



1 **Soil-atmosphere exchange of carbonyl sulfide in Mediterranean**

2 **citrus orchard**

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12 **Abstract:**

13 Carbonyl sulfide (COS) is used as a as 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 exposed soil between rows, of up to +2.6
20 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹, with weighted mean uptake values of -1.10 ± 0.10 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹. Soil
21 COS concentrations decreased with soil depth from atmospheric levels of ~450 to ~100
22 ppt 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, -1.02 ± 0.26 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 -0.37 and showed a general exponential response
28 to soil temperature. The results indicated that soil COS fluxes at our study site were
29 dominated by uptake, with relatively small net fluxes compared to both soil respiration
30 and reported canopy COS fluxes. Such result should facilitate the application of COS
31 as a powerful tracer of ecosystem CO₂ exchange.

32

33 **Keywords:**

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



36 1. Introduction

37 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 the unknown non-leaf contributions to the net ecosystem
43 COS flux. There are reports of significant soil fluxes, indicating both uptake and
44 emissions (Kesselmeier et al., 1999; Kuhn et al., 1999; Masaki et al., 2016; Seibt et al.,
45 2006; Yang et al., 2018; Yi et al., 2007). Although soil COS exchanges were often
46 considered small compared to plant uptake (e.g., Whelan et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2018),
47 this was not always the case. Significant soil COS emissions have been found in
48 wetlands and anoxic soils (Li et al., 2006; Whelan et al., 2013), and in senescing
49 agricultural fields and high temperatures (Liu et al., 2010; Maseyk et al., 2014), or under
50 drought conditions and in response to UV radiation (Kitz et al., 2017). Even for the
51 same soil, COS fluxes could show large variations and both uptake and emission with
52 sensitivities to soil moisture, and ambient COS concentrations (Bunk et al.,
53 2017; Kaisermann et al., 2018). These studies also assessed the response of COS
54 exchange to environmental controls, e.g. soil moisture and temperature and solar
55 radiation.

56 Soil COS exchange has often been measured by incubations in the lab (e.g., Bunk
57 et al., 2017; Kesselmeier et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2010; Van Diest and Kesselmeier, 2008),
58 and by static or dynamic chambers in the field (e.g., Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Kitz et
59 al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Yi et al., 2007; Maseyk et al., 2014), and using models (e.g.,
60 Ogée et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015; Whelan et al., 2016). In spite of these efforts, more
61 field measurements of soil COS exchange are clearly needed as a basis for elucidating
62 underlying mechanism, as well as obtaining better quantitative record of the possible
63 range of soil COS fluxes under natural conditions. The objective of this study was to
64 apply dynamic chamber measurements, constrained by simultaneous soil gradient
65 method to assess the spatial and temporal variations in soil COS and CO₂ fluxes in a citrus



66 orchard ecosystem where contrasting soil microsite conditions occur.

67

68 **2. Materials and methods**

69 **2.1 Field site**

70 The experiment was conducted in an orchard in Rehovot, Israel (31°54' N, 34°49'
71 E, 50 m, asl) in 2015 and 2016. The orchard is a plantation of lemon trees (*Citrus*
72 *limonia Osbeck*), with 5 m distance between rows and 4 m between trees. Mean annual
73 air temperature at the site is 19.7 °C, and mean annual precipitation is 537 mm. Most
74 of the precipitation (82%) falls in November to February with no rain during June to
75 October. A trickle irrigation system was used from May to September with the standard
76 irrigation plan of the orchard management. The soil in the area is red sandy soil with an
77 average bulk density of 1.6 kg m⁻³ (Singer, 2007).

78

79 **2.2 Quantum cascade laser measurements**

80 We used the commercially available quantum cascade laser (QCL) system
81 (Aerodyne Research, Billerica, MA) with tunable laser absorption spectrometer (Model:
82 QC-TILDAS-CS) to measure COS, CO₂, and water vapor concentrations
83 simultaneously. The device was installed in a mobile lab, described in the Asaf et al.
84 (2013). COS is detected at 2050.40 cm⁻¹ and CO₂ at 2050.57 cm⁻¹ at a rate of 1 Hz.
85 The instrument was calibrated using working reference compressed air tank that was
86 used for inter-comparison with the NOAA GMD lab (Boulder CO).

87

88 **2.3 Soil chamber flux measurements**

89 Custom-made stainless-steel cylindrical chamber of 177 cm² directly inserted into
90 the soil (~5 cm) was used, as previously described (Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Yang et
91 al., 2018). The chamber air and ambient air flows were pumped to the QCL analyzer
92 through two 3/8-inch diameter Decabon tubing. Flow rate was maintained at 1.2 L min⁻¹
93 and repeatedly cycled with 1 min instrument background (using N₂ zero gas), 9 min
94 ambient air flow, and 10 min chamber air sample. Three different soil sites were used
95 with distance of 3.20, 2.00 and 0.25 m away from a tree trunk, that represented sampling



96 sites between rows (BR), between trees (BT) and under tree (UT). Each sampling site
97 was measured continuously for 24 hours and cycled between sites for the duration of
98 the campaign. Four measurement campaigns were carried out during 5th~9th August
99 2015; 25th~28th December 2015; 5th~9th May 2016; 28th~31th July 2016.

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

$$101 \quad F_c = \frac{Q}{A} \times (\Delta C_{sample} - \Delta C_{blank}) \quad (1)$$

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

$$111 \quad SRU = \frac{F_{COS,soil}}{[COS]} \bigg/ \frac{F_{CO_2,soil}}{[CO_2]} \quad (2)$$

112

113 **2.4 Soil concentration profile measurements**

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

118 Four Decabon tubing were inserted into the soil at the different depth and connect
119 directly to the QCL. At least one day after insertion, soil air was sampled with flow rate
120 of 400 ml min⁻¹, in cycles of 1 min instrument background-3 min surface air (depth 0)-
121 5 min sampling of a depth point in the profile-1 min surface air. Each cycle was,
122 therefore, 10 min. Five complete sets of cycles including the four soil depths and
123 surface air were repeated for each site.



124 Assuming that in the selected measurement sites, soil trace gas is only
125 transported by diffusion, soil COS and CO₂ fluxes estimated based on the Fick's first
126 law according to:

$$127 \quad F = -D_s \frac{dC}{dz} \quad (3)$$

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

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

$$134 \quad D_s = D_a (\theta_s - \theta) \sqrt{\frac{T_s + 273.15}{298.15}} \quad (4)$$

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

$$138 \quad D_a = D_{a0} \left(\frac{T + 273.15}{293.15} \right)^{1.75} \left(\frac{P}{101.3} \right) \quad (5)$$

139 where D_{a0} is a reference value of trace gas diffusion coefficient at 293.15 K and 101.3
140 kPa, given as 1.24×10^{-5} m² s⁻¹ for COS (Seibt et al., 2010) and 1.47×10^{-5} m² s⁻¹
141 for CO₂ (Jones, 1992); T is temperature (°C), and P is air pressure (kPa).

142

143 **3. Results**

144 **3.1 Variations in soil COS flux**

145 Soil COS fluxes showed significant heterogeneity at both the spatial (microsites)
146 and temporal (seasonal), as well as interactions between microsite and season (Figure
147 1, Table 1). Overall, the hourly soil COS flux varied from -4.6 to +2.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹,
148 with mean value of -1.10 ± 0.10 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹. On the spatial scale, the COS fluxes
149 showed systematically uptake under trees (UT), moderate uptake and some emissions
150 between trees (BT) and relatively more emission in the exposed area between rows



151 (BR), with diurnal mean values across seasons of -3.00 ± 0.10 , -0.43 ± 0.13 and $0.13 \pm$
152 $0.11 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively.

153 On the diurnal time-scale, soil COS flux were generally higher in the afternoon
154 (peaking around 15:00~16:00 hours), declining at night and early morning (Fig. 1). On
155 the seasonal time scale, soil COS fluxes showed both changes in rates and shifts from
156 net uptake to net emission, with interactions between site and season (Table 1). In the
157 UT sites where only COS uptake was observed, the highest rates were observed in
158 winter and peak summer (December and August) with diurnal mean rates of nearly 4
159 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, and more moderate uptake rates, around $2 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, in spring and early
160 summer (May and July; Fig. 1). In the BT sites, significant COS uptake of $\sim 2.5 \text{ pmol}$
161 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was observed in winter, but net fluxes were near zero in other times, with some
162 afternoon emission in summer. In the exposed BR sites, minor uptake (less than 1 pmol
163 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) was observed in spring and early summer, but consistent emission in peak
164 summer, with diurnal mean values of nearly $2 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

165

166 3.2 Effects of moisture and temperature

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

178 The response of soil COS fluxes to soil temperature varied among the three
179 measurement sites (Fig. 3). The BT and BR sites showed a near linear response with a
180 shift from uptake to emission around 25°C . In the shaded and moist UT site, COS uptake



181 was always significant ranging between -4 to -1 $\text{pmol m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ with relatively low
182 temperature sensitivity, and with lowest mean uptake rates around 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

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

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

$$191 \quad F_{\text{COS}} = 8.91 \exp(0.01T_s - 0.01\theta + 0.09d - 0.33) - 8.86, \quad R^2 = 0.75 \quad (6)$$

192

193 3.3 COS flux estimates from soil concentration gradients

194 The average soil concentration gradient of COS and CO_2 for the four campaigns
195 is shown in Fig. 4. COS concentrations decreased with soil depth, with the opposite
196 trend for CO_2 , consistent with the results reported above of soil surface COS uptake
197 and CO_2 emission at our orchard site. COS concentrations at depth of 2.5 cm was on
198 average 314 ppt, and about one-third lower than the mean surface, ambient, value of
199 460 ppt. The lowest COS concentration at depth of 20 cm (166 ppt) was almost one-
200 third of that at the soil surface. An exponential and a linear equations provided
201 reasonable fit to the changes in soil COS and CO_2 concentrations, respectively, as a
202 function of depth (z_{soil}):

$$203 \quad \begin{aligned} [\text{COS}] &= 283.5 \exp(-0.2z_{\text{soil}}) + 169.9, \quad R^2 = 0.99 \\ [\text{CO}_2] &= 122.2z_{\text{soil}} + 558.5, \quad R^2 = 0.99 \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

204 In terms of individual site and campaign, all profiles except for BR in summer
205 (June) showed the general trend of decreasing $[\text{COS}]$ and increasing $[\text{CO}_2]$ with depth,
206 with the steepest gradient at the top 5 cm (Fig. 4). In the BR microsite in summer, CO_2
207 profile was shallow, consistent with the low respiration (see July BR in Table 1). But a
208 decrease in COS concentration toward the surface, with surface value lower than the



209 next two soil depth points (Fig. 5J), was consistent with COS emission at that time (July
210 BR in Table 1).

211 As noted above, the profile data generally exhibited the steepest gradient at the top
212 few cm of the soil, indicating that the dominating COS sink (and likely also the CO₂
213 source) was located at shallow depth. We therefore used the gas concentration
214 difference at two shallowest depths ($z_1 = 0$ and $z_2 = 2.5$ cm) to provide an approximation
215 of the fluxes to and from the soil, to constrain the more extensive chamber
216 measurements. The COS diffusion coefficient, D_s , was estimated for each campaigns
217 (see Methods), indicating low D_s value in the UT site in June and July ($D_s = 2.55$ mm²
218 s⁻¹), associated with the drip irrigation and the high soil water content, and high values
219 in the dryer soils ($D_s = 5.57$ mm² s⁻¹), with an average COS diffusion coefficient of 4.40
220 ± 0.29 mm² s⁻¹. The soil COS flux estimates using the gradient method is reported in
221 Table 2. COS flux varied between -2.10 to $+1.55$ pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ with a mean value of $-$
222 1.0 ± 0.26 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ during the measurement periods, consistent with the mean value
223 of -1.10 ± 0.10 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ reported above for the chamber measurements. Also in
224 agreement with the chamber measurements, fluxes at UT and BT always showed COS
225 uptake, with generally higher values in spring (March) than in summer (May-June),
226 while the BR data indicated change from uptake in spring (March-April, with -1.3 to
227 -1.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹) to emission in June ($+1.6$ pmol m⁻² s⁻¹).

228

229 **3.4 Soil relative uptake**

230 Soil was always a source of CO₂ due respiration (combined autotrophic and
231 heterotrophic respiration). Soil CO₂ flux rates varied both spatially and temporally in
232 similar patterns to those of COS, and with overall range of 0.3 to 14.6 mol m⁻² s⁻¹
233 (Table 1). The highest soil respiration values were observed in the UT sites in summer
234 (July, August; Table 1), with intermediate ($1\sim 3$ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) and low values (< 1
235 mol m⁻² s⁻¹) in the BT and BR sites, respectively. Generally, soil COS exchange
236 varied from release to increasing uptake with increasing CO₂ production in a non-linear
237 way (Fig. 6a). The normalized ratio of COS to CO₂ fluxes (SRU; Eq. 2) varied from $-$
238 1.92 to $+1.85$ with an average value of -0.37 ± 0.31 , with negative values indicating



239 COS uptake linked to CO₂ emission. SRU values showed response to both soil
240 temperature (Fig. 6b) and soil moisture (Fig. 6c), although with relatively low R² values.
241 Respiration increased with temperature while COS uptake declined and at temperature
242 above about 25 °C SRU turned positive when both COS and CO₂ are emitted from the
243 soil. SRU exhibited inverse relationships with soil moisture, with positive values in dry
244 soil and increasingly negative values with increasing soil moisture (Fig. 6c). Based on
245 its combined temperature (*T_s*) and moisture (*θ*) response, SRU could be forecasted by
246 the following algorithm, which explained 67% of the observed variations (Eq. 8):

$$247 \quad SRU = 0.01 \exp(0.17T_s) - 0.02\theta - 1.00, R^2 = 0.67 \quad (8)$$

248 ANOVA analysis results indicated that SRU was not significantly different among
249 the three observation microsites (BR, BT, and UT; *P* > 0.05). Between the seasonal
250 campaigns, however, SRU values peaked in summer (0.53 ± 0.66) with highest
251 averaged soil temperature (29 °C) and was significantly higher than winter SRU (-1.44
252 ± 0.59) when soil temperature was lowest (11 °C; *P* < 0.05), and with no significant
253 difference in SRU among the other campaigns (*P* > 0.05).

254

255 4. Discussions

256 4.1 Heterogeneity in soil COS exchange

257 The observed soil-atmosphere COS exchange rates observed in this study (both
258 mean and range; Fig. 1, Table 1) are consistent with values reported in a range of other
259 ecosystems (-1.4 to -4.9 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹; Steinbacher et al., 2004; Kitz et al., 2017; White
260 et al., 2010; Berkelhammer et al., 2014), but lower than -11.0 to -11.8 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in a
261 riparian and subtropical forests (Berkelhammer et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2007). Soil COS
262 emissions were also observed in summer and spring campaigns, with maximal COS
263 emission consistent with the values of +1.8 to +2.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ observed in a riparian
264 and alpine forests (Berkelhammer et al., 2014), but significantly lower than reported in
265 the senescing agricultural ecosystem (~30 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹; Maseyk et al., 2014).

266 The observed range in the soil-atmosphere exchange fluxes reflected significant
267 heterogeneity on both the spatial and the temporal scales. The spatial scale



268 heterogeneity clearly reflected the contrasting microsite conditions with lower
269 temperatures and higher moisture under the trees (UT sites), compared to the higher
270 temperatures and lower moisture in exposed soil between rows (BR sites), with
271 intermediate, partially shaded, conditions between trees (BT sites). Indeed, a large
272 fraction of the variations in the COS flux (~75%) could be explained by a simple
273 algorithm as a function of these two variables, temperature and moisture. Note that
274 while temperature and θ co-varied in general, with high temperatures associated with
275 drier soil, under the wet UT conditions, sensitivity to temperature was significantly
276 reduced. In the dry soil conditions, emission was associated with high temperature, and
277 in the BR sites also with high solar radiation. However, all measurements we made in
278 dark chamber and could not involve photochemical production (Kitz et al., 2017).
279 Apparently even under dark conditions, high temperature can induced high emission
280 rates, as also noted when the thermal insolation on the soil chamber in the BR site was
281 incidentally removed and a large spike in temperature (52 °C) and emission of 11.4
282 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ was observed.

283 Temporal variations were observed both on the daily and seasonal time scales.
284 Diurnal changes were, however, minor compared to the changes from winter to summer
285 in all microsites. Shifts from uptake to emission were observed essentially only on the
286 seasonal time scale (Fig. 1). This likely reflected the dominance of soil moisture on the
287 COS flux rates. This is because θ did not change significantly on the daily scale, while
288 it changed significantly on across seasons (between 10.0 and 35.5% overall).
289 Temperatures did change over the daily cycle (e.g. 26.0 to 42.4 °C in the BR site during
290 summer), although such changes are still smaller compared with the seasonal changes
291 in soil temperature (e.g. 10.5 to 31.8 °C in the BR site). A dominant role of soil moisture
292 in explaining the variations in COS uptake is consistent with the results of Van Diest
293 and Kesselmeier (2008), but not with the negligible θ effects in grassland under
294 simulated drought (Kitz et al., 2017). Soil moisture can influence soil COS exchanges
295 by influencing CA enzymatic activity (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Seibt et al., 2006),
296 changing soil gas diffusion rates (Ogée et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015), and vegetation
297 root distribution and the effects of CA activity within plant roots (Seibt et al.,



298 2006;Viktor and Cramer, 2005;Whelan and Rhew, 2015). In this study, most of the roots
299 were distributed around the restricted trees' drip irrigation zone at UT sites, and was
300 sparse in the dryer areas, such as BR and BT sites (un-quantified observations).

301 At least part of the variations in soil COS fluxes could also reflect the differential
302 effects of environmental conditions on COS uptake and production process (Ogée et al.,
303 2016). COS uptake is thought to be related to carbonic anhydrase activity in soil
304 microorganisms (Piazzetta et al., 2015), such as Bacteria (Kamezaki et al., 2016;Kato
305 et al., 2008), or fungi (Bunk et al., 2017;Li et al., 2010;Masaki et al., 2016). Solubility
306 in soil water (with COS solubility of 0.8 ml ml^{-1} ; Svoronos and Bruno, 2002) could also
307 be significant, especially in the UT microsites, influenced by the drip irrigation from
308 May to September that could involve water percolation to deeper soil layers. The drivers
309 of soil COS production are still unclear. COS could be produced by chemical processes
310 in the lab (Ferm, 1957), but can also be produced by biotic process in soils such as by
311 hydrolysis of metallic thiocyanates (Katayama et al., 1992) with thiocyanate hydrolase
312 (Conrad, 1996;Svoronos and Bruno, 2002) and hydrolysis of CS_2 (Cox et al.,
313 2013;Smith and Kelly, 1988). Fungi are also reported to be the source of COS (Masaki
314 et al., 2016). Additionally, abiotic thermal degradation of organic matter leading to COS
315 production maybe supported by the temperature sensitivity of COS emission in the BR
316 microsite where biotic processes can be expected to be minimized. Similar high
317 temperature-dependent soil COS emissions were reported in midlatitude forest
318 (Commene et al., 2015) and agricultural field (Maseyk et al., 2014). Lab incubation
319 results also indicated soil thermo production of COS with increasing temperature (Liu
320 et al., 2010;Whelan et al., 2016;Whelan and Rhew, 2015). Photochemical production
321 of soil COS was also proposed (Sun et al., 2015;Whelan and Rhew, 2015), and assumed
322 to be driven by ultraviolet fraction of incoming solar radiation (Kitz et al., 2017). Note,
323 however, that all measurements in the present study were made in the dark. In addition,
324 the chemical reaction of CO and MgSO_4 under heating could also produce COS (Ferm,
325 1957). Note that MgSO_4 has been reported in our study soil (Singer, 2007), and we
326 observed relatively high CO concentration in our field site.

327



328 4.2 Soil relative uptake

329 For COS application as a tracer of ecosystem CO₂ exchange quantifying the
330 relationships between COS and CO₂ fluxes is important. This is done by assessing the
331 'relative uptake' (RU) of the COS/CO₂ flux rate ratio, normalized by the ambient
332 atmospheric concentrations (that differ for the two gases by a factor of about 10⁶), as
333 done at the leaf, (LRU) or ecosystem (ERU; e.g, Asaf et al., 2013). It was similarly
334 applied to soil as SRU (Eq. 2; Berkelhammer et al., 2014). We use SRU values also to
335 assess the relative importance of the soil COS flux compared with the canopy.

336 On average, the absolute value of SRU at our site was smaller than reported for
337 riparian or pine forests (0.37 vs 0.76 and 1.08; Berkelhammer et al., 2014). This may
338 reflect the contribution of COS emissions at BR and BT in summer, that were not
339 observed in the forest study. Overall, the mean SRU values observed here indicated that
340 the soil COS uptake flux was proportionally less than 40% of the soil respiration flux.
341 In contrast with the canopy fluxes where the COS uptake flux is, proportionally, nearly
342 twice as large as the CO₂ assimilation flux (LRU~1.7; see review of Whelan et al.,
343 2018). In contrast to leaves with robust LRU value that tend toward a constant, SRU at
344 our site varied between -1.92 and +1.85. However, this range was observed only in the
345 dryer and exposed BR sites, while in the shaded and moist UT sites, it was much
346 narrower, -0.13 to -0.79. Furthermore, it seems that the high SRU values (both positive
347 and negative) represented conditions where the actual fluxes were small (COS uptake
348 was on average -3.0 in the UT but only 0.1 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in the BR sites. It seems that
349 the large SRU values in the BR microsites, were also associated with low soil
350 respiration, 0.5 mol m⁻² s⁻¹ in BR sites, compared to 10 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in the UT sites.
351 It is therefore possible that the low SRU values are the more significant for ecosystem
352 scale studies and indicate a much smaller contribution to overall ecosystem fluxes than
353 that of the canopy (SRU~0.4 vs LRU~1.7).

354 Differential effects of changing environmental conditions on production and
355 uptake processes were reflected in relatively large spatial and temporal heterogeneity
356 observed in the soil COS exchange at our site. However, the contrasting effects of
357 production and emission may explain both the sharp increase in SRU values at high



358 temperatures as the effects of production counteract uptake (Fig. 6b), and the much
359 lower sensitivity to temperature of COS flux compared to that of CO₂ (Fig. 6a). Such
360 contrasting consumption/production effects may, in fact, reduce the magnitude of the
361 net flux of soil COS, and may explain the relatively narrow range of SRU values.

362

363 4.3 Soil COS profiles

364 Complementing our chamber measurements with soil profile measurements of
365 COS and CO₂ concentrations provided constrain on the relatively new surface soil COS
366 measurements and provided additional information on the possible location of the
367 source/sink in the soil. Using the near surface gradient yielded flux estimates
368 comparable to chamber measurements, providing a useful and rare quantitative
369 validation. For example, in May, the chamber and profile measurements were made at
370 about the same time (5th~9th May for chamber and 10th May for profile) and the
371 differences between chamber (all microsites) and gradient flux estimates, was
372 negligible (~0.2-0.6 pmol m⁻² s⁻¹). However, the profile results indicated in addition that
373 the sink/source activities concentrated at top soil layers, probably at around 5 cm depth,
374 as reflected in the minimum or maximum in gas concentrations (indicating also the need
375 for high vertical resolution in employing the profile approach). The variable profiles
376 observed below these points must reflect temporal dynamics in the sink/source
377 activities across the profile. The near surface peak activity makes it particularly
378 sensitive to variations in temperature and moisture, as indeed observed (Figs. 2, 3). Low
379 COS concentration in the lower parts of the profile may result from continuous removal
380 of soil COS and may indicate distribution of CA activity beyond the litter layer and the
381 soil surface (Seibt et al., 2006). COS production, however, seems to occur only near the
382 soil surface with no indication for production in deeper layer, consistent with its high
383 temperature sensitivity, and possibly also radiation (e.g. Kitz et al., 2017).

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



388 and their locations.

389

390 **5. Conclusions**

391 Our detail analysis of the spatial and temporal variations in soil-atmosphere
392 exchange of COS provided new information on a key uncertainty in the application of
393 ecosystem COS flux to assess productivity. Furthermore, we provide constraint, and
394 validation of the close chamber measurements that are generally in use, by the
395 additional gradient approach. Our results show that both microsites and seasonal
396 variations in COS fluxes were related to soil moisture, temperature, and the distance
397 from the tree (likely reflecting root distribution), but we suggest that soil moisture is
398 the predominant environmental control over soil COS exchanges at our site. A simple
399 algorithm was sufficient to forecast most of the variations in soil COS flux supporting
400 its incorporated into ecosystem scale applications, as we recently demonstrated in a
401 parallel study at the same site (Yang et al., 2018).

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

406

407 **Author contributions:**

408 DY designed the study; FY, RQ, FT, RS and DY performed the experiments. FY
409 and FT analysed the data. DY and FY wrote the paper with discussions and
410 contributions to interpretations of the results from all co-authors.

411

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561 **Figure captions:**

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

565 **Figure 2.** Relationship of soil COS flux with soil moisture. Soil fluxes and moisture
566 data point represent the diurnal average (N=24) of each microsite and season (i.e. each
567 measurement campaign). Error bars represent \pm 1 S.E. around the mean; errors for flux
568 are about the size of the symbols.

569 **Figure 3.** Soil COS fluxes response to soil temperature linearly. Soil fluxes and
570 moisture data represent the diurnal average (N=24) of each site and season (campaign), moisture data
571 represent one sampling per day. Error bars represent \pm 1 S.E. around the mean. The
572 marked (black) data point were collected during irrigation campaign (enhanced uptake)
573 and were excluded from the regression.

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

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

580 **Figure 6.** The relationships between soil COS and CO₂ flux rates (chamber
581 measurements; a). The response of soil relative uptake (SRU; normalized ratio of COS
582 to CO₂ fluxes) to soil temperature (b) and to soil water content (c). The data points
583 represent the diurnal average (N=24) of each site and season (measurement campaign).
584 Error bars represent \pm 1 S.E. around the mean (often the size of the symbol).



585 **Table 1.** Mean values of soil COS and CO₂ flux rates across sites (BR, between rows;
 586 BT, between trees; UT, under tree), and seasons, together with the normalized ratio of
 587 COS/CO₂ fluxes (SRU), and the mean soil temperature at 5 cm depth (*T_s*) and soil water
 588 content (% by wt; *θ*).

Campaigns	Sites	COS flux (pmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	CO ₂ flux (μmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	SRU	<i>T_s</i> (°C)	<i>θ</i> (%)
August, 2015	BR	1.83±0.08	0.77±0.04	1.85	31.66±1.01	9.98±0.28
	BT	0.06±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±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±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

589



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

Campaigns	Sites	COS flux ($\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	CO ₂ flux ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	CO ₂ diffusion coefficient ($\text{mm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$)	COS diffusion coefficient ($\text{mm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$)	T_s (°C)	θ (%)
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

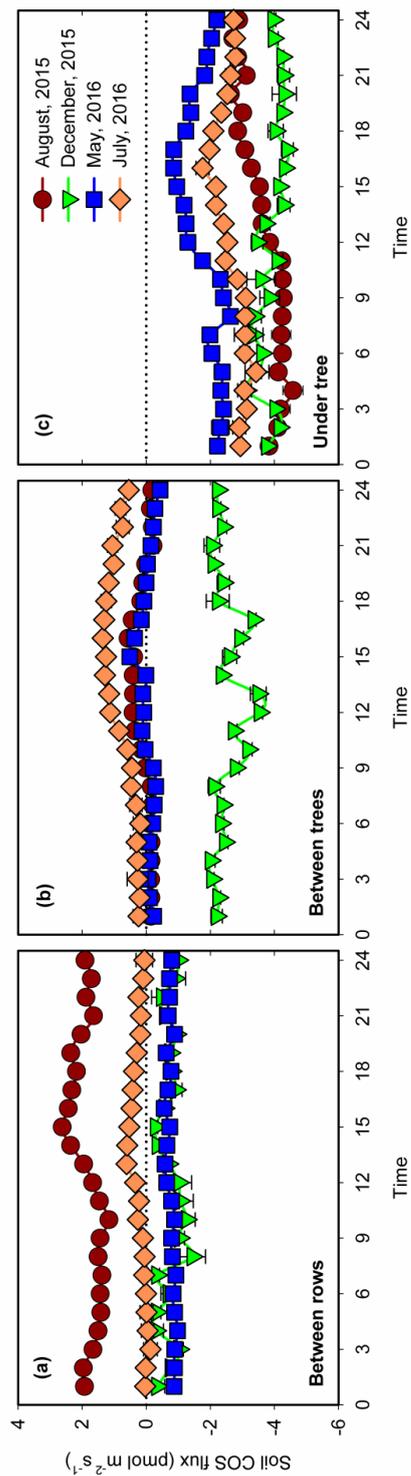


Figure 1



Figure 2

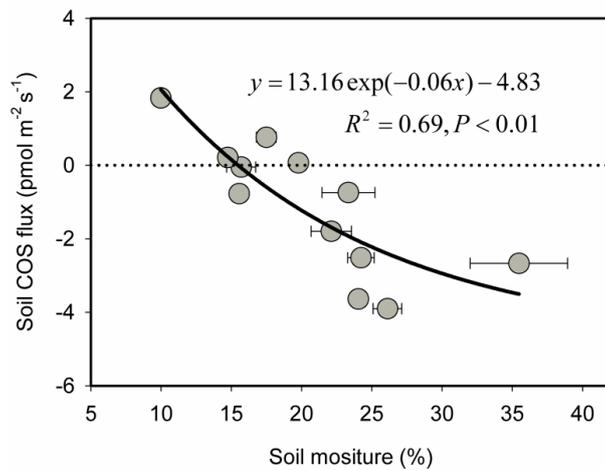




Figure 3

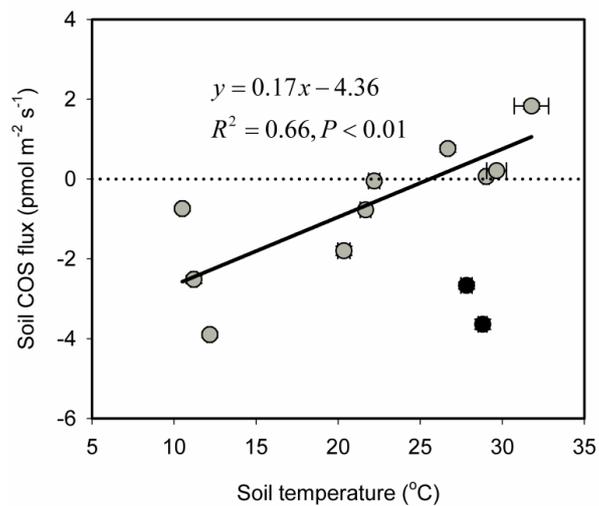




Figure 4

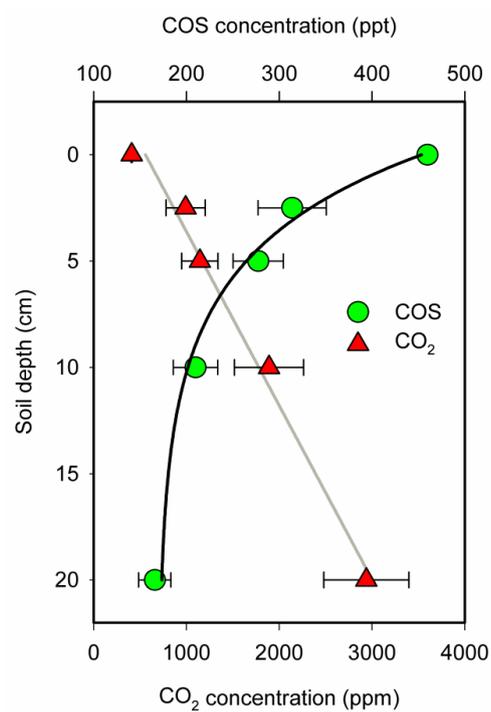




Figure 5

