

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

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[1] Recent studies of carbonate ecosystems suggest a possible contribution of subterranean ventilation to the net ecosystem carbon balance. However, both the overall importance of such CO₂ exchange processes and their drivers remain unknown. Here we analyze several dry-season episodes of net CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere, along with soil and borehole CO₂ measurements. Results highlight important events where rapid decreases of underground CO₂ molar fractions correlate well with sizeable CO₂ release to the atmosphere. Such events, with high friction velocities, are attributed to ventilation processes, and should be accounted for by predictive models of surface CO₂ exchange. **Citation:** Sanchez-Cañete, E. P., P. Serrano-Ortiz, A. S. Kowalski, C. Oyonarte, and F. Domingo (2011), Subterranean CO₂ ventilation and its role in the net ecosystem carbon balance of a karstic shrubland, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 38, L09802, doi:10.1029/2011GL047077.

1. Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

2. Material and Methods

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

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

3. Results

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

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

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

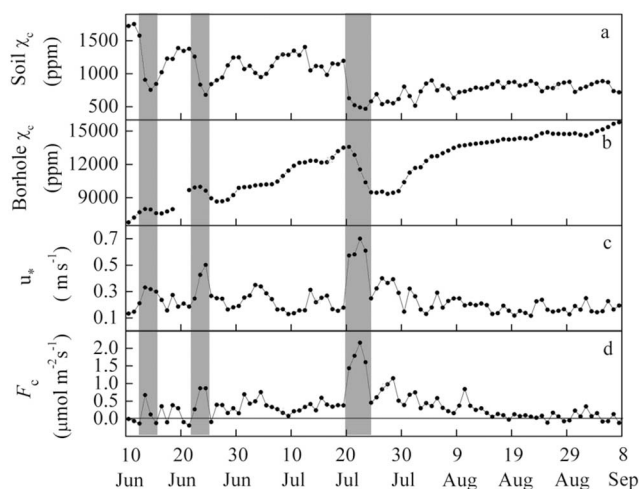


Figure 1. Average daily values of (a) soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c) at 25 cm depth and (b) borehole χ_c at 7 m depth, (c) friction velocity (u_* ; turbulent velocity scale) and (d) ecosystem CO₂ fluxes (F_c ; negative values represent uptake). Shaded columns delimit ventilation events.

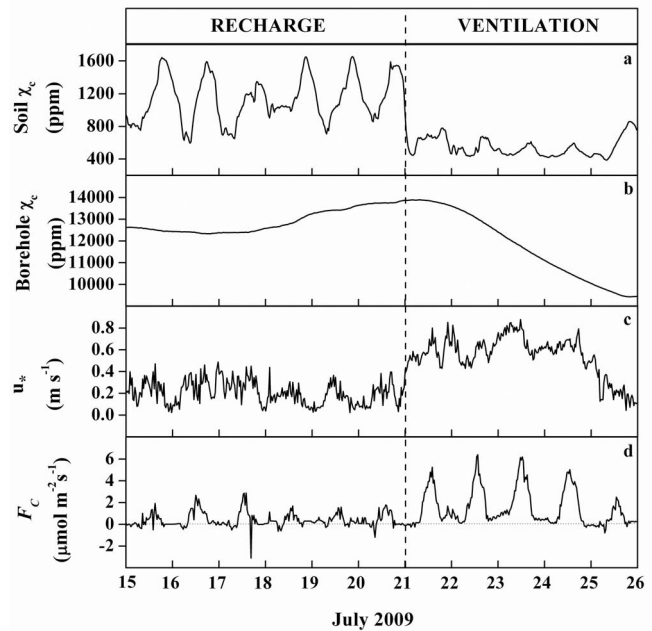


Figure 2. Ventilation event detail, distinguishing between recharge and ventilation. Average half-hour values of (a) soil CO₂ molar fraction (χ_c , 25 cm depth), (b) borehole χ_c (7 m depth), (c) friction velocity (u_* ; turbulent velocity scale) and (d) CO₂ fluxes.

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

4. Discussion

4.1. Evidence of Subterranean Ventilation

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

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

4.2. Main Drivers Controlling the Soil CO₂ Ventilation

[12] Studies focused on soil CO₂ profiles have reported correlations between soil χ_c and wind speed [Jassal *et al.*, 2005; Takle *et al.*, 2004]. Lewicki *et al.* [2010] experimentally studied the correlation between temporal variations in soil CO₂ concentrations and several meteorological factors during a controlled shallow-subsurface CO₂ release

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

4.3. Outstanding Issues

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

5. Conclusions

[14] This study emphasizes the role of dry-season, subterranean ventilation processes in the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB). Although several meteorological factors correlate with emitted CO₂, analyses suggest that ventilation is driven mainly by the friction velocity. Windy days are responsible for large emissions of CO₂ previously accumulated below ground, which are not accounted for in current models of surface CO₂ exchange. However during calm days soil CO₂ accumulates, causing significant day-night concentration differences. The vast network of pores, cracks and cavities along with high molar fractions (>15000 ppm–7 m) indicate that very large amounts of CO₂ can be stored inside karst systems. Further investigation is needed to explain the absence of CO₂ ventilation during windy nights, and characterize the CO₂ cycling of carbonate ecosystems.

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