

Management options influence seasonal CO₂ soil emissions in Mediterranean olive ecosystems

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1 Abstract

2 Field trials were conducted at traditional Mediterranean olive agro-ecosystems grown at
3 two locations (Italy –IT, Greece –GR). Groves were managed for many years using
4 sustainable (*S*, cover crops, compost application, mulching of pruning biomass) or
5 conventional (*C*) practices (e.g., soil tillage, burning of pruning residuals). The IT grove
6 was rainfed (_{RAIN}) while the GR was irrigated (_{IRR}). This study examined the seasonal
7 variation of soil CO₂ emission (R_s) to explore the effect of the management options (*C*, *S*)
8 on R_s at both sites. The second aim was to test the hypothesis that the seasonal R_s is
9 differentially modulated by soil temperature and moisture, namely that (i) soil moisture
10 limits R_s when it is below the lower limit of the readily available water (RAW_{LLim}) and (ii)
11 soil temperature above a threshold (max_T) reduces R_s even if soil moisture is non limiting.
12 On the whole-season basis, the mean R_s rate at the rainfed site was 2.17 ± 0.06 (SE) at C_{RAIN}
13 and 2.32 ± 0.06 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at S_{RAIN} plot, while at the irrigated site R_s was about
14 3.64 ± 0.11 (C_{IRR}) and 4.05 ± 0.15 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (S_{IRR}). The seasonal oscillation of R_s was
15 consistent across locations and partitionable in three periods according to DOY (Day of
16 Year) interval: Phase I (DOY 20-103 –GR; 20-118 -IT), Phase II (DOY 141-257, GR;
17 142-257, IT) and Phase III (DOY 291-357, GR; 286-350, -IT). Pooling all the R_s data
18 across sites and managements, max_T was $\sim 20^\circ\text{C}$ discriminating a differential response of
19 R_s when soil moisture was $<$ or $>$ RAW_{LLim} . These differential modulations exerted by
20 temperature and moisture were integrated into a conditional model developed with a
21 repeated random subsampling cross-validation procedure to effectively ($R^2 = 0.84$) predict
22 R_s . This paper mechanistically describes the interaction of the environment (soil moisture
23 and temperature) and the management options (*S*, *C*) under various moisture conditions on

24 R_s and would support carbon flux accounting procedures (e.g., regulating ecosystem
25 services) tailored to the estimation of sink/source capability of traditional olive agro-
26 ecosystem within environmental-friendly agricultural domains.

27

28 **Key words:** carbon cycle; conditional model; irrigation; rainfed; soil moisture; soil organic
29 carbon; soil respiration; soil temperature; sustainable; traditional system.

30

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 The potential contribution of agricultural ecosystems to climate change mitigation is
34 actively debated, considering both increasing carbon (C) sequestration and reducing
35 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2017). Cropland has been
36 recognized among land use types (e.g., forestry land, grassland, wetlands) that influence a
37 variety of ecosystem processes and, in turn, ecosystem services related to GHG fluxes (e.g.,
38 photosynthesis, soil respiration, decomposition) (Eggleston et al, 2006, Montanaro et al.,
39 2017a).

40

41 The global carbon cycle includes CO₂ uptake from the atmosphere through photosynthesis
42 (Gross Primary Productivity, GPP); the imbalance between GPP and the CO₂ loss by
43 autotrophic respiration is the Net Ecosystem Productivity (NPP). The carbon cycle also
44 includes soil CO₂ emissions (soil respiration, R_s), which account for about 85–90% of the
45 GPP and about 55-77% of the NPP (Xu and Shang, 2016; Montanaro et al., 2017b),
46 confirming that R_s is pivotal for ecosystem carbon budget.

47

48 The agricultural sector currently pursues the restoration of the soil C reservoir through
49 more sustainable soil management practices aimed at increasing soil C input and
50 minimising CO₂ emissions, compared to conventional. Increased C inputs boost soil
51 fertility by raising soil organic C content which, in turn, enhances a number of soil
52 nutritional and functional proprieties (e.g. soil water infiltration rate and retention, soil
53 porosity and stability) (Bhogal et al., 2009, Montanaro et al., 2018). However, increasing C
54 input to the soil is expected to increase R_s (Franzluebbers et al., 2002, Wang et al., 2003).

55

56 The rate of R_s is affected by several factors and their interaction. Xu and Shang (2016)
57 reviewed these factors, highlighting the primary influence of climate (e.g., soil temperature
58 and moisture), vegetation (e.g., litter and biomass production, root exudation), and soil
59 features (e.g., C concentration, structure). Within cultivated ecosystems, some of these
60 factors are manageable by the grower and useful for sustainable recarbonization purposes
61 due to their influence on the overall C budget, including R_s . For example, the adoption of
62 cover crops, *in loco* mulching of pruning residuals, and the addition of external organic
63 fertilizers (e.g., compost, manure) might impact the content of soil organic carbon (SOC)
64 (Aguillera et al., 2013; Koubouris et al., 2017; Montanaro et al., 2017; Kavvadias et al.,
65 2018; Kavvadias and Koubouris, 2019; Michalopoulos et al., 2020; Plénet et al. 2022).

66

67 About 90% of the global olive plantations are located in Mediterranean countries (FAO,
68 2022) which are almost entirely under traditional plantation systems (up to 300 trees per ha)
69 (Rallo et al., 2014; FAO, 2022). At these plantations, irrigation has also been introduced
70 (Rallo et al., 2014), likely increasing substrate availability and accelerating the oxidation of
71 C substrates by microorganisms as per the combination with high soil temperatures (Fang
72 and Moncrieff, 2001). Hence, an increased soil CO₂ flux in sustainable (e.g., high C input)
73 traditional irrigated groves is expected compared to conventional. In addition, due to
74 seasonal variations in soil moisture under Mediterranean conditions (Kourgialas et al.,
75 2017; Arampatzis et al., 2018), seasonal oscillations of R_s would also be expected. However,
76 detailed data on seasonal variation of R_s as influenced by management practices (e.g.,
77 carbon retention) under irrigation or rainfed are still limited. Therefore, the first aim of the

78 present paper was to examine the seasonal variability of R_s as influenced by soil
79 recarbonization management practices under rainfed and irrigation.
80
81 Soil temperature is a dominant environmental driver of R_s and their relationship is usually
82 depicted by exponential equations (Subke et al., 2003). However, when the temperature is
83 above a threshold value, the R_s declines because of co-occurring constraints (e.g., SOC,
84 microbial biomass) also under non-limiting moisture (Richardson et al., 2012, Carey et al.,
85 2016). Soil moisture influence R_s also indirectly because values below the lower limit of the
86 readily available water (RAW_{LLim}) lowers leaf water potential and in turn plant
87 photosynthesis which modulate the autotrophic component of R_s (Tang et al., 2005,
88 Hernández-Montes et al., 2017).
89
90 Variation of soil moisture and temperature would influence their impact on R_s hampering a
91 clear identification of the prominent factor limiting or promoting R_s . In order to improve the
92 predictability of R_s , Almagro et al., (2009) proposed a month-based partition of the season
93 into “growing” (October-April) and “dry” (May-September) seasons. However, a
94 mechanistic modeling of the main limiting/promoting factors of R_s based on (easily
95 accessible) environmental variables would be desirable. Additional knowledge of the
96 influence of management options and the environment (soil temperature and moisture) on
97 R_s at traditional olive plantations would strengthen the assessment of the regulating
98 ecosystem services based on C balance.
99 Hence, the second aim of this study was to test the hypothesis that soil temperature and
100 moisture differentially modulate the seasonal R_s based on their threshold values, namely

101 that (i) soil moisture becomes a limiting factor of R_s at the level below RAW_{LLim} and that
102 (ii) temperature above a maximum (max_T) threshold reduces R_s , even if soil moisture lies
103 within RAW. The threshold values and the fitting model of predictors (soil moisture and
104 temperature) were then combined in a conditional model to predict the response variables
105 (R_s).

106

107

108 **2. Materials and methods**

109

110 *2.1 Experimental sites and treatments imposition*

111 In this study, the imposed factor was the “management” at two levels: Sustainable (S) and
112 Conventional (C). The S treatment was a set of practices achieving a higher retention of
113 carbon in the agro-ecosystem compared to that of the C one. Soil moisture and temperature
114 and soil CO₂ emission (R_s) were the covariates measured upon management treatment
115 imposition. The R_s was then modelled as response variable based on changes in soil
116 moisture and temperature. The experiment was carried out in open fields located in Italy
117 and Greece, differing in water supply: rainfed (Italy, suffix _{RAIN}) and irrigation (Greece,
118 _{IRR}). The Italian and Greek experimental sites were representative of the olive groves of the
119 studied areas, further details are specifically reported in the following sections.

120

121 *2.1.1 Rainfed Italian site*

122 The Italian olive grove was located at a private farm (Matera province, 40° 29' N, 16° 27'
123 E) on a hilly area (16% slope) and was rainfed (_{RAIN}). The locally conventional practices

124 (C_{RAIN}), the soil was tilled (10-15 cm depth) 2-3 times a year during the growing season,
125 pruning was done in winter, and all residues were removed and burnt; nitrogen was evenly
126 distributed on the soil (centrifugal fertilizer spreader) at a mean rate of approx. 40 kg ha⁻¹.
127 From 2000, an approx. 0.7 ha block was subjected to sustainable management (S_{RAIN}) where
128 the soil was untilled and the understorey ‘grass’ was mowed two times a year to 3-4 cm.
129 Fertilization was designed to fill the gap between tree demand and the availability of
130 essential nutrients in the soil (Montanaro et al., 2010). Pruning was done each year in
131 December and January and the pruning biomass was chipped and evenly distributed in the
132 alley at a mean rate of about 1.12 t C ha⁻¹ estimated according to Palese et al., (2013).
133 On average (0-0.5 m depth) at the C_{RAIN} plot, the soil was sandy-loam (64.7% sand, 21.0%
134 silt, and 15.0% clay) and had pH 7.9, OM 1.29%. At the S_{RAIN} , soil texture had pH 7.6,
135 66.2% sand, 17.9% silt, 15.7% clay, OM 1.67%. Then, the lower limit of the readily
136 available water (RAW_{LLim}) of 11.1 %dw (C_{RAIN}) and 11.4%dw (S_{RAIN}) were calculated
137 assuming 1.3 t m⁻³ BD according to Saxton and Rawl (2006). The site was 365 m a.s.l.. The
138 trees (*Olea europaea* L., cv Maiatica) were >50-year old and spaced at 8 × 8 m (156 p ha⁻¹).
139 The long-term (1981-2018) average annual rainfall in the region is about 523 mm and is
140 highly seasonal, usually falling between October and May, with insignificant amounts
141 between June and September. The average maximum annual air temperature is 31.8°C
142 (SAL Service, ALSIA Basilicata Region). At the harvest time, the yield of 8 trees per
143 treatment was measured (FW), averaged and reported as t ha⁻¹.

144

145 2.1.2 Irrigated Greek site

146 In Greece, the study was performed at a 40-year-old olive plantation (1.1 ha) located in the
147 experimental station of the Institute of Olive Tree, Subtropical Crops and Viticulture,
148 Nerokourou, Crete island, Southern Greece (35°28'36.76"N, 24°02'36.44" E; 51 m a.s.l).
149 Trees (*Olea europaea* L., cv. Kalamon) were planted at 7 × 7 m. According to the local
150 meteorological station, the average maximum annual air temperature was 33.0 °C, the air
151 relative humidity was 64%, and the annual rainfall was 700 mm. The olive grove was
152 weekly irrigated (suffix _{IRR}) from May to September, according to the reference
153 evapotranspiration retrieved by the local weather station and crop coefficients (Kourgialas
154 et al., 2019). Each row had an irrigation line with five drippers per tree (4 L h⁻¹ discharge
155 rate per dripper), wetting a ~1.0 m wide soil band along the row.

156 From 2011, a sustainable treatment (S_{IRR}) was imposed through a completely randomized
157 design, with three replicates ($n = 3$) for a total of 12 trees (4 olive trees per plot). The S_{IRR}
158 employed the application of commercial compost. The compost was obtained from recycled
159 olive mill by-products (olive leaves, fruit pulps and stones, and liquid waste) and was
160 evenly distributed (centrifugal fertilizer spreader) to the soil surface between February-
161 March each year. The annual amount (fresh weight) of compost distributed in a single time
162 was 6 t ha⁻¹ (2013) and 9 t ha⁻¹ (2014, 2015). The compost had the following
163 characteristics: C/N = 18, pH 7.8; 49.76% total C (w/w, on dry matter basis), 2.77% (w/w)
164 total N, 2.26% (w/w) total K, and 0.18% (w/w) total P. The S_{IRR} also received the pruning
165 residues (~20 t ha⁻¹ fresh weight per year) derived from the olive trees and mulched *in loco*
166 in late spring. Pruning residues had 51-55% total C (w/w; dry matter basis), 0.6-1.8% (w/w)
167 total N, 0.4-1.2% (w/w) total K, and 0.4-1.2% (w/w) total P. The S_{IRR} treatment also

168 included the use of cover crops mix of leguminous and cereal (*Avena sativa*) (5:1) sowed
169 (180 kg ha⁻¹) in winter (December) of 2013, 2014, and 2015. The leguminous species were
170 *Vicia sativa*, *Pisum sativum* subsp. *arvense*, *Trifolium alexandrinum*, *Vicia faba* var. *minor*,
171 and *Medicago sativa*. In the subsequent spring, cover crops were mulched *in loco* (without
172 being incorporated into the soil), supplying approx. 0.8 t ha⁻¹ C.

173 The conventional block (C_{IRR}) served as a control treatment and was managed according to
174 locally conventional soil management practices. The soil was tilled 2-3 times a year,
175 herbicide was used (glyphosate, 1-2 times per year), and no organic material was supplied.
176 Pruning residues (approx. 20 t ha⁻¹ fresh weight) were removed each year and burnt outside
177 the field. Chemical fertilizers were applied (centrifugal fertilizer spreader) at a rate of 300
178 kg ha⁻¹ (0-0-50, N-P-K) and 300 kg ha⁻¹ (21-0-0). Soil had similar characteristics at both
179 C_{IRR} and S_{IRR} and it was a sandy-loam soil, pH 7.2, 0.67% OM, 55% sand, 26% silt and
180 18.7 clay. The RAW_{LLim} (10.7%dw) was estimated assuming 1.58 t m⁻³ BD as per the IT
181 site. At the harvest time, the yield of 10 trees per treatment was measured (FW), averaged
182 and reported as t ha⁻¹.

183

184

185 2.2 Soil CO₂ efflux (R_s) measurements

186

187

188 Rainfed, IT site: Emissions of CO₂ from soil (R_s) were measured during 2015 using a
189 portable infrared gas analyser (Li-6400, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) equipped with a soil
190 respiration chamber (Model Li-6400-09) using a similar procedure adopted in Montanaro et
191 al., (2012). Briefly, R_s was measured on average every approx. three weeks from January to

192 December within two hours during the central part of the day (12 – 14 h) at 30 locations per
193 treatment distributed around three trees per treatment at 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 3.5 m from row to
194 inter-row accounting for the spatial variability of emissions (Almagro et al., 2009). At the
195 same time as the R_s measurement, soil temperature (15 cm depth) was measured a few
196 centimeters away using the 6000-09TC Li-COR temperature probe. Concurrently to R_s
197 measurements, three soil bulk samples (from row to inter-row) were collected (0-35 cm
198 depth) for soil moisture determinations (%dw, gravimetric method).

199

200 Irrigated, GR site: Emission of soil CO₂ and soil temperature were measured using the
201 same model of the portable analyser used at the Italian site. Measurements were carried out
202 from January to December 2015 in a mean time interval of approx. 4 weeks. On each
203 occasion, measurements lasted within two hours during the central part of the day (12 – 14
204 h). At the beginning of the year, eight PVC collars were installed from row to inter-row as
205 per the IT site. At each R_s sampling time, 24 locations per treatment distributed around
206 three trees per treatment were measured. Concurrently, three soil bulk samples were
207 collected (0-35 cm depth) from the row to inter-row for soil moisture determinations
208 (%dw). Each sample included sub-samples collected at at 0 m, 0.4 m, 0.7 and 2.0 m from
209 the row.

210

211 *2.3 Data processing and analysis*

212 The statistical analysis and data processing were performed using R software (4.1.2
213 version), plotting was done by OriginPro 9.3 (OriginLab Corporation, USA). Data were
214 reported as the mean and standard error of the mean (\pm SE). The Student's *t*-test was used to

215 examine the differences between treatments at each sampling date; the p values <0.05 were
216 considered significant.

217 To account for the differential impact of soil temperature and moisture on the seasonal R_s , a
218 conditional model was built embedding three sub-models (Y_1 , Y_2 , Y_3). In each sub-model,
219 the flux of the CO₂ from soil ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was the response variable (Y_n) of soil
220 temperature and moisture based on the following conditions:

221

222 Y_1 , if soil temperature $< \text{max_T}$ and soil moisture $\geq \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$;

223 Y_2 , if soil temperature $> \text{max_T}$ and soil moisture $< \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$;

224 Y_3 , if soil temperature $> \text{max_T}$ and soil moisture $\geq \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$.

225

226 The max_T was the soil temperature corresponding to the maximum R_s and was calculated
227 as the μ value of the Gaussian distribution fitted to the pooled irrigated and rainfed R_s data
228 under no soil moisture limitations, according to Richardson et al., (2012) and Yu et al.,
229 (2020). The values of the RAW_{LLim} were considered as splitting nodes and the R_s modelled
230 through a Gompertz function, according to Yu et al., (2020).

231 All annual paired soil temperature, moisture, and R_s data from irrigated and rainfed sites
232 were pooled in a single dataset ($n = 1476$ records). The dataset was randomly split into
233 validation (20%) and training (80%) fractions according to Roshan (2022) and a repeated
234 random subsampling cross-validation procedure was applied.

235 The training dataset was partitioned based on the above-mentioned conditions to develop
236 each pertaining sub-model (Y_1 , Y_2 , Y_3). Each training subset was repeatedly ($k=10$)

237 subsampled (80%) at random with replacement generating k sub-train datasets. The
238 excluded 20% of each k subsample was stored as the corresponding testing subset. Data
239 from each K sub-train dataset were iteratively fitted and equations were parametrized,
240 minimizing the squared residuals (measured values – fitted values). Then each k fitted sub-
241 model was tested against the corresponding test subset and k mean absolute errors (MAE)
242 between predicted and actual emissions values were calculated. Finally, the parameters
243 belonging to the fitted sub-model with the lowest MAE were retrieved for the
244 parametrization of each sub-model.

245 The parametrized Y_1 , Y_2 and Y_3 sub-models were simultaneously integrated into the
246 conditional model which was then validated using the validation dataset for each
247 treatment/site combination (i.e., C_{IRR} , S_{IRR} , C_{RAIN} , S_{RAIN}). Subsequently, the Spearman's
248 coefficient of correlation between predicted and actual values was determined.

249

250

251

252 3. Results

253 Data were sourced from experiments carried out at comparable olive groves located in two
254 countries (Greece, Italy) with water supply (irrigation, rainfed) as the main difference
255 between them. At both irrigated and rainfed sites, alternative management options
256 (sustainable, conventional) differing in carbon retention practices were also employed. At
257 the rainfed site, the mean (\pm SE) yield was 9.1 ± 0.9 and 6.04 ± 0.8 t ha⁻¹ (FW) in the
258 sustainable and conventional plots, respectively. At the irrigated site, the yield was 9.5 ± 1.1
259 (sustainable) and 6.41 ± 0.3 t ha⁻¹ (conventional).

260 The resulting seasonal patterns of the R_s showed several consistencies, allowing its
261 partitioning into three common main phases at both sites.

262

263 3.1 The seasonal trend of R_s , soil moisture and temperature

264 The seasonal variations of soil temperature and moisture and the related impact on R_s allow
265 the partitioning of the seasonal emissions into three phases (Fig. 1 and 2): Phase I ranges
266 from DOY (Day of Year) 20 to DOY 118 (rainfed site) and from 20 to 103 DOY
267 (irrigated); Phase II included 142÷257 DOY range (rainfed) and 141÷257 DOY range
268 (irrigated); Phase III included 286÷350 DOY range (rainfed) and 291÷357 DOY range
269 (irrigated).

270

271 During Phase I, soil moisture was above RAW and values of R_s steeply increased during
272 the early 15-17 weeks of the year in both countries. At the rainfed site, R_s increased from
273 about 1 up to 4.1 ± 0.19 (S_{RAIN}) and to 3.5 ± 0.21 (C_{RAIN}) $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1A). At the

274 irrigated site, the initial value of R_s was about $4.5 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and was not dependent
275 on treatments, then it peaked at $7.2 \pm 0.39 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (S_{IRR}) and $5.6 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{mol CO}_2$
276 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (C_{IRR} plot) (Fig. 2). After the R_s peak was reached, soil respiration entered the Phase
277 II similarly in rainfed and irrigated sites (about 140 DOY), starting to decline towards the
278 lowest seasonal level (Fig. 1A, 2A). Later in the season (DOI >250, Phase III), the R_s at
279 both irrigated and rainfed sites increased to values similar to those of Phase I at about DOY
280 290; thereafter, it gradually reduced with the lowering of soil temperature to its minimum
281 towards winter-time (Fig. 1A, B and Fig. 2A, B). On the whole-season basis, the mean R_s
282 rate at the rainfed site was not significantly different between treatments, being 2.17 ± 0.056
283 (SE) at C_{RAIN} and $2.32 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at S_{RAIN} plot. While that rate at the irrigated site
284 was significantly (Student's t -test, $\alpha = 0.05$) influenced by management options being about
285 3.64 ± 0.11 (C_{IRR}) and $4.05 \pm 0.15 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (S_{IRR}), respectively.

286

287 The seasonal soil moisture ranged from about 7% to 20%dw (rainfed) and from about 14%
288 to 27%dw (irrigated). From DOY 103 (irrigated) and DOY 118 (rainfed), onward soil
289 moisture soon reached the lowest level of the season. The irrigation supplied at the GR site
290 ensured the minimum mean soil moisture level at about 14%dw in both S_{IRR} and C_{IRR}
291 treatments (Fig. 2B) whereas at the rainfed site soil moisture declined to about 7%dw in
292 both C_{RAIN} and S_{RAIN} plots (Fig. 1B) till DOY 257 if a transient increase at DOY 226 is
293 excepted (Fig. 1B). Soil temperature showed a similar seasonal pattern at both sites, starting
294 from about 7°C (rainfed, IT) and about 15°C (irrigated, GR) reaching peak values of about

295 32°C in midsummer (Fig. 1B, 2B). Thereafter, soil temperature progressively declined to
296 values similar to those recorded at the beginning of the year.

297

298

299 3.2 The R_s predicting model

300 The differential modulation of R_s caused by soil temperature and moisture across the
301 various treatments and sites was integrated into a non-linear conditional model using soil
302 temperature and moisture as both driving factors and decision nodes (Fig. 3).

303 The model was trained using various subsets of the training dataset defined according to the
304 thresholds of soil temperature (\max_T), which was 19.38 °C in this study (Fig. 4). Hence,
305 \max_T discriminated the R_s as a response variable of the exponential function of soil
306 temperature (Y_1 , Table 1) when soil temperature was $\leq \max_T$. When soil temperature
307 was $> \max_T$, R_s was modelled as response to (i) soil moisture when it was $< \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$
308 (Y_2 , Table 1) and (ii) soil temperature (declining exp. function) when it was $\geq \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$
309 (Y_3 , Table 1). The conditional model integrating the three sub-models was then validated
310 using the test fraction (20%) of the whole dataset not included in the training procedure.
311 The values of measured and modelled soil respiration were in agreement across the various
312 water supply (irrigated, rainfed) and management (conventional, sustainable) options
313 showing a Spearman's coefficient of correlation test ranging from 0.67 to 0.96 (Fig. 4 and
314 5).

315

316 **4. Discussion**

317 This study shows the seasonal variation of soil CO₂ emissions in traditional olive
318 ecosystems and identifies the stages when soil moisture and temperature are likely (and
319 differentially) more influential on R_s because of their conceivable effect on autotrophic and
320 heterotrophic processes and on the diffusivity of CO₂ within the soil (Tang et al., 2005; Xu
321 and Shang, 2016; Hernández-Montes et al., 2017). The differential response of R_s to soil
322 moisture and temperature was consistent across locations and management options and has
323 been embedded in a predicting model.

324

325 *4.1 Effect of management options on seasonal R_s*

326

327 The soil CO₂ emission fluxes varied with the time of season and responded to the imposed
328 treatments (*S*, *C*) to a different extent depending on the level of the main environmental
329 drivers (i.e., soil temperature and moisture). The mean annual R_s rate at the rainfed was in
330 line with that reported for comparable olive groves (Almagro et al., 2009).

331 At both sites, sustainable plots showed high R_s in most of the sampling dates compared to
332 conventional (tilled). This would not agree with the impact of tillage on R_s . However, the
333 instant instant peak in R_s in a tilled soil (5-15 cm depth) would last for a relatively short
334 period (5-24 h) (Reicosky 1997; Al-Kaisi and Yin 2005). Hence, such a transient peak of R_s
335 would not have been relevant. The generally higher R_s recorded at the *S* plots, were likely
336 due to increased root and microbial activity (and population) (Lehmann 2003, Bechara et
337 al., 2018). In addition, the high supply of carbon at the *S* plots will likely be due to high

338 carbon substrate availability supporting additional microbial growth and in turn, an increase
339 in microbial respiration (Rastogi et al., 2002, Davidson and Janssens, 2006).

340

341 The high soil CO₂ emissions recorded under carbon retention (sustainable) management
342 might be environmentally criticizable. However, the impact of sustainable management
343 should be appraised within an overall carbon balance accounting for removals and
344 sequestrations of atmospheric CO₂ into various C pools of the ecosystem. For example, in a
345 Mediterranean peach orchard, the sustainable management had a ~ 10% higher annual R_s
346 compared to conventional one but an overall 48% higher net ecosystem productivity
347 (Montanaro et al., 2017b). In addition, the approx. 50% increased yield achieved at the C
348 plots compared to S ones is in line with the effect of improved carbon retention practices as
349 shown in a metanalysis carried out on Mediterranean tree crops including olive groves
350 (Morugán-Coronado et al., 2020).

351

352 Notably, at the beginning of the season, soil temperature differed between IT and GR olive
353 groves by about 8-10 °C (Fig. 1B and 2B) likely due to the different geographical locations.
354 This would also explain the different value of R_s between the two sites detected at the
355 beginning of the season. The steep increase of the R_s recorded during the Phase I is
356 comparable with those recorded in similar olive ecosystems (Almagro et al., 2009;
357 Chamizo et al., 2017).

358

359 As expected, the different water supply induced different soil moisture patterns between
360 sites, remaining within RAW (irrigated) or declining below RAW_{LLim} (rainfed). In addition,

361 at the rainfed site, soil moisture at S_{RAIN} plot had a slow decline plausibly due to the high
362 deep soil water holding capacity due to the high OM concentration (1.29% C_{RAIN} vs 1.67%
363 S_{RAIN} , see M&M section) (Celano et al., 2011). The high soil moisture and OM might have
364 sustained a high photosynthetic activity of the tree and likely contributed to modulate soil
365 respiration (Tang et al., 2005) supporting the significantly higher R_s recorded during Phase
366 II in S_{RAIN} plot compared to C_{RAIN} one (Fig. 1A).

367

368 The decline of the R_s detected at irrigated and rainfed sites during Phase II, despite soil
369 temperature increasing (Fig. 1, 2) is consistent with reports on other perennial ecosystems
370 including olive, peach and citrus (Almagro et al., 2009; Montanaro et al., 2012; Munjonji et
371 al., 2021). However, the underlying mechanisms would differ between sites (see below the
372 “*Bimodal effect*” paragraph). Later in the season (DOI >250, Phase III), the overall plant
373 physiology conceivably recovered from summer environmental limitations (e.g., drought,
374 high irradiance) similarly to R_s data measured in other perennials mentioned above.

375

376 Under irrigation, soil moisture would have values ranging between field capacity (FC) and
377 a threshold value established by the irrigation manager. Under rainfed Mediterranean
378 conditions, soil moisture usually ranges from field capacity (FC) to low values
379 approaching the wilting point (WP) (Fig. 1).

380 The present study was carried out in the real world, collecting the variability of soil
381 moisture occurring under rainfed and drip irrigation. Drip irrigation was set preventing soil
382 moisture values to fall below the RAW. This approach allowed to collect of R_s data within
383 as wide as possible moisture range (from FC to WP). Different irrigation regimes having

384 different threshold criteria including PRD, RDI, etc., would induce a change in soil
385 moisture dynamics, but moisture values would fall in the range recorded across the various
386 Phases and sites of the present study. The irrigation regime per se does not impact R_s , while
387 the soil moisture resulting upon an irrigation regime would be. However, in future work it
388 would be of interest to test the model developed in groves under different irrigation regimes
389 characterizing their impact on R_s .

390

391 *4.2 Bimodal effect of soil temperature and moisture on R_s*

392

393 The positive dependence of R_s on soil temperature is widely reported and an exponential
394 equation usually explains their relationship. However, within a range of temperature, the
395 maximum R_s occurs at a threshold soil temperature depending on the level of co-occurring
396 factors including SOC, microbial biomass and soil moisture (Richardson et al., 2012).
397 Hence, increasing temperature above that optimum does not increase the release of CO₂,
398 but indeed R_s would be constrained by limiting factors such as substrate availability,
399 microbial populations, and moisture (Giardina and Ryan, 2000; Richardson et al., 2012;
400 Davidson and Janssens, 2016).

401 In addition, soil moisture and temperature might reciprocally mask their effect on R_s . To
402 solve this complexity, Almagro et al., (2009) proposed a month-based partition of the
403 season in “growing” (October-April) and “dry” (May-September) seasons. Here, we
404 propose to mechanistically identify soil temperature and moisture values to be used as
405 thresholds delineating stages when these factors differentially act as prominent drivers of
406 R_s .

407 In this study, throughout the annual cycle, the soil temperature ranged from about 4°C to
408 about 36°C when soil moisture oscillated within RAW (i.e., $\geq \sim 11\%$ dw) and up to 45°C
409 when moisture oscillated below RAW (i.e., $< \sim 11\%$ dw). Pooling all R_s data recorded across
410 the experimental sites under no soil moisture limitations (i.e., $> \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$) revealed a
411 differential response of R_s to temperature and that the maximum R_s occurred at about 20°C
412 (namely 19.38°C, Fig. 6). Emissions of CO₂ occurring when soil temperature was below
413 the max_T one (left, Fig. 6) corresponded to those of Phase I and III, when temperature
414 drove the R_s , confirming their close relationship (González-Real *et al.*, 2018) (Fig. 7).
415 Emissions occurring at soil temperature above max_T in Figure 6 were substantially those
416 from the irrigated site where soil moisture was non-limiting (see Fig. 1A and 2A). Under
417 these conditions, the release of CO₂ was not influenced by soil moisture (Fig. 8A) but it
418 was somehow sensitive to soil temperature, showing a declining pattern with increasing
419 temperature (Fig. 8B). This finding confirms that the soil temperature of about 20°C was
420 the “optimal” one, i.e. causing the highest R_s *in sensu* Richardson *et al.*, (2012),
421 A similar soil temperature threshold might be inferred from a study carried out at a
422 comparable traditional irrigated olive grove (Chamizo *et al.*, 2017), showing the decline of
423 R_s occurring when the temperature was $> \text{max}_T$ even though soil water content (SWC)
424 was stable at about 20% vol (i.e., approx. 14.2%dw assuming 1.4 bulk density). A negative
425 correlation between R_s and temperature $> 20^\circ\text{C}$ under good irrigation (moisture $> 20\%$ vol)
426 also appears for high density olive groves (Testi *et al.*, 2008). Hence, the soil temperature
427 threshold approach proposed in this paper would apply to various olive ecosystems.
428 However, it remains to be specifically tested.

429

430 The declining pattern of R_s in response to increasing soil temperature contrasts with the
431 general positive exponential effect of soil temperature on R_s . However, in a meta-analysis
432 study across nine biomes (and 27 papers), such an exponential relationship has been
433 criticized, showing that R_s increases with soil temperature up to ~25 °C and that rising
434 temperatures above that threshold decrease R_s (Carey et al., 2016). Such a temperature-
435 dependent limitation of R_s might effectively be due to the indirect effect of temperature,
436 such as the putative scarcity of substrate availability and of microorganisms capable of
437 respiring at these temperatures (Giardina and Ryan, 2000). In addition, considering that the
438 high air vapour pressure deficit (VPD) and temperature occurring during summer, even for
439 well-irrigated plants, would induce a diffusional limitation of photosynthesis (low
440 mesophyll conductance) (Fernández 2014), possibly the environmental conditions (i.e.,
441 VPD) during Phase II might have limited photosynthetic activity and in turn R_s (Tang et al.,
442 2005). However, the causes of high temperature-induced limitation of R_s when soil
443 moisture falls within RAW remain to be elucidated.

444

445 Soil moisture influences R_s at both low (inhibiting microbial activity) and high levels
446 (reducing aerobic decomposition and within-soil gas diffusion processes) (Subke et al.,
447 2003). An additional mechanism linking soil moisture and R_s is based on the evidence that
448 soil moisture influences plant physiological activity (e.g., photosynthesis), which might
449 regulate the autotrophic component of R_s , as discussed above.

450 The moisture dependence of R_s occurring when moisture is a limiting factor might
451 dominate upon temperature dependence as shown, for example, in a *Quercus spp.* forest
452 (Rey et al., 2002). Accordingly, at the rainfed site, when soil moisture fell below RAW_{LLim} ,

453 CO₂ emissions did not show any correlative pattern with temperature (Fig. 9A), while R_s
454 positively responded to soil moisture increase (Fig. 9B) following a growing Gompertz
455 function and achieving an asymptotic value when moisture approached the RAW_{LLim}.
456 The sigmoidal pattern of R_s as a response to even a minimal increase of soil moisture,
457 observed at the rainfed site, agrees with that reported by Subke et al. (2003) and Yu et al.
458 (2020). Hence, under low soil moisture conditions, the lower threshold of RAW might be a
459 switch value identifying the time of the season when soil CO₂ emission is less sensitive to
460 soil temperature and becomes limited by soil moisture. In the present study, a complete
461 separation of the soil temperature effect from that of moisture was not pursued. This
462 separation would provide more insights in the mechanisms regulating R_s via an independent
463 manipulation of them under laboratory conditions (e.g., Conant et al., 2004) or even under
464 open field conditions (e.g., Zhong et al., 2016). However, the present paper identified the
465 threshold values of moisture and soil temperature distinguishing those stages when they are
466 the prominent limiting or activating factor of R_s .

467

468

469 *4.3 Modelling the influence of temperature and moisture on R_s*

470

471 The use of algorithms, e.g., Random Forests (RF) for classification and regression problems
472 is increasingly used, particularly for massive dataset having a large number of predictors
473 even greater than observations (Efron, 2020; Schonlau and Zou, 2020). Our conditional
474 model resemble a RF model with two predictors, however they differ in the principle of
475 splitting nodes. In RF model, predictors and data are selected at random while in our

476 conditional model there is a rationale on which the predictors (moisture and temperature)
477 are used as splitting nodes and independent variable of functions targeting R_s .
478 Nowadays, there is a growing need to provide reliable (and affordable) estimations of
479 carbon fluxes (including R_s) occurring in agricultural ecosystems to quantify, for example,
480 their mitigation potential (Kuhnert et al., 2017). Soil respiration is a relevant component of
481 the carbon cycle, sharing up to 85-90% of the C cycle (Xu and Shang, 2016), making its
482 estimation essential to increase knowledge on the interaction between agroecosystems and
483 the environment (e.g., Plénet et al. 2022).
484 Specifically, traditional olive tree crops, due to their long lifespan and C sequestration
485 capability, are recognized as relevant tree crops for climate change mitigation purposes,
486 deserving attention within the *Product Environmental Footprint* launched by the European
487 Commission to define indicators of the environmental performance of agri-food products
488 (EC, 2013). In this context, affordable and reliable procedures for estimating R_s might be of
489 assistance when implementing environmental labelling of food products (Hélias et al.,
490 2022). There are various models including soil temperature and moisture developed to
491 estimate the release of CO₂ from soil at agricultural crops (e.g., Almagro et al., 2009; Chen
492 et al., 2011). However, to the best of our knowledge, this paper offers a new approach for
493 predicting the R_s based on the occurrence of those drivers under specific conditions,
494 showing that the resulting conditional model was able (i) to collect the seasonal oscillations
495 of R_s consistently with the time frame of the various Phases identified (Fig. 4 and 5) and (ii)
496 to explain about 84% of the variance of R_s (Fig. 10). The accuracy of the model, as
497 measured through the R^2 , confirms the prominent role of soil temperature and moisture on
498 R_s and that additional variables have to be influential on R_s (Xu and Shang, 2016).

499 Particularly, in olive ecosystems an inter-annual variability in R_s could be expected due the
500 variable plant physiological activities related to variable yield as consequence of the “on”
501 and “off” year typical for Mediterranean traditional olive systems. Inter-annual variability
502 would have an impact on R_s greater than the responses to warming as recently documented
503 in an alpine meadow (Fu and Shen, 2022). In this study, the R_s model was trained and
504 parametrized on a dataset encompassing the data of both countries, hence ensuring the
505 higher range of soil conditions (soil temperature, moisture) and R_s . The approach of
506 parametrizing a model on a wide range of conditions would be in favour of its broad
507 application as discussed, for example, by Saxton and Rawls (2006) who modelled soil
508 water characteristics estimating model parameters in the full range of soil moisture.

509

510

511

512 **5. Conclusions**

513 The soil CO₂ emissions data were gathered at traditional olive ecosystems under different
514 water supply (rainfed, irrigation) and management options (sustainable, conventional),
515 revealing a consistent phase-based partitioning of the annual R_s across treatments and sites.
516 Hence, the rationale of the phase-based approach proposed in this paper would be
517 generalizable.

518 Under carbon retention (sustainable) management, soil CO₂ emissions were high in some
519 periods of the annual cycle, which might be environmentally criticizable. However, the
520 impact of sustainable management should be appraised within an overall carbon balance
521 accounting for removals and sequestrations of atmospheric CO₂ into various C pools of the
522 ecosystem.

523 In this study, the response of R_s to soil temperature and moisture has been parameterized in
524 relation to soil moisture (i.e., lower limit of RAW) and temperature (i.e., max_T
525 corresponding to maximum R_s). These factors served as effective predictors and splitting
526 nodes of a simple and efficient conditional model capable of explaining about 84% of the
527 total annual variance of R_s . This paper describes the impact of the environment-
528 management interaction on the release of CO₂ from soil. Results would support carbon
529 accounting procedures tailored to estimating the sink/source capability of traditional olive
530 ecosystems within environmental-friendly agricultural domains.

531

532 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

533 G.M and G.K conceived the study; G.M, G.D., N. Kavroulakis, E. M., performed the field
534 work and the laboratory analyses; G.M. analysed the data and wrote the original draft of the
535 manuscript; N. Kourgialas, G.P., G.K, B.D., V.N. reviewed and edited the manuscript, all
536 authors gave final approval for publication.

537 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

538 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
539 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

540

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549

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716 warming in a highland barley of the Tibet. SpringerPlus 5, 137:
717 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-1761-0>

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720 **Tables**

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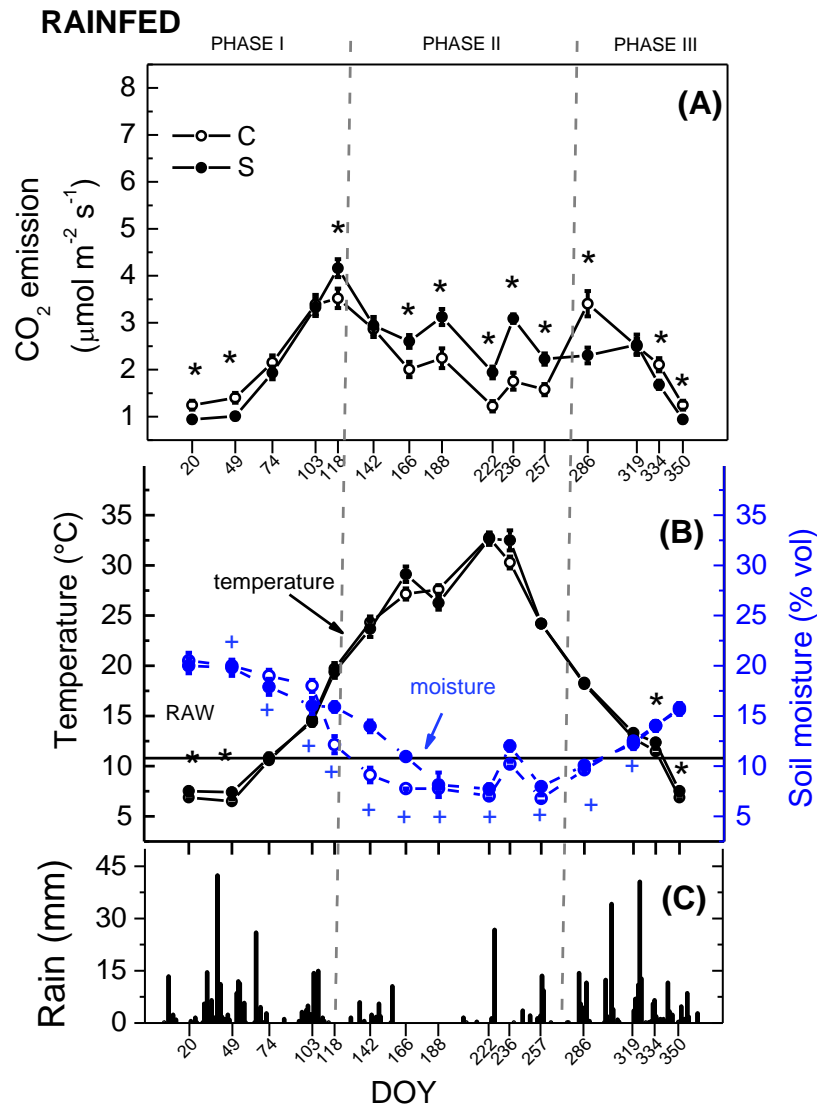
722 **Table 1** - Equations and related parameters (\pm SE) of the sub-models integrated into the
 723 conditional model (Fig. 7) to estimate CO₂ soil emission (R_s) as a response variable (Y_n) of
 724 soil temperature (T) and soil water content (SWC).

Sub-model	Parameters	Comments
$Y_1 = a \times \exp^{b \times T}$	a= 0.4718 \pm 0.046*** b=0.1387 \pm 0.006***	Function describing R_s as response of soil temperature (T) in case of soil moisture within the Readily Available Water and T<20°C. Phase I and III in this study
$Y_2 = a \times \exp^{-\exp(b \times (SWC - xc))}$	a=2.84 \pm 0.2272 *** b= 1.0587 \pm 0.55 “.” xc= 6.1425 \pm 0.387***	Function describing R_s as response to SWC in case of soil moisture values are below Readily Available Water and T>20°C. Phase II, rainfed condition in this study.
$Y_3 = a \times (T - xc)^{-b}$	a=10.78 \pm 7.23, b= 0.6182 \pm 0.226** xc =16.379 \pm 2.354***	Function describing R_s as response to soil temperature in case of soil moisture values are within Readily Available Water and T>20°C. Phase II, irrigated condition in this study.

725 Significance codes: ***, $\alpha = 0.001$; ** $\alpha=0.01$, * $\alpha=0.05$, “.” $\alpha=0.1$. Functions’
 726 parameters have been tuned through a repeated resampling cross-validation procedure.

727 **Figure captions**

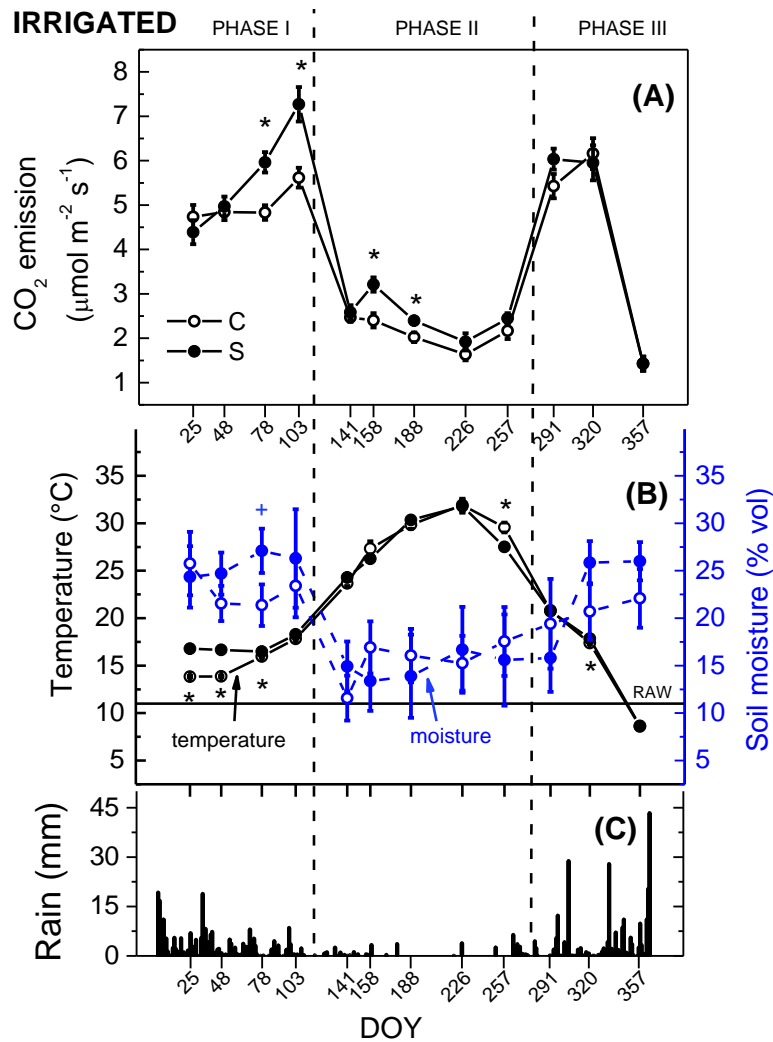
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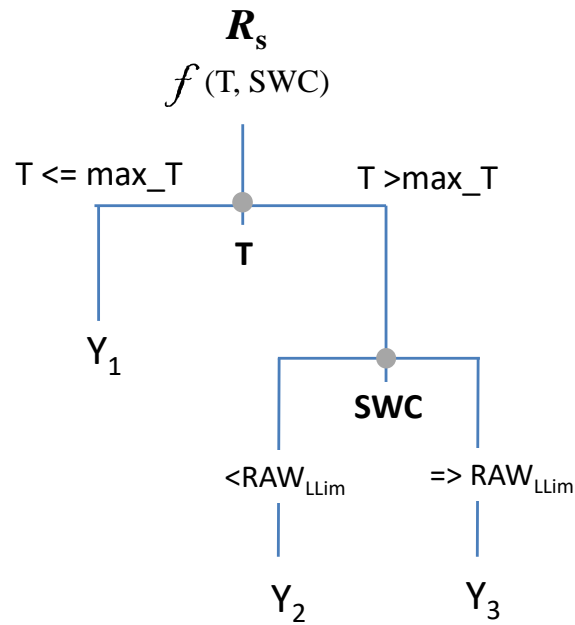
730 **Fig. 1.** Seasonal variation of (A) midday (12-14 h) CO₂ soil emissions, (B) soil
 731 temperature (continuous line) and moisture (dashed lines) and (C) rain at the olive orchards
 732 under (○) conventional and (●) sustainable management measured at the rainfed site.
 733 DOY= day of year. Each CO₂ emission and temperature point is the mean of 30
 734 measurements (±SE); for soil moisture, each point is the mean of 3 bulk samples (±SE).
 735 The horizontal line appearing on panel (B) represents the level of soil moisture
 736 corresponding to the lower threshold of the readily available water (RAW). For each
 737 parameter, comparison of treatments at the same time * (temperature, CO₂ emissions) and +
 738 (soil moisture) indicate statistically significant differences (Student's *t*-test, *p*<0.05).

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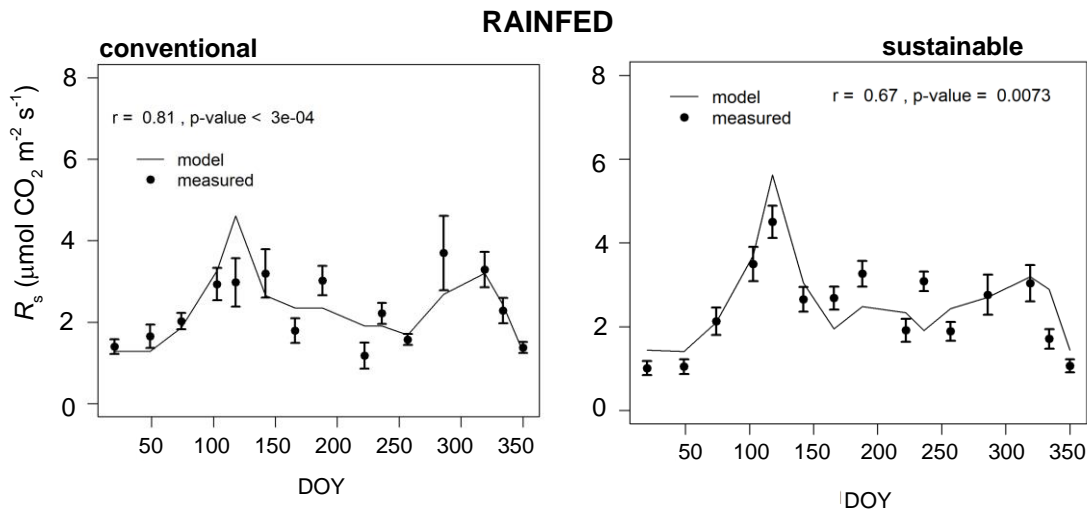
741 **Fig. 2.** Seasonal variation of (A) midday (12-14 h) CO₂ soil emissions, (B) soil
 742 temperature (continuous line) and moisture (dashed lines) and (C) rain at the olive orchards
 743 under (○) conventional and (●) sustainable management measured at the irrigated (GR)
 744 site. DOY= day of year. Each CO₂ emission and temperature point is the mean of 24
 745 measurements (±SE); for soil moisture, each point is the mean of 3 bulk samples (±SE).
 746 The horizontal line appearing on panels (B) represents the level of soil moisture
 747 corresponding to the lower threshold of the readily available water (RAW). For each
 748 parameter, comparison of treatments at the same time * (temperature, CO₂ emissions) and +
 749 (soil moisture) indicate statistically significant differences (Student's *t*-test, *p*<0.05).
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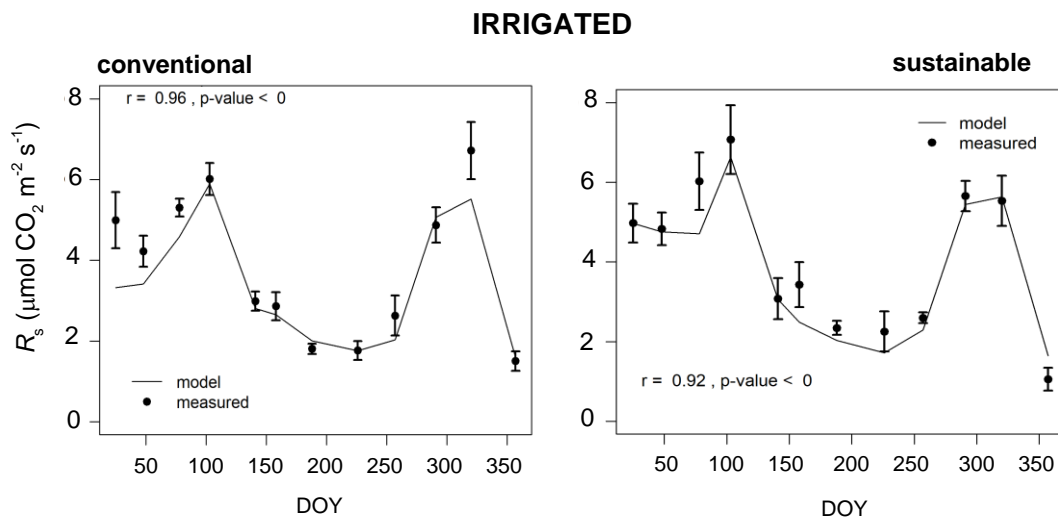
752 **Fig. 3.** Schematic of the decision tree of the model to predict soil respiration (R_s) as
 753 response variable Y_n of soil temperature (T) and soil water content (SWC) which also act as
 754 conditional split points of the model. The threshold temperature (max_T) was set at 19.38
 755 °C; the threshold values of SWC were based on the lower limit of the readily available
 756 water (RAW_{LLim}) which was 10.7%dw. For details on each Y_n equation, please refer to
 757 Table 1.

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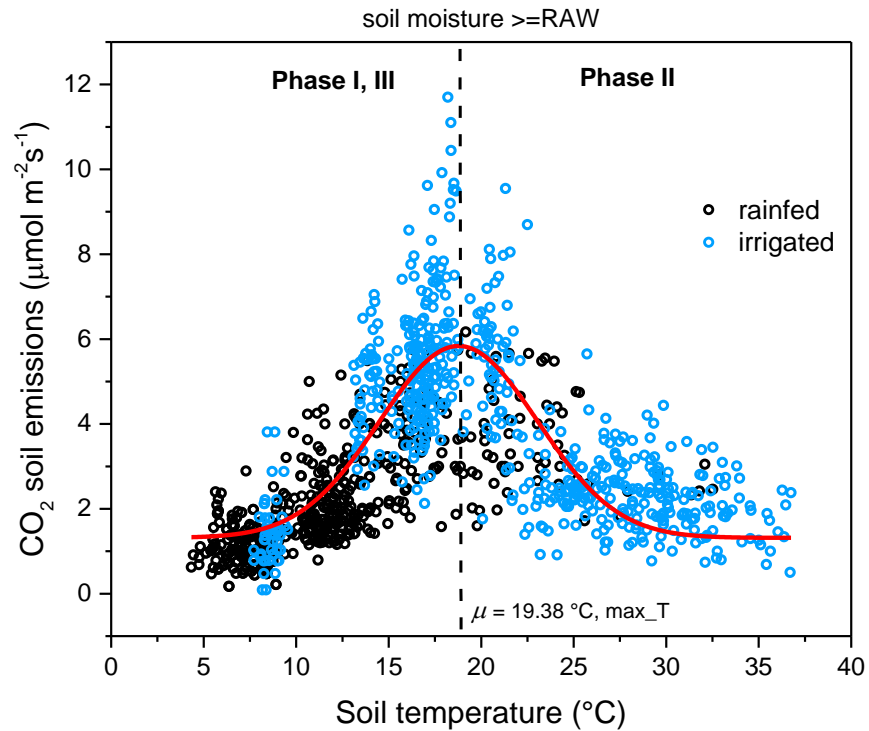
Fig. 4. Seasonal trend of the predicted (—) and the measured soil respiration (R_s) (\bullet , \pm SE) at the rainfed site under conventional (left) and sustainable (right) management conditions. The values of the correlation test (r) and p -value refer to the Spearman’s rank test carried out on paired measured-predicted R_s values. DOY= day of year.



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Fig. 5. Seasonal trend of the predicted (—) and the measured soil respiration (R_s) (\bullet , \pm SE) at the irrigated site under conventional (left) and sustainable (right) management conditions. The values of the correlation test (r) and p -value refer to the Spearman’s rank test carried out on paired measured-predicted R_s values. DOY= day of year.

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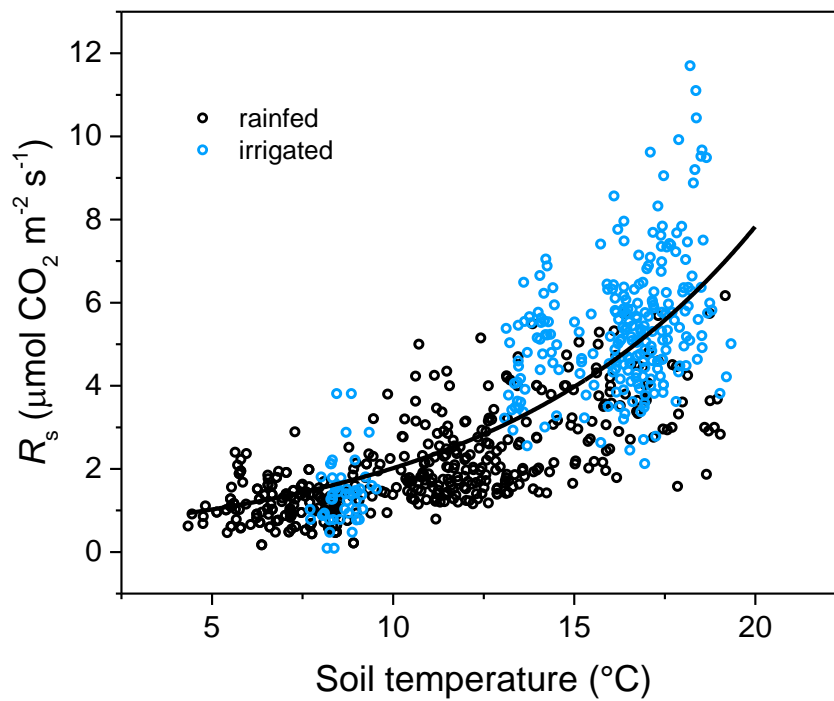
778 **Fig. 6.** Correlation between the whole annual soil respiration (R_s) and soil temperature
 779 recorded at both irrigated and rainfed sites under non-limiting soil moisture conditions. The
 780 vertical dashed line indicates the centre μ of the fitting Gaussian curve which represents the
 781 max_T. The Phases I, II and III refer to those of Fig. 1 and 2.

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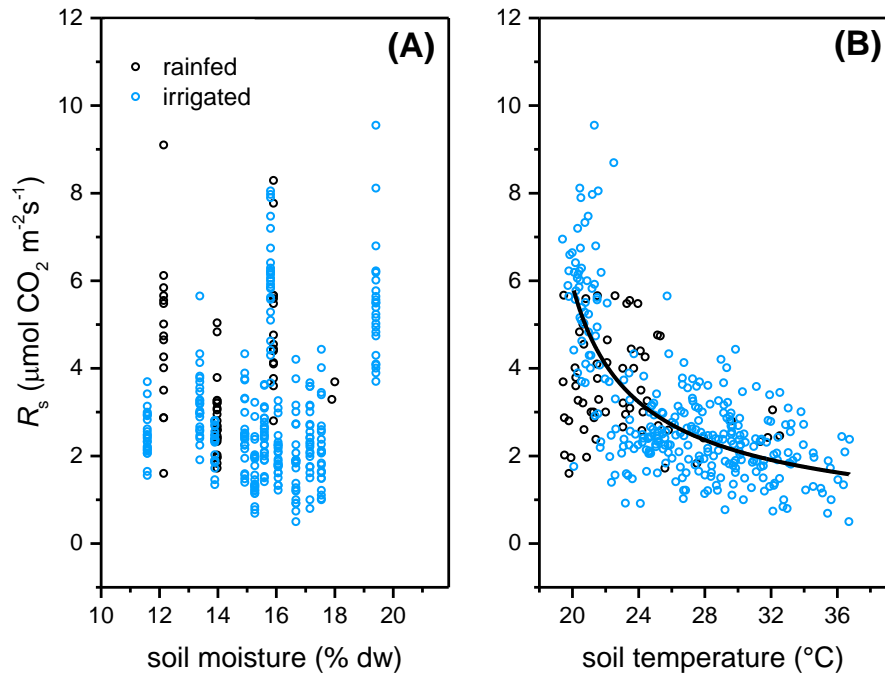


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787 **Fig. 7.** Correlation between soil temperature and CO₂ soil emissions (R_s) recorded under no
788 soil moisture limitation (i.e., $\geq \text{RAW}_{\text{LLim}}$) during Phase I and III at both irrigated and
789 rainfed sites. Data from the two sites have been pooled before fitting; note that the fitting
790 line is illustrative only, please for model's details refer to Table 1.

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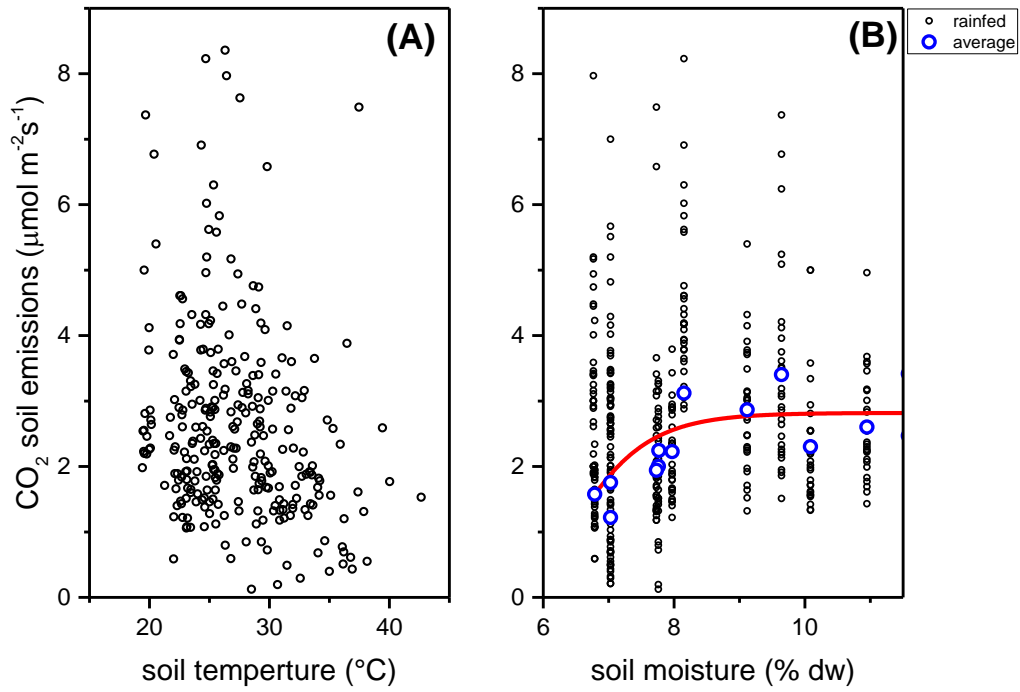
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794 **Fig. 8.** Correlation between soil CO₂ emissions (R_s) and (A) soil moisture and (B) soil
795 temperature measured during the Phase II at irrigated (GR) and rainfed (IT) sites under
796 moisture within the readily available water. Data from the two sites have been pooled
797 before fitting; note that the fitting line is illustrative only, please for model's details refer to
798 Table 1.

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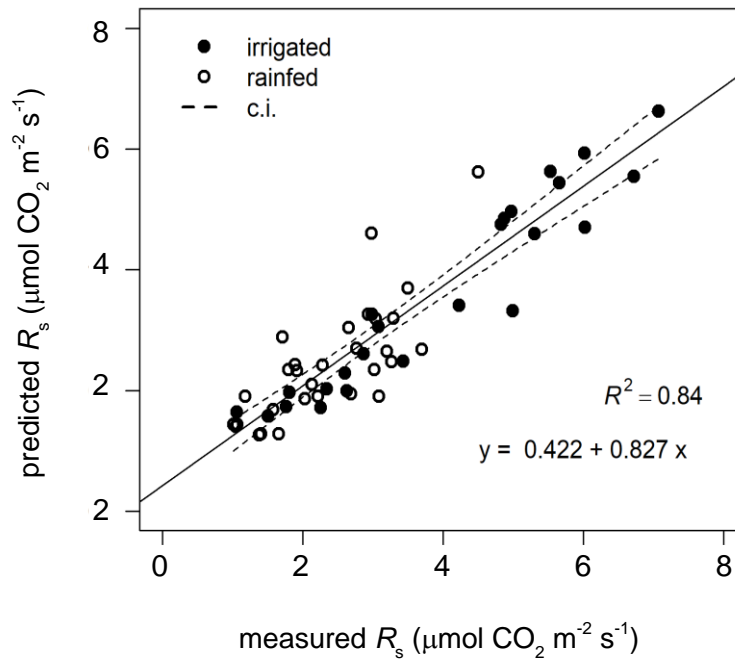


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801 **Fig. 9.** Correlation between soil CO₂ emissions and (A) soil temperature and (B) soil
 802 moisture. Data refer to those collected under moisture limitation, hence, any data from the
 803 irrigated site appears. For details on the Gompertz fitting function (panel B), please refer to
 804 Table 1.

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808 **Fig. 10.** Correlation between the measured and predicted mean soil respiration (R_s) using
809 the conditional model (Fig. 7, Tab. 1). Dashed lines represent the 95% c.i. Data from
810 irrigated and rainfed sites have been pooled before fitting. Each point is the mean of 5-6
811 values.

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