

1 **Nine years of warming and nitrogen addition in the Tibetan grassland**
2 **promoted loss of soil organic carbon but did not alter the bulk change**
3 **of chemical structure**

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17 **Abstract.** Nitrogen (N) and warming effects on ecosystem carbon (C) budgets and
18 stabilization are critical to understand as C sequestration is considered as a mechanism
19 to offset anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, which is important for accurately predicting
20 ecosystem C sequestration and/or potential C loss, remaining controversial though. But
21 the relevant information, especially for the intervention of environmental controls on
22 grassland soil is limited in Tibetan plateau (TP) regions. Here we used a 9-year two-

23 way factorial experiment involving warming with open top chambers (+1.80 °C in the
24 daytime and +0.77 °C in the nighttime at the soil surface) and multilevel nitrogen (N)
25 enrichment treatments (0, 5, 10, and 15 g m⁻² year⁻¹) in the TP to investigate the changes
26 in SOC pool size and chemical structure. 9-year warming treatment significantly
27 decreased SOC stock in the Tibetan grassland. We observed decreasing SOC
28 concentrations which may be related to changes in the C degrading enzymes.
29 Surprisingly, the SOC molecular structure remained unchanged in all N enrichment and
30 warmed plots, suggesting that both treatments had affected all forms of SOC, from
31 simple and complex polymeric in a similar way. Our results suggest that long-term
32 warming stimulates soil C loss but no preference in SOC loss with different chemical
33 structure.

34 **Keywords:** global warming, nitrogen deposition, SOC, molecular structure, C
35 stabilization

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Soil organic matter is the largest organic carbon reservoir of near-surface terrestrial
39 ecosystem (Dlamini et al. 2016). Even subtle acceleration in SOC decomposition will
40 result in large CO₂ emissions (Davidson and Janssens 2006). So, knowledge of the
41 factors affecting SOC storage and decomposition is essential for understanding the
42 dynamically changing global C cycle. The influence of global warming on
43 decomposition of soil carbon has been well documented (Poeplau et al. 2017, Guan et
44 al. 2018, Ding et al. 2019b), but there remains considerable uncertainty in the potential
45 response of soil C dynamics to the rapid global increase in reactive nitrogen (N, coming
46 largely from agricultural fertilizers and fossil fuel combustion) as well as the combined
47 effects with warming (Liang and Balser 2012, Devaraju et al. 2015, Li et al. 2017). For
48 example, soil N availability would strongly affect microbial physiology and C-
49 degrading enzymes (EnC), which can subsequently alter soil C feedbacks to warming
50 (Mack *et al.* 2004; Contosta & Cooper 2015). EnC has been shown to play an important
51 role in SOM nutrient cycling and catabolism (Chen et al. 2018a), and information on
52 such activity can be used to investigate substrate nutrient demand and response to
53 environmental changes (Allison et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2015). The knowledge gap
54 demonstrated a need to focus research on biological and physicochemical controls of
55 SOC stabilization and destabilization processes as a basis for understanding causal
56 relationships and key processes that determine pool sizes and turnover rates of
57 functional SOC pools (von Lützow and Kögel-Knabner 2009).

58 Soil warming experiments in the field have shown that warming generates a
59 considerable short-term soil C loss (Lu et al. 2013, Romero-Olivares et al. 2017). This
60 loss declines over time (e.g. > 2 years) (Romero-Olivares et al. 2017), although there is
61 evidence that it can continue for longer (e.g. > 20 years) (Melillo et al. 2017). Also,
62 indirect effects of warming on nutrient cycling (Pendall et al. 2004) or plant inputs
63 (Bradford et al. 2016) may have cascading effects on SOC quality and quantity (Lu et
64 al. 2013) and consequently on microbial decomposition of SOC, including recent plant-
65 derived material (Hicks Pries et al. 2017) or older SOC (Vaughn and Torn 2019).
66 Because ecosystems in alpine meadow are normally N limited (Hobbie et al. 2002),
67 increased N released from decomposing SOC could stimulate plant productivity,
68 thereby increasing ecosystem C storage (Moscatelli et al. 2008). However, field
69 evidence suggests that soil microbial activity and biomass may also be N limited in
70 some C-rich ecosystems (Mack et al. 2004, Rinnan et al. 2007). Therefore, increased N
71 released from decomposition of SOC could further fuel microbial activity and decrease
72 soil C storage. Besides, according to the priming effect hypothesis, the increase in N
73 availability and labile C substrates promotes microbial C utilization, thereby increasing
74 the degradation of less decomposable SOC and leading to a negative effect on soil C
75 accumulation over the long term (Riggs and Hobbie 2016). However, it has been proven
76 difficult to quantify bulk SOC stocks changes and organic matter composition directly
77 (Sistla et al. 2013, Van Gestel et al. 2018). As alternatives, molecular-level techniques
78 can detect how temperature affects plant and soil organic matter, microbial growth and

79 their community composition under climate warming (Feng et al. 2008, Xue et al. 2016,
80 Pold et al. 2017).

81 Since the molecular structure of organic material has long been thought to determine
82 long-term decomposition rates in soil humic substances, solid-state CPMAS ¹³C NMR
83 and diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) spectroscopy has been
84 successfully applied in studies on changes of SOC chemical structure during organic
85 matter decomposition without any physical or chemical destruction (Schmidt et al.
86 2011). The structure of SOC could be very complex but by combining both techniques
87 (solid-state ¹³C NMR and DRIFT) complementary information could be obtained on
88 aromatic and aliphatic components (Ferrari et al. 2011).

89 Despite the importance of the response of SOC stocks to warming and N enrichment
90 in the intact ecosystem, results about the chemical stabilization mechanisms (i.e.
91 molecular structure of SOC) in alpine meadows remained controversial. This
92 knowledge gap is significant because the Tibetan Plateau (TP) stores a large C pool,
93 with 36.6 Pg C stored in the top 3 m of the soil, accounting for 23.5% of China's total
94 organic soil-stored C and 2.5% of the global pool of soil C, which is of great importance
95 in regulating future global climate change and C emission (Genxu et al. 2002, Ding et
96 al. 2019a). At the same time, the TP has experienced climate warming at a rate that is
97 two times faster than that in other regions worldwide and is predicted to lead to great
98 soil C losses via microbial respiration in the future (Biskaborn et al. 2019). In addition,
99 during recent decades, the TP has been subject to high levels of N enrichment driven
100 by agricultural activities (up to ~8.0 g m⁻² y⁻¹) (Gao et al. 2007, Bo et al. 2012, Zhang

101 and Fu 2020) and atmospheric N deposition ($1 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) (Lü and Tian 2007, Yu et al.
102 2019) with an annual rate of increase in deposition ($0.053 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) (Liu et al. 2013,
103 Wang et al. 2019b), and this kind of enrichment has been shown to induce soil C loss
104 and affect SOC stabilization in this typical N-constrained ecosystem (Xiao et al. 2021).

105 Since temperature is one of the main drivers of the vegetation growth and
106 decomposition of organic matter, on-going climate change may alter biophysical
107 processes with consequences for ecosystem functioning, especially in highly sensitive
108 cold regions such as the alpine meadow on the TP (Piao et al. 2006, Yang et al. 2008).
109 However, how and to what extent chemical stabilization of SOC shifts may occur, and
110 consequently SOC storage and C-climate feedback would respond to warming and N
111 enrichment in an alpine meadow ecosystem, remains largely unknown. Here, we used
112 soils from a 9-year experiment with a two-way factorial design involving soil warming
113 (daytime: 1.80°C ; nighttime: 0.77°C) and control plots and N enrichments (0, 5, 10,
114 and $15 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$; marked as N0, N1, N2, and N3, respectively) (Liu et al. 2016) on the
115 TP to examine the changes in the stock and molecular structure of SOC.

116 We hypothesized that 9-years N enrichment and warming would affect SOC stock and
117 the chemical structure of the SOC. N enrichment below a certain threshold may favor
118 C sequestration in the alpine grassland ecosystem but warming may result in the C loss.
119 And added N would stimulate hydrolytic enzyme activity while warming would repress
120 enzyme activity. Finally, we hypothesized that variation in enzyme response to N and
121 temperature would emerge as an important explanation for variability in the effect of
122 added N and warming on SOC stock.

123

124 **2. Materials and methods**

125 **2.1 Site description**

126 Plot sampling was conducted in a grassland ecosystem located on the eastern edge
127 of the Tibetan Plateau, Maqu County, Gansu Province, China (101°53' E, 35°58' N,
128 3500 m above sea level, Figure 1 (NOAA 2015)), in August 2019. The grassland
129 ecosystem of the TP covers an area of about 1.53 million km², accounting for nearly
130 60% of the total area of the TP (Liu et al., 2016). Alpine meadow is the main vegetation
131 type in this area, the plant community is dominated by perennial herbaceous species of
132 *Poaceae*, *Ranunculaceae*, and *Asteraceae*. The area of alpine meadow accounts for
133 more than 44% of the area of alpine grasslands, and its SOC storage accounts for 56%
134 of the SOC storage of alpine grasslands on the whole TP (Yang et al. 2008). The soil in
135 the alpine meadow is classified as Mat-Cryic Cambisol (Hou et al. 2019). This region
136 has a typical plateau continental climate. The mean annual precipitation is 620 mm, and
137 most falls in the growing season (summer). The mean annual temperature is 1.2°C, with
138 the lowest monthly mean temperature occurring in January (−10.7°C) and the highest
139 monthly mean temperature occurring in July (11.7°C). During the past several decades,
140 the mean annual temperatures in the region have risen at a rate of 0.58°C per decade
141 (Liu et al. 2016).

142 **2.2 Experimental design and soil sampling**

143 A field-based warming experiment was established in June 2011 with a split-plot
144 block design, in which both temperature (open-top chamber, +1.80°C in the daytime
145 and +0.77°C in the nighttime at the soil surface) and nitrogen (0, 5, 10, and 15 g m⁻² y⁻¹)

146 ¹, corresponding to N0, N1, N2, and N3, respectively) were manipulated, with six
147 replicates per treatment (Liu et al., 2016). The 48 plots (8 treatments (N0, N1, N2, N3,
148 WN0, WN1, WN2, WN3) with 6 replicates each treatment) with roughly the same
149 species diversity and community structure were 5 × 5 m and were separated by 1 m
150 from adjacent edges. Additional details can be found in our previous studies (Sun et al.,
151 2023). Surface layer (0-10 cm) soils were collected from these 48 plots using a 4-cm-
152 diameter auger in August 2019. Then, the fresh soil samples were transported to the
153 laboratory on ice.

154 **2.3 Soil analysis**

155 Soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was measured according to the chloroform
156 fumigation extraction method using a TOC analyzer (Multi N/C 3100, Analytik Jena
157 GmbH, Germany) (Vance et al. 1987). The soil pH was determined in a 1:5 soil: water
158 suspension with a pH meter (PHS-3D, Rex, Shanghai, China). Bulk density samples
159 were dried at 105 °C for 48 h and calculated by dividing the oven-dried soil mass by
160 the steel cylinder volume (100 cm³) because coarse fragments (stones or large roots)
161 were not obtained in ring samples. For soil organic carbon (SOC) analysis, air-dried
162 soil was ground and HCl-fumigated (Komada et al. 2008), and then the SOC
163 concentration was determined with an elemental analyzer (FlashSmart, Thermo Fisher
164 Scientific, USA). The SOC stocks (0-10 cm) were calculated by multiplying the SOC
165 concentration by the bulk density (Walter et al. 2016). At these 48 sites, all plants in
166 three plots (50 × 50 cm) were harvested and dried to determine the aboveground
167 biomass (AGB).

168 We measured the activity of four extracellular enzymes in the soil at an in situ pH
169 (Nie et al. 2013). The absorbance of the C degradation enzymes β -D-cellubiosidase
170 (CB), α -glucosidase (AG), β -glucosidase (BG) and β -xylosidase (XYL) were measured
171 using a Tecan infinite M200 microplate fluorometer (Grodig, Austria) with 365 nm
172 excitation and 460 nm emission filters. The activities were expressed in units of nmol
173 $\text{h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ dry soil. We combined CB, AG, BG and XYL into a C-degrading enzyme variable
174 (EnC).

175 **2.4 SOC molecular structure examination using NMR spectroscopy**

176 The soil samples used for NMR spectroscopy analysis were pretreated using HF (2%)
177 to eliminate paramagnetic materials, e.g. ferric ion and manganese ion, that may affect
178 the NMR signals (Skjemstad et al. 1994, Schmidt et al. 1997, Mathers et al. 2002). The
179 solid-state NMR spectra (^{13}C -CP-MAS) were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE III
180 600 MHz instrument (Bruker Instrument Inc., Billerica, MA, USA). The acquisition
181 conditions were set at frequency of 75.5 MHz, with 20 kHz spectra width, 5 kHz
182 spinning speed, 2 ms contact time, and 2.5 s recycle time. The regions of 0–210 ppm
183 spectra were plotted.

184 We examined seven chemical shift regions to represent the main C functional groups
185 (Golchin et al. 1997, Sun et al. 2019). We report proportions of each chemical shift area
186 and calculated 4 ratios indicative for the characteristics of soil organic matter. The alkyl
187 C, the most persistent fraction of SOC, comes from original plant biopolymers (such as
188 cutin, suberin and waxes) or from metabolic products of soil microorganisms (Ussiri
189 and Johnson 2003). As these materials decompose, the relative abundance of O-alkyl C

190 in the litter materials decreases, and there is a progressive increase in alkyl C
191 (Bonanomi et al. 2013). Therefore, the ratio of alkyl C to O-alkyl C ($A/O-A = C_{0-45}/C_{60-90}$)
192 is an index represents the extent of SOC decomposition, the higher this ratio, the
193 higher the decomposition degree of SOC (Wang et al. 2015). Aromaticity ($C_{110-165}/C_{0-165}$),
194 was used to indicate the complexity of molecular structure (Dai et al. 2001). The
195 ratio of aliphatic C/aromatic C (Alip/Arom), $C_{0-110}/C_{110-165}$, also indicates the molecular
196 structure of soil C, with higher Alip/Arom means less aromatic nuclear structure in
197 humus. The hydrophobic C/hydrophilic C (HB/Hi) ratio, $(C_{0-45} + C_{110-165})/(C_{45-110} + C_{165-210})$,
198 was used to reflect the stability of soil aggregation (Spaccini et al. 2006,
199 Wang et al. 2010). The higher values of HB/Hi ratio indicated that SOC was more
200 hydrophobic (Cao et al., 2016), which, in turn, implied that SOC was more stable
201 (Spaccini et al., 2006, Wu et al., 2014).

202 **2.5 Bulk soil organic matter composition using DRIFT spectroscopy**

203 Because of the large number of variables affecting a spectrum, it is extremely
204 difficult to obtain a complete and fine molecular structure from a single spectrum
205 without additional knowledge obtained by other spectroscopic techniques (Ferrari et al.
206 2011). So, we employed another complementary molecular-level analysis called diffuse
207 reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) spectroscopy, which is a useful method
208 for the characterization of organic matter (Olk et al. 2000) and humic substances (Mao
209 et al. 2008, Francioso et al. 2009), to explore potential shifts in SOC composition in
210 response to warming and N enrichment. To characterize warming/N-induced changes
211 in SOC composition, 6 mg of ground soil sample was examined by diffuse reflectance

212 infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT). Mid-infrared spectra were recorded
213 using a Bruker TENSOR 27 spectrometer (Billerica, Massachusetts, USA) from 4000
214 to 400 cm^{-1} (average of 16 scans per sample at 4 cm^{-1} resolution). Infrared absorption
215 bands were represented by functional groups. Infrared absorption bands were
216 represented by functional groups as follows: aliphatic C–H (2900 cm^{-1}), aromatic esters,
217 carbonyl/carboxyl C–O (1735–1720 cm^{-1}), aromatic C=C (1660–1600 cm^{-1} , 1430–
218 1380 cm^{-1}), lignin-like residues (1515–1500 cm^{-1}), phenolic/cellulose (1260–1210 cm^{-1}),
219 and aromatic C–H (880, 805, 745 cm^{-1}) carbon (Niemeyer et al. 1992; Leifeld, 2006;
220 Chatterjee et al. 2012). A summary of the absorption bands associated with different
221 compound classes can be found in Figure S2. Additional details can be found in our
222 previous studies (Ofiti et al. 2021).

223 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

224 All data are presented as the mean values of six field replicates. Any significant
225 differences in soil physicochemical properties among the different N enrichment levels
226 and warming treatments were identified by using two-way ANOVA followed by
227 Tukey’s HSD post hoc test, with differences considered to be statistically significant at
228 $P < 0.05$. The statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS 13.0 and R version 3.5.1
229 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2013). To access the direct
230 and indirect effects of external factors on SOC stock, structural equation modeling
231 (SEM) was performed using the R package ‘plspm’ and ‘piecewiseSEM’ (Li et al. 2020).
232 For this purpose, firstly, all data were tested for normality using the Kolmogorov–
233 Smirnov test, and the non-normal variables were log-transformed. Secondly, we

234 established a prior model based on prior knowledge of effects and relationships among
235 the driving factors. Finally, we selected the best model based on overall goodness of
236 fits, including the chi-square (χ^2) statistic, degrees of freedom (df), whole-model *P*
237 value, goodness of fit index, and the root-mean-square error of approximation
238 (Schermelleh-Engel et al. 2003).

239

240 **3. Results**

241 **3.1 Bulk soil properties**

242 N enrichment and warming showed a significant interaction effect for pH, AGB, EnC,
243 C/N and SOC stock ($P < 0.05$, Figure 2). AGB, EnC and SOC stock increased
244 significantly under N enrichment but the increment decreased with rising N addition
245 concentration ($P < 0.05$, Figure 2b, 2c, 2f). Warming exacerbates soil acidification and
246 decreased the AGB, EnC, MBC and the SOC stock significantly. Both N enrichment
247 and warming significantly decreased C/N ratio ($P < 0.05$, Figure 2d). Except for MBC,
248 the N and warming interactions significantly altered soil physicochemical properties
249 (Figure 2, Table S1).

250 **3.2 SOC speciation as seen by DRIFT and NMR spectroscopy**

251 Changes in SOC molecular composition became apparent in diffuse reflectance
252 infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra
253 (Figure 3, 4 and Figure S2, S3). In all N enrichment and warming treatments, there was
254 a statistically non-significant change in the SOC composition and molecular structure
255 observed by both DRIFT and NMR spectra. The relative abundance of
256 carbonyl/carboxyl C=O, C=C aromatics compounds as well as lignin-like residues
257 decreased slightly after N enrichment, not significantly though. The relative abundance
258 of the phenolic/cellulose remained stable in all individual and interaction treatments
259 (Figure 3 and S2).

260 The results of ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy indicated the relative abundance of different C
261 components (Table 1, Figure 4 and S3), showing that the proportion of the seven C

262 functional groups did not change in soils under N enrichment and warming treatments.
263 The relative proportions of the seven C functional groups were stable in the 8 treatments
264 in the following abundance order: O-alkyl C (mean 33%), followed by alkyl C (mean
265 22%), aromatic C (mean 12%), N-alkyl C (11%), carbonyl C and di-O-alkyl C (mean
266 8%), and finally phenolic C (mean 3%) (Table 1, Figure S3). The four indexes which
267 can represent the extent of SOC decomposition observed by NMR spectra also showed
268 no significant difference under all the N-enrichment and warming treatments (Figure
269 4), suggesting that SOC showed a similar degradation state at all N level enrichments
270 and warming treatments as well as the interaction effects.

271 **3.3 Factors driving the SOC stocks**

272 We then developed a structural equation model (SEM) to assess the direct and
273 indirect effects of soil variables on the SOC stocks (Figure 5). The SEM results revealed
274 strong connections among global change, biotic, and edaphic factors (Figure 5),
275 demonstrating a need to consider their interactions when predicting SOC stock and its
276 response to individual and interactive effects of N enrichment and warming. Overall,
277 the SEM explained 44%, 55% and 21% of the variance in SOC stock driven by N
278 enrichment, warming treatment and the interaction effects, respectively. In both N and
279 warming patterns, C-degrading enzymes showed an important indirect factor in
280 regulating SOC stock. N enrichment had a positive effect on SOC stock by enhancing
281 enzyme activities. In contrast, warming had a negative effect on SOC stock by
282 inhibiting microbial enzymes. Besides, warming had a strong negative direct effect on
283 SOC stock (Figure 5b). However, no significant direct or indirect pathways for the

284 interaction effects of N and warming on SOC stock were observed (Figure 5C).

285

286 **4. Discussion**

287 **4.1. Effects of warming and N enrichment on soil C pool size**

288 It is suggested that small N inputs can decrease CO₂ emissions by changing the
289 interaction between plants and soil microbes in N-limited ecosystems, for example, by
290 increasing plant productivity and root biomass and then organic C inputs to the soil by
291 promoting N availability and thus retard litter and SOC decomposition (Franklin et al.
292 2003, Mo et al. 2008, Zhou et al. 2014). However, in an alpine grassland, Jiang et al.
293 2012 found that both plant growth and microbial activity were generally N-limited, but
294 the ability of plants to capture soil inorganic N was much stronger than that of soil
295 microorganisms. When N was added, increased N availability resulted in increased
296 plant growth, microbial activity and plant biomass (Micks et al. 2004). Therefore, the
297 decomposition of litter and SOM is enhanced by increasing the quantity of litter input
298 or by elevating microbial activity, and consequently, soil functions would shift from C
299 sequestration to C loss. The increased N has consequently reduced the soil pH by 0.26
300 globally in only one decade, which may significantly influence the microbial
301 community composition and activity and then SOC sequestration capacity (Geisseler
302 and Scow 2014, Tian and Niu 2015, Raza et al. 2021). This speculation is consistent
303 with our results that N input below a threshold level (for example, 10 g m⁻² in this study)
304 may be beneficial for C sequestration in alpine meadows of the TP and can partly
305 explain the patterns of SOC pool size under various N enrichment levels in this study.
306 Specifically, the SOC stock increased following N enrichment, but as the N addition
307 concentration increased, this growth progressively diminished, eventually even

308 disappearing. Our results revealed that alpine grassland ecosystems on the TP may
309 become a potential C source under future scenarios of increasing N enrichment.

310 In our study presented here, the 9 years of warming resulted in a very significant
311 SOC loss of 14 to 28 % (Figure 2 and S1). The TP stored large amounts of SOC because
312 of the permafrost soil, where limited C decomposition has led to the accumulation of
313 large SOC stocks (Hengl et al. 2014, Schuur et al. 2015). Previous studies showed that
314 the vulnerability of soils with large C stocks derives from the high temperature
315 sensitivity of C decomposition and biogeochemical restrictions on the processes driving
316 soil C inputs (Davidson and Janssens 2006; García-Palacios et al. 2021). Contrast with
317 that, in soils with low initial C stocks, small losses coming from accelerated
318 decomposition induced by rising temperature may be offset by concurrent increases in
319 plant growth and soil C stabilization (Day et al. 2008, Macias-Fauria et al. 2012,
320 Crowther et al. 2015). However, in areas with larger SOC stocks, accelerated
321 decomposition exceeds the potential C accumulation of plant growth, contributing to a
322 significant C loss to the atmosphere (Luo et al. 2019).

323 **4.2. Effects of N enrichment and warming on SOC chemical compositions**

324 SOC chemical composition not only is controlled by the chemistry of the plant
325 materials input to the soil, but also by the microbial processing and degradation of SOC
326 (Baldock et al. 1992). Although N addition can stimulate plant growth and increase
327 litter fall, it can also accelerate or slow down microbial processing of plant residues,
328 thus altering the chemical composition of SOC (Wang et al. 2019a). Surprisingly we
329 observed that the SOC molecular structure remained unchanged in all N enrichment

330 and warmed plots (Figure 3, 4).

331 As the predominant chemical component of SOC across all treatments in our study,
332 O-alkyl C is mainly composed of carbohydrates, peptides and other labile organic
333 components derived from the fresh material, which could be preferentially degraded
334 compared with more resistant components such as alkyl C (Simpson and Simpson, 2012,
335 He et al. 2018). So, we hypothesized that this result could indicate that N and warming
336 may have the same impact on the input of fresh plants on the TP. Unlike O-alkyl C,
337 lipids represent the main source of alkyl C (aliphatic chains), which is derived from
338 original plant biopolymers. Lignin and tannin represent the main source of aromatic C,
339 together with phenolic C, mainly originating from lignin and amino acids of peptides
340 (Baldock et al 1992). All these components are more resistant to microbial
341 decomposition than labile O-alkyl C (Simpson and Simpson, 2012). Our results
342 suggested that the proportions of the stable SOC chemical structures remained the same
343 between the different N enrichment concentrations and warming treatments, indicating
344 the synchronous degradation of SOC. The alkyl/O-alkyl ratio and aromaticity, normally
345 regarded as the indicator of the relative stage of SOC degradation and has been widely
346 used as an indicator to reflect the complexity of SOC chemical structure (Baldock et al.
347 1992), exhibited no significant difference among N enrichment or warming treatments,
348 suggesting that all N levels and warming treatments exerted similar effects on the
349 degradation of SOC and aromatic and complex molecular structure (Zhang et al. 2013).

350 Infrared spectroscopy of SOC showed a statistically non-significant change in the
351 treated plots and the control plots, which were consistent with a previous study that

352 showed the 4.5 years of +4 °C whole-soil warming did not change the relative
353 abundance of carbonyl/carboxyl C=O, and C=C aromatics compounds in the surface
354 soils (above 20 cm) from a forest (Ofiti et al. 2021). Collectively, the above results
355 suggested that molecular structure of surface SOC may not be as sensitive to long-term
356 warming as we thought before (Atanassova and Doerr 2011, Chen et al. 2018a). Surface
357 SOC is dominated by recent (less transformed) plant-litter inputs, which is less
358 degraded and transformed than subsoil SOC (Ofiti et al. 2021). The lack of change in
359 plant- and microorganism-derived organic matter in the surface soil may be due to slight
360 drying and warming near the surface (Soong et al. 2021) which could have inhibited or
361 resulted in relatively less surface inputs. We noticed that warming significantly reduced
362 AGB under N1 and N2 enrichments in this study (Figure 2). Compared with labile SOC,
363 stable SOC can be more vulnerable to priming once microbes are provided with
364 exogenous C substrates. This high vulnerability of stable SOC to priming warrants more
365 attention in future studies on SOC cycling and global change (Zhang et al. 2022).
366 Overall, the stabilized functional SOC molecular structure suggests that soil warming
367 and N enrichment had similarly affected the labile and stabilized SOC of this C-rich
368 grassland soil at the level of chemical stability of organic C molecules, along with the
369 C loss.

370 **4.3 Regulating factors of SOC stock**

371 Our interpretation that prolonged warming could reduce SOC storage is further
372 supported by the simultaneous reduction of different C pool sizes characterized with
373 various chemical structural complexity with long-term warming. Many previous studies

374 have shown that microorganisms preferentially use the labile C pool for community
375 utilization and turnover after short-term warming (Melillo et al. 2002, Kirschbaum
376 2004). However, after the initial microbial assimilation of readily accessible SOC with
377 warming, soil microorganisms can acclimate to C starvation through utilization of
378 chemical less available C with continued warming (Chen et al. 2020). This
379 transformation in microbial preference of C substrates can be facilitated by changes in
380 C-degrading enzyme activities (Crowther and Bradford 2013).

381 Our results indicated that C-degrading enzymes could play a key role in regulating
382 soil C storage (Figure 5a, 5b), which is in line with previous explanations for continued
383 soil C loss with long-term warming, such as shifts in microbial community and
384 physiology (Melillo et al. 2017, Metcalfe 2017), changes in microbial carbon use
385 efficiency (Tucker et al. 2013), and increased microbial accessibility to litter and SOC
386 (Doetterl et al. 2015, Bailey et al. 2019), which are all closely related to changes in
387 microbial C-degrading enzyme activities. For example, warming decreased the
388 abundance of lignin-derived compounds but increased ligninase activity in a mixed
389 temperate forest (Feng et al. 2008). Although only cellulase activity was measured in
390 our study, a previous meta-analysis study has shown significantly increasing ligninase
391 activity after warming, enhancing the evidence of microbial response to recalcitrant C
392 pools and the evidence of simultaneous loss of different C fractions after long-term
393 warming (Chen et al. 2018b). Microbial utilization of recalcitrant C pools could
394 substantially accelerate overall soil C loss. This is because depolymerization of these
395 recalcitrant macromolecules increases microbial accessibility to litter and SOC that was

396 protected by recalcitrant C pools before (Schmidt et al. 2011, Lehmann and Kleber 2015,
397 Paustian et al. 2016).

398 While N fertilization exerts both direct and indirect impacts on SOC, its influence on
399 carbonates is direct, leading to continuous losses. This not only serves as a source of
400 atmospheric CO₂ (Kim et al., 2020; Raza et al., 2020; Zamanian et al., 2018) but also
401 degrades soil structure and affects physical, chemical, and biological properties (Meng
402 and Li, 2019). Under acidic conditions, this process induces fundamental changes in
403 microbial community composition and enzyme activity critical for SOC stability
404 (Rowley et al., 2020). In ecosystems characterized by N limitation, such as alpine
405 grasslands, N enrichment enhances N availability, accelerating the decomposition of
406 labile organic C, especially in these otherwise C-rich ecosystems. This, in turn, results
407 in decreased soil C availability (Craine et al., 2007; Janssens et al., 2010; Song et al.,
408 2017). A previous study at our research site revealed a significant reduction in the soil
409 labile C pool within the particulate organic C fraction with increasing N enrichment,
410 signifying a decline in soil C availability (Chen et al., 2019). Our findings demonstrate
411 that N enrichment significantly stimulates extracellular enzyme (EnC) activities and
412 enhances microbial demand for C (Figure 2), aligning with prior research indicating
413 that added N stimulates the activity of soil cellulose-degrading enzymes (e.g.,
414 cellobiosidase (CB) and β -glucosidase (BG)) (Carreiro et al., 2000; Saiya-Cork et al.,
415 2002; Chen et al., 2017). This stimulation may be attributed to the increase in C-
416 acquiring enzymes resulting from heightened microbial demand for C, especially in N-
417 limited ecosystems (Keeler et al., 2009). Previous studies suggest that N enrichment

418 could induce C limitation by reducing plant allocation to fine root production, leading
419 to lower C input into the soil (Treseder, 2008). Thus, we propose that factors beyond
420 the thermal environment, such as N enrichment, can modulate soil enzymes and alter
421 substrate availability. Moreover, these processes can mediate the strength of the soil C-
422 climate feedback. Although N enrichment may increase soil C sinks, this increase may
423 be counteracted by warming. In summary, our results suggest that warming and N
424 enrichment have antagonistic interaction effects on SOC stock, with differential effects
425 on the contribution of alpine meadows to the soil C pool, which may explain the result
426 that the N and warming interaction did not show significant direct or indirect effects on
427 SOC storage in the SEM results. All these results underscore the importance of
428 considering soil C availability and enzymatic activity responses, which collectively
429 determine the response of the C balance to multiple environmental changes, for a more
430 comprehensive understanding of C storage dynamics.

431 **5. Conclusion**

432 Based on a 9-year warming (+1.80 °C in the daytime and +0.77 °C in the nighttime
433 at the soil surface) and different level N enrichment experiment (0, 5, 10, and 15 g m⁻²
434 year⁻¹), we examined the responses of SOC stocks and their molecular components in
435 a Tibetan alpine meadow ecosystem. In summary, our results show little effects of soil
436 warming and N enrichment on the chemical composition of bulk soil despite ongoing
437 C loss in the warmed plots of the study site (Figure 2). The SOC molecular structure
438 suggested that the easily decomposable and stabilized SOC are synchronously affected
439 after 9-year warming and N treatments despite the large changes in SOC stocks. Given

440 the long residence time of some SOC (Schmidt et al., 2011), the similar loss of all
441 measurable chemical forms of SOC under global change treatments could have
442 important climate consequences. While we found little effects of soil warming on SOC
443 chemistry and molecular structure of bulk soil, consistent and long lasting changes
444 could appear with prolonged soil warming and decreasing SOC stocks in the following
445 years. In this process, the importance of enzyme activity must be emphasized, which
446 has been found to be an important indirect factor in regulating changes in SOC stocks.
447

448 **Data availability**

449 The data that support the findings of this study and those not presented within the article
450 and its Supplementary Information file are available from [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8289311)
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452 **Author contributions**

453 M.N. developed the original ideas presented in the manuscript; H.S. performed the
454 overall analysis with the assistance from Jintao Li. and Jinquan Li, N. O.; X.L. and S.Z.
455 organized the field experiment; H.S., M.S. and M.N. wrote the first draft, and all authors
456 jointly revised the manuscript.

457 **Competing interests**

458 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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858 **Figure and table legends**

859 **Figure 1.** Elevation map of the studied sites (a, the pentagram refers to the sampling
860 point), photo of the alpine meadow (b) and the diagram of the warming treatment (open-
861 top chamber) (c).

862 **Figure 2.** N and warming-induced changes in the soil properties (mean \pm SE, n = 6).
863 Control (white bar) and warmed plots (black bar) at four different levels of simulated
864 N deposition. N0, N1, N2, and N3 indicate N-enrichments of 0, 5, 10, and 15 g N m⁻²
865 year⁻¹, respectively. Parameters are: Soil pH (a); AGB, aboveground biomass (b); EnC,
866 C-degrading enzymes (c); C/N, ratio of soil C concentration to N concentration (d);
867 MBC, microbial biomass carbon (e); SOC, soil organic carbon stock (f).

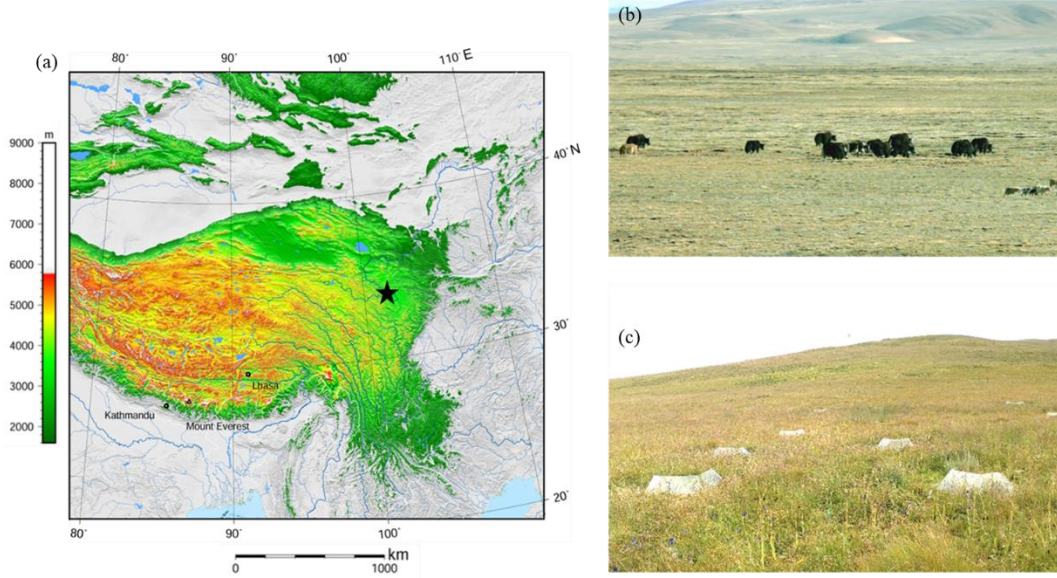
868 **Figure 3.** N and warming-induced changes in the relative abundance of different
869 functional groups identifiable by diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT)
870 spectroscopy in warmed and control plots (mean \pm SE, n = 6). The spectral regions were
871 assigned to aromatic carbonyl/carboxyl C=O groups, aromatic C=C groups, lignin-like
872 residues, and cellulose/phenolic.

873 **Figure 4.** Four different SOC chemical structural complexity indexes (mean \pm SE, n =
874 6) from solid-state ¹³C CPMASNMR spectra of soil samples from different treatments.
875 A/O-A=Alkyl C/O-alkyl C; HB/HI = hydrophobic C/hydrophilic C; Alip/Arom =
876 aliphatic C/aromatic C.

877 **Figure 5.** The factors regulating the SOC stock under (a) N enrichment, (b) warming
878 treatment and (c) interactive effects of N and warming. In the structural equation model
879 (SEM) analysis, black arrows represent significant positive pathways, gray arrows

880 represent significant negative pathways, and gray dashed arrows indicate nonsignificant
881 pathways. Values next to the arrows represent standardized effect sizes with statistical
882 significance ($*P < 0.05$; $**P < 0.01$; $***P < 0.001$). The thickness of the arrow
883 represents the standardized effect sizes. C-degrading enzyme indicate sum of β -D-
884 cellubiosidase (CB), α -glucosidase (AG), β -glucosidase (BG) and β -xylosidase (XYL).
885 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the model are shown as follows: (a), $\chi^2 = 4.53$, $P = 0.53$,
886 GFI = 0.99, RMSEA < 0.001; (b), $\chi^2 = 4.47$, $P = 0.486$, GFI = 0.99, RMSEA < 0.001.
887 **Table 1.** Relative intensities (mean \pm SE, n = 6) of different carbon chemical shifts from
888 solid-state ^{13}C CPMAS NMR spectra of soil samples from N and warming treatments.
889

890 **Figure 1**



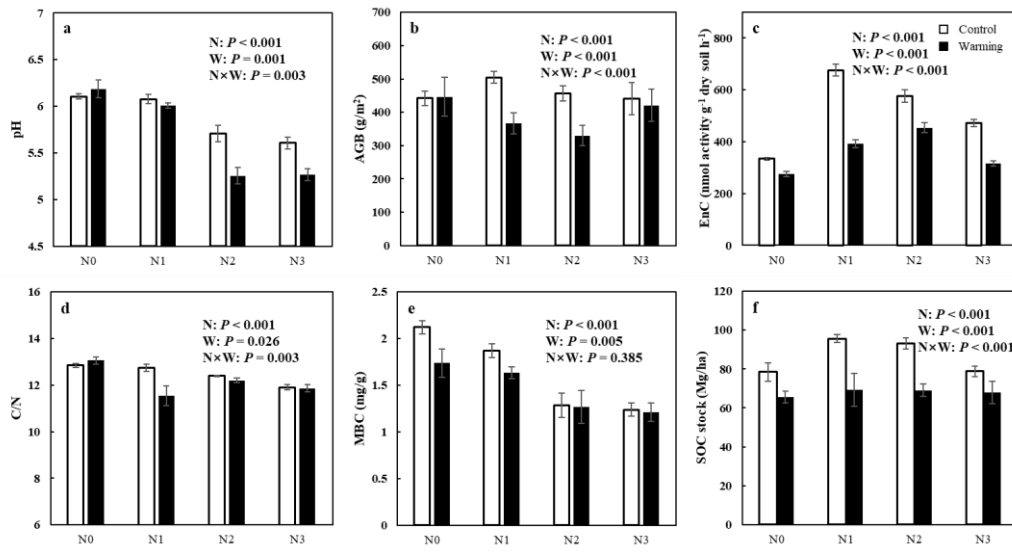
891

892 Note: the map (a) was cited from the Wikimedia Commons website (Tibet and

893 surrounding areas above 1600m, created using the Generic Mapping Tools)

894

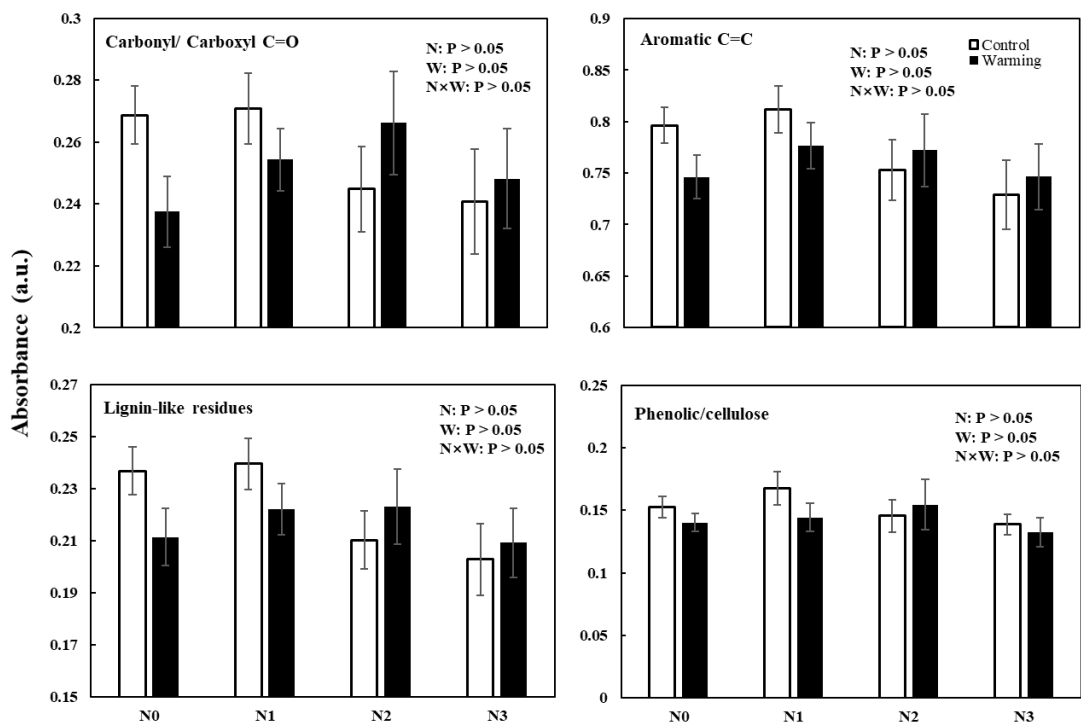
895 **Figure 2**



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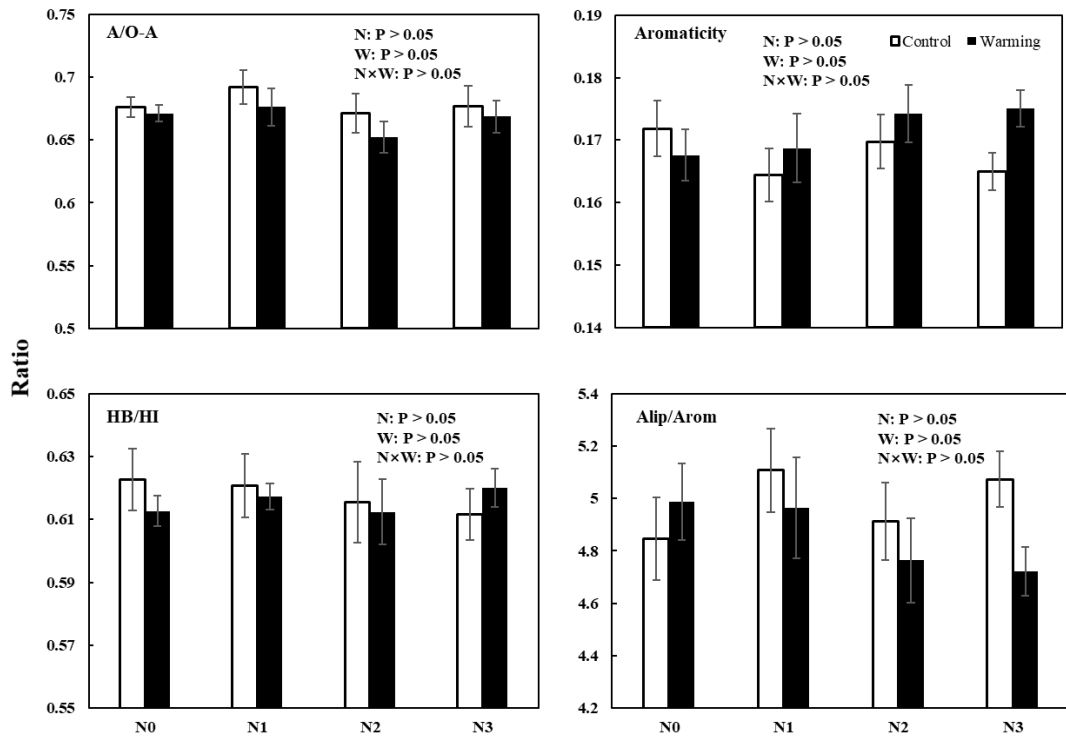
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898 **Figure 3**



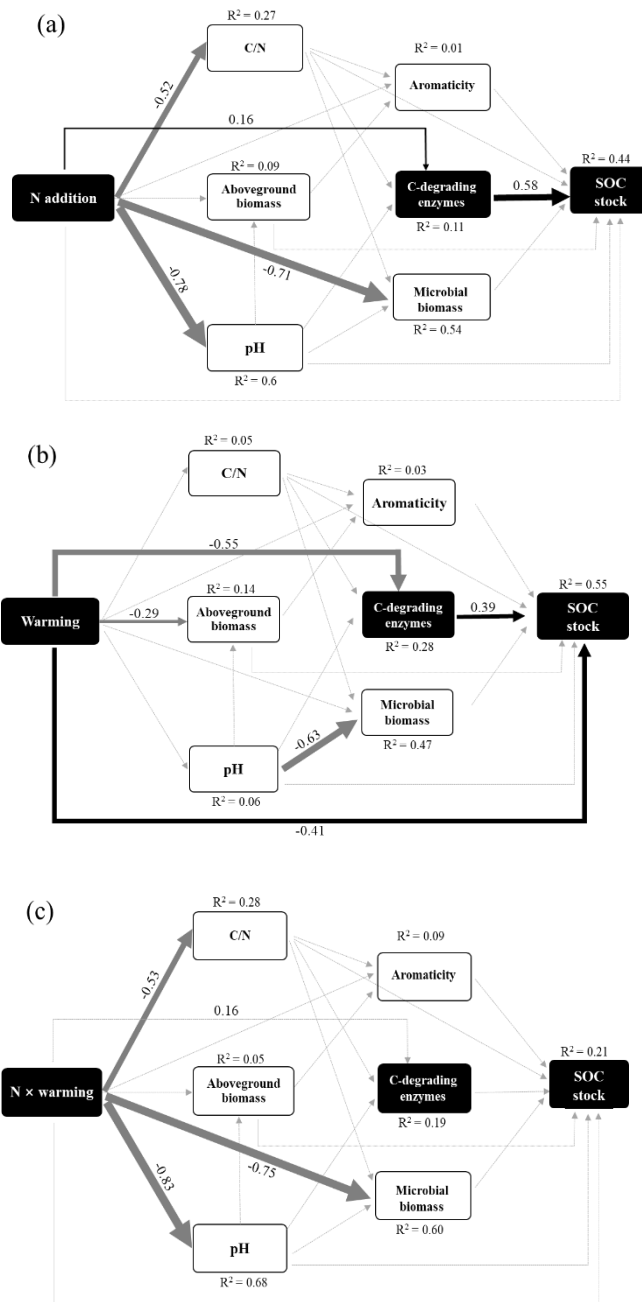
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901 **Figure 4**



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904 **Figure 5**



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Table 1

	Chemical shifts		Treatment			
			N0	N1	N2	N3
¹³ C NMR (%)	Alkyl C (0-45 ppm)	C	22.64±0.15	23.22±0.17	22.55±0.2	22.85±0.32
		W	22.68±0.24	22.75±0.51	22.07±0.26	22.29±0.29
	N-alkyl C (45-60 ppm)	C	10.91±0.09	11.08±0.11	10.82±0.08	10.92±0.1
		W	10.73±0.06	10.6±0.24	10.54±0.08	10.67±0.16
	O-alkyl C (60-90 ppm)	C	33.5±0.35	33.62±0.53	33.67±0.54	33.83±0.47
		W	33.8±0.3	33.65±0.23	33.88±0.45	33.36±0.31
	di-O-alkyl C (90-110 ppm)	C	8.74±0.09	8.65±0.09	8.9±0.13	8.82±0.12
		W	8.88±0.09	9.02±0.11	8.88±0.1	9.02±0.26
	Aromatic C (110-145 ppm)	C	12.25±0.33	11.62±0.26	12.05±0.3	11.45±0.28
		W	11.86±0.36	12.1±0.45	12.34±0.38	12.44±0.21
	Phenolic C (145-165 ppm)	C	3.47±0.1	3.44±0.11	3.47±0.08	3.64±0.05
		W	3.46±0.06	3.32±0.05	3.56±0.07	3.54±0.09
	Carbonyl C (165-210 ppm)	C	8.49±0.1	8.37±0.17	8.54±0.18	8.49±0.3
		W	8.61±0.16	8.57±0.24	8.73±0.14	8.68±0.19