

1 **Title: Dew formation reduction in global warming experiments and**
2 **the potential consequences**

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4 Tianjiao Feng^{a,†}, Lixu Zhang^{a,†}, Qian Chen^a, Zhiyuan Ma^a, Hao Wang^b, Zijian
5 Shangguan^a, Lixin Wang^c, Jin-Sheng He^{a,b,*}

6 ^a*Institute of Ecology, College of Urban and Environmental Sciences, and Key*
7 *Laboratory for Earth Surface Processes of the Ministry of Education, Peking*
8 *University, Beijing 100871, China*

9 ^b*State Key Laboratory of Grassland Agro-ecosystems, College of Pastoral*
10 *Agriculture Science and Technology, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou 730020, China*

11 ^c*Department of Earth Sciences, Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis*
12 *(IUPUI), Indianapolis, IN 46202, USA*

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16 [†]*Co-first authors: Tianjiao Feng and Lixu Zhang have equal contribution to this*
17 *study.*

18 ^{*}*Corresponding author: Jin-Sheng He (jshe@pku.edu.cn):*

19 *Institute of Ecology, College of Urban and Environmental Sciences, Peking*
20 *University, Beijing 100871, China*

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Dew, as an important contribution of non-rainfall water (NRW), plays a vital
24 role in ecosystem processes in arid and semi-arid regions and is expected to be
25 affected by climate warming. Infrared heater warming systems have been widely
26 used to simulate climate warming effects on ecosystems. However, how this
27 warming system affects dew formation has been long ignored and rarely
28 addressed. In a typical alpine grassland ecosystem on the Northeast of the Tibetan
29 Plateau, we measured dew amount and duration using three independent methods:
30 artificial condensing surfaces, leaf wetness sensors and *in situ* dew formation on
31 plants from 2012 to 2017. We also measured plant traits related to dew conditions.
32 The results showed that (1) warming reduced the dew amount by 41.6%-91.1%
33 depending on the measurement method, and reduced dew duration by 32.1 days
34 compared to the ambient condition. (2) Different plant functional groups differed
35 in dew formation. (3) Under the infrared warming treatment, the dew amount
36 decreased with plant height, while under the ambient conditions, the dew amount
37 showed the opposite trend. We concluded that warming with an infrared heater
38 system greatly reduces dew formation, and if ignored, it may lead to
39 overestimation of the effects of climate warming on ecosystem processes in
40 climate change simulation studies.

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42 **Key Words:** Alpine ecosystem; Climate warming; Ecohydrology; Dew formation;

43 Non-rainfall water; Tibetan Plateau: Warming experiments

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Dew, as an important contribution of non-rainfall water (NRW), is considered a
46 vital water source in semiarid and arid areas (Agam and Berliner, 2006; Wang et al.,
47 2017a; Beysens, 2018; Kidron and Starinsky, 2019). In such environments, water is a
48 limiting factor and dew plays an indispensable role on plants (Benasher et al., 2010;
49 Zhuang and Ratcliffe, 2012; Oliveira, 2013; Hill et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019),
50 biological crusts (Zhang et al., 2009; Fischer et al., 2012; Kidron and Temina, 2013),
51 small animals (Steinberger et al., 1989; Zheng et al., 2010) and microorganisms
52 (Agam and Berliner, 2006; Kidron et al., 2011; Kidron and Temina, 2013 and 2017;
53 Kidron and Kronenfeld, 2019). Dew also determined the magnitude of water and
54 energy flux and ecological processes during the periods of drought (Beysens et al.,
55 2006; Zhang et al., 2019; Gotsch et al., 2015). In particular, dew has significant
56 effects on soil-plant interactions (Munné, 1999; Kidron and Starinsky, 2012;
57 Goldsmith et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019), and dew influences plant foliar uptakes
58 (Berry et al., 2019; Berry and Goldsmith, 2020), increases photosynthesis (by
59 enhancing CO₂ uptake) and decrease transpiration (Beysens, 1995; Benasher et al.,
60 2010; Wang et al., 2017a; Goldsmith et al., 2017).

61 To date, evidence suggests that dew in ecosystems alters microclimate by
62 changing energy balance, water budget and plant water status (Tomaszkiewicz et al.,
63 2015; Kaseke and Wang, 2018). In turn, dew formation in ecosystems is affected by
64 many factors. Dew results from the condensation of water vapor on a surface, in
65 contrast to fog, soil water adsorption or other non-rainfall water (Kaseke et al., 2017;

66 Beysens, 2018; Kidron and Starinsky, 2019; Kidron and Kronenfeld, 2020). Dew
67 condensation process can proceed because the substrate surface cools down below the
68 dew point temperature of surrounding air, due to the radiation deficit between surface
69 and atmosphere (Beysens, 2016; Beysens et al., 2003). Dew formation therefore
70 depends on the details of the condensation surface properties (e.g., substrate shape,
71 size, emissivity and heat capacity, and surface roughness), location (e.g., angle,
72 orientation position and height above ground, determining the sky view factor) and
73 the characteristics of the atmospheric condition (e.g., air temperature, relative
74 humidity and vapor pressure deficit, Kidron, 2005; Kidron and Starinsky, 2019). The
75 dew formation processes and the influencing factors were thoroughly covered by
76 Agam and Berliner (2006), Kidron and Starinsky (2019), Beysens (1995, 2006), and
77 the important book of Beysens (2018). Furthermore, the above-mentioned factors
78 (e.g., substrate properties, atmospheric condition) would change under different
79 climatic conditions and are associated with different plant species or functional
80 groups (Agam and Berliner, 2006; Hao et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2020). Few studies
81 have investigated the influences of different plant functional groups on dew
82 formations. Plant functional groups can change the micro-environment and substrates
83 properties affecting dew amount and duration through differences in aboveground
84 biomass, leaf area, leaf roughness and plant height (Wang et al. 2012, Xu et al. 2015,
85 Tomasziewicz et al. 2016). Thus, it is expected that rapidly changing climates and
86 different plant functional groups will significantly affect dew formation (Walther et al.,
87 2002; Xiao et al., 2013; Li et al., 2018).

88 To simulate climate warming, an infrared heater warming system is widely used
89 to address the potential impacts of climate warming on ecosystems in the field (Liu et
90 al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Ettinger et al., 2019). However, there are differences
91 between infrared heater warming and natural warming (Song et al., 2019; Shaver et
92 al., 2000). For natural warming, the extra energy should dissipate in three pathways:
93 sensible heat, latent heat and soil heat fluxes (Shaver et al., 2000; Rustad et al. 2001).
94 These three energy dissipation pathways are responsible for warming of the air,
95 increasing evapotranspiration and heating the soil, respectively (Shaver et al., 2000).
96 In terms of the three heat dissipation pathways, the infrared heater warming system is
97 technically different from the natural warming. It will increase the air temperature and
98 the air sensible heat radiation, which will lead to the increase of the drying degree in
99 the micro-environment at the community scale, and will affect a number of ecosystem
100 processes (Rustad et al. 2001, Liu et al. 2016). Therefore, the effects of infrared heater
101 warming have the potential to influence dew formation (Wolkovich et al., 2012; Moni
102 et al., 2019).

103 Recently, there are increasing number of studies on dew research
104 (Tomaszkiewicz et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017a; Aguirre-Gutiérrez et al., 2019), most
105 of which analyzed the ecological effects of dew on ecosystem processes, such as plant
106 photosynthesis and transpiration in ecosystems (Ninari and Berliner, 2002; De Boeck
107 et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017b; Beysens, 2018), or compared the effects of
108 environmental factors on dew formation (Hao et al., 2012; Ettinger et al., 2019;
109 Beysens, 2016). There are also substantial efforts have been made to study the

110 potential impacts of climate warming on dryland ecosystems by manipulating
111 temperature in the field with various warming facilities (Kimball et al., 2018; Moni et
112 al., 2019; Song et al., 2019). However, the effects of artificial warming on dew
113 formation and ecosystem processes have not been addressed and have been
114 overlooked. As a result, the observed changes in ecological processes in various
115 climate change studies are likely attributed, to some extent, to altered dew amounts,
116 misrepresenting the effects of warming on ecosystem processes (Wolkovich et al.,
117 2012; Song et al., 2019).

118 Few studies on dew research have been conducted in the context of climate
119 change, and global warming experiments have not reported the effects of climate
120 change or plant traits and functional groups on dew formation or even considered the
121 effects of dew as a long-term factor affecting soils and plants as well as ecosystem
122 processes during the course of climate change (Tomaszkiewicz et al., 2015; Li et al.,
123 2018). On the other hand, few studies have investigated the influences of different
124 plant traits or functional groups on dew amount and duration (Wang et al., 2012; Xu
125 et al., 2015; Tomasziewicz et al., 2016). Therefore, the impacts of artificial warming,
126 plant traits and functional groups on dew formation urgently need to be revealed to
127 better understand the impacts of warming on ecosystem processes (Korell et al.,
128 2019).

129 Experimental data from field-based climate change experiments are crucial to
130 determine mechanistic links between simulated climate change and dew formation.
131 This study is a part of a comprehensive warming experiment in a typical alpine

132 grassland in Tibet Plateau (Liu et al., 2018), where we measured the dew amount and
133 duration using the methods of the artificial condensation surface, leaf wetness sensor
134 and *in situ* plant dew formation measurement to explore the responses of dew
135 formation among different functional groups to simulated climate warming. The
136 objectives of the present study were to (1) address how the widely used infrared
137 heater warming system affects dew amount and duration and (2) elucidate whether
138 plant functional groups, which are expected to shift under future warming, affect dew
139 formation under ambient and warming conditions. Our results will enhance the
140 understanding of the characteristics of dew formation under a warming climate in the
141 future.

142

143 **2. Materials and methods**

144 2.1. Study site

145 The study site was located at Haibei National Field Research Station of the
146 Alpine Grassland Ecosystem (37°36' N, 101°19' E, 3215 m a.s.l.) in the northeastern
147 part of the Tibetan Plateau, China. The mean annual air temperature and precipitation
148 were -1.2 °C and 489.0 mm during 1980-2014, respectively (Liu et al., 2018).

149 Approximately 80% of the precipitation was concentrated in the growing season
150 (from May to September). The ambient conditions of air temperature and
151 precipitation distribution of study area was shown at Fig. 1. This mesic alpine
152 grassland is dominated by *Stipa aliena*, *Elymus nutans* and *Helictotrichon tibeticum*.
153 The soil is classified as a Mollisol according to USDA Soil Taxonomy. The average

154 soil bulk density, organic carbon concentration and pH were $0.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$, $63.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$
155 and 7.8 at the 0-10 cm soil depth, respectively (Lin et al., 2016).

156 2.2. Warming experiment design

157 Our study was conducted within an experimental warming \times precipitation
158 infrastructure within an area of $50 \text{ m} \times 110 \text{ m}$ that was established in July 2011 (Fig.
159 2a). The design of the experiment was detailed in Liu et al. (2018). In brief, the
160 experiment manipulated the temperature ($+2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, control) and precipitation ($+50\%$,
161 control, -50%) with a completely randomized design. Each treatment had six
162 replicates, and six plots of $2.2 \text{ m} \times 1.8 \text{ m}$ were randomly divided into six blocks. The
163 warming treatment was warmed by two infrared heaters (220 V , 1200 W , 1.0 m long,
164 0.22 m wide and 1.2 m above the ground), which operate all the time and had been
165 resulting in an increase of 2°C above ambient temperature at the top 5 cm layer of the
166 soil (Ma et al., 2017). In the current study, we only compared ambient and warming
167 conditions (Fig. 2).

168 Air temperature and relative humidity probes (VP-3, METER Group, Inc.,
169 Pullman, WA, USA) were installed 30 cm above the soil surface within each plot. All
170 data were automatically recorded hourly and stored in a data logger (EM50, METER
171 Group, Inc., Pullman, WA, USA).

172 2.3. Dew formation measurements

173 We used three methods to measure dew amount and duration (Fig. 3):

174 (1) **Artificial condensation surface:** The daily dew production was collected
175 and measured using a preplaced plastic film, $20 \text{ cm} \times 20 \text{ cm}$ in size, 15 cm above the

176 ground, at each plot (Vuollekoski et al., 2015; Kidron and Starinsky, 2019). The
177 specific material is Polyethylene (PE) and its thickness is 0.05 cm. The IR emissivity
178 of this material ranges from 0.81 to 0.93 (Zhu 2007) and it is 0.91 in our study
179 calculated by the manufacturer. Moisture and dew measurements are calculated by the
180 difference in weight before and after dew collection. Specifically, the clean plastic
181 films were weighed and placed at each plot at 20:00 pm (local time) the day before
182 each measurement. At 6:00 am the next morning, the preplaced plastic films were
183 weighed, and the differences in the weights were designated as the dew production (g)
184 for that night. The dew amount (mm) was equal to the dew weight divided by the area
185 of the plastic film. In this study, the dew amounts were measured by this method on
186 sunny and windless days two times per week (total number of measurements were 42)
187 during the peak growing seasons (from July to September) in 2012 and 2013.

188 (2) ***In situ* dew formation measurements on plants:** Dew formation on plants
189 was measured by sampling the outside plots to avoid disturbing the plant community
190 composition of each plot. Similar individuals of the same species were chosen to
191 measure dew formation. For each species, four or five individuals were selected,
192 weighed (fresh weight), measured plant heights and placed into floral foam to prevent
193 wilting the day before measurement and then placed at each plot at 20:00 pm (local
194 time). At 6:00 am the next morning, these plants were weighed after being brought
195 back to the laboratory to attain the total weight. The dew production (g) was equal to
196 the total weight minus the plant fresh weight. At the same time, we scanned the leaf
197 area of plants and finally calculated the dew amount (mm) produced per unit plant

198 area. In this study, the dew amounts were measured by this method on sunny and
199 windless days three times per week (total number of measurements were 40) during
200 the peak growing season (from July to September) in 2017.

201 (3) **Leaf wetness sensors:** The dew amount and duration were monitored hourly
202 using leaf wetness sensors (S-LWA-M003, Onset Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA,
203 USA), which is 15 cm above the ground and a HOBO data logger (H21-002, Onset
204 Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) at each plot from 2015 to 2017 (Chen
205 2015). The dew amount was calculated by the fitting relationship between the
206 measured leaf wetness sensor readings and the actual condensed water amount (g).
207 We sprayed water evenly on the leaf wetness sensors to induce water condensation on
208 their surface, recorded the instrument reading, and established the relationship
209 between the condensation amount and the leaf wetness sensor readings. In addition,
210 the simulated solid condensation amount was determined using the same method in a
211 -20 °C refrigerator to establish a relationship curve. We repeated the above steps
212 multiple times to ensure a wide range of leaf wetness sensor readings. The
213 relationship curve between the leaf wetness sensor readings and the condensation
214 amount was fitted (Fig. S1), and the relationship was as follows:

$$215 \quad D = (0.00005 \times RI^2 + 0.0001 \times RI) / S, R^2 = 0.71, p < 0.001,$$

216 where D is the dew amount (mm), RI is the leaf wetness sensor reading and S is
217 the area of the leaf wetness sensor, which was 4.7 cm × 5.1 cm.

218 In our study, the former two measurement methods focused on dew amount,
219 while only the leaf wetness sensor method measured the dew duration. The data were

220 automatically recorded hourly, and dew duration was calculated as the number of days
221 for which dew was recorded between 8:00 p.m. and 6:00 a.m. of the next morning
222 during the measuring periods.

223 2.4. Dew formation and aboveground biomass at the species level

224 In total, we measured dew formation at the species level for 10 species. These
225 ten species accounted for approximately 72% of the total community biomass (Liu et
226 al., 2018). We divided these plant species into three functional groups, i.e., grasses
227 (*Stipa aliena*, *Elymus nutans* and *Helictotrichon tibeticum*), forbs (*Tibetia himalaica*,
228 *Oxytropis ochrocephala*, *Medicago ruthenica*, *Gentiana straminea* and *Saussurea*
229 *pulchra*), and sedges (*Kobresia humilis* and *Carex przewalskii*) and separately
230 analyzed their dew formation responses to warming. The aboveground biomass was
231 separated into grasses, sedges, and forbs, harvested and oven-dried at 65 °C to a
232 constant weight. Plant height was measured using five selected individuals per species
233 in each plot before dew formation measurement during the experimental periods.

234 2.5. The extra radiative distribution

235 The radiative flux of infrared heater and the distance from the lamp to the
236 condenser should affect the IR energy balance and dew formation. Here the extra IR
237 power received by the condensing surface (radiative flux per unit condensing surface,
238 G_i [W/m²]) at different height compared to ambient conditions were quantitatively
239 explained by following method:

$$S_i = a_i \cdot b_i = (2 \tan \alpha \cdot h_i + 0.22) \cdot b_i$$

$$G_i = \frac{P}{S_i} = \frac{P}{(2 \tan \alpha \cdot h_i + 0.22) \cdot b_i}$$

240 where S_i [m^2] and P [W] are irradiated area and mean emitted power by two
 241 infrared heaters (1.0 m long, 0.22 m wide, 1200W) at the height of h_i [m], respectively.
 242 α is the angle between the lampshade and the vertical line of the infrared lamp and it
 243 equals 30° in this study plots. a_i [m] and b_i [m] are the length and width of S_i . h_i [m] is
 244 the distance from the lamp to the condenser.

245 2.6 Data Analysis

246 Based on long-term meteorological observations, the dew point temperature was
 247 calculated by Penman-Monteith equation with the following function (Allen et al.,
 248 1998):

$$T_{dew} = \frac{116.91 + 237.3 \ln(e_a)}{16.78 - \ln(e_a)}$$

$$e_a = \frac{RH}{100} e^o(T)$$

$$249 \quad e^o(T_a) = 0.6108 \exp \left[\frac{17.27T}{T+237.3} \right],$$

250 where T_{dew} is dew point temperature [$^\circ C$], e_a is actual vapour pressure [kPa], e^o
 251 (T) is saturation vapor pressure at the air temperature T_a [kPa], and T_a is air
 252 temperature [$^\circ C$]. Meanwhile, the temperature differences ($T_a - T_{dew}$) was calculated by
 253 the difference between the air temperature (T_a) and dew point temperature (T_{dew}) to
 254 represent the difficult degrees of dew formation.

255 The dew point temperature was calculated using long-term meteorological
 256 observations. Linear regression was used to test the relationship between plant height
 257 and dew amount in the control and warming treatments. To test the warming effect,
 258 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's HSD test were used to
 259 determine differences in dew amount and duration between the control and warming

260 plots. All statistical analyses were conducted using R 3.2.2 software (R Foundation
261 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2013). Differences were considered
262 significant at $P < 0.05$ unless otherwise stated.

263

264 **3. Results**

265 3.1. Effects of warming on the dew formation

266 The multiple measurement methods showed decreased dew amounts under
267 warming conditions. Warming resulted in average decreases of 91.7%, 83.9% and
268 41.6% in dew amount by the artificial condensation surfaces method, the *in situ* dew
269 formation on plants and the leaf wetness sensors, respectively (linear mixed-effects
270 model: $P < 0.001$; Fig. 4). From 2015 to 2017, warming significantly decreased the
271 dew duration by an average of 10.3% (linear mixed-effects model: $P < 0.001$; Fig. 5a).
272 Therefore, warming reduced the total dew formation by not only reducing the daily
273 dew amounts (mm/day) but also the dew duration (days). The results also showed that
274 warming significantly increased the temperature differences ($T_a - T_{dew}$) by 3.8% ($P <$
275 0.001 ; Fig. 5b), which made dew formation more difficult. Furthermore, the
276 differences in the dew amount between the control and warming treatments
277 ($D_{control} - D_{warming}$) showed significant differences at the seasonal scale (Fig. 5c).

278 3.2. Effects of warming on dew amount among different functional 279 groups

280 The total aboveground biomass and dew amounts among each functional group
281 were measured by *in situ* dew formation measurements on plants in this study. The

282 results showed that different plant functional groups significantly differed in dew
283 formation and warming significantly decreased the dew amount among each
284 functional group (a reduction of 83.5%, 71.6%, 97.6% and 87.0% for sedges, forbs,
285 grasses and all species combined, Fig. 6a), while it slightly changed the aboveground
286 biomass of different functional groups (Fig. 6b).

287 3.3. Effects of warming on the relationships between plant height and 288 dew amount

289 Compared with the control treatment, the warming treatment significantly
290 affected the relationship between plant height and dew amount ($P < 0.001$, $n=60$; Fig.
291 7). In the control treatment, linear regression revealed that the dew amount was
292 significantly positively correlated with plant height ($R^2 = 0.35$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 7a).
293 However, dew amount was significantly negatively correlated with plant height ($R^2 =$
294 0.34 , $P < 0.001$; Fig. 7b) in the warming treatment.

295 3.4 The radiative power distribution under inferred warming

296 Compared with the ambient treatment, the effects of infrared heaters on dew
297 formation are mainly attributed to the extra IR heating radiative power received by the
298 condensing surface at different heights. The infrared heaters are regarded as a linear
299 light source, and their radiative area (S_i , m^2) increases with the increase of the
300 distance from the lamps (Fig. 8a). With the constant emitting power, the extra IR
301 power from the infrared heaters decreases gradually with the increase of the distance
302 from the lamps (Fig. 8b). Therefore, the extra IR power increases gradually with the
303 increase of height above ground. The relationship between extra radiative flux and the

304 distance from the lamp was shown at Fig. 8b. The extra IR power at 10 cm from the
305 lamps (110 cm above the ground) was 3181.8 W/m^2 , while it was 436.0 W/m^2 at 120
306 cm from the lamps (at the surface ground). The extra IR power of infrared lamps at 10
307 and 20 cm above the ground were 469.7 W/m^2 and 509.2 W/m^2 , respectively.

308

309 **4. Discussion**

310 4.1. Warming reduces dew amount and changes seasonal patterns of dew 311 formation

312 Our study showed that warming significantly reduces dew amount using three
313 distinct measurement methods (Fig. 4), but to different degrees. There are many
314 methods and substrates have been used for dew harvest and they have different results
315 even under the same climate conditions or at the same locations (Kidron and Starinsky,
316 2019; Groh et al., 2018). This is mostly due to different substrates properties in each
317 method, such as shape, size, roughness, infrared emissivity, heat capacity and
318 radiative cooling processes (Kidron, 2005; Kidron, 2010; Kidron and Starinsky, 2019).
319 Also different collection methods involve different condensation water components
320 such as water vapor adsorption, horizontal precipitation and guttation, which are
321 challenging to be differentiated from one another (Kidron and Starinsky, 2019).
322 Therefore in our study, we focus on the dew formation dynamics under warming and
323 ambient conditions using three independent methods. The converging results enhance
324 the robustness of our major conclusions on the impacts of infrared heating warming
325 on dew formation. Warming can reduce dew formation in two ways: by hindering dew

326 condensation and shortening dew retention. Warming can hinder the dew
327 condensation processes by decreasing the air humidity and increasing evaporation
328 (Oliveira 2013; Scheff and Frierson, 2014; Li et al., 2018). Additionally, warming
329 changes the air temperature, dew point temperature and dew point depression (Fig.
330 5b), which makes it more difficult for the air temperature to approach the dew point
331 temperature (Beysens, 1995; Jacobs et al., 2006; Mortuza et al., 2014). Warming can
332 also accelerate the dew evaporation process (Xiao et al, 2013). Dew droplets lasted
333 for a shorter period of time under warmer temperatures, which also led to a lower dew
334 duration or amount (Xu et al., 2015).

335 In this study, we found that warming reduces dew formation (Fig. 5), which is a
336 major contribution of NRW in water-limited ecosystems (Kidron and Starinsky, 2019).
337 Therefore, plants growing under water stress would have higher risks of not surviving
338 under warming conditions (Rodney et al., 2013; Tomaszekiewicz et al., 2017). On the
339 other hand, it should be noticed that there is a regular diurnal variations in the daily
340 dew amount and it must be influenced by rainfall distribution due to changed water
341 vapor concentration and relative humidity in atmosphere and soil environment.

342 Overall, under the rapidly changing climate, changes in dew formation should be
343 considered an important environmental factor and should not be neglected in arid and
344 cold regions.

345 4.2. Dew formation varied among different functional groups under 346 warming

347 Functional groups create different microenvironments and have different water

348 use strategies to influence the dew production and plant water uptake (Zhuang and
349 Zhao, 2017; Wang et al., 2019). Dew formation is also great influenced by many
350 factors, including substrate shape, size, emissivity and heat capacity, surface
351 roughness, leaf angle, orientation position and plant height (Kidron and Starinsky
352 2019). Meanwhile, environmental conditions, such as temperature, relative humidity
353 and wind speed, change due to various micromorphological features and distribution
354 patterns among different functional groups (Agam and Berliner 2006), affecting dew
355 formation and duration (Ninari and Berliner 2002). Our results showed that different
356 functional groups had different degrees of dew formation, consistent with our
357 expectations.

358 To date, few studies have investigated how biotic factors (e.g., plant traits and
359 functional groups) affect dew formation. Here, we examined the effects of plant traits
360 (i.e., plant height and aboveground biomass) on dew formation in different plant
361 functional groups (sedges, forbs and grasses) and found that sedges and forbs with
362 shorter heights are associated with less dew than grasses with taller heights under
363 natural conditions (Fig. 6). Because under ambient conditions, the upper canopy air
364 temperature is lower at night due to this area receiving less land-surface radiation,
365 dew formation occurs earlier in higher leaves, such as those of grasses (Zhang et al.,
366 2009; Wang et al., 2017a). In addition, the dominant taller species (*Stipa aliena*,
367 *Elymus nutans*, and *Helictotrichon tibeticum*) usually have more aboveground
368 biomass (Konrad et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2017) than shorter species, which can
369 facilitate dew formation and retention (Pan et al., 2010). Additionally, the dew water

370 stored within a dense canopy can be preserved for a longer period of time through the
371 reduction in evaporation (Xiao et al., 2013).

372 Under warming conditions, the aboveground biomass and plant height increased,
373 and the community composition changed with a higher prevalence of grass in the
374 alpine ecosystems (Liu et al., 2018). Such changes should be beneficial for dew
375 formation based on our findings under ambient conditions (i.e., results from the
376 control plots, Fig. 7a). However, a substantial reduction in dew formation was
377 observed under the warming treatments (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). In addition, we found that
378 warming resulted in a lower dew amount on taller plants, in contrast to the results
379 under ambient conditions (Fig. 7). Warming changed the relationship between plant
380 height and dew amount in both direct and indirect ways. Warming directly affected
381 the air temperature profile and made dew formation more difficult (Wolkovich et al.,
382 2012). In this case, the taller plants had less dew formation because artificial infrared
383 heating made the temperature of the taller canopy higher than that of the lower
384 canopy (Xiao et al., 2013). Warming indirectly caused the soil moisture to evaporate
385 more quickly during the night (Tomaszkiewicz et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018). More
386 importantly, according to energy balance model (Beysens, 2016), dew formation
387 occurred with the radiative deficit power at the condensing surface (radiative emission
388 minus radiative absorption from the environment) and the heat losses with
389 surrounding air (Beysens, 2016; Beysens, 2018). As for artificial warming device,
390 infrared heaters will supply extra IR power, which would be received by the
391 condensing surface at different height. Based on the relationship between extra

392 radiative flux of infrared heating lamp and the distance from the lamp (Fig. 8), the
393 distance from lamp to plant should affect the IR energy balance during the dew
394 formation process at different heights. Due to a smaller distance from the lamps, the
395 taller plants have an increase in IR heating radiative flux under artificial warming
396 conditions, leading to the less dew formation in this case. Therefore, the shorter plants
397 experienced more dew collection than the higher plants during the night under
398 warming conditions. Clearly, warming influenced the dew formation on plants and
399 changed the ecosystem processes compared with those under natural conditions.

400 4.3. Infrared heater warming system reduces dew formation: An 401 overlooked factor in climate change studies

402 There have been many studies about the response of ecosystem processes to
403 climate change using various artificial warming methods in dry ecosystems (Kimball
404 et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Korell et al., 2019), but the possible impacts from the
405 differences between artificial and natural warming on the experimental results have
406 often been overlooked. Our results showed that artificial warming (with an infrared
407 heater warming system) affects dew formation, which likely affects ecosystem
408 processes (Liu et al., 2016). However, it is worth noting that natural climate warming
409 and the infrared heater warming system differ in terms of their heat-dissipating
410 pathways (Korell et al., 2019). Artificial warming generates more heat radiation in the
411 air and drier micro-environments than natural warming (Liu et al., 2018). This
412 difference will affect a number of ecosystem processes and is often overlooked across
413 simulated climate change experiments. Warming makes plants grow taller (Liu et al.,

414 2018), but taller plants produced less dew under warming in our study (Fig. 6). This
415 indicates that the dew formation was significantly reduced under the experimental
416 warming conditions. In addition, the relationship between dew formation and plant
417 height changed being positively correlated under the control treatment to being
418 negatively correlated under the warming treatment (Fig. 7). For such cases, the
419 conclusions of the impacts of warming obtained by artificial warming experiments
420 may deviate from the actual impacts of warming on ecosystem processes. Under
421 future climate warming, the changes in water condensation will also have an
422 especially profound impact on the ecosystem patterns and processes in dryland
423 ecosystems (Li et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017b). Therefore, we suggest that the
424 impact of experimental warming on dew formation should be considered an important
425 environmental factor affecting ecosystems processes during climate warming.

426

427 **5. Conclusions**

428 Using three measurement methods, we observed that warming significantly
429 reduced the dew amount and duration and changed its seasonal patterns. Different
430 plant functional groups had different effects on dew formation due to their associated
431 microclimates and plant heights, resulting in taller plants experiencing more dew
432 formation. However, artificial warming caused the taller plants to have less dew
433 formation due to the associated heat radiation. We also found that infrared heater
434 warming systems markedly reduced dew formation, which should be addressed to
435 avoid overestimating the impact of climate warming on ecosystems during global

436 change studies. Our study demonstrates that dew condensation responds to climate
437 warming and highlights that microhabitat conditions and plant traits mediate dew
438 formation under warming conditions, having an important potential effect on
439 ecosystems processes in the future.

440

441 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

445

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452

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Figure Captions

Fig. 1. The daily air temperature and precipitation distribution of study area

Fig. 2. The photos of study sites and diagram of experiment plots. (a) The overall view of the “warming × precipitation” platform; (b) photo of study sites; (c) diagram of warming experimental plots; (d) Thermal image of the warming pattern produced by the infrared heaters; (e) Daily average soil temperature under warming and control plots.

Fig. 3. The photos of dew collecting devices. (a) Artificial condensation surface; (b) *In situ* dew formation measurements on plants; (c) Leaf wetness sensors.

Fig. 4. The dew amount measured by (a) artificial condensation surface, (b) *in situ* dew formation on plants and (c) leaf wetness sensors in control and warming treatments during the experimental period.

Fig. 5. Warming effects on (a) dew duration, (b) the difference between the air temperature (T_a) and dew point temperature (T_{dew}) and (c) the differences of dew amount between the control and warming treatment. * indicates statistically significant at $P < 0.001$.

Fig. 6. Warming effects on (a) dew amount and (b) aboveground biomass of different functional groups. Different uppercase letters indicate significant difference in different functional groups ($P < 0.05$) and different lowercase letters indicate significant difference in control and warming treatments ($P < 0.05$).

Fig. 7. The relationships between plant height and dew amount in control and warming plots.

Fig. 8. The extra radiative flux by the infrared heaters. (a) The diagram of the radiation area by infrared heaters. (b) The relationship between extra radiative flux and the distance from the lamp.

Figure
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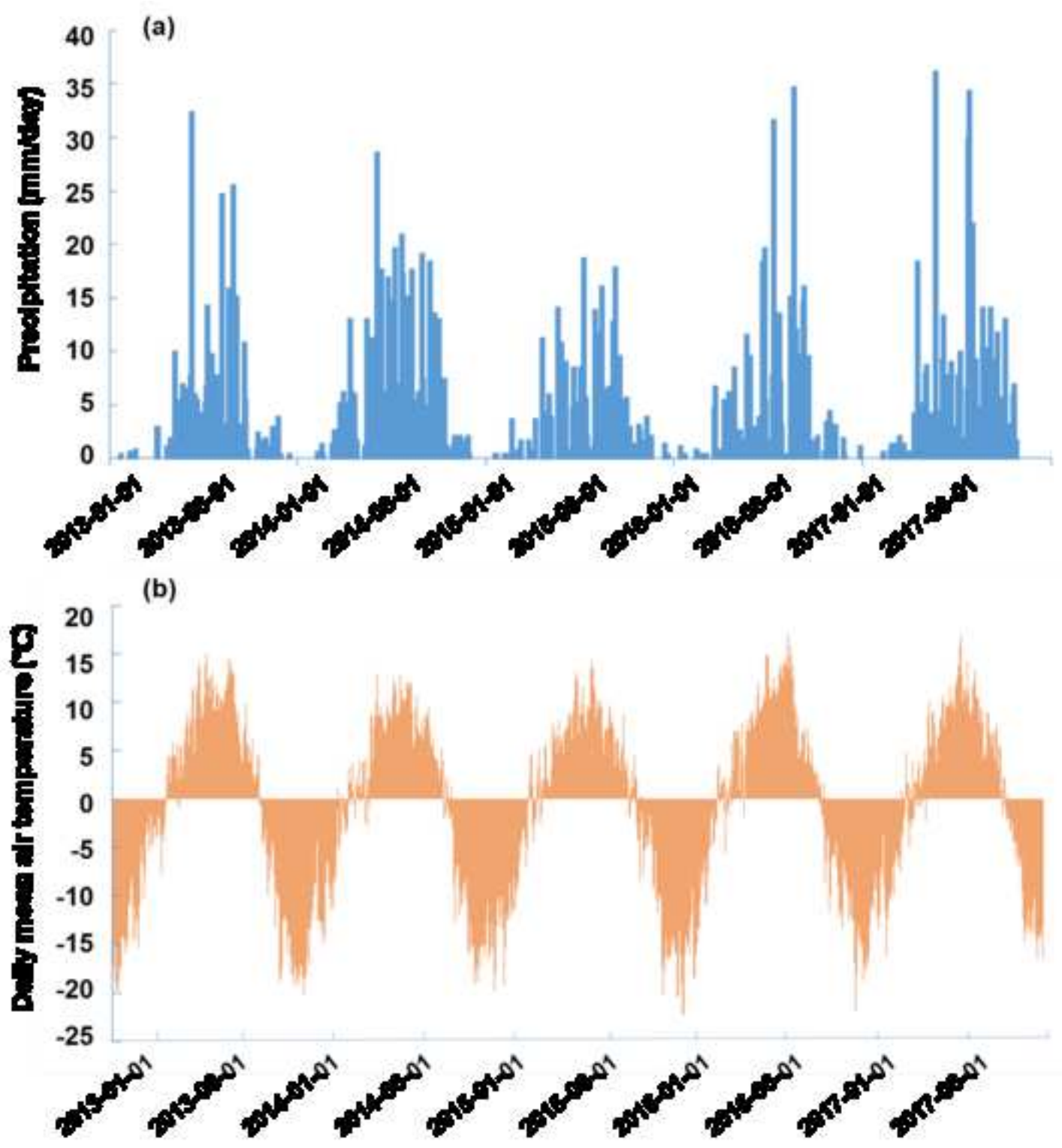
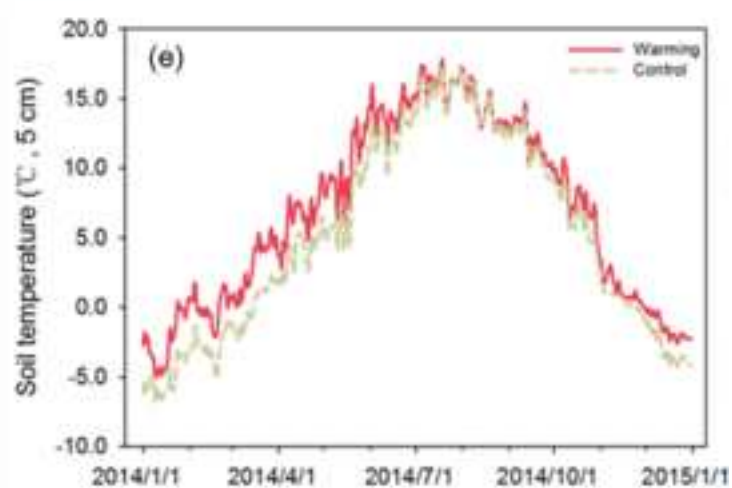
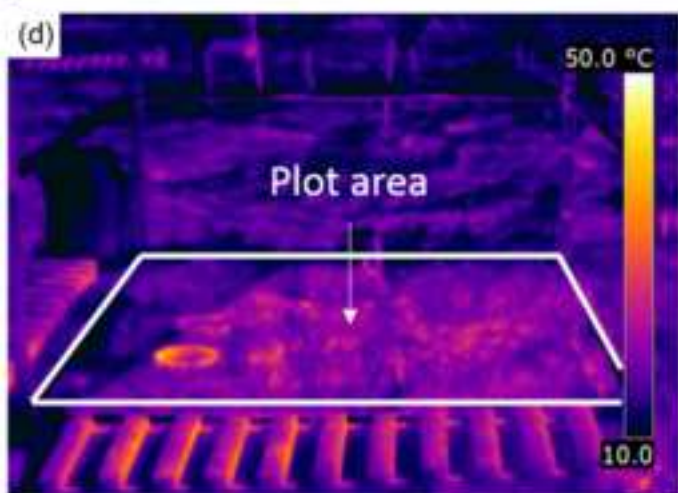
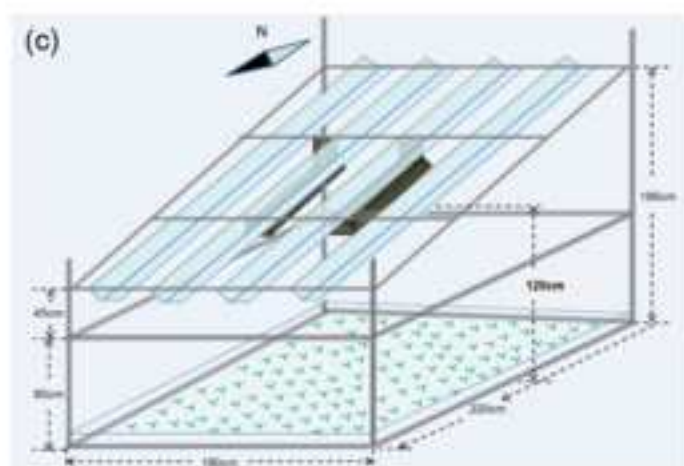
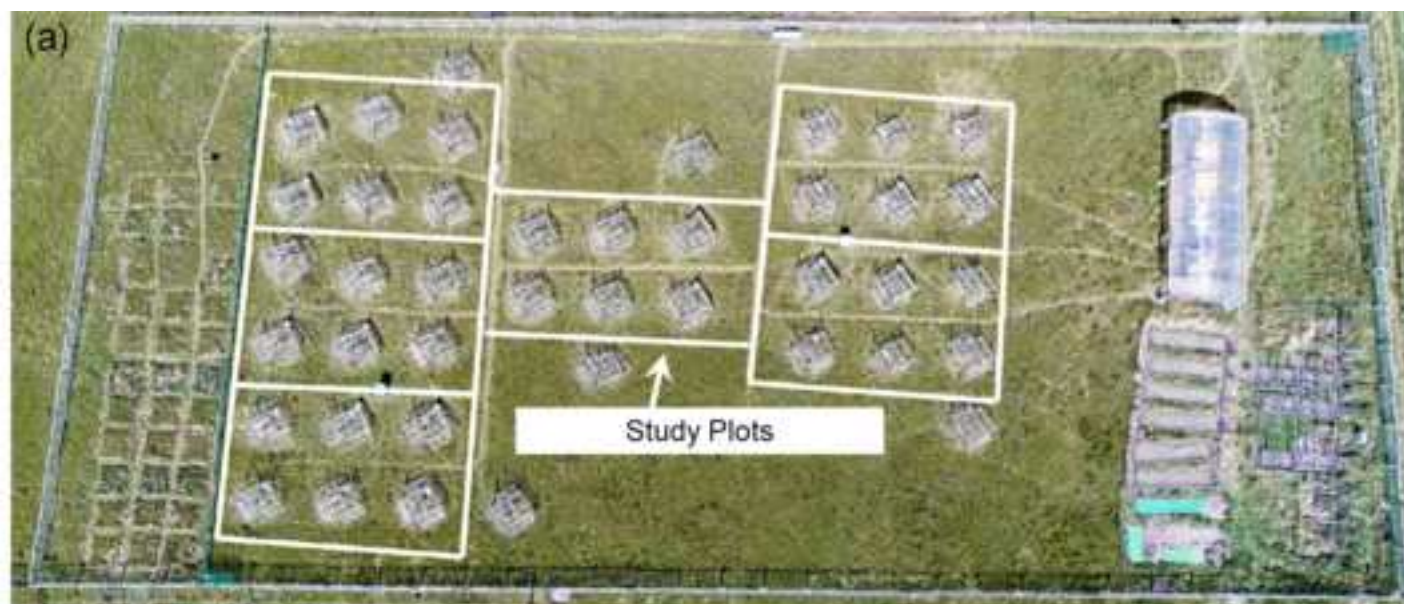
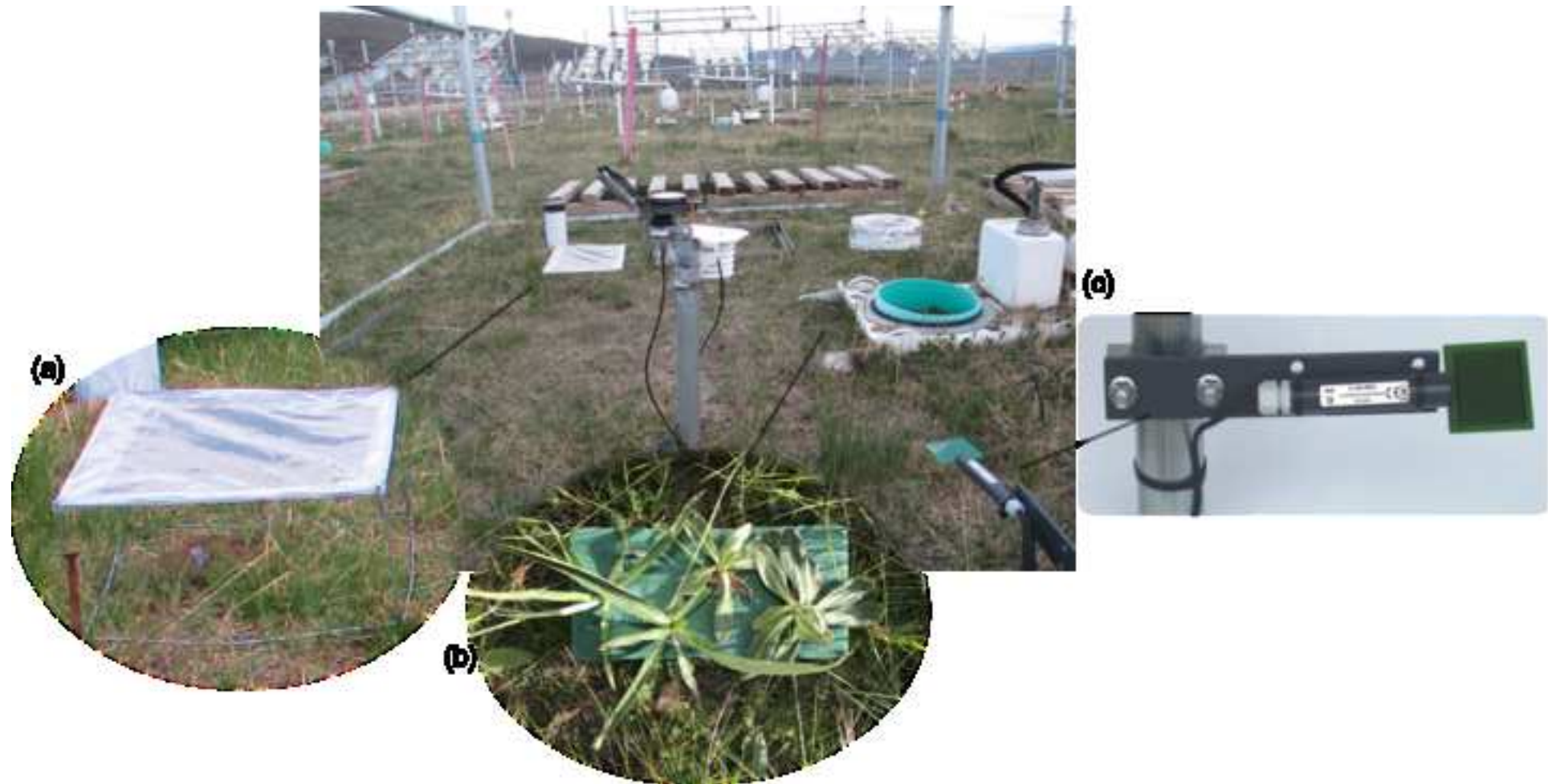


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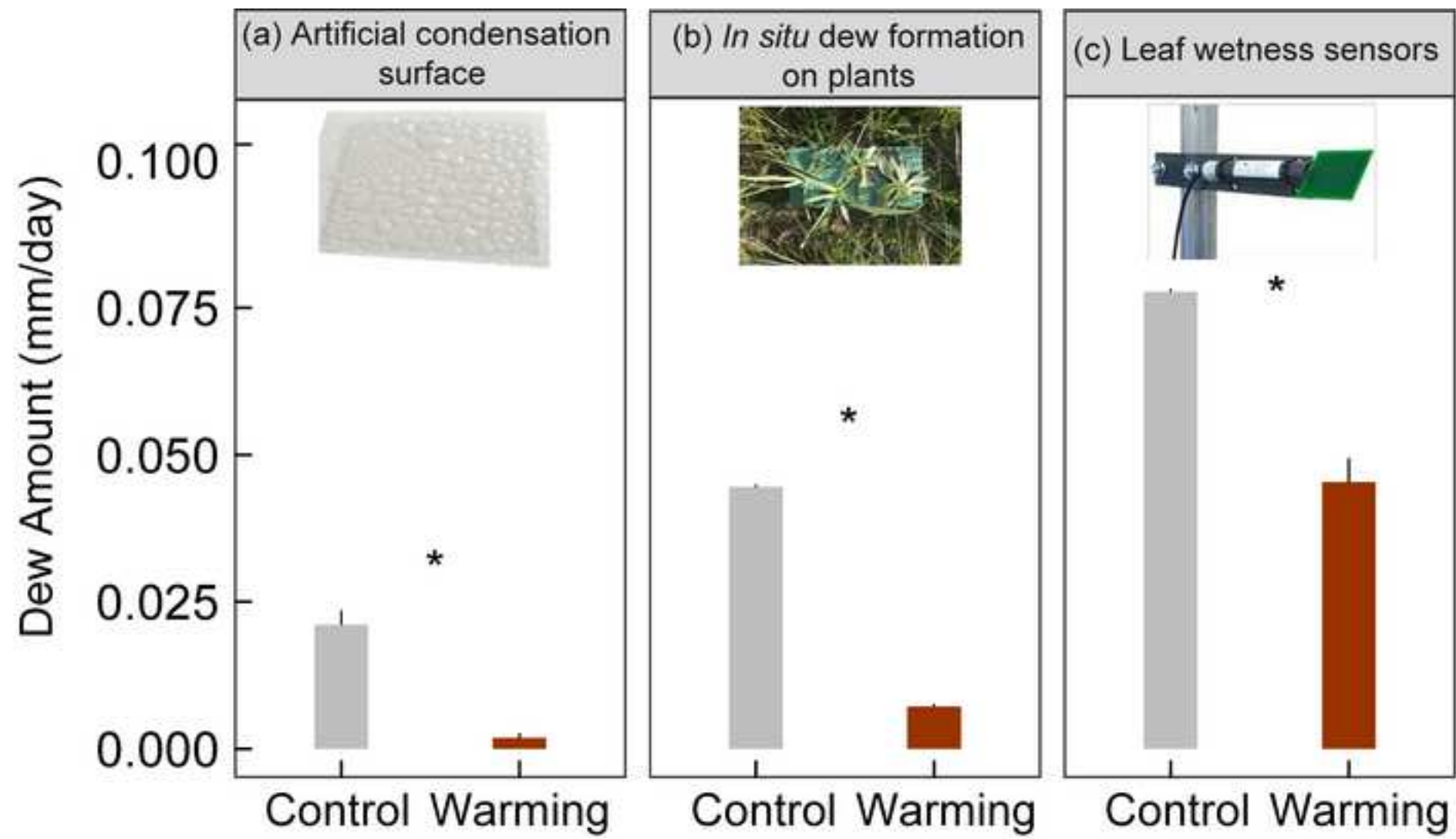
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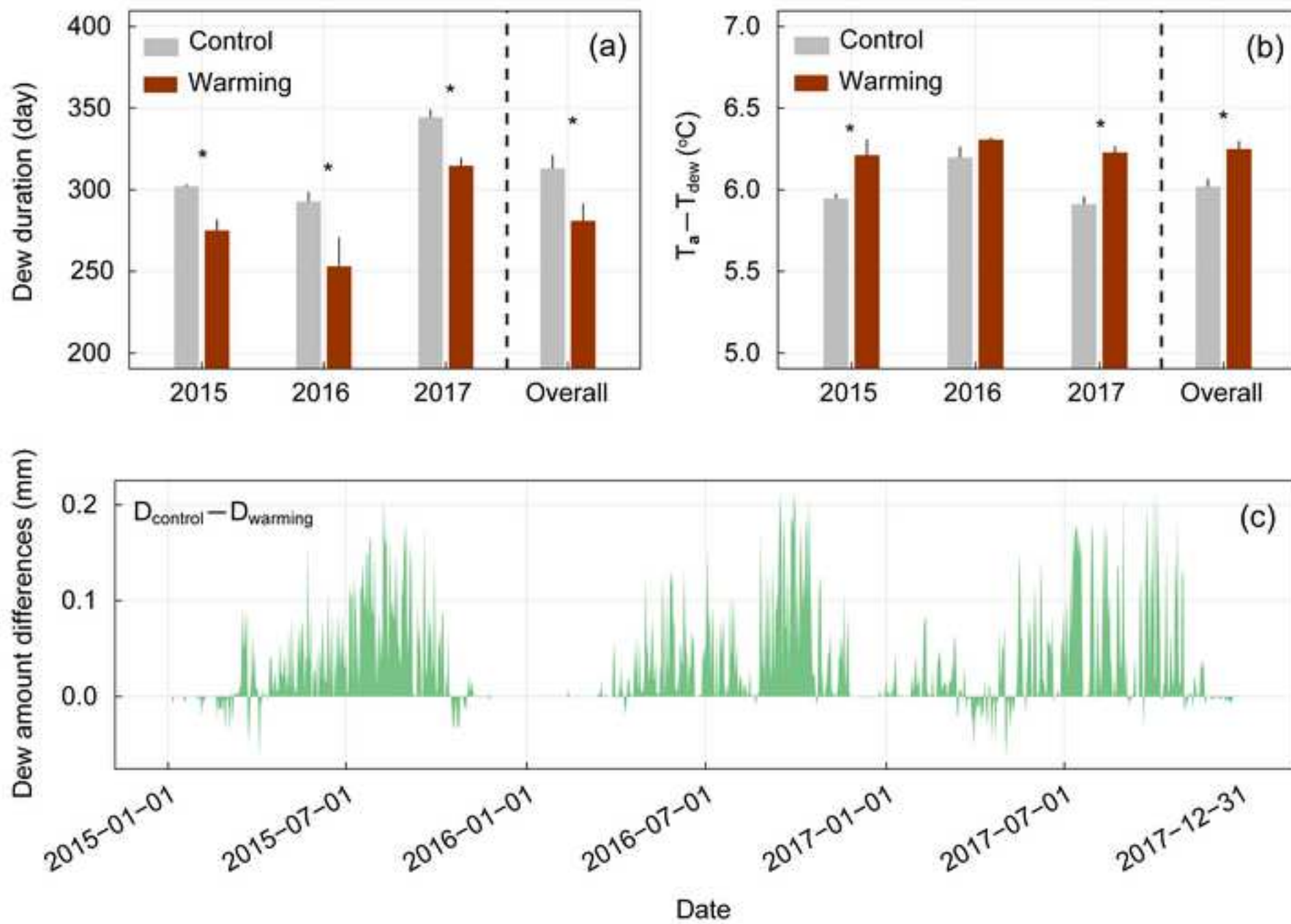


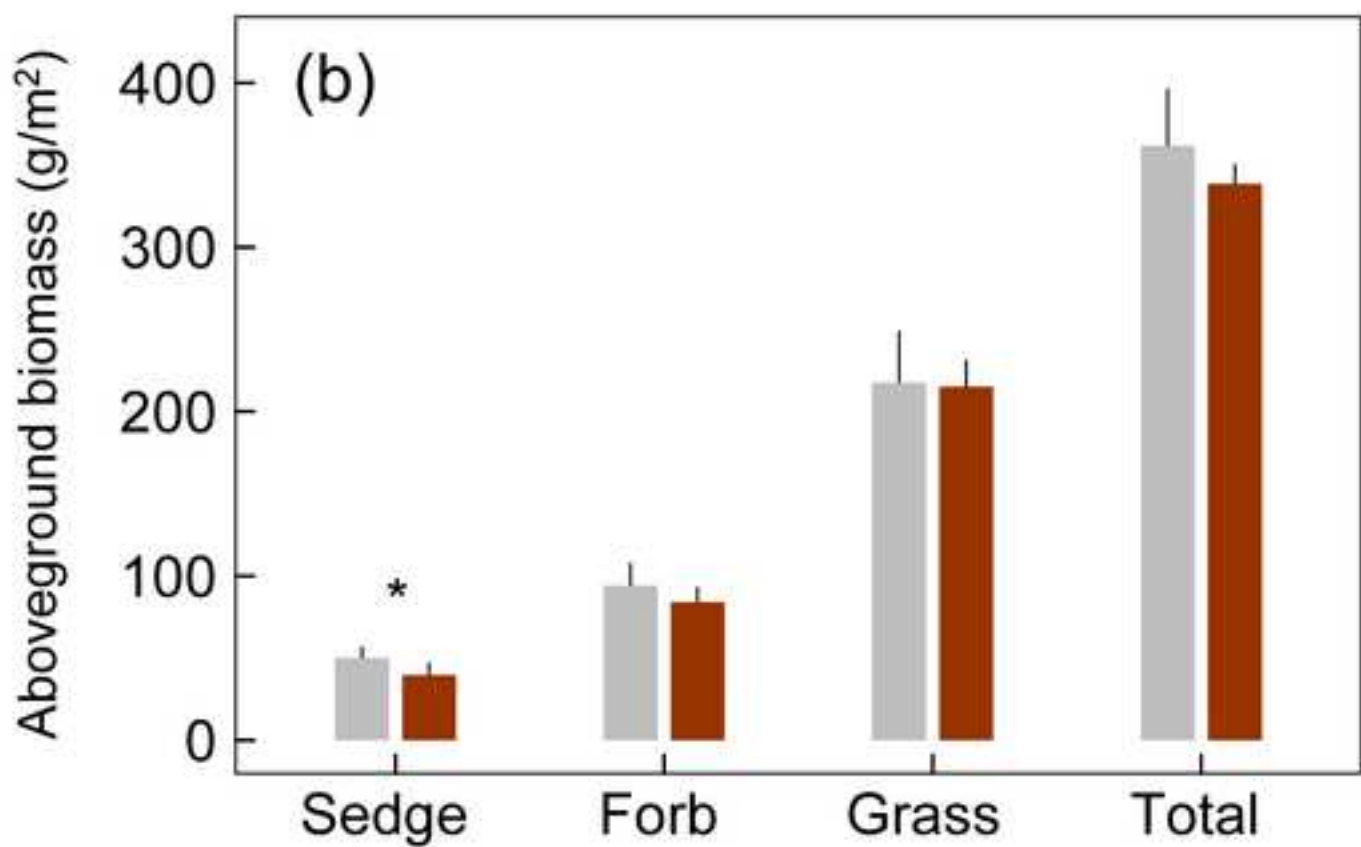
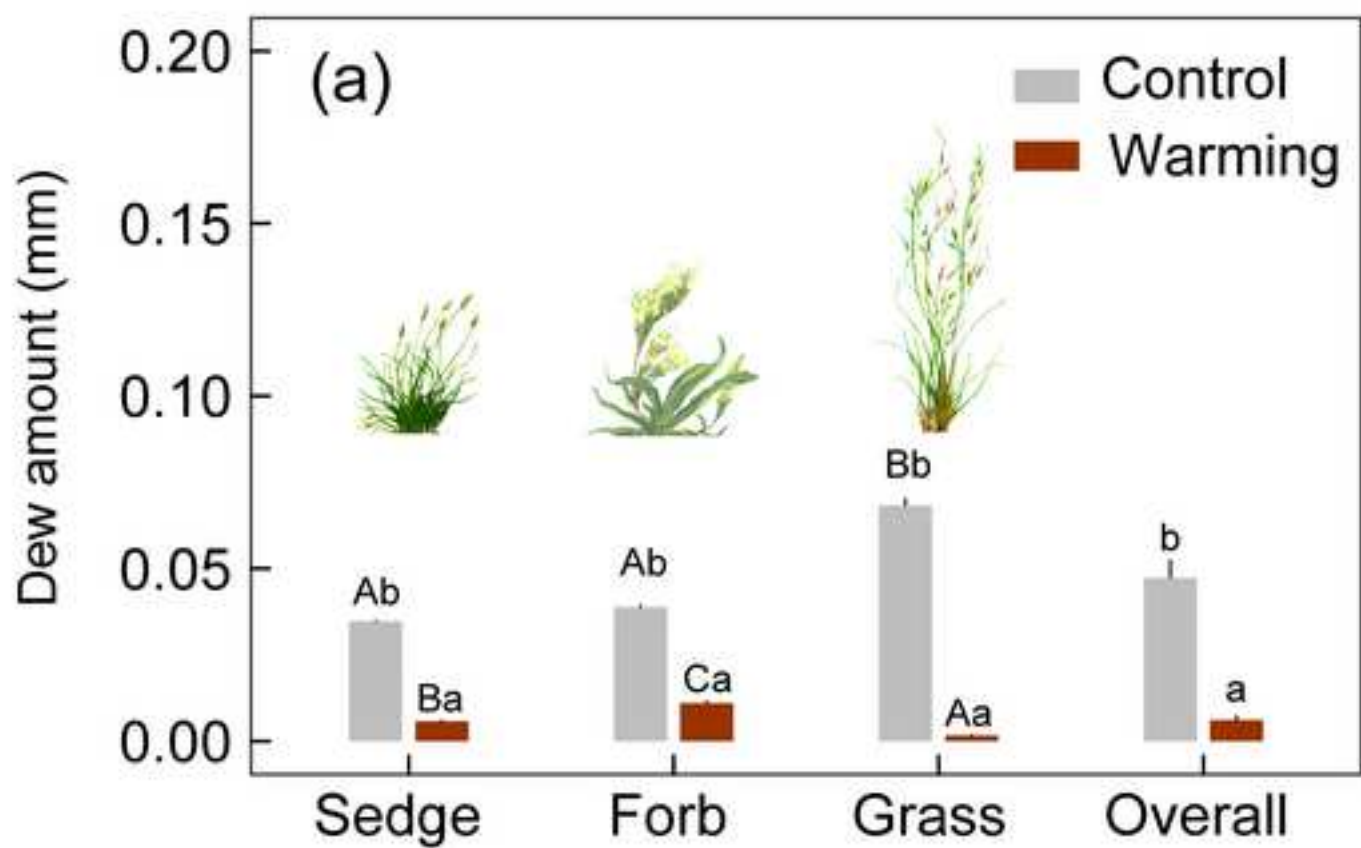
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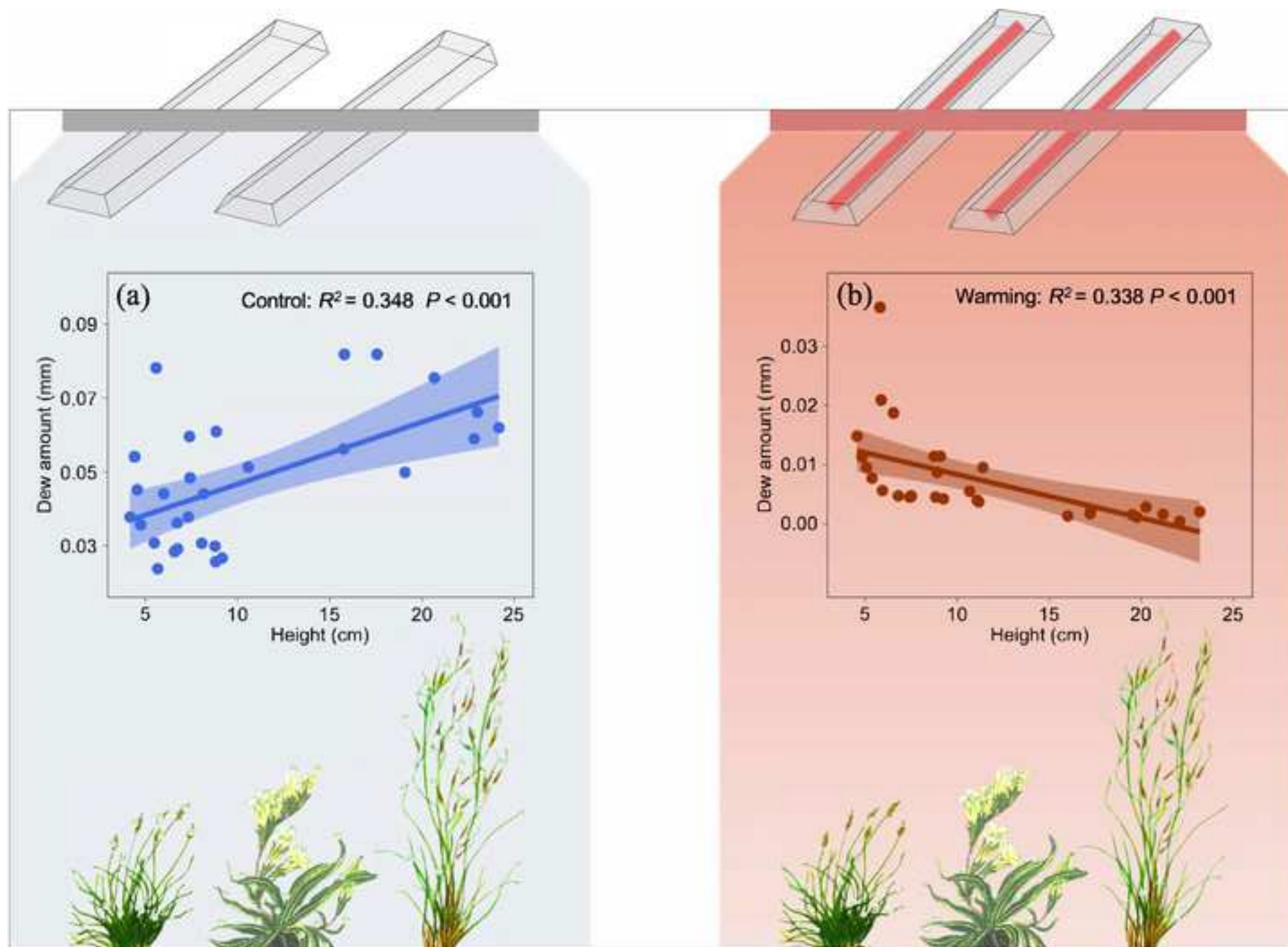
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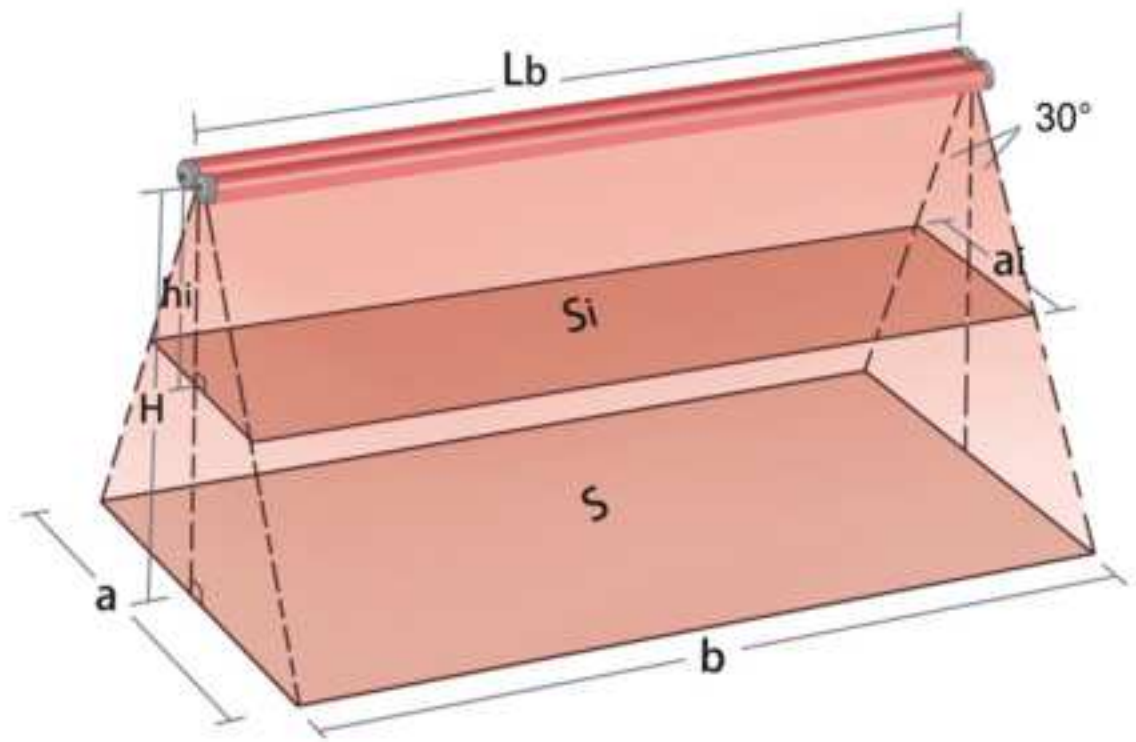


Figure

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(a)



(b)

