1 Soil-atmosphere exchange of carbonyl sulfide in Mediterranean

2 citrus orchard

3 Fulin Yang^{1,2}, Rafat Qubaja¹, Fyodor Tatarinov¹, Rafael Stern¹, and Dan Yakir^{1,*}

- 5 1. Earth and Planetary Sciences, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot 76100,
- 6 Israel
- 7

4

- 8 2. College of Animal Sciences, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou
- 9 350002, China
- 10
- 11 **Correspondence:* Dan Yakir; email: dan.yakir@weizmann.ac.il
- 12

13 Abstract:

Carbonyl sulfide (COS) is used as a sa a tracer of CO₂ exchange at the ecosystem 14 and larger scales. The robustness of this approach depends on knowledge of the soil 15 contribution to the ecosystem fluxes, which is uncertain at present. We assessed the 16 spatial and temporal variations of soil COS and CO₂ fluxes in the Mediterranean citrus 17 orchard combining surface flux chambers and soil concentration gradients. The spatial 18 heterogeneity in soil COS exchange indicated net uptake below and between trees of 19 up to 4.6 pmol m^{-2} s⁻¹, and net emission in sun exposed soil between rows, of up to 2.6 20 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, with overall mean uptake value of 1.1 ± 0.1 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹. Soil COS 21 concentrations decreased with soil depth from atmospheric levels of ~450 to ~100 ppt 22 at 20 cm depth, while CO₂ concentrations increased from ~400 to ~5000 ppm. COS 23 flux estimates from the soil concentration gradients were, on average, -1.0 ± 0.3 pmol 24 m⁻² s⁻¹, consistent with the chamber measurements. A soil COS flux algorithm driven 25 by soil moisture and temperature (5 cm depth) and distance from the nearest tree, could 26 explain 75% of variance in soil COS flux. Soil relative uptake, the normalized ratio of 27 COS to CO₂ fluxes was, on average -0.4 ± 0.3 and showed a general exponential 28 response to soil temperature. The results indicated that soil COS fluxes at our study site 29 were dominated by uptake, with relatively small net fluxes compared to both soil 30 respiration and reported canopy COS fluxes. Such result should facilitate the 31 application of COS as a powerful tracer of ecosystem CO₂ exchange. 32

33

34 Keywords:

Carbonyl sulfide; COS; OCS; soil gas exchange; ecosystem gas exchange; tracer of carbon fluxes.

2

37 **1. Introduction**

Carbonyl sulfide (COS) is a Sulphur-containing analogue of CO₂ that is taken up 38 by vegetation following a similar pathway to CO₂, ultimately hydrolyzed in an 39 irreversible reaction with carbonic anhydrase. It therefore holds great promise for 40 studies of photosynthetic CO₂ uptake (Asaf et al., 2013; Berry et al., 2013; Wehr et al., 41 2017; Whelan et al., 2018). One of the difficulties in the application of COS as a tracer 42 for photosynthetic CO₂ uptake is that the non-leaf contributions to the net ecosystem 43 44 COS flux are poorly characterized. There are reports of substantial soil fluxes, indicating both uptake and emissions (Kesselmeier et al., 1999; Kuhn et al., 1999; 45 Masaki et al., 2016; Seibt et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2018; Yi et al., 2007). Although soil 46 COS exchanges were in some cases small compared to plant uptake (e.g., Yang et al., 47 2018; Berkelhammer et al., 2014), this was not always the case. Substantial soil COS 48 emissions have been found in wetlands and anoxic soils (Li et al., 2006; Whelan et al., 49 2013), and in senescing agricultural fields and high temperatures (Liu et al., 2010; 50 Maseyk et al., 2014), or under drought conditions and in response to UV radiation (Kitz 51 52 et al., 2017). Even for the same soil, COS fluxes could show large variations and both uptake and emission with sensitivities to soil moisture, and ambient COS 53 concentrations (Bunk et al., 2017; Kaisermann et al., 2018). These studies also assessed 54 the response of COS exchange to environmental controls, e.g. soil moisture and 55 temperature and solar radiation. 56

For COS application as a tracer of ecosystem CO₂ exchange characterizing the 57 relationships between COS and CO₂ fluxes is important. This is done by assessing the 58 'relative uptake' (RU) of the COS/CO2 flux rate ratio, normalized by the ambient 59 60 atmospheric concentrations (that differ for the two gases by a factor of about 10^6), as done at the leaf scale, (LRU) or ecosystem scale (ERU; e,g, Asaf et al., 2013). It was 61 similarly applied to soil as SRU (Berkelhammer et al., 2014). Conservative, or 62 predictable, SRU values reflect systematic relationships between the processes 63 influencing CO₂ and COS, could help the identification of the dominant process, and 64 support the application of COS as tracer. Small SRU values compared to LRU could 65 also indicate reduced effect of soil on ecosystem fluxes. For example, Berkelhammer 66

et al. (2014) reported mean SRU of -0.76, which are about half of the leaf values of about +1.7 indicating that compared to CO_2 , leaf COS is enhanced, and soil COS uptake is suppressed, which provides additional robustness to the COS-GPP approach. Note also that as soil CO_2 flux measurements and modeling are much more common than for COS at flux sites. Knowledge of SRU could help derive soil COS fluxes and, for example, improve the partitioning of canopy COS flux from NEE_{COS} measurements.

Soil COS exchange has often been measured by incubations in the lab (e.g., Bunk 73 74 et al., 2017; Kesselmeier et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2010; Van Diest and Kesselmeier, 2008), and by static or dynamic chambers in the field (e.g., Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Kitz et 75 al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Yi et al., 2007; Mseyk et al., 2014), and using models (e.g., 76 Ogée et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015; Whelan et al., 2016). In spite of these efforts, more 77 field measurements of soil COS exchange are clearly needed as a basis for elucidating 78 79 underlying mechanism, as well as obtaining better quantitative record of the possible range of soil COS fluxes under natural conditions. Note also that previous studies have 80 focused on agricultural soils (Maseyk et al., 2014), wetlands (Whelan et al., 2013), 81 82 boreal forest soils (Sun et al., 2018), and grasslands (Kitz et al., 2017), but several ecosystems are understudied, such as in the Mediterranean. Finally, soil profile 83 measurements will also be useful for validation of soil models of COS exchange (Sun 84 et al., 2015). The objective of this study was to apply dynamic chambers measurements, 85 constrained by simultaneous soil gradient method to assess the spatial and temporal 86 variations soil COS and CO₂ fluxes in a citrus orchard ecosystem where contrasting soil 87 88 microsite conditions occur.

89

90 2. Materials and methods

91 **2.1 Field site**

The study was conducted in an orchard in Rehovot, Israel (31°54′ N, 34°49′ E, 50 m, asl) in 2015 and 2016. The orchard is a plantation of lemon trees (*Citrus limonia Osbeck*), with 5 m distance between rows and 4 m between trees. Mean annual air temperature at the site is 19.7 °C, and mean annual precipitation is 537 mm. Most of the precipitation (82%) falls in November to February with no rain during June to

97 October. A trickle irrigation system was used from May to September with the standard irrigation plan of the orchard management. The soil in the area is brown red sandy soil 98 (hamra soil) with an average bulk density of 1.6 kg m⁻³ and pH of 6.5 (Singer, 2007). 99 Although root distribution was not measured we noted that roots were concentrated 100 101 mainly within about 50 cm of the tree trunks, as could be expected due to drip irrigation installed around the trunk. 102

- 103
- 104

2.2 Quantum cascade laser measurements

We used the commercially available quantum cascade laser (QCL) system 105 (Aerodyne Research, Billerica, MA) with tunable laser absorption spectrometer (Model: 106 QC-TILDAS-CS) to measure COS, CO2, and water vapor concentrations 107 108 simultaneously. The device was installed in a mobile lab, described by Asaf et al. (2013). COS is detected at 2050.40 cm⁻¹ and CO₂ at 2050.57 cm⁻¹ at a rate of 1 Hz. The 109 instrument was calibrated using working reference compressed air tank that was used 110 for inter-comparison with the NOAA GMD lab (Boulder CO). Corrections for water 111 112 vapor were made using the TDLWINTEL software installed in the QCL (Kooijmans et al. 2016) 113

114

2.3 Soil chamber flux measurements 115

Custom-made stainless-steel cylindrical chamber of 177 cm² directly inserted into 116 the soil (~5 cm) was used, as previously described (Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Yang et 117 al., 2018). The chambers were opaque and photoproduction was not considerate in this 118 study. The chamber air and ambient air flows were pumped to the QCL analyzer through 119 two 3/8-inch diameter Decabon tubing. Flow rate was maintained at 1.2 L min⁻¹ and 120 repeatedly cycled with 1 min instrument background (using N₂ zero gas), 9 min ambient 121 air flow, and 10 min chamber air sample. Three different soil sites were used with 122 distance of 3.20, 2.00 and 0.25 m away from a tree trunk, that represented sampling 123 sites between rows (BR), between trees (BT) and under tree (UT). Each sampling site 124 was measured continuously for 24 hours and cycled between sites for the duration of 125 the campaign. Four measurement campaigns were carried out during 5th~9th August 126

127 2015; 25th~28th December 2015; 5th~9th May 2016; 28th~31th July 2016.

128 Gas exchange rates, F_c , were calculated according to:

129
$$F_{c} = \frac{Q}{A} \times \left(\Delta C_{sample} - \Delta C_{blank}\right)$$
(1)

where Q is the chamber flush rate in mol s⁻¹; A is the enclosed soil surface in m²; ΔC is 130 the gas concentrations difference between chamber air and ambient air in pmol mol⁻¹ 131 for COS and µmol mol⁻¹ for CO₂ under sampling, and blank reference treatments (using 132 the same chamber placed above a sheet of aluminum foil before and after measurement 133 at each site. Hereafter, the soil fluxes are reported in pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ and $\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$ for 134 COS and CO₂, respectively. Soil relative uptake (SRU) is used to characterize the 135 relationship between soil CO2 and COS fluxes, was estimated from the normalized ratio 136 of CO₂ respiration to COS uptake (negative values) or emission (positive values) fluxes 137 (Berkelhammer et al., 2014): 138

$$SRU = \frac{F_{COS_{soil}}}{[COS]} / \frac{F_{CO_{2soil}}}{[CO_2]}$$
(2)

140

139

141 **2.4** Soil concentration profile measurements

Four campaigns of soil concentration profile measurements were carried out during 1st~2nd March; 20th~26th April; 10th May; 22nd~28th June of 2016. The trace gas at five soil depths of 0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 cm was sampled at each of the three microsites, BR, BT and UT.

Four individual Decabon tubes were inserted at adjacent but different points into 146 the soil (to avoid communication between tubes during sampling), to the different 147 depths indicated above and connected directly to the QCL positioned close by the 148 149 mobile lab. At least one day after insertion and insuring sealing between tubing and soil, soil air was sampled with flow rate of 80 ml min⁻¹, in a 10 min cycle of 1 min instrument 150 151 background, 3 min surface air (depth 0; used initially to flush all above ground tubing), 5 min sampling of a depth point in the profile (first two minutes for flushing the tubing, 152 third minute used for data; up to 400 ml extracted from the soil), ending with 1 min 153 surface air. Five complete sets of cycles including the four soil depths and surface air 154

were repeated for each site (with time gaps between cycles of hours, and in some cases overnight). The pressure in the 500 ml QCL sample cell was kept at 15 torr to insure sufficient turnovers (~8 per minute using the low flow rate) before data were recorded.

Assuming that in the selected measurement sites, soil trace gas is only

transported by diffusion, soil COS and CO₂ fluxes were estimated based on the Fick'sfirst law:

161
$$F = -D_s \frac{dC}{dz_{soil}}$$
(3)

where *F* is the upward or downward gas flux (pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ for COS and µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ for CO₂); D_s is the effective gas diffusion coefficient of the relevant gas species in the soil (m² s⁻¹); *C* the trace gas concentration (mixing ratio, converted from the measured mole fractions); z_{soil} is the soil depth (m).

166 The Penman (1940) function was used to describe the soil diffusion coefficient 167 (D_s) as in Kapiluto et al. (2007):

168
$$D_s = D_a \left(\theta_s - \theta\right) \sqrt{\frac{T_s + 273.15}{298.15}}$$
(4)

169 where θ_s is the soil saturation water content and θ is the measured soil volumetric water 170 content. D_a is the trace gas diffusion coefficient in free air, which varied with 171 temperature and pressure, given by

172
$$D_a = D_{a0} \left(\frac{T_s + 273.15}{293.15} \right)^{1.75} \left(\frac{P}{101.3} \right)$$
(5)

where D_{a0} is a reference value of trace gas diffusion coefficient at 293.15 K and 101.3 kPa, given as 1.24×10^{-5} m⁻² s⁻¹ for COS (Seibt et al., 2010) and 1.47×10^{-5} m⁻² s⁻¹ for CO₂ (Jones, 1992); T_s is soil temperature (°C), and P is air pressure (kPa).

176

177 **3. Results**

178 **3.1 Variations in soil COS flux**

179 Soil COS fluxes showed significant heterogeneity at both the spatial (microsites) 180 and temporal (seasonal) scale (Fig. 1). Overall, the hourly soil COS flux varied from -181 4.6 to +2.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, with mean value of 1.1 ± 0.1 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹. On the spatial scale, the COS fluxes showed systematically uptake under trees (UT), moderate uptake and some emissions between trees (BT) and relatively more emission in the exposed area between rows (BR), with diurnal mean values across seasons of -3.0 ± 0.1 , -0.4 ± 0.1 and $+0.1 \pm 0.1$ pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, respectively.

On the diurnal time-scale, soil COS flux were generally higher in the afternoon 186 (peaking around 15:00~16:00 hours), declining at night and early morning (Fig. 1). On 187 the seasonal time scale, soil COS fluxes showed both changes in rates and shifts from 188 189 net uptake to net emission, with the site hierarchy differing in the different seasons (Fig. 1). In the UT site where only COS uptake was observed, the highest rates were observed 190 in winter and peak summer (December and Auguest) with diurnal mean rates of nearly 191 -4 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, and more moderate uptake rates, around -2 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, in spring and 192 early summer (May and July; Fig. 1). In the BT sites, significant COS uptake of ~-2.5 193 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ was observed in winter, but net fluxes were near zero in other times, with 194 some afternoon emission in summer. In the exposed BR sites, minor uptake (less than 195 -1 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) was observed in spring and early summer, but consistent emission in 196 peak summer, with diurnal mean values of nearly +2 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹. 197

198

199 **3.2 Effects of moisture and temperature**

During the hot summer (August 2015 and July 2016), differences in microsite soil 200 water content (θ) were most distinct, with θ of nearly 30% in the UT sites (associated 201 with drip irrigation), but ~19% and ~12% in the BT and BR sites. Correspondingly, the 202 UT sites had significant COS uptake of about $-3 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ while the other sites 203 showed emission of about +1 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (Table 1). In winter (December), θ in the 204 three sites was similar, ~25%, and all sites showed soil COS uptake, but with clear 205 gradient of -3.9, -2.5 and -0.7 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in the UT, BT and BR sites, respectively (Fig. 206 1). On average, soil COS fluxes showed non-linear increase in uptake with increasing 207 θ , but it seems that this response may saturate at about θ of 25% and uptake rates of ~--208 3.9 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ (Fig. 2). The fit to the data presented in Fig. 2 also indicate that in dry 209 210 soil with $\theta < 15\%$ soil COS emission can be expected.

211 The response of soil COS fluxes to soil temperature varied among the three

measurement sites (Fig. 3). The BT and BR sites showed a near linear response with a shift from uptake to emisson around 25 °C. In the shaded and moist UT site, COS uptake was always significant ranging between -4 to -1 pmol m⁻¹ s⁻¹ with relatively low temperature sensitivity, and with lowest mean uptake rates around 20 °C.

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis results showed that hourly soil COS flux was significantly related to soil moisture and temperature (at the 0.001 level), and the soil moisture had a stronger environmental controls on the soil COS flux (r=-0.77), compared with soil temperature (r=+0.45).

220 Comprehensive assessment of the effects of soil moisture (θ), temperature (T_s) and 221 distance away from tree trunk (d), showed that hourly soil COS flux (F_{COS}) could be 222 fitted to a three parameters exponential model, which could explain 75% of the 223 variation in soil COS flux (Eq. 6).

224

$$F_{COS} = 8.91 \exp(0.01T_s - 0.01\theta + 0.09d - 0.33) - 8.86, \ R^2 = 0.75$$
 (6)

225

226 **3.3 COS flux estimates from soil concentration gradients**

227 The average soil concentration gradient of COS and CO_2 for the four campaigns 228 is shown in Fig. 4. COS concentrations decreased with soil depth, with the opposite trend for CO₂, consistent with the results reported above of soil surface COS uptake 229 and CO₂ emission at our orchard site. COS concentrations at depth of 2.5 cm was on 230 average 314 ppt, and about one-third lower than the mean surface, ambient, value of 231 460 ppt. The lowest COS concentration at depth of 20 cm (166 ppt) was almost one-232 233 third of that at the soil surface. An exponential and a linear equations provided reasonable fit to the changes in soil COS and CO₂ concentrations, respectively, as a 234 235 function of depth (z_{soil}) :

236

$$[COS] = 283.5 \exp(-0.2z_{soil}) + 169.9, \ R^2 = 0.99$$

$$[CO_2] = 122.2z_{soil} + 558.5, \ R^2 = 0.99$$
 (7)

In terms of individual site and campaign, all profiles except for BR in summer (June) showed the general trend of decreasing [COS] and increasing [CO₂] with depth, with the steepest gradient at the top 5 cm (Fig. 5). In the BR microsite in summer, CO₂ profiles were shallow, consistent with the low respiration (see July BR in Table 1). But
a decrease in COS concentration toward the surface, with surface value lower than the
next two soil depth points (Fig. 5J), was consistent with COS emission at that time (July
BR in Table 1).

As noted above, the profile data generally exhibited the steepest gradient at the top 244 245 few cm of the soil, indicating that the dominating COS sink (and likely also the CO_2 source) was located at shallow depth. We therefore used the gas concentration 246 difference at two shallowest depths ($z_{soil1} = 0$ and $z_{soil2} = 2.5$ cm) to provide an 247 approximation of the fluxes to and from the soil, to constrain the more extensive 248 chamber measurements. The COS diffusion coefficient, D_s , was estimated for each 249 campaigns (see Methods), indicating low D_s value in the UT site in June and July (D_s = 250 2.55 mm² s⁻¹), associated with the drip irrigation and the high soil water content, and 251 high values in the dryer soils ($D_s = 5.57 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), with an average COS diffusion 252 coefficient of 4.4 ± 0.3 mm² s⁻¹. The soil COS flux estimates using the gradient method 253 is reported in Table 2. COS flux varied between -2.1 to +1.6 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ with a mean 254 value of -1.0 ± 0.3 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ during the measurement periods, consistent with the 255 mean value of 1.1 ± 0.1 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ reported above for the chamber measurements. 256 Also in agreement with the chamber measurements, fluxes at UT and BT always 257 showed COS uptake, with generally higher values in spring (March) than in summer 258 (May-June), while the BR data indicated change from uptake in spring (March-April, -259 1.3 to -1.6 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) to emission in June (+1.6 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$). 260

261

262 **3.4 Soil relative uptake**

Soil was always a source of CO₂ due respiration (combined autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration). Soil CO₂ flux rates varied both spatially and temporally in similar patterns to those of COS, and with overall range of +0.3 to +14.6 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ (Table 1). The highest soil respiration values were observed in the UT sites in summer (July, August; Table 1), with intermediate (+1 to about +3 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) and low values (< +1 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) in the BT and BR sites, respectively. Generally, soil COS exchange

varied from release to increasing uptake with increasing CO₂ production in a non-linear 269 way (Fig. 6a). The normalized ratio of COS to CO₂ fluxes (SRU; Eq. 2) varied from -270 1.9 to +1.9 with an average value of -0.4 ± 0.3 , with negative values indicating COS 271 uptake linked to CO₂ emission. SRU values showed response to both soil temperature 272 (Fig. 6b) and soil moisture (Fig. 6c), although with relatively low R² values. Respiration 273 increased with temperature while COS uptake declined and at temperature above about 274 25 °C SRU turned positive when both COS and CO2 are emitted from the soil. SRU 275 276 exhibited inverse relationships with soil moisture, with positive values in dry soil and increasingly negative values with increasing soil moisture (Fig. 6c). Based on its 277 combined temperature (T_s) and moisture (θ) response, SRU could be forecasted by the 278 following algorithm, which explained 67% of the observed variations (Eq. 8): 279

280

$$SRU = 0.01 \exp(0.17T_s) - 0.02\theta - 1.00, \ R^2 = 0.67$$
(8)

ANOVA analysis results indicated that SRU was not significantly different among the three observation microsites (BR, BT, and UT; P > 0.05). Between the seasonal campaigns, however, SRU values peaked in summer ($+0.5 \pm 0.7$) with highest averaged soil temperature (29 °C) and was significantly higher than winter SRU (-1.4 ± 0.6) when soil temperature was lowest (11 °C; P < 0.05), and with no significant difference in SRU among the other campaigns (P > 0.05).

287

288 **4. Discussions**

289 **4.1 Heterogeneity in soil COS exchange**

The observed soil-atmosphere COS exchange rates observed in this study (both 290 mean and range; Fig. 1, Table 1) are consistent with values reported in a range of other 291 ecosystems (-1.4 to -4.9 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹; Steinbacher et al., 2004; Kitz et al., 2017; White 292 et al., 2010; Berkelhammer et al., 2014), but lower than -11.0 to -11.8 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ in a 293 riparian and subtropical forests (Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2007). Soil COS 294 emissions were also observed in summer and spring campaigns, with maximal COS 295 emission consistent with the values of +1.8 to +2.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ observed in a riparian 296 and alpine forests (Berkelhammer et al., 2014), but significantly lower than reported in 297

the senescing agricultural ecosystem (\sim +30 pmol m⁻²s⁻¹; Maseyk et al., 2014).

299 The observed range in the soil-atmosphere exchange fluxes reflected significant heterogeneity on both the spatial and the temporal scales. The spatial scale 300 heterogeneity clearly reflected the contrasting microsite conditions with lower 301 302 temperatures and higher moisture under the trees (UT sites), compared with the higher temperatures and lower moisture in exposed soil between rows (BR sites), with 303 intermediate, partially shaded, conditions between trees (BT sites). Indeed, a large 304 305 fraction of the variations in the COS flux (\sim 75%) could be explained by a simple algorithm as a function of these two variables, temperature and moisture. Note that 306 while temperature and θ co-varied in general, with high temperatures associated with 307 drier soil, under the wet UT conditions, sensitivity to temperature was significantly 308 309 reduced. In the dry soil conditions, emission was associated with high temperature, and in the BR sites also with high solar radiation. However, all measurements were made 310 in dark chambers and could not involve photochemical production, which was also 311 demonstrated in agricultural soil by Kitz et al. (2017). Apparently even under dark 312 313 conditions, high temperature can induce high emission rates, as also noted when the thermal insolation on the soil chamber in the BR site was incidentally removed and a 314 large spike in temperature (52 °C) and emission of 11.4 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ was observed. Note 315 also that the soil profile resuts indicated that the emission source was below surface, 316 and maybe non-photochemical irrespective of the chamber opaquenes. 317

Temporal variations were observed both on the daily and seasonal time scales. 318 319 Diurnal changes were, however, minor compared to the changes from winter to summer in all microsites. Shifts from uptake to emission were observed essentially only on the 320 321 seasonal time scale (Fig. 1). This likely reflected the dominance of soil moisture on the COS flux rates. This is because θ did not change noticeably on the daily scale, while it 322 did changed considerably across seasons (between 10.0 and 35.5% overall). Soil 323 temperatures did change over the daily cycle (e.g. 26.0 to 42.4 °C in the BR site during 324 summer), although such changes are still smaller than the seasonal changes in soil 325 temperature (e.g. 10.5 to 31.8 °C in the BR site). A dominant role of soil moisture in 326 explaining the variations in COS uptake is consistent with the results of Van Diest and 327

328 Kesselmeier (2008), but less so with the negligible θ effects in grassland under 329 simulated drought (Kitz et al., 2017).

COS uptake is thought to be related to carbonic anhydrase activity in soil 330 (Kesselmeier et al., 1999), which could be via microorganisms (Piazzetta et al., 2015), 331 such as Bacteria (Kamezaki et al., 2016; Kato et al., 2008), or fungi (Bunk et al., 2017; 332 Li et al., 2010; Masaki et al., 2016). CA activity is also influenced by soil moisture 333 (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Seibt et al., 2006), although soil moisture can also 334 335 directly influence soil gas diffusion rates (Ogée et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015). The effect of CA on COS exchange can also be related to root distribution and the effects of CA 336 activity within plant roots (Seibt et al., 2006; Viktor and Cramer, 2005; Whelan and 337 Rhew, 2015). This could influence the spatial variations and soil moisture effects on 338 COS exchange in this study as most of the roots were distributed around the restricted 339 trees' drip irrigation zone at UT sites, and was sparse in the dryer areas, such as the BR 340 and BT sites (un-quantified observations). 341

At least part of the variations in soil COS fluxes could also reflect the differential 342 343 effects of environmental conditions on COS uptake and production process (Ogée et al., 2016). Solubility in soil water (with COS solubility of 0.8 ml ml⁻¹; Svoronos and Bruno, 344 2002) could also be significant, especially in the UT microsites, influenced by the drip 345 irrigation from May to September that could involve water percolation to deeper soil 346 layers. The drivers of soil COS production are still unclear. COS could be produced by 347 chemical processes in the lab (Ferm, 1957), but can also be produced by biotic process 348 in soils such as by hydrolysis of metallic thiocyanates (Katayama et al., 1992) with 349 thiocyanate hydrolase (Conrad, 1996; Svoronos and Bruno, 2002) and hydrolysis of 350 CS₂ (Cox et al., 2013; Smith and Kelly, 1988). Fungi are also reported to be the source 351 of COS (Masaki et al., 2016). Additionally, abiotic thermal degradation of organic 352 matter leading to COS production may be consistent with the temperature sensitivity of 353 COS emission in the BR microsite where biotic processes can be expected to be 354 minimized. Similar high temperature-dependent soil COS emissions were reported in 355 midlatitude forest (Commane et al., 2015) and agricultural field (Maseyk et al., 2014). 356 Lab incubation results also indicated thermal production of COS in soil with increasing 357

temperature (Liu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 2016; Whelan and Rhew, 2015). 358 359 Photochemical production of soil COS was also proposed (Sun et al., 2015; Whelan and Rhew, 2015), and assumed to be driven by ultraviolet fraction of incoming solar 360 radiation (Kitz et al., 2017). Note, however, that all measurements in the present study 361 were made in the dark. In addition, the chemical reaction of CO and MgSO₄ under 362 heating could also produce COS (Ferm, 1957). Note that MgSO₄ has been reported in 363 our study soil (Singer, 2007), and we observed relatively high CO concentration in our 364 365 field site (not shown due to insufficient calibration). Finally, the balance between the uptake (likely biotic dominated) and emission (likely abiotically dominated) can also 366 be influenced by soil nitrogen (Kaisermann et al., 2018). 367

368

369 4.2 Soil relative uptake

We use SRU values to assess the relative importance of the soil COS flux 370 compared with the canopy, and indicate shifts from conservative links between 371 processes influencing COS and CO₂ (see Introduction). On average, the value of SRU 372 373 at our site was smaller than reported for riparian or pine forests (-0.37 vs -0.76 and -1.08; Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2018). This may reflect the contribution of 374 COS emissions at BR and BT in summer, that were not observed in the forest study. 375 Overall, the mean SRU values observed here indicated that the soil COS uptake flux 376 was proportionally less than 40% of the soil respiration flux. In contrast with the canopy 377 fluxes where the COS uptake flux is, proportionally, nearly twice as large as the CO₂ 378 assimilation flux (LRU~1.6 at our site; Yang et al., 2018; 1.7 across vegetation types, 379 Whelan et al., 2018). In contrast to leaves with robust LRU value that tend toward a 380 381 constant, SRU at our site varied between -1.9 and +1.9. However, this range was observed only in the dryer and exposed BR sites, while in the shaded and moist UT 382 sites, it was much narrower, -0.1 to -0.8. Furthermore, it seems that the high SRU values 383 (both positive and negative) represented conditions where the actual fluxes were small 384 (COS uptake was on average -3.0 in the UT but only 0.1 pmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ in the BR sites. It 385 seems that the large SRU values in the BR microsites, were also associated with low 386

soil respiration, 0.5 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in BR sites, compared to 10 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in the UT sites. It is therefore possible that the low SRU values are the more significant for ecosystem scale studies and indicate a much smaller contribution to overall ecosystem fluxes than that of the canopy (i.e., SRU~-0.4 vs LRU~+1.7).

Differential effects of changing environmental conditions on production and 391 uptake processes were reflected in relatively large spatial and temporal heterogeneity 392 393 observed in the soil COS exchange at our site. However, the contrasting effects of production and emission may explain both the sharp increase in SRU values at high 394 temperatures as the effects of production counteract uptake (Fig. 6b), and the much 395 lower sensitivity to temperature of COS flux compared to that of CO₂ (Fig. 6a). Such 396 397 contrasting consumption/production effects may, in fact, reduce the magnitude of the 398 net flux of soil COS, and may explain the relatively narrow range of SRU values.

Application of COS as a tracer for canopy CO₂ exchange requires the accounting 399 for the soil effects and while knowledge of SRU can help predicting it, ultimately we 400 401 need to quantify the fluxes. Note in that respect, that in our recent canopy scale study 402 at the same site (Yang et al., 2018) indicated that in spite of the considerable variations in soil COS fluxes, the soil COS uptake fluxes were equivalent to $\sim 1\%$ of the daytime 403 foliage flux across seasons, and reached $\sim 3\%$ in the spring peak season (but larger 404 proportions were observed during more stressful periods when fluxes were overall 405 406 small).

407

408 **4.3 Soil COS profiles**

Complementing our chamber measurements with soil profile measurements of COS and CO_2 concentrations provided constrain on the relatively new surface soil COS measurements and provided additional information on the possible location of the source/sink in the soil. Using the near surface gradient yielded flux estimates comparable to chamber measurements, providing a useful and rare quantitative validation. For example, in May, the chamber and profile measurements were made at about the same time (5th~9th May for chamber and 10th May for profile) and the

differences between chamber (all microsites) and gradient flux estimates, was 416 negligible (~0.2-0.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹). However, the profile results indicated in addition that 417 the sink/source activities concentrated at top soil layers, probably at around 5-10 cm 418 depth, as reflected in the minimum or maximum in gas concentrations (emphasizing 419 the need for high vertical resolution in employing the profile approach). The variable 420 profiles observed below these points must reflect temporal dynamics in the sink/source 421 activities across the profile. The near surface peak activity makes it particularly 422 423 sensitive to variations in temperature and moisture, as indeed observed (Figs. 2, 3). Low COS concentration in the lower parts of the profile may result from continuous removal 424 of soil COS and may indicate distribution of CA activity beyond the litter layer and the 425 soil surface (Seibt et al., 2006). COS production, however, seems to occur only near the 426 427 soil surface with no indication for production in deeper layer, consistent with its high temperature sensitivity, and not necessarily dependent on radiation (e.g. Kitz et al., 428 2017). 429

Note that the gradient method based on the Fick's diffusion law have its own
limitations (Kowalski and Sánchezcañete, 2010;Sánchez-Cañete et al., 2017;Bekele et
al., 2007). However, it is simple low-cost approach and can help diagnose the
magnitude of soil fluxes, which can also help in identifying below ground processes
and their locations.

435

436 **5.** Conclusions

Our detailed analysis of the spatial and temporal variations in soil-atmosphere 437 exchange of COS provided new information on a key uncertainty in the application of 438 439 ecosystem COS flux to assess productivity. Furthermore, we provide validation of the 440 surface chamber measurements that are generally in use, by the additional gradient 441 approach. Our results show that both microsites and seasonal variations in COS fluxes were related to soil moisture, temperature, and the distance from the tree (likely 442 reflecting root distribution), but we suggest that soil moisture is the predominant 443 444 environmental control over soil COS exchanges at our site. A simple algorithm was sufficient to forecast most of the variations in soil COS flux supporting its incorporated 445

into ecosystem scale applications, as we recently demonstrated in a parallel study at thesame site (Yang et al., 2018).

448 Clearly, uncertainties are still associated with soil processes involving COS, the 449 differential effects of soil moisture, temperature, and communities of microorganisms 450 and are likely to contribute to both the spatial and temporal variations in soil net COS 451 exchange and require further research.

452

453 Author contributions:

454 DY designed the study; FY, RQ, FT, RS and DY performed the experiments. FY 455 and FT analyzed the data. DY and FY wrote the paper with discussions and 456 contributions to interpretations of the results from all co-authors.

457

458 Acknowledgements

459 We are grateful to Omri Garini, Madi Amer, and Boaz Ninyo-Setter for their help. This work

460 was supported by the Minerva foundation, a joint NSFC-ISF grant 2579/16; Israel Science

461 Foundation (ISF 1976/17), the German Research Foundation (DFG) as part of the CliFF

462 Project, and the JNF-KKL. FY is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of

463 China (41775105), and the Natural Science Foundation of Gansu Province (17JR5RA341).

464 **References**

- Asaf, D., Rotenberg, E., Tatarinov, F., Dicken, U., Montzka, S. A., and Yakir, D.:
 Ecosystem photosynthesis inferred from measurements of carbonyl sulphide flux,
 Nat. Geosci., 6, 186-190, 2013.
- Bekele, A., Kellman, L., and Beltrami, H.: Soil Profile CO₂ concentrations in forested
 and clear cut sites in Nova Scotia, Canada, Forest. Ecol. Manag., 242, 587-597,
 2007.
- Berkelhammer, M., Asaf, D., Still, C., Montzka, S., Noone, D., Gupta, M., Provencal,
 R., Chen, H., and Yakir, D.: Constraining surface carbon fluxes using in situ
 measurements of carbonyl sulfide and carbon dioxide, Global Biogeochem. Cy.,
 28, 161-179, 2014.
- Berry, J., Wolf, A., Campbell, J. E., Baker, I., Blake, N., Blake, D., Denning, A. S.,
 Kawa, S. R., Montzka, S. A., and Seibt, U.: A coupled model of the global cycles
 of carbonyl sulfide and CO₂: A possible new window on the carbon cycle, J.
 Geophys. Res.:Biogeo., 118, 842-852, 2013.
- Bunk, R., Behrendt, T., Yi, Z., Andreae, M. O., and Kesselmeier, J.: Exchange of
 carbonyl sulfide (OCS) between soils and atmosphere under various CO₂
 concentrations, J. Geophys. Res.:Biogeo., 122, 1343-1358, 2017.
- 482 Commane, R., Meredith, L. K., Baker, I. T., Berry, J. A., Munger, J. W., Montzka, S. A.,
- Templer, P. H., Juice, S. M., Zahniser, M. S., and Wofsy, S. C.: Seasonal fluxes of
 carbonyl sulfide in a midlatitude forest, P. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A., 112, 1416214167, 2015.
- 486 Conrad, R.: Soil microorganisms as controllers of atmospheric trace gases (H₂, CO,
 487 CH₄, OCS, N₂O, and NO), Microbiol. Rev., 60, 609-640, 1996.
- Cox, S. F., McKinley, J. D., Ferguson, A. S., O'Sullivan, G., and Kalin, R. M.:
 Degradation of carbon disulphide (CS2) in soils and groundwater from a CS₂contaminated site, Environ. Earth Sci., 68, 1935-1944, 2013.
- 491 Davidson, E. A., and Janssens, I. A.: Temperature sensitivity of soil carbon
 492 decomposition and feedbacks to climate change, Nature, 440, 165-173, 2006.
- 493 Ferm, R. J.: The chemistry of carbonyl sulfide, Chemical Reviews, 57, 621-640, 1957.

- Jones H G . Plants and Microclimate: A Quantitative Approach to Environmental Plant
 Physiology, Cambridge University Press, 1983.
- 496 Kaisermann, A., Ogée, J., Sauze, J., Wohl, S., Jones, S. P., Gutierrez, A., and Wingate,
- 497 L.: Disentangling the rates of carbonyl sulfide (COS) production and consumption
 498 and their dependency on soil properties across biomes and land use types, Atmos.
 499 Chem. Phys., 18, 9425-9440, 2018.
- 500 Kamezaki, K., Hattori, S., Ogawa, T., Toyoda, S., Kato, H., Katayama, Y., and Yoshida,
- N.: Sulfur Isotopic Fractionation of Carbonyl Sulfide during Degradation by Soil
 Bacteria, Environ. Sci. Technol., 50, 3537-3544, 2016.
- Kapiluto, Y., Dan, Y., Tans, P., and Berkowitz, B.: Experimental and numerical studies
 of the ¹⁸O exchange between CO₂ and water in the atmosphere–soil invasion flux,
 Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac., 71, 2657-2671, 2007.
- Katayama, Y., Narahara, Y., Inoue, Y., Amano, F., Kanagawa, T., and Kuraishi, H.: A
 thiocyanate hydrolase of Thiobacillus thioparus. A novel enzyme catalyzing the
 formation of carbonyl sulfide from thiocyanate, J. Biol. Chem., 267, 9170-9175,
 1992.
- Kato, H., Saito, M., Nagahata, Y., and Katayama, Y.: Degradation of ambient carbonyl
 sulfide by Mycobacterium spp. in soil, Microbiology+. 154, 249-255, 2008.
- Kesselmeier, J., Teusch, N., and Kuhn, U.: Controlling variables for the uptake of
 atmospheric carbonyl sulfide by soil, J. Geophys. Res.: Atmos., 104, 11577-11584,
 1999.
- Kitz, F., Gerdel, K., Hammerle, A., Laterza, T., Spielmann, F. M., and Wohlfahrt, G.: In
 situ soil COS exchange of a temperate mountain grassland under simulated
 drought, Oecologia, 183, 851-860, 2017.
- 518 Kooijmans L.M.J., Uitslag N.A.M., Zahnister M.S., Nelson D.D., Motzka S.A. and
- 519 Chen H.: Continuous and high precision atmospheric concentration measurements
- 520 of COS, CO₂, CO and H₂O using a quantum cascade laser spectrometer (QCLS).
- 521 Atmos. Meas. Tech., 9, 5293-5314, 2016
- 522 Kowalski, A. S., and Sánchezcañete, E. P.: A New Definition of the Virtual Temperature,
- 523 Valid for the Atmosphere and the CO₂-Rich Air of the Vadose Zone, J. Appl.

- 524 Meteorol. Clim., 49, 1238-1242, 2010.
- Kuhn, U., Ammann, C., Wolf, A., Meixner, F., Andreae, M., and Kesselmeier, J.:
 Carbonyl sulfide exchange on an ecosystem scale: Soil represents a dominant sink
 for atmospheric COS, Atmos. Environ., 33, 995-1008, 1999.
- Li, X., Liu, J., and Yang, J.: Variation of H₂S and COS emission fluxes from
 Calamagrostis angustifolia Wetlands in Sanjiang Plain, Northeast China, Atmos.
 Environ., 40, 6303-6312, 2006.
- Li, X. S., Sato, T., Ooiwa, Y., Kusumi, A., Gu, J. D., and Katayama, Y.: Oxidation of
 elemental sulfur by Fusarium solani strain THIF01 harboring endobacterium
 Bradyrhizobium sp, Microb. Ecol., 60, 96-104, 2010.
- Liu, J., Geng, C., Mu, Y., Zhang, Y., Xu, Z., and Wu, H.: Exchange of carbonyl sulfide
 (COS) between the atmosphere and various soils in China, Biogeosciences, 7, 753762, 2010.
- Masaki, Y., Ozawa, R., Kageyama, K., and Katayama, Y.: Degradation and emission of
 carbonyl sulfide, an atmospheric trace gas, by fungi isolated from forest soil,
 FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 363, fnw197, 2016.
- Maseyk, K., Berry, J. A., Billesbach, D., Campbell, J. E., Torn, M. S., Zahniser, M., and
 Seibt, U.: Sources and sinks of carbonyl sulfide in an agricultural field in the
 Southern Great Plains, P. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A., 111, 9064-9069, 2014.
- 543 Ogée, J., Sauze, J., Kesselmeier, J., Genty, B., Van Diest, H., Launois, T., and Wingate,
- L.: A new mechanistic framework to predict OCS fluxes from soils,
 Biogeosciences, 13, 2221-2240, 2016.
- Penman, H. L.: Gas and Vapor Movements in the Soli: I. The diffusion of vapors
 through porous solids, J. Agric. Sci., 30, 437-462, 1940.
- Piazzetta, P., Marino, T., and Russo, N.: The working mechanism of the beta-carbonic
 anhydrase degrading carbonyl sulphide (COSase): a theoretical study, Phys. Chem.
 Chem. Phys., 17, 14843-14848, 2015.
- Sánchez-Cañete, E. P., Scott, R. L., Van Haren, J., and Barron-Gafford, G. A.:
 Improving the accuracy of the gradient method for determining soil carbon dioxide
 efflux, J. Geophys. Res.:Biogeo., 122, 2017.
 - 20

- Seibt, U., Kesselmeier, J., Sandoval-Soto, L., Kuhn, U., and Berry, J.: A kinetic analysis
 of leaf uptake of COS and its relation to transpiration, photosynthesis and carbon
 isotope fractionation, Biogeosciences, 7, 333-341, 2010.
- Seibt, U., Wingate, L., Lloyd, J., and Berry, J. A.: Diurnally variable δ¹⁸O signatures of
 soil CO₂ fluxes indicate carbonic anhydrase activity in a forest soil, J. Geophys.
 Res.: Atmos., 111, G04005, 2006.
- 560 Singer, A.: The soils of Israel, Springer Science & Business Media, 2007.
- Smith, N. A., and Kelly, D. P.: Oxidation of carbon disulphide as the sole source of
 energy for the autotrophic growth of Thiobacillus thioparus strain TK-m,
 Microbiology+. 134, 3041-3048, 1988.
- Steinbacher, M., Bingemer, H. G., and Schmidt, U.: Measurements of the exchange of
 carbonyl sulfide (OCS) and carbon disulfide (CS₂) between soil and atmosphere
 in a spruce forest in central Germany, Atmos. Environ., 38, 6043-6052, 2004.
- Sun, W., Maseyk, K., Lett, C., and Seibt, U.: A soil diffusion–reaction model for surface
 COS flux: COSSM v1, Geosci. Model. Dev., 8, 3055-3070, 2015.
- Sun, W., Kooijmans, L. M. J., Maseyk, K., Chen, H., Mammarella, I., Vesala, T., Levula,
 J., Keskinen, H., and Seibt, U.: Soil fluxes of carbonyl sulfide (COS), carbon
 monoxide, and carbon dioxide in a boreal forest in southern Finland, Atmos. Chem.
 Phys., 18, 1363-1378, 2018.
- 573 Svoronos, P. D., and Bruno, T. J.: Carbonyl sulfide: a review of its chemistry and 574 properties, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res., 41, 5321-5336, 2002.
- Van Diest, H., and Kesselmeier, J.: Soil atmosphere exchange of carbonyl sulfide (COS)
 regulated by diffusivity depending on water-filled pore space, Biogeosciences, 5,
 475-483, 2008.
- Viktor, A., and Cramer, M. D.: The influence of root assimilated inorganic carbon on
 nitrogen acquisition/assimilation and carbon partitioning, New Phytol., 165, 157169, 2005.
- Wehr, R., Commane, R., Munger, J. W., McManus, J. B., Nelson, D. D., Zahniser, M.
 S., Saleska, S. R., and Wofsy, S. C.: Dynamics of canopy stomatal conductance,
- 583 transpiration, and evaporation in a temperate deciduous forest, validated by

- carbonyl sulfide uptake, Biogeosciences, 14, 389, 2017.
- Whelan, M. E., Min, D.-H., and Rhew, R. C.: Salt marsh vegetation as a carbonyl sulfide
 (COS) source to the atmosphere, Atmos. Environ., 73, 131-137, 2013.
- Whelan, M. E., and Rhew, R. C.: Carbonyl sulfide produced by abiotic thermal and
 photodegradation of soil organic matter from wheat field substrate, J. Geophys.
 Res.:Biogeo., 120, 54-62, 2015.
- Whelan, M. E., Hilton, T. W., Berry, J. A., Berkelhammer, M., Desai, A. R., and
 Campbell, J. E.: Carbonyl sulfide exchange in soils for better estimates of
 ecosystem carbon uptake, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 16, 3711-3726, 2016.
- 593 Whelan, M. E., Lennartz, S. T., Gimeno, T. E., Wehr, R., Wohlfahrt, G., Wang, Y.,
- 594 Kooijmans, L. M. J., Hilton, T. W., Belviso, S., Peylin, P., Commane, R., Sun, W.,
- 595 Chen, H., Kuai, L., Mammarella, I., Maseyk, K., Berkelhammer, M., Li, K. F.,
- 596 Yakir, D., Zumkehr, A., Katayama, Y., Ogée, J., Spielmann, F. M., Kitz, F., Rastogi,
- 597 B., Kesselmeier, J., Marshall, J., Erkkilä, K. M., Wingate, L., Meredith, L. K., He,
- 598 W., Bunk, R., Launois, T., Vesala, T., Schmidt, J. A., Fichot, C. G., Seibt, U.,
- Saleska, S., Saltzman, E. S., Montzka, S. A., Berry, J. A., and Campbell, J. E.:
 Reviews and syntheses: Carbonyl sulfide as a multi-scale tracer for carbon and
 water cycles, Biogeosciences, 15, 3625-3657, 2018.
- White, M., Zhou, Y., Russo, R., Mao, H., Talbot, R., Varner, R., and Sive, B.: Carbonyl
 sulfide exchange in a temperate loblolly pine forest grown under ambient and
 elevated CO₂, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 10, 547-561, 2010.
- Yang, F., Qubaja, R., Tatarinov, F., Rotenberg, E., and Yakir, D.: Assessing canopy
 performance using carbonyl sulfide measurements, Glob. Change Biol., 24, 34863498, 2018.
- 608 Yi, Z., Wang, X., Sheng, G., Zhang, D., Zhou, G., and Fu, J.: Soil uptake of carbonyl
- sulfide in subtropical forests with different successional stages in south China, J.
- 610 Geophys. Res.: Atmos., 112, D08302, 2007.

611 **Figure captions:**

Figure 1. Spatial variability of soil COS flux at three sites, between trees (a), between rows (b), and under tree (c). Each figure shows the diurnal cycling of soil COS flux in the four campaigns. Each data point was the hourly mean ± 1 S.E. (N=3).

Figure 2. Relationship of soil COS flux and soil moisture. Each data point represents the diurnal average (n=24) for each microsite and season (measurement campaign). Error bars represent ± 1 S.E. around the mean; errors for flux are about the size of the symbols.

Figure 3. Soil COS fluxe as a function of temperature and its linear regression line. Each data point represents the diurnal average (n=24) for each site and season (campaign). Error bars represent ± 1 S.E. around the mean.The data point marked in black cirble were collected during irrigation cycle (enhanced uptake) and were excluded from the regression.

Figure 4. Mean COS and CO₂ concentrations at different soil depth. The COS concentration decreases exponentially with soil depth. The data point is the mean of the combined data at each of the four measurement campaigns (N=4; \pm 1 S.E.).

Figure 5. Soil COS and CO₂ concentration profiles at the three microsites in four measurement campaigns. The data points are the mean of all measurements in a campaign (N=4, \pm 1 S.E.)

Figure 6. The relationships between soil COS and CO₂ flux rates (chamber measurements; a). The response of soil relative uptake (SRU; normalized ratio of COS to CO₂ fluxes) to soil temperature (b) and to soil water content (c). The data points

633 represent the diurnal average (N=24) of each site and season (measurement campaign).

Error bars represent ± 1 S.E. around the mean (often the size of the symbol).

Table 1. Mean values of soil COS and CO₂ flux rates across sites (BR, between rows;

BT, between trees; UT, under tree), and seasons, together with the normalized ratio of

637 COS/CO₂ fluxes (SRU), and the mean soil temperature at 5 cm depth (T_s) and soil water

Campaigns	Sites	COS flux	CO ₂ flux	SRU	T_s	θ	
		$(pmol m^{-2} s^{-1})$	$(\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1})$		(°C)	(%)	
August, 2015	BR	$1.83{\pm}0.08$	0.77 ± 0.04	1.85	31.66±1.01	9.98±0.28	
	BT	$0.06{\pm}0.05$	3.33 ± 0.05	0.01	29.09 ± 0.20	19.77 ± 0.02	
	UT	-3.64±0.13	10.79±0.12	-0.26	28.80 ± 0.26	24.03 ± 0.40	
December, 2015	BR	-0.74 ± 0.07	0.30 ± 0.02	-1.92	10.50 ± 0.17	23.33±1.89	
	BT	-2.52 ± 0.10	1.21 ± 0.03	-1.62	11.20±0.19	24.22 ± 0.94	
	UT	-3.87 ± 0.08	3.81 ± 0.07	-0.79	12.17±0.16	26.11±1.01	
May, 2016	BR	-0.77 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.02	-1.88	21.67 ± 0.32	15.56±0.38	
	BT	-0.05 ± 0.04	1.31 ± 0.05	-0.03	22.20 ± 0.34	15.70 ± 1.03	
	UT	$-1.80{\pm}0.11$	10.78 ± 0.54	-0.13	20.35 ± 0.38	22.11±1.44	
July, 2016	BR	0.21 ± 0.04	$0.79{\pm}0.05$	0.21	29.66 ± 0.60	14.73±0.57	
	BT	0.76 ± 0.09	1.97 ± 0.04	0.30	26.68±0.15	17.49 ± 0.70	
	UT	-2.67 ± 0.09	14.58 ± 0.40	-0.14	27.83 ± 0.34	35.47±3.47	

638 content (% by wt; θ).

639

Campaigns	Sites	COS flux	CO ₂ flux	CO ₂ diffusion coefficient	COS diffusion coefficient	T_s	θ
		(pmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	(µmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	$(mm^2 s^{-1})$	$(mm^2 s^{-1})$	(°C)	(%)
March, 2016	BR	-1.31	2.34	5.21	4.40	17.9	19.4
	BT	-1.15	2.21	4.80	4.05	16.2	21.8
	UT	-2.10	5.89	4.76	4.02	17.3	22.4
April, 2016	BR	-1.55	1.07	6.66	5.62	23.0	11.0
	BT	-0.89	1.14	6.44	5.43	20.4	11.6
	UT	-1.74	4.73	6.01	5.07	22.4	15.2
May, 2016	BR	-0.98	2.21	5.68	4.79	21.9	17.4
	BT	-0.51	1.24	5.06	4.27	22.0	21.6
	UT	-1.20	11.36	3.11	2.63	20.1	34.5
June, 2016	BR	1.55	2.63	6.61	5.57	35.9	15.5
	BT	-1.17	2.60	5.20	4.39	26.3	21.7
	UT	-1.19	11.85	3.02	2.55	22.9	35.6

Table 2. Estimates of soil COS and CO₂ fluxes from soil concentration gradient measurements (T_s , soil temperature; θ , soil water content; BR, 641 between rows; BT, between trees; UT, under tree.)





Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4









