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Wetting-drying cycles influence on soil respiration in two Mediterranean ecosystems

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- 1 Wetting-drying cycles influence on soil respiration in two Mediterranean
- 2 ecosystems
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19 Abstract

This study assesses which factors are involved in the soil respiration (Sr) 20 response to wetting-drying cycles in two Mediterranean ecosystems. We analysed Sr, 21 mineral nitrogen, ion-exchange resin mineral nitrogen, and phosphate levels at weekly 22 intervals over one year in two Mediterranean ecosystems with contrasting 23 characteristics: a pine forest with high levels of organic matter and nutrients and a 24 shrubland with low carbon and nutrients availability. Higher Sr was detected in the pine 25 forest $(0.12-0.76 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ hour}^{-1})$ than in the shrubland $(0.04-0.67 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ hour}^{-1})$. 26 For both sites, Sr increased during wet periods and decreased during dry periods. 27 28 Compared with Sr in the pine forest, the trend observed for resin mineral nitrogen was the opposite. No pattern was observed for resin mineral nitrogen at the shrubland site, or 29 for mineral nitrogen or phosphate at either site. The initial water status of the wetting-30 31 drying cycles determined the Sr response, whereas the length of the drought period before the rewetting event had no effect. The impact of the initial soil water content on 32 Sr played a crucial role when the wetting-drying events occur in a dry soil, having a 33 secondary role in wet soils. Finally, soil water status drove Sr during the growing 34 season in both ecosystems; however, soil temperature had no effect on CO₂ efflux. In a 35 36 changing world with projections of intensifying wetting-drying events, our results highlight the influence of soil water status on respiration rates, especially when these 37 events occur in a dry soil. 38

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Keywords: soil moisture; CO₂ efflux; mineral nitrogen; phosphate; resin mineral N;
carbon mineralization

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1. Introduction

Soil respiration involves the emission of CO₂ due to organic matter 43 decomposition resulting from the metabolic processes of soil microbes and plant roots. 44 Although the contribution of soil respiration is up to three-quarters of total ecosystem 45 CO_2 effluxes into the atmosphere [1], we have only a limited understanding of the 46 variability across ecosystems and the controlling factors [2]. In Mediterranean 47 ecosystems, low soil moisture limits the response of soil carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) 48 49 mineralization to increases in temperature [2, 3]. Climate models project longer dry periods and more intense rainfall events expected in these areas [4]. Given the key role 50 of soil moisture in soil biogeochemical processes in these ecosystems, these projected 51 climatic changes might cause long-term changes in soil C and N pools [5]. With the 52 relatively limited stock of organic C in Mediterranean soils these ecosystems are 53 particularly sensitive to climate change because any change in the precipitation pattern 54 could alter soil respiration and potentially deplete stores of soil C. 55

Although Mediterranean ecosystems have been classically underestimated, the effects of soil temperature and moisture on both respiration rates [6] and N cycling [7] have been the focus of much research in the last decade in this area. These studies have provided valuable insights into the effects of wetting-drying cycles on soil processes, but many of them have produced in inconsistent findings (for a review, see Borken and Matzner [8]). Hence, more information is required to achieve a deeper understanding of the functioning of these ecosystems.

Studying the mineralization rates of soil C and N in Mediterranean ecosystems is 63 particularly challenging because of the difficulties entailed by the marked seasonality of 64 precipitation and the high spatial heterogeneity of soil properties and vegetation. This 65 heterogeneity is particularly acute in shrublands, in which the patchy distribution of 66 vegetation leads to increased localization of soil resources under shrub canopies [9]. 67 Additionally, few studies have considered the effect of wetting-drying cycles on 68 phosphorous (P) cycling [10], although soil P might be highly limiting in terrestrial 69 ecosystems as a consequence of increased atmospheric N deposition [11]. Jenerette and 70 Chatterjee [12] reported that the microbial response to a wetting-drying event is 71 72 triggered by soil wetting but is regulated by resource limitation, demonstrating the relevance of the soil nutritional status in these types of studies. We evaluated the 73 changes in soil respiration rates, mineral N (defined as the sum of ammonium and 74 75 nitrate), resin-mineral N, and PO₄³⁻ during natural wetting-drying cycles in two Mediterranean ecosystems distant few km between each other. The two study sites have 76 contrasting levels of soil organic matter and nutrients: a pine forest with high levels of 77 organic matter and soil nutrients, most likely the result of the dense plant-canopy 78 79 environment, and a less dense shrubland with low C and nutrient availability. A 80 comparison of these two spatially close but largely different ecosystems can provide valuable information on how soil respiration is modulated by the local soil conditions. 81 82 Our goal was to assess which factors are involved in the soil respiration response

capture the entire intra-seasonal variability of the studied variables and to identify

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to wetting-drying cycles. We conducted an intensive weekly sampling for one year to

different wetting-drying cycles within each season. This survey explored any emergent 85 86 and common patterns in soil respiration, N mineralization and mineral P responses to these wetting-drying cycles. By considering whether the wetting events occurred in a 87 previously dry or wet soil, we attempted to assess the effect of additional rewetting on 88 the dynamics of the variables as a function of prior soil moisture. We also assessed the 89 effect of the length of the drving events before rewetting because it may play a key role 90 91 in the response of soil respiration to sudden changes in soil moisture, which may be further modulated by both soil organic matter and soil texture [6, 13]. Experimental set-92 up of this type gains importance in ecosystems with such features as high spatial 93 94 heterogeneity of soil properties and vegetation similar to that observed in semiarid 95 areas.

We hypothesized that (i) given the major differences between the two study sites, the responses of soil respiration rate and mineral N and P to the wetting-induced pulses would produce distinct patterns in the two Mediterranean ecosystems; (ii) soil respiration would be driven by soil water content and temperature at the two study sites, and (iii) both the length and severity of a drought period before rewetting would determine the response of soil respiration to rapid changes in the soil water status.

102 **2. Materials and Methods**

103 **2.1.** Study area

This study was conducted in two ecosystems, pine forest and shrubland, in 104 105 southwestern Spain (37° 21'N; 5° 56' W), both with a typical Mediterranean climate. The distance between the study sites is 14.5 km. The 30-year average rainfall and 106 temperature at the experimental sites were 565.7 mm and 19.0 °C, respectively. The 107 study year (October 2009 – October 2010) was wetter than normal, with rainfalls of 108 852.6 mm in the pine forest and 845.7 mm in the shrubland. The soils in these areas 109 110 have a typical A(B)C profile with a sandy clay loam and loamy sand texture in the pine forest and the shrubland respectively, as defined by the United States Department of 111 Agriculture [14]. Table 1 presents the primary properties of these soils. The pine forest 112 113 is composed primarily of *Pinus pinea* L. with scarce annual herbs and forbs in the understory. The shrubland is dominated by Quercus coccifera L., Cistus albidus L., 114 Genista hirsuta Vahl., and Arbutus unedo L. 115

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2.2.

Soil sampling

To explore the temporal dynamics of soil respiration and nutrient availability, we conducted soil sampling at weekly intervals over the course of one year (October 2009 to October 2010). Soil sampling was performed each Friday for the pine forest and each Saturday for the shrubland. The sampling areas were approximately 4000 and 3000 m² for the pine forest and shrubland, respectively. Each site was considered a single plot, and a minimum distance of 3 m between both soil samples and respiration

measurements and between measurements performed in different days was used to 123 124 ensure that pseudoreplication was avoided. Six soil samples from each study site were randomly collected to a depth of 10 cm of the soil profile on each sampling date with a 125 circular soil corer (5 cm diameter \times 10 cm height). We removed the litter layer from the 126 topsoil before sampling and then transported the samples in refrigerated plastic bags to 127 the laboratory for storage at 3 °C. The soil samples were sieved to remove roots and 128 rocks, processed within three days of collection, and subsequently analysed separately. 129 On each sampling date at six randomly chosen spots located on the bare soil, soil 130 respiration rates were measured as the surface CO₂ efflux using a portable soil 131 132 respiration system (EGM-4, PP SYSTEMS) with a chamber 10 cm in diameter and 15.5 cm in height. According to the manufacturer's protocol, the chamber was held in the air 133 to flush it out before each measurement and then placed on the soil for determination of 134 135 soil respiration rates. Soil temperature was monitored via a digital soil thermometer at six randomly chosen spots different from those at which the soil samples were 136 collected. Both the soil respiration and temperature were systematically measured from 137 10:00 to 11:00 a.m. (local time, GMT+1) and sampled at different spots on each 138 sampling date after removing the litter layer. 139

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2.3.

Laboratory analyses

Soil texture was estimated using the hydrometer method proposed by Kroetsch
and Wang [15]. Soil pH was measured using a 1:5 soil-water solution ratio. Soil organic
matter was analysed following the wet oxidation techniques of Skjemstad and Baldock
[16]. Total soil N was measured following standard Kjeldahl procedures [17]. Dissolved

145	organic N (DON) was analysed following Sollins et al. [18]. DON contents were
146	estimated as the difference between total dissolved N and mineral N. Microbial
147	biomass-N (MB-N) was determined with the fumigation-extraction method as proposed
148	by Brookes et al. [19]. The MB-N concentration was estimated as the difference
149	between total N in the fumigated and unfumigated digested extracts divided by a Kn
150	(the fraction of MB-N extracted after CHCl ₃ treatment) of 0.54 [19]. Soil phenols,
151	hexoses and aromatic compounds were determined following Chantigny et al. [20]. Mg,
152	K, Ca and Na were determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry. All these
153	variables were analysed to generate a general soil description of the two study sites.
154	The following analyses were used to characterize the soil samples collected
155	simultaneously with each soil respiration sampling. Gravimetric soil moisture was
156	calculated for fresh 5 g subsamples after drying them at 80 °C for 48 h to reach a
157	constant weight. Soil water-holding capacity (WHC, g H ₂ O 100 g ⁻¹ soil) was
158	determined for each experimental site from the gravimetric water content of each soil
159	sample that was saturated and allowed to drain freely over 48 h into a filter funnel
160	covered with a plastic wrap at 4 °C [7]. To measure mineral N, soil subsamples were
161	extracted using 0.5 M K_2SO_4 at a ratio of 1:5. The soil samples were shaken with the
162	extractant in an orbital shaker at 200 rpm for 1 h at 20 $^\circ\text{C}$ and filtered through a 0.45 μm
163	Millipore filter. The filtered extract was stored at 2 °C until the colorimetric analyses
164	were conducted within seven days of extraction. The NH4+-N concentration was directly
165	estimated using the indophenol blue method with a microplate reader (ASYS Jupiter
166	HD-ASYS, Hitech, [21]). $NO_3^{-}N$ was first reduced to NH_4^{+} with Devarda alloy, and the

167 concentration was determined as described above. The NO_3^-N concentration in the 168 extracts was estimated as the difference between the values of the Devarda-incubated 169 and unincubated samples. Mineral N was expressed as the sum of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- .

The mineral N availability was measured in situ using ion-exchange membranes 170 171 (resins [22]). We selected this technique because it generates minimal disturbances in soil surface communities and allows intensive sampling over multiple time periods at 172 the same spatial location. Six anion and cation resins (types I-100 and I-200, 173 174 Electropure Excellion, Laguna Hills, California) were installed per site per week over the one-year sampling period. Before installation, the resins were first subjected to 175 expansion treatment by submersion in distilled water at 82–90 °C for 48 h. The resins 176 were then cut into 2.5×2.5 cm squares, attached to a plastic rod with acrylic glue and 177 inserted into the soil at a depth from 0.5 to 3 cm. Resins were incubated in the field for 178 seven days during each sampling period. Following collection, the resins were dried at 179 ambient temperature in the laboratory. Next, the resins were carefully separated from 180 the plastic rod, brushed to remove soil particles, and placed into 125 ml flasks for 181 extraction with 25 ml of 2 M KCl via orbital spinning (1 h at 200 rpm). The extracts 182 183 were analysed to measure the mineral N contents using the above-mentioned methods [19]. To measure PO_4^{3} -P, soil subsamples were extracted with 100 ml of 0.5 M 184 NaHCO₃ at a ratio of 1:20, and the concentration in the extract was determined using the 185 molybdenum blue colorimetric method [23]. 186

187 **2.4.** Statistical and numerical analyses

During the study year, we identified eight major intervals of increasing soil 188 189 water content which we defined as wetting events, and eight periods of decreasing soil water content defined as drying events, at each study site (Figure 1a). We found these 190 intervals in all seasons, with lengths ranging from 1 to 9 weeks. We classified these 191 intervals into dry or wet soil occurrences to calculate the effect of further wetting events 192 on the variable dynamics in an already wetted or a relatively dry soil. We considered a 193 194 wetting interval to occur on a previously wet soil when the initial soil moisture in % of the WHC was above 20% in both sites. A drying interval was considered to occur 195 within a dry soil when the initial soil moisture in % of the WHC (i.e., immediately 196 197 before the start of the drying interval) was below 40% in the pine forest or 50% in the shrubland. These thresholds were arbitrarily chosen as representative of previously wet 198 and dry soils, respectively, in view of the results of soil moisture in % of the WHC 199 200 obtained in Figure 1. For the starting point of the wetting event, we distinguished between sites because of the large difference between the soil water-holding capacities 201 (45.68 g H₂O 100 g⁻¹ soil for pine forest and 27.73 g H₂O 100 g⁻¹ soil for shrubland; 202 Table 1). Thus, we attempted to compensate for this difference and identify eight 203 comparable wetting-drying cycles at the two study sites. The increases or decreases in 204 205 the response variables were calculated as the difference between the final and initial concentrations in each wetting or drying interval. We estimated the Spearman 206 correlation of these changes in soil variables during wetting-drying cycles with the 207 208 mean soil temperature, mean soil water content, length of the wetting-drying cycles, and length of the prior wetting-drying cycle. We accounted for the length of the prior 209 wetting-drying cycle by considering the number of weeks that the wetting or drying 210

event previous to the studied cycle lasted. Daily precipitation values were obtained from
the AEMET weather station network near the study sites. Pearson correlation
coefficients were calculated to test the effect of soil temperature and moisture on the
CO₂ efflux. Spearman correlation coefficients were used to assess the effect of the
lengths of wetting-drying cycles and prior wetting-drying cycle on soil respiration
depending on soil moisture conditions.

To assess the effect of study site and season on the soil variables analysed, we 217 used a linear mixed model, in which the study site was treated as a fixed effect and time 218 was treated as a random effect. Our experimental design accounted for spatially 219 independent samples within each site and considered time as a random effect using 220 linear mixed models, which are particularly useful in settings that require repeated 221 measurements. The effect of each independent variable on the model was analysed with 222 a permutation test (1000 permutations of raw data). The linear mixed model and 223 permutation tests were conducted using the "nlme" and "pgirmess" libraries, 224 respectively, in the R statistical package, version 2.15 (R Development Core Team, 225 2012). The effects of the wetting-drying cycles on the changes in the analysed variables 226 227 for each site were determined with a linear model and permutation tests, as described above, with a significance level of P<0.05. 228

3. Results

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3.1. Intra-seasonal and annual variability

Soil respiration rates in the pine forest were higher than those in the shrubland 231 (P<0.001, Table 1). The mean values for each sampling date ranged between 0.12 and 232 $0.76 \text{ g } \text{CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for the pine forest, and between 0.04 and 0.67 g $\text{CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for the 233 shrubland (Figure 2). We detected significant differences among the seasons (P<0.001, 234 Figure 2), with a significant interaction between site and season (P<0.001). Differences 235 among seasons were found during a separate site analysis (P_{Shrubland}=0.001, P_{Pine} 236 Forest < 0.001). The pattern of soil respiration rates at the two study sites was different 237 throughout the seasons. Whereas soil respiration tended to increase from autumn to 238 winter in the pine forest, the opposite trend was observed in the shrubland (Figure 2). In 239 the pine forest, soil respiration tended to decrease from spring to summer, whereas no 240 trend was observed for the shrubland in this period (Figure 2). 241

Mineral N values were significantly higher in the pine forest than in the 242 shrubland (P<0.001, Table 1), with a significant interaction between site and season 243 (P<0.015). The mean values for each sampling date ranged from below the detection 244 limit to 13.48 mg kg⁻¹ soil for the pine forest and from below the detection limit to 245 11.13 mg kg⁻¹ soil for the shrubland (Figure 3a). Seasonal differences were found 246 during a separate site analysis (P_{Shrubland}=0.009, P_{Pine Forest}=0.009). For both study sites, 247 the maximum mineral N values occurred in autumn and summer, and the minimum 248 values occurred in spring (Figure 3a). The pattern for mineral N content was similar at 249

both study sites, which tended to increase in autumn and summer and decrease in winterand spring (Figure 3a).

We detected significant differences in the resin mineral N values among seasons, 252 but not between sites (P_{season}<0.001, P_{site}=0.068, Table 1). The maximum and minimum 253 mean values of resin mineral N were found in autumn and spring, respectively, at both 254 study sites, with values ranging from 0.11 to 2.45 µg cm⁻² day ⁻¹ for the pine forest and 255 0.12 to 2.31 μ g cm⁻² day ⁻¹ for the shrubland (Figure 3b). Similar to the mineral N 256 values, the pattern for the resin mineral N content was similar at both study sites, 257 tending to increase in autumn and summer and decrease in winter and spring (Figure 258 259 3b). We found a significant interaction between site and season (P = 0.005). Seasonal differences were detected via a separate site analysis (P_{Shrubland}<0.001, P_{Pine Forest}<0.001). 260 The PO₄³⁻ concentration was significantly higher in the pine forest (mean values 261 for each sampling date ranging from 0.33 to 7.00 mg kg⁻¹ soil, with an annual mean of 262 2.37 mg kg⁻¹ soil) than in the shrubland (mean values between 0.07 and 2.16 mg kg⁻¹ 263 soil, annual mean of 0.53 mg kg⁻¹ soil; Table 1, Figure 3c). Whereas the common 264 pattern in the two study sites tended to remain steady from autumn to spring and 265 increase in summer (Figure 3c), we detected a maximum peak in early spring in the 266 267 shrubland (Figure 3c). Although we did not observe significant differences among the seasons, the significant interaction detected via statistical analyses indicated that the 268 seasons influenced the differences between the sites ($P_{season}=0.471$, $P_{site x season} < 0.001$). 269 Seasonal differences were detected in a separate site analysis for both study sites 270 /**n** 0 007 D

271 (
$$P_{Shrubland} = 0.00^{7}$$
, $P_{Pine Forest} = 0.00^{7}$)

272 **3.2.** Changes during wetting-drying cycles

273 For both the annual average and in dry soils, soil respiration increased during wetting events and decreased during drying events in both the pine forest and shrubland 274 (Table S1, Figure 4). However, soil respiration was not significantly different when 275 wetting-drying cycles occurred in wet soils (Table S1, Figure 4). While an inverse 276 pattern was found for resin mineral N at the pine forest, these differences were only 277 significant for the annual average (Table S1, Figure 5). We found no pattern for resin 278 mineral N in the shrubland (Table S1, Figure 5). Additionally, no trend was observed 279 for mineral N or PO_4^{3-} in response to wetting-drying cycles in any condition at either 280 281 site (Table S1, Figure 5).

3.3. Influence of event duration, soil water content and temperature on respiration

Changes in soil respiration during wetting-drying cycles did not show any significant correlations with the lengths of the wetting-drying cycles or the prior wetting-drying cycle (Table S2). Pearson correlation revealed a significant effect of soil water content on the CO₂ efflux in both autumn and spring in the pine forest and in both spring and summer in the shrubland (Table S3). However, no significant effect of soil temperature on respiration rates was found for any season at either study site (Table S3).

4. Discussion

Although we predicted a different pattern in the two ecosystems modulated by local soil conditions, a similar soil respiration response was observed in the wet and dry phases at both study sites. The two ecosystems have different levels of soil organic matter and different soil texture (Table 1), but these differences were not sufficient to trigger a difference in the microbial and plant root response to wetting-drying cycles. Moreover, we found that the response of soil respiration was not significant at either site when the wetting-drying cycles occurred on previously wet soil.

The length and severity of the drought period before a rewetting event might 298 play a key role in the response of soil respiration to the rapid changes in soil water 299 status that can occur in Mediterranean ecosystems [6]. In this study, we analysed the 300 effects of both factors in regulating the respiratory pulse, and the relative change in soil 301 water content likely had a critical effect on the soil respiration response. We found no 302 303 effect of the length of the drought period before the rewetting event or of the wetting or drying events. We hypothesize that the magnitude of the changes in soil water potential 304 305 that occurred in an already-wet soil in response to wetting events was too small to cause 306 a rapid soil respiration response. Likewise, drying events that occurred in wet soil were not sufficiently strong to reduce the CO₂ efflux because the soil remained wet after the 307 corresponding event. Thus, the impact of the initial water status on soil respiration is 308 309 crucial when the wetting-drying events occur in a dry soil, having a secondary role in wet soils. Orchard and Cook [24] found a linear dependence of soil respiration on the 310 extent of change in water potential when a dry soil is wetted. Similarly, Fischer [25] 311

demonstrated that a rapid soil respiration response in a dry soil depends on the
magnitude of the soil water potential change during rewetting. Our results are consistent
with previous studies in Mediterranean ecosystems, showing that the respiratory pulse
was stronger in summer than in spring when responding to a similar sized rewetting [6].
However, we found no effect of soil organic matter or texture on the response of soil
respiration to moisture pulses; this finding is inconsistent with other studies performed
in water-limited ecosystems [6, 13].

Several mechanisms may explain the changes in soil respiration rates detected 319 in response to the wetting-drying cycles at the two study sites. Soil respiration pulses 320 321 are generally derived from the microbial consumption of soil organic matter, and these pulses are highly responsive to precipitation pulses. The decomposable organic 322 substrates are derived partially from the death of a portion of soil microorganisms and 323 324 partially from the non-living soil organic matter [26]. When soil is rewetted, the surviving microorganisms readily decompose the portion of microbial biomass that dies 325 under dry conditions. The rapid changes in soil water potential associated with 326 rewetting may also cause microbes to undergo osmotic shock, leading to the lysis of 327 microbial cells or the release of intracellular solutes [27]. Wetting-drying cycles also 328 329 increase the availability of nonliving soil organic matter for decomposition via physical disruption of soil structure, substrate desorption from surfaces, and increases in 330 microbial mobility and diffusion of soluble organic compounds [28]. 331

Of note, the soil respiration measured in this study was an integrated measure of heterotrophic and autotrophic respiration. Thus, the role of plant root respiration must be considered, which is a large contributor to soil CO₂ efflux. Productivity through the

translocation of assimilated C to the rhizosphere is one of the main drivers of 335 autotrophic soil respiration [29]. The net primary production in these pine forests is 336 generally higher than that in the shrublands. Thus, the differences in ecosystem 337 productivity may play a key role in the significantly higher soil respiration rates found 338 in the pine forest than in the shrubland. Likewise, the higher soil organic matter levels 339 found in the pine forest might foster biological activity, resulting in the higher soil CO₂ 340 emissions at this site. Previous studies reported that C and N mineralization rates during 341 wetting-drying cycles generally correlate with the soil organic matter content [30]. The 342 respiration rates in the shrubland were much lower than those in the pine forest in 343 344 autumn and winter, whereas the opposite trend was found in spring and summer. We attributed this result to site differences in soil properties, water availability, 345 productivity, and plant community phenology [31]. Thus, although the differences in 346 local conditions between the two study sites were not sufficiently strong to trigger 347 contrasting respiration responses towards wetting-drying cycles, they could produce 348 respiration rates of different magnitude and distinct seasonal trends for each site. 349 350 Interestingly, the upward trend in soil respiration during the growing season in 351 the shrubland continued during the dry season (Figure 2). By contrast, during winter when the soil water content was above 15%, the response of soil CO_2 efflux to increases 352 in soil moisture in the shrubland community was a linear decline (Figures 1 and 2). This 353 unexpected pattern of increases of CO₂ rates in the rainless season and decreases in the 354

- 355 wet season could be affected by the combination of a number of non-biological
- 356 processes [32]. On one hand, the reduced soil CO₂ efflux observed in winter could be

due to soil saturated conditions impeding gas diffusion. The increased CO_2 rates found in summer could reflect pedochemical and geological processes, such as geological vents of CO_2 [33]. A complementary process could be the photochemical degradation of litter by solar radiation during summer [34]. Other authors have recently reported anomalous CO_2 rates in drylands that cannot be explained by biological processes [35, 362 36, 37].

Both geophysical processes and plant and microbial uptake influence the 363 concentrations of soil N and C, although soil moisture determines their 364 mineralization/immobilization. As shown in Figures 4 and 5, soil respiration in the pine 365 forest increased during wetting events and decreased during drying events, whereas the 366 opposite trend was observed for the availability of mineral N. We attributed this 367 difference in C and N mineralization under different soil water conditions to the fact 368 that soil respiration is generally enhanced by soil moisture through the above-mentioned 369 mechanisms, but belowground mineral N content is also highly dependent on specific 370 hydrological processes such as leaching and runoff [31]. Notably, the inorganic N pool 371 consisted almost entirely of NO₃⁻N in the two study sites (Table 1). Soil NO₃⁻N loss 372 373 through leaching and runoff is very common [38]. Our results suggest that these processes might lead to N losses during wetting events, following an accumulation of N 374 during drying events at the pine forest site. By contrast, we did not detect changes in N 375 mineralization as a function of moisture in the shrubland. The higher values of 376 microbial biomass N found in the pine forest suggest potentially greater N 377

immobilization during organic matter decomposition compared with that in theshrubland soil.

The notably higher values of PO_4^{3-} found in the pine forest than in the shrubland 380 can be explained by the combination of four complementary mechanisms based on the 381 different pH values, textures and soil organic matter characterizing the study sites 382 (Table 1). First, in acidic soils such as that in the shrubland, Al reacts with PO_4^{3-} , which 383 is gradually transformed into insoluble compounds of phosphate that become generally 384 not available for microbes or plants [39, 40]. Second, the PO_4^{3-} holding capacity of fine-385 textured soils is higher than that of coarse-textured soils, which hold less PO₄³⁻ because 386 of the more inert character of sand particles compared with that of clay particles [41]. 387 Third, the soil PO_4^{3-} in the shrubland may have been lost through soil erosion because 388 this area is subjected to intense trampling [42]. Fourth, soils poor in organic matter such 389 as that in the Shrubland could lead to less organic P mineralization [42]. 390

Over the course of the study year, soil moisture drove the CO₂ efflux in autumn 391 and spring in the pine forest and in spring and summer in the shrubland, whereas soil 392 temperature did not determine the soil respiration in any season at either site. This result 393 394 was in contrast to our hypothesis that both soil moisture and temperature would drive the soil CO₂ efflux. Soil respiration being mainly driven by moisture in water-limited 395 396 ecosystems has been previously reported [3]. This reinforces the idea that soil 397 temperature might be a secondary controller of CO₂ efflux in this type of ecosystem. However, other studies found that the seasonal pattern of soil respiration closely 398 followed soil temperature in Mediterranean ecosystems [43]. These inconsistent results 399

indicate that the influence of soil temperature on CO₂ efflux might be variable
depending on factors such as ecosystem type, vegetation, and soil physicochemical
characteristics.

403

404 **5.** Conclusions

The results presented in this study demonstrated that the response of soil 405 respiration to wetting-drying cycles was similar in the pine forest and the shrubland; 406 rates increased during wet events and decreased during dry events. However, we found 407 higher soil respiration rates in the pine forest (0.12–0.76 g $CO_2 m^{-2} hour^{-1}$) than in the 408 shrubland (0.04–0.67 g CO_2 m⁻² hour⁻¹), and significant differences between the annual 409 trends in soil respiration at the two sites, which we attributed to different vegetation and 410 411 soil characteristics. Furthermore, our findings suggest that while the initial water status of the wetting or drying events had a critical effect on the soil respiration response, the 412 length of the drought period before the rewetting event had no effect. We also 413 concluded that soil water status determined the CO₂ efflux during the growing season at 414 both sites, whereas soil temperature might play a secondary role in controlling soil 415 416 respiration in these types of ecosystems. More research is required to elucidate the effect of wetting-drying cycles on soil respiration in a changing world in which these 417 418 episodes are projected to intensify.

419

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556 Figure captions

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measured at weekly intervals in the top 10 cm of the soil profile during the study 558 year in the pine forest and shrubland sites. Grey bands indicate the eight selected 559 wetting phases. White bands indicate the eight selected drying phases. Error bars 560 are \pm SE, N=6. (b) Soil temperature and precipitation at the pine forest and 561 shrubland throughout the study year. 562 Figure 2. Absolute values of soil respiration rates measured at weekly intervals during 563 the study period in the pine forest and shrubland. Shaded bands correspond to 564 the selected wetting phases defined in Figure 1. Error bars are \pm SE, N=6. 565 **Figure 3.** Absolute values of (a) mineral N, (b) resin mineral N, and (c) PO_4^{3-} -P 566 measured at weekly intervals throughout the study year in the pine forest and 567 shrubland plant communities. Error bars are \pm SE, N=6. 568 **Figure 4.** Changes of soil respiration rate during wetting-drying cycles at each study 569 site. Data were analysed for the entire year and separately for dry and wet soils. 570 Error bars are \pm SE, with N=8 for the annual average and N=4 for dry and wet 571 soils. Significant differences are indicated as P < 0.05 (*), P < 0.01 (**), and P < 0.01572 0.001 (***). 573 **Figure 5.** Changes of (a) mineral N, (b) resin mineral N, and (c) PO_4^{3-} -P during 574 wetting-drying cycles at each study site. Data were analysed for the entire year 575 and separately for dry and wet soils. Error bars are \pm SE, with N=8 for the 576

Figure 1. (a) Evolution of soil moisture in % of the water holding capacity (WHC)

- 577 annual average and N=4 for dry and wet soil. Significant differences are
- 578 indicated as P < 0.01 (**).











Table 1. Soil physical and chemical properties of the top 10 cm for the pine forest and shrubland sites. Asterisks indicates significant differences between the two study sites (p<0.05). Variables analyzed for monitoring purpose were calculated averaging all obtained data during the whole year.

Analyses for general soils description (n=24)		orest	Shrubland	
		SE	Mean	SE
Clay (%)*	23.6	1.71	6.63	0.80
Silt (%)	12.8	3.64	12.5	0.69
Sand (%)*	63.6	5.26	81.0	0.36
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)*	1.16	0.07	1.41	0.09
pH*	7.2	0.03	5.49	0.06
Organic matter (%)*	2.84	0.21	1.91	0.17
Phenols (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	10.42	1.56	6.61	0.43
Hexoses (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	39.33	.2.35	12.03	0.34
Aromatic compounds (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	127.74	9.29	32.8	3.06
Total N (%)*	0.15	0.02	0.10	0.01
MB-N (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	62.7	1.88	35.6	1.46
DON (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	12.0	0.39	8.82	0.48
Ca (meq 100g ⁻¹)*	12.2	0.82	8.08	0.52
Mg (meq 100g ⁻¹)*	1.16	0.08	0.51	0.03
K (meq 100g ⁻¹)*	0.62	0.03	0.16	0.01
Na (meq 100g ⁻¹)*	0.31	0.01	0.18	0.02
Analyses for monitoring purposes (n=312)				
Water content (%)*	12.4	0.53	7.98	0.33
Water holding capacity (g H ₂ O 100 g ⁻¹ soil)*	45.87	0.58	27.73	0.76
Respiration (gr CO ₂ (m ² h) ⁻¹) *	0.33	0.01	0.26	0.01
Mineral N (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	3.54	0.22	1.73	0.16
NH4 ⁺ -N (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	0.32	0.04	0.35	0.08
NO_3 -N (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	3.22	0.23	1.38	0.16

Mineral N Resins (µg cm ⁻² day ⁻¹)	0.72	0.03	0.83	0.04
Sodium bicarbonate PO ₄ ³⁻ -P (mg kg ⁻¹ soil)*	2.37	0.10	0.53	0.03
Mineral N/ PO ₄ ³⁻ -P*	1.49	0.14	3.26	1.16

Wetting-drying cycles influence on soil respiration in two Mediterranean ecosystems – Supplementary materials.

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Table S1. Results (p values) of a linear mixed model in which the study site was treated as a fixed effect and time was treated as random effect. For simplicity, p > 0.1 is showed as non-significant (NS). P values below 0.05 are indicated in bold.

	Pi	ne Forest		Shrubland			
Ī	Whole yea	rDry soil	Wet soil	Whole yea	rDry soil	Wet soil	
Respiration	<0.001	0.029	0.091	0.014	0.009	NS	
Mineral N	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	
Resin-Mineral N	0.006	0.088	NS	NS	NS	NS	
$PO_4^{3}-P$	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	

Table S2. Spearman correlation matrix (rho, 2-tailed) between changes in soil respiration during wetting and drying events, and the length of the wetting and drying event (LE) and the length of the prior wetting or drying event (LPE). None of the correlations were statistically significant (p< 0.05). N=8.

	Pine f	forest	Shrubland Wet event Dry event		
	Wet event	Dry event			
LE	-0.3651	-0.4568	0.4949	-0.3314	
LPE	-0.2594 0.5082		0.3091	-0.3849	

Table S3. Pearson correlation (2-tailed) between soil respiration and soil water content (SWC) and temperature (T). Statistical differences are indicated as p < 0.05 (*), p < 0.01 (**). P values below 0.05 are indicated in bold. N=13.

				Pine Forest		Shrubland		
Autumn Winter Spring Summer Autumn Winter S					Spring	Summer		
SWC	0.862**	0.024	0.652*	0.276	0.380	-0.308	0.660*	0.604*
Т	-0.258	-0.023	-0.600	-0.417	-0.053	-0.295	-0.441	-0.499