

Annual net CO₂ fluxes from drained organic soils used for agriculture in the hemiboreal region of Europe

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- 15 **Abstract.** Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from drained organic soils used for agriculture contribute significantly to the overall anthropogenic greenhouse gas budget in [the](#) land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) sector. To justify the implementation of climate change mitigation measures on these lands, it is important to estimate at least the regional variation in annual net CO₂ fluxes. This study presents the first estimates of annual net CO₂ fluxes from drained nutrient-rich organic soils in cropland (8 sites) and grassland (12 sites) in the hemiboreal region of Europe, represented by Estonia, Latvia and
- 20 Lithuania. The study sites represented both deep, and shallow highly decomposed, organic soils, ~~categorized~~[categorised](#) based on the concentration of organic carbon in the top 20-cm soil layer. ~~In each site, CO₂ flux measurements were conducted at least over two years~~[CO₂ flux measurements were conducted at least over two years in each site](#). To estimate annual net CO₂ fluxes, ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) and soil heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}) were measured using a manual [dark](#) chamber technique, and carbon (C) input to soil through plant residues was estimated. R_{eco} was strongly dependent on temperature, particularly soil temperature at 10 cm depth, but rather independent of soil water-table level and soil moisture. The overall mean annual net [soil](#) CO₂ fluxes, calculated as the difference between annual ~~CO₂~~-output (R_{het}) and ~~annual C~~-input (plant residues), ~~was~~[were](#) 4.8 ± 0.8 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ ~~in-for~~[in](#) cropland~~s~~ and 3.8 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ ~~in-for~~[in](#) grassland~~s~~, while the means for “true” or deep organic soil were 4.1 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in cropland and 3.2 ± 0.6 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in grassland ([mean ± standard error](#)). Both the annual R_{eco} and net CO₂ fluxes for shallow highly decomposed organic soils, currently not
- 25 ~~recognized~~[recognised](#) as organic soil by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), were of similar magnitude or even higher than those from deep organic soil, suggesting a need to separate them from mineral soils in emission estimation.
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1 Introduction

Organic soils drained for agriculture contribute significantly to anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and are carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission hotspots in the agricultural and land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) sectors in many countries (Tubiello et al., 2015; Tiemeyer et al., 2016; Tubiello et al., 2016; Säurich et al., 2019a; European Environment Agency, 2023^a). When evaluating the overall impact of drained organic soils used for agricultural production on the greenhouse effect, CO₂ is considered the most important GHG (Houghton et al., 2001; Maljanen et al., 2007). Maljanen et al. (2007) reported that CO₂ emissions accounted for around 80 % of the total emissions of CO₂, methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) in drained organic croplands soils in the boreal region. The soil CO₂ emissions result from two main processes: autotrophic respiration, which is the respiration of living plant roots, and heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}), which involves respiration of soil biota such as microorganisms and soil fauna responsible for decomposing litter and soil organic matter (SOM) (Kuzyakov, 2006; Berglund et al., 2011; Bader et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2020a; Tang et al., 2020b). SOM-derived CO₂ emissions, along with estimates of C input to soil by vegetation, are key components in the assessment of soil as a source or sink of atmospheric CO₂ (Kuzyakov, 2006; Tiemeyer et al., 2016).

According to the European Union (EU) GHG inventory for the year 2021, 4.1 Mha or 1 % of the total land area in the EU comprised managed organic soils under cropland and grassland, corresponding to emissions of 76 Mt of CO₂ (European Environment Agency, 2023^a). Thus, these soils ~~are-were~~ responsible for the largest share (~70 %) of GHG emissions from managed organic soils in the EU (European Environment Agency, 2024). The largest area of drained organic soils used for agriculture is in Eastern and Northern Europe. As of 2019, this region comprised 45 % of the worldwide agricultural land -on organic soil (FAO, 2020). In order to achieve ~~the~~ international climate change mitigation goals, like the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC, 2015) and the European Green Deal (Fetting, 2020), an increase in the sequestration of atmospheric CO₂ and a reduction in GHG emissions from organic soils, especially from soils drained for agricultural use, is urgently required. ~~For To~~ take effective and practical mitigation actions measures to reduce emissions, it ~~needs to be~~ is necessary to know ~~a~~ where and why the emissions are highest, and to understand how they respond to changes in the factors-environmental parametersvariables regulating them.

It is well documented that improved soil aeration caused by lowering the soil water-table level (WTL) through ditch drainage ~~and along with mechanical disturbance-practices~~ (e.g., repeated ploughing), as well as the application of liming-lime and fertilizersfertilizationfertilisation, ~~improve-enhance the~~ conditions for SOM mineralization-mineralisation and the associated CO₂ production (Nykänen et al., 1995; Lohila et al., 2004; Maljanen et al., 2007). However, CO₂ emissions from drained organic soils vary considerably. They depend on complex interactions of many physical and chemical ~~factorsvariables~~, including local climate and physical soil conditions (mainly ~~soil~~ temperature, moisture, and WTL), soil properties (e.g., peat type, composition, degree of decomposition), as well as the type and intensity of management, including the type of vegetation (Oleszczuk et al., 2008; Norberg et al., 2016; Tiemeyer et al., 2016; Minasny et al., 2017; Bader et al., 2018; Fairbairn et al., 2023).

65 Relative to the number of the ~~affecting variables~~~~factors~~~~parameters in effect~~ and their ~~potential~~ interactions, as well as variation in management practices and intensity, there is still ~~a rather limited number of sites~~~~studies that provide~~ comprehensive information on the annual net CO₂ fluxes from drained organic soils used for agriculture ~~from a rather limited number of sites~~. For instance, the IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014) default CO₂ emission factors for drained nutrient-rich organic soils in the temperate and boreal regions are based on data from 39 sites for croplands and 60 sites for grasslands. The categories temperate and boreal are broad and comprise a lot of variation in climatic, hydrological and geomorphological conditions that are likely to shape the emissions, ~~but, Still currently,~~ there is too little data to adjust the emission factors correspondingly. Further, many ~~of the GHG emission~~ studies have focused on deep peat soils known as Histosols, which have high soil organic carbon (SOC) content. ~~Yet, some studies have highlighted that also soils with comparatively low SOC concentration (<15.0 %, Tiemeyer et al., 2016), which do not fall under the definition of organic soils by the IPCC (Eggleston et al., 2006), may have high CO₂ emissions (Leiber-Sauheitt et al., 2014; Eickenscheidt et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2024).~~

70 ~~Only a few studies have highlighted the important contribution of organic soils with comparatively low SOC concentration (<15.0 %, Tiemeyer et al., 2016), and even soils not falling under the definition of organic soils provided by the IPCC (Eggleston et al., 2006), to total GHG emissions (Leiber-Sauheitt et al., 2014; Eickenscheidt et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2024).~~ These soils include formerly drained peatlands ~~undergoing transformation into~~ that have transformed into organo-mineral soils due to prolonged agricultural activities. Thus, the total GHG emissions from soils used in agriculture may be underestimated if such soils are treated as mineral soils in the estimation, but their emissions are actually higher.

80 In the Baltic ~~states~~countries, which, according to the vegetation zone classification (Ahti et al., 1968), fall within the hemiboreal region of Europe, the share of croplands and grasslands with organic soils comprises 3–6 % and 5–19 % of the total land area and ~~produce the relevant CO₂ emissions from organic soils account for~~ ~~correspond to emissions of~~ up to 156 % and 75 % of total net GHG emissions (including CO₂ removals) in cropland and grassland, respectively (Estonia's National GHG inventory, 2023; Latvia's National GHG inventory, 2023; Lithuania's National GHG inventory, 2023). To provide knowledge-based recommendations for land-use and climate policymakers regarding the management of organic soils, the magnitude of ecosystem CO₂ fluxes and the ~~factors~~variables affecting them need to be quantified under climatic and management conditions that are pertinent at a national or regional level ~~relevant nationally or at least regionally~~ (Wüst-Galley et al., 2020). In the

90 hemiboreal region of Europe that falls between the boreal and temperate regions, region-specific CO₂ emission factors for cropland and grassland with drained organic soils have not been elaborated so far, due to ~~insufficient data availability~~limited data.

The primary aims of this study were to produce the first estimates on annual net CO₂ fluxes from drained organic soils in cropland and grassland in the Baltic ~~states~~countries, and to elaborate corresponding CO₂ emission factors for this hemiboreal region of Europe. In addition, we evaluated the impacts of organic carbon (OC) concentration in topsoil and other potentially controlling environmental variables on the magnitude of the CO₂ fluxes. The study was conducted at 20 ~~study~~ sites covering managed grasslands and croplands with both deep, and shallow highly decomposed, organic soils, grouped depending on the OC concentration in the topsoil layer.

2 Material and methods

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2.1 Study sites

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The study was conducted in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, which are part of the hemiboreal vegetation region of Europe. In total, 20 ~~study~~ sites were included in the study (Fig. 1, Table 1, Table S1): 8 ~~sites in~~ croplands (arable land) and 12 ~~sites in~~ grasslands with low management intensity (grazing or fodder production ~~that involves with~~ up to two grass cuttings per year). The sites, established on formerly drained peatlands, included both i) deep organic soils with an OC concentration above 12 % in the 0–20 cm soil layer, and ii) shallow highly decomposed organic soils with an OC concentration below 12 % in the 0–20 cm soil layer. The latter type of soil, in the current classification, does not meet the IPCC criterion for organic soils (Eggleston et al., 2006). The thickness of the soil organic layer ranged from 16 to 72 cm (mean $43 \pm \text{S.D. } 7.19$ cm) in cropland and from 17 to 95 cm (mean $46 \pm \text{S.D. } 25.7$ cm) in grassland (Table 1). All cropland sites were deep drained (mean WTL > 30 cm) according to the IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014), while the grassland sites included both deep ~~drained~~ ($n = 10$) and shallow drained (mean WTL < 30 cm, $n = 2$) sites (Table 1, Fig. S1). Description of the vegetation species composition in the grassland sites is ~~summarized~~ ~~summarised~~ in Table S2. All study sites represented a steady-state level of land use, i.e., the land had been used for agricultural production for at least the past 20 years. The long-term ~~average mean~~ (1991–2020) annual air temperature was 6.3 °C in Estonia, 6.9 °C in Latvia, ~~and~~ 7.4 °C in Lithuania, while the ~~average mean~~ annual precipitation was 665 mm in Estonia, 681 mm in Latvia, and 679 mm in Lithuania (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, ~~2023~~ ~~2024~~).

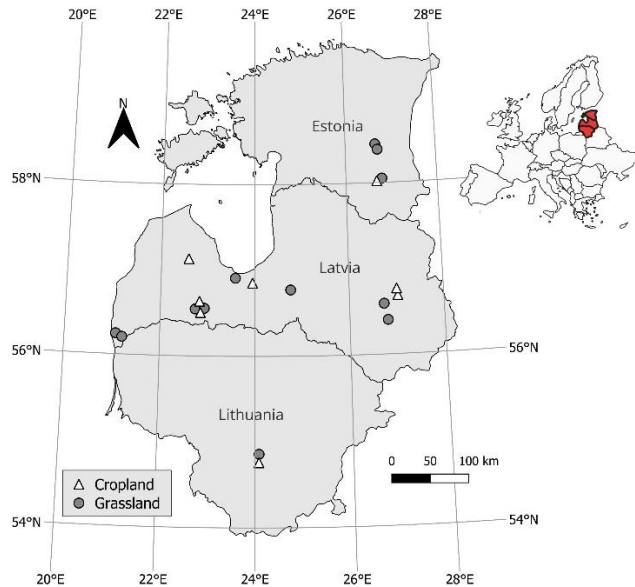


Figure 1: Location of the study sites in the Baltic ~~countries~~ ~~States~~ (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) belonging to the hemiboreal vegetation region of Europe (maps prepared using QGIS 3.34.4).

120 Table 1. Description of the study sites with drained nutrient-rich organic soil in agricultural land in the Baltic [States](#)[countries](#).

Land use type	Country	Study site (name, identification code)*	Soil group (WRB, 2015 ⁴)	Management during the study period (type of cultivated arable crop/perennial grass, tillage, N input with fertilization fertilisation)	Mean thickness of organic soil layer (range), cm	Mean soil water-table level \pm S.E. (range) during the study period , cm below the surface
Cropland	Latvia	Diervanīne I, CL LV 1 ^D	Histosols	Winter wheat; annual tillage; N input 120 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	55	87.3 \pm 3.9 (12–155)
		Diervanīne II, CL LV 2 ^D	Histosols	Maize; annual tillage; N input 120 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	57	96.2 \pm 2.8 (53–160)
		Gavenpurvs, CL LV 3 ^D	Histosols	Winter wheat; annual tillage; N input 120 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	45	41.7 \pm 3.3 (–3–93)
		Mārupe, CL LV 4 ^D	Histosols	Maize; annual tillage; N input 120 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	72	86.3 \pm 2.3 (33–140)
		Lazdiņi I, CL LV 5 ^S	Gleysols	Winter wheat, winter rape; annual tillage; N input 189 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	18 (15–20)	59.1 \pm 1.3 (30–100)
		Lazdiņi II, CL LV 6 ^S	Gleysols	Beans; annual tillage; no information on N input	16 (10–21)	54.7 \pm 3.4 (1–91)
	Estonia	Saverna I, CL EE 1 ^D	Histosols	Maize; annual tillage; no information on N input	33 (30–40)	46.7 \pm 0.9 (29–78)
	Lithuania	Dobilija, CL LT 1 ^D	Histosols	Winter wheat, spring wheat, winter rape; no-tillage > 5 years; N input 188 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	45 (45–45)	> 150 (110–>150)
Grassland	Latvia	Kašķu, GL LV 1 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	42	91.1 \pm 3.3 (1–150)
		Krista, GL LV 2 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	50	25.5 \pm 2.9 (–2–98)
		Stabulnieku, GL LV 3 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	50	42.2 \pm 3.1 (–4–110)
		Rucava, GL LV 4 ^D	Gleysols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	31 (30–32)	30.3 \pm 2.7 (–3–91)
		Lazdiņi III, GL LV 5 ^S	Gleysols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	28 (20–35)	47.7 \pm 2.1 (1–85)
		Andrupēni, GL LV 6 ^S	Phaeozems	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	22 (15–30)	94.2 \pm 1.5 (47–127)
		Lazdiņi IV, GL LV 7 ^D	Phaeozems	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	43 (20–70)	46.3 \pm 2.1 (0–125)
		Ķegums, GL LV 8 ^S	Umbrisols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	17 (10–25)	83.0 \pm 2.3 (0–146)
	Estonia	Maramaa I, GL EE 1 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	37 (30–40)	22.6 \pm 0.9 (–3–51)
		Saverna II, GL EE 2 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	47 (40–50)	58.4 \pm 1.0 (32–84)
		Maramaa II, GL EE 3 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	92 (75–100)	30.6 \pm 1.4 (–1–96)
	Lithuania	Dubrava, GL LT 1 ^D	Histosols	Perennial grass (managed); no-tillage; no N input	95 (78–120)	43.3 \pm 3.7 (–3–150)

* Sites ~~characterized~~ characterised as 'deep organic soils' are marked with upper index D, while sites ~~characterized~~ characterised as 'shallow highly decomposed organic soils' are marked with upper index S.

2.2 Measurements of ecosystem respiration

125 To estimate ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}), which includes both soil heterotrophic (R_{het}) respiration from organic matter decomposition (including decomposition of the plant residues specific to the study site) and autotrophic respiration of above- and belowground plant biomass, gas sampling was conducted once or twice a month (Table S1). The measurement periods varied between sites, as shown in Table S1, falling between December 2016 and June 2023. One to five plots per site (Table S1) were prepared for gas sampling by installing permanent circular collars (area 0.1995 m²) in the soil, extending down to 130 ~~five~~ 5-cm depth, at least one month before the first gas sampling to avoid the disturbance to the vegetation affecting the results. Gas sampling was conducted using manually-operated closed static opaque chambers (volume 0.0655 m³). The chambers were positioned air-tightly on the collars, and during the next 30- (Latvia, ~~Lithuania~~) or 60-minute (Estonia, ~~Lithuania~~) period, four consecutive gas samples (~~100-50 mL~~ mL) were taken in 10- (Latvia, ~~Lithuania~~) or 20-minute (Estonia, ~~Lithuania~~) intervals, respectively, using ~~underpressurized-pre-evacuated~~ (0.3 mbar) glass vials. All measurements were made during daytime, 135 ~~randomizing~~ randomising the time of measurement events was randomised among sites and plots. The CO₂ concentration in the R_{eco} gas samples was determined using a gas chromatography (GC) method. The gas samples were ~~analyzed~~ analysed using Shimadzu GC-2014 ~~equipped with ECD detector~~ (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) at the Laboratory of the Geography Department, University of Tartu ~~in (Estonia,)~~ and-or Shimadzu Nexis GC-230 ~~equipped with ECD detectors~~ (Shimadzu U.S.A Manufacturing, Inc., Canby, OR, USA) ~~and LabSolutions software 5.93~~ at the Latvian 140 State Forest Research Institute Silava (LVS EN ISO 17025:2018-accredited laboratory) ~~in ,Latvia).~~ Both instruments were equipped with an ECD detector. The expanded uncertainty (equal to two times the combined uncertainty) of the method was estimated to be 4.8 % (Magnusson et al., 2017) ~~20 ppm of CO₂.~~

2.3 Flux calculations and data quality check

Quality control of the data (~~GC results~~) involved the assessment of the fit of the CO₂ concentrations in the gas samples to a 145 linear regression representing the gas concentration change in time within the closed chamber. Data were excluded from further ~~data~~ processing if the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the regression was lower than 0.9, except when the difference between the maximum and minimum CO₂ concentration in the four consecutive gas samples of a measurement event was lower than that method uncertainty (20 ppm of CO₂). In total, 6.5% of all instantaneous R_{eco} results were excluded from further data processing based on data quality check. 150 Instantaneous R_{eco} was calculated based on the equation of Ideal Gas Law using the slope of the linear regression describing the change in the CO₂ concentration over time following Eq. (1):

$$R_{eco} = \frac{M \times P \times V \times Slope}{R \times T \times A \times 1000}, \quad (1)$$

where R_{eco} is instantaneous ecosystem respiration ($\text{mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$), M is the molar mass of $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ (12.01 g mol^{-1}), P is air pressure in the chamber during sampling (assumption) ($101\,300 \text{ Pa}$), V is chamber volume (0.0655 m^3); Slope is the slope of the constructed linear regression describing the change in CO_2 concentration over time (ppm h^{-1}), R is the universal gas constant ($8.314 \text{ m}^3 \text{ Pa K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$), T is air temperature (K), and A is collar area (0.1995 m^2).

2.34 Measurements of soil heterotrophic respiration

On 13 study sites (four croplands and nine grasslands), soil heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}) was measured to allow comparison between the use of direct R_{het} measurements versus R_{het} estimates derived from R_{eco} measurements in estimation of annual net CO_2 fluxes. Three measurement points with an area of 0.36 m^2 were established per plot (i.e., a total of nine measurement points per study site, Table S1) ~~with an area of 0.36 m^2 during were established in~~ the previous growing season ~~prior before~~ the commencement measurements of soil heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}) ~~were started measurements~~. Vegetation was removed, soil trenching to a depth of at least 40 cm was done to exclude autotrophic respiration from existing roots, and a geotextile was installed to prevent new root ingrowth into the measurement points. Soil R_{het} was measured once or twice a month during the vegetation periods (April–November); the measurement periods varied between sites, as shown in Table S1, falling between April 2021 and October 2023. Soil R_{het} was measured (for the measurement periods, see Table S1) using a portable CO_2 gas analyzer analyser (EGM-5; P.P. Systems, Amesbury, MA, USA) and opaque fan-equipped chambers with a volume of 0.017 or 0.0213 m^3 that covered an area of 0.07 m^2 . ~~R_{het} measurements were conducted by~~ The chamber was positioned ~~ed a chamber (area 0.07 m^2) open lower edge~~ air-tightly on bare soil without a collar.

The duration of each R_{het} measurement was 180 seconds, during which the CO_2 concentration in the closed chamber was recorded every second. Measurement results (CO_2 concentration, ppm) were used to construct linear regressions reflecting changes in CO_2 concentration over time. To avoid possible the impacts of mechanical disturbances (that could impact on affect CO_2 concentration changes over the time) — stemming from due to from (chamber placement, and removal, or positioning, removing of and movement near the chamber), — the concentration values ~~obtained recorded~~ during the first 15 and the last 30 seconds of the 180-second measurement period (180 seconds in total) were excluded from the regression, (based on results obtained during the method validation). Similarly to R_{eco} , instantaneous R_{het} was calculated based on the equation of Ideal Gas Law using the slope of the constructed linear regression (Eq. (1)).

2.45 Estimation of C stock in above- and belowground parts of vegetation

To estimate the vegetation C stocks, above- and belowground plant biomass was sampled in each plot with at least three replicates (1 m distance between replicates), one to three times once to three per study period. The biomass sampling dates for each study site are summarized summarised in Table S1. The sampling areas (1 m distance between replicates) were representative for represented each ~~the~~ R_{eco} measurement plot, avoiding atypical microrelief and disturbance of vegetation vegetation disturbance in the CO_2 flux measurement points (permanent circular collars). The sampling area of aboveground biomass was 625 cm^2 in Latvia, 1600 cm^2 in Lithuania, and 10000 cm^2 in Estonia, and the sampling area of

belowground biomass was 625 cm² in Latvia, 1600 cm² in Lithuania, and 15 soil cores (diameter 48 mm) were randomly sampled per each site in Estonia. The belowground ~~part biomass~~ was sampled ~~by excavating roots~~ down to 20–30 cm depth. ~~Vegetation-The~~ samples were ~~transported-brought~~ to the laboratory, ~~and-where~~ their dry mass was determined after drying at 65–70°C temperature for 48 h or ~~untill~~ a constant mass ~~was-reached~~ achieved. Before drying, the ~~samples-of~~ belowground biomass ~~samples~~ were cleaned of soil particles by washing with cold tap water and using wet sieving. Total C and nitrogen (N) concentrations in all biomass samples were determined with the elementary analysis method (elemental ~~analyzer-analyser~~ Elementar El Cube) according to the LVS ISO 10694:2006 and LVS ISO 13878:1998, respectively.

2.56 Soil sampling and analyses

At each plot, ~~the~~ soil was sampled in one to three replicates using a soil sample probe (diameter 5 cm) from the following depths: 0–10 cm, 10–20 cm, 20–30 cm, 30–40 cm, 40–50 cm, 50–75 cm, and 75–100 cm. The soil samples were first pretreated for physico-chemical analyses, including drying at a temperature not exceeding 40 °C and sieving (aperture size of 2 mm) according to the LVS ISO 11464:2005. The following soil variables were then determined: soil pH according to LVS EN ISO 10390:2021 (suspension of soil in 1 mol L⁻¹ potassium chloride (KCl) solution, pH KCl; pH-meter Adrona AM 1605); total C (TC) and total N (TN) concentrations by dry combustion according to the LVS ISO 10694:2006 and LVS ISO 13878:1998 (elemental ~~analyzer-analyser~~ Elementar El Cube); carbonate concentration using a digital soil calcimeter UGT/BD Inventions FOG II Calcimeter Field Kit; ash content according to the LVS EN ISO 18122:2022; and concentrations of HNO₃-extractable potassium (K), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg) and phosphorus (P) according to the LVS EN ISO 11885:2009 with the inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) method (Thermo Fisher Scientific iCAP 7200 Duo). Organic C (OC) concentration was calculated as the difference between TC and inorganic C (carbonate) concentration or by multiplying the SOM content derived using results of ash content by a factor of 0.5, thus assuming that SOM is 50 % carbon (Pribyl, 2010). In addition, the soil OC/TN ratio (C/N ratio) was calculated.

2.67 Other environmental variables

Concurrently with the soil respiration measurements, the following environmental variables were measured in each plot: air temperature; soil temperature at depths ~~of 5, 10, 20, 30 and 40 cm~~ using the Comet data logger (COMET SYSTEM, s.r.o., 756 61 Roznov pod Radhostem, Czech Republic) equipped with Pt1000 temperature probes; soil moisture (volumetric water content) and soil temperature at 5 cm depth using the ProCheck meter (Decagon Devices, Pulman, WA, USA) equipped with a moisture sensor (in Estonia and Latvia) and HH2 Hand Held Moisture Meter (Delta-T Devices, Burwell, UK) with SM150T moisture sensor (in Lithuania); soil water-table level (WTL) using groundwater wells (piezometer tubes, 5-7.5 cm in diameter, perforated and coated with nylon mesh) installed vertically down to a depth of 1.5–~~2.0~~6 m. In addition, continuous soil temperature measurements at depth of 10 cm were carried out at 10 study sites (four croplands and six grasslands), at 30-minute intervals using Maxim Integrated DS1922L2F loggers (iButtonLink Technology, Whitewater, WI 53190 USA).

2.78 Estimation of annual soil net CO₂ fluxes and CO₂ emission factors

Annual net CO₂ fluxes from soil were calculated as the difference between annual CO₂ output (annual soil R_{het}) and annual C input into the soil with above- and belowground parts of vegetation (plant residues). We initially intended to ~~utilize~~ utilise the directly measured R_{het} values for these calculations; however, preliminary analyses showed that the directly measured R_{het} values, which, unlike R_{eco}, do not include autotrophic respiration, were higher than R_{eco} in several study sites (Fig. S2, Fig. S3). Under similar conditions, R_{het} should not be higher than R_{eco}. ~~Use of the directly measured R_{het} values would thus have resulted~~ Using the directly measured R_{het} values would thus overestimate in overestimation of the CO₂ output. The discrepancy between R_{het} and R_{eco} indicates that the parameters/variables regulating respiration, such as soil temperature and moisture, critically differed between the respective measurement locations. Also, unlike R_{het}, R_{eco} data was available over the whole years, including the winter season.

Consequently, mean annual soil R_{het} was calculated assuming that i) our R_{eco} is equal to soil surface respiration (R_s), which includes R_{het} and the dark respiration of the belowground plant biomass, and that ii) the proportion of annual soil R_{het} from R_s is 64 %, based on results of previous studies (n=61, Fig. S4) conducted in temperate and boreal regions (Jian et al., 2021). These assumptions were consistent with the most conservative approach and should clearly avoid underestimation of R_{het} since our R_{eco} values additionally included the dark respiration of the aboveground plant biomass, not included in the R_s. The measured R_{eco} values include the CO₂ output due to decomposition of the plant residues specific to the study site. Thus, we did not need to consider the decomposition rates of the plant residues separately, and did not overestimate the C input into the soil by the vegetation.

Annual R_{eco} was calculated for each study site ~~separately-individually~~ as a cumulative value consisting of mean hourly values of R_{eco} multiplied by the number of hours in a day and days in the ~~respective each month, spanning-covering~~ all months ~~in-of~~ the calendar year, and ~~the final result is~~ expressed as t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The annual CO₂ output from soil (annual soil R_{het}) was then estimated as the 64 % value of the annual R_{eco}.

To assess the potential overestimation of annual R_{eco} due to measurements conducted only during daytime, when the temperature usually is higher than the daily mean temperature, a study-site-specific comparison of the applied method and modelling approach based on continuous soil temperature measurements at depths of 10 cm at 10 study sites was made. The modelling approach included constructing study-site-specific models to describe the relationships between logarithmically or Box-Cox transformed (data normalisation, Box and Cox, 1964) instantaneous R_{eco} and soil temperature at 10 cm depth (Fig. S5, Fig. S6). Hourly R_{eco} estimates were then calculated using the models (Fig. S5, Fig. S6) with the continuous soil temperature data

For cropland, the annual C input into the soil by the vegetation was divided into three components: aboveground harvest residues, belowground harvest residues, and belowground biomass litter. C input from aboveground harvest residues was calculated as the difference between the C stock in the ~~measured~~-total aboveground biomass and the C stock in harvested

products (Eq. 2). C stock in harvested products which was calculated using a harvest index (HI, Table 2), which is i.e., the ratio of harvested product to total aboveground biomass (Palosuo et al., 2015), resulting in Eq. (2):

250

$$Annual\ C\ input_{AGBHR} = C\ stock_{AGB} - (C\ stock_{AGB} \times HI), \tag{2}$$

where Annual C input_{AGBHR} is annual C input from aboveground harvest residue (t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), C stock_{AGB} is C stock in total aboveground biomass (t C ha⁻¹), HI is harvest index (Table 2).

For cropland, C input from belowground harvest residues was assumed to be equal to equal the C stock in the measured belowground biomass. The assumptions of annual C input into the soil with belowground biomass litter are summarized summarised in Table 2.

For study sites where data on above- and/or below-ground biomass (including belowground biomass litter) was not availablemeasured, theoretical values derived from earlier research summarized summarised in Table 2 were used (Table 2).

Table 2. The estimated annual C inputs into the soil with above- and belowground parts of vegetation (arable crops, perennial grass) in for cases where for which no data was not collected in this study.

Arable crop, perennial grass	Harvest index (HI)	Annual C inputs into soil, t C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹		
		Aboveground harvest residues	Belowground biomass	Belowground biomass litter
Winter wheat	0.39 ^a	3.00 ^a	0.50 ^a	0.21 ^a
Spring wheat	0.44 ^a	2.21 ^a	0.43 ^a	0.18 ^a
Maize	0.84 ^b	0.95 ^{a,b}	0.72 ^a	0.30 ^a
Beans	0.28 ^a	3.11 ^a	0.23 ^a	0.09 ^a
Rape	0.35 ^b	1.95 ^b	0.58 ^b	0.40 ^b
Fallow	0.00 ^a	1.50 ^a	0.25 ^a	0.10 ^a
Perennial grass	0.84 ^b	0.81 ^{a,b}	1.14 ^a	0.77 ^a

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^a Source: Latvian State Forest Research Institute “Silava”, 2024

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^b Source: Palosuo et al., 2015

For grassland sites where measured aboveground biomass was left on the field, it was either assumed that the C input into soil with aboveground parts of vegetation was assumed to equalled the C stock in aboveground biomass measured in at the end of vegetation season. For grassland sites where measured aboveground biomass was harvested and removed from the field after biomass measurements were taken, or the C input was calculated using the harvest index (HI, Table 2), depending on the study site and management practices. The C input into the soil with belowground parts of vegetation was calculated assuming that the root turnover rate is 0.41, according to Palosuo et al. (2015). For study sites where data on above- and/or belowground biomass was not available, values summarized summarised in Table 2 were used.

Mean annual net CO₂ fluxes from the soil, corresponding to emission factors as outlined by IPCC, were calculated from the site-level annual net fluxes.

2.89 Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses and ~~visualization~~ visualisation were conducted using the software environment R (version 4.3.3) and RStudio 2023.12.1 (R Core Team, 2024). The datasets of CO₂ fluxes (both R_{eco} and R_{het}) were not normally distributed according to the ~~results of the~~ Shapiro-Wilk normality test, ~~both~~ neither when all study sites were pooled ~~and~~ nor when each study site was tested separately ($p < 0.001$).

To evaluate the differences between independent variables, for instance, differences in soil physico-chemical variables, R_{eco} ~~and~~ R_{het} and annual net CO₂ fluxes between different types of land use (cropland, grassland), soil types (deep organic soil, shallow highly decomposed organic soil) or drainage (deep drained, shallow drained), Wilcoxon rank sum exact test ~~and pairwise comparisons using Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction was used; on plot mean values were as~~ used for ~~analysis.~~ PlotSite-level mean values were used when differences in soil physico-chemical variables, R_{eco} and R_{het} between different soil types (deep organic soil, shallow highly decomposed organic soil) or drainage (deep drained, shallow drained) within the same type of land use were estimated. ~~between different types~~Site-level mean values were used when differences in independent variables between different types of land use (cropland, grassland) were evaluated, as well as when differences in annual net CO₂ fluxes were estimated between different types of land use ~~(cropland, grassland)~~, soil types ~~(deep organic soil, shallow highly decomposed organic soil)~~ or drainage ~~(deep drained, shallow drained)~~.

Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) was used to assess the degree of dependence between pairs of variables.

~~To explain the variation in mean instantaneous R_{eco} (Y) calculated as the average of monthly means (Y) among study sites (plot level mean values were used),~~ For assessing the variation in R_{eco} among sites, the plot-level mean instantaneous R_{eco} (Y) was first calculated from means of instantaneous R_{eco} for each month spanning all months of the calendar year. ~~P~~partial least squares (PLS) regression, ~~a~~ a ~~(multivariate method suitable for dealing with variables that are linearly correlated to each other, such as soil physico-chemical variables,~~ was ~~then~~ used. PLS regression analysis includes the evaluation of X variables depending on their importance in explaining Y, ~~expressed as variables important for the projection (VIP values).~~ X variables with VIP values below the threshold of 0.5 were considered ~~as~~ insignificant and were not ~~used~~ retained in the PLS regression, while X variables with VIP values exceeding 1.0 were considered ~~as~~ important.

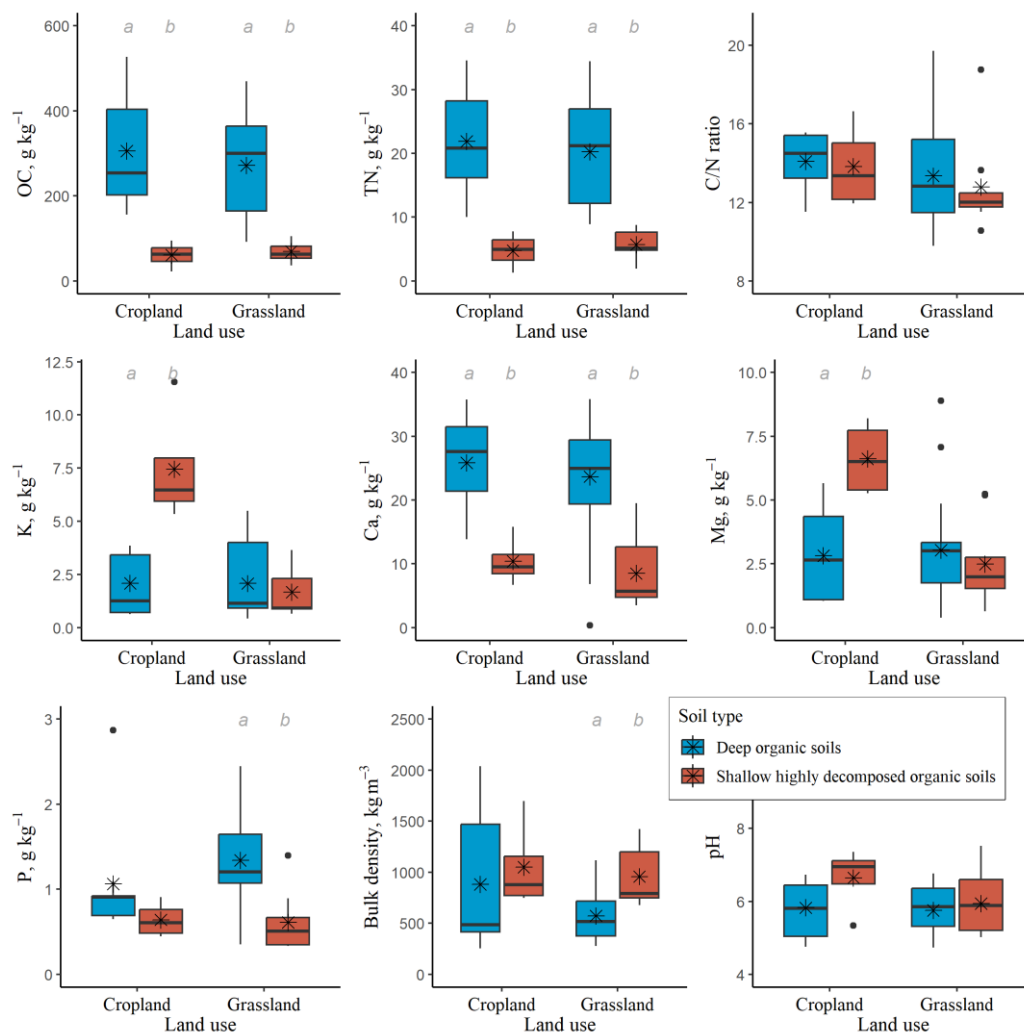
All statistical analyses were carried out with a significance level of 95 % ($\alpha = 0.05$). Results are expressed as arithmetic mean values \pm standard error (S.E.) unless stated otherwise.

3 Results

3.1 Soil physical and ~~o~~-chemical variables

The soils of the study sites were ~~characterized~~ characterised by high variation in both the thickness of the soil organic layer (Table 1) and soil OC concentration, as well as other physico-chemical variables (Fig. 2, Fig. S75, Fig. S86). In the topsoil (0–

20 cm layer), OC concentrations ranged from $<120 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ~~in-at~~ sites ~~where the mean thickness of the soil organic layer was $<30 \text{ cm}$ and soil organic matter was highly mineralized mineralised and mixed with the underlying mineral soil as a result of soil ploughing (, i.e., the~~with shallow highly decomposed organic soils), to $527.6.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ~~in-at~~ sites with deep organic soil. In the topsoil of deep organic soils, the mean OC concentration in cropland was $365.0 \pm 59.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, and in grassland $276.0 \pm 36.837 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$. In the topsoil of shallow highly decomposed organic soils, the mean OC concentration was significantly lower in both cropland (~~up to~~ $73.748 \pm 2611.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) and grassland (~~up to~~ $81.969 \pm 22.78 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$). Similarly, significantly higher TN concentrations were found in the topsoil of deep organic soils compared to shallow highly decomposed organic soils (25.7 ± 3.9 vs. $3.6 \pm 2.3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ in cropland and 20.0 ± 2.4 vs. $5.7 \pm 0.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ in grassland, respectively). The mean P concentrations ~~tended to be~~was higher in deep organic soils, with a significant difference observed only for grassland. No significant differences in soil C/N ratio were found between deep organic and shallow highly decomposed organic soils; the overall mean soil C/N ratio in the topsoil was 14.4 ± 0.6 in cropland and 13.6 ± 0.8 in grassland. In both cropland and grassland, significantly higher Ca concentrations were observed in the topsoil of deep organic soils compared to shallow highly decomposed organic soils. In contrast, higher K and Mg concentrations were found in the topsoil of shallow highly decomposed organic soils, although a significant difference was observed only for cropland. The mean topsoil bulk density also tended to be higher in shallow highly decomposed organic soils, but a significant difference was observed only for grassland. The mean pH of the topsoil was 6.1 ± 0.3 in cropland and 5.9 ± 0.1 in grassland sites, with no statistically significant differences observed between the two soil types; no significant differences between the two soil types were found. Similar tendencies in differences in soil physico-chemical variables between deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil were also observed for the 20–40 cm and 40–80 cm soil layers (Fig. S57 and Fig. S68).



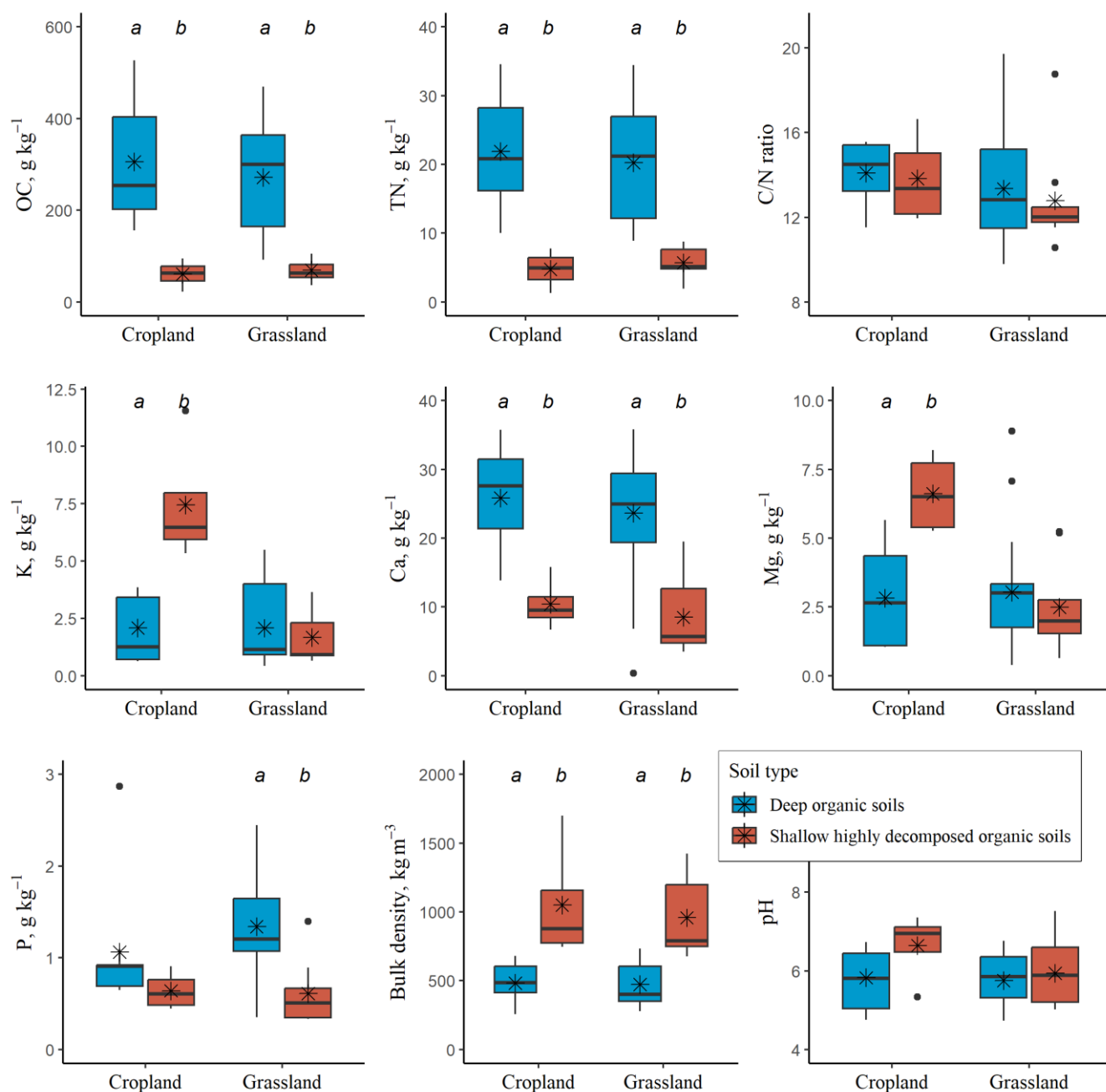


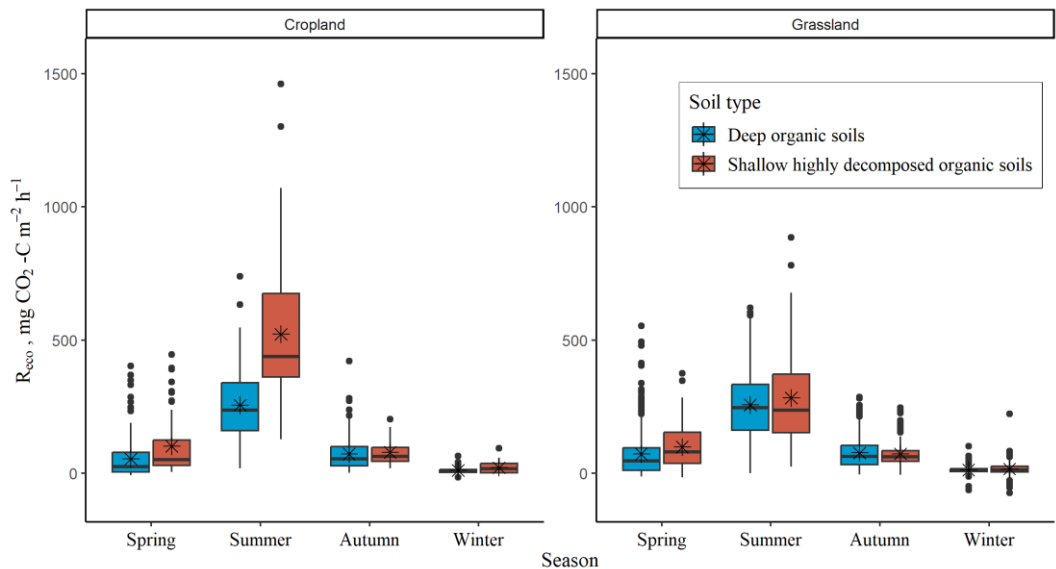
Figure 2: Variation in topsoil (0–20 cm soil layer) characteristics (organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (TN), organic carbon/total nitrogen (C/N) ratio, HNO₃-extractable potassium (K), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg) and phosphorus (P) concentration, soil bulk density, soil pH) in the cropland and grassland sites, separately for the two soil types (deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil). In the boxplots, median and mean values (bold horizontal lines and asterisks, respectively) are presented as bold horizontal lines and asterisks, respectively; plot-level mean values were used for data analysis. The boxes indicate the interquartile range (from 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers denote the minimum and maximum values, and the black dots show

330 outliers. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Wilcoxon rank sum exact test) between deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil within the type of land use are denoted by lowercase letters a and b.

3.2 Ecosystem respiration (instantaneous)

~~Among~~ Across the different seasons, the widest variation ~~as well as the highest ($p < 0.001$), as well as~~ and the highest ($p < 0.001$) mean intensity of instantaneous R_{eco} was observed in summer (Fig. 3, Fig. S97). Both in cropland and grassland, mean instantaneous R_{eco} decreased in the following order: summer $>$ spring \approx autumn $>$ winter. The mean instantaneous R_{eco} (mean average of monthly means) reflected emissions (CO_2 release into the atmosphere) that ranged among different study sites from 71.9 ± 21.0 to 194.8 ± 79.0 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$ in cropland and from 59.9 ± 15.4 to 190.9 ± 60.4 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$ in grassland. No statistically significant difference in mean instantaneous R_{eco} between study sites in cropland and grassland was observed ($p = 0.181349$).

340 In cropland, ~~a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) in mean instantaneous R_{eco} was observed between study sites with deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil. Higher ($p < 0.001$)~~ mean instantaneous R_{eco} was observed in sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soils (mean 177.7 ± 17.0 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$) compared to sites with deep organic soils (mean 117.1 ± 13.5 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$). ~~In grassland, the difference between~~ Although, A similar tendency of a higher mean instantaneous R_{eco} was observed in sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil ~~was observed also in grassland~~ (respectively, 129.4 ± 30.8) and sites with deep organic soil vs. (102.5 ± 7.7 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$), but the difference was not statistically significant ($p = 0.689$). Additionally, in grassland, ~~a slight tendency of a higher~~ the difference in mean instantaneous R_{eco} in deep drained sites (mean WTL > 30 cm) compared to shallow drained sites (mean WTL < 30 cm) ~~was observed~~ (respectively, 109.6 ± 11.4 vs. 107.4 ± 2.1 $mg\ CO_2\text{-}C\ m^{-2}\ h^{-1}$), but the difference was not statistically significant ($p = 0.924$).



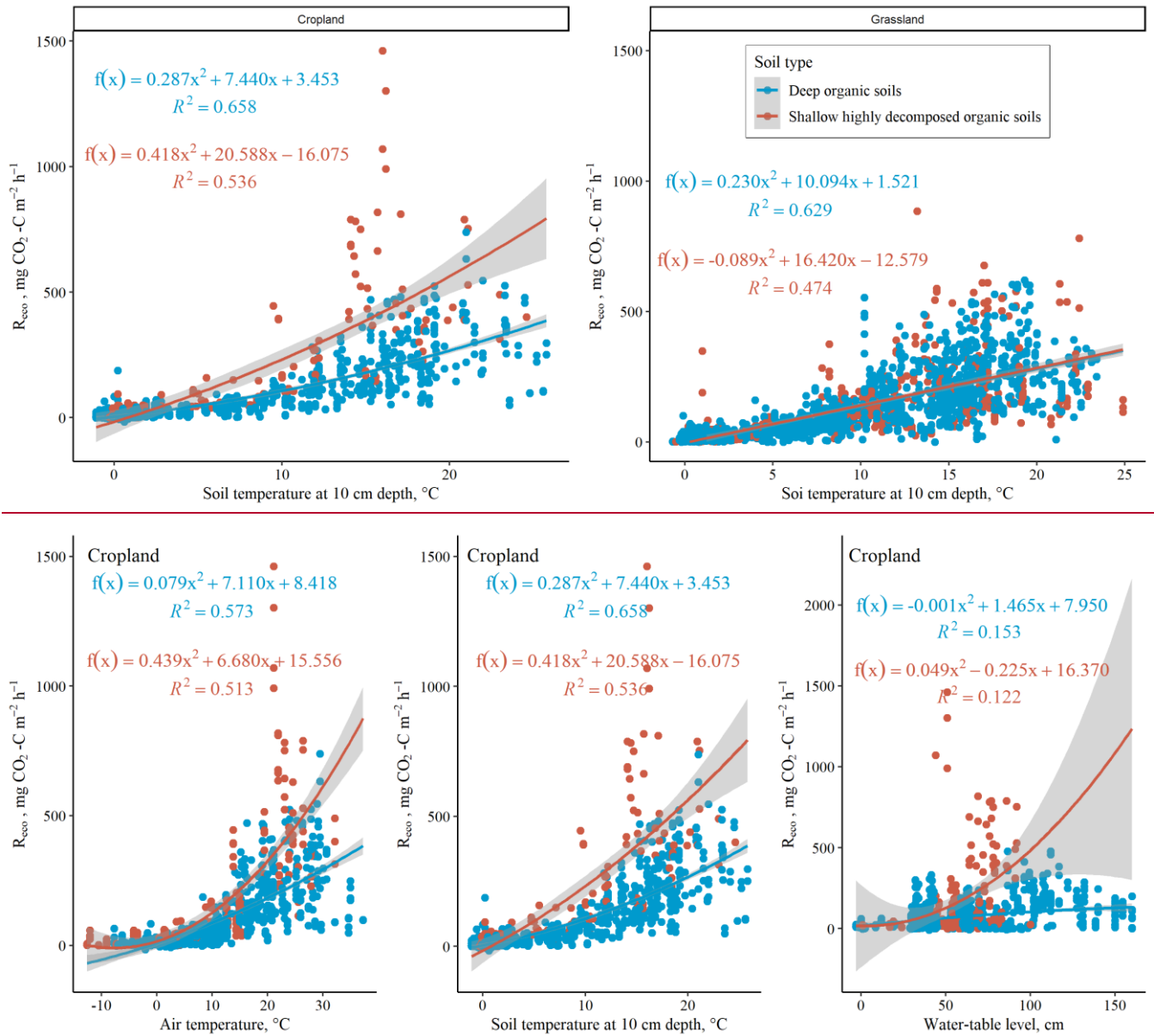
350 **Figure 3:** Variation in instantaneous ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) among different seasons in the cropland (left graph) and grassland (right graph) sites, separately for the two soil types (deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil). In the boxplots,

median and mean values (bold horizontal lines and asterisks, respectively) calculated from all ~~performed~~ R_{eco} measurements from all study sites ~~and plots~~ are presented. The boxes indicate the interquartile range (from 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers denote the minimum and maximum values, black dots show outliers. Spring – March, April, May; summer – June, July, August; Autumn – September, October, November; Winter – December, January, February (relevant environmental variable data in Fig. S10-S12).

In general, among the environmental variables measured during each gas sampling event (WTL, soil moisture, air and soil temperatures), variation in instantaneous R_{eco} was best described by a polynomial regression where the independent variable was soil temperature at 10-cm depth both in cropland and grassland (47–66 % of the variation explained depending on the type of land use and soil, Fig. 4). Although WTL varied widely during the study period from slightly (3–4 cm) above soil surface to >150 cm below soil surface (Fig. S10), no clear relationship between WTL and instantaneous R_{eco} was observed, neither when data from all study sites were pooled (Fig. S134) nor at single study site level. The response of instantaneous R_{eco} to WTL was highly site-site-specific and R^2 of site-level polynomial regressions was mostly below 0.25, with some exceptions of higher R^2 showing an increase in instantaneous R_{eco} with higher WTL. Similarly, no clear relationship between soil moisture and instantaneous R_{eco} was observed. However, there were some indications of comparatively lower instantaneous R_{eco} both at very dry and water-saturated conditions (R_{eco} as a function of water table level WTL reflected as a downwards-opening parabola, Fig. S13).

In cropland, mean instantaneous R_{eco} was negatively correlated with soil Ca concentration and positively with soil K and Mg concentrations (Table S3). Although a moderate negative correlation between mean instantaneous R_{eco} and soil TC, OC and TN concentrations, and a moderate positive correlation between mean instantaneous R_{eco} and soil bulk density, was also found, these correlations were not statistically significant (Table S3). The PLS analyses that attempted to explain the variation in mean instantaneous R_{eco} among the study sites with the soil physico-chemical variables resulted in a strong model for cropland (number of selected components is 4) with goodness of fit (R^2) of 0.995 and goodness of prediction of 0.7566 (Q^2 , full cross-validation). The soil physico-chemical variables that best explained the variation ($VIP > 1$) were the concentrations of K and Ca in the 0–20 and 20–40 cm soil layers. The PLS model also included variables with a $VIP > 0.5$ (TC, OC, TN, Mg, P concentration, C/N ratio, pH, soil bulk density and thickness of organic soil layer, Table S4). The soil physico-chemical variables that were positively related to the mean instantaneous R_{eco} were K, Mg, and P concentration, as well as pH and soil bulk density, while the other soil physico-chemical variables were related negatively.

In contrast, for grassland, no significant correlations between mean instantaneous R_{eco} and soil physico-chemical variables were found (Table S3). Also, the PLS analyses using soil variables resulted in weak models ($R^2 < 0.25$).



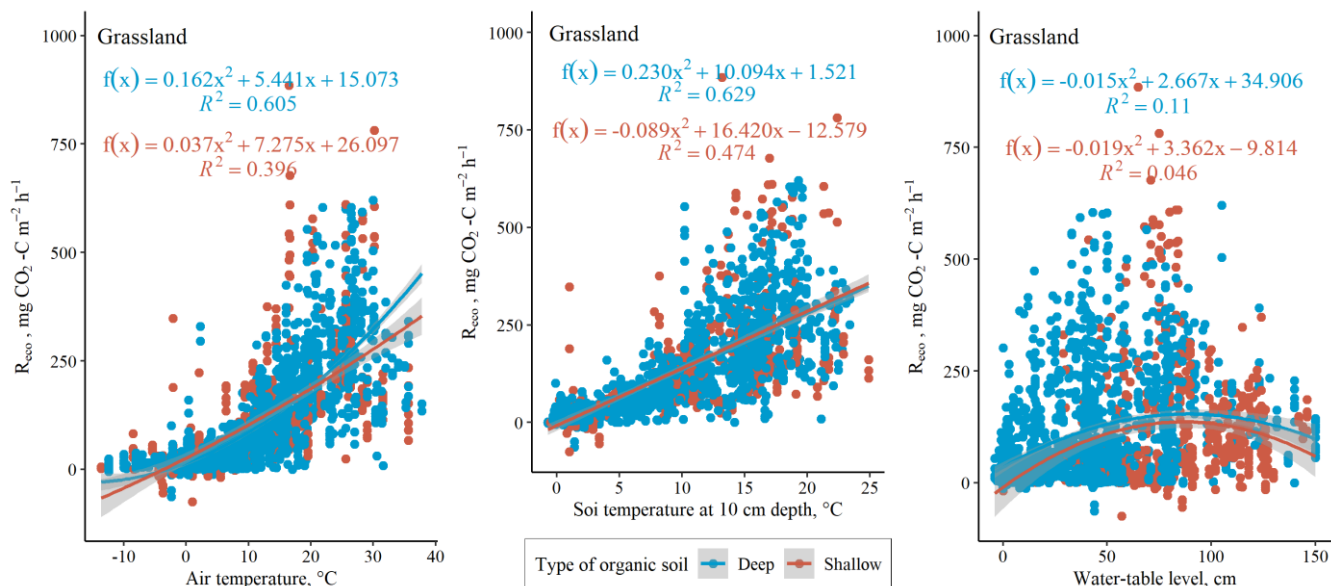


Figure 4: Instantaneous ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) in cropland (left graph) and grassland (right graph) as a function (polynomial regression) of air temperature, soil temperature at 10 cm depth and water-table level measured during each gas sampling event. Data of instantaneous ecosystem respiration is grouped by soil type (deep organic soil denoted by blue colour and shallow highly decomposed organic soil denoted by red colour). The grey area around the regression line reflects the 95% confidence interval of regression.

3.3 Soil heterotrophic respiration (instantaneous)

During the study period covered by the measurements (April–November), the widest variation and highest mean intensity of instantaneous R_{het} was observed in the summer months (June–August) both in cropland and grassland (Fig. 5, Fig. S814).

Monthly mean instantaneous R_{het} among different study sites ranged from 41.1 ± 5.2 in November to 662.6 ± 69.6 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹ in July in cropland and from 18.6 ± 3.2 in November to 652.3 ± 58.1 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹ in July in grassland. The mean instantaneous R_{het} (average mean of monthly means) ranged among different study sites from 158.4 ± 30.7 to 295.8 ± 72.9 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹ in cropland and from 90.0 ± 19.8 to 291.8 ± 56.6 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹ in grassland. No statistically significant difference in mean instantaneous $R_{eco/het}$ between study sites in cropland and grassland was observed ($p = 0.776825$).

In cropland, the overall mean instantaneous R_{het} (average mean of monthly means) was significantly higher ($p = 0.009$) in the study sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soils (mean 237.3 ± 58.5 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹) compared to the study sites with deep organic soils (mean 158.8 ± 0.4 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹). For grassland, no statistically significant differences in mean instantaneous R_{het} were observed for grasslands, neither between study sites grouped depending on soil types nor between study sites grouped depending on drainage (deep or shallow drained sites) status ($p = 0.495$ and $p = 0.743$, respectively). In grassland, the mean instantaneous R_{het} in grassland was 192.3 ± 25.5 mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹.

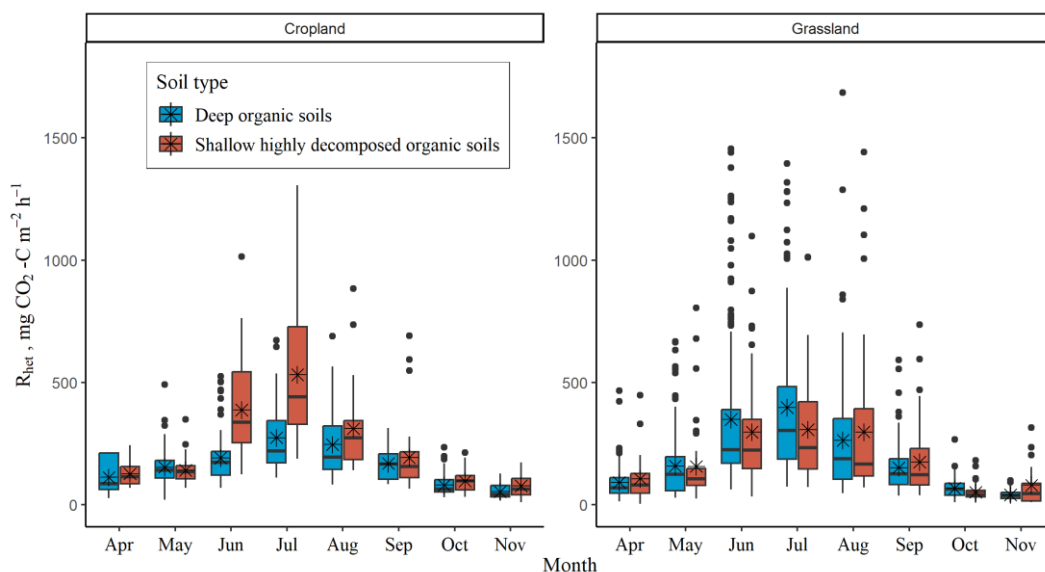
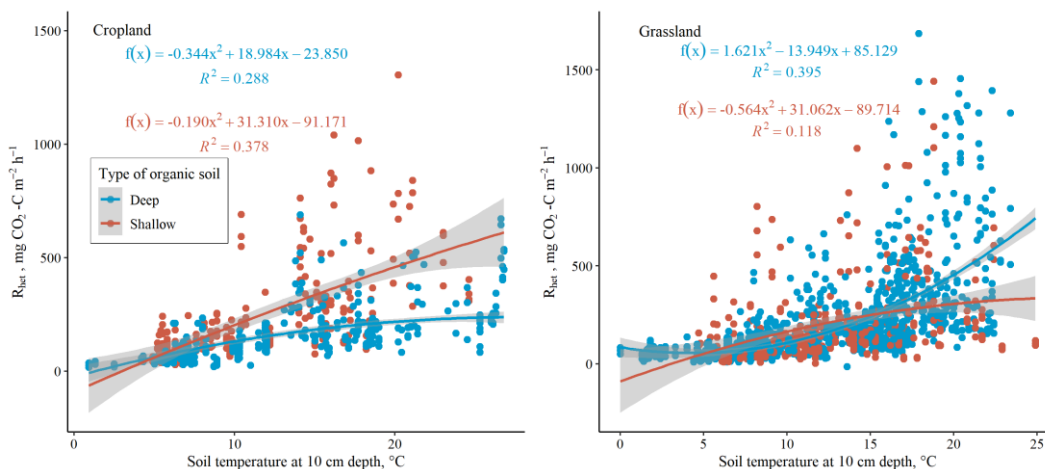
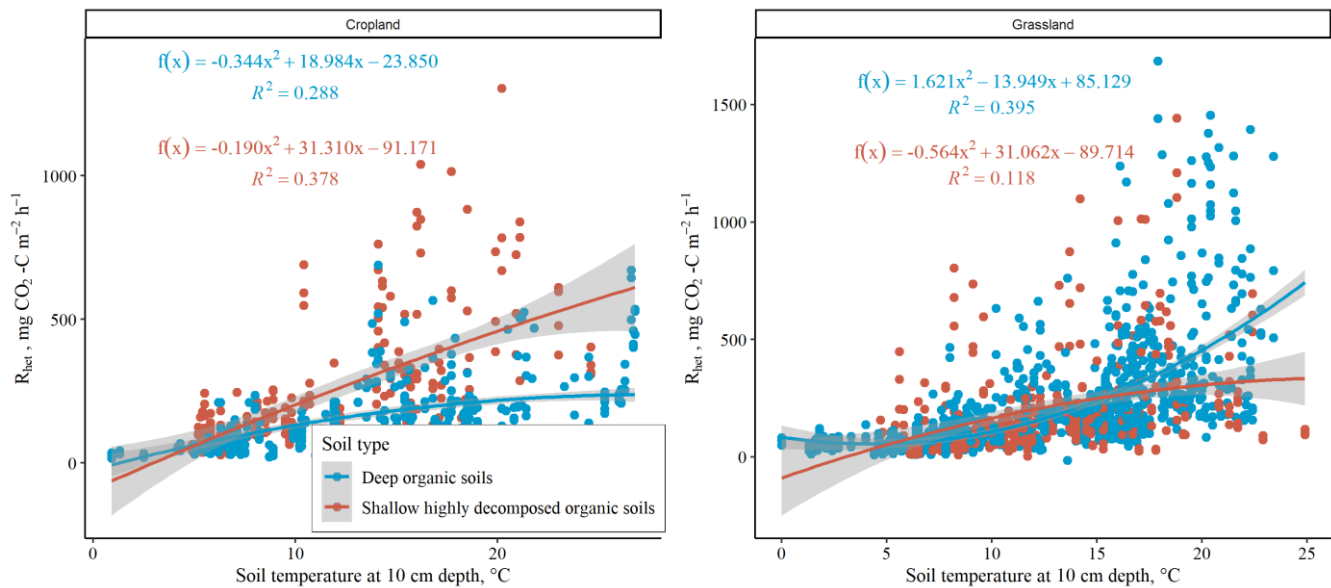


Figure 5: Variation of instantaneous soil heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}) in cropland (left graph) and grassland (right graph) from April to November grouped depending on soil type (deep organic soil and shallow highly decomposed organic soil). In the boxplots, median and mean values (bold horizontal lines and asterisks, respectively) calculated from all performed R_{het} measurements in four study sites in cropland and nine study sites in grassland are presented. The boxes indicate the interquartile range (from 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers denote the minimum and maximum values, and the black dots show outliers.

The relationship between instantaneous R_{het} and soil temperature at 10-cm depth differed somewhat between the two soil types (Fig. 6). Further, it was in several cases different from that of R_{eco} (Fig. S2 and Fig. S3). Comparison of instantaneous soil R_{eco} and R_{het} as a function of soil temperature at 10-cm depth showed that instantaneous R_{het} tended to exceed R_{eco} in several study sites.





415 **Figure 6:** Instantaneous soil heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}) in cropland (left graph) and grassland (right graph) as a function (polynomial regression) of the soil temperature at 10-cm depth. Data of instantaneous soil heterotrophic respiration is grouped depending on soil type (deep organic soil denoted by blue and shallow highly decomposed organic soil denoted by red colour). The grey area around the regression line reflects the 95% confidence interval.

3.4 Carbon stocks in, and annual-inputs into soil through, vegetation

420 ~~In-At~~ the end of the growing season, the average mean C stock in plant biomass (total including above- and belowground parts) was $4.94 \pm 0.55 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$ in cropland and $3.65 \pm 0.97 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$ in grassland (Fig. 7). In cropland, the largest part of the C stock was in the aboveground biomass (91 % of total C stock; $4.50 \pm 0.49 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$), while in grassland a larger C stock was found in the belowground biomass (63 % of total C stock; $2.31 \pm 0.78 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$) than in aboveground part ($1.26 \pm 0.26 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$). Among the studied arable agricultural crops, the largest C stock in plant biomass (total) was estimated for maize (6.7 t C ha^{-1}), but-and the lowest for spring wheat (2.3 t C ha^{-1} , Fig. S915).

Estimated mean annual C input (total including above- and belowground parts) was $2.65 \pm 0.31 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in cropland and $2.35 \pm 0.36 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in grassland (Fig. 7). In cropland, the largest annual C input was aboveground harvest residues (74 % of total annual C input; $1.97 \pm 0.34 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), while in grassland the amount of belowground inputs ($1.19 \pm 0.27 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) was similar than-to the aboveground inputs ($1.16 \pm 0.26 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Among the studied agricultural crops, the largest annual C input (total) was estimated for rape ($4.1 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), but-and the lowest for spring wheat ($1.5 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, Fig. S915).

430 The mean concentrations of both C and N were higher in aboveground biomass compared to below-groundbelowground biomass, while the C/N ratio was higher in belowground biomass both for arable crops and perennial grass (Table S53).

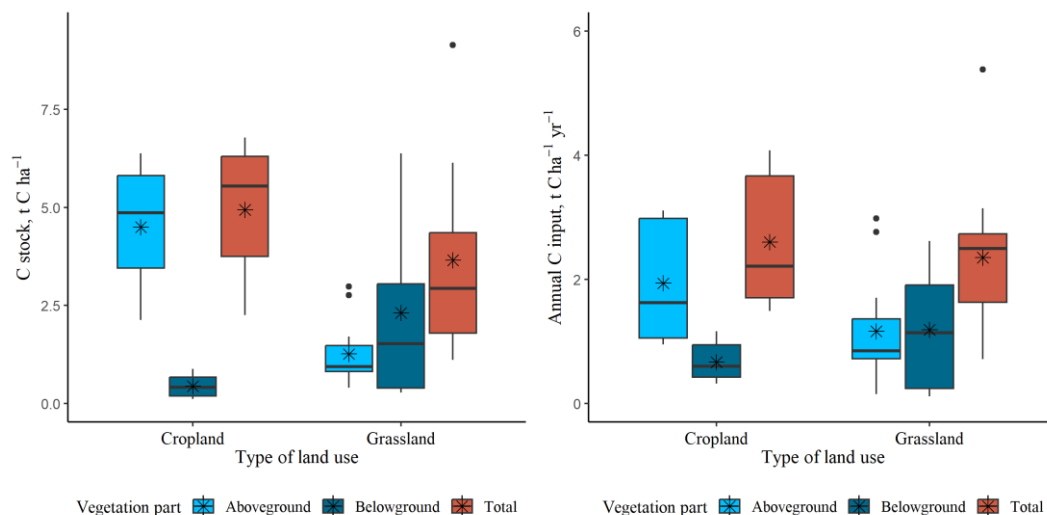


Figure 7: Variation in Carbon (C) stock in above- and belowground plant biomass at the end of the growing season (left graph) and annual C inputs into the soil (right graph) in cropland and grassland ecosystems. In the boxplots, the median and mean values are presented by bold lines and asterisks, respectively. The boxes indicate the interquartile range (from 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers denote the minimum and maximum values, and the black dots show outliers.

3.5 Annual net CO₂ fluxes

The annual net CO₂ fluxes depended equally on both C losses and C inputs into soil, which both, but in particular the C losses, varied widely. The studied drained organic agricultural soils were all net sources of CO₂, i.e. C losses due to the estimated soil heterotrophic respiration exceeded C inputs into the soil as plant residues (Table 43). The mean annual net CO₂ emissions in cropland and grassland were overall quite similar ($p = 0.270$). In cropland, the mean annual net CO₂ emissions were 4.8 ± 0.8 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (all sites pooled); higher net emissions were observed in-for sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil (7.0 ± 1.5 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than in-for deep organic soils (4.1 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). In grassland, the mean annual net CO₂ emissions were 3.8 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (all sites pooled), while, similarly to cropland, higher net emissions were observed in-for sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil (mean 5.6 ± 2.1 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than deep organic soils (mean 3.2 ± 0.6 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). However, the difference in mean annual net CO₂ emissions between deep organic soils and shallow highly decomposed organic soils was were not statistically significant ($p = 0.143$ for cropland sites and $p = 0.209$ for grassland sites). It should be noted, however, that sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil were relatively underless represented in the study. The mean annual net CO₂ emissions from deep-drained and shallow-drained study sites in grassland were similar as well ($p = 0.889$).

The contribution of winter (December–February) CO₂ emissions to total annual R_{eco} was on average 2.4 % in cropland and 3.2 % in grassland, while the contribution of summer (June–August) CO₂ emissions was on average 63.9 % in cropland and 60.3 % in grassland.

Based on the comparative analysis done for the ten study sites for which continuous temperature data were available, our annual R_{eco} estimates were overestimates by a mean of 9 % because of the flux measurements being all done in daytime (Fig. S16).

Table 43. Annual ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}), heterotrophic soil respiration (R_{het}) estimated from R_{eco} (64 % of annual R_{eco} as described in Sect. 2.78), C input into soil as plant residues, and the estimated net soil CO₂ emissions in cropland and grassland in the Baltic statescountries, hemiboreal region of Europe. The deep organic soils of the sites were either Histosols, Gleysols or Phaeozems, while the shallow highly decomposed organic soils were either Gleysols, Phaeozems or Umbrisols (WRB, 20154).

Study site	Value	R_{eco} , t CO ₂ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	R_{het} , t CO ₂ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	C_{input} , t C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	Net CO ₂ emissions, t CO ₂ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹
Type of land use: Cropland					
All sites (n = 8)	Mean ± S-E ₇	11.7 ± 1.3	7.5 ± 0.8	2.7 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 0.8
	Median	12.3	7.8	2.4	5.0
	Range (min–max)	6.3–17.2	4.1–11.0	1.5–3.7	2.4–8.5
Sites with deep organic soil (n = 6)	Mean ± S-E ₇	10.3 ± 1.2	6.6 ± 0.8	2.5 ± 0.4	4.1 ± 0.7
	Median	10.6	6.8	2.2	3.6
	Range (min–max)	6.3–13.7	4.1–8.8	1.5–3.7	2.4–6.8
Sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil (n = 2)	Mean ± S-E ₇	15.7 ± 1.5	10.0 ± 1.0	3.0 ± 0.5	7.0 ± 1.5
	Median	-	-	-	-
	Range (min–max)	14.2–17.2	9.1–11.0	2.4–3.5	5.5–8.5
Type of land use: Grassland					
All sites (n = 12)	Mean ± S-E ₇	9.6 ± 0.8	6.2 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.4	3.8 ± 0.7
	Median	9.1	5.9	2.5	3.4
	Range (min–max)	5.3–16.8	3.4–10.8	0.7–5.4	0.7–9.7
Sites with deep organic soil (n = 9)	Mean ± S-E ₇	9.0 ± 0.7	5.8 ± 0.4	2.6 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.6
	Median	9.3	6.0	2.7	3.2
	Range (min–max)	5.3–11.3	3.4–7.2	0.7–5.4	0.7–6.5
Deep-drained sites with deep organic soil (n = 7)	Mean ± S-E ₇	8.9 ± 0.9	5.7 ± 0.6	2.5 ± 0.6	3.2 ± 0.8
	Median	8.3	5.3	2.7	2.2
	Range (min–max)	5.3–11.3	3.4–7.2	0.7–5.4	0.7–6.5
Shallow-drained sites with deep organic soil (n = 2)	Mean ± S-E ₇	9.5 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 0.02	3.3 ± 0.1
	Median	-	-	-	-
	Range (min–max)	9.3–9.6	6.0–6.2	2.7–2.8	3.2–3.4
Sites with shallow highly decomposed organic soil (n = 3)	Mean ± S-E ₇	11.4 ± 2.7	7.3 ± 1.7	1.7 ± 0.4	5.6 ± 2.1
	Median	9.0	5.8	1.8	3.5
	Range (min–max)	8.3–16.8	5.3–10.8	1.1–2.3	3.5–9.7

This is the first region-level study to estimate annual net soil CO₂ ~~emissions-fluxes~~ from cropland and grassland on drained organic soils in the hemiboreal region. Our study sites covered organic soils with a wide range in both the thickness of the organic soil layer and the OC concentration in the topsoil (0–20 cm). Thus, we could examine separately deep organic soils and soils that we ~~call-defined as~~ shallow highly decomposed organic soils. ~~We consider based on existing soil information~~ Based on existing soil information, we consider believe that the soils of all our sites were originally (before drainage) deep peat soils. ~~Organic carbon (OC)~~ concentration of 12 % in 0–20 cm soil layer was set as the threshold value for the definition of organic soils by the IPCC (Eggleston et al., 2006), and our ~~shallow~~ soils with shallow organic layer would not be classified as organic soils according to this definition. Yet, we recorded as high CO₂ emissions from them as from the deep organic soils meeting the threshold. It supported the recent highlight by Liang et al. (2024) of global underestimation of area-scaled CO₂ emissions from drained organic soils undergoing the transition from organic to organo-mineral soils due to agricultural management. ~~To estimate the annual net CO₂ fluxes from soil or emission factors, we combined the ecosystem inputs and outputs as CO₂ fluxes into net fluxes by combining estimates from study sites on current or former peat soils in the Baltic states countries with similar characteristics regarding geoclimatic conditions and intensity of land management.~~ All the studied drained organic soils in cropland and grassland were sources of CO₂ into the atmosphere. In general, our results are in line with the tendency stated by the IPCC (Eggleston et al., 2006; Hiraishi et al., 2014) and several previous studies (Kasimir-Klemetsson et al., 1997; Alm et al., 2007; Elsgaard et al., 2012; Fell et al., 2016) that mean annual net CO₂ emissions in cropland exceed the net ~~CO₂~~-emissions in grassland. Within our study, this tendency was mainly related to the higher mean annual R_{eco} and subsequently ~~also the estimated~~ annual R_{het} ~~(calculated as a proportion of R_{eco})~~ in cropland than grassland. ~~Further, the belowground C inputs tended to be higher, and the growing period longer under grass compared with arable crops, despite~~ The slightly higher total C input into the soil as plant residues in cropland, ~~as well as larger belowground (root) biomass and longer vegetation period under grass compared with arable crops did not compensate for the higher R_{het}.~~ However, there was overlap in the site-level values in cropland and grassland, as has been noted in ~~both our study and~~ previous studies as well (Couwenberg, 2011).

Although ~~our estimates results obtained in this study~~ may contain slight overestimations rather than underestimations, ~~our estimates of the mean~~ annual net CO₂ emissions of both ~~in~~ cropland and grassland with deep-drained organic soil were generally lower than the ~~mean values~~ emission factors provided by the IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014). ~~mean values of net CO₂ emissions expressed which are presented as emission factors for nutrient-rich soils in the temperate and boreal climate/vegetation zones (nutrient rich soils)~~ (Table 4). The net CO₂ emissions from shallow highly decomposed organic soils, instead, coincided with the 95 % confidence intervals of ~~were rather similar to~~ the IPCC emission factors ~~(Table 54)~~. Our estimates of annual net CO₂ emissions for grasslands with shallow-drained organic soils were in line with the IPCC emission factor, while for deep-drained sites our estimate was lower but within the confidence interval (Table 54). Interestingly, we found no difference in annual net CO₂ emissions between deep- and shallow-drained organic soils in grassland, although WTL was < 30 cm in 69 % and < 20

cm in 50 % of all measurement events in shallow-drained sites. Distinguishing these is suggested by IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014). ~~and logically, WTL that is at least in principle regulated by drainage depth, which should regulate, in turn, the~~ thickness of the soil layer where efficient aerobic decomposition may take place, ~~and thus the CO₂ flux. However, it could be related explained to by the we only had a limited number of two grassland study-sites with shallow-drained organic soils in grassland (n = 2), which increases uncertainty in the respective emission estimate, however. Yet, based on current data, the same emission factor could be used for both deep- and shallow-drained grassland in the hemiboreal region.~~

Table 54. Comparison of estimated and IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014) default net CO₂ emissions expressed as emission factors for drained nutrient-rich organic soils in cropland and grassland.

Land use, drainage status	Net CO ₂ emissions, t CO ₂ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹				
	Estimates from this study (mean ± S.E.)			IPCC (Hiraishi et al., 2014) default CO ₂ emission factors (95 % confidence interval)	
	Hemiboreal			Boreal	Temperate
	All study sites	Deep organic soil	Shallow highly decomposed organic soil	Deep organic soil	
Cropland	4.8 ± 0.8	4.1 ± 0.7	7.0 ± 1.5	7.9 (6.5–9.4)	
Grassland, deep-drained	3.8 ± 0.7	3.2 ± 0.8	5.6 ± 2.1	5.7 (2.9–8.6)	6.1 (5.0–7.3)
Grassland, shallow-drained		3.3 ± 0.1	-		3.6 (1.8–5.4)

In the past decade, following the development of the latest IPCC default emission factors, several studies have been carried out in temperate and boreal regions, specifically in central and northern Europe. ~~During the last decade (i.e. in the period after the latest IPCC default emission factors were elaborated), several new studies were conducted in temperate and boreal regions (central and northern Europe), reporting~~ These studies have reported CO₂ emission values ~~that fall within or just beyond ranging within or slightly outside~~ the 95 % confidence interval of the IPCC default CO₂ emission factors (Hiraishi et al., 2014). For instance, mean C losses from drained organic soils of 6.45 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ were reported for arable land in Germany (Fell et al., 2016), while values between 3.1 and 7.55 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ were reported for drained organic soils in grasslands in Switzerland and Germany (Fell et al., 2016; Tiemeyer et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2021). In general, recent studies ~~consistently underscores a notable continue to highlight a relatively large variability,~~ which can be ~~attributed explained by to~~ the ~~variations differences~~ in climate ~~and (weather conditions), peat chemistry and extent degree of decomposition,~~ the time since establishment, ~~and factors related to aspects of the maintenance measures of the~~ drainage systems, WTL, and land-management practices and ~~their intensity,~~ including cultivation methods and ~~types of crops grown~~ (Maljanen et al., 2010; Leifeld et al., 2011; Tiemeyer et al., 2016). However, it should ~~also be also~~ noted that ~~various methods different approaches to for measure measuring or estimate estimating~~ soil C losses are ~~employed across used among~~ studies, including estimation of peatland subsidence, measuring CO₂ fluxes using chamber methods or eddy covariance as well as by modelling (Kasimir-Klemedtsson et al., 1997; Fell et al., 2016), and all approaches contain some assumptions, advantages and disadvantages, which have to be considered (Kasimir-Klemedtsson et al., 1997; Maljanen et al., 2010; Phillips et al., 2017).

Although the CO₂ emission factors elaborated here for cropland and grassland with drained organic soils are regional in nature, covering the Baltic ~~states~~ countries, they provide a general opportunity to improve national GHG inventories and fill knowledge gaps regarding the hemiboreal region of Europe. Further research is needed to elaborate dynamic temperature-dependent CO₂ emission factors, considering that differences in responses of CO₂ fluxes to temperature in different climatic subregions even within the same region or country are possible (Alm et al., 2007). In addition, elaboration of CO₂ emission factors in terms of accuracy would benefit from quantitative separation of R_{het} from R_{eco} in ~~arable-cropland~~ and grassland, where the annual production, rotation and management of plant biomass ~~is-are~~ highly dynamic and differences in the proportion of R_{het} ~~between cropland and grassland are may be~~ expected. Another aspect to pay attention to when assessing CO₂ emissions in the long-term, specifically in grasslands, is the impact of periodical ploughing of grasslands for renovation by reseedling – a widely used grassland management practice in the hemiboreal region of Europe. Such practices result in additional C inputs to the soil with belowground biomass (plant residues) and consequently can lead to increased R_{het} (Reinsch et al., 2018). In our study, we did not assess the effects of grassland renovation on CO₂ fluxes. ~~WithiWithin our study, the impact of ploughing of grasslands for renovation by reseedling on CO₂ fluxes was not estimated.~~

Our flux measurements covered both ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) and heterotrophic respiration (R_{het}). R_{eco} represented the gross respiration rate: CO₂ produced by the plant–soil system, including soil heterotrophic respiration (aerobic and anaerobic decomposition processes, respiration of soil microorganisms and animals) and autotrophic respiration (CO₂ produced by living plant roots and associated rhizosphere as well as by dark respiration of the plants’ aboveground parts) (e.g., Maljanen et al., 2002; Maljanen et al., 2007). Both R_{eco} and R_{het} were primarily regulated by temperature, especially soil temperature at 10 cm depth. Thus, our results align with previous research indicating ~~study is in line with previous findings~~ that soil temperature is the main driver of ~~overall- both~~ ecosystem respiration (Nieveen et al., 2005; Elsgaard et al., 2012) ~~as well as specifically affecting and heterotrophic respiration deriving from~~ peat decomposition ~~specifically~~ (Mäkiranta et al., 2009). For R_{eco} we were able to continue the measurements over the winter seasons. Due to cold temperatures, the contribution of winter (December–February) fluxes was minor, on average 2–3 % in both grassland and cropland. Nevertheless, CO₂ released during winter cannot be disregarded when annual CO₂ emissions are estimated, especially when the soil C balance is close to neutral.

Soil WTL has earlier been found to be the overriding variable explaining GHG emissions when examining a wide range of unmanaged and managed peatlands (Evans et al. 2021). Somewhat surprisingly, we found no clear evidence that the variations ~~in-of~~ WTL and soil moisture would have an impact on the magnitude of ~~the~~ CO₂ fluxes. Yet, there were some indications of comparatively lower instantaneous R_{eco} and R_{het} ~~at-under~~ both very dry and water-saturated conditions, ~~the- as the relationship between R_{eco} and WTL exhibited a downward-opening parabola~~ ~~R_{eco} as a function of WTL reflected a downwards parabola~~. Similarly, no clear quantitative CO₂ response to WTL among study sites with drained organic soils under agricultural management ~~has been reported also previously was found in some previous studies~~ (Nieveen et al., 2005; Elsgaard et al., 2012; Tiemeyer et al., 2016), ~~being-and then~~ explained by the rather deep WTL ~~amongin the studied sites~~, indicating that lack of moisture in the topmost soil layers may restrict R_{het}. There is also some earlier evidence that soil moisture may have a parabolic influence on CO₂ fluxes (e.g. Säurich et al., 2019b), ~~our results now slightly supporting that~~. Inconsistent results regarding

WTL as a controlling ~~factor~~variable of soil respiration can also be obtained ~~also~~ due to, ~~for instance~~, different hydraulic conductivity of the studied soils (Parmentier et al., 2009). Soil moisture could then, in principle, be a more suitable variable; however, our results do not support that either. Put together, ~~our findings, along with previous studies, suggest~~ ours and previous results indicate that among drained and managed sites, ~~where the mean WTL is generally deeper than 30-25 cm and varies less than when also undrained and unmanaged sites are included in the data,~~ where the mean WTL is generally deeper than 30-25 cm and varies less than when also undrained and unmanaged sites are included in the data, WTL may not be the sole linear factor ~~single overriding factor linearly~~ regulating the soil CO₂ fluxes (Fig. S176 and Fig. S187). However, ~~several studies that include study sites with a wider range of mean WTL, including sites where WTL fluctuates close to the soil surface, present WTL-driven response functions (asymptotic relations) for CO₂ emissions~~ (Tiemeyer et al., 2020; Koch, J. et al. 2023). These studies showed that CO₂ emissions increase almost linearly with deeper WTL under shallow drainage (updown to around 40 cm threshold) before reaching an asymptotic level (Tiemeyer et al., 2020; Koch et al., 2023).

Higher R_{eco} and R_{het} ~~were~~as observed in shallow highly decomposed organic soil with OC concentration <12 % at 0–20 cm soil layer than in deep organic soils meeting the threshold. This was the case especially in cropland, where the difference was statistically significant. At the same time, no clear (strong and significant) correlation between mean R_{eco} and R_{het} and OC content in soil was identified. In general, our finding of higher R_{eco} and R_{het} in soils with highly decomposed soil organic matter layer is not surprising because some previous studies have highlighted similar ~~tendency~~tendencies. For instance, Säurich et al. (2019a) concluded that the magnitude of ~~soil-soil-specific basal respiration (i.e. CO₂ fluxes per unit SOC)~~ increased with increasing soil disturbance ~~(i.e. with lower soil OC concentration)~~ caused by drainage-induced ~~mineralization~~mineralisation and organic soil layer mixing with mineral soils ~~(i.e. with lower soil OC concentration)~~. Also, other previous studies (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Eickenscheidt et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2024) highlighted that the magnitude of CO₂ emissions from drained organic soils used for agriculture ~~is~~was not affected by OC concentration in the soil histic horizon. In contrast, Norberg et al (2016) found significantly lower CO₂ emissions from peaty marls with low total C concentration (9.5–12.2 %) than from peats with much higher total C concentration (27.2–42.8 %). However, our study improves knowledge on soils that may have fulfilled the criteria of organic soil in the past, but not any more after long-term land use.

~~In general, the estimation of mean CO₂ flux within our study could be slightly overestimated as all CO₂ flux measurements were conducted during the daytime, when both air and soil temperatures are typically higher than the average diurnal temperature. To estimate the potential overestimation of annual R_{eco} due to measurements conducted only during the daytime, a study site specific comparison of the applied method and modelling approach based on continuous soil temperature measurements at depths of 10 cm was made (for the study sites where continuous soil temperature measurements were conducted). Based on the comparative analysis done in ten sites our annual R_{eco} estimates were overestimated by a mean of 9 % as the flux measurements were all done in daytime (Fig. S16).~~ Also, previous studies have concluded that the mean CO₂ production flux occurring during the daytime is 14–23 % higher than the mean daily fluxes (Maljanen et al., 2002). This is largely caused by diurnal variation in air temperature and consequently soil temperature, which are intercorrelated parameters/variables. Thus, for further evaluations, a regression describing variation in R_{eco} depending on soil temperature

could be used for further evaluations to avoid overestimation of R_{eco} due to lack of measurements during the nighttime. We did not revise our estimates as the comparison could only be done in ten sites.

Contrary to expectations, the magnitude of instantaneous R_{het} tended to exceed the R_{eco} in several study sites. It is inconsistent with the theoretical basis that R_{het} is a part of R_{eco} ~~and thus simultaneously recorded values should be lower than R_{eco} , and thus,~~

recorded values should be lower than those of R_{eco} simultaneously. The observed inconsistency is most likely explained by

methodological ~~challenges-nuances~~. Measurement points established for R_{het} involved trenching, vegetation removal, and keeping the soil surface bare. This may elevate the magnitude of R_{het} firstly by higher temperature in bare soil than under vegetation. Further, soil moisture conditions may differ from vegetated soil. In permanent grassland, emissions from decomposition of the killed-dead-roots due to killed by the trenching are is-are likely to further ~~add-contribute~~ to R_{het} . These

aspects have also been discussed as challenges of ~~the-root exclusion method~~ also before (Hanson et al., 2000; Kuzyakov, 2006; Norberg et al., 2016; Savage et al., 2018). In general, previous studies on cultivated peat soils in central and southern Sweden

suggest that the contribution of R_{het} to cumulative total CO_2 emission (ecosystem respiration) is in the range from 37 to 73 % depending on soil type, crop type and season (Berglund et al., 2011; Norberg et al., 2016; Berglund et al., 2021), while the

mean proportion of R_{het} from soil surface respiration is 64 % based on previous studies ($n = 61$) conducted in agricultural land in temperate and boreal regions (Jian et al., 2021). Considering the previously mentioned, we used R_{het} values derived from

the results of R_{eco} for the estimation of annual R_{het} and, subsequently, annual net CO_2 emission from soil. Such an approach was applied to avoid overestimation of R_{het} or C losses from soil. Yet, even the method that we used may result in overestimates,

as our R_{eco} values ~~exceed the are higher than~~ soil surface respiration ~~since-because~~ they ~~additionally-also account for the include~~ dark respiration of the aboveground plant biomass. This “additional” CO_2 flux should logically be at its highest during late

summer, when the plants are fully developed. However, the share of aboveground autotrophic respiration in ecosystem respiration in cropland or grassland has rarely been reported, and the published results vary widely and have relatively large

uncertainties (Phillips et al., 2017). Consequently, we could not estimate how much it contributed to our ecosystem flux. This effect should logically be at its highest during the summer months, when the plants are fully developed. However, quantitative

proportion of aboveground autotrophic respiration was rarely reported, and the published studies exhibited wide variability and had relatively large uncertainties — some studies have indicated negligible, while some even improbably high rates of

aboveground autotrophic respiration (Phillips et al., 2017).

The eEEstimated mean annual C input into the soil with vegetation (residues of above- and belowground parts returned to the soil) was comparatively similar in cropland and grassland, while the proportion of C input with above- and belowground litter

differed – in cropland, significantly higher C input was from residues of aboveground part of plants, while in grassland even slightly higher C input was from belowground plant residues. Concerning plant residue inputs into soil, our results follow the

previous finding that plant aboveground biomass tends to have a lower C/N ratio and, therefore, be more labile and decompose faster than their belowground counterparts (Almagro et al., 2021). At the same time, both the above- and belowground biomass

of arable crops had a higher C/N ratio than grass biomass, which can potentially ~~indicate-indicating~~ slower decomposition of residues ~~of-in~~ arable crops. Thus, differences in C/N ratio of plant residues as well as the proportion of residues of the plant

625 above- and belowground parts may introduce differences in the response of soil microbial community through altering decomposition and consequent OC incorporation in stable soil aggregates (Almagro et al., 2021). Nevertheless, previous findings have indicated that the total variation of CO₂ emissions from drained organic soil exceeds the variation between different cropping systems and, thus, the selection of certain arable crops has not become a viable option to reduce CO₂ emissions from cultivated organic soils thus far (Norberg et al., 2016).

630 Conclusions

This study examined the CO₂ fluxes and estimated annual net CO₂ emissions from drained nutrient-rich organic soils (both deep organic soils and shallow highly decomposed organic soils) in cropland and grassland in the Baltic states/countries (hemiboreal region of Europe). The intensity of both R_{eco} and R_{het} was strongly dependent on temperature (particularly soil temperature at 10 cm depth), while it was rather independent of water-table fluctuations and soil moisture. Although the results obtained within this study may contain slight overestimation rather than underestimation, our estimates of annual net CO₂ emissions both in cropland and grassland were lower than the IPCC (~~Hiraishi et al., 2014~~) default emission factors for the temperate climate/vegetation zone (Hiraishi et al., 2014). This highlights the need to specify emission factors for smaller, climatically and perhaps geomorphologically more uniform regions than the very wide regions for which the current emission factors are available. Mean annual net CO₂ emissions from pooled data recorded in our study were 4.8 ± 0.8 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in cropland and 3.8 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in grassland, while the mean annual net CO₂ emissions specifically ~~from for~~ deep organic soil were 4.1 ± 0.7 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in cropland and 3.2 ± 0.6 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in grassland. ~~In addition, b~~ Both annual R_{eco} and R_{het} as well as the net CO₂ emissions from shallow highly decomposed organic soils were of similar magnitude or ~~even~~ higher than from deep organic soils. This result highlights the need to estimate the ~~ir~~ emissions from these highly transformed soils rather as organic soils rather than as mineral soils, even though they do not fulfil the current IPCC definition of organic soils (Eggleston et al., 2006). A clear advantage of our study was that we were able to include several sites where comparable measurements were carried out, which allows rigorous inter-site comparison and search for explanatory variables. However, ~~both continuation of data acquisition including higher measurement intensity and further refinement of the first hemiboreal region specific CO₂ emission factors that we here defined for national GHG inventories is recommended~~ we recommend both continuation of data acquisition, including higher measurement intensity, and consequent further refinement of the first hemiboreal region-specific CO₂ emission factors that we here defined for national GHG inventories.

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Data availability

Data used for estimation of annual net CO₂ fluxes is available at DOI: <https://zenodo.org/records/1498873710.5281/zenodo.13234237>. Additional data can be provided by the corresponding authors upon request.

655 **Author contribution**

~~Conceptualization~~[Conceptualisation](#): AL, RL, JJ, KS; Methodology: KS, JJ, AL, IO and KA; Formal analysis: ABā, ABu; Investigation: ABu, DČ, AK, MM, IO, GRO, MKS, TS, HV, EV; Resources: AL, KS, KA; Writing - Original Draft: ABā; Writing - Review & Editing: all authors; ~~Visualization~~[Visualisation](#): ABā; Supervision: RL, JJ, KS, AL, KA, IL; Project administration: IL; Funding acquisition: AL, KS, RL, JJ, KA, IL.

660 **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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