

Hedgerow effects on CO2 emissions are regulated by soil type and season: implications for carbon flux dynamics in livestock-grazed pasture Ford, Hilary; Healey, John; Webb, Bid; Pagella, Tim; Smith, Andy

Geoderma

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2020.114697

Published: 15/01/2021

Peer reviewed version

Cyswllt i'r cyhoeddiad / Link to publication

Dyfyniad o'r fersiwn a gyhoeddwyd / Citation for published version (APA): Ford, H., Healey, J., Webb, B., Pagella, T., & Smith, A. (2021). Hedgerow effects on CO2 emissions are regulated by soil type and season: implications for carbon flux dynamics in livestock-grazed pasture. *Geoderma*, 382, Article 114697. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2020.114697

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1 Hedgerow effects on CO₂ emissions are regulated by soil type and season: implications for

- 2 carbon flux dynamics in livestock-grazed pasture
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6 Abstract

7 In this study we assess the potential for farmland hedgerows to provide climate mitigation 8 via carbon (C) storage, using soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) efflux to improve upscaling validity. 9 Two contrasting sites, freely-draining (FD) versus seasonally-wet (SW), situated in mixedlivestock farms (Conwy, Wales, UK), were selected. We measured soil CO₂ efflux associated 10 11 with three field boundaries: hedgerow on SW soil; hedgerow on FD soil; stone wall (abiotic 12 control) on FD soil, quantifying the influence of distance from field boundary and grazing occurrence (grazed pasture versus un-grazed zone adjacent to hedgerows) on annual C 13 budgets based on soil CO₂ flux and net primary productivity. For the FD site, the annual C 14 15 budget showed that pasture was a net source of C emissions ($11 \pm 1.5 \text{ t CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and the un-grazed zone adjacent to the hedgerow a net sink (-0.9 \pm 2.2 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). For the SW 16 site, pasture acted as a small net sink of C (-0.1 \pm 1.3 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the hedgerow zone a 17 net source (5.8 \pm 0.8 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), due entirely to a spike in soil CO₂ efflux associated with 18 a relatively unusual summer drought. To investigate the effect of this observed summer 19 20 drought on more typical (for the UK maritime climate) annual C source-sink dynamics, we modelled soil CO₂ efflux for a summer-drought-excluded year for both FD and SW soils. With 21 greater hedgerow cover (modelled prediction compared with a baseline of no hedgerows), 22

annual CO₂ flux became more negative (greater net sink) in fields on FD soil (by 1 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at 8% hedgerow cover), with drought limiting the effect size. In SW soils, greater hedgerow cover also led to a more negative annual CO₂ flux (by 0.4 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at 8% hedgerow cover) when drought was excluded, but a more positive flux (net C source) with drought included (by 0.5 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at 8% hedgerow cover). This study illustrates the importance of the interaction between soil type and seasonal events such as drought on the ability of hedgerows to act as a net C sink.

30 **Keywords:** Agriculture; Agroforestry; Carbon budget; Carbon dioxide; Grassland; Landscape.

31 **1. Introduction**

Agricultural activities account for ~15% of the total global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions 32 33 that contribute to climate change (IPCC, 2014). Currently, agriculture is responsible for ~50 Mt carbon dioxide (CO₂) equivalent or 10% of total UK emissions (Defra, 2017), predominantly 34 attributed to the livestock sector. Land management strategies that increase climate change 35 regulation are therefore of major interest to policy makers (Thiel et al., 2015). One such 36 37 strategy is agroforestry, defined as the practice of growing trees together with livestock and/or crops for a variety of benefits, including silvopasture, riparian planting, shelterbelts 38 and hedgerows (Kim et al., 2016). The potential of existing and new farmland hedgerows, 39 defined as lines of trees and shrubs typically managed by regular cutting (Baudry et al., 2000), 40 to provide climate change mitigation via carbon (C) storage has been increasingly recognised 41 over the past decade (Wolton et al., 2014; Scholefield et al., 2016). Despite this, accurate 42 43 estimates of hedgerow C storage in temperate agroecosystems are rare, with both aboveand below-ground biomass (Thiel et al., 2015; Axe et al., 2017), soil CO₂ efflux (Thiel et al., 44 2017) and soil organic carbon (SOC) storage (Amadi et al., 2016; Ford et al., 2019) largely 45

unknown, or assessed in combination with other agroforestry systems (Ma et al., 2020).
Assessment of hedgerow C budgets at the landscape scale are infrequent and either rely on
modelled data (Falloon et al., 2004), focus solely on soil organic carbon (SOC) stock (Walter
et al., 2003), or have limited scope for extrapolation to a European setting (Smuckler et al.,
2010).

51 In agroforestry systems, soil CO₂ efflux was consistently found to be greater under or adjacent to trees, hedgerows or shelterbelts than within arable cropped or pasture fields further away 52 53 from the woody plants (Peichl et al., 2006; Amadi et al., 2016; Amadi et al., 2017; Baah-Acheamfour et al., 2016; Baah-Achemfour et al., 2017; Thiel et al., 2017), with relatively few 54 studies showing the opposite trend (Franzleubbers et al., 2017). Greater soil CO₂ efflux 55 adjacent to trees was attributed to: i) enhanced fine root turnover and rhizodeposition 56 57 increasing availability of C-rich root exudates for the microbial community (Stevenson et al., 2004; Peichl et al., 2006; Maier et al., 2011), with soil CO₂ efflux positively associated with 58 59 total SOC and particulate organic matter (Bailey et al., 2009); or ii) a modification in the soil 60 physical structure [i.e. a reduction in soil bulk density (Amadi et al., 2016), and decrease in soil moisture content that combine to create aerobic conditions that promote decomposition 61 62 processes (Amadi et al., 2017)]. In contrast, the soil CO₂ efflux in broadleaved or coniferous forests was reduced by up to 20%, compared with neighbouring grassland or pasture (Raich 63 and Tufekcioglu, 2000; Smith and Johnson, 2004; Kellman et al., 2007; Hiltbrunner et al., 64 65 2013), attributed largely to a vegetation-mediated reduction in soil temperature (Smith et al., 2003). 66

In addition to the location of trees in the agricultural environment, silvopastoral carbon
storage and soil CO₂ efflux are influenced by several factors including soil type, livestock-

grazing intensity and climatic conditions. SOC is positively associated with soil clay content 69 70 (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000), as mineral-associated soil organic matter (SOM) is physically protected from microbial decomposition by adsorption onto silt and clay minerals within the 71 soil (Lavallee et al., 2019). Livestock grazing, particularly in temperate dry-cool climates 72 73 (aerobic soil), is often associated with increased allocation of plant resources below-ground, 74 with enhanced below-ground biomass and root turnover (Kemp and Michalk, 2007), coupled 75 with 'hotspots' of CO₂ emissions from livestock dung (Lin et al., 2009), leading to greater soil 76 CO₂ efflux from intensively-grazed than extensively- or un-grazed grasslands (Abdalla et al., 2018). In contrast, livestock-grazing in temperate moist-cool climates, where seasonally 77 78 water-logged soils (prone to compaction via livestock trampling) are common, promotes 79 anaerobic soil conditions with suppressed CO₂ efflux and enhanced SOC storage (Wiesmeier et al., 2013; Abdalla et al., 2018). 80

In this study we assess the contribution of hedgerows to annual C budgets of livestock-grazed 81 82 pasture land (in the UK maritime climate) on two contrasting soil types, with a particular focus on soil CO₂ efflux. We hypothesise that soil CO₂ efflux is: i) closely associated with soil 83 temperature, soil moisture (aerobic versus anaerobic conditions) and distance from 84 85 hedgerow, which is linked to grazing occurrence; ii) influenced more by the presence of a biotic than an abiotic field boundary (via a decrease in soil temperature and moisture close 86 to the hedgerow relative to more distant pasture). In addition, we aim to combine data on 87 88 soil CO₂ efflux with proxies for above- and below-ground net primary productivity to quantify the contribution of hedgerows to annual C budgets, for a range of hedgerow land cover 89 scenarios (1-8% cover). 90

92 **2. Material and methods**

93 2.1 Study area and sampling design

94 The study area consisted of two sites, located on two tenanted mixed livestock farms 95 (primarily Welsh mountain sheep, with some beef cattle) within the county of Conwy, in Wales, UK, both within the River Conwy catchment. These two sites were chosen to represent 96 two contrasting soil drainage types present within the study catchment (Fig. S1): i) seasonally-97 wet soil (SW) with impeded drainage (53.033457°, -3.747871°); and ii) free-draining soil (FD) 98 99 (53.037096°, -3.712010°), with soils of intermediate drainage excluded. Soils were classified 100 for each site using a combination of the UK Soilscapes soil map, World reference base for 101 soils, and previous field measurements (Table 1): i) SW site – slowly permeable silty-clay stagnosol; and ii) FD site – silty-clay loam cambisol. The two sites were characterised by semi-102 improved pasture fields with a mixture of productive grass species (e.g. Lolium perenne), in 103 most cases mixed with clover (Trifolium spp., which is N-fixing), forbs and mosses, bordered 104 105 by either hedgerows or stone walls as typical field boundaries (Fig. S1). Both sites were 106 categorised as poor (low fertility grade 4 or 5) agricultural land (Agricultural Land Classification of England and Wales, 2018). The maritime climate of Conwy (north-west 107 108 Wales) is characterised by greater rainfall than most UK regions, with mean annual precipitation close to 2,500 mm (https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/maps-and-109 110 data/uk-actual-and-anomaly-maps). Conwy air temperatures are generally mid-range for the 111 UK, with mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures of 12 and 6 °C respectively.

Three study field boundaries were selected across the two sites (Fig. S1): i) hedgerow on SW soil, ii) hedgerow on FD soil, iii) stone wall (as an abiotic control) on FD soil. Only field boundaries running perpendicular to a slope of consistent gradient (5 to 10°) were considered

for selection, with boundaries adjacent to fields with known field drains excluded. Field 115 boundaries were also excluded if there was evidence of bare earth or soil poaching adjacent 116 to the boundary (\leq 3 m perpendicular to the boundary) indicating congregation of livestock 117 (associated with enhanced nutrient inputs and localised compaction). Study plots were 118 located \geq 5 m away from gateways or gaps in the boundary through which livestock and 119 120 vehicles could travel (which are associated with high levels of localised soil compaction). 121 Characteristics of each boundary are summarised in Table 1. For each boundary, one 30 x 20 122 m study plot was selected, incorporating an area 10 m upslope and 10 m downslope of the study boundary (Fig. 1). Three transect lines (10 m apart) were set up within each study plot, 123 124 running perpendicular to the boundary, with each sampling point referenced relative to the centre of the hedgerow or the edge of the stone wall. At six sampling points along each 125 transect line (three upslope and three downslope, see Fig. 1), cylindrical collars (100 mm 126 127 diameter, 100 mm length) for measurement of soil respiration were inserted into the soil to 128 a depth of 50 mm, one month prior to the start of the study. The study design was structured, 129 comparative observational, not experimental or manipulative.

130 *2.2 Monthly measurements*

Daytime soil CO₂ efflux was recorded once per month for one year, from July 2017 to June 2018. Soil respiration from all three boundaries was recorded within 48 hours during similar weather conditions. Soil CO₂ efflux was measured at each collar sampling point, after aboveground biomass was clipped to ground level, by a portable CO₂ gas analyser, either a LI-COR survey system [via a 10 cm survey chamber (8100-102, LI-COR) attached to the analyser control unit (LI-8100A, LI-COR)] or an EGM-5 [(PP SYSTEMS) attached to a 10 cm soil respiration chamber (SRC-2, PP SYSTEMS)]. For each month's measurements only one type of 138 gas analyser was used for all soil CO₂ efflux measurements. These two portable CO₂ gas analyser systems were compared under field conditions in agricultural grasslands in the River 139 Conwy catchment equivalent to the present study and found to produce extremely similar 140 results with no significant difference (p = 0.98) by Mills et al. (2011). Linear fluxes were 141 calculated using SoilFluxPro (v4.0.1, LI-COR Biosciences). The accuracy of CO₂ (ppm) detection 142 in both LI-COR and EGM-5 gas analysers was measured using British Oxygen Company (BOC, 143 UK) standard gases (250, 500, 1250 and 2500 CO₂ ppm). To bring fluxes from each gas analyser 144 145 in line with the standard gases the following conversions were used for the LI-COR [field measured soil CO₂ efflux rate (μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹) x 1.04 = corrected soil CO₂ efflux rate (μ mol 146 $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)] and EGM-5 [field measured soil CO_2 efflux rate (g $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) x 1.02 = corrected 147 soil CO₂ efflux rate (g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹)]. The EGM-5 corrected soil CO₂ efflux rate was converted 148 from g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ to μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹ by multiplying the soil CO₂ efflux rate (g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) by 149 150 6.312.

Adjacent to each sampling point, soil temperature (10 cm depth, Checktemp thermometer)
and soil moisture content (0-8 cm depth, Theta Probe ML2x and Moisture Meter HH2, DeltaT Devices Ltd) were recorded once during each monthly gas-flux sampling occasion.

154 2.3 Estimation of C availability

Soil cores (0.15 m deep, 0.05 m diameter) for the measurement of SOC stock were sampled once (during autumn) alongside each un-grazed sampling points for both the SW (n = 3) and the FD (n = 3) hedgerows. Soil cores were also collected in the grazed pasture at 1.2 m from the boundary fence of the SW and FD hedgerows as part of measurements published in Ford et al. (2019). SOC concentration (g kg⁻¹ of dry soil mass) was calculated using the conversion factor of 0.55 of SOM mass, with SOC stock (kg C m⁻²) of the 0-0.15 m depth re-calculated on an equivalent soil mass (ESM) basis, a layer of 1,000 t ha⁻¹ as in Lee et al. (2009); for a full description of the methods see Ford et al. (2019). Here, SOC stock is expressed on an ESM basis in kg C m⁻² to allow SOC stock to be compared uncoupled from the influence of soil compaction.

165 2.4 Data analysis

Linear mixed-effects models were used to determine associations between: i) soil CO₂ efflux 166 167 rate and six potential explanatory variables [soil temperature, soil moisture, month, slope position (upslope versus downslope), distance (perpendicular distance from boundary at 0.7 168 m, 2 m and 10 m, see Fig. 1) and grazing occurrence (two-level categorical variable 169 170 incorporating proximity to hedgerow: close-to-hedgerow un-grazed zone at 0.7 m from the hedgerow from which livestock were excluded by the fence versus further-from-hedgerow 171 172 grazed pasture at 2 m or 10 m from the hedgerow, see Fig. 1)]; ii) soil temperature and four 173 explanatory variables (distance, grazing occurrence, month and slope position); and iii) soil moisture and four explanatory variables (distance, grazing occurrence, month, slope 174 175 position). These analyses were carried out for soil adjacent to the following three field boundaries: i) SW hedgerow; ii) FD hedgerow; iii) FD stone wall and iv) data from all three 176 177 field boundaries combined. For all sets of linear mixed-effects models, normal distribution of modelled variables was assessed visually using quantile-quantile plots with variables log 178 transformed to improve fit where necessary. Best model fit was selected on the basis of 179 180 lowest Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) value. Likelihood-ratio-based pseudo-R-squared values were also calculated for each model, using R package 'MuMIn' (Bartoń, 2018). Results 181 182 were presented using the ANOVA output of the mixed effects models for ease of 183 interpretation. All statistical analysis was carried out in R (R Core Team, 2018).

184 Further analysis was carried out for the growing season of May-September (October-April data excluded), when hedgerows were in full leaf, using a step-wise regression approach. 185 Step-wise regressions 'forwards and backwards' were carried out in the 'MASS' package 186 187 (Venables and Ripley, 2002) using linear models of i) soil CO₂ efflux rate (response variable) 188 and five potential explanatory variables (soil temperature, soil moisture, slope position, 189 distance and grazing occurrence); ii) soil temperature (response variable) and three 190 explanatory variables (slope position, distance and grazing occurrence); iii) soil moisture 191 (response variable) and three explanatory variables (slope position, distance and grazing occurrence). As month influences both soil temperature and moisture it was excluded as an 192 193 explanatory variable due to potentially confounding effects. This analysis was carried out 194 (using May to September data only) for: i) the SW hedgerow; ii) the FD hedgerow; iii) the FD stone wall; iv) data from all three field boundaries combined. Explanatory variables were only 195 196 entered into the step-wise regression if hierarchical partitioning (http://cran.r-197 <u>project.org/package=hier.part</u>) analysis assessed them to have \geq 5% independent effects. 198 Results of the stepwise regression displayed a 'final model' selected by lowest AIC, usually with fewer variables than the 'initial model'. From this model the individual contribution of 199 200 each remaining environmental variable to the overall variation explained was calculated using the 'Img' function of the 'relaimpo' package (Grömping, 2006) using simple unweighted 201 202 averages as recommended.

The apparent temperature sensitivity of soil respiration, assumed here to be equivalent to soil CO₂ efflux (as in Domínguez et al., 2017), was assessed for: i) SW pasture (further-fromhedgerow, grazed); ii) SW close-to-hedgerow (un-grazed); iii) FD pasture (further-fromhedgerow, grazed); iv) FD close-to-hedgerow (un-grazed); v) data from both hedgerows (i-iv) and stone walls combined, for two scenarios: drought period-included (12 month dataset)

and drought period-excluded (11 month dataset). Soil respiration (soil CO₂ efflux) data were fitted against soil temperature (at 10 cm depth) using an exponential function: SR = ae^{bT} , where SR is soil respiration, T is soil temperature, and a and b are fitted constants. Q₁₀ values (increase in soil respiration per 10 °C increase in temperature) were calculated as Q₁₀ = e^{10b} (Suseela et al., 2012).

213 2.5 Annual carbon budgets

An annual C budget was calculated for two land cover types: i) un-grazed zone close to 214 215 hedgerows; and ii) livestock-grazed pasture further from hedgerows, on two contrasting soil 216 types, FD (brown earth) and SW (stagnogley). Annual soil CO₂ efflux rates were calculated 217 from monthly means (12 months inclusive) for the grazed pasture [10 m sampling point (mean value of upslope and downslope) perpendicular to field boundary] and the un-grazed zone 218 adjacent to the hedgerow [0.7 m sampling point (mean value of upslope and downslope) 219 220 perpendicular to field boundary and protected by the livestock-exclusion fences] for both FD 221 and SW sites and converted into t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. As CO₂ efflux was not recorded in December 222 for the SW site, modelled values (using the drought-included Q₁₀ relationship, Table 3) were used to provide realistic data for this site-month combination. Results were expressed as 223 drought period-included (12 month dataset, detailed above) and drought period-excluded 224 [calculated as above but with field-measured soil CO₂ efflux rates for the drought period of 225 226 May and June removed and replaced with modelled values (using the drought-excluded Q_{10} 227 relationship, Table 3) to give a 12-month dataset] scenarios, to illustrate the potential impact 228 of seasonal drought. The two month period May-June 2018 was defined as a drought period in the River Conwy catchment, with a mean Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) of -1 229 (Centre for Ecology and Hydrology UK Drought Tool <u>https://eip.ceh.ac.uk/apps/droughts/</u>, 230

baseline comparison data 1961-2010), and mean precipitation rate of < 1.5 mm day⁻¹ (based
on *in-situ* weather stations). Over the 20-year 2000-2020 period a May-June drought of similar
magnitude was relatively unusual (15%). In contrast, July-August 2017 was not considered a
drought period (as the River Conwy catchment had a mean SPI of 1) despite relatively low soil
moisture being recorded on the measurement days for July and August in SW soil in the
present study.

237 Above-ground net primary productivity (ANPP) values for the livestock-grazed pasture and 238 the un-grazed hedgerow zone were taken from the measurements made in semi-improved pasture and broadleaved woodland respectively at other sites in the Conwy River catchment 239 by Smart et al. (2016). Values for fine-root biomass to 15 cm depth were taken from the 240 measurements made in semi-improved pasture and broadleaved woodland in the Conwy 241 242 River catchment by Smart et al. (2017) with this depth assumed to account for 100% of grass and 70% of hedgerow woody plant fine-root biomass (broadleaved woodland data; Macinnis-243 244 Ng et al., 2010) respectively, with fine-root hedgerow woody plant biomass adjusted 245 accordingly (total root biomass = root biomass 0-15 cm depth x 1.3). Below-ground net 246 primary productivity (BNPP) was calculated from the adjusted fine-root biomass, using a root turnover rate of 0.5 yr⁻¹ suitable for both grassland and woodland habitats (Gill and Jackson, 247 2000), and converted to t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Soil CO₂ efflux rates (C source), and ANPP and BNPP 248 (C sinks) were combined to give a comparative flux estimate (either net C source or sink with 249 a value in t CO_2 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) for each combination of soil type (SW / FD), cover type (pasture / 250 hedgerow) and drought condition (included / excluded). 251

252 2.6 Scaling up

To predict the estimated effect of enhanced hedgerow cover on annual C budgets at a 253 254 landscape scale, changes in the CO₂ flux estimate under a range of greater hedgerow cover scenarios (based on a model 1-ha field) compared with a baseline of 100% pasture (0% 255 hedgerow cover) were calculated. Values for seasonally-wet (SW) versus free-draining (FD) 256 257 soils under two drought scenarios (included versus excluded, for full description see section 2.5) for either pasture or hedgerow features were extrapolated from net C source / sink value 258 calculations (as in section 2.5) and adjusted according to the relative percentage of pasture 259 and hedgerow cover. For example, a hedgerow density of 50 m ha⁻¹ with 2 m width is 260 equivalent to 1% hedgerow cover (99% pasture cover), reflecting current UK hedgerow 261 density. Hedgerow densities of 200 m ha⁻¹ (4% cover) and 400 m ha⁻¹ (8% cover) were 262 presented as two possible options on the projected hedgerow cover continuum. For this 263 scaling-up exercise all hedgerows were assumed to be double-fenced to exclude livestock. 264

265 **3. Results**

266 *3.1 Monthly measurements*

267 Soil CO₂ efflux rate was significantly associated with four variables: i) grazing occurrence (positive, P < 0.001); ii) soil temperature (positive, P < 0.05); iii) soil moisture (negative, P < 268 0.05); iv) month (P < 0.001), with two significant interaction terms [month x soil temperature 269 270 (P < 0.001) and month x soil moisture (P < 0.001)], for the year-long dataset for soil adjacent to all three contrasting field boundaries combined (SW hedgerow, FD hedgerow and FD stone 271 wall). This model explained close to three quarters of the variation in soil CO₂ efflux rate (r^2 = 272 273 0.74). When the three field boundaries were considered separately, soil CO₂ efflux was significantly associated with soil temperature, moisture and month for soil adjacent to both 274 the SW and FD hedgerows (Figs. 2a, 3a), with grazing occurrence an additional explanatory 275

factor for the FD hedgerow. These combined models explained over 80% of the variation in soil CO₂ efflux ($r^2 = 0.82-0.88$). For soil adjacent to the stone wall (FD), 74% of the variation in soil CO₂ efflux was explained by soil temperature and moisture. Apparent temperature sensitivity of soil respiration (soil CO₂ efflux) was greater in the livestock-grazed pasture than in the un-grazed zone associated with the hedgerow for both SW and FD sites (Table 2).

281 Soil temperature was significantly related to both perpendicular distance from boundary and month, for each of the three field boundaries (Figs. 2b, 3b, 4b), with temperature consistently 282 283 greatest further away from the boundary edge. In addition, for each hedgerow category (SW 284 and FD) soil temperature was positively associated with grazing occurrence. Soil moisture was significantly positively associated with grazing occurrence and with month for each (SW and 285 FD) hedgerow category with 80 and 87% of variation in soil moisture explained respectively 286 287 (Figs. 2c, 3c). The main difference was apparent between the un-grazed soil close to the hedgerow inside the boundary fence, which exhibited significantly lower soil moisture 288 289 content than soil either 2 m or 10 m from the hedgerow, in the livestock-grazed part of the 290 field (outside the boundary fence). There was no significant association between soil moisture and distance from boundary for the stone wall control site, which had no fencing (Fig. 4c). 291 292 Slope position (upslope versus downslope) from the boundary was not significantly associated 293 with soil CO_2 efflux rate, soil temperature or soil moisture for either the three field boundary types combined or for each separately. 294

295 *3.2 Estimate of SOC stock*

For the FD site SOC stock was very similar between the grazed pasture ($6.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ kg C m}^{-2}$) and the un-grazed zone adjacent to the hedgerow ($6.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ kg C m}^{-2}$). For the SW site SOC stock

was greater adjacent to the hedgerow (un-grazed) than in the grazed pasture (21 \pm 2 and 10 \pm 0.3 kg C m⁻² respectively).

300 *3.3 Growing season only*

For the growing season (May-September), results were largely in line with those for the annual datasets (*section 3.1*), with distance from hedgerow/grazing occurrence (grazed *versus* un-grazed) a significant independent (as assessed by hierarchical partitioning) explanatory variable of soil CO_2 efflux, soil temperature and soil moisture for both SW and FD hedgerows (Table 3); all increased with distance/grazing (Figs 2 and 3).

306 *3.4 Annual carbon budgets*

For the FD (brown earth) soil site, the annual C budget (based on soil CO₂ efflux and net 307 308 primary productivity) showed a marked difference between livestock-grazed pasture and the un-grazed zone adjacent to the hedgerow (Fig. 5), with the pasture acting as a net source of 309 C (10.8 ± 1.5 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the hedgerow zone as a net sink (-0.9 ± 2.2 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). 310 This result is entirely due to the large reduction in annual soil CO₂ efflux rate adjacent to the 311 hedgerow compared with the grazed pasture (of 20.5 and 33.9 t CO_2 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ respectively). 312 313 For the drought period-excluded scenario the pasture remained a net source of C of 314 comparative magnitude but the strength of the C sink in the soil adjacent to the hedgerow was increased six-fold to $-6.5 \pm 0.7 \text{ t CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. For the SW (stagnogley) site, the annual C 315 budget also showed a marked difference between livestock-grazed pasture and the un-grazed 316 zone adjacent to the hedgerow (Fig. 5), but in the opposite direction to the FD site, with the 317 pasture acting as a small net sink of C (-0.12 \pm 1.3 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the hedgerow as a net 318 source (5.8 \pm 0.8 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). For the drought period-excluded scenario the pasture 319

remained a small net C sink, with the hedgerow zone reverting from a net source to a large net C sink (-9.9 \pm 0.3 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

322 *3.5 Scaling up*

With greater hedgerow land-cover, in fields on FD soil the estimated annual CO₂ flux became more negative (greater net sink), based on modelled prediction compared with a baseline of no hedgerows, with drought reducing the size of this effect (Fig. 6). In fields on SW soils, greater hedgerow cover also caused a more negative annual CO₂ flux estimate under the 'drought-excluded' scenario (by ~0.4 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at 8% hedgerow cover), but caused a more positive flux (net C source) under the summer 'drought period-included' scenario (by ~0.5 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at 8% hedgerow cover).

330 **4. Discussion**

4.1 Soil CO₂ efflux: Temperature, moisture and grazing occurrence

In this study, soil CO₂ efflux was closely associated with soil temperature and soil moisture, 332 333 but affected more by grazing occurrence (close-to-hedgerow un-grazed zone versus furtherfrom-hedgerow grazed pasture), than distance from hedgerows per se, leading to a partial 334 acceptance of our first hypothesis. Seasonal soil temperature was one of the key abiotic 335 336 factors regulating soil CO₂ efflux in this study, with an increase in soil temperature associated with greater soil CO₂ efflux, as expected in temperate ecosystems (Smith et al., 2003). 337 Daytime soil temperatures during the May to September growing season were reduced by 3-338 339 5 °C within the un-grazed zone adjacent to both study hedgerows (Figs. 2, 3), relative to the short-sward pasture, which is likely to be due to the combined sheltering effect of the 340 hedgerow itself and the understorey plant layer. This vegetation-mediated buffering of 341

extreme temperatures is well recognised (Stevenson et al., 2004) and largely explains the 342 lower soil CO₂ efflux associated with hedgerows for the majority of the year. Annual apparent 343 temperature sensitivity of soil respiration (soil CO₂ efflux) was high (Q₁₀ values of 5-10) in 344 345 comparison with the global biome mean of 1.43-2.03 (Zhou et al., 2009), but indicative of ecosystems where seasonality is marked (Domínguez et al., 2017) and Q_{10} values are 346 regulated by vegetation activity (Wang et al., 2010). Here, apparent Q₁₀ values were greater 347 348 in livestock-grazed pasture than in the un-grazed zone adjacent to hedgerows in both 349 contrasting soil types (Table 3) indicating that other variables (e.g. soil moisture) may partially 350 regulate the temperature dependency of soil CO₂ efflux adjacent to un-grazed hedgerows.

Soil CO₂ efflux was negatively associated with soil moisture content, as is usual in agricultural 351 grasslands (Abdalla et al., 2018), with soil CO₂ efflux far greater in FD than SW pasture. 352 Constantly aerobic FD pasture is often associated with greater resource allocation below 353 ground and enhanced fine root turnover, leading to greater soil CO₂ efflux than for SW soils 354 355 that are periodically anaerobic, where below-ground allocation and turnover are minimised and soil organic C storage is enhanced (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000; Wiesmeier et al., 2013; 356 Abdalla et al., 2018). Soil moisture was reduced by the presence of hedgerows, with effects 357 358 most marked within the 2-m un-grazed zone associated with the hedgerow itself, due to a 359 probable combination of woody plant roots extracting soil moisture from the soil (Kowalchuk and de Jong, 1995) and an enhanced water infiltration rate due to the absence of grazing 360 361 compaction (Marshall et al., 2009). Recent evidence shows that soil moisture levels moderate 362 the temperature dependency of soil CO₂ efflux (Lellei-Kovacs et al., 2016), particularly at soil temperatures > 10° C, common during spring and summer in UK uplands. During the initial 363 364 summer drought-period, the CO₂ efflux of SW soils was much greater in the recently dry ungrazed hedgerow zone than in the relatively wetter pasture, despite a soil temperature 365

differential of < 2° C. This mirrors results from UK shrubland (Lellei-Kovacs et al., 2016) and
 illustrates the importance of incorporating soil moisture into predictive models of soil CO₂
 efflux.

Soil CO₂ efflux was positively correlated with the occurrence of livestock grazing in this study, 369 with effects particularly noticeable for the growing season. This grazing effect can be 370 371 explained partly by the influence of livestock on soil temperature-moisture dynamics (as detailed above), but the independent grazing effects identified (Table 4) may be due to 372 373 preferential allocation of plant resources below-ground (Kemp and Michalk, 2007) and/or CO₂ 374 emissions from livestock dung (Lin et al., 2009). In addition, grazing occurrence was a stronger indicator of soil CO₂ efflux than distance from hedgerow, indicating a swift transition between 375 the un-grazed zone associated with the study hedgerows and grazed pasture at the hedgerow 376 377 livestock-exclusion fence, particularly in FD soil (Fig. 3). It is possible that soil CO₂ efflux was also influenced by broad differences in root exudate C sources available to the soil microbial 378 379 community (Stevenson et al., 2004) based on the proximity of sample points to woody or 380 pasture plants, but this was not measured directly.

381 *4.2 Biotic versus abiotic field boundaries*

Soil CO₂ efflux was influenced more by the presence of a biotic than an abiotic field boundary, with the un-grazed zone associated with the hedgerow characterised by lower soil temperature and soil moisture relative to more distant pasture, supporting our third hypothesis. Summer soil temperature was reduced, but only by ≤ 1 °C, in the immediate vicinity of the stone wall (Fig. 4), illustrating the difference between biotic and abiotic field boundaries in their buffering of soil temperature and thus regulation of soil CO₂ efflux. Despite limited evidence of stone walls reducing run off and enhancing water infiltration rates

(Kovář et al., 2011; Rodrigo-Comino et al., 2019) this type of abiotic field boundary did not
influence soil moisture dynamics in the present study.

391 4.3 Carbon budgets

392 Annual C budgets of hedgerows and livestock-grazed pasture, on two contrasting soil types typical of UK uplands, were calculated by combining data on soil CO₂ efflux with proxies for 393 394 above- and below-ground net primary productivity. In this study, livestock-grazed pastures 395 acted as a small net C sink in SW soil and a net source in FD soil, in line with the results of 396 Abdalla et al. (2018), with the drought period having only a minimal effect on carbon sinksource dynamics. Hedgerows, including the soil of their adjacent un-grazed zones, were net C 397 sinks under the drought period-excluded scenario, storing 6-10 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Fig. 5), which 398 is substantially lower than the 15-40 t CO_2 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ stored in agroforestry systems according 399 to a review of C budgets (Kim et al., 2016), although this review included a broad range of 400 401 agroforestry types and did not include hedgerows specifically. Under the drought period-402 included scenario, hedgerows remained a net, though smaller in magnitude, C sink in FD soil 403 (of ~1 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) but became a net C source in SW soil (~6 t CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) due to a doubling of CO₂ efflux (relative to the drought-excluded scenario). This huge spike in soil CO₂ efflux in 404 SW soil occurred entirely within the first month of the drought period and coincided with a 405 406 sudden switch from moist-cool to dry-warm soil conditions. This mirrors the transition from 407 flooded to non-flooded conditions in forested wetland and seasonally flooded forests (Miao 408 et al., 2013; Barbosa et al., 2017), where newly aerobic soil stimulates root growth and 409 decomposition of SOM (including necromass accumulated via root death during anaerobic period), enhancing autotrophic/microbial respiration and subsequent CO₂ efflux (Peichl et al., 410 2006; Amadi et al., 2017). 411

Here, we assessed the potential for farmland hedgerows to provide climate change mitigation 413 414 via carbon storage, attempted previously by Falloon et al. (2004), using measured soil CO₂ efflux to improve the validity of upscaling. At present total UK hedgerow land cover is 415 ~400,000 km (Elliot et al., 2014; Scholefield et al., 2016), equivalent to 50 m ha⁻¹ across the 416 417 whole agricultural land area. At this level (1% land cover) the impact of hedgerows on the C budget at a landscape scale was minimal for both FD and SW soils. However, the capacity of 418 419 the farmland landscape to act as a C sink was enhanced by increased hedgerow cover (in scenarios up to 8% cover). This effect is in accord with previous studies of pastures in Europe 420 and USA, where a positive contribution of hedgerows to SOC storage was reported (Walter et 421 422 al., 2003; Smuckler et al., 2010; Lacoste et al., 2015). Although this pattern holds for both soil 423 types under the drought period-excluded scenario, the capacity for hedgerows to contribute 424 to a net C sink at the landscape scale was reversed in SW soil during periods of drought (Fig. 425 6); in these conditions increased hedgerow cover resulted in greater C emissions. Although 426 informative, with potentially important implications for C storage capacity, data for the earlysummer drought scenario are from only 2 months duration, associated with a relatively 427 428 unusual climatic event for the UK maritime conditions, and should therefore be extrapolated 429 with caution. Relative abundance of soil types is also relevant to this upscaling exercise. If we exclude peat soils [where neither livestock-grazing or tree-planting is advised (Ostle et al., 430 431 2009)], FD and SW (including impeded drainage) soil types each equate to approximately one 432 half of Welsh upland land-cover respectively (Hallett et al., 2017). However, as this approach amalgamates related soils into two broad categories on the basis of drainage, future work 433 434 could take a more nuanced approach by studying pasture-hedgerow dynamics across a wider range of UK or upland soil types. 435

436 4.5 Implications for policy makers

Carbon budgets were modelled for a range of hedgerow land cover scenarios (1-8%), either 437 438 including or excluding the effect of a naturally-occurring early-summer drought period. Under 439 the drought-excluded scenario, the un-grazed zone adjacent to hedgerows acted as a net C 440 sink in both the contrasting soil types, allowing an increase in C stored with greater hedgerow 441 cover. Taken in isolation this result could be used as evidence to promote hedgerow planting on agricultural land, regardless of soil type, in an attempt to meet climate change mitigation 442 443 targets via C storage. However, during drought conditions, hedgerow-associated soil CO₂ efflux increased markedly, effectively 'pausing' the effect of hedgerow cover as a C storage 444 mechanism. Moreover, on the SW soils characteristic of some upland farms in the UK (Hallett 445 et al., 2017), the sudden change in soil temperature and moisture dynamics associated with 446 447 a drought period triggered a spike in CO₂ efflux that turned hedgerows into a net annual C source. As a result, greater hedgerow cover (up to 8%) could potentially increase net C 448 449 emissions, although our evidence base for this conclusion is limited. Our study illustrates the importance of considering the impact of soil type and seasonal extreme events such as 450 drought on the capacity of hedgerows to act as a net C sink, with clear implications for policy 451 452 makers and land managers tasked with meeting the objective of minimising the net CO2 emissions from farmland. 453

454 Acknowledgements

All authors acknowledge the financial support provided by the Welsh Government and Higher
Education Funding Council for Wales through the Sêr Cymru National Research Network for
Low Carbon, Energy and Environment. Thanks are also due to the National Trust and the
Fferm Ifan group who allowed access to their land.

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635 Tables

Table 1. Characteristics of the two contrasting soil types in this study.

Soil type ¹	Seasonally-wet (SW)	Free-draining (FD)
Soil classification (UK) ²	Stagnogley	Brown earth
Soil classification (Worldwide) ³	Stagnosol	Cambisol
Soil texture ⁴	Silty-clay	Silty-clay loam
Sand / silt / clay (%) ³	0-20 / 40-60 / 40-60	0-20 / 40-73 / 27-40
pH ⁴	5.7 ± 0.1	5.5 ± 0.1
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³) ⁴	0.64 ± 0.04	0.89 ± 0.04

637 ¹As referred to in this paper

638 ²UK Soilscapes soil map (<u>http://www.landis.org.uk/soilscapes/</u>)

639 ³World reference base for soils (WRB; http://www.fao.org/soils-portal/soil-survey/soil-classification/world-

640 reference-base/en/; <u>http://www.fao.org/3/i3794en/I3794en.pdf</u>)

641 ⁴Field measurements <10 m from study sites (Ford et al., 2019)

642

643

Table 2. Characteristics of the three field boundary categories used in this study, for exact

646 location see Fig. S1.

Boundary	SW Hedgerow	FD Hedgerow	FD Stone wall
Site characteristics			
Location	SW site	FD site	FD site
Soil type	Stagnogley	Brown earth	Brown earth
Drainage	Seasonally-wet, impeded	Free-draining	Free-draining
Slope	Shallow (~5°)	Steep (~10°)	Steep (~10°)
Grazing	Sheep all year, cattle	Sheep all year, cattle	Sheep all year, cattle
	(May-June)	(March-November)	(March-November)
Pasture	Semi-improved grass with patches of <i>Juncus</i> spp.	Semi-improved	Semi-improved
Silage cut ¹	Yes (but not during study period due to drought)	No	No
Boundary characteristics			
Hedgerow composition	Prunus spinosa (60%),	Crataegus monogyna	па
	Corylus avellana (40%)	(70%), P. spinosa (15%)	
		C. avellana (15%)	
Hedgerow understory	Urtica dioica, Galium	U. dioica, Cirsium	na
	aparine	vulgare, Ranunculus	
		repens	
Management	Biennially cut, H ~2 m	Biennially cut, H ~2 m	na
Age	40 years	10 years	In situ ~100 years
Size	W = 2 m, H = 2 m	W = 1 m, H = 2 m	W = 0.6 m, H = 1.2 m
Fence	Double ² , 2 m wide	Double ² , 2m wide	na

647 SW = seasonally-wet soil, FD = free-draining soil

648 W = width, H = height, *na* = non-applicable

¹Silage cut refers to annual management where semi-improved pasture is routinely cut and removed for use as

650 silage (winter animal feed).

²Double fenced at 2 m wide refers to the total width of the livestock exclusion zone across both sides of the

hedgerow (see Fig. 1).

Table 3. Apparent temperature sensitivity of soil respiration (soil CO₂ efflux) expressed as Q₁₀
values for both grazed (G) pasture and the un-grazed (U) zone adjacent to the hedgerow on
both seasonally-wet (SW, stagnogley) and free-draining (FD, brown earth) soils. Two
scenarios, drought period-included (12-month dataset) and drought period-excluded (10
months with May and June removed) are presented.

Drought included		Drought excluded	
Q ₁₀	R ²	Q ₁₀	R ²
10.3	0.58	8.4	0.58
7.4	0.42	5.7	0.58
7.2	0.83	6.4	0.81
5.3	0.51	5.0	0.65
	Drought i Q ₁₀ 10.3 7.4 7.2 5.3	Drought included Q ₁₀ R ² 10.3 0.58 7.4 0.42 7.2 0.83 5.3 0.51	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c } \hline Drought included & Drought e \\ \hline Q_{10} & R^2 & Q_{10} \\ \hline 10.3 & 0.58 & 8.4 \\ \hline 7.4 & 0.42 & 5.7 \\ \hline 7.2 & 0.83 & 6.4 \\ \hline 5.3 & 0.51 & 5.0 \\ \hline \end{tabular}$

661	Table 4. Best fit models of soil CO ₂ efflux, temperature and moisture for soils adjacent to three
662	contrasting field boundary categories, two fenced hedgerows (inside fence, un-grazed at 0.7
663	m from hedgerow; outside fence, livestock-grazed pasture at 2 m and 10 m) on seasonally-
664	wet and free-draining soil respectively and one stone wall (livestock-grazed pasture at 0.7 m,
665	2 m and 10 m), using data from May to September when hedgerows are in full leaf. ANOVA
666	outputs of step-wise regression models are presented with explanatory variable information.
667	Models for the stone wall with soil temperature or soil moisture as response variables are not
668	shown as grazing did not vary and there was no significant association with distance from
669	boundary.

Boundary type	Response	Explanatory v1	Explanatory v2	Explanatory v3	F	Sig	R ²
All (n = 265)	SR	SM (30%)	G/U (40%)	ST (30%)	25.7	***	0.23
SW Hedgerow	SR	SM (64%)	G/U (36%)	-	9.72	***	0.18
FD Hedgerow	SR	SM (8%)	G/U (92%)	-	41.5	***	0.49
FD Stone wall	SR	ST (100%)	-	-	7.73	**	0.08
All (n = 265)	ST	G/U (100%)	-	n/a	59.8	***	0.18
SW Hedgerow	ST	D (100%)	-	n/a	14.73	***	0.15
FD Hedgerow	ST	G/U (100%)	-	n/a	20.7	***	0.19
All (n = 265)	SM	G/U (69%)	D (31%)	n/a	14.57	***	0.10
SW Hedgerow	SM	G/U (100%)	-	n/a	88.6	***	0.50
FD Hedgerow	SM	G/U (100%)	-	n/a	14.0	***	0.14

670 v = variable, F = F statistic, Sig = significance (**P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001), SW = seasonally-wet soil, FD = free-

draining soil, SR = soil CO₂ efflux, ST = soil temperature, SM = soil moisture, G/U = grazed/un-grazed categorical

672 variable, D = distance from boundary (0.7 m, 2 m or 10 m). (%) associated with v1, v2 and v3 values refers to %

 $673 \qquad of model \ R^2 \ explained \ by \ each \ variable.$

675 Figure legends

Fig. 1. Sampling schematic for biotic (hedgerow) and abiotic (stone wall) boundaries. SW =
seasonally-wet soil, FD = free-draining soil. The upslope and downslope parts of each transect
start from the centre of the hedgerow or directly adjacent to the edge of the stone wall. The
area adjacent to hedgerows within the livestock-exclusion boundary fence is un-grazed.

Fig. 2. Monthly measurements of soil adjacent to a hedgerow on seasonally-wet soil for a) soil 680 CO₂ efflux, b) soil temperature and c) soil moisture at three perpendicular distances from the 681 682 hedgerow [0.7 m (un-grazed); 2 m (grazed); 10 m (grazed)]. The r² value of the proportion of variation explained is given for the best-fit mixed effects model, with explanatory variable(s) 683 684 and interaction terms listed underneath. For panel b, letters (x, y, z) adjacent to lines denote significant differences between the three distance categories included in the legend (there 685 were no significant differences with distance for panels a and c). *** = P < 0.001, Temperature 686 = soil temperature, Moisture = soil moisture, Grazing = grazing occurrence (yes/no), Distance 687 688 = perpendicular distance from hedgerow, M = month, x = interaction between variables. 689 Monthly means for each distance are presented with error bars showing the standard error of the mean (n = 3). The grey shaded box indicates period of drought. 690

Fig. 3. Monthly measurements of soil adjacent to a hedgerow on free-draining soil for a) soil CO₂ efflux, b) soil temperature and c) soil moisture at three perpendicular distances from the hedgerow [0.7 m (un-grazed); 2 m (grazed); 10 m (grazed)]. The r² value of the proportion of variation explained is given for the best-fit mixed effects model, with explanatory variable(s) listed underneath. For panel b, letters (x, y, z) adjacent to lines denote significant differences between the three distance categories included in the legend (there were no significant differences with distance for panels a and c). *** = P < 0.001, Grazing = grazing occurrence

(yes/no), Distance = perpendicular distance from hedgerow, M = month. Monthly means for
each distance are presented with error bars showing the standard error of the mean (n = 3).
The grey shaded box indicates period of drought.

701 Fig. 4. Monthly measurements of soil adjacent to a stone wall on free-draining soil for a) soil 702 CO₂ efflux, b) soil temperature and c) soil moisture at three perpendicular distances from the wall [0.7 m (grazed); 2 m (grazed); 10 m (grazed)]. The r² value of the proportion of variation 703 704 explained is given for the best-fit mixed effects model, with explanatory variable(s) listed 705 underneath. For panel b, letters (x, y, z) adjacent to lines denote significant differences between the three distance categories included in the legend (there were no significant 706 differences with distance for panels a and c). ** = P < 0.01, *** = P < 0.001, Distance = 707 708 perpendicular distance from wall. Grazing is not included as an explanatory variable as all 709 distances are grazed. Monthly means for each distance are presented with error bars showing the standard error of the mean (n = 3). The grey shaded box indicates period of drought. 710

711 Fig. 5. Annual carbon (C) budget schematic illustrating the estimated effect of hedgerows and 712 livestock-grazed pasture on the C balance of both seasonally-wet (stagnogley) and freedraining (brown earth) soils. Annual soil CO₂ efflux (SR) rates were calculated from monthly 713 714 means (12 months inclusive) for the grazed (G) pasture and the un-grazed (U) zone adjacent to the hedgerow (protected by the livestock-exclusion fences) and shown in the drought 715 716 period-included (\checkmark) sections of the schematic. Soil CO₂ efflux for the drought period-excluded 717 scenario (×) was calculated from monthly means (July-April) but with field-measured soil CO₂ 718 efflux rates for the May-June drought period removed and replaced with modelled values 719 (using the drought-excluded Q₁₀ relationship) to give a 12-month dataset. Proxies for above-720 and below-ground net primary productivity (ANPP & BNPP) were calculated from published

data from the Conwy catchment. All figures are expressed in t CO_2 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, with ± standard error of the mean (n = 3) in parentheses. The symbols + and - denote a source of CO_2 to the atmosphere and a sink (storage) of CO_2 in plant biomass or soil respectively, with the values and arrows in black boxes indicative of net (plant + soil) ecosystem exchange. Methane and nitrous oxide fluxes are not included in these values.

726 Fig. 6. Change in CO₂ flux estimate under projected increased hedgerow cover scenarios 727 (based on a model 1-ha field) compared with a baseline of 100% pasture (0% hedgerow 728 cover). Values for seasonally-wet (SW) versus free-draining (FD) soils under two drought period scenarios (included versus excluded) were extrapolated from a C balance calculated 729 730 from published above- and below-ground net primary productivity (ANPP & BNPP) for the Conwy catchment and measured annual soil CO₂ efflux rates to determine net C source / sink 731 values (see Fig. 5). Hedgerow cover of 1% is equivalent to 50 m ha⁻¹ (double-fenced to exclude 732 livestock) at 2 m width, reflecting typical current UK hedgerow density. Hedgerow cover of 733 734 4% = 200 m ha⁻¹ (at 2 m width), 8% = 400 m ha⁻¹ (at 2 m width). Means for each hedgerow cover scenario are presented with error bars showing the standard error of the mean. 735





















Comparative flux estimate (t CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)					
了 = C source	Seasonally	/-wet soil	Freely-draining soil		
🗸 = C sink	Drought 🗸	Drought ×	Drought 🗸	Drought ×	
Pasture (G)	SR + 23.0 ± 1.3	SR + 18.2 ± 1.1	SR + 33.9 ± 1.8	SR + 29.9 ± 0.9	
ANPP - 17.3 ± 1.7 BNPP - 5.8 ± 0.9	- 0.12 ± 1.3	- 4.9 ± 1.2	+ 10.8 ± 1.5	+6.8±1.2	
Hedge (U)	SR + 27.1 ± 1.9	SR + 11.5 ± 0.4	SR + 20.5 ± 6.0	SR + 14.9 ± 1.5	
ANPP - 17.0 ± 0.4 BNPP - 4.4 ± 0.6	+ 5.8 ± 0.8	- 9.9 ± 0.3	- 0.9 ± 2.2	- 6.5 ± 0.7	

Fig. 5.



- 751 Appendix.
- 752 Supplementary appendix for 'Hedgerow effects on CO₂ emissions are regulated by soil type
- 753 and season: implications for carbon flux dynamics in livestock-grazed pasture'.
- 754





Fig. S1. Location of the two study sites and three field boundary categories used in this comparative observational study. FD site = site characterised by free-draining soil (brown earth), SW site = site characterised by seasonally-wet soil with impeded drainage (stagnogleys). Hedgerow boundaries (lines of trees) can be identified fairly easily from aerial images with stone wall and fence boundaries more difficult to distinguish.

761 Google Earth Pro V 7.3.2. (20th June 2018). Ysbyty Ifan, UK. 50.026679°, -3.743259, Eye alt 4.11 km.

762 DigitalGlobe 2018. http://www.earth.google.com [18th December 2018].

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