65% of the *NEE* variation could be explained by a combination of *T*_{s50}, *SWC*₃₀, *VPD*, and *PPFD* ($F=28.75$, $R^2=0.65$, $P < 0.001$). We found that 83% of the variations of *R*_{eco} could be explained by a combination of *T*_{s10}, *PPT*, and *SWC*₁₀ ($F=91.96$, $R^2=0.83$, $P < 0.001$). Similarly, 85% of the variations of *GPP* could be described by a combination of *T*_{s10}, *PPT*, *SWC*₈₀, and *SWC*₁₀ ($F=82.62$, $R^2=0.85$, $P < 0.001$). Generally, *T*_{s10}, *PPT*, and *SWC* explained a large amount of the carbon flux variations. The correlations between the key variables and the carbon fluxes were highest for *T*_{s10}, *PPT*, and *SWC* in each model (Figs. 7-9).

At the yearly scale, the mean *PPFD*, *T*_a, *T*_s at all depths, and *VPD* were relatively stable across the study period, and the relationships between these environment factors and the *NEE*, *R*_{eco}, and *GPP* were not significant. The main environmental variation



during the study period was the availability of water, such as *PPT* and the *SWC* at all depths (Fig. 2, Table 1). We found that *NEE* strong and negative related with *PPT*, but not related with the other environmental factors (Table 3); *R_{eco}* didn't have a significant relationship with environmental conditions, and *GPP* was significantly positively related with *PPFD* and *SWC₈₀*. That is, the ecosystem's carbon sequestration capacity rose when *PPT*, *PPFD*, and *SWC₈₀* increased.

4. Discussion

4.1 Comparison with other dryland ecosystems

The ecosystem of *NEE* changes largely from carbon sequestration to carbon emissions, and these changes generally rely on water availability in dryland ecosystems (Mielnick et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2012). Our study showed that the system in semi-fixed sandy land was a net carbon emission in dry years, and a weak carbon absorption in relatively wet years. The yearly mean *NEE* was $6.81 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during the observation period (Fig. 4f; Tables 1 and 3). Our results agree with previous findings in dryland ecosystems, which showed that the variability in *PPT* had significant influences on the carbon fixation of the *Caragana microphylla* shrub-dominated ecosystem, leading it to alternate rapidly between carbon sequestration and carbon emission (Jia et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016). However, the magnitude of the average annual *NEE* in the current study was lower than those in a mixture of xerophytic shrub species (the mean *NEE* was $-77 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$); in a phreatophyte-dominated in China's Gurbantünggüt Desert ecosystem, where the *NEE* ranged from -40 to $-5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Liu et al., 2016); in a *Lycium andersonii* and *Ambrosia dumosa* shrubland ecosystem, where the *NEE* was $-127 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Jasoni et al., 2005); and in a mature semi-arid shrub ecosystem in California (USA) dominated by *Adenostoma fasciculatum*, where *NEE* ranged from -155 to $-96 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Luo et al., 2007). However, the carbon sequestration capacity of the semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem was higher than that of a recovering sandy grassland in our study region that was dominated by herbaceous species (the average annual of *NEE* was $49 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from 2015-2018) (Niu et al., 2020). The most plausible explanation for the difference between the two areas relates to differences in the vegetation types. Zhang (2007) demonstrated that the carbon fixation capacity of



283 *Caragana microphylla* was higher than that of herbaceous and sub-shrub plants such
 284 as *Artemisia frigida* in Horqin Sandy Land.

285 **4.2 Impacts of environmental condition on carbon fluxes**

286 Carbon fluxes are influenced by a variety of environmental factors in complicated
 287 and interacting ways, and the main control factors change substantially across time
 288 scales (Fu et al., 2009; Niu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2018a). At a seasonal scale, our
 289 Random Forest results showed that *PPFD* and deep *SWC* (*SWC*₈₀) were the most
 290 important environmental drivers for *GPP* and *NEE* (Fig. 5), which were both
 291 significantly negatively related with *GPP* and strong positively related with *NEE* (Fig.
 292 6), suggesting that light and soil water stress were limiting photosynthetic activity. As
 293 the main energy source for plant photosynthesis, *PPFD* plays an important role in plant
 294 carbon fixation, so with increasing *PPFD*, an ecosystem's carbon sequestration
 295 capacity generally increases (Zhou et al., 2020; Niu et al., 2021). Our results also
 296 demonstrated that deep *SWC* (*SWC*₈₀) affected the seasonal variation of *NEE* and *GPP*
 297 (Fig. 5, 6), since the deep *SWC* would be closely linked to large precipitation pulses;
 298 for example, *PPT* > 20 mm caused synchronous increases in *SWC*₈₀ in our study (Fig.
 299 S3). This is because the larger amount of precipitation can infiltrate into the soil and
 300 replenish the deep soil moisture, where it becomes plant-available and can sustain net
 301 photosynthesis (Niu et al., 2020). This result was also similar with previous studies in
 302 dryland ecosystems (Austin et al., 2004; Kurc and Small, 2007; Tang et al., 2018). For
 303 seasonal *R*_{eco}, shallow *SWC* (*SWC*₁₀) was the most important factor, followed by deep
 304 *SWC* (*SWC*₈₀) (Fig. 5, 6). Smaller rainfall events (*PPT* < 20 mm; Fig. S3) may alter the
 305 shallow *SWC* and increase shallow soil microbial respiration (Thomey et al. 2011); the
 306 duration and extent of the microbial metabolic reaction appear to be tightly linked with
 307 the availability of shallow soil water content (Huxman et al., 2004). In addition, large
 308 rainfall pulses (*PPT* > 20 mm; Fig. S3) trigger plant root activity in deeper soil layers
 309 (Potts et al., 2006). These findings suggest that precipitation mainly affects carbon
 310 fluxes (*NEE*, *R*_{eco}, and *GPP*) at a seasonal scale by affecting *SWC* in different soil layers
 311 in our research system.



At a monthly scale, soil temperature was an essential factor that determined the carbon fluxes, followed by water-related factors such as the monthly total *PPT* and *SWC*₃₀, *SWC*₈₀, and *SWC*₁₀ (Table 3; Figs. 7-9). *T_s* and *SWC* are often regarded as the primary regulators of ecosystem respiration (Helbling et al., 2003; Kelsey et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2018b; Chang et al., 2021), and our results are consistent with this view. *R_{eco}* increased with increasing shallow soil temperature (*T_{s10}*), monthly total *PPT*, and shallow *SWC* (*SWC*₁₀) (Fig. 8). The increase was exponential between *R_{eco}* and *T_{s10}* (Fig. 8a), which is most likely explained by the influence of soil temperature on microbial activity, root respiration, and soil enzyme decomposition (Jassal et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). *R_{eco}* increased significantly with linear increases in the moisture-related factors (*PPT* and *SWC*₁₀) (Fig. 8b, c). This may be because root activity regulates the decomposition of soil organic matter and its influence on the microbial community can limit or increase *R_{eco}* (Moyano et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014).

GPP also increased with increasing *T_{s10}*, total *PPT*, *SWC*₈₀ and *SWC*₁₀ at monthly scale (Fig. 9). *T_s* is one of the most important environmental influences on the formation and function of the photosynthetic apparatus (Georgieva and Yordanov, 1993; Huxman et al., 2004; Lin et al., 2005). Water is also the main variable influencing plant productivity and the carbon cycle in water-limited ecosystems, plant may rise their photosynthetic rates in reaction to *PPT* by increasing leaf-level CO₂ exchange, adding more leaf area incrementally, or through a combination of both responses (Liu et al., 2012; Hao et al., 2013; Niu et al., 2020, 2021). *PPT* events may influence *GPP* and *R_{eco}* differently, thus changing the balance between them and changing the monthly *NEE* (Hao et al., 2013). Our studies are similar to previous research: *GPP* was more sensitive than *R_{eco}* to *PPT* (Figs. 8b, 9b); the slope of the response was higher for *GPP* (1.33) than for *R_{eco}* (0.92) in this area of the sandy grassland and in a sandy maize cropland ecosystem (Niu et al., 2020, 2021).

At the annual timescale, *PPT* was the preponderate factor that regulated the annual *NEE* in our semi-fixed sandy land. *NEE* was significantly negatively correlated to *PPT* on an annual basis during the study period (Table 3). Most previous studies showed that the magnitude and number of *PPT* incidents are important factors in regional climate



change, as these factors can convert biological processes at an ecosystem level (Hao et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2012). The total *PPT* and related changes of *SWC* perform the most important part in drylands through their impact on plant photosynthesis by altering stomatal conductance and leaf area (Harper et al., 2005; Ford et al., 2008; Niu et al., 2020). However, they also alter ecosystem respiration processes by affecting substrate availability of soil microbial respiration (Epstein et al., 1997; Hao et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2014; Niu et al., 2020).

In summary, the three carbon fluxes (*NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP*) are not affected by single factors, but rather by a combination of a variety of environment parameters. However, when the time scale gets longer, the important factors affecting the changes of *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* preferred to converge. At the daily timescale, their values were influenced by radiation, temperature, and water, but at the monthly and annual timescale, the primary governing factor varied to water. Generally, water performed a key role in the change of ecosystem carbon fluxes at all the time scale.

5. Conclusion

We studied the carbon fluxes and their environmental driving factors at different time scales in a semi-fixed sandy land. Our results indicated that the carbon source or sink intensity of the ecosystem, which is undergoing restoration to combat desertification in the Horqin Sandy Land, and it's consistent with our hypothesis, is greatly uncertain due to the complex and interacting influences of environmental factors, especially for precipitation. In the wet years (2019 and 2021), the semi-fixed sandy land was a carbon sink, whereas in the dry years (2017 and 2020) and the normal year (2018), the system showed a carbon source, with a mean annual *NEE* of $6.81 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

We determined the primary governing factors of *NEE*, *R_{eco}*, and *GPP* using correlation analyses, Random Forest models, and multiple stepwise regression analysis. *PPFD* and deep *SWC* (*SWC₈₀*) were important drivers for the seasonal variation of *NEE* and *GPP*, whereas both shallow and deep *SWC* (*SWC₁₀* and *SWC₈₀*) were important drivers for *R_{eco}*. At a monthly scale, *T_s*, *PPT*, and *SWC₁₀* were strong positively related to *R_{eco}* and *GPP*, whereas *NEE* was strong negatively related to *T_{s50}*, *PPT*, and *SWC₃₀*. Annual *NEE* was strongly correlated with the total *PPT*. Water performed a key role in



the changes of ecosystem carbon fluxes in our semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem. If regional precipitation increases in the future, the potential carbon sequestration in semi-fixed sandy land ecosystem is likely to increase.

Data Availability

In agreement with the FAIR Data standards, the data used in this article are archived, published, and available in a dedicated repository: <https://doi.org/10.4121/20071877>.

Author contributions

YQL, YYN, WL, XYW, and YC designed the study, YYN analyzed the data. YYN drafted the manuscript. All co-authors had a chance to review the manuscript and contributed to discussion and interpretation of the data.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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701 **Figure captions**

702 **Fig. 1.** Locations of study area. (a) and (b) are photos of observation site during the
 703 growing and dormant seasons, respectively.

704 **Fig. 2.** (a) Seasonal dynamics of the daily average vapor pressure deficit (VPD), (b)
 705 photosynthetic photon flux density ($PPFD$), (c) air temperature (T_a), (d) the soil
 706 temperature (T_s) and (e) soil water content (SWC) at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80 cm,
 707 and (f) daily precipitation (PPT).

708 **Fig. 3.** Seasonal variability of the daily mean carbon fluxes (NEE : net ecosystem CO_2
 709 exchange, R_{eco} : ecosystem respiration, and GPP : gross primary productivity) from 2017
 710 to 2021.

711 **Fig. 4.** (a-e) Monthly and (f) inter-annual variations of the cumulative carbon fluxes
 712 (NEE : net ecosystem CO_2 exchange, R_{eco} : ecosystem respiration, and GPP : gross
 713 primary productivity) from 2017 to 2021.

714 **Fig. 5.** Important values of the Random Forest model analysis for the carbon flux (NEE :
 715 CO_2 net ecosystem exchange; R_{eco} : ecosystem respiration; GPP : gross primary
 716 productivity) during the 2017 to 2021 growing seasons. ** and * refer to significance
 717 at 0.01 and 0.05 levels, respectively. Variables: $PPFD$: mean photosynthetic photon
 718 flux density; T_a : mean air temperature; VPD : mean vapor pressure deficit; PPT : daily
 719 total precipitation; T_s and SWC : mean soil water content at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80
 720 cm.

721 **Fig. 6.** Relationships between seasonal net ecosystem carbon exchange (NEE), gross
 722 primary productivity (GPP), and ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) and the (a) mean
 723 photosynthetic photon flux density ($PPFD$) and (b-d) mean soil water contents at depths
 724 of 10, 30, and 80 cm (SWC_{10} , SWC_{30} , and SWC_{80} , respectively).

725 **Fig. 7.** Relationships between monthly net ecosystem carbon exchange (NEE) and the
 726 main meteorological factors: soil temperature at a depth of 50 cm (T_{s50}), mean soil water
 727 content at a depth of 30 cm (SWC_{30}), vapor-pressure deficit (VPD), and photosynthetic
 728 photon flux density ($PPFD$).



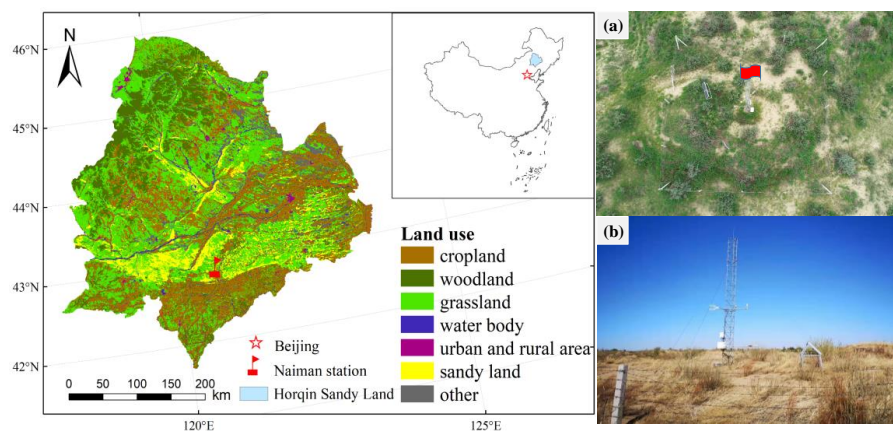
729 **Fig. 8.** Relationships between monthly ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) and the main
730 environmental factors: the soil temperature at a depth of 10 cm (T_{s10}), the total
731 precipitation (PPT), and the soil water content at a depth of 10 cm (SWC_{10}).

732 **Fig. 9.** Relationships between monthly gross primary productivity (GPP) and the main
733 environmental factors: soil temperature at a depth of 10 cm (T_{s10}), total precipitation
734 (PPT), and soil water content at depths of 80 cm (SWC_{80}) and 10 cm (SWC_{10})

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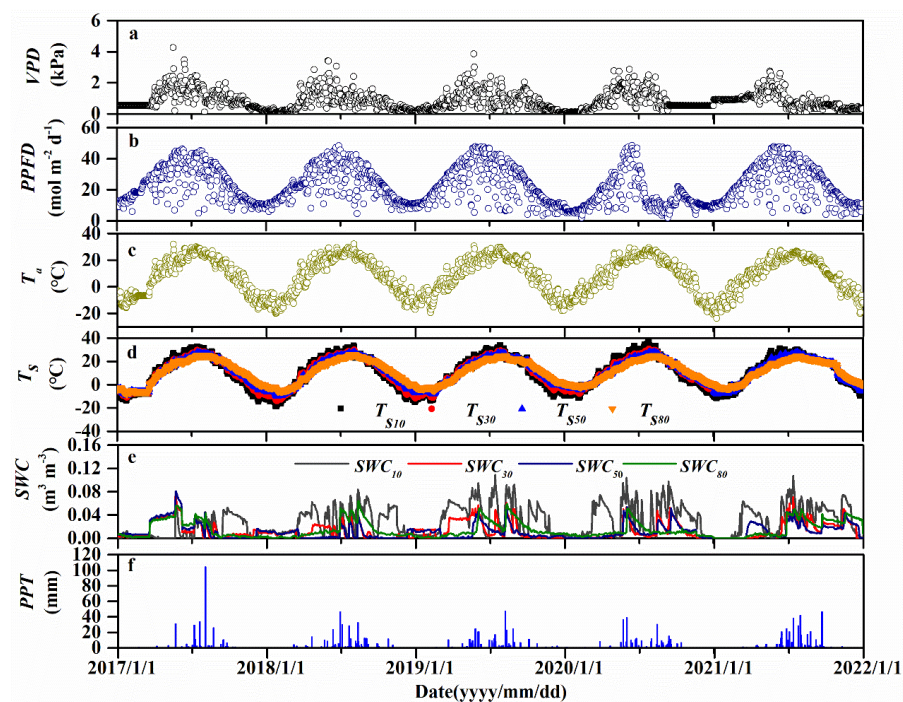


736 **Fig. 1.**



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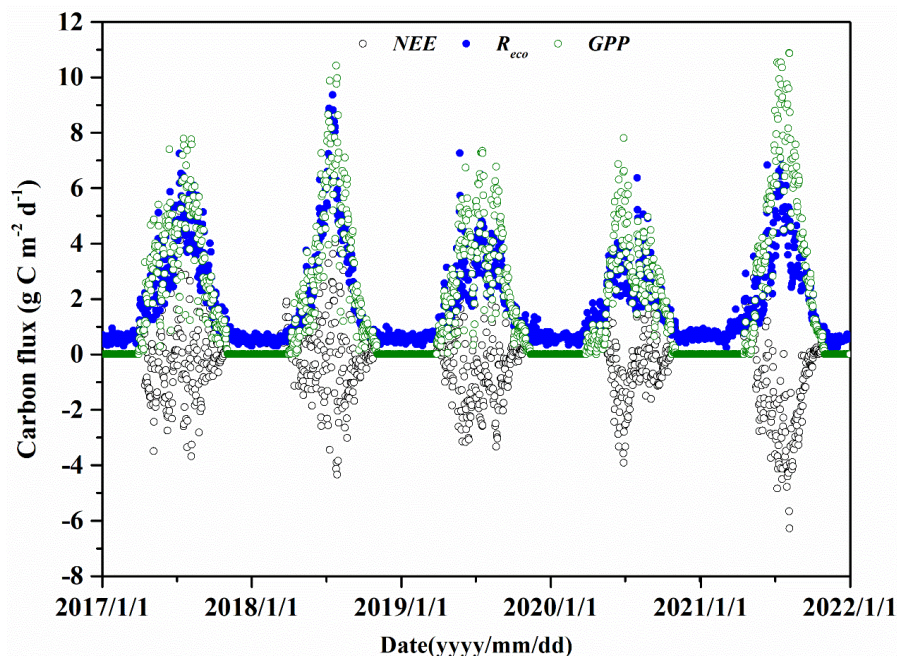
738 **Fig. 2.**



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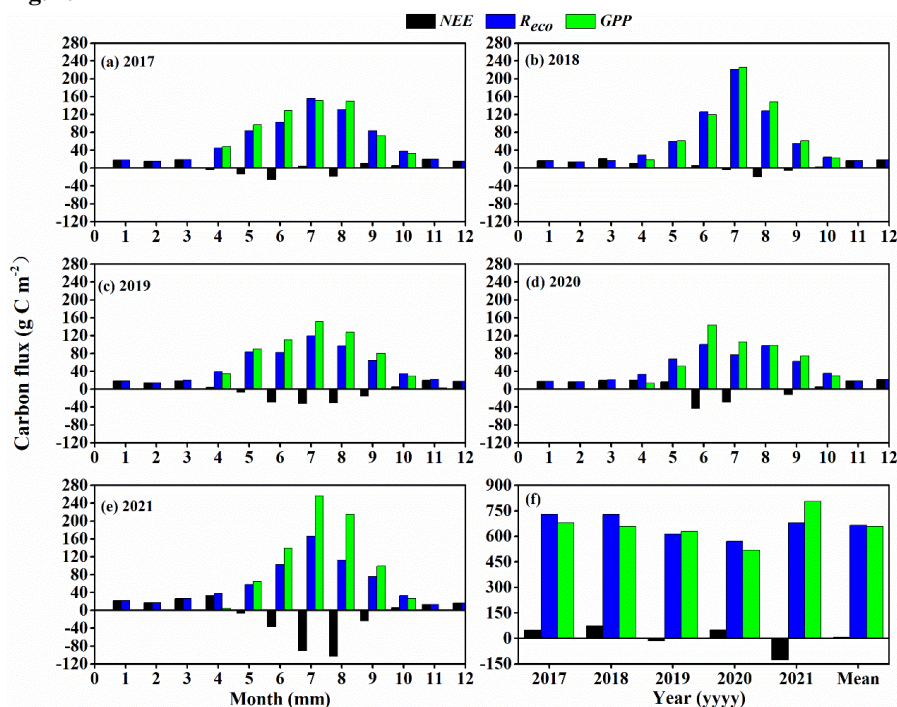


740 Fig. 3.



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742 Fig. 4.



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744



Fig. 5.

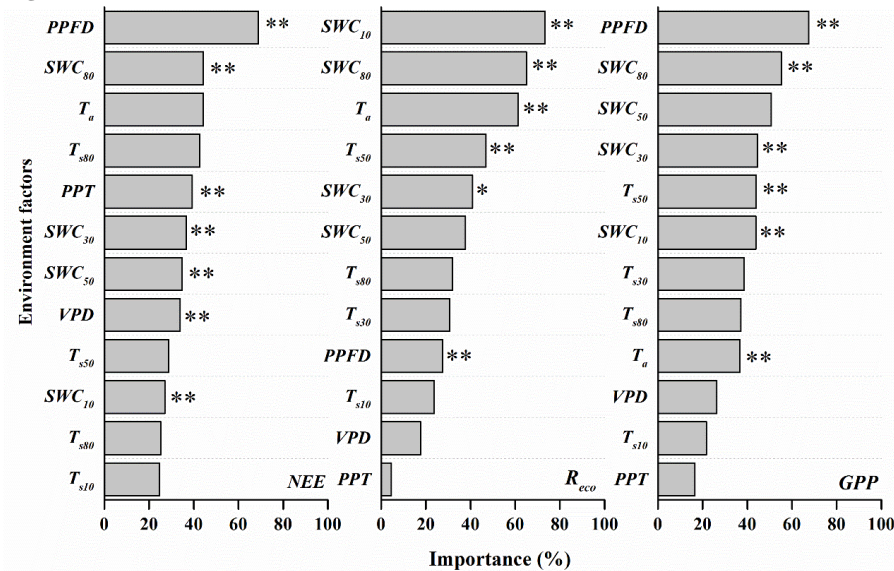
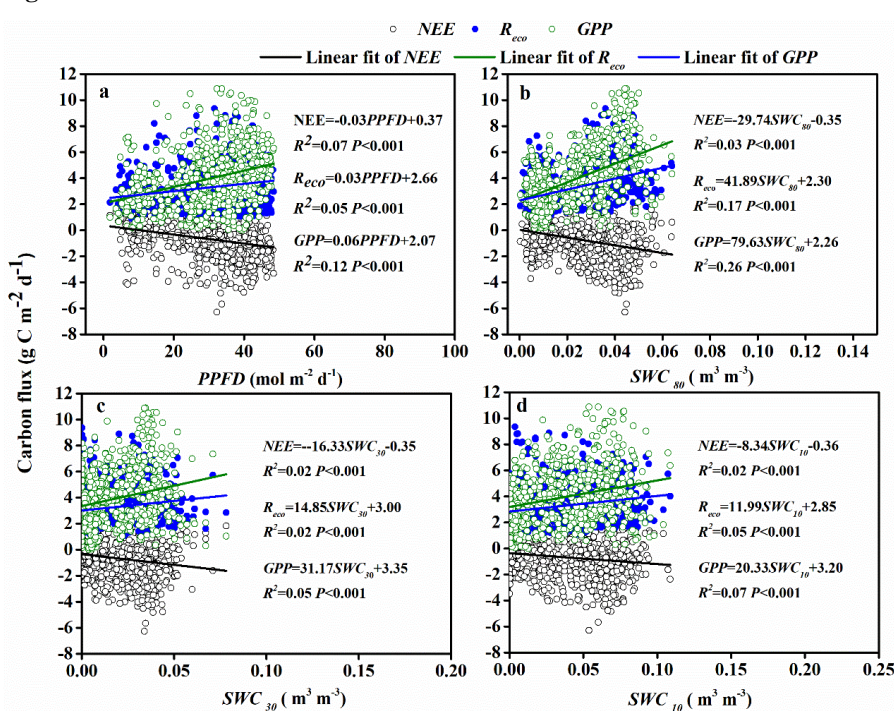
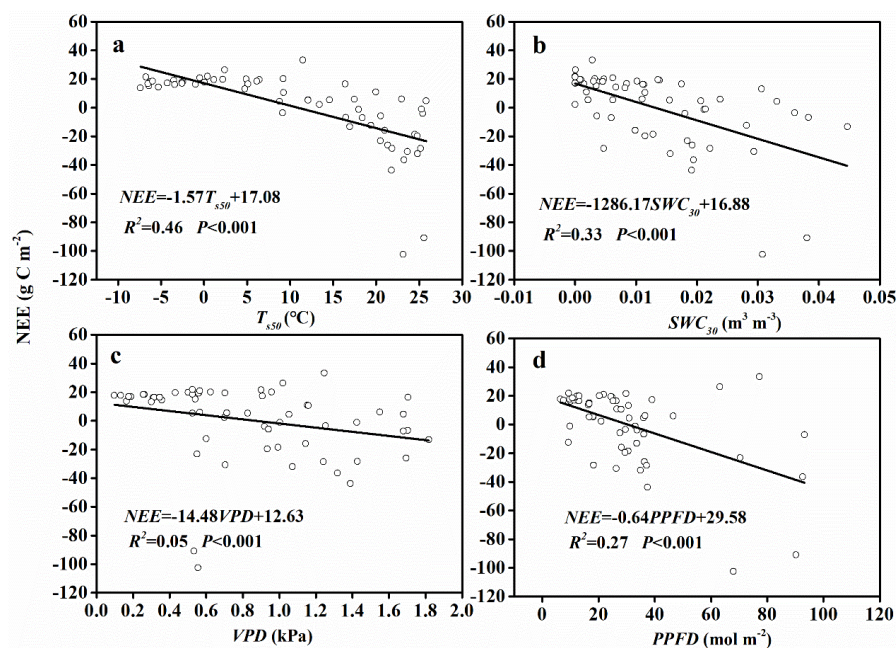


Fig. 6.





749 **Fig. 7.**



751 **Fig. 8.**

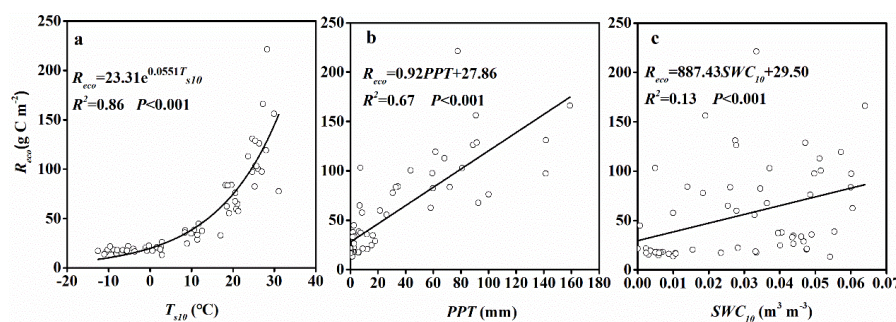
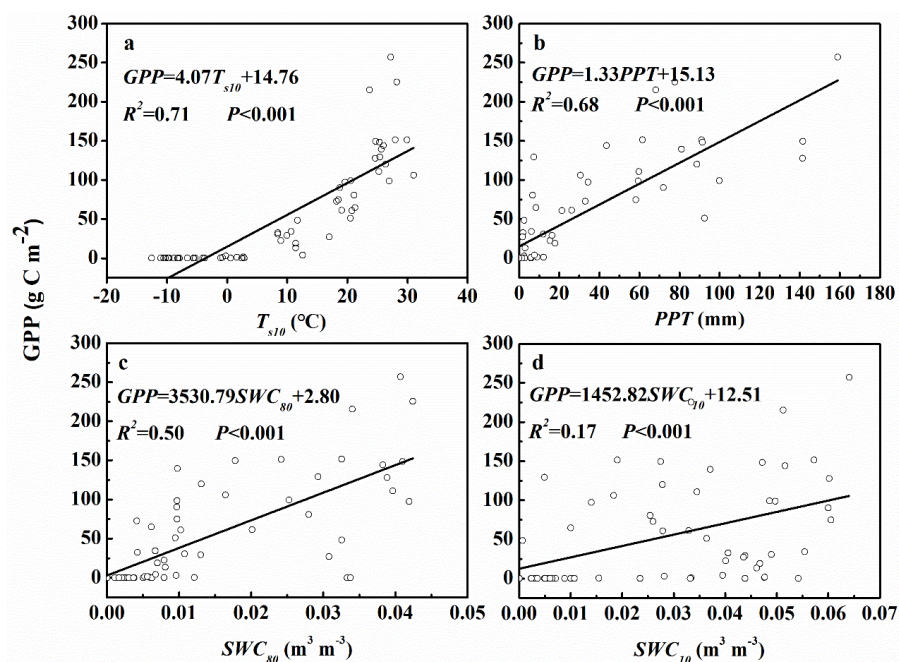




Fig. 9.





756 Tables

757 **Table 1** Annual mean meteorological factors from 2017 to 2021 in the semi-fixed sandy
 758 ecosystem. Values of a variable labeled the same letter did not differ significantly
 759 among the years.

Year	T_a	VPD	$PPFD$	PPT	SWC_{10}	SWC_{30}	SWC_{50}	SWC_{80}	T_{s10}	T_{s30}	T_{s50}	T_{s80}
2017	7.90a	1.00b	24.00b	312.80b	0.014a	0.015b	0.016c	0.016b	8.79a	9.16a	9.68a	10.28a
2018	8.03a	0.76a	23.55b	350.80c	0.028b	0.009a	0.009a	0.013b	9.08a	9.61a	10.32a	10.88a
2019	8.48a	0.79a	23.86b	382.20d	0.036c	0.015b	0.015b	0.016b	9.67a	10.11a	10.71a	11.04a
2020	8.26a	0.79a	15.44a	312.00a	0.034c	0.009a	0.009b	0.011a	10.83a	11.02a	11.11a	11.20a
2021	8.08a	0.83a	23.87b	430.40d	0.034c	0.015b	0.015c	0.019c	11.34a	11.40a	11.33a	11.45a
Mean	8.15a	0.83a	22.14b	357.64	0.029	0.013	0.011	0.015	9.94a	10.26a	10.63a	10.97a

760 Note: T_a (°C): air temperature; VPD (kPa): vapor pressure deficit; $PPFD$ ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$):
 761 photosynthetic photon flux density; PPT (mm): total precipitation; SWC ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$) and
 762 T_s (°C): soil water content and soil temperature at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80 cm,
 763 respectively.



Table 2 The results of multiple stepwise regression analysis of carbon fluxes (*NEE*: net ecosystem exchange; *R_{eco}*: ecosystem respiration; *GPP*: gross primary production) against the potential drivers during the growing season from 2017 to 2021. All regressions were statistically significant at $P < 0.001$.

Stepwise regression equation	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> ²
$NEE = -0.69 T_{s50} + 3.15$	51.70	0.46
$NEE = -0.53 T_{s50} + 0.33 SWC_{30} + 3.52$	35.10	0.54
$NEE = -0.72 T_{s50} + 0.35 SWC_{30} + 0.32 VPD + 4.54$	29.57	0.59
$NEE = -0.65 T_{s50} + 0.31 SWC_{30} + 0.39 VPD + 0.29 PPFD + 4.43$	28.75	0.65
$R_{eco} = 0.84 T_{s10} + 4.09$	134.62	0.70
$R_{eco} = 0.51 T_{s10} + 0.45 PPT + 3.47$	113.46	0.80
$R_{eco} = 0.61 T_{s10} + 0.50 PPT - 0.22 SWC_{10} + 4.59$	91.96	0.83
$GPP = 0.34 T_{s10} + 5.71$	144.51	0.71
$GPP = 0.39 T_{s10} + 0.13 PPT + 4.87$	124.75	0.81
$GPP = 0.40 T_{s10} + 0.12 PPT + 340.95 SWC_{80} + 5.18$	103.03	0.84
$GPP = 0.42 T_{s10} + 0.12 PPT + 333.20 SWC_{80} + 214.28 SWC_{10} + 6.82$	82.62	0.85

Note: T_a (°C): air temperature; *VPD* (kPa): vapor pressure deficit; *PPFD* (mol m⁻² d⁻¹): photosynthetic photon flux density; *PPT* (mm): total precipitation; *SWC* (m³ m⁻³) and T_s (°C): soil water content and soil temperature at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80 cm, respectively.



Table 3 The results of correlation analysis (Pearson's r) between the inter-annual carbon fluxes (NEE : net ecosystem exchange; R_{eco} : ecosystem respiration; and GPP : gross primary production) and the potential drivers from 2017 to 2021. Significance: *, $P < 0.05$.

Carbon flux	PPT	VPD	$PPFD$	T_a	T_{s10}	T_{s30}	T_{s50}	T_{s80}	SWC_{10}	SWC_{30}	SWC_{50}	SWC_{80}
NEE	-0.89*	0.06	-0.32	-0.14	-0.69	-0.67	-0.63	-0.63	-0.43	-0.65	-0.46	-0.80
R_{eco}	0.06	0.46	0.74	-0.82	-0.57	-0.60	-0.65	-0.55	-0.69	0.12	0.16	0.45
GPP	0.74	0.26	0.76*	-0.45	0.15	0.11	0.05	0.12	-0.13	0.58	0.45	0.93*

Note: T_a (°C): air temperature; VPD (kPa): vapor pressure deficit; $PPFD$ ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$): photosynthetic photon flux density; PPT (mm): total precipitation; SWC ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$) and T_s (°C): soil water content and soil temperature at depths of 10, 30, 50, and 80 cm, respectively.