

Increased precipitation enhances the rate of the soil respiration in semi-arid area of the Loess Plateau in China

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Background. Precipitation influences the vulnerability of grassland ecosystems, especially the upland grasslands, and soil respiration is critical for carbon cycling in the arid grassland ecosystem which typically experiences more drought conditions. **Methods.** We used three precipitation treatments to understand the effect of precipitation on soil respiration of a typical steppe in the Loess Plateau in China. Precipitation was captured and relocated to simulate precipitation rates of 50%, 100%, and 150% of ambient precipitation. **Results and Discussion.** Soil moisture was influenced across all precipitation treatments. Shoot increased insignificantly as precipitation increased, however, the increase or decrease of precipitation can significantly reduce the biomass of the root. There was a positive linear relationship between soil moisture and soil respiration in the study area during the summer (July and August), when most precipitation fell. Soil moisture, soil root biomass, pH, and fungal diversity were predictors of soil respiration based on SPLS (partial least squares regression), and soil moisture was the best predictor. **Conclusion .** Our study highlights the importance of increased precipitation on soil respiration in the drylands. Precipitation changes can cause significant alterations in soil properties, microbial fungi, and the root biomass, and the moisture is fed back into the climate, thereby affecting the rate of soil respiration in the future.

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2 **Loess Plateau in China**

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28 **Abstract**

29 **Background.** Precipitation influences the vulnerability of grassland ecosystems, especially the
30 upland grasslands, and soil respiration is critical for carbon cycling in the arid grassland
31 ecosystem which typically experiences more drought conditions.

32 **Methods.** We used three precipitation treatments to understand the effect of precipitation on soil
33 respiration of a typical steppe in the Loess Plateau in China. Precipitation was captured and
34 relocated to simulate precipitation rates of 50%, 100%, and 150% of ambient precipitation.

35 **Results and Discussion.** Soil moisture was influenced across all precipitation treatments. Shoot
36 increased insignificantly as precipitation increased, however, the increase or decrease of
37 precipitation can significantly reduce the biomass of the root. There was a positive linear
38 relationship between soil moisture and soil respiration in the study area during the summer (July
39 and August), when most precipitation fell. Soil moisture, soil root biomass, pH, and fungal
40 diversity were predictors of soil respiration based on SPLS (partial least squares regression), and
41 soil moisture was the best predictor.

42 **Conclusion.** Our study highlights the importance of increased precipitation on soil respiration in
43 the drylands. Precipitation changes can cause significant alterations in soil properties, microbial
44 fungi, and the root biomass, and the moisture is fed back into the climate, thereby affecting the
45 rate of soil respiration in the future.

46 **Introduction**

47 Recent changes in global temperature and precipitation rates have occurred due to the emission
48 of greenhouse gases (Gao et al. 2016). Temperatures are expected to gradually increase in most
49 parts of the world and extremes are anticipated to become more frequent (Garrett et al. 2006).
50 Global warming is expected to cause the atmospheric water vapor to increase significantly and
51 affect the hydrological cycle (O’Gormana & Schneider 2009), impacting global precipitation
52 patterns and causing regional precipitation changes (Pall et al. 2006). The intensity of
53 precipitation events is expected to increase, and extreme precipitation events will occur more
54 frequently according to the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) forecast (IPCC

55 2001).

56 Previous studies have indicated that changes in precipitation affect the dynamics of the
57 terrestrial carbon cycle and terrestrial carbon pools (Ahlström et al. 2015; Felton et al.
58 2019; Frank et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2011). Water is a driving factor for chemical and biological
59 processes in ecosystems, including plant survival, photosynthesis, heterotrophic respiration
60 (Gerten et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2019a), soil nutrient dynamics (Yuan et al. 2017), terrestrial
61 ecosystem functioning (Wu et al. 2009), and microbial activity, diversity, and respiration
62 (Classen et al. 2015; Felton et al. 2019; Frank et al. 2015). Moreover, changes in global
63 precipitation patterns exert profound effects on the vegetation (Gao et al. 2016), especially in
64 arid and semiarid regions where water is the main limiting factor for plant growth (Jing et al.
65 2010; Knapp et al. 2002).

66 Global emissions of CO₂ from soil are considered to be one of the largest causes of flux in the
67 global carbon cycle and small changes in soil respiration may have large impacts on atmospheric
68 CO₂ concentrations (Schlesinger & A. Andrew 2000). Several studies have suggested that soil
69 CO₂ flux is more sensitive to higher temperatures, since roots exudates, root mycorrhizae, plant
70 detritus, and other part of the plant have different temperature sensitivities to fluctuations in soil
71 CO₂ levels (Richard D. Boone et al. 1998). Fluctuations in soil CO₂ strongly impact the
72 terrestrial carbon cycle (Fischlin et al. 2007; Frank et al. 2015). However, we still have a poor
73 understanding of the response of soil respiration as related to climate change (Fernandez et al.
74 2006).

75 Carbon fluxes have recently been studied in alpine meadows and show that only underground
76 biomass and soil moisture have a direct effect on soil respiration (Geng et al. 2012). Studies on
77 tropical forests have shown that changes in soil respiration due to elevation-related changes of
78 roots and litter resulted in the increases of soil respiration (Zimmermann 2010). In arid temperate
79 grasslands, soil respiration has a positive effect on the extreme precipitation events and the
80 ecosystem carbon cycle (Thomey et al. 2011). However, there are few studies on semi-arid
81 ecosystems which are especially sensitive to precipitation change (Niu et al. 2019). Semi-arid

82 areas account for about 15% of the terrestrial area of the globe (Huang et al. 2015). Grasslands
83 play a key role in the carbon cycle (Li et al. 2017;Poulter et al. 2014;Zhang et al. 2019b), while
84 being very sensitive to large-scale climate change (Feng et al. 2006).

85 The upland Loess Plateau in northwestern China is a critical transition zone for ecosystems in
86 China (Zhao et al. 2014). It is predicted that temperature and precipitation will increase
87 significantly in this area (Zhao et al. 2014). We conducted field work to simulate increased and
88 decreased precipitation to explore the factors affecting soil CO₂ flux in semi-arid areas in China.
89 Our study has great scientific and practical implications on the effects of precipitation on soil
90 respiration and plant productivity and their effects on regional and global terrestrial carbon
91 cycles. We sought to evaluate the differences in soil properties, plant biomass, and microbial
92 diversity using different precipitation treatments and different soil depths and to determine the
93 main factors affecting soil respiration in the study area.

94 **Materials & Methods**

95 **Study sites**

96 The study was conducted at the Experimental Station of the Agriculture of Ningxia University
97 (106°21'E-106°27' E, 36°10' N-36°17' N), Yinchuan Province of China, in the Guyuan Yunwu
98 Mountain of Ningxia near the Loess Plateau, at an altitude of 1700- 2148 m. The climate of the
99 area is temperate, continental monsoon. The annual average precipitation is about 439 mm and
100 has varied from 282 mm in 1982 to 706 mm in 2013. More than 50% of the annual precipitation
101 occurs in the summer months (June to August). The average annual temperature is 7.2 °C, and
102 has varied from 5.3 °C in 1984 to 8.7 °C in 2013. The average monthly minimum temperature for
103 the coldest month (January) was -7.2 °C, and the average monthly maximum temperature for the
104 warmest month (July) was 19.6 °C. The annual evaporation is 1300-1640 mm, and the annual
105 duration for sunshine can reach 2500 h, with a frost-free period of 112-140 days. The annual
106 potential evapotranspiration is 1625 mm (meteorological data from the National Meteorological
107 Administration of China from 1981 to 2017). The soils are grey-cinnamon and dark loessial, as
108 classified by the Chinese soil classification system (Office 1998). The vegetation is typical

109 steppe and the main plant species are *Stipa bungeana*, *Artemisia gmelinii*, *Stipa grandis*,
110 *Artemisia frigida*, *Potentilla acaulis* and *Agropyron michnoi*.

111 **Experimental design**

112 Our research site was located near the Loess Plateau, in a semi-arid natural grassland that was
113 left ungrazed for 19 years. The study area was at 2077 m, with a 7-10° slope, and a south-facing,
114 sunny aspect. The annual precipitation in 2019 was 592 mm, which was 20% higher than
115 average. According to local multi-year meteorological data of the study area, the maximum and
116 minimum precipitation were about 50% and 150% of the average annual precipitation. We set
117 three blocks with three 6×6 m plots in each block, to make a total of 9 plots. Rain shelters were
118 set up on three plots to change interfere to intercept with half of the natural precipitation to form
119 a reduced precipitation area (R50), and the actual precipitation of the plots was 50% of the
120 normal precipitation. The intercepted water was piped to the adjacent plot to form an increased
121 precipitation area (R150). The actual precipitation of the plot was 150% of the normal
122 precipitation. The remaining three plots were the controls (R100) and the actual precipitation of
123 the plot was 100% of the normal precipitation. Each rain-shelter was fixed to the ground by steel
124 pillars, and transparent polyethylene plates were fixed in "V" shapes to intercept precipitation
125 and channel it off the plot using the natural slope of the mountain, while forming a stable and
126 well-ventilated structure (Talat & Hema 2019). The intercepted water was piped to the adjacent
127 plot to form the R150 (Fig. 1). Snow was collected from the rain shelters after each snowfall
128 (R50) and was sprinkled evenly into the R150. A 1.2 m deep plastic barrier was used to prevent
129 surface runoff or leakage of soil moisture between plots. The barrier was buried at a depth of 1.1
130 m and projected 10 cm above ground. Our study ran from May 2017 to May 2019.

131 **Environmental factors**

132 We collected field data in July 2019 under three precipitation treatments that corresponded to the
133 annual period of peak biomass. Three soil sample replicates were collected at depths of 0-9.9 cm,
134 10-19.9 cm, and 20-30 cm in each plot, after the litter was discarded. The soil samples were
135 separated into two parts: one part was kept moist to determine the microbial diversity of the soil,

136 and the other was air-dried for measurement of soil properties.

137 Soil organic carbon (SOC) was measured by potassium dichromate-sulfuric acid digestion,
138 with ammonium ferrous sulfate titration. Total nitrogen (TN) was determined using an Elementar
139 analyzer (Elementar, Vario EL III, Germany). Total phosphorus (TP) was measured using
140 Olsen's method (Olsen et al. 1982). The soil pH was measured using a PHS-3C pH audiometer
141 in a 1:5 of fresh soil: water slurry (Huakeyi, Beijing, China).

142 A 1 m² quadrat was randomly selected in each subplot to determine the plant biomass. The
143 litter was raked and bagged and the shoots of the plants were cut. The root biomass (RB) was
144 sampled to a 30 cm depth in three intervals of equal depth and the soil was brushed off the roots.
145 All plant samples were dried at 65°C in an oven for 75 hours and then weighed.

146 Soil microbial diversity was determined based on the Illumina HiSeq sequencing platform of
147 the Majorbio Cloud Platform (www.majorbio.com). The bacterial primer was 338F_806R and
148 the fungal primer was ITS1F ITS2R. Sobs' and Shannon's indices were used to indicate the
149 alpha diversity of bacteria and fungi. Coverage index, as defined by Good (Good 1953) measures
150 how well an environment is sampled, and indicates the percentage of operational taxonomic units
151 (OTUs) sampled in a microbial community (i.e. recovered per sample as a percent of all OTUs
152 found on the site) (Chao 1984;Lemos et al. 2011).

153 **Measurements of soil respiration**

154 Soil respiration (release of CO₂) was measured every 14-16 days by the LI-8100A portable gas
155 exchange system from April 2019 to October 2019 (LiCor, Lincoln NE, USA; chamber 8100-
156 103, diameter of 20 cm). Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) collars were set in place one week before the
157 first measurement to minimize soil disturbance. The height of each collar was 12 cm and the
158 above-ground height was 3 cm, so the soil surface area within the collar was 317.8 cm². Five
159 collars were placed randomly in each plot, giving a total of 45 collars. The above-ground parts of
160 the plants inside the collar were removed before taking each flux reading and the roots were left
161 in place (Talat & Hema 2019). Soil fluxes were measured about every 16 days, between 9 am
162 and 1 pm, based on weather conditions. The flux from each collar was measured for 100 s. Soil

163 moisture was measured at a depth of 5 cm with a GS-1 Licor sensor, and the temperature was
164 measured concurrently at a depth of 10 cm using the Licor sensor 6000-09 TC. To avoid pseudo-
165 replication, the five values per plot were averaged for each variable to get a single datum for
166 each measurement timepoint.

167 **Statistical analysis**

168 Statistical analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS (IBM, Chicago, USA) with ANOVA. One-
169 way ANOVA was used to process the aboveground and underground biomass of plants under
170 different precipitation treatments. A two-way ANOVA was used to process root biomass, soil
171 nutrient content, soil pH, and the microbial diversity index under different precipitation
172 treatments and different soil depths. The microbial diversity was calculated by Mothur (Version
173 v.1.30). Origin (Origin Lab 2017, Microcal, Massachusetts, USA) was used for figures. The
174 different dates formed temporal pseudoreplication, so the significance was explored using nlme
175 (<https://svn.r-project.org/R-packages/trunk/nlme>) in R (R Core Team 2013; Version 3.0.2) for
176 soil temperature, soil moisture, and soil CO₂ flux (using the format `lme: flux ~ Precipitations *
177 Date, random = ~1 | plot, weights = varIdent (form = ~1 | Date)`). The `varIdent` function in
178 package `Predictmeans` v1.0.2 (<https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/predictmeans>) was
179 used to allow each timepoint to have a different variance. Package `ggplot2`
180 (<https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/ggplot2>) was used for analyzing the correlating
181 relationships of soil CO₂ flux and all other factors to filter some variables. SPLS
182 (<http://mixomics.org/methods/spls/>) analysis was used to select normal variables to provide the
183 main influencing factors of the soil CO₂ flux prediction model. Stepwise regression was used to
184 establish a model of the main factors affecting soil respiration.

185

186 **Results**

187 **Precipitation and temperature during the trial**

188 The annual precipitation was 420 mm, 550 mm, and 592 mm in 2017-2019. In 2018 and 2019
189 precipitation was 30% higher than the average level of precipitation for the last 40 years.

190 Precipitation in 2019 from April to October (the growing season), was 562 mm, which was about
191 95% of the annual precipitation (Fig. 2). The average annual air temperature was 7.9 °C in 2019,
192 which was 9% higher than the average temperatures from 1980 to 2019. The highest temperature
193 was 19.7 °C in July, and the lowest was -6.6 °C in January in 2019 (Fig. 2).

194 **Soil properties**

195 Two-way ANOVA results showed that, except for TP, other soil properties had significant
196 differences under precipitation treatments and different soil depths, respectively ($P < 0.05$). The
197 precipitation treatment*soil depth only caused significant differences in soil SOC. The rest of the
198 soil properties had their highest value under R100 in soil 0-30 cm deep (Table 1), with the
199 exception of the soil TP. SOC decreased the most under R50 (23%) as the depth of the soil layer
200 increased, followed by R100 (18%) and R150 (14%). SOC at R50 increased just 1% in the
201 topsoil (0-9.9 cm) and decreased about 6% in soil depths of 20-30 cm, compared with R100,
202 while R150 had same value with R100 in 20-30 cm soil depths but decreased about 3% in 0-9.9
203 cm soil depths. As the depth of the soil layer increased, the soil pH gradually increased. Soil TN
204 and SOC were the highest in the topsoil (0-9.9 cm), and decreased with soil depth.

205 **Biomass of shoot, litter and root**

206 There was no significant difference in shoot, litter, and total biomass (TB) under different
207 precipitation treatments according to one-way ANOVA results ($P > 0.05$). Shoot biomass was
208 largest in R150, and decreased with the decrease of precipitation. Litter biomass was greatest in
209 R50. Root biomass (RB) 0-30 cm showed significant differences between precipitation
210 treatments according to one-way ANOVA ($P < 0.05$), with R100 having the most root biomass,
211 and R150 and R50 being significantly lower by 52% and 65%, respectively (Fig. 3A). The total
212 biomass (TB = sum of shoots, litter, and RB 0-30) under R50 was lower than R100 and R150.
213 The shoot/root ratio (AGB/RB), was largest in R150, and was significantly lower by 64% in
214 R100 ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 3B).

215 Different precipitation treatments and soil depths caused significant differences in root
216 biomasses according to two-way ANOVA ($P < 0.05$). The interaction between the two factors

217 (precipitation * soil depth) also caused the root biomass to differ significantly ($P < 0.05$). All
218 values decreased as the soil depth deepens (Fig. 4). The highest value of root biomass appeared
219 at 0-9.9 cm in R100; R50 and R150 at 0-9.9 cm were significantly lower by 68% and 57%,
220 respectively. Increased precipitation and reduced precipitation significantly reduced the root
221 biomass in the topsoil (0-9.9 cm) (Fig. 4).

222 **Microbial richness and diversity**

223 More than 95% of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) found in the microbial community at the
224 study site were present in each soil sample examined. There was no significant difference in soil
225 microbial richness via Sobs' index and diversity via Shannon's index under different precipitation
226 treatments and precipitation*soil depth ($P > 0.05$). However, there was a significant difference in
227 soil microbial richness and diversity with soil depth ($P < 0.05$), and the difference was greatest at
228 0-9.9 cm (Table 2). The Sobs' index and Shannon index of bacteria and fungi gradually
229 decreased as soil depth increased.

230 **Soil moisture, soil temperature and soil CO₂ flux**

231 Soil moisture, soil temperature and soil CO₂ flux showed significant differences between
232 precipitation treatments over the entire experimental period (April - October) (Table 3).
233 Measurements over the growing season also differed significantly for all varieties and were
234 significantly affected by precipitation levels ($P < 0.05$) (Table 3).

235 Soil moisture and CO₂ flux were greater at higher levels of precipitation while soil
236 temperature was lower (Table 4). The response of soil moisture to decreased precipitation (-37.2 %
237 of R100) was greater than to increased precipitation (3.9 % of R100). Mean soil CO₂ flux under
238 R100 was higher by 38.9 % than that for R50, while for R150 the increase relative to R100 was
239 only 8.3 % (Table 4).

240 All variables (soil moisture, soil temperature and soil CO₂ flux) were strongly influenced by
241 seasonality (Table 3). Soil moisture was highest in April and May, then dropped and rose again
242 in October. They had moderate levels in July and a “W”-shaped relationship with time. Soil
243 temperatures peaked in summer (June-August). The soil CO₂ flux showed an upward trend from

244 April to July, and peaked before decreasing to its lowest levels in October (Table 5).

245 Soil moisture was typically greater in R150, with the exception of April and September (Fig.
246 5A). The highest soil temperature values were typically seen in R50 (Table 4), but it reversed in
247 June and July (Fig. 5B), when precipitation was high in the summer (Fig. 2). Normal levels of
248 precipitation were re-established in August, the period of maximum precipitation (Fig. 5B).

249 Overall, the soil temperature first rose and then decreased with the date of record.

250 Soil CO₂ flux showed the same trends as soil moisture for most months. The soil CO₂ flux was
251 lower at the lower end of the precipitation gradient and was highest at R150 and lowest at R50.
252 However, across the summer months, from early May to early July, the soil CO₂ flux with
253 enhanced precipitation was lower in R150 than R50 and R100 (Fig 5C). Precipitation had little
254 effect on soil CO₂ flux in the autumn month of October.

255 **Modeling soil CO₂ flux**

256 Based on the results of the correlation analysis (Fig. S1), one of the normally distributed and
257 strongly correlated factors was selected for SPLS analysis. SPLS analysis (Fig. S2) showed that
258 the factors most closely correlated with soil respiration were soil moisture, RB 0-9.9, RB 10-19.9,
259 soil pH, and fungal diversity. We used stepwise regression to filter out the best model of the
260 main factors affecting soil respiration. Our results showed that soil moisture was the only input
261 factor and significantly affected soil CO₂ flux ($P < 0.001$, $R = 0.94$, adjust $R^2=0.870$), all other
262 variables were excluded (Table 6).

263 **Discussion**

264 Soil organic carbon (SOC), total nitrogen (TN) and pH were significantly different in three
265 precipitation treatments. Soil SOC, TN, and pH had the highest value in R100, and increased and
266 decreased precipitation reduced these soil parameters. Nutrients in the soil can accumulate
267 through the degradation of plants, litter, and root secretions (Qiu et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2016).
268 Our study showed that different precipitation treatments had no significant impact on shoots and
269 litter, but there was a significant effect on the root biomass. Increases and decreases in
270 precipitation also significantly reduced the root biomass in the study area, and were significantly

271 higher in R100, especially in the topsoil (0-9.9cm). Changes in precipitation may influence a
272 plant's growth as related to the balanced growth hypothesis. Plant will preferentially distribute
273 the obtained water to the root and in low-moisture areas, the proportion of plant roots that obtain
274 moisture is higher than other parts of the plant (Talat & Hema 2019). Therefore, soil properties
275 under different precipitation treatments may be more affected by the root biomass. Root
276 decomposition and the secretion of roots will cause differences in various precipitation
277 treatments, and will affect the SOC, TN and pH. We found that as precipitation decreased in the
278 study area, the water requirements for grass growth were not met. Therefore, the root biomass
279 was significantly lower than in instances of normal precipitation. As precipitation increased, the
280 root biomass was higher in R150 than R50 and R100, but was not significantly different and the
281 root biomass was significantly lower in R150 than in R100. This may be due to the vegetation's
282 own growth strategy when dealing with changes in precipitation. The soil microbial diversity and
283 richness index were unresponsive to the three precipitation treatments, but were responsive to
284 different soil depths. Previous studies have suggested that when available water is manifested,
285 there is a positive correlation in the richness and diversity of the community in the ecological
286 process (Hawkins et al. 2003). However, this rule does not necessarily apply to soil
287 microorganisms since available water is not directly correlated with the diversity of all
288 organisms (Bachar et al. 2010), and it is determinant by isolation of microbial populations in
289 soils (Treves et al. 2003). In addition, short-term precipitation changes have little effect on
290 microbial diversity. Study also showed that one-year precipitation changes and the two-year
291 precipitation changes did not interfere with microbial diversity (Wang et al. 2020). Soil moisture,
292 soil temperature, and soil respiration showed significant seasonal differences under different
293 precipitations throughout the experiment. Soil moisture and soil respiration increased with the
294 precipitation gradient, but soil temperature showed the opposite downward trend. Soil
295 temperature may be affected by the surface vegetation coverage (S. Kang 2000), which increases
296 with increasing precipitation. Areas with higher vegetation coverage have more vegetation
297 canopy that intercepts solar radiation and reduces evaporation, thus lower soil temperature and

298 the temperature of the local microclimate. The plant biomass is lowest in R50, which had the
299 largest area of bare land and experienced more evaporation from the bare soil. Water also has a
300 higher specific heat volume and the treatments with more soil water would likely have a lower
301 soil temperature.

302 The change of soil temperature reflected the atmospheric temperature in the study area but the
303 highest soil temperature did not correspond when the atmospheric temperature was the highest
304 and more precipitation had a weakening effect on the soil temperature. Temperature regulates
305 soil respiration by changing the rate at which organisms process carbon and nutrients (Crowther
306 & Bradford 2013). Studies on the effect of temperature changes on soil respiration indicate that
307 the temperature sensitivity of soil respiration will decrease under continuous global warming
308 (Peng et al. 2009). Our study showed there was no significant correlation between soil
309 respiration and soil temperature during vigorous plant growth, which may be related to the length
310 of our study. Therefore, changes in soil temperature have limited effects on soil respiration. In
311 addition, an increasing number of studies showed that soil respiration responds more strongly to
312 precipitation pulses rather than soil temperature in arid regions limited by water (Almagro et al.
313 2009).

314 Changes in soil moisture content and precipitation were not closely correlated, but showed
315 high values in spring and autumn and trended in a "W" shape. Melting snow in the spring
316 replenishes the soil moisture, and lower evapotranspiration keeps the soil moist. High
317 evapotranspiration in the study area produced no peak of soil moisture and limits growth, even
318 though precipitation is higher in summer. Precipitation events in water-limited areas usually only
319 affect the topsoil and are easily lost by direct evaporation (Schwinning & Sala 2004), which
320 negates soil moisture gains. Soil moisture accumulated as air temperature and evapotranspiration
321 losses were decreased in autumn (September to November) (Felton et al. 2019; Maes & Steppe
322 2012; Wang et al. 2013). We found that soil moisture under increased precipitation was
323 significantly higher and then decreased, which may be caused by the soil permeability and
324 evaporation. Literature has indicated that the non-negligible factors affecting soil moisture

325 include soil permeability, surface runoff, evaporation, and evapotranspiration (Wang et al. 2012).
326 We found that surface run-off could be ignored with the use of a plastic barrier with an
327 underground depth of 110 cm and a ground height of 10 cm. A better root system can improve
328 soil permeability, aeration, and porosity (Ozalp et al. 2016). The greater root biomass in R100
329 resulted in improved soil permeability, moisture storage, and increased humidity. The
330 aboveground biomass under increased precipitation and high plant coverage can have an
331 increased blocking effect on soil moisture evaporation before it decreases. More roots and above-
332 ground biomass may lead to more water absorption and evapotranspiration by plants. However,
333 we found that the above-ground biomass had no significant effect related to precipitation, and
334 more roots appeared in R100. Therefore, the vegetation of R150's evaporative utilization of
335 water was lesser due to several factors and R150 held the most soil moisture.

336 Soil moisture is one of the main environmental factors affecting soil CO₂ flux. Soil moisture
337 affects the physiological performance of microorganisms and nutrient diffusion (Curiel Yuste et
338 al. 2007), especially in arid areas with limited water conditions (Emmett et al. 2004; Lellei-
339 Kovács et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2010). Soil respiration is affected by soil moisture (Balogh et al.
340 2011) and has a clear threshold of soil moisture content for soil respiration. Our study suggested
341 that the total soil CO₂ flux in R150 was higher than in R50 throughout the test period, but in
342 April, June, and July when the soil moisture content was higher than in other months, the soil
343 CO₂ flux of R150 was almost equal to or slightly below R50. In arid areas that lack atmospheric
344 precipitation, the soil moisture content has a greater impact on soil respiration. An increase in
345 atmospheric precipitation and soil moisture replenishment from ice and snow melt caused the
346 soil moisture in R50 to reach the maximum threshold of soil moisture for soil respiration in the
347 study area. Increased precipitation produced little or no effect on soil respiration.

348 Multiple regression analysis showed that soil moisture was the best predictor of soil
349 respiration. Other factors included root biomass, pH, and fungal Shannon diversity based on
350 SPLS. There was a significant positive linear correlation between soil moisture and soil
351 respiration throughout the plant growth period as shown by stepwise regression, with the

352 strongest correlation at the end of July ($R^2 = 0.87$). In the arid research area which is limited by
353 water, an ecological environment with concentrated and heavy precipitation events can greatly
354 stimulate soil respiration (Liu et al. 2016). Heavy precipitation played a decisive role in soil
355 respiration during the concentrated precipitation period in the arid area. This effect is commonly
356 found in arid and semi-arid regions with limited water conditions (Emmett et al. 2004;Lellei-
357 Kovács et al. 2011;Sowerby et al. 2008;Zhang et al. 2010).

358 Soil respiration is the comprehensive result of autotrophic respiration mainly based on root
359 activity and heterotrophic respiration related to soil organic matter decomposition (Wang et al.
360 2014). Drought can reduce the diffusion of organic matter substrates and extracellular enzyme
361 activities, thereby inhibiting root growth and microbial activity (Liu et al. 2016) and impacting
362 heterotrophic respiration. Our research shows that soil root biomass and fungi can affect soil
363 respiration. Our study area was confined to an arid area, which limits its broader applications.
364 Future climate change in precipitation may be mostly concentrated in a series of ecosystem
365 responses caused by decreased precipitation and repeated samples should be taken in R50.

366 **Conclusions**

367 In summary, our research showed that seasonal precipitation changes caused significant seasonal
368 changes in soil moisture, soil temperature, and soil respiration during the whole plant growing
369 season in the study area. Increased and decreased precipitation reduced the root biomass of
370 plants and increased the AGB/RB. Changes in precipitation significantly affected soil nutrients
371 (SOC, TN and pH) at depths of 0-30 cm. Soil microbial diversity and richness were not sensitive
372 to the response of precipitation changes, but were significantly affected by soil depths.

373 Additionally, in arid grassland ecosystems where water is the limiting factor, soil moisture is the
374 main factor affecting soil respiration.

375 **Acknowledgements**

376 We thank all reviewers for their comments on the manuscript. We acknowledge all our team
377 members for their help with field experiments.

378

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525

Figure 2

Monthly precipitation at the study site from 2017 to 2019 (bars) and average monthly temperature (T2019) in 2019 (black line and points).

Notes. Meteorological data were obtained from the National Meteorological Administration of China.

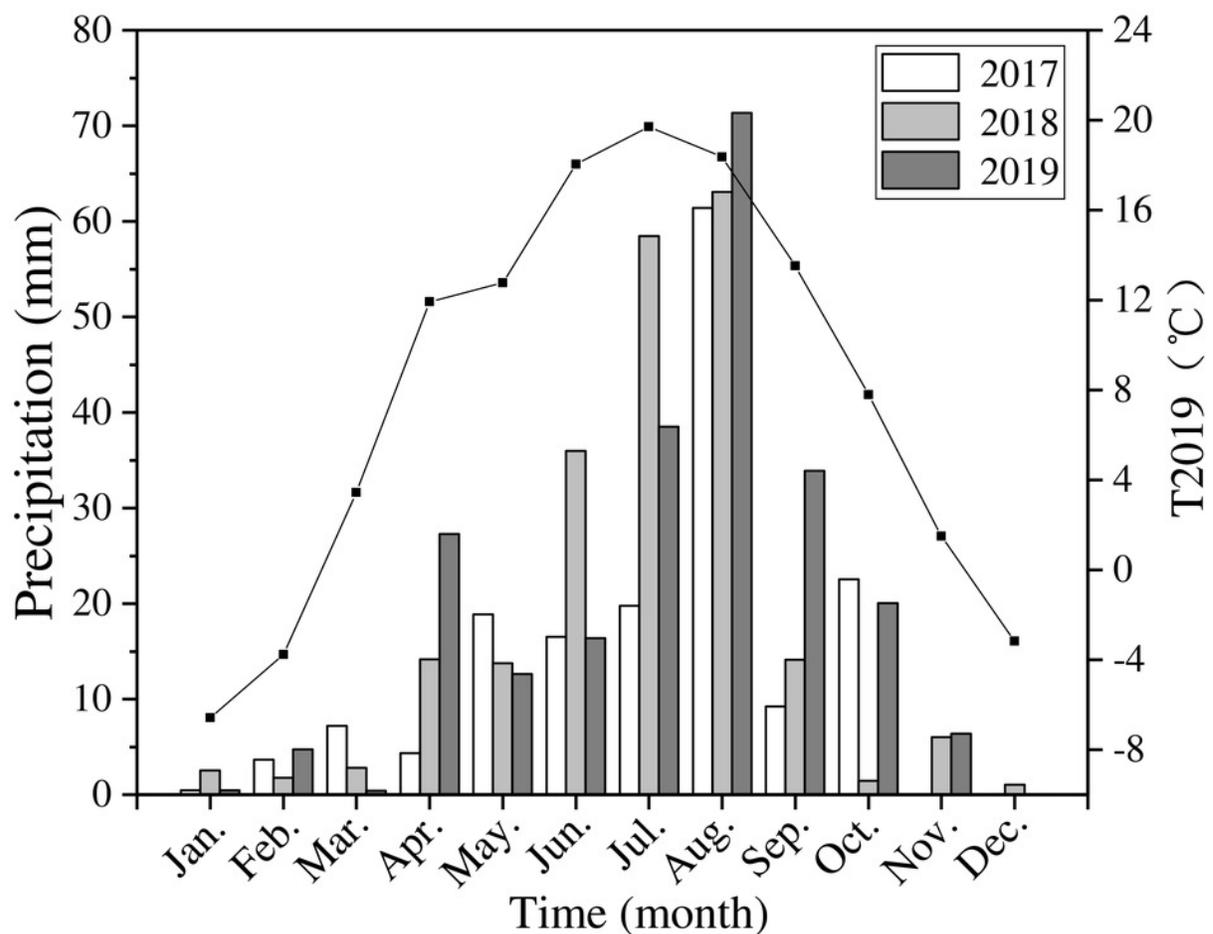


Figure 3

Biomass of shoot, litter, roots, total biomass (TB) and shoot/root ratio (AGB/RB) for each precipitation.

Notes. Different letters within each tissue type show significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between precipitation treatments according to one-way ANOVA (mean \pm standard error, $n = 3$). Shoot, litter, roots and total biomass use left the Y axis, and AGB/RB the right.

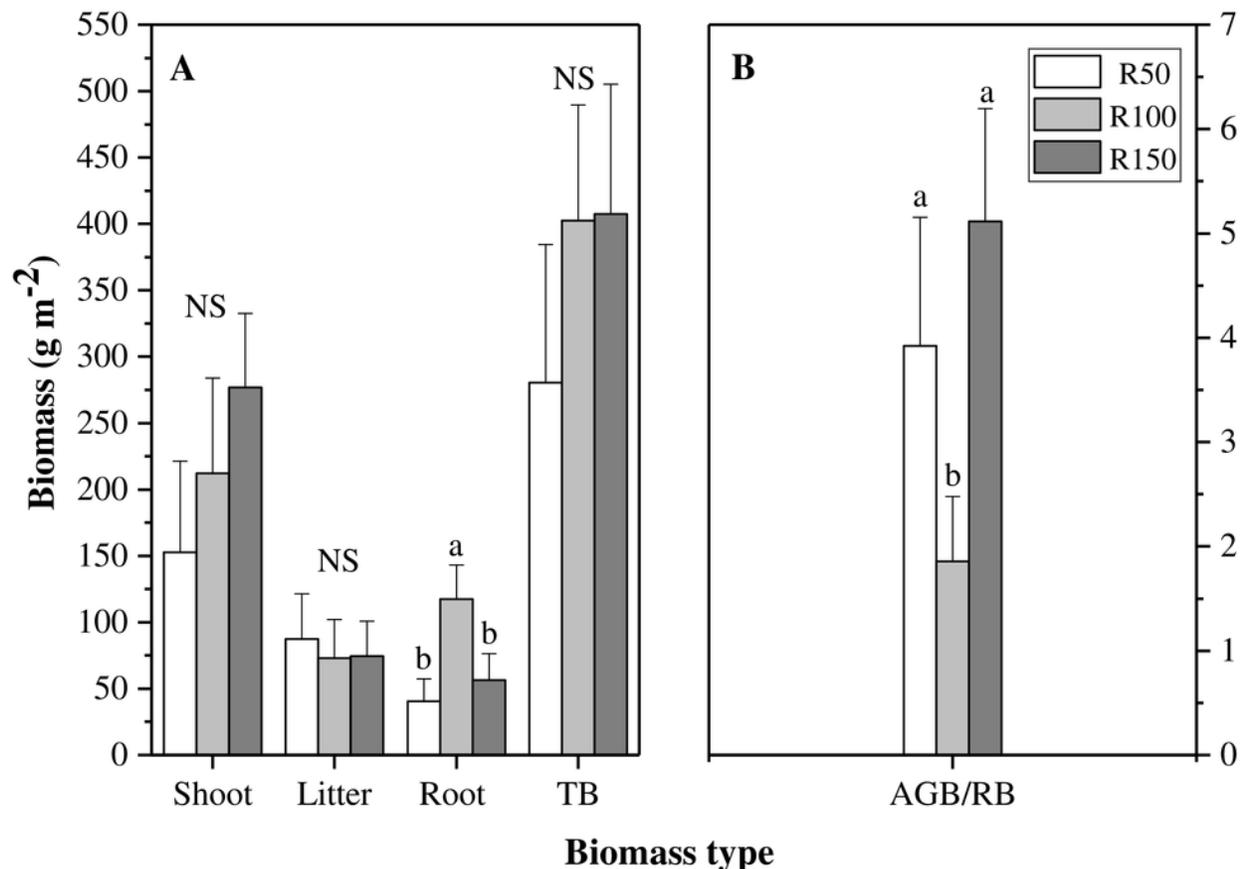


Figure 4

Root biomass at different soil depths in three precipitation treatments.

Notes. Different letters show significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between precipitation treatments and soil depths according to two-way ANOVA (mean \pm standard error, $n=3$).

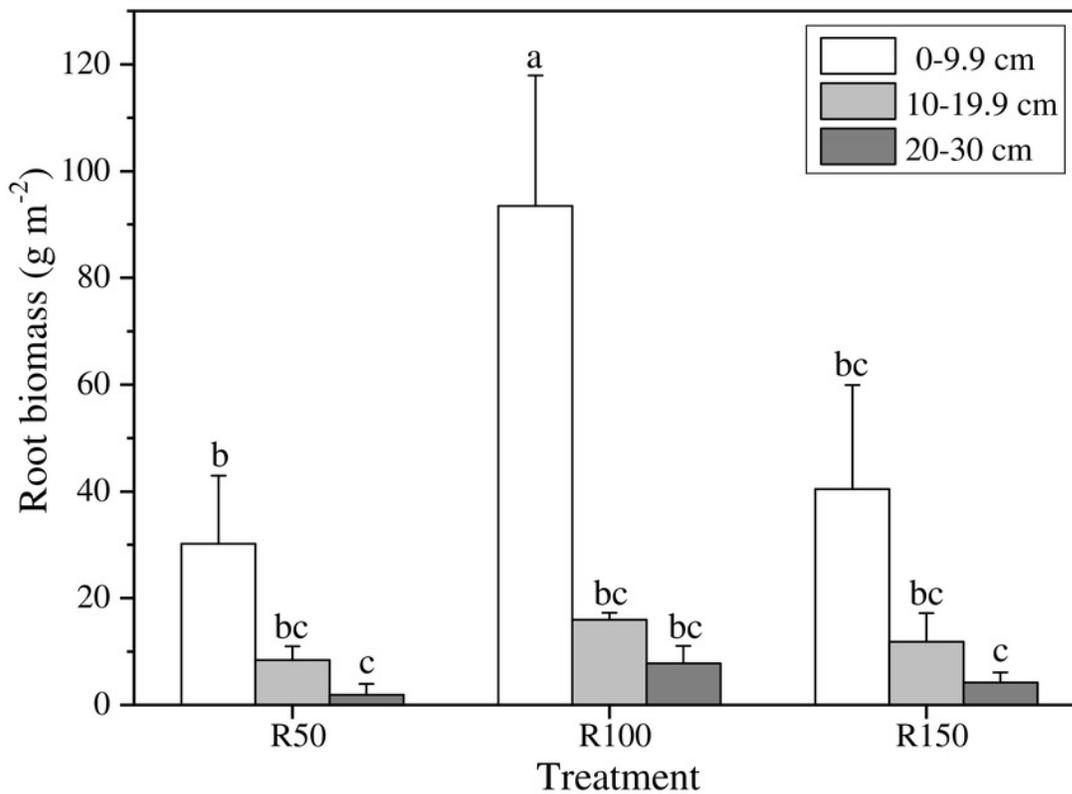


Figure 5

Interactions of precipitation treatments and times for soil moisture, soil temperature and soil CO₂ flux during the growing season.

Notes. Values are the mean \pm standard error (n=3). There are three precipitation treatments, and each treatment has three repetitions. The whole test period is repeated for 11 times.

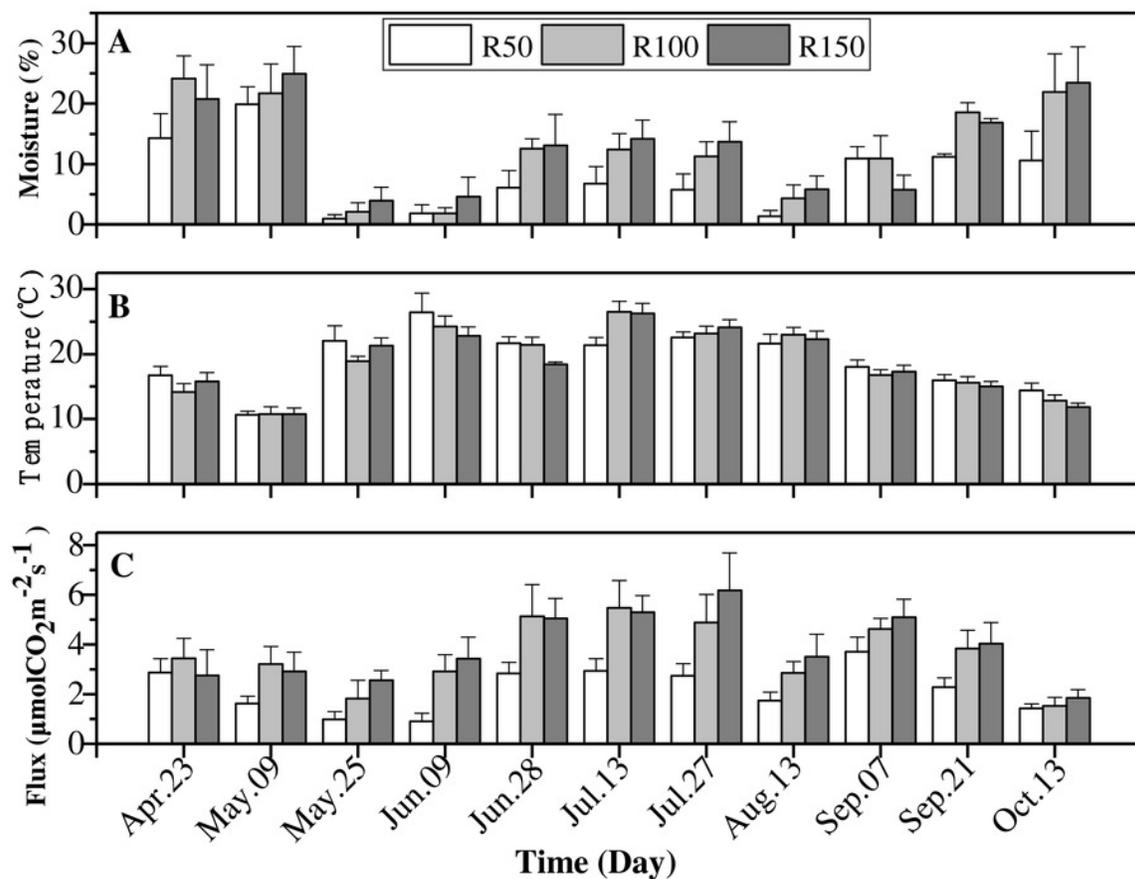


Table 1 (on next page)

Soil nutrient content and soil pH in different precipitation treatments and soil depths.

Notes. Pre=Precipitation; SD=soil depth; SD1=soil depth 0-9.9cm; SD2=soil depth 10-19.9cm; SD3=soil depth 20-30cm; Pre* SD= Precipitation * soil depth . Values are mean \pm standard error (n = 3).^{a-b}Means in a row without a common superscript letter differ ($P < 0.05$) as analyzed by two-way ANOVA.

Variable	R50			R100			R150			P-Value		Pre*
	SD1	SD2	SD3	SD1	SD2	SD3	SD1	SD2	SD3	Pre	SD	
TN (g kg ⁻¹)	2.3 ± 0.1 a	2.1 ± 0.1 b	1.9 ± 0.1 b	2.4 ± 0.0a	2.1 ± 0.0b	2.1 ± 0.1b	2.3 ± 0.1a	2.0 ± 0.1b	2.0 ± 0.0b	0.041	0.000	0.253
SOC (g kg ⁻¹)	8.1 ± 0.1a	6.1 ± 0.3bc	6.2 ± 0.2c	8.0 ± 0.0 a	7.0 ± 0.1 b	6.6 ± 0.3 bc	7.7 ± 0.3 a	6.8 ± 0.2bc	6.6 ± 0.3bc	0.045	0.000	0.049
TP (g kg ⁻¹)	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.231	0.687	0.213
pH	7.8 ± 0.1ab	7.8 ± 0.1ab	7.9 ± 0.1ab	7.8 ± 0.1 ab	8.0 ± 0.2a	8.1 ± 0.1a	7.7 ± 0.1b	7.9 ± 0.1 ab	8.0 ± 0.2 ab	0.022	0.003	0.626

Table 2 (on next page)

Alpha diversity of bacteria and fungi under different precipitation treatments and soil depths.

Notes. Pre=Precipitation; SD=soil depth; SD1=soil depth 0-9.9cm; SD2=soil depth 10-19.9cm; SD3=soil depth 20-30cm; B=Bacteria; F=Fungi; Community richness (Sobs' index), community diversity (Shannon's index) and community coverage (of OTUs) of bacteria and fungi under different precipitation treatments and soil depths. Different letters show significantly different values between depths within each precipitation as analyzed by two-way ANOVA ($P < 0.05$).

Variables	R50			R100			R150			P-Value	
	SD1	SD2	SD3	SD1	SD2	SD3	SD1	SD2	SD3	Pre	SD
B_Sobs	2529a	2183b	2037 bc	2615 a	2157 b	2024 bc	2530 a	2222 b	1880 c	0.46	0.00
B_Shannon	6.7 ab	6.3 d	6.2 d	6.7 a	6.4 cd	6.2 d	6.6 abc	6.4 bcd	6.2d	0.44	0.00
B_Coverage (%)	96.0	96.4	96.5	95.8	96.4	96.6	95.8	96.3	96.9	0.82	0.01
F_Sobs	725ab	528 abcd	491bcd	755a	458 cd	414 cd	632 abc	490bcd	352 d	0.11	0.00
F_Shannon	4.3 ab	3.4 ab	3.3 ab	4.5 ab	4.0 ab	3.2 b	4.7 a	3.8 ab	3.7 ab	0.33	0.00
F_Coverage (%)	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	0.02	0.00

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Table 3(on next page)

ANOVAs for soil temperature, soil moisture and soil CO₂ flux between precipitation treatments and dates during the whole experimental period.

Notes. num DF: number of degrees of freedom; den DF: the number of degrees of freedom associated with the model errors.

	numDF	denDF	Soil moisture		Soil temperature		Soil CO ₂ flux	
			F-value	<i>P</i> -value	F-value	<i>P</i> -value	F-value	<i>P</i> -value
Intercept	1	60	822.1	<0.0001	17856	<0.0001	1626.0	<0.0001
Precipitations	2	6	42.7	0.0003	5.4	0.046	55.9	0.0001
Dates	10	60	414.5	<0.0001	348.0	<0.0001	156.7	<0.0001
Precipitations * Dates	20	60	14.8	<0.0001	8.0	<0.0001	9.7	<0.0001

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Table 4(on next page)

Precipitation treatments differences for soil moisture, soil temperature and soil CO₂ flux over the whole experimental period.

Notes. Values are the mean \pm standard error (n=3). There are three precipitation treatments, and each treatment has three repetitions. The whole test period is repeated for 11 times. Different letters show significantly different between precipitation treatments ($P < 0.05$).

Precipitations	R50	R100	R150
Mean soil moisture (%)	8.1 ± 2.3 b	12.9 ± 2.9 ab	13.4 ± 3.5 a
Mean soil temperature (°C)	19.2 ± 1.3 a	18.9 ± 1.1 a	18.7 ± 1.1 a
Mean soil CO ₂ flux (μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	2.2 ± 0.4 b	3.6 ± 0.8 ab	3.9 ± 0.8 a

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Table 5 (on next page)

Seasonal differences in soil moisture, temperature and CO₂ flux among all precipitation treatments.

Notes. Values are the mean \pm standard error (n=3).

Date	Soil moisture (%)	Soil temperature (°C)	Soil CO ₂ flux (μmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
Apr.23	19.7 ± 4.5	15.6 ± 1.3	3.02 ± 0.8
May.09	22.2 ± 4.1	10.7 ± 0.9	2.58 ± 0.6
May.25	2.3 ± 1.4	20.8 ± 1.4	1.78 ± 0.5
Jun.09	2.8 ± 1.9	24.5 ± 2.0	2.41 ± 0.6
Jun.28	10.6 ± 3.2	20.5 ± 0.9	4.33 ± 0.8
Jul.13	11.1 ± 2.9	24.7 ± 1.5	4.56 ± 0.8
Jul.27	10.2 ± 2.8	23.3 ± 1.1	4.59 ± 1.1
Aug.13	3.8 ± 1.8	22.3 ± 1.2	2.69 ± 0.6
Sep.07	9.2 ± 2.7	17.4 ± 0.9	4.48 ± 0.6
Sep.21	15.5 ± 0.9	15.5 ± 0.9	3.38 ± 0.7
Oct.13	18.7 ± 5.7	13.0 ± 0.9	1.59 ± 0.3

Table 6 (on next page)

Predicting the model of soil CO₂ flux according to Stepwise regression.

Notes. It based on soil moisture and the most informative factors from the July measurements of each of the sets of soil properties, plant factors and soil microbial diversity (Shannon index) in three precipitation treatments.

1 **Table 6 Stepwise regression to predict the main factors affecting soil respiration**

Input variable	excluded Variables	R	Adjust R ²	Sig	Durbin-Watson
Soil moisture	RB 0-9.9cm, RB 0-9.9cm, Soil pH, Soil fungal diversity	0.941	0.870	0.00	2.727
Model	Soil CO ₂ flux = 0.35 + 0.42 Soil moisture				

2