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SEASONAL CHANGES IN SOIL ATMOSPHERIC CATCHMENTS AND ASSOCIATED CHANGES IN RIVER WATER CHEMISTRY CO2 CONCENTRATIONS IN TWO UPLAND

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Seasonal changes in river water chemistry and in soil atmospheric $CO₂$ concentrations at two depths and drainage water solute composition at two upland peaty podzol sites in north east Scotland were monitored over 12 months. The $CO₂$ concentrations were controlled by changes in soil temperature and moisture status. Highest $CO₂$ concentrations were observed in late summer 1988 when both soil temperatures and the moisture status of the soils were high. Then maximum $CO₂$ concentrations of **4%** (v/v) were recorded for one of the sites. No significant correlations between seasonal changes in soil *C02* concentrations and river water solute composition were observed. Nevertheless the field results and laboratory experiments indicated that in upland areas, where soils with acid surface horizons are common, soil CO₂ substantially influences river water chemistry at baseflow, increasing the pH and cation concentration of the soil water draining into the river. The results suggest that transfer of carbon as dissolved $CO₂$ in drainage water is a significant pathway for $CO₂$ transfer to the atmosphere.

KEY WORDS Carbon dioxide, river water, **soiI** atmosphere, flux

INTRODUCTION

In soils which are not strongly acidic, a major factor influencing the rate of natural soil acidification is *CO,* concentration in the soil atmosphere. Soil atmospheres often have $CO₂$ concentrations 10 to 100 times above atmospheric values. In soil, $CO₂$ is primarily produced by respiration from plant roots and soil organisms, mainly microorganisms (Edwards and Harris, 1977). Soil atmospheric \overline{CO}_2 either diffuses to the surface, remains trapped in soil pores or dissolves in the soil water. Carbon dioxide is very soluble in water, the following equilibrium reactions occurring:

$$
CO_2(g) \rightleftharpoons CO_2
$$
 dissolved $\rightleftharpoons H_2CO_3$
\n $\rightleftharpoons HCO_3^- + H^+$
\n $\rightleftharpoons CO_3^{2-} + 2H^+.$

Large amounts of soil atmospheric *CO,* dissolve in water draining through soil, but the soil solution **pH** is buffered by the composition of the suite of ions occupying the cation exchange complex. When CO_2 -enriched soil water drains into a river, much of the $CO₂$ is released to the atmosphere (the outgassing effect) and consequently the pH of the inflowing water will rise (Cresser and Edwards, 1987). Therefore under baseflow conditions river water may have a pH value 1-2 pH units higher than the soil through which the water has most recently drained, even though the cation exchange properties of such soil may be used to predict the solute composition of water in associated rivers (Billet and Cresser, 1991).

Very little is known, however, about atmospheric $CO₂$ concentrations in moorland soils. In upland areas of the UK, moorlands cover a large percentage of the water catchments. Changes in soil $CO₂$ concentrations here can be an important variable in regulation of river water chemistry. To investigate how soil $CO₂$ concentrations could affect river water chemistry, soil atmospheric $CO₂$ concentrations were routinely monitored in two upland catchments in north east Scotland, and the chemical ecological consequences considered.

METHODS AND SITE CHARACTERISTICS

The study was conducted in two *Calluna* moorland catchments in the north east of Scotland, at Peatfold (NJ 353 183) and at Glendye (NO 622 835). For both drainage basins extensive information on soil, water and rain chemistries is available (Edwards, 1984). Three 10 m^2 plots on west facing slopes at Peatfold and on south facing slopes at Glendye were chosen. The soil type at all sites was a peaty podzol with a 100 to 150mm thick surface peat horizon. At Peatfold, soils were underlain by quarz-biotite-norite and at Glendye by granite.

Diffusion wells $(50 \times 15 \text{ mm})$ plastic cups) were assembled from disposable, inverted 5-ml syringes, attached at the top to a 500-mm length of nylon tubing (1 mm internal diameter) and protected at the bottom with very fine gauge nylon mesh. The wells were inserted into small prepared boreholes into the eluvial soil horizon at depths of 150 and 300mm. The holes were then carefully back filled with the soil excavated from the borehole using a metal tube. The above-ground ends of the plastic tubing were sealed with small air-tight plastic end caps. At 3-week intervals (August 1987-September 1988) two 1 ml samples of air were withdrawn using 1 ml disposable plastic syringes. The first sample was discarded as it contained air from the plastic tubing. The second sample was kept in the syringe and was analysed for $CO₂$ by gas chromatography with a thermal conductivity detector within 5 hr of sampling. Over this period the disposable syringes, as tested with standard mixtures, proved to be airtight. All diffusion wells were replicated *5* times. Also 3 soil samples were collected from each plot (top *200* mm) at each sampling and analysed for moisture content (oven dried at 110°C) and pH (5 g of sieved (2 mm) field-moist soil plus 10 ml 0.01M CaCl $_2$). Soil water from triplicate tension lysimeters at a soil depth of 200 mm and water from the main stream flowing through the catchment were taken and analysed for pH, major cations, anions and total organic carbon by conventional methods (Edwards, 1984). The main stream flowing through each catchment had a flume installed.

To study the effects of soil atmosphere $CO₂$ concentration upon soil drainage water chemistry, a fertile loam soil (Aberdeen, 80 g) was air-dried, sieved (2 mm) and loosely packed into 100ml leaching tubes stoppered with pre-washed glass wool. The soil was then wetted to field capacity with artificial rain at pH 4 (Skiba Table **1** Site characteristics at Peatfold and Glendye, means of 19 analyses (in triplicate for soil analysis) of samples collected at 3-weekly intervals between August 1987 and September 1988.

and Cresser, 1986). A gas mixture of 3% CO₂ in air (prepared gravimetrically) was pumped through the leaching tubes at a rate of 15 ml min^{-1} for 1 hour.

RESULTS

Site characteristics for Glendye and Peatfold are summarised in Table 1. Soils and rivers were more acidic and rainfall volume was 1.15 times greater at Glendye than at Peatfold.

Mean annual soil $CO₂$ concentrations were greater at Glendye than at Peatfold. At Glendye no significant variations in soil $CO₂$ concentrations were observed between sites or soil depths. A mean annual soil $CO₂$ concentration of 1.64% was measured. At Peatfold, mean annual soil $CO₂$ concentrations were significantly greater at 300 mm than at 150 mm soil depth $(0.67\%$ CO₂ at 150 mm soil depth and 0.95% CO₂ at 300 mm, $p < 0.05$). For individual sites, these differences, however, were only significant for one site (Table 2). Within-site variations were very large. Soil *C02* concentrations were significantly greater at site 2 than at the other two sites (Table 2) ($p < 0.001$). Here soil CO₂ concentrations were similar to those observed at Glendye. For site 2 also the soil pH was significantly lower (pH CaCl₂ 3.24) than at the remaining sites (pH CaCl₂ 3.69). Other variables measured did not, however, differ between sites.

Table 2 Mean annual soil CO₂ concentrations at Peatfold (means of 5 replicates sampled at 3-weekly intervals between August 1987 and September 1988).

	Soil depth				
Site	150 mm		300 mm		
	0.48	a	0.71		
$\overline{2}$	1.18	n.s.	1.63		
٩	0.35	n.s.	0.47		

 ^{a}p < 0.01; n.s. = not significant.

J I I I 1 ^I

 $1!05$ ui 200 %

 $\dot{\bullet}$

Seasonal variations in soil $CO₂$ concentrations were observed (Figures 1, 2). These correlated significantly between sites and at the two soil depths studied at both Peatfold and Glendye. Seasonal variations at Glendye, however, were different to those at Peatfold. Maximum soil $CO₂$ concentrations were measured in August/September 1988, when soil temperatures were high. For Glendye, soil CO, concentrations correlated significantly with changes in soil temperatures $(r = 0.59, n = 21)$. As soil temperatures increased, soil CO₂ concentrations increased (Figure 1). At Peatfold, however, significant correlations between soil *CO,* and temperature were not observed. In spite of high soil temperatures, extremely low soil $CO₂$ concentrations were measured in May, June and July at both catchments (Figures 1 and 2). These months were unusually dry; the moisture content of the soils decreased to 46% at all sites. As the rainfall increased, the soil moisture content increased to 53% and soil $CO₂$ concentrations rose sharply.

In spite of continuing low soil and air temperatures in January and February, soil $CO₂$ concentrations increased at all sites at Peatfold (Figure 2). These increases coincided with snow cover. Winter 1987-1988 was milder than usual in north east Scotland with very little snow. No snow was lying when sampling at Glendye, but at Peatfold sampling plots were covered with a thick layer of snow $($ >300 mm) on two occasions $(27/1/88$ and $17/2/88$).

At Peatfold, from all the parameters measured, seasonal changes in soil $CO₂$ concentrations at 150 mm depth only correlated significantly with the rate of discharge of the stream flowing through the catchment ($r = 0.520$, $n = 17$) and the total organic carbon content of the river water $(r = 0.734, n = 18)$. Correlations with soil mositure or rainfall were not significant.

At Glendye, soil *CO,* concentrations also correlated significantly and negatively with soil water pH $(r = -0.649, n = 13)$ and the calcium concentration of the soil water $(r = 0.563, n = 15)$. The greater the soil CO₂ concentrations the more acid the soil water and the greater its calcium concentration.

In the laboratory equilibration studies, significantly greater leaching of calcium, magnesium and potassium from small soil columns equilibrated with a high $CO₂$ concentration $(3\% \text{ CO}_2)$ rather than air $(0.03\% \text{ CO}_2)$ was observed (Table 3). After outgassing, the leachate **pH** was significantly greater from C0,-equilibrated soils than from controls.

	Soil water chemistry					
Soil atmosphere	vН	Ca	Μg		Na	
3% CO ₂	7.63 я	0.15 a	0.41	0.47 я	0.35 n.s.	
0.03% CO ₂	6.98	0.11	0.27	0.34	0.27	

Table 3 The effect of an elevated soil CO₂ concentration on the **chemistry of soil water leaching from a fertile loam soil (means of triplicates).**

After outgassing, $a_p < 0.05$, $b_p < 0.001$, n.s. not significant.

DISCUSSION

Seasonal changes in soil atmospheric $CO₂$ concentrations were governed by changes in soil temperature and soil moisture. This was also reported by Volk (1973) for agricultural soils and Fernandez and Kosian (1987) for forest soils. At intermediate temperatures every 10°C increase in temperature doubled the amount of *CO,* evolved (Volk, 1973), as a result of increased microbial activities and root respiration (Alexander, 1977). At Peatfold, the temperature effect on soil $CO₂$ concentrations was overshadowed by the effect of moisture on soil $CO₂$. A rise in soil $CO₂$ with increased moisture was probably a result of physical trapping of much of the $CO₂$ produced by the filling of a larger proportion of soil pores with water, restricting diffusion of soil gases. Snow cover would have the same effect. Extremely low soil CO₂ conditions were observed during dry periods when the moisture tension of the soil decreased and upward diffusion of soil gases from depth was facilitated. In the upper layers of soil, gas exchange with the atmosphere generally occurs more readily and hence a gradient of soil $CO₂$ concentrations with soil depth was observed at Peatfold, as for a forest soil (Fernandez and Kosian, 1987) and a sandy loam (Yamaguchi et *af.,* 1967). The correlation between soil $CO₂$ and river discharge at Peatfold reflects the importance of antecedent soil moisture conditions to both parameters. At Glendye, however, no significant difference between $CO₂$ concentrations at 150 and 300mm soil depths were observed. The peats here were always wetter than those at Peatfold (Table 1). Overland flow frequently occurs at Glendye, but not at Peatfold, indicating that Glendye peats are more impermeable and hence allow less gas exchange to occur at the soil/air interface.

At Peatfold, soil CO₂ concentrations did not correlate with soil moisture or rainfall, but did correlate with discharge of the river flowing through the catchment and the total organic carbon content of the river, as mentioned earlier. Both variables reflect changes in rainfall pattern more fully than collected bulk rainfall and soil moisture measurements alone. River discharge was monitored continuously and the response of river water chemistry to changes in rainfall pattern is very rapid, but depends on antecedent soil moisture (Cresser and Edwards, 1987). Total organic carbon concentrations in rivers increase when the bulk of the river water flows through the organic-rich surface horizon of a soil before entering the stream-a situation occurring when high rainfall interacts with an already wet soil. Other relationships between river water chemistry and soil *C02* concentrations, however, could not be established.

At Glendye a significant relationship between soil *CO,* and the calcium concentration and acidity of the soil water was observed. The soil water collected at 200mm depth at Glendye was very acid with zero alkalinity and therefore changes in soil *CO,* would not be expected to influence the soil water chemistry. High $CO₂$ concentrations lower the pH of extracted soil water with more than zero alkalinity and subsequently increase the leaching of cations, as demonstrated for a fertile loam soil (Table 3). Results showed the same trend for mineral soils from Peatfold and Glendye, but differences in cation leaching for soil columns equilibrated with 3% CO₂ or air were not significant. Even in upland soils with acidic surface horizons, in the underlying more alkaline mineral horizons (pH 4.93 for Glendye and pH 5.34 for Peatfold) soil $CO₂$ fluctuations will influence soil water chemistry. Although at Glenbuchat soil waters were within the $CO₂$ buffering range, correlations between soil water constituent concentrations and soil $CO₂$ were not significant. High variability in soil $CO₂$ concentrations in replicated wells and failure of tension lysimeters to work at dry periods may be responsible for the lack of correlation.

Leachates from 3% C0,-equilibrated columns of garden soil were more acid (pH 6.3) than those from air-equilibrated columns (pH 6.98). Outgassing, however, reversed the situation (Table 3). The same is expected to happen when rainwater percolates through mineral soil and enters the river as alkaline base-rich water.

The results discussed here suggest that, in uplands, soil $CO₂$ will influence river water chemistry most when soil temperatures are reasonably high, but the soil remains relatively moist to prevent upward diffusion of soil gases, and also at periods of extensive snowcover. As acid organic surface horizons prevail in uplands, soil $CO₂$ will only influence river water chemistry at baseflow or when water flows substantially through lower, more alkaline, soil horizons. It is instructive to estimate the carbon flux typically removed from upland soils as $CO₂$ in drainage water. Taking a typical literature value (Butler, 1982) for Henry's constant of $10^{-1.27}$ (appropriate for 10° C), a constant soil atmosphere CO₂ content of 1% results in a carbon flux of *ca*. $330 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for 500 mm of runoff. A soil atmosphere COz concentration of *3%* would result in a carbon flux of 990 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. This represents a significant portion of total dry matter production at such a site, which is *ca.* $6000 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Smith and Forrest, 1978). It may be important therefore to consider $CO₂$ outgassing from rivers when evaluating carbon fluxes for terrestrial ecosystems.

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