

¹ Subterranean CO₂ ventilation and its role in the net ecosystem ² carbon balance of a karstic shrubland

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[1] Recent studies of carbonate ecosystems suggest a possible contribution of subterranean ventilation to the net ecosystem carbon balance. However, both the overall importance of such CO₂ exchange processes and their drivers remain unknown. Here we analyze several dry-season episodes of net CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere, along with soil and borehole CO₂ measurements. Results highlight important events where rapid decreases of underground CO₂ molar fractions, correlate well with sizeable CO₂ release to the atmosphere. Such events, with high friction velocities, are attributed to ventilation processes, and should be accounted for by predictive models of surface CO₂ exchange.

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22 1. Introduction

[2] The FLUXNET community monitors ecosystem carbon exchanges, usually interpreting CO₂ fluxes as biological (photosynthetic or respiratory) [Falge *et al.*, 2002; Reichstein *et al.*, 2005], neglecting inorganic processes. However, recent studies over carbonate substrates reveal possible contributions by abiotic processes to the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB) [Chapin *et al.*, 2006], with relevant magnitudes at least on short time scales [Serrano-Ortiz *et al.*, 2010; Were *et al.*, 2010]. These processes can temporally dominate the NECB in areas with carbonate soils [Kowalski *et al.*, 2008].

[3] Carbonates outcrop on ca. 12–18% of the water-free Earth [Ford and Williams, 1989] with an enormous capacity to store CO₂ below ground in macropores (caves) and fissures [Benavente *et al.*, 2010; Ek and Gewelt, 1985]. Ventilation is a mass flow of air through a cavity, via the porous media in the case of closed caves, driven by an imbalance of forces (pressure gradients and gravity). Through the venting of these subterranean spaces, stored gaseous CO₂ can be lost to the atmosphere [Kowalczyk and Froelich, 2010; Weisbrod *et al.*,

2009]. However, both the drivers of these ventilation processes and their relevance to regional CO₂ budgets remain unknown.

[4] Often ecologists estimate soil CO₂ effluxes neglecting advective transport of CO₂ through the vadose zone. Studies of surface exchange have usually been conducted either by manual [Janssens *et al.*, 2001], or automatic soil respiration chambers [Drewitt *et al.*, 2002]. Scientists often model underground, diffusive soil CO₂ fluxes based on single sampling [Davidson and Trumbore, 1995; Hirsch *et al.*, 2002] or continuous monitoring of CO₂ profiles [Balodcchi *et al.*, 2006; Pumpanen *et al.*, 2008; Tang *et al.*, 2003]. Such models based on diffusion processes neglect the effects of ventilation. However, Subke *et al.* [2003] revealed the importance of such effects at least on short-time scales.

[5] Here we analyze several episodes of subterranean CO₂ ventilation that occurred during a dry period in a carbonate ecosystem. We examine its determinants and implications for the NECB measured with an eddy covariance system.

2. Material and Methods

[6] The study site is *El Llano de los Juanes*, a shrubland plateau at 1600 m altitude in the *Sierra de Gádor* (Almería, Southeast Spain; 36°55'41.7"N; 2°45'1.7"W). It is characterized by a sub-humid climate with a mean annual temperature (*T*) of 12 °C and precipitation of ca. 465 mm. The soil, overlying Triassic carbonate rocks, varies from 0 to 150 cm depth with a petrocalcic horizon and fractured rocks. More detailed site information is given by Serrano-Ortiz *et al.* [2009].

[7] Throughout the dry season of 2009 (9 June–9 September) two sensors (GMP-343, Vaisala, Inc., Finland) that measure CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c), were installed in the soil and in a borehole. The soil sensor was installed 25 cm deep, with a soil *T* probe (107, Campbell scientific, Logan, UT, USA; hereafter CSI) and water content reflectometer (CS616, CSI). The 7-m borehole (dia. 0.1 m), was sealed from the atmosphere with a metal tube cemented to the walls. Inside, sensors tracked χ_c (GMP-343) and *T* and relative humidity (HMP45, CSI). The CO₂ sensors were corrected for variations in *T* and pressure. A data-logger (CR23X, CSI) measured every 30 s and stored 5 min averages. Ecosystem-scale CO₂ fluxes were measured by eddy covariance atop a 2.5 m tower; Serrano-Ortiz *et al.* [2009] describe the instrumentation and quality control for eddy flux data.

3. Results

[8] Over the dry period, soil and borehole χ_c were inversely correlated. While the soil χ_c fell from its maximum near

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89 1500 ppm to about half (Figure 1a), the borehole χ_c doubled
 90 from *ca.* 8000 ppm and to 16000 ppm (Figure 1b). Apart from
 91 these long-term trends, during the first half of the summer,
 92 marked decreases occurred in both soil and borehole χ_c
 93 during three key events (Figure 1; grey bars). Such decreases
 94 correspond to higher CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere rela-
 95 tive to the preceding and subsequent periods. Pressure and air
 96 temperature showed poor correlations with soil χ_c , while
 97 radon and CO₂ fluctuations in the borehole are correlated in
 98 phase (see auxiliary material), suggesting that ventilation
 99 causes CO₂ losses. A cross-correlation analysis indicated that
 100 an increment in u_* during daytime corresponds immediately
 101 to an increase in ecosystem CO₂ fluxes (F_c), whereas the
 102 decrease in soil χ_c is delayed by two hours, and the cave χ_c
 103 lags the soil by 53.5 hours.

104 [9] These events occurred when the friction velocity (u_*)
 105 exceeded 0.3 m s⁻¹ (Figure 1c), and are associated with
 106 ventilation. The largest event occurred during a windy period
 107 from July 21st–24th (daily mean $u_* > 0.6$ m s⁻¹), when
 108 soil CO₂ more than halved from 1200 to 500 ppm and the
 109 borehole lost *ca.* 4000 ppm. This underground CO₂ loss
 110 corresponded to increased emissions to the atmosphere of
 111 0.4–2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ s⁻¹ (Figure 1d). After the event, the borehole
 112 χ_c recovered to exceed initial values (>14000 ppm) within a
 113 couple of weeks. The 21–24 July ventilation event (3rd grey
 114 bar, Figure 1) is detailed in Figure 2, showing 11 days of
 115 half-hour values divided into periods of recharge and venti-
 116 lation. During recharge, the borehole χ_c increased slightly,
 117 then fell quickly during ventilation, losing *ca.* 4000 ppm in
 118 five days (Figure 2b). Soil CO₂ followed a daily cycle, with
 119 late afternoon peaks and dawn minima (Figure 2a). During
 120 recharge, diurnal ranges averaged *ca.* 800 ppm, versus just
 121 200 ppm during ventilation. The mean soil χ_c and u_* were
 122 higher (Figure 2c) for the ventilated period. Finally, F_c was
 123 near zero with little diurnal variation during recharge,
 124 but daytime emissions exceeded 5 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ s⁻¹ during the

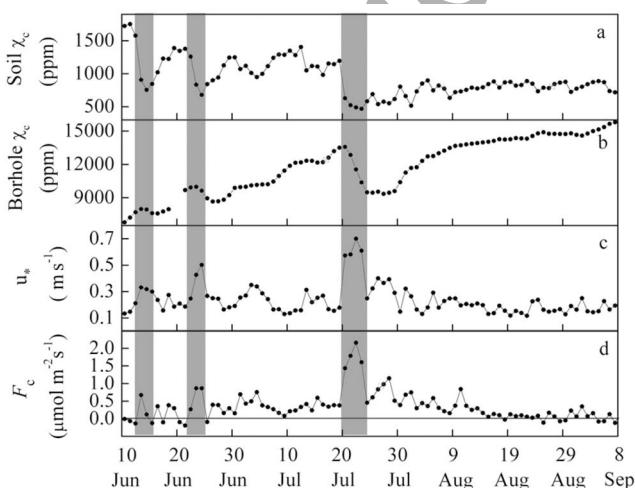


Figure 1. Average daily values of (a) soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) at 25 cm depth and (b) borehole χ_c at 7 m depth, (c) friction velocity (u_* ; turbulent velocity scale) and (d) ecosystem CO₂ fluxes (F_c ; negative values represent uptake). Shaded columns delimit ventilation events.

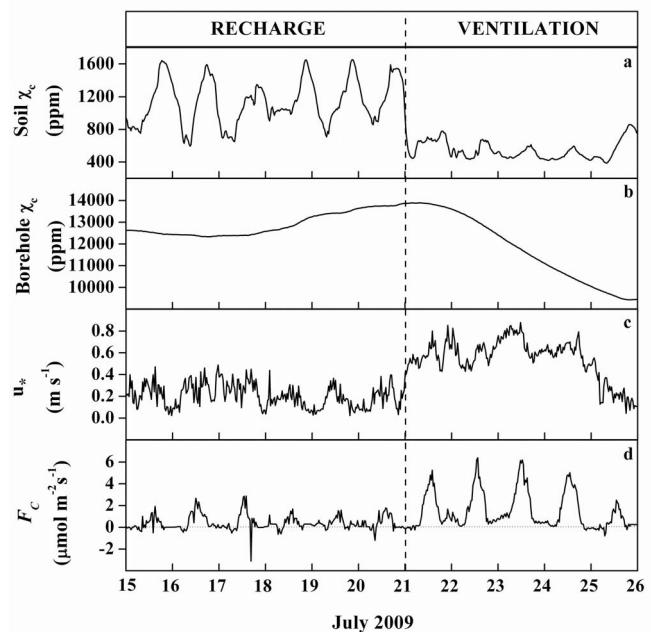


Figure 2. Ventilation event detail, distinguishing between recharge and ventilation. Average half-hour values of (a) soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c , 25 cm depth), (b) borehole χ_c (7 m depth), (c) friction velocity (u_* ; turbulent velocity scale) and (d) CO₂ fluxes.

ventilated period. At night, CO₂ emissions were always close 125
 126 to zero (Figure 2d).

4. Discussion

4.1. Evidence of Subterranean Ventilation

[10] This study shows clear empirical evidence of sub- 129
 terranean ventilation and its implications in the NECB. 130
 Decreases in soil and borehole χ_c coincided with high u_* , 131
 corresponding to large F_c (Figure 2). Ventilation induces soil 132
 CO₂ release on time scales from minutes to days. Particularly 133
 high ecosystem emissions may occur with greater magnitudes 134
 in karsts storing large amounts of CO₂, with the overlying soil 135
 acting as a semi-permeable membrane open to gas exchange 136
 on dry summer days [Cuezva *et al.*, 2011]. Thus, ventilation 137
 processes can be more important in karstic ecosystems with 138
 arid soils and pronounced dry seasons. 139

[11] In this study subsurface CO₂ followed a daily pattern. 140
 In soil pores, dusk/dawn had the maximum/minimum con- 141
 centrations (Figure 2a). Borehole CO₂ values, integrating 142
 the whole column from 0 to 7 m, followed no daily trend 143
 as confirmed by autocorrelation analysis. Thus, a rise in u_* 144
 corresponds to a direct decrease in soil χ_c , while borehole χ_c 145
 falls several hours later. 146

4.2. Main Drivers Controlling the Soil CO₂ Ventilation

[12] Studies focused on soil CO₂ profiles have reported 148
 correlations between soil χ_c and wind speed [Jassal *et al.*, 149
 2005; Takle *et al.*, 2004]. Lewicki *et al.* [2010] experimen- 150
 tally studied the correlation between temporal variations 151
 in soil CO₂ concentrations and several meteorological fac- 152
 tors during a controlled shallow-subsurface CO₂ release 153

154 experiment. *Subke et al.* [2003] suggested that the flux con-
 155 tributed by pressure pumping should be considerable for
 156 wind gusts following periods of relative calm, while its cor-
 157 relation should be smaller for similar wind conditions over
 158 previously flushed soil. We found a strong inverse correlation
 159 between soil χ_c and u_* . After de-trending the CO₂ series, u_*
 160 explained 67% (R^2) of the variability during the studied
 161 period. Correlated radon and CO₂ fluctuations in the bore-
 162 hole also indicate that ventilation is the cause of CO₂ losses.
 163 All this indicates that, for our study, the most appropriate
 164 variable determining soil CO₂ ventilation is u_* .

165 4.3. Outstanding Issues

166 [13] Despite these clear relationships, uncertainties remain
 167 regarding the behavior of subterranean CO₂, and two par-
 168 ticular questions arise. Firstly, where does the soil CO₂ go
 169 after reaching its daily maxima during recharge periods? For
 170 example, on the windy night of July 20th–21st, the soil lost
 171 *ca.* 1000 ppm but this CO₂ was not detected in eddy fluxes
 172 (Figure 2). Secondly, why are CO₂ emissions never detected
 173 by eddy covariance at nights? One might attribute this to
 174 static stability, but high values of u_* are evidence of dynamic
 175 instability [*Stull*, 1988] indicating that CO₂ exchange is not a
 176 limited by the turbulence. Rather, we posit that cold surface
 177 temperatures at night foment water vapor adsorption [*Kosmas*
 178 *et al.*, 2001], humidify the surface, close the soil membrane
 179 to gas flow at night, and thus disable ventilation [*Cuezva*
 180 *et al.*, 2011]. By contrast during ventilation the CO₂ that
 181 would otherwise have accumulated in the soil during daytime
 182 (see recharge period) is emitted directly to the atmosphere.

183 5. Conclusions

184 [14] This study emphasizes the role of dry-season, sub-
 185 terranean ventilation processes in the net ecosystem carbon
 186 balance (NECB). Although several meteorological factors
 187 correlate with emitted CO₂, analyses suggest that ventila-
 188 tion is driven mainly by the friction velocity. Windy days are
 189 responsible for large emissions of CO₂ previously accumu-
 190 lated below ground, which are not accounted for in current
 191 models of surface CO₂ exchange. However during calm days
 192 soil CO₂ accumulates, causing significant day-night con-
 193 centration differences. The vast network of pores, cracks and
 194 cavities along with high molar fractions (>15000 ppm–7 m)
 195 indicate that very large amounts of CO₂ can be stored inside
 196 karst systems. Further investigation is needed to explain the
 197 absence of CO₂ ventilation during windy nights, and charac-
 198 terize the CO₂ cycling of carbonate ecosystems.

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