1	Soil respiration: implications of the plant-soil continuum and respiration
2	chamber collar-insertion depth on measurement and modelling of soil CO_2
3	efflux rates in three ecosystems
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23	Running head: Measuring CO_2 fluxes from soils
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28 Key uncertainties remain in accurately measuring soil respiration, including how the 29 commonly-used technique of collar insertion affects measured soil and root-derived CO₂ 30 fluxes. We hypothesized that total soil respiration is frequently under-estimated because soil 31 collar insertions sever surface roots, which coupled to the preferential practice of taking daytime measurements, lead to the autotrophic (root-derived) component frequently being 32 33 missed. We measured root distribution and soil CO₂ efflux in three contrasting ecosystems: a 34 Lodgepole pine (Pinus contorta) plantation, an upland heather-dominated peatland and a lowland sheep-grazed grassland, where we combined shallow surface collars with collars at 35 36 different soil insertion depths for occasional and continuous hourly flux measurements. Collar insertion by only a few centimetres reduced total soil CO₂ efflux in all three ecosystems by an 37 average of 15% but at times up to 30 to 50%, and was directly proportional to the quantity of 38 cut fine roots. Most reduction occurred in the shallow-rooted peatland system and least in the 39 deep-rooted grassland. In the forest and grassland, soil temperatures explained most of the 40 41 deep collar (i.e. largely heterotrophic) variation and did not relate to the root-derived (i.e. 42 largely autotrophic) flux component, whilst the opposite was true for the peatland site. For the 43 forest, the autotrophic flux component peaked at night during moist periods and was droughtlimited. Mean flux estimates differed between sampling time and insertion depth. Our results 44 45 suggest strongly that accurate measurement and modelling of soil respiration explicitly needs 46 to consider collar insertion, the root-derived flux component, with its own temperature 47 sensitivity and potential time-lag effects.

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52 Soil carbon (C) is the largest terrestrial organic C stock (Jiang *et al.*, 2005), representing about 53 two-thirds of terrestrial C (Schimel et al., 1994), of which annually about 75 Pg are lost 54 through soil respiration (Schlesinger & Andrews, 2000). Over time, even small changes in soil CO₂ efflux (soil respiration) will potentially have profound feedback implications on 55 56 rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Schlesinger & Andrews, 2000) and global 57 temperatures (Kirschbaum, 2006). Given that total soil respiration is such a large flux in the global C cycle, it is clearly important to provide as accurate an estimate of this flux as 58 possible. However, soil respiration is a complex flux (Qi et al., 2002), combining root-derived 59 (autotrophic) and decomposition (heterotrophic) Ć fluxes within a plant-soil continuum 60 (Högberg & Read, 2006), and methodologies of how best to measure soil CO₂ efflux are still 61 under debate and development (Pumpanen et al., 2004, Jiang et al., 2005; Kuzyakov, 2006). 62 In the recent literature there has been a major emphasis on improving process 63 understanding and modelling of soil respiration and its flux components (Hanson et al., 2000; 64 65 Reichstein et al., 2003; Kazyakov, 2006; Bahn et al., 2008). A major focus has been to separate autotrophic and heterotrophic fluxes in the field and to assess their different 66 environmental responses (Heinemeyer et al., 2007; Moyano et al., 2007). A large amount of 67 root, mycorrhizal and microbial activity can be found in the top few centimetres of the soil 68 profile as this is generally the most organic-rich and biologically active layer: litter and 69 70 organic layers are the main site of nutrient recycling (Kutsch et al., 2001). However, a 71 common perception for soil chamber measurements is the need to install soil collars several 72 centimetres into the soil to avoid any CO₂ leakage out of the chamber (Hutchinson & 73 Livingston, 2001); in peatlands insertion depths up to 30 cm are very common. This practice 74 became established mainly because previous techniques had relied on a relatively large CO_2

75 increase with possible pump and vent related pressure differences increasing the need for a 76 good seal. Interestingly, deep collar insertion has become such a common practice as not to be 77 specifically reported in many recent soil respiration studies, including cut litter and organic 78 layer depths (see Supplementary Table 1). Only a few studies provide detailed information 79 such as Wang et al. (2006), viz: "collars were inserted 5 cm from the ground surface into the 80 soil (including an approximate 1-cm litter layer)". Consequently, a large and unknown proportion of the autotrophic substrate supply to soil respiration is frequently being missed 81 82 when inserting collars. Only a few studies addressed this issue systematically in forest as well 83 as peatland soils (Wang et al., 2005a; Silvola et al., 1996). Although the findings of these authors show clear correlations between insertion depth, the amount of cut roots and lost soil 84 85 CO₂ fluxes, these studies suffer from no pre-treatment monitoring and lacked high frequency 86 (hourly) measurements. Further, the Wang et al. (2005a) forest study is based on only a single measurement time and the Silvola et al. (1996) peatland study lacked progressive insertion 87 88 depth and root data.

89 There is a clear mandate for improved soil respiration monitoring so as to understand the global C budget (Lal, 2003) and if soil CO₂ efflux is not measured accurately, process 90 representation in models using gas exchange measurements to predict the long-term dynamics 91 of soil C pools will remain in error (Falge et al., 2001). For example, soil respiration 92 93 temperature responses based on a predominantly heterotrophic flux component will be 94 different from those which include the potentially less temperature-sensitive root-derived flux 95 components (Heinemeyer et al., 2007). As Davidson & Janssens (2006) note, "extrapolation 96 of decomposition rates into a future warmer world based on observations of current apparent 97 temperature sensitivities is inadequate".

99 An assessment of the published literature for forests illustrates the general importance 100 of considering collar insertion in the context of soil respiration measurements (Supplementary 101 Table 1). The mean collar-insertion depth (where available also considering litter and organic 102 layers) from those studies which provide this information for coniferous, mixed and 103 deciduous forests was 3.5, 5.8 and 4.4 cm (mean, approximately = 4.6 cm), respectively. 104 Results of a similar search for tundra/shrubland, northern peatland as well as tropical peatland studies show a mean collar-insertion depth of 7.0, approximately 16.3 and 6.0 cm (mean = 105 106 approxiametly 9.8 cm), respectively (supplementary Table 2). Those few grassland studies 107 provided in Subke et al. (2006; Supplementary Table 3) show a mean insertion depth of 108 approxiamately 2.7 cm (n = 9). However, whereas some studies clearly state which layers 109 were cut by collar insertion (Buchmann, 2000), others do not (e.g. Kutsch et al., 2001) and it 110 is usually not clear whether litter and surface organic layers were included in the statement 'collars were inserted into the soil' where large amounts of fine roots are commonly found 111 (e.g. Widén & Majdi, 2001). Moreover, in more humid regions collars are often inserted 112 through a deep moss layer (often containing a dense root mat), but this is often inadequately 113 114 addressed and reflected in collar-depth statement such as 'inserted into the soil' (Drewitt et al., 2002). Data for key literature taken from the global soil respiration database (Raich & 115 Schlesinger, 1992 (Supplementary Table 4) spans literature from 1964 to 1989, but provides 116 117 little information on collar-insertion depth (overall mean of approximately 8.1 cm). However, 118 this global estimate of annual CO₂ soil flux, which is mostly based on old methodologies, 119 known to under-estimate fluxes (alkaline absorption; see Janssens & Ceulemans, 1998), has 120 been cited more than 800 times so far.

121 We performed a series of field experiments applying different depth of collar insertion 122 (a form of trenching allowing an indirect estimation of heterotrophic (R_h) compared with 123 autotrophic (R_a) respiration fluxes) and related monitored fluxes to root distribution data and 124 basic site environmental information. Further, long-term infrequent manual measurements 125 were supplemented by short periods of hourly automated flux measurements. The aims of this 126 study were to assess i) the effect of collar-depth insertion on total soil CO_2 efflux, ii) the 127 relationship between flux changes and the amount of cut root, iii) the specific collar insertion 128 implications on the estimated autotrophic component and iv) the effect of measurement 129 frequency and time period on mean flux calculations. All aims were addressed in three contrasting ecosystems, a sandy soil under a Lodgepole pine plantation, an upland heather-130 131 dominated peatland site and lowland sheep-grazed grassland. 132

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134 Materials and methods

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136 Site description

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Forest site. This was located within Wheldrake Forest, approximately 5 miles south of York, UK ($53^{\circ}54'34''$ N; $0^{\circ}59'48'$ W, UK Grid Ref SE660463, about 20 m above sea level). The site is a approximately thectare 15-year old Lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta* Douglas ex Loudon) plantation (with scattered silver birch, *Betula pendula* Roth.) without understorey vegetation. The soil type is a well-draining fine sandy Gley Podzol (FAO, 2006) with a superficial organic layer (approximately 3-cm deep O_a mor type humus under a 2-cm litter layer) overlaying a 3 cm deep A_h horizon with a pH (in H₂O) of around 3.5.

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Peatland site. This was located at Moor House National Nature Reserve (Bog End) in the
Northern Pennines, UK (54°65'N, 2°45'W; UK Grid Ref NY522768, about 564 m above sea
level.). The site is a Histosol (FAO, 2006; commonly known as peat, > 150 cm) supporting

149	vegetation mainly of Calluna vulgaris L. (Hull) and Eriophorum vaginatum (Honck.) with
150	some Sphagnum ssp. dominated moss patches, classified as Calluna vulgaris-Eriophorum
151	blanket mire, with a pH (in H_2O) of around 4.3 and a high mean annual water table
152	(approximately 5 cm).

- Grassland site. This was located near York (Moor Monkton) on Red House Estate in North
 Yorkshire, UK (54°00'N, 1°11'W; UK Grid Ref SE536563, about 15 m above sea level.).
 The site is a permanent grassland (< 20 cm tall) site with sheep grazing, the dominant grasses
 are *Holcus lanatus* L. and *Lolium perenne* L. with some *Ranunculus repens* L. The soil type is
- a well-draining fine loamy alluvial Gleysol (FAO, 2006) with a pH (in H_2O) of around 6.5
- and approximately 40-cm deep anthropedogenic (hortic) A horizon.
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161 Environmental data

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163 The long-term (1961 – 1990) mean annual precipitation for the forest and grassland sites was 164 627 mm, with a mean annual air temperature (MAT) of approximately 9.0° C whilst the 165 peatland site received considerably more rainfall (approximately 2000 mm) and had a much 166 lower MAT of 60° C (UKCIP98 data from Hulme & Jenkins, 1998).

Mean hourly values were logged (DL2e) for soil temperature (ST4; averaged 10 minute readings, n = 3) in the litter layer, at 5 and 10 cm and soil moisture over the top 6 cm in the mineral soil (ThetaProbe ML2x; n = 1; rotated monthly within the plot), photosynthetically active radiation (QS1; PAR; averaged 10 minute readings, n = 3), wind speed and rainfall (RG1; not for grassland) were monitored at each site (all Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK). Occasionally, soil moisture over the top 6-cm mineral soil layer was also measured inside and outside the individual soil collar areas. Air temperature and relative 174 humidity inside each soil chamber were also recorded during each respiration measurement

175 with the in-built soil chamber sensors (see below).

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177 Experimental design

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During April to June and September 2006 and May 2008 an experimental plot was established within each of the forest, peatland and grassland sites, each consisted of a fully balanced randomized block design with four replicates per collar depth treatment.

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183 *Collar depth*

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185 Within each of four blocks a surface collar (not inserted into the soil; 10 cm diameter PVC collars for the forest and grassland and 20 cm diameter for the peatland site; Plumb Centre, 186 Wolseley UK, Ripon, UK) and three (grassland: four) insertion depth collars were put in place 187 188 (pushed into the soil after careful pre-cutting with a knife to a target depth) on 10 June, 09 189 October 2006 and 17 May 2008, for the forest, peatland and grassland sites, respectively. Insertion depths were 5.0, 1210 and 17.0 cm (forest); 5.0, 10.0 and 20.0 cm (peatland); 2.5, 190 5.0, 10.0 and 200 cm (grassland). Within the forest, short-term measurements were taken 191 192 with the survey chamber (see below) on three consecutive days from 07 June 2006 (with 193 surface collars at all locations to obtain pre-treatment fluxes) and thereafter on five more 194 occasions on the four blocks at all depth treatments until 15 May 2007. Within the peatland, 195 short-term (pre-treatment) measurements were also taken two times before collar insertion on 196 08 and 19 September 2006 and on three later occasions (29 November, 04 December 2006 197 and 27 July 2008). Within the grassland site, manual survey measurements were taken three 198 times before collar insertion on 14, 15 and 16 May 2008 (initial clipping on 14 May) and

thereafter on eight further occasions until 10 September 2008. Collar depth treatments were assigned to each of four blocks on the basis of ranked mean pre-treatment fluxes of the individual collar locations: thus similarly small or large flux areas were allocated a full set of treatments across blocks).

203 Deep collar-depth treatments are a form of trenching (see Subke *et al.*, 2006) and thus 204 allow an approximate estimate of the autotrophic (R_a) and heterotrophic (R_b) flux components (however, over time decomposing roots might cause additional respiration and deeper roots 205 206 than insertion were not cut, although root biomass was shown to decline exponentially with depth at all three sites it might re-grow over time), where R_a is assumed to be equal to the 207 208 difference between surface (0 cm) and deepest (17 or 20 cm) collar treatment fluxes and R_h the difference between surface flux and Ra (notably this ignores any possible root 209 210 decomposition effects and R_a from deeper soil layers).

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212 Soil CO₂ efflux measurements

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We used a closed dynamic soil CO₂ flux system (LI-COR 8100, model: 8100-101 (8100-104 214 for the grassland site), LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) for measuring soil CO₂ efflux rates 215 (μ mol CO₂ m⁻² \neq in the field. The system was either used attached to a survey chamber (10 216 cm diameter, volume 0.84 litre) or to long-term chambers (20 cm diameter, volume 4.07 litre). 217 218 In the latter gase up to 16 chambers were linked to the LI-COR gas analyser unit via a 219 custom-built multiplexed gas handler unit (Electronics Workshop, Biology Department, 220 University of York, UK; for the grassland site a LI-COR multiplexer was used), allowing 221 hourly measurement cycles within a 15-m radius. In both cases, corresponding PVC collars 222 were placed permanently onto or inserted into the soil (shallow surface collars were only 223 pressed down on the shoot-free litter-soil layer with stainless steel fixing hooks (35-cm long 224 and 2.5 mm diameter welding rods) pressed at an approximately 5° angle 30 cm into the soil). 225 In the forest the undecomposed litter layer (O_i) was first removed (no roots present) from all 226 collar positions, and after mixing a sub sample of 15 g fresh weight (FW) litter was returned 227 onto the collar areas. The peatland site simply required pushing the vegetation to the side and 228 placing the collars onto exposed soil (peat)-root mat using the same fixing hooks as described 229 above. The grassland site required initial (14 May 2008) and subsequent monthly clipping of the vegetation and a commercial weed suppressing membrane (water permeable) was placed 230 over the exposed soil area. The experimental area was protected by a 6 x 4 metre fence to 231 232 exclude sheep. Any CO₂ diffusion leakage from the surface collars was negligible as the CO₂ 233 increase inside the chamber was limited to less than 35 ppm by adjusting the chamber closure 234 period and, in case of larger increases, the flux calculation time (using the LI-COR software) 235 adjusted to within the first 1 to 2 minutes after closure. Although there were no air gaps 236 directly beneath the collars, the peatland had many are gaps within the deeper root-peat layers. Soil respiration flux rates were computed using the LI-8100 file viewer application software, 237 calculated as a linear CO₂ increase using the 1 s readings and a closure time of around 1 - 2238 239 minutes per hour, discarding an initial approximate 15 s mixing period after closure; 240 circulating air flow rate was set at approxiamately 1.5 litre minute⁻¹.

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- 242 Diurnal cycling
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We tested the effect of sampling time on measured fluxes per depth treatment with a manual survey chamber (10 cm diameter). However, for the forest and grassland sites a continuous (20 cm diameter) system became available to us unexpectedly, and thus collar adapters were made to fit the 20 cm diameter long-term automatic monitoring chambers by attaching an acetate sheets glued between the 10-cm soil collars and the shallow 20 cm diameter PVC 249 rings. This method allowed continuous sampling of hourly mean fluxes during the period 13 -250 30 June, 05 – 20 October 2006 and 16 June – July 2008 in the forest, peatland and grassland, 251 respectively. However, due to a limitation on the number of automatic chambers at the forest 252 and grassland site, only three blocks were monitored and the deepest (17.0 cm) forest 253 insertion treatment could only be monitored from the 19 June onwards (and could not be 254 monitored in the grassland). Unfortunately, because of power limitations and equipment 255 demands we could not monitor at this hourly frequency (addressing diurnal treatment effects) 256 for long periods at all sites but manual survey sampling extended the measurement period.

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258 Morphological analysis of root system

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Forest site. Six soil samples (10 cm diameter x 17 cm length using a PVC corer with a single length side cut to enable easy extraction of the soil core) were taken on 13 and 15 July 2006 from the field site and returned to the laboratory for immediate root extraction. Soil cores were each divided into four soil segment sections (0.0 - 0.5, 0.5 - 5.0, 5.0 - 12.0 and 12.0 - 17.0 cm) and all living roots tradentified by appearance, flexibility and colour) were separated from the soil matrix by gently washing with deionized water, before determining morphological features and total fresh weight.

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268 *Peatland site.* Because of the large root biomass and the resulting long extraction times only 269 three cores were used, which were taken on 27 November 2006 using a 6 x 6 cm square peat 270 corer at 10-m distance from the flux measurement site with root extraction the following week 271 after storage at 4° C. Roots were extracted for three soil segments (0.0 - 5.0, 5.0 - 10.0 and 272 10.0 - 20.0 cm) by gently washing with deionized water and picking out live roots, as 273 described above. For the two top soil segments a large amount of very fine roots was left at the bottom of the separating tray and one of 12 randomly selected dividing squares of the bottom tray area was picked out for morphological analysis. Measured root data were subsequently scaled up to the entire tray area and, hence, soil sample.

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278 Grassland site. Four soil cores each (2 cm diameter and 20-cm length) were taken on 29 July 279 2008 at 1 m distance from the treatment area, cut into four soil segment sections (0.0 - 2.5), 2.5 - 5.0, 5.0 - 10.0 and 10.0 - 20.0 cm) and separated following the above procedure. For 280 281 morphological analysis, total root length (RL, cm), average diameter and length per diameter class (0.0 - 0.1, 0.1 - 0.2, 0.2 - 0.5, 0.5 - 1.0, 1.0 - 2.0, 2.0 - 5.0, 5.0 + 10.0, 10.0 - 50.0 and > 0.0 - 50.0 and > 0.0282 283 50.0 mm) per core segment (including the sub-sample) was measured from high resolution (> 284 600 dpi) scanned images using a WinRhizo® scanner and software package (Régent 285 Instruments, Quebec, Canada). Root dry weight (DW) was recorded after oven drying for three days at 65° C until a constant weight. To avoid disturbance of the soil respiration area 286 for estimating the cut root length, we sampled foot cores separately away from (but in the 287 288 proximity of) the actual respiration collars.

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290 Statistical analysis

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Statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS (Version 15, SPSS Science, Birmingham, UK) with Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene's tests being used to check for normality and homogeneity of variances. All data were normally distributed (sometimes a log transformation was applied) and fulfilled the requirements of an ANOVA. Individual one-way ANOVAs with an LSD *post-hoc* test on collar treatments were carried out for individual survey measurements before continuous-monitoring commenced, in order to determine whether the CO₂ efflux rates at the different collar treatments differed on different 299 measurement dates. However, in cases where a significant block effect preventing a *post-hoc* 300 analysis, we applied an independent sample t-Test between treatment pairs. Repeated-301 measures ANOVAs were used to determine whether the CO₂ efflux rates in the different 302 collar treatments changed over time for the combined post-treatment fluxes. For this test the 303 assumption of sphericity was always violated but the F-ratios and significance values were 304 based on the more conservative Greenhouse-Geisser corrected degrees of freedom. Significant differences in root and time period flux data were based on a one-way ANOVA and two-way 305 306 ANOVA, respectively, with an LSD post-hoc test.

307 During the continuous measurements, repeated-measures ANOVAs on the daily mean 308 CO_2 efflux rates, were used to determine whether there was a significant effect on the rate of respiration for the different collar treatments. For the diurnal cycle investigations, repeated-309 310 measures ANOVAs, with collar treatment as the between-subject factor, were used to determine whether the CO₂ efflux rates changed significantly over the course of a day and 311 whether there were differences between collar treatments. Linear regressions were used to 312 313 investigate the relationship between the diurnal cycles of soil temperature and the CO₂ efflux 314 rates at the different collar treatments, and for the corresponding autotrophic (R_a) and 315 heterotrophic (R_h) flux components.

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Results

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- 320 Collar-depth effects on soil CO₂ efflux
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In all three ecosystems, and in declining order of peatland, forest and grassland, within a few days after collar insertion in the soil, CO₂ efflux declined significantly with increasing collar

324 depth when compared with the control surface collar fluxes (placed on top of the litter/peat 325 layer). These reductions were generally around 15 % but increased to 30 - 50 % during peak 326 soil respiration times (Figures 1-3 and 4a,b,c), and is believed to equal to the 'lost' 327 autotrophic flux (root-derived) component. This reduction, based on the mean values during 328 the entire hourly flux measurement period, was a long-term effect, as shown from the manual 329 surveys (Figures 1 - 3), although manual survey results mostly showed significant differences 330 only between the surface and deepest collar treatments. Further, collar insertion reduced 331 overall absolute flux variability (see Figures. 1, 2, 3 and 4a,b), which was greatest for surface 332 collars, with the exception of the grassland (note: there was no difference in the relative flux 333 variability (STDEV/mean). Notably, in the peatland and grassland, deep collars resulted in considerable water logging within the collars after heavy rain events, creating standing water 334 335 as collars prevented lateral water flow.

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337 Diurnal cycling of soil CO₂ efflux

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Continuous hourly flux monitoring allowed observations of the diurnal cycling of soil CO₂ efflux and the environmental responses of its estimated component fluxes based on the trenching concept. In the forest, surface collars showed clear diurnal cycling with largest surface fluxes during the night (approxiamately 23:00 – 05:00) in contrast to the deeper collar treatments (see Figure 4a and also inset Figure 1a), this was also observed for the grassland (Figure 4c) during three periods of high respiration activity (i.e. 16, 25 and 30 June). However, in the shallow rooted peatland (Figure 4b), surface fluxes peaked during midday.

Overall, hourly flux ranges and amplitude were reduced considerably by collar insertion at all sites (Figures 1 (inset), 4a-c). In the forest and grassland, the soil temperatures at 10 cm and soil surface correlated closely to measured total fluxes, respectively (data not

349 shown). In contrast, for the peatland site soil CO₂ efflux closely followed the daytime peak in 350 soil temperature measured at 2.5-cm depth (Figure 4b). Interestingly, the estimated flux 351 components for the three sites behaved differently in respect to temperature and moisture. In 352 the forest and grassland, the largely estimated autotrophic component (i.e. surface -17 and 353 10-cm deep collar fluxes, respectively, see Figure 4a, n = 264 forest; 4c, n = 236 grassland), was only marginally ($r^2 = 0.05$ forest; $r^2 = 0.03$ grassland) affected by soil temperature (y =354 0.07x - 0.57 forest; y = -0.05x + 3.16 grassland). Hence, the mainly heterotrophic component 355 (17 or 10 cm deep collar fluxes or difference between total and estimated autotrophic flux) 356 explained the positive response of the total flux (y = 0.18x - 0.99 forest; x = 0.18x + 1.22357 grassland) to changes in soil temperature at 10 cm or surface soil depth ($r^2 = 0.28$; 0.48, P < 0.28) 358 359 0.001 for forest and grassland, respectively). Surprisingly, this was different in the peatland 360 (see Figure 4b; n = 186) where the heterotrophic component did not respond to temperature changes (y = 0.02x + 0.26; r² = 0.05), and thus the temperature response of the total flux at 2.5 361 cm soil depth (y = 0.12x - 0.15; r² = 0.35; P < 0.01) could only be explained by a response of 362 the largely autotrophic component. However, in the forest, soil moisture appeared to be an 363 364 important variable in controlling the estimated autotrophic flux component; the forest showed a 'critical threshold', separating small $(0.2 - 0.4 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1})$ from large $(0.4 - 0.6 \mu mol$ 365 $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) autorophic fluxes above 20% moisture (v/v; data not shown). There was little 366 variation in soil moisture in either the grassland or peatland during the hourly monitoring 367 campaigns; they were consistently wet. 368

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370 Estimates of root morphology and root respiration

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372 Total RL (Figure 5a-c) declined in the order grassland (80.1 km m⁻²), peatland (31.2 km m⁻²)

and forest (2.0 km m⁻²) over 20, 20 and 17 cm soil depth, respectively. There was a large dead

root component in the peatland, but this was not quantified. However, root distribution for the
three contrasting sites showed a similar pattern of exponentially decreasing RL densities with
depth; in particular, fine-root length was most dominant within the top 10 centimetres (Table
1). Critically, at all sites, around 50% of the total measured RL (Figure 5a-c) was found
within the top 5 cm of soil (including litter and organic layers).

379 On the basis of the root analysis and the field flux measurements, this study also provided an indirect estimate of root-derived respiration. For all three sites we found a very 380 close and near exponential positive relationship between the increasing amount of cut-root 381 382 length with collar depth insertion and the estimated root-derived fluxes (Eigures 5a-c; note: the exponents are negative). The (best fit) polynomial regression equations of cut root length 383 (y) and root-derived flux (x) were: forest $y = -0.0637x^2 + 0.3105x$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: $r^2 = 0.99$ ($r^2 = 0.99$), peatland: 384 $0.0006x^2 + 0.0359x$ (r² = 0.98) and grassland: y = $0.0001x^2 + 0.0167x$ (r² = 0.72). The 385 estimated mean R_a (± SE during the automated hourly flux periods), as estimated by surface 386 minus deepest collar fluxes, was 0.37 ± 0.02 , 0.52 ± 0.02 and $2.32 \pm 0.79 \ \mu mol \ CO_2 \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ 387 388 for the forest, peatland, and grassland, respectively, equal to 26, 52 and 38 % of the total 389 (surface collar) soil flux, respectively

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392 Discussion

Although collar insertion is generally considered necessary to prevent CO_2 leakage out of the chamber, this is a concern for systems with either long closure times (and consequently a large inside-to-outside chamber CO_2 gradient) and/or known pressure artifacts for systems with no adequate pressure vent or unbalanced in-outflow air circulation. Surprisingly, as early as 1974, Edwards was using an automated chamber system, which specifically avoided humus

399 or soil cutting. Latest chamber systems, such as the LI-COR 8100, require only short closure 400 times (an approxiamately 35 ppm increase is needed) and a special vent design (Xu et al., 401 2006) prevents such issues. This can be combined with minimal downward pressure from 402 securing steel hooks and the chamber gasket and leakage becomes negligible. In a review by 403 Davidson et al. (2002) much longer closure times have been suggested, which may give rise 404 to chamber-CO₂ increases of around 200 ppm (see Figure 1 in Davidson et al., 2002). On 405 windy days in exposed areas shallow collars may result in smaller flux measurements as 406 pressure can force ambient air inside the chamber volume but the use of a putty or sand 407 chamber sealant can be used to provide an additional seal at the soll-collar base. Although leakage cannot be ruled out completely in the current study, the most convincing evidence 408 409 against this is the consistently larger soil CO₂ efflux rates measured using the surface collars. Furthermore, in all three ecosystems the wind speeds at ground level under the dense 410 vegetation cover were always very small. 411

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- 413 Collar depth and corresponding flux changes
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To the best of our knowledge, there are only two limited studies, i.e. Wang et al. (2005a) and 415 Silvola et al. (1996), which specifically address collar insertion effects, in a forest and 416 peatland respectively, with no such consideration for grasslands. Interestingly, when looking 417 418 through recent soil respiration literature across ecosystems the reported mean collar insertion 419 depths range from 4.6 cm for forests to 7.0 cm for shrublands and up to 16.3 cm for peatlands 420 (Supplementary Tables 1, 2). In grasslands, insertions of about 2 - 3 cm are commonly 421 observed (based on grassland studies given in Subke et al. 2006 and two European Science 422 Foundation Summer School 2004/05 unpublished feedback reports). Our study clearly shows 423 that this is probably resulting in a significant under-estimation of the true soil CO_2 efflux, 424 with a mean reduction of around 15% but errors up to 30 - 50% at peak (hourly data) flux 425 times depending on the ecosystem. These collar insertions have potentially long-lasting 426 impacts and were maintained here across study periods of 11, 21 and 5 months for forest, 427 peatland and grassland, and are typical for other reported studies (see Supplementary Tables). 428 However, the longevity of any such effect will depend on insertion depth and chamber area as 429 well as on root growth in specific ecosystems. Moreover, a particular collar issue in peatlands (and also for clay soils) is the commonly observed reduction in drainage, resulting in 430 431 considerable long-term surface water build-up within the collar after rain events. Despite 432 these concerns, there is an increasing tendency not to report collar insertion depths, and even 433 where collar depth is given, it is seldom explicitly stated whether this includes the organic or 434 litter layers, making validation or future correction of the reported fluxes impossible (see 435 Supplementary Tables).

Although not our primary aim, our estimate of R_a based on the continuous monitoring 436 periods of deep collar trenching (see exponential root distributions; Figure 5a-c) of 26, 52 and 437 38 %, corresponding to average days after 'trenching' (dat), for coniferous forest (16 dat), 438 439 peatland (26 dat) and grassland (38 dat), respectively, compares well to the estimated 50% (root-derived) flux reduction measured with forest girdling by Högberg et al. (2001) with a 440 441 0.5-cm collar insertion (Högberg & Ekblad, 1996) or the meta-analysis results by Subke et al. (2006) of 48 and 33% for temperate coniferous forest and grassland, respectively. However, 442 Subke *et al.* (2006) estimate the R_a of peatlands only to be 15% on the basis of eight studies 443 444 by the same author (although the actual paper states it to be about 40%, considering the active 445 vegetation period and 2-cm collar insertion, similar to our findings). However, considering the 446 collar depth insertions of the references in the Subke et al. (2006) meta-analysis studies (see 447 Supplementary Table 3), it is thus important to see our findings in context for interpreting past 448 data (Subke et al., 2006), questioning if previous estimates of R_a might change if collar 449 insertion would have been considered. We propose that actually some 55 of those studies 450 (based on insertion depths of greater than or equal to 2 cm out of a total 131) will have had 451 potential larger R_a flux contributions (with approxiamately 50 providing none or inadequate 452 collar-insertion details), if they were corrected for the reduced root-derived Ra fluxes 453 (approxiamately 50, 75% and 33% for forest, peatland and grassland, respectively). This very 454 approximate estimate is based on a mean collar insertion depth for each ecosystem (of 4.6 cm for forests; 9.8 cm for peatlands and 2.7 cm for grasslands; see introduction) in relation to our 455 observed reduction in R_a estimates (Fig. 5a-c) caused by cut root and psycorrhizal 456 457 connections, not considered in the meta-analysis.

458 We investigated three, in terms of organic matter content, soil microbiology and root distribution, contrasting ecosystems. Although collar-depth insertion (trenching) in our study 459 460 (17 or 20 cm) did not exclude all root-derived fluxes, the estimated R_a decreased at all sites exponentially with increasing collar depth caused by an increasing amount of cut roots 461 (Figure 5a-c) and mycorrhizal hyphae. Furthermore, Heinemeyer et al. (2007) at the same 462 forest site found that a 25-cm offar insertion excluded nearly all the estimated autotrophic 463 flux component (compared with a 75-cm insertion) and the peatland site visibly had few 464 living roots beyond the 20 cm cutting depth. Although the grassland study showed a similar 465 but less pronounced flux reduction this showed a dip in the 5 cm depth treatment (Figure 5c), 466 which was caused by one very fine-root rich collar. This collar effect might still cause under-467 468 estimation of root respiration, when using flux data with insertion depths of even a few 469 centimetres for estimating root respiration based on regression methods of root biomass vs. 470 soil flux (Wang et al., 2005b), because of the exponential fine root density distribution. 471 However, the estimate of R_a in our study was made mostly during the active vegetation period 472 and thus might be difficult to compare with annual values stated in, for example, Subke et al. 473 (2006), although most of those studies are based on routine manual site measurements (see 474 Supplementary Table 3), and probably under-estimating the 'true' site flux (see analysis475 results in Table 2).

476

477 Diurnal cycling

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479 Collar-insertion depth also reduced diurnal flux variability (see Figure 1, 4a-c; note highest 480 SE in the surface collars, particularly during peak surface collar flux periods), indicating large 481 temporal and spatial variability in the contribution of the root-derived component (although 482 the relative variability did not differ, see earlier). Moreover, soil respiration is commonly 483 measured manually at certain (usually the most convenient) times during the day from about 484 12.00 to 14.00 hours, allowing for travel time and set-up periods. Considering our comparison 485 (Table 2), this might lead to a bias, similar to the observation by Savage & Davidson (2003). 486 Indeed, assuming such a routine manual sampling regime as is commonly done (e.g. Ward et al., 2007) during the continuous flux sampling period, this resulted in a small, but 487 significantly different daily mean flux from continuous monitoring (Table 2) and was greatest 488 489 during midday for the peatland and grassland but during night-time for the forest. 490 Interestingly, this sampling time effect decreased with collar depth, also reflected in a decline in fine root density (Table 1), apart from the grassland, which showed a steady decline in fine 491 roots throughout 0 - 10 cm, indicating a time and depth shift in the activity of the R_a 492 493 component. However, at the forest site there was no real difference under limiting soil 494 moisture (<20% v/v), indicating a drought-reduced forest root-mycorrhizal activity as 495 observed by Heinemeyer et al. (2007). A similar study addressing sampling time (Xu & Qi, 496 2001) found a very small diurnal fluctuation but, importantly, soil collars were inserted 4 cm 497 into the soil. Consequently, although it is not affecting individual treatment comparisons, 498 these methodological differences can result in errors in up-scaled C-flux and budget

499 calculations. Our observed diurnal variation in soil respiration (particularly in the forest) is 500 also relevant to validating ecosystem process models; potential errors could be introduced 501 when night-time eddy covariance measurements of respiration are up-scaled to estimate day-502 time respiration fluxes and derive gross primary productivity (Falge *et al.*, 2001; Reichstein *et 503 al.*, 2005). However, such time-lags are still very uncertain, particularly in forests, mostly 504 because of age effects and the unknown C pool mixing (fresh with old) in roots before being 505 used for respiration (see Mencuccini & Hölttä, 2009).

506

507 *Response of CO*₂ *flux components to individual environmental properties*

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In the forest and grassland site, the different responses of estimated Ra and Rh fluxes, as 509 510 determined by collar trenching, to soil temperature suggest that the R_a component seems to be 511 less temperature-dependent than R_h, as was recently shown for the mycorrhizal component (Heinemeyer et al., 2007; Moyano et al., 2007). Furthermore, in the past reported 'apparent' 512 Q_{10} temperature sensitivity values for soil respiration with large r² values might relate to soil 513 514 collar insertion, as the predominantly R_h component was measured by eliminating a large proportion of the more variable R_a (note, consideration of the issue of 'true' compared with 515 516 'apparent' temperature sensitivity is beyond the aim of our study but collar effects on such 517 investigations should be considered). However, in the peatland R_a was the more temperature 518 sensitive flux, possibly be caused by a faster C supply to root respiration in short vegetation 519 and the large soil surface root biomass as well as dampened soil temperature changes in the 520 peat profile. Our findings confirm those of Hartley et al. (2007) who suggested that the 521 temperature response of soil respiration depends largely on the autotrophic substrate supply. 522 A time series analysis would be a suitable tool to investigate such lag-response (for example 523 considering PAR levels), but our study did not have enough continuous data to enable us to

do this). Furthermore, for the forest site, we could link limited soil moisture to an overall flux
reduction of the autotrophic component, which showed a threshold of around 20% volumetric
soil moisture during the dry 2006 summer (data not shown), as suggested by other forest
studies (Yuste *et al.*, 2007). Thus any environmental response surfaces (e.g. Reichstein *et al.*,
2003; Saiz *et al.*, 2006) should consider any artifacts on measured flux components
introduced by the collar design.

- 530
- 531 Root morphology and corresponding respiration rates
- 532

Cutting with conventional collar insertion inevitably cuts through a large proportion of fine 533 roots in the top few centimetres of soil as found in the study by Wang et al. (2005a). We 534 535 observed an exponential decrease of fine root density with depth at all three sites (Table 1), as can be assumed to be the case in most ecosystems (e.g. Jackson et al., 1996). Indeed, some 536 studies (e.g. Widén & Majdi, 2001) report around 50% of all fine roots in the top 5 cm of soil 537 horizons (including litter and organic layers). However, Wang et al. (2005a) assumed this 538 539 relationship to be linear, although their raw data actually suggest a much better exponential fit (see Figure 2 in Wang et al., 2005a). Consequently, in our study about 50% of the estimated 540 mean R_a flux (based on hourly fluxes) was lost when cutting through the O_e and O_a layer or 541 the top root-peat layer. Our mean root-derived respiration estimates of around 0.30 - 0.50542 μ mol CO₂ m²/s⁻¹ are comparable to other biome fine-root respiration values (Bahn *et al.* 543 544 2006), although the grassland had the largest values, obtained during a peak activity period, 545 but similar to those of Bahn et al. (2008). The largest value in the grassland was observed during greatest flux rates (9 μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹) after heavy rainfall, causing water logging in 546 deep collars, and thus reduced flux rates (3.88 μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹). However, the calculation of 547 548 the root-derived flux clearly depends on the time frame used for calculating the 'lost R_a flux'

549 (maximum was 1.01, 1.12 and 5.27 μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹ for the forest, peatland and grassland, 550 respectively). In particular, for studies investigating the relative contribution of R_a/R_h our 551 findings are of significant importance. Interestingly, these collar related artifacts have not 552 been considered in the most recent reviews on this topic (Hanson *et al.*, 2000; Pendall *et al.*, 553 2004; Kuzyakov, 2006; Subke *et al.*, 2006; Bahn *et al.*, 2008).

- 554
- 555 Implications for measurements, global data and modelling
- 556

We propose that soil respiration methodology for all ecosystems should be reconsided 557 carefully when using chamber-based approaches, particularly avoiding collar soil insertion 558 559 and long closure times causing changes to the diffusion gradient. However, this will require 560 using state-of-the-art equipment which is not always available. Notably, pump pressure artifacts might not have been detected readily, as in the methodology comparison by 561 Pumpanen et al. (2004) or Le Dantec et al. (1999). Only a sealed bottom chamber will enable 562 detection of any such issues, as otherwise soil air will equilibrate pressure differences, 563 possibly explaining very large annual fluxes as reported in Kutsch et al. (2001). Such an inter-564 chamber-comparison study still needs to be done. 565

Our findings suggest that many studies, such as the frequently cited global estimates 566 of annual CO₂ soil flux (Raich & Schlesinger, 1992), have probably under-estimated total soil 567 flux rates by around 10 - 20% (on the basis of collar insertion alone), probably by more in 568 569 peatlands. Moreover, because of the fine root densities and collar insertion at the soil surface, 570 past attempts to estimate the global autotrophic soil flux component based on literature values 571 (e.g. Subke et al., 2006) also need to be revisited. However, our findings only focused on one 572 of many chamber-based issues and still need to be tested elsewhere. In particular, the 573 relevance of measuring a true and diurnal (autotrophic) soil CO₂ efflux is of crucial

574 importance for model validation and advancing our process understanding of the soil flux 575 components from diurnal to seasonal scales (Heinemeyer et al., 2007, Sampson et al., 2007). 576 We therefore recommend that future studies concerned with total soil respiration should 577 consider collar issues and sampling time regimes, with an effort to accurately measure total 578 and component soil respiration fluxes. Moreover, to overcome chamber related limitations or 579 artifacts when investigating R_a vs. R_h flux contributions, both stable isotopes (Moyano et al. 2009) and/or improved non-intrusive membrane technology (Flechard et al. 2007) night 580 581 become powerful tools. 582 583

584 Conclusion

585

Our research on collar insertion depth and soil CO_2 offlux implies that soil respiration has a 586 587 large root-derived R_a flux component hear the soil surface with potentially strong diurnal cycling and unique environmental response, that is different to the heterotrophic component. 588 589 Past collar based measurements of soil respiration fluxes might have significantly under-590 estimated the autotrophic component of soil CO₂ efflux by cutting through a large part of the 591 autotrophic soil surface flux network. Secondly, infrequent measurements in time can result in significantly different estimates of total ecosystem soil respiration. Moreover, although 592 593 sampling frequency might not considerably alter the average flux calculation, understanding 594 and modelling component fluxes and their environmental responses requires high temporal 595 resolution monitoring, in particular in systems with a potential for lag-time periods of below-596 ground photosynthate allocation. Thirdly, collar-insertion depth is generally considered 597 necessary to prevent CO₂ leakage out of the chamber, but such concerns are mostly based on 598 data from systems with particular chamber shortfalls such as long closure times and/or known 599 pressure artifacts. Finally, collar-insertion depth has a potentially long-lasting effect on 600 measured flux rates and needs to be considered when interpreting past data and planning 601 future studies. This demonstrates the need either to avoid insertion or to measure the amount 602 of cut roots when inserting collars, and for the deployment of less intrusive techniques such as 603 stable isotopes or membrane techniques.

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756	NB Supplementary material
757	This manuscript is accompanied by tour supplementary tables and one combined reference
758	list for those tables.
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760 Figure Captions

761 Figure 1 Mean soil respiration (CO₂ efflux) \pm SE for the different collar depths on eight days 762 during the period 07 June 2006 to 15 May 2007 at the forest site, all measured at 14.00 hours. 763 Collar-depth treatments started on 10 June. Inset shows a sample of the 17-day period of 764 continuous mean hourly flux monitoring (\pm SE; n = 3) at the same collars during the period 28 765 to 30 June 2006 (arrow indicates period of continuous monitoring). Inset note: largest fluxes 766 and variability (SE) occur for the surface collars (Surface) during the night. Asterisks (2) 767 0.01) indicate significant treatment effects (Surface compared with all other treatments; no 768 other significant differences were observed) of individual one-way ANOVAS (n = 4), overall repeated measures ANOVA was significant at the *P < 0.05 level for all post-treatment 769 770 Surface treatments (i.e. excluding 7 to 9 June). There were no significant differences between 771 pre-treatment fluxes.



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A). The forest site. Average hourly lost soil efflux rates from the four replicated collar depths treatment blocks (grey squares) taken during 19 - 30 June 2006 (n = 264) at Wheldrake Forest



B) The peatland site. Average hourly lost soil efflux rates from the four replicated collar depths treatment blocks (grey diamonds) during the continuous post-treatment monitoring period (n = 191) during 10 – 19 October 2006 at Moor House (root length n = 3).



870 C) The grassland site. Average hourly lost soil efflux rates from the three replicated collar 871 depths treatment blocks (grey triangles) during the continuous post-treatment monitoring 872 period (n = 237) during 13 June – 01 July 2008 at Red House estate (root length n = 4). 873



874 Table 1 Mean root length (RL) and mean root diameter (mm) per soil segment layer (depth 875 increments) and the cumulative mean root length CRL (km m⁻²); obtained from soil coring at the peatland, forest and grassland site; number of core replicates were n = 3, 6 and 4, 876 877 respectively. Note: the average diameter of the peatland roots in the top two layers was 878 smaller (i.e. 0.41 and 0.38 mm, respectively) when including the large amount of very fine 879 roots (average diameter of 0.33 mm); n = 3 (peatland) and 6 (forest). One-way ANOVA with an LSD *post-hoc* test showed that for the peatland all dependent variables were significantly 880 different between depths at least at the **P < 0.01 level (except for the CRL, where only the 0 881 -5 cm layer differed from the others at the *P < 0.05 level); for the forest site the two upper 882 layers of the root length density RLD (cm cm⁻³) and all the CRL (km m⁻²) data were 883 significantly different from all others at least at the **P 0.01 level; for the grassland site 884 nearly all properties showed significant differences at at least at the **P < 0.01 level between 885 886 them, except for RLD (cm cm⁻³) and CRL, which were significant only at the *P < 0.05 level, and total RL, RLD (cm cm⁻³) and CRL for the two deepest depths, and all diameter classes 887

showed no significant differences.

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891 Table 2 Comparison of mean soil respiration fluxes according to sampling times (e.g. 12:00 -892 14:00 or 18:00 – 00:00 hours compared with a 24-hour period) and collar depth (cm) during 893 consecutive days (peatland: 10 - 19 October 2006; forest: wet (soil moisture 20-29%, v/v) 14 894 - 18 and dry 20 - 29 June (soil moisture 11-20%, v/v) 2006; grassland: 13 - 30 June 2008). 895 Note the SE values are based on averaging hourly mean values over several days (n = 9; n =896 5, 10; n = 10 for peatland, forest (wet, dry) and grassland, respectively). Significant differences are based on comparing means in a two-way ANOVA with an LSD post-hoc test 897 (different letters indicate significant differences): peatland 0 cm *P = 0.068; forest wet 5 cm 898 ***P < 0.001; 10 cm *P = 0.021; grassland 0 cm *P < 0.05; 2.5 cm *P = 0.05; 5 cm **P = 0.05; 5 cm 899 0.01; 10 cm **P = 0.01; n = 9 (peatland), n= 5 and 9 (forest, wet and dry, respectively) and n 900

901 = 10 (grassland).