

# Effects of warming and grazing on dissolved organic nitrogen in a Tibetan alpine meadow ecosystem

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1	Warming and grazing directly influence dissolved organic nitrogen in a Tibetan
2	alpine meadow ecosystem
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32 Abstract The conversion of insoluble organic nitrogen (N) to dissolved organic N 33 (DON) is a major constraint to the supply of N to plants, possibly even more so than the conversion of DON to inorganic N (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>). The production and fate of 34 35 inorganic N as regulated by environmental change are relatively well understood, but we know comparatively little about how these factors influence DON. We measured 36 total N, DON and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) concentrations in the soil 37 solution and plant N uptake in a factorial warming × grazing experiment in a Tibetan 38 39 alpine meadow. Results showed that warming significantly decreased DON concentration by up to 36%. Warming effects on DON were to some extent dependent 40 41 on the grazing treatment, and varied with soil depth and sampling date. Grazing 42 increased soil DON, opposite to the effect of warming. Previous studies have found 43 warming to increase a range of factors which contribute to the supply of DON in soil; our results suggest that the observed decrease in DON under warming could be 44 ascribed to an acceleration of soil DON turnover, greater microbial N immobilization 45 and enhanced plant N uptake. In conclusion, this study highlights the complex 46 47 interaction of land management regime and climate warming in the regulation of 48 DON cycling in N-limiting environments.

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50 Keywords Alpine meadow • dissolved organic nitrogen • plant N uptake • nitrogen
51 cycling • progressive N limitation • global warming

#### 53 Introduction

The availability of inorganic nitrogen (N) has traditionally been considered the 54 primary constraint on vegetation productivity in terrestrial ecosystems (Vitousek and 55 Howarth, 1991; Elser et al., 2007; LeBauer and Treseder, 2008). However, increasing 56 studies have shown that the conversion of insoluble organic N to dissolved organic 57 nitrogen (DON) can also be a major constraint on the supply of N to plants (Jones et 58 59 al., 2005; Jan et al., 2009; Jones et al., 2009; Farrell et al., 2011). The production and fate of inorganic N as regulated by environmental factors, such as temperature and 60 land use are relatively well understood (Wu et al., 2011; Bai et al., 2013; Ueda et al., 61 62 2013), but relatively few studies have been carried out on how these factors affect DON, especially in alpine ecosystems. 63

64 DON concentrations in soil are regulated by a range of factors and represent the net balance between input and removal processes (Fig 1). Soil DON mainly arises 65 from plant and microbial turnover and root exudation (Chapman et al., 2001; Jones et 66 67 al., 2004; Haynes, 2005; Christou et al., 2006). Similarly, there is increasing evidence 68 suggesting that plant roots can directly remove DON from soil solution (Jones et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2006; Jämtgård et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2011). DON, 69 70 however, also represents an important source of C and N for soil microorganisms and is an important precursor leading to the production of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in soil (Bardgett 71 et al., 2003; Butler et al., 2012; Bai et al., 2013) (Fig. 1). Previous studies have shown 72 inconsistent effects of warming on DON. For example, some experiments show 73 positive effects as warming accelerates litter decomposition (Kalbitz et al., 2004), 74 75 while others demonstrate negative effects in forests, perhaps due to higher mineralization rates (Huang and Schoenau, 1998; Ueda et al., 2013). Using elevation 76 as a proxy of climate, results indicate that plants preferentially utilized DON over 77

inorganic N in a cold-temperate forest ecosystem (Averill and Finzi, 2011). Shan et al.
(2014) found that a component of the DON pool (e.g. amino acids) increased with
altitude. Variation in altitude, however, led to marked changes not only in temperature,
but also factors such as moisture and vegetation composition which makes
interpretation of the results difficult. To date, there have no direct, *in situ*measurements of DON dynamics under elevated temperature.

84 DON includes two functional pools: high molecular weight DON (e.g. polyphenol-bound protein-N that is recalcitrant and prone to precipitation) and low 85 86 molecular weight DON which is highly bioavailable (e.g. amino acids, peptides). Current evidence suggests that with the exception of inorganic N, plant roots or soil 87 88 microorganism only possess the capacity to directly take up and assimilate low 89 molecular weight DON (Yu et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2004). Further, direct uptake of 90 soil amino acids by plants has been demonstrated in a range of ecosystems including 91 cold forest (Persson et al., 2003), arctic tundra (Kielland, 1994; Nordin et al., 2004), 92 temperate grassland (Weigelt et al., 2005), and Tibet alpine meadow ecosystems (Xu 93 et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2011).

94 Grazing has been shown to decrease soil DON through the stimulation of net N mineralization and nitrification (Groffmann et al., 1993; Frank et al., 2000; Le Roux 95 96 et al., 2003; Hu et al., 2010). For low productivity ecosystems, however, the opposite 97 effects of grazing have been observed, showing a decrease in net N mineralization (Stark et al., 2000; Harrison et al., 2004; Holst et al., 2007). In alpine meadows, 98 previous results have shown that grazing may stimulate the production of DON as it 99 100 increased above- and below-ground plant biomass production (Hu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012) and increased rates of litter decomposition (Luo et al., 2010), while 101 102 warming did not affect net N mineralization rates (Wang et al., 2012). We

103 hypothesize that concentrations of DON will increase under grazing in alpine104 meadows.

105 Tibetan alpine meadows are unique ecosystems which are particularly sensitive to global climate change; the average surface temperature in Tibet is expected to 106 increase 2°C more than the global average by 2050 (Wang and French, 1994; 107 108 Thompson et al., 2000; Giorgi et al., 2001). Grazing is the main land use for alpine 109 meadows, and it is expected that grazing pressure will substantially increase in the near future due to the rise in human population within the region (Wiener et al., 2003; 110 111 Yao et al., 2006). Here, we conducted a field experiment to test the effects of warming and grazing on soil DON dynamics in Tibetan alpine meadows. First, we tested the 112 hypothesis that warming decreases soil DON. This could result from greater demand 113 114 of DON for plant biomass production (Xu et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2012). Second, we tested the hypothesis that grazing will increase soil DON as we previously found that 115 116 warming increased above- and below-ground plant biomass production (Hu et al., 117 2010; Wang et al., 2012) and increased rates of litter decomposition (Luo et al., 2010), while warming did not affect net N mineralization rates (Wang et al., 2012). 118

119

## 120 Materials and methods

#### 121 Experimental site

The experimental site is located at the Haibei Alpine Meadow Ecosystem Research
Station (37°37′N, 101°12′E), a facility run by the Northwest Institute of Plateau
Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The station lies in the northeastern part of the

Qinghai-Tibet plateau in a large valley surrounded by the Qilian Mountains. The mean 125 elevation of the valley bottom is 3200 m and experiences a typical plateau continental 126 climate dominated by the southeast monsoons from May to September and 127 high-pressure systems from Siberia in winter. The climate is characterized by a cold 128 winter and short, cool summer. The mean annual air temperature is -1.7°C. The 129 130 maximum monthly mean air temperature is 10°C in July and the minimum is -15°C in January. Mean temperature and rainfall from 1<sup>st</sup> May to the 20<sup>th</sup> September in 2006 131 and 2007 (growing season and data collection period) were 8.4 and 8.5°C, and 449 132 133 and 398 mm, respectively (Luo et al., 2010). The plant community at the experimental site is dominated by perennial graminoids such as Kobresia humilis, Festuca ovina, 134 Elymus nutans, Poa pratensis, and Carex scabrirostris (Wang et al., 2012). The 135 136 canopy height of the vegetation in August was about 15-20 cm (Luo et al., 2009). More than 95% of belowground plant biomass can be found in the upper 20 cm and 137 fine root biomass is higher at 10-20 cm soil depth than at 0-10 cm depth (Wu et al., 138 2011). 139

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### 141 Controlled warming-grazing experiment

In May 2006, we set up a warming × grazing experiment with four replicates for each
treatment combination, i.e., no warming no grazing (NWNG), no warming with
grazing (NWG), warming with no grazing (WNG), and warming with grazing (WG).
In total, 16 circular plots (3 m diameter) were used in a complete randomized block
design. For the warming treatments we used an infrared heating system, hereafter

called free-air temperature enhancement (FATE) system, as described by Kimball et al. (2008). In summer (April-October), the set point differences between the heated and control plots were  $1.2^{\circ}$ C during daytime and  $1.7^{\circ}$ C at night, which falls within the range of the predicted temperature increase for this century for this region ( $1.5-5^{\circ}$ C; Wang at al., 2012). In winter, the power output of the heaters were manually set at 150 W per plot.

One adult Tibetan domestic sheep (Ovis aries) was fenced in the grazing plots on 153 the morning of 17<sup>th</sup> August 2006 for two hours. Similarly, two adult Tibetan sheep 154 were fenced for one hour in the grazing plots in the mornings of  $12^{th}$  July and  $3^{rd}$ 155 August in 2007. The height of the vegetation was measured at 50 points within the 156 plots before and after grazing, and the sheep were removed from the grazing plots 157 158 when the canopy height was reduced to approximately half of the initial height, which generally corresponded to a moderate stocking rate in the region (Luo et al., 2009; 159 Wang et al., 2012). 160

161

# 162 Soil temperature and soil moisture

Soil temperature was measured automatically using type-K thermocouples (Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) at depths of 5, 10 and 20 cm. All the thermocouples were connected to a CR1000 datalogger. Soil temperature was measured every minute, and 15 min averages were stored. Soil moisture was manually measured at depths of 10, 20, 30 and 40 cm at 08:00 h, 14:00 h, and 20:00 h daily. All data were collected from May 26<sup>th</sup> to September 20<sup>th</sup> 2006 and from May 1<sup>st</sup> to September 20<sup>th</sup> in 2007 (Luo et 169 al., 2009).

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# 171 Litter, aboveground and belowground plant biomass, N concentration, and 172 calculated plant N uptake

173 In August of 2006 and 2007, litter and above- and below-ground plant biomass were 174 collected from two  $10 \times 10$  cm quadrats in each of the plots. Plant samples were dried at 80°C for 48 h after which their dry weight was measured. Subsequently, 175 sub-samples of roots and shoots were ground and used to determine concentrations of 176 177 N using a Kjeldahl digestion method with an Alpkem autoanalyzer (Kjektec System1026 Distilling Unit, Sweden). Above- and below-ground plant N uptake was 178 calculated multiplying biomass by the N concentration in the respective plant tissue 179 180 (Finzi et al., 2007).

181

#### 182 Soil pore water sampling and analysis

183 Soil pore water was collected at 2-4 week intervals during two consecutive growing seasons (10 and 24 June, 10 and 24 July, 16 August in 2006; and 27 May, 10 and 24 184 185 July, 24 August in 2007) within 24 h after rainfall using porous-cup ceramic zero-tension samplers, which were made by the Institute of Geographical Sciences 186 and Natural Resources Research of the Chinese Academy of Sciences in Beijing. 187 These samplers were placed at soil depths of 10, 20, 30 and 40 cm in each plot on 24 188 May in 2006. Soil solution samples were collected from each plot with a vacuum 189 pump, placed in amber bottles, and stored in a refrigerator at 4°C until further analysis. 190

191 All samples were filtered through 0.7 µm pore diameter membranes prior to analysis (Glass Microfibre Filters, GF/F, Whatman, Schleicher and Schuell, England). Total 192 dissolved N (TDN), dissolved organic C (DOC) and DON, concentrations in the soil 193 solution were measured using a Shimadzu 5000 TOC/TN analyzer (Kyoto, Japan). 194 Ammonium-N in the soil solutions was determined colorimetrically by the 195 salicylate-nitroprusside method of Mulvaney (1996) on a plate reader (Scientific 196 International, New Delhi, India). Nitrate-N was determined colorimetrically using the 197 N-1-napthylethylenediame method of Miranda et al. (2001) using the same plate 198 199 reader. DON was calculated as the difference between the TDN reading and the amount of dissolved inorganic N (DIN;  $NH_4^+ + NO_3^-$ ) present. 200

201

#### 202 Statistical analysis

Treatment effects on soil TDN, DON concentration, and NH4+-N and NO3--N 203 concentration were tested using repeated-measures analyses of variance (ANOVA), 204 with warming, grazing and their interaction as the main factors (between-subject 205 factors) and with sample date and soil depth as within-subject factors. 206 Multi-comparisons of least standard difference (LSD) were conducted for all 207 measured variables within each sampling date and each soil depth using a one-way 208 ANOVA. Because all plots were free from grazing until 17 August 2006, the data 209 before that date were analyzed separately. For all ANOVAs, the assumption of 210 normality was checked with Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and the assumption of 211 homogeneity of variances was checked using Levene's tests. If the assumptions were 212

not met, data were log-transformed prior to analysis. Statistical analyses were
performed using SPSS, version 15.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

Regression analyses were used to test the relationships between DON 215 concentration across 0-40 cm soil depth and at individual soil depths (0-10 cm, 10-20 216 217 cm, 20-30 cm and 30-40 cm) and the corresponding soil temperature, soil moisture, soil pH, soil  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentration, soil total dissolved C concentration and 218 DOC concentration. Regressions were run separately for 2006 and for 2007 as well as 219 220 across the 2006-2007 period. Regressions were run across treatments, but also within 221 individual treatments. Simple correlation analyses were also performed between above- or below-ground plant N uptake and the corresponding seasonal mean soil 222 DON and soil DIN (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) concentrations. To test the relative 223 224 importance of biotic and abiotic factors in determining DON concentration, we ran stepwise multiple regressions between mean seasonal DON concentration at different 225 soil depths and various biotic factors (i.e., above- and belowground plant biomass, 226 above- and below-ground plant N uptake, dead standing plant biomass, and 227 228 concentrations of chemical components of dead standing biomass (C content, N 229 content, cellulose content, hemicellulose content, lignin content and lignin-N content) and abiotic factors (i.e., soil chemical factors such as, total C, DOC, pH, NH4<sup>+</sup>-N and 230 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>N and soil physical factors such as, temperature and moisture). 231

232

233 **Results** 

#### 234 Effects of warming and grazing on soil moisture and temperature

Both warming and grazing did not significantly affect soil moisture content at any of the 5 measured soil depths in either 2006 or 2007 (Luo et al., 2009). Warming increased soil temperature in the 0-10 cm soil layer both before and after grazing (Table S1; Supplementary on-line information). In addition, sheep grazing with or without external warming also resulted in a significant rise in soil temperature (Table S1).

241

# 242 Effects of warming and grazing on dissolved nitrogen components and 243 DOC/DON

Warming significantly decreased total dissolved soil N (TDN) in the 0-40 cm soil layer by approximately 6% and 17% before and after the grazing treatments started in 2006, respectively (Table 1; Fig. 2), however, there was no effect of warming on TDN in 2007 (Table 1). For TDN, there was a significant warming  $\times$  soil depth interaction before grazing started in 2006; warming decreased TDN by 16%, 18% and 7% in the 0-10 cm, 10-20 cm and 20-30 cm soil layers, respectively (Fig. 2).

DON constituted a large component of the soluble N in soil, accounting for approximately 80-90% of the TDN. Warming significantly decreased DON concentrations before and after the grazing treatments in 2006 by 16% and 10% in the 10-20 and 20-30 cm soil depths respectively, and in 2007 by 36% in the 10-20 cm soil layer in 2007 (Table 1). After the grazing treatment started, there was a significant warming  $\times$  grazing  $\times$  soil depth  $\times$  sampling date interaction in 2006 and in 2007 (Table 1), indicating that the effects of warming and grazing on DON were dependent 257 on soil depth and sampling date (Fig. 2, Fig. 3, see also on-line supplementary 258 information).

259 NH4<sup>+</sup>-N and NO3<sup>-</sup>-N constituted rather small components of the total pool of soluble soil N, accounting for approximately 10-15% or <10% of the concentration of 260 261 TDN, respectively. There was a significant warming  $\times$  date interaction on NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N concentrations before and after the grazing treatment started in 2006 (Table 1), with 262 both positive and negative effects seen depending on season and year (Fig. 2). 263 Warming decreased  $NO_3$ -N concentration by >50% after the grazing treatments 264 265 started in 2006 and in 2007 (Table 1) (Fig. 2). However, effects of warming and grazing on NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration were strongly dependent on soil depth and sampling 266 267 date.

Warming significantly increased the DOC-to-DON ratio in the 0-10 and 10-20 cm soil layers but induced a decrease in the 30-40 cm soil layer prior to the onset of grazing (see on-line supplementary information Table S2). After grazing, warming a significant increase in the DOC-to-DON ratio was only seen in the 10-20 cm soil layer (see on-line supplementary information Table S3).

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### 274 Effects of warming and grazing on litter quality, plant biomass and N uptake

In both years, warming increased the amount of dead standing plant biomass, whereas grazing significantly decreased the amount of dead standing plant biomass. Warming and grazing also significantly increased the N concentration in dead standing biomass (see on-line supplementary information Table S4).

Warming significantly increased below-ground plant biomass in 2006 (F= 20.54; P < 0.001); in the warmed plots, root biomass was on average 25% higher than in the

control plots in 2006. Grazing and warming  $\times$  grazing did not significantly affect 281 below-ground plant biomass in 2006 (F = 0.95, 2.60; P = 0.33, 0.11, respectively). 282 There was a significant warming  $\times$  grazing interaction effect on below-ground plant 283 biomass in 2007 (F = 11.31; P < 0.001). Warming significantly increased 284 above-ground plant biomass production in 2006 and 2007 and there was a weak 285 warming  $\times$  grazing effect on plant above-ground biomass in 2007; grazing did not 286 287 affect plant above-ground biomass in 2006, but significantly reduced plant biomass in 2007 (Wang et al., 2012). 288

289 Warming significantly increased N uptake in above-ground plant biomass by approximately 18% in 2006 and 24% in 2007. Warming also increased N uptake in 290 291 below-ground plant biomass (upper 20 cm soil depth), up to 25% in 2006 and 35% in 292 2007 (Table 2; Fig. 4). Grazing did not affect plant above- and below-ground N 293 uptake in 2006, but grazing significantly decreased N uptake in above-ground plant biomass by up to 20% and below-ground plant N uptake (upper 20 cm soil depth) by 294 295 up to 40% in 2007 (Table 2; Fig. 4). There was a warming  $\times$  grazing effect on below-ground plant N uptake at 0-10 cm soil depth in 2007 (Table 2). 296

297

### 298 Relationships between DON concentration and abiotic and biotic variables

There was a significant positive correlation between DON concentration at 10-20 cm soil depth and soil temperature in 2006 (Table 3). There were negative correlations between DON and soil moisture,  $NH_4^+$ -N, and pH in 2006 and 2007 at 0-40 cm soil depth, and between daily DON and  $NO_3^-$ -N only for the no warming and no grazing treatments in 2007 (Table 3). Stepwise regressions showed that the mean seasonal DON concentration at different soil depths was significantly affected by biotic factors. For example, at 10-20 cm soil depth, a negative correlation was found between DON and below-ground plant N uptake and plant N uptake explained approximately 42% of the variation in DON (F = 9.97, P = 0.007). In the 30-40 cm soil layer, a positive correlation was found between DON and plant N uptake, which explained approximately 36% of the variation in DON (F = 8.04, P = 0.013).

At 0-20 cm soil depth in 2006 and 2007, above- and below-ground plant N uptake was negatively correlated with mean seasonal DON concentrations. No significant correlations were found between above- and below-ground plant N uptake and dissolved inorganic N (including NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) (Fig. 5).

314

# 315 Discussion

Dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) represents a significant pool of soluble N in many 316 317 ecosystems and plays an important role in the N cycling of terrestrial ecosystems 318 (Jones et al., 2004; Bai et al., 2013; Ueda et al., 2013). Our results showed that DON accounted for more than 80% of the total dissolved soil N (TDN) in Tibetan alpine 319 320 meadows which is consistent with the hypothesis that DON is the quantitatively 321 dominant pool of high elevation, N-limiting ecosystems (Schimel and Bennett, 2004; 322 Christou et al., 2005; Kranabetter et al., 2007; Näsholm et al., 2009). For instance, Farrell et al. (2011) noted that DON is relatively more abundant than DIN in higher 323 324 altitude N-limiting grasslands than in productive lowland grasslands. Next we 325 consider our findings in more detail, in the context of soil DON concentrations and 326 their dynamics under warming and grazing.

327 Our results supported our hypothesis that warming decreased DON, particularly at

10-20 cm soil depths. Among the potential sources of DON, many studies have 328 argued that DON in soil mainly originates from the decomposition of plant litter 329 330 (Kalbitz et al., 2000; Chapman et al., 2001; Haynes 2005) or root exudates (Jones et al., 1994; Haynes 2005; Jones et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2008; Strickland et al., 2012) 331 332 (Fig.1). Our observations at the site have shown that warming increased plant aboveand below-ground biomass, improved the quality of leaf litter, and accelerated litter 333 decomposition (Luo et al., 2010). This suggests that warming may enhance the 334 production rates of DON in soil. However, our results showed that warming 335 336 significantly decreased DON, particularly at 10-20 cm soil depths (where typically most of the fine roots were found; Kuzyakov and Xu 2013; Wu et al., 2011). In 337 general, there are three dominant fates of soil DON in soil solution (Fig. 1): Firstly, 338 339 DON can be sorbed to the solid phase, however, this is not likely to be affected by warming. Secondly, DON can be immobilized by the soil microbial community to 340 support their nitrogen and/or carbon requirements (Jones et al., 2004, Jones et al., 341 2005) and thirdly it can be both converted to NH4<sup>+</sup> by the action of both intra- and 342 extra-cellular enzymes (Bardgett et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2004; Bai et al., 2013). 343 344 Warming significantly increased soil microbial biomass-C and -N in this experiment in 2009 (Rui et al., 2010) suggesting that greater rates of DON immobilization and 345 mineralization. This is supported by previous studies showing that experimental 346 warming enhances the decomposition of soil organic N and mineralization via 347 increased microbial activity (e.g., Bardgett et al., 2008; Luo et al., 2010). Our results 348 showed that warming decreased DON in both 2006 and 2007, with the difference 349

350 evident early in the growing season and at the end of the growing season (Fig. 2). This decrease in DON is temporally consistent with increased soil temperatures, microbial 351 activity and soil respiration (by ca. 10%) occurring at the same time (Lin et al., 2011) 352 supporting the view that loss of DON was due to accelerated DON decomposition. 353 354 However, this hypothesis is not consistent with Wang et al. (2012) who found that 355 warming did not significantly affect soil net N mineralization at the same site. It should be noted, however, that the measurement of net N mineralization ignored plant 356 DIN uptake and it is possible that warming increased gross N mineralization. 357

358 Plants roots and their associated mycorrhizas can directly take up low molecular weight DON to support plant growth (Jones et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2005; Xu et al., 359 2006; Jämtgård et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2011). This DON loss pathway within our 360 361 experiment is potentially supported by a significant negative correlation between plant N uptake and soil DON (Fig. 5). Moreover, plant N uptake explained approximately 362 42% of variation in DON concentration at 10-20 cm soil depth. In 2007, warming 363 decreased DON at 10-20 cm soil depth by 8.34 g m<sup>-2</sup>, while plant N uptake increased 364 by 11.72 g m<sup>-2</sup>. However, Xu et al. (2006) suggests that plants take up a maximum of 365 30% of N as organic N (Xu et al., 2006, 2011) indicating that soil organic N would 366 only decrease by 3.51 g m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. Further, experiments using dual-labeled 367 <sup>13</sup>C-<sup>15</sup>N-glycine showed that the warming decreased plant capture of amino acid-N 368 from soil (Ma et al., 2015 under review). The results of Xu et al. (2006, 2011) and Ma 369 et al. (2015), however, must be placed against the huge uncertainty inherent in 370 measuring and interpreting the uptake of <sup>15</sup>N-DON by plants (Jones et al., 2005). In 371

addition, recent studies in N-limiting environments suggest that plants compete at a higher level in the N breakdown pathway by taking up small peptides from soil, thereby by-passing the need to take up amino acids,  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (Hill et al., 2011a,b, 2012). Further work is therefore required to determine the chemical nature of DON in these soils and to determine their relative availability to both plants and microorganisms.

DON could also potentially leave this ecosystem via leaching (Hu et al., 2010). In our experiment we conclude that leaching is probably of minor importance due to the lack of observed differences in soil moisture content and the inherently low rates of water mobility (Zhu et al., 2011).

Previous studies at the site showed that warming increased soil temperature by 0.5 382 383 to 1.5 °C across all soil depths both in 2006 and in 2007, while grazing only increased soil temperature in 2007. In this study, we found that there was only a weak positive 384 correlation between soil temperature with DON ( $r^2 = 0.08$ ) and a weak negative 385 correlation between soil moisture and DON concentration ( $r^2 = 0.05$ ). This indicates 386 that abiotic factors probably only play a minor role in directly modulating DON 387 concentrations in Tibet alpine meadow ecosystems. The poor relationships of these 388 abiotic variables with soil DON also highlights the potential influence of biotic factors 389 in regulating soil DON concentrations (Lü et al., 2014). 390

Our results confirmed our hypothesis that grazing increased soil DON, opposite to the effect of warming. Overall, grazing increased below-ground plant biomass production (Hu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012) and increased rates of litter

decomposition (Luo et al., 2010), both of which are known to positively influence 394 rates of DON production. Grazing could also influence soil DON by: (1) increasing 395 396 soil temperature, changing soil moisture status (Asner et al., 2004; Christou et al., 2005) or by inducing alterations in soil structure and hydrological flow pathways (via 397 398 sheep trampling). This can produce a complex range of both negative and positive feedbacks on rates of DON production and consumption (Holst et al., 2007; Wu et al., 399 2011; Houst et al., 2007; Kauffman et al., 2004); (2) Grazing can reduce rates of 400 litterfall and can decrease litter quality (Luo et al., 2011), which can decrease N both 401 402 in the plant (Fig. 4) and microbial N pools (Rui et al., 2011). Our results showed that grazing decreased above- and below-ground plant total N uptake by about 25% which 403 could have further contributed to the loss of DON through plant uptake; and (3) Our 404 405 results show that grazing strongly increases soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations. This result is consistent with the founding of Rui et al. (2011) in 2009 at the same site and those of 406 Wu et al. (2011) in the Inner Mongolia steppes. The increase in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations 407 408 under grazing could be explained by the addition of sheep excreta especially at the soil surface (Fig. 3). 409

410

# 411 Conclusions

412 Our results showed that warming decreased soil DON concentrations and that 413 conversely, grazing increased soil DON concentrations. We suggest that a 414 warming-induced reduction in DON can be ascribed to accelerated rates of plant and 415 microbial uptake of DON rather than changes in DON production rate or leaching losses. Further work is therefore required to (1) characterize and quantify the chemical
nature of DON, (2) determine the biological fate of DON under warming and grazing
treatment, and (3) develop modeling tools to enable prediction of anthropogenically
mediated changes in environment on DON pool or fluxes.

420

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427

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