



Modeling transient soil moisture limitations on microbial carbon respiration

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Abstract: Observations show that soil microorganisms can survive periods of aridity and recover rapidly after wetting events. This behavior can be explained by a moisture-dependent adaptation (*i.e.* the ability to transition between a dormant state in dry conditions and an active state in wet conditions). Though this dynamic behavior has been previously incorporated into modeling frameworks, a direct comparison between a model application of this active-dormant transition mechanism and a more simplified first-order model has yet to be made. Here, we developed two models, one using simplified first-order kinetics and the other featuring a process-based rate expression incorporating the transition between active and dormant biomass. The two approaches are contrasted through a benchmarking exercise using a set of time series soil incubation datasets. We evaluated the two models using an Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Combining the AIC evaluation and model-data comparison, we conclude that the dormancy-incorporated model performs better for shallow soils (above 108 cm), despite the added parameters required. In addition, this model is uniquely capable of reproducing transient CO₂ flux rates associated with dynamic microbial response to changing soil moisture. In contrast, the first-order model achieves better AIC scores when simulating the incubation data obtained from our deepest soils (112–165 cm). However, deep soils constitute a minor contribution to the overall CO₂ flux of an intact soil column. Thus, the dormancy-incorporated model may better simulate respiration of the whole soil.

1. Introduction

Soils are one of the largest reservoirs of terrestrial carbon at the Earth's surface and thus represent a significant potential source of CO₂ to the atmosphere via heterotrophic and autotrophic respiration (Batjes, 1996; Bellamy et al., 2005). Previous studies have shown a wide variety of parameters can influence the rate of soil carbon respiration, for instance, temperature (*e.g.* Lloyd and Taylor, 1994; Kirschbaum, 1995; Rey et al., 2005; Vanhala et al., 2008; Niklińska and Klimek, 2007; Lellei-Kovács et al., 2016), microbial community composition (*e.g.*, Monson et al., 2006; Cleveland et al., 2007; Li et al., 2006; Vanhala et al., 2005; Kant et al., 2011), pH (*e.g.*, Bååth and Anderson, 2003; Vanhala, 2002), soil organic carbon composition (*e.g.*, Cross and Sohi, 2011; Sanaullah et al., 2012), soil texture (*e.g.*, Li et al., 2015), and soil moisture (*e.g.*, Orchard and Cook, 1983; Howard and Howard, 1993; Wagle and Kakani, 2014; Jia et al., 2007).

Among these factors, the pronounced influence of water availability (soil moisture) on the rate at which CO₂ is produced within soil profiles is of particular interest, as this relationship indicates a direct feedback between the hydrologic cycle and the carbon cycle. Quantifying this relationship is vital to the prediction of carbon cycle dynamics in a changing climate (Luo et al., 2016). Many studies across a wide range of settings have demonstrated a positive correlation between soil respiration rate and moisture in arid and semi-arid systems, and a negative correlation in soils approaching saturation, with a peak in between (Davidson et al., 1998; Einola et al., 2007; Elberling, 2003; Euskirchen et al., 2003; Falk et al., 2005; Grant and Rochette, 1994; Grundmann et al., 1995; Hao et al., 2016; Harmon, 2009; Harmon et al., 2011; Howard and Howard, 1993; Husen et al., 2014; Jin et al., 2008; Kang et al., 2003; Mielnick and Dugas, 2000; Moncrieff and Fang, 1999; Pumpanen et al., 2003; Reichstein et al., 2003; Rey et al., 2005; Tian et al., 2010; Verburg et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2010). When soils approach full water saturation, pore wet-up and blockage combine to constrain the availability of oxygen by limiting the diffusion rate (Cook and Knight, 2003; Grant and Rochette, 1994; Skopp et al., 1990), resulting in diminished respiration across intact soil cores (Gabriel and Kellman, 2014). The factors



contributing to reduced respiration rates at low soil moisture contents are less clear. Two processes have been suggested to describe this response. First, the availability of accessible bio-available carbon indirectly affects microbial activity as a result of decreased water connectivity as soil pores dry, which hinders the transport of dissolved organic matter and other nutrients (Blazewicz et al., 2014; Davidson et al., 2014; Schjønning et al., 2003; Skopp et al., 1990). Relatedly, some studies have suggested that the soil moisture-respiration relationship could stem from decreased organic carbon addition to soils via root exudates in drier conditions (Canarini and Dijkstra, 2015; Gorissen et al., 2004; Persson et al., 1995). The second process involves a direct limitation on respiration rate as a result of dormancy triggered by a decrease in soil moisture as a survival mechanism. Such a reduction of active microbial biomass capable of respiration thus results in an overall slower metabolism and reduced soil carbon respiration rates (Brockett et al., 2012; Lennon and Jones, 2011; Manzoni et al., 2014; Stevenson, 1977; Wang et al., 2015).

The response of soil respiration rates to wetting events is also a transient feature. When soils are rewet after a prolonged period of dry conditions, it is common to observe a large pulse of CO₂ followed by a decrease to lower, steady state values (Borken and Matzner, 2009; Inglima et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2010; Wu and Lee, 2011). This observation is commonly referred to as the Birch effect (Birch, 1958, 1960, 1964). The validity of the Birch effect has been suggested in both controlled incubation (Göransson et al., 2013; Kieft et al., 1987; Shi and Marschner, 2014; Unger et al., 2010) and field-scale systems (Cable et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2004; Yan et al., 2014). A recent study by Fan et al. (2015) demonstrated that this initial pulse can represent a major component of the total carbon respiration flux from soils, however, few models have the availability to capture this behavior.

A wide variety of explanations for the Birch effect have been proposed. Among these, several studies have suggested extra-cellular enzymes (exoenzymes) produced by microbes for the purpose of solubilizing complex carbon to readily metabolized compounds remain active even in dry conditions (Blankinship et al., 2014). As a result, low molecular weight carbon accumulates during dry periods, leading to an initially high concentration when soil moisture rises again (Iovieno and Bååth, 2008; Lawrence et al., 2009; Manzoni et al., 2014; Meisner et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2005) and furthermore, a longer period of dry conditions results in the accumulation of soluble carbon. Here, we implemented this mechanism in the modeling frameworks described in Sect. 3 to capture dynamic behavior associated with the Birch effect.

In addition, different microbial communities exhibit unique optimal effective saturation ranges (Barnard et al., 2013, 2015; Evans and Wallenstein, 2014; Lauber et al., 2013). This observation implies, for example, that a microbial population which is active at a low soil moisture may be dormant at higher moisture, leading to distinct activated microbial communities in the same soil sample. Moreover, the rate of activation following a change in effective saturation is unique to each microbial population (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2013; Martiny et al., 2013; Placella et al., 2012; Schimel and Schaeffer, 2015). This variation in response times derives from the distinction between r- and K-strategies within the microbial community population (Andrews and Harris, 1986; Dorodnikov et al., 2009), where the former have evolved to take advantage of short term favorable conditions through rapid, energy inefficient population growth and the latter subsist under less optimal conditions through slower productivity and increased efficiency.

In total, these studies illustrate a suite of complex and highly coupled relationships between the hydrology, microbiology and carbon dynamics of soils. As a result, a wide variety of models



118 have been developed for soil respiration as a function of soil moisture (Abramoff et al., 2017;
119 Chen et al., 2011; Hashimoto and Komatsu, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2009; Manzoni et al., 2012;
120 Moyano et al., 2012, 2013; Paul et al., 2003; Tian et al., 2010; Welsch and Hornberger, 2004).
121 These approaches have involved a broad diversity of structures in the effort to achieve a more
122 robust approach appropriate to a variety of soil types and locations. In particular, first-order
123 kinetic rate expressions featuring simplified parameterizations for soil carbon mineralization are
124 widely used in Earth system models, and have been successfully applied to simulate soil
125 respiration in some natural settings (Todd-Brown et al., 2013). Though the simplified parameter
126 set necessary for these functional forms is easily constrained by experimental datasets, and is
127 particularly necessary in cases where available data are limited, recent studies have shown that
128 such a simple model is not always able to explicitly demonstrate the transient changes
129 accompanied by variations in soil moisture (Lawrence et al., 2009). Recently, process-based
130 models relating respiration to moisture-dependent microbial functionality have been proposed
131 (Manzoni et al., 2014, 2016). These process-based modeling frameworks can dynamically
132 simulate soil respiration rate in changing moisture conditions, offering a promising approach for
133 extending model applications reliably across a range of conditions. Thus, in dynamic systems
134 where transient pulses in CO₂ comprise a significant portion of the respiration flux (e.g. Fan et
135 al., 2015; Meisner et al., 2015), use of a more complex, process-based model for respiration rate
136 may be advantageous despite the cost of increased parameterization.

137 Therefore, we evaluated the performance of a process-based approach featuring a dormancy
138 model adapted from Manzoni et al. (2014), including the capacity to calculate the transition rates
139 between active and dormant microbial states as a function of soil moisture, in comparison to a
140 simpler first-order respiration model. Both models were calibrated using CO₂ respiration rates
141 obtained from a set of incubation experiments, using the shallow depth of a soil column collected
142 from the East River watershed located near Gothic, Colorado, USA. The calibrated models with
143 optimal parameter sets were then applied to each depth of the same soil profile, followed by a
144 quantitative evaluation of their relative fidelity using an Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
145 method.

146

147 **2. Materials and methods**

148 **2.1 Sample collection**

149 Soil samples were collected in the upper East River watershed within the Gunnison River basin,
150 located near Crested Butte, Colorado, USA (Fig. 1). The upper East River is a high elevation
151 watershed with an average elevation of 3350 m. Stream flow is dominated by snowmelt in spring
152 and summer with the amount approximately equal to the total water demand (Markstrom and
153 Hay, 2009).

154 The sampling site for the current study is underlain by the calcareous shale from the Cretaceous
155 Mancos Shale Formation, with colluvial sediments at the surface, ~3.5 km north-west of Rocky
156 Mountain Biological Laboratory (RMBL). The predominant vegetation in this section of the
157 catchment is sub-alpine meadow. The sampling site has a seasonal drainage environment with
158 little or no slope, with an average annual temperature of 1 °C and an average precipitation of 1.23
159 ± 0.26 m/year driven by both an annual monsoon season (~20 % of total precipitation) and as
160 snowfall (Winnick et al., 2017). Though precipitation predominantly occurs in the winter and
161 spring months, local soil moisture is significantly affected by summer rainfall (Harte et al., 1995).



162 Soil samples were collected in November, 2015 along Bradley Creek, a tributary of the East
163 River. Soil cores were taken at ~50 cm intervals from a hand-augered hole to a maximum depth
164 of 165 cm. After collection, samples were sealed in plastic bags and kept under cool, dark
165 conditions until processing could be completed. Prior to incubations, all soils were air-dried for
166 two weeks at ambient temperature (22 °C) before crushed and sieved to 2 mm to remove the
167 coarse fraction, consisting of large stones and biological material.

168 2.2 Effective Saturation

169 Water holding capacity was determined by wetting three subsamples of air-dried soils gradually
170 until they became fully saturated. Samples were weighed before and after water addition to
171 quantify the mass needed for the soils to fully saturate for all three subsamples. The average of
172 the three numbers was used as the final saturated value with a standard deviation smaller than 5 %
173 of the water mass, where the air-dried samples are considered 0 % ($Sat_{residual}$), and 100 %
174 represents full saturation (Sat_{sat}). These values are subsequently reported as effective saturation
175 (Se , defined as $(Sat_{sample} - Sat_{residual}) / (Sat_{sat} - Sat_{residual})$) for the remainder of the paper.

176 2.3 Soil Carbon Content

177 An elemental analyzer (EA) was used to determine the composition of carbon in the soils prior to
178 incubations. All EA measurements were performed using the Carlo-Erba NA 1500 analyzer (CE
179 Elantech, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA*) at the Environmental Measurements Facility (EM1) at
180 Stanford University. To measure the total carbon (TC) of the samples, 20-30 mg of ground soil
181 samples were weighed into tin capsules and loaded into the analyzer. A standard method was
182 used to measure total inorganic carbon (TIC) and total organic carbon (TOC) (Loeppert and
183 Suarez, 1996). Briefly, 400 mg of ground soil sample was added to a scintillation vial. Then 4
184 mL of 3M $HCl_{(aq)}$ was slowly added to the vial via a pipette to remove inorganic carbonate, and
185 the vial was capped loosely. The vial was swirled occasionally for 15 minutes and the cap was
186 removed to displace accumulated CO_2 until the weight of the vial stopped changing. The solution
187 was centrifuged to remove the supernatant, and the soil pellet was air-dried and ground with
188 agate mortar and pestle, then 20-30 mg of ground soil samples was weighed into tin capsules and
189 injected into the analyzer to measure the remaining TOC. TIC is the difference between TC and
190 TOC (Table 1). Three subsamples from each soil depth were measured for both TC and TOC to
191 test the accuracy and precision of the measurement (standard deviation shown in Table 1).

192 2.4 Soil incubations

193 Incubation vessels were constructed by drilling two holes in the caps of 948-ml glass canning
194 jars. Plastic bulkhead fittings (1/4-inch outer diameter) were installed in the holes with epoxy to
195 prevent gas leakage. Crack-resistant polyethylene tubing (1/4-inch outer diameter and 1/8-inch
196 inner diameter) was connected to both sides of the bulkheads and a plastic one-way valve
197 attached to the external portion of the tubing to seal the chambers. Respiration was then
198 quantified by circulating the headspace in each jar into an LICOR-8100 Infrared Gas Analyzer
199 (Licor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA*) to measure CO_2 concentration. During measurements,
200 the upper tube (closest to the cap) was attached to the inlet of LICOR-8100, and the lower tube
201 (close to the soil) was attached to the outlet to facilitate circulation.

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Incubation experiments were conducted by adding 75 grams of air-dried soil from three soil depth intervals (0-52 cm, 63-108 cm, 112-165 cm) to the incubation vessels, subject to 4 distinct Se values of 0, 33 %, 66 %, and 100 % by adding deionized water. All samples were initially purged with CO_2 free air (zero air, SJ smith*) for over 10 times the size of the headspace and kept under 22 degrees Celsius throughout the experiment. Incubations were run over a 10-day period with daily sampling. After every analysis, the vessels were purged again with CO_2 free air to reset the O_2 and CO_2 concentrations in the headspace. As a result, oxygen limitation to the overall respiration rate is partially mitigated by the replenishment of the headspace, however high fluid saturation levels in some of the experiments still support oxygen limited rates. All respiration rates are calculated by measuring the CO_2 accumulated over the prior 24-hour interval, and thus should be considered as the average respiration rate of the previous day (Table 2).

214

215 3. Results

The concentrations of TOC in each depth of the soil profile are given in Table 1. The results show that TOC decreases with depth at all three sites, which is expected as organic inputs associated with biological activities are most abundant at the surface and decline with depth. In addition, the TIC also decreases with depth, suggesting that the highest carbonate concentration occurs at a depth shallower than 52 cm at this sampling site. The TIC concentration is not further discussed in the scope of this paper.

Respiration rates for all three soil depths at different effective saturations ($Se = 0, 33 \%, 66 \%$ and 100 %) for the first day of incubation show similar patterns across all depths (Fig. 2, Table 2), where respiration rates are positively correlated with effective saturation in dry conditions and negatively correlated in wet conditions. The peak respiration rate for both the shallow and intermediate depths lies around 66 % Se while the deepest depth displays a slight shift in maximum value towards 33 % Se .

Respiration rates evolve with time in all three sampled depth intervals. This evolution is illustrated for the shallow depth soil sample for the four effective saturation values (Fig. 3). All respiration rates increase to a maximum value before decreasing to an apparent steady state, as is typical of the Birch Effect. The time to reach peak respiration rate differs across the range of effective saturations tested. At lower effective saturation (0 % and 33 %), the peak values appear approximately 24 hours after initiation of the incubation, while at higher moisture content (66 % and 100 %), this occurs approximately 48 hours after rewetting.

We note that no replicates were performed as a part of the incubation experiments due to sample limitations, and there is certainly error associated with the measured rates. However, we note that the respiration data adequately illustrate the expected trend as a function of both soil moisture and time, which is the key point of the current study. Thus, we utilize the reported dataset in order to calibrate the modeling approaches described below as a means of demonstrating their capacity to reproduce commonly observed behavior.

241

242 4. Model development

For both models, the initial condition is generated to minimize the deviation of the model outputs from incubation experiment measurements, and kept consistent while simulating different Se . The sensitivity of the models to these initial conditions is explored further in Sect. 5.1.



246 4.1 First-order model

247 In the current and following sections, all flux rate and compartmental concentration units are in
 248 $\text{gC m}^{-3} \text{ soil/hour}$ and $\text{gC m}^{-3} \text{ soil}$, respectively, as in Manzoni et al. (2014).

249 In our ‘first-order’ model framework, organic carbon is categorized into three groups: substrate
 250 carbon, soluble carbon, and biomass (Fig. 4a). Substrate carbon represents a complex carbon
 251 form that cannot be directly accessed by microbial communities for respiration. Through a
 252 solubilization process, this complex carbon is converted to soluble carbon, which is considered
 253 bioavailable for respiration and production of CO_2 . The solubilization rate is linearly dependent
 254 on the amount of substrate carbon (Lawrence et al., 2009),

$$255 \quad R_{\text{sol},ij} = k_{\text{sol},i} \times F_{\text{Se},j} \times C_{\text{sub},i} \quad (1)$$

256 where $R_{\text{sol},i}$ is the concentration of soluble carbon (gC m^{-3}), $k_{\text{sol},i}$ is the solubilization rate
 257 constant (hour^{-1}), and $C_{\text{sub},i}$ is the concentration of the substrate carbon (gC m^{-3}). $F_{\text{Se},i}$ is a non-
 258 dimensional factor constraining the solubilization and respiration rates based on Se (Eq. (2)). The
 259 subscript i denotes a given subcategory of the total organic carbon (e.g. allowing consideration of
 260 a range of recalcitrance), assuming different forms of substrate carbon will form into consistently
 261 different forms of soluble carbon. Similarly, the subscript ‘ j ’ denotes different subcategories of
 262 microbial communities that contribute to the solubilization of such substrate carbon.

263 The behavior of $F_{\text{Se},j}$ is such that a sharp linear increase occurs as a function of Se up to a
 264 threshold, $Se_{\text{thres},j}$ followed by a parabolic decrease in respiration for values of Se above the
 265 threshold until total saturation is reached (Gusman and Mariño, 1999; Cabon et al., 1991;
 266 Porporato et al., 2003):

$$267 \quad F_{\text{Se},j} = \begin{cases} \frac{Se}{Se_{\text{thres},j}}, & 0 \leq Se < Se_{\text{thres},j} \\ \frac{Se_{\text{thres},j}}{Se}, & Se_{\text{thres},j} \leq Se \leq 1 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

268 The threshold effective saturation is defined as the value of Se at which the respiration rate
 269 reaches its maximum. Different $Se_{\text{thres},j}$ have been applied to uptake pathways simulating the
 270 distinct optimal Se for different microbial communities. An arbitrary choice of $Se_{\text{thres},j} = 60\%$
 271 is presented as an illustrative example of the behavior of this factor (Fig. 5).

272 Though this application of $F_{\text{Se},j}$ in the solubilization rate expression is consistent with prior
 273 studies (Lawrence et al., 2009; Parton et al., 1987), we note that this form of moisture constraint
 274 is normally used to describe an exoenzyme rate control (Schimel and Weintraub, 2003), which is
 275 not included in this modeling scheme. In addition, previous studies have shown that while the
 276 use of this exoenzyme-catalyzed solubilization rate may be beneficial under certain rewetting
 277 events, this approach often results in poor reproduction of constant moisture content behavior
 278 relative to a simpler first-order solubilization rate (Lawrence et al. 2009). In that case, a direct
 279 comparison of the two versions of the first-order model using different solubilization expressions
 280 (Eq. (1) or (3)) is necessary (Fig. 6a, Table 3.):

$$281 \quad R_{\text{sol},i} = k_{\text{sol},i} \times C_{\text{sub},i} \quad (3)$$

282 The result explicitly shows that the respiration rate for the lower Se exceeds that for the high Se
 283 after approximately 85 hours with application of Eq. (3), which contradicts the data. In addition,
 284 we observe that the use of this expression does not influence the monotonic nature of the



285 respiration rate as a function of carbon availability. Thus, we conclude that Eq. (1) is superior for
 286 the first-order model, and is used throughout the remainder of the paper.

287 The total microbial respiration rate (i.e. mineralization from soluble carbon to CO₂), U_{FO} , is
 288 treated as the sum of a series of simple pseudo-first-order kinetic rate expressions with respect to
 289 n subcategories of different soluble organic carbon classes:

$$290 \quad U_{FO} = \sum_{i,j}^{n,m} k_{up,i} \times F_{Se,j} \times C_{soluble,i} \quad (4)$$

291 where $k_{up,i}$ is the first-order maximum uptake rate constant (hour⁻¹), and $C_{soluble,i}$ is the
 292 concentration of soluble carbon belonging to a given compositional subgroup (gC m⁻³).

293 Net respired carbon is a result of two metabolic pathways: catabolic and anabolic. In the
 294 catabolic pathway, soluble carbon is converted into CO₂ for energy production, while in the
 295 anabolic pathway, it is assimilated by the microbes as new biomass, resulting in biomass growth
 296 (Lawrence et al., 2009; Manzoni et al., 2014). In this first-order model, it is assumed that 90 % of
 297 respired carbon is converted to CO₂, leaving the remaining 10 % for the anabolic growth
 298 pathway.

299 Microbial turnover, including deceased and lysed microbial cells, are treated as a form of soluble
 300 carbon and are thus bioavailable (Manzoni et al., 2014). The total mortality rate is considered the
 301 sum of first-order functions of ‘ m ’ subcategories of living biomass (e.g. allowing consideration
 302 of a range of response rates and optimal Se values) for different microbial subcategories:

$$303 \quad RM = \sum_{j=1}^m k_{mor} \times Bio_j \quad (5)$$

304 where RM is the amount of biomass that dies in a given time increment (gC m⁻³ hour⁻¹), k_{mor} is
 305 the mortality rate constant (hour⁻¹), and Bio_j is the biomass concentration (gC m⁻³). For
 306 simplicity, we assume the mortality rate constant is identical for all microbial populations.

307 These series of equations were implemented in a commercial software package (Matlab Release
 308 2016a, The MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA, 2016*). Simple mass balance equations are
 309 implemented in combination with Eq. (1-2) and (4-5) to account for all inputs and outputs across
 310 each carbon pool (Fig. 4a). For example, the substrate carbon pool is calculated as

$$311 \quad C_{sub\ new} = C_{sub\ old} - R_{sol} \times \Delta t \quad (6)$$

312 where Δt is the duration of each time step (hour).

313 The performances of the first-order model with a single microbial community and category of
 314 organic carbon ($m, n = 1$, referred to as FO1), and two microbial communities along with two
 315 subcategories of organic carbon ($m, n = 1$, referred to as FO2) are further evaluated in Sect. 5.1
 316 and 5.2, respectively.

317 4.2 Dormancy model

318 The second model, which we refer to as the ‘dormancy’ model, is modified from the approach of
 319 Manzoni et al. (2014) to allow for changes in the biomass in response to changes in effective
 320 saturation. Within the dormancy model, the biomass pool is subdivided into two subcategories,

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active biomass and dormant biomass, with the other two carbon pools remaining the same (Fig. 4b), which avoids the uncertainty of an additional enzyme parameter ($Se_{thres,i}$) and poor reproduction of constant moisture using Eq. (1) as noted by Lawrence et al. (2009). Thus we proceed with a first-order solubilization rate (Eq. (3)) for the dormancy model. In doing so, the solubilization process is assumed to be independent of shifts in the microbial biomass such that enzyme activity is not a function of Se . This approach distinguishes the solubilization rate of the dormancy model (Eq. (3)) from that of the first-order model (Eq. (1)) in that the former includes a non-dimensional moisture scalar. However, we state that the solubilization rate express chosen for each of the two models is optimal, ensuring the robustness of the comparison between the two models.

Distinct from the first-order model described in Sect. 4.1, the total microbial respiration rate (U_D) is treated here as a dual Monod rate law, which is a function of the amount of active biomass and the availability of both O_2 and soluble carbon, allowing both soluble carbon and O_2 to be the limiting factor in the reaction:

$$U_D = \sum_{i,j}^{n,m} k_{up,j} \times Bio_{active,j} \times \frac{C_{soluble,i}}{(C_{soluble,i} + C_{half,i})} \times \frac{O_{2(aq)}}{(O_{2(aq)} + K_{half})} \quad (7)$$

where $k_{up,j}$ is the maximum uptake rate constant ($hour^{-1}$), $Bio_{active,j}$ is the concentration of (active) biomass ($gC\ m^{-3}$), $C_{soluble,i}$ is the concentration of soluble carbon ($gC\ m^{-3}$), and $C_{half,i}$ is the amount of soluble carbon where the uptake rate is 0.5 of the maximum value (also known as the half saturation constant, $gC\ m^{-3}$). The subscripts i and j denote different subcategories of soluble carbon and microbial communities respectively, similar to the first-order model, and the superscripts n and m denote the quantity of soluble carbon and microbial community subcategories respectively. The $O_{2(aq)}$ is dissolved oxygen concentration in water ($gC\ m^{-3}$) in equilibrium with a specified partial pressure of O_2 (bar), and K_{half} is the half saturation constant of the dissolved oxygen concentration ($gC\ m^{-3}$). Similar to the first-order model, 90 % of the total respired carbon is converted to CO_2 , leaving the remaining 10 % as anabolic growth. The use of a dual Monod rate expression for the microbial respiration process allows both soluble carbon and O_2 to be the limiting factor in the reaction.

We utilize a simplified version of the Manzoni et al. (2014) expressions for time-dependent rates of microbial activation and dormancy. The rates of biomass activation and dormancy are modeled as a function of Se with the following expressions:

$$Rate_{a \rightarrow d,j} = k_{tran,j} \times 1 / (1 + (\frac{Se_{sample}}{Se_{half,j}})^b) \times Bio_{active,j} \quad (8)$$

$$Rate_{d \rightarrow a,j} = k_{tran,j} \times 1 / (a \times (\frac{Se_{half,j}}{Se_{sample}})^b + 1) \times Bio_{dormant,j} \quad (9)$$

where Se_{sample} is effective saturation of the sample, and the variable $k_{tran,j}$ is the maximum transition rate constant ($hour^{-1}$), while $Se_{half,j}$ is the saturation at which Eq. (8) is equal to $0.5 \times k_{tran,j}$. Different $Se_{half,j}$ can be derived from the original form of Eq. (8) and (9), as in Manzoni et al. (2014), assuming a constant ratio between the two values. Parameter ‘ a ’ is used in Eq. (9) to simplify the functional form by using the same $Se_{half,j}$ for both rates. The pore size distribution parameter ‘ b ’ is adjusted from the Brooks-Corey equation based on a water retention curve. In this study, the b value employed by Manzoni et al. (2014) is used (Table 4).



Eq. (8) and (9) enable a time-dependent response in the transition between active and dormant biomass to perturbations in effective saturation. The two competing rates represent different amounts of biomass converting unidirectionally from $Bio_{active,j}$ to $Bio_{dormant,j}$ ($Rate_{a \rightarrow d,j}$) and from $Bio_{dormant,j}$ to $Bio_{active,j}$ ($Rate_{d \rightarrow a,j}$), and this competition eventually stabilizes in a balance between the two rates such that a dynamic equilibrium describes the population of both active and dormant biomass. Microbial mortality is treated in the same manner utilized for the first order model (Eq. (4)), with distinct mortality rate constants assigned for active and dormant biomass (referred to as k_{mor-a} for active biomass, and k_{mor-d} for dormant biomass).

An example of this behavior is provided in Fig. 7. This example illustrates the characteristic response to a wetting event, which replaces the static treatment used in Eq. (4), and the time scale over which equilibrium is reestablished for an assumed rate constant of 1 hour⁻¹. All the parameters used in this simulation are reported in Table 4.

As with the first order model described previously, the performance of the dormancy model with a single microbial community and category of organic carbon ($m, n = 1$, referred to as DM1), and two microbial communities along with two subcategories of organic carbon ($m, n = 1$, referred to as DM2) are further evaluated in Sect. 5.1 and 5.2, respectively.

5. Discussion

5.1 FO1 and DM1 application to incubation data

The FO1 model was applied to the incubation experimental results described in Sect. 3, where the time series data for 66 % and 33 % Se from the shallow soil depth were used as a base case (Fig. 6a). The results show reasonable agreement with the data, however, in this simplified approach, respiration rate is only capable of monotonic decrease (if the initial $R_{sol} < U_{FO}$), or increase (if the initial $R_{sol} > U_{FO}$) due to the first order dependence on carbon concentration. As a result, the model is not capable of accurately representing the transient increase in respiration rate initially observed following a rewetting event (i.e. the Birch effect).

Similarly, DM1 was applied to the incubation results for 66 % Se as a base case. We observed a significant improvement in model representation of the transient changes in CO₂ respiration rate accompanied by the rewetting event at early time (Fig. 8) with comparable parameter values (Table 4). The transition of the biomass from an initially fully dormant state to predominantly active was triggered by the instantaneous increase in Se from 0 to 66 % at the start of the simulation. A lagged response in respiration rate was presented following this instantaneous rewetting, which successfully simulated the experimental data. With further time, the initially rapid rate of CO₂ production decreases as the excess soluble carbon initially available is depleted. Ultimately, the rate of soluble carbon consumption (Eq. (7)) decreases to a value which is balanced by the rate of substrate carbon solubilization (Eq. (3)) and the system approaches a steady state. Oxygen concentration was treated as a constant rather than a limiting factor in this model, assuming that the periodic replenishment of O₂ implemented in our incubation experiments was sufficient to compensate for consumption due to aerobic respiration. It is not surprising that DM1 is capable of generating more accurate results than FO1 with the extra flexibility provided by the additional parameters. The extent to which improved accuracy is offset by the additional parameters is further considered in a subsequent section (Sect. 5.3).



402 The initial condition of a simulation obviously exerts a substantial impact on any transient model
403 output. In the current approach, the starting concentrations of different carbon pools are poorly
404 constrained and thus a model sensitivity analysis is provided. The simulations assume a
405 reasonable assumption for the value of initial soluble carbon concentration (Tables 3 & 4), and
406 include a $\pm 20\%$ variation (80 % to 120 %) to illustrate sensitivity for all four models considered
407 in this paper (FO1, FO2, DM1 and DM2). Although the predicted respiration rates are positively
408 correlated with the initial soluble carbon concentration, this variation gradually fades away as
409 respiration approaches steady state, where the rate of soluble carbon consumption through
410 respiration is balanced by the dissolution of substrate carbon.

411 To capture the dynamic response of soil respiration to variable Se , it is critical that the parameter
412 values used in DM1 are generally applicable across the depth profile of the East River soils.
413 Model fidelity is tested by applying the same parameter values calibrated based on the 66 % Se
414 shallow soil sample datasets to the values obtained at 33 % Se (Fig. 8). The results clearly
415 indicate that this parameterization is unable to reproduce comparable results across a range of
416 saturations. Even though the modeled 33 % Se peak value generally agrees with incubation data,
417 which is lower than that of 66 % Se due to the lower fraction of active biomass, the model results
418 in a slower activation of dormant biomass which retards the time to peak respiration in
419 comparison to the measured data. The two more complex models (FO2 and DM2) are further
420 evaluated in the following section (Sect. 5.2).

421 5.2 FO2 and DM2 application to incubation data

422 To improve upon the base case scenario during the transient period following a rewetting event,
423 FO2 and DM2 were tested in a manner similar to the procedure described for FO1 and DM1.
424 Two distinct microbial populations ($m = 2$) were assumed to exist in the soil samples: an r-
425 selection population, capable of activating rapidly after rewetting, and a K-selection population
426 subject to a longer transient activation period. In addition, the substrate and soluble organic
427 carbon pools were also subcategorized into labile and recalcitrant subcomponents. The models
428 were parameterized such that the r-selection microbial category is more adaptable to dynamic
429 environments. This includes a faster activation rate at lower Se and a higher mineralization rate
430 constant for labile organic carbon, however, these r-strategists were assumed to have negligible
431 capacity to mineralize recalcitrant carbon. In contrast, the K-selection microbial subcategory is
432 characterized by a slower response time with the capacity to utilize both labile and recalcitrant
433 carbon. These differences in rate between the two microbial pools were achieved in the model by
434 variations in $k_{sol,i}$ (Eq. (1) and (3)), $Se_{thres,j}$ (Eq. (2)), and $k_{up,i}$ (Eq. (4), Table 3). Despite this
435 additional complexity, the model performance for FO2 was not improved compared to FO1 (Fig.
436 6b). Based on these results, we conclude that the monotonic trend in CO_2 respiration rate
437 produced by such a first-order approach is largely unaffected by both the extent to which the
438 carbon pools are subdivided into a range of reactivity, and the extent to which the microbial
439 communities are subdivided in terms of both carbon utilization efficiency and moisture-
440 dependent activation rate. Thus, FO1 is considered more efficient for the first-order approach,
441 and is utilized throughout this paper as a comparison to the dormancy model.

442 Because the principle disparity between the dormancy model and the observed trends is the clear
443 difference in timing of peak CO_2 production between the 33 % and 66 % Se experiments, a
444 similar approach was taken in applying two microbial communities ($m = 2$) with distinct
445 parameter values as in FO2. The sensitivity of DM1 to differences in $Se_{half,j}$ and $k_{up,j}$ is



illustrated (Fig. 9a and 9b) for a range of values is first checked while holding all other parameters constant (Table 4, Se_{sample} set to 0.7). A lower $Se_{half,j}$ value results in faster activation of dormant biomass (Eq. (9)) and slower dormancy of active biomass (Eq. (8)), while a larger $k_{up,j}$ value induces more CO_2 produced in one time step (higher peak value) leaving less available soluble carbon in the system. Accordingly, a lower $Se_{half,j}$ and larger $k_{up,j}$ result in a more rapid increase in the respiration rate following rewetting, illustrated by an earlier time of peak CO_2 production with a higher peak value, leaving less available soluble carbon in the system, and thus an earlier decrease to steady state rates. Though the model sensitivity to the $Se_{half,j}$ and $k_{up,j}$ parameters are comparable, we note that the $Se_{half,j}$ parameter alters the point of dynamic equilibrium between the active and dormant biomass, while $k_{up,j}$ changes the rate of microbial uptake regardless of the balance between the two biomass forms.

Though in principle we are expanding the dormancy model in the same manner as we did for the first-order simulation, in practice the complexity with which activation rates are treated in the dormancy-based approach requires further consideration of how multiple biomass sub-communities should be implemented. Specifically, if optimal Se conditions support the rapid activation of a given microbial population, then it follows that unfavorable Se conditions can inhibit a given community (Barnard et al., 2013, 2015). This inhibition was not included in the first-order model with two microbial communities ($m = 2$) in that it is fundamentally a limiting factor of respiration rate, which cannot change the monotonic trend induced by the first-order kinetics. In contrast, such inhibition is vital in the dormancy kinetics and should significantly alter the peak height and position of the simulation. In order to impose this constraint on the rapidly activating portion of the biomass in the current model, an additional Se dependent inhibition factor is added to Eq. (7) specifically for the two types of microbial populations j , representing r- and K-strategists, and two types of organic carbon subcategories i , representing labile and recalcitrant components:

$$U_{i=lab,j=r} = k_{up,r} \times Bio_{active,r} \times \frac{C_{sol,lab}}{(C_{sol,lab} + C_{half,lab})} \times \frac{O_2(aq)}{(O_2(aq) + K_{half})} \times \left(\frac{1 - (2Se_{sample} - 1)^{1/3}}{2} \right) \quad (10)$$

and

$$U_{i=rec,j=K} = k_{up,K} \times Bio_{active,K} \times \frac{C_{sol,rec}}{(C_{sol,rec} + C_{half,rec})} \times \frac{O_2(aq)}{(O_2(aq) + K_{half})} \times \left(\frac{(2Se_{sample} - 1)^{1/3} + 1}{2} \right) \quad (11)$$

$k_{up,r}$ and $k_{up,K}$ are maximum uptake rate constants ($hour^{-1}$) specific to the $Bio_{active,r}$ and $Bio_{active,K}$ subpopulations, respectively (Table 4). Furthermore, the r-selection biomass is assigned an $Se_{half} = 0.25$ so that it is capable of activation at lower Se with $k_{tran} = 1$ (fast activation, Eq. (8) and (9), [$time^{-1}$]), while the K-selection biomass is assigned an $Se_{half} = 0.55$, thus restraining its activity under lower Se , with $k_{tran,j} = 1/60$ (slow activation, Eq. (8) and (9), [$time^{-1}$]).

This form of inhibition is chosen because the functions provide valid numbers across the full range of Se values. Moreover, this functional form returns a value of 1 when $Se = 100\%$ and 0 when $Se = 0$ for K-selection biomass, thus limiting the respiration rates at lower Se values for the K-selection biomass, with a gradient at intermediate values. Meanwhile, the opposite behavior is specified for the r-selection biomass, thus limiting their respiration capability at higher Se values (Fig. 10).



Employing this adjusted version of the model (DM2), we again tested the ability to reproduce the respiration datasets corresponding to multiple *Se* values for a common soil sample after calibration (Fig. 11a). Incubation results for 100 % *Se* were absent in this simulation since our modeling approach included a constant O_2 concentration, which contradicts the experimental condition where O_2 is limited in the pore space at 100 % *Se*. DM2 shows clear improvement in simulating soil respiration data with a single parameter set (Table 4) across a range of *Se*. Both shallow and intermediate depth soil sample results are accurately reproduced by the model (Fig. 11b, 11c, Table 4), where the only difference in parameter values differentiating the two sets of simulations is the amount of starting substrate carbon based on the EA results (Table 1). The model somewhat over-predicts the respiration rate of deep soil samples. This may result from chronic oxygen limitation at these depths (112-165 cm) in the field, thus leading to a distinct microbial community more suited to suboxic conditions (Arora et al., 2016; Long et al., 2015).

5.3 Model precision vs. cost

Cubic interpolation was used to estimate the rate between incubation data points, allowing us to integrate both the model output and incubation data through time (Fig. 12a). The resulting cumulative CO_2 as a function of time estimated by both FO1 and DM2 was then compared against incubation data (Fig. 12b) to quantitatively assess the accuracy of each simulation. Even though both models over-predicted the cumulative CO_2 concentration, we observed that FO1 showed a relatively large over-prediction of the amount of CO_2 produced in response to a wetting event. This relatively large over-prediction by the first-order model was due to the disparity between the predicted high respiration rate resulting from the monotonic drop and the low respiration rate observed at early time. In comparison, DM2 showed much better agreement to the data for the first ~100 hours, illustrating a better performance with variable *Se*. The ratio of integrated CO_2 concentration between the incubation data and outputs from the two models illustrate the relative performance of the two approaches (Fig. 12c). Since the interpolated rates from incubation experiments are consistently lower than outputs from both models (Fig. 12b), the ratio of incubation/model CO_2 values fall between 0 and 1 (Fig. 12c), where lower values indicate poorer agreement with the experimental data, and 1 indicates an exact match. This exercise demonstrates that the ratio of FO1 is consistently lower than that of DM2 for all times less than 100 hours, indicating that the first-order model cannot accurately simulate the transient changes in respiration rate after soil is rewet (i.e. the Birch effect). After approximately 100 hours, both models establish close agreement to the data (ratio of integrated CO_2 ~0.9), meaning they are equally accurate at steady state respiration. Thus, in general, the dormancy modeling approach is necessary for accurate representation of dynamic responses to changing *Se* over short timescales, such as in our incubation experiments, with the implementation of a dynamic biomass activation process.

However, we recognize that additional parameterization increases the accuracy of a model at the expense of both computational efficiency and parameter constraint. Thus, the Akaike Information Criterion (referred to as AIC, Akaike, 1998), which takes both the number of parameters and the goodness of fit into consideration, was applied to score the two models. The Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) was calculated between incubation data and model output for three depths of soil samples under 33 % and 66 % *Se* as follows,

$$RSS = \sum_{k=1}^p (MO_k - In_k)^2 \quad (12)$$



where MO_k is the model output and In_k is the incubation data. The subscript ‘k’ denotes different data points in a given depth and Se , and the superscript ‘p’ represents the total quantity of data points.

While RSS values illustrate the goodness of fit for the two models, the number of parameters is included in the AIC calculation as,

$$AIC = n \log(RSS/n) + 2l \quad (13)$$

where n and l represent the number of data points and the number of parameters respectively. The AIC value of the two models are listed in Table 5.

The results of these model-data comparisons show that the dormancy model not only achieves higher accuracy while simulating the Birch effect, but obtains a lower AIC value with soils above the 108 cm depth interval, indicating that this improvement outweighs the extra cost and uncertainty accompanied by the increased model complexity. In contrast, the performance of the first-order model appears superior according to its AIC value in simulating the deepest soils at 66 % Se .

We note that the deep-soil component of this sample set corresponds to approximately 13 % of the total respiration taken over the shallow, middle and deep depths. Thus, in the scope of our study, we conclude that DM2 will serve as a better tool in predicting the CO_2 flux of a whole soil profile in most circumstances. Moreover, recent studies have demonstrated that Birch effects of this nature can last over the duration of weeks to months and in some ecosystems they may produce over 50 % of the total respired CO_2 (Fan et al., 2015). The inability to capture this Birch dynamic in the first-order framework may generate even larger errors under environmentally relevant conditions, indicating that application of DM2 is cost effective and necessary in simulating environments where Birch effects are essential, especially where long periodicity is expected.

In addition, we note that though the deep soil organic carbon concentration is relatively small compared to shallow depths, and contributes less than 13 % of the total respiration, in total this deep soil storage constitutes a significant terrestrial organic carbon stock across a broad diversity of environments. This in turn represents a potentially significant source of atmospheric CO_2 if such carbon were to become mobilized or otherwise biologically available (e.g. disturbances (Trumbore, 2009)). Previous studies have employed a diversity of methods, including radiocarbon dating (^{14}C), near edge X-ray absorption fine structure (NEXAFS) spectrometry, and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), to explore the chemical properties and stabilization pathways of deep-soil organic carbon (Kleber et al., 2011). However, detailed modeling approaches predicting the behavior of the deep-soil organic carbon are sparse. The results of this model comparison suggest that respiration of deep-soil carbon in our samples is appropriately modeled with a simplified first-order rate law rather than the dormancy rate law under conditions analogous to rapid surface exposure, though this is based on a limited dataset and requires further constraint. This difference may be related to more stable, high moisture *in-situ* conditions, resulting in a dominant microbial community insensitive to moisture variation.

5.4 Future directions

Another potentially significant factor is the timespan over which Se changes during a wetting or drying event. Shifts in the Se values in the current study were implemented as an instantaneous change from 0 to a certain value at the beginning of the incubation. Though this is valid for the



572 present experimental design, a gradual increase of Se from low to high is commonly observed in
573 reality as the result of extended and compounding periods of precipitation and dry out (Borken et
574 al., 2003). Based on the equations developed herein, we note that such a time-dependent change
575 in Se can support a transient increase in respiration rate using the first-order model (i.e. the
576 monotonic nature shown here would be alleviated). However, this would still omit the lagged
577 respiration peak generated using the dormancy model. Such cases require further testing, as
578 would be provided by a direct comparison of the performance of two models simulating one
579 identical dataset from *in situ* measurements over multiple precipitation events. This will be
580 addressed in subsequent studies using the East River Watershed datasets.

581 Finally, before applying the two models to *in situ* measurements, we recognize that the effects of
582 transport limitation are vital, and still missing from the current laboratory-based study, even
583 though the dormancy modeling approach can in theory provide soil respiration predictions in
584 dynamic hydrologic settings. In particular, a fixed O_2 concentration is set throughout the
585 simulations, assuming O_2 is never a limiting factor, yet clearly some contribution from oxygen
586 limitation at high Se values is demonstrated in the data. While this effect is minor in the current
587 experimental conditions, in natural environments, respiration can be limited by low O_2
588 concentration resulting from low replenishment rates at high Se (Eq. (9) and (10)) in that gas
589 diffusion is negatively correlated with Se (Pinging et al., 2010). Under these conditions, our
590 current model could potentially over-estimate the respiration rate. Thus, an important expansion
591 of the process-based dormancy modeling approach (Eq. (6-10)) will be integration into a
592 reactive-transport modeling framework capable of linking the reaction network to gas and fluid
593 phase transport across intact soil columns.

594

595 6. Conclusion

596 Our incubation results show a positive correlation between CO_2 respiration rate and Se under dry
597 conditions and a negative correlation when soils approach saturation, similar to previous studies.
598 Dynamic shifts of soil respiration rates accompanied by dry-wet cycles (i.e. the Birch effect) are
599 also found in the incubation experiments with distinct peak heights and positions at different Se
600 values. An adjusted form of the reaction network developed by Manzoni et al. (2014), referred to
601 as the dormancy model, was built and compared against a widely-applied first-order model by
602 evaluating their performances in simulating the experimental data. With an adjustment that
603 allows the activation of unique microbial communities at distinct effective saturations, DM2
604 displays a better representation of the data, particularly in simulating temporal patterns of the
605 Birch effects. After evaluating both FO1 and DM2 with consideration of the quantity of
606 parameters, we conclude that despite the better performance of FO1 while simulating the
607 decomposition of deep soil organic carbon, the implementation of moisture-dependent activation
608 and dormancy rates provides an improved means of quantifying and predicting soil carbon
609 respiration of a soil column under dynamic hydrologic conditions.

610 Because soil organic carbon is a significant potential source of CO_2 to the atmosphere, this
611 improved simulation accuracy provides a better estimation of the budget of soil respired CO_2 ,
612 which can potentially be further utilized to constrain terrestrial carbon fluxes. Finally, we note
613 that the implementation of the current reaction network to a reactive-transport framework is
614 necessary and holds the potential to provide notably improved performance in the simulation of
615 soil carbon respiration across intact cores.



616

617 **7. Competing interests**

618 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

619

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987



Table 1. Soil carbon content over a range of aggregated depths measured by EA.

| Sample Name | Depth | Carbon (wt. %) | Carbon stdev | Total Organic Carbon (wt. %) | Total Organic Carbon stdev | Total Inorganic carbon (wt. %) |
|-------------|---------|----------------|--------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| BCM.top.1 | 0-52 | 2.64 | 0.03 | 2 | 0.41 | 0.63 |
| BCM.top.2 | 0-52 | 2.54 | 0.05 | 2.07 | 0.32 | 0.46 |
| BCM.mid.1 | 63-108 | 1.71 | 0.01 | 1.44 | 0.08 | 0.27 |
| BCM.mid.2 | 63-108 | 1.67 | 0.06 | 1.43 | 0.02 | 0.23 |
| BCM.bot.1 | 112-165 | 1.04 | 0.12 | 0.9 | 0.02 | 0.14 |
| BCM.bot.2 | 112-165 | 0.96 | 0.01 | 0.89 | 0.03 | 0.07 |

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Table 2. CO₂ respiration data from incubation experiments.

| | | | Incubation time (h) | | | | | | |
|-----------|-----------------|----------------------|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | | 0 | 24 | 48.5 | 72.5 | 96 | 139.5 | 186.5 |
| | Soil depth (cm) | Moisture content (%) | CO ₂ flux (μmol/g soil/day) | | | | | | |
| BCM-top-0 | 0-52 | 0 | 0 | 0.151 | 0.080 | 0.064 | 0.038 | 0.026 | 0.028 |
| BCM-top-1 | | 33 | 0 | 3.106 | 2.189 | 1.689 | 1.449 | 1.150 | 0.902 |
| BCM-top-2 | | 66 | 0 | 4.808 | 5.307 | 3.222 | 2.310 | 1.697 | 1.317 |
| BCM-top-3 | | 100 | 0 | 2.585 | 2.906 | 2.662 | 2.118 | 1.711 | 1.563 |
| BCM-mid-0 | 63-108 | 0 | 0 | 0.309 | 0.216 | 0.163 | 0.101 | 0.077 | 0.071 |
| BCM-mid-1 | | 33 | 0 | 1.705 | 1.392 | 1.116 | 0.795 | 0.646 | 0.562 |
| BCM-mid-2 | | 66 | 0 | 2.235 | 3.188 | 2.084 | 1.257 | 0.909 | 0.795 |
| BCM-mid-3 | | 100 | 0 | 1.181 | 1.669 | 1.320 | 1.034 | 0.870 | 0.831 |
| BCM-bot-0 | 112-165 | 0 | 0 | 0.406 | 0.253 | 0.178 | 0.096 | 0.063 | 0.061 |
| BCM-bot-1 | | 33 | 0 | 1.279 | 0.667 | 0.469 | 0.258 | 0.183 | 0.177 |
| BCM-bot-2 | | 66 | 0 | 1.140 | 0.834 | 0.664 | 0.385 | 0.309 | 0.296 |
| BCM-bot-3 | | 100 | 0 | 0.610 | 0.553 | 0.366 | 0.365 | 0.318 | 0.299 |

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Table 3. Parameter inputs for the first-order model.

| PARAMETER | FO1 | FO2 | Description |
|---|--|---|--|
| $k_{\text{sol},1}$ (1/hour) | N/A | 5.00E-04 | |
| $k_{\text{sol},2}$ (1/hour) | 5.00E-05 | 5.00E-05 | Decomposition rate constant |
| f_g (unitless) | 0.1 | 0.1 | Porportion of carbon used for microbial growth |
| f_r (unitless) | 0.9 | 0.9 | Porportion of carbon used for microbial respiration |
| $k_{\text{up},1}$ (1/hour) | N/A | 4.00E-02 | Microbial uptake rate constant for fast-responding biomass |
| $k_{\text{up},2}$ (1/hour) | 2.00E-02 | 2.00E-02 | Microbial uptake rate constant for slow-responding biomass |
| k_{mor} | 4.17E-05 | 4.17E-05 | Mortality rate constant for biomass |
| $Se_{\text{thres},1}$ (unitless) | N/A | 0.25 | Threshold effective saturation |
| $Se_{\text{thres},2}$ (unitless) | 0.6 | 0.55 | Threshold effective saturation |
| INIT. CONDITION | | | |
| Se | Variable | Variable | |
| C (mass fraction) | 0.02 | 0.02 (upper), 0.014 (middle), 0.009 (lower) | Total carbon fraction |
| C_{total} (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $C \cdot 1518720$ | $C \cdot 1518720$ | Total carbon concentration (unit converted from C) |
| $C_{\text{sub},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | $1/4 \cdot 0.875 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for substratum carbon |
| $C_{\text{sub},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $0.88 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | $3/4 \cdot 0.88 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for substratum carbon |
| $C_{\text{soluble},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | $1/4 \cdot 0.025 \cdot C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | Concentration for soluble carbon |
| $C_{\text{soluble},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $0.02 \cdot C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | $3/4 \cdot 0.02 \cdot C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | Concentration for soluble carbon |
| Bio_1 (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | $1/4 \cdot 0.1 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for fast-responding biomass |
| Bio_2 (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $0.1 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | $3/4 \cdot 0.1 \cdot C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for slow-responding biomass |

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Table 4. Parameter inputs for the dormancy models.

| PARAMETER | DM1 | DM2 | Description |
|--|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| a (unitless) | 20 | 20 | Transition coefficient |
| $k_{\text{sol},1}$ (1/hour) | N/A | 9.38E-05 | Decomposition rate constant |
| $k_{\text{sol},2}$ (1/hour) | 4.17E-05 | 1.39E-05 | Decomposition rate constant |
| f_m (unitless) | 0.1 | 0.1 | Porportion of carbon used for microbial growth |
| f_r (unitless) | 0.9 | 0.9 | Porportion of carbon used for microbial respiration |
| $k_{\text{up},1}$ (1/hour) | N/A | 1 | Microbial uptake rate constant for fast-responding biomass |
| $k_{\text{up},2}$ (1/hour) | 8 | 4 | Microbial uptake rate constant for slow-responding biomass |
| $C_{\text{half},1}$ (gC/m ³) | N/A | 15000 | Half saturation for soluble carbon |
| $C_{\text{half},2}$ (gC/m ³) | 45000 | 45000 | Half saturation for soluble carbon |
| K_{half} | N/A | N/A | Half saturation for O ₂ |
| $k_{\text{tran},1}$ (1/hour) | N/A | 1 | Transition rate constant between active and dormant biomass for fast-responding biomass |
| $k_{\text{tran},2}$ (1/hour) | 0.017 | 0.017 | Transition rate constant between active and dormant biomass for slow-responding biomass |
| $Se_{\text{half},1}$ (unitless) | N/A | 0.25 | Half saturation for effective saturation for fast-responding biomass |
| $Se_{\text{half},2}$ (unitless) | 0.55 | 0.55 | Half saturation for effective saturation for slow-responding biomass |
| b (unitless) | 4.9 | 4.9 | Pore size distribution parameter |
| $k_{\text{mor},a}$ | 4.17E-05 | 4.17E-05 | Mortality rate constant for active biomass |
| $k_{\text{mor},d}$ | 4.17E-06 | 4.17E-06 | Mortality rate constant for dormant biomass |
| INIT. CONDITION | | | |
| Se | Variable | Variable | |
| C (mass fraction) | 0.02 | 0.02 (upper), 0.014 (middle), 0.009 (lower) | Total carbon fraction |
| C_{total} (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $C*1518720/Se$ | $C*1518720/Se$ | Total carbon concentration (unit converted from C) |
| $C_{\text{sub},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | $1/4*0.875*C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for substratum carbon |
| $C_{\text{sub},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $0.893*C_{\text{total}}$ | $3/4*0.894*C_{\text{total}}$ | Concentration for substratum carbon |
| $C_{\text{soluble},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | $1/4*0.025*C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | Concentration for soluble carbon |
| $C_{\text{soluble},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | $0.007*C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | $3/4*0.006*C_{\text{total}} \pm 20\%$ | Concentration for soluble carbon |
| $Bio_{\text{active},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | N/A | 0 | Concentration for fast-responding active biomass |
| $Bio_{\text{active},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O) | 0 | 0 | Concentration for slow-responding active biomass |
| $Bio_{\text{dormant},1}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O -undiluted) | N/A | $1/4*0.1*C_{\text{total}}*Se$ | Concentration for fast-responding dormant biomass |
| $Bio_{\text{dormant},2}$ (gC/m ³ H ₂ O -undiluted) | $0.1*C_{\text{total}}*Se$ | $3/4*0.1*C_{\text{total}}*Se$ | Concentration for slow-responding dormant biomass |

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Table 5. AIC values of the two models.

| | FO1 | DM2 |
|--------------------|---------|---------|
| Shallow-66%Se | 33.0269 | 21.8236 |
| Shallow-33%Se | 25.9891 | 10.4347 |
| Intermediate-66%Se | 28.1768 | 26.9186 |
| Intermediate-33%Se | 21.6725 | 9.0794 |
| Deep-66%Se | 22.8723 | 34.3137 |
| Deep-33%Se | 16.541 | 22.764 |

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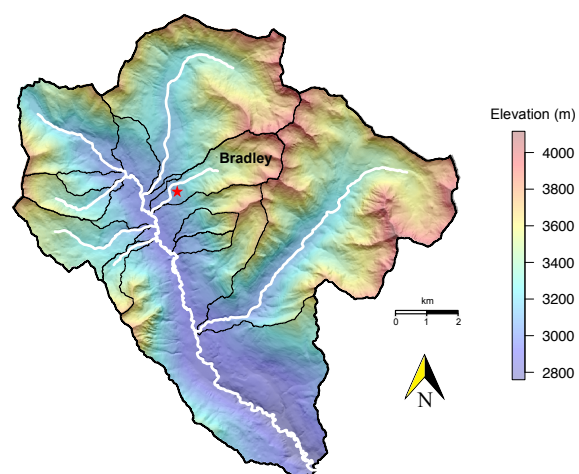


Fig 1. The East River watershed within the Gunnison River basin, Colorado, USA (the drainage paths are shown in white line). The red star illustrates the location where the soil incubation samples were collected for the current study (38°59'8.42" N, 107°0'12.51" W).

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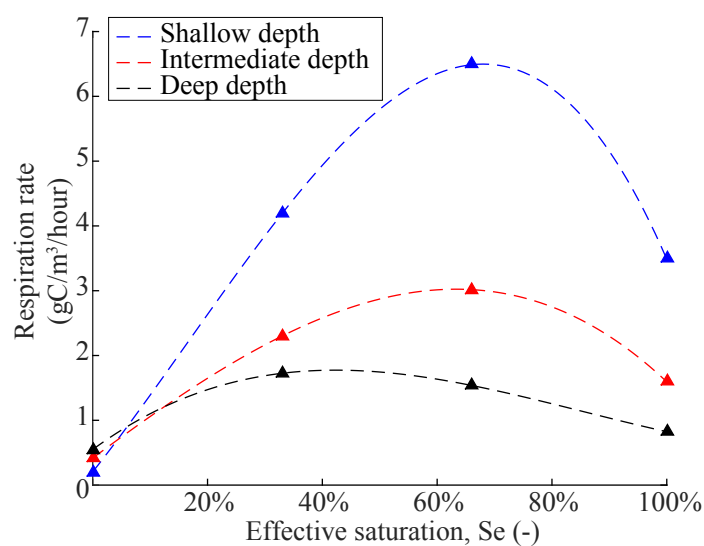


Fig 2. Respiration rate as a function of four values of S_e (filled triangles) fitted with dashed lines to illustrate trends. Measurement uncertainties lie within symbols ($<1.5\%$ of the measured concentration). Soil respiration rates are shown for the first 24 hours of incubation for all three soil depths (0-52 cm (blue), 63-108 cm (red) and 112-165 cm (black)) at different effective saturations ($S_e = 0, 33\%, 66\%$ and 100%).

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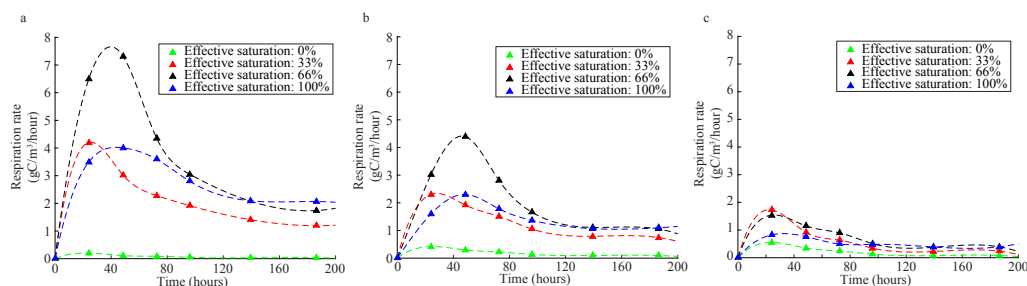


Fig 3. Respiration rate for (a) shallow soil sample (0-52 cm); (b) intermediate soil samples (63-108 cm); (c) deep soil samples (112-165 cm), as a function of time for four values of S_e (filled triangles) fitted with dashed lines (cubic interpolation) to illustrate trends. Measurement uncertainties lie within symbols ($<1.5\%$ of the measured concentration).

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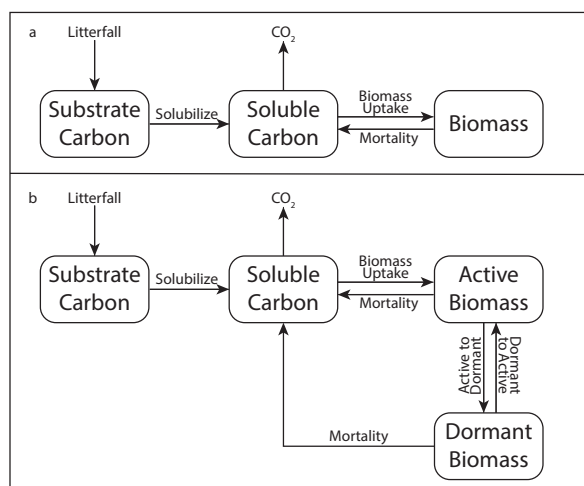


Fig 4. The conceptual models for both: (a) First-order, and (b) dormancy (adjusted from Manzoni et al. (2014)). Boxes indicate distinct carbon pools, and arrows indicate the reactive pathways of carbon between the pools.

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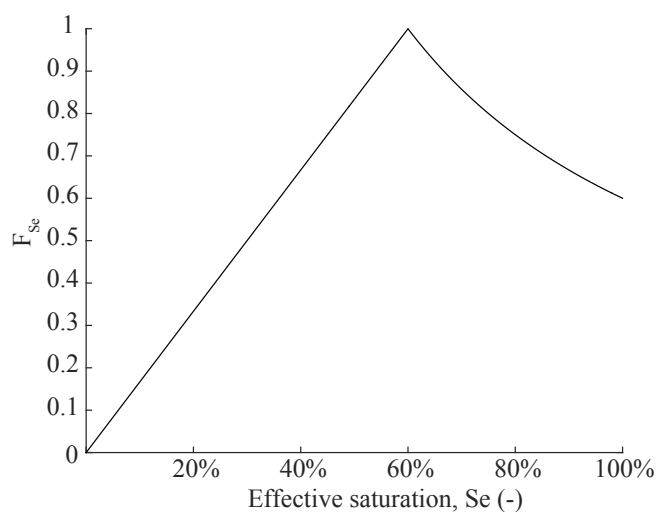


Fig 5. The non-dimensional factor F_{Se} as a function of effective saturation. F_{Se} reaches 1 where Se_{thres} is set (60 % in this study).

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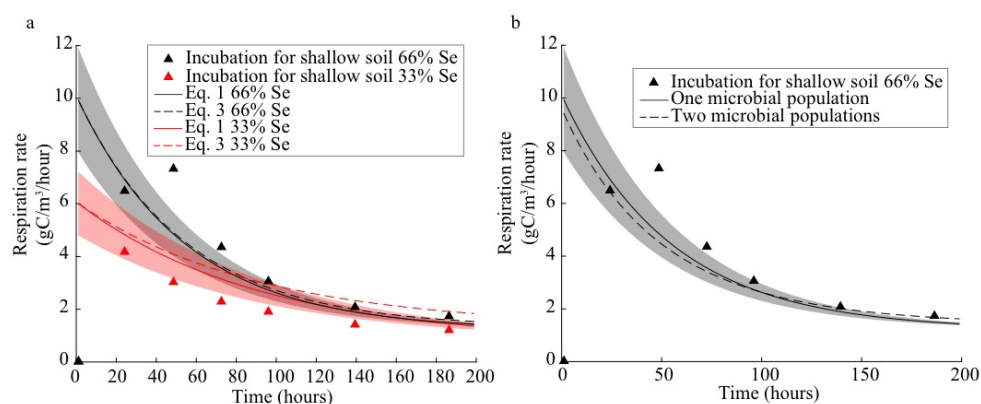


Fig 6. The first-order kinetic model using (a) FO1; Solid lines represent model uses moisture dependent solubilization law (Eq. (1)), and dashed lines represent model uses moisture independent solubilization law (Eq. (3)); (b) FO1 (solid line) and FO2 (dashed line) microbial populations (all parameters shown in Table 3). Shaded areas represent range of model output with the initial soluble carbon concentration varied by 20 %. This variation is further discussed in Sect. 5.1.

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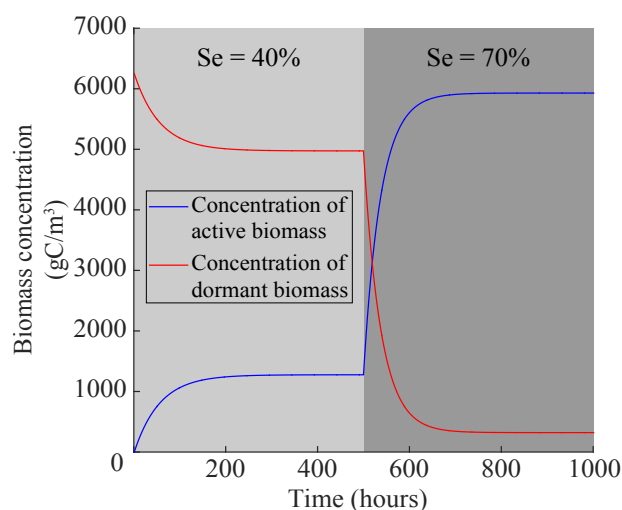


Fig 7. Transition between active and dormant biomass as a function of Eq. (8) and (9). Starting active and dormant biomass concentrations are set to 0 and 6250 gC m^{-3} , respectively. As the simulation begins, an initial Se_{sample} of 40 % has been present for a sufficient period of time such that the active and dormant biomass pools are in steady state. At a time $t = 500$ hours, the Se_{sample} is increased to a new value of 70 %, leading to a shift in the distribution of active and dormant biomass.

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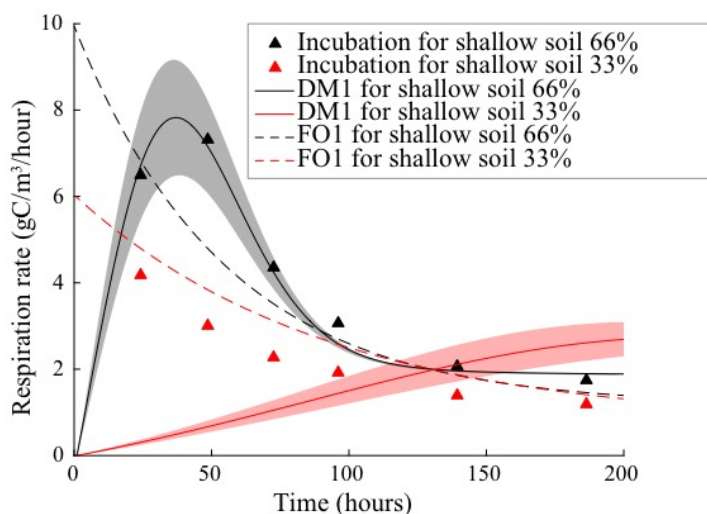


Fig 8. Comparison of model and measured respiration rates for the shallow soil 33 % and 66 % S_e values as a function of time. Filled triangles represent experimental data, and lines illustrate output from DM1. Shaded areas represent range of model output with the initial soluble carbon concentration varied by 20 %. FO1 outputs (dashed lines) are also plotted here for comparison. This variation is further discussed in Sect. 5.1.

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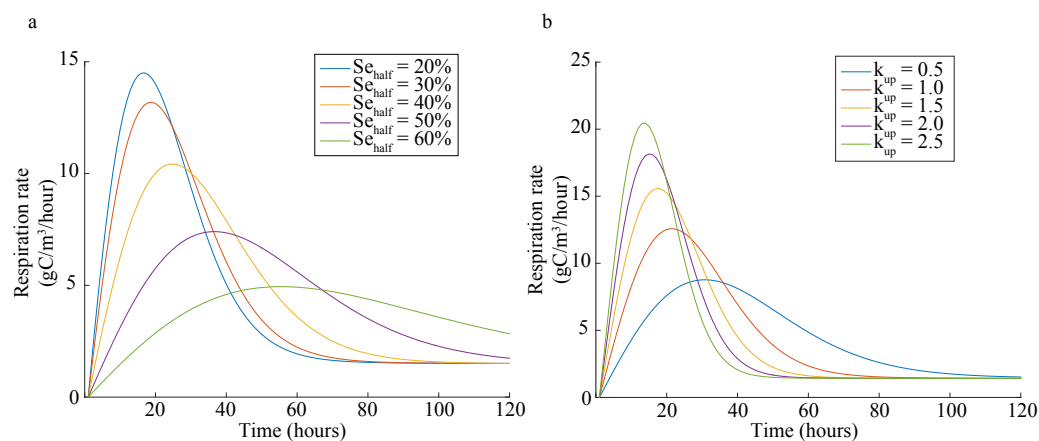


Fig 9. (a) Model sensitivity to a range of Se_{half} values, with all other parameters held constant (Table 4). Different colors represent different Se_{half} . (b) Model sensitivity to a range of k_{up} values, with other conditions similar to (a).

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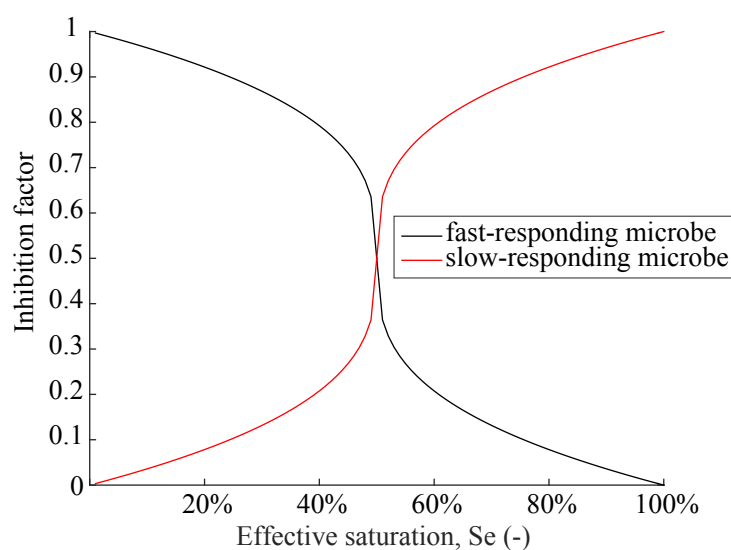


Fig 10. Inhibition factor for both fast- and slow-responding microbial populations as a function of S_e (Eq. (10) & (11)). The red line represents the slow-responding population, while the black line represents fast-responders.

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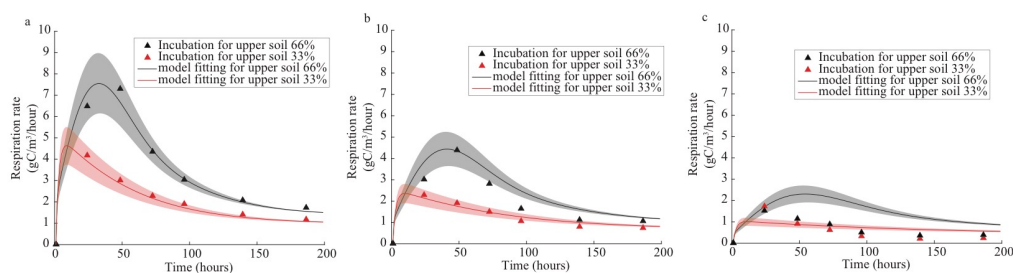


Fig 11. The performance of DM2 when simulating (a) upper soil; (b) middle soil; (c) lower soil at both 33 % and 66 % Se. Shaded areas represent range of model output with the initial soluble carbon concentration varied by 20 %. This variation is further discussed in Sect 5.1.

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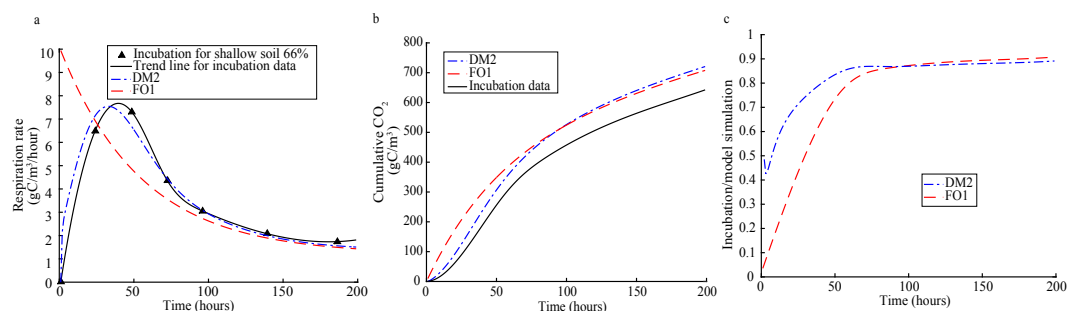


Fig 12. (a) Model output from FO1 and DM2 plotted against incubation data in time series. Measurement uncertainties lie within symbols ($<1.5\%$ of the measured concentration). Parameter values for two models are listed in Table 3 and 4; (b) Cumulative CO_2 concentration integrated from model output and trend line shown in (a); (c) Ratio of integrated incubation data/model output shown in (b) for two models. The dormancy model is clearly a better simulation compared to first-order model within 100 hours (closer to 1).