

Vertical partitioning and controlling factors of gradient-based soil carbon dioxide fluxes in two contrasted soil profiles along a loamy hillslope.

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Abstract

We assessed soil CO₂ fluxes throughout two contrasted soil profiles along a hillslope in the central loess belt of Belgium. First, we measured time-series of soil temperature, soil moisture and CO₂ concentration at different depths in the soil profiles for two periods of 6 months. Subsequently we calculated the CO₂ flux at different depths, using Fick's diffusion law and horizon specific diffusivity coefficients. The soil diffusivity coefficients were calibrated using profile specific surface CO₂ flux chamber measurements. The calculated fluxes allowed assessing the contribution of different soil layers to surface CO₂ fluxes and elucidating deep soil controlling factors on CO₂ emission.

The results show that approximately 90 to 95 % of the surface CO₂ fluxes originate from the first 10 centimeters of the soil profile at the footslope. This indicates that soil OC at such a footslope can be stored along the main part of the soil profile (below 10 cm) and submitted to a long-term stabilization. We also observe that time-series of soil CO₂ emissions at the summit are in accordance with the temporal dynamics of temperature. In contrast, at the footslope, we highlight that long periods of CO₂ accumulation alternate with peaks of important surface release due to the high water filled pore space that limits the transfer of CO₂ along the soil profile at this slope position.

1. Introduction

Soils play a major role in the global C budget, as they contain 2 to 3 times more C than the atmosphere (Eswaran et al., 1993; Lal et al., 2003). There is now significant concern about the contribution of soil OC to future climate change where a climate change driven acceleration of soil OC decomposition could represent a positive feedback on climate. In addition to the role of soil mineralogy and microbial communities, recent studies highlight the importance of soil bio-physical conditions that may vary substantially with time and across landscapes (e.g. Dai et al., 2012). In addition to the combined effects of soil moisture, temperature and OC quality on soil microbial activity (e.g. Wiaux et al., 2014b), recent studies show the importance of physical controls on CO₂ fluxes such as gas diffusion barriers along soil profiles (e.g. Ball, 2013; Maier et al., 2011). Furthermore, most process studies so far have focused on the soil surface layer while there is now increasing awareness that subsoil OC represents an important C store that interacts with the atmosphere (Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2011). Recent studies (Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2011) highlighted that deep soil OC is highly processed, and showed the need to consider C fluxes originating from deeper soil horizons. This is particularly relevant in landscapes with complex topography where buried OC in depositional areas contributes substantially to soil C emissions (e.g. Van Oost et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014 and Wiaux et al., 2014a). Goffin et al. (2014) showed that the upper first 30 centimeters of a forest soil profile contribute substantially to the total surface CO₂ flux. However, to our knowledge, a vertical partitioning has not been evaluated in agro-ecosystems or in systems with contrasting soil physical and/or chemical properties.

In this study, we aim to elucidate the role of physical controls on soil-atmosphere CO₂ fluxes and its variation with soil depth. To that aim, we present a comparative analysis between two contrasting soil profiles along an eroded and cultivated hillslope. The objectives of this study are: (i) to quantify the relative contribution of soil surface and subsoil OC to CO₂ fluxes through a vertical partitioning of these fluxes; and (ii) to identify the role of soil physical properties using time-series of soil moisture measurements and gas diffusivity at different depths. The selected study site is characterized by two contrasting soils in terms of soil hydrological regimes and structure.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Study site description

The study was carried out in the Belgian loam belt along a cultivated hillslope of 150 meters length (50.6669°N, 4.6331° W). The site has a maritime temperate climate, with an average annual temperature of 9.7°C and an average annual precipitation of 805 mm. The slope percentage in the backslope area ranges between 8.5 and 16%, with a mean slope of 12%. The slope percentage in the convex shoulder area ranges between 4 to 8.5%, with an average of 6%. The field was plowed (0-30 cm soil surface layer) every year. Each year, manure and nitrate fertilization was carried out. The previous crop rotation was winter wheat, maize and spring wheat. The study site has been described in detail in Wiaux et al. (2014a,b). For this study, we selected two measurement stations along the hillslope: one at the summit and one at the footslope position. The soil is a Dystric Luvisol type at the summit and a Colluvic Regosol in the depositional area at the footslope (Wiaux et al., 2014a,b). The soil properties of these two soil profiles have been characterized by Wiaux et al. (2014a,b): soil total OC, labile OC and porosity profiles are illustrated in Fig. 1 and 2, respectively.

We measured the total porosity (θ) in the laboratory by weighing 100 cm³ undisturbed soil cores both at saturation and after oven drying at 105°C for 48h. We deduced θ from the mass of water needed to fill sample pores. We calculated the air-filled porosity (ϵ) as the difference between θ and volumetric water content (VWC). We calculated average and standard deviation values on triplicate samples for each depth.

We characterized soil water retention (SWR) curves using undisturbed soil cores at 10, 25, 35, 50, 70 and 95 cm depth, with 3 replicates at each depth. We obtained the ϵ_{100} and b parameters of the Campbell (1974) SWR model by fitting the model to the SWR observations (Moldrup et al. 2000).

2.2. Monitoring of soil CO₂, water and temperature

We measured soil CO₂ concentrations using purpose-built soil CO₂ probes. The CO₂ sensor in the probe is based on the CARBOCAP® Single-Beam Dual Wavelength non-dispersive infra-red (NDIR)

technology (GMM221, Vaisala corp., Vantaa, Finland). The analytical precision is 1.5% of the measurement range added to 2% of the observed value. The sampling head of the CO₂ probe is a cylinder of 18.5 mm diameter and 40 mm long, covered with a PTFE (polytetrafluoroethylene) membrane, enabling gas exchange and protection against water infiltration. Since the GMM221 sensors were not designed for wet soil conditions, the sensors were encapsulated into an additional perforated PVC tube, providing an additional protection against water (Fig. 1). This tubing method is an adaptation of the technique presented by Young et al. (2009). We inserted these tubes vertically into the soil, after creating bore holes with a diameter that equals the diameter of the PVC tubes. This approach avoids the need to backfill the bore hole, which will disturb the soil structure and diffusion process. Two rubber stoppers, one at 155 mm from the tube head, and another at the top of the tube, prevented atmospheric air from penetrating into the gas sampling volume. Petroleum jelly on these two rubber stoppers ensured a perfect air- and water-tightness and we verified this under laboratory conditions before using the probes. We used a nylon membrane to avoid soil particles entering the perforated tube and to limit further water infiltration.

We monitored soil temperature using a thermistor probe (Therm107, Campbell Scientific Lt., UK). Analytical precision is 0.4°C. We monitored soil volumetric water content (VWC) using Time Domain Reflectometry (TDR) probes. We used Topp's equation (Topp et al., 1980) to determine VWC from the measured apparent dielectric constant measured. We used the parameters of the Topp's equation as identified by Beff et al. (2013). In this study latter study, the Topp's equation was calibrated for an experimental field in the close vicinity of our study site, using the method of Heimovaara (1993) and following the protocol described by Garré et al. (2008). We recorded water, temperature and CO₂ concentration profiles measurements with an automatic data logger (CR1000, Campbell Scientific Lt., UK), connected to a multiplexer (AM16/32, Campbell Scientific, Campbell Scientific Lt., UK).

In order to obtain an equilibrated soil environment around the soil VWC, temperature and CO₂ probes, we started measurements 1 month after the installation of the probes. We covered the measurement

plots with a synthetic permeable geotextile during the complete measurement period. This avoided vegetation growth and any autotrophic contribution to the soil respiration.

The sampling design is depicted in Fig. 4. At each of the 2 slope positions, we measured soil VWC and CO₂ concentrations profiles with 3 replicates on each measurement depth (Fig. 4). We collected 18 VWC profiles (6 soil depths, 3 replicates), at each of the 2 slope positions. We measured VWC at a depth of 10, 25, 35, 50, 70 and 95 cm depths (Fig. 4). We measured the temperature at 4 soil depths (10, 25, 45, 85 cm) without replicates (Fig. 4). We measured CO₂ concentrations at a depth of 10, 25, 45 and 85 cm. We also performed surface CO₂ fluxes measurements with an infra-red gas analyzer (IRGA) linked to a survey chamber at 16 dates (profile and surface sampling time was within a 30 minutes time interval). Note that the averaged values of CO₂ concentration for each observation depth cover the same area as the IRGA chamber network located at the soil surface (Fig. 4). These reference surface CO₂ fluxes allowed calibrating parameters of the soil gas diffusion model, ensuring the accuracy of profile CO₂ fluxes (section 2.3).

We adjusted the concentration ranges of the CO₂ probe for each soil depth and for each slope position. This allowed an optimal fit of the probes to the local concentrations. Each probe has to characterize the entire range of values encountered during the seasons while at the same time, it should have a sufficiently narrow measurement range to ensure measurement precision. At the summit position, measurements ranged between 0-2 % at 12, 25, 45 cm depth and between 0-5 % at 85 cm depth. At the footslope position, measurements ranged between 0-5 % at 12 cm depth, between 0-10 % at 25 and 45 cm depth and between 0-20 % at 85 cm depth.

We recorded hourly time-series of VWC, temperature and CO₂ concentrations from 12 May to 13 December 2012 and from 14 May to 22 November 2013 at the footslope position and from the 2 June to 13 December 2012 and from the 14 June to 22 November 2013 at the summit position. In 2012, important parts of CO₂ measurements were not recorded as a result of sensors failures and/or the use of an unsuitable initial measurement range of some sensors.

To increase the quality of the soil concentration data time-series, we removed observations where the battery voltage was lower than 11.5 V. We also corrected soil profile CO₂ concentrations measurements for temperature variations using the empirical formulas described by Tang et al. (2003). This allowed removing the impact of temperature on the CO₂ reading of the CO₂ probe, since the CARBOCAP® technology is temperature dependent. The probe manufacturer (Vaisala corp., Vantaa, Finland) provided probe specific parameters values for the correction formulas.

We averaged triplicate VWC and CO₂ concentrations data, providing an average value for each soil depth and slope position. Note that averaging strategy allows to account for the spatial variability of VWC and CO₂ concentrations (Maier and Schack-Kirchner, 2014), by extending the measurement footprint to an area of c. 5 m².

We calculated soil temperature and VWC profiles using a linear interpolation between the depth specific values within the profile. We kept the values constant between the sampling point at the top of the profile and the soil surface. We calculated the CO₂ concentrations profiles by fitting Eq. 2 to the observations. We evaluated the performance of this fitting by means of the regression coefficient (R²). When the R² values were lower than a threshold value of 95%, we considered the CO₂ concentration profile as unreliable and we did not retain the resulting CO₂ fluxes in final analysis.

2.3. Calculation of the CO₂ fluxes

We calculated the CO₂ flux using Fick's first law of diffusion according to the gradient method (Eq. 1, e.g. Maier and Schack-Kirchner, 2014):

$$F_{CO_2} = -D_s \frac{\partial CO_2}{\partial z} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

where F_{CO_2} is the soil CO₂ flux [$\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$], D_s the diffusivity of CO₂ in soil [$\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$], CO_2 the soil CO₂ concentration [$\mu\text{mol m}^{-3}$], and $\frac{\partial CO_2}{\partial z}$ the vertical soil CO₂ gradient.

In order to calculate the vertical soil CO₂ gradient, we used a double sigmoidal equation (Eq. 2), which allows accounting for some curve concavity variations (Maier and Schack-Kirchner, 2014):

$$CO_2(z) = 0.04 + A \left(\left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-\gamma_1 z}} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-\gamma_2(z-d)}} \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{e^{\gamma_2 d} + 1} \right) \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

where z is the soil depth [cm], d is the soil depth [cm] at which the sharpness of the curve changes due to a diffusion barrier, γ_1 and γ_2 [cm^{-1}] are fitted parameters which characterize the sharpness of the curve, respectively above and below the soil depth d , and A [%] is a reference value used to define the fitted asymptotic value of the CO_2 concentration at infinite depth. We fitted the A , d , γ_1 and γ_2 parameters for each CO_2 -profile using the trust-region-reflective optimization algorithm in Matlab ©. The derivative of Eq. 2 provided the CO_2 gradient ($\frac{\partial CO_2}{\partial z}$) used in Eq. 1.

The diffusivity of CO_2 in soil, D_s (Eq. 1) is a function of the diffusivity of CO_2 in free air (varying with temperature T and pressure, e.g. Davidson *et al.*, 2006) and of the gas tortuosity factor (ξ) (Eq. 3):

$$D_s = \xi 1.47 \cdot 10^{-5} \left(\frac{T+273}{273} \right)^{1.75} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

where ξ depends on soil physical and hydrological properties. We used the Moldrup *et al.* (2000) model (Eq. 4) which was shown to provide the most accurate and precise results (Davidson *et al.*, 2006; Goffin *et al.*, 2014);

$$\xi = (2\varepsilon_{100}^3 + 0.04\varepsilon_{100}) \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_{100}} \right)^{2+3/b} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

where ξ is the gas tortuosity factor, ε [$\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$] is the soil air-filled porosity, b [-] is the slope of the Campbell (1974) soil water retention curve model between -100 and -500 cm H_2O water suction, and ε_{100} [$\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$] is the soil air-filled porosity at a soil water potential of -100 cm H_2O .

CO_2 fluxes, as assessed by the gradient based method, were calculated on an hourly time-scale, and then integrated on a daily basis. Temperature, VWC, diffusivity and CO_2 concentration values were also averaged on a daily basis.

In contrast to other studies (e.g. Pingintha *et al.*, 2010; Turcu *et al.*, 2005), we did not aggregate the soil diffusivity coefficient for the entire soil profile or for an entire soil layer. We considered the

vertical distribution explicitly, and integrated Eq. 4 in the finite difference numerical solution of Eq. 1. In this numerical integration, we used a depth increment of 0.1cm and constrained the surface CO₂ concentrations with atmospheric CO₂ levels (i.e. 400 ppm).

We calibrated the diffusion model by adjusting the parameters related to the gas diffusion coefficient (i.e. b and ε_{100}) such that calculated fluxes fit punctual CO₂ fluxes observations at 16 dates spread along the measurement period. We obtained these observations by means of a portable infra-red gas analyzer with an automated closed dynamic chamber (LI-8100A system, LI-COR, United-States), following Davidson et al. (2002). The sampling design of these surface chamber CO₂ fluxes measurements on the same study site has been described in Wiaux et al. (2014 b). Comparing the gradient-based CO₂ fluxes with directly measured IRGA CO₂ fluxes, we obtained a good prediction with a R² of 92% for all soil types together. This ensures the consistency (and consequently the precision) of the calculated fluxes. The slope of the fit (i.e. 1.05 and 1.22, respectively in 2012 and 2013) was used to correct the calculated fluxes and to ensure the accuracy.

2.4. Vertical partitioning of CO₂ fluxes

We partitioned the continuous CO₂ flux profiles obtained using Eq.2 into 10 slides of 10 centimeters along the soil profile. For each soil slide, we calculated the difference between the top and bottom fluxes. We divided this difference by the total CO₂ flux (e.g. the value at the soil surface). This provides the relative contribution in terms of both CO₂ production and transfer (in %) of each soil slide to the surface CO₂ flux (e.g. Goffin et al., 2014; Maier and Schack-Kirchner, 2014).

In order to allow an easy representation of the temporal dynamic of this vertical partitioning, we averaged values on a semi-seasonal time-scale. Standard deviation values reflect the variability over time during each semi-season.

3. Results

3.1. Spatio-temporal analysis of measured soil variables

Fig. 5 shows the spatio-temporal variation of soil temperature and moisture, while Fig. 6 shows the spatio-temporal variation of CO₂ fluxes, concentrations and diffusion. All these values correspond to in-situ measurements during a 6 month period in 2013. Similar measurements have been carried out in 2012 and display similar spatio-temporal trends (data not shown).

During the observation period, the soil temperature (Fig. 5A) did not significantly differ between the summit and the footslope, although higher temperatures were observed at the summit profile for some shorter periods (e.g. day of year 180 to 220 where temperatures are approximately 2 to 3 °C higher). The mean daily surface temperatures range between 4°C to 28°C at the summit, and between 4°C to 25°C at the footslope.

The space-time dynamics of the soil volumetric water content (VWC, Fig. 5B) differ substantially between the summit and the footslope profiles. At the footslope, the observed soil VWC at different soil depths varied in a narrow range (0.36 to 0.39 cm³ cm⁻³). In contrast, soil VWC at the summit varied between 0.23 to 0.34 cm³ cm⁻³ for the plow layer (0-30cm depth) and higher values (approximately 0.5 cm³ cm⁻³) were observed for the rest of the soil profile. The soil at the summit position was the wettest during the early spring and the late autumn and driest in the summer. At the footslope, soil VWC reached the saturation level in the early summer after an important rainfall event and then slowly decreased until the early autumn and reached saturation again in the late autumn.

In contrast to the VWC, the soil gas diffusivity (Fig. 6C) reached its maximum value in the summer at the summit while it was low at the footslope. Soil gas diffusivity was approximately 10 times lower at the footslope than at the summit.

The soil CO₂ concentrations at both the summit and the footslope increased gradually from spring to late summer. Thereafter, concentrations dropped again and lowest values were observed in the late autumn. The ranges of CO₂ fluxes obtained for the footslope and summit profiles were very similar.

However, their temporal distribution was different: the periods characterized by high CO₂ fluxes did not occur at the same time and had a different duration. For all soil profiles, CO₂ fluxes decreased with depth and reached null values at approximately 30 cm depth at the summit and at approximately 15 cm depth at the footslope.

3.2. Shape and variability of CO₂ concentrations and fluxes profiles

The observed soil CO₂ concentrations (Fig. 6Bb) increased with soil depth, from the atmospheric value of 0.04 % at the surface to concentrations which were two orders of magnitude higher at 100 cm depth (CO₂(z) in Eq.2) (Fig. 6Bb). For the measurement period of 6 months considered here, CO₂ concentration values at 100 cm depth were three to four times higher at the footslope position than at the summit position. In 2013, these values ranged between 0.86 to 3.46 % at the summit position and between 3.68 to 9.12 % at the footslope position.

The observed CO₂ concentration profiles followed a double exponential trend (Eq. 2). This particular model fits our observations relatively well, with regression coefficients ranging between 97 to 100%. The second exponential curve starts approximately at the middle of the profile, and is particularly pronounced at the footslope, reflecting a shift of nearly 4% CO₂ between 44 and 100 cm depth. Standard deviations around averaged values of observed hourly CO₂ concentrations at each depth are given in Table 1. The small-scale spatial variability is low relative to the mean values of CO₂ concentrations, the only exception being the footslope at 25 cm depth where the maximum standard deviation exceeded the maximum mean value.

The CO₂ fluxes (Fig. 6A) were calculated based on both CO₂ concentrations and diffusivity. For all soil profiles, CO₂ fluxes decreased with depth and reached null values at c.30 cm depth at the summit and at c. 15 cm depth at the footslope.

3.3. Vertical partitioning of CO₂ fluxes

The distribution of the soil CO₂ fluxes in the profile is illustrated in Fig. 7. At the footslope, 90 to 95 % of the surface CO₂ fluxes were generated in the first ten centimeters of the soil profile. The soil

layer between 10 and 20 cm contributed for only 5 to 10 %, and the deeper layers did not significantly contribute to the surface fluxes. At the summit, the relative contribution of the different soil layers was more dynamic in time, with a contribution of the first ten centimeters of the soil profile ranging from 80 % at the late spring, decreasing to 60 % in the early summer, and reaching 40 % from late summer to the late autumn. At the summit, the first 30 centimeters of the soil profile significantly contributed to surface fluxes. This contribution decreased with depth in the late spring and the early summer, but is homogeneously distributed with depth for the rest of the time. At the summit, soil layers deeper than 30 cm depth sometimes contributed for up to 20% of the total flux, especially in the autumn. Between 40 to 50 cm depth, and 80 to 90 cm depth, some negative contribution (i.e. CO₂ uptake) up to -20% is also observed.

4. Discussion

4.1. Soil physical control on CO₂ emissions

The observed differences in the temporal dynamics of surface soil CO₂ fluxes between the footslope and summit soil profiles (Fig. 6A) indicates that the controlling factors are not the same. At the summit, on one hand, the dynamic of surface soil CO₂ fluxes (Fig. 6A) clearly follows the temperature variations (Fig. 5A, maximum during the summer). At the footslope, on the other hand, the soil surface CO₂ flux was small even when temperature increased and remained relatively small throughout the summer period (Fig. 6A). This is most likely related to the high VWC values observed at the footslope (Fig. 5B), as it is well known that VWC negatively impacts soil CO₂ emissions (e.g. Webster et al., 2008b; Perrin et al., 2012; Wiaux et al., 2014b). More precisely, we suggest that the factor controlling CO₂ emissions at the footslope is not only VWC but also the difference between the VWC and the water saturation level of the soil pore spaces. While the VWC at the footslope remained high throughout the year, we observed that the soil surface CO₂ flux dramatically increased when the gas diffusivity exceeded a threshold value of c. 0.1 cm² d⁻¹ (i.e. from day 255 to 305 of year 2013, Fig. 6A). Hence, we argue that the CO₂ emissions at the footslope profile are related to the fact that a high VWC both: (i) strongly limits the transfer of biotic CO₂ along the soil profile, and (ii) reduces the

production of CO₂ in itself due to the lack of oxygen for the microbial community. In both cases, the lower CO₂ emissions at the footslope profile relative to the summit, are due to gas diffusion limitations (even indirectly in the case of oxygen lack). This is in sharp contrast to the summit profile where gas can easily diffuse throughout the year and along the entire soil profile (Fig. 6C).

In the period preceding the important CO₂ emissions (i.e. from day 255 to 305 of year 2013, Fig. 6A), the soil CO₂ cannot move along the soil profile and accumulates within soil pores. This results in a CO₂ concentration increase both in the early and the late summer, especially below 50 cm depth (Fig. 6). This phenomenon is particularly evident below the compacted soil layer between 40 cm and 50 cm depth. Based on the porosity profile illustrated in Fig. 1, this suggests that for our footslope soil profile, which is a Colluvic Regosols, gas diffusion barriers strongly impact the CO₂ concentration profile, and hence the temporal dynamics of soil surface CO₂ fluxes. This is in agreement with recent studies (e.g. Ball, 2013) that show that soil pore continuity and size are key to understand the mechanisms regulating the soil gases emissions.

As a consequence, the significantly higher CO₂ concentrations observed at the footslope, especially for deeper soil layers, are probably not related to the large amount of labile OC that was found at this position (shown in Wiaux et al., 2014a,b), but more likely result from the accumulation of CO₂ during periods with a very low diffusivity. Maier et al. (2011) showed that the CO₂ efflux can deviate from the instantaneous soil respiration due to CO₂ storage into soil pore spaces. Hence, we suggest that at the footslope, soil physical properties are the dominant control on surface CO₂ fluxes. In summary, we highlight that the mechanisms that govern soil surface CO₂ emissions are highly variable in both space and time. On a well-drained soil at the summit of a hillslope, the observed soil CO₂ emissions were directly related to soil microbial respiration and CO₂ production (demonstrated in Wiaux et al., 2014b). However, at the footslope of the hillslope, which is characterized by a different hydrological regime, we observed that the temporal dynamic of soil CO₂ emissions were more closely related to physical transfer mechanisms: long periods of CO₂ production and accumulation alternate with periods of important release at the soil surface.

4.2. Soil organic carbon storage in downslope deposits

The soil respiration rate can be interpreted as an indicator of soil OC persistence (e.g. Gregorich et al., 1994). However, a further analysis of what occurs along the soil profile is needed to thoroughly answer the question of the persistence of OC. The vertical partitioning of the soil CO₂ fluxes, as illustrated in Fig. 7, shows that during the observation period, 90 to 95 % of the surface CO₂ flux originated from the first ten centimeters of the soil profile at the footslope. Given the important amount of OC until up to 100 cm depth in our study site (Fig. 1, Wiaux et al., 2014 a), this observation is not in agreement with the study of Goffin et al. (2014), who suggested that the relative contribution of a soil layer to the surface CO₂ fluxes is related to OC distribution along the soil profile. However, while similarities exist in the physical controls and the method used to calculate the vertical partitioning, the study of Goffin et al. (2014) reports on CO₂ production in forest soils, preventing any direct quantitative comparison.

In addition, the substantial contribution of the upper soil layers found here was not related to higher temperatures (Fig. 5A), contrary to what was suggested by Takahashi et al. (2004). According to the CO₂ concentration and diffusivity profiles (Fig. 6C), the relative contribution of the soil layers to the surface CO₂ flux is more likely governed by soil physical controls (Ball, 2013) rather than by biological production depending on thermal energy and OC substrate. Here, soil gas diffusivity strongly decreases from 10 to 40 cm depth (where diffusivity is null) at the two slope positions, and the profile of CO₂ concentration displays no gradient between 10 and 40 cm depth, particularly at the footslope (Fig. 6A).

Here, we show that despite the fact that the footslope profiles generates CO₂ fluxes which exceed those observed at the summit position (demonstrated in Wiaux et al., 2014b), the contribution of soil layers below 10 cm depth is very small (Fig. 7). The OC in the top layer of the soil profile (i.e. 0-10 cm) contributed for c. 90% of the total CO₂ flux at the footslope position (Fig. 7). This can be explained by environmental conditions specific to this 0-10 cm layer playing in favor of both microbial respiration and gas diffusion. There are no limitations related to both diffusion barriers and

access to the oxygen disappear close to the soil surface. Hence, the only impact of soil VWC on soil respiration is its positive effect as it provides a more easy access for soil micro-organisms to their OC substrate, and to the enhancement of their metabolic activities by water (Akinremi et al., 1999; Castellano et al., 2011; Herbst et al., 2008; Howard and Howard, 1993; Šimůnek and Suarez, 1993). The combination of this high amount and high quality of soil OC (Fig. 1, as described by Wiaux et al., 2014a) with this net positive effect of soil VWC results in a strong increase of microbial respiration rates.

Finally, our results suggest that buried soil OC in colluvial deposits is effectively protected from mineralization below 10 cm depth, which corroborates the assumption of a long-term stabilization of buried OC in colluvial soils as suggested in the literature (e.g. Doetterl et al., 2012; Berhe et al., 2008, 2012a).

5. Conclusion

In this study, we evaluated the factors controlling soil carbon dioxide fluxes for two soil profiles along a hillslope characterized by contrasting physical and chemical characteristics. At the summit position of the studied hillslope, the time course of surface soil CO₂ fluxes was strongly related to soil temperature and maximum CO₂ fluxes were observed during the summer. Here, the observed soil CO₂ emissions are directly related to soil micro-organisms respiration and associated biotic CO₂ production. In contrast, the higher levels of water filled pore space observed at the footslope profiles, strongly limited the transfer of biotic CO₂ throughout the soil profile. Here, the soil surface CO₂ flux substantially increased for limited amounts of time when the gas diffusivity exceeded a threshold value. As a result, the time course of observed soil CO₂ emissions was to a large extent explained by physical transfer mechanisms: long periods of accumulation alternate with shorter periods of important CO₂ release. The vertical partitioning of the soil CO₂ fluxes for the footslope profiles showed that, during the observation period, 90 to 95 % of the surface CO₂ fluxes originated from the first 10 centimeters of the soil profile. This study highlights the need to include soil physical properties and their dynamics directly into soil OC models.

Author contribution

F.W. designed the experiments, and carried out the research. M.V., K.V.O. and F.W. analyzed the results. F.W. wrote the main part of the paper and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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 527

Tables

Table 1. Range of standard deviation and averaged values of triplicated measured hourly CO₂ concentrations at each depth, both at the summit and at the footslope position. This range is indicated by minimum (Min) and maximum (Max) values encountered along time (hourly time series) during the 6 months measurement period.

Soil depth [cm]	Summit position				Footslope position			
	Min mean [%]	Max mean [%]	Min S.D. [%]	Max S.D. [%]	Min mean [%]	Max mean [%]	Min S.D. [%]	Max S.D. [%]
10	0.07	1.39	0.00	0.71	0.26	4.75	0.00	3.13
25	0.06	1.83	0.00	0.68	0.30	3.93	0.00	5.32
45	NI	NI	NI	NI	0.12	3.96	0.00	1.96
95	0.15	2.83	0.00	1.42	0.48	7.52	0.00	2.48

Figures

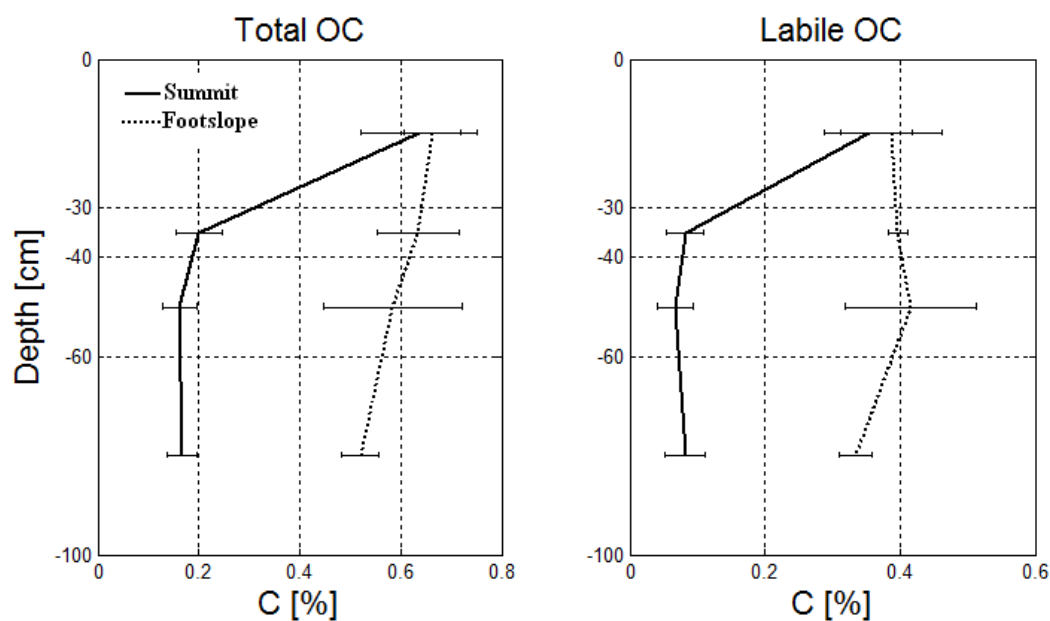


Fig. 1. Soil profiles (0-100 cm) of both soil total OC and labile OC pool concentrations [C%], at the summit and footslope positions. Error bars indicate 1 standard deviation ($n \geq 3$).

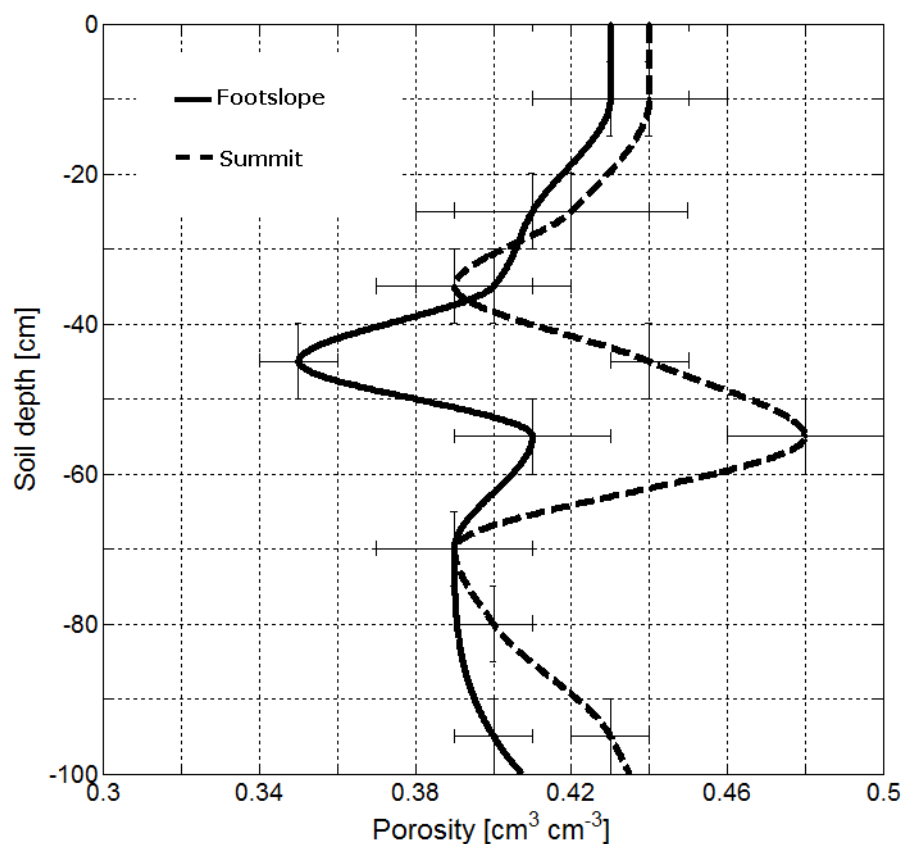


Fig. 2. Soil porosity profiles at the footslope (plain line) and at the summit (dashed line) positions. Error bars indicate 1 standard deviation ($n \geq 3$). Continuous lines are linearly interpolated values.

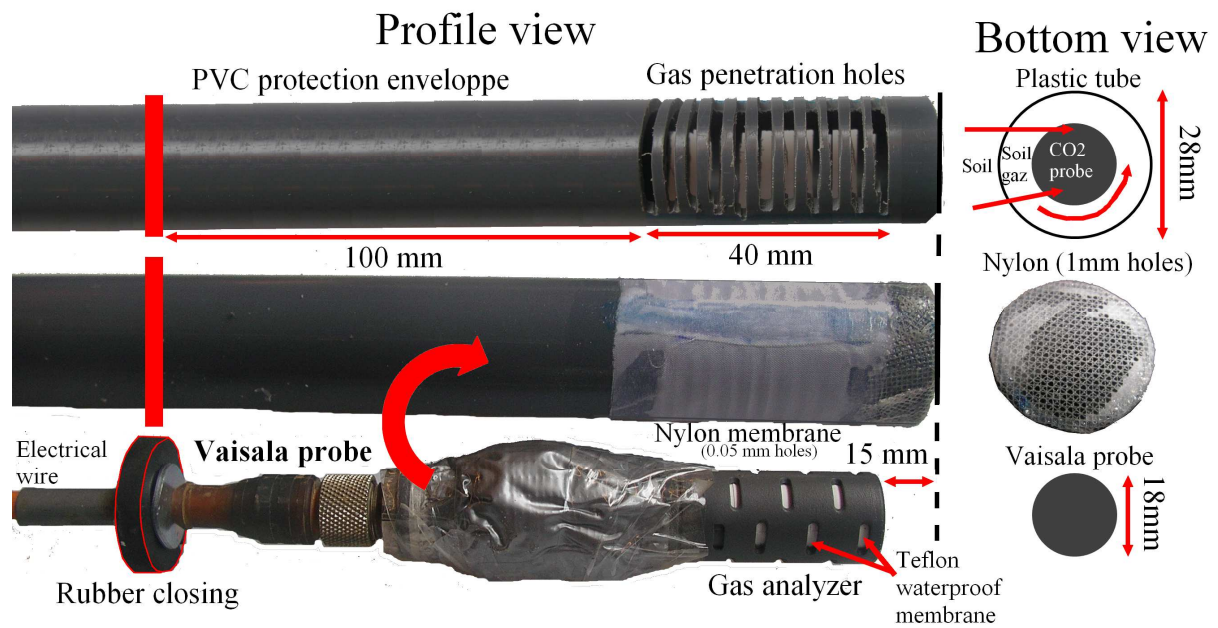


Fig. 3. Description of the probes used for CO₂ concentration measurements inside the soil.

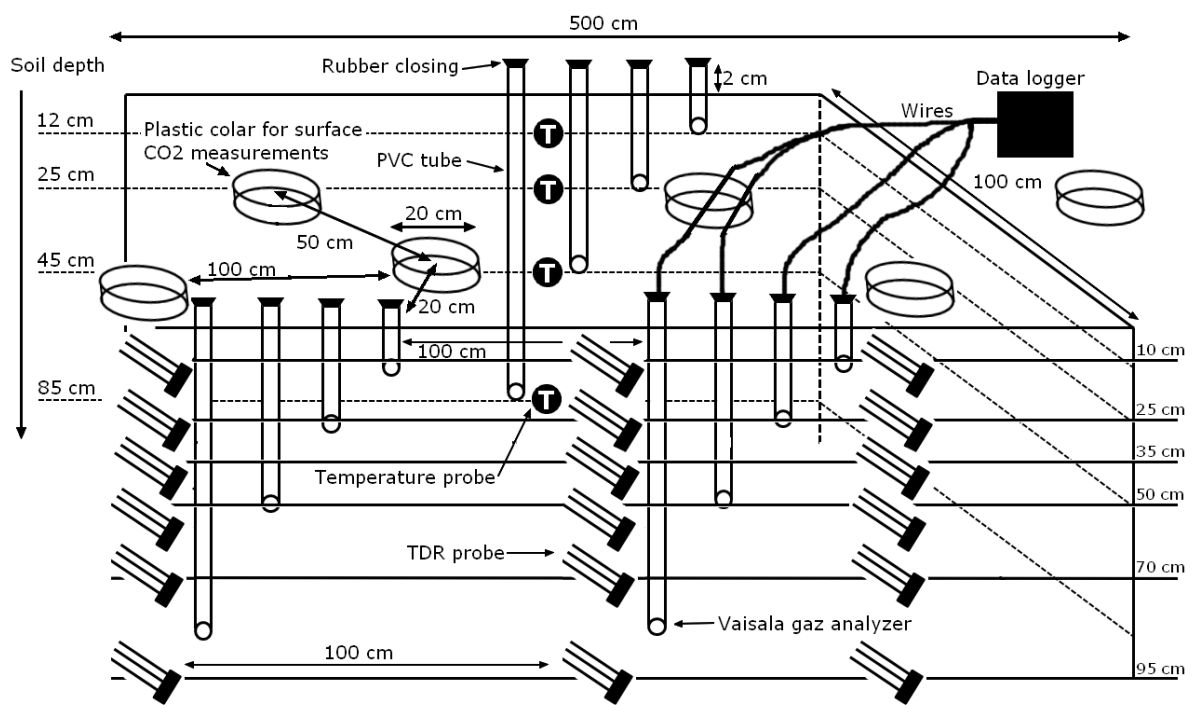
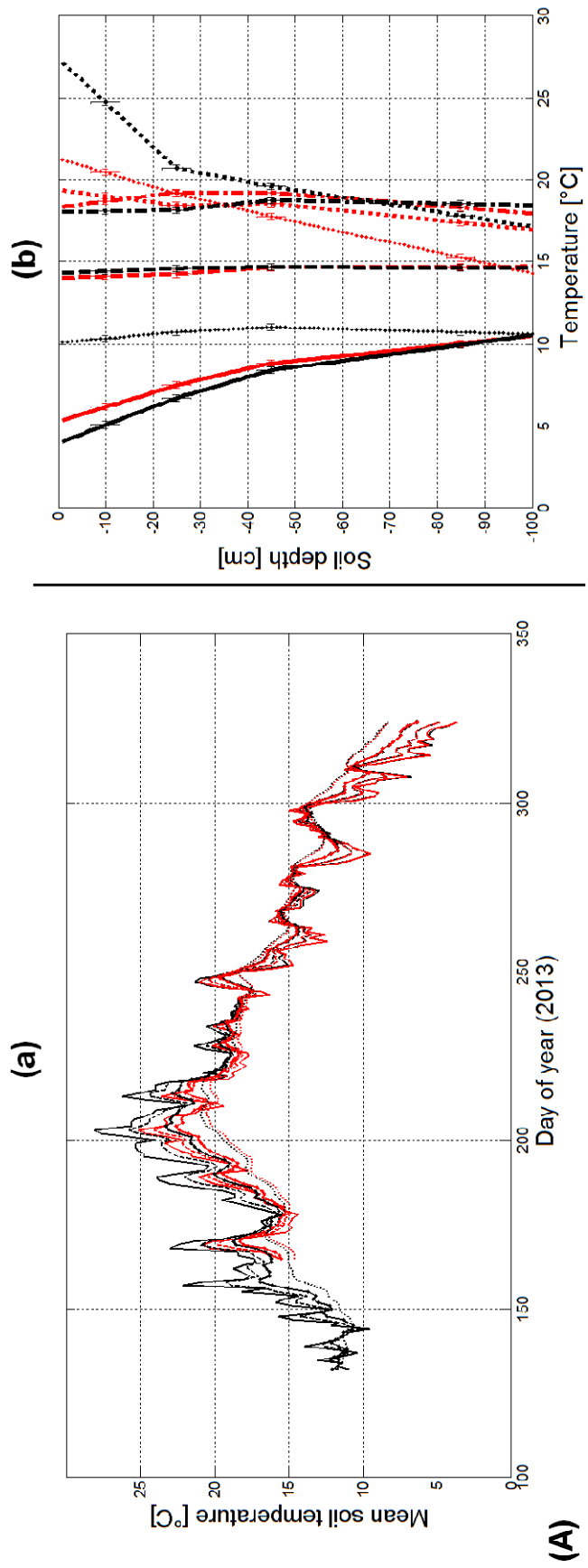


Fig. 4. Schematic description of the experimental plot (sampling design) at each slope position showing how temperature, VWC, CO₂ concentrations and CO₂ fluxes probes collocate with each others. Probes have been inserted at different locations both vertically and horizontally. Consequently, all of them are not in the same plane (i.e. depth lines with axes labels on the right hand-side illustrate the foreground profile and depth lines with axes labels on the left hand-side illustrate the background profile).



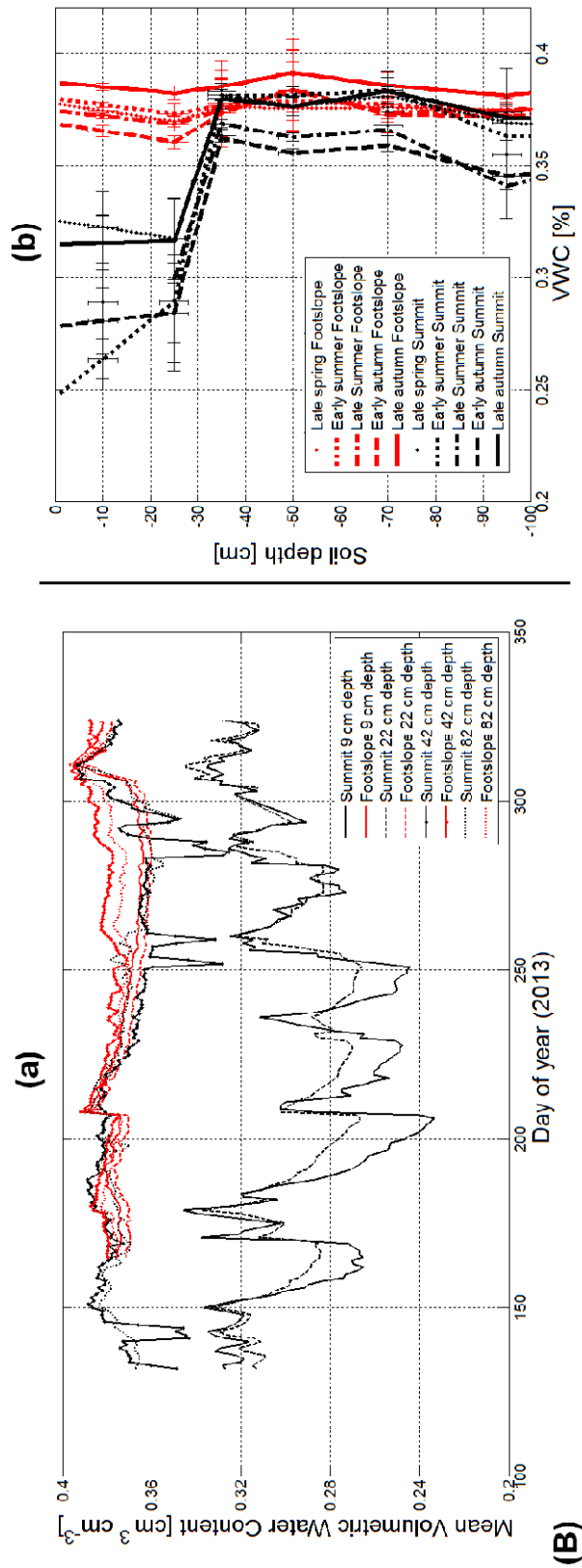
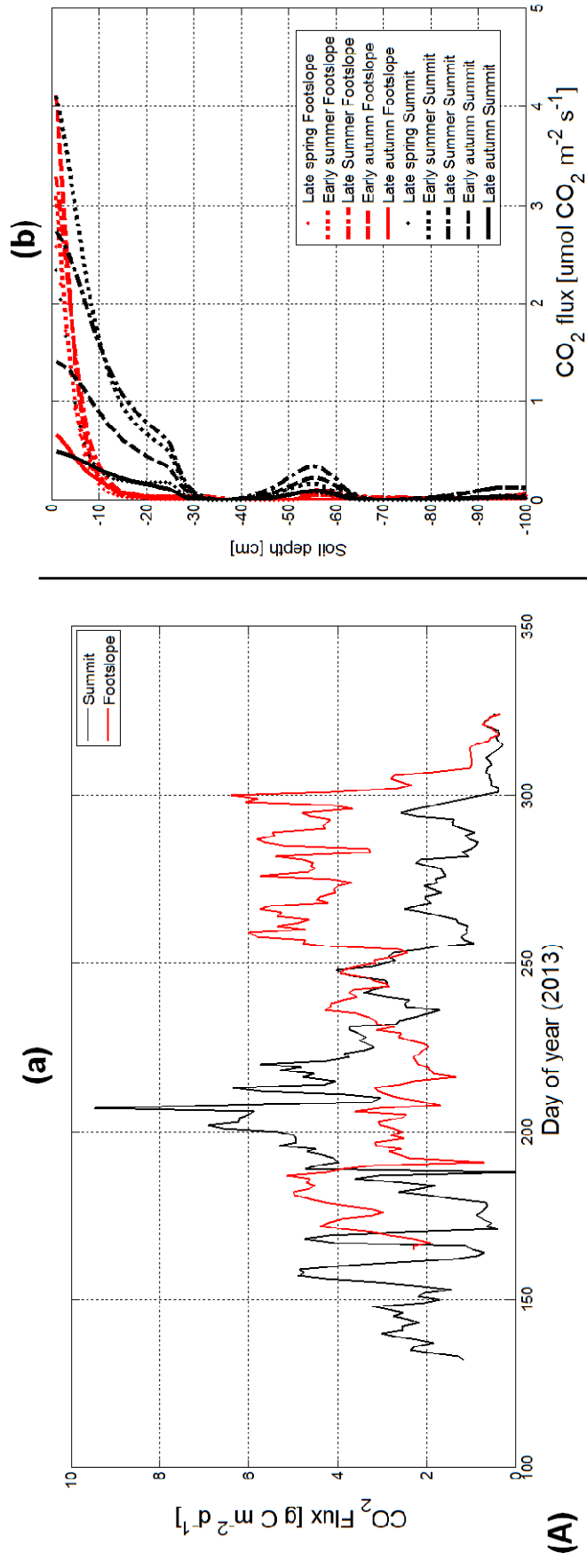
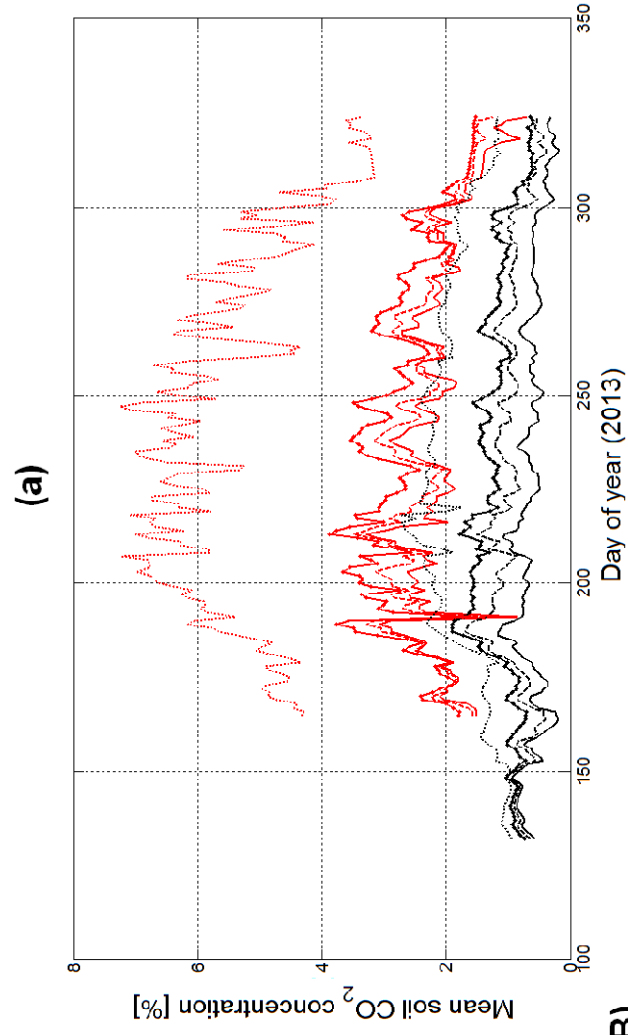


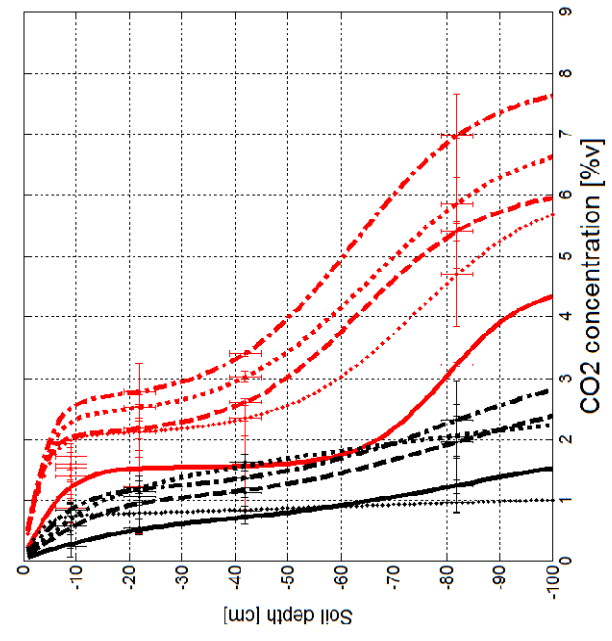
Fig. 5. Space-time dynamic of soil temperature (A) and moisture (B) at the summit (red) and the footslope (black) position in 2013: (a) time series at different depths; (b) Profile at different dates.



(B)



(b)



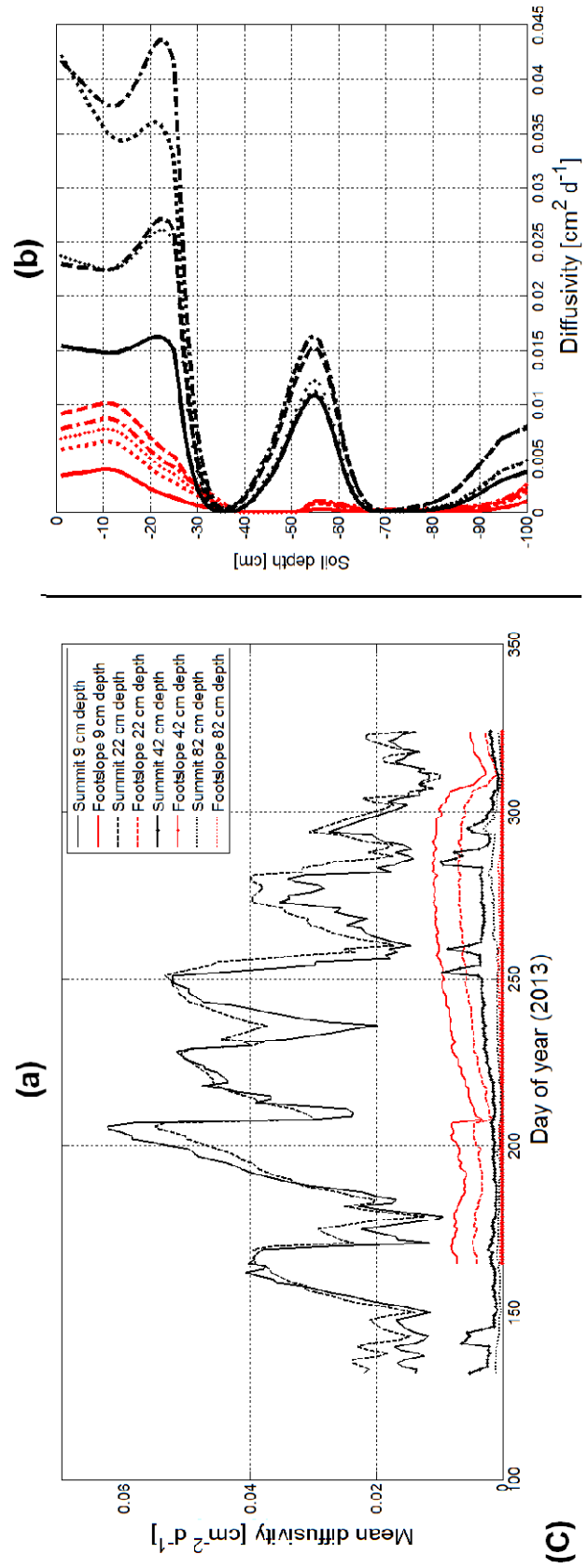
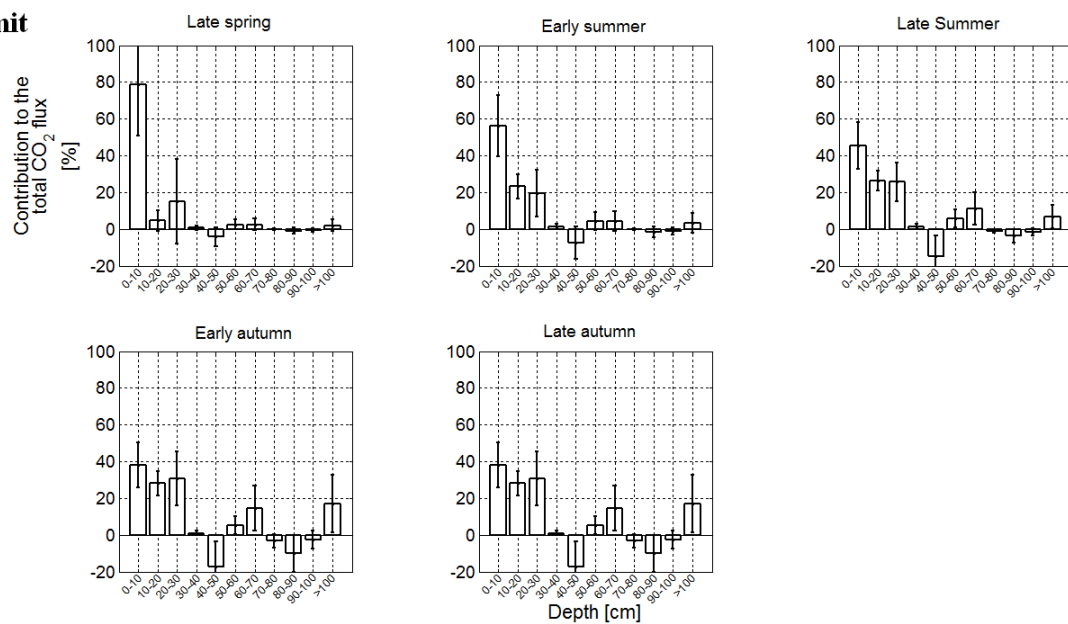


Fig. 6. Space-time dynamic of soil CO₂ fluxes (A) concentrations (B) and diffusivity (C), at the summit (red) and the footslope (black) position in 2013: (a) time series at different depths; (b) Profile at different dates.

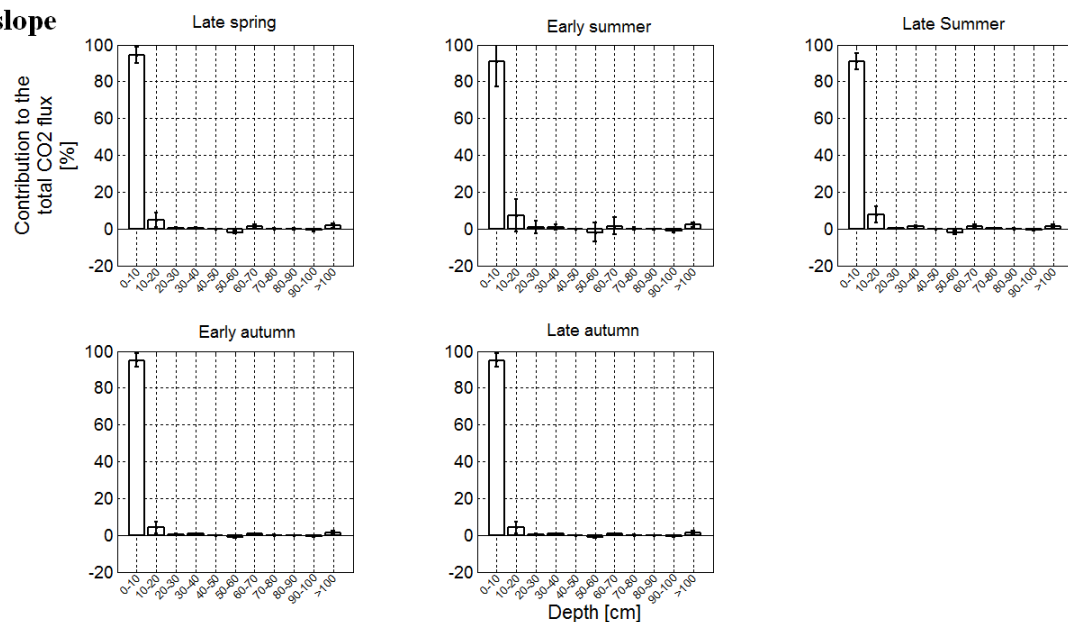
Summit

(a)



Footslope

(b)



559

560 Fig. 7. Depth distribution of the relative contribution to soil surface CO_2 fluxes in year 2013 averaged by semi-seasons
 561 (error bars represent the standard deviation of the time aggregation for each soil layer): (a) at the summit, and (b) at
 562 the footslope position.

563