

Response to Referee comments.

We are grateful to both reviewers for their detailed and constructive suggestions, which will allow us to further improve the manuscript. We are pleased to know that the reviewers felt that the manuscript quality has been greatly improved and only 5 minor corrections were needed.

All of the detailed suggestions made by the reviewers, mostly related to English grammar or style, were corrected as suggested by the referees. We have addressed all the comments where further clarification was requested. There were only a very few minor suggestions which we didn't implement, but instead we have rewritten the sentences to improve the clarification of the text.

10 We really hope at the current stage the manuscript will be accepted for the publication.

Kind regards,
Emilia Urbanek

#Ref1

15 All referee 1 suggestions have been implemented unless suggestions from Ref#2 were used instead.

#Ref 2

All marks highlighted yellow have been implemented as suggested. Green highlighted comments have been addressed differently than suggested by the reviewer

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P1L7: CO2 should be introduced as this was done for C in L10.

P1L23: Please check this passage: '... higher nutrient concentration for microbial activity resulting in high CO2...'.

P2L7: O2 should be introduced.

P2L21: Please check the order of references given (please carefully check the entire text; e.g. P3L5-6, P23L18).

25 **P2L25:** Please delete ';' after Ritsema & Dekker, 2000.

P3L3: please use 'C' instead of 'carbon' here (as introduced at P2L13).

P3L13: please define 'SOM'.

P5L4: it should read 'filled circles' instead of 'closed circles'.

P8L13-14: Please check this passage: '... where the function fitting R2 was below value of 0.95...'.

30 **P9L3:** please replace '-' by '.' to read: '... 6.7-9.2 cm ...'.

P9L3: Bulk density was deleted from this sentence (presumably because it wasn't measured after each field visit), however, as it is presented in Table 1 and was necessary to convert gravimetric into volumetric water content its determination should be mentioned in the text.

P9L6: 'were' should be replaced by 'was'.

P9L18: Is measurement via GC correct? Or were C and N rather measured by IRMS after separation on a GC column?

Please check this! The methodology is correct as stated in the text

P9L23: please insert 'of' between 'range' and 'values' and delete temp in this sentence.

P9L24: why '6.1-10'? This would not include values >6.0 and <6.1. Hence, '6-10' would be more adequate.

- 5 **P10L2:** Could you please elaborate a little bit more on the linear mixed model procedure you used. Why did you use a mixed model and not a simple linear model. Usually, a mixed model is used to include random-effects factors. So which factors did you define as random-effects factors in your analysis? **Additional information has been added to the text**

P10L3: '... the ANOVA test ...' sounds somewhat strange. Writing '... comparison, ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc test ...' would be better.

- 10 **P11:** Please check the alignment and the scaling of the figure (10/2015 vs. 11/2015).

P12L11: please replace 'a full range' by 'the full range'.

P13: please add information about n (e.g. n = 24) as was given in the original manuscript.

P14L12: please use the singular form: 'variation' instead of 'variations'.

P15: please check the scaling (11/2015 vs. 12/2015) and the alignment.

- 15 **P16: Caption** to Fig. 5: SWC and SWR should be written in full at their first appearance and afterwards abbreviated. Please add information about n. Why using SWC's or SWCs? SWC may stand for both singular and plural. It should be 'temperature classes' instead of 'temperatures classes'. Please add +/- in L6 (i.e. +/- 2°C). It should be '+/- 0.1' instead of '+/-0.2' (grouping of SWR distribution).

P17: Why reporting on SE instead of SD (as given in the figs and Table 1)? Again, please add information about n.

- 20 **P19L2:** Please could you explain what is meant by stating '... it was observed at higher soil temperatures and lower SWC ...'.

P19L4: 'were converted' instead of 'was converted'.

P19L5: please use either '0' and '1' or 'zero' and 'one'.

P19L10: please be more modest here: 'association' instead of 'response' would be more appropriate.

P19L11: 'flux' -> 'efflux'.

- 25 **P20L6:** please check consistency: early autumn vs. late autumn (as written in L15).

P20L10-11: please add 'a' between 'be' and 'situation'.

P20L16-18: please check the reference in this sentence. The statement '... clearly associated with low moisture contents and higher soil temperatures' is connected to 'SWR development' but not to 'its complete disappearance'. Changed to occurrence

- 30 **P20L23:** 'change' -> 'changes'.

P21L11: please replace 'lower SWR soil' , for instance, by 'soil with low degree of SWR'.

P21L15: 'DOC' -> 'dissolved organic C'. It should read: 'higher nutrient and DOC concentration'. Please check 'in the water in wetter zones' (do you mean 'more wettable zones'?).

P21L19: What is meant by C fluxes here? Do you mean other C fluxes than CO2 evolution? If yes, then they should be

specified. Otherwise 'C fluxes' should be deleted.

P22L6: 'were -> 'was'.

P22L15: 'were -> 'was'. Please add a blank after SWC.

P22L19: 'soils' -> 'sites'.

5 P22L22: 'C' -> 'SOM'.

P23L2-4: This sentence is difficult to understand. Could you please rephrase it.

P23L4-7: Please check the consistency of this sentence ('... include soil wettability with ... high (extreme) SWR?)

P23L14: it should read '.. when soil temperature was high and SWC was low ...'.

P23L25: please add 'climate' after 'temperature'.

10 P24L7-8: please rephrase: 'Water filled pores are expected to have ... concentrated nutrients'.

P24L13: please insert 'is' after 'this'.

P24L19: 'below' -> 'above'.

P24L21: why differentiating between particle and pore surfaces? These are two sides of the same coin.

P24L24: 'model' -> 'figure'. 'Fig. 9' -> 'Fig. 6'.

15 P27L3: 'leads' -> 'lead'.

P27L4: 'dominated' -> 'associated'? **the word dominated is correct, for clarification the sentence has been rewritten**

P27L11: 'results in' -> 'is associated with'.

P27L21: please add 'also' to read 'is also of'.

P27L22: please add 'a better' to read 'then allow a better prediction'

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CO₂ efflux from soils with seasonal water repellency

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Abstract. Soil [carbon dioxide \(CO₂\)](#) emissions are strongly dependent on pore water distribution, which in turn can be modified by reduced wettability. Many soils around the world are affected by soil water repellency (SWR), which ~~causes~~ reduces ~~and~~ infiltration and results in diverse moisture distribution. SWR is temporally variable and soils can change from wettable to water-repellent and *vice versa* throughout the year. Effects of SWR on soil carbon (C) dynamics, and specifically on CO₂ efflux, have only been studied in a few laboratory experiments and hence remain poorly understood. Existing studies suggest soil respiration ~~is~~ reduced with increasing severity of SWR, but the responses of soil CO₂ efflux to varying water distribution created by SWR are not yet known.

Here we report on the first field-based study that tests whether SWR indeed reduces soil CO₂ efflux, based on *in situ* ~~field~~ measurements carried out over three consecutive years at a grassland and pine forest sites under the humid temperate climate of the UK.

Soil CO₂ efflux was indeed very low on occasions when soil exhibited consistently high SWR and low soil moisture following long dry spells. Low CO₂ efflux was also observed when SWR was absent, in ~~early~~ spring and late autumn when soil temperatures were low, but also in summer when SWR was ~~reduced~~~~diminished~~ by frequent rainfall events. The highest CO₂ efflux occurred not when soil was wettable, but when SWR, and thus soil moisture, was spatially patchy, a pattern observed for the majority of the measurement period. Patchiness of SWR is likely to have created zones with two different ~~characteristics~~ ~~functions~~ related to CO₂ production and transport. Zones with wettable soil or low persistence of SWR with higher proportion of water filled pores are expected to provide water with higher nutrient concentration ~~resulting in higher~~~~for~~ microbial activity ~~and resulting in high~~ CO₂ production. Soil zones with high SWR persistence, on the other hand, are dominated by air filled pores with low microbial activity, but facilitating O₂ supply and CO₂ exchange between the soil and the atmosphere.

The effects of soil moisture and SWR on soil CO₂ efflux ~~are exhibit~~~~strongly~~ co-correlated~~tion~~, but the results of this study support the notion that SWR indirectly affects soil CO₂ efflux by affecting soil moisture distribution. The appearance of SWR is influenced by moisture and temperature, but once present, SWR influences subsequent infiltration patterns and resulting soil water distribution, which in turn affects respiration. This study demonstrates that SWR can have contrasting effects on CO₂

efflux. It can reduce it in dry soil zones by preventing their re-wetting, but, at the field soil scale and when spatially-variable, it can also enhance overall CO₂ efflux. Spatial variability in SWR and associated soil moisture distribution therefore need to be considered when evaluating the effects of SWR on soil C dynamics under current and predicted future climatic conditions.

5 1 Introduction

Soil is the most important reservoir of terrestrial carbon (C), storing four times more C than plant biomass (Stocker et al., 2013), but large amounts of C are released back to atmosphere mainly as carbon dioxide (CO₂) formed by microbial decomposition of [soil organic matter \(SOM\)](#) as well as biological activity of roots and microfauna (Bond-Lamberty and Thomson, 2010; Rey, 2015). Soil moisture is one of the most important environmental factors regulating the production and transport of CO₂ in terrestrial ecosystems (Maier et al., 2011; Moyano et al., 2012). It influences not only soil organic C bioavailability and regulates access to oxygen (O₂) (Moyano et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2016), but also C mass transport (Davidson et al., 2012).

Soil C models consider changes in soil moisture conditions, but they use functions that represent a response of soil respiration ([i.e. CO₂ efflux](#)) to average soil water content (SWC) and do not account for within-soil moisture variability, which is a characteristic of most soils ([Rodrigo et al., 1997; Yan et al., 2016; Rodrigo et al., 1997; Moyano et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2016](#)). Most soils are typically very heterogeneous, with moisture distribution and water movement being variable and dependent on a number of factors (e.g. texture, structure, [SOMorganic matter](#) content) that determine soil hydrological properties. Soils prone to development of soil water repellency (SWR) are particularly susceptible to spatially highly variable soil moisture distribution and irregular wetting (Dekker and Ritsema, 1995; Doerr et al., 2000; Ritsema and Dekker, 2000). SWR is a common feature of many soils worldwide, and is expected to become even more widespread and severe under a warming climate (Goebel et al., 2011). SWR affects soil-water relations by restricting infiltration, which results in large areas of soil remaining dry for long periods even after substantial rainfall events (Keizer et al., 2007). It often leads to enhanced preferential flow where water moves along pathways [created offered](#) by cracks, root channels and zones of less repellent soil, leaving other areas completely dry [for long periods](#) (Urbanek et al., 2015). Irregular water infiltration in water-repellent soil, often creates distinct zones with water filled pores, concentrated dissolved organic [C \(DOC\), carbon](#) and nutrients, adjacent to dry regions with air-filled pores ([Müller et al., 2014; Wallach and Jortzick, 2008; Urbanek and Shakesby, 2009; Müller et al., 2014](#)).

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Several studies have investigated microbial activity in water-repellent soils, mainly to determine whether the microbial exudates and proteins can cause the development of hydrophobic ~~particulate~~ surfaces in soils (White et al., 2000; Feeney et al., 2006; Lozano et al., 2014). SWR has also been reported ~~to as an important factor in reducing~~ soil microbial activity and it has been considered as one of the factors protecting ~~SOM~~ soil organic C from microbial decomposition by separation of the microorganisms from their food and water sources (Piccolo and Mbagwu, 1999; Piccolo et al., 1999; Bachmann et al., 2008). Goebel et al. (2007) demonstrated that SWR affects the distribution and continuity of the liquid phase in the soil matrix, ~~and~~ therefore restricts the accessibility of ~~soil organic matter (SOM)~~ and the availability of water, O₂ and nutrients to the microorganisms. Using laboratory-based studies, they observed lower respiration rates from soils in a water-repellent state, and decreasing CO₂ efflux with increasing severity of SWR (Goebel et al., 2005; Goebel et al., 2007). In a review of this topic Goebel et al. (2011) highlighted the importance of SWR in ~~SOM~~ organic matter decomposition especially during extreme climatic events such as drought, suggesting that it reduces the total soil CO₂ efflux. The small number of existing laboratory-based studies suggest reduced soil respiration ~~(i.e. CO₂ efflux)~~ when soil is water-repellent, but a thorough field study investigating temporal changes in SWR and their effect on soil CO₂ efflux, ~~however,~~ is still lacking.

The aim of the current study is, ~~therefore,~~ to investigate, ~~for the first time,~~ soil CO₂ efflux responses to SWR under undisturbed *in-situ* conditions ~~in the field~~. We test the hypothesis that the presence of SWR reduces soil respiration ~~also~~ under ~~natural~~ ~~real~~ ~~world~~ field conditions. The study sites selected were humid-temperate grassland and pine forest in the UK, which were anticipated to exhibit substantial temporal and spatial variability in SWR (Doerr et al., 2006), a common feature of water-repellent soils in general (Doerr et al., 2000).

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2 Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental design

A forest and a grassland site, both subject to humid-temperate conditions, were chosen because of their likely high susceptibility to develop seasonal SWR in view of their sandy texture and permanent vegetation cover, which are characteristics known to be conducive to SWR development (Doerr et al., 2000). ~~Both study sites consisted of six study plots with adjacent grass and bracken cover, arranged along a 20 m transect (Fig. 1). The sites were monitored from May till~~

~~November during the growing seasons in three consecutive years (2013–2015). C, involving continuous measurement of SWC and soil temperature was conducted, and recording of CO₂ efflux and persistence of SWR measurements were taken during site visits at approximately monthly intervals. Both study sites consisted of six study plots with adjacent grass and bracken cover, arranged along a 20-m transect (Fig. 1). At each study site twelve PVC collars for CO₂ measurements (two collars per study plot) were installed, and respiration was measured on vegetated and bare soil respectively. Bare soil measurements were conducted on soil from which the vegetation and litter layer inside the collar was temporarily removed for the duration of the CO₂ efflux measurement to assess the contribution of different layers to the total soil respiration, and put back after the measurement. The sites were monitored from May till November in three consecutive years (2013–2015). Continuous measurement of SWC and soil temperature was conducted, while CO₂ efflux and persistence of SWR measurements were taken during site visits at approximately monthly interval. at each study vegetation pplot the vegetation inside of one collar was left intact and other had vegetation and litter layer temporarily removed for the duration of the CO₂ efflux measurement to assess the contribution of different layers to total soil respiration.~~

Given the near-impossibility of finding wettable and water-repellent soils for comparison that otherwise display identical properties (e.g. texture, organic matter content, pH, litter type), we examined sites that displayed temporally variable behaviour, switching between water-repellent and wettable states of soil. This facilitated examining the impact of SWR CO₂ efflux, bearing in mind that temperature and moisture themselves are known to affect SWR and CO₂ efflux. C and ~~N~~ Nitrogen (N) contents as well as pH were determined on soil samples in the laboratory to be considered as potential factors for CO₂ efflux variability between plots and study sites.

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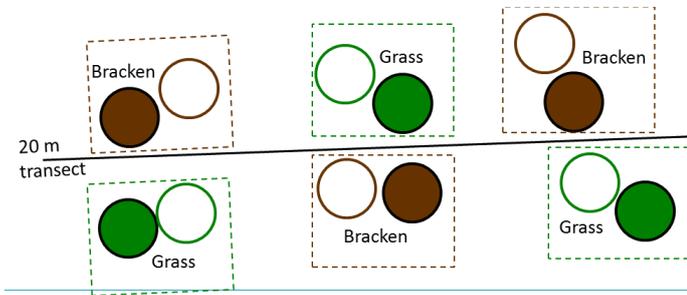


Figure 1: Schematic presentation of plots and CO₂ efflux measurement collar at both, the forest (T-f) and grassland (T-g) study site arranged along a 20 m long transect. The dashed squares identify study plots (6) and circles – soil collars for CO₂ efflux measurements (12). green coloured shapes represent soil surface vegetated with grass and brown – with bracken; filled closed circles represent vegetated area, open circles – bare soil with vegetation temporarily removed.

2.2 Study sites

The study sites ~~were~~ are located in eastern England, approximately 8 km north-west (grassland site ~~(T-g)~~-52°24'56.42"N 0°52'31.19"E) and 8 km east (forest site ~~(T-f)~~-52°27'30.82"N 0°40'50.31"E) of Thetford. The sites ~~were~~ are subject to humid-temperate conditions with an annual mean rainfall of 665 mm spread relatively uniformly throughout the year and an annual mean temperature of 14.5°C, with monthly mean maxima of 23°C in July and August and minima of 9°C in December and January (UK Met Office, 2017a). The ~~forest~~ site ~~T-f~~ was part of a long-term forest monitoring network established ~~in~~ since 1995 aimed to assess the impact of the changing environment on forest and soil health (Vanguelova et al., 2010; Waldner et al., 2014; Jonard et al., 2015). Both sites have been planted with similar tree species, which were Scots Pine (88%), beech (6%) and oak (6%) (~~the grassland site T-g~~ in 1928 and ~~the forest site T-f~~ in 1967), but all trees at ~~the grassland T-g site~~ were felled in 1999 and ~~the site the area was~~ converted to a managed grassland. The dominant ~~vegetation soil-cover~~ and soil was similar for both sites with large areas ~~species at both sites are essentially the same with large areas~~ covered by either grasses (*Holcus lanatus*, *Agrostis canina*) or bracken (*Pteridium aquilinum*, *Dryopteris dilatata*). At the ~~forest~~ site ~~T-f~~, however, some moss (*Eurhynchium praelongum*, *Rhytidiadelphus* sp.) ~~was is also~~ also present at the soil surface (UK Forest Research, 2017a). The ~~forest~~ site ~~was T-f is~~ subject to minimal management, a few trees having been removed during the winter/spring of 2014 near the monitoring site. At the ~~grassland~~ site ~~T-g~~, ~~grass~~-mowing ~~was is~~ conducted twice a year to control tree seedling growth. The soil type at both study sites ~~was~~ is Ferralic Arenosol with an approximately 3-cm thick litter layer at the ~~forest T-f~~ site, and 0-13 cm thick Ah horizon of organic rich sand with woody roots and occasional flints (UK Forest Research, 2017b). More information about the basic properties of the soils at the study sites ~~was is provided given~~ in Table 1.

Table 1: Selected properties of soil samples (n=12) retrieved from the CO₂ efflux monitoring collars after the field campaign had been completed. See main text for further details.

Site	Soil depth (cm)	C content (%; mean (st.dev))		C:N (mean (st.dev))		pH (-)		Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	
		Bracken	Grass	Bracken	Grass	Bracken	Grass	Bracken	Grass
T-f	0-2.2	26.9 (12.1)	7.2 (6.1)	23.5 (2.0)	13.2 (6.3)	3.6	4.6	0.3	0.9
	2.2-4.5	8.3 (4.7)	2.4 (1.5)	16.3 (9.3)	9.7 (6.1)	3.7	5.2	0.7	1.2
	4.5-6.7	3.0 (2.4)	1.5 (0.8)	10.3 (2.7)	7.0 (3.4)	4.0	5.1	1.1	1.1
	6.7-9.2	1.2 (0.7)	1.6 (0.7)	6.6 (4.6)	7.2 (2.6)	4.1	5.2	1.3	1.3
T-g	0-2.2	24.3 (6.1)	20.0 (5.3)	23.1 (6.6)	20.4 (8.6)	2.9	3.1	0.5	0.7
	2.2-4.5	8.7 (4.4)	7.4 (5.2)	13.2 (8.3)	12.2 (6.0)	3.0	3.0	1.1	1.2
	4.5-6.7	3.3 (1.3)	3.0 (2.1)	10.5 (4.5)	7.9 (8.0)	3.0	3.1	1.2	1.3
	6.7-9.2	0.8 (0.1)	1.2 (0.2)	4.9 (1.7)	5.7 (2.8)	3.2	3.1	1.5	1.8

2.3 *In situ* monitoring of soil CO₂ efflux, soil moisture and temperature

PVC collars (20 cm diameter, 6 cm height) (twelve per study site; Fig. 1) were inserted into the soil for to enable CO₂ efflux measurements to be made. The collars (20 cm diameter, 6 cm height) were inserted to a soil depth of 4 cm leaving the remaining 2 cm protruding above the surface. This minimal insertion depth (Heinemeyer et al., 2011) ensured that the collars remained in place allowing a sealed contact with the chamber during the measurement, but minimised the isolation of soil and plant roots inside the collars from areas outside. At each study plot, the vegetation and the litter layers within one soil collar were temporarily removed for the duration of the CO₂ efflux measurements and carefully put back after to avoid increased soil evaporation, while vegetation in the other collar was left undisturbed.

CO₂ efflux was measured using a Li 8100A Infrared Gas Analyser (IRGA) system with a 20-cm diameter dark chamber (LiCor Inc, Lincoln, NE, USA) placed over the installed PVC collars for the time of the measurement. The change in CO₂ concentration in the chamber was monitored over 2 minutes starting at the ambient CO₂ concentration and repeated twice for each collar at 2-minute intervals. The CO₂ efflux was determined by fitting an exponential function to the accumulation evolution of CO₂ concentration over time, excluding a 30-s initial phase at the start of the measurement. CO₂ efflux results data where the function fitting coefficient R² was below value of 0.95 were excluded (less than 5% of overall measurements).

During each CO₂ efflux measurement, volumetric SWC was recorded with a Theta-Probe (ML3, Delta-T Devices) inserted at the soil surface up to 5cm depth next to PVC collar. Continuous monitoring of soil moisture and temperature at 5 and 10 cm depths at study plots was also conducted at study plots (n=4) using soil sensors (5TM, Decagon Devices, Inc.) connected to a datalogger. During each field visit, intact soil samples were collected from each plot approx. 10 cm from the CO₂ efflux measurement collars using PVC tubes (5 cm diameter, 9 cm height) to allow detailed measurements of SWC and wettability at each 2 cm depth interval under controlled laboratory conditions. In addition to this regular soil sampling, intact soil samples from within collars were also collected at the end of the measuring campaign to determine soil properties within the collar.

Meteorological data were obtained from the Santon Downham meteorological station located 500 m from the grassland site site T-g, while a dedicated rain gauge for monitoring of precipitation was installed at the forest T-f site.

2.4 Soil sample analysis

Soil samples collected during each field visit were kept sealed in a constant temperature room (20 °C) for 24 hrs, then split into 4 depths (0-2.2, 2.2-4.5, 4.5-6.7, 6.7-9.2 cm) to determine their [bulk density](#), SWR and SWC. Wettability of soil was determined under field moist conditions using the [water drop penetration time \(WDPT\)](#) test by applying 5 water drops (15 µl each) of tap water to the soil surface of each sample and recording the time until their full infiltration (Doerr, 1998). 20 WDPT readings were recorded for each sample, giving a total of 120 WDPT readings per measurement event. Based on the readings, WDPT frequency distribution per event ~~was~~ determined by separating WDPT data into “persistence” classes (Doerr, 1998), wettable (<5 s), slight- (5-60 s), moderate- (61-600 s), strong- (601-3600 s) and extreme- (>3600 s) SWR. In addition, for determining the response of CO₂ fluxes to SWR conditions, the results were grouped into the SWR distribution based on the proportion of samples falling into the extreme SWR class per measuring event. WDPT class divisions are [essentially](#) arbitrary, but the division chosen here is based on the reasoning that presence of soil with the highest level of SWR (i.e. extreme) has the most severe effect in terms of inhibiting water infiltration and resulting in most diverse soil water distribution.

~~SWC~~ [Water content](#) of the soil samples was determined gravimetrically by drying them at 105°C for 24 hrs and converting the weights into volumetric equivalents by incorporating soil bulk density values. [Soil bulk density was calculated from the ratio of mass per volume of dry soil.](#)

Total C and ~~nitrogen~~ (N) contents in the soil samples were determined using a PDZ Europa ANCA GSL Elemental Analyser coupled with a 20/20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Samples of dried, homogenised soil were weighed in tin foil capsules and combusted over chromium oxide in helium with excess O₂ at 1000°C. The resulting gases were reacted over hot copper (600°C) and quantified using ~~the~~ gas chromatography. Elemental composition ~~and C:N ratios~~ were calculated based upon peak areas relative to the standard reference materials acetanilide and atropine. Soil pH was determined after 1:5 dilutions in deionised water and measured with the pH electrode.

2.5 Data analysis

Statistical analyses of data were performed using SPSS 22. For purpose of some data analyses the results of SWC and soil temperature have been grouped into bands representing a narrow range of values (e.g. ± 2°C ~~temp~~ or ±10% SWC ~~each~~) in order to facilitate comparison and interpretation of the dataset (e.g. soil temperature within the 8°C band included values of

6–10 °C). Data were tested for normal distribution and homogeneity of variance, and data with non-normal distribution and/or unequal variances were transformed (square root, log) in order to carry out parametric analyses. A general linear mixed model (~~linear mixed model~~) was used to identify key factors analysed that might be affecting soil CO₂ fluxes using a grouped results approach. Soil temperature, SWC, vegetation type, surface type, C content and C:N ratio were used as fixed effect factors, while the study site, plot number and measurement date were used as random effect factors. For multiple comparisons, the ANOVA ~~test~~ and Tukey's post-hoc test were used to analyse significant differences. Significance of all test outcomes was accepted at p levels <0.05.

3 Results

3.1 Meteorological and soil conditions

10 The average annual temperatures and precipitation during the three years of the field monitoring campaign were very close to 30-year average (1961 to 1990; UK Met Office, 2017b). The average air temperatures between three years of monitoring were also similar but the precipitation patterns showed important variations (supplementary Table S1, Fig. S1, S2). Contrasting rainfall patterns occurred during summers of 2013 and 2014 with the former showing exceptionally low and scarce rainfall, the latter high total precipitation with rainfall events occurring frequently throughout the season.

15 The temporal and seasonal changes in meteorological conditions directly influenced soil conditions. Soil temperatures responded closely to air temperatures but, as would be expected, changes were buffered by the insulating effect of the soil especially in the forest environment where it was less cold in the winter and less warm in the summer in comparison to the air temperature (1/24°C; 4/19°C minimum/maximum soil temperature at 5 cm depth at grassland and forest, respectively) (Fig. 2). Weather conditions also resulted in drying and wetting of soil with the highest, relatively uniform SWC ~~water contents~~ persisting from late autumn until early spring, contrasting with very variable SWC ~~water contents from late in~~ spring and ~~summer till early autumn~~. At the forest site (T-f), especially in winter, the water content in top soil layer was distinctly higher than lower down in the soil profile, while at the grassland site (T-g) the differences between SWC at different depths were less pronounced. In summer, the responses to precipitation at different soil depths were variable: typically rainfall caused an

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immediate increase in SWC both in the upper and lower soil. On some occasions (e.g. [grassland site](#) 8/2013, 5/2014), however, the response of SWC to rainfall at 10 cm depth was more pronounced than at 5 cm depth.

Figure 2: Temporal changes in soil temperature at 5-cm depth (—blue line) and soil moisture (—green line—SWC at 5-cm depth; —brown line—SWC at 10-cm depth) at both study sites over 3 years; a) Thetford forest (T-f); and b) Thetford-grassland (T-g). Field measurements and sampling events are marked with black circles (•).

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3.2 Seasonal changes in Soil Water Repellency

SWR occurred to some degree for the majority of the warmer months (May-October) followed by a change to wettable soil conditions in the colder half of the year (November - April) (Fig. 3). However, SWR patterns varied from year to year depending on specific temperature and soil moisture conditions. During the warmer months of 2013 and 2015, when the total precipitation was low, the majority of soil was water-repellent (WDPT > 56 s; slight to moderate to extreme SWR). In 2014, during a wetter and warmer summer season, SWR was very spatially variable with parts of the soil remaining wettable (e.g. grassland site T-g 1/7/14), while the other plots showed slight to moderate SWR (WDPT 65-600 s) at the grassland site T-g and slight to extreme SWR (WDPT 56 - >3600s) at the forest site T-f. Only on a few occasions during the whole measurement period (e.g. 19/7/13 for the grassland site T-g and e.g. 1/8/14 for the forest site T-f) was soil uniformly extremely water-repellent (WDPT > 3600 s), which coincided with long dry spells lasting at least two weeks prior to the measurement dates. For most sampling events, soils showed very high spatial variability in wettability with samples exhibiting the full range of WDPT values (0 - >3600 s) on a given sampling date/event.

The WDPT values corresponded well with SWC. Thus, for the majority of cases at lower SWC, higher WDPT values were observed, but it was also notable that highly variable SWC values were measured when soils exhibited a range of different WDPT levels.

Although the general pattern of SWR occurrence at both study sites was relatively similar, soil at the forest site (T-f) showed overall higher and spatially less variable WDPT values than at the grassland (T-g) site. Thus, soil at the former site showed more frequent occurrences of extreme SWR (especially during 2014) and also a higher proportion of soil samples being remaining water-repellent when other samples were wettable on the same sampling event (e.g. 9/11/13, 23/3/15, 28/4/15)

(Fig. 3).

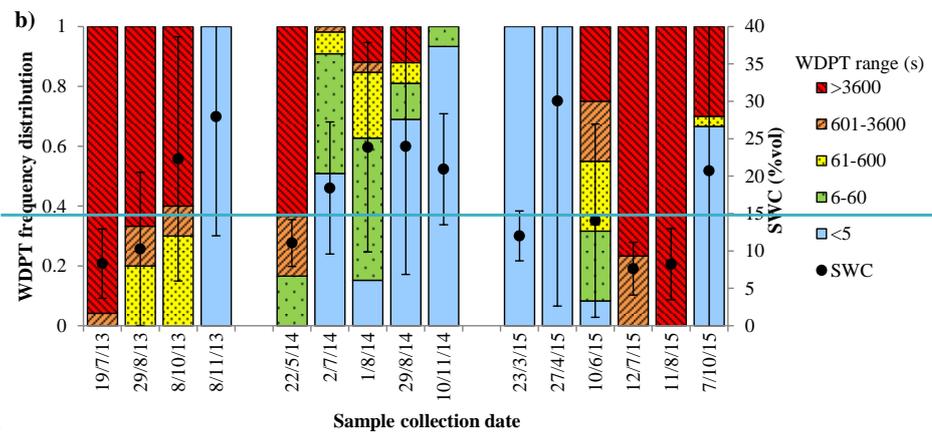
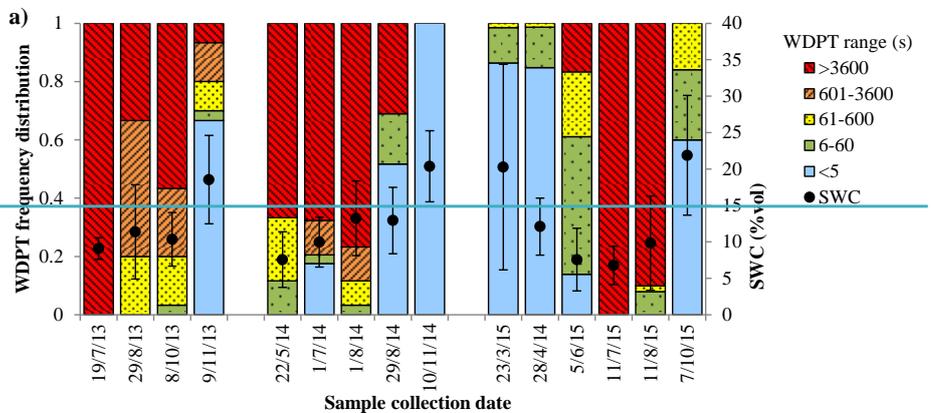


Figure 3: Frequency distribution of SWR persistence (measured by WDPT) and soil water content (SWC) for both study sites at 0.9 cm depth at all sampling dates (a) forest (T-f) and (b) for grassland (T-g). Different colours reflect WDPT classes, black circles represent mean SWC and error bars the standard deviation of the mean (n=24).

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3.3 Seasonal variations in CO₂ fluxes

Measurements of CO₂ effluxes showed high variability between sampling ~~dates~~ events, and between the warmer and cooler periods of each year. The lowest CO₂ effluxes ~~were~~ observed in early spring (e.g. 4/15, 5/15) and late autumn (11/14), but also on a few occasions during the summer (e.g. 7/13) (Fig. 4). The highest CO₂ effluxes ~~were~~ observed during spring and summer, which also corresponded with the highest spatial variability in efflux ~~rates~~ values between samples. ~~The vegetated soil plots at the forest site showed significantly higher. Bare soil plots showed significantly lower CO₂ efflux than bare soil than plots with vegetation and litter covers at the T-f site, but not at the T-g site.~~ (Table 2).

A clear division in soil CO₂ efflux between warmer and cooler periods was observed at both study sites, highlighting soil temperature as a major factor influencing soil CO₂ efflux (Fig. 5a). CO₂ efflux values remained low ~~at the temperatures~~ up to 10 ~~10 or~~ 12 °C and increased with rising temperature ~~above these~~. Beyond a maximum around 16 °C at the forest (~~T-f~~) site and 20 °C at the grassland (~~T-g~~), however, a reduction in CO₂ efflux ~~rate~~ was observed, ~~with the maximum efflux being higher at the former.~~

The other important factor affecting soil CO₂ efflux was soil moisture (Fig. 5b) which, together with soil temperature, can explain overall 61% of total variations in soil CO₂ efflux. By considering ~~these two factors~~ (soil temperature and ~~soil~~ moisture) together it was clear that especially at higher temperatures (16-20 °C), low soil moisture (SWC <20 %) can be the limiting factor and ~~can~~ lead to reduced soil respiration. When SWC increased, soil CO₂ efflux was also higher, but reduced again at high SWC ~~values~~. At low soil temperatures (i.e. the 8 °C temperature band), soil moisture showed a ~~very~~ limited effect and soil CO₂ efflux remained low irrespective of SWC.

A high variability of CO₂ efflux responses was observed even for similar mean SWC~~s~~ and the addition of other factors in the general model (e.g. study site, type of vegetation; Table 3) only slightly improved ~~the~~ explanation of the overall variability in CO₂ effluxes (R²=0.68).

Figure 4: Variations in soil CO₂ efflux for each measurement event for vegetated (● filled circles) and bare (○ open circles) plots at both study sites; (a) forest T_f and (b) grassland T_g with both barren and grass plots.

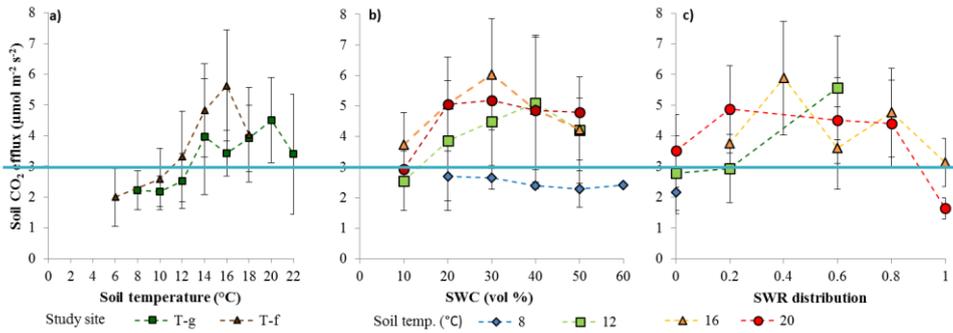


Figure 5: Relationship between soil CO₂ efflux and a) soil temperature, b) soil water content (SWC) and c) soil water repellency (SWR) distribution. In figure 5a results are separated for the forest (T-f) and grassland (T-g) sites and soil CO₂ fluxes are represented as means (with standard deviation) for soil temperature grouped into 2 °C classes (± 1 °C). In figure 5b and 5c results from T-f and T-g sites are combined and separated into 4 soil temperature classes soil water content (SWC) for the forest (T-f) and grassland (T-g) sites combined for different soil temperature ranges. Soil CO₂ fluxes are represented as means (with standard deviations) for SWC's in figure 5b grouped into SWC classes of 10 vol%. Different colour and symbols represent results grouped into 4 soil temperature classes of ± 2 °C and in figure 5c grouped into SWR distribution (± 0.1). The SWR axis minimum (0 represents =wetttable soil, while the maximum of 1 =v represents uniformly extreme SWR_{max}), for different soil temperature classes the same as in fig 5b. Soil CO₂ fluxes are represented as means (with standard deviation) for SWR distribution grouped within ± 0.2 add info about e

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Table 2: Total average CO₂ fluxes (μmol/m²/h²) from plots under bracken and grass understorey with vegetated and bare plots at the forest (T-f) and grassland (T-g) study sites. The asterisks indicate the statistically significant differences between groups of vegetated and bare plots (*p<0.05, ***p<0.001).

Study site	Vegetation type	Vegetated plots mean(st.err)	Bare plots mean(st.err)
T-f	Bracken	4.57(0.28)	3.02(0.18) *
	Grass	5.14(0.28)	3.93(0.27) *
	all	4.86(0.20)***	3.57(0.16) ***
T-g	Bracken	3.61(0.23)	3.12(0.15)
	Grass	4.04(0.22)	2.96(0.21)
	all	3.82(0.16)***	3.04(0.13) ***

Table 3: Factors affecting soil CO₂ fluxes including the statistical significance level.

Source	Type III sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Significance level
Corrected model for sqrt CO ₂ flux	23.11 ^a	64	0.36	3.96	0.000
Intercept	24.43	1	24.43	267.72	0.000
SWC * Temp	19.85	62	0.35	3.51	0.000
Study Site	1.56	1	1.56	17.09	0.000
Vegetation type	0.84	1	0.84	9.15	0.003
Error	10.86	119	0.09		
Total	788.60	184			
Corrected total	33.96	183			

^a R² = 0.68

3.4 Soil water repellency and CO₂ fluxes

Given that ~~occurrence of~~ SWR is strongly affected by both temperature and moisture, and at the ~~sites it was observed only when soil temperature was above 10 °C it was observed at higher soil temperatures and lower SWC was below 25 % vol.~~, the relationship between SWR and CO₂ efflux was considered separately from the above described model (Table 3). To consider

5 the effect of SWR variability on CO₂ efflux, SWR data (Fig. 3) ~~were~~ converted into a relative fraction of extremely water-repellent soil (WDPT >3600 s) (Fig. 5c) described as SWR distribution. The zero value represents ~~soil~~ soil where extreme SWR was not detected, while a value of 1 denoted ~~uniform extreme SWR~~ uniform extreme SWR. Values between ~~0 and 1~~ 0 and 1 represented increasing levels of extreme SWR presence; lower values indicated ~~wettable soil with low percentage of extremely water-repellent soil~~ wettable soil with low percentage of extremely water-repellent soil, while the values closer to 1 represented soils dominated by extreme SWR with low percentage of wettable soil or at low SWR.

10 Soil CO₂ efflux showed a very clear ~~association response~~ association response to SWR distribution. When SWR distribution had a value of ~~0~~ 0 (i.e. the soil was wettable) soil CO₂ efflux was low, but it increased when a small fraction of soil became extremely water-repellent. The maximum soil CO₂ efflux was reached for a SWR distribution ~~between around~~ between around 0.4 – 0.6. SWR distribution values >0.6 were associated with a decreased CO₂ efflux, which reached its lowest values when all soil became uniformly water-repellent (value of 1). The differences between soil CO₂ efflux for wettable/extremely SWR distribution values (0 and

15 1) and intermediate values (0.2-0.8) were observed mainly for ~~time points events~~ with higher soil temperatures.

4 Discussion

4.1 Temporal variations in SWR

This study investigated, for the first time, the seasonal variability of SWR persistence in UK soils and, for the first time globally, the potential impact of reduced soil wettability on CO₂ efflux in the field. Three years of monitoring of soils under humid temperate pine forest and grassland, revealed that SWR was present for most of the ~~summer~~ and ~~early~~-autumn. The presence of SWR at these locations was consistent with previous studies that also reported severe SWR for UK grassland, forest and heath (Doerr et al., 2006), arable land (Robinson, 1999; Hallett et al., 2001) and on golf greens (York and Canaway, 2000), and in The Netherlands on grass-covered sand dunes under a similar climate (Dekker and Ritsema, 1996a; Ritsema and Dekker, 2000). Both investigated sites were under permanent vegetation, which is generally considered to be ~~a state~~~~situation~~ most susceptible to SWR development (Doerr et al., 2000; Woche et al., 2005) due to the continuous input of hydrophobic substances from the vegetation and soil microbes (Doerr et al., 2000), and a low level of soil disturbance.

SWR has long been known to be temporally variable and has commonly been observed when soil is warm and dry, while disappearing during prolonged cold and wet conditions (Doerr et al., 2000; Leighton-Boyce et al., 2005; Buczko et al., 2006; Stoof et al., 2011). At the sites investigated here, SWR was observed from early summer (May/June) until ~~early~~~~late~~ autumn (~~October~~~~November~~). The exact timing of SWR development and also of its complete disappearance could not be precisely ~~determined~~ ~~pinpointed~~ in this study ~~within each year~~ due to the monthly ~~timings~~ of the sampling visits, but it was clearly associated with low soil moisture contents and higher soil temperatures. SWR was not observed at soil temperatures lower than 10 °C despite low SWCs, suggesting not only soil moisture but also the temperature is important in SWR ~~occurrence~~~~development~~. SWR remained spatially and temporally variable throughout the ~~entire~~-warmer ~~season~~~~periods~~. Only long dry spells resulted in high persistence of SWR in all investigated soil samples, suggesting that the majority of the soil at the ~~site~~s was water-repellent at that time. For the majority of the warmer season, SWR was present, but of variable severity and often spatially interspersed with a small proportion of wettable zones. The high variability of SWR can be attributed to frequent ~~change~~s between sufficiently dry and wet periods, characteristic of the UK climate, which allows development and partial disappearance of SWR. During the warmer dry periods in 2013 and 2015, the ~~data suggest that~~ soil became water-repellent ~~throughout~~ (WDPT >5 s), but its persistence in different soil ~~plots~~~~areas~~ varied from minutes to hours. In contrast,

during summer 2014, the proportion of wettable to water-repellent samples was very high (up to 65 % ~~at grassland site in T-g~~, up to 50 % ~~at forest site in T-f~~), which can be attributed to the particularly rainy summer (total rainfall for summer 2014 was 50 % higher than 2013 and 20 % higher than 2015). The high spatial variability of SWR and ~~only that~~ partial change to a wettable state during the summer 2014 was likely ~~to be~~ a consequence of spatially uneven infiltration into the soil, further
5 enhanced by preferential water flow, both caused by presence of hydrophobic ~~particles~~-surfaces. The flat topography and surface cover of litter (at the forest site) or vegetation (at the grassland site) probably restricted surface runoff and resulted mainly in spatially variable infiltration and preferential water flow (Bughici and Wallach, 2016). We ~~believe anticipate~~ that substantial amount of rainfall was transferred below the near-surface repellent layer via faunal burrows (Shakesby et al., 2007), roots and soil cracks (Dekker and Ritsema, 1996b; Kobayashi and Shimizu, 2007; Urbanek et al., 2015) leaving zones with
10 high persistence of SWR near wettable soil zones.

Patchy SWR distribution was associated with variable SWC, soil zones with high SWR persistence had a lower soil moisture content while wettable and soil with low degree of lower SWR ~~soil was~~ moist, which is consistent with the typically observed relationship between soil moisture and SWR reported in many other studies (Doerr and Thomas, 2000; Dekker et al., 2001). The dry, water-repellent soil patches would have been not only ~~been~~ deficient in water, but ~~would also have had a~~
15 restricted in supply of nutrients, ~~due to the lack of their transfer by water~~ (de Jonge et al., 2009; Goebel et al., 2011), while higher nutrient ~~concentration~~ and DOC concentration would be expected in the ~~water in wettable~~ etter zones (Müller et al. 2014).

4.2 Temporal variations in soil CO₂ efflux

20 Temporal fluctuations in soil temperature and moisture not only affected the presence or absence of SWR, but were likely to be ~~also~~ responsible for the variability in soil respiration ~~and C fluxes~~. The CO₂ efflux measurements at the study sites were conducted each year from June until November with only a few early measurements in spring during 2015. ~~Therefore, we~~ no
information was available on soil CO₂ efflux during the winter season. All early spring and late autumn measurements,
however, showed lower soil CO₂ efflux than measurements during the warmer period. During the colder and typically wetter
25 part of the year, primary productivity, soil biological activity and therefore soil respiration is typically low (Davidson and

Janssens, 2006). Considering the seasonal fluctuation, but also noting the positive correlation between soil CO₂ efflux and soil temperatures, it is ~~likely clear~~ that the ~~temperature drives soil latter constitute the main factor affecting soil~~ respiration to a ~~certain level~~, which is consistent with many previous studies (Gaumont-Guay et al., 2009; Yvon-Durocher et al., 2012; Karhu et al., 2014). The positive response of CO₂ efflux to increasing soil temperature reflects the greater activity of roots and decomposing microorganisms, but can also involve long-term changes in microbial population communities and higher substrate supply from photosynthesis in response to longer-term trends as expected, for example, with global warming (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Gaumont-Guay et al., 2009). At both study sites soil CO₂ efflux increased with rising temperatures, but only until a maximum ~~CO₂ efflux~~ level was reached, after which a notable decrease was observed. The occasions when soil CO₂ effluxes ~~were/wasere~~ no longer dictated by temperature occurred during the summer when the soil was exposed not only to relatively warm, but also dry conditions for prolonged periods, suggesting that soil moisture was the restricting factor ~~for soil CO₂ efflux~~. The effect was observed only at times of uniformly low SWCs when persistence of SWR was consistently high. On the occasions ~~when SWC was of measurements with~~ low, but spatially variable ~~water content~~, soil respiration was high and followed an increasing trend with temperature. A reduction in soil moisture availability is known to reduce microbial activity and root respiration (Or *et al.*, 2007), and prolonged summer droughts have been recognised in many studies as the cause of a decrease ~~in CO₂ efflux~~, primarily in heterotrophic respiration (Borken et al. 2006).

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4.3 Effect of soil moisture and SWR on soil CO₂ fluxes

Soil CO₂ efflux ~~wasere~~ found to respond to changing SWC, particularly at higher soil temperatures (Fig. 5b), and the variability in CO₂ efflux remained high, especially for intermediate ~~SWCsoil moisture contents~~. Only after long dry spells when soil moisture availability was low, were soil respiration rates significantly reduced. At intermediate SWCs, soil CO₂ efflux was high but also very variable, most likely due to frequent wetting and drying events resulting in ~~a~~very heterogeneous soil moisture distribution (Gaumont-Guay et al., 2009). Given that both ~~sites sites~~ are very susceptible to ~~the~~ development of SWR we expect that high variability in CO₂ efflux at intermediate SWCs can be the result of uneven soil water distribution caused by ~~the~~ presence of SWR.

Previous studies have already shown that SWR can protect SOMC from decomposing microorganisms (Goebel et al., 2005; Goebel et al., 2007; Bachmann et al., 2008; Lamparter et al., 2009; Goebel et al., 2011), which results in reduced soil respiration. These laboratory-based studies focused mainly on the severity of SWR of homogeneous soil and therefore did not explore the wide range of hydrological scenarios to which natural soil is exposed in presence of SWR. Most studies exploring

5 SWR present the results based on overall median or mean WDPT ~~values~~, which ~~won't~~~~does not~~ allow identification of the naturally ~~rather~~ common and important situation when SWR variability is very high. SWR distribution, as used in this study, shows the proportion of soil affected by ~~most~~ extreme SWR ~~which can and indicate the~~ proportion of ~~soil pores~~ ~~most with~~ ~~inhibited affected by pore water movement and distribution and which~~ allows better prediction of hydrological behaviour. The SWR ~~distribution conditions~~ presented here ~~not only~~ include the following conditions of the soil wettability with (a)

10 uniformly wettable, ~~soil and (b) high (extreme) SWR, but also identifies (be) at the~~ critical intermediate SWR stages when soil is ~~dominated either~~ by wettable soil with patches of extremely water-repellent soil or *vice versa*, and c) at high (extreme) SWR as presented in a conceptual figure (Fig. 6).

At both study sites CO₂ efflux was low when soil was in wettable state (Fig. 6a), which occurred under two different conditions: during early spring and late autumn when soil temperature was too low for SWR development, or during the summer when,

15 due to frequent rainfall, SWR disappeared and high moisture was recorded. On both occasions, low CO₂ efflux was mainly caused by either low temperature or high moisture content, which in any wettable soil would cause a similar ~~type of~~ response. Soil CO₂ efflux was also low on occasions when soil was extremely water-repellent with SWR distributions close to 1 (Fig. 6c), occurring during prolonged dry spells when soil temperatures ~~were~~ high and SWC was low ~~soil moisture contents~~. ~~In the latter case,~~ it is reasonable to expect that the reduction of CO₂ efflux was caused mainly by low SWC, which caused

20 reduced microbial activity. Previous laboratory studies have reported low respiration rates in similarly highly water-repellent soil (Goebel et al., 2007; Lamparter et al., 2009). ~~Due to~~ ~~Owing to~~ low water availability, microbial and enzymatic activity is reduced (Or et al., 2007; Moyano et al., 2012; Moyano et al., 2013; Moyano et al., 2012), or activity it ceases entirely when extremely low matric potentials are reached and water films in soil pores become disconnected (Goebel et al., 2007). According to Or et al. (2007), diffusion rates of extracellular enzymes produced by microbes to access organic matter are proportional to

25 the thickness of the water film surrounding soil particles, and this thickness is substantially reduced by SWR (Churaev, 2000;

Goebel et al., 2011). Obstruction of microbial movement and reduction in diffusion results in physical separation of microorganisms from substrates and nutrients, which can lead to long-term starvation (Kieft et al., 1993). At the sites investigated here, such a situation was observed only on a few occasions following long dry spells, suggesting that under the current humid-temperate [climate](#), this soil condition is not very common here. It is, however, very common in climates with distinct dry seasons or more prolonged dry periods (Doerr et al., 2003; Doerr and Moody, 2004; Leighton-Boyce et al., 2005; 5 Stooft et al., 2011) and may become more common ~~in the future~~ in the UK ~~in the~~ [according to](#) future climate predictions (IPCC, 2013). It is also an important scenario to be considered during [the](#) rewetting of extremely water-repellent soils after drought, as reported by Muhr et al. (2008+0, 201008) ~~who observed a a-slower~~ regeneration of CO₂ fluxes ~~observed~~ following wetting [that](#) could have been caused by SWR.

10 The highest CO₂ efflux was recorded at intermediate SWR distributions (SWR distributions 0.2-0.8) when SWR_s and consequently soil moisture distribution_s was very patchy (Fig. 6b). Variable SWR can be associated with patchy pore water distribution which creates zones of soil with water-filled pores near water-repellent soil zones. Water-filled soil pores are expected to [provide](#) ~~have~~ a good supply of water ~~with high nutrient concentration and concentrated nutrients~~, which if compared to preferential flow paths_s are expected to harbour larger bacterial densities (Vinther et al., 1999) and activities (Pivetz and 15 Steenhuis, 1995) than the adjacent soil matrix. The water-repellent soil zones with air-filled pores are anticipated to provide optimal routes for gas transfer where the O₂ and CO₂ released by the decomposing microorganisms can easily be exchanged between the soil and [the](#) atmosphere (Or et al., 2007; Kravchenko et al., 2015).

In a humid temperate climate with soils susceptible to SWR, [variably water-repellent soil](#) ~~this is~~ likely to be the most common soil condition, while in climates with distinct dry seasons or common dry spells it could represent the state of change between 20 wettable and water-repellent taking place between wet and dry seasons or periods (Leighton-Boyce et al., 2005; Stooft et al., 2011).

Considering the whole soil volume examined in this study, we can ~~therefore~~ reject the hypothesis that presence of SWR unequivocally reduces soil respiration also under [natural, "real-world"](#) field conditions. The response of soil respiration to the presence of SWR is more complex than it has been originally anticipated and its effects are clearly more complex as discussed

25 [above/below](#).

Future studies investigating C dynamics in water-repellent soil are still needed to explore further the effect of hydrophobic [soil particle or soil pore](#) surfaces on [soil](#)-CO₂ fluxes. For example, further insights could be gained by more frequent or near continuous monitoring of soil respiration together with SWR and soil moisture. This would allow better understanding of soil respiration during the wetting and drying processes in soils that exhibit SWR and thus restricted water infiltration. We consider

5 the proposed conceptual [figure model](#) depicted in Fig. [69](#) to be sufficiently simple to be [fundamentally](#) applicable to a wide range of water-repellent soils. However, given the potential importance of SWR to affect soil respiration and ultimately soil C storage under changing land uses and a changing climate, further field investigations involving different soil types and environmental conditions would be valuable in determining how widespread and temporally common [this SWR scenario](#) is.

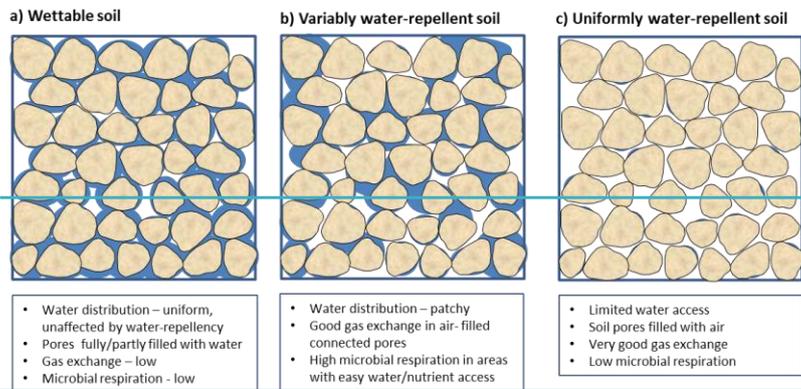


Figure 6: Theoretical framework of soil water distribution at three different conditions of SWR and its potential effects on soil CO₂ production and transport.

5 Conclusions

This study reports for the first time how seasonal changes in SWR distribution affect soil respiration, and demonstrates that the presence of SWR does not simply lead to a reduction in soil CO₂ efflux. The sites investigated in the UK under grassland and pine forest ~~showed exhibit a strong~~ presence of SWR during warmer periods, ~~but which is also associated~~ dominated by high spatial variability in SWR persistence. Frequent occurrence of wetting and drying events, common in humid-temperate climates, is associated with result in high patchiness of SWR, and only when soil is exposed to longer dry spells does it become severely and uniformly water-repellent. ~~As the hydrological consequences of variable SWR spatial distribution are unique, therefore;~~ it is necessary to recognise their distinctiveness ~~from as well as the hydrological conditions associated with~~ entirely wettable or water-repellent soils. The data collected here suggest that the response of soil CO₂ efflux is strongly associated with depends on soil wettability status and the distribution of water-repellent patches. Very high SWR levels ~~throughout~~ were indeed associated with low soil CO₂ effluxes, caused by reduced CO₂ production by water-stressed microbial communities. However, variable SWR distribution: ~~resulted~~ in the highest CO₂ effluxes, most likely due to microbial communities being concentrated in the water and nutrient 'hotspots' close to infiltration paths coupled with ~~and very~~ favourable gas exchange conditions in hydrophobicity-controlled air-filled pores. A wettable soil state ~~was observed only occurred~~ at the study sites at when soil low soil temperatures ~~were low or after frequently occurring there was high frequency of~~ rainfall events, and in both cases was associated with low CO₂ effluxes were observed during this measurement's. The hypothesis that presence of SWR unequivocally reduces soil respiration, also under the natural 'real-world' field conditions, ~~examined for the first time here,~~ is therefore rejected.

SWR clearly has an important effect on soil respiration, but its impact is more complex than previously assumed, with its spatial variability likely to be the most influential factor. The presence of SWR can not only reduce soil respiration in affected soil zones, ~~it~~ can actually lead to enhanced respiration from soil zones exhibiting high spatial variability in SWR. When examining SWR, measurements should therefore not, this should therefore not be restricted to simply recording whether soil is wettable or water-repellent with a certain persistence or severity level, but -its spatial (and temporal) variability should also be inspected, is also of paramount importance. This combined knowledge should then allow a better predictions ~~of the response of~~ soil respiration to different temperature and moisture conditions.

In view of current climatic predictions and expectations that SWR will become even more widespread globally than is the case at present, it is important to include analysis of the spatio-temporal characteristics of SWR in long-term respiration studies. ~~The -so that a~~ comprehensive understanding of the specific effects of SWR on soil C dynamics under current conditions can be gained and a firmer foundation for prediction of [C dynamics](#) under future climatic scenarios can be established.

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Figure 2: Schematic presentation of plots and CO₂ efflux measurement collars at both, the forest and grassland study sites arranged along a 20-m long transect. The dashed squares identify study plots (6) and circles - soil collars for CO₂ efflux measurements (n=12), green coloured shapes represent soil surface vegetated with grass and brown – with bracken; filled circles represent vegetated area, open circles – collars with vegetation temporarily removed for soil CO₂ efflux measurements = bare soil.

Figure 2: Temporal changes in soil moisture (—green line – SWC at 5 cm depth; —brown line – SWC at 10 cm depth) and soil temperature at 5 cm depth (—blue line) at both study sites over 3 years; a) forest site and b) grassland site. Field measurements and sampling events are marked with black circles (•).

Figure 3: Frequency distribution of soil water repellency (SWR) persistence, measured as water drop penetration time (WDPT) and soil water content (SWC) for (a) forest and (b) grassland site at 0-9 cm depth at all sampling dates. Different colours reflect WDPT classes, black circles represent mean SWC and error bars the standard deviation of the mean (n=120 per date).

Figure 4: Variations in soil CO₂ efflux for each measurement event for combined grass and bracken plots, results separated for vegetated (● filled circles) and bare (○ open circles) soil plots at a) the forest and b) the grassland study sites (n=6).

Figure 5: Relationship between soil CO₂ efflux and a) soil temperature, b) soil water content (SWC) and c) soil water repellency (SWR) distribution. In figure 5a results are separated for the forest and grassland sites and soil CO₂ effluxes are represented as means with standard deviation for soil temperature grouped into 2 °C classes (+/-1 °C). In figure 5b and 5c results from the forest site and the grassland sites are combined and separated into 4 soil temperature classes. Soil CO₂ effluxes are represented as means with standard deviations. In figure 5b the results were grouped into SWC classes of 10 vol.% and in figure 5c were grouped into SWR distribution classes (±0.1) representing a relative fraction of extremely water-repellent soil. The SWR axis minimum 0 represents wettable soil, while the maximum of 1 denotes uniformly extreme SWR. Only results from the vegetated sites have been to create the figures (n=102).

Figure 6: Theoretical framework of soil water distribution at three different conditions of SWR and its potential effects on soil CO₂ production and transport.

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List of table captures

Table 1: Selected properties of soil samples (n=12) retrieved from the CO₂ efflux monitoring collars after the field campaign had been completed. Presented values represent the mean (n=6) with standard deviation in the brackets.

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Table 2: Total average CO₂ effluxes (μmol/m²/s²) from plots under bracken and grass understorey with vegetated and bare plots at the forest and grassland study sites. The asterisks indicate the statistically significant differences between groups of vegetated and bare plots (*p<0.05, ***p<0.001).

10 Table 3: Factors affecting soil CO₂ effluxes including the statistical significance level.

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