Title page

Microbial assemblies associated with temperature sensitivity of soil respiration along an altitudinal gradient

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- Taxa involved in labile C decomposition
- Taxa involved in recalcitrant C decomposition

Highlights

- Soil microbial communities drove changes in Q₁₀ of soil respiration
- Microbial assemblies with distinct C utilization strategies varied with altitude
- The major co-occurring microbial assemblies were important predictors of Q_{10}

1 Microbial assemblies associated with temperature sensitivity of soil

2 respiration along an altitudinal gradient

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22 Abstract

23 Identifying the drivers of the response of soil microbial respiration to warming is 24 integral to accurately forecasting the carbon-climate feedbacks in terrestrial 25 ecosystems. Microorganisms are the fundamental drivers of soil microbial respiration 26 and its response to warming; however, the specific microbial communities and properties involved in the process remain largely undetermined. Here, we identified 27 28 the associations between microbial community and temperature sensitivity (Q_{10}) of 29 soil microbial respiration in alpine forests along an altitudinal gradient (from 2974 to 30 3558 m) from the climate-sensitive Tibetan Plateau. Our results showed that changes in microbial community composition accounted for more variations of Q₁₀ values than 31 32 a wide range of other factors, including soil pH, moisture, substrate quantity and 33 quality, microbial biomass, diversity and enzyme activities. Specifically, co-occurring 34 microbial assemblies (i.e., ecological clusters or modules) targeting labile carbon 35 consumption were negatively correlated with Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration, 36 whereas microbial assemblies associated with recalcitrant carbon decomposition were 37 positively correlated with Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration. Furthermore, there were 38 progressive shifts of microbial assemblies from labile to recalcitrant carbon 39 consumption along the altitudinal gradient, supporting relatively high Q₁₀ values in 40 high-altitude regions. Our results provide new insights into the link between changes 41 in major microbial assemblies with different trophic strategies and Q10 of soil 42 microbial respiration along an altitudinal gradient, highlighting that warming could

- 43 have stronger effects on microbially-mediated soil organic matter decomposition in
- 44 high-altitude regions than previously thought.

45 Keywords

- 46 Soil microbial respiration; temperature sensitivity; microbial community composition;
- 47 ecological clusters; altitudinal gradient; Tibetan Plateau

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Soil contains about three times the carbon (C) stored in the atmosphere, and the 50 release of C from soil through microbial respiration is a major component of global 51 CO₂ fluxes (Guo et al., 2020; Raich and Potter, 1995; Raich and Schlesinger, 1992). 52 Consequently, changes in soil microbial respiration could have profound effects on 53 atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and thus affect future climate trajectories (Dacal et al., 54 2019; Wang et al., 2018). Soil microbial respiration is susceptible to temperature 55 fluctuations (Bradford et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2016), with the respiration rates commonly increasing with rising temperature (Karhu et al., 2014). 56 57 The response of soil microbial respiration to temperature changes is usually 58 represented by the term temperature sensitivity or Q_{10} , quantified by the relative 59 increase in respiration rate with each 10 °C rise in temperature (Davidson and 60 Janssens, 2006; Xu et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2017). The Q₁₀ value is a crucial parameter 61 in benchmarking the magnitude and direction of terrestrial soil C-climate feedbacks 62 (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Li et al., 2020a). However, the magnitude of this 63 feedback remains uncertain due to the different effects of biotic and abiotic factors 64 (such as microbial activities, substrate quantity and quality) on soil respiration (Dacal 65 et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018). In particular, microbial communities are the 66 fundamental drivers of soil microbial respiration (Bradford et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018b; Wang et al., 2020b); however, the role of soil microbial communities in 67

regulating the response of soil microbial respiration to warming remains largelyunclear.

70 A growing body of literature has demonstrated that temperature sensitivity of soil 71 microbial respiration is significantly related to important microbial community-level 72 properties, including the biomass and physiology (Bradford et al., 2019; Wang et al., 73 2018). For example, microbial biomass C (MBC) has been confirmed to have a 74 positive correlation with temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration (Čapek 75 et al., 2019). In addition, physiological features of microbial community, such as 76 extracellular enzymatic activities, have also been quantitatively linked to the response 77 of soil microbial respiration to temperature changes (Chen et al., 2018; Wang et al., 78 2020a). Recent studies suggest that physiological activities at the community level 79 were dominantly determined by the composition of microbial communities (Monteux 80 et al., 2018; Wieder et al., 2014). Different microbial taxa decompose various organic 81 matter fractions at different rates and can fundamentally alter the response of soil 82 microbial respiration to warming (Bai et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021). 83 For instance, some specific bacteria (e.g., Chlamydiae and Planctomycetia) and fungi 84 (e.g., Agaricomycetes and Mucoromycotina) are considered as main decomposers of 85 recalcitrant C, while other taxa such as Tremellomycetes and Pezizomycotina can 86 prefer utilizing labile C (Hale et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020). Similarly, the specific 87 trophic patterns of soil microbes, such as r-strategists and K-strategists, can also affect 88 temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration due to differences in substrate

89 preference and C use efficiency (Bai et al., 2017; Li et al., 2021a; Luo et al., 2020). However, soil respiration is generally considered as a "broad biological process" 90 91 involving a wide array of microbial taxa, metabolic reactions, and associated genes, 92 hence precluding targeting the taxa involved with classical molecular approaches 93 (Banerjee et al., 2016; Crowther et al., 2019). Therefore, detailed information on 94 specific microbial taxa that drive the responses of soil microbial respiration to 95 warming is still lacking. Unraveling the major microbial assemblies (groups) associated with temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration is fundamental to 96 97 better forecasting the C-climate feedbacks in a warmer planet.

98 Here, we aimed to (1) investigate the associations between soil microbial 99 community composition and temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration, and 100 (2) identify major microbial assemblies associated with temperature sensitivity of soil 101 microbial respiration. We hypothesized that (1) shifts of soil microbial community 102 composition accounted for a large proportion of variations in temperature sensitivity 103 of soil microbial respiration; (2) particular ecological assemblies including co-104 occurring microbial taxa had strong links with the temperature sensitivity of soil 105 microbial respiration. To test our hypotheses, we collected soil samples from 27 sites 106 along an altitudinal gradient on the Tibetan Plateau. This region is regarded as the 107 Earth's largest and highest plateau with relatively pristine environment and high 108 sensitivity to climate change (Dong et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019). It has been reported 109 that the region is undergoing a more rapid warming than other parts of the world

110 (Zhao et al., 2017), thus the responses of multiple ecosystem process to warming in this region is currently receiving great attention (Ma et al., 2020a; Xu et al., 2021). 111 112 There were drastic changes of climatic, biotic and abiotic environmental conditions 113 over short vertical distances (Zeng et al., 2016). Moreover, soil microbial 114 communities had been reported to vary significantly with abiotic factors (such as soil 115 pH, moisture, and substrate availability etc.) along altitudinal gradient of the plateau 116 (Li et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017). Therefore, it provides an ideal 117 natural platform for exploring the effect of soil microbial community on temperature 118 sensitivity of soil microbial respiration. We evaluated the associations between soil 119 microbial community-level properties (biomass, enzyme activities, bacterial and 120 fungal diversity and community composition) and the temperature sensitivity of soil 121 microbial respiration. Further, we identified the major microbial assemblies associated 122 with the response of soil microbial respiration to temperature changes by constructing 123 co-occurrence networks. The results of this study hold the potential in improving prediction of terrestrial C turnover in response to global climate changes. 124

125 **2. Materials and Methods**

126 2.1 Study area and field sampling

127 The study was conducted along an altitudinal gradient in Nyingchi Prefecture on the 128 southeastern Tibetan Plateau (29°34′-29°37′ N, 94°19′-94°22′ E) (Fig. S1). The 129 altitude ranges from 2974 to 3558 m, with mean annual temperature declining

130	significantly ($R^2 = 0.86$) from 8.6 to 4.7 °C along increasing altitude according to
131	WorldClim (http://www.worldclim.org). The mean temperature in the growing season
132	(between June and August) declined from approximately 19 to 6 °C with increasing
133	altitude (Chen et al., 2014; Zhuo et al., 2010). Mean annual precipitation ranges from
134	680 to 1134 mm, with the most of precipitation occurring in July and August (Chen et
135	al., 2014; Liang et al., 2009). The major ecosystem types changed from the temperate
136	coniferous and broadleaved mixed forests (dominated by Quercus aquifolioides and
137	Populus simonii) to frigid dark coniferous forests (dominated by Pinus densata and
138	Picea likiangensis var. linzhiensis) with increasing altitude. Other coexisting plant
139	species mainly included Rhododendron triflorum Hook., Caragana franchetiana
140	Kom., Iris latistyla and Anemone rivularis. The dominant soil types belong to
141	Luvisols and Cambisols based on World Reference Base for Soil Resources (IUSS
142	Working Group WRB, 2007). Twenty-seven sites were selected in alpine forests along
143	the altitudinal gradient in August 2018. At each site, a 50 m \times 50 m plot was selected
144	and then five 1 m \times 1 m sub-plots were set up to represent five replicates. Composite
145	soil samples (0-10 cm, from five soil cores) were collected from the understory or
146	adjacent open grasslands of each sub-plots. Collected soil samples were immediately
147	transported to the laboratory on ice. The stones and roots were carefully picked out,
148	and then the soil samples were divided into two portions. One was stored at -20 °C
149	for the analyses of microbial community (i.e., Miseq Illumina sequencing), and the
150	other portion was stored at 4 °C for the analyses of enzyme activities and Q ₁₀ of soil

151 microbial respiration.

152 2.2 Analyses of soil chemical and microbial properties

153 Soil pH was determined at a ratio of soil to water ratio of 1: 2.5 (w/v) by a glass electrode. Soil moisture was measured by oven-drying fresh soil for 24 h at 105 °C. 154 155 Soil organic carbon (SOC) content was determined by the K₂CrO₇ oxidation titration method (Walkley, 1947). Soil total nitrogen (TN) was directly quantified by an 156 157 elemental analyzer (Vario PYRO Cube, Elementar, Germany). Dissolved organic 158 carbon (DOC) was extracted with deionized water at a ratio of 1:4 (w/v), and then 159 filtered through a 0.45 µM Millipore filter. The concentrations of DOC in the extracts 160 were analyzed using a TOC Analyzer (vario TOC, Elementar, Germany). Labile and 161 recalcitrant fractions of SOC were measured using a two-step acid hydrolysis method (Rovira and Vallejo, 2008; Wu et al., 2018). Briefly, 0.5g of soil was hydrolyzed with 162 163 25 mL of 2.5 M H₂SO₄ at 105 °C for 30 min. The residue decanted by centrifuging was washed twice with water and dried at 60 °C. The dried residue was re-hydrolyzed 164 165 with 2 mL of 13 M H₂SO₄ at 105 °C for 3 h, washed and then dried. The C content in this fraction was measured using an elemental analyzer (Vario PYRO Cube, 166 167 Elementar, Germany) as recalcitrant C (ROC). The labile C (LOC) was calculated by 168 subtraction of ROC from total SOC.

169 Microbial biomass C was determined using the fumigation-extraction methods
170 (Vance et al., 1987). Soil enzyme activities involved in C cycling, including α-1,4-

171	glucosidase (AG), β -1,4-glucosidase (BG), cellobiohydrolase (CBH) and xylanase
172	(XYL), were estimated by a fluorimetric microplate method (Marx et al., 2001).
173	Briefly, 0.5 g of fresh soil was blended in 50 mL of deionized water for 15 min. Then
174	each aliquot of soil homogenate was mixed with 100 μ L of fluorometric substrate
175	solution (200 μ mol L ⁻¹) and 50 μ L of acetate buffer (0.2 mol L ⁻¹ , pH 5.5). Microplates
176	were then incubated for 3 h at 30 °C (Feng et al., 2018). The released fluorescence
177	was measured using a multifunctional fluorimetric plate reader (Tecan Spark [™] 10M,
178	Männedorf, Switzerland) with 360 nm excitation and 450 nm emission filters. The
179	activities were expressed as nmol g^{-1} soil h^{-1} .

180 2.3 Measurements of temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration

181 Temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration was estimated using a short-term 182 incubation method following many other studies (Liu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Specifically, all soil samples were incubated for 14 days at 10 °C and 20 °C, 183 184 respectively, following the approximate air temperature ranges of growing season at 185 our study sites (Li et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2020). We selected 14 days short-term aerobic incubation following previous studies to prevent significant changes in 186 microbial community composition (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020), as the legacy 187 effects of environmental factors on soil microbial communities may last for years 188 (Averill et al., 2016; Rousk et al., 2013). Our evaluation of Q_{10} can, at least potentially, 189 190 reflect the responses of soil microbial respiration to temperature changes, as done in 191 many previous studies (Guo et al., 2020; Johnston and Sibly, 2018; Xu et al., 2021).

192	The fresh soil sample (10 g, equivalent dry weight) was placed in a 250 mL
193	incubation bottle (three replicates for each soil) and adjusted to 60% water holding
194	capacity (WHC), which is well-suited for microbial respiration (Li et al., 2020b). The
195	experimental bottles were sealed using parafilm with small holes for ventilation and to
196	reduce water loss (Wang et al., 2018). In total, 162 incubations were performed,
197	including 27 sites \times 2 incubation temperatures \times 3 replicates. During the incubation,
198	soil WHC was maintained by adding deionized water based on the weighing method
199	at intervals of 3-4 days (Liu et al., 2017). After 14-days incubation, we measured soil
200	respiration rates of all incubation bottles. Before the incubation bottles were sealed,
201	ambient air was continuously passed through the headspace of bottles for
202	approximately 30 minutes by an air distribution system. After achieving the
203	equilibrium stage, the incubation bottles were sealed, and 6 mL headspace samples
204	were collected by plastic syringes. We additionally compared the CO ₂ concentrations
205	in the bottle headspace with the ambient air, and found no significant differences
206	between them ($P > 0.05$). Moreover, the amounts of CO ₂ in the headspace of different
207	bottles at the time of sealing were comparable to those in the ambient air. We also
208	conducted a pre-experiment to evaluate the effect of sampling time on the rates of soil
209	respiration. We found that the concentration of CO_2 increased linearly over 0-5 h
210	sampling period at both 10 °C and 20 °C incubation (Fig. S2; $R^2 = 0.83 \sim 0.99$),
211	indicating that CO ₂ was produced at a relatively constant rate during the sampling
212	period. Therefore, we evaluated the soil microbial respiration rate based on the

measurement of CO_2 concentrations at 0 and 2 h, as done in previous studies (Chen et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020c). After 2 hours incubation, the headspace sample of each bottle was collected again. The concentrations of CO_2 were analyzed by gas chromatography (Agilent 7890A, Agilent Technologies, USA). The rate of soil microbial respiration was calculated using Eqs. (1) (Shaaban et al., 2016):

218
$$Rs = \rho \times V / W \times \Delta c / \Delta t \times 273 / (T + 273)$$
(1)

where Rs is the soil microbial respiration rate (mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹); ρ is CO₂ density at standard conditions (g L⁻¹); V is the volume of the incubation bottle (L), W is soil dry weight (g), Δc is the gas production during the sealed 2 h (mg kg⁻¹), Δt is the sealed time for gas production (h), and T is the incubation temperature (°C).

223 The Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration was calculated using Eqs. (2) (Hicks Pries 224 et al., 2017):

225
$$Q_{10} = \left(\frac{R(T_2)}{R(T_1)}\right)^{\frac{10}{(T_2 - T_1)}}$$
(2)

where $R(T_2)$ and $R(T_1)$ are the CO₂ production rates (mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) in the two incubation temperatures T_1 and T_2 (°C), respectively.

228 2.4 Soil microbial community analysis

Soil DNA was extracted from 0.25 g of fresh soil stored at -20 °C using the MoBio
Power Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according

231 to the manufacturer's instructions. The V3-V4 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene

232 and ITS of fungi were amplified using primers 338F/806R (ben Omar and Ampe, 233 2000; McBain et al., 2003) and ITS1F/ITS2R (Gardes and Bruns, 1993; White et al., 234 1990), respectively. The purified amplicons with different barcodes were equimolarly 235 mixed, and 2×300 bp paired-end sequencing was carried out on an Illumina Miseq 236 sequencer (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The raw sequence data were 237 processed using QIIME 1.7.0. The quality-filtered sequences were clustered and 238 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were generated according to the 97% sequence 239 similarity (Metcalf et al., 2016). The diversity (Shannon index) and community 240 composition of bacteria and fungi were calculated based on 97% OTUs similarity of 241 obtained sequences.

242 2.5 Microbial co-occurrence network analysis

243 We constructed a co-occurrence network based on the relative abundances of bacterial 244 and fungal OTUs, and then identified main ecological clusters (modules) of strongly 245 associated OTUs as defined in Delgado-Baquerizo et al. (2020). To reduce rare OTUs 246 in the data set, the OTUs with a relative abundance more than 0.01% were chosen 247 (Ma et al., 2016), resulting in a dataset with 2340 taxa including 1433 bacterial and 248 907 fungal phylotypes (the operational taxonomic units or OTUs). We then calculated Spearman correlation coefficients between all the OTUs using the "WGCNA" 249 250 package in R 4.0.2 (http://cran.r-project.org/) (Langfelder and Horvath, 2012). To 251 reduce the chances of obtaining false positive results, the Benjamini and Hochberg 252 FDR was used to adjust all P-values (Benjamini et al., 2006), as implemented in the

"multtest" R package (Pollard et al., 2005). Robust correlations with the Spearman 253 correlation coefficients > 0.60 and FDR adjusted P-value < 0.01 were used to 254 255 construct the network. The network was visualized by the interactive Gephi platform 256 (https://gephi.org/). The nodes in this network represent the OTUs and the edges 257 represent the significant correlations between different OTUs. We used default 258 parameters from Gephi to identify modules and the modularity reached 0.658 (values > 259 0.4 suggest that the network has a modular structure; Shi et al., 2016). The relative abundance of each module was calculated by averaging the standardized relative 260 261 abundances (z-score) of the taxa that belong to each module (Liu et al., 2018a). We also calculated the degree (i.e., the number of connections for each node) of each node 262 in the co-occurrence network by Gephi (Jiao et al., 2020). Nodes with high degree 263 264 values were considered as keystone taxa in the co-occurrence network (Zhang et al., 265 2019).

266 2.6 Statistical analysis

The microbial community composition was determined by using the two axes of a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix. Mantel test was used to test the statistical differences in microbial community composition along the altitudinal gradient, using "vegan" R package (Oksanen et al., 2016). We used correlation analysis to identify the relationships between Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration, soil properties and microbial community-level properties. We then conducted Random Forest machine learning

analysis to identify the significant environmental and microbial predictors of Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration using the "rfPermute" R package. We compared the percentage increases in the mean squared error (%IncMSE) of Q_{10} values to estimate the importance of different variables, with higher %IncMSE indicating more important variables. After that, we used regression analysis to further evaluate the relationships between Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration and main environmental and microbial factors.

281 Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to evaluate the direct and 282 indirect associations between altitude, soil and microbial properties and Q₁₀ of soil 283 microbial respiration. A prior model was established according to the known 284 relationships between environmental variables and Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration 285 (Banerjee et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2017) (Fig. S3). We considered 286 that (1) altitude could drive Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration directly, and indirectly 287 through impacting soil and microbial properties; (2) soil properties could indirectly 288 drive Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration through microbial properties; (3) particular 289 microbial assemblies (i.e., modules) including co-occurring microbial taxa could also 290 directly affect Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration. Because the activities of four enzymes 291 (AG, BG, CBH and XYL) were highly positively correlated (Table S1), we used a principal component analysis (PCA) to simplify the model and reduce the 292 293 multicollinearity (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016). The first component extracted 294 from four enzymes (Enzyme) explained 81% of the total variance and was thus

295	considered as the representative of the overall variation in enzyme activities. The
296	maximum likelihood method was used for parameter estimations (Boldea and Magnus,
297	2009). There is no universally accepted single test of overall goodness of fit for SEM.
298	We used two goodness of fit measures of the model including (1) the chi-squared test
299	(χ^2 ; the model has a good fit when $0 \le \chi^2/df \le 2$ and $0.05 < P \le 1.00$, and acceptable
300	fit when $2 < \chi^2/df \le 3$ and $0.01 \le P \le 0.05$) and (2) the root mean square error of
301	approximation (RMSEA; the model has a good fit when $0 \le \text{RMSEA} \le 0.05$ and 0.10
302	$< P \le 1.00$, and acceptable fit when $0.05 < \text{RMSEA} \le 0.08$ and $0.05 \le P \le 0.10$)
303	(Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2017). With a good model fit, we were free to interpret the
304	path coefficients of the model and their associated P values. Meanwhile, we also
305	calculated the standardized total effects of altitude, soil and microbial properties on
306	the Q_{10} values. All the SEM analyses were performed using AMOS 17.0 (SPSS Inc.,
307	Chicago, IL, USA).

308 **3. Results**

309 3.1 Variations in temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration along the
310 altitudinal gradient

The results of regression analysis showed that Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration increased significantly along the altitudinal gradient (P < 0.001; Fig. 1). We found significant variations in soil pH (P = 0.003), moisture (P < 0.001), and substrate quantity (SOC, DOC, P < 0.001; TN, P = 0.011) and quality (C/N, P = 0.009; 315 LOC/ROC, P = 0.012; Fig. S4) along the altitudinal gradient, which were 316 significantly correlated with Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration excluding pH and 317 LOC/ROC (P < 0.05; Fig. 2b and S5). Specifically, Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration 318 correlated positively with soil moisture (P = 0.004), carbon and nitrogen content 319 (SOC, P = 0.026; TN, P = 0.023; DOC, P = 0.047) and C/N ratio (P = 0.041).

320 3.2 Relationships between temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration and
321 microbial properties at the community level

The Q₁₀ values of soil microbial respiration were generally correlated with microbial 322 323 community-level properties (Fig. S6). Specifically, Q₁₀ values were positively 324 correlated with MBC and enzyme activities, including BG, CBH, and XYL (P < 0.05). 325 More importantly, both Random Forest machine learning analyses and correlation 326 analysis consistently indicated that bacterial community composition (Bacteria_NMDS2) and fungal diversity (Fungi_shannon) explained the highest 327 proportion of variations in Q₁₀ values (Fig. 2 and S6). However, the proportion of 328 329 most dominant bacterial and fungal phyla, except for Mortierellomycota, had no 330 significant associations with the Q_{10} values (P > 0.05; Table S2). Additionally, these 331 microbial properties at the community level varied significantly along the altitudinal gradient (Fig. S7 and S8). In brief, microbial biomass (MBC, P = 0.02) and enzyme 332 333 activities (AG, P = 0.041; XYL, P = 0.02) showed overall increasing trends as the 334 altitude increased (Fig. S7), while bacterial and fungal diversity (Shannon) declined 335 significantly with the increasing altitude (P < 0.05; Fig. S8). Mantel test and 17

336 correlation analysis consistently indicated that bacterial and fungal community 337 composition also varied significantly along the altitude (P < 0.05; Fig. S6 and S9).

338 3.3 Microbial assemblies and their relationships with temperature sensitivity of soil
339 microbial respiration

340 Soil bacterial and fungal taxa within the co-occurrence network could be grouped into eight major ecological modules (with nodes > 2, Fig. 3a). Among them, the relative 341 342 abundances of module #1 and #8 decreased with the increasing altitude, while module 343 #4 and #5 showed the opposite patterns (Fig. S10). Results of Random Forest 344 machine learning analysis indicated that module #1 and #4 were significant predictors 345 (P < 0.05) of the Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration, even considering other 346 environmental factors (i.e., soil and microbial community-level properties; Fig. S11 and S12). Further regression analysis showed that the Q_{10} values were correlated 347 348 negatively with the relative abundance of module #1 but positively with that of 349 module #4 (Fig. 3b). The module #1 was dominated by Alphaproteobacteria (e.g., 350 Sphingomonas, Methylobacterium and Nordella), Actinobacteria (e.g., Conexibacter 351 and Arthrobacter), Ascomycota (e.g., Cladophialophora and Knufia). The dominant 352 phylotypes within module #4 were Acidobacteria (e.g., RB41), Deltaproteobacteria 353 (e.g., Haliangium), Basidiomycota (e.g., Clavaria). The keystone taxa in module #1 354 included Sphingomonas, Blastococcus and Skermanella etc., and those in module #4 355 included RB41, Xylophilus, Castanediella etc. (Fig. 3c, Table S3).

356 3.4 The role of soil microbial communities in driving temperature sensitivity of soil
357 microbial respiration

358 Our SEM analysis provided further statistical evidence that Q₁₀ of soil microbial 359 respiration had a strong link with microbial properties when we concurrently considered microbial community-level properties and other environmental properties 360 such as pH, moisture, SOC, TN, DOC, C/N and LOC/ROC in the model (Fig. 4). 361 362 Importantly, ecological module abundances explained the highest proportion of 363 variations in Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration, with module #1 showing the largest total standardized effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) on the Q₁₀ values. 364 365 Specifically, the relative abundance of module #1 was directly and negatively 366 associated with the Q_{10} values, while module #4 had a direct and positive relationship with Q_{10} values. In contrast, soil properties were indirectly related to the Q_{10} of soil 367 microbial respiration through ecological modules and microbial diversity. However, 368 369 we did not observe significant associations of MBC and enzyme activities with Q_{10} of 370 soil microbial respiration according to the model.

371 **4. Discussion**

372 Our study provided empirical evidence for the important associations between soil 373 microbial community composition and the temperature sensitivity of soil microbial 374 respiration in alpine forests along the altitudinal gradient from the climate-sensitive 375 Tibetan Plateau. Particularly, shifts in microbial community composition were more 376 closely related to temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration than other environmental factors such as soil pH, moisture, and substrate quantity and quality. 377 378 More importantly, we identified major microbial assemblies (ecological clusters or 379 modules) with different trophic strategies that were significant predictors of the 380 temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration, providing unique information on microbial taxa potentially associated with the response of soil microbial respiration to 381 382 temperature changes. Further, progressive shifts of microbial assemblies dominated by the taxa preferentially utilizing labile C or recalcitrant C could be major regulators 383 384 of variations in temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration along the 385 altitudinal gradient. These findings advance our understanding of the feedbacks of 386 terrestrial C cycles to global climate changes.

387 The increased Q_{10} values with the increasing altitude indicate that soil microbial 388 respiration is more sensitive to temperature changes in cold high-altitude regions. This 389 is in concordance with previous studies on different latitudinal and altitudinal 390 gradients with distinct temperature patterns (Gutiérrez-Girón et al., 2015; Liu et al., 391 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Consistent with our first hypothesis, we observed that the 392 variations in the Q₁₀ values along the altitudinal gradient largely depend on soil 393 microbial community-level properties according to our combined analyses of SEM 394 and Random Forest machine learning. Particularly, our findings highlight the important role of microbial community composition in driving Q₁₀ of soil microbial 395 396 respiration. Recent studies demonstrated that harsh environments (such as low 397 substrate quality and temperature) at high-altitude areas could favor the prevalence of particular microbial taxa that adapted to cold and oligotrophic conditions (Feng et al., 398 399 2017; Karhu et al., 2014; Malik et al., 2020b), and further shift microbial community 400 by deterministic processes (Xun et al., 2019). Similarly, our results showed that 401 substrate quality decreased (i.e., increased C/N ratio and decreased LOC/ROC ratio) 402 with increasing altitude, which supported unique microbial communities responsible 403 for the decomposition of low-quality C (e.g., phenolic and aromatic compounds commonly with high C/N ratio) at the high-altitude areas (Ali et al., 2018; Liu et al., 404 405 2017). Apart from soil substrate quality status, the altitude-induced changes in temperature could also influence soil microbial communities. Previous studies have 406 407 suggested that shifts of microbial community composition responding to altitude were 408 often dependent on temperature variations (Frindte et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2021). For 409 instance, decreased temperature along increasing altitude would favor the dominance 410 of fungal communities that preferentially utilize recalcitrant C, as lower temperature 411 was more optimal for fungal growth compared with bacteria (Cheng et al., 2021; 412 Whitaker et al., 2014). According to the C quality temperature hypothesis, the 413 decomposition of low-quality substrate (recalcitrant C) is more sensitive to 414 temperature changes than the high-quality substrate (labile C) because of its higher 415 activation energy (Lefevre et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2018). Thus, the increased Q_{10} of 416 soil microbial respiration could be partly attributed to the shifts in microbial community composition that subjected to the decreased substrate quality and 417

418 temperature along the altitudinal gradient. This is evident by the strong associations between altitude, soil C/N and LOC/ROC ratios and microbial community structure, 419 420 which is in accordance with previous studies (Ding et al., 2015; Fanin and Bertrand, 421 2016; Frindte et al., 2019). Our study also presents that the decreased fungal diversity 422 had a direct relationship with the increased Q_{10} values along increasing altitude, 423 further indicating that microbial communities shaped by environmental selection contribute to temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration. Furthermore, 424 425 changes in other factors (such as SOC, TN, MBC, enzyme activities etc.) along the 426 altitudinal gradient may also affect Q_{10} (Čapek et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020c). However, our SEM suggested no significant direct associations of these 427 factors with Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration, emphasizing the importance of 428 429 microbial community composition for predicting temperature sensitivity of soil 430 microbial respiration.

431 It is thus essential to unravel the taxonomic attributes of the microbes involved in 432 C metabolisms, although identifying the taxa responsible for the Q_{10} variations 433 remains challenging. Soil respiration is generally considered as a "broad biological process" involving a wide array of microbial taxa in terrestrial ecosystems (Banerjee 434 435 et al., 2016; Crowther et al., 2019). Further, different microbial taxa may utilize resources via distinct trophic strategies, contributing differently to Q₁₀ of soil 436 437 microbial respiration at a community level. Our results indicated that the phylogenetic 438 groups based on high-level classification (e.g., class or phylum level) might be weak

439 predictors of changes in Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration along the altitudinal gradient, as most dominant bacterial and fungal taxa at the phylum level had no significant 440 441 associations with Q_{10} values. This weak association could be due to taxa within each 442 phylum that have enormous phylogenetic and physiological diversity and thus have 443 distinct potential to metabolize C (Li et al., 2021a). Therefore, we identified particular 444 ecological clusters associated with Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration based on the 445 microbial co-occurrence network analysis, where the taxa that share similar niche and 446 ecological functions could be grouped into the same ecological cluster (Liu et al., 447 2018a; Ma et al., 2020b). The identification of co-occurring microbial assemblies has implications for screening the microbial taxa associated with temperature sensitivity 448 449 of soil microbial respiration, though their specific functions need to be validated in the 450 future.

451 Our results are consistent with the second hypothesis that particular microbial 452 ecological clusters are the most important predictors of the Q₁₀ values. For example, 453 keystone taxa within module #1 such as Skermanella and Blastococcus are known to 454 preferentially utilize labile C (Wang et al., 2021). Moreover, the most genera of 455 module #1 are essential members of Alphaproteobacteria and Actinobacteria (known 456 as r-strategists), which are more adapted to warm and nutrient-rich conditions and 457 efficient to mineralize labile C (Li et al., 2021a; Uksa et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2017). 458 These r-strategists could also invest most energy and resources into reproduction and 459 subsequently reduce the proportion of substrate allocated to respiration (Malik et al.,

460 2020a). Thus, the decreased module #1 may lead to the increased Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration with the increasing altitude. In contrast, our results imply that module #4 461 462 may have a positive effect on the Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration. This is because considerable members of module #4 belonged to Acidobacteria, Basidiomycota, and 463 464 Deltaproteobacteria, which are commonly classified as K-strategists (Bledsoe et al., 465 2020; Yao et al., 2017). Previous studies indicated that Basidiomycota, and 466 Deltaproteobacteria were generally found to be predominant in the Antarctic and 467 Arctic samples and may thus represent typical colonizers of cold ecosystems (Duarte 468 et al., 2018; Varin et al., 2012). These K-strategists in harsh environments (i.e., low substrate quality and temperature) commonly have slow growth rates and 469 preferentially utilize recalcitrant C (Hale et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020). The 470 471 decomposition of recalcitrant C via enzymes is energy cost, and thus K-strategists are 472 likely to invest a large proportion of energy and resources into the respiration rather 473 than growth yield (Malik et al., 2020a). The positive relationship between module #4 474 and Q_{10} values further confirmed that the Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration would 475 increase with the prevalence of microbial K-strategists along the altitudinal gradient. This finding was also supported by a recent measurement of the Q₁₀ of soil microbial 476 477 respiration along the latitudinal gradient in temperate mixed forest ecosystems (Li et 478 al., 2021a). Therefore, these ecological clusters with different trophic strategies could 479 help to explain the observed variations in Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration along the 480 altitudinal gradient. However, we note that the trophic strategies of soil microbial

481 community require further validation using methods such as omics (i.e., genomics,
482 transcriptomics, proteomics) and stable isotope tracing (Malik et al., 2020a). Future
483 works on trophic strategies of microbial communities and their effects on temperature
484 sensitivity of soil microbial respiration should consolidate our findings.

In addition, the Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration was also related to the fungal 485 community, which has been reported to have predominant ability to decompose 486 complex and recalcitrant C (Cheng et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018). Thus, a large 487 488 proportion of soil fungi in the module #4, which could be attributed to the low 489 temperature and soil C quality conditions, may partially account for the relatively high Q10 values at high-altitude regions (Fig. S13). These observations agree with a 490 491 previous study indicating significant associations between fungal abundance and Q_{10} 492 of soil microbial respiration in high-altitude regions of the Western Carpathians 493 (Klimek et al., 2016). In addition, some fungal genera within particular ecological 494 cluster (i.e., module #4) such as Clavaria, Botryobasidium, Hypochnicium, and 495 Pseudotricholoma may prefer degrading recalcitrant C, which likely stimulate the Q_{10} 496 of soil microbial respiration. We subsequently provide a conceptual framework for the 497 links between microbial community composition and Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration. 498 The altitude-induced differences in temperature and soil substrate quantity and quality 499 have significant effects on the shifts of microbial assemblies with different trophic 500 strategies, and eventually influence the response of soil microbial respiration to 501 temperature changes. In high-altitude regions with historically low temperature, the

502 large accumulation of recalcitrant C favors the growth of soil microbes such as 503 bacterial Haliangium and fungal Clavaria, shaping microbial community dominated 504 by taxa that prefer utilizing recalcitrant C. Our results advance the present knowledge 505 by providing a list of candidate microbial taxa associated with temperature sensitivity 506 of soil microbial respiration, though further work needs to be done to uncover the 507 underlying mechanisms of how the specific taxa affect temperature sensitivity of soil 508 microbial respiration.

509 Overall, our study determines the role of soil microbial communities in affecting 510 Q₁₀ of soil microbial respiration. We clearly showed that microbial community 511 composition is responsible for the Q_{10} values along the altitudinal gradient. We have 512 identified two major microbial assemblies associated with Q₁₀ of soil microbial 513 respiration. However, microbial assemblies are characterized by distinct altitudinal 514 patterns that often covary with other abiotic factors such as soil pH and moisture 515 (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015). Therefore, the roles of these 516 abiotic factors in regulating Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration cannot be ignored. In this 517 study, Q₁₀ values was well related to soil moisture, which is concordant with the 518 previous studies showing that Q₁₀ of soil respiration was positively correlated with 519 soil moisture (Liu et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017). For instance, increased soil moisture 520 could facilitate mobility of those microorganisms towards substrate (i.e., recalcitrant 521 C) due to substrate diffusion (Abera et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019). However, it should 522 be noted that microbial properties, particularly microbial assemblies with different trophic strategies, were important predictors of the response of soil microbial respiration even after considering these key abiotic factors. The effects of abiotic factors (e.g., soil pH and moisture) on Q_{10} values could be achieved partly through their effects on microbial community properties along the altitudinal gradient (Liu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017). Therefore, our results highlighted the potential importance of shifts in microbial assemblies with different trophic strategies in affecting temperature sensitivity of soil microbial respiration.

530 **5. Conclusions**

531 Our results identify how shifts of microbial assemblies from labile to recalcitrant C 532 utilization affect Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration in alpine forests along the altitudinal 533 gradient on the Tibetan Plateau. Progressive shifts of microbial assemblies from labile to recalcitrant C consumption could contribute to the higher Q_{10} values in relatively 534 535 higher altitude regions. These findings indicate that the historically accumulated huge 536 amounts of C in high-altitude regions are more vulnerable to global warming. Our 537 study offers new insights from specific shifts in microbial assemblies to understand 538 Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration along the altitudinal gradient on the Tibetan Plateau. 539 By exploring the potential links between specific microbial taxa and soil C dynamics and by incorporating those links into data-driven models, we could improve the 540 understanding of microbially-mediated soil C dynamics under climate warming 541 542 scenarios.

543 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

Xiao-Min Zeng: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, 544 545 Investigation, Writing - original draft, Visualization. Jiao Feng: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. Ji Chen: Writing -546 547 review & editing. Manuel Delgado-Baquerizo: Writing – review & editing, Funding 548 acquisition. Qianggong Zhang: Funding acquisition, Resources. Xin-Quan Zhou: 549 Investigation, Data curation. Yusen Yuan: Methodology. Songhui Feng: 550 Methodology. Kexin Zhang: Methodology. Yu-Rong Liu: Conceptualization, 551 Resources, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. Qiaoyun Huang: Supervision. 552

553 **Declaration of competing interest**

554 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal 555 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. The pattern of the temperature sensitivity (Q_{10}) of soil microbial respiration along the altitudinal gradient.

Figure 2. The potential predictors of Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration evaluated by Random Forest machine learning analysis (**a**), and relationships between selected biotic and abiotic factors and Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration (**b**). Significant predictors (P < 0.05) are plotted in orange or blue. The higher %IncMSE values represent the more important variables. SOC, soil organic carbon; TN, total nitrogen; DOC, dissolved organic carbon; LOC/ROC, percentage of labile and recalcitrant C; MBC, microbial biomass carbon; AG, α -1,4-glucosidase; BG, β -1,4-glucosidase; CBH, cellobiohydrolase; XYL, xylanase.

Figure 3. The network diagram with nodes colored by each of the eight ecological clusters (modules, Mod#1-8) (**a**), relationships between relative abundance of the selected ecological clusters and Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration (**b**), and operational taxonomic units (OTUs) number properties of the dominant bacterial and fungal genus in the main modules associated with Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration (**c**). The outer ring and interior pie represent OTUs number properties of the dominant phylum (top 10) and genus (top 20%), respectively. The red triangle represents the keystone taxa in modules. Additional information on the OTUs in the modules is available in Supplementary Table S3.

Figure 4. The structural equation modeling (SEM) identifying the direct and indirect associations between altitude, soil and microbial properties and Q_{10} of soil microbial respiration (**a**), and the standardized total effects (STE, direct plus indirect effects) derived from the SEM (**b**). Numbers labeling the arrow lines are indicative of the effect size of the relationship. We only included those direct or indirect associations that could affect Q_{10} values for graphical simplicity. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01. The rest of associations between altitude and soil and microbial properties are available in Supplementary Figure S14. Information on the environmental factors included in our SEM can be found in Supplementary Figure S3.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4

Supplementary Material

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Declaration of interests

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

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Author Contribution Statement

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