

**Atmospheric tides
transport deep CO₂**

E. P. Sánchez-Cañete
et al.

Deep CO₂ soil inhalation/exhalation induced by synoptic pressure changes and atmospheric tides in a carbonated semiarid steppe

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Abstract

Knowledge of all the mechanisms and processes involved in soil CO₂ emissions is essential to close the global carbon cycle. Apart from molecular diffusion, the main physical component of such CO₂ exchange is soil ventilation. Advective CO₂ transport, through soil or snow, has been correlated with the wind speed, friction velocity or pressure (p). Here we examine variations in subterranean CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) over two years within a vertical profile (1.5 m) in a semiarid ecosystem, as influenced by short-timescale p changes.

Analyses to determine the factors involved in the variations in subterranean χ_c were differentiated between the growing period and the dry period. In both periods it was found that variations in deep χ_c (0.5–1.5 m) were due predominantly to static p variations and not to wind or biological influences. Within a few hours, the deep χ_c can vary by fourfold showing a pattern with two cycles per day, due to p oscillations caused by atmospheric tides. By contrast, shallow χ_c (0.15 m) generally has one cycle per day as influenced by biological factors like soil water content and temperature in both periods, while the wind was an important factor in shallow χ_c variations only during the dry period. Evidence of emissions was registered in the atmospheric boundary layer by eddy covariance during synoptic pressure changes when subterranean CO₂ was released; days with rising barometric pressure – when air accumulated belowground, including soil-respired CO₂ – showed greater ecosystem uptake than days with falling pressure. Future assessments of the net ecosystem carbon balance should not rely exclusively on Fick's law to calculate soil CO₂ effluxes from profile data.

1 Introduction

The characterization of the different mechanisms and processes involved in soil CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere is important for improving understanding of the global carbon cycle. Respiration is generally the only process considered by the FLUXNET

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community when modeling or interpreting soil-atmosphere CO₂ exchanges (Falge et al., 2002), presumably transported by molecular diffusion. Recently however, numerous studies of semiarid ecosystems have shown the importance in the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB; Chapin et al., 2006) of other, abiotic components (Emmerich, 2003; Kowalski et al., 2008; Mielnick et al., 2005; Plestenjak et al., 2012; Rey et al., 2012a; Serrano-Ortiz et al., 2010; Were et al., 2010).

Most researchers interpret soil CO₂ effluxes at the soil surface in terms of concurrent respiration, neglecting subterranean CO₂ storage. Ventilation can decouple the soil CO₂ source from emissions to the atmosphere with changes in pressure, wind or friction velocity. Scientists have confirmed subterranean advective transport in laboratories (Nachshon et al., 2012; Maier et al., 2012), soils (Maier et al., 2010; Subke et al., 2003), peatlands (Comas et al., 2005, 2007, 2011), and snow (Bowling and Massman, 2011; Fujiyoshi et al., 2010; Seok et al., 2009; Massman et al., 1997). Some have applied the gradient method-based on Fick's law for molecular diffusion – to model exchange with the atmosphere during calm conditions, but highlight the importance of advective transport in exchanges at other times.

Advective transport of CO₂ through soil or snow has been correlated with changes in subterranean CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) in conjunction with variations in wind speed, friction velocity or pressure (p). Advection has been detected using isotopic methods (Bowling and Massman, 2011), buried p sensors (Maier et al., 2010; Takle et al., 2004), ²²²Rn concentrations (Fujiyoshi et al., 2010), ground penetrating radar (Comas et al., 2005) or variations in CO₂ and other gases (Seok et al., 2009; Hirsch et al., 2004; Reicosky et al., 2008). Even in volcanoes the atmospheric p has a strong influence on both CO₂ degassing (Rogie et al., 2001) and the CO₂ soil efflux (Granieri et al., 2003), as well as on their combination as measured by eddy covariance (Lewicki et al., 2007, 2008).

Besides molecular diffusion, the main physical process affecting soil-atmosphere CO₂ exchange is ventilation (gas advection through porous media) driven by pressure pumping. Pressure pumping is caused by atmospheric processes including

short-period turbulence, longer-period barometric changes and quasi-static pressure fields induced by wind (Massman et al., 1997). Subterranean convection, with CO₂-rich air subsiding due to its enhanced density (Kowalski and Sanchez-Canete, 2010), may also play a role. Most studies attribute gas advection to two atmospheric mechanisms: quasi-static pressure fields and short-period atmospheric turbulence (Huwald et al., 2012), neglecting longer-period barometric changes.

This study shows subterranean CO₂ variations that are driven by longer-period barometric changes (atmospheric tides and synoptic events). We examine variations over two years within a vertical profile (1.5 m depth) in a semiarid ecosystem, highlighting the influence of changes in static pressure p on χ_c at depth (0.5 and 1.5 m). Increases in deep χ_c are not due to biological factors, with important increments registered, increasing to four times previous values approximately every 3 days over two years. The main factors implicated in subterranean χ_c changes vary according to depth as well as the (daily-synoptic-seasonal) timescale examined.

2 Material and methods

2.1 Study site

The study was conducted in Balsa Blanca within the Cabo de Gata-Níjar Natural Park of southeast Spain (36° 56'26.0'' N, 2° 0.1'58.8'' W). This is an alpha grass steppe situated on an alluvial fan (glacis) at 200 m a.s.l. The soil is classified as Calcaric Lithic Leptosol saturated in carbonates (0.15 m) over petrocalcic horizons overlying marine carbonate sediments and volcanic rocks. The climate is dry subtropical semiarid, with a mean annual temperature (T) of 18 °C and precipitation of ca. 200 mm. The most abundant ground cover is bare soil, gravel and rock (49.1 %), and vegetation is dominated by *Macrochloa tenacissima* (57 % of cover) with other species present including *Chamaerops humilis*, *Rhamnus lycoides*, and *Pistacia lentiscus*; the vegetation is most

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active during winter (January–April). More detailed site information is given by Rey et al. (2012a).

2.2 Field measurements

A vertical soil profile was installed in January 2010 to measure CO₂ molar fractions, temperature, and humidity at three depths that we characterized as “shallow” (0.15 m; A horizon), and “deep” (0.5 and 1.5 m; caliche horizon). Here, “deep” is used merely to distinguish between measured horizons, recognizing that all sensors are quite close to the surface. Sensors oriented horizontally in the profile included CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) probes (GMP-343, Vaisala, Inc., Finland) with soil adapters and hydrophobic filters, thermistors (107 temperature sensor, Campbell scientific, Logan, UT, USA; hereafter CSI) and water content reflectometer (CS616, CSI) to measure the soil water content (SWC, m³m⁻³). The GMP343 sensors were configured at 25 °C and 1013 hPa and corrected in post processing for variations in T and pressure. Measurements were made every 30 s and stored as 5-min averages by a data-logger (CR23X, CSI).

Ecosystem-scale CO₂ fluxes were measured by eddy covariance atop a 3.5 m tower. An open-path infrared gas analyser (Li-Cor 7500, Lincoln, NE, USA) – calibrated monthly – measured barometric pressure (p) and densities of CO₂ and water vapor. A three axis sonic anemometer (CSAT-3, CSI) measured wind speed and sonic temperature. At 1.5 m above ground level two quantum sensors (LI-190, Li-Cor) measured incident and reflected photon fluxes. A data-logger (CR3000, CSI) managed the measurements and recorded data at 10 Hz (quantum sensors, storing only half-hour means). Turbulent fluxes were computed every half-hour according to Reynolds rules of averaging, corrected for dry air molar density variations (Webb et al., 1980) and coordinate rotation (Kowalski et al., 1997). The friction velocity (u_*) is determined as the turbulent velocity scale resulting from square root of the kinematic momentum flux (Stull, 1988). Quality control of the eddy flux data was performed according to Serrano-Ortiz et al. (2009).

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2.3 Statistical analyses

All variables were normalized prior to statistical analysis. This is because different variables are not strictly comparable due to extreme seasonal variations in both means and variances, particularly for sensors buried at different depths. Additionally, high-pass filtering was applied using two cut-off values to examine both diurnal and synoptic relationships. The normalized data (standardized anomalies; Wilks, 2006) for any meteorological variable are then given by:

$$N_i = (X - \bar{X}_i) / \sigma_i \quad (1)$$

where N_i is the normalized value, X the measurement, \bar{X}_i the running mean for a window of width i (0.5 or 3 days, diurnal and synoptic time scale respectively) centered on the time of measurement, and σ_i the standard deviation over the same window. Correlations (R^2) were then examined for both $N_{0.5}$ and N_3 and for two different vegetative periods: the growing period, where the vegetation is most active (March–April), and the dry period, where the vegetation is mostly dormant (July–August).

Daytime half-hour data were fitted using an empirical hyperbolic light-response model (Falge et al., 2001) to describe the dependence of CO_2 ecosystem exchange [F_C , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$] on the incident photon flux [F_P , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]:

$$F_C = -\frac{\alpha\beta F_P}{\alpha F_P + \beta} + \gamma \quad (2)$$

Where α ($\mu\text{mol C J}^{-1}$) is the canopy light utilization efficiency and represents the initial slope of the light–response curve, β ($\mu\text{mol C m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the maximum CO_2 uptake rate of the canopy at light saturation and γ ($\mu\text{mol C m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the ecosystem respiration during the day. All parameters are positive as defined.

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3 Results

3.1 Seasonal and interannual patterns

Clear annual patterns are evident in the average daily values of soil temperature (T), water content (SWC), and CO_2 molar fraction (χ_c) at 0.15 m (“shallow”) as well as at 0.5 m and 1.5 m depths (“deep”; Fig. 1). The soil T has its maximum (ca. 34 °C) in summer (June, July and August) and minimum (5 °C) in winter (December, January and February); the SWC shows inverse correlation with T , with basal values near 5 % in summer but often more than 20 % in winter.

Soil CO_2 molar fractions (χ_c) generally increase with depth, with a constant baseline for each horizon over the years, but also with periodic surges to more than double the mean value within a few days. The two deep sensors behave similarly (Fig. 1c), with the blue line (1.5 m depth) overlapping the red line (0.5 m depth) so nearly that the 0.5 m data are practically obscured. They show clear annual patterns with maxima in summer and minima in winter, similar means over the two years ($\chi_c \sim 1032$ ppm at 0.5 m, and 994 ppm at 1.5 m) and rapid variability. By contrast, the shallow sensor (Fig. 1d) has about half the mean ($\chi_c \sim 529$ ppm CO_2) and notably less variability – in both frequency and magnitude. Also in contrast to the deep case, shallow soil χ_c is highest in winter and lowest in summer. Differences between the deep and shallow probes are less pronounced in winter. Pressure (p) varies from 967–1007 hPa (Fig. 1e), with increased variability in winter due to the passage of synoptic systems, and suppressed variability in summer under the Mediterranean high. To clarify the relation between χ_c and p , we focus on two different periods of 2011 (Fig. 1, Red rectangles): the growing period from March to May and the dry period from July to September.

3.2 Synoptic patterns

Table 1 shows the mean and standard error of environmental variables associated with varying soil CO_2 molar fractions (χ_c) during both periods. For the growing period (from

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March to May) deep soil CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) are nearly double ($\chi_c \sim 943$ ppm at 0.5 m, and 813 ppm at 1.5 m) the shallow χ_c (~ 515 ppm at 0.15 m). At all depths the soil temperature has a similar mean (15.6 °C, 15.7 °C and 15.5 °C at 0.15 m, 0.5 m and 1.5 m respectively) as can be appreciated in Fig. 1a, and the soil water content increases with depth with values of 11.1 %, 11.6 %, and 15.3 %. During the dry period (from July to September) the deep soil CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) are more than double ($\chi_c \sim 1115$ ppm at 0.5 m, and 1142 ppm at 1.5 m) that of the shallow layer (~ 473 ppm at 0.15 m). The soil temperature decreases with depth, showing values of 30.8 °C, 29.4 °C and 26.1 °C at 0.15 m, 0.5 m and 1.5 m respectively, and for the same depths the soil water content increased from 1.4 % to 7.2 % and 13.7 % respectively.

Comparing the growing period versus dry period, it is observed that the shallow sensor detects more χ_c during the growing period, whereas deep χ_c is higher during the dry period (Table 1). As is commonly found in semiarid sites, soil temperatures are higher in the dry period than in the growing period, as opposed to what occurs with the soil water content. The mean pressure (p) and friction velocity (u_*) are similar for both periods, while air temperature is 10 °C higher during the dry period.

The soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) shows strong inverse correlation with atmospheric pressure (p) on synoptic scales throughout the whole study period, as exemplified for four selected months (Fig. 2). Increments in χ_c correspond to decreases in p and vice versa both in the growing period (Fig. 2a) and in the dry period (Fig. 2b). The changes in the magnitude of p are higher in the growing period than in the dry period; however the variability in χ_c is lower in the growing period. Approximately every 3 days important changes occur in deep χ_c , with nearly identical values and trends at 0.5 and 1.5 m. Shallow χ_c has a similar trend, in that the highest peaks occur on the same days; however not all deep χ_c peaks correspond to maxima near the surface (e.g. 22 July and 31 July). Such inverse correlation between χ_c and p extends to shorter time scales during the two vegetative periods, which will now be seen in higher resolution data corresponding to the red rectangles in Fig. 2.

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3.3 Daily patterns

The deep soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) can jump to more than triple its mean value within a few hours, and shows inverse correlation with pressure (p) even at hourly time scales. Half-hour resolution data show that both p and deep χ_c (0.5 and 1.5 m) display two cycles per day, both during the growing season (Fig. 3a) and in the dry season (Fig. 3b). Excepting synoptic pressure changes such as the events on 8 and 14 April and 6 and 12 August, pressure typically has semi-diurnal changes with an amplitude of ca. 3 hPa. Deep χ_c shows a similar pattern with clear periodicity and two cycles per day, but some days have an amplitude up to 2000 ppm in few hours (14 August) during this period of modest deep χ_c variability (cf. Figs. 1 and 2). However shallow χ_c shows no such clear cyclic behavior.

Environmental factors that correlate with χ_c are summarized in Tables 2 and 3 for the growing and dry periods, respectively. During the growing period the main factors implicated in the soil χ_c variations are the soil T and SWC (Table 2), whereas in the dry period they are u_* and p together with SWC (Table 3). In the growing period (Table 2), the shallow χ_c variations on daily timescales (0.5 days) show high correlation with T and SWC at 0.15 m (R^2 0.66 and 0.58, respectively). On daily timescales the main factors implicated in the deep χ_c variations are T and SWC at 1.5 m, however on synoptic timescale (3 days) pressure is the main determinant (R^2 0.35 and 0.43 at 0.5 m and 1.5 m respectively). During the dry period (Table 3), shallow χ_c variations show maximum correlation on daily timescales with u_* ($R^2 = 0.53$). For deep χ_c variations, the maximum correlations are found with p at daily timescales, and with both p and SWC at synoptic scales.

3.4 Coupling deep soil CO₂ variations with the atmosphere

Ecosystem-scale CO₂ exchanges (F_C) are shown during the growing period (6–17 April 2011) together with the soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) at different depths in Fig. 4. Positive fluxes indicate emissions to the atmosphere and negative fluxes indicate uptake, so that

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during this period the ecosystem acts as a carbon sink. Over the week presented, the daily minima in F_C (corresponding to maximum uptake), coincide with the variations in χ_c . Days with high soil χ_c (9, 10, 13 and 14 of April) correspond to lower CO_2 uptake during daytime (Fig. 4).

5 The week presented was sunny with typical variation in the air temperature and no rain (data not shown), so the F_C variations cannot be attributed to changing physiological drivers. Figure 5 shows the ecosystem light response using the hyperbolic model described in the equation (2), distinguishing between days with decreasing versus increasing atmospheric pressures (Figs. 3a and 4). Table 4 shows parameters obtained
10 from ecosystem light response curves; for both days with decreasing and increasing p , the canopy light utilization efficiency (α) and the ecosystem respiration (γ) are similar, however the maximum CO_2 uptake rate of the canopy at light saturation (β) increased by 43 % during days with increasing pressure.

4 Discussion

15 Variations in these deep soil CO_2 molar fractions (χ_c) are due, not to biology, but rather to physical factors, most notably changes in pressure (p). These variations can be divided into two scales: the seasonal scale (Fig. 1), where deep χ_c correlates with soil temperature (T) and is inversely correlated to soil water content (SWC); and shorter – synoptic and hourly – scales (Figs. 2 and 3), where deep χ_c is clearly inversely correlated
20 with p and can increment by a factor of four in a few hours. This behavior of deep χ_c is in contrast with that of shallow χ_c , which on seasonal scales (Fig. 1) is better described in terms of commonly reported semiarid conditions where soil respiration is clearly restricted by drought (Barron-Gafford et al., 2011; Maranon-Jimenez et al., 2011; Oyonarte et al., 2012; Rey et al., 2011), showing an inverse correlation with T
25 and correlation with SWC. Shallow χ_c shows maxima in winter and minima in summer coinciding with vegetation activity during winter (Rey et al., 2012a). The similar

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behavior of the two deep sensors suggests that the deep pore spaces are highly interconnected, at least within the same caliche horizon.

Such large variations in deep χ_c have no direct biological explanation, but suggest an underlying CO₂ reservoir in communication with the surface depending on factors such as ρ , u_* or SWC. The origin of the CO₂ reservoir could be either geothermal (i.e. magmatic or metamorphic; Rey et al., 2012b) or biological in origin. Geothermal sources may exist at depth below Balsa Blanca because the site is located over a large active tectonic fault system. Biological origins would be due to CO₂ storage in deep layers resulting from plant activity and microbes, whose metabolic activities might well be affected by the large variations in χ_c (a secondary effect, at most). The CO₂ respired in the root zone increases air density (Sanchez-Canete et al., 2013; Kowalski and Sanchez-Canete, 2010), and so enables gravitational percolation through the pore space toward deeper layers where it can be stored.

Although in this study, ρ is the main factor implicated in deep χ_c variations, Fig. 1 shows that χ_c variability is greater in summer when ρ variations are reduced. This highlights the important role of SWC in CO₂ exchange: despite greater synoptic pressure variability, winter has lower χ_c variations because soil pores are filled with water, limiting gas flows. In summer, by contrast, ventilation is facilitated by dry soil conditions with gas-filled pore space (Cuezva et al., 2011; Maier et al., 2010). This explains why the growing period shows a positive correlation between shallow χ_c and SWC at 0.15 m (Table 2) and a negative correlation during the dry season (Table 3), since during the dry season there is less water in the shallow soil layer allowing the flow of CO₂-rich air from the deep soil to near surface layers.

At synoptic scales, passing frontal systems cause increases/decreases in ρ leading to fourfold decreases/increases in deep χ_c (Fig. 2). Such variability can only be explained by CO₂ transported from depth towards the surface. A simple model to explain the role of pressure (ρ) in subterranean CO₂ transport is shown in Fig. 6. When ρ increases, the soil air is compressed and atmospheric air penetrates into the soil

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decreasing the deep χ_c . Similarly, when p decreases, the soil air expands increasing the deep χ_c since deeper soil air distends toward the surface.

Hourly time scales (Fig. 3) show clear inverse correlation between the deep χ_c and p , where even small daily p oscillations (3 hPa) due to twice daily atmospheric tides (Lindzen, 1979) generate large variations in χ_c at depth (2000 ppm; e.g. falling χ_c on 12 August, Fig. 3b). Deep soil χ_c (0.5 and 1.5 m) shows two cycles per day, in rhythm with p , whereas shallow χ_c has just one. This is consistent with correlations with the friction velocity and biological drivers (T , SWC), but not with p (Table 3). Shallow χ_c is more affected by friction velocity because it is in the upper part of the soil, and thus more easily ventilated decreasing χ_c (Hirsch et al., 2004; Sanchez-Canete et al., 2011). Similarly, Rey et al. (2012a) concluded that the wind was the main driver of the net ecosystem carbon balance at this experimental site.

The effects of emissions from deep CO₂ soil were registered in the atmosphere driven by synoptic pressure changes. The light response curves demonstrated that on both consecutive and non-consecutive days and near-constant environmental conditions (temperature, relative humidity, net radiation and soil water content), the maximum downward CO₂ flux toward the canopy at light saturation increased by 43% during days with increasing synoptic pressure, versus those with falling pressure. This is in accordance with the explanatory diagram of Fig. 6. With rising pressure, part of the CO₂ respired by plants tends to accumulate in the soil, registering more negative eddy fluxes and therefore obtaining a high value of β , which might be interpreted erroneously as the maximum CO₂ uptake rate of the canopy at light saturation (as in Eq. 2). However, with falling pressure, both CO₂ stored in the soil and that respired by plants is emitted to the atmosphere, making eddy fluxes less negative and lowering the value of β . The results presented in this paper come from a vertical CO₂ profile of three depths without horizontal replication but with a long and continuous data series. For this reason, the results invite further research in this and other semiarid ecosystems regarding the influence of synoptic pressure changes on variations in deep soil

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CO₂ molar fractions at different locations, and their role on the net ecosystem carbon balance.

5 Conclusions

This study reveals that during both growing periods and dry periods, variations in the deep soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) are due predominantly to atmospheric pressure (p) variations and not directly to biological influences. In a few hours, the deep χ_c can increase or decrease fourfold, highlighting the need for continuous (versus sporadic) monitoring of soil CO₂ effluxes. Deep χ_c has a pattern with two cycles per day, due to p oscillations caused by atmospheric tides. Nonetheless shallow χ_c has a pattern with one cycle per day, due to its dependence mainly on the friction velocity during the dry period and on biological factors during both dry and growing periods, showing maxima for this semi-arid ecosystem when soil water content is not limiting, with temperature dependence as well. The effects of emissions from deep soil CO₂ were registered in the atmosphere driven by synoptic pressure changes: on days with rising pressure the downward CO₂ flux is higher than days with falling pressure because on these days CO₂ respired by plants accumulates in the soil. Future studies focused on determining the net ecosystem carbon balance should not rely exclusively on Fick's law to calculate soil CO₂ effluxes from profile data.

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Table 1. Mean \pm standard error of soil CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c), soil temperatures (T), soil water contents (SWC), friction velocity (u_*), barometric pressure and air temperature during growing (March/April) and dry (July/August) periods of 2010 and 2011.

	Depth	χ_c	Soil T	SWC	Pressure	Air T	u_*
March–April	0.15 m	514.8 \pm 3.3	15.6 \pm 0.1	11.1 \pm 0.1	987.7 \pm 0.1	14.3 \pm 0.1	0.4 \pm 0.0
	0.5 m	943.3 \pm 7.1	15.7 \pm 0.0	11.6 \pm 0.0			
	1.5 m	813.2 \pm 7.4	15.5 \pm 0.0	15.3 \pm 0.0			
July–August	0.15 m	473 \pm 4.0	30.8 \pm 0.0	1.4 \pm 0.0	986.3 \pm 0.1	25 \pm 0.1	0.4 \pm 0.0
	0.5 m	1114.9 \pm 11.2	29.4 \pm 0.0	7.2 \pm 0.0			
	1.5 m	1142 \pm 12.6	26.1 \pm 0.0	13.7 \pm 0.0			

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Table 2. Correlation coefficients (R^2) during the growing period (Fig. 2a) between soil CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) at three depths (0.15, 0.5 and 1.5 m), on timescales of 0.5 days and 3 days, versus environmental parameters: pressure, friction velocity (u_*), soil temperatures (T) and soil water contents (SWC) at the same three depths. Negative values denote inverse correlation. Highlighted values denote the two highest magnitudes for each depth and time scale.

	Shallow		Deep			
	0.15 m		0.5 m		1.5 m	
	0.5 days	3 days	0.5 days	3 days	0.5 days	3 days
u_*	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.00
T 0.1	0.66	0.21	0.21	0.10	0.23	0.12
SWC 0.1	0.58	0.16	0.23	0.11	0.24	0.05
T 0.5	0.04	0.03	0.12	0.03	0.12	0.01
SWC 0.5	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.03	0.15	0.03
T 1.5	0.30	0.16	0.39	0.12	0.38	0.10
SWC 1.5	0.37	0.16	0.40	0.12	0.39	0.10
Pressure	0.00	-0.13	-0.06	-0.35	-0.23	-0.43

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Table 3. Correlation coefficients (R^2) during the dry period (Fig. 2b) between soil CO₂ molar fractions (χ_c) at three depths (0.15, 0.5 and 1.5 m), on timescales of 0.5 days and 3 days, versus environmental parameters: pressure, friction velocity (u_*), soil temperatures (T) and soil water contents (SWC) at the same three depths. Negative values denote inverse correlation. Highlighted values denote the two highest magnitudes for each depth and time scale.

	Shallow		Deep			
	0.15 m		0.5 m		1.5 m	
	0.5 days	3 days	0.5 days	3 days	0.5 days	3 days
u_*	0.53	0.24	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.06
T 0.1	0.46	0.32	0.05	0.10	0.12	0.10
SWC 0.1	-0.46	-0.33	-0.07	-0.11	-0.14	-0.12
T 0.5	-0.38	-0.03	-0.06	0.01	-0.12	0.00
SWC 0.5	0.39	0.03	0.07	0.00	0.13	0.00
T 1.5	-0.09	-0.14	-0.14	-0.25	-0.17	-0.24
SWC 1.5	0.06	0.26	0.28	0.61	0.30	0.62
Pressure	0.00	-0.14	-0.40	-0.49	-0.45	-0.50

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Table 4. Parameters obtained from ecosystem light response curves shown in Fig. 5. Where α (μmolCJ^{-1}) is the canopy light utilization efficiency and represents the initial slope of the light–response curve, β ($\mu\text{mol C m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the maximum CO₂ uptake rate of the canopy at light saturation and γ ($\mu\text{molC m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the ecosystem respiration during the day.

Days	α	β	γ
Decreasing pressure	-0.032 ± 0.007	-5.8 ± 0.3	1.6 ± 0.2
Increasing pressure	-0.025 ± 0.006	-8.3 ± 0.5	1.6 ± 0.3

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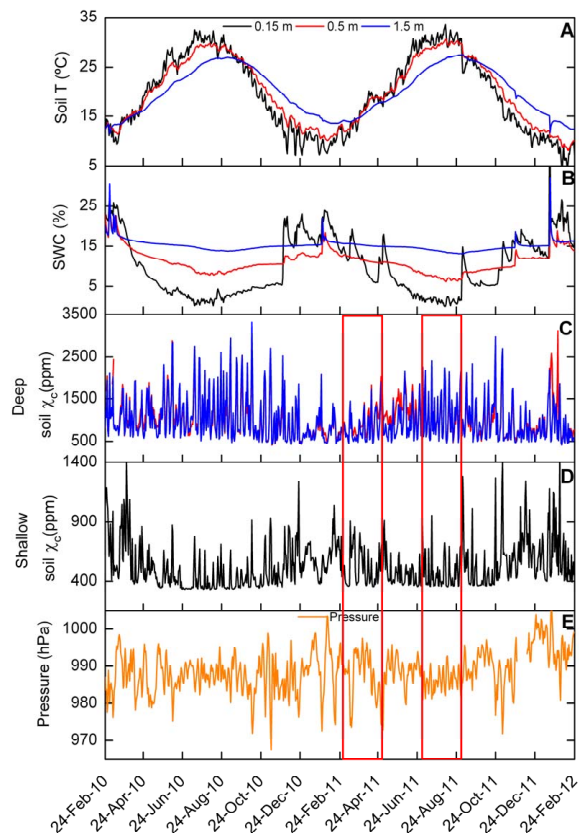
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Fig. 1. Average daily values at soil depths of 0.15 m (black), 0.5 m (red) and 1.5 m (blue) for **(A)** temperature, **(B)** volumetric soil water content, **(C)** deep soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) and **(D)** shallow soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c), as well as **(E)** the atmospheric pressure (orange) over two years. The red rectangle delimits the period amplified in Fig. 2.

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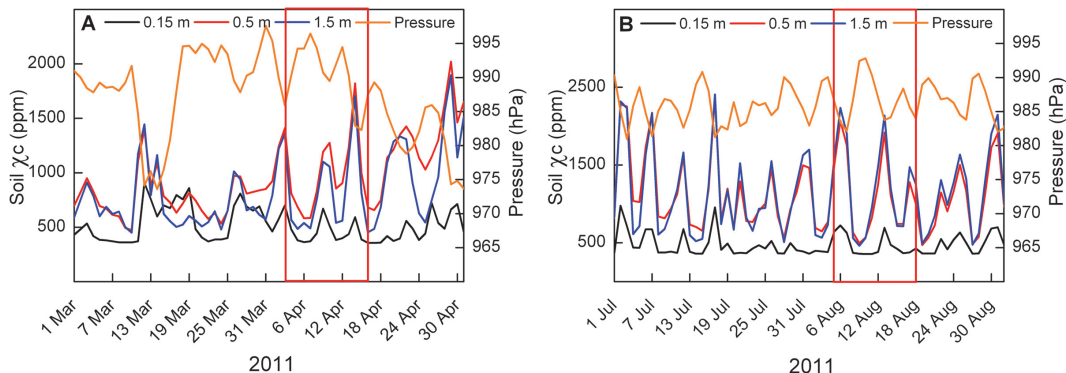


Fig. 2. Average daily values at 0.15 m (black), 0.5 m (red) and 1.5 m (blue) depth of soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) and atmospheric pressure (orange) during two months for the growing period (**A**, March–April) and dry period (**B**, July–August). The red rectangle delimits the period amplified in Fig. 3.

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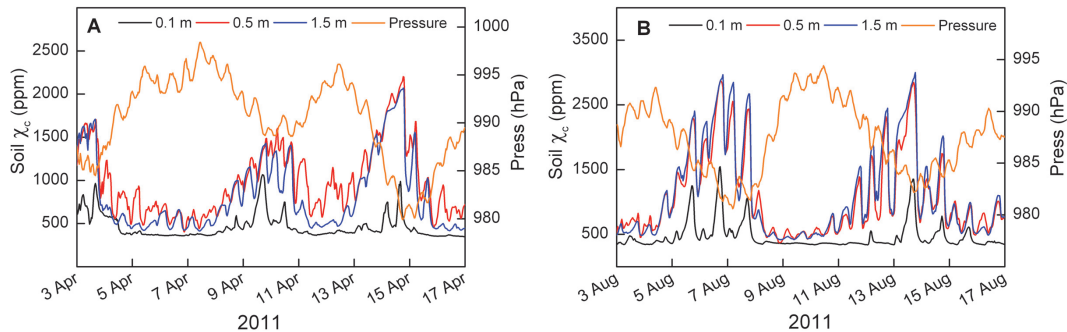


Fig. 3. Average half-hour values at 0.15 m, 0.5 m and 1.5 m depth of soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) and atmospheric pressure for a period of 14 days during the growing period (**A**, April) and dry period (**B**, August).

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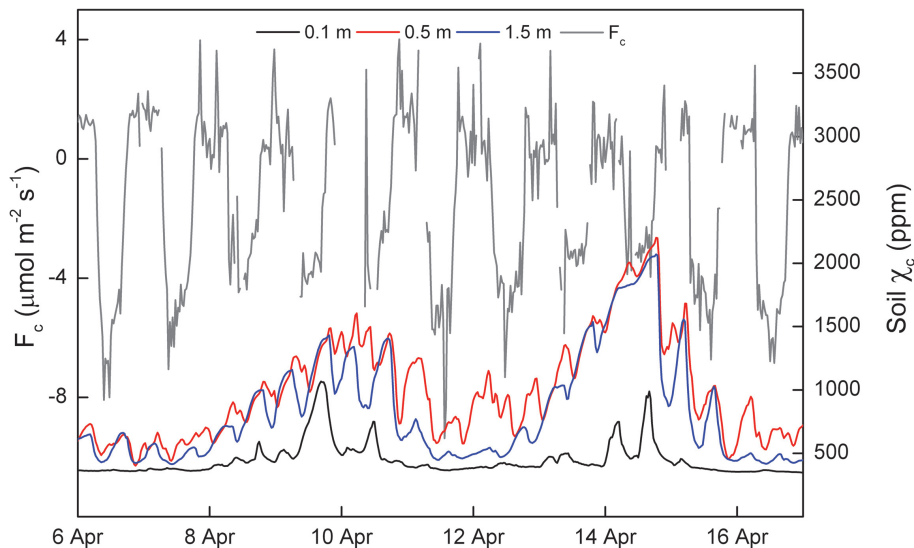


Fig. 4. Average half-hour values at 0.15 m (black), 0.5 m (red) and 1.5 m (blue) depth of soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) and ecosystem-scale CO₂ fluxes (gray) measured by eddy covariance (F_c ; negative values represent uptake).

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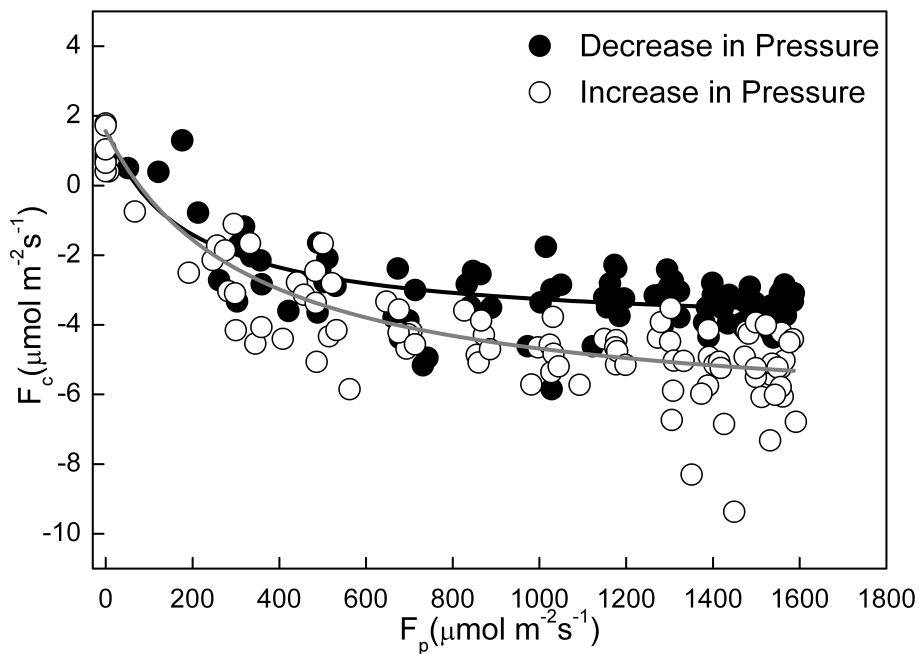


Fig. 5. Ecosystem light response curves. Daytime ecosystem CO_2 flux (F_C , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) versus the flux of photosynthetically active photons (F_p ; $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for days from Figs. 3a and 4 falling into two categories: days with decreasing atmospheric pressure and increasing deep soil CO_2 (black circles; 9, 10, 13, 14 April) and vice versa (white circles; 11, 12, 15, 16 April). No changes in daily patterns of physiological drivers (temperature, relative humidity, net radiation or soil water content) were observed over the selected days.

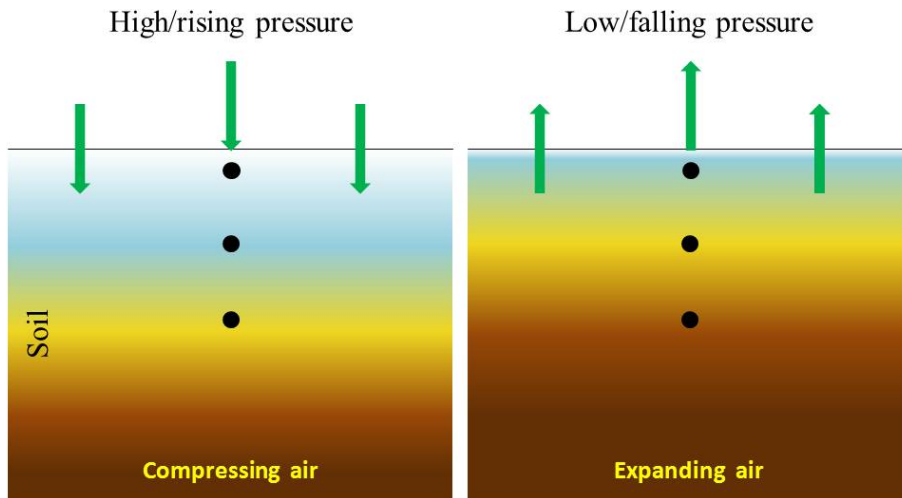


Fig. 6. Schematic of CO₂ transport in soil air layers **(a)** compressing under high/rising synoptic pressure, and **(b)** expanding under low/falling pressure. High CO₂ molar fractions are denoted in brown and low values in blue.

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