1	No solid evidence of soil carbon loss under warming in tropical
2	forests along a 3000 m elevation gradient
3	Running head: SOC under warming in tropical forests
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9	Keywords: Soil carbon composition, soil translocation, chemical fractions, ¹³ C NMR
10	spectroscopy, tropical forest, warming
11	Abstract
12	Soil organic carbon (SOC) decomposition is inherently sensitive to temperature. As such, a
13	big concerning is the potential SOC loss under climatic warming, but field empirical
14	evidences are lacking, particularly in tropical forest soils in which ~10% of global SOC is
15	stored. Recently Nottingham et al. (2019) assessed the data collected from a novel
16	experiment translocating soils across a 3000 m tropical forest elevation gradient to mimic
17	temperature changes in situ, and concluded that warming caused considerable SOC loss.
18	However, this conclusion was based on a metric with a strong assumption that soil cores
19	translocated to other elevations on average had the same initial SOC content to control soil
20	cores reinstalled at their original elevation. Because of limited replicates $(n = 3)$ in the data, and
21	approach ignoring spatial heterogeneity of SOC content may undermine the credibility of the
22	results. Here, we used a nonparametric bootstrap approach to re-analyze the data, explicitly
23	taking data variability into account. Contrary to Nottingham et al. (2019), we found that SOC

24 content did not show significant differences among translocated soils from the same elevation origin. Further looking into six chemical fractions determined by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy 25 26 shown that they had similar, insignificant response to translocation-induced temperature 27 changes, which also does not support the conclusion of Nottingham et al (2019) that labile 28 SOC is more sensitive to warming. We concluded that temperature changes did not 29 significantly alter either total SOC content or its six chemical fractions after five years of 30 shift of temperature regimes in tropical forests. This may largely due to thermal adaptation of 31 microbial decomposition and environmental constrains (e.g., low pH) which suppress the 32 effect of temperature changes. Longer term experiment with more sampling replicates are 33 required to maximize the value of soil translocation experiments to address the effect of 34 warming on SOC dynamics.

35 Introduction

36 Soil organic carbon (SOC) pool in tropical forest soils accounts for ~40% of SOC stock in 37 global forests (Pan et al., 2011) and ~10% in global soils (Batjes, 2016; Le Quere et al., 2016). 38 As the inherent temperature sensitivity of SOC decomposition (Davidson & Janssens, 2006), 39 it is vital to understand how SOC in tropical forests responds to climatic warming. Earth 40 system models usually predict SOC loss under warming including in tropical forest soils, 41 rising a big concern of positive SOC loss - climatic warming feedbacks (Allison, Wallenstein, 42 & Bradford, 2010). Nevertheless, there are no solid, consistent empirical evidences to prove 43 those model projections. Results from field warming experiments are inconclusive; the 44 effects of warming on SOC balance are observed to be positive, neutral or negative, 45 depending on study-specific ecosystems, experimental manipulation (such as duration), local 46 soil and climatic conditions, and other confounding factors (e.g., Sistla et al., 2013; Pries, 47 Castanha, Porras, & Torn, 2017; and two data syntheses by Crowther et al., 2016 and van 48 Gestel et al., 2018). A 26-year soil warming experiment at Harvard forest (a temperate forest)

indeed observed three multiyear phases of soil microbial respiration: from the first phase of
decreasing respiration, to the second phase of stable respiration, to the third phase of
increasing respiration, due to changes in substrate availability and microbial community
functioning (Melillo et al., 2017). In tropics, the data is particularly lacking (Crowther et al.,
2016; van Gestel et al., 2018), inhibiting our understanding and quantification of the fate of
SOC under climatic warming in tropical areas.

55 By conducting a field experiment in tropical forests, recently Nottingham et al. (2019) addressed the effects of long-term (5 years) soil warming on SOC content and a series of 56 57 microbial properties. Intriguingly, to do so, they translocated soils among four tropical forest 58 sites along a 3000 m elevation gradient in Peru to generate an average temperature change of 59 \pm 15 °C. After five years of the translocation, they measured SOC content and a suite of other 60 soil chemical and biological properties. By assessing the data (hereafter we call it 61 "Nottingham dataset"), they concluded that "warming caused a considerable loss of soil 62 carbon" (Nottingham et al. 2019). They also measured six chemical fractions including 63 carbonyl (165-190 ppm), O-aryl (140-165 ppm), aryl (110-140 ppm), di-O-alkyl (92-110 ppm), O-alkyl (46-92 ppm), and alkyl (0-46 ppm), using ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. By 64 65 assessing the fraction data, they concluded that SOC loss was related to the lability of SOC 66 component fractions. Particularly, labile SOC fractions were more sensitive to temperature 67 changes and their loss was the major contributor to total SOC loss.

In Nottingham et al. (2019), however, there was a strong assumption underlying the estimation of the effects of temperature change. That is, soil cores translocated to other elevations on average have the same initial SOC content to control soil cores reinstalled at their original elevation. As there are only three replicates in the data, an approach ignoring spatial heterogeneity of SOC content may over- or under-estimate the effect of warming. Focusing on total SOC content and its chemical component fractions, in this study we

- reassessed the Nottingham dataset by explicitly taking into account data variability, and
- ⁷⁵ found that neither total SOC content nor its six chemical fractions was significantly affected
- 76 by elevation shift-induced temperature changes.

77 Reassessment of Nottingham dataset

78 In Nottingham et al. (2019), relative response ratios (RR) were calculated to estimate the

refrect of temperature change (which was represented by elevation shift in Nottingham et al.

80 2019 due to its close correlation with temperature change, $R^2 = 0.99$):

81
$$\operatorname{RR}_{i,des} = \ln\left(\frac{c_{i,des}}{c_{ori}}\right), i = 1, 2, 3.$$
(1)

where $C_{i,des}$ is the variable of interest (i.e., total SOC content and its six chemical component 82 fractions in this study) of the i^{th} replicate of soils translocated to other elevation destination, 83 and $\overline{C_{ort}}$ is the average of three replicates of the interested variable in the control soil cores 84 85 reinstalled at original elevation. As such, three RRs were obtained for each destination of 86 each soil origin (a total of four soil origins from four elevations). Based on these RRs, 87 Nottingham et al (2019) conducted a series of statistical analyses such as regression and 88 ANOVA. However, their analyses ignored the potential effect of data variability on the 89 results.

In this re-analysis, we first conducted pair-wise comparisons of total SOC and its
chemical fractions (the data were natural log-transformed before conducting the comparison)
among translocated soils of the same origin using ANOVA (pair-wise Tukey post-hoc test,
which controls for Type I error). This analysis enables us to directly assess whether or not
soil translation has induced significant changes in SOC content and in its chemical fractions.
Embracing the benefit of RR for quantifying "the relative effect of translocation (warming or
cooling) on each property independently to soil type" (Nottingham et al. 2019), and

97	meanwhile taking into account the potential effect of data variability on results, here we used
98	a non-parametric bootstrap approach to quantify the relationship between RR and
99	temperature changes due to soil translocation along the 3000 m elevation gradient. The non-
100	parametric approach is not only robust to departures from the normal distribution but also
101	explicitly take data variability into account (Fox & Weisberg, 2011). As there are three
102	replicates for both control soils at the origin location and soils translocated to other
103	destinations, we can calculate nine estimations of RR for each destination. Based on this, we
104	conducted 200 bootstrapping simulations. For each simulation, RR was randomly selected
105	from the nine RR for each translocated soil. A linear regression model was fitted treating RR
106	and temperature change (due to soil translocation) as response and independent variables,
107	respectively. Then, we calculated the average of RR for each translocated soil based on the
108	200 random draws, and a linear regression model was fitted using the average RRs. The
109	significance of all regressions (i.e., a total of 201 regressions including 200 bootstrapping
110	regressions plus one average regression) was tested at $P < 0.05$.
111	It should be noted that Nottingham et al (2019) focused on the relationship of RR of soil
112	C with elevation shift rather than directly with temperature change, albeit the close
113	correlation between temperature change and elevation shift ($R^2=0.99$). As elevation shift may
114	include changes of a series of other ecosystem properties (e.g., radiation, humidity, rainfall
115	regimes although total amount of rainfall entering to the experimental soils was controlled in
116	their study, see discussions below) other than temperature, our reassessment directly used the
117	elevation shift-induced average temperature changes as a predictor variable of RR. The data
118	is available from Nottingham et al. (2019).

119 Total SOC changes

120 The ANOVA results indicated that total SOC content did not show significant difference

121	among translocated soils of the same origin for all four soil origins (Fig. 1). It is apparent that
122	great variability existed for SOC content in some translocated soils of the same origin (Fig. 1).
123	The bootstrapping regression simulations indicated that only 16 of the 200 simulations were
124	significant ($P < 0.05$) for RR of soil C content (Fig. 2). When specifically assessing the
125	relationship of average RR of SOC content with temperature changes, the relationship was
126	also insignificant ($P = 0.14$) with a R ² of 0.21 (Fig. 2). In Nottingham et al (2019), a 3.86%
127	significant ($P < 0.05$) decline of SOC content per 1 °C temperature increase was estimated.
128	Based on the result in this reassessment, however, this decline was insignificant and only 1.4%
129	per 1 °C temperature increase (i.e., the regression coefficient for the temperature change).
130	These results demonstrate that five years of translocation did not significantly changed SOC
131	content in soils from the same origin, and is consistent with a global data synthesizing of
132	forest soil respiration in mineral soils (Giardina & Ryan, 2000). Expanding the dataset used
133	in (Crowther et al., 2016), a recent global data synthesis of field warming experiments also
134	indicated that SOC stock does not significantly respond to warming (van Gestel et al., 2018),
135	although no tropical data was included.
136	Why is total SOC tolerant towards temperature changes (both warming and cooling)?
137	Although limitations of the data itself (see the discussion below) may result in that the real
138	temperature response of SOC cannot be detected (i.e., Type II error from the perspective of

statistics), we discuss the possibility of four mechanisms to explain such persistent SOC

140 content under different temperature regimes: 1) microbial thermal adaptation, 2) substrate

depletion, 3) nutrient limitation for microbial carbon acquisition, and 4) environmental

142 constraints such as low pH.

The thermal adaptation hypothesis suggests that microbial community may gradually
adapt to warming via adjusting microbial physiology and/or shifting community composition
(Bradford, 2013; Luo, Wan, Hui, & Wallace, 2001). Although microbial respiration is

146	sensitive to temperature shift at onset, it will decline towards the pre-warmed/cooled rates
147	over time due to microbial adaptation to temperature shift. A laboratory incubation of three
148	contrasting soils under temperatures ranging from 5 to 25 °C indicated that soil respiration
149	was only significantly different at the start several days of the incubation and gradually
150	reached to a similar rate, regardless of substrate availability and initial microbial community
151	composition (Tang, Sun, Luo, He, & Sun, 2018). For this reason, the long-term effect of
152	warming on total SOC content could be negligible, although significant short-term changes in
153	soil respiration at the start of an experiment. Indeed, microbial measurements after five years
154	of the translocation in Nottingham et al. (2019) indicated that microbial community
155	composition was not significantly different evidenced by the observation that the majority of
156	microbial taxa was unaffected by temperature changes (please see Fig. 2 in Nottingham et al.
157	2019). If microbes do not adapt to temperature changes, it is reasonable to infer that
158	microbial community composition may be significant different among the translocated soils.
159	Other studies at the same sites also suggested that microbial respiration was adapted to
160	warming (Nottingham, Bååth, Reischke, Salinas, & Meir, 2019).
161	Besides potential microbial adaptation, microbial activity and functioning could be
162	constrained by other environmental factors (Manzoni, Taylor, Richter, Porporato, & Agren,
163	2012). The low pH in the studied soils (pH < 4 for all soils, Nottingham et al. 2019) could
164	play a critical role in regulating microbial growth and activity in the studied soils. A number
165	of studies have demonstrated that microbial activity and growth are inhibited in acidic soils
166	(Jones et al., 2009; Rousk, Brookes, & Bååth, 2010). A field study in a silty loam soil at
167	Rothamsted research demonstrated that all microbial variables including fungal and bacterial
168	growth were universally inhibited below pH 4.5 (Rousk, Brookes, & Baath, 2009). It is
169	highly probably that microbial processes are less sensitivity to warming at low pH soils, as
170	pH rather than temperature is the limiting factor of microbial carbon decomposition.

171 It is less possible for substrate depletion and nutrient limitation for microbial carbon 172 acquisition to take effective in the studied soils. Substrate availability and quality (e.g., the 173 carbon: nitrogen ratio of soil organic matter) are substantially different among soils from 174 different elevations (see Table S1 in Nottingham et al. 2019). If substrate depletion does 175 occur, total SOC as well as its six chemical fractions should be to some extent different in 176 terms of their temperature response in soils from different elevations (i.e., different origin). However, in all soils, none of the six chemical fractions shown significant difference (see 177 178 results below), although substrate availability is substantially different among the soils. For 179 the same reason, nutrient limitation would be not the reason, as the soils studied from 180 different elevations have distinct nutrient reserve. For example, soil carbon: nitrogen ratios 181 range from 4.07 to 19.17, carbon: phosphorus ratios from 41.52 to 253.71, and resinextractable phosphorus ranges from less than 0.8 mg kg⁻¹ soil to more than 79.99 mg kg⁻¹ soil. 182 183 If nutrient is a limiting factor, temperature response of SOC should present some significant 184 difference among the soils due to the distinct nutrient availability.

185 Changes in SOC chemical composition

186 Fig. 3 shows the ANOVA results of the effect of elevation shift on six chemical component 187 fractions in soils from four elevation origins. Except Carbonyl, O-Aryl and Aryl contents in 188 the soil from the 3300 m elevation at its original elevation were significantly different from 189 that in corresponding soils translocated to other elevations, translocation did not significantly 190 influence the content of all six chemical fractions in all four soils. Large data variability also 191 existed for the chemical fractions, particularly in soils with relatively high SOC content. It is 192 interesting to note that both total SOC content and its six chemical fractions shown greater 193 variability in cooler climate at the 3300 m elevation (Figs. 1 and 3). Bootstrapping 194 regressions on the relationship between temperature changes and the RR of the contents of 195 six chemical fractions indicated that only were 2 of 200 simulations significant for Carbonyl

196	(Fig. 4a) and Aryl (Fig. 4c), 11 for Alkyl (Fig. 4f), 24 for O-Alkyl and Di-Alkyl (Fig. 4d and
197	e), and 26 for O-Aryl (Fig. 4b), demonstrating the importance of quantifying data variability.
198	When assessing the relationship of average RR of SOC chemical fractions with temperature
199	changes, the relationship was only marginal ($P = 0.086$) for O-Aryl with a R ² of 0.27 (Fig. 4).
200	Nottingham et al (2019) interpreted that the detected soil C loss using their approach
201	"primarily originated from labile C pools". Our re-analysis demonstrated that neither total
202	SOC content nor its chemical fractions was significantly affected by translocation, while their
203	correlations with temperature changes were highly variable and also insignificant on average.
204	Nottingham et al (2019) found that carbonyl content was significantly and positively
205	correlated to temperature changes (Fig. 2 therein), which is difficult to explain (i.e., why
206	carbonyl increases under warming without any external inputs) and opposite to our re-
207	assessment as shown in Fig. 4a. It is clear that all the six chemical fractions were negatively
208	correlated to temperature changes, although none of the correlations was significant at $P <$
209	0.05 (Fig. 4). The result of the similar temperature response of six chemical fractions is in
210	line with prevailing recognitions.

211 In a review paper, Dungait, Hopkins, Gregory, & Whitmore (2012) has concluded that 212 SOC turnover is governed by accessibility rather than chemical recalcitrance. A data-model 213 integration study synthesizing global incubation dataset also found that > 90% of SOC is 214 physically protected against microbial decomposition, and the dynamic physical protection 215 process is the limiting step of overall SOC decomposition (Luo et al., 2017). Empirical 216 evidence also shown that the response of SOC decomposition to temperature is constrained 217 by substrate availability to microbial decomposers rather than SOC chemical recalcitrance (Zimmermann, Leifeld, Conen, Bird, & Meir, 2012, Moinet et al. 2018). Using ¹⁴C 218 219 techniques, Vaughn & Torn (2019) separated SOC in an Alaska soil into new and old carbon

with distinct chemical structures, and found that the two pools shown similar temperature
sensitivities. Above all, growing studies have converged on that chemical SOC fractions exert
similar temperature sensitivity to decomposition, and physical accessibility rather than
chemical structure of SOC is the limiting step. There may be no exception for SOC in
tropical forest soils. It will be interesting to identify that whether different chemical fractions
are involved in different physical protection processes (i.e., adsorption to and desorption from
minerals, occlusion within soil aggregates, and organo-mineral interactions).

227 Limitations of Nottingham dataset and future research

228 Soil translocation experiment is invaluable for mimicking climate change *in situ*, but there are 229 several limitations in the Nottingham dataset. First, as abovementioned, there are only three 230 replicates in the data. Considering the spatial heterogeneity of soil properties including SOC 231 (Garten, Kang, Brice, Schadt, & Zhou, 2007; Stursova, Barta, Santruckova, & Baldrian, 2016; 232 the data in the Appendix of Nottingham et al. 2019 can also demonstrate this), more 233 replicates would enable us to provide more accurate estimations of the temperature response 234 of soil C and its chemical components. Second, the experimental design cannot eliminate the 235 effect of soil moisture discrepancies among the translocated soils from the same origin, albeit 236 translocated tubes were capped with reduction collars or expansion funnels to maintain the 237 same rainfall per square meter (Zimmermann, Meir, Bird, Malhi, & Ccahuana, 2010). 238 Nevertheless, absolute rainfall amount is not the only factor influencing soil moisture. Both 239 rainfall regimes (e.g., the time, frequency and intensity of rainfall events) and upward soil 240 water movement may have marked effects on soil moisture including its temporal dynamics. 241 Different rainfall regimes among the destinations may result in complex soil moisture-242 temperature interactions and relevant consequences on soil carbon decomposition (Rodrigo, 243 Recous, Neel, & Mary, 1997; Zhou, Hui, & Shen, 2014). Upward movement of water 244 through the open bottom of soil tubes (although a 63 μ m nylon mesh at the base of the tubes

245 was installed) may be substantial due to capillary action. In order to avoid potential 246 confounding effects of soil moisture, we suggest that both soil moisture and temperature 247 should be monitored over time, making it possible to explicitly separate the effects of soil 248 moisture and temperature changes as well as quantifying their interactions. Third, the 249 duration of the experiment is five years. Considering normal funding cycles and the difficulty 250 to reach the remote areas of the tropical forests, the experiment should be appreciated. 251 However, five years are too short to observe statistically significant trends of soil carbon 252 changes, particularly for recalcitrant pools (if these pools really exist) which usually have 253 residence times of decades or centuries (Luo, Wang, & Wang, 2019; Schmidt et al., 2011). 254 We would suggest to last the experiment as long as possible to detect clear response of SOC 255 to temperature changes.

256 Another significant confounding factor influencing the results is that plant carbon inputs 257 to the translocated soils were excluded. As pointed out by Nottingham et al (2019), plant 258 carbon inputs to the soil may offset the changes in SOC (although this change is insignificant 259 according to our reassessment) as plant biomass and thus carbon input is generally higher 260 under lower elevation sites where have higher temperature. Except this direct offsetting effect, 261 the absence of carbon inputs has other two kinds of potential consequences on SOC dynamics 262 under temperature changes. First, the absence of carbon input weakens the priming effect. 263 The priming effect is a key process regulating the interaction between new and old SOC 264 (Kuzyakov, 2010; Luo, Wang, & Smith, 2015). Weakening priming effect may have 265 significant consequences on net SOC balance (Rousk, Hill, & Jones, 2015). More importantly, 266 there was no living roots in the soil cores, resulting in the absence of rhizosphere priming 267 effect, which is much more important than the priming effect in the bulk soil as root 268 rhizosphere is a hotspot of microbial growth and activity (Cheng et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 269 2014). Second, it is unclear whether and how new carbon inputs interact with temperature to

affect SOC dynamics. Some evidences from laboratory incubations implied that microbial
community structure and functioning respond distinctly to temperature changes under
treatments with and without new carbon inputs (e.g., Abro et al., 2011). For these reasons, it
should take care when extrapolating results obtained from experiments excluding plant-soil
interactions.

275 Conclusions

276 Based on the data collected from translocated soils across a 3000 m tropical forest elevation

277 gradient with \pm 15 °C temperature changes, Nottingham et al. (2019) concluded that soil

278 carbon declines 4% per 1 °C warming. Reassessing their data, particularly focusing on

279 measurements of total SOC and its chemical fractions, we did not find significant changes in

SOC content, and only found an insignificant decline of ~1.4% per 1 °C warming. This

insignificant response of SOC dynamics to warming may be likely explained by microbial

adaptation to temperature changes and/or environmental constrains (such as low pH of the

studied soils) which inhibit microbial growth and activity. We also did not find significant

changes in six chemical fractions although they potentially reflect distinct chemical

recalcitrance, supporting the proposition that chemical SOC fractions may have similar

temperature sensitivity, and SOC dynamics are governed by accessibility of substrates to

287 microbial attack rather than the recalcitrance of SOC chemical compounds. Overall, the

288 unique Nottingham dataset fills a gap of data availability in tropical areas, and provides

evidence that SOC in tropical soils may be neutral in terms of its response to warming, which

is in line with the results in other ecosystems (van Gestel et al., 2018).

291 Acknowledgements

We thank the funding support from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant
Nos. 31870426, 31470623).

294 Authorship

- ZL assessed the data and wrote the manuscript. XG and OJS contributed to interpretation andwriting.
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420 Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Effects of soil translocation on soil carbon content. Different letters above the bars for the same soil origin group indicate significant difference at P < 0.05. Error bars show one standard error. Please note that the increasing pattern just shows that soil carbon increases

424 with elevation and does not relate to the effect of temperature changes.

425 Fig. 2. Relationship of the log relative response ratio (RR) of soil carbon content with

426 temperature changes. Circles show nine possible RR taking into account combinations of

427 three replicates at soil destination and origin. Thin lines show 200 bootstrapping regression

428 lines with RR randomly selected from the nine RR values, while black and grey ones indicate

429 that the regression is significant (P < 0.05) and insignificant (P > 0.05), respectively. *n* shows

430 the number of significant regression lines. Brown solid points are the average of the nine RR

431 values, while brown lines are the corresponding regression lines and brown texts in the plots

432 show the statistics of the regression lines based on average values.

433 Fig. 3. Effects of soil translocation on six chemical fractions of soil carbon. Six chemical

434 fractions are carbonyl (165-190 ppm, a), O-aryl (140-165 ppm, b), aryl (110-140 ppm, c), di-

435 O-alkyl (92-110 ppm, d), O-alkyl (46-92 ppm, e), and alkyl (0-46 ppm, f), determined by 13 C

436 NMR spectroscopy. See Nottingham et al (2019) for details of the six chemical fractions.

437 Different letters above the bars for the same soil origin group indicate significant difference

- 438 at P < 0.05. Error bars show one standard error. Please note that the increasing pattern just
- 439 shows that soil carbon from different elevations are different.

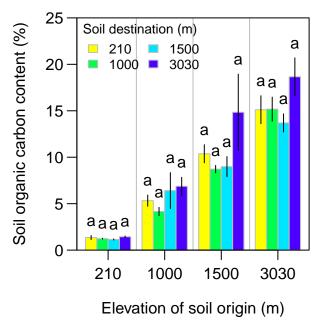
440 Fig. 4. Relationship of log relative response ratio (RR) of six chemical soil carbon

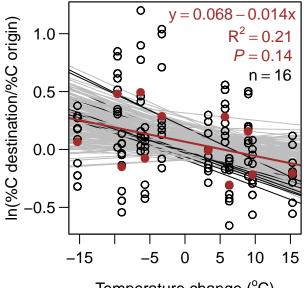
441 fractions with temperature changes. Six chemical fractions are carbonyl (165-190 ppm, a),

442 O-aryl (140-165 ppm, b), aryl (110-140 ppm, c), di-O-alkyl (92-110 ppm, d), O-alkyl (46-92

443 ppm, e), and alkyl (0-46 ppm, f), determined by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. See Nottingham et al

- 444 (2019) for details of the six chemical fractions. Lines, points and legends share the same
- 445 explanation to that in Fig. 2.





Temperature change (°C)

